

Topology I—III, HU Berlin

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Preface

The original version of these notes was created in 2018–19 for a two-semester sequence of topology courses at Humboldt University, Berlin. It has undergone substantial revisions during a few repetitions of the two-semester course since then, plus the addition of a third semester in 2025. The topics are divided among the three semesters roughly as follows:

- First semester: basic point-set topology, fundamental group and covering spaces, manifolds of dimension one and two, introduction to homology
- Second semester: homology and cohomology
- Third semester: homotopy theory, higher homotopy groups, fiber bundles and characteristic classes

A few topics appear in multiple semesters, e.g. while the end of the first semester contains material on singular homology, the second semester does not assume previous knowledge of homology, and thus starts that subject from the beginning, though at a slightly higher level of sophistication. This reflects the fact that at our university, Topology I is technically a Bachelor-level course and Topology II is technically Masters-level, though in practice, the audience for both courses is typically a mixture.

There is a nearly exact one-to-one correspondence between the chapters in these notes and the actual 90-minute lectures given in the course, though for some chapters that are a bit fatter, some portions had to be skipped or mentioned only briefly in class.

Since the notes were designed for use at a German university, I have made an effort to include the German translations (*geschrieben in dieser Schriftart*) of important terms wherever they are introduced. The reader may notice that this effort subsides later in the course, as the deeper one gets into algebraic topology, the harder it becomes to find authoritative German sources for clarifying the terminology (and I am not linguistically qualified to invent terms in German myself).

About the current version

The version you are looking at right now was used most recently as lecture notes for the HU's course "Topologie I" in the Summer 2026 semester, and is still being update occasionally for use in future semesters.

One feature that was introduced in recent revisions is that all exercises appear in their own subsection at the end of each lecture, and some of them are marked with an asterisk (like this (*)). The asterisk means that the exercise is *essential*, e.g. because it contains a proof of some important result that will be used again in the course, perhaps multiple times. Exercises without an asterisk are intended to be helpful and/or informative, but not essential for the logical continuity of the notes.

Most recent update: **September 7, 2026**

Disclaimer and acknowledgements

These lecture notes were written quickly, and while many typos have in the mean time been eliminated due to careful reading by a few motivated students, some probably remain. If you notice any, please send me an e-mail and I will correct. Thanks for corrections already received are due to Lennard Henze, Jens Lücke, Mateusz Majchrzak, Marie Christin Schmidtlein, Rens Breur, Maxim Nevkrytyh, Laurenz Upmeyer zu Belzen, Florian Kaufmann, Ben Eltschig, Daniel Acker, Jean-Baptiste Bellynck, Luis Rücker and Aleksandra Kozhevnikova. (Apologies if I forgot anyone!)

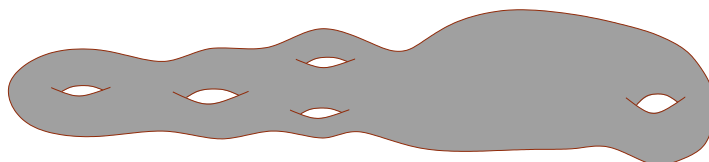
First semester (Topologie I)

1. Introduction and motivation

To start with, let us discuss what kinds of problems are studied in topology. This lecture is only intended as a sketch of ideas, so nothing in it is intended to be precise—we'll introduce precise definitions in the next lecture.

1.1. Classification of spaces. Let's assume for the moment that we understand what the word “space” means. We'll be more precise about it next week, but in this course, a “space” X is a set with some extra structure on it such that we have well-defined notions of things like *open* subsets (*offene Teilmengen*) $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ and *continuous maps/mappings* (*stetige Abbildungen*) $f : X \rightarrow Y$ (where Y is another space). It is then natural to consider two spaces X and Y equivalent if there is a **homeomorphism** (*Homöomorphismus*) between them: this means a continuous bijection $f : X \rightarrow Y$ whose inverse $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is also continuous. We say in this case that X and Y are **homeomorphic** (*homöomorph*).

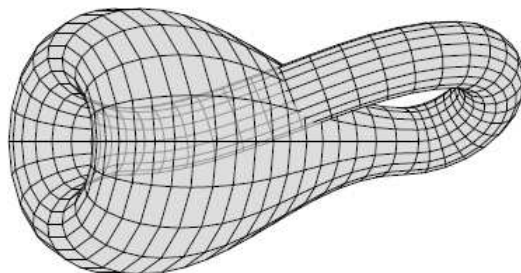
So for instance, one can try to classify all *surfaces* (*Flächen*) up to homeomorphism:



The space in this picture is known as a “closed orientable surface of genus (*Geschlecht*) five”. The genus is a nonnegative integer that, roughly speaking, counts the number of “handles” you would need to attach to a sphere in order to construct the surface. The notation Σ_g is often used for a surface of genus $g \geq 0$.

There are also closed surfaces that cannot be embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, though they are harder to visualize. Here are two examples.

EXAMPLE 1.1. Here is a picture of the **Klein bottle** (*Kleinsche Flasche*), a surface that can be “immersed” (with self-intersections) in $\mathbb{R}^3$, but not embedded:



We'll give a more precise definition of the Klein bottle as a topological space later.

EXAMPLE 1.2. The **real projective plane** (*reelle projektive Ebene*) $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is a space that can be described in various equivalent ways:

- (1) $\mathbb{RP}^2 := S^2/\sim$, i.e. the set of equivalence classes of elements in the unit sphere $S^2 := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |\mathbf{x}| = 1\}$, with the equivalence relation defined by $\mathbf{x} \sim -\mathbf{x}$ for each $\mathbf{x} \in S^2$. In other words, every element of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is a set of two elements $\{\mathbf{x}, -\mathbf{x}\}$, with both belonging to the unit sphere. (See Remark 1.3 below on notation for defining equivalence relations.)
- (2) $\mathbb{RP}^2 := \mathbb{D}^2/\sim$, where $\mathbb{D}^2 := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |\mathbf{x}| \leq 1\}$ and the equivalence relation is defined by $z \sim -z$ for every point z on the boundary of the disk. One obtains this from the first description of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ by restricting attention to only one hemisphere of S^2 ; no information is lost since the other hemisphere is identified with it, but along the equator between them, there is still an identification of antipodal points.
- (3) $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is the space of all lines through 0 in $\mathbb{R}^3$. This is equivalent to the first description since every line through the origin in $\mathbb{R}^3$ hits S^2 at exactly two points, which are antipodal to each other.
- (4) $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is the space constructed by gluing a disk $\mathbb{D}^2$ to a **Möbius strip** (*Möbiusband*)

$$\mathbb{M} := \{(\theta, t \cos(\pi\theta), t \sin(\pi\theta)) \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \theta \in \mathbb{R}, t \in [-1, 1]\}.$$

To see this, draw a picture of the unit sphere S^2 and think of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as $S^2/\sim$. After identifying antipodal points of the sphere in this way, a neighborhood of the equator looks like a Möbius strip, and everything else is a disk (it looks like two disks in the picture, but the two are identified with each other).

More generally, for each integer $n \geq 0$ one can define the **n -sphere**

$$S^n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid |\mathbf{x}| = 1\}$$

and the **real projective n -space**

$$\mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \{\mathbf{x} \sim -\mathbf{x}\} = \{\text{lines through 0 in } \mathbb{R}^{n+1}\}.$$

REMARK 1.3. In topology, we often specify an equivalence relation $\sim$ on a set X with words such as “the equivalence relation defined by $x \sim f(x)$ for all $x \in A$ ” where $A \subset X$ is a subset and $f : A \rightarrow X$ a map. This should always be interpreted to mean that $\sim$ is the *smallest* equivalence relation for which the stated property is true, i.e. since every equivalence relation must also be reflexive and symmetric, it is implied that $x \sim x$ for all $x \in X$ and $f(x) \sim x$ for all $x \in A$, even if we do not say so explicitly. Transitivity may then imply further equivalences that are not explicitly specified: for an extreme example, “the equivalence relation on $\mathbb{Z}$ such that $n \sim n+1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ” makes every integer equivalent to every other integer, i.e. there is only one equivalence class.

Here is a result we will be able to prove later in the course:

THEOREM 1.4. *A closed orientable surface Σ_g of genus g is homeomorphic to a closed orientable surface Σ_h of genus h if and only if $g = h$.*

The hard part is showing that if $g \neq h$, then there cannot exist any continuous bijective map $f : \Sigma_g \rightarrow \Sigma_h$ with a continuous inverse. This requires techniques from the subject known as *algebraic topology*. The main idea will be that we can associate to each topological space X an algebraic object (e.g. a group) $H(X)$ such that any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces a homomorphism $f_* : H(X) \rightarrow H(Y)$, and such that compositions of continuous maps satisfy

$$(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$$

and the identity map $\text{Id} : X \rightarrow X$ gives rise to the identity map $H(X) \rightarrow H(X)$. These properties imply that whenever $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homeomorphism, $f_* : H(X) \rightarrow H(Y)$ must be an

isomorphism. Thus it suffices to compute the algebraic objects $H(\Sigma_g)$ and $H(\Sigma_h)$ and show that they are not isomorphic. (Recognizing non-isomorphic groups is often easier than recognizing non-homeomorphic spaces.)

The full classification of closed orientable surfaces up to homeomorphism is completed by the following result:

THEOREM 1.5. *Every closed connected and orientable surface is homeomorphic to Σ_g for some $g \geq 0$.*

The previous theorem implies of course that for any given surface, the value of g in this result is unique. For the moment, you can understand the word “orientable” to mean “embeddable in $\mathbb{R}^3$ ”. There is a similar result for the non-orientable surfaces: notice that by the fourth definition we gave above for $\mathbb{RP}^2$, one can understand $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as the result of taking S^2 , cutting out a hole (e.g. removing the southern hemisphere, thus leaving the northern hemisphere, which is also a disk $\mathbb{D}^2$) and then gluing in a Möbius strip. That is the first example of the following more general construction:

THEOREM 1.6. *Every closed connected and non-orientable surface is homeomorphic to a surface obtained from S^2 by cutting out finitely many holes and gluing in Möbius strips.*

Surfaces are the simplest interesting examples of more general topological spaces called **manifolds** (*Mannigfaltigkeiten*): a surface is a 2-dimensional manifold, while a smooth curve such as the circle S^1 is a 1-dimensional manifold. In general, one can consider n -dimensional manifolds (abbreviated as “ n -manifolds”) for any integer $n \geq 0$; obvious examples include $\mathbb{R}^n$, S^n and $\mathbb{RP}^n$. The classification problem becomes much harder when $n \geq 3$, e.g. the following difficult problem was open for almost exactly 100 years:

POINCARÉ CONJECTURE (solved by G. Perelman, c. 2004). *Suppose X is a closed and connected 3-manifold that is “simply connected” (i.e. every continuous map $f : S^1 \rightarrow X$ can be extended continuously to $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$). Then X is homeomorphic to S^3 .*

One of the more surprising developments in topology in the 20th century was that the analogue of this problem in dimensions greater than three turns out to be easier. We’ll introduce the notion of “homotopy equivalence” (*Homotopieäquivalenz*) in a few weeks; it turns out that for closed 3-manifolds, the condition of being *simply connected* is equivalent to being homotopy equivalent to S^3 . Thus the following two results are higher-dimensional versions of the Poincaré conjecture, but they were proved much earlier:

THEOREM 1.7 (S. Smale, c. 1960). *For every $n \geq 5$, every closed connected n -manifold homotopy equivalent to S^n is also homeomorphic to S^n .*

THEOREM 1.8 (M. Freedman, c. 1980). *Every closed connected 4-manifold homotopy equivalent to S^4 is also homeomorphic to S^4 .*

1.2. Differential topology. Though we will not have much time to talk about it in this semester, the neighboring field of “differential” topology modifies the classification problem by studying the following stronger notion of equivalence between spaces: X and Y are **diffeomorphic** (*diffeomorph*) if there exists a homeomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that both f and f^{-1} are infinitely differentiable, i.e. C^∞ , and f is in this case called a **diffeomorphism** (*Diffeomorphismus*). From your analysis courses, you at least know what this means if X and Y are open subsets of Euclidean spaces—defining “differentiability” on spaces more general than that requires some notions from the subject of *differential geometry*. In a nutshell, it requires X and Y to be spaces on which any map $X \rightarrow Y$ can at least *locally* (i.e. in a sufficiently small neighborhood of any point) be identified with a map between open subsets of Euclidean spaces, for which we know how to define derivatives.

Identifying a small neighborhood in X with an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is another way of saying that we can choose a set of n independent “coordinates” to describe the points in that neighborhood, and this is the fundamental property that defines X as an n -dimensional manifold. So talking about smooth maps and diffeomorphisms doesn’t make sense for arbitrary topological spaces, but it does make sense for at least some class of manifolds, and these are the main objects of study in differential topology.

It turns out that up to dimension three, classification up to diffeomorphism is equivalent to classification up to homeomorphism:

THEOREM 1.9. *For $n \leq 3$, two n -manifolds X and Y are diffeomorphic if and only if they are homeomorphic.*

For $n = 1$ and $n = 2$, this theorem can be explained by the fact that both versions of the classification problem for n -manifolds are not that hard to solve explicitly (this was already understood in the 19th century), and the answer for both versions turns out to be the same. The story of $n = 3$ is much more complicated, as a complete classification of 3-manifolds is not known, but this theorem was proved in the first half of the 20th century by using the more combinatorial notion of “piecewise linear” manifolds as an intermediary notion between “smooth” and “topological” manifolds.

From dimension four upwards, all hell breaks loose. For example, there are “exotic” $\mathbb{R}^4$ ’s:

THEOREM 1.10. *There exist 4-manifolds that are homeomorphic but not diffeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^4$.*

And from dimension seven upwards, there also tend to exist “exotic spheres”:

THEOREM 1.11 (Kervaire and Milnor, 1963). *There exist exactly 28 distinct manifolds that are homeomorphic to S^7 but not diffeomorphic to each other.*

As you might guess, there is an algebraic phenomenon behind the appearance of the number 28 in this theorem: it is the order of a group. In every dimension n , one can define a group structure on the set of all smooth manifolds up to diffeomorphism that are homeomorphic to S^n . Milnor and Kervaire proved that when $n = 7$, this group has order 28. In the mean time, this group is quite well understood in most cases: it is sometimes trivial (e.g. for $n = 1, 2, 3, 5, 6$) and often nontrivial, but always finite. The only case for which almost nothing is known is $n = 4$; dimension four turns out to be the hardest case in differential topology, because it is on the borderline between “low dimensional” and “high dimensional” methods, where often neither set of methods applies. If you can solve the following open problem, you deserve an instant Ph.D. (and also a permanent job as a research mathematician, and possibly a Fields medal):

CONJECTURE 1.12 (“smooth Poincaré conjecture”). *Every manifold homeomorphic to S^4 is also diffeomorphic to S^4 .*

It is difficult to say whether this conjecture is generally believed to be true or false.

1.3. Fixed point problems. Here is a simpler class of problems on which we’ll actually be able to prove something in this semester. Suppose $f : X \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map. We say $x \in X$ is a **fixed point** (*Fixpunkt*) of f if $f(x) = x$. The question is: under what assumptions on X is f guaranteed to have a fixed point? Note that this is fundamentally different from the fixed point results you’ve probably seen in analysis, e.g. the Banach fixed point theorem (also known as the *contraction mapping principle*) is a result about a special class of maps satisfying analytical conditions, it does not just apply to *every* continuous map on a certain space.

The simplest fixed point theorem in topology is a statement about maps on the n -dimensional disk $\mathbb{D}^n := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |x| \leq 1\}$.

THEOREM 1.13 (Brouwer's fixed point theorem). *For every integer $n \geq 1$, every continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has a fixed point.*

The case $n = 1$ is an easy consequence of the intermediate value theorem, but for $n \geq 2$, we need some techniques from algebraic topology. Here is a sketch of the argument; we will fill in the gaps over the course of the semester.

We argue by contradiction, so suppose there exists a continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ such that $f(x) \neq x$ for every $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. Then there is a unique line in $\mathbb{R}^n$ connecting $f(x)$ to x for each $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. Let $g(x) \in S^{n-1}$ denote the point on the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^n$ obtained by following the unique line from $f(x)$ through x until that line reaches the boundary of the disk. Note that if x is already on the boundary, then by this definition $g(x) = x$. It is not hard to convince yourself that what we've just defined is a continuous map

$$g : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow S^{n-1},$$

and if $i : S^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ denotes the natural inclusion map for the subset $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{D}^n$, then g satisfies

$$(1.1) \quad g \circ i = \text{Id}_{S^{n-1}}.$$

We claim that, actually, no such map can exist. The proof of this requires an algebraic invariant, whose complete construction will require some time and effort, but for now I'll just tell you the result: one can associate to each space X an abelian group $H_{n-1}(X)$ called the **singular homology** (*singuläre Homologie*) of X in dimension $n - 1$, which satisfies the usual desirable properties that continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce group homomorphisms $f_* : H_{n-1}(X) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(Y)$ satisfying $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$ and $\text{Id}_* = \mathbb{1}$. Crucially, one can also compute this invariant for both $\mathbb{D}^n$ and S^{n-1} , and the answers are

$$H_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n) = \{0\}, \quad H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

Now the relation (1.1) implies that $g_* \circ i_*$ is the identity map on $H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, so in particular it is an isomorphism. But $g_* \circ i_*$ also factors through the trivial group $H_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n) \cong \{0\}$, and therefore can only be the trivial homomorphism. This is a contradiction, thus proving Brouwer's theorem.

We will discuss the construction of singular homology and carry out the required computations for the above argument in the last few weeks of this semester; homology and the closely related subject of **cohomology** (*Kohomologie*) will then be the main topic of Topology 2 next semester. But before all that, we will also spend considerable time on other invariants in algebraic topology, notably the fundamental group, which underlies the notion of “simply connected” spaces appearing in the Poincaré conjecture.

2. Metric spaces

We now begin in earnest with point-set topology, which will be the main topic for the next three or four weeks. This subject is important but a little dry, so we will cover only the portions of it that seem absolutely necessary as groundwork for studying the more geometrically motivated questions discussed in the previous lecture.

2.1. Basic notions. The subject begins with metric spaces, because these are the most familiar examples of topological spaces. For most students, this material will be a review of things you've seen before in analysis courses. Almost everything in this lecture will be generalized to a wider and slightly more abstract context when we introduce topologies and topological spaces next week.

DEFINITION 2.1. A **metric space** (*metrischer Raum*) is a set X endowed with a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the following conditions for all $x, y, z \in X$:

- (i) $d(x, y) \geq 0$;
- (ii) $d(x, x) = 0$;
- (iii) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$, i.e. “symmetry”;
- (iv) $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$, i.e. the “triangle inequality” (*Dreiecksungleichung*);
- (v) $d(x, y) > 0$ whenever $x \neq y$.

The function d is then called a **metric** (*Metrik*). If d satisfies the first four conditions but not necessarily the fifth, then it is called a **pseudometric** (*Pseudometrik*).

Much of the theory of metric spaces makes sense for pseudometrics just as well as metrics, but we will see that some desirable and intuitively “obvious” facts become false when the positivity condition is dropped.

In any metric space (X, d) , one can define the **open ball** (*offene Kugel*) of radius $r > 0$ about a given point $x \in X$ as

$$B_r(x) := \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < r\}.$$

An arbitrary subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is then called **open** (*offen*) if for every $x \in \mathcal{U}$, the ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ is contained in $\mathcal{U}$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small. (Of course it only needs to be true for one particular $\epsilon > 0$, since then it is true for all smaller ϵ as well.) Given a subset $A \subset X$, another subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is called a **neighborhood** (*Umgebung*) of A in X if $\mathcal{U}$ contains some open subset of X that also contains A . Some books require the neighborhood itself to be open, but we will not require this; it makes very little difference in practice, but this bit of extra freedom in our definition will allow us to make certain other definitions and proofs a few words shorter now and then.

A subset $A \subset X$ is **closed** (*abgeschlossen*) if its complement $X \setminus A$ is open. Achtung: this is not the same thing as saying that A is not open. It is a common trap for beginners to think that every subset must be either open or closed, but in reality, most are neither—and some (e.g. X itself) are both.¹

Whenever you encounter a set of axioms, you should ask yourself why we are studying these axioms in particular—why not a slightly different set of axioms? In the case of metrics, it’s fairly obvious why we would want any notion of “distance” to satisfy conditions (i)–(iii) and (v), but perhaps the triangle inequality seems slightly less obvious. So, let us point out two obviously desirable properties that follow mainly from the triangle inequality:

- The “open ball” $B_r(x) \subset X$ is also an open subset in the sense of the definition given above. Indeed, for any $y \in B_r(x)$, we have $B_\epsilon(y) \subset B_r(x)$ for every $\epsilon < r - d(x, y)$ since every $z \in B_\epsilon(y)$ then satisfies

$$d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) < d(x, y) + \epsilon < d(x, y) + r - d(x, y) = r.$$

- The function $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ is *continuous* (see below for a review of the definition of continuity), since one can use the triangle inequality to show that for every $x, y, x', y' \in X$,

$$|d(x, y) - d(x', y')| \leq d(x, x') + d(y, y').$$

Also, while I’m sure you already accept without question that the distance between two distinct points should always be positive rather than zero, let us point out one “obvious” fact that would cease to be true if condition (v) were removed:

- For every $x \in X$, the subset $\{x\} \subset X$ is closed. Indeed, $X \setminus \{x\}$ is an open subset of X because for every $y \in X \setminus \{x\}$, the ball $B_\epsilon(y)$ is contained in $X \setminus \{x\}$ for all $\epsilon < d(x, y)$. (This of course presupposes that $d(x, y) > 0$.)

You’re probably not used to thinking about pseudometric spaces much, so here is an example.

¹Yes, the empty set $\emptyset \subset X$ is always open. Reread the definition carefully until you are convinced that this is true.

EXAMPLE 2.2. Let $X = (\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\})/\sim$ for an equivalence relation defined by $(x, 0) \sim (x, 1)$ for every $x \neq 0$. We can think of this intuitively as a “real line with two zeroes” because it mostly looks just the same as $\mathbb{R}$ (each number $x \neq 0$ corresponding to the equivalence class of $(x, 0)$ and $(x, 1)$), but $x = 0$ is an exception, where there really are *two* distinct points $[(0, 0)]$ and $[(0, 1)]$ in X . We can then define $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$d([(x, i)], [(y, j)]) := |x - y| \quad \text{for } i, j \in \{0, 1\}, x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

This satisfies conditions (i)–(iv) for all the same reasons that the usual metric on $\mathbb{R}$ does, but condition (v) fails because

$$d([(0, 0)], [(0, 1)]) = 0$$

even though $[(0, 0)] \neq [(0, 1)]$. The space X has other properties that may run counter to your intuition about metric spaces, e.g. according to Exercise 2.1, it contains a one-point subset that is not closed!

2.2. Convergence and continuity. Convergence is arguably the most important concept in analysis, and continuity is the most important concept in elementary topology. We will see that for all “nice” examples of topological spaces—including all metric spaces—continuity can be fully characterized in terms of convergence.

DEFINITION 2.3. In a metric space (X, d) , a sequence (*Folge*) $x_n \in X$ indexed by $n \in \mathbb{N}$ **converges to** (*konvergiert gegen*) a point $x \in X$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$, we have $x_n \in B_\epsilon(x)$ for all n sufficiently large. Equivalently, this means that for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x , $x_n \in \mathcal{U}$ for all n sufficiently large. We use the notation

$$x_n \rightarrow x \quad \text{or} \quad \lim x_n = x$$

to indicate that x_n converges to x .

Note that in the second formulation of this definition, involving arbitrary neighborhoods instead of the open ball $B_\epsilon(x)$, one can understand the definition without knowing what the metric is—one only has to know what a “neighborhood” is, which means knowing which subsets are open and which are not. This will be the formulation that we need when we generalize sequences and convergence to arbitrary topological spaces.

Here is a similarly standard definition from analysis, for which we give three equivalent formulations.

DEFINITION 2.4. For two metric spaces (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) , a map (*Abbildung*) $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called **continuous** (*stetig*) if it satisfies any of the following equivalent conditions:

- (a) For every $x_0 \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that $d_Y(f(x), f(x_0)) < \epsilon$ whenever $d_X(x, x_0) < \delta$, i.e. $f(B_\delta(x_0)) \subset B_\epsilon(f(x_0))$.
- (b) For every open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$, the preimage

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) := \{x \in X \mid f(x) \in \mathcal{U}\}$$

is an open subset of X .

- (c) For every convergent sequence $x_n \in X$, $x_n \rightarrow x$ implies $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$.

The equivalence of (a) and (b) is pretty easy to see: if (a) holds and $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ is open, then for every $x_0 \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, the openness of $\mathcal{U}$ guarantees an $\epsilon > 0$ such that $f(x_0) \in B_\epsilon(f(x_0)) \subset \mathcal{U}$. But then condition (a) gives a $\delta > 0$ such that $f(B_\delta(x_0)) \subset B_\epsilon(f(x_0)) \subset \mathcal{U}$, implying $B_\delta(x_0) \subset f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, hence $\mathcal{U}$ is open and (b) therefore holds. Conversely, if (b) holds, then (a) holds because $B_\epsilon(f(x_0))$ is open and thus so is $f^{-1}(B_\epsilon(f(x_0)))$, which contains x_0 and therefore also (by openness) contains $B_\delta(x_0)$ for some $\delta > 0$.

Notice that conditions (b) and (c) do not require specific knowledge of the metric, but again only require knowing what an open subset is. Condition (b) is the one we will later use to define continuity in general topological spaces. It may be instructive to review why (b) and (c) are equivalent—especially because this is something that will turn out to be *false* in general for topological spaces, at least without some extra assumption.

PROOF THAT (B) $\Leftrightarrow$ (C). To show that (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c), suppose $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ is a neighborhood of $f(x)$. Then $\mathcal{U}$ contains an open set $\mathcal{V}$ containing $f(x)$, hence $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ contains $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$ which contains x , and by condition (b), $f^{-1}(\mathcal{V})$ is also open, implying $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is a neighborhood of x . Convergence then implies that $x_n \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ and thus $f(x_n) \in \mathcal{U}$ for all n sufficiently large, which proves $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ since the neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ was arbitrary.

For the other direction, we shall prove the contrapositive, i.e. we show that if (b) is false then so is (c). So assume there is an open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is not open. Being not open means that for some $x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, no open ball about x is contained in $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$. As a consequence, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can find a point

$$x_n \in B_{1/n}(x) \quad \text{such that} \quad x_n \notin f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}),$$

meaning $f(x_n) \notin \mathcal{U}$. The sequence x_n then converges to x , since every neighborhood of x contains $B_{1/n}(x)$ for n sufficiently large, implying that x_n belongs to the given neighborhood for all large n . But $f(x_n)$ cannot converge to $f(x)$ since it never belongs to $\mathcal{U}$, which is a neighborhood of $f(x)$. $\square$

I want to point out two things about the above proof. First, the proof that (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) never mentioned the metric, it only talked about neighborhoods and open sets—as a consequence, that implication will remain true when we reconsider all these notions in general topological spaces. But the proof that (c) $\Rightarrow$ (b) did refer to the metric, because it used the precise definition of openness in terms of open balls. We will see that this implication does not actually hold in arbitrary topological spaces, though a mild modification of it does.

DEFINITION 2.5. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a **homeomorphism** (*Homöomorphismus*) if it is continuous and bijective and its inverse $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is also continuous.

EXAMPLE 2.6. Consider $\mathbb{R}^n$ with the **standard Euclidean metric**

$$d_E(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) := |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}| = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - y_j)^2}$$

for vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$. We claim that for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $r > 0$, $(B_r(\mathbf{x}), d_E)$ is homeomorphic to $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_E)$. (It follows of course that all open balls in $\mathbb{R}^n$ are also homeomorphic to each other, though it is perhaps easier to prove the latter directly.) To construct a homeomorphism, choose any continuous, increasing, bijective function $f : [0, r) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ and define $F : B_r(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} \quad \text{and} \quad F(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} + f(|\mathbf{y}|) \frac{\mathbf{y}}{|\mathbf{y}|} \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{y} \in B_r(0) \setminus \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n.$$

It is easy to check that both F and F^{-1} are then continuous.

2.3. Compactness. One conclusion to draw from Example 2.6 above is that the notion of “boundedness,” which is very important in analysis, is not going to make much sense in topology. Indeed, we would like to consider two spaces as “equivalent” whenever they are homeomorphic, so topologically it would be meaningless to call a space bounded if another space homeomorphic to it is not. What plays this role instead is the somewhat stricter notion of *compactness*. To write down the correct definition, we need to have the notion of an **open covering** (*offene Überdeckung*):

assume I is any set (the so-called “index set”) and $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a collection of open subsets $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X$ labeled by elements $\alpha \in I$. We call $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ an open covering/cover of a subset $A \subset X$ if

$$A \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha.$$

DEFINITION 2.7. A subset K in a metric space (X, d) is **compact** (*kompakt*) if either of the following equivalent conditions is satisfied:

- (a) Every open cover $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of K has a finite subcover (*eine endliche Teilüberdeckung*), i.e. there is a finite subset $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\} \subset I$ such that

$$K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_i}.$$

- (b) Every sequence $x_n \in K$ has a convergent subsequence with limit in K .

We call (X, d) itself a **compact space** if X is a compact subset of itself.

Compactness is probably the least intuitive definition in this course so far, and at this stage we can only justify it by saying that it has stood the test of time: many beautiful and useful theorems have turned out to be true for compact spaces and *only* compact spaces. The first of these is the following, which explains why, unlike boundedness, compactness really is a topologically invariant notion, i.e. if X is compact, then so is every space that is homeomorphic to it.

THEOREM 2.8. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and $K \subset X$ is compact, then so is $f(K) \subset Y$.*

PROOF. If $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is an open cover of $f(K)$, then the sets $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\alpha)$ are all open in X and thus form an open cover of K , which is compact, so there is a finite subset $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\} \subset I$ such that

$$K \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_i}),$$

implying $f(K) \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_i}$, hence we have found a finite subcover of our given open cover of $f(K)$. $\square$

One more remark about compactness: the equivalence of conditions (a) and (b) in Definition 2.7 is not so obvious, but is a fairly deep theorem called the *Bolzano-Weierstrass* theorem which you’ve probably seen proved in your analysis classes. We will prove an analogue of that theorem for topological spaces in Lecture 5, but it does not say that these two definitions are always equivalent—as with continuity, characterizing compactness via sequences becomes a slightly subtler issue in topological spaces, though the equivalence does hold for most of the spaces we actually care about.

2.4. Equivalent metrics. Before introducing the next important definition, let’s see some more examples.

EXAMPLE 2.9. For any metric space (X, d) and an arbitrary subset $A \subset X$, (A, d) is also a metric space. So for instance, we can use the Euclidean metric d_E on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to define a metric on the subset

$$S^n = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid |\mathbf{x}| = 1\},$$

the n -dimensional sphere.

EXAMPLE 2.10. Any set X can be assigned the **discrete metric** (*diskrete Metrik*), defined by

$$d_D(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This metric keeps every point at a measured distance away from every other point. So for instance, we can assign the discrete metric to $\mathbb{R}^n$ and compare it with the Euclidean metric d_E . We claim that the identity map on $\mathbb{R}^n$ defines a continuous map from $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_D)$ to $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_E)$, but it is not a homeomorphism, i.e. its inverse is not continuous. This follows immediately from Exercise 2.2.

EXAMPLE 2.11. Given two metric spaces (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) , one can define a **product metric** on $X \times Y$ by

$$d_{X \times Y}((x, y), (x', y')) := \sqrt{d_X(x, x')^2 + d_Y(y, y')^2}.$$

This is the obvious generalization of the Euclidean metric, e.g. if X and Y are both $\mathbb{R}$ with its standard Euclidean metric, then $d_{X \times Y}$ becomes d_E on $\mathbb{R}^2$. But this is not the only reasonable choice of metric on $X \times Y$: for instance, one can also define a metric by

$$d'_{X \times Y}((x, y), (x', y')) := \max\{d_X(x, x'), d_Y(y, y')\}.$$

This metric is indeed different: for instance, if we again take X and Y to be the Euclidean $\mathbb{R}$, then an open ball with respect to $d'_{X \times Y}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$ does not look circular, it looks rather like a square. On the other hand, this does not have a huge impact on the notion of open sets: it is not hard to show that the identity map from $(X \times Y, d_{X \times Y})$ to $(X \times Y, d'_{X \times Y})$ is always a homeomorphism.

DEFINITION 2.12. Two metrics d and d' on the same set X are called (topologically) **equivalent** if the identity map from (X, d) to (X, d') is a homeomorphism.

In light of the various ways we now have for defining what “continuous” means, equivalence of metrics can also be understood as follows:

- d and d' are equivalent if they both define the same notion of open subsets in X ;
- d and d' are equivalent if they both define the same notion of convergence of sequences in X .

These characterizations are the subject of Exercise 2.3.

EXAMPLE 2.13. In functional analysis, one often studies metric spaces whose elements are functions, and the exact choice of metric on such a space needs to be handled rather carefully. Consider for instance the set

$$X = C^0[-1, 1] := \{\text{continuous functions } f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}.$$

If we think of this as an infinite-dimensional vector space whose elements $f \in X$ are described by the (infinitely many) “coordinates” $f(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ for $t \in [-1, 1]$, then the natural generalization of the Euclidean metric to such a space is

$$d_2(f, g) := \sqrt{\int_{-1}^1 |f(t) - g(t)|^2 dt}.$$

This is the metric corresponding to the so-called “ L^2 -norm” on the space of functions $[-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. On the other hand, our alternative product metric discussed in Example 2.11 above generalizes to this space in the form

$$d_\infty(f, g) := \max_{t \in [-1, 1]} |f(t) - g(t)|,$$

which is well defined since continuous functions on compact intervals always attain maxima. It is not hard to see that the identity map from (X, d_∞) to (X, d_2) is continuous, but is not a homeomorphism. Indeed, if $f_n \rightarrow f$ in (X, d_∞) , then

$$d_2(f_n, f)^2 = \int_{-1}^1 |f_n(t) - f(t)|^2 dt \leq \int_{-1}^1 \max_t |f_n(t) - f(t)|^2 dt \leq 2d_\infty(f_n, f)^2 \rightarrow 0,$$

proving that $f_n \rightarrow f$ also in (X, d_2) . On the other hand, there exist sequences $f_n \in X$ such that $f_n \rightarrow 0$ with respect to d_2 but $d_{\mathcal{X}}(f_n, 0) = 1$ for all n : just take a sequence of “bump” functions $f_n : [-1, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ that all satisfy $f_n(0) = 1$ but vanish outside of progressively smaller neighborhoods of 0. These will satisfy $d_2(f_n, 0)^2 = \int_{-1}^1 |f_n(t)|^2 dt \rightarrow 0$, but $d_{\mathcal{X}}(f_n, 0) = \max_t |f_n(t)| = 1$ for all n , preventing convergence to 0 with respect to $d_{\mathcal{X}}$.

2.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 2.1. Show that for the pseudometric space X in Example 2.2, $\{(0, 0)\} \subset X$ is not a closed subset.

EXERCISE 2.2 (*). Show that on any set X with the discrete metric d_D , every subset is open. In particular this includes the set $\{x\} \subset X$ for every $x \in X$. Conclude that a sequence x_n converges to x if and only if $x_n = x$ for all n sufficiently large, i.e. the sequence is “eventually constant”. Then use this to prove the following statements:

- (a) All maps from (X, d_D) to any other metric space are continuous.
- (b) All continuous maps from $(\mathbb{R}^n, d_E)$ to (X, d_D) are constant.

EXERCISE 2.3 (*). Show that for two metrics d_1, d_2 on the same set X , the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) The identity map defines a homeomorphism $(X, d_1) \rightarrow (X, d_2)$.
- (ii) For every subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$, $\mathcal{U}$ is open in (X, d_1) if and only if it is open in (X, d_2) .
- (iii) For every sequence $x_n \in X$ and point $x \in X$, $x_n \rightarrow x$ in (X, d_1) if and only if $x_n \rightarrow x$ in (X, d_2) .

EXERCISE 2.4. Suppose (X, d_X) is a metric space and $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on X , with the resulting set of equivalence classes denoted by $X/\sim$. For equivalence classes $[x], [y] \in X/\sim$, define

$$(2.1) \quad d([x], [y]) := \inf \{d_X(x, y) \mid x \in [x], y \in [y]\}.$$

- (a) Show that d is a metric on $X/\sim$ if the following assumption is added: for every triple $[x], [y], [z] \in X/\sim$, there exist representatives $x \in [x], y \in [y]$ and $z \in [z]$ such that

$$d_X(x, y) = d([x], [y]) \quad \text{and} \quad d_X(y, z) = d([y], [z]).$$

Comment: The hard part is proving the triangle inequality.

- (b) Consider the real projective n -space

$$\mathbb{RP}^n := S^n / \sim,$$

where $S^n := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid |\mathbf{x}| = 1\}$ and the equivalence relation identifies antipodal points, i.e. $\mathbf{x} \sim -\mathbf{x}$. If d_X is the metric on S^n induced by the standard Euclidean metric on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, show that the extra assumption in part (a) is satisfied, so that (2.1) defines a metric on $\mathbb{RP}^n$.

- (c) For the metric defined on $\mathbb{RP}^n$ in part (b), show that the natural quotient projection $\pi : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$ sending each $\mathbf{x} \in S^n$ to its equivalence class $[\mathbf{x}] \in \mathbb{RP}^n$ is continuous, and a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{RP}^n$ is open if and only if $\pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset S^n$ is open (with respect to the metric d_X).
- (d) Here is a very different example of a quotient space. Define

$$X = (-1, 1)^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

with the metric d_X induced by the Euclidean metric on $\mathbb{R}^2$. Now fix the function $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : (x, y) \mapsto xy$ and define the relation $p_0 \sim p_1$ for $p_0, p_1 \in X$ to mean that there exists a continuous curve $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = p_0$ and $\gamma(1) = p_1$ such that $f \circ \gamma$ is constant.

Show that for this equivalence relation, the extra assumption of part (a) is not satisfied, and the distance function defined in (2.1) does not satisfy the triangle inequality.

- (e) Despite our failure to define $X/\sim$ as a metric space in part (d), it is natural to consider the following notion: define a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X/\sim$ to be *open* if and only if $\pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is an open subset of (X, d_X) , where $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$ denotes the natural quotient projection. We can then define a sequence $[x_n] \in X/\sim$ to be *convergent* to an element $[x] \in X/\sim$ if for every open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X/\sim$ containing $[x]$, $[x_n] \in \mathcal{U}$ for all n sufficiently large. Find a sequence $[x_n] \in X/\sim$ and two elements $[x], [y] \in X/\sim$ such that

$$[x_n] \rightarrow [x] \quad \text{and} \quad [x_n] \rightarrow [y], \quad \text{but} \quad [x] \neq [y].$$

This could not happen if we'd defined convergence on $X/\sim$ in terms of a metric. (Why not?)

EXERCISE 2.5. This exercise provides a first glimpse of the notions of *connectedness* and *connected components* in metric spaces; a formal introduction to these concepts will follow in Lecture 7.

- (a) Show that for any metric space (X, d) ,

$$d'(x, y) := \min\{1, d(x, y)\}$$

defines another metric on X which is equivalent to d . In particular, this means that every metric is equivalent to one that is bounded.

- (b) Suppose (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) are metric spaces satisfying

$$d_X(x, x') \leq 1 \text{ for all } x, x' \in X, \quad d_Y(y, y') \leq 1 \text{ for all } y, y' \in Y.$$

Now let $Z = X \cup Y$, and for $z, z' \in Z$ define

$$d_Z(z, z') = \begin{cases} d_X(z, z') & \text{if } z, z' \in X, \\ d_Y(z, z') & \text{if } z, z' \in Y, \\ 2 & \text{if } (z, z') \text{ is in } X \times Y \text{ or } Y \times X. \end{cases}$$

Show that d_Z is a metric on Z with the following property: a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset Z$ is open in (Z, d_Z) if and only if it is the union of two (possibly empty) open subsets of (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) . In particular, X and Y are each both open and closed subsets of Z . (Recall that subsets of metric spaces are closed if and only if their complements are open.)

- (c) Suppose (Z, d) is a metric space containing two disjoint subsets $X, Y \subset Z$ that are each both open and closed. Show that there exists no continuous map $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow Z$ with $\gamma(0) \in X$ and $\gamma(1) \in Y$.
- (d) Show that if (X, d) is a metric space with the discrete metric, then for every point $x \in X$, the subset $\{x\} \subset X$ is both open and closed.

EXERCISE 2.6. Assume (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) are metric spaces with $A \subset X$ a compact subset and $f : A \rightarrow Y$ a continuous map. Define the set

$$Z := X \cup_f Y := (X \cup Y) / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation is determined by $a \sim f(a)$ for each $a \in A$. Assume additionally that f is an *isometry* onto its image, meaning it satisfies

$$d_X(a, b) = d_Y(f(a), f(b)) \quad \text{for all } a, b \in A;$$

notice that f must then be injective, so we can regard both X and Y naturally as subsets of Z which intersect along A . We can then define a metric d_Z on Z such that $d_Z(x, y) = d_X(x, y)$ for

$x, y \in X$, $d_Z(x, y) = d_Y(x, y)$ for $x, y \in Y$, and for $(x, y) \in X \times Y$,

$$d_Z(x, y) := \min \{d_X(x, a) + d_Y(f(a), y) \mid a \in A\}.$$

Verify the following case of the triangle inequality for d_Z :

$$d_Z(x, z) \leq d_Z(x, y) + d_Z(y, z) \quad \text{whenever} \quad x \in X, y \in Y \text{ and } z \in X.$$

Hint: Notice that in the definition of d_Z , it says “min” instead of “inf”. The minimum always exists because A is compact!

Advice: If you want something to visualize for intuition, a concrete example of this construction is mentioned below in Exercise 2.7.

EXERCISE 2.7. In §1, we discussed the fact that $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is homeomorphic to an object constructed by gluing a disk $\mathbb{D}^2 = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |\mathbf{x}| \leq 1\}$ to a Möbius strip $\mathbb{M} = \{(\theta, t \cos(\pi\theta), t \sin(\pi\theta)) \in S^1 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \theta \in S^1, t \in [-1, 1]\}$, where $S^1 := \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$. One can now make this precise using metrics of the types defined in Exercises 2.4(b) and 2.6 respectively on $\mathbb{RP}^2$ and the glued object $\mathbb{D}^2 \cup_f \mathbb{M}$ (for a suitable homeomorphism f between the boundaries of $\mathbb{D}^2$ and $\mathbb{M}$). Work out the details until you get bored.

3. Topological spaces

3.1. Interiors and closures. We saw in the last lecture that most of the notions we want to consider in topology (continuous maps, homeomorphisms, convergence of sequences...) can be defined on metric spaces without specific reference to the metric, but using only our knowledge of which subsets are *open*. Moreover, one can define distinct but “equivalent” metrics on the same space for which the open sets match and therefore all these notions are the same. This suggests that we should view the notion of open sets as something more fundamental than a metric. The starting point of topology is to endow a set with the extra structure of a distinguished collection of subsets that we will call “open”. The first question to answer is: what properties should we require this collection of subsets to have?

To motivate the axioms, let’s revisit metric spaces for a moment and recall two important definitions. Both will also make sense in the context of topological spaces once we have fixed a definition for the latter.

DEFINITION 3.1. Suppose X is a metric (or topological) space.

- (a) The **interior** (*offener Kern* or *Inneres*) of a subset $A \subset X$ is the set

$$\mathring{A} = \{x \in A \mid \text{some neighborhood of } x \text{ in } X \text{ is contained in } A\}.$$

Points in this set are called **interior points** (*innere Punkte*) of A .

- (b) The **closure** (*abgeschlossene Hülle* or *Abschluss*) of a subset $A \subset X$ is the set

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in X \mid \text{every neighborhood of } x \text{ in } X \text{ intersects } A\}.$$

Points in this set are called **cluster points** (*Berührungspunkte*) of A .

The proof of the following is an easy exercise, but it’s worth thinking through why it is true.

PROPOSITION 3.2. For any subset $A \subset X$, the interior $\mathring{A}$ is the largest open subset of X that is contained in A , and the closure $\bar{A}$ is the smallest closed subset of X that contains A , i.e.

$$\mathring{A} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \subset X \text{ open}, \mathcal{U} \subset A} \mathcal{U} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{A} = \bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \subset X \text{ closed}, A \subset \mathcal{U}} \mathcal{U}.$$

□

I worded Proposition 3.2 in a slightly sneaky way by calling the union of all the open sets inside A the “largest open subset of X that is contained in A ”: how do we actually know that this union of subsets is also open? This is the point: we know it because in a metric space, *arbitrary unions* of open subsets are also open. This follows almost immediately from the definitions in the previous lecture. It also implies (by taking complements) that arbitrary intersections of closed subsets are also closed, hence writing $\bar{A}$ as an intersection as in the exercise reveals that $\bar{A}$ is also a closed subset. These are properties you’d expect any reasonable notion of “open” or “closed” sets to have, so we will want to keep them.

What about intersections of open sets? Well, in metric spaces, arbitrary intersections of open sets need not be open, e.g. the intervals $(-1/n, 1/n) \subset \mathbb{R}$ are open for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, but

$$\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}\right) = \{0\}$$

is not an open subset of $\mathbb{R}$. Something slightly weaker is true, however: the intersection of any *two* open sets is open, and by an easy inductive argument, it follows that any *finite* intersection of open sets is open. Indeed, if $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset X$ are both open and $x \in \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$, we know that $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{V}$ each contain balls about x for sufficiently small radii, so it suffices to take any radius small enough to fit inside both of them. (Why doesn’t this necessarily work for an infinite intersection of open sets? Look at the example of the intervals $(-1/n, 1/n)$ above if you’re not sure.) Taking complements, we also deduce from this discussion that arbitrary unions of closed subsets are not always closed, but *finite* unions are.

One last remark before we proceed: in any metric space X , the empty set $\emptyset$ and X itself are both open (and therefore also closed) subsets.

3.2. Topologies, bases and subbases. With these observations as motivation, here is the definition on which everything else in this course will be based.

DEFINITION 3.3. A **topology** (*Topologie*) on a set X is a collection² $\mathcal{T}$ of subsets of X satisfying the following axioms:

- (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$ and $X \in \mathcal{T}$;
- (ii) For every subcollection $I \subset \mathcal{T}$, $\bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in I} \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$;
- (iii) For every pair $\mathcal{U}_1, \mathcal{U}_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, $\mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2 \in \mathcal{T}$.

The pair $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is then called a **topological space** (*topologischer Raum*), and we call the sets $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$ the **open** subsets (*offene Teilmengen*) in $(X, \mathcal{T})$.

We can now repeat several definitions from the previous lecture in our newly generalized context.

DEFINITIONS 3.4. Assume $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$ and $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ are topological spaces.

- (1) A subset $A \subset X$ is **closed** (*abgeschlossen*) if $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{T}_X$.
- (2) A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **continuous** (*stetig*) if for all $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}_Y$, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \in \mathcal{T}_X$. Note that if we prefer to describe the topology in terms of closed rather than open subsets, then it is equivalent to say that for all $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ closed, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is also closed.
- (3) A **neighborhood** (*Umgebung*) of a subset $A \subset X$ is any subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ such that $A \subset \mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$ for some $\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{T}_X$.

²I am calling $\mathcal{T}$ a “collection” instead of a “set” in an attempt to minimize the inevitable confusion caused by $\mathcal{T}$ being a set whose elements are also sets. Strictly speaking, there is nothing wrong with saying “ $\mathcal{T}$ is a subset of 2^X satisfying the following axioms...”, where 2^X is the set-theoretician’s fancy notation for the set consisting of all subsets of X . But if you found that sentence confusing, my recommendation is to call $\mathcal{T}$ a “collection” instead of a “set”.

- (4) A sequence (*Folge*) $x_n \in X$ **converges to** (*konvergiert gegen*) $x \in X$ (written “ $x_n \rightarrow x$ ”) if for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x , $x_n \in \mathcal{U}$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large.

REMARK 3.5. One can equivalently define a topology $\mathcal{T}$ on a set X by specifying the *closed* sets $\mathcal{T}' := \{X \setminus \mathcal{U} \mid \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}\}$. Then condition (ii) in Definition 3.3 is equivalent to

$$\bigcap_{A \in I} A \in \mathcal{T}' \quad \text{for all subcollections } I \subset \mathcal{T}',$$

and condition (iii) is equivalent to

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \in \mathcal{T}' \quad \text{for all } A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{T}'.$$

For many topologies that one encounters in practice, it is not so easy to say what *all* the open sets look like, but much easier to describe a smaller subcollection that “generates” them.

DEFINITION 3.6. Suppose $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is a topological space and $\mathcal{B} \subset \mathcal{T}$ is a subcollection of the open sets.

- We call $\mathcal{B}$ a **base** or **basis** (*Basis*) for $\mathcal{T}$ if every set $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$ is a union of sets in $\mathcal{B}$, i.e.

$$\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{V} \in I} \mathcal{V} \quad \text{for some subcollection } I \subset \mathcal{B}.$$

- We call $\mathcal{B}$ a **subbase** or **subbasis** (*Subbasis*) for $\mathcal{T}$ if every set $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}$ is a union of finite intersections of sets in $\mathcal{B}$, i.e.

$$\mathcal{U} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$$

for some collection of subsets $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X$ indexed by a (possibly empty) set I , such that for each $\alpha \in I$,

$$\mathcal{U}_\alpha = \mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_\alpha^{N_\alpha}$$

for some $N_\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1, \dots, \mathcal{U}_\alpha^{N_\alpha} \in \mathcal{B}$.

Every base is obviously also a subbase, though we’ll see in a moment that the converse is not true. You should take a moment to convince yourself (see Exercise 3.3) that given any collection $\mathcal{B}$ of subsets of X that cover all of X (meaning $X = \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}} \mathcal{U}$), $\mathcal{B}$ is a subbase of a unique topology on X , namely the smallest topology that contains $\mathcal{B}$. It consists of all unions of finite intersections of sets from $\mathcal{B}$, and we say in this case that the topology $\mathcal{T}$ is **generated by** the collection $\mathcal{B}$.

EXAMPLE 3.7. The **standard topology** on $\mathbb{R}$ has the collection of all open intervals $\{(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} \mid -\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty\}$ as a base. The smaller subcollection of half-infinite open intervals $\{(-\infty, a) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\} \cup \{(a, \infty) \mid a \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is also a subbase, though not a base. (Why not?)

EXAMPLE 3.8. If (X, d) is any metric (or pseudometric) space, the natural topology on X induced by the metric is defined via the base

$$\mathcal{B} = \{B_r(x) \subset X \mid x \in X, r > 0\}.$$

Note that if d and d' are equivalent metrics as in Definition 2.12, then they induce the same topology on X : indeed, if the identity map $(X, d) \rightarrow (X, d')$ is a homeomorphism then it maps open sets to open sets. A topology that arises in this way from a metric is called **metrizable** (*metrisierbar*).

EXAMPLE 3.9. On any set X , the **discrete topology** is the collection $\mathcal{T}$ consisting of *all* subsets of X . Take a moment to convince yourself that this is a topology, and moreover, it is metrizable—it can be defined via the discrete metric, see Definition 2.10. (Can you think of another metric on X that defines the same topology?) As a base for $\mathcal{T}$, we can take $\mathcal{B} = \{\{x\} \subset X \mid x \in X\}$. Note that since all subsets are open, all subsets are also closed! Moreover:

- Every map $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.
- A map $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if it is constant. Here is a quick proof: for every $x \in X$, $\{x\} \subset X$ is both open and closed, so continuity requires $f^{-1}(x) \subset \mathbb{R}$ also to be both open and closed, but the only subsets of $\mathbb{R}$ with this property are $\mathbb{R}$ itself and the empty set.
- A sequence $x_n \in X$ converges to $x \in X$ if and only if $x_n = x$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large.

EXAMPLE 3.10. Also on any set X , one can define the **trivial** (also sometimes called the “indiscrete”) topology $\mathcal{T} = \{\emptyset, X\}$. This topology has the distinguishing feature that every point $x \in X$ has only one neighborhood, namely the whole set. We then have:

- A map $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous if and only if it is constant. Proof: Suppose f is continuous, $x_0 \in X$ and $f(x_0) = t \in \mathbb{R}$. Then for every $\epsilon > 0$, $f^{-1}(t - \epsilon, t + \epsilon)$ is an open subset of X containing x_0 , so it is not $\emptyset$ and is therefore X . This proves

$$f(X) \subset \bigcap_{\epsilon > 0} (t - \epsilon, t + \epsilon) = \{t\}.$$

- All maps $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow X$ are continuous.
- $x_n \rightarrow x$ holds *always*, i.e. all sequences in X converge to all points! This proves that $(X, \mathcal{T})$ is not metrizable, as the limit of a convergent sequence in a metric space is always unique. (Prove it!)

EXAMPLE 3.11. The **cofinite** topology on a set X is defined such that a proper subset $A \subset X$ is closed if and only if it is finite. Take a moment to convince yourself that this really defines a topology—see Remark 3.5. (Note that X itself is automatically closed but does not need to be finite, since it is not a *proper* subset of itself.) The neighborhoods of a point $x \in X$ are then all of the form $X \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ for arbitrary finite subsets $x_1, \dots, x_N \in X$ that do not include x .

3.3. Subspaces and disjoint unions. Suppose $\mathcal{T}_1$ and $\mathcal{T}_2$ are two topologies on the same set X such that

$$\mathcal{T}_1 \subset \mathcal{T}_2,$$

meaning every open set in $(X, \mathcal{T}_1)$ is also an open set in $(X, \mathcal{T}_2)$. In this case we say that $\mathcal{T}_2$ is **stronger/finer/larger than** (*stärker/feiner als*) $\mathcal{T}_1$, and $\mathcal{T}_1$ is **weaker/coarser/smaller than** (*schwächer/gröber als*) $\mathcal{T}_2$. For example, since the open sets $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ for the cofinite topology on $\mathbb{R}$ are also open with respect to its standard topology, we can say that the standard topology of $\mathbb{R}$ is stronger than the cofinite topology. On any set, the discrete topology is the strongest, and the trivial topology is the weakest. In general, having a stronger topology means that fewer sequences converge, fewer maps into X from other spaces are continuous, but more functions defined on X are continuous. In various situations, it is common and natural to specify a topology on a set as being the “strongest” or “weakest” possible topology subject to the condition that some given collection of maps are all continuous. We will see some examples of this below.

There are several natural ways in which a given topology on one or more spaces can induce a topology on some related space.

DEFINITION 3.12. $(X, \mathcal{T})$ determines on any subset $A \subset X$ the so-called **subspace topology** (*Unterraumtopologie*)

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

This is the weakest topology on A such that the natural inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a continuous map. (Prove it!)

EXAMPLE 3.13. The standard topology on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is the one defined via the Euclidean metric. We then assign the subspace topology to the set of unit vectors $S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, meaning a subset $\mathcal{V} \subset S^n$ will be considered open in S^n if and only if $\mathcal{V} = S^n \cap \mathcal{U}$ for some open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. As you might expect, this is the same as the topology induced by the metric on S^n defined by restricting the Euclidean metric, but for a given open set $\mathcal{V} \subset S^n$, it is not always so easy to see an open set $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ such that $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{U} \cap S^n$. Such a set can be constructed as follows: for each $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}$, choose $\epsilon_{\mathbf{x}} > 0$ such that every $\mathbf{y} \in S^n$ satisfying $|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}| < \epsilon_{\mathbf{x}}$ is also in $\mathcal{V}$. Then the set

$$\mathcal{U} := \bigcup_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}} \{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid |\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}| < \epsilon_{\mathbf{x}}\}$$

is a union of open balls and is thus open in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, and satisfies $\mathcal{U} \cap S^n = \mathcal{V}$.

DEFINITION 3.14. Given a collection of topological spaces $\{(X_\alpha, \mathcal{T}_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ indexed by a set I such that $X_\alpha \cap X_\beta = \emptyset$ for all $\alpha \neq \beta$, the **disjoint union** (*disjunkte Vereinigung*) is the set $X := \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ with the topology

$$\mathcal{T} := \left\{ \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \mid \mathcal{U}_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in I \right\}.$$

We typically denote the topological space $(X, \mathcal{T})$ defined in this way by

$$\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha,$$

or for finite collections $I = \{1, \dots, N\}$, $X_1 \amalg \dots \amalg X_N$. The topology on this space is called the **disjoint union topology**.

The proof of the following is a straightforward exercise:

PROPOSITION 3.15. *The disjoint union topology $\mathcal{T}$ on $X = \coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ is the strongest topology on this set such that for every $\alpha \in I$, the inclusion $X_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$ is continuous.* $\square$

REMARK 3.16. A key feature of the disjoint union topology is that for every individual $\alpha \in I$, the subset $X_\alpha \subset X$ is both open and closed. It follows that there is no continuous path $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) \in X_\alpha$ and $\gamma(1) \in X_\beta$ for $\alpha \neq \beta$, cf. Exercise 2.5(c).

REMARK 3.17. It is also often useful to be able to discuss disjoint unions $\coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ in which the sets X_α and X_β need not be disjoint for $\alpha \neq \beta$, e.g. a common situation is where all X_α are taken to be the same fixed set Y . In this case we still want to treat X_α and X_β as disjoint “copies” of the same subset when $\alpha \neq \beta$, so that no element in the union can belong to more than one of them. One way to do this is by redefining the set $X = \coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ as

$$X := \{(\alpha, x) \mid \alpha \in I, x \in X_\alpha\},$$

so that the disjoint union topology now literally becomes the collection of all subsets in X of the form

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \{\alpha\} \times \mathcal{U}_\alpha$$

with $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$ open for every α , and in analogy with Exercise 3.7, this is the strongest topology on X for which the injective maps $X_\alpha \rightarrow X : x \mapsto (\alpha, x)$ are continuous for all $\alpha \in I$. We will usually not bother with this cumbersome notation when examples arise: just remember that whenever X_1 and X_2 are two sets, disjoint or otherwise, the set $X_1 \amalg X_2$ is defined so that its subsets $X_1 \subset X_1 \amalg X_2$ and $X_2 \subset X_1 \amalg X_2$ are disjoint.

3.4. Products of two spaces. Here is another way of inducing new topologies from old.

DEFINITION 3.18. Given two spaces $(X_1, \mathcal{T}_1)$ and $(X_2, \mathcal{T}_2)$, the **product topology** $\mathcal{T}$ on $X_1 \times X_2$ is generated by the base

$$\mathcal{B} := \{\mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2 \subset X_1 \times X_2 \mid \mathcal{U}_1 \in \mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{U}_2 \in \mathcal{T}_2\}.$$

A natural beginner's mistake might be to imagine that in the product topology on $X_1 \times X_2$, every open set should take the form $\mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2$ for $\mathcal{U}_1 \subset X_1$ and $\mathcal{U}_2 \subset X_2$ open, but that is not what Definition 3.18 says. Rather, just as open sets in a metric space are unions of open balls, specifying the base $\mathcal{B}$ in Definition 3.18 means that all open sets in $X_1 \times X_2$ are *unions* of sets of the form $\mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2$. Requiring all of them to be of the latter form would be wrong for a few reasons: first, the collection of sets defined in that way would not be a topology, because unions of such product sets are generally not also products of the same form. Moreover, you can see in the example of $\mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ that this would give the wrong notion of open sets: the natural Euclidean topology of $\mathbb{R}^2$ has many open sets that are not of the form $\mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2$ for $\mathcal{U}_1 \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\mathcal{U}_2 \subset \mathbb{R}$ open, though since every open ball in $\mathbb{R}^2$ also contains smaller “boxes” of the form $(a, b) \times (c, d)$, all open sets in $\mathbb{R}^2$ can indeed be presented as *unions* of products of open intervals.

Notice that if $X_1 \times X_2$ is endowed with the product topology, then both of the projection maps

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1 : X_1 \times X_2 &\rightarrow X_1 : (x_1, x_2) \mapsto x_1 \\ \pi_2 : X_1 \times X_2 &\rightarrow X_2 : (x_1, x_2) \mapsto x_2\end{aligned}$$

are continuous. Indeed, for any open set $\mathcal{U}_1 \subset X_1$, $\pi_1^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_1) = \mathcal{U}_1 \times X_2$ is the product of two open sets and is therefore open in $X_1 \times X_2$; similarly, $\pi_2^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_2) = X_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2$ is open if $\mathcal{U}_2 \subset X_2$ is open. Notice moreover that the intersection of these two sets is $\mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathcal{U}_2$, so one can form all open sets in the product topology as unions of sets that are finite intersections of the form $\pi_1^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_1) \cap \pi_2^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_2)$. In other words, the subcollection

$$\{\pi_1^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \mid \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}_1\} \cup \{\pi_2^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \mid \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{T}_2\}$$

forms a subbase for the product topology $\mathcal{T}$. This makes $\mathcal{T}$ the weakest (i.e. smallest) topology for which the projection maps π_1 and π_2 are both continuous.

This discussion is valid for a product of *two* spaces, but it generalizes easily to any product of *finitely many* spaces. What happens in the case of infinitely-many spaces is a bit surprising, and we'll tackle that in the next lecture.

3.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 3.1 (*). Prove Proposition 3.2, characterizing interiors and closures as largest open subsets and smallest closed subsets respectively.

EXERCISE 3.2. Convince yourself that for any metric space (X, d) and subset $A \subset X$, the natural metrizable topology on (A, d) is precisely the subspace topology with respect to the topology on X induced by d .

EXERCISE 3.3 (*). Given a collection $\mathcal{B}$ of subsets of a fixed set X , define $\mathcal{T}$ to be the collection of all sets of the form

$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} (\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_\alpha^{N_\alpha}) \subset X,$$

where I is an arbitrary (possibly empty) set, and for each $\alpha \in I$, $N_\alpha \geq 1$ is an integer and $\mathcal{U}_\alpha^i \in \mathcal{B}$ for $i = 1, \dots, N_\alpha$. Prove that $\mathcal{T}$ is a topology on X if and only if $\bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{B}} A = X$.

EXERCISE 3.4. Each of the following collections $\mathcal{B}$ of subsets in $\mathbb{R}$ is a subbase of either the *standard*, *discrete*, or *cofinite* topology on $\mathbb{R}$. For each subbase, say which topology it generates. In which cases is the subbase also a base?

- (a) $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x\} \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- (b) $\mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid -\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty\}$
- (c) $\mathcal{B} = \{\{x, y\} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R} \text{ with } x \neq y\}$
- (d) $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbb{R} \setminus \{x, y\} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R} \text{ with } x \neq y\}$
- (e) $\mathcal{B} = \{\{x\} \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$

EXERCISE 3.5 (*). Suppose $\mathcal{B}$ is a subbase for a topology $\mathcal{T}$ on a set X .

- (a) Show that a sequence $x_n \in X$ converges to $x \in X$ if and only if for every $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ containing x , $x_n \in \mathcal{U}$ for all n sufficiently large.
- (b) Given another topological space Y , show that a map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if for every $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is open in Y .

EXERCISE 3.6. Let $\mathbb{R}_{\text{std}}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{\text{cof}}$ denote topological spaces consisting of the set $\mathbb{R}$ with the standard or cofinite topology respectively; recall that for the latter, subsets other than $\mathbb{R}$ are closed if and only if they are finite.

- (a) Show that a map $f : \mathbb{R}_{\text{cof}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\text{std}}$ is continuous if and only if it is constant.
Hint: If f is not constant, what can you say about $f^{-1}([n, n+1])$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$?
- (b) What does it mean for a sequence $x_n \in \mathbb{R}_{\text{cof}}$ to converge to $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\text{cof}}$?

EXERCISE 3.7 (*). Prove Proposition 3.15, characterizing the disjoint union topology in terms of the continuity of natural inclusions.

EXERCISE 3.8. Let $I = \mathbb{R}$ and define X_α for each $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ to be the same space consisting of only one element; for concreteness, say $X_\alpha := \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}$. According to the definition described in Remark 3.17, this sets up an obvious bijection

$$\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} \{0\} := \{(\alpha, 0) \in \mathbb{R} \times \{0\}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

$$(\alpha, 0) \mapsto \alpha.$$

Show that this bijection is a homeomorphism if we assign the discrete topology to $\mathbb{R}$ on the right hand side.

4. Products, sequential continuity and nets

From now on, we'll adopt the following convention of terminology: if I say that X is a “**space**”, then I mean X is a *topological* space unless I specifically say otherwise or the context clearly indicates that I mean something different (e.g. that X is a vector space). Similarly, if X and Y are spaces in the above sense and I refer to $f : X \rightarrow Y$ as a “**map**”, then I typically mean that f is a *continuous* map unless the context indicates otherwise. We will sometimes have occasion to speak of maps $f : I \rightarrow X$ where X is a space but I is only a **set**, on which no topology has been specified: in this case no continuity is assumed since that notion is not well defined, but I will often try to be extra clear about it by calling f a “(not necessarily continuous) function” or something to that effect. I do not promise to be completely consistent about this, but hopefully my intended meaning will never be in doubt.

The previous lecture introduced three ways of inducing new topologies from old ones, namely on subspaces, disjoint unions of collections of spaces, and products of two spaces. It remains to discuss the natural topologies defined on arbitrary products, and on quotients. We'll deal with the former in this lecture, and then use it to construct a surprising example illustrating the distinction between continuity and sequential continuity.

4.1. The topology of infinite products. Given spaces X_1 and X_2 , the most important observation about the product topology on $X_1 \times X_2$ is that it is the *weakest* for which the two projection maps $\pi_1 : X_1 \times X_2 \rightarrow X_1$ and $\pi_2 : X_1 \times X_2 \rightarrow X_2$ are both continuous. This leads to the natural generalization of the discussion to infinite products, but the outcome turns out to be slightly different from what you probably would have expected.

Suppose $\{(X_\alpha, \mathcal{T}_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a collection of spaces, indexed by an arbitrary (possibly infinite) set I . Their product can be defined as the set

$$\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha := \left\{ \text{functions } f : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha : \alpha \mapsto x_\alpha \text{ such that } x_\alpha \in X_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in I \right\}.$$

Note that since I in this discussion is only a set with no topology, there is no assumption of continuity for the functions $\alpha \mapsto x_\alpha$. Whether the set I is infinite or finite, we can denote elements of the product space by

$$\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha,$$

so we think of each of the individual elements $x_\alpha \in X_\alpha$ as “coordinates” on the product.

DEFINITION 4.1. The **product topology** (*Produkttopologie*) on $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is the weakest topology such that all of the projection maps

$$\pi_\alpha : \prod_{\beta \in I} X_\beta \rightarrow X_\alpha : \{x_\beta\}_{\beta \in I} \mapsto x_\alpha$$

for $\alpha \in I$ are continuous.

In particular, the product topology must contain $\pi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\alpha)$ for every $\alpha \in I$ and $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha$, and it is the smallest topology that contains them, which means the sets $\pi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\alpha)$ form a subbase. It is important to spell out precisely what this means. We have

$$\pi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\alpha) = \left\{ \{x_\beta\}_{\beta \in I} \in \prod_{\beta \in I} X_\beta \mid x_\alpha \in \mathcal{U}_\alpha \right\},$$

so in each of these sets, only a single coordinate is constrained. It follows that in a finite intersection of sets of this form, only *finitely many* of the coordinates will be constrained, while the rest remain completely free. This implies:

PROPOSITION 4.2. *A base for the product topology on $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is formed by the collection of all subsets of the form $\prod_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ where $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$ is open for every $\alpha \in I$ and $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \neq X_\alpha$ is satisfied for at most finitely many $\alpha \in I$.* $\square$

The last part of the above statement makes no difference when the product is finite, but for infinite products, it means that arbitrary subsets of the form $\prod_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ are not open just because $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$ is open for every α . Dropping the “at most finitely many” condition would produce a much stronger topology with very different properties (see Exercise 4.2).

The proofs of the next two results are straightforward applications of Exercise 3.5:

PROPOSITION 4.3. *A sequence $\{x_\alpha^n\}_{\alpha \in I} \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ in the product topology if and only if for all $\alpha \in I$, the individual sequences x_α^n converge in X_α to x_α .* $\square$

PROPOSITION 4.4. *For any other space Y , a map $f : Y \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is continuous if and only if $\pi_\alpha \circ f : Y \rightarrow X_\alpha$ is continuous for every $\alpha \in I$.* $\square$

There is a special notation for the product set in the case where all the X_α are taken to be the same fixed space X : the product $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X$ has an obvious identification with the set of all (not necessarily continuous) functions $I \rightarrow X$, and we write

$$X^I := \prod_{\alpha \in I} X = \{(\text{not necessarily continuous}) \text{ functions } f : I \rightarrow X\}.$$

For example we could now write $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{\{1, \dots, n\}}$ if we preferred. The notation is motivated in part by the combinatorial observation that if X and I are both finite sets with a and b elements respectively, then X^I has a^b elements. The case $X = \{0, 1\}$ is popular in abstract set theory since $\{0, 1\}^I = \{f : I \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\}$ has a straightforward interpretation as the set of all subsets of I , which is often abbreviated as $2^I := \{0, 1\}^I$. But this example is not very interesting for topology since $\{0, 1\}$ is not a very interesting topological space (no matter which topology you put on it—there are only four choices). When X is a more interesting space, the most important thing to understand about X^I comes from Exercise 4.1: a sequence of functions $f_n \in X^I$ converges to $f \in X^I$ if and only if it converges **pointwise**, i.e.

$$f_n(\alpha) \rightarrow f(\alpha) \quad \text{for every } \alpha \in I.$$

The product topology on X^I is therefore also sometimes called the **topology of pointwise convergence** (*punktweise Konvergenz*).

4.2. Sequential continuity. With examples like these at our disposal, we can now address the following important question in full generality:

QUESTION 4.5. *To what extent are the following conditions for maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between topological spaces equivalent?*

- $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is open for every open set $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$;
- For every convergent sequence $x_n \rightarrow x$ in X , $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$ in Y .

The first condition is ordinary continuity, while the second is called **sequential continuity** (*Folgenstetigkeit*). We proved in Lecture 2 that these two conditions are equivalent for maps between *metric spaces*, and if you look again at the proof that (b) $\Rightarrow$ (c) in the discussion following Definition 2.4, you'll see that it still makes sense in arbitrary topological spaces, proving:

THEOREM 4.6. *For arbitrary topological spaces X and Y , all continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are sequentially continuous.* $\square$

The converse is trickier. Look again at the proof in Lecture 2 that (c) $\Rightarrow$ (b) for Definition 2.4. That proof specifically referred to open balls about a point, so it is not so clear how to make sense of it in topological spaces where there is no metric. We can see however that the argument still works if we can remove all mention of open balls and replace it with the following lemma:

“LEMMA” 4.7. *In any topological space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is not open if and only if there exists a point $x \in A$ and a sequence $x_n \in X \setminus A$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x$.*

I've put the word “lemma” in quotation marks here for a very good reason: as written, the statement is *false*, and so is the converse of Theorem 4.6! Sequential continuity does not always imply continuity. Here is a counterexample.

EXAMPLE 4.8 (cf. [Jän05, §6.3]). Let $X = C^0([0, 1], [-1, 1]) \subset [-1, 1]^{[0, 1]}$, i.e. X is the set of all continuous functions $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$, and we assign to it the subspace topology as a subset of the space $[-1, 1]^{[0, 1]}$ of *all* functions $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$. In other words, X carries the topology

of pointwise convergence. Next, define Y to be the same set, but with the topology induced by the L^2 -metric

$$d_2(f, g) = \sqrt{\int_0^1 |f(t) - g(t)|^2 dt}.$$

Now consider the identity map from X to Y :

$$\Phi : X \rightarrow Y : f \mapsto f.$$

If $f_n \rightarrow f$ is a convergent sequence in X , then the functions converge pointwise, so $|f_n - f|^2$ converges pointwise to 0, and we claim that this implies $\int_0^1 |f_n(t) - f(t)|^2 dt \rightarrow 0$. This requires a fundamental result from measure theory, Lebesgue's *dominated convergence theorem* (see e.g. [LL01, §1.8] or [Rud87, Theorem 1.34]): it states that if g_n is a sequence of measurable functions that converge almost everywhere to g and all satisfy $|g_n| \leq G$ for some Lebesgue integrable function G , then $\int g_n$ converges to $\int g$. In the present case, the hypotheses are satisfied since the functions f_n take values in the bounded domain $[-1, 1]$, which bounds $|f_n - f|$ uniformly below the constant (and thus integrable) function 2. We conclude that $d_2(f_n, f) \rightarrow 0$, hence Φ is sequentially continuous.

To show however that Φ is continuous, we would need to find for every $\epsilon > 0$ a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of 0 such that $\Phi(\mathcal{U}) \subset B_\epsilon(0) \subset Y$. The trouble here is that neighborhoods in X (with the product topology) are somewhat peculiar objects: if $\mathcal{U}$ is one, then it contains some open set containing 0, which means it contains at least one of the sets $\prod_{\alpha \in [0,1]} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ in our base for the product topology, where the $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$ are all open neighborhoods of 0 in $[-1, 1]$ but there is at most a finite subset $I \subset [0, 1]$ consisting of $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ for which $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \neq [-1, 1]$. Now choose a continuous function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ that vanishes on the finite subset I but equals 1 on a “large” subset of $[0, 1] \setminus I$. Depending how many points are in I , you may have to make this function oscillate very rapidly back and forth between 0 and 1, but since I is only finite, you can still do this such that the measure of the domain on which $f = 1$ is as close to 1 as you like, which makes $d_2(f, 0)$ also only slightly less than 1. In particular, f belongs to the neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ in X but not to $B_\epsilon(0) \subset Y$ if ϵ is sufficiently small.

4.3. The countability axioms. We deduce from the above example that “Lemma” 4.7 is not always true, since it would imply that continuity and sequential continuity are equivalent. We are led to ask: what extra hypotheses could be added so that the lemma holds?

DEFINITION 4.9. Given a point x in a space X , a **neighborhood base** (*Umgebungsbasis*) for x is a collection $\mathcal{B}$ of neighborhoods of x such that every neighborhood of x contains some $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$.

Recall that a set I is **countable** (*abzählbar*) if it admits an injection into the natural numbers $\mathbb{N}$. This definition allows I to be either finite or infinite; if it is “countably infinite” then we can equivalently say that I admits a bijection with $\mathbb{N}$. This is also equivalent to saying that there exists a sequence $\{x_n \in I\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ that includes every point of I . For example, it is easy to show that the set $\mathbb{Q}$ of rational numbers is countable, but Cantor’s famous “diagonal” argument shows that $\mathbb{R}$ is not.

DEFINITION 4.10 (the countability axioms). A space X is called **first countable** (“ X erfüllt das erste Abzählbarkeitsaxiom”) if every point $x \in X$ has a countable neighborhood base. We call X **second countable** (“ X erfüllt das zweite Abzählbarkeitsaxiom”) if its topology has a countable base.

It is easy to see that every second countable space is also first countable: if X has a countable base $\mathcal{B}$, then for each $x \in X$, the collection of sets in $\mathcal{B}$ that contain x is a countable neighborhood base for x . The next example shows that the converse is false.

EXAMPLE 4.11. If X has the discrete topology, then it is first countable because for each $x \in X$, one can form a neighborhood base out of the single open set $\{x\} \subset X$. But X is second countable if and only if X itself is a countable set (prove it!), so e.g. $\mathbb{R}$ with the discrete topology is first but not second countable.

EXAMPLE 4.12. All metric spaces are first countable. Indeed, for every $x \in X$, the collection of open balls $B_{1/n}(x) \subset X$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ forms a countable neighborhood base. (Note that Example 4.11 is a special case of this, so not all metric spaces are second countable.)

We can now prove a corrected version of “Lemma” 4.7. Let us first make a useful general observation that follows directly from the axioms of a topology.

LEMMA 4.13. *In any space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is open if and only if every point $x \in A$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ that is contained in A .*

PROOF. If the latter condition holds, then A is the union of open sets contained in such neighborhoods and is therefore open. Conversely, if A is open, then A itself can be taken as the desired neighborhood of every $x \in A$. $\square$

LEMMA 4.14. *In any first countable topological space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is not open if and only if there exists a point $x \in A$ and a sequence $x_n \in X \setminus A$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x$.*

PROOF. If $A \subset X$ is open, then for every $x \in A$ and sequence $x_n \in X$ converging to x , we cannot have $x_n \in X \setminus A$ for all n since A is a neighborhood of x . This is true so far for *all* topological spaces, with or without the first countability axiom, but the latter will be needed in order to prove the converse. So, suppose now that $A \subset X$ is not open, which by Lemma 4.13, means there exists a point $x \in A$ such that no neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x is contained in A . Fix a countable neighborhood base $\mathcal{U}_1, \mathcal{U}_2, \mathcal{U}_3, \dots$ for x .

It will make our lives slightly easier if the neighborhood base is a nested sequence, meaning

$$X \supset \mathcal{U}_1 \supset \mathcal{U}_2 \supset \mathcal{U}_3 \supset \dots \ni x,$$

and we claim that this can be assumed without loss of generality. Indeed, the sets

$$\mathcal{V}_n := \mathcal{U}_1 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

form a nested sequence of this type, and they also give a neighborhood base of x , since for any neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x , we have $\mathcal{U} \supset \mathcal{U}_n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, implying $\mathcal{U} \supset \mathcal{V}_n$. Let us replace our original sequence with the nested sequence and continue to call it $\{\mathcal{U}_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

With this new assumption in place, observe that since none of the neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_n$ can be contained in A , there exists a sequence of points

$$x_n \in \mathcal{U}_n \quad \text{such that} \quad x_n \notin A.$$

This sequence converges to x since every neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x contains one of the $\mathcal{U}_N$, implying that for all $n \geq N$,

$$x_n \in \mathcal{U}_n \subset \mathcal{U}_N \subset \mathcal{V}.$$

$\square$

Combining this lemma with our proof in Lecture 2 that sequential continuity implies continuity in metric spaces yields:

COROLLARY 4.15. *For any spaces X and Y such that X is first countable, every sequentially continuous map $X \rightarrow Y$ is also continuous.* $\square$

4.4. Convergence of nets. It is possible to generalize Corollary 4.15 beyond first countable spaces, but it requires expanding our notion of what a “sequence” can be. If you think of a sequence in X as a map from the (ordered) set of natural numbers $\mathbb{N}$ to X , then one possible way to generalize is to consider more general partially ordered sets as domains. Recall that a binary relation $<$ defined on some subset of all pairs of elements in a set I is called a **partial order** (*Halbordnung* or *Teilordnung*) if it satisfies (i) $x < x$ for all x , (ii) $x < y$ and $y < x$ implies $x = y$, and (iii) $x < y$ and $y < z$ implies $x < z$. We write “ $x > y$ ” as a synonym for “ $y < x$ ”, and the set I together with its partial order $<$ is called a **partially ordered set** (*partiell geordnete Menge*). One obvious example is $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$, though unlike this example (which is *totally* ordered), it is not generally required in a partially ordered set $(I, <)$ that every pair of elements $x, y \in I$ satisfy either $x < y$ or $y < x$. We will see more exotic examples below.

DEFINITION 4.16. A **directed set** (*gerichtete Menge*) $(I, <)$ consists of a set I with a partial order $<$ such that for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in I$, there exists an element $\gamma \in I$ with $\gamma > \alpha$ and $\gamma > \beta$.

The natural numbers $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ clearly form a directed set, but in topology, one also encounters many interesting examples of directed sets that need not be totally ordered or countable.

EXAMPLE 4.17. If X is a space and $x \in X$, one can define a directed set $(I, <)$ where I is the set of all neighborhoods of x in X , and $\mathcal{U} < \mathcal{V}$ for $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \in I$ means $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$. This is a directed set because given any pair of neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x , the intersection $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ is also a neighborhood of x and thus defines an element of I with $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{V}$. Note that neither of $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{V}$ need be contained in the other, so they might not satisfy either $\mathcal{U} < \mathcal{V}$ or $\mathcal{V} < \mathcal{U}$.

DEFINITION 4.18. Given a space X , a **net** (*Netz*) $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X is a function $I \rightarrow X : \alpha \mapsto x_\alpha$, where $(I, <)$ is a directed set.

DEFINITION 4.19. We say that a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X **converges** to $x \in X$ if for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x , there exists an element $\alpha_0 \in I$ such that $x_\alpha \in \mathcal{U}$ for every $\alpha > \alpha_0$.

Convergence of nets is also sometimes referred to in the literature as *Moore-Smith convergence*, see e.g. [Kel75]. Note that a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ whose underlying directed set is $(I, <) = (\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ is simply a sequence, and the above definition then reduces to the usual notion of convergence for a sequence. We can now prove the most general corrected version of “Lemma” 4.7.

LEMMA 4.20. *In any space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is not open if and only if there exists a point $x \in A$ and a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X that converges to x but satisfies $x_\alpha \notin A$ for every $\alpha \in I$.*

PROOF. If $A \subset X$ is open then it is a neighborhood of every $x \in A$, so the nonexistence of such a net is an immediate consequence of Definition 4.19. Conversely, if A is not open, then Lemma 4.13 provides a point $x \in A$ such that for every neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x , there exists a point

$$x_{\mathcal{V}} \in \mathcal{V} \quad \text{such that} \quad x_{\mathcal{V}} \notin A.$$

Taking $(I, <)$ to be the directed set of all neighborhoods of x , ordered by inclusion as in Example 4.17, the collection of points $\{x_{\mathcal{V}}\}_{\mathcal{V} \in I}$ is now a net which converges to x since for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x ,

$$\mathcal{V} > \mathcal{U} \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_{\mathcal{V}} \in \mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}.$$

□

Putting all this together leads to the following statement equating continuity with a generalized notion of sequential continuity. The proof is just a repeat of arguments we’ve already worked through, but we’ll spell it out for the sake of completeness.

THEOREM 4.21. *For any spaces X and Y , a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if for every net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X converging to a point $x \in X$, the net $\{f(x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in Y converges to $f(x)$.*

PROOF. Suppose f is continuous and $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a net in X converging to $x \in X$. Then for any neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ of $f(x)$, $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is a neighborhood of x , hence there exists $\alpha_0 \in I$ such that $\alpha > \alpha_0$ implies $x_\alpha \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, or equivalently, $f(x_\alpha) \in \mathcal{U}$. This proves that $\{f(x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ converges in the sense of Definition 4.19 to $f(x)$.

To prove the converse, let us suppose that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is not continuous, so there exists an open set $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$ for which $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is not open. Then by Lemma 4.20, there exists a point $x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ and a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X that converges to x but satisfies $x_\alpha \notin f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ for every $\alpha \in I$. Now $\{f(x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a net in Y that does not converge to $f(x)$, since $\mathcal{U}$ is an open neighborhood of $f(x)$ but $f(x_\alpha)$ is never in $\mathcal{U}$. $\square$

Nets take a bit of getting used to in comparison with sequences. The following addendum to Example 4.8 may help in this regard, but it may also make you feel deeply unsettled.

EXAMPLE 4.22. For the identity map $\Phi : X \rightarrow Y$ in Example 4.8, one could extract from the above proof an example of a net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X that converges to 0 without $\{\Phi(x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ converging to 0 in Y , but here is perhaps a slightly simpler example. Define I as the set of all finite subsets of $[0, 1]$, with the partial order $A < B$ for $A, B \subset [0, 1]$ defined to mean $A \subset B$. Note that $(I, <)$ is a directed set since for any two finite subsets $A, B \subset [0, 1]$, $A \cup B$ is also a finite subset and thus an element of I . Now choose for each $A \in I$ a continuous function

$$f_A : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

such that $f_A|_A = 0$ but $\int_0^1 |f_A(t)|^2 dt > 1/4$. The net $\{\Phi(f_A)\}_{A \in I}$ in Y clearly does not converge to 0 since none of these functions belong to the ball $B_{1/2}(0)$ in Y . But $\{f_A\}_{A \in I}$ does converge to 0 in X : indeed, since X has the product topology, any neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of 0 contains some open neighborhood of 0 that is of the form $\prod_{\alpha \in [0, 1]} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ for open neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset [-1, 1]$ of 0 such that $\mathcal{U}_\alpha = [-1, 1]$ for all α outside of some finite subset $A_0 \subset [0, 1]$. It follows that for all $A \in I$ with $A \supset A_0$,

$$f_A(\alpha) = 0 \in \mathcal{U}_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in A_0,$$

implying $f_A \in \mathcal{U}$.

4.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 4.1 (*). Prove Propositions 4.3 and 4.4 on convergence and continuity respectively in the product topology.

Hint: Make a simple choice of subbase for the product topology and use Exercise 3.5.

EXERCISE 4.2. Assume I is an infinite set and $\{(X_\alpha, \mathcal{T}_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a collection of topological spaces. In addition to the usual product topology on $\prod_\alpha X_\alpha$, one can define the so-called *box topology*, which has a base of the form

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \mid \mathcal{U}_\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in I \right\}.$$

- Compared with the usual product topology, is the box topology stronger, weaker, or neither?
- What does it mean for a sequence in $\prod_\alpha X_\alpha$ to converge in the box topology? In particular, consider the case where all the X_α are a fixed space X and $\prod_\alpha X$ is identified with the space of all functions $X^I = \{f : I \rightarrow X\}$; what does it mean for a sequence of functions $f_n : I \rightarrow X$ to converge in the box topology to a function $f : I \rightarrow X$?

EXERCISE 4.3. For any topological space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is called **dense** if its closure $\bar{A}$ is X . We say that X is **separable** if it contains a dense subset that is countable.

- (a) Show that if X is a metric space and $A \subset X$ is a dense subset, then the balls $B_{1/n}(x)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in A$ form a base for the topology of X .

Hint: If the statement is not true, then there exists an open set $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ containing a point y which is not in any ball of the form $B_{1/n}(x) \subset \mathcal{U}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in A$. Use the fact that since A is dense, $A \cap B_\epsilon(y) \neq \emptyset$ for every $\epsilon > 0$. Can you find an $\epsilon > 0$ such that $B_{2\epsilon}(y) \subset \mathcal{U}$ and some $x \in A \cap B_\epsilon(y)$ must satisfy $y \in B_{1/n}(x)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$?

- (b) Deduce from part (a) that every topological space that is separable and metrizable is also second countable.

Remark: As we saw in Example 4.12, metrizable spaces are always first countable, but they need not be second countable in general, e.g. any uncountable set with the discrete topology is a counterexample.

- (c) Show that $\mathbb{R}^n$ with its standard topology is separable.
 (d) Show that if X is any second countable space, then every subset $A \subset X$ with the subspace topology is also second countable.

EXERCISE 4.4. Here is a statement that is **not true**.

If X is a topological space in which every open cover has a finite subcover, then every sequence in X has a convergent subsequence.

You learned in analysis that this is true for metric spaces in general, and it will turn out to be true for a somewhat larger class of topological spaces, but not all of them—we will see a counterexample in Lecture 5. Nonetheless, you might agree that the following “proof” looks very plausible at first glance. Find the error in the proof. Can you fix it by adding an extra assumption about X ? (Think of the countability axioms...)

“Proof”: *Arguing by contradiction, suppose every open cover of X has a finite subcover, but $x_n \in X$ is a sequence with no convergent subsequence. In particular, for every $x \in X$, no subsequence of x_n converges to x , which means that x_n cannot enter arbitrary neighborhoods of x for arbitrarily large values of n , i.e. there exists $N_x \in \mathbb{N}$ and an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U}_x \subset X$ of x such that $x_n \notin \mathcal{U}_x$ for every $n \geq N_x$. The collection $\{\mathcal{U}_x\}_{x \in X}$ is then an open cover of X , so by assumption, there exists a finite subset $I \subset X$ such that $X = \bigcup_{x \in I} \mathcal{U}_x$. But each of these finitely many subsets contains at most finitely many terms of x_n , and this is impossible since there are infinitely many terms.*

5. Compactness

5.1. Definition and examples. We saw in our discussion of metric spaces (Lecture 2) that boundedness is not a meaningful notion in topology, i.e. even if we have data such as a metric with which to define what a “bounded” set is, it may still be homeomorphic to sets that are not bounded. Instead, we consider *compact* sets, a notion that is topologically invariant. The main definition carries over from Lecture 2 with no change.

DEFINITION 5.1. Given a space X and subset $A \subset X$, an **open cover/covering** (*offene Überdeckung*) of A is a collection of open subsets $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in I}$ such that $A \subset \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$.

We will also occasionally use the notation

$$A \subset \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{O}} \mathcal{U}$$

to indicate an open covering of A , where $\mathcal{O}$ is a collection of open subsets of X , i.e. $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathcal{T}$, where $\mathcal{T}$ is the topology of X .

DEFINITION 5.2. A subset $A \subset X$ is **compact** (*kompakt*) if every open cover of A has a finite subcover (*eine endliche Teilüberdeckung*), i.e. given an arbitrary open cover $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of A , one can always find a finite subset $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\} \subset I$ such that $A \subset \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_N}$. We say that X itself is a **compact space** if X is a compact subset of itself.

You should take a moment to convince yourself of the following: In any space X , a subset $A \subset X$ is compact if and only if A with the subspace topology is a compact space.

EXAMPLE 5.3. For any space X with the discrete topology, a subset $A \subset X$ is compact if and only if A is finite. Indeed, the collection of subsets $\{\{x\} \subset X\}_{x \in A}$ forms an open covering of A in the discrete topology, and it has a finite subcovering if and only if A is finite, hence compactness implies finiteness. The converse follows from the next example.

EXAMPLE 5.4. In any space X , every finite subset $A \subset X$ is compact. Indeed, for $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_N\}$ with an open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, pick any $\alpha_i \in I$ with $a_i \in \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_i}$ for $i = 1, \dots, N$, then the sets $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_1}, \dots, \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_N}$ form an open subcover.

EXAMPLE 5.5. A subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ in Euclidean space with its standard topology is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded. This is known as the *Heine-Borel theorem*, and in one direction it is easy to prove (see Exercise 5.1). For the other direction, you have probably seen a proof in your analysis classes of the *Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem*, stating that if A is closed and bounded, then every sequence in A has a convergent subsequence with limit in A ; we say in this case that A is *sequentially compact*. We will prove in the following that compactness and sequential compactness are equivalent for second countable spaces, and by Exercise 4.3, every subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is second countable. A frequently occurring concrete example is the sphere

$$S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1},$$

which is a closed and bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, and is therefore compact.

REMARK 5.6. By Exercise 5.1, compact subsets of metric spaces are always closed and bounded. The converse is generally false: Being closed and bounded is not enough for compactness in arbitrary metric spaces. Here is an important class of examples from functional analysis: a vector space $\mathcal{H}$ with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is called a **Hilbert space** (*Hilbertraum*) if it is complete (meaning all Cauchy sequences converge) with respect to the metric $d(x, y) = \sqrt{\langle x - y, x - y \rangle}$. The closed unit ball $\bar{B}_1(0) = \{x \in \mathcal{H} \mid \langle x, x \rangle \leq 1\}$ is clearly both closed and bounded in $\mathcal{H}$, and it is compact if $\mathcal{H}$ is finite dimensional since, in this case, $\mathcal{H}$ is both linearly isomorphic and homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$ (or $\mathbb{C}^n$ in the complex case) with its standard inner product. But if $\mathcal{H}$ is infinite dimensional, then $\bar{B}_1(0)$ contains an infinite orthonormal set $e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots$, i.e. satisfying

$$\langle e_i, e_i \rangle = 1 \text{ for all } i, \quad \langle e_i, e_j \rangle = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j.$$

It then follows by a standard argument of Euclidean geometry that $d(e_i, e_j) = \sqrt{2}$ whenever $i \neq j$, so for any $r < \sqrt{2}/2$, no ball of radius r in $\mathcal{H}$ can contain more than one of these vectors. It follows that $\{B_r(x) \mid x \in \mathcal{H}\}$ is an open cover of $\bar{B}_1(0)$ that has no finite subcover. This way of characterizing the distinction between finite- and infinite-dimensional Hilbert spaces in terms of the compactness of the unit ball has useful applications, e.g. in the theory of elliptic PDEs. The latter has many quite deep applications in geometry and topology, for instance the index theory of Atiyah-Singer (see [Boo77, BB85]), gauge-theoretic invariants of smooth manifolds [DK90], and the theory of pseudoholomorphic curves in symplectic topology [MS12, Wen18].

EXAMPLE 5.7. A union of finitely many compact subsets in a space X is also compact. (This is an easy exercise.)

PROPOSITION 5.8. *For any compact subset $K \subset X$, if $A \subset X$ is closed and also is contained in K , then A is compact.*

PROOF. Suppose $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is an open cover of A . Since A is closed, $X \setminus A$ is open, so that supplementing the collection $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ with $X \setminus A$ defines an open cover of X , and therefore also an open cover of K . Since K is compact, there is then a finite subset $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N\} \subset I$ such that

$$K \subset \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_N} \cup (X \setminus A).$$

But $A \subset K$ is disjoint from $X \setminus A$, so this means $A \subset \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_N}$, and we have found the desired finite subcover for A . $\square$

The following theorem is just a repeat of Theorem 2.8, but in the more general context of topological rather than metric spaces. The proof carries over word for word.

THEOREM 5.9. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and $K \subset X$ is compact, then so is $f(K) \subset Y$.* $\square$

5.2. Quotient spaces. Now is a good moment to introduce the quotient topology, since it provides a large class of new examples of compact spaces.

DEFINITION 5.10. Suppose X is a space and $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on X , with the set of equivalence classes denoted by $X/\sim$. The **quotient topology** on $X/\sim$ is the strongest topology for which the natural projection map $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$ sending each point $x \in X$ to its equivalence class $[x] \in X/\sim$ is continuous. Equivalently, a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X/\sim$ is open in the quotient topology if and only if $\pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is an open subset of X .

I suggest you pause for a moment to make sure you understand why the two descriptions of the quotient topology in that definition are equivalent. Applying Theorem 5.9 to the continuous projection $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$, we now have:

COROLLARY 5.11. *For any compact space X with an equivalence relation $\sim$, $X/\sim$ with the quotient topology is also compact.* $\square$

EXAMPLE 5.12. Since S^n is compact, so is $\mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \{\mathbf{x} \sim -\mathbf{x}\}$ if we assign it the quotient topology. (Note that by Exercise 2.4(c), the quotient topology on $\mathbb{RP}^n$ is metrizable, and can be defined in terms of a natural metric induced on the quotient from the Euclidean metric restricted to S^n .)

EXAMPLE 5.13. The space S^1 , known as the **circle**, is normally defined as the unit circle in $\mathbb{R}^2$ and endowed with the subspace topology (induced by the Euclidean metric on $\mathbb{R}^2$). One can show (see Exercise 5.2) that the following spaces with their natural quotient topologies are both homeomorphic to S^1 :

- (a) $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$, meaning the set of equivalence classes of real numbers where $x \sim y$ means $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (b) $[0, 1]/\sim$, where $0 \sim 1$.

For the next example, we introduce a convenient piece of standard notation.

DEFINITION 5.14. The quotient of a space X by a subset $A \subset X$ is defined as

$$X/A := X/\sim$$

with the quotient topology, where the equivalence relation is defined such that $x \sim y$ for every $x, y \in A$ and otherwise $x \sim x$ for all $x \in X$. In other words, X/A is the result of modifying X by “collapsing A to a point”.

REMARK 5.15. The notation “ $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ ” in Example 5.13(a) now has two distinct possible meanings, depending on whether one interprets it algebraically or topologically. It was meant algebraically in the example, i.e. as a quotient of a group by a normal subgroup, which inherits a quotient topology because the original group has a natural topology and we are applying an equivalence relation to it. Interpreting $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ in the sense of Definition 5.14 would produce a quite different (and less familiar) topological space, because “collapsing $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}$ to a point” defines a different equivalence relation on $\mathbb{R}$, in which all integers become equivalent to each other but all nonintegers remain distinct.

EXAMPLE 5.16. Exercise 5.2 also shows that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, S^n is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1}$, where

$$\mathbb{D}^n := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid |\mathbf{x}| \leq 1\}.$$

Note: The homeomorphism $S^1 \cong [0, 1]/\sim$ in Example 5.13 becomes a special case of this if we replace $[0, 1]$ by $\mathbb{D}^1 = [-1, 1]$.

5.3. Sequential compactness and cluster points. The remainder of this lecture will be concerned with the extent to which compactness is equivalent to the notion of **sequential compactness** (*Folgenkompaktheit*), defined as follows:

DEFINITION 5.17. A subset $A \subset X$ is **sequentially compact** if every sequence in A has a subsequence that converges to a point in A .

As you might guess from our discussion of sequential continuity in the previous lecture, compactness and sequential compactness are not generally equivalent without some extra condition. But as with continuity, one obtains a result free of extra conditions by replacing sequences with *nets*.

DEFINITION 5.18. Suppose $(I, <)$ is a directed set and $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is a net in a space X . A point $x \in X$ is called a **cluster point** (*Häufungspunkt*) of $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ if for every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x and every $\alpha_0 \in I$, there exists $\alpha > \alpha_0$ such that $x_\alpha \in \mathcal{U}$.

Notice that the above definition is almost identical to that of *convergence* of $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ to x (see Definition 4.19), only the roles of “for every” and “there exist” have been reversed at the end. Informally, x being a cluster point does not require x_α to be arbitrarily close to x for *all* sufficiently large α , but only that one should be able to find *some* α arbitrarily large for which x_α is arbitrarily close. You should take a moment to think about what this definition means in the special case $(I, <) = (\mathbb{N}, \leq)$, where the net becomes a sequence, so the notion should be already familiar.

DEFINITION 5.19. Given two directed sets $(I, <)$ and $(J, <)$, and nets $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ and $\{y_\beta\}_{\beta \in J}$ in a space X , we call $\{y_\beta\}_{\beta \in J}$ a **subnet** (*Teilnetz*) of $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ if $y_\beta = x_{\phi(\beta)}$ for all $\beta \in J$ and some function $\phi : J \rightarrow I$ with the property that for every $\alpha_0 \in I$, there exists $\beta_0 \in J$ for which $\beta > \beta_0$ implies $\phi(\beta) > \alpha_0$.

If $(I, <) = (\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ and $(J, <) = (\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ in the above definition are both $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$ so that $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ and $\{y_\beta\}_{\beta \in J}$ become sequences x_n and y_k respectively, then y_k will be a subnet of x_n if it is of the form $y_k = x_{n_k}$ for some sequence $n_k \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfying $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} n_k = \infty$. This agrees with at least one of the standard definitions of the term **subsequence** (*Teilfolge*); a slightly stricter definition would require the sequence n_k to be monotone, but this difference is harmless. One should however be careful not to fall into the trap of thinking that a subnet of a sequence is always a subsequence—even if $(I, <) = (\mathbb{N}, \leq)$, Definition 5.19 allows much more general choices for the directed set $(J, <)$ and the function $\phi : J \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ underlying a subnet of a sequence. In particular, the following lemma cannot be used to find convergent subsequences without imposing further conditions (cf. Lemma 5.22 below).

LEMMA 5.20. A net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X has a cluster point at $x \in X$ if and only if it has a subnet convergent to x .

PROOF. Let us prove that a convergent subnet can always be derived from a cluster point x . Let $\mathcal{N}_x$ denote the set of all neighborhoods of x in X , and define $J = I \times \mathcal{N}_x$ with a partial order $<$ defined by

$$(\alpha, \mathcal{U}) > (\beta, \mathcal{V}) \iff \alpha > \beta \text{ and } \mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{V}.$$

This makes $(J, <)$ a directed set since $(I, <)$ is already a directed set and the intersection of two neighborhoods is a neighborhood contained in both. Now since x is a cluster point of the net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, there exists a function $\phi : J \rightarrow I$ such that for all $(\beta, \mathcal{U}) \in J$, $\phi(\beta, \mathcal{U}) =: \alpha$ satisfies $\alpha > \beta$ and $x_\alpha \in \mathcal{U}$. It is then straightforward to check that $\{x_{\phi(\beta, \mathcal{U})}\}_{(\beta, \mathcal{U}) \in J}$ is a subnet convergent to x .

The converse is easier, so I will leave it as an exercise. $\square$

Here is the most general result relating compactness to nets.

THEOREM 5.21. *A space X is compact if and only if every net in X has a convergent subnet.*

PROOF. We prove first that if X is compact, then every net $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ has a cluster point (and therefore by Lemma 5.20 a convergent subnet). Arguing by contradiction, suppose no $x \in X$ is a cluster point of $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$. Then one can associate to every $x \in X$ a neighborhood $\mathcal{U}_x$ and an element $\alpha_x \in I$ such that for every $\alpha > \alpha_x$, $x_\alpha \notin \mathcal{U}_x$. Without loss of generality let us suppose the neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_x$ are all open. Then the collection of sets $\{\mathcal{U}_x\}_{x \in X}$ forms an open cover of X , and therefore has a finite subcover since X is compact. This means there is a finite set of points $x_1, \dots, x_N \in X$ such that $X = \mathcal{U}_{x_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_{x_N}$. Now since $(I, <)$ is a directed set, we can find an element $\beta \in I$ satisfying

$$\beta > \alpha_{x_i} \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, N,$$

hence $x_\beta \notin \mathcal{U}_{x_i}$ for every $i = 1, \dots, N$. But the latter sets cover X , so this is impossible, and we have found a contradiction.

For the converse, we shall prove that if X is not compact then there exists a net with no cluster point. Being noncompact means one can find a collection $\mathcal{O}$ of open subsets such that $X = \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{O}} \mathcal{U}$ but no finite subcollection of them has union equal to X . Define I to be the set of all finite subcollections of the sets in $\mathcal{O}$, so by assumption, one can associate to every $\mathcal{A} \in I$ a point $x_{\mathcal{A}} \in X$ satisfying

$$(5.1) \quad x_{\mathcal{A}} \notin \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{U}.$$

Define a partial order $<$ on I by

$$\mathcal{A} < \mathcal{B} \iff \mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{B},$$

and notice that $(I, <)$ is now a directed set since the union of any two finite subcollections is another finite subcollection that contains both. This makes $\{x_{\mathcal{A}}\}_{\mathcal{A} \in I}$ a net in X , and we claim that it has no cluster point. Indeed, if $x \in X$ is a cluster point of $\{x_{\mathcal{A}}\}_{\mathcal{A} \in I}$, then since the sets in $\mathcal{O}$ cover X , there is a set $\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{O}$ that is a neighborhood of x , and it follows that there must exist some $\mathcal{A} > \{\mathcal{V}\}$ in I for which

$$x_{\mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{V} \subset \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{U}.$$

This contradicts (5.1) and thus proves the claim that there is no cluster point. $\square$

5.4. When are compactness and sequential compactness equivalent? The next step is to impose countability axioms so that Theorem 5.21 gives us corollaries about sequential compactness.

LEMMA 5.22. *If $x_n \in X$ is a sequence with a cluster point at $x \in X$ and x has a countable neighborhood base, then x_n has a subsequence converging to x .*

PROOF. As in the proof of Lemma 4.14, we can assume without loss of generality that our countable neighborhood base has the form of a nested sequence of neighborhoods

$$X \supset \mathcal{U}_1 \supset \mathcal{U}_2 \supset \dots \ni x.$$

Since x is a cluster point, we can choose $k_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ so that $x_{k_1} \in \mathcal{U}_1$, and then inductively for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, choose $k_n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_{k_n} \in \mathcal{U}_n$ and $k_n > k_{n-1}$. Then x_{k_n} is a subsequence of x_n and it converges to x , since for all neighborhoods $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x , we have $\mathcal{V} \supset \mathcal{U}_N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, implying

$$n \geq N \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_{k_n} \in \mathcal{U}_n \subset \mathcal{U}_N \subset \mathcal{V}.$$

□

COROLLARY 5.23. *If X is compact and first countable, then it is also sequentially compact.* □

EXAMPLE 5.24. Though it is not so easy to see this, the space $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$ of (not necessarily continuous) functions $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ with the topology of pointwise convergence is compact, but not sequentially compact. Compactness follows directly from a deep result known as Tychonoff's theorem, which we will discuss in the next lecture. For the construction of a sequence in $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$ with no convergent subsequence, see Exercise 6.5.

To prove compactness from sequential compactness, it turns out that we will need to invoke the second countability axiom. In practice, almost all of the spaces that topologists spend their time thinking about are second countable, resulting from the fact that most of them are separable and metrizable (see Exercise 4.3). One useful property shared by all second countable (but not necessarily compact) spaces is the following.

LEMMA 5.25. *If X is second countable, then every open cover of X has a countable subcover.*

PROOF. Assume $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ is an open cover of X and $\mathcal{B}$ is a countable base. Then each $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$ is a union of sets in $\mathcal{B}$, and the collection of all sets in $\mathcal{B}$ that are contained in some $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$ is a countable subcollection $\mathcal{B}' \subset \mathcal{B}$ that also covers X . Let us denote $\mathcal{B}' = \{\mathcal{V}_1, \mathcal{V}_2, \mathcal{V}_3, \dots\}$. We can now choose for each $\mathcal{V}_n \in \mathcal{B}'$ an element $\alpha_n \in I$ such that $\mathcal{V}_n \subset \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n}$, and $\{\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is then a countable subcover of $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$. □

If you now take the second half of the proof of Theorem 5.21 and redo it with the focus on sequences instead of nets, and with Lemma 5.25 in mind, the result is the following.

THEOREM 5.26. *If X is second countable and sequentially compact, then it is compact.*

PROOF. We need to show that every open cover of X has a finite subcover. Since X is second countable, we can first use Lemma 5.25 to reduce the given open cover to a *countable* subcover $\mathcal{U}_1, \mathcal{U}_2, \mathcal{U}_3, \dots \subset X$. Now arguing by contradiction, suppose that X is sequentially compact but the sets $\mathcal{U}_1, \dots, \mathcal{U}_n$ do not cover X for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, hence there exists a sequence $x_n \in X$ such that

$$(5.2) \quad x_n \notin \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_n$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Some subsequence x_{k_n} then converges to a point $x \in X$, which necessarily lies in $\mathcal{U}_N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$. It follows that x_{k_n} also lies in $\mathcal{U}_N$ for all n sufficiently large, but this contradicts (5.2) as soon as $k_n \geq N$. □

Corollary 5.23 and Theorem 5.26 combine to give the following result that is easy to remember:

COROLLARY 5.27. *A second countable space is compact if and only if it is sequentially compact.* □

A loose end: We know from Exercise 4.3 that every separable metric space is second countable, thus Corollary 5.27 implies the equivalence of compactness and sequential compactness for separable metric spaces, which includes most of the metric spaces that one uses in practice. However, more than this was claimed in Lecture 2: the equivalence should hold in *all* metric spaces, and this does not quite follow from what we've proved here. The missing ingredient needed is the notion of *total boundedness*: one can show that every sequentially compact set A in a metric space X is **totally bounded** (*total beschränkt*), meaning that for every $\epsilon > 0$, A is contained in the union of finitely many balls of radius ϵ . Taking $\epsilon = 1/n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then provides a countable collection of open balls covering A , which can serve as a substitute for the countable subcover we used in the proof of Theorem 5.26. We will not go further into the details here, since this is a topology and not an analysis course, and we will not need the result going forward.

5.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 5.1 (*). Show that in any metric space, compact subsets must be both closed and bounded.

EXERCISE 5.2 (*). Establish the following homeomorphisms mentioned in Examples 5.13 and 5.16:

- (a) $S^1 \cong \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$, meaning the set of equivalence classes of real numbers where $x \sim y$ means $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (b) $S^1 \cong [0, 1]/\sim$, where $0 \sim 1$.
- (c) $S^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$.

EXERCISE 5.3. Suppose X and Y are topological spaces, $x \in X$, and $K \subset Y$ is a compact subset.

- (a) Prove that every neighborhood of $\{x\} \times K$ in $X \times Y$ contains $\mathcal{V} \times K$ for some neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ of x .
- (b) Find an example showing that the statement in part (a) is not always true if K is not compact.

EXERCISE 5.4. Consider the space

$$X = \{f \in [0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}} \mid f(x) \neq 0 \text{ for at most countably many points } x \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

with the subspace topology that it inherits from $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$.

- (a) Show that X is sequentially compact.
Hint: For any sequence $f_n \in X$, the set $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid f_n(x) \neq 0\}$ is also countable.
- (b) For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$, define $\mathcal{U}_x = \{f \in X \mid f(x) < 1\}$. Show that the collection $\{\mathcal{U}_x \subset X \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ forms an open cover of X that has no finite subcover, hence X is not compact.

6. Tychonoff's theorem and the separation axioms

6.1. Products of compact spaces. Here is a result that may sound less surprising at first than it actually is.

THEOREM 6.1 (Tychonoff's theorem). *For any collection of compact spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, the product $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is compact.*

NONMATHEMATICAL REMARK. Thinking like an Anglophone may lead you to false assumptions about the pronunciation of the name Tychonoff, e.g. I was mispronouncing it for years until I finally looked up the name on Wikipedia in the context of teaching this course. The original Russian spelling is Тихонов, which would normally get transliterated into English as Tikhonov. The

reason he instead became known outside of Russia as Tychonoff is that his papers were published in German, hence different phonetic conventions.

When I is a finite set, Theorem 6.1 says something not at all surprising, and the proof is straightforward, so let's start with that.

PROOF OF THEOREM 6.1 FOR FINITE PRODUCTS. By induction, it will suffice to prove that if X and Y are both compact spaces then so is $X \times Y$. We will do so by showing that every net in $X \times Y$ has a convergent subnet. Recall that a net $\{(x_\alpha, y_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in $X \times Y$ converges to $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ if and only if the nets $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in X and $\{y_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in Y converge to x and y respectively. (The corresponding fact about sequences was proved in Exercise 4.1—the proof for nets is the same.) Now, since X is compact, $\{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ has a subnet $\{x_{\phi(\beta)}\}_{\beta \in J}$ convergent to some point $x \in X$, where J is some other directed set with a suitable function $\phi : J \rightarrow I$. Compactness of Y implies in turn that $\{y_{\phi(\beta)}\}_{\beta \in J}$ has a subnet $\{y_{\phi(\psi(\gamma))}\}_{\gamma \in K}$ convergent to some point $y \in Y$. We therefore obtain a subnet

$$\{(x_{\phi \circ \psi(\gamma)}, y_{\phi \circ \psi(\gamma)})\}_{\gamma \in K}$$

of the original net $\{(x_\alpha, y_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$ that converges in $X \times Y$ to (x, y) . $\square$

The much less obvious aspect of Theorem 6.1 is that it is also true for infinite products, even those for which the index set I is *uncountably* infinite. So it follows for instance that the space

$$[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}} = \{\text{not necessarily continuous functions } f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]\} = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} [0, 1]$$

with the topology of pointwise convergence is compact, as an immediate consequence of the fact that $[0, 1]$ is compact. Of course, this does not mean that every sequence of functions $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ has a pointwise convergent subsequence! That would be truly surprising, but it is false (see Exercise 6.5); it turns out that $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$ is not a first countable space, so it is allowed to be compact without being sequentially compact.

For a slightly different example, $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ is compact. We can identify this space with the set of all sequences in $[-1, 1]$, again with the topology of pointwise convergence, i.e. a sequence of sequences $\{x_k^n\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \in [-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to a sequence $\{x_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_k^n = x_k$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Now observe that $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ also contains the unit ball in the infinite-dimensional Hilbert space

$$\ell^2[-1, 1] := \left\{ \{x_k \in \mathbb{R}\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mid \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k|^2 < \infty \right\}$$

with metric defined by

$$d(\{x_k\}, \{y_k\})^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x_k - y_k|^2.$$

The unit ball in $\ell^2[-1, 1]$ is clearly noncompact since it contains the sequence of sequences

$$(1, 0, 0, \dots), (0, 1, 0, \dots), (0, 0, 1, 0, \dots), \dots,$$

which converges pointwise to 0 but stays at a constant distance away from 0 with respect to the metric, so it can have no convergent subsequence in the topology of $\ell^2[-1, 1]$. It may seem surprising in this case that the *larger* set $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ is compact, but the reason is that $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ has a much weaker topology than $\ell^2[-1, 1]$: since it is easier to converge pointwise than it is to converge in the ℓ^2 -norm, $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ has more sequences with convergent subsequences (or subnets, as the case may be).

REMARK 6.2. One conclusion you should draw from the above discussion is that Tychonoff's theorem depends crucially on the way we defined the product topology on $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$, i.e. it is a result about the topology of pointwise convergence. The result becomes false, for instance, if we replace the usual product topology by the “box” topology from Exercise 4.2. For a concrete example, consider the set $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$ with the box topology, meaning sets of the form

$$\{f \in [-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}} \mid f(k) \in \mathcal{U}_k \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

for arbitrary collections of open subsets $\{\mathcal{U}_k \subset [-1, 1]\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ are open. Then the sequence of constant functions $f_n(k) := 1/n$ converges pointwise to 0, but we claim that it has no cluster point in the box topology. Indeed, the box topology contains the product topology, so if any subnet of f_n converges in the box topology, then it must also converge in the product topology and hence pointwise, meaning the only limit it could possibly converge to is 0, and 0 is therefore the only possible cluster point. But in the box topology,

$$\mathcal{U} := \{f \in [-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}} \mid f(k) \in (-1/k, 1/k) \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is an open neighborhood of 0 satisfying $f_n \notin \mathcal{U}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so 0 is not a cluster point of this sequence.

Let's go ahead and prove another special case of Tychonoff's theorem. The next proof is still relatively straightforward, and it applies for instance to $[-1, 1]^{\mathbb{N}}$. Part of the idea is to make our lives easier by dealing with sequences instead of nets, which is made possible by the following simple observation:

LEMMA 6.3. *If $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$ is a countably infinite sequence of spaces that are all second countable, then $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$ is also second countable.*

PROOF. Fix for each $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ a countable base $\mathcal{B}_i$ for the topology of X_i . Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the collection of sets

$$\mathcal{O}_n := \left\{ \mathcal{U}_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{U}_n \times X_{n+1} \times X_{n+2} \times \dots \subset \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i \mid \mathcal{U}_i \in \mathcal{B}_i \text{ for each } i = 1, \dots, n \right\}$$

is countable since $\mathcal{B}_1 \times \dots \times \mathcal{B}_n$ is countable. Then the countable union of countable sets $\mathcal{O}_1 \cup \mathcal{O}_2 \cup \mathcal{O}_3 \cup \dots$ is a base for $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$, and it is countable. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 6.1, SECOND COUNTABLE CASE. Assume the set I is countable and the spaces X_α are all second countable for $\alpha \in I$. In light of Lemma 6.3 and Theorem 5.26, it will now suffice to prove that for any sequence $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots$ of second countable spaces, $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$ is sequentially compact. The idea is to combine the argument above for the case of finite products with Cantor's diagonal method. In order to avoid too many indices, let us denote elements $f \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$ as functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$ that satisfy $f(i) \in X_i$ for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Now given a sequence $f_n \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$, the compactness of X_1 guarantees that there is a subsequence f_n^1 of f_n for which the sequence $f_n^1(1)$ in X_1 converges. Continuing inductively, we can construct a sequence of sequences $f_n^k \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$ for $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $k \geq 2$, $\{f_n^k\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a subsequence of $\{f_n^{k-1}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and the sequence $f_n^k(k)$ in X_k converges as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It follows that for every fixed $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the sequence $\{f_n^k(k)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ in X_k converges, thus $\{f_n^k\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a convergent subsequence of the original sequence f_n in $\prod_{i=1}^{\infty} X_i$. $\square$

The ideas in the special cases we've treated so far can be applied toward a general proof of Tychonoff's theorem, but the general case requires one major ingredient that wasn't needed so far: the axiom of choice. This makes e.g. the compactness of $[-1, 1]^{[0,1]}$ somewhat harder to grasp intuitively, as invoking the axiom of choice means that the existence of a cluster point for every

sequence in $[-1, 1]^{[0, 1]}$ is guaranteed, but there is nothing even slightly resembling an algorithm for finding one. It is known in fact that this is not just a feature of any particular method of proving the theorem—by a result due to Kelley [Kel50], if one assumes that the usual axioms of set theory (not including choice) hold and that Tychonoff's theorem also holds, then the axiom of choice follows, thus the two are actually equivalent.

Speaking only for myself, I had a Ph.D. in mathematics already for several years before I ever started to find the axiom of choice remotely worrying, so if you've never worried about it before, I don't encourage you to start worrying now. As far as this course is concerned, we actually could have skipped the general case of Tychonoff's theorem with no significant loss of continuity—I am including it here mainly for the sake of cultural education, and because the proof itself is interesting.

The proof given below is based on the characterization of compactness in terms of convergent subnets (Theorem 5.21) and is due to Paul Chernoff [Che92]. Similarly to certain standard results in functional analysis that also depend on the axiom of choice (e.g. the Hahn-Banach theorem), it uses the axiom in a somewhat indirect way, namely via *Zorn's lemma*, which is known to be equivalent to the axiom of choice. I do not want to go far enough into abstract set theory here to explain why it is equivalent: the proof is elementary but somewhat tedious, and you can find it explained e.g. in [Jän05] or [Kel75]. I would recommend reading through that proof exactly once in your life. For our purposes, we will just take the following statement of Zorn's lemma as a black box.

LEMMA 6.4 (Zorn's lemma). *Suppose $(\mathcal{P}, <)$ is a nonempty partially ordered set in which every totally ordered subset $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}$ has an upper bound, i.e. for every subset in which all pairs $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$ satisfy $x < y$ or $y < x$, there exists an element $p \in \mathcal{P}$ such that $p > a$ for all $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Then every totally ordered subset $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}$ also has an upper bound $p \in \mathcal{P}$ that is a maximal element, i.e. such that no $q \in \mathcal{P}$ with $q \neq p$ satisfies $q > p$.* $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 6.1, GENERAL CASE. We shall continue to denote elements of $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ by functions $f : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ satisfying $f(\alpha) \in X_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in I$. Assuming all the X_α are compact, it suffices by Theorem 5.21 to prove that every net $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$ in $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ has a cluster point. The idea of Chernoff's proof is as follows: we introduce below the notion of a “partial” cluster point, which may be a function defined only on a subset of I . We will show that the set of all partial cluster points has a partial order for which Zorn's lemma applies and delivers a maximal element. The last step is to show that a maximal element in the set of partial cluster points must in fact be a cluster point of $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$.

To define partial cluster points, notice that for any subset $J \subset I$, restricting any function $f \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ to the smaller domain J defines an element $f|_J \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$. We will refer to a pair (J, g) as a **partial cluster point** of the net $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$ if J is a subset of I and $g \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ is a cluster point of the net $\{f_\beta|_J\}_{\beta \in K}$ in $\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ obtained by restricting the functions $f_\beta : I \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ to $J \subset I$. Let $\mathcal{P}$ denote the set of all partial cluster points of $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$. It is easy to see that $\mathcal{P}$ is nonempty: indeed, for each individual $\alpha \in I$, the compactness of X_α implies that the net $\{f_\beta(\alpha)\}_{\beta \in K}$ in X_α has a cluster point $x_\alpha \in X_\alpha$, hence $(\{\alpha\}, x_\alpha) \in \mathcal{P}$.

There is also an obvious partial order on $\mathcal{P}$: we shall write $(J, g) \leq (J', g')$ whenever $J \subset J'$ and $g = g'|_J$. In order to satisfy the main hypothesis of Zorn's lemma, we claim that every totally ordered subset $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{P}$ has an upper bound. Being totally ordered means that for any two elements of $\mathcal{A}$, one is obtained from the other by restricting the function to a subset. We can therefore define a set $J_\infty \subset I$ with a function $g_\infty \in \prod_{\alpha \in J_\infty} X_\alpha$ by

$$J_\infty = \bigcup_{\{J \mid (J, g) \in \mathcal{A}\}} J,$$

with $g_\infty(\alpha)$ defined as $g(\alpha)$ for any $(J, g) \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\alpha \in J$. The total ordering condition guarantees that (J_∞, g_∞) is independent of choices, but it is not immediately clear whether it is an element of $\mathcal{P}$, i.e. whether g_∞ is a cluster point of $\{f_\beta|_{J_\infty}\}_{\beta \in K}$. To see this, suppose $\mathcal{U} \subset \prod_{\alpha \in J_\infty} X_\alpha$ is a neighborhood of g_∞ , and recall that by the definition of the product topology, this means

$$g_\infty \in \prod_{\alpha \in J_\infty} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset \mathcal{U}$$

for some collection of open sets $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X_\alpha$ such that $\mathcal{U}_\alpha = X_\alpha$ for all α outside some finite subset $J_0 \subset J_\infty$. Since J_0 is finite, and $\mathcal{A}$ is totally ordered, there exists some $(J, g) \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $J_0 \subset J$. Then the fact that (J, g) is a partial cluster point means that for every $\beta_0 \in K$, there exists a $\beta > \beta_0$ for which

$$f_\beta|_J \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha.$$

It follows that $f_\beta|_{J_\infty} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J_\infty} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ as well, hence (J_∞, g_∞) is indeed a partial cluster point.

We can now apply Zorn's lemma and conclude that $\mathcal{P}$ has a maximal element $(J_M, g_M) \in \mathcal{P}$. We claim $J_M = I$, which means g_M is a cluster point of the original net $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$ in $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$. Note that since $g_M \in \prod_{\alpha \in J_M} X_\alpha$ is a cluster point of $\{f_\beta|_{J_M}\}_{\beta \in K}$, Lemma 5.20 provides a subnet $\{f_{\phi(\gamma)}\}_{\gamma \in L}$ of $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$ in $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ whose restriction to J_M converges to g_M . But if $J_M \neq I$, then choosing an element $\alpha_0 \in I \setminus J_M$, we can exploit the fact that X_{α_0} is compact and use the same trick as in the proof of Tychonoff for finite products to find a further subnet that also converges at α_0 to some element $x_0 \in X_{\alpha_0}$. We have therefore found a subnet of $\{f_\beta\}_{\beta \in K}$ whose restriction to $J_M \cup \{\alpha_0\}$ converges to the function $g'_M \in \prod_{\alpha \in J_M \cup \{\alpha_0\}} X_\alpha$ defined by $g'_M|_{J_M} = g_M$ and $g'_M(\alpha_0) = x_0$. This means $(J_M \cup \{\alpha_0\}, g'_M) \in \mathcal{P}$ and $(J_M \cup \{\alpha_0\}, g'_M) > (J_M, g_M)$, which is a contradiction since (J_M, g_M) is maximal. $\square$

So much for Tychonoff's theorem. In truth, aside from the easy case of finite products, the general version of this theorem will probably not be mentioned again in this course. You may hear of it again if you take functional analysis since it lies in the background of the Banach-Alaoglu theorem on compactness in the *weak**-topology, and I will have occasion to mention it in *Topologie II* next semester in the context of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for Čech homology. But right now we need to discuss a few more mundane things.

6.2. Separation axioms. Recall from Proposition 5.8 that closed subsets of compact spaces are always compact. Your intuition probably tells you that all compact sets are closed, but this in general is false. Here is a counterexample.

EXAMPLE 6.5. Recall from Example 2.2 the so-called “line with two zeroes”. We defined it as a quotient $X := (\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\})/\sim$ by the equivalence relation such that $(x, 0) \sim (x, 1)$ for all $x \neq 0$, with a topology defined via the pseudometric $d([(x, i)], [(y, j)]) = |x - y|$, i.e. the open balls $B_r(x) := \{y \in X \mid d(y, x) < r\}$ for $x \in X$ and $r > 0$ form a base of the topology. Each $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ corresponds to a unique point $[(x, 0)] = [(x, 1)] \in X$, but for $x = 0$ there are two distinct points, which we shall abbreviate by

$$0_0 := [(0, 0)] \in X \quad \text{and} \quad 0_1 := [(0, 1)] \in X.$$

As we saw in Exercise 2.1, the one-point subset $\{0_1\} \subset X$ is not closed, but it certainly is compact since finite subsets are always compact (see Example 5.4). The failure of $\{0_1\}$ to be closed results from the fact that since $d(0_0, 0_1) = 0$, every neighborhood of 0_0 also contains 0_1 , implying that $X \setminus \{0_1\}$ cannot be open.

The example of the line with two zeroes is pathological in various ways, e.g. it has the property that every sequence convergent to 0_1 also converges to the distinct point 0_0 . We would now like

to formulate some precise conditions to exclude such behavior. The most important of these will be the *Hausdorff* axiom, but there is a whole gradation of stronger or weaker variations on the same theme, known collectively as the **separation axioms** (*Trennungsaxiome*). Intuitively, they measure the degree to which topological notions such as convergence of sequences and continuity of maps can recognize the difference between two disjoint points or subsets.

DEFINITION 6.6. A space X is said to satisfy axiom T_0 if for every pair of distinct points in X , there exists an open subset of X that contains one of these points but not the other.

Since almost all spaces we want to consider will satisfy the T_0 axiom, we should point out some examples of spaces that do not. One obvious example is any space of more than one element with the trivial topology: if the only open subset other than $\emptyset$ is X , then you clearly cannot find an open set that contains x and not $y \neq x$ or vice versa. A slightly more interesting example is the line with two zeroes as in Example 6.5 above, with the pseudometric topology: it fails to be a T_0 space because every open set that contains 0_0 or 0_1 must contain both of them.

DEFINITION 6.7. A space X is said to satisfy **axiom** T_1 if for every pair of distinct points $x, y \in X$, there exist neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_x \subset X$ of x and $\mathcal{U}_y \subset X$ of y such that $x \notin \mathcal{U}_y$ and $y \notin \mathcal{U}_x$.

Obviously every T_1 space is also T_0 . The following alternative characterization of the T_1 axiom is immediate from the definitions:

PROPOSITION 6.8. A space X satisfies axiom T_1 if and only if for every point $x \in X$, the subset $\{x\} \subset X$ is closed. $\square$

DEFINITION 6.9. A space X is said to satisfy **axiom** T_2 (the **Hausdorff** axiom) if for every pair of distinct points $x, y \in X$, there exist neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_x \subset X$ of x and $\mathcal{U}_y \subset X$ of y such that $\mathcal{U}_x \cap \mathcal{U}_y = \emptyset$.

Every Hausdorff space is clearly also T_1 and T_0 . Here is an easy criterion with which to recognize a non-Hausdorff space—the proof is Exercise 6.1:

PROPOSITION 6.10. If X is Hausdorff, then for any sequence $x_n \in X$ satisfying $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $x_n \rightarrow y$, we have $x = y$. $\square$

Finding an example that is T_1 but not Hausdorff requires only a slight modification of our previous “line with two zeroes”.

EXAMPLE 6.11. Consider $X = (\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\})/\sim$ again with $(x, 0) \sim (x, 1)$ for every $x \neq 0$, but instead of the pseudometric topology as in Example 6.5, assign it the quotient topology, meaning $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is open if and only if its preimage under the projection map $\pi : \mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\} \rightarrow X : (x, i) \mapsto [(x, i)]$ is open. Recall that the quotient topology is the strongest topology for which π is a continuous map, and in this case, it turns out to be slightly stronger than the pseudometric topology. For example, the open set

$$\mathcal{V} := ((-1, 1) \times \{0\}) \cup ((-1, 0) \times \{1\}) \cup ((0, 1) \times \{1\}) \subset \mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\}$$

is $\pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ for $\mathcal{U} := \pi(\mathcal{V}) \subset X$, thus $\mathcal{U}$ is open in the quotient topology. But $\mathcal{U}$ contains 0_0 and not 0_1 , so it is not an open set in the pseudometric topology. The existence of this set implies that X with the quotient topology satisfies T_0 . By exchanging the roles of 0 and 1, one can similarly construct an open neighborhood of 0_1 that does not contain 0_0 , so the space also satisfies T_1 . But it does not satisfy T_2 : even in the quotient topology, every neighborhood of 0_0 has nonempty intersection with every neighborhood of 0_1 .

Proposition 6.10 has a converse of sorts, which I will state here only for first countable spaces. The countability axiom can be removed at the cost of talking about nets instead of sequences; I will leave the details of this as an exercise for the reader.

PROPOSITION 6.12. *A first countable space X is Hausdorff if and only if the limit of every convergent sequence in X is unique.*

PROOF. In light of Proposition 6.10, we just need to show that if X is a first countable space that is not Hausdorff, we can find a sequence $x_n \in X$ that converges to two distinct points $x, y \in X$. Since X is not Hausdorff, we can pick two distinct points x and y such that every neighborhood of x intersects every neighborhood of y . Fix countable neighborhood bases $X \supset \mathcal{U}_1 \supset \mathcal{U}_2 \supset \dots \ni x$ and $X \supset \mathcal{V}_1 \supset \mathcal{V}_2 \supset \dots \ni y$. Then by assumption, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a point $x_n \in \mathcal{U}_n \cap \mathcal{V}_n$. It is now straightforward to verify that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $x_n \rightarrow y$. $\square$

The Hausdorff axiom can still be strengthened a bit by talking about neighborhoods of closed sets rather than points. This can be useful, for instance, when considering the quotient space X/A defined by collapsing some closed subset $A \subset X$ to a point; cf. Exercise 6.4.

DEFINITION 6.13. A space X is called **regular** (*regulär*) if for every point $x \in X$ and every closed subset $A \subset X$ not containing x , there exist neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_x \subset X$ of x and $\mathcal{U}_A \subset X$ of A such that $\mathcal{U}_x \cap \mathcal{U}_A = \emptyset$. We say X satisfies **axiom** T_3 if it is regular and also satisfies T_1 .

DEFINITION 6.14. A space X is called **normal** if for every pair of disjoint closed subsets $A, B \subset X$, there exist neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_A \subset X$ of A and $\mathcal{U}_B \subset X$ of B such that $\mathcal{U}_A \cap \mathcal{U}_B = \emptyset$. We say X satisfies **axiom** T_4 if it is normal and also satisfies T_1 .

REMARK 6.15. The point of including T_1 in the definitions of T_3 and T_4 is that it makes each one-point subset $\{x\} \subset X$ closed, thus producing obvious implications

$$(6.1) \quad T_4 \Rightarrow T_3 \Rightarrow T_2 \Rightarrow T_1 \Rightarrow T_0.$$

Without assuming T_1 , it is possible for spaces to be regular or normal without being Hausdorff, though we will not consider any examples of this. In fact, almost all spaces we actually want to think about in this course will be Hausdorff, and most will also be normal, thus satisfying all of these axioms.

REMARK 6.16. Some of the above definitions, especially for axioms T_3 and T_4 , can be found in a few not-quite-equivalent variations in various sources in the literature. One common variation is to interchange the meanings of “regular” with “ T_3 ” and “normal” with “ T_4 ”, which destroys the first two implications in (6.1). These discrepancies are matters of convention which are to some extent arbitrary: you are free to choose your favorite convention, but must then be careful about stating your definitions precisely and remaining consistent.

We can now give a better answer to the question of when a compact set must also be closed.

THEOREM 6.17. *If X is Hausdorff, then every compact subset of X is closed.*

PROOF. Given a compact set $K \subset X$, we need to show that $X \setminus K$ is open, or equivalently, that every $x \in X \setminus K$ is contained in an open set disjoint from K . By assumption X is Hausdorff, so for each $y \in K$, we can find open neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_y \subset X$ of x and $\mathcal{V}_y \subset X$ of y such that $\mathcal{U}_y \cap \mathcal{V}_y = \emptyset$. Then the sets $\{\mathcal{V}_y\}_{y \in K}$ form an open cover of K , and since the latter is compact by assumption, we obtain a finite subset $y_1, \dots, y_N \in K$ such that

$$K \subset \mathcal{V}_{y_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{V}_{y_N}.$$

The set $\mathcal{U} := \mathcal{U}_{y_1} \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_{y_N}$ is then an open neighborhood of x and is disjoint from $\mathcal{V}_{y_1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{V}_{y_N}$, implying in particular that it is disjoint from K . $\square$

REMARK 6.18. In earlier decades, it was common to define compactness slightly differently: what many papers and textbooks from the first half of the 20th century call a “compact space” is what we would call a “compact Hausdorff space”. You should be aware of this discrepancy if you consult the older literature.

6.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 6.1 (*). Prove Proposition 6.10, on the uniqueness of limits in Hausdorff spaces.

EXERCISE 6.2. Prove:

- (a) A finite topological space satisfies the axiom T_1 if and only if it carries the discrete topology.
- (b) X is a T_2 space (i.e. Hausdorff) if and only if the *diagonal* $\Delta := \{(x, x) \in X \times X\}$ is a closed subset of $X \times X$.
- (c) Every compact Hausdorff space is regular, i.e. $\text{compact} + T_2 \Rightarrow T_3$.
Hint: The argument needed for this was already used in the proof of Theorem 6.17.
- (d) (*) Every metrizable space satisfies the axiom T_4 (in particular it is *normal*).
Hint: Given disjoint closed sets $A, A' \subset X$, each $x \in A$ admits a radius $\epsilon_x > 0$ such that the ball $B_{\epsilon_x}(x)$ is disjoint from A' , and similarly for points in A' (why?). The unions of all these balls won't quite produce the disjoint neighborhoods you want, but try cutting their radii in half.

EXERCISE 6.3. Each of the following should be relatively easy, but they are worth thinking about at least once.

- (a) Show that if X is a Hausdorff space, then every subset $A \subset X$ becomes a Hausdorff space when assigned the subspace topology.
- (b) Find an example of a non-Hausdorff space X with a subset $A \subset X$ that is Hausdorff with the subspace topology.
- (c) In Exercise 2.4, we considered the space $X = (-1, 1)^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with an equivalence relation $\sim$ and endowed the set $X/\sim$ of equivalence classes with the quotient topology (though we could not call it that at the time). Was that quotient space Hausdorff? Why or why not?

Now consider an arbitrary collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of topological spaces. Prove:

- (d) The disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is Hausdorff if and only if X_α is Hausdorff for every $\alpha \in I$.
- (e) The product $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is Hausdorff if and only if X_α is Hausdorff for every $\alpha \in I$.

EXERCISE 6.4. Suppose X is a Hausdorff space and $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on X . Let $X/\sim$ denote the quotient space equipped with the quotient topology and denote by $\pi : X \rightarrow X/\sim$ the canonical projection. Given a subset $A \subset X$, we will sometimes also use the notation X/A explained in Definition 5.14.

- (a) A map $s : X/\sim \rightarrow X$ is called a **section** of π if $\pi \circ s$ is the identity map on $X/\sim$. Show that if a continuous section exists, then $X/\sim$ is Hausdorff.
- (b) Show that if X is also regular and $A \subset X$ is a closed subset, then X/A is Hausdorff.
- (c) Consider $X = \mathbb{R}$ with the non-closed subset $A = (0, 1]$. Which of the separation axioms $T_0, \dots, T_4$ does X/A satisfy?

Just for fun: think about some other examples of Hausdorff spaces X with non-Hausdorff quotients $X/\sim$. What stops you from constructing continuous sections $X/\sim \rightarrow X$?

EXERCISE 6.5. Consider the space $[0, 1]^\mathbb{R}$ of all functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$, with the topology of pointwise convergence. Tychonoff's theorem implies that $[0, 1]^\mathbb{R}$ is compact, but one can show that it is not first countable, so it need not be sequentially compact.

- (a) For $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $x_{(n)} \in \{0, \dots, 9\}$ denote the n th digit to the right of the decimal point in the decimal expansion of x . Now define a sequence $f_n \in [0, 1]^\mathbb{R}$ by setting $f_n(x) = \frac{x_{(n)}}{10}$. Show that for any subsequence f_{k_n} of f_n , there exists $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f_{k_n}(x)$ does not converge, hence f_n has no pointwise convergent subsequence.

Food for thought: Could you do this if you also had to assume that x is rational? Presumably not, because $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{Q}}$ is a product of countably many second countable spaces, and we've proved that such products are second countable (unlike $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$). This implies that since $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{Q}}$ is compact, it must also be sequentially compact.

- (b) The compactness of $[0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$ does imply that every sequence has a convergent *subnet*, or equivalently, a cluster point. Use this to deduce that for any given sequence $f_n \in [0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$, there exists a function $f \in [0, 1]^{\mathbb{R}}$ such that for every finite subset $X \subset \mathbb{R}$, some subsequence of f_n converges to f at all points in X .

Achtung: Pay careful attention to the order of quantifiers here. We're claiming that the element f exists independently of the finite set $X \subset \mathbb{R}$ on which we want some subsequence to converge to f . (If you could let f depend on the choice of subset X , this would be easy—but that is not allowed.) On the other hand, the actual choice of subsequence is allowed to depend on the subset X .

Challenge: Find a direct proof of the statement in part (b), without passing through Tychonoff's theorem. I do not know of any way to do this that isn't approximately as difficult as actually proving Tychonoff's theorem, and dependent on the axiom of choice.

7. Connectedness and local compactness

7.1. Path-connected and connected spaces. We would like to formalize the idea that in some spaces, you can find a continuous path connecting any point to any other point, and in other spaces you cannot.

DEFINITION 7.1. A space X is called **path-connected** (*wegzusammenhängend*) if for every pair of points $x, y \in X$, there exists a continuous map $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ such that $\gamma(0) = x$ and $\gamma(1) = y$.

A subset of X is similarly called path-connected if it is a path-connected space in the subspace topology, which is equivalent to saying that any two points in the subset can be connected by a continuous path in that subset. We will refer to any maximal path-connected subset of a space X as a **path-component** (*Wegzusammenhangskomponente*) of X . Two path-components of the same space are always either identical or disjoint; see Exercise 7.1.

The notion of path-connectedness is framed in terms of maps into X , but there is also a “dual” perspective based on functions defined on X . To motivate this, notice that if $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is any continuous function and $x, y \in X$ belong to the same path-component, then continuity demands $f(x) = f(y)$. (We will formalize this observation in the proof of Theorem 7.12 below.)

DEFINITION 7.2. A space X is **connected** (*zusammenhängend*) if every continuous map $X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is constant.

In many textbooks one finds a cosmetically different definition of connectedness in terms of subsets that are both open and closed, but the two definitions are equivalent due to the following result.

PROPOSITION 7.3. A space X is connected if and only if $\emptyset$ and X are the only subsets of X that are both open and closed.

PROOF. We prove first that the condition in this statement implies connectedness. The key observation is that the sets $\{0\}$ and $\{1\}$ in $\{0, 1\}$ are each both open and closed, so if $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is continuous, the same must hold for both $f^{-1}(0)$ and $f^{-1}(1)$ in X . Then one of these is the empty set and the other is X , so f is constant.

Conversely, suppose X contains a nonempty subset $X_0 \subset X$ that is both open and closed but $X_0 \neq X$. Then $X_1 := X \setminus X_0$ is also a nonempty open and closed subset, implying that X is

the union of two disjoint open subsets X_0 and X_1 . We can now define a nonconstant continuous function $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ by $f|_{X_0} = 0$ and $f|_{X_1} = 1$. Checking that it is continuous is easy since $\{0, 1\}$ only contains four open sets: the main point is that $f^{-1}(0) = X_0$ and $f^{-1}(1) = X_1$ are both open. $\square$

REMARK 7.4. The important fact about $\{0, 1\}$ used in the above proof was that it is a space of more than one element with the discrete topology: officially $\{0, 1\}$ carries the subspace topology as a subset of $\mathbb{R}$, but this happens to match the discrete topology since 0 and 1 are each centers of open balls in $\mathbb{R}$ that do not touch any other points of $\{0, 1\}$. If we preferred, we could have replaced Definition 7.2 with the condition that every continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ to any space Y with the discrete topology is constant.

We can of course also talk about **connected subsets** $A \subset X$, meaning subsets that become connected spaces with the subspace topology. Spaces or subsets that are not connected are sometimes called **disconnected**. By analogy with path-components, any maximal connected subset of X will be called a **connected component** (*Zusammenhangskomponente*) of X .

PROPOSITION 7.5. *Any two connected components $A, B \subset X$ are either identical or disjoint.*

PROOF. If A and B are both maximal connected subsets of X and $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$, then we claim that $A \cup B$ is also connected. Indeed, any continuous function $f : A \cup B \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ must restrict to constant functions on both A and B , so if $y \in A \cap B$, then $f(x) = f(y)$ for every $x \in A \cup B$, implying that every continuous function $A \cup B \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is constant. Now if A and B are not identical, then the set $A \cup B$ is strictly larger than either A or B , giving a contradiction to the maximality assumption. $\square$

EXAMPLE 7.6. For any collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of connected spaces, the disjoint union $X := \coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ has the individual spaces $X_\alpha \subset X$ for $\alpha \in I$ as its connected components. Indeed, endowing X with the disjoint union topology makes each of the subsets $X_\alpha \subset X$ open, and since $X \setminus X_\alpha = \bigcup_{\beta \neq \alpha} X_\beta$ is then also open, it follows that X_α is also closed. Any strictly larger set $A \subset X$ with $X_\alpha \subset A$ could not then be connected, as it would contain X_α as a nonempty proper open and closed subset; this makes X_α a *maximal* connected subset of X .

The proof of the following result is Exercise 7.2:

PROPOSITION 7.7. *If the spaces X_α in Example 7.6 are also path-connected, then they also form the path-components of the disjoint union $X = \coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$.* $\square$

For an arbitrary space X , let us choose an index set I with which to label each connected component of X , so the connected components form a collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, each of which is a subset $X_\alpha \subset X$ endowed with the subspace topology. Proposition 7.5 shows that $X_\alpha \cap X_\beta = \emptyset$ whenever $\alpha \neq \beta$, and obviously $\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha = X$, so as sets, there is a canonical bijective correspondence between X and the disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$. It is natural to wonder: Is this correspondence a homeomorphism? It is easy to see that it is continuous in at least one direction: the individual subsets $X_\alpha \subset X$ come with inclusion maps $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$, and endowing X_α with the subspace topology makes i_α continuous. The canonical bijection from $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ to X can then be written as

$$(7.1) \quad \coprod_{\alpha \in I} i_\alpha : \coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha \rightarrow X,$$

meaning it is the unique map whose restriction to each of the subsets $X_\alpha \subset \coprod_{\beta \in I} X_\beta$ is precisely i_α . The definition of the disjoint union topology makes this map automatically continuous. The following example shows however that, in general, its inverse need not be continuous.

EXAMPLE 7.8. The set $\mathbb{Q}$ of rational numbers is a perfectly nice algebraic object, but when endowed with the subspace topology as a subset of $\mathbb{R}$, it becomes a very badly behaved topological space. We claim that if $A \subset \mathbb{Q}$ is any subset with more than one element, then A is disconnected. Indeed, given $x, y \in A$ with $x < y$, we can find an irrational number $r \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ with $x < r < y$, and the sets $A_- := A \cap (-\infty, r)$ and $A_+ := A \cap (r, \infty)$ are then nonempty open subsets of A which are complements of each other, hence both are open and closed. This proves that the connected components of $\mathbb{Q}$ are simply the one-point subspaces $\{x\} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, so the map (7.1) in this case takes the form

$$\coprod_{x \in \mathbb{Q}} \{x\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}.$$

The domain and target of this map are the same set, and the map itself is the identity, but the two sets are endowed with very different topologies: in particular, the domain carries the discrete topology, while $\mathbb{Q}$ on the right hand side carries the subspace topology that it inherits from the standard topology of $\mathbb{R}$. The identity map is thus continuous—indeed, every map defined on a space with the discrete topology is continuous—but it is not a homeomorphism, because the discrete topology contains many open sets that are not open in the standard topology of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Example 7.8 shows that while every space X has a natural bijective correspondence with the disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ of its connected components, the natural topology on $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ may in general be different from the original topology of X . We've seen for instance that each individual X_α is automatically both an open and closed subset of $\coprod_{\beta \in I} X_\beta$, thus there is no hope of (7.1) being a homeomorphism unless X_α is also an open and closed subset of X . The example of $\mathbb{Q}$ shows that the latter is not always true: the 1-point connected components $\{x\} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ are closed subsets, but they are not open. The fact that they are closed turns out to be a completely general phenomenon:

PROPOSITION 7.9. *Every connected component $A \subset X$ of a space X is a closed subset.*

PROOF. Assume $A \subset X$ is a maximal connected subset. Recall from Definition 3.1 that the closure $\bar{A} \subset X$ of A is the set of all points $x \in X$ for which every neighborhood of x intersects A . If we equip $\bar{A}$ with the subspace topology and view it as a topological space in itself, with $A \subset \bar{A}$ as a subset, then the closure of A in $\bar{A}$ is still $\bar{A}$: indeed, every neighborhood in $\bar{A}$ of a point $x \in \bar{A}$ takes the form $\mathcal{U} \cap \bar{A}$ for some neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ of x in X , implying that $\mathcal{U}$ intersects A , and therefore so does $\mathcal{U} \cap \bar{A}$.

Now suppose $f : \bar{A} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a continuous function. Its restriction to A is then also continuous, and therefore constant, since A is connected; let us write $f(A) = \{i\} \subset \{0, 1\}$. Then since $\{i\}$ is a closed subset of $\{0, 1\}$ and f is continuous, $f^{-1}(i)$ is a closed subset of $\bar{A}$ that contains A , and it therefore also contains the closure $\bar{A}$. This implies that f is in fact constant on $\bar{A}$, and thus proves that $\bar{A}$ is connected. Since A is a maximal connected subset, we conclude $A = \bar{A}$, meaning A is closed. $\square$

It turns out that the openness of the connected components is not only a necessary condition for (7.1) to be a homeomorphism, it is also sufficient. The proof of the following is Exercise 7.3:

THEOREM 7.10. *If $\{X_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in I}$ are the connected components of a space X , then the canonical continuous bijection (7.1) from $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ to X is a homeomorphism if and only if every X_α is an open subset of X .* $\square$

We note one obvious case in which connected components will necessarily be both closed and open: here openness follows from the fact that the complement of a connected component is a union of disjoint connected components, and finite unions of closed sets are closed.

COROLLARY 7.11. *If X is a space with only finitely many connected components, then each of them is both closed and open, and the canonical bijection (7.1) is therefore a homeomorphism. $\square$*

It is time to clarify the relationship between connectedness and path-connectedness.

THEOREM 7.12. *Every path-connected space X is connected.*

PROOF. If X is not connected, then there exist points $x, y \in X$ and a continuous function $f : X \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that $f(x) = 0$ and $f(y) = 1$. But if X is path-connected, then there also exists a continuous map $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = x$ and $\gamma(1) = y$. The composition $g := f \circ \gamma$ is then a continuous function $g : [0, 1] \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ satisfying $g(0) = 0$ and $g(1) = 1$, and this violates the intermediate value theorem. $\square$

Surprisingly, the converse of this theorem is false.

EXAMPLE 7.13. Define $X \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ to be the subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ consisting of the vertical line $\{x = 0\}$ and the graph of the equation $\{y = \sin(1/x)\}$ for $x \neq 0$. The latter is a sine curve that oscillates more and more rapidly as $x \rightarrow 0$. We claim that

$$X_0 := \{x = 0\}$$

is a path-component of X . It clearly is path-connected, so we need to show that there does not exist any continuous path $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ that begins on the sine curve $\{y = \sin(1/x)\}$ and ends on the line $\{x = 0\}$. Since $\{x = 0\}$ is a closed subset, the preimage of this set under γ is closed (and therefore compact) in $[0, 1]$, implying that it has a minimum $\tau \in (0, 1]$. We can therefore restrict our path to $\gamma : [0, \tau] \rightarrow X$ and assume that it lies on the sine curve for all $0 \leq t < \tau$ but ends on the vertical line at $t = \tau$. Now observe that due to the rapid oscillation as $x \rightarrow 0$, we can find for any $y \in [-1, 1]$ a sequence $t_n \in [0, \tau)$ with $t_n \rightarrow \tau$ such that $\gamma(t_n) \rightarrow (0, y)$. The point y here is arbitrary, yet continuity of γ requires $\gamma(t_n) \rightarrow \gamma(\tau)$, so this is a contradiction and proves the claim. In particular, this proves that X is not path-connected. The other path-components of X are now easy to identify: they are

$$X_- := X \cap \{x < 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad X_+ := X \cap \{x > 0\},$$

the portions of the sine curve lying to the left and right of X_0 , so there are three path-components in total. The path-components are path-connected and therefore (by Theorem 7.12) also connected. But neither X_- nor X_+ is closed, so by Prop. 7.9, neither of these can be a connected component. The maximal connected subset containing X_- , for instance, must be a closed set containing X_- and therefore contains the closure $\overline{X_-}$, which includes points in X_0 . Since X_0 is path-connected, it follows that the connected component containing X_- also contains all of X_0 . But the same argument applies equally well to X_+ , and these two observations together imply that all three path-components are in the same connected component, i.e. X is connected.

7.2. Local connectedness. The space in Example 7.13 is sometimes called the *topologist's sine curve*. There is a certain “local” character to the pathologies of this space, i.e. part of the reason for its bizarre properties is that one can zoom in on certain points in X arbitrarily far without making it look more reasonable—in particular this is true for the points in X_0 that are in the closure of X_- and X_+ . One can use neighborhoods of points to formalize this notion of “zooming in” arbitrarily far.

DEFINITION 7.14. A space X is **locally connected** (*lokal zusammenhängend*) if for all points $x \in X$, every neighborhood of x contains a connected neighborhood of x .

The version of this for path-connectedness is completely analogous.

DEFINITION 7.15. A space X is **locally path-connected** (*lokal wegzusammenhängend*) if for all points $x \in X$, every neighborhood of x contains a path-connected neighborhood of x .

Local path-connectedness obviously implies local connectedness by Theorem 7.12. Since most spaces we can easily imagine will have both properties, it is important at this juncture to look at some examples that do not. The topologist's sine curve in Example 7.13 is one such space: it is not locally connected (even though it is connected), since sufficiently small neighborhoods of points $(0, y) \in X$ for $-1 < y < 1$ always have infinitely many pieces of the sine curve passing through and are thus disconnected. Here is an example that is path-connected, but not locally:

EXAMPLE 7.16. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the compact set

$$X = \left(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} L_n \right) \cup L_{\infty},$$

where for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, L_n denotes the straight line segment from $(0, 1)$ to $(1/n, 0)$, and the case $n = \infty$ is included for the vertical segment from $(0, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$. Then sufficiently small neighborhoods of $(0, 0)$ in this space are never connected, so X is not locally connected. Notice however that there are continuous paths along the line segments L_n from any point in X to $(0, 1)$, so X is path-connected.

PROPOSITION 7.17. *If X is locally connected, then its connected components are open subsets. Similarly, if X is locally path-connected, then its path-components are open subsets.*

PROOF. If X is locally connected and $A \subset X$ is a maximal connected subset, then for each $x \in A$, fix a connected neighborhood $\mathcal{U}_x \subset X$ of x . Now for $\mathcal{U} := \bigcup_{x \in A} \mathcal{U}_x$, any continuous function $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ must restrict to a constant on each $\mathcal{U}_x$ and also on A , implying that f is constant, hence $\mathcal{U}$ is connected. The maximality of A thus implies $A = \mathcal{U}$, but $\mathcal{U}$ is also a neighborhood of A and thus contains an open set containing A , therefore A is open.

A completely analogous argument works in the locally path-connected case, taking path-connected neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_x$ and using the fact that their union must also be path-connected. $\square$

A consequence of this result is that the phenomenon allowing certain spaces to be connected but not path-connected is essentially local:

THEOREM 7.18. *Every space that is connected and locally path-connected is also path-connected.*

PROOF. If X is locally path-connected, then by Prop. 7.17 its path-components are open. Then if $A \subset X$ is a path-component, $X \setminus A$ is a union of path-components and is therefore also open, implying that A is both open and closed. If X is connected, it follows that $A = X$, so X is a path-component. $\square$

7.3. Local compactness. With the definition of local connectedness in mind, we now briefly revisit the subject of compactness.

DEFINITION 7.19. A space X is **locally compact** (*lokal kompakt*) if for all points $x \in X$, every neighborhood of x contains a compact neighborhood of x .

Local compactness is one of the notions for which one can find multiple inequivalent definitions in the literature, but as we'll see next, all the plausible definitions of this concept are equivalent if we only consider Hausdorff spaces.

THEOREM 7.20. *If X is Hausdorff, then the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (i) *Every point $x \in X$ has a compact neighborhood;*
- (ii) *X is locally compact;*

(iii) If $K \subset \mathcal{U} \subset X$ where K is compact and $\mathcal{U}$ is open, then $K \subset \mathcal{V} \subset \bar{\mathcal{V}} \subset \mathcal{U}$ for some open set $\mathcal{V}$ with compact closure $\bar{\mathcal{V}}$.

PROOF. Since single point subsets $\{x\} \subset X$ are always compact, it is clear that (iii) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i). The implication (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) is a relatively straightforward exercise using the finite covering property for the compact set K ; see Exercise 7.6. We will therefore focus on the implication (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii).

Assume we are given a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x and would like to find a compact neighborhood inside $\mathcal{U}$. By assumption, x also has a compact neighborhood $K \subset X$. It will do no harm to replace $\mathcal{U}$ with a smaller neighborhood such as the interior of $\mathcal{U} \cap K$, so without loss of generality, let us assume $\mathcal{U}$ is open and contained in K , in which case (since X is Hausdorff and K is therefore closed) its closure $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ is also contained in K and is thus compact. We define the *boundary* of $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ by

$$\partial \bar{\mathcal{U}} = \bar{\mathcal{U}} \cap \overline{X \setminus \mathcal{U}}.$$

This is a closed subset of $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ and is therefore also compact, and we observe that since x is contained in a neighborhood disjoint from $X \setminus \mathcal{U}$, x is not in the closure $\overline{X \setminus \mathcal{U}}$ and thus

$$x \notin \partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}.$$

Since X is Hausdorff, for every $y \in \partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$ there exists a pair of open neighborhoods

$$x \in A_y \subset X, \quad y \in B_y \subset X \quad \text{such that} \quad A_y \cap B_y = \emptyset.$$

Then the sets B_y for $y \in \partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$ form an open cover of the compact set $\partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$, hence there exists a finite subset $\{y_1, \dots, y_N\} \subset \partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$ such that

$$\partial \bar{\mathcal{U}} \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^N B_{y_i}.$$

Now the set

$$\mathcal{V} := \mathcal{U} \cap \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^N A_{y_i} \right)$$

is an open neighborhood of x contained in $\mathcal{U}$ and disjoint from the neighborhood $\bigcup_{i=1}^N B_{y_i}$ of $\partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$. The latter implies that for any $y \in \partial \bar{\mathcal{U}}$, y has a neighborhood disjoint from $\mathcal{V}$, hence $y \notin \bar{\mathcal{V}}$. Similarly, $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$ implies y cannot be in the closure of $\mathcal{V}$ if it is in the interior of $X \setminus \mathcal{U}$, so we conclude $\bar{\mathcal{V}} \subset \mathcal{U}$. The compactness of $\bar{\mathcal{V}}$ follows because it is a closed subset of $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ and the latter is compact. $\square$

EXAMPLE 7.21. The Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^n$ is locally compact, and more generally, so is any closed subset $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ endowed with the subspace topology. Indeed, since closed and bounded subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ are compact, every $x \in X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ has an arbitrarily small compact neighborhood of the form $\bar{B}_r(x) \cap X$ for $r > 0$.

EXAMPLE 7.22. This is a non-example: a Hilbert space is not locally compact if it is infinite dimensional. This is due to the fact that every neighborhood of a point x must contain some closed ball $\bar{B}_r(x)$, but the latter is not compact (cf. Remark 5.6).

EXAMPLE 7.23. Since a space is a neighborhood of all of its points, Theorem 7.20 implies that every compact Hausdorff space is locally compact.

7.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 7.1 (*). Show that any two path-components of a space X must be either identical or disjoint, i.e. the path-components partition X into disjoint subsets. One can also express this by saying that there is a well-defined equivalence relation $\sim$ on X such that $x \sim y$ if and only if x and y belong to the same path-component. (Why is that an equivalence relation?)

EXERCISE 7.2 (*). We saw in Example 7.6 that for any collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of connected spaces, the connected components of the disjoint union $X := \coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ are the individual spaces $X_\alpha \subset X$. Show that if the spaces X_α are also path-connected, then they also form the path-components of X .

EXERCISE 7.3 (*). If $\{X_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in I}$ are the connected components of a space X , show that the canonical continuous bijection (7.1) from $\coprod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ to X is a homeomorphism if and only if every X_α is an open subset of X . (In particular, Corollary 7.11 implies that this is always true if I is finite, and Proposition 7.17 shows that it is also true if X is locally connected.)

EXERCISE 7.4. In this exercise we show that products of (path-)connected spaces are also (path-)connected, so long as one uses the correct topology on the product.

- (a) Prove that if X and Y are both connected, then so is $X \times Y$.
Hint: Start by showing that for any $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, the subsets $\{x\} \times Y$ and $X \times \{y\}$ in $X \times Y$ are connected. Then think about continuous maps $X \times Y \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- (b) Show that for any collection of path-connected spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$, the space $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is path-connected in the usual product topology.
Hint: You might find Proposition 4.4 helpful.
- (c) Consider $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ with the “box topology” which we discussed in Exercise 4.2. Show that the set of all elements $f \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ represented as functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfy $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = 0$ is both open and closed, hence $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$ in the box topology is not connected (and therefore also not path-connected).

The rest of this exercise is aimed at generalizing part (a) to the statement that for an arbitrary collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of connected (but not necessarily path-connected) spaces, $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ with the product topology is also connected. Choose a point $\{c_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ and, for each finite subset $J \subset I$ of the index set, consider the set

$$X_J := \left\{ \{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I} \in \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha \mid x_\beta = c_\beta \text{ for all } \beta \in I \setminus J \right\},$$

endowed with the subspace topology that it inherits from the product topology of $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$.

- (d) Show that for every choice of finite subset $J \subset I$, X_J is connected.
Hint: This is not really that different from part (a).
- (e) Deduce that the union $\bigcup_J X_J \subset \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is also connected, where J ranges over the set of all finite subsets of I .
- (f) Show that the closure of the subset $\bigcup_J X_J \subset \prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$, and deduce that $\prod_{\alpha \in I} X_\alpha$ is also connected.

EXERCISE 7.5. Prove that $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{R}^n$ are not homeomorphic for any $n \geq 2$.

Hint: If $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{R}^n$ are homeomorphic, then so are $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{t\}$ and $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Find a topological property that $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}$ has and $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{t\}$ does not.

EXERCISE 7.6 (*). Prove that if X is a locally compact space with subsets $K \subset \mathcal{U} \subset X$ such that K is compact and $\mathcal{U}$ is open, then K has a compact neighborhood contained in $\mathcal{U}$. Deduce from this the implication that was skipped in the proof of Theorem 7.20, namely: If X is locally compact and Hausdorff, then for any nested pair of subsets $K \subset \mathcal{U} \subset X$ with K compact and $\mathcal{U}$ open, there exists an open set $\mathcal{V} \subset X$ with compact closure $\bar{\mathcal{V}}$ such that $K \subset \mathcal{V} \subset \bar{\mathcal{V}} \subset \mathcal{U}$.

EXERCISE 7.7. For each of the following spaces, determine whether it is (i) Hausdorff, (ii) locally compact, (iii) connected, (iv) locally path-connected.³

³You should always assume unless otherwise specified that $\mathbb{R}$ is endowed with its standard topology, and all spaces derived from it as subsets/products/quotients etc. carry the natural subspace/product/quotient topology.

- (a) The irrational numbers $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$
- (b) $\{0\} \cup \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$
- (c) The quotient group $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}$

EXERCISE 7.8. There is a cheap trick to view any topological space as a compact space with a single point removed. For a space X with topology $\mathcal{T}$, let $\{\infty\}$ denote a set consisting of one element that is not in X , and define the **one point compactification** of X as the set $X^* = X \cup \{\infty\}$ with topology $\mathcal{T}^*$ consisting of all subsets in $\mathcal{T}$ plus all subsets of the form $(X \setminus K) \cup \{\infty\} \subset X^*$ where $K \subset X$ is closed and compact.

- (a) Verify that $\mathcal{T}^*$ is a topology and that X^* is always compact.
- (b) Show that if X is first countable and Hausdorff, a sequence in $X \subset X^*$ converges to $\infty \in X^*$ if and only if it has no convergent subsequence with a limit in X . Conclude that if X is first countable and Hausdorff, X^* is sequentially compact.
- (c) Show that for $X = \mathbb{R}$, X^* is homeomorphic to S^1 . (More generally, one can use stereographic projection to show that the one point compactification of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is homeomorphic to S^n .)
- (d) Show that if X is already compact, then X^* is homeomorphic to the disjoint union $X \sqcup \{\infty\}$.
- (e) Show that X^* is Hausdorff if and only if X is both Hausdorff and locally compact.

Notice that $\mathbb{Q}$ is not locally compact, since every neighborhood of a point $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ contains sequences without convergent subsequences, e.g. any sequence of rational numbers that converges to an irrational number sufficiently close to x . The one point compactification $\mathbb{Q}^*$ is a compact space, and by part (b) it is also sequentially compact, but those are practically the only nice things we can say about it.

- (f) Show that for any $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, every neighborhood of x in $\mathbb{Q}^*$ intersects every neighborhood of ∞ , so in particular, $\mathbb{Q}^*$ is not Hausdorff.
Advice: Do not try to argue in terms of sequences with non-unique limits (cf. part (g) below), and do not try to describe precisely what arbitrary compact subsets of $\mathbb{Q}$ can look like (the answer is not nice). One useful thing you can say about arbitrary compact subsets of $\mathbb{Q}$ is that they can never contain the intersection of $\mathbb{Q}$ with any open interval. (Why not?)
- (g) Show that every convergent sequence in $\mathbb{Q}^*$ has a unique limit. (Since $\mathbb{Q}^*$ is not Hausdorff, this implies via Proposition 6.12 that $\mathbb{Q}^*$ is not first countable—in particular, ∞ does not have a countable neighborhood base.)
- (h) Find a point in $\mathbb{Q}^*$ with a neighborhood that does not contain any compact neighborhood.

EXERCISE 7.9. Given spaces X and Y , let $C(X, Y)$ denote the set of all continuous maps from X to Y , and consider the natural *evaluation map*

$$\text{ev} : C(X, Y) \times X \rightarrow Y : (f, x) \mapsto f(x).$$

It is easy to show that ev is a continuous map if we assign the discrete topology to $C(X, Y)$, but usually one can also find more interesting topologies on $C(X, Y)$ for which ev is continuous. The **compact-open topology** is defined via a subbase consisting of all subsets of the form

$$\mathcal{U}_{K,V} := \{f \in C(X, Y) \mid f(K) \subset V\},$$

where K ranges over all compact subsets of X , and V ranges over all open subsets of Y . Prove:

- (a) If Y is a metric space, then convergence of a sequence $f_n \in C(X, Y)$ in the compact-open topology means that f_n converges uniformly on all compact subsets of X .

- (b) If $C(X, Y)$ carries the topology of pointwise convergence (i.e. the subspace topology defined via the obvious inclusion $C(X, Y) \subset Y^X$), then ev is not sequentially continuous in general.
- (c) If $C(X, Y)$ carries the compact-open topology, then ev is always sequentially continuous.
- (d) If $C(X, Y)$ carries the compact-open topology and X is locally compact, then ev is continuous.
- (e) Every topology on $C(X, Y)$ for which ev is continuous contains the compact-open topology. (This proves that if X is locally compact, the compact-open topology is the weakest topology for which the evaluation map is continuous.)
Hint: If $(f_0, x_0) \in \text{ev}^{-1}(V)$ where $V \subset Y$ is open, then $(f_0, x_0) \in \mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{U} \subset \text{ev}^{-1}(V)$ for some open $\mathcal{O} \subset C(X, Y)$ and $\mathcal{U} \subset X$. Is $\mathcal{U}_{K,V}$ a union of sets $\mathcal{O}$ that arise in this way?
- (f) For the compact-open topology on $C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$, $\text{ev} : C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not continuous.

EXERCISE 7.10. One of the good reasons to use the notation X^Y for the set of all functions $f : Y \rightarrow X$ between two sets is that there is an obvious bijection

$$Z^{X \times Y} \rightarrow (Z^Y)^X$$

sending a function $F : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ to the function $\Phi : X \rightarrow Z^Y$ defined by

$$(7.2) \quad \Phi(x)(y) = F(x, y).$$

The existence of this bijection is sometimes called the *exponential law* for sets. In this exercise we will explore to what extent the exponential law carries over to topological spaces and continuous maps. We will see that this is also related to the question of how to define a natural topology on the group of homeomorphisms of a space.

If X and Y are topological spaces, let us denote by $C(X, Y)$ the space of all continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$, with the compact-open topology, which has a subbase consisting of all sets of the form

$$\mathcal{U}_{K,V} := \{f \in C(X, Y) \mid f(K) \subset V\}$$

for $K \subset X$ compact and $V \subset Y$ open (see Exercise 7.9 above). Assume Z is also a topological space.

- (a) Prove that if $F : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous, then the correspondence (7.2) defines a continuous map $\Phi : X \rightarrow C(Y, Z)$.
- (b) Prove that if Y is locally compact, then the converse also holds: any continuous map $\Phi : X \rightarrow C(Y, Z)$ defines a continuous map $F : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ via (7.2).

Let's pause for a moment to observe what these two results imply for the case $X := I = [0, 1]$. First, here is a quick definition of a notion that will appear very often in the remainder of this course: given two continuous maps $f_0, f_1 : Y \rightarrow Z$, a continuous map

$$h : I \times Y \rightarrow Z \quad \text{such that} \quad h(0, \cdot) = f_0 \text{ and } h(1, \cdot) = f_1$$

is called a **homotopy** (*Homotopie*) between f_0 and f_1 , and we call f_0 and f_1 **homotopic** (*homotop*) if a homotopy between them exists. According to part (a), a homotopy between two maps $Y \rightarrow Z$ can always be regarded as a continuous path in $C(Y, Z)$, and part (b) says that the converse is also true if Y is locally compact, hence two maps $Y \rightarrow Z$ are homotopic if and only if they lie in the same path-component of $C(Y, Z)$.⁴

⁴Since $C(X \times Y, Z)$ and $C(X, C(Y, Z))$ both have natural topologies in terms of the compact-open topology, you may be wondering whether the correspondence (7.2) defines a homeomorphism between them. The answer to this is more complicated than one would like, but Steenrod showed in a famous paper in 1967 [Ste67] that the answer is “yes” if one restricts attention to spaces that are *compactly generated*, a property that most respectable spaces have. The caveat is that $C(X, Y)$ in the compact-open topology will not always be compactly generated if X and Y are, so one must replace the compact-open topology by a slightly stronger one that is compactly generated

- (c) Deduce from part (b) a new proof of the following result from Exercise 7.9(d): if X is locally compact, then the *evaluation map* $\text{ev} : C(X, Y) \times X \rightarrow Y : (f, x) \mapsto f(x)$ is continuous.

Hint: This is very easy if you look at it from the right perspective.

Remark: If you were curious to see a counterexample to part (b) in a case where Y is not locally compact, you could now extract one from Exercise 7.9(f).

- (d) The following cannot be deduced directly from part (b), but it is a similar result and requires a similar proof: show that if Y is locally compact, then

$$C(X, Y) \times C(Y, Z) \rightarrow C(X, Z) : (f, g) \mapsto g \circ f$$

is a continuous map.

Hint: Exercise 7.6 is useful here.

Now let's focus on maps from a space X to itself. A group G with a topology is called a **topological group** if the maps

$$G \times G \rightarrow G : (g, h) \mapsto gh \quad \text{and} \quad G \rightarrow G : g \mapsto g^{-1}$$

are both continuous. Common examples include the standard matrix groups $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$, $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ and their subgroups, which have natural topologies as subsets of the vector space of (real or complex) n -by- n matrices. Another natural example to consider is the group

$$\text{Homeo}(X) = \{f \in C(X, X) \mid f \text{ is bijective and } f^{-1} \in C(X, X)\}$$

for any topological space X , where the group operation is defined via composition of maps. We would like to know what topologies can be assigned to $C(X, X)$ so that $\text{Homeo}(X) \subset C(X, X)$, with the subspace topology, becomes a topological group. Notice that the discrete topology clearly works; this is immediate because all maps between spaces with the discrete topology are automatically continuous, so there is nothing to check. But the discrete topology is not very interesting. Let $\mathcal{T}_H$ denote the topology on $C(X, X)$ with subbase consisting of all sets of the form $\mathcal{U}_{K,V}$ and $\mathcal{U}_{X \setminus V, X \setminus K}$, where again $K \subset X$ can be any compact subset and $V \subset X$ any open subset. Notice that if X is compact and Hausdorff, then for any V open and K compact, $X \setminus V$ is compact and $X \setminus K$ is open, thus $\mathcal{T}_H$ is again simply the compact-open topology. But if X is not compact or Hausdorff, $\mathcal{T}_H$ may be stronger than the compact-open topology.

- (e) Show that if X is locally compact, then $\text{Homeo}(X)$ with the topology $\mathcal{T}_H$ is a topological group.

Hint: Notice that $f(K) \subset V$ if and only if $f^{-1}(X \setminus V) \subset X \setminus K$. Use this to show directly that $f \mapsto f^{-1}$ is continuous, and reduce the rest to what was proved already in part (d).

Conclusion: We've shown that if X is compact and Hausdorff, then $\text{Homeo}(X)$ with the compact-open topology is a topological group. This is actually true under somewhat weaker hypotheses, e.g. it suffices to know that X is Hausdorff, locally compact and locally connected. (If you're interested, a quite clever proof of this fact may be found in [Are46].)

Just for fun, here's an example to show that just being locally compact and Hausdorff is not enough: let $X = \{0\} \cup \{e^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ with the subspace topology, and notice that X is not compact (since it is unbounded) nor locally connected (since every neighborhood of 0 is disconnected). Consider the sequence $f_k \in \text{Homeo}(X)$ defined for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ by $f_k(0) = 0$, $f_k(e^n) = e^{n-1}$ for $n \leq -k$ or $n > k$, $f_k(e^n) = e^n$ for $-k < n < k$, and $f_k(e^k) = e^{-k}$. It is not hard to show that in the compact-open topology on $C(X, X)$, $f_k \rightarrow \text{Id}$ but $f_k^{-1} \not\rightarrow \text{Id}$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, hence the map $\text{Homeo}(X) \rightarrow \text{Homeo}(X) : f \mapsto f^{-1}$ is not continuous.

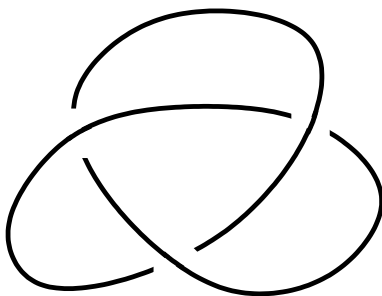
but otherwise has the same properties for most practical purposes. If you want to know what "compactly generated" means and why it is a useful notion, see [Ste67]. These issues are somewhat important in homotopy theory at more advanced levels, though it is conventional to worry about them as little as possible.

8. Paths, homotopy and the fundamental group

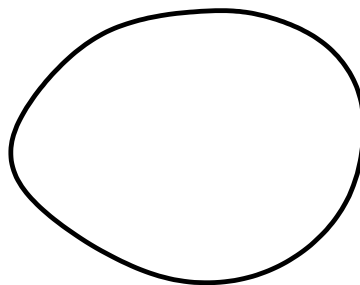
8.1. Motivation. The rest of this course will concentrate on *algebraic* topology. The class of spaces we consider will often be more restrictive than up to this point, e.g. we will usually (though not always) require them to be Hausdorff, second countable, locally path-connected and one or two other conditions that are satisfied in all interesting examples.⁵ It will happen often from now on that the best way to prove any given result is with a picture, but I might not always have time to produce the relevant picture in these notes. I'll do what I can.

As motivation, let us highlight two examples of questions that the tools of algebraic topology are designed to answer.

SAMPLE QUESTION 8.1. The following figures show two examples of **knots** K and K_0 in $\mathbb{R}^3$:



$K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$



$K_0 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$

The first knot K is known as the **trefoil** knot (*Kleeblattknoten*), and the second K_0 is the *trivial* knot or **unknot** (*Unknoten*). Roughly speaking, a knot is a subset in $\mathbb{R}^3$ that is homeomorphic to S^1 and satisfies some additional condition to avoid overly “wild” behavior, e.g. one could sensibly require each of K and K_0 to be the image of some infinitely differentiable 1-periodic map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$. The question then is: can K be deformed continuously to K_0 ? Let us express this more precisely. If you imagine K and K_0 as physical knots in space, then when you move them around, you don't move only the knots—you also displace the air around them, and the motion of this collection of air particles over time can be viewed as defining a continuous family of homeomorphisms on $\mathbb{R}^3$. Mathematically, the question is then, does there exist a continuous map

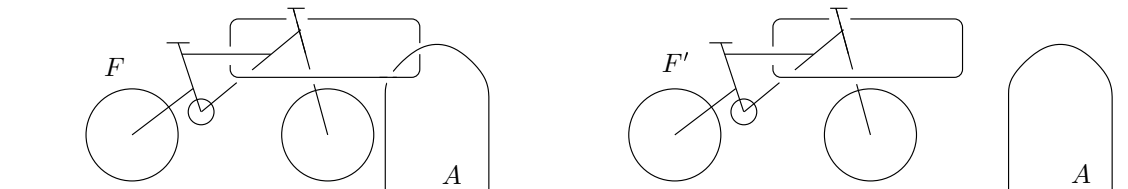
$$\varphi : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

such that $\varphi(t, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is a homeomorphism for every $t \in [0, 1]$, $\varphi(0, \cdot)$ is the identity map on $\mathbb{R}^3$ and $\varphi(1, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ sends K_0 to K ?

It turns out that the answer is no: in particular, if a homeomorphism $\varphi(1, \cdot)$ on $\mathbb{R}^3$ sending K_0 to K exists, then there must also be a homeomorphism between $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ and $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_0$, and we will see that the latter is impossible. The reason is because we can associate to these spaces groups $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K)$ and $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_0)$, which would need to be isomorphic if $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ and $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_0$ were homeomorphic, and we will be able to compute enough information about both groups to show that they are not isomorphic.

SAMPLE QUESTION 8.2. Here is another pair of spaces defined as subsets of $\mathbb{R}^3$:

⁵The question of which examples are considered “interesting” depends highly on context, of course. In functional analysis, one encounters many interesting spaces of functions that do not have all of the properties we just listed. But this is not a course in functional analysis.



A question of tremendous practical import: can the set F in the picture at the left be shifted continuously to match the set F' in the picture at the right, but without “passing through” A , i.e. is there a continuous family of embeddings $F \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus A$ that begins as the natural inclusion and ends by sending F to F' ? If there is, then you may want to adjust your bike lock.

Of course there is no such continuous family of embeddings, and to see why, you could just delete the bicycle from the picture and pay attention only to the loop representing the bike lock, which is shown “linked” with A in the left picture and not in the right picture. The precise way to express the impossibility of deforming one picture to the other is that this loop is parametrized by a “noncontractible loop” $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus A$, meaning γ represents a nontrivial element in the fundamental group $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus A)$.

Our task in this lecture is to define what the fundamental group is for an arbitrary space. We will then develop a few more of its general properties in the next lecture and spend the next four or five weeks developing methods to compute it.

8.2. Paths and homotopies. We must first discuss paths in a space X . Since the unit interval $[0, 1]$ will appear very often in the rest of this course, let us abbreviate it from now on by

$$I := [0, 1].$$

For two points $x, y \in X$, a **path** (*Pfad*) from x to y is a map $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ satisfying $\gamma(0) = x$ and $\gamma(1) = y$.⁶ We will sometimes use the notation

$$x \rightsquigarrow y$$

to indicate that γ is a path from x to y .

The **inverse** of a path $x \rightsquigarrow y$ is the path

$$y \overset{\gamma^{-1}}{\rightsquigarrow} x$$

defined by $\gamma^{-1}(t) := \gamma(1 - t)$. The reason for this terminology and notation will become clearer when we give the definition of the fundamental group below. The same goes for the notion of the **product** of two paths: there is no natural multiplication defined for a pair of paths between arbitrary points, but given $x \overset{\alpha}{\rightsquigarrow} y$ and $y \overset{\beta}{\rightsquigarrow} z$, we can define the product path $x \overset{\alpha \cdot \beta}{\rightsquigarrow} z$ by

$$(8.1) \quad (\alpha \cdot \beta)(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha(2t) & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq 1/2, \\ \beta(2t - 1) & \text{if } 1/2 \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

This operation is also called a **concatenation** of paths. The **trivial path** at a point $x \in X$ is defined as the constant path $x \overset{e_x}{\rightsquigarrow} x$, i.e.

$$e_x(t) = x.$$

The idea is for this to play the role of the identity element in some kind of group structure.

⁶This seems a good moment to emphasize that all maps in this course are assumed continuous unless otherwise noted.

If we want to turn concatenation into a product structure on a group, then we have one immediate problem: it is not associative. In fact, given paths $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$, $y \xrightarrow{\beta} z$ and $z \xrightarrow{\gamma} a$, we have

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \gamma) \neq (\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot \gamma,$$

though clearly the images of these two concatenations are the same, and their difference is only in the way they are parametrized. We would like to introduce an equivalence relation on the set of paths that forgets this distinction in parametrizations.

DEFINITION 8.3. Two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are **homotopic** (*homotop*) if there exists a map

$$H : I \times X \rightarrow Y \quad \text{such that } H(0, \cdot) = f \text{ and } H(1, \cdot) = g.$$

The map H is in this case called a **homotopy** (*Homotopie*) from f to g , and when a homotopy exists, we shall write

$$f \underset{h}{\sim} g.$$

It is straightforward to show that $\underset{h}{\sim}$ is an equivalence relation. In particular, if there are homotopies from f to g and from g to h , then by reparametrizing the parameter in $I = [0, 1]$ we can “glue” the two homotopies together to form a homotopy from f to h . The definition of the new homotopy is analogous to the definition of the concatenation of paths in (8.1).

For paths in particular we will need a slightly more restrictive notion of homotopy that fixes the end points.

DEFINITION 8.4. For two paths α and β from x to y , we write

$$\alpha \underset{h+}{\sim} \beta$$

and say α is **homotopic with fixed end points** to β if there exists a map $H : I \times I \rightarrow X$ satisfying $H(0, \cdot) = \alpha$, $H(1, \cdot) = \beta$, $H(s, 0) = x$ and $H(s, 1) = y$ for all $s \in I$.

It is straightforward to show that the symbol “ $\underset{h+}{\sim}$ ” defines an equivalence relation on the set of all paths from x to y ; see Exercise 8.1.

We will now prove several easy results about paths and homotopies. In most cases we will give precise formulas for the necessary homotopies, but one can also represent the main idea quite easily in pictures (see e.g. [Hat02, pp. 26–27]). We adopt the following convenient terminology: if $H : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy from $f_0 := H(0, \cdot) : X \rightarrow Y$ to $f_1 := H(1, \cdot) : X \rightarrow Y$, then we obtain a **continuous family of maps** $f_s := H(s, \cdot) : X \rightarrow Y$ for $s \in I$. The words “continuous family” will be understood as synonymous with “homotopy” in this sense.

PROPOSITION 8.5. If $\alpha \underset{h+}{\sim} \alpha'$ are homotopic paths from x to y and $\beta \underset{h+}{\sim} \beta'$ are homotopic paths from y to z , then

$$\alpha \cdot \beta \underset{h+}{\sim} \alpha' \cdot \beta'.$$

PROOF. By assumption, there exist continuous families of paths $x \xrightarrow{\alpha_s} y$ and $y \xrightarrow{\beta_s} z$ for $s \in I$ with $\alpha_0 = \alpha$, $\alpha_1 = \alpha'$, $\beta_0 = \beta$ and $\beta_1 = \beta'$. Then a homotopy with fixed end points from $\alpha \cdot \beta$ to $\alpha' \cdot \beta'$ can be defined via the continuous family

$$x \xrightarrow{\alpha_s \cdot \beta_s} z \quad \text{for } s \in I.$$

□

We next show that while concatenation of paths is not an associative operation, it is associative “up to homotopy”.

PROPOSITION 8.6. *Given paths $x \xrightarrow{\alpha} y$, $y \xrightarrow{\beta} z$ and $z \xrightarrow{\gamma} a$,*

$$(\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot \gamma \underset{h+}{\sim} \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \gamma).$$

PROOF. A suitable homotopy $H : I \times I \rightarrow X$ can be defined as a family of linear reparametrizations of the sequence of paths α, β, γ :

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} \alpha\left(\frac{4t}{s+1}\right) & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{s+1}{4}, \\ \beta(4t - (s+1)) & \text{if } \frac{s+1}{4} \leq t \leq \frac{s+2}{4}, \\ \gamma\left(\frac{4}{2-s}(t-1) + 1\right) & \text{if } \frac{s+2}{4} \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

□

And finally, a result that allows us to interpret the constant paths e_x as “identity elements” and γ and γ^{-1} as “inverses”:

PROPOSITION 8.7. *For any path $x \xrightarrow{\gamma} y$, the following relations hold:*

- (i) $e_x \cdot \gamma \underset{h+}{\sim} \gamma$
- (ii) $\gamma \underset{h+}{\sim} \gamma \cdot e_y$
- (iii) $\gamma \cdot \gamma^{-1} \underset{h+}{\sim} e_x$
- (iv) $\gamma^{-1} \cdot \gamma \underset{h+}{\sim} e_y$

PROOF. For (i), we define a family of reparametrizations of the concatenated path $e_x \cdot \gamma$ that shrinks the amount of time spent on e_x from 1/2 to 0:

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1-s}{2}, \\ \gamma\left(\frac{2}{s+1}(t-1) + 1\right) & \text{if } \frac{1-s}{2} \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

The homotopy for (ii) is analogous.

For (iii), the idea is to define a family of paths that traverse only part of γ up to some time depending on s , then stay still for a suitable length of time and, in a third step, follow γ^{-1} back to x :

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} \gamma(2t) & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1-s}{2}, \\ \gamma(1-s) & \text{if } \frac{1-s}{2} \leq t \leq \frac{1+s}{2}, \\ \gamma(2-2t) & \text{if } \frac{1+s}{2} \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

The last relation follows from this by interchanging the roles of γ and γ^{-1} . □

8.3. The fundamental group. The last three propositions combine to imply that the group structure in the following definition is a well-defined associative product which admits an identity element and inverses.

DEFINITION 8.8. Given a space X and a point $p \in X$, the **fundamental group** (*Fundamentalgruppe*) of X with **base point** (*Basispunkt*) p is defined as the set of equivalence classes of paths $p \rightsquigarrow p$ up to homotopy with fixed end points:

$$\pi_1(X, p) := \left\{ \text{paths } p \xrightarrow{\gamma} p \right\} / \underset{h+}{\sim}.$$

The product of two equivalence classes $[\alpha], [\beta] \in \pi_1(X, p)$ is defined via concatenation:

$$[\alpha][\beta] := [\alpha \cdot \beta],$$

and the identity element is represented by the constant path $[e_p]$. The inverse element for $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, p)$ is represented by the reversed path γ^{-1} .

Before exploring the further properties of the group $\pi_1(X, p)$, let us clarify in what sense it is a “topological invariant” of the space X . Intuitively, we would like this to mean that whenever X and Y are two homeomorphic spaces, their fundamental groups should be isomorphic groups. What makes this statement a tiny bit more complicated is that the fundamental group of X doesn’t just depend on X alone, but also on a choice of base point, so in order to make precise and correct statements about topological invariance, we will need to carry around a base point as extra data. The following definition is intended to formalize this notion.

DEFINITION 8.9. A **pointed space** (*punktierter Raum*) is a pair (X, p) consisting of a topological space X and a point $p \in X$. The point $p \in X$ is in this case called the **base point** (*Basispunkt*) of X . Given pointed spaces (X, p) and (Y, q) , any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $f(p) = q$ is called a **pointed map** or **map of pointed spaces**, and can be denoted by

$$f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q).$$

We also sometimes refer to such objects as **base-point preserving** maps. Finally, given two pointed maps $f, g : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$, a homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ from f to g that satisfies $H(s, p) = q$ for all $s \in I$ is called a **pointed homotopy**, or **homotopy of pointed maps**, or **base-point preserving homotopy**. One can equivalently describe such a homotopy as a continuous 1-parameter family of pointed maps $f_s := H(s, \cdot) : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ defined for $s \in I$.

Here is the first main result about the topological invariance of π_1 :

THEOREM 8.10. *One can associate to every pointed map $f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ a group homomorphism*

$$f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q) : [\gamma] \mapsto [f \circ \gamma],$$

which has the following properties:

- (i) *For any pointed maps $(X, p) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, q)$ and $(Y, q) \xrightarrow{g} (Z, r)$, $(g \circ f)_* = g_* \circ f_*$.*
- (ii) *The map associated to the identity map $(X, p) \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} (X, p)$ is the identity homomorphism $\pi_1(X, p) \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} \pi_1(X, p)$.*
- (iii) *Each homomorphism f_* depends only on the pointed homotopy class of f .*

PROOF. It is clear that up to homotopy (with fixed end points), the path $q \overset{f \circ \gamma}{\rightsquigarrow} q$ in Y depends only on the path $p \overset{\gamma}{\rightsquigarrow} p$ only up to homotopy with fixed end points; indeed, if $H : I \times I \rightarrow X$ defines a homotopy with fixed end points between two paths α and β based at p , then $f \circ H : I \times I \rightarrow Y$ defines a corresponding homotopy between $f \circ \alpha$ and $f \circ \beta$. Similarly, if $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, p)$ and $f, g : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ are homotopic via a base-point preserving homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow Y$, then $h : I \times I \rightarrow Y : (s, t) \mapsto H(s, \gamma(t))$ defines a homotopy with fixed end points between $f \circ \gamma$ and $g \circ \gamma$. This shows that $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$ is a well-defined map that depends on f only up to base-point preserving homotopy. It is similarly easy to check that f_* is a homomorphism and satisfies the first two stated properties: e.g. for any two paths $p \overset{\alpha, \beta}{\rightsquigarrow} p$, we have

$$f_*([\alpha][\beta]) = [f \circ (\alpha \cdot \beta)] = [(f \circ \alpha) \cdot (f \circ \beta)] = f_*[\alpha]f_*[\beta]$$

and

$$f_*[e_p] = [e_q].$$

□

COROLLARY 8.11. *If X and Y are spaces admitting a homeomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$, then for any choice of base point $p \in X$, the groups $\pi_1(X, p)$ and $\pi_1(Y, f(p))$ are isomorphic.*

PROOF. Abbreviate $q := f(p)$, so $f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ is a pointed map, and since its inverse is continuous, $f^{-1} : (Y, q) \rightarrow (X, p)$ is also a pointed map. Using Theorem 8.10, the commutative diagram (see Remark 8.13 below) of continuous maps

$$(8.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & (Y, q) & \\ f \nearrow & & \searrow f^{-1} \\ (X, p) & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & (X, p) \end{array}$$

then gives rise to a similar commutative diagram of group homomorphisms

$$(8.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & \pi_1(Y, q) & \\ f_* \nearrow & & \searrow f_*^{-1} \\ \pi_1(X, p) & \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} & \pi_1(X, p) \end{array}$$

Reversing the roles of (X, p) and (Y, q) produces similar diagrams to show that f_* and f_*^{-1} are inverse homomorphisms, hence both are isomorphisms. $\square$

REMARK 8.12. The fancy way to summarize Theorem 8.10 is that π_1 defines a “covariant functor” from the category of pointed spaces and pointed homotopy classes to the category of groups and homomorphisms. We will discuss categories and functors more next semester in *Topologie II*.

REMARK 8.13. Commutative diagrams such as (8.2) and (8.3) will appear more and more often as we get deeper into algebraic topology. When we say that such a diagram **commutes**, it means that any two maps obtained by composing a sequence of arrows along different paths from one place in the diagram to another must match, so e.g. the message carried by (8.2) is the relation $f^{-1} \circ f = \text{Id}$, and (8.3) means $f_*^{-1} \circ f_* = \mathbb{1}$. These were especially simple examples, but later we will also encounter larger diagrams like

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C_* \\ \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma \\ A & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' & \xrightarrow{g'} & C' \end{array}$$

The purpose of this one is to communicate the two relations $\beta \circ f = f' \circ \alpha$ and $\gamma \circ g = g' \circ \beta$, along with all the more complicated relations that follow from these, such as $g' \circ f' \circ \alpha = \gamma \circ g \circ f$.

Since the paths representing elements of $\pi_1(X, p)$ have the same fixed starting and ending point, we often think of them as *loops* in X . We will establish some general properties of $\pi_1(X, p)$ in the next lecture, starting with the observation that whenever X is path-connected, $\pi_1(X, p)$ up to isomorphism does not actually depend on the choice of the base point $p \in X$, thus we can sensibly write it as $\pi_1(X)$. Computing $\pi_1(X)$ for a given space X is not always easy or possible, but we will develop some methods that are very effective on a wide class of spaces. I can already mention two simple examples: first, $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the trivial group, resulting from the relatively obvious fact that (by linear interpolation) every path in $\mathbb{R}^n$ from a point to itself is homotopic with fixed end points to the constant path. In contrast, we will see that $\pi_1(S^1)$ and $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\})$ are both isomorphic to the integers, and this simple result already has many useful applications, e.g. we will derive from it a very easy proof of the fundamental theorem of algebra.

8.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 8.1. Show that for any two points $x, y \in X$, the notion “ $\sim_{h+}$ ” of homotopy with fixed end points defines an equivalence relation on the set of all paths from x to y .

EXERCISE 8.2. In this exercise we show that the fundamental group of a product is a product of fundamental groups.

- (a) (*) Given two pointed spaces (X, x) and (Y, y) , prove that $\pi_1(X \times Y, (x, y))$ is isomorphic to the product group $\pi_1(X, x) \times \pi_1(Y, y)$.

Hint: Use the projections $p^X : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $p^Y : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ to define a natural map from π_1 of the product to the product of π_1 's, then prove that it is an isomorphism.

- (b) Generalize part (a) to the case of an infinite product of pointed spaces (with the product topology).

9. Some properties of the fundamental group

9.1. Change of base point. We would now like to clarify to what extent $\pi_1(X, p)$ depends on p in addition to X .

THEOREM 9.1. *Given $p, q \in X$, any homotopy class (with fixed end points) of paths $p \rightsquigarrow q$ determines a group isomorphism*

$$\Phi_\gamma : \pi_1(X, q) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p) : [\alpha] \mapsto [\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma^{-1}].$$

PROOF. Note that in writing the formula above for $\Phi_\gamma([\alpha])$, we are implicitly using the fact (Proposition 8.6) that concatenation of paths is an associative operation up to homotopy, so one can represent $\Phi_\gamma([\alpha])$ by either of the paths $\gamma \cdot (\alpha \cdot \gamma^{-1})$ or $(\gamma \cdot \alpha) \cdot \gamma^{-1}$ without the result depending on this choice. Similarly, Proposition 8.5 implies that the homotopy class of $\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma^{-1}$ with fixed end points only depends on the homotopy classes of γ and α (also with fixed end points).⁷ This proves that Φ_γ is a well-defined map as written. The propositions in the previous lecture imply in a similarly straightforward manner that Φ_γ is a homomorphism, i.e.

$$\Phi_\gamma([\alpha][\beta]) = [\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma^{-1}] = [\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma^{-1} \cdot \gamma \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma^{-1}] = \Phi_\gamma([\alpha])\Phi_\gamma([\beta]),$$

and

$$\Phi_\gamma([e_q]) = [\gamma \cdot e_q \cdot \gamma^{-1}] = [\gamma \cdot \gamma^{-1}] = [e_p].$$

It remains only to observe that Φ_γ and $\Phi_{\gamma^{-1}}$ are inverses of each other, hence both are isomorphisms. $\square$

COROLLARY 9.2. *If X is path-connected, then $\pi_1(X, p)$ up to isomorphism is independent of the choice of base point $p \in X$.* $\square$

Due to this corollary, it is conventional to abbreviate the fundamental group by

$$\pi_1(X) := \pi_1(X, p)$$

whenever X is path-connected, and we will see many theorems about $\pi_1(X)$ in situations where the base point plays no important role. If X is not path-connected but $X_0 \subset X$ denotes the path-component containing p , then $\pi_1(X, p) = \pi_1(X_0, p) \cong \pi_1(X_0)$, so in practice it is sufficient to restrict our attention to path-connected spaces. Some caution is nonetheless warranted in using the notation $\pi_1(X)$: strictly speaking, $\pi_1(X)$ is not a concrete group but only an isomorphism class of groups, and the subtle distinction between these two notions occasionally leads to trouble. You should always keep in the back of your mind that even if the base point is not mentioned, it is an essential piece of the definition of $\pi_1(X)$.

⁷Note that the homotopy class of γ determines that of γ^{-1} . (Why?)

9.2. Contractible loops. We next discuss some alternative ways to interpret $\pi_1(X, p)$. Recall the following useful notational device: given a space X with subset $A \subset X$, we define

$$X/A := X/\sim$$

with the quotient topology, where the equivalence relation defines $a \sim b$ for all $a, b \in A$. In other words, this is the quotient space obtained from X by “collapsing” the subset A to a single point. For example, it is straightforward (see Exercise 5.2) to show that $\mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1}$ is homeomorphic to S^n for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and if we replace $\mathbb{D}^1 = [-1, 1]$ by the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, we obtain the special case

$$[0, 1]/\{0, 1\} = I/\partial I \cong S^1.$$

Here we have used the notation

$$\partial X := \text{“boundary of } X\text{”},$$

which comes from differential geometry, so for instance $\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$ and we can therefore also identify S^n with $\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n$. A specific homeomorphism $I/\partial I \rightarrow S^1$ can be written most easily by thinking of S^1 as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$:

$$I/\partial I \rightarrow S^1 : [t] \mapsto e^{2\pi it}.$$

LEMMA 9.3. *For any space X and subset $A \subset X$, there is a canonical bijection between the set of all continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ that are constant on A and the set of all continuous maps $g : X/A \rightarrow Y$. For any two maps f and g that correspond under this bijection, the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\pi} & X/A \\ & \searrow f & \swarrow g \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

commutes, where $\pi : X \rightarrow X/A$ denotes the quotient projection; in other words, $g \circ \pi = f$.

PROOF. The diagram determines the correspondence: given $g : X/A \rightarrow Y$, we can define $f := g \circ \pi$ to obtain a map $X \rightarrow Y$ that is automatically constant on A , and conversely, if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is given and is constant on A , then there is a well-defined map $g : X/A \rightarrow Y : [x] \mapsto f(x)$. Our main task is to show that f is continuous if and only if g is continuous. In one direction this is immediate: if g is continuous, then $f = g \circ \pi$ is the composition of two continuous maps and is therefore also continuous. Conversely, if f is continuous, then for every open set $\mathcal{U} \subset Y$, we know $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X$ is open. A point $[x] \in X/A$ is then in $g^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ if and only if $x \in f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, so $g^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) = \pi(f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}))$ and thus $\pi^{-1}(g^{-1}(\mathcal{U})) = f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is open. By the definition of the quotient topology, this means that $g^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X/A$ is open, so g is continuous. $\square$

Lemma 9.3 gives a canonical bijection between the set of all paths $p \rightsquigarrow p$ in X beginning and ending at the base point and the set of all continuous pointed maps

$$(I/\partial I, [0]) \rightarrow (X, p).$$

It is easy to check moreover that two paths $p \rightsquigarrow p$ are homotopic with fixed end points if and only if they correspond to maps $(I/\partial I, [0]) \rightarrow (X, p)$ in the same *pointed* homotopy class. Under the aforementioned homeomorphism $I/\partial I \cong S^1 \subset \mathbb{C}$ that identifies $[0] = [1]$ with 1, this gives us an alternative description of $\pi_1(X, p)$ as

$$\pi_1(X, p) = \{\text{pointed maps } \gamma : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (X, p)\} / \sim_{h+},$$

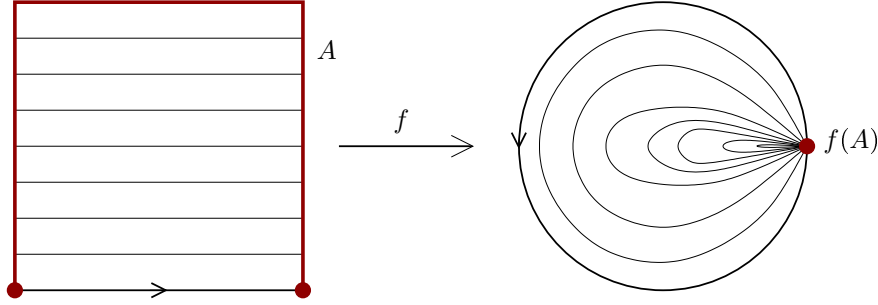


FIGURE 1. A map $f : I^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ which descends to a homeomorphism $g : I^2/A \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ in the proof of Theorem 9.4.

where $\sim$ now denotes the equivalence relation defined by pointed homotopy. The group structure of $\pi_1(X, p)$ is less easy to see from this perspective, but it will nonetheless be extremely useful to think of elements of $\pi_1(X)$ as represented by *loops* $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$.

THEOREM 9.4. *A loop $\gamma : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (X, p)$ represents the identity element in $\pi_1(X, p)$ if and only if there exists a continuous map $u : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$ with $u|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \gamma$.*

PROOF. I can't explain this proof without a picture, so to start with, have a look at Figure 1. It depicts a map $f : I^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2 \subset \mathbb{C}$ that collapses the red region consisting of three sides of the square

$$A := (\partial I \times I) \cup (I \times \{1\}) \subset I^2$$

to the single point $f(A) = \{1\} \subset \mathbb{D}^2$, but is bijective everywhere else, and maps the path $I \times \{0\} \subset I^2$ to the loop $\partial\mathbb{D}^2$. By Lemma 9.3, f determines a map

$$g : I^2/A \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$$

which is continuous and bijective, and it is also an open map (i.e. it maps open sets to open sets), hence its inverse is also continuous and g is therefore a homeomorphism. Now, a path $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = p$ represents the identity in $\pi_1(X, p)$ if and only if there exists a homotopy $H : I^2 \rightarrow X$ with $H(0, \cdot) = \gamma$ and $H|_A \equiv p$. Applying Lemma 9.3 again, such a map is equivalent to a map $h : I^2/A \rightarrow X$ which sends the equivalence class represented by every point in A to the base point p . In this case, $h \circ g^{-1}$ is a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$ whose restriction to $\partial\mathbb{D}^2$ is the loop $S^1 \cong I/\partial I \rightarrow X$ determined by $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$. $\square$

REMARK 9.5. Maps $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ that admit extensions over $\mathbb{D}^2$ as in the above theorem are called **contractible loops** (*zusammenziehbare Schleifen*).

DEFINITION 9.6. A space X is called **simply connected** (*einfach zusammenhängend*) if it is path-connected and its fundamental group is trivial.

It is common to denote the trivial group by “0”, so for path-connected spaces, we can write

$$X \text{ is simply connected} \iff \pi_1(X) = 0.$$

By Theorem 9.4, this is equivalent to the condition that every map $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ admits a continuous extension $u : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$ satisfying $u|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \gamma$. Note that there was no need to mention the base point in this formulation: if X is path-connected, then $\pi_1(X) = 0$ means $\pi_1(X, p) = 0$ for every p , so for a given loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ we are free to choose $p := \gamma(1) \in X$ as the base point and then apply Theorem 9.4.

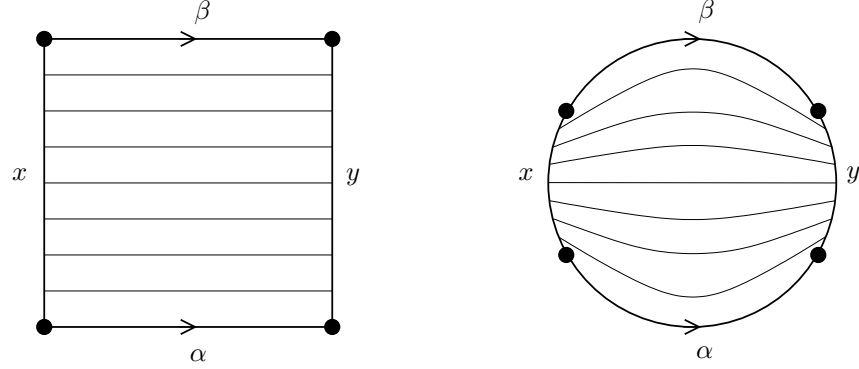


FIGURE 2. Two equivalent pictures of the same homotopy with fixed end points x and y between two paths α and β , using a homeomorphism $I^2 \cong \mathbb{D}^2$.

EXAMPLES 9.7. Though we will need to develop a few more tools before we can prove it, the sphere S^2 is simply connected. (Try to imagine a loop in S^2 that cannot be filled in by a disk—but do not try too hard!)

In contrast, $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ is not simply connected: we will see that the natural inclusion map $\gamma : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ is an example of a loop that cannot be extended to a map $u : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$. Of course, it *can* be extended to a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, but it will turn out that such an extension must always hit the origin somewhere—in other words, the loop is contractible in $\mathbb{R}^2$, but not contractible in $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$. This observation has many powerful implications, e.g. we will see in the next lecture that it is the key idea behind one of the simplest proofs of the *fundamental theorem of algebra*, that every nonconstant complex polynomial has a root.

Another example with nontrivial fundamental group is the **torus** $\mathbb{T}^2 := S^1 \times S^1$. Pictures of this space embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$ typically depict it as the surface of a tube (or a doughnut or a bagel—depending on your cultural preferences). Can you visualize a loop on this surface that is contractible in $\mathbb{R}^3$ but not in $\mathbb{T}^2$?

One can also use the fundamental group to gain insight into homotopy classes of non-closed paths:

THEOREM 9.8. *Two paths $x \xrightarrow{\alpha, \beta} y$ in X are homotopic with fixed end points if and only if the concatenated path $x \xrightarrow{\alpha \cdot \beta^{-1}} x$ represents the identity element in $\pi_1(X, x)$.*

PROOF. The condition $\alpha \sim_{h+} \beta$ means the existence of a homotopy $H : I^2 \rightarrow X$ with certain properties as depicted at the left in Figure 2, but by a suitable choice of homeomorphism $I^2 \cong \mathbb{D}^2$ as shown to the right of that picture, we can equally well regard H as a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$. The loop $\gamma := H|_{\partial \mathbb{D}^2} : S^1 \rightarrow X$ can then be viewed as the concatenation $\alpha \cdot e_y \cdot \beta^{-1} \cdot e_x$, which by Proposition 8.7 is homotopic with fixed end points to $\alpha \cdot \beta^{-1}$. The result then follows directly from Theorem 9.4. $\square$

COROLLARY 9.9. *A space X is simply connected if and only if for every pair of points $p, q \in X$, there exists a path from p to q and it is unique up to homotopy with fixed end points.* $\square$

Let us finally work out a few concrete examples.

EXAMPLE 9.10. For each $n \geq 0$, the Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^n$ is simply connected. Indeed, since it is path-connected, we are free to choose the base point $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and can then observe that every

loop $0 \rightsquigarrow 0$ is homotopic to the constant loop via the continuous family of loops

$$\gamma_s : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n : t \mapsto s\gamma(t) \quad \text{for } s \in I.$$

EXAMPLE 9.11. Since every open ball $B_r(x)$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$ itself, Corollary 8.11 implies that $\pi_1(B_r(x))$ also vanishes, i.e. $B_r(x)$ is simply connected. One could also give a direct proof of this, analogously to Example 9.10: just choose $x \in B_r(x)$ as the base point and define γ_s via linear interpolation between γ and the constant loop at x . A similar trick works in fact for any *convex* subset $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, i.e. any set K with the property that the straight line segment connecting any two points $x, y \in K$ is also contained in K . It follows that all convex subsets of finite-dimensional vector spaces are simply connected.

9.3. The fundamental group of the circle. Our first example of a nontrivial fundamental group (and probably also the most important one to take note of in this course) is the circle: we claim that

$$\pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

The proof is based on a pair of lemmas that we will prove (in more general forms) in a few weeks, though I suspect you will already find them easy to believe. Regarding S^1 as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$, consider the map

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : t \mapsto e^{2\pi it}.$$

This is our first interesting example of a so-called **covering map** (*Überlagerung*): it is surjective, and it looks like a homeomorphism *on the small scale* (i.e. if you zoom in close enough on any particular point in $\mathbb{R}$), but it is not injective, in fact it “wraps” the line $\mathbb{R}$ around S^1 infinitely many times. The next two statements are special cases of results that we will later prove about a much more general class of covering spaces:

- (1) Given a path $x \rightsquigarrow y$ in S^1 and a point $\tilde{x} \in f^{-1}(x)$, there exists a unique path $\tilde{x} \rightsquigarrow \tilde{y}$ in $\mathbb{R}$ that is a “lift” of γ in the sense that $f \circ \tilde{\gamma} = \gamma$.
- (2) Given a homotopy $H : I \times I \rightarrow S^1$ of paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ (with fixed end points) and a point $\tilde{x} \in f^{-1}(x)$, there exists a unique homotopy $\tilde{H} : I \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of lifted paths $\tilde{x} \rightsquigarrow \tilde{y}$ which lifts H in the sense that $f \circ \tilde{H} = H$.

Now for any $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(S^1, 1)$ represented by a path $1 \rightsquigarrow 1$, there is a unique lift to a path $0 \rightsquigarrow \tilde{\gamma}(1)$ in $\mathbb{R}$. Unlike γ , the end point of the lift need not match its starting point, but the fact that it is a lift implies $\tilde{\gamma}(1) \in f^{-1}(1) = \mathbb{Z}$, and the fact that homotopies can be lifted implies that this integer does not change if we replace γ with any other representative of $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(S^1, 1)$. We therefore obtain a well-defined map

$$\Phi : \pi_1(S^1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : [\gamma] \mapsto \tilde{\gamma}(1).$$

It is easy to show that Φ is a group homomorphism by lifting concatenated paths. Moreover, Φ is surjective since $\Phi([\gamma_k]) = k$ for each of the loops $\gamma_k(t) = e^{2\pi ikt}$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, as these have lifts $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = kt$. Injectivity amounts to the statement that γ must be homotopic to a constant whenever its lift satisfies $\tilde{\gamma}(1) = 0$, and this follows from the fact that $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}) = 0$: indeed, in this case $\tilde{\gamma}$ is not just a path in $\mathbb{R}$ but is also a loop, thus it represents an element of $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}, 0) = 0$ and is therefore homotopic to the constant loop. Composing that homotopy with $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ gives a homotopy of the original loop γ to a constant.

9.4. Exercise.

EXERCISE 9.1. Let us regard $\pi_1(X, p)$ as the set of base-point preserving homotopy classes of maps $(S^1, \text{pt}) \rightarrow (X, p)$, and let $[S^1, X]$ denote the set of homotopy classes of maps $S^1 \rightarrow X$, with

no conditions on base points. (The elements of $[S^1, X]$ are called **free homotopy classes** of loops in X). There is a natural map

$$F : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow [S^1, X]$$

defined by ignoring base points. Prove:

(a) F is surjective if X is path-connected.

(b) $F([\alpha]) = F([\beta])$ if and only if $[\alpha]$ and $[\beta]$ are conjugate in $\pi_1(X, p)$.

Hint: If $H : [0, 1] \times S^1 \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy with $H(0, \cdot) = \alpha$ and $H(1, \cdot) = \beta$, and $t_0 \in S^1$ is the base point in S^1 , then $\gamma := H(\cdot, t_0) : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ begins and ends at p , and therefore also defines a loop. Compare α and the concatenation $\gamma \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma^{-1}$.

The conclusion is that if X is path-connected, F induces a bijection between $[S^1, X]$ and the set of conjugacy classes in $\pi_1(X)$. In particular, $\pi_1(X) \cong [S^1, X]$ whenever $\pi_1(X)$ is abelian.

10. Retractions and homotopy equivalence

Having proved that two homeomorphic spaces always have isomorphic fundamental groups, it is natural to wonder whether the converse is true. The answer is an emphatic *no*, but this will turn out to be more of an advantage than a disadvantage: it becomes much easier to compute $\pi_1(X)$ if we are free to replace X with another space X' that is not homeomorphic to X but still has certain features in common. This idea leads us naturally to the notion of *homotopy equivalence*, another equivalence relation on topological spaces that is strictly weaker than homeomorphism.

10.1. Retracts. Let us first discuss conditions that make the homomorphisms $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$ injective or surjective.

DEFINITION 10.1. For a space X with subset $A \subset X$, a map $f : X \rightarrow A$ is called a **retraction** (*Retraktion*) if $f|_A$ is the identity map $A \rightarrow A$. Equivalently, if $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ denotes the natural inclusion map, then f being a retraction means that the following diagram commutes:

$$(10.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & A \\ & \searrow i \quad \nearrow f & \\ & X & \end{array}$$

We say in this case that A is a **retract** of X .

EXAMPLE 10.2. For $A := \mathbb{R} \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, the map $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow A : (x, y) \mapsto (x, 0)$ is a retraction.

A wide class of examples of retractions arises from the following general construction.

DEFINITION 10.3. The **wedge sum** of two pointed spaces (X, p) and (Y, q) is the space

$$X \vee Y := (X \amalg Y) / \sim$$

where the equivalence relation sets $p \in X$ equivalent to $q \in Y$ and is otherwise trivial. More generally, any (potentially infinite) collection of pointed spaces $\{(X_\alpha, p_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in J}$ has a wedge sum

$$\bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha := \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation identifies all the base points $p_\alpha \sim p_\beta$ for $\alpha, \beta \in J$. The wedge sum is naturally also a pointed space, with base point $[p_\alpha] \in \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$.

REMARK 10.4. I did not specify the topology on $X \vee Y$ or $\bigvee_{\alpha} X_\alpha$, but by now you know enough to deduce from context what it must be: e.g. for the wedge of two spaces, we assign the disjoint union topology to $X \amalg Y$ and then endow $(X \amalg Y) / \sim$ with the resulting quotient topology. We will see many more constructions of this sort that involve a combination of quotients with

disjoint unions and/or products, so you should always assume unless otherwise specified that the topology is whatever arises naturally from disjoint union, product and/or quotient topologies.

The notation for wedge sums is slightly nonideal since the definition of $\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ depends not just on the spaces X_{α} but also on their base points $p_{\alpha} \in X_{\alpha}$, and it is not true in general that changing base points always produces homeomorphic wedge sums. It is true however for most examples that arise in practice, so the ambiguity in notation will usually not cause a problem. Note that since each of the individual spaces X_{α} are naturally subspaces of $\coprod_{\beta} X_{\beta}$, they can equally well be regarded as subspaces of $\bigvee_{\beta} X_{\beta}$, and it is straightforward to show that the obvious inclusion $X_{\alpha} \hookrightarrow \bigvee_{\beta} X_{\beta}$ for each α is a homeomorphism onto its image. As subspaces of a disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$, the individual spaces X_{β} and X_{γ} for $\beta \neq \gamma$ are by definition disjoint, whereas in $\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$, they intersect each other at the base point, and only there.

EXAMPLE 10.5. For the wedge sum $X \vee Y$ of two pointed spaces (X, p) and (Y, q) , there is a natural base-point preserving retraction

$$f : X \vee Y \rightarrow X : [x] \mapsto \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \in X, \\ p & \text{if } x \in Y. \end{cases}$$

In words, f maps $X \subset X \vee Y$ to itself as the identity map while collapsing all of $Y \subset X \vee Y$ to the base point. One can analogously define a natural retraction $X \vee Y \rightarrow Y$, and for a wedge sum of arbitrarily many spaces, a natural retraction $\bigvee_{\beta \in J} X_{\beta} \rightarrow X_{\alpha}$ for each $\alpha \in J$.

EXAMPLE 10.6. For $X = Y = S^1$, the wedge sum $S^1 \vee S^1$ is a space homeomorphic to the symbols “8” and “ ∞ ”, i.e. a so-called *figure eight*. Note that in this case, we did not need to specify the base points on the two copies of S^1 because choosing different base points leads to wedge sums that are homeomorphic. As a special case of Example 10.5, there are two retractions $S^1 \vee S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ that collapse either the top half or the bottom half of the “8” to a point.

The next example originates in the proof of the Brouwer fixed point theorem that we sketched at the end of Lecture 1 (cf. Theorem 1.13).

EXAMPLE 10.7. As explained in Lecture 1, if there exists a continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ with no fixed point, then one can use it to define a map $g : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$ that satisfies $g(x) = x$ for all $x \in \partial\mathbb{D}^n$. The idea is to follow the unique line from x through $f(x)$ until arriving at some point of the boundary, which is defined to be $g(x)$. This makes g a retraction of $\mathbb{D}^n$ to $\partial\mathbb{D}^n$. The main step in the proof of Brouwer’s fixed point theorem is to show that no such retraction exists. We will carry this out for $n = 2$ in a moment.

THEOREM 10.8. *If $f : X \rightarrow A$ is a retraction and $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ denotes the inclusion, then for any choice of base point $a \in A$, the induced homomorphism $i_* : \pi_1(A, a) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, a)$ is injective, while $f_* : \pi_1(X, a) \rightarrow \pi_1(A, a)$ is surjective.*

PROOF. Since the maps in the commutative diagram (10.1) all send the base point $a \in A$ to itself, Theorem 8.10 produces a corresponding commutative diagram of homomorphisms:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_1(A, a) & \xrightarrow{\quad \mathbb{1} \quad} & \pi_1(A, a) \\ & \searrow i_* \quad \nearrow f_* & \\ & \pi_1(X, a) & \end{array}$$

In particular, $f_* \circ i_*$ is both injective and surjective, which is only possible if i_* is injective and f_* is surjective. $\square$

PROOF OF THE BROUWER FIXED POINT THEOREM FOR $n = 2$. If there is a map $f : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^2$ with no fixed point, then there is also a retraction $g : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \partial\mathbb{D}^2 = S^1$ as explained in Example 10.7, so Theorem 10.8 implies that the induced homomorphism $g_* : \pi_1(\mathbb{D}^2) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^1)$ is surjective. As we saw at the end of the previous lecture, $\pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and an easy modification of Example 9.10 shows that $\pi_1(\mathbb{D}^2) = 0$. (In fact, the same argument proves that every convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is simply connected—this will also follow from the more general Corollary 10.21 below.) But there is no surjective homomorphism from the trivial group to $\mathbb{Z}$, so this is a contradiction. $\square$

10.2. Deformation retracts. Many retractions also have a stronger property that has useful consequences for the fundamental group:

DEFINITION 10.9. Assume X is a space with subset $A \subset X$ and $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ denotes the inclusion. A **deformation retraction** (*Deformationsretraktion*) of X to A is a homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow X$ such that $H(s, \cdot)|_A = \text{Id}_A$ for every $s \in I$, $H(1, \cdot) = \text{Id}_X$ and $H(0, \cdot) = i \circ f$ for some retraction $f : X \rightarrow A$. If a deformation retraction exists, we say that A is a **deformation retract** (*Deformationsretrakt*) of X .

You should imagine a deformation retraction as a gradual “pulling” of all points in X toward the subset A until eventually all of them end up in A .

EXAMPLE 10.10. We call $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ a **star-shaped domain** (*sternförmige Menge*) if for every $x \in X$, the rescaled vector tx is also in X for every $t \in [0, 1]$. In this case $H(t, x) := tx$ defines a deformation retraction of X to the one-point subset $\{0\}$.

EXAMPLE 10.11. This is actually a non-example: while the maps $f : S^1 \vee S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ in Example 10.6 are retractions, $i \circ f$ in this case is not homotopic to the identity on $S^1 \vee S^1$, so S^1 is not a deformation retract of $S^1 \vee S^1$. We are not yet in a position to prove this, as it will require more knowledge of $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1)$ than we presently have, but the necessary results will be proved within the next four lectures. For now, feel free to try to imagine how you might define a homotopy of maps $S^1 \vee S^1 \rightarrow S^1 \vee S^1$ that starts with the identity and ends with a retraction collapsing one of the circles. (Keep in mind however that it is not possible, so don’t try too hard.)

EXAMPLE 10.12. The sphere $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is a deformation retract of the punctured Euclidean space. A suitable homotopy $H : I \times (\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ can be defined by

$$H(t, x) = \frac{x}{t + (1-t)|x|},$$

which makes $H(1, \cdot)$ the identity map, while $H(0, x) := x/|x|$ retracts $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ to S^{n-1} and $H(t, x) = x$ for $x \in S^{n-1}$. It is important to observe that no continuous map can be defined in this way with all of $\mathbb{R}^n$ as its domain: the removal of one point changes the topology of $\mathbb{R}^n$ in an essential way that makes the deformation retraction to S^{n-1} possible. (We will later be able to prove that $\mathbb{R}^n$ does not admit any retraction to S^{n-1} . When $n = 2$, this already follows from Theorem 10.8 since $\pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2) = 0$.)

EXAMPLE 10.13. Writing $S^n = \{(\mathbf{x}, z) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid |\mathbf{x}|^2 + z^2 = 1\}$, define the two “poles” $p_{\pm} = (0, \pm 1)$. Removing these poles produces a space that can be decomposed into a 1-parameter family of $(n-1)$ -spheres, i.e. there is a homeomorphism

$$S^n \setminus \{p_+, p_-\} \xrightarrow{\cong} S^{n-1} \times (-1, 1) : (\mathbf{x}, z) \mapsto \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}}{|\mathbf{x}|}, z \right).$$

If we identify $S^n \setminus \{p_+, p_-\}$ with $S^{n-1} \times (-1, 1)$ in this way, then we see that the “equator” $S^{n-1} \times \{0\} \subset S^n$ is a deformation retract of $S^n \setminus \{p_+, p_-\}$. This follows from the fact that $\{0\}$ is a deformation retract of $(-1, 1)$.

10.3. Homotopy equivalence and contractible spaces. The next definition is natural from the following point of view. Each branch of mathematics has its own notions of what it means for two objects to be “equivalent,” e.g. in group theory and other branches of algebra, equivalence is called *isomorphism*, whereas in the study of smooth manifolds, equivalence is called *diffeomorphism*. Most of the time, equivalence means the existence of a bijective map such that both the map and its inverse respect certain structures: In algebra, they are homomorphisms, while in differential geometry, they are smooth maps. But sometimes, it can also be useful and natural to replace *maps* with something else. In topology, we normally consider continuous maps between two spaces, but sometimes we might prefer to consider only the *homotopy classes* of continuous maps. This shift of perspective leads to the following notion of equivalence:

DEFINITION 10.14. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a **homotopy equivalence** (*Homotopieäquivalenz*) if there exists a map $g : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are each homotopic to the identity map on X and Y respectively. When this exists, we say that g is a **homotopy inverse** (*Homotopieinverse*) of f , and that the spaces X and Y are **homotopy equivalent** (*homotopieäquivalent*). This defines an equivalence relation on topological spaces which we shall denote in these notes by

$$X \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} Y.$$

REMARK 10.15. The notation “ $\underset{h.e.}{\simeq}$ ” for homotopy equivalence is not universal, and there are several similar but slightly different standards that frequently appear in the literature. This one happens to be my current favorite, but I may change to something else next year.

EXAMPLE 10.16. A homeomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is obviously also a homotopy equivalence, with homotopy inverse f^{-1} .

EXAMPLE 10.17. If $H : I \times X \rightarrow X$ is a deformation retraction with $H(0, \cdot) = f \circ i$ for a retraction $f : X \rightarrow A$, then the inclusion $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ is a homotopy inverse of f , so that both f and i are homotopy equivalences and thus $X \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} A$. Indeed, the retraction condition implies that $f \circ i$ is not just homotopic but also equal to Id_A , and adding the word “deformation” provides the condition $i \circ f \underset{h}{\sim} \text{Id}_X$.

DEFINITION 10.18. We say that a space X is **contractible** (*zusammenziehbar* or *kontrahierbar*) if it is homotopy equivalent to a one-point space.

REMARK 10.19. The above definitions imply immediately that any space admitting a deformation retraction to a one-point subset (as in Example 10.10) is contractible. The converse is not quite true. Indeed, suppose $\{x\}$ is a one-point space and $f : X \rightarrow \{x\}$ is a homotopy equivalence with homotopy inverse $g : \{x\} \rightarrow X$ and a homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow X$ from Id_X to $g \circ f$. (We do not need to discuss any homotopy of $f \circ g$ since there is only one map $\{x\} \rightarrow \{x\}$.) Then if $p := g(x) \in X$, $F : X \rightarrow \{p\}$ denotes the constant map at p and $i : \{p\} \hookrightarrow X$ is the inclusion, we have $F \circ i = \text{Id}_{\{p\}}$, and H is a homotopy from Id_X to $i \circ F$. Unfortunately, the definition of homotopy equivalence does not guarantee that this homotopy will satisfy $H(t, p) = p$ for all $t \in I$, so H might not be a deformation retraction in the strict sense of Definition 10.9. It turns out that this distinction matters, but only for fairly strange spaces: see [Hat02, p. 18, Exercise 6] for an example of a space that is contractible but does not admit a deformation retraction to any point.

10.4. The fundamental group is a homotopy type invariant. We can now state the main theorem of this lecture.

THEOREM 10.20. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence with $f(p) = q$, then the induced homomorphism $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$ is an isomorphism.

Since a one-point space contains only one path and therefore has trivial fundamental group, this implies:

COROLLARY 10.21. *For every contractible space X , $\pi_1(X) = 0$.* $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 10.20. Here is a preliminary remark: If you're only half paying attention, then you might reasonably think this theorem follows immediately from Theorem 8.10. Indeed, we stated in that theorem that the homomorphism $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$ depends only on the pointed homotopy class of f , and the same is of course true of the compositions $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$, which ought to make $g_* \circ f_*$ and $f_* \circ g_*$ both the identity if $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are homotopic to the identity. The problem however is that we are not paying attention to the base point: the definition of homotopy equivalence never mentions any base point and says “homotopy” rather than “pointed homotopy,” while in Theorem 8.10, maps and homotopies are always required to preserve base points. In particular, if $f(p) = q$ and $g : Y \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy inverse of f , then there is no reason to expect $g(q) = p$, in which case $g_* : \pi_1(Y, q) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, g(q))$ cannot be an inverse of $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$, as its target is not even the same group as the domain of f_* . The main content of the following proof is an argument to cope with this annoying detail.

With that out of the way, assume $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a map with homotopy inverse $g : Y \rightarrow X$, satisfying $f(p) = q$ and $g(q) = r$, so we have a sequence of pointed maps

$$(X, p) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, q) \xrightarrow{g} (X, r)$$

and induced homomorphisms

$$(10.2) \quad \pi_1(X, p) \xrightarrow{f_*} \pi_1(Y, q) \xrightarrow{g_*} \pi_1(X, r).$$

By assumption there exists a homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow X$, which we shall write as a 1-parameter family of maps

$$h_s := H(s, \cdot) : X \rightarrow X \quad \text{for } s \in I,$$

satisfying $h_0 = \text{Id}_X$ and $h_1 = g \circ f$. We can therefore define a path $p \rightsquigarrow r$ by

$$\gamma(t) := h_t(p),$$

and by Theorem 9.1, this gives rise to an isomorphism

$$\Phi_\gamma : \pi_1(X, r) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p) : [\alpha] \mapsto [\gamma \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma^{-1}].$$

We claim that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_1(X, p) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & \pi_1(Y, q) \\ & \searrow \Phi_\gamma^{-1} & \downarrow g_* \\ & & \pi_1(X, r) \end{array}$$

commutes, or equivalently, $\Phi_\gamma \circ g_* \circ f_*$ is the identity map on $\pi_1(X, p)$. Given a loop $p \overset{\alpha}{\rightsquigarrow} p$, the element $\Phi_\gamma \circ g_* \circ f_*[\alpha] = \Phi_\gamma \circ (g \circ f)_*[\alpha]$ is represented by $\gamma \cdot (g \circ f \circ \alpha) \cdot \gamma^{-1}$, so we need to show that the latter is homotopic with fixed end points to α . A precise formula for such a homotopy is provided by the following 1-parameter family of loops: for $s \in I$, let

$$\alpha_s := \gamma_s \cdot (h_s \circ \alpha) \cdot \gamma_s^{-1},$$

where $p \overset{\gamma_s}{\rightsquigarrow} \gamma(s)$ denotes the path $\gamma_s(t) := \gamma(st)$. (For a visualization of what this homotopy is actually doing, I recommend the picture on page 37 of [Hat02].) This proves the claim, and since Φ_γ is an isomorphism, it implies that $g_* \circ f_* = \Phi_\gamma^{-1}$ is also an isomorphism, from which we deduce that f_* is injective and g_* is surjective.

The preceding argument was based on the assumption that $g \circ f : X \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to the identity. We have not yet used the assumption that $f \circ g : Y \rightarrow Y$ is also homotopic to the identity, but we can use it now to carry out the same argument again for the sequence of pointed maps

$$(Y, q) \xrightarrow{g} (X, r) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, s),$$

where $s := f(r) \in Y$. This leads to the conclusion that the composition of the two homomorphisms

$$\pi_1(Y, q) \xrightarrow{g_*} \pi_1(X, r) \xrightarrow{f_*} \pi_1(Y, s)$$

is likewise an isomorphism, implying in particular that $g_* : \pi_1(Y, q) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, r)$ is injective; having shown in the previous paragraph that g_* is surjective, this proves that it is an isomorphism. A slightly subtle detail: the homomorphism labelled f_* in this discussion is no longer the same one that we started with, as the base points are now different; however, moving the discussion back to the original $f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$, we've shown that its composition with $g_* : \pi_1(Y, q) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, r)$ is an isomorphism, and since g_* is now also known to be an isomorphism, it follows that f_* is as well. $\square$

EXAMPLE 10.22. Here are some examples of contractible spaces, which therefore have isomorphic (trivial) fundamental groups even though they are not all homeomorphic: $\mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbb{D}^n$ (not homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$ since it is compact), any convex subset or star-shaped domain in $\mathbb{R}^n$ as in Example 10.10. A quite different type of example comes from *graph theory*: a **graph** is a combinatorial object consisting of a set V (called the **vertices**) and a set E whose elements (the **edges**) are unordered pairs of vertices. A graph is typically represented by depicting the vertices as points and the edges $\{x, y\} \in E$ as curves connecting the corresponding vertices x and y to each other. One can thus naturally view a graph as a topological space in which each vertex is a point and each edge is a subset homeomorphic to $[0, 1]$ (possibly with its end points identified if its two vertices are the same one). A graph is called a **tree** if there is exactly one path (up to parametrization) connecting any two of its vertices. It is not hard to show that any finite graph with this property is a contractible space: pick your favorite vertex $v \in V$, draw the unique path from v to every other vertex, then define a deformation retraction to v by pulling everything back along these paths.

EXAMPLE 10.23. Viewing S^1 as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$, associate to each $z \in \mathbb{C}$ the loop $\gamma_z : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\} : e^{i\theta} \mapsto z + e^{i\theta}$. Since these are pointed maps $(S^1, 1) \rightarrow (\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}, z + 1)$, they represent elements $[\gamma_z] \in \pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}, z + 1)$. We claim in fact that this group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$, and that $[\gamma_z]$ generates it. The proof is mainly the observation that $\gamma_z(S^1)$ is a deformation retract of $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}$, by a construction analogous to Example 10.12, hence γ_z is a homotopy equivalence and therefore induces an isomorphism $\pi_1(S^1, 1) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}, z + 1)$. Since the identity map $(S^1, 1) \rightarrow (S^1, 1)$ represents a generator of $\pi_1(S^1, 1)$, composing this with γ_z now represents a generator of $\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}, z + 1)$ as claimed.

10.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 10.1 (*). Show that for any collection of pointed maps $\{f_\alpha : (X_\alpha, p_\alpha) \rightarrow (Y, q)\}_{\alpha \in J}$, the unique map $f : \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$ determined by the condition $f|_{X_\alpha} = f_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$ is continuous.

EXERCISE 10.2. Convince yourself that the map $f : X \vee Y \rightarrow X$ in Example 10.5 is continuous.

EXERCISE 10.3. For each of the following spaces X and subspaces $A \subset X$, determine whether A is a retract or a deformation retract of X , or neither. Justify your answer in each case by either describing a (deformation) retraction⁸ or saying something about fundamental groups.

⁸In most cases, a good picture can suffice as a description—there is no need to write down maps or homotopies in precise formulas.

- (a) $A = S^1 \times \{\text{pt}\}$ in $X = S^1 \times S^1$
 (b) $A = \{(x_0, 0)\}$ in $X = ([0, 1] \times \{0\}) \cup (\{0\} \times [0, 1]) \cup (\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \{2^{-n}\} \times [0, 1])$, where $0 < x_0 < 1$
 (c) $A = (S^1 \times \{y\}) \cup (\{x\} \times S^1)$ in $X = (S^1 \times S^1) \setminus \{(x_0, y_0)\}$ with $x_0 \neq x$ and $y_0 \neq y$
Hint: Since $S^1 \cong I/\partial I$, a nice way to picture $S^1 \times S^1$ is as a square $I \times I$ in which pairs of opposing edges have been identified with each other. Picture the point (x_0, y_0) in the center of the square.

EXERCISE 10.4 (*). Verify that homotopy equivalence defines an equivalence relation.

EXERCISE 10.5. For a point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and a continuous map $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}$ with $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1)$, one defines the **winding number** of γ about z as

$$\text{wind}(\gamma; z) = \theta(1) - \theta(0) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

where $\theta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is any choice of continuous function such that

$$\gamma(t) = z + r(t)e^{2\pi i\theta(t)}$$

for some function $r : [0, 1] \rightarrow (0, \infty)$. Notice that since $\gamma(t) \neq z$ for all t , the function $r(t)$ is uniquely determined, and requiring $\theta(t)$ to be continuous makes it unique up to the addition of a constant integer, hence $\theta(1) - \theta(0)$ depends only on the path γ and not on any additional choices. One of the fundamental facts about winding numbers is their important role in the computation of $\pi_1(S^1)$: as we saw in §9.3, viewing S^1 as $\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$, the map

$$\pi_1(S^1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : [\gamma] \mapsto \text{wind}(\gamma; 0)$$

is an isomorphism to the abelian group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$. Assume in the following that $\Omega \subset \mathbb{C}$ is an open set and $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a continuous function.

- (a) Suppose $f(z) = w$ and $w \notin f(\mathcal{U} \setminus \{z\})$ for some neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \Omega$ of z . This implies that the loop $f \circ \gamma_\epsilon$ for $\gamma_\epsilon : [0, 1] \rightarrow \Omega : t \mapsto z + \epsilon e^{2\pi i t}$ has image in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small, hence $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_\epsilon; w)$ is well defined. Show that for some $\epsilon_0 > 0$, $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_\epsilon; w)$ does not depend on ϵ as long as $0 < \epsilon \leq \epsilon_0$.
 (b) Show that if the ball $B_r(z_0)$ of radius $r > 0$ about $z_0 \in \Omega$ has its closure contained in Ω , and the loop $\gamma(t) = z_0 + re^{2\pi i t}$ satisfies $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma; w) \neq 0$ for some $w \in \mathbb{C}$, then there exists $z \in B_r(z_0)$ with $f(z) = w$.
Hint: Recall that if we regard elements of $\pi_1(X, p)$ as pointed homotopy classes of maps $S^1 \rightarrow X$, then such a map represents the identity in $\pi_1(X, p)$ if and only if it admits a continuous extension to a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$. Define X in the present case to be $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}$.
 (c) Prove the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra: every nonconstant complex polynomial has a root.
Hint: Consider loops $\gamma(t) = Re^{2\pi i t}$ with $R > 0$ large.
 (d) We call $z_0 \in \Omega$ an **isolated zero** of $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ if $f(z_0) = 0$ but $0 \notin f(\mathcal{U} \setminus \{z_0\})$ for some neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \Omega$ of z_0 . Let us say that such a zero has **order** $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ if $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_\epsilon; 0) = k$ for $\gamma_\epsilon(t) = z_0 + \epsilon e^{2\pi i t}$ and $\epsilon > 0$ small (recall from part (a) that this does not depend on the choice of ϵ if it is small enough). Show that if $k \neq 0$, then for any neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \Omega$ of z_0 , there exists $\delta > 0$ such that every continuous function $g : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfying $|f - g| < \delta$ everywhere has a zero somewhere in $\mathcal{U}$.
 (e) Find an example of the situation in part (d) with $k = 0$ such that f admits arbitrarily close perturbations g that have no zeroes in some fixed neighborhood of $\mathcal{U}$.
Hint: Write f as a continuous function of x and y where $x + iy \in \Omega$. You will not be able to find an example for which f is holomorphic—they do not exist!

General advice: Throughout this problem, it is important to remember that $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}$ is homotopy equivalent to S^1 for every $w \in \mathbb{C}$. Thus all questions about $\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\})$ can be reduced to questions about $\pi_1(S^1)$.

EXERCISE 10.6. Here is a useful fact from linear algebra known as *polar decomposition*: every invertible real matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ can be written as $\mathbf{P}\mathbf{R}$, where $\mathbf{R}$ is orthogonal and $\mathbf{P}$ is symmetric positive-definite. To see this, notice that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T$ is always symmetric and positive-definite, thus it can be written as $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{M}^T$ for some orthogonal $\mathbf{M}$ and diagonal $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ with positive entries, making it possible to define powers $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^p = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{\Lambda}^p\mathbf{M}^T$ for every $p \in \mathbb{R}$. Then defining $\mathbf{P} := (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^{1/2}$, it is not hard to verify that $\mathbf{R} := \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$ is orthogonal.

- (a) Use polar decomposition to show that the group $\{\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid \det(\mathbf{A}) > 0\}$ admits a deformation retraction to the special orthogonal group $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.⁹
- (b) Identifying S^1 with the quotient group $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$, show that every loop $\mathbf{A} : S^1 \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ passing through the identity matrix is homotopic in $\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ to a loop of rotations

$$\mathbf{A}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\pi kt) & -\sin(2\pi kt) \\ \sin(2\pi kt) & \cos(2\pi kt) \end{pmatrix}$$

for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and k is uniquely determined by $\mathbf{A} : S^1 \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Hint: What is $\mathrm{SO}(2)$ homeomorphic to?

11. The easy part of van Kampen's theorem

11.1. Subgroups that generate the fundamental group. The main question of this lecture is the following: If X is the union of two subsets $A \cup B$ and we know both $\pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(B)$, what can we say about $\pi_1(X)$?

EXAMPLE 11.1. The sphere S^n can be viewed as the union of two subsets A and B that are both homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n$, e.g. when $n = 2$, we would take the northern and southern “hemispheres” of the globe. Since $\mathbb{D}^n$ is contractible, $\pi_1(A) = \pi_1(B) = 0$. We will see below that this is almost enough information to compute $\pi_1(S^n)$.

The next lemma is the “easy” first half of an important result about fundamental groups known as the *Seifert-van Kampen theorem*, or often simply *van Kampen's theorem*. The much more powerful “hard” part of the theorem will be dealt with in the two subsequent lectures, though the easy part already has several impressive applications. We will state it here in somewhat greater generality than is needed for most applications: on first reading, you are free to replace the arbitrary open covering $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ with a covering by *two* open subsets $X = A \cup B$, which will be the situation in all of the examples below.

LEMMA 11.2. Suppose $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ for a collection of open subsets $\{A_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in J}$ satisfying the following conditions:

- (1) A_α is path-connected for every $\alpha \in J$;
- (2) $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ is path-connected for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$;
- (3) $\bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha \neq \emptyset$.

Let $A_\alpha \xrightarrow{i_\alpha} X$ denote the natural inclusion maps. Then for any base point $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$, $\pi_1(X, p)$ is generated by the subgroups

$$(i_\alpha)_* (\pi_1(A_\alpha, p)) \subset \pi_1(X, p),$$

i.e. every element of $\pi_1(X, p)$ is a product of elements of the form $(i_\alpha)_*[\gamma]$ for some $\alpha \in J$ and $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha, p)$.

⁹Here we assume $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ carries its natural topology as an open subset of the space of all real n -by- n matrices (a vector space isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$).

Before proving the lemma, let's look at several more examples, starting with a rehash of Example 11.1 above.

EXAMPLE 11.3. Denote points in the unit sphere S^n by $(\mathbf{x}, z) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$ such that $|\mathbf{x}|^2 + z^2 = 1$, and define the open subsets

$$A := \{z > -\epsilon\} \subset S^n, \quad B := \{z < \epsilon\} \subset S^n$$

for some $\epsilon > 0$ small. Then $A \cong B \cong \mathbb{R}^n$, so both have trivial fundamental group. Moreover, $A \cap B \cong S^{n-1} \times (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ is path-connected if $n \geq 2$. (Note that this is not true if $n = 1$: the 0-sphere S^0 is just the set of two points $\{1, -1\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, so it is not path-connected.) The lemma therefore implies that for any $p \in A \cap B$, $\pi_1(S^n, p)$ is generated by images of homomorphisms into $\pi_1(S^n, p)$ from the groups $\pi_1(A, p)$ and $\pi_1(B, p)$, both of which are trivial, therefore $\pi_1(S^n, p)$ is trivial.

We just proved:

COROLLARY 11.4. *For all $n \geq 2$, S^n is simply connected.* $\square$

Here is an easy application:

THEOREM 11.5. *For every $n \geq 3$, $\mathbb{R}^2$ is not homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$.*

PROOF. The complement of one point in $\mathbb{R}^n$ is homotopy equivalent to S^{n-1} , thus $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\text{pt}\}) \cong \pi_1(S^{n-1}) = 0$ if $n \geq 3$, while $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\text{pt}\}) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. It follows that $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\text{pt}\}$ and $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\text{pt}\}$ for $n \geq 3$ are not homeomorphic, hence neither are $\mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbb{R}^n$. $\square$

A wider class of examples comes from the following general construction known as *gluing* of spaces. Assume X, Y and A are spaces and we have inclusions¹⁰

$$i_X : A \hookrightarrow X, \quad i_Y : A \hookrightarrow Y.$$

We then define the space

$$X \cup_A Y := (X \amalg Y) / \sim$$

where the equivalence relation identifies $i_X(a) \in X$ with $i_Y(a) \in Y$ for every $a \in A$. As usual in such constructions, we assign to $X \amalg Y$ the disjoint union topology and then give $X \cup_A Y$ the quotient topology. We say that $X \cup_A Y$ is the space obtained by **gluing X to Y along A** . Note that we can regard X and Y both as subspaces of $X \cup_A Y$, and their intersection is a subspace homeomorphic to A . The wedge sum of two spaces (see Example 10.3) is the special case of this construction where A is a single point. (The notation is slightly non-ideal since $X \cup_A Y$ depends on the inclusions of A into X and Y , not just on the three spaces themselves, but in most interesting examples the inclusions are obvious, so the notation is easy to interpret.)

EXAMPLE 11.6. If $X = Y = \mathbb{D}^n$ and $A = S^{n-1}$ is included in both as the boundary $\partial \mathbb{D}^n$, then the descriptions of S^n in Examples 11.1 and 11.3 translates into

$$\mathbb{D}^n \cup_{S^{n-1}} \mathbb{D}^n \cong S^n.$$

EXAMPLE 11.7. In Example 1.2 we gave a description of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as the space obtained by gluing a disk $\mathbb{D}^2$ to a Möbius strip

$$\mathbb{M} := \{(e^{i\theta}, t \cos(\theta/2), t \sin(\theta/2)) \in S^1 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \mid e^{i\theta} \in S^1, t \in [-1, 1]\}$$

¹⁰The technical meaning of the word **inclusion** in this context is a map $A \hookrightarrow X$ which is injective and is a homeomorphism onto its image (with the subspace topology). Such a map is also sometimes called a **topological embedding**.

along their boundaries, which are both homeomorphic to S^1 . Choose a particular inclusion of S^1 as the boundary of $\mathbb{M}$, e.g.

$$S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{M} : e^{i\theta} \mapsto (e^{2i\theta}, \cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)).$$

Then our picture of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ can be expressed succinctly as

$$\mathbb{RP}^2 \cong \mathbb{D}^2 \cup_{S^1} \mathbb{M}.$$

Lemma 11.2 can now be applied to this as follows. There is an obvious deformation retraction of $\mathbb{M}$ to the “central” circle $S^1 \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{M}$, defined via the homotopy

$$H : I \times \mathbb{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{M} : (s, (e^{i\theta}, t \cos(\theta/2), t \sin(\theta/2))) \mapsto (e^{i\theta}, st \cos(\theta/2), st \sin(\theta/2)),$$

thus $\mathbb{M} \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} S^1$. The gluing construction allows us to view both $\mathbb{D}^2$ and $\mathbb{M}$ as subsets of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, but they are not *open* subsets as required by the lemma. This can easily be fixed by slightly expanding both of them. Concretely, by adding a neighborhood of $\partial\mathbb{M}$ in $\mathbb{M}$ to $\mathbb{D}^2$, we obtain an open neighborhood $A \subset \mathbb{RP}^2$ of $\mathbb{D}^2$ that is homeomorphic to an open disk, and similarly, adding a neighborhood of $\partial\mathbb{D}^2$ in $\mathbb{D}^2$ to $\mathbb{M}$ gives an open neighborhood $B \subset \mathbb{RP}^2$ of $\mathbb{M}$ that admits a deformation retraction to $\mathbb{M}$ and thus also to the central circle $S^1 \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{M}$. We now have

$$\pi_1(A) \cong \pi_1(\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_1(B) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{M}) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

and notice also that A and B are both path connected, and so is $A \cap B$ since we can arrange for the latter to be homeomorphic to $S^1 \times (-1, 1)$, i.e. it is the union of an annular neighborhood of $\partial\mathbb{D}^2$ in $\mathbb{D}^2$ with another annular neighborhood of $\partial\mathbb{M}$ in $\mathbb{M}$. The lemma thus implies that for any $p \in A \cap B$, $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2, p)$ is generated by the element $i_*^B[\gamma] \in \pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2, p)$, where $i^B : B \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ is the inclusion and $\gamma : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (B, p)$ is any loop such that $[\gamma]$ generates $\pi_1(B, p) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. In light of the deformation retraction to the central circle, the inclusion of that circle into B induces an isomorphism of fundamental groups, thus we can take γ to be the obvious inclusion of S^1 into B as the central circle:

$$(11.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \gamma : S^1 &\xrightarrow{\cong} S^1 \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{M} \subset \mathbb{RP}^2, \\ e^{i\theta} &\mapsto (e^{i\theta}, 0). \end{aligned}$$

The conclusion is that if we regard γ in this way as a loop in $\mathbb{RP}^2$, then $[\gamma]$ generates $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2, p)$. The loop γ is not hard to visualize if you translate from our picture of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as $\mathbb{D}^2 \cup_{S^1} \mathbb{M}$ back to the usual definition of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as a quotient of S^2 (see Example 1.2): in the latter picture you can realize γ as a path along the equator of S^2 that goes exactly halfway around. Note that this is not a loop in S^2 , but it becomes a loop when you project it to $\mathbb{RP}^2$ since its starting and end point are antipodal.

A word of caution is in order: we have not yet actually computed $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$, we have only shown that every element in $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$ is a power of a single element $[\gamma]$. It is still possible that $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$ is trivial because γ is contractible—this will turn out not to be the case, but we are not in a position to prove it just yet. We can say one more thing, however: $[\gamma]^2$ is the identity element in $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2, p)$. Indeed, $[\gamma]^2$ is represented by the concatenation of γ with itself, which can also be realized as the projection through $S^2 \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{RP}^2$ of a path that goes *all the way* around the equator in S^2 , i.e. it is the concatenation of two paths that go halfway around. But if $\alpha : S^1 \rightarrow S^2$ parametrizes this loop around the equator, then there is obviously an extension of α to a map $u : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow S^2$ satisfying $u|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \alpha$, namely the inclusion of either the northern or southern hemisphere of S^2 . The map $\pi \circ u : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ is then an extension over the disk of our loop representing $[\gamma]^2$, which proves via Theorem 9.4 that $[\gamma]^2$ is trivial. This proves that $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$ is either the trivial group or is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$; we will see that it is the latter when we prove that the generator $[\gamma]$ is nontrivial.

Here is another pair of general constructions that produce many more examples.

DEFINITION 11.8. Given a space X , the **cone** (*Kegel*) of X is the space

$$CX := (X \times I)/(X \times \{1\}).$$

The single point in CX represented by $(x, 1)$ for every $x \in X$ is sometimes called the “summit” or “node” of the cone.

EXAMPLE 11.9. The cone of S^{n-1} is homeomorphic to the disk $\mathbb{D}^n$; see Exercise 11.1.

LEMMA 11.10. *For every space X , the cone CX is contractible.*

PROOF. There is an obvious deformation retraction of $X \times I$ to $X \times \{1\}$ defined by pushing every $(x, t) \in X \times I$ upward in the t -coordinate. Writing down this same deformation retraction on the quotient $(X \times I)/(X \times \{1\})$, the result is that everything gets pushed to a single point, the summit of the cone. $\square$

DEFINITION 11.11. Given a space X , the **suspension** (*Einhangung*) of X is the space

$$SX := C_+X \cup_{X \times \{0\}} C_-X,$$

where $C_+X := CX$ as above, and C_-X is the “reversed” cone $(X \times [-1, 0])/(X \times \{-1\})$. Equivalently, the suspension can be written as

$$SX = (X \times [-1, 1])/\sim$$

where $(x, 1) \sim (y, 1)$ and $(x, -1) \sim (y, -1)$ for every $x, y \in X$.

EXAMPLE 11.12. The suspension of S^{n-1} is homeomorphic to S^n ; see Exercise 11.1.

We can now generalize the result that $\pi_1(S^n) = 0$ for $n \geq 2$ as follows.

THEOREM 11.13. *If X is path-connected, then its suspension SX is simply connected.*

PROOF. We define $A, B \subset SX$ to be open neighborhoods of C_+X and C_-X respectively, e.g.

$$A := (X \times (-\epsilon, 1])/(X \times \{1\}), \quad B := (X \times [-1, \epsilon))/(X \times \{-1\})$$

for any $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$. The subspaces are both contractible for the same reason that C_+X and C_-X are: one can define deformation retractions to a point by pushing upward in A and downward in B . Moreover, $A \cap B = X \times (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ is path-connected if and only if X is path-connected, and in that case, Lemma 11.2 implies that $\pi_1(SX)$ is generated by the images of homomorphisms from $\pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(B)$, both of which are trivial, therefore $\pi_1(SX)$ is trivial. $\square$

Let us finally prove the lemma.

PROOF OF LEMMA 11.2. We assume $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ and $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$, where the sets $A_\alpha \subset X$ are open and path-connected, and $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ is also path-connected for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$. What we need to show is that every loop $p \rightsquigarrow p$ in X is homotopic with fixed end points to a concatenation of finitely many loops based at p that are each contained in one of the subsets A_α . To start with, observe that since $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ is continuous, $I_\alpha := \gamma^{-1}(A_\alpha)$ is an open subset of I for every α , and is therefore a union of open subintervals of I .¹¹ The union of all these open subintervals for all $\alpha \in J$ thus forms an open covering of I , which has a finite subcovering since I is compact, giving rise to a finite collection of open subintervals

$$I = I_1 \cup \dots \cup I_N$$

¹¹Remember that since sets like $[0, \epsilon) \subset I$ that include an end point are open subsets of I , they are included in the term “open subinterval of I ”.

such that for each $j = 1, \dots, N$, $\gamma(I_j) \subset A_{\alpha_j}$ for some $\alpha_j \in J$. After relabeling the α_j 's if necessary, we can then find a finite increasing sequence

$$0 =: t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{N-1} < t_N := 1$$

such that $\gamma([t_{j-1}, t_j]) \subset A_{\alpha_j}$ for each $j = 1, \dots, N$. In particular, for $j = 1, \dots, N-1$, each $\gamma(t_j)$ lies in both A_{α_j} and $A_{\alpha_{j+1}}$. The intersection of these two sets is path-connected by assumption, so choose a path β_j in $A_{\alpha_j} \cap A_{\alpha_{j+1}}$ from $\gamma(t_j)$ to the base point p . Then if we write $\gamma_j := \gamma|_{[t_{j-1}, t_j]}$ and reparametrize each of these paths to define them on the usual interval I , we have

$$\gamma = \gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N \underset{h+}{\sim} \gamma_1 \cdot \beta_1 \cdot \beta_1^{-1} \cdot \gamma_2 \cdot \beta_2 \cdot \beta_2^{-1} \cdot \dots \cdot \beta_{N-2} \cdot \beta_{N-2}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_{N-1} \cdot \beta_{N-1} \cdot \beta_{N-1}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_N.$$

The latter is the concatenation we were looking for since $\gamma_1 \cdot \beta_1$ is a loop from p to itself in A_{α_1} , $\beta_1^{-1} \cdot \gamma_2 \cdot \beta_2$ is a loop from p to itself in A_{α_2} , and so forth up to $\beta_{N-2}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_{N-1} \cdot \beta_{N-1}$ in $A_{\alpha_{N-1}}$ and $\beta_{N-1}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_N$ in A_{α_N} . $\square$

11.2. Free products of groups. To conclude this lecture, we would like to restate Lemma 11.2 in more precise terms. This requires a few notions from combinatorial group theory.

DEFINITION 11.14. Suppose $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a collection of groups, with the identity element in each denoted by $e_\alpha \in G_\alpha$. For any integer $N \geq 0$, an ordered set $b_1 b_2 \dots b_N$ together with a corresponding ordered set $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_N \in J$ is called a **word in $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$** if $b_i \in G_{\alpha_i}$ for each $i = 1, \dots, N$. Informally, we call the elements of the sequence *letters*, and denote the word by $b_1 \dots b_N$ even though, strictly speaking, the set of indices $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N \in J$ is also part of the data defining the word.¹² Note that this definition includes the so-called *empty word*, with $N = 0$, i.e. the word with no letters. A word $a_1 \dots a_N$ is called a **reduced word** if:

- none of the letters b_i are the identity element $e_{\alpha_i} \in G_{\alpha_i}$ in the corresponding group, and
- no two adjacent letters b_i and b_{i+1} satisfy $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1}$, i.e. the groups that appear in adjacent positions are distinct.

Note that the empty word trivially satisfies both conditions, thus it is a reduced word.

There is an obvious map called **reduction** from the set of all words to the set of all reduced words: it acts on a given word $b_1 \dots b_N$ by replacing all adjacent pairs $b_i b_{i+1}$ with their product in G_α whenever $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1} = \alpha$, and removing all e_α 's.

DEFINITION 11.15. The **free product** (*freies Produkt*) $\ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ of a collection of groups $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is defined as the set of all reduced words in $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$. The product of two reduced words $w = b_1 \dots b_N$ and $w' = b'_1 \dots b'_{N'}$ in this group is defined to be the reduction of the concatenated word $ww' = b_1 \dots b_N b'_1 \dots b'_{N'}$. The identity element is the empty word, and will be denoted by

$$e \in \ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha.$$

We will typically deal with collections of only finitely many groups $G_1, \dots, G_N$, in which case the free product is usually denoted by

$$G_1 \ast \dots \ast G_N.$$

In general, this is an enormous group, e.g. it is always infinite if there are at least two nontrivial groups in the collection, no matter how small those groups are. It is also always nonabelian in those cases. Let us see some examples.

¹²This is important to remember in case some G_α and G_β contain common elements for $\alpha \neq \beta$, e.g. if they are both subgroups of a single larger group. If not, then this detail is safe to ignore and the notation $b_1 \dots b_N$ for a word is completely unambiguous.

EXAMPLE 11.16. Consider two copies of the same group $G = H = \mathbb{Z}_2$, with the unique nontrivial elements of G and H denoted by $a \in G$ and $b \in H$. Then $G * H$ consists of all possible reduced words built out of these two letters, plus the empty word e , so

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 * \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong G * H = \{e, a, b, ab, ba, aba, bab, abab, baba, \dots\}.$$

For an example of how multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}_2 * \mathbb{Z}_2$ works, the product of aba and ab is a , i.e. this is the result of reducing the unreduced word $abaab$ since aa and bb are both identity elements.

EXAMPLE 11.17. Let $G = \mathbb{Z}$ with a generator denoted by $a \in G$, and $H = \mathbb{Z}_2$ with nontrivial element b . If we write G as a multiplicative group so that its elements are all of the form a^p for $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$\mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong G * H = \{e, a^p, b, a^p b, ba^p, a^p ba^q, ba^p ba^q, a^p ba^q ba^r, \dots \mid p, q, r, \dots \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

For an example of a product, $a^p ba^r$ times $a^{-1}b$ gives $a^p ba^{r-1}b$.

With this terminology understood, here is what we actually proved when we proved Lemma 11.2.

LEMMA 11.18. *Given $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ and $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ as in Lemma 11.2, there exists a natural group homomorphism*

$$*_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \pi_1(X, p)$$

*sending each reduced word $[\gamma_1] \dots [\gamma_N] \in *_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p)$ with $[\gamma_i] \in \pi_1(A_{\alpha_i}, p)$ to the concatenation $[\gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N] \in \pi_1(X, p)$, and Φ is surjective.* $\square$

The existence of the homomorphism Φ is an easy and purely algebraic fact, which we'll expand on a bit in the next lecture. The truly nontrivial statement here is that Φ is surjective. If we can now identify the kernel of Φ , then Φ descends to an isomorphism from the quotient of the free product by $\ker \Phi$ to $\pi_1(X, p)$, and we will thus have a formula for $\pi_1(X, p)$. Identifying the kernel and then using the resulting formula in applications will be our main topic for the next two lectures.

11.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 11.1. Show that the cone CS^{n-1} of the $(n-1)$ -sphere is homeomorphic to the n -disk $\mathbb{D}^n$.

EXERCISE 11.2. Show that the suspension SS^{n-1} of the $(n-1)$ -sphere is homeomorphic to the n -sphere S^n .

12. Normal subgroups, generators and relations

12.1. Homomorphisms defined on free products. Before stating the general version of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem, we need to collect a few more useful algebraic facts about groups and the free product. Recall from the previous lecture that the free product $*_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ of an arbitrary collection of groups $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is defined to consist of all so-called *reduced words* $g_1 \dots g_N$ in which each “letter” g_i is an element of one of the groups G_{α_i} , and the choice of $\alpha_i \in J$ such that $g_i \in G_{\alpha_i}$ for each $i = 1, \dots, N$ is considered part of the data defining the word.¹³ The word “reduced” means that the sequence of letters in the word cannot be simplified by computing products in any of the

¹³This latter detail is unimportant if the groups G_α are all disjoint sets in the first place, but if any of them have elements in common, e.g. if some G_α and G_β for $\alpha \neq \beta$ are copies of the same group, then we regard them as *separate* copies and always keep track of which letter belongs to which copy. The idea is somewhat analogous to constructing the disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ of sets, in which X_β and X_γ for $\beta \neq \gamma$ always become disjoint subsets of $\coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$, even if they are originally defined as the same set, e.g. $\mathbb{R} \amalg \mathbb{R}$ is by definition two disjoint copies of $\mathbb{R}$, which is different from the ordinary union $\mathbb{R} \cup \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}$.

individual groups, hence no consecutive letters $g_i g_{i+1}$ with $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1} =: \alpha$ appear—if such a pair appeared then it could be replaced by a single letter formed from the product $g_i g_{i+1} \in G_\alpha$ —and similarly, none of the letters is the identity element in any of the groups. Products in $\ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ are formed by concatenating words and then reducing them if necessary, so for example, if G and H are two groups containing elements $g \in G$ and $h, k \in H$, then the product of the reduced words $gh \in G * H$ and $h^{-1}k \in G * H$ is

$$(gh)(h^{-1}k) = gk \in G * H,$$

since the concatenated word $ghh^{-1}k$ can be reduced by replacing hh^{-1} with the identity element $e \in H$ and then removing e from the word. The identity element in $\ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ itself is the so-called “empty” word, with zero letters, which we will usually denote by e ; there should be no danger of confusing this with the identity elements of the individual groups G_α , since they never appear in reduced words.

The following result is easy to prove directly from the definitions.

PROPOSITION 12.1. *Assume $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a collection of groups. Then:*

- (1) *For each $\alpha \in J$, the free product $\ast_{\beta \in J} G_\beta$ contains a distinguished subgroup isomorphic to G_α : it consists of the empty word plus all reduced words of exactly one letter which is in G_α .*
- (2) *If we regard each G_α as a subgroup of $\ast_{\gamma \in J} G_\gamma$ as described above, then for every $\alpha, \beta \in J$ with $\alpha \neq \beta$, the intersection $G_\alpha \cap G_\beta$ in $\ast_{\gamma \in J} G_\gamma$ consists only of the identity element e (i.e. the empty word), and any two nontrivial elements $g \in G_\alpha$ and $h \in G_\beta$ satisfy $gh \neq hg$ in $\ast_{\gamma \in J} G_\gamma$.*
- (3) *For any group H with a collection of homomorphisms $\{\Phi_\alpha : G_\alpha \rightarrow H\}_{\alpha \in J}$, there exists a unique homomorphism*

$$\Phi : \ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \rightarrow H$$

whose restriction to each of the subgroups $G_\alpha \subset \ast_{\beta \in J} G_\beta$ is Φ_α .

The third item in this list deserves brief comment: the homomorphism $\Phi : \ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \rightarrow H$ exists and is unique because every element of $\ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ is uniquely expressible as a reduced word $g_1 \dots g_N$ with $g_i \in G_{\alpha_i}$ for some specified $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_N \in J$, hence the definition of Φ can only be

$$\Phi(g_1 \dots g_N) = \Phi_{\alpha_1}(g_1) \dots \Phi_{\alpha_N}(g_N) \in H.$$

It is similarly straightforward to verify that Φ by this definition is a homomorphism.

REMARK 12.2. In Lemma 11.18 at the end of the previous lecture the homomorphism

$$(12.1) \quad \ast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \pi_1(X, p)$$

is determined as in the proposition above by the homomorphisms $(i_\alpha)_* : \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p)$ induced by the inclusions $i_\alpha : A_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$.

12.2. (Normal) subgroups generated by subsets. We now address the previously unanswered question about the homomorphism (12.1) from Lemma 11.18: what is its kernel?

We can make two immediate observations about this: first, for any group homomorphism $\Psi : G \rightarrow H$, $\ker \Psi$ is a normal subgroup of G . Recall that a subgroup $K \subset G$ is called **normal** if it is invariant under conjugation with arbitrary elements of G , i.e.

$$gkg^{-1} \in K \quad \text{for all } k \in K \text{ and } g \in G.$$

This condition is abbreviated by “ $gKg^{-1} = K$ ”. It is obviously satisfied if $K = \ker \Psi$ since $\Psi(k) = e$ implies $\Psi(gkg^{-1}) = \Psi(g)\Psi(k)\Psi(g^{-1}) = \Psi(g)e\Psi(g^{-1}) = e$. Recall further that for any subgroup

$K \subset G$, the **quotient** G/K is defined as the set of all **left cosets** of K , meaning subsets of the form $gK := \{gh \mid h \in K\}$ for fixed elements $g \in G$. For arbitrary subgroups $K \subset G$, the quotient G/K does not have a natural group structure, but it does when K is a *normal* subgroup: indeed, the condition $gKg^{-1} = K$ gives rise to a well-defined product

$$(aK)(bK) := (ab)K \in G/K$$

since, as subsets of G , $aKbK = a(bKb^{-1})bK = abKK = abK$. In particular, any homomorphism $\Psi : G \rightarrow H$ between groups G and H gives rise to a normal subgroup $K := \ker \Psi \subset G$ and thus a quotient group G/K , such that Ψ determines a well-defined map

$$G/\ker \Psi \rightarrow H : gK \mapsto \Psi(g),$$

meaning that the value $\Psi(g)$ of this map does not depend on the choice of element $g \in G$ representing the coset $gK \in G/K$. It is easy to check that this map is also a group homomorphism, in which case we say that Ψ **descends** to a homomorphism $G/K \rightarrow H$, and moreover, it is injective since $\Psi(g) = e$ means $g \in \ker \Psi = K$ and thus $gK = K = eK$, which is the identity element of G/K . It follows that the induced map $G/\ker \Psi \rightarrow H$ is an isomorphism whenever the original homomorphism Ψ is surjective. (A standard reference for these basic notions from group theory is [Art91].)

The second observation concerns certain specific elements that obviously belong to the kernel of the map (12.1). Consider the inclusions

$$j_{\alpha\beta} : A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \hookrightarrow A_\alpha$$

for each pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$, and recall that $i_\alpha : A_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$ denotes the inclusion of $A_\alpha \subset X$. Then the following diagram commutes,

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & A_\alpha & & \\ & \nearrow j_{\alpha\beta} & & \searrow i_\alpha & \\ A_\alpha \cap A_\beta & & & & X \\ & \searrow j_{\beta\alpha} & & \nearrow i_\beta & \\ & & A_\beta & & \end{array}$$

meaning $i_\alpha \circ j_{\alpha\beta} = i_\beta \circ j_{\beta\alpha}$, since both are just the inclusion of $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ into X . This trivial observation has a nontrivial consequence for the homomorphism Φ . Indeed, for any loop $p \xrightarrow{\sim} p$ in $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ representing a nontrivial element of $\pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta, p)$, the two elements $(j_{\alpha\beta})_*[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha, p)$ and $(j_{\beta\alpha})_*[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\beta, p)$ belong to distinct subgroups in the free product $*_{\gamma \in J} \pi_1(A_\gamma, p)$, yet clearly

$$(i_\alpha)_*(j_{\alpha\beta})_*[\gamma] = (i_\beta)_*(j_{\beta\alpha})_*[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, p)$$

since $i_\alpha \circ j_{\alpha\beta} = i_\beta \circ j_{\beta\alpha}$. It follows that $\Phi((j_{\alpha\beta})_*[\gamma]) = \Phi((j_{\beta\alpha})_*[\gamma])$, hence $\ker \Phi$ must contain the reduced word formed by the two letters $(j_{\alpha\beta})_*[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha, p)$ and $(j_{\beta\alpha})_*[\gamma]^{-1} \in \pi_1(A_\beta, p)$:

$$(j_{\alpha\beta})_*[\gamma](j_{\beta\alpha})_*[\gamma]^{-1} \in \ker \Phi.$$

Combining this with the first observation, $\ker \Phi$ must contain the smallest normal subgroup of $*_{\gamma \in J} \pi_1(A_\gamma, p)$ that contains all elements of this form.

DEFINITION 12.3. For any group G and subset $S \subset G$, we denote by

$$\langle S \rangle \subset G$$

the smallest subgroup of G that contains S , i.e. $\langle S \rangle$ is the set of all products of elements $g \in S$ and their inverses g^{-1} . Similarly,

$$\langle S \rangle_N \subset G$$

denotes the smallest *normal* subgroup of G that contains S . Concretely, this means $\langle S \rangle_N$ is the set of all conjugates of products of elements of S and their inverses.

12.3. The Seifert-van Kampen theorem. We are now in a position to state the complete version of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem. The first half of the statement is just a repeat of Lemma 11.18, which we have proved already. The second half tells us what $\ker \Phi$ is, and thus gives a formula for $\pi_1(X, p)$.

THEOREM 12.4 (Seifert-van Kampen). *Suppose $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ for a collection of open and path-connected subsets $\{A_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with nonempty intersection, denote by $i_\alpha : A_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$ and $j_{\alpha\beta} : A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \hookrightarrow A_\alpha$ the inclusion maps for $\alpha, \beta \in J$, and fix $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$.*

(1) *If $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ is path-connected for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$, then the natural homomorphism*

$$\Phi : \ast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p)$$

induced by the homomorphisms $(i_\alpha)_ : \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p)$ is surjective.*

(2) *If additionally $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma$ is path-connected for every triple $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$, then*

$$\ker \Phi = \left\langle \left\{ (j_{\alpha\beta})_* [\gamma] (j_{\beta\alpha})_* [\gamma]^{-1} \mid \alpha, \beta \in J, [\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta, p) \right\} \right\rangle_N.$$

In particular, Φ then descends to an isomorphism

$$\ast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) / \ker \Phi \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_1(X, p).$$

REMARK 12.5. In most applications, we will consider coverings of X by only two subsets $X = A \cup B$, and the condition on triple intersections in the second half of the statement then merely demands that $A \cap B$ be path-connected, which we already needed for the first half. (One can take the third subset in that condition to be either A or B ; we never said that α, β and γ need to be distinct!)

I will give you the remaining part of the proof of this theorem in the next lecture. Let's now discuss some simple applications.

EXAMPLE 12.6. Consider the figure-eight $S^1 \vee S^1$ with its natural base point $p \in S^1 \vee S^1$, i.e. $S^1 \vee S^1$ is the union of two circles $A, B \subset S^1 \vee S^1$ with $A \cap B = \{p\}$. These are not open subsets, but since a neighborhood of p in $S^1 \vee S^1$ has a fairly simple structure, we can get away with the usual trick (cf. Examples 11.3 and 11.7) of replacing both with homotopy equivalent open neighborhoods: define $A' \subset S^1 \vee S^1$ as a small open neighborhood of A and $B' \subset S^1 \vee S^1$ as a small open neighborhood of B such that there exist deformation retractions of A' to A and B' to B . The inclusions $A \hookrightarrow A'$ and $B \hookrightarrow B'$ then induce isomorphisms $\mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(A, p) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_1(A', p)$ and $\mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(B, p) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_1(B', p)$. The intersection $A' \cap B'$ is now a pair of line segments with one intersection point at p , so it admits a deformation retraction to p and is thus contractible, implying $\pi_1(A' \cap B', p) = 0$. This makes $\ker \Phi$ in Theorem 12.4 trivial, hence the map

$$\pi_1(A, p) * \pi_1(B, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1, p)$$

determined by the homomorphisms of $\pi_1(A, p)$ and $\pi_1(B, p)$ to $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1, p)$ induced by the inclusions $A, B \hookrightarrow S^1 \vee S^1$ is an isomorphism. To see more concretely what this group looks like, fix generators $\alpha \in \pi_1(A, p) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\beta \in \pi_1(B, p) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, each of which can also be identified with elements of $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1, p)$ via the inclusions of A and B into $S^1 \vee S^1$. Then

$$\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1, p) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z} = \{e, \alpha^p, \beta^q, \alpha^p \beta^q, \beta^p \alpha^q, \alpha^p \beta^q \alpha^r, \dots \mid p, q, r, \dots \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

These elements are easy to visualize: α and β are represented by loops that start and end at p and run once around the circles A or B respectively, so each element in the above list is a concatenation of finitely many repetitions of these two loops and their inverses. Notice that $\alpha\beta \neq \beta\alpha$, so $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1)$ is our first example of a nonabelian fundamental group.

EXAMPLE 12.7. Recall from Exercise 7.8 that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, one can identify S^n with the *one point compactification* of $\mathbb{R}^n$, a space defined by adjoining a single point called “ ∞ ” to $\mathbb{R}^n$:

$$S^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n \cup \{\infty\}.$$

This gives rise to an inclusion map $\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{i} S^n$ with image $S^n \setminus \{\infty\}$. We claim that for any compact subset $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ is path-connected, and any choice of base point $p \in \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$,

$$i_* : \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^3 \setminus K, p)$$

is an isomorphism. To see this, define the open subset $A := \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K \subset S^3 \setminus K$, and choose $B_0 \subset S^3 \setminus K$ to be an open ball about ∞ , i.e. a set of the form $(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \overline{B_R(0)}) \cup \{\infty\}$ where $B_R(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is any closed ball large enough to contain K . Since p might not be contained in B_0 but $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ is path-connected, we can then define a larger set B by adjoining to B_0 the neighborhood in $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ of some path from a point in B_0 to p : this can be done so that both B_0 and B are homeomorphic to an open ball, so in particular they are contractible. The intersection $A \cap B$ is then $B \setminus \{\infty\}$ and is thus homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\}$ and homotopy equivalent to S^2 , implying $\pi_1(A \cap B) = 0$. The Seifert-van Kampen theorem therefore gives an isomorphism $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K, p) * \pi_1(B, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^3 \setminus K, p)$, but $\pi_1(B, p)$ is the trivial group, so this proves the claim.

A frequently occurring special case of this example is when $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a knot, i.e. the image of an embedding $S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$. The fundamental group $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K)$ is then called the **knot group** of K , and the argument above shows that we are free to adjoin a point at infinity and thus replace the knot group with $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$. This will be convenient for certain computations.

12.4. Finitely-presented groups. As in the previous lecture, we shall conclude this one by introducing some more terminology from combinatorial group theory in order to state a more usable variation on the Seifert-van Kampen theorem.

DEFINITION 12.8. Given a set S , the **free group on S** is defined as

$$F_S := \bigast_{\alpha \in S} \mathbb{Z},$$

or in other words, the set of all reduced words $a_1^{p_1} a_2^{p_2} \dots a_N^{p_N}$ for $N \geq 0$, $p_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p_i \neq 0$, $a_i \in S$ and $a_i \neq a_{i+1}$ for every i , with the product defined by concatenation of words followed by reduction. The elements of S are called the **generators** of F_S .

EXAMPLE 12.9. The computation in Example 12.6 gives $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1) \cong F_{\{\alpha, \beta\}} \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$, where the set generating $F_{\{\alpha, \beta\}}$ consists of the two loops α and β parametrizing the two circles that form $S^1 \vee S^1$.

PROPOSITION 12.10. *For any set S , group G and map $\phi : S \rightarrow G$, there is a unique group homomorphism $\Phi : F_S \rightarrow G$ satisfying $\Phi(a) = \phi(a)$ for single-letter words $a \in F_S$ defined by elements $a \in S$.*

PROOF. Writing elements of F_S in the form $a_1^{p_1} a_2^{p_2} \dots a_N^{p_N}$, there is clearly only one formula for $\Phi : F_S \rightarrow G$ that will match ϕ on single-letter words and also be a homomorphism, namely

$$\Phi(a_1^{p_1} \dots a_N^{p_N}) = \phi(a_1)^{p_1} \dots \phi(a_N)^{p_N}.$$

It is straightforward to check that this defines a homomorphism. □

PROPOSITION 12.11. *Every group is isomorphic to a quotient of a free group by some normal subgroup.*

PROOF. Pick any subset $S \subset G$ that generates G , e.g. one can choose $S := G$, though smaller subsets are usually also possible. Then the unique homomorphism $\Phi : F_S \rightarrow G$ sending each $g \in S \subset F_S$ to $g \in G$ is surjective, thus Φ descends to an isomorphism $F_S / \ker \Phi \rightarrow G$. $\square$

DEFINITION 12.12. Given a set S , a **relation** in S is defined to mean any equation of the form “ $a = b$ ” where $a, b \in F_S$.

DEFINITION 12.13. For any set S and a set R consisting of relations in S , we define the group

$$\{S \mid R\} := F_S / \langle R' \rangle_N$$

where R' is the set of all elements of the form $ab^{-1} \in F_S$ for relations “ $a = b$ ” in R . The elements of S are called the **generators** of this group, and elements of R are its **relations**.

Let us pause a moment to interpret this definition. By a slight abuse of notation, we can write each element of $\{S \mid R\}$ as a reduced word w formed out of letters in S , with the understanding that w represents an equivalence class in the quotient $F_S / \langle R' \rangle_N$, thus it is possible to have $w = w'$ in $\{S \mid R\}$ even if w and w' are distinct elements of F_S . This will happen if and only if $w^{-1}w'$ belongs to the normal subgroup $\langle R' \rangle_N$, and in particular, it happens whenever “ $w = w'$ ” is one of the relations in R . The relations are usually necessary because most groups are not free groups: while free groups are easy to describe (they depend only on their generators), most groups have more interesting structure than free groups, and this structure is encoded by relations. Proposition 12.11 implies that *every* group can be presented in this way, i.e. every group is isomorphic to $\{S \mid R\}$ for some set of generators S and relations R . Indeed, if $G = F_S / \ker \Phi$ for a set S and a surjective homomorphism $\Phi : F_S \rightarrow G$, then we can take S as the set of generators and define R to consist of all relations of the form “ $a = b$ ” such that $ab^{-1} \in \ker \Phi$; the latter is equivalent to the condition $\Phi(a) = \Phi(b)$, so the relations tell us precisely when two products of generators give us the same element in G .

DEFINITION 12.14. Given a group G , a **presentation** of G consists of a subset $S \subset G$ together with a set R of relations in S such that the unique homomorphism $F_S \rightarrow G$ matching the inclusion $S \hookrightarrow G$ on single-letter words descends to a group isomorphism

$$\{S \mid R\} \xrightarrow{\cong} G.$$

We say that G is **finitely presented** if it admits a presentation such that S and R are both finite sets.

EXAMPLE 12.15. The group $\{a\} := \{a \mid \emptyset\}$ consisting of a single generator a with no relations is isomorphic to the free group $F_{\{a\}}$ on one element. The isomorphism $a^p \mapsto p$ identifies this with the integers $\mathbb{Z}$.

EXAMPLE 12.16. The group $\{a, b \mid ab = ba\}$ has two generators and is abelian, so it is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^2$. An explicit isomorphism is defined by $a^p b^q \mapsto (p, q)$. To see that this is an isomorphism, observe first that since $F_{\{a, b\}}$ is free, there exists a unique homomorphism $\Phi : F_{\{a, b\}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^2$ with $\Phi(a) = (1, 0)$ and $\Phi(b) = (0, 1)$, and Φ is clearly surjective since it necessarily sends $a^p b^q$ to (p, q) . Since $\mathbb{Z}^2$ is abelian, we also have

$$\Phi(ab(ba)^{-1}) = \Phi(aba^{-1}b^{-1}) = \Phi(a) + \Phi(b) - \Phi(a) - \Phi(b) = 0,$$

so $\ker \Phi$ contains $ab(ba)^{-1}$ and therefore also contains the smallest normal subgroup containing $ab(ba)^{-1}$, which is the group $\langle R' \rangle_N$ appearing in the quotient $\{a, b \mid ab = ba\} = F_{\{a, b\}} / \langle R' \rangle_N$. This

proves that Φ descends to a surjective homomorphism $\{a, b \mid ab = ba\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^2$. Finally, observe that since $ab = ba$ in the quotient $\{a, b \mid ab = ba\}$, every reduced word in $F_{\{a, b\}}$ is equivalent in this quotient to a word of the form $a^p b^q$ for some $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, and $\Phi(a^p b^q)$ then vanishes if and only if $a^p b^q = e$, proving that Φ is also injective.

EXAMPLE 12.17. The group $\{a \mid a^p = e\}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_p := \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, with an explicit isomorphism defined in terms of the unique homomorphism $F_{\{a\}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ that sends a to $[1]$.

EXAMPLE 12.18. We will prove in Lecture 14 that for the trefoil knot $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \subset S^3$, (see Lecture 8), $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K) \cong \{a, b \mid a^2 = b^3\}$, and Exercise 12.1 below proves that this group is not abelian. By contrast, we will also see that the unknot $K_0 \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \subset S^3$ has $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_0) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, which is abelian. This implies via Example 12.7 that $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K) \not\cong \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_0)$, so $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ and $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_0$ are not homeomorphic, hence the trefoil cannot be deformed continuously to the unknot.

Note that for any given set of generators S and relations R , it is often possible to reduce these to smaller sets without changing the isomorphism class of the group that they define. For the relations in particular, it is easy to imagine multiple distinct choices of the subset $R' \subset F_S$ that will produce the same normal subgroup $\langle R' \rangle_N$. In general, it is a very hard problem to determine whether or not two groups described via generators and relations are isomorphic; in fact, it is known that there does not exist any algorithm to decide whether a given presentation defines the trivial group. Nonetheless, generators and relations provide a very convenient way to describe many simple groups that arise in practice, especially in the context of van Kampen's theorem. This is due to the following reformulation of Theorem 12.4 for the case of two open subsets when all fundamental groups are finitely presented.

COROLLARY 12.19 (Seifert-van Kampen for finitely-presented groups). *Suppose $X = A \cup B$ where $A, B \subset X$ are open and path-connected subsets such that $A \cap B$ is also path-connected, and $j_A : A \cap B \hookrightarrow A$ and $j_B : A \cap B \hookrightarrow B$ denote the inclusions. Suppose moreover that there exist finite presentations*

$$\pi_1(A) \cong \{\{a_i\} \mid \{R_j\}\}, \quad \pi_1(B) \cong \{\{b_k\} \mid \{S_\ell\}\}, \quad \pi_1(A \cap B) \cong \{\{c_p\} \mid \{T_q\}\},$$

with the indices i, j, k, ℓ, p, q each ranging over finite sets. Then

$$\pi_1(X) \cong \{\{a_i\} \cup \{b_k\} \mid \{R_j\} \cup \{S_\ell\} \cup \{(j_A)_* c_p = (j_B)_* c_p\}\}.$$

□

In other words, as generators for $\pi_1(X)$, one can take all generators of $\pi_1(A)$ together with all generators of $\pi_1(B)$. The relations must then include all of the relations among the generators of $\pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(B)$ separately, but there may be additional relations that mix the generators from $\pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(B)$: these extra relations set $(j_A)_* c_p \in \pi_1(A)$ equal to $(j_B)_* c_p \in \pi_1(B)$ for each of the generators c_p of $\pi_1(A \cap B)$. These extra relations are exactly what is needed to describe the normal subgroup $\ker \Phi$ in the statement of Theorem 12.4. The relations in $\pi_1(A \cap B)$ do not play any role.

12.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 12.1 (*). Let us prove that the finitely-presented group $G = \{x, y \mid x^2 = y^3\}$ mentioned in Example 12.18 is nonabelian.

(a) Denoting the identity element by e , consider the related group

$$H = \{x, y \mid x^2 = y^3, y^3 = e, xyxy = e\}.$$

Show that every element of H is equivalent to one of the six elements $e, x, y, y^2, xy, xy^2 \in H$. This proves that H has order at most six, though in theory it could be less, since

some of those six elements might still be equivalent to each other. To prove that this is not the case, construct (by writing down a multiplication table) a nonabelian group H' of order six that is generated by two elements a, b satisfying the relations $a^2 = b^3 = e$ and $abab = e$. Show that there exists a surjective homomorphism $H \rightarrow H'$, which is therefore an isomorphism since $|H| \leq 6$.

Remark: You don't need this fact, but if you've seen some of the standard examples of finite groups before, you might in any case notice that H is isomorphic to the dihedral group (Diedergruppe) of order 6.

- (b) Show that H is a quotient of G by some normal subgroup, and deduce that G is also nonabelian.

EXERCISE 12.2 (*). Given a group G , the **commutator subgroup** $[G, G] \subset G$ is the subgroup generated by all elements of the form

$$[x, y] := xyx^{-1}y^{-1}$$

for $x, y \in G$.

- (a) Show that $[G, G] \subset G$ is always a normal subgroup, and it is trivial if and only if G is abelian.
- (b) The **abelianization** (Abelisierung) of G is defined as the quotient group $G/[G, G]$. Show that this group is always abelian, and it is equal to G if G is already abelian.¹⁴
- (c) Given any two abelian groups G, H , find a natural isomorphism from the abelianization of the free product $G * H$ to the Cartesian product $G \times H$.
- (d) Prove that the abelianization of $\{x, y \mid x^2 = y^3\}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$.
Hint: An isomorphism φ from the abelianization to $\mathbb{Z}$ will be determined by two integers, $\varphi(x)$ and $\varphi(y)$. If φ exists, how must these two integers be related to each other?
- (e) For any $g \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the group

$$G_g := \{x_1, y_1, \dots, x_g, y_g \mid x_1 y_1 x_1^{-1} y_1^{-1} \dots x_g y_g x_g^{-1} y_g^{-1} = e\}.$$

Show that the abelianization of G_g is isomorphic to the additive group $\mathbb{Z}^{2g}$.

Hint: By definition, G_g is a particular quotient of the free group on $2g$ generators. Notice that the abelianization of that free group is exactly the same group as the abelianization of G_g . (Why?)

Remark: We will show in Lecture 14 that G_g is the fundamental group of Σ_g , the closed oriented connected surface of genus g . The classification of finitely generated abelian groups implies that $\mathbb{Z}^{2g}$ is not isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{2h}$ for $g \neq h$, so a corollary of this exercise is that Σ_g and Σ_h cannot be homeomorphic for $g \neq h$.

EXERCISE 12.3. Recall that the wedge sum of two pointed spaces (X, x) and (Y, y) is defined as $X \vee Y = (X \amalg Y)/\sim$ where the equivalence relation identifies the two base points x and y . It is commonly said that whenever X and Y are both path-connected and are otherwise “reasonable” spaces, the formula

$$(12.2) \quad \pi_1(X \vee Y) \cong \pi_1(X) * \pi_1(Y)$$

holds. We saw for instance in Example 12.6 that this is true when X and Y are both circles. The goal of this problem is to understand slightly better what “reasonable” means in this context, and why such a condition is needed.

¹⁴Note that if $G = \{S \mid R\}$ is a finitely-presented group with generators S and relations R , then its abelianization is $\{S \mid R'\}$ where R' is the union of R with all relations of the form “ $ab = ba$ ” for $a, b \in S$.

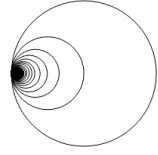
- (a) Call a pointed space (X, x) *nice*¹⁵ if x has an open neighborhood that admits a deformation retraction to x . Show that the formula (12.2) holds whenever (X, x) and (Y, y) are both nice, and more generally, the formula

$$\pi_1\left(\bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha\right) \cong \bigast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(X_\alpha)$$

holds for any (possibly infinite) collection $\{(X_\alpha, x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of nice pointed spaces.

- (b) Here is an example of a space that is not “nice” in the sense of part (a). For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $S_n^1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the circle of radius $1/n$ centered at $(1/n, 0)$. The union of all these circles is a space known informally as the *Hawaiian earring*

$$H := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_n^1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2.$$



As usual, we assign to H the subspace topology induced by the standard topology of $\mathbb{R}^2$. Show that in this space, the point $(0,0)$ does not have any simply connected open neighborhood.

- (c) It is tempting to liken the Hawaiian earring H to the infinite wedge sum of circles $X := \bigvee_{n=1}^{\infty} S^1$, defined as above by choosing a base point in each copy of the circle and then identifying all the base points in the infinite disjoint union $\coprod_{n=1}^{\infty} S^1$. Both are unions of infinite collections of circles that all intersect each other at one point. Show in fact that there exists a continuous map

$$f : X \rightarrow H$$

that is a bijection sending the natural base point of $\bigvee_n S^1$ to $(0,0) \in \bigcap_n S_n^1$, but that X (unlike H) is a “nice” space, hence $f : X \rightarrow H$ cannot be a homeomorphism.

Hint: Continuity of maps defined on wedge sums is easy to check—see Exercise 10.1.

- (d) Show that there exists a surjective continuous map $S^1 \rightarrow H$, but continuous maps $S^1 \rightarrow X$ are never surjective.

Hint: In H , start at $(0,0)$ and traverse the largest circle first, then continue to smaller circles.

- (e) Show that for any finite subset $J \subset \mathbb{N}$, there exists a retraction

$$r_J : H \rightarrow \bigcup_{n \in J} S_n^1 \subset H,$$

and deduce from this that the map $f_* : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \pi_1(H)$ is injective.

Hint: Unlike H , $\bigcup_{n \in J} S_n^1$ really is homeomorphic to a wedge sum of circles, the crucial detail in this case being that there are only finitely many.

- (f) Writing $r_n := r_{\{n\}} : H \rightarrow S_n^1$ for each individual value of $n \in \mathbb{N}$, show that the homomorphism

$$\pi_1(H) \rightarrow \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \pi_1(S_n^1) \cong \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$$

determined by the maps $(r_n)_* : \pi_1(H) \rightarrow \pi_1(S_n^1)$ is surjective, and deduce from this that $f_* : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \pi_1(H)$ is not surjective.

Remark: The direct product $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$ of infinitely many groups (or in this case copies of the same group) is much larger than the direct sum $\bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$, and in fact, the standard “Cantor diagonal trick” that is typically used for proving the uncountability of $\mathbb{R}$ implies that

¹⁵Not a standardized term, I made it up.

$\prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$ is likewise an uncountable set. It follows that $\pi_1(H)$ itself is uncountable, whereas $\pi_1(X) \cong \ast_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$, being generated by countably many countable groups, is countable.

EXERCISE 12.4. Show that if X is the complement of $n \geq 0$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$, then $\pi_1(X)$ is a free group with n generators. Draw a picture for the case $n = 3$ indicating three specific choices of loops that represent a complete set of generators for $\pi_1(X)$.

Hint: X admits a deformation retraction to a wedge sum of n circles. Prove this with a picture. You might find the picture easier to draw if you replace $\mathbb{R}^2$ with an open 2-disk—that is of course fine since they are homeomorphic.

13. Proof of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem

13.1. The hard part. We have put off the proof of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem long enough. Here again is the statement.

THEOREM 13.1 (Seifert-van Kampen). *Suppose $X = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$ for a collection of open and path-connected subsets $\{A_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in J}$, $i_\alpha : A_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$ and $j_{\alpha\beta} : A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \hookrightarrow A_\alpha$ denote the natural inclusion maps for $\alpha, \beta \in J$, and $p \in \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$.*

- (1) *If $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ is path-connected for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$, then the unique homomorphism*

$$\Phi : \ast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p)$$

that restricts to each subgroup $\pi_1(A_\alpha, p) \subset \ast_{\beta \in J} \pi_1(A_\beta, p)$ as $(i_\alpha)_$ is surjective.*

- (2) *If additionally $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma$ is path-connected for every triple $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$, then*

$$\ker \Phi = \langle S \rangle_N,$$

meaning $\ker \Phi$ is the smallest normal subgroup containing the set

$$S := \left\{ (j_{\alpha\beta})_* [\gamma] (j_{\beta\alpha})_* [\gamma]^{-1} \mid \alpha, \beta \in J, [\gamma] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta, p) \right\}.$$

In particular, if we abbreviate $F := \ast_{\alpha \in J} \pi_1(A_\alpha, p)$, then Φ descends to an isomorphism

$$F / \langle S \rangle_N \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p).$$

PROOF. We proved the first statement already in Lecture 11, so assume the hypothesis of the second statement holds. As observed in the previous lecture, $\Phi((j_{\alpha\beta})_* \gamma) = \Phi((j_{\beta\alpha})_* \gamma)$ for every $\alpha, \beta \in J$ and $\gamma \in \pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta, p)$, thus $\ker \Phi$ clearly contains $\langle S \rangle_N$, and in particular, Φ descends to a surjective homomorphism $F / \langle S \rangle_N \rightarrow \pi_1(X, p)$. We need to show that this homomorphism is injective, or equivalently, that whenever $\Phi(w) = \Phi(w')$ for a pair of reduced words $w, w' \in F$, their equivalence classes in $F / \langle S \rangle_N$ must match.

Given a loop $p \xrightarrow{\sim} p$ in X , let us say that a *factorization* of γ is any finite sequence $\{(\gamma_i, \alpha_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ such that $\alpha_i \in J$ and $p \xrightarrow{\sim_{\alpha_i}} p$ is a loop in A_{α_i} for each $i = 1, \dots, N$, and

$$\gamma \underset{h+}{\sim} \gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N.$$

The first half of the theorem follows from the fact (proved in Lemma 11.2) that every γ has a factorization. Now observe that any factorization as described above determines a reduced word $w \in F$, defined as the reduction of the word $[\gamma_1] \dots [\gamma_N]$ with $[\gamma_i] \in \pi_1(A_{\alpha_i}, p)$ for $i = 1, \dots, N$, and this word satisfies $\Phi(w) = [\gamma]$. Conversely, every reduced word $w \in \Phi^{-1}([\gamma])$ can be realized as a factorization of γ by choosing specific loops to represent the letters in w . The theorem will then follow if we can show that any two factorizations of γ can be related to each other by a finite sequence of the following operations and their inverses:

- (A) Given two adjacent loops γ_i and γ_{i+1} such that $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i+1}$, replace them with their concatenation $p \xrightarrow{\gamma_i \cdot \gamma_{i+1}} p$. (This does not change the corresponding reduced word in F , as it just implements a step in the reduction of an unreduced word.)
- (B) Replace some γ_i with any loop γ'_i that is homotopic (with fixed end points) in A_{α_i} . (This also does not change the corresponding reduced word in F ; in fact it doesn't even change the unreduced word from which it is derived.)
- (C) Given a loop γ_i that lies in $A_{\alpha_i} \cap A_\beta$ for some $\beta \in J$, replace α_i with β . (In the corresponding reduced word in F , this replaces a letter of the form $(j_{\alpha_i \beta})_*[\gamma_i] \in \pi_1(A_{\alpha_i}, p)$ with one of the form $(j_{\beta \alpha_i})_*[\gamma_i] \in \pi_1(A_\beta, p)$, thus it changes the word but does not change its equivalence class in $F/\langle S \rangle_N$.)

We now prove that any two factorizations $\{(\gamma_i, \alpha_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ and $\{(\gamma'_i, \alpha'_i)\}_{i=1}^{N'}$ of γ are related by these operations. By assumption $\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_N \sim_{h+} \gamma'_1 \cdots \gamma'_{N'}$, so after choosing suitable parametrizations of both of these concatenations on the unit interval I ,¹⁶ there exists a homotopy

$$H : I^2 \rightarrow X$$

with $H(0, \cdot) = \gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_N$, $H(1, \cdot) = \gamma'_1 \cdots \gamma'_{N'}$ and $H(s, 0) = H(s, 1) = p$ for all $s \in I$. Since I^2 is compact, one can find a number $\epsilon > 0$ such that for every $(s, t) \in I^2$,¹⁷ the intersection of I^2 with the box

$$[s - 2\epsilon, s + 2\epsilon] \times [t - 2\epsilon, t + 2\epsilon] \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$

is contained in $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in J$. For suitably small $\epsilon = 1/n$ with $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can therefore break up I^2 into n^2 boxes of side length ϵ which are each contained in $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in J$ (possibly a different α for each box), forming a grid in I^2 . For each box in the diagram there may be multiple $\alpha \in J$ that satisfy this condition, but let us choose a specific one to associate to each box. (These choices are indicated by the three colors in Figure 3.) Notice that each vertex in the grid is contained in the intersection of $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$ for each of the $\alpha \in J$ associated to boxes that it touches. We can now perturb this diagram slightly to fill I^2 with a collection of boxes of slightly varying sizes such that every vertex in the interior touches only three of them (see the right side of Figure 3). We can similarly assume after such a perturbation that the vertices in $\{s = 0\}$ and $\{s = 1\}$ never coincide with the starting or ending times of the loops γ_i, γ'_i in the concatenations $\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_N$ and $\gamma'_1 \cdots \gamma'_{N'}$. Moreover, each vertex still lies in the same intersection of sets $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$ as before, assuming the perturbation is sufficiently small.

Now suppose $(s, t) \in I^2$ is a vertex in the interior of the perturbed grid. Then (s, t) is on the boundary of exactly three boxes in the diagram, each of which belongs to one of the sets $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$, $H^{-1}(A_\beta)$ and $H^{-1}(A_\gamma)$ for three associated elements $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$ (they need not necessarily be distinct). If $(0, t)$ is a vertex with $t \notin \{0, 1\}$, then it is on the boundary of exactly two boxes and thus lies in $H^{-1}(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta)$ for two associated elements $\alpha, \beta \in J$, but it also lies in $H^{-1}(A_\gamma)$ where $\gamma := \alpha_i$ is associated to the particular path γ_i whose domain as part of the concatenation $H(0, \cdot) = \gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_N$ contains $(0, t)$. For vertices $(1, t)$ with $t \notin \{0, 1\}$, choose $A_\gamma := A_{\alpha'_i}$ similarly in terms of the concatenation $\gamma'_1 \cdots \gamma'_{N'}$. In any of these cases, we have associated to each vertex

¹⁶Recall that concatenation of paths is associative up to homotopy, so the N -fold concatenation $\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_N$ is not a uniquely determined path $I \rightarrow X$ if $N > 2$, but it is unique up to homotopy with fixed end points.

¹⁷I do not consider this statement completely obvious, but it is a not very difficult exercise in point-set topology, and since that portion of the course is now over, I would rather leave it as an exercise than give the details here. Here is a hint: if the claim is not true, one can find a sequence $(s_k, t_k) \in I^2$ such that for each k , the intersection of I^2 with the box of side length $1/k$ about (s_k, t_k) is not fully contained in any of the subsets $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$. This sequence has a convergent subsequence. What can you say about its limit?

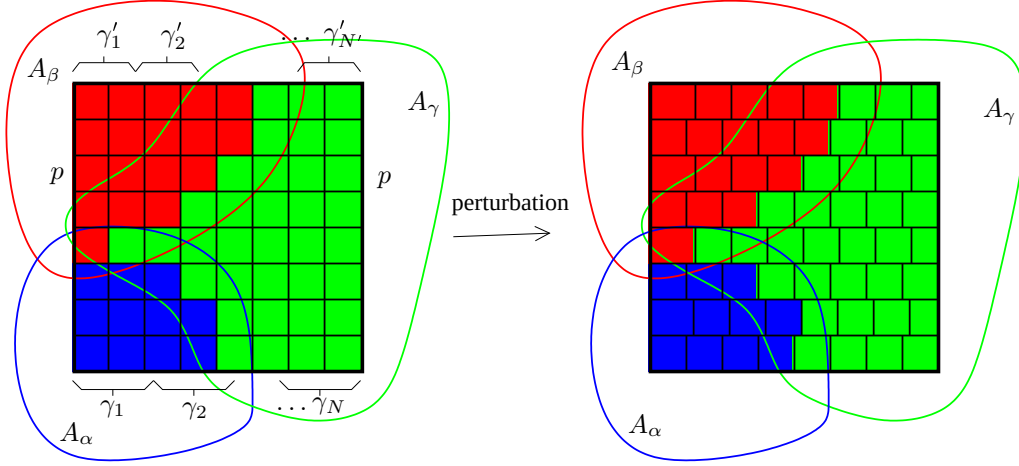


FIGURE 3. A grid on the domain of the homotopy $H : I^2 \rightarrow X$ between two factorizations $\gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N$ and $\gamma'_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma'_{N'}$ of a loop $p \rightsquigarrow p$ in X . In this example, there are three open sets $A_\alpha, A_\beta, A_\gamma \subset X$, and colors are used to indicate that each of the small boxes filling I^2 has image lying in (at least) one of these subsets. In the perturbed picture at the right, every vertex in the interior touches exactly three boxes.

(s, t) a path-connected set $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma$ that contains $H(s, t)$, thus we can choose a path¹⁸

$$H(s, t) \overset{\delta_{(s,t)}}{\rightsquigarrow} p \quad \text{in} \quad A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma.$$

Since $H(s, t) = p$ for $t \in \{0, 1\}$, this definition can be extended to vertices with $t \in \{0, 1\}$ by defining $\delta_{(s,t)}$ as the trivial path. Now if E is any edge in the diagram, i.e. a side of one of the boxes, connecting two neighboring vertices (s_0, t_0) and (s_1, t_1) , then we can identify E with the unit interval in order to regard $H|_E : E \rightarrow X$ as a path, and thus associate to E a loop

$$p \overset{\gamma_E}{\rightsquigarrow} p \quad \text{in} \quad A_\alpha \cap A_\beta, \quad \gamma_E := \delta_{(s_0, t_0)}^{-1} \cdot H|_E \cdot \delta_{(s_1, t_1)},$$

where $\alpha, \beta \in J$ are the two (not necessarily distinct) elements associated to the boxes bordered by E .

With these choices in place, any path through I^2 that follows a sequence of edges $E_1, \dots, E_k$ starting at some vertex in $(s_0, 0)$ and ending at a vertex $(s_1, 1)$ produces various factorizations of γ in the form $\{(\gamma_{E_i}, \beta_i)\}_{i=1}^k$. Here there is some freedom in the choices of $\beta_i \in J$: whenever a given edge E_i lies in $H^{-1}(A_\beta) \cap H^{-1}(A_\gamma)$, we can choose β_i to be either β or γ and thus produce two valid factorizations, which are related to each other by operation (C) in the list above.

We can now describe a procedure to modify the factorization $\{(\gamma_i, \alpha_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ to $\{(\gamma'_i, \alpha'_i)\}_{i=1}^{N'}$. We show first that $\{(\gamma_i, \alpha_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ is equivalent via our three operations to the factorization corresponding to the sequence of edges in $\{s = 0\}$ moving from $t = 0$ to $t = 1$. This is not so obvious because, although $H(0, \cdot)$ is a parametrization of the concatenated path $\gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N$, the times that mark the boundaries between one path and the next in this concatenation need not have anything to do with the vertices of our chosen grid. Instead, our perturbation of the grid ensured that each γ_i

¹⁸This is the specific step where we need the assumption that triple intersections are path-connected. If you're curious to see an example of the second half of the theorem failing without this assumption, I refer you to [Hat02, p. 44].

in the concatenation hits vertices only in the interior of its domain, not at starting or end points. Denote by $(0, t_1), \dots, (0, t_{m-1})$ the particular grid vertices in the domain of γ_i , thus splitting up γ_i into a concatenation of paths $\gamma_i = \gamma_i^1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_i^m$ which have these vertices as starting and/or end points. Then

$$\gamma_i \underset{h+}{\sim} (\gamma_i^1 \cdot \delta_{(0, t_1)}) \cdot (\delta_{(0, t_1)}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_i^2 \cdot \delta_{(0, t_2)}) \cdot \dots \cdot (\delta_{(0, t_{m-1})}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_i^m) \quad \text{in } A_{\alpha_i}.$$

We can now apply operations (B) and (A) in that order to replace γ_i with the sequence of loops of the form $\delta_{(0, t_{j-1})}^{-1} \cdot \gamma_i^j \cdot \delta_{(0, t_j)}$ in A_{α_i} as indicated above. The result is a new factorization that has more loops in the sequence, but the resulting concatenation is broken up along points that include all vertices in $\{s = 0\}$. It is also broken along more points, corresponding to the pieces of the original concatenation $\gamma_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \gamma_N$, but after applying operation (C) if necessary, we can now apply operation (A) to combine all adjacent loops whose domains belong to the same edge. The result is precisely the factorization corresponding to the sequence of edges in $\{s = 0\}$. The same procedure can be used to modify $\{(\gamma'_i, \alpha'_i)\}_{i=1}^{N'}$ to the factorization corresponding to the sequence of edges in $\{s = 1\}$.

To finish, we need to show that the factorization given by the edges in $\{s = 0\}$ can be transformed into the corresponding factorization at $\{s = 1\}$ by applying our three operations. The core of the idea for this is shown in Figure 4, where the purple curves show two sequences of edges which represent two factorizations. In this case the difference between one path and the other consists only of replacing two edges on adjacent sides of a particular box $Q \subset I^2$ with their two opposite sides, and we can change from one to the other as follows. First, if the box Q is in $H^{-1}(A_\alpha)$, apply the operation (C) to both factorizations until all the loops corresponding to sides of Q are regarded as loops in A_α . Having done this, both factorizations now contain two consecutive loops in A_α that correspond to two sides of Q , so we can apply the operation (A) to concatenate each of these pairs, reducing two loops to one distinguished loop through A_α in each factorization. Those two distinguished loops are also homotopic in A_α , as one can see by choosing a homotopy of paths through the square Q that connects two adjacent sides to their two opposite sides (Figure 4, right). This therefore applies the operation (B) to change one factorization to the other.

We note finally that for any sequence of edges that includes edges in $\{t = 0\}$ or $\{t = 1\}$, those edges represent the constant path at the base point p , and since concatenation with constant paths produces homotopic paths, adding these edges or removing them from the diagram changes the factorization by a combination of operations (A) and (B). It now only remains to observe that the path of edges along $\{s = 0\}$ can always be modified to the path of edges along $\{s = 1\}$ by a finite sequence of the modifications just described. □

13.2. Any group can be a fundamental group. As a first demonstration of the full power of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem, I would like to answer the question, “which groups can be fundamental groups of nice spaces?” If we are only interested in finitely-presented groups, and decide that “nice” should mean “compact and Hausdorff”, then the answer turns out to be that there is no restriction at all.

THEOREM 13.2. *Every finitely-presented group is the fundamental group of some compact Hausdorff space.*

PROOF. The following lemma will be used as an inductive step. Suppose X_0 is a compact Hausdorff space with a finitely-presented fundamental group

$$\pi_1(X_0, p) \cong \{\{a_i\} \mid \{R_j\}\}.$$

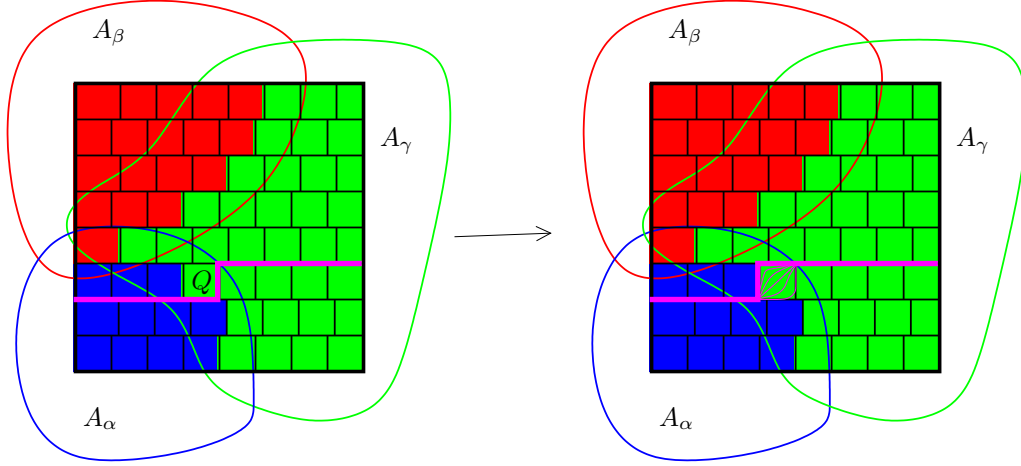


FIGURE 4. The magenta paths in both pictures are sequences of edges that define factorizations of γ , differing only at pairs of edges that surround a particular box Q . We can change one to the other by applying the three operations in our list.

Then for any loop $\gamma : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (X_0, p)$, we claim that the space

$$X := \mathbb{D}^2 \cup_{\gamma} X_0 := (\mathbb{D}^2 \amalg X_0) / z \sim \gamma(z) \in X_0 \text{ for all } z \in \partial \mathbb{D}^2$$

is compact and Hausdorff with

$$\pi_1(X, p) \cong \{ \{a_i\} \mid \{R_j\}, [\gamma] = e \},$$

i.e. its fundamental group has the same generators and one new relation, defined by setting $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X_0, p)$ equal to the trivial element. This claim follows easily¹⁹ from the Seifert-van Kampen theorem using the decomposition $X = A \cup B$ where $A = \mathbb{D}^2$ and B is an open neighborhood of X_0 obtained by adding a small annulus near the boundary of $\partial \mathbb{D}^2$. Since the annulus admits a deformation retraction to $\partial \mathbb{D}^2$, we have $B \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} X_0$, while $A \cap B \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} S^1$ and A is contractible.

According to Corollary 12.19, $\pi_1(X, p)$ then inherits all the generators and relations of $\pi_1(B) \cong \pi_1(X_0)$, no new generators from $\pi_1(A) = 0$, and one new relation from the generator of $\pi_1(A \cap B) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, whose inclusion into A is trivial, so the relation says that its inclusion into B must become the trivial element. That inclusion is precisely $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X_0, p)$, hence the claim is proved.

Now suppose G is a finitely-presented group with generators $x_1, \dots, x_N$ and relations $w_1 = e, \dots, w_m = e$ for $w_i \in F_{\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}}$. We start with a space X_0 whose fundamental group is the free group on $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$: the wedge sum of N circles will do. As the previous paragraph demonstrates, we can then attach a 2-disk for each individual relation we would like to add to the fundamental group, and doing this finitely many times produces a compact Hausdorff space with the desired fundamental group. $\square$

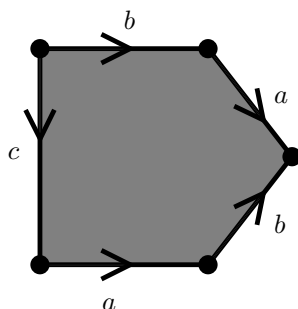
14. Surfaces and torus knots

We will discuss two applications of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem in this lecture: one to the study of surfaces, and the other to knots. Let's begin with surfaces.

¹⁹I am glossing over the detail where we need to prove that X is also compact and Hausdorff. This is not completely obvious, but it is yet another exercise in point-set topology that I feel justified in not explaining now that that portion of the course is finished.

14.1. Identifying edges of polygons. Someday, when we talk about topological manifolds in this course (namely in Lecture 18), I will give you a precise mathematical definition of what the word “surface” means, but that day is not today. For now, we’re just going to consider a class of specific examples that can be presented in a way that is convenient for computing their fundamental groups. A theorem we will discuss later in the semester implies that *all* compact surfaces can be presented in this way, but that is rather far from obvious.

We are going to consider pictures of polygons such as the following:

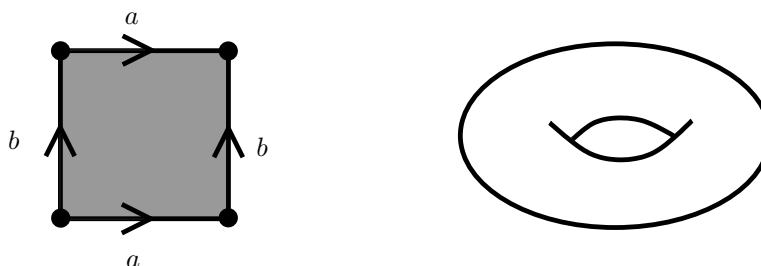


Suppose in general that $P \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is a compact region bounded by some collection of N smooth curves that are arranged in a cyclic sequence with matching end points and do not intersect each other except at the matching end points. We will refer to these curves as *edges*, and label each of them with a letter a_i and an arrow. The letters $a_1, \dots, a_N$ need not all be distinct. We then define a topological space

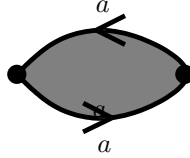
$$X := P/\sim,$$

where the equivalence relation is trivial on the interior of P but identifies all vertices with each other, thus collapsing the set of vertices to a single point, and it also identifies any pair of edges labeled by the same letter with each other via a homeomorphism that matches the directions of the arrows. (The exact choice of this homeomorphism will not matter.) In the picture above, this means the two edges labeled with “ a ” get identified, and so do the two edges labeled with “ b ”. (By the time you’ve read to the end of this lecture, you should be able to form a fairly clear picture of this surface in your mind, but I suggest reading somewhat further before you try this.)

EXAMPLE 14.1. Take P to be a square whose sides have two labels a and b such that opposite sides of the square have matching letters and arrows pointing in the same direction. You could then build a physical model of $X = P/\sim$ in two steps: take a square piece of paper and bend it until you can tape together the two opposite sides labeled a , producing a cylinder. The two boundary components of this cylinder are circles labeled b , so if you were doing this with a sufficiently stretchable material (paper is not stretchable enough), you could then bend the cylinder around and tape together its two circular boundary components. The result is what’s depicted in the picture at the right, a space conventionally known as the **2-torus** (or just “the torus” for short) and denoted by $\mathbb{T}^2$. It is homeomorphic to the product $S^1 \times S^1$.



EXAMPLE 14.2. If you relax your usual understanding of what a “polygon” is, you can also allow edges of the polygon to be curved as in the following example with only two edges:



The polygon itself is homeomorphic to the disk $\mathbb{D}^2$, but identifying the two edges via a homeomorphism matching the arrows means we identify each point on $\partial\mathbb{D}^2$ with its antipodal point. The result matches the second description of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ that we saw in the first lecture, see Example 1.2.

THEOREM 14.3. Suppose $X = P/\sim$ is a space defined as described above by a polygon P with N edges labeled by (possibly repeated) letters $a_1, \dots, a_N$, where we are listing them in the order in which they appear as the boundary is traversed once counterclockwise. Let G denote the set of all letters that appear in this list, and for each $i = 1, \dots, N$, write $p_i = 1$ if the arrow at edge i points counterclockwise around the boundary and $p_i = -1$ otherwise. Then $\pi_1(X)$ is isomorphic to the group with generators G and exactly one relation $a_1^{p_1} \dots a_N^{p_N} = e$:

$$\pi_1(X) \cong \{G \mid a_1^{p_1} \dots a_N^{p_N} = e\}.$$

PROOF. Let $P^1 := \partial P / \sim \subset X$. Since all vertices are identified to a point, P^1 is homeomorphic to a wedge sum of circles, one for each of the letters that appear as labels of edges, hence by an easy application of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem (cf. Exercise 12.3(b)),

$$\pi_1(P^1) \cong \pi_1(S^1) * \dots * \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \dots * \mathbb{Z} = F_G,$$

the free group generated by the set G . Now decompose X into two open subsets A and B , where A is the interior of the polygon (not including its boundary) and B is an open neighborhood of P^1 . We can arrange this so that $A \cap B$ is homeomorphic to an annulus $S^1 \times (-1, 1)$ occupying a neighborhood of ∂P in the interior of P , so for any choice of base point $p \in A \cap B$, $\pi_1(A \cap B, p) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is generated by a loop that circles around parallel to ∂P . Since the neighborhood of ∂P admits a deformation retraction to ∂P , there is similarly a deformation retraction of B to P^1 , giving $\pi_1(B, p) \cong \pi_1(P^1) = F_G$. Likewise, A is homeomorphic to an open disk, hence $\pi_1(A) = 0$. The Seifert-van Kampen theorem then identifies $\pi_1(X, p)$ with a quotient of the free product $\pi_1(A, p) * \pi_1(B, p) \cong \pi_1(P^1) = F_G$, modulo the normal subgroup generated by the relation that if $j_A : A \cap B \hookrightarrow A$ and $j_B : A \cap B \hookrightarrow B$ denote the inclusion maps and $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A \cap B, p) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is a generator, then $(j_A)_*[\gamma] = (j_B)_*[\gamma]$. The left hand side of this equation is the trivial element since $\pi_1(A) = 0$. On the right hand side, we have the element of $\pi_1(B, p)$ represented by a loop $p \xrightarrow{\gamma} p$ in the annulus $A \cap B$ that is parallel to the boundary of the polygon. Under the deformation retraction of $A \cap B$ to P^1 , γ becomes the concatenated loop $a_1^{p_1} \dots a_N^{p_N}$ defined by composing a traversal of ∂P with the quotient projection $\partial P \rightarrow P^1$, thus producing the relation $a_1^{p_1} \dots a_N^{p_N} = e$. $\square$

EXAMPLE 14.4. Applying the theorem to the torus in Example 14.1 gives

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{T}^2) \cong \{a, b \mid aba^{-1}b^{-1} = e\} = \{a, b \mid ab = ba\} \cong \mathbb{Z}^2.$$

Notice that this matches the result of applying Exercise 8.2(a), which gives $\pi_1(S^1 \times S^1) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \times \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.

EXAMPLE 14.5. For the picture of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ in Example 14.2, we obtain

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) \cong \{a \mid a^2 = e\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2.$$

We already saw in Example 11.7 that $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$ is generated by a single loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$, the projection to $\mathbb{RP}^2 = S^2/\sim$ of a path that goes halfway around the equator of the sphere from one point to its antipodal point. We have now shown that $[\gamma]$ really is a nontrivial element of $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2)$, but its square is trivial. The latter was also observed in Example 11.7, where it followed essentially from the fact that S^2 is simply connected: the concatenation of γ with itself is the projection to $\mathbb{RP}^2$ of a path that goes *all the way* around the equator in S^2 , i.e. it is a loop, and can then be filled in with a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow S^2$ since $\pi_1(S^2) = 0$. Composing the map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow S^2$ with the projection $S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ then contracts the loop γ^2 in $\mathbb{RP}^2$. However, we could not have deduced so easily from our knowledge of S^2 the fact that γ itself is *not* a contractible loop in $\mathbb{RP}^2$; that required the full strength of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem.

14.2. Connected sums and surfaces of genus g . In Lecture 1, I drew you some pictures of topological spaces that I called “surfaces of genus g ” for various values of a nonnegative integer g . I will now give you a precise definition of this space which, unfortunately, looks completely different from the original pictures, but we will soon see that it is equivalent.

DEFINITION 14.6. For any integer $g \geq 0$, the **closed orientable surface** Σ_g of **genus** (*Geschlecht*) g is defined to be S^2 if $g = 0$, and otherwise $\Sigma_g := P/\sim$ where P is a polygon with $4g$ edges labeled by $2g$ distinct letters $\{a_i, b_i\}_{i=1}^g$ in the order

$$a_1, b_1, a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, a_2, b_2, \dots, a_g, b_g, a_g, b_g,$$

such that the arrows point counterclockwise on the first instance of each letter in this sequence and clockwise on the second instance.

Once you’ve fully digested this definition, you may recognize that Σ_1 is defined by the square in Example 14.1, i.e. it is the torus $\mathbb{T}^2$. The diagram for Σ_2 is shown at the bottom of Figure 5. The projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not an “orientable” surface, so it is not Σ_g for any g , though it is sometimes called a “non-orientable surface of genus 1”. This terminology will make more sense when we later discuss the classification of surfaces.

In order to understand what Σ_g has to do with pictures we’ve seen before, we consider an operation on surfaces called the *connected sum*. It can be defined on any pair of surfaces Σ and Σ' , or more generally, on any pair of n -dimensional topological manifolds, though for now we will consider only the case $n = 2$. Since I haven’t yet actually given you precise definitions of the terms “surface” and “topological manifold,” for now you should just assume Σ and Σ' come from the list of specific examples $\Sigma_0 = S^2$, $\Sigma_1 = \mathbb{T}^2$, Σ_2 , $\Sigma_3, \dots$ defined above.

Given a pair of inclusions $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ and $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma'$, the **connected sum** (*zusammenhängende Summe*) of Σ and Σ' is defined as the space

$$\Sigma \# \Sigma' := \left(\Sigma \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \right) \cup_{S^1} \left(\Sigma' \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \right).$$

The result of this operation is not hard to visualize in many concrete examples, see e.g. Figure 6.

More generally, for topological n -manifolds M and M' , one defines the connected sum $M \# M'$ by choosing inclusions of $\mathbb{D}^n$ into M and M' , then removing the interiors of these disks and gluing together $M \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ and $M' \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ along $S^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}^n$. The notation $M \# M'$ obscures the fact that the definition of the connected sum depends explicitly on choices of inclusions of $\mathbb{D}^n$ into both spaces, and it is not entirely true in general that $M \# M'$ up to homeomorphism is independent of this choice. It is true however for surfaces:

LEMMA 14.7 (slightly nontrivial). *Up to homeomorphism, the connected sum $\Sigma \# \Sigma'$ of two closed connected surfaces Σ and Σ' does not depend on the choices of inclusions $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ and $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma'$.*

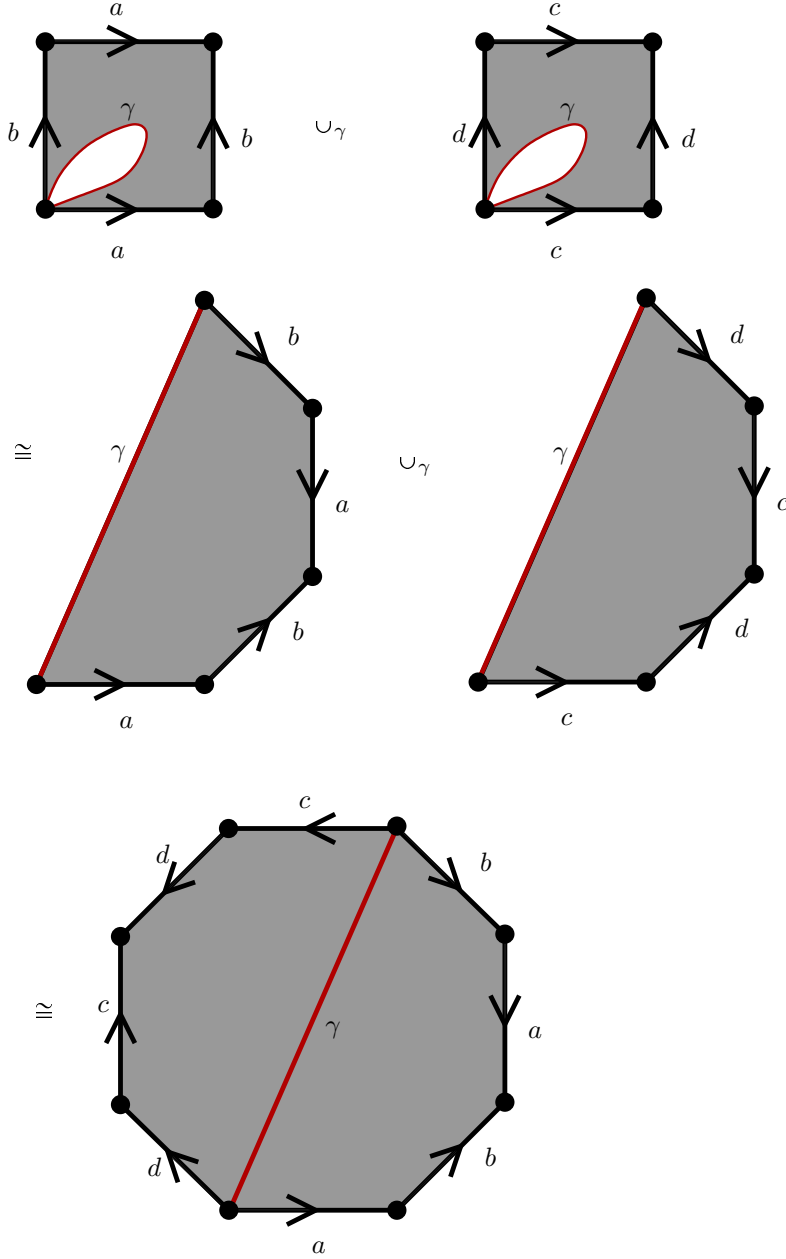


FIGURE 5. The connected sum $\mathbb{T}^2 \# \mathbb{T}^2$ is formed by cutting holes $\mathbb{D}^2$ out of two copies of $\mathbb{T}^2$ along some loop γ , and then gluing together the two copies of $\mathbb{T}^2 \setminus \mathbb{D}^2$. The result is Σ_2 , the closed orientable surface of genus 2.

SKETCH OF A PROOF. A complete proof of this would be too much of a digression and require more knowledge about the classification of surfaces than is presently safe to assume, but I can give the rough idea. The main thing you need to believe is that “up to orientation” (I’ll come back to that detail in a moment), any inclusion $i_0 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ can be deformed into any other

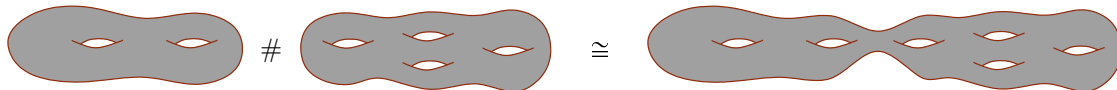


FIGURE 6. The connected sum of two surfaces is defined by cutting a hole out of each of them and gluing the rest together along the resulting boundary circle.

inclusion $i_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ through a continuous family of inclusions $i_t : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ for $t \in I$. You should imagine this roughly as follows: since $\mathbb{D}^2$ is homeomorphic via the obvious rescalings to the disk $\mathbb{D}_r^2$ of radius r for every $r > 0$, one can first deform i_0 and i_1 to inclusions whose images lie in arbitrarily small neighborhoods of two points $z_0, z_1 \in \Sigma$. Now since Σ is connected (and therefore also path-connected, as all topological manifolds are locally path-connected), we can choose a path γ from z_0 to z_1 , and the idea is then to define i_t as a continuous family of inclusions $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ such that the image of i_t lies in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of $\gamma(t)$ for each t . You should be able to imagine concretely how to do this in the special case $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^2$. That it can be done on arbitrary connected surfaces Σ depends on the fact that every point in Σ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$ (in other words, Σ is a topological 2-manifold).

Now for the detail that was brushed under the rug in the previous paragraph: even if $i_0, i_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ are two inclusions that send 0 to the same point $z \in \Sigma$ and have images in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of z , it is not always true that i_0 can be deformed to i_1 through a continuous family of inclusions. For example, if we take $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^2$, it is not true for the two inclusions $i_0, i_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ defined by $i_0(x, y) = (\epsilon x, \epsilon y)$ and $i_1(x, y) = (\epsilon x, -\epsilon y)$. In this example, both inclusions are defined as restrictions of injective linear maps $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, but one has positive determinant and the other has negative determinant, so one cannot deform from one to the other through injective linear maps. One can use the technology of *local homology groups* (which we'll cover next semester) to remove the linearity from this argument and show that there also is no deformation from i_0 to i_1 through continuous inclusions. The issue here is one of *orientations*: i_0 is an orientation-preserving map, while i_1 is orientation-reversing. It turns out that two inclusions of $\mathbb{D}^2$ into $\mathbb{R}^2$ can be deformed to each other through inclusions if and only if they are either both orientation preserving or both orientation reversing. This obstruction sounds like bad news for our proof, but the situation is saved by the following corollary of the classification of surfaces: every closed orientable surface admits an orientation-reversing homeomorphism to itself. For example, if you picture the torus as the usual tube embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$ and you embed it so that it is *symmetric* about some 2-dimensional coordinate plane, then the linear reflection through that plane restricts to a homeomorphism of $\mathbb{T}^2$ that is orientation reversing. Once we see what all the other closed orientable surfaces look like, it will be easy to see that one can do that with all of them. Actually, it is also not so hard to see this for the surfaces Σ_g defined as polygons: you just need to choose a sufficiently clever axis in the plane containing the polygon and reflect across it. Once this is understood, you realize that the orientation of your inclusion $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ does not really matter, as you can always replace it with an inclusion having the opposite orientation, and the picture you get in the end will be homeomorphic to the original.

With this detail out of the way, you just have to convince yourself that if you have a pair of continuous families of inclusions $i_t : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ and $j_t : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma'$ defined for $t \in [0, 1]$, then the resulting glued surfaces

$$\Sigma \#_t \Sigma' := \left(\Sigma \setminus i_t(\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \right) \cup_{S^1} \left(\Sigma' \setminus j_t(\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \right)$$

are homeomorphic for all t . It suffices in fact to prove that this is true just for t varying in an arbitrarily small interval $(t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon)$, since $[0, 1]$ is compact and can therefore be covered by finitely many such intervals. A homeomorphism $\Sigma \#_t \Sigma' \rightarrow \Sigma \#_s \Sigma'$ for $t \neq s$ is easy to define if we

can first find a homeomorphism $\Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ that sends $i_t(z) \mapsto i_s(z)$ for every $z \in \mathbb{D}^2$ and similarly on Σ' . This is not hard to construct if t and s are sufficiently close. $\square$

Now we are in a position to relate Σ_g with the more familiar pictures of surfaces.

THEOREM 14.8. *For any nonnegative integers g, h , $\Sigma_g \# \Sigma_h \cong \Sigma_{g+h}$. In particular, Σ_g is the connected sum of g copies of the torus:*

$$\Sigma_g \cong \underbrace{\mathbb{T}^2 \# \dots \# \mathbb{T}^2}_g$$

PROOF. The result becomes obvious if one makes a sufficiently clever choice of hole to cut out of Σ_g and Σ_h , and Lemma 14.7 tells us that the resulting space up to homeomorphism is independent of this choice. The example of $g = h = 1$ is shown in Figure 5, and the same idea works (but is more effort to draw) for any values of g and h . $\square$

Now that we know how to draw pretty pictures of the surfaces Σ_g , we can also observe that we have already proved something quite nontrivial about them: we have computed their fundamental groups!

COROLLARY 14.9 (of Theorem 14.3). *The closed orientable surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$ has a fundamental group with $2g$ generators and one relation, namely*

$$\pi_1(\Sigma_g) \cong \{a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g \mid a_1 b_1 a_1^{-1} b_1^{-1} a_2 b_2 a_2^{-1} b_2^{-1} \dots a_g b_g a_g^{-1} b_g^{-1} = e\}.$$

$\square$

Using the commutator notation from Exercise 12.2, the relation in Corollary 14.9 can be conveniently abbreviated as

$$\prod_{i=1}^g [a_i, b_i] = e.$$

Exercise 12.2 shows that the abelianization of $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$ is isomorphic to the additive group $\mathbb{Z}^{2g}$. By the classification of finitely generated abelian groups, $\mathbb{Z}^m$ and $\mathbb{Z}^n$ are never isomorphic unless $m = n$, so Exercise 12.2 implies that $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$ and $\pi_1(\Sigma_h)$ are not isomorphic unless $g = h$. This completes the first step in the classification of closed surfaces:

COROLLARY 14.10. *For two nonnegative integers $g \neq h$, Σ_g and Σ_h are not homeomorphic.* $\square$

14.3. Knot groups. Now let's talk about knots. Back in Lecture 8, I showed you two simple examples of knots $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$: the *trefoil* and the *unknot*. I claimed that it is impossible to deform one of these knots into the other, and in fact that the complements of both knots in $\mathbb{R}^3$ are not homeomorphic. It is time to prove this.

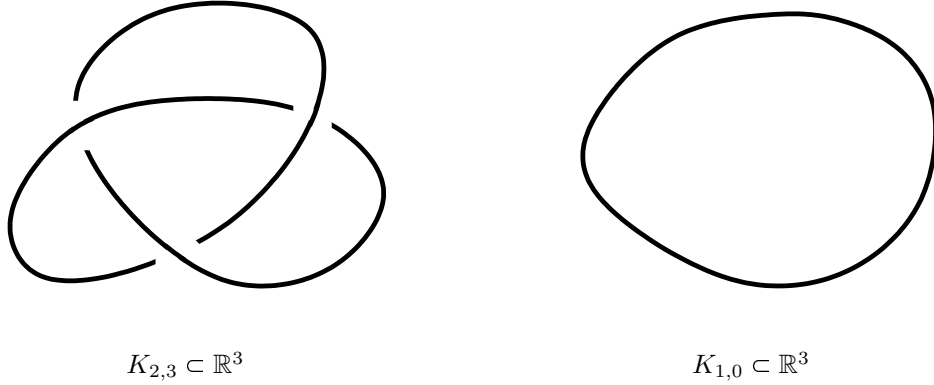
We will consider both as special cases of a more general class of knots called *torus knots*. Fix the standard embedding of the torus

$$f : \mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3,$$

where by “standard,” I mean the one that you usually picture when you imagine a torus embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$ (see the surface bounding the grey region in Figure 8). Given any two relatively prime integers $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, the (p, q) -**torus knot** is defined by

$$K_{p,q} := \{f(e^{pi\theta}, e^{qi\theta}) \mid \theta \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3.$$

In other words, $K_{p,q}$ is a knot lying on the image of the embedded torus $f(\mathbb{T}^2) \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, obtained from a loop that rotates p times around one of the dimensions of $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$ while rotating q times around the other. It is conventional to assume p and q are relatively prime, since the definition of $K_{p,q}$ above would not change if both p and q were multiplied by the same nonzero constant.

FIGURE 7. The trefoil knot $K_{2,3}$ and unknot $K_{1,0}$.

EXAMPLE 14.11. $K_{2,3}$ is the trefoil knot (Figure 7, left).

EXAMPLE 14.12. $K_{1,0}$ is the unknot (Figure 7, right).

The **knot group** of a knot $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is defined as the fundamental group of the so-called *knot complement*, $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K)$. We saw in Example 12.7 that the natural inclusion $\mathbb{R}^3 \hookrightarrow S^3$ defined by identifying S^3 with the one-point compactification $\mathbb{R}^3 \cup \{\infty\}$ induces an isomorphism of $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K)$ to $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$, thus in order to compute knot groups, we may as well regard the knot $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ as a subset of the slightly larger but *compact* space S^3 and compute $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$. We shall now answer the question: given relatively prime integers p and q , what is $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{p,q})$?

Here is a useful trick for picturing S^3 . By definition, $S^3 = \partial \mathbb{D}^4$, but notice that $\mathbb{D}^4$ is also homeomorphic to the “box” $\mathbb{D}^2 \times \mathbb{D}^2$, whose boundary consists of the two pieces $\partial \mathbb{D}^2 \times \mathbb{D}^2$ and $\mathbb{D}^2 \times \partial \mathbb{D}^2$, intersecting each other along $\partial \mathbb{D}^2 \times \partial \mathbb{D}^2$. The latter is a copy of $\mathbb{T}^2$, and the pieces $S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$ and $\mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1$ are called **solid tori** since we usually picture them as the region in $\mathbb{R}^3$ bounded by the standard embedding of the torus. The homeomorphism $\mathbb{D}^4 \cong \mathbb{D}^2 \times \mathbb{D}^2$ thus allows us to identify S^3 with the space constructed by gluing together these two solid tori along the obvious identification of their boundaries:

$$S^3 \cong (S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2) \cup_{\mathbb{T}^2} (\mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1).$$

A picture of this decomposition is shown in Figure 8. Here the 2-torus along which the two solid tori are glued together is depicted as the standard embedding of $\mathbb{T}^2$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$, so this is where we will assume $K_{p,q}$ lies. The region bounded by this torus is $S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$, shown in the picture as an S^1 -parametrized family of disks $\mathbb{D}^2$. It requires a bit more imagination to recognize $\mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1$ in the picture: instead of a family of disks, we have drawn it as a $\mathbb{D}^2$ -parametrized family of circles, where it is important to understand that one of those circles passes through $\infty \in S^3$ and thus looks like a line instead of a circle in the picture. This picture will now serve as the basis for a Seifert-van Kampen decomposition of $S^3 \setminus K_{p,q}$ into two open subsets. They will be defined as open neighborhoods of the two subsets

$$A_0 := (S^1 \times \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \setminus K_{p,q}, \quad B_0 := (\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \times S^1) \setminus K_{p,q}.$$

In order to define suitable neighborhoods, let us identify a neighborhood of $f(\mathbb{T}^2)$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$ with $(-1, 1) \times \mathbb{T}^2$ such that $f(\mathbb{T}^2)$ becomes $\{0\} \times \mathbb{T}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$. We then define

$$A := \left(S^1 \times \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \right) \cup \left((-1, 1) \times (\mathbb{T}^2 \setminus f^{-1}(K_{p,q})) \right),$$

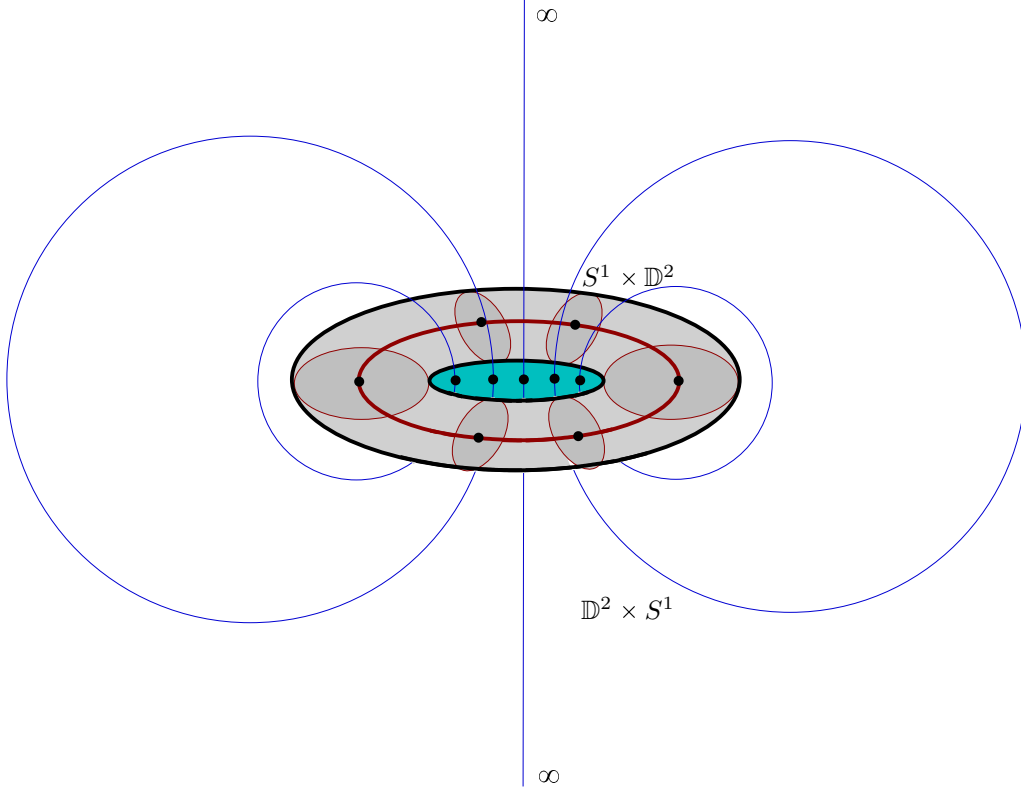


FIGURE 8. The sphere $S^3 = \mathbb{R}^3 \cup \{\infty\}$ decomposed as a union of two solid tori whose common boundary is the “standard” embedding of $\mathbb{T}^2$ in $\mathbb{R}^3$: $S^3 \cong \partial(\mathbb{D}^2 \times \mathbb{D}^2) = (S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2) \cup_{\mathbb{T}^2} (\mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1)$. The vertical blue line passing through the middle is actually a circle in S^3 passing through the point at ∞ .

and

$$B := \left(\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \times S^1 \right) \cup \left((-1, 1) \times (\mathbb{T}^2 \setminus f^{-1}(K_{p,q})) \right).$$

By contracting the interval $(-1, 1)$, we can define a deformation retraction of A to A_0 and then retract further by contracting the disk $\mathbb{D}^2$ to its center, eventually producing a deformation retraction of A to the circle $S^1 \times \{0\}$ at the center of the inner solid torus—this is the red circle in Figure 8 that passes through the center of each disk. In an analogous way, there is a deformation retraction of B to the center $\{0\} \times S^1$ of the outer solid torus, which is the blue line through ∞ in the picture, though you might prefer to perturb this to one of the parallel circles $\{z\} \times S^1 \subset \mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1$ for $z \neq 0$, since these actually look like circles in the picture. We can now regard $\pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(B)$ as separate copies of the integers whose generators we shall call a and b respectively,

$$\pi_1(A) \cong \{a \mid \emptyset\}, \quad \pi_1(B) \cong \{b \mid \emptyset\}.$$

The intersection is

$$A \cap B = (-1, 1) \times (\mathbb{T}^2 \setminus f^{-1}(K_{p,q})) \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} \mathbb{T}^2 \setminus f^{-1}(K_{p,q}) \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} S^1.$$

That last homotopy equivalence deserves an explanation: if you draw $\mathbb{T}^2$ as a square with its sides identified, then $f^{-1}(K_{p,q})$ looks like a straight line that periodically exits one side of the

square and reappears at the opposite side. Now draw another straight path parallel to this one (I recommend using a different color), and you will easily see that after removing $f^{-1}(K_{p,q})$ from $\mathbb{T}^2$, what remains admits a deformation retraction to the parallel path, which is an embedded copy of S^1 . We will call the generator of its fundamental group c ,

$$\pi_1(A \cap B) \cong \{c \mid \emptyset\}.$$

According to the Seifert-van Kampen theorem (in particular Corollary 12.19, the version for finitely-presented groups), we can now write

$$\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{p,q}) \cong \{a, b \mid (j_A)_*c = (j_B)_*c\},$$

where j_A and j_B denote the inclusions of $A \cap B$ into A and B respectively. To interpret this properly, we should choose a base point in $A \cap B$ and picture a , b and c as represented by specific loops through this base point, so without loss of generality, a is a loop near the boundary $\mathbb{T}^2$ of $S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$ that wraps once around the S^1 direction, and b is another loop near $\mathbb{T}^2$ that wraps once around the S^1 -direction of $\mathbb{D}^2 \times S^1$, which is the other dimension of $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$. The interesting part is c , as it is represented by a loop in $\mathbb{T}^2$ that is parallel to $K_{p,q}$, thus it wraps p times around the direction of a and q times around the direction of b . This means $(j_A)_*c = a^p$ and $(j_B)_*c = b^q$, so putting all of this together yields:

THEOREM 14.13. $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{p,q}) \cong \{a, b \mid a^p = b^q\}$. □

EXAMPLE 14.14. For $(p, q) = (1, 0)$, we obtain the knot group of the unknot: $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{1,0}) \cong \{a, b \mid a = e\} = \{b \mid \emptyset\} = \mathbb{Z}$. In particular, this is an abelian group.

EXAMPLE 14.15. The knot group of the trefoil is $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{2,3}) \cong \{a, b \mid a^2 = b^3\}$. We proved in Exercise 12.1 that this group is not abelian, in contrast to Example 14.14, hence $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{2,3})$ and $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K_{1,0})$ are not isomorphic.

COROLLARY 14.16. *The knot complements $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_{1,0}$ and $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K_{2,3}$ are not homeomorphic.* □

14.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 14.1. Assume X and Y are path-connected topological manifolds of dimension n .

- (a) Use the Seifert-Van Kampen theorem to show that if $n \geq 3$, then $\pi_1(X \# Y) \cong \pi_1(X) * \pi_1(Y)$. Where does your proof fail in the cases $n = 1$ and $n = 2$?
- (b) Show that the formula of part (a) is false in general for $n = 1, 2$.

EXERCISE 14.2. For integers $g, m \geq 0$, let $\Sigma_{g,m}$ denote the compact surface obtained by cutting m disjoint disk-shaped holes out of the closed orientable surface with genus g . (By this convention, $\Sigma_g = \Sigma_{g,0}$.) The boundary $\partial\Sigma_{g,m}$ is then a disjoint union of m circles, e.g. the case with $g = 1$ and $m = 3$ is shown in Figure 9.

- (a) Show that $\pi_1(\Sigma_{g,1})$ is a free group with $2g$ generators, and if $g \geq 1$, then any simple closed curve parametrizing $\partial\Sigma_{g,1}$ represents a nontrivial element of $\pi_1(\Sigma_{g,1})$.²⁰
Hint: Think of Σ_g as a polygon with some of its edges identified. If you cut a hole in the middle of the polygon, what remains admits a deformation retraction to the edges. Prove it with a picture.

²⁰Terminology: one says in this case that $\partial\Sigma_{g,1}$ is **homotopically nontrivial** or **essential**, or equivalently, $\partial\Sigma_{g,1}$ is not **nullhomotopic**.

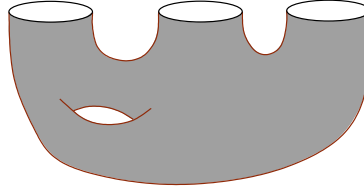
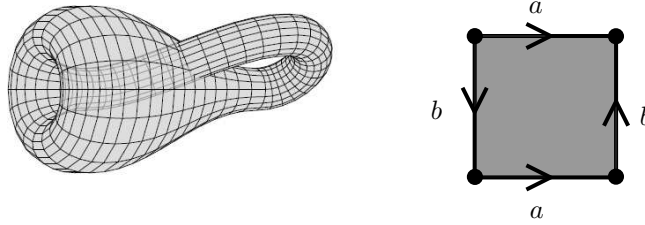
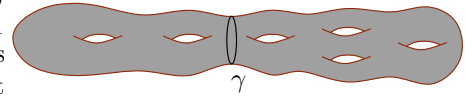
FIGURE 9. The surface $\Sigma_{1,3}$ as in Exercise 14.2.

FIGURE 10. Two ways of picturing the Klein bottle.

- (b) Assume γ is a simple closed curve separating Σ_g into two pieces homeomorphic to $\Sigma_{h,1}$ and $\Sigma_{k,1}$ for some $h, k \geq 0$. (The picture at the right shows an example with $h = 2$ and $k = 4$.) Show that the image of $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(\Sigma_g)$ under the natural projection to the abelianization of $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$ is trivial.
Hint: What does γ look like in the polygonal picture from part (a)? What is it homotopic to?
- (c) Prove that if $g \geq 2$ and G denotes the group $\{a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g \mid \prod_{i=1}^g [a_i, b_i] = e\}$, then for any proper subset $J \subset \{1, \dots, g\}$, $\prod_{i \in J} [a_i, b_i]$ is a nontrivial element of G .
Hint: Given $j \in J$ and $\ell \in \{1, \dots, g\} \setminus J$, there is a homomorphism $\Phi : F_{\{a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g\}} \rightarrow F_{\{x, y\}}$ that sends $a_j \mapsto x$, $b_j \mapsto y$, $a_\ell \mapsto y$, $b_\ell \mapsto x$ and maps all other generators to the identity. Show that Φ descends to the quotient G and maps $\prod_{i \in J} [a_i, b_i] \in G$ to something nontrivial.
- (d) Deduce from part (c) that if $h > 0$ and $k > 0$, then the curve γ in part (b) represents a nontrivial element of $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$.
- (e) Generalize part (a): show that if $m \geq 1$, $\pi_1(\Sigma_{g,m})$ is a free group with $2g + m - 1$ generators.



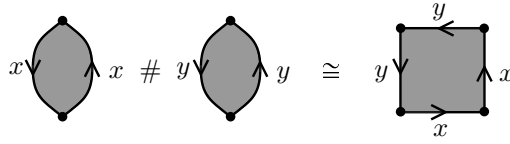
EXERCISE 14.3. The first of the two pictures in Figure 10 shows one of the standard ways of representing the **Klein bottle** as an “immersed” (i.e. smooth but with self-intersections) surface in $\mathbb{R}^3$. As a topological space, the technical definition is

$$\mathbb{K}^2 = [0, 1]^2 / \sim$$

where $(s, 0) \sim (s, 1)$ and $(0, t) \sim (1, 1 - t)$ for every $s, t \in [0, 1]$. This is represented by the square with pairs of sides identified in the second picture in Figure 10; notice the reversal of arrows, which is why $\mathbb{K}^2 \neq \mathbb{T}^2$! Theorem 14.3 thus implies that $\pi_1(\mathbb{K}^2)$ is isomorphic to the group

$$G := \{a, b \mid aba^{-1}b = e\}.$$

- (a) Consider the subset $\ell = \{(s, t) \in \mathbb{K}^2 \mid t = 1/4 \text{ or } t = 3/4\}$ in $\mathbb{K}^2$. Show that ℓ is a simple closed curve which separates $\mathbb{K}^2$ into two pieces, each homeomorphic to the Möbius band $\mathbb{M}^2 := \{(e^{i\theta}, \tau e^{i\theta/2}) \in S^1 \times \mathbb{C} \mid \theta \in [0, 2\pi], \tau \in [-1, 1]\}$. Use this decomposition to show via the Seifert-van Kampen theorem that $\pi_1(\mathbb{K}^2)$ is also isomorphic to $G' := \{c, d \mid c^2 = d^2\}$.
- (b) (*) Recall that $\mathbb{RP}^2$ can be constructed by gluing $\mathbb{M}^2$ to a disk $\mathbb{D}^2$, so conversely, $\mathbb{RP}^2 \setminus \mathbb{D}^2 \cong \mathbb{M}^2$. Part (a) implies therefore that $\mathbb{K}^2$ is homeomorphic to the connected sum $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$. Now, viewing $\mathbb{RP}^2$ as a polygon with two (curved) edges that are identified, imitate the argument we carried out for Σ_g in §14.2 to derive a different presentation for $\mathbb{K}^2$ as shown in the figure below, and deduce that $\pi_1(\mathbb{K}^2)$ is also isomorphic to $G'' := \{x, y \mid x^2 y^2 = e\}$.



- (c) For the groups G , G' and G'' above, find explicit isomorphisms of their abelianizations to $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. Then find explicit isomorphisms from each of G , G' and G'' to the others.

15. Covering spaces and the lifting theorem

15.1. Basic definitions and examples. We now leave the Seifert-van Kampen theorem behind and introduce the second major tool for computing fundamental groups: the theory of covering spaces.

DEFINITION 15.1. A map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is called a **covering map** (*Überlagerung*), or simply a **cover** of X , if for every $x \in X$, there exists an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x such that

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{V}_\alpha$$

for a collection of disjoint open subsets $\{\mathcal{V}_\alpha \subset Y\}_{\alpha \in J}$ such that $f|_{\mathcal{V}_\alpha} : \mathcal{V}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ is a homeomorphism for each $\alpha \in J$. The domain Y of this map is called a **covering space** (*Überlagerungsraum*) of X . Any subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ satisfying the conditions stated above is said to be **evenly covered**.

EXAMPLE 15.2. The map $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ is a covering map of S^1 .

EXAMPLE 15.3. The map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ sending $e^{i\theta}$ to $e^{ki\theta}$ for any nonzero $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is also a covering map of S^1 .

EXAMPLE 15.4. The n -dimensional torus $\mathbb{T}^n := \underbrace{S^1 \times \dots \times S^1}_n$ admits a covering map

$$\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n : (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \mapsto (e^{i\theta_1}, \dots, e^{i\theta_n}).$$

More generally, it is straightforward to show that given any two covering maps $f_i : Y_i \rightarrow X_i$ for $i = 1, 2$, there is a “product” cover

$$Y_1 \times Y_2 \xrightarrow{f_1 \times f_2} X_1 \times X_2 : (x_1, x_2) \mapsto (f_1(x_1), f_2(x_2)).$$

EXAMPLE 15.5. For any space X , the identity map $X \rightarrow X$ is trivially a covering map.

EXAMPLE 15.6. Another trivial example of a covering map can be defined for any space X and any set J by setting $X_\alpha := X$ for every $\alpha \in J$ and defining $f : \coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow X$ as the unique map that restricts to each $X_\alpha = X$ as the identity map on X . This is a *disconnected* covering map. We will usually restrict our attention to covering spaces that are connected.

EXAMPLE 15.7. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the quotient projection $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \sim$ is a covering map.

THEOREM 15.8. *If X is connected and $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is a cover, then the number (finite or infinite) of points in $f^{-1}(x) \subset Y$ does not depend on the choice of a point $x \in X$.*

PROOF. Given $x \in X$, choose an evenly covered neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of x and write $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{V}_\alpha$. Then for every $y \in \mathcal{U}$, $|f^{-1}(y)| = |J|$, and it follows that for every $n \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, \infty\}$, the subset $X_n := \{x \in X \mid |f^{-1}(x)| = n\} \subset X$ is open. If $x \in X_n$, notice that $\bigcup_{m \neq n} X_m$ is also open, thus X_n is also closed, so connectedness implies $X_n = X$. $\square$

In the setting of the above theorem, the number of points in $f^{-1}(x)$ is called the **degree** (*Grad*) of the cover. If $\deg(f) = n$, we sometimes call f an **n -fold** cover.

EXAMPLES 15.9. The cover $S^1 \rightarrow S^1 : z \mapsto z^k$ from Example 15.3 has degree $|k|$, while the quotient projection $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$ has degree 2 and the cover $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ from Example 15.2 has infinite degree.

REMARK 15.10. Some authors strengthen the definition of a covering map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ by requiring f to be surjective. We did not require this in Definition 15.1, but notice that if X is connected, then it follows immediately from Theorem 15.8. In practice, it is only sensible to consider covers of connected spaces, and we shall always assume connectedness.

Note that in Definition 15.1, one should explicitly require the sets $\mathcal{V}_\alpha \subset f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ to be open. This is important, as part of the point of that definition is that X can be covered by open neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}$ whose preimages are homeomorphic to *disjoint unions* of copies of $\mathcal{U}$, i.e.

$$f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \cong \bigsqcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}.$$

This is true specifically because each of the sets $\mathcal{V}_\alpha$ is open, and therefore (as the complement of $\bigcup_{\beta \neq \alpha} \mathcal{V}_\beta$) also closed in $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$. To put it another way, in a covering map, every point $x \in X$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$ such that $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is the disjoint union of homeomorphic neighborhoods of the individual points in $f^{-1}(x)$. An important consequence of this definition is that every covering map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is also a *local homeomorphism*, meaning that for each $y \in Y$ and $x := f(y)$, f maps some neighborhood of y homeomorphically to some neighborhood of x .

15.2. Lifts. Almost every result in covering space theory is based on the answer to the following question: given a map $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow X$ and a covering map $p : Y \rightarrow X$, can $\tilde{f}$ be “lifted” to a map $f : A \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $p \circ f = \tilde{f}$? This problem can be summarized with the diagram

$$(15.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & Y \\ & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \downarrow p \\ A & \xrightarrow{f} & X \end{array}$$

in which the maps f and p are given, but the dashed arrow for $\tilde{f}$ indicates that we do not know whether such a map exists. If it does, then we call $\tilde{f}$ a **lift** of f to the cover. It is easy to see that lifts do not always exist: take for instance the cover $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ and let $f : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ be the identity map. A lift $\tilde{f} : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ would need to associate to every $e^{i\theta} \in S^1$ some point $\phi := \tilde{f}(e^{i\theta})$ such that $e^{i\phi} = e^{i\theta}$. It is easy to define a function that does this, but can we make it *continuous*? If it were continuous, then $\tilde{f}(e^{i\theta})$ would have to increase by 2π as $e^{i\theta}$ turns around the circle from $\theta = 0$ to $\theta = 2\pi$, producing *two* values $\tilde{f}(e^{2\pi i}) = \tilde{f}(1) + 2\pi$ even though $e^{2\pi i} = 1$. The goal for the remainder of this lecture is to determine precisely which maps can be lifted to which covering spaces and which cannot.

We start with the following observation: choose base points $a \in A$ and $x \in X$ to make $f : (A, a) \rightarrow (X, x)$ into a pointed map. Then if a lift $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$ exists and we set $y := \tilde{f}(a)$ to

make $\tilde{f}$ a pointed map, p now becomes one as well since $p(y) = p(\tilde{f}(a)) = f(a) = x$, hence (15.1) becomes a diagram of pointed maps and induces a corresponding diagram of group homomorphisms

$$(15.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & \pi_1(Y, y) & \\ \tilde{f}_* \nearrow & \downarrow p_* & \\ \pi_1(A, a) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & \pi_1(X, x). \end{array}$$

The existence of this diagram implies a nontrivial condition that relates the homomorphisms f_* and p_* but has nothing intrinsically to do with the lift: it implies $\text{im } f_* \subset \text{im } p_*$, i.e. these are two subgroups of $\pi_1(X, x)$, and one of them must be contained in the other. The lifting theorem states that under some assumptions that are satisfied by most reasonable spaces, this necessary condition is also sufficient.

THEOREM 15.11 (lifting theorem). *Assume X, Y, A are all path-connected spaces, A is also locally path-connected, $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map and $f : (A, a_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is a base-point preserving map. Then for any choice of base point $y_0 \in f^{-1}(x_0) \subset Y$, f admits a base-point preserving lift $\tilde{f} : (A, a_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ if and only if*

$$f_*(\pi_1(A, a_0)) \subset p_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)),$$

and the point $y_0 = \tilde{f}(a_0)$ uniquely determines the lift $\tilde{f}$.

Let us discuss some applications before we get to the proof.

COROLLARY 15.12. *For any covering map $p : Y \rightarrow X$ between path-connected spaces and any space A that is simply connected and locally path-connected, every map $f : A \rightarrow X$ can be lifted to Y .* $\square$

COROLLARY 15.13. *For every base-point preserving covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ between path-connected spaces, the homomorphism $p_* : \pi_1(Y, y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is injective.*

PROOF. Suppose $\tilde{\gamma} : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is a loop such that $p_*[\tilde{\gamma}] = e \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Then $\gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma} : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ admits an extension $u : (\mathbb{D}^2, 1) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ with $u|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \gamma$. But $\mathbb{D}^2$ is simply connected, so u admits a lift $\tilde{u} : (\mathbb{D}^2, 1) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ satisfying $p \circ \tilde{u} = u$, thus $p \circ \tilde{u}|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \gamma$ implies that $\tilde{u}|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} : (S^1, 1) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is a lift of γ . Uniqueness of lifts then implies $\tilde{u}|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2} = \tilde{\gamma}$ and thus $[\tilde{\gamma}] = e \in \pi_1(Y, y_0)$. $\square$

COROLLARY 15.14. *If X is simply connected, then every path-connected covering space of X is also simply connected.* $\square$

EXAMPLE 15.15. Corollary 15.14 implies that there does not exist any covering map $S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Here is an application important in complex analysis. Observe that

$$p : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^* := \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} : z \mapsto e^z$$

is a covering map. Writing $p(x + iy) = e^x e^{iy}$, we can picture p as a transformation from Cartesian to polar coordinates: it maps every horizontal line $\{\text{Im } z = \text{const}\}$ to a ray in $\mathbb{C}^*$ emanating from the origin, and every vertical line $\{\text{Re } z = \text{const}\}$ to a circle in $\mathbb{C}^*$, which it covers infinitely many times. This shows that p is not bijective, so it has no global inverse, but it will admit inverses if we restrict it to suitably small domains, and it is useful to know what domains will generally suffice for this. In other words, we would like to know which open subsets $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{C}^*$ can be the domain of a continuous function

$$\log : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \quad \text{such that} \quad e^{\log z} = z \text{ for all } z \in \mathcal{U}.$$

For simplicity, we will restrict our attention to path-connected²¹ domains and also assume $1 \in \mathcal{U}$, so that we can adopt the convention $\log(1) := 0$. Defining $f : (\mathcal{U}, 1) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{C}^*, 1)$ as the inclusion, the desired function $\log : (\mathcal{U}, 1) \rightarrow (\mathbb{C}, 0)$ will then be the unique solution to the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & (\mathbb{C}, 0) & \\ \log \nearrow & \downarrow p & \\ (\mathcal{U}, 1) & \xrightarrow{f} & (\mathbb{C}^*, 1) \end{array}$$

Theorem 15.11 now gives the answer: $\log : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ exists if and only if $f_*(\pi_1(\mathcal{U}, 1)) \subset p_*(\pi_1(\mathbb{C}, 0)) = 0$, or in other words, if every loop in $\mathcal{U}$ can be extended to a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*$. Using the notion of the *winding number* from Exercise 10.5, this is the same as saying every loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ satisfies $\text{wind}(\gamma; 0) = 0$. For example, $\log : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ can be defined whenever $\mathcal{U}$ is simply connected, or if $\mathcal{U}$ has the shape of an annulus whose outer circle does not enclose the origin. Examples that do not work include any annulus whose inner circle encloses the origin: this will always contain a loop that winds nontrivially around the origin, so that trying to define $\log$ along this loop produces a function that shifts by $2\pi i$ as one rotates fully around the loop. Notice that when $\log : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ exists, it is uniquely determined by the condition $\log(1) = 0$; without this one could equally well modify any given definition of $\log$ by adding integer multiples of $2\pi i$.

The proof of the lifting theorem requires two lemmas that are also special cases of the theorem. We assume for the remainder of this lecture that $(Y, y_0) \xrightarrow{p} (X, x_0)$ is a covering map and X , Y and A are all path-connected.

LEMMA 15.16 (the path lifting property). *Every path $\gamma : (I, 0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ has a unique lift $\tilde{\gamma} : (I, 0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$.*

PROOF. Since I is compact, we can find a finite partition $0 =: t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{N-1} < t_N := 1$ such that for each $j = 1, \dots, N$, the image of $\gamma_j := \gamma|_{[t_{j-1}, t_j]}$ lies in an evenly covered open subset $\mathcal{U}_j \subset X$ with $p^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_j) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{V}_\alpha$. Now given any $y \in p^{-1}(\gamma(t_{j-1}))$, we have $y \in \mathcal{V}_\alpha$ for a unique $\alpha \in J$, and γ_j has a unique lift $\tilde{\gamma}_j : [t_{j-1}, t_j] \rightarrow Y$ with $\tilde{\gamma}_j(t_{j-1}) = y$, defined by

$$\tilde{\gamma}_j = (p|_{\mathcal{V}_\alpha})^{-1} \circ \gamma_j.$$

With this understood, the unique lift $\tilde{\gamma}$ of γ with $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = y_0$ can be constructed by lifting $\tilde{\gamma}_1$ as explained above, then lifting $\tilde{\gamma}_2$ with starting point $\tilde{\gamma}_2(t_1) := \tilde{\gamma}_1(t_1)$, and continuing in this way to cover the entire interval. $\square$

LEMMA 15.17 (the homotopy lifting property). *Suppose $H : I \times A \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy with $H(0, \cdot) = f : A \rightarrow X$, and $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$ is a lift of f . Then there exists a unique lift $\tilde{H} : I \times A \rightarrow Y$ of H satisfying $\tilde{H}(0, \cdot) = \tilde{f}$.*

PROOF. The previous lemma implies that each of the paths $s \mapsto H(s, a) \in X$ for $a \in A$ have unique lifts $s \mapsto \tilde{H}(s, a) \in Y$ with $\tilde{H}(0, a) = \tilde{f}(a)$. One should then check that the map $\tilde{H} : I \times A \rightarrow Y$ defined in this way is continuous; I leave this as an exercise. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 15.11. We shall first define an appropriate map $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$ and then show that the definition is independent of choices. Its uniqueness will be immediately clear, but its continuity will not be: in the final step we will use the hypothesis that A is locally path-connected in showing that $\tilde{f}$ is continuous.

²¹Since $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{C}^*$ is open, it is locally path-connected, thus it will automatically be path-connected if it is connected.

Given $a \in A$, choose a path $a_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} a$, giving a path $x_0 \xrightarrow{f \circ \alpha} f(a)$, which lifts via Lemma 15.16 to a unique path $\widetilde{f \circ \alpha}$ in Y that starts at y_0 . If a lift $\tilde{f}$ exists, it clearly must satisfy

$$\tilde{f}(a) = \widetilde{f \circ \alpha}(1).$$

We claim that this point in Y does not depend on the choice of the path α , and thus gives a well-defined (though not necessarily continuous) map $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$. Indeed, suppose $a_0 \xrightarrow{\beta} a$ is another path. Then $\alpha \cdot \beta^{-1}$ is a loop based at a_0 and thus represents an element of $\pi_1(A, a_0)$, and $f_*[\alpha \cdot \beta^{-1}] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is represented by the loop $(f \circ \alpha) \cdot (f \circ \beta^{-1})$. The hypothesis $\text{im } f_* \subset \text{im } p_*$ then implies the existence of a loop $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\gamma}} y_0$ in Y such that

$$[(f \circ \alpha) \cdot (f \circ \beta^{-1})] = p_*[\tilde{\gamma}] = [p \circ \tilde{\gamma}],$$

so there is a homotopy $H : I^2 \rightarrow X$ with $H(0, \cdot) = \gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$, $H(1, \cdot) = (f \circ \alpha) \cdot (f \circ \beta^{-1})$, and $H(s, 0) = H(s, 1) = x_0$ for all $s \in I$. Notice that $\tilde{\gamma}$ is a lift of $\gamma : (I, 0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$. Now Lemma 15.17 provides a lift $\tilde{H} : I^2 \rightarrow Y$ of H with $\tilde{H}(0, \cdot) = \tilde{\gamma}$. In this homotopy, the paths $s \mapsto \tilde{H}(s, 0)$ and $s \mapsto \tilde{H}(s, 1)$ are lifts of the constant path $H(\cdot, 0) = H(\cdot, 1) \equiv x_0$ starting at $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = \tilde{\gamma}(1) = y_0$, so the uniqueness in Lemma 15.16 implies that both are also constant paths, hence $\tilde{H}(s, 0) = \tilde{H}(s, 1) = y_0$ for all $s \in I$. This shows that the unique lift of $(f \circ \alpha) \cdot (f \circ \beta^{-1})$ to a path in Y starting at y_0 is actually a loop, i.e. its end point is also y_0 : indeed, this lift is $\tilde{H}(1, \cdot)$. This lift is necessarily the concatenation of the lift $\widetilde{f \circ \alpha}$ of $f \circ \alpha$ starting at y_0 with the lift of $f \circ \beta^{-1}$ starting at $\widetilde{f \circ \alpha}(1)$. Since it ends at y_0 , we conclude that this second lift is simply the inverse of $\widetilde{f \circ \beta}$, implying that

$$\widetilde{f \circ \alpha}(1) = \widetilde{f \circ \beta}(1),$$

which proves the claim.

It remains to show that $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$ as defined by the above procedure is continuous. Given $a \in A$ with $x = f(a) \in X$ and $y = \tilde{f}(a) \in Y$, choose any neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset Y$ of y that is small enough for $\mathcal{U} := p(\mathcal{V}) \subset X$ to be an evenly covered neighborhood of x , with $p|_{\mathcal{V}} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ a homeomorphism. It will suffice to show that a has a neighborhood $\mathcal{O} \subset A$ with $\tilde{f}(\mathcal{O}) \subset \mathcal{V}$. Since A is locally path-connected, we can choose $\mathcal{O} \subset f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ to be a path-connected neighborhood of a , fix a path $a_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma} a$ in A and, for any $a' \in \mathcal{O}$, choose a path $a \xrightarrow{\beta} a'$ in $\mathcal{O}$. Now $\gamma \cdot \beta$ is a path from a_0 to a' , so

$$\tilde{f}(a) = \widetilde{f \circ \gamma}(1) = y \in \mathcal{V} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}(a') = \widetilde{f \circ \gamma \cdot \beta}(1),$$

where $\widetilde{f \circ \beta}$ is the unique lift of $f \circ \beta$ starting at y . Since $f \circ \beta$ lies entirely in the evenly covered neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$, this second lift is simply $(p|_{\mathcal{V}})^{-1} \circ (f \circ \beta)$, which lies entirely in $\mathcal{V}$, proving $\tilde{f}(a') \in \mathcal{V}$. $\square$

EXAMPLE 15.18. If the local path-connectedness assumption on A is dropped, then the proof above gives a procedure for defining a unique lift $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow Y$, but it may fail to be continuous. A concrete example is depicted in Figure 11, a space colloquially known as the *Warsaw circle*. The idea is to define A as a space that mostly consists of the usual circle $S^1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, but replace a portion just to the right of the top point $(0, 1)$ with a curve resembling the graph of the function $y = \sin(1/x) + 1$. The point $(0, 1)$ is included in A , along with every point of the usual circle just to the left of it, but on the right, A consists of an infinitely long curve that is compressed into a compact space and has accumulation points along an interval but no well-defined limit. This space is path-connected, because one can start from $(0, 1)$ and go around the circle to reach any other point, including any point on the infinitely long compressed sine curve; it is also simply connected, due to the fact that continuous paths along the compressed sine curve can never actually reach the end of it, but must instead go back the other way around the circle before they can reach $(0, 1)$.

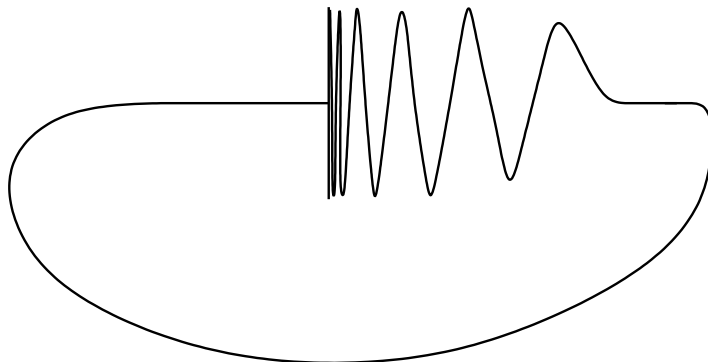


FIGURE 11. The Warsaw circle is simply connected but not locally path connected, and it admits a map to S^1 that cannot be lifted with respect to the usual covering map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$.

But A is not locally path-connected, because sufficiently small neighborhoods of $(0, 1)$ in A always contain many disjoint segments of the compressed sine curve and thus cannot be path-connected. Now consider the covering map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ and a continuous map $f : A \rightarrow S^1$ defined as the identity on most of A , but projecting the graph of $y = \sin(1/x) + 1$ to the circle in the obvious way near $(0, 1)$. One can define a lift $\tilde{f} : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by choosing $\tilde{f}(0, 1)$ to be any point in $p^{-1}(f(0, 1))$ and then lifting paths to define $\tilde{f}$ everywhere else. But since every neighborhood of $(0, 1)$ contains some points that cannot be reached except by paths rotating almost all the way around the circle, this neighborhood will contain points $a \in A$ for which $\tilde{f}(a)$ differs from $\tilde{f}(0, 1)$ by nearly 2π . In particular, $\tilde{f}$ cannot be continuous at $(0, 1)$.

15.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 15.1 (*). Prove each of the following, assuming $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map with X and Y both path-connected.

- If $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is evenly covered, then so is every subset of $\mathcal{U}$.
- The map $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is open, i.e. it sends open subsets of Y to open subsets of X .
- For every $x \in X$, $f^{-1}(x)$ is a discrete subset of Y .²²
- If Y is compact, then X is also compact and $\deg(p) < \infty$.
- The map $p : Y \rightarrow X$ has $\deg(p) < \infty$ if and only if for every compact subset $K \subset X$, $p^{-1}(K) \subset Y$ is also compact.²³
Hint: Given a compact set $K \subset X$ and an open covering $f^{-1}(K) \subset \bigcup_{\alpha} \mathcal{U}_{\alpha}$, find a finite covering of $f^{-1}(K)$ by open sets such that each is contained in some $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha}$. This suffices to for showing that $f^{-1}(K)$ is compact. (Why?) Start by showing that K can be covered by a finite collection of open neighborhoods which are evenly covered and small enough so that their (finitely many!) lifts to Y are each contained in some $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha}$.
- Deduce from the above that the converse of part (d) also holds: if $\deg(p) < \infty$ and X is compact, then Y is also compact.

²²We say that a subset A in a space X is *discrete* if the subspace topology induced by X on A is the same as the discrete topology.

²³Maps having the property that preimages of compact sets are compact are often called **proper maps** (*eigentliche Abbildungen*), though strictly speaking, this is not quite the right definition of properness unless the spaces involved are assumed to be second countable and Hausdorff.

EXERCISE 15.2. Assume $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map and X is path-connected.

- (a) Show that for any two points $x, y \in X$, lifting paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ determines a bijection $\rho_\gamma : p^{-1}(x) \rightarrow p^{-1}(y)$ that depends only on the homotopy class of the path γ (with fixed end points).
- (b) Writing $J := p^{-1}(x)$ and applying part (a) in the case $x = y$ gives a map $\rho : \pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow S(J)$ sending $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$ to ρ_γ , where $S(J)$ is the group of all bijections $J \rightarrow J$.²⁴ Show that this map is a group anti-homomorphism, i.e. it satisfies $\rho_{\alpha \cdot \beta} = \rho_\beta \circ \rho_\alpha$ for all $[\alpha], [\beta] \in \pi_1(X, x)$.
- (c) Write down the map $\rho : \pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow S(J)$ explicitly for the space $(X, x) = (\mathbb{C}^* := \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}, 1)$ with covering map $p : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^* : z \mapsto e^z$.

16. Classification of covers

16.1. Maps of covers. Throughout this lecture, all spaces should be assumed path-connected and locally path-connected unless otherwise noted. We will occasionally need a slightly stronger condition, which we will abbreviate with the word “reasonable”:²⁵

DEFINITION 16.1. We will say that a space X is **reasonable** if it is path-connected and locally path-connected, and every point $x \in X$ has a simply connected neighborhood.

For the purposes of the theorems in this lecture, the definition of the term “reasonable” can be weakened somewhat at the expense of making it more complicated, but we will stick with the above definition since it is satisfied by almost all spaces we would ever like to consider. A popular example of an “unreasonable” space is the so-called *Hawaiian earring*, see Exercise 12.3(c).

We will state several theorems in this lecture related to the problem of classifying covers of a given space. All of them are in some way applications of the lifting theorem (Theorem 15.11). Before stating them, we need to establish what it means for two covers of the same space to be “equivalent”.

DEFINITION 16.2. Given two covers $p_i : Y_i \rightarrow X$ for $i = 1, 2$, a **map of covers** from p_1 to p_2 is a map $f : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ such that $p_2 \circ f = p_1$, i.e. the following diagram commutes:

$$(16.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} Y_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & Y_2 \\ & \searrow p_1 & \swarrow p_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

Additionally, we call f an **isomorphism of covers** if there also exists a map of covers from p_2 to p_1 that inverts f ; this is true if and only if the map $f : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ is a homeomorphism, since its inverse $f^{-1} : Y_2 \rightarrow Y_1$ is then automatically a map of covers from p_2 to p_1 . If such an isomorphism exists, we say that the two covers p_1 and p_2 are **isomorphic** (or **equivalent**). If base points $x \in X$ and $y_i \in Y_i$ are specified such that $p_i : (Y_i, y_i) \rightarrow (X, x)$ and $f : (Y_1, y_1) \rightarrow (Y_2, y_2)$ are also pointed maps, then we call f an **isomorphism of pointed covers**. In the case where p_1 and p_2 are both the same cover $p : Y \rightarrow X$, an isomorphism of covers from p to itself is called a **deck transformation**²⁶ (*Decktransformation*) of $p : Y \rightarrow X$.

²⁴Notice that if J is a set of n elements, $S(J)$ is isomorphic to the *symmetric group* S_n .

²⁵This is not a universally standard term.

²⁶This terminology gives you a hint that some portion of this subject was developed by German mathematicians in the time before English was fully established as an international language. I don't happen to know who invented the term.

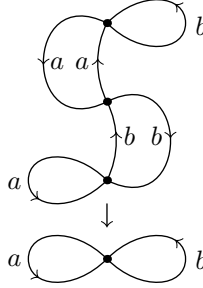


FIGURE 12. A 3-fold cover of $S^1 \vee S^1$ with trivial automorphism group.

The terms **covering translation** and **automorphism** are also sometimes used as synonyms for “deck transformation”. The set of all deck transformations of a given cover $p : Y \rightarrow X$ forms a group, called the **automorphism group**

$$\text{Aut}(p) := \{f : Y \rightarrow Y \mid f \text{ is a homeomorphism such that } p \circ f = p\},$$

where the group operation is defined by composition of maps.

EXAMPLE 16.3. For the cover $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$, $\text{Aut}(p)$ consists of all maps $f_k : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of the form $f_k(\theta) = \theta + 2\pi k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, so in particular, $\text{Aut}(p)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$.

EXAMPLE 16.4. Figure 12 illustrates a covering map $p : Y \rightarrow S^1 \vee S^1$ of degree 3. If we label the base point of $S^1 \vee S^1$ as x , then the three elements of $p^{-1}(x) \subset Y$ are the three dots in the top portion of the diagram: label them y_1, y_2 and y_3 from bottom to top. The covering map is defined such that each loop or path beginning and ending at any of the points y_1, y_2, y_3 is sent to the loop in $S^1 \vee S^1$ labeled by the same letter with the orientations of the arrows matching. Suppose $f : Y \rightarrow Y$ is a deck transformation satisfying $f(y_1) = y_2$. Then since f is a homeomorphism, it must map the loop labeled a based at y_1 to a loop based at y_2 that also must be labeled a . But no such loop exists, so we conclude that there is no deck transformation sending y_1 to y_2 . By similar arguments, it is not hard to show that the only deck transformation of this cover is the identity map, in other words, $\text{Aut}(p)$ is the trivial group.

16.2. The Galois correspondence. Almost everything we will be able to prove about maps of covers is based on the following observation: if the diagram (16.1) commutes, it means that $f : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ is a *lift* of the map $p_1 : Y_1 \rightarrow X$ to the cover Y_2 , i.e. in our previous notation for lifts, $f = \tilde{p}_1$. The fact that p_1 itself is a covering map is irrelevant for this observation. Now if all the spaces involved are path-connected and locally path-connected, the lifting theorem gives us a condition characterizing the existence and uniqueness of a map of covers: for any choices of base points $x \in X$, $y_1 \in p_1^{-1}(x) \subset Y_1$ and $y_2 \in p_2^{-1}(x) \subset Y_2$, a map of covers $f : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ satisfying $f(y_1) = y_2$ exists (and is unique) if and only if

$$(p_1)_* \pi_1(Y_1, y_1) \subset (p_2)_* \pi_1(Y_2, y_2).$$

This map will then be an isomorphism if and only if there exists a map of covers going the other direction, and the latter exists if and only if the reverse inclusion holds. This proves:

THEOREM 16.5. *Two covers $p_i : Y_i \rightarrow X$ for $i = 1, 2$ are isomorphic if and only if for some choice of base points $x \in X$ and $y_i \in p_i^{-1}(x) \subset Y_i$ for $i = 1, 2$, the subgroups $(p_1)_* \pi_1(Y_1, y_1)$ and $(p_2)_* \pi_1(Y_2, y_2)$ in $\pi_1(X, x)$ are identical.* $\square$

Next we use the same perspective to study deck transformations of a single cover $p : Y \rightarrow X$. Given $x \in X$ and $y_1, y_2 \in p^{-1}(x) \subset Y$, the uniqueness of lifts implies that there exists at most

one deck transformation $f : Y \rightarrow Y$ sending y_1 to y_2 . We've seen in Example 16.4 that this transformation might not always exist.

DEFINITION 16.6. A cover $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is called **regular** (or equivalently **normal**) if for every $x \in X$ and all $y_1, y_2 \in p^{-1}(x) \subset Y$, there exists a deck transformation sending y_1 to y_2 .

The following result says that in order to check whether a cover of a path-connected space is regular, it suffices to choose a base point $x \in X$ and investigate whether deck transformations can be used to relate arbitrary points in the preimage of *that particular point*. The proof is an easy application of the path lifting property (Lemma 15.16); see Exercise 16.1.

PROPOSITION 16.7. *Show that if $p : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map and X is path-connected, then p is also regular if the following slightly weaker condition holds: for some fixed $x \in X$, any two elements $y_1, y_2 \in p^{-1}(x) \subset Y$ satisfy $y_2 = f(y_1)$ for some deck transformation $f \in \text{Aut}(p)$. $\square$*

If $\deg(p) < \infty$, the previous remarks about uniqueness of deck transformations imply $|\text{Aut}(p)| \leq \deg(p)$, and equality is satisfied if and only if p is regular. By the lifting theorem, the desired deck transformation sending y_1 to y_2 will exist if and only if

$$(16.2) \quad p_*\pi_1(Y, y_1) = p_*\pi_1(Y, y_2).$$

Let us try to translate this into a condition for recognizing when p is regular. Recall that any path $y_1 \xrightarrow{\sim} y_2$ in Y determines an isomorphism

$$\Phi_{\tilde{\gamma}} : \pi_1(Y, y_2) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_1) : [\alpha] \mapsto [\tilde{\gamma} \cdot \alpha \cdot \tilde{\gamma}^{-1}].$$

Since y_1 and y_2 are both in $p^{-1}(x)$, the projection of this concatenation down to X gives a concatenation of *loops*, i.e. $\gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$ is a loop $x \rightsquigarrow x$ and thus represents an element $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$. Now in order to check whether (16.2) holds, we can represent an arbitrary element of $\pi_1(Y, y_1)$ as $\Phi_{\tilde{\gamma}}[\alpha]$ for some loop $y_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha} y_2$, and then observe

$$p_*\Phi_{\tilde{\gamma}}[\alpha] = [p \circ (\tilde{\gamma} \cdot \alpha \cdot \tilde{\gamma}^{-1})] = [\gamma \cdot (p \circ \alpha) \cdot \gamma^{-1}] = [\gamma]p_*[\alpha][\gamma]^{-1}.$$

This proves that the subgroup $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_1) \subset \pi_1(X, x)$ is the conjugate of $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_2) \subset \pi_1(X, x)$ by the specific element $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$, so the desired deck transformation exists if and only if $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_2)$ is invariant under conjugation with $[\gamma]$. We could now ask the same question about deck transformations sending y_i to y_2 for arbitrary $y_i \in p^{-1}(x)$, and the answer in each case can be expressed in terms of conjugation of $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_2)$ by some element $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$ for which the loop γ lifts to a path $y_i \xrightarrow{\sim} y_2$. Now observe: *any* loop $x \rightsquigarrow x$ can arise in this way for some choice of $y_i \in p^{-1}(x)$. Indeed, if γ is given, then γ^{-1} has a unique lift to a path from y_2 to some other point in $p^{-1}(x)$, and the inverse of this path is then a lift of γ . Using Exercise 16.1 above, the question of regularity therefore reduces to the question of whether $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_2)$ is invariant under arbitrary conjugations, and we have thus proved:

THEOREM 16.8. *If Y and X are path-connected and locally path-connected, then a cover $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is regular if and only if the subgroup $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) \subset \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is normal. $\square$*

Notice that while the algebraic condition in this theorem appears to depend on a choice of base points, the condition of p being regular clearly does not. It follows that if $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) \subset \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is a normal subgroup, then this condition will remain true for any other choice of base points $x \in X$ and $y \in p^{-1}(x) \subset Y$.

The next two results require the restriction to “reasonable” spaces in the sense of Definition 16.1.

THEOREM 16.9 (the Galois correspondence). *If X is a reasonable space with base point $x_0 \in X$, there is a natural bijection from the set of all isomorphism classes of pointed covers $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ to the set of all subgroups of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$: it is defined by*

$$[p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)] \mapsto p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0).$$

It is easy to verify from the definition of isomorphism for covers that the map in this theorem is well defined, and we proved in Theorem 16.5 that it is injective. Surjectivity will be a consequence of the following result, which will be proved in the next lecture.

THEOREM 16.10. *Every reasonable space admits a simply connected covering space.*

Notice that if $p_i : (Y_i, y_i) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ for $i = 1, 2$ are two reasonable covers satisfying $\pi_1(Y_1) = \pi_1(Y_2) = 0$, then Theorem 16.5 implies that they are isomorphic covers. For this reason it is conventional to abuse terminology slightly by referring to any simply connected cover of a given space X as “the” **universal cover** (*universelle Überlagerung*) of X . It is often denoted by $\tilde{X}$.

EXAMPLES 16.11. The universal cover $\tilde{S}^1$ of S^1 is $\mathbb{R}$, due to the covering map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$. Similarly, $\mathbb{RP}^n \cong S^n$ for $n \geq 2$, and $\mathbb{T}^n \cong \mathbb{R}^n$.

A substantially less obvious class of examples is given by the surfaces Σ_g of genus $g \geq 2$: these have universal cover $\tilde{\Sigma}_g \cong \mathbb{R}^2$. It would take us too far afield to explain why, but one standard way of constructing this cover comes from hyperbolic geometry, where instead of $\mathbb{R}^2$ we consider the open disk $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2$ with a Riemannian metric that has constant negative curvature. One can identify each of the surfaces Σ_g with the quotient of $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2$ by a suitable group of isometries and then define a covering map $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \rightarrow \Sigma_g$ as the quotient projection.

For the remainder of this lecture, fix a base-point preserving covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ where X and Y are assumed reasonable, and denote

$$G := \pi_1(X, x_0), \quad H := p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) \subset G.$$

If H is not a normal subgroup, then there is no natural notion of a quotient group G/H , but we can still define G/H as the *set* of left cosets

$$G/H = \{gH \subset G \mid g \in G\},$$

where gH denotes the subset $\{gh \mid h \in H\} \subset G$. One can similarly consider the set of right cosets

$$H \backslash G = \{Hg \subset G \mid g \in G\}.$$

These two sets are identical if and only if H is normal, in which case both are denoted by G/H and they form a group. With or without this condition, G/H and $H \backslash G$ have the same number (finite or infinite) of elements, which is called the **index** of H in G and denoted by

$$[G : H] := |G/H| = |H \backslash G|.$$

In the following we will make repeated use of the fact that for any $y \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, any path $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\gamma}} y$ gives rise to a loop $\gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$ based at x_0 , and conversely, any such loop gives rise to a path that starts at y_0 and ends at some point in $p^{-1}(x_0)$.

LEMMA 16.12. *There is a natural bijection*

$$\Phi : p^{-1}(x_0) \rightarrow H \backslash G : y \mapsto H[\gamma],$$

where $x_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma} x_0$ is any loop that lifts to a path $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\gamma}} y$.

COROLLARY 16.13. $\deg(p) = [G : H]$. $\square$

PROOF OF LEMMA 16.12. We first show that Φ is well defined. Given two choices of paths $\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}$ from y_0 to y , we have loops $\alpha := p \circ \tilde{\alpha}$ and $\beta := p \circ \tilde{\beta}$ based at x_0 , and $\tilde{\alpha} \cdot \tilde{\beta}^{-1}$ is a loop based at y_0 . We therefore have

$$[\alpha][\beta]^{-1} = [p \circ (\tilde{\alpha} \cdot \tilde{\beta}^{-1})] = p_*[\tilde{\alpha} \cdot \tilde{\beta}^{-1}] \in H,$$

implying $H[\alpha] = H[\beta]$.

The surjectivity of Φ is obvious: given $[\gamma] \in G$, there exists a lift $\tilde{\gamma}$ of γ to a path from y_0 to some point $y \in p^{-1}(x_0)$, so $\Phi(y) = H[\gamma]$.

To see that Φ is injective, suppose $\Phi(y) = \Phi(y')$, choose paths $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} y$ and $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\beta}} y'$, giving rise to loops $\alpha := p \circ \tilde{\alpha}$ and $\beta := p \circ \tilde{\beta}$ based at x_0 such that

$$H[\alpha] = \Phi(y) = \Phi(y') = H[\beta],$$

thus $[\alpha][\beta]^{-1} \in H$. It follows that there exists a loop $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\gamma}} y_0$ projecting to $\gamma := p \circ \tilde{\gamma}$ such that $[\alpha \cdot \beta^{-1}] = [\gamma]$, hence $[\alpha] = [\gamma] \cdot [\beta]$, so α is homotopic to $\gamma \cdot \beta$ with fixed end points. Since γ lifts to a loop $\tilde{\gamma}$ and homotopies can also be lifted, we conclude that $\tilde{\alpha}$ is homotopic to $\tilde{\gamma} \cdot \tilde{\beta}$ with fixed end points, implying $y = \tilde{\alpha}(1) = \tilde{\gamma}(1) = \tilde{\beta}(1) = y'$. $\square$

If the cover is regular so $H \subset G$ is normal, then $\deg(p) = |\text{Aut}(p)|$, and Corollary 16.13 therefore implies that $\text{Aut}(p)$ has the same order as the quotient group G/H . The next result should then seem relatively unsurprising.

THEOREM 16.14. *For a regular cover $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ of reasonable spaces with $\pi_1(X, x_0) = G$ and $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) = H \subset G$, there exists a group isomorphism*

$$\Psi : \text{Aut}(p) \rightarrow G/H : f \mapsto [\gamma]H,$$

where $x_0 \xrightarrow{\gamma} x_0$ is any loop that has a lift to a path from y_0 to $f(y_0)$.

Notice that the universal cover $p : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is automatically regular since the trivial subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is always normal, so applying this theorem to the universal cover gives:

COROLLARY 16.15. *For the universal cover $p : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, there is an isomorphism $\text{Aut}(p) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ sending each deck transformation f to the homotopy class of any loop $x_0 \rightsquigarrow x_0$ that lifts to a path $\tilde{x}_0 \rightsquigarrow f(\tilde{x}_0)$.* $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 16.14. Regularity implies that the map $\text{Aut}(p) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0) : f \mapsto f(y_0)$ is bijective, so Ψ is then well defined and bijective due to Lemma 16.12. For the identity element $\text{Id} \in \text{Aut}(p)$, we have $\Psi(\text{Id}) = [\gamma]H$ for any loop γ that lifts to a loop from y_0 to $\text{Id}(y_0) = y_0$, which means $[\gamma] \in H$, so $[\gamma]H$ is the identity element in G/H .

It remains to show that $\Psi(f \circ g) = \Psi(f)\Psi(g)$ for any two deck transformations $f, g \in \text{Aut}(p)$. Choose loops α, β based at x_0 which lift to paths $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha}} f(y_0)$ and $y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\beta}} g(y_0)$. Then $f \circ \tilde{\beta}$ is a path from $f(y_0)$ to $f \circ g(y_0)$ and can thus be concatenated with $\tilde{\alpha}$, forming a path

$$y_0 \xrightarrow{\tilde{\alpha} \cdot (f \circ \tilde{\beta})} f \circ g(y_0).$$

Now since $f \in \text{Aut}(p)$, $p \circ f = p$ implies $p \circ (f \circ \tilde{\beta}) = p \circ \tilde{\beta} = \beta$, thus

$$\Psi(f \circ g) = [p \circ (\tilde{\alpha} \cdot (f \circ \tilde{\beta}))] = [\alpha][\beta] = \Psi(f)\Psi(g).$$

$\square$

Corollary 16.15 says that we can compute the fundamental group of any reasonable space X if we can understand the deck transformations of its universal cover. Combining this with the natural bijection $\text{Aut}(p) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0)$ that sends each deck transformation to its image on the base point, we also obtain from this an intuitively appealing interpretation of the meaning of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$: every loop γ based at x_0 lifts uniquely to a path starting at $\tilde{x}_0$ and ending at some point in $p^{-1}(x_0)$. As far as $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is concerned, all that matters is the end point of the lift: two loops are equivalent in $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ if and only if their lifts to $\tilde{X}$ have the same end point, and a loop is trivial in $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ if and only if its lift to $\tilde{X}$ is also a loop.

EXAMPLE 16.16. Applying Corollary 16.15 to the cover $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 : \theta \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ reproduces the isomorphism $\pi_1(S^1, 1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ we discussed at the end of Lecture 9. The loop $\gamma_k(t) := e^{2\pi i k t}$ in S^1 for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ lifts to $\mathbb{R}$ with base point 0 as the path $\tilde{\gamma}_k(t) = 2\pi k t$.

EXAMPLE 16.17. For each $n \geq 2$, Corollary 16.15 implies $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, as this is the automorphism group of the universal cover $p : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$, defined as the natural quotient projection. Concretely, after fixing base points $x_0 \in \mathbb{RP}^n$ and $y_0 \in p^{-1}(x_0) \subset S^n$, each loop in $\mathbb{RP}^n$ based at x_0 lifts to S^n as a path that starts at y_0 and ends at either y_0 or its antipodal point $-y_0$. The nontrivial element of $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n, x_0)$ is thus represented by any loop whose lift to S^n starts and ends at antipodal points.

16.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 16.1. Prove Proposition 16.7 on conditions sufficient for a covering map to be regular.

EXERCISE 16.2. For safety's sake, you may as well assume that all spaces appearing in this exercise are “reasonable” in the sense of Definition 16.1.

- (a) Show that every covering map of degree 2 is regular.

Hint: There is an algebraic way to solve this problem, but a more direct approach is also possible.

- (b) Prove that every covering map of the torus $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$ is regular.

- (c) Find all subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}^2$ with index 2.

Hint: Every subgroup $H \subset \mathbb{Z}^2$ is normal since $\mathbb{Z}^2$ is abelian, and H then has index 2 if and only if the quotient $\mathbb{Z}^2/H$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$. Consider the images of the two generators $e_1 := (1, 0)$ and $e_2 := (0, 1)$ of $\mathbb{Z}^2$ under the quotient homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^2/H$. Show that there are exactly three possibilities, depending on whether each of e_1 or e_2 represents the trivial or nontrivial element in the quotient.

- (d) Deduce from part (c) that up to isomorphism of covers, $\mathbb{T}^2$ admits exactly three distinct covering maps with degree 2, and write them down explicitly.

Hint: You may have to take an educated guess as to what the covering spaces should be, but notice that part (c) tells you what their fundamental groups are.

EXERCISE 16.3.

Convince yourself that the maps depicted in Figure 13 are covers, and determine their deck transformation groups. Which ones are regular?

17. The universal cover and group actions

17.1. Computing the automorphism group of a cover. In Theorem 16.14, we saw a formula that can be used to compute the automorphism group of any regular cover as a quotient of two fundamental groups. I want to mention how this generalizes for non-regular covers, though

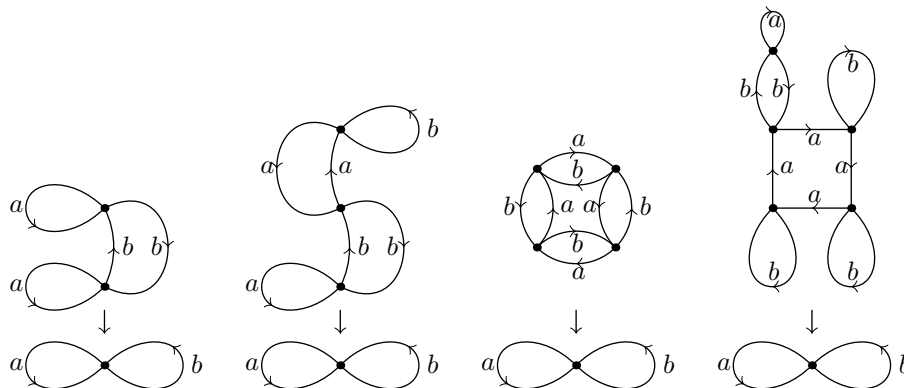


FIGURE 13. The covering maps in Exercise 16.3.

I will leave most of the details as an exercise. One way to approach the problem is as follows: any pointed covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ of reasonable spaces can be fit into a diagram

$$(17.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} (Z, z_0) & \xrightarrow{q} & (Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{p} & (X, x_0), \\ & & \searrow P & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

in which q and P are also pointed covering maps and are both *regular*. For example, if you already believe that every reasonable space has a universal cover (and we shall prove this below), then we can always take $q : Z \rightarrow Y$ to be the universal cover of Y , which makes $P : Z \rightarrow X$ the universal cover of X since $\pi_1(Z) = 0$, and universal covers are always regular because the trivial subgroup is always normal. In this case, Corollary 16.15 gives us natural isomorphisms $\text{Aut}(P) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0)$ and $\text{Aut}(q) \cong \pi_1(Y, y_0)$. One can derive from Exercise 17.1 the following result:

THEOREM 17.1. *For any covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ of reasonable spaces with $\pi_1(X, x_0) = G$ and $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) = H \subset G$, there is a natural isomorphism*

$$\text{Aut}(p) \cong N(H)/H,$$

where the **normalizer** (Normalisator) $N(H) \subset G$ of the subgroup H is by definition the largest subgroup of G that contains H as a normal subgroup, i.e.

$$N(H) := \{g \in G \mid gHg^{-1} = H\}.$$

□

Notice that there always exists a subgroup of G in which H is normal, e.g. H itself is such a subgroup, and it may well happen that no larger subgroup satisfies this condition, in which case $N(H) = H$ and $\text{Aut}(p)$ is therefore trivial. If H is normal in G , then $N(H) = G$ and the cover is therefore regular, hence Theorem 17.1 reduces to Theorem 16.14.

17.2. Existence of the universal cover. Moving on from non-regular covers, we have some unfinished business from the previous lecture: it remains to prove the surjectivity of the Galois correspondence (Theorem 16.9), and the existence of the universal cover (Theorem 16.10). The latter is actually a special case of the former: recall from Corollary 15.13 that the homomorphism $p_* : \pi_1(Y, y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ induced by a covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is always injective, thus the existence of a universal cover amounts to the statement that the image of the Galois

correspondence includes the trivial subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$. We will prove this first, and then use it to deduce the Galois correspondence in full generality.

As before, we need to restrict our attention to “reasonable spaces,” meaning spaces that are path-connected and locally path-connected, and in which every point has a simply connected neighborhood. The first two conditions are needed in order to apply the lifting theorem, which we used several times in the previous lecture. The third condition has not yet been used, but this is the moment where we will need it. In constructing a universal cover $p : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, the theorems at the end of the previous lecture give some useful intuition on what to aim for: in particular, there needs to be a one-to-one correspondence between $p^{-1}(x_0) \subset \tilde{X}$ and $\pi_1(X, x_0)$. What we will actually construct is a cover for which these two sets are not just in bijective correspondence but are literally the same set. In set-theoretic terms, the construction is quite straightforward, but giving it a topology that makes it a covering map is a bit subtle—that is where we will need to assume that simply connected neighborhoods exist.

PROOF OF THEOREM 16.10 (THE UNIVERSAL COVER). We will not give every detail but sketch the main idea. Given a reasonable space X with base point $x_0 \in X$, define the set

$$\tilde{X} := \{\text{paths } \gamma : (I, 0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)\} / \sim_{h+},$$

i.e. it is the set of all equivalence classes of paths that start at the base point, with equivalence defined as homotopy with fixed end points. Since this definition does not specify the end point of any path but the equivalence relation leaves these end points unchanged, we obtain a natural map

$$p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X : [\gamma] \mapsto \gamma(1),$$

which is obviously surjective since X is path-connected. Notice that $p^{-1}(x_0) = \pi_1(X, x_0)$.

We claim that $\tilde{X}$ can be assigned a topology that makes $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ into a covering map. To see this, suppose $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is a path-connected subset and $i^{\mathcal{U}} : \mathcal{U} \hookrightarrow X$ denotes its inclusion. For any point $x \in \mathcal{U}$, the induced homomorphism $i_*^{\mathcal{U}} : \pi_1(\mathcal{U}, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial if and only if every loop $S^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ based at x can be extended to a map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$. Notice that this is weaker in general than demanding an extension $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$; the latter would mean that $\mathcal{U}$ is simply connected, but we do not want to assume this. Notice also that if this condition holds for some choice of base point $x \in \mathcal{U}$, then the usual change of base-point arguments imply that it will hold for any other base point $y \in \mathcal{U}$, thus we can sensibly speak of the condition that $i_*^{\mathcal{U}} : \pi_1(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$ is trivial. With this understood, consider the collection of sets

$$\mathcal{B} := \{\mathcal{U} \subset X \mid \mathcal{U} \text{ is open and path-connected and } i_*^{\mathcal{U}} : \pi_1(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow \pi_1(X) \text{ is trivial}\}.$$

It is a straightforward exercise to verify the following properties:

- (1) $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ if and only if for every pair of paths α, β in $\mathcal{U}$ with the same end points, α and β are homotopic in X with fixed end points (cf. Corollary 9.9).
- (2) If $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$ is a path-connected open subset, then $\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{B}$.
- (3) $\mathcal{B}$ is a base for the topology of X .

In particular, the third property holds because X is reasonable: every point $x \in X$ has a simply connected neighborhood, which contains an open neighborhood that necessarily belongs to $\mathcal{B}$, and it follows that every open subset of X is a union of such sets.

Now for any $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ with a point $x \in \mathcal{U}$ and a path γ in X from x_0 to x , let

$$\mathcal{U}_{[\gamma]} := \left\{ [\gamma \cdot \alpha] \in \tilde{X} \mid \alpha \text{ is a path in } \mathcal{U} \text{ starting at } x \right\}.$$

Notice that $\mathcal{U}_{[\gamma]}$ depends only on the homotopy class $[\gamma] \in \tilde{X}$; this relies on the fact that since $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$, the path α in the definition above is uniquely determined up to homotopy in X by its end

point. It follows in fact that $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ restricts to a bijection

$$\mathcal{U}_{[\gamma]} \xrightarrow{p} \mathcal{U}.$$

With all this in mind, one can now show that

$$\tilde{\mathcal{B}} := \left\{ \mathcal{U}_{[\gamma]} \subset \tilde{X} \mid \mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B} \text{ and } [\gamma] \in \tilde{X} \text{ with } \gamma(1) \in \mathcal{U} \right\}$$

is a base for a topology on $\tilde{X}$ such that each $\mathcal{U} \in \mathcal{B}$ is evenly covered by $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$. We leave the details of this as an exercise.

There is an obvious choice of base point in $\tilde{X}$: define $\tilde{x}_0 \in \tilde{X}$ as the homotopy class of the constant path at x_0 . It remains to prove that $\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) = 0$. Since we now know that $p : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is a covering map, Corollary 15.13 implies that $p_* : \pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is injective, thus it will suffice to show that the subgroup $p_*\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ in $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is trivial. This subgroup is the set of homotopy classes $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ for which the loop γ lifts to a loop $\tilde{\gamma}$ based at $\tilde{x}_0$. The lift of γ to $\tilde{X}$ can be written as

$$\tilde{\gamma}(t) = [\gamma_t] \in \tilde{X},$$

where for each $t \in I$ we define

$$\gamma_t(s) := \begin{cases} \gamma(s) & \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq t, \\ \gamma(t) & \text{for } t \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Then assuming $\tilde{\gamma}$ is a loop, we find $\tilde{\gamma}(1) = [\gamma] = \tilde{\gamma}(0) = [\text{const}]$, which is simply the statement that γ is homotopic with fixed end points to a constant loop, hence $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is the trivial element. $\square$

I do not have the energy to draw the picture myself, but I highly recommend looking at the picture of the universal cover of $S^1 \vee S^1$ on page 59 of [Hat02]. The idea here is that for every homotopically nontrivial loop in $S^1 \vee S^1$, one obtains a non-closed path in the universal cover $\tilde{X}$. One can thus construct $\tilde{X}$ one path at a time if one denotes by a and b the generators of $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1, x) \cong F_{\{a,b\}}$: at each step, the loops a , b , a^{-1} and b^{-1} furnish four homotopically distinct choices of loops to traverse, which lift to four distinct paths in $\tilde{X}$ from one copy of the base point to another. Starting at the natural base point $\tilde{x}_0$ and following this procedure recursively produces the fractal picture in [Hat02, p. 59].

17.3. Topological groups. The application to the Galois correspondence requires a brief digression on topological groups and group actions.

DEFINITION 17.2. A **topological group** (*topologische Gruppe*) is a group G with a topology such that the maps

$$G \times G \rightarrow G : (g, h) \mapsto gh \quad \text{and} \quad G \rightarrow G : g \mapsto g^{-1}$$

are both continuous.

Popular examples of topological groups include the various subgroups of the real or complex general linear groups $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, e.g. the orthogonal group $\text{O}(n)$ and unitary group $\text{U}(n)$, the special linear groups $\text{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $\text{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, and so forth. We saw in Exercise 7.10 that for any locally compact and locally connected Hausdorff space X , the group of homeomorphisms $\text{Homeo}(X)$ is a topological group with the group operation defined by composition. Finally, *any* group can be regarded as a topological group if we assign to it the discrete topology; this follows from the fact that every map on a space with the discrete topology is continuous. Topological groups with the discrete topology are often referred to as **discrete groups**.

DEFINITION 17.3. Given a topological group G and a space X , a (continuous) G -action (*Wirkung*) on X is a (continuous) map

$$G \times X \rightarrow X : (g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$$

such that the identity element $e \in G$ satisfies $e \cdot x = x$ for all $x \in X$ and $(gh) \cdot x = g \cdot (h \cdot x)$ holds for all $g, h \in G$ and $x \in X$.

Notice that for any G -action on X , there is a natural group homomorphism $G \rightarrow \text{Homeo}(X)$ sending $g \in G$ to the homeomorphism $\varphi_g : X \rightarrow X$ defined by $\varphi_g(x) = g \cdot x$. If G is a discrete group then the converse is also true: every group homomorphism $G \rightarrow \text{Homeo}(X)$ comes from a G -action on X . This is true because as long as the topology of G is discrete, the map $G \times X \rightarrow X : (g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$ is continuous if and only if the map $X \rightarrow X : x \mapsto g \cdot x$ is continuous for every fixed $g \in G$. If G has a more interesting topology, then continuity of the map $(g, x) \mapsto g \cdot x$ with respect to $g \in G$ is also a nontrivial condition that would need to be checked—but we have no need to worry about this right now, as most of the groups we will deal with below are discrete.

EXAMPLE 17.4. For any covering map $p : Y \rightarrow X$, $\text{Aut}(p)$ acts as a discrete group on Y by $f \cdot y := f(y)$.

EXAMPLE 17.5. Regarding $\mathbb{Z}_2$ as a discrete group, a $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -action on any space X is determined by the homeomorphism $\varphi_1 : X \rightarrow X$ associated to the nontrivial element $[1] \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} =: \mathbb{Z}_2$, and this is necessarily an **involution**, i.e. it is its own inverse. A frequently occurring example is the action of $\mathbb{Z}_2$ on S^n defined via the antipodal map $\mathbf{x} \mapsto -\mathbf{x}$.

EXAMPLE 17.6. Here is a non-discrete example: any subgroup of the orthogonal group $O(n)$ acts on $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ by matrix-vector multiplication, $A \cdot \mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x}$.

For any G -action on X and a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$, we denote

$$g \cdot \mathcal{U} := \{g \cdot x \mid x \in \mathcal{U}\} \subset X.$$

Similarly, for each point $x \in X$, we define its **orbit** (*Bahn*) as the subset

$$G \cdot x := \{g \cdot x \mid g \in G\} \subset X.$$

One can easily check that for any two points $x, y \in X$, their orbits $G \cdot x$ and $G \cdot y$ are either identical or disjoint, thus there is an equivalence relation $\sim$ on X such that $x \sim y$ if and only if $G \cdot x = G \cdot y$. The quotient topological space defined by this equivalence relation is denoted by

$$X/G := X/\sim = \{\text{orbits } G \cdot x \subset X \mid x \in X\}.$$

EXAMPLE 17.7. The quotient $S^n/\mathbb{Z}_2$ arising from the action in Example 17.5 is $\mathbb{RP}^n$.

PROPOSITION 17.8. *Regarding $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ as a discrete group, any covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ of reasonable spaces with $\pi_1(Y) = 0$ gives rise to a natural action of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on Y .*

PROOF. There are at least two ways to see the action of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on a simply connected cover. First, Corollary 16.15 identifies $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ with $\text{Aut}(p)$, and the latter acts on Y as explained in Example 17.4.

Alternatively, one can appeal to the uniqueness of the universal cover, so $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ is necessarily isomorphic to the specific cover $\tilde{X} = \{\text{paths } x_0 \rightsquigarrow x\} / \sim_{h+}$ that we constructed in the proof of Theorem 16.10. Then the obvious way for homotopy classes of loops $[\alpha] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ to act on homotopy classes of paths $[\gamma] \in \tilde{X}$ is by concatenation:

$$[\alpha] \cdot [\gamma] := [\alpha \cdot \gamma].$$

It is easy to verify that this also defines a group action. □

DEFINITION 17.9. A G -action on X is **free** (*frei*) if the only element $g \in G$ satisfying $g \cdot x = x$ for some $x \in X$ is the identity $g = e$.

The action is called **properly discontinuous** (*eigentlich diskontinuierlich*) if every $x \in X$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ such that

$$(g \cdot \mathcal{U}) \cap \mathcal{U} = \emptyset$$

for every $g \in G$ with $g \cdot x \neq x$.

The proofs of the next two results are contained in Exercise 17.3.

PROPOSITION 17.10. *If a G -action is free and properly discontinuous, then G is discrete.* $\square$

PROPOSITION 17.11. *For any covering map $p : Y \rightarrow X$, the action of $\text{Aut}(p)$ on Y as in Example 17.4 is free and properly discontinuous.* $\square$

17.4. Proof of the Galois correspondence. The observation that actions of deck transformation groups are free already has some nontrivial consequences, for instance:

PROPOSITION 17.12. *There exists no covering map $p : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$ with $\deg(p) > 1$.*

PROOF. If $\deg(p) > 1$, then since $\pi_1(\mathbb{D}^2) = 0$, we observe that the cover $p : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$ must be regular and therefore has a nontrivial deck transformation group $\text{Aut}(p)$ which acts freely on $\mathbb{D}^2$. But the Brouwer fixed point theorem rules out the existence of any nontrivial free group action on $\mathbb{D}^2$. $\square$

The main purpose of the above definitions is that they lead to the following theorem, whose proof is now an easy exercise.

THEOREM 17.13. *If G acts on X freely and properly discontinuously, then the quotient projection*

$$q : X \rightarrow X/G : x \mapsto G \cdot x$$

is a regular covering map with $\text{Aut}(q) = G$. $\square$

Now we are ready to finish the proof of the Galois correspondence.

PROOF OF THEOREM 16.9. We have already shown that the correspondence is well defined and injective, so we need to prove surjectivity, in other words: given a reasonable space X with base point $x_0 \in X$ and any subgroup $H \subset G := \pi_1(X, x_0)$, we need to find a reasonable space Y with a covering map $p : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ such that $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) = H$. Since X is reasonable, there exists a universal cover $f : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, whose automorphism group is isomorphic to G , so this isomorphism defines a free and properly discontinuous action of G on $\tilde{X}$. It also defines a free and properly discontinuous action of every subgroup of G on $\tilde{X}$, and in particular an H -action. Define

$$Y := \tilde{X}/H \quad \text{and} \quad p : Y \rightarrow X : H \cdot \tilde{x} \mapsto f(\tilde{x}).$$

It is straightforward to check that this is a covering map, and it is base-point preserving if we define $y_0 := H \cdot \tilde{x}_0$ as the base point of Y . Moreover, the quotient projection $q : (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ is now the universal cover of Y , and it fits into the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) & \xrightarrow{f} & (X, x_0) \\ \downarrow q & \nearrow p & \\ (Y, y_0) & & \end{array}$$

Given a loop γ in X based at x_0 , let γ' denote its lift to a path in Y starting at y_0 , and let $\tilde{\gamma}$ denote the lift to a path in $\tilde{X}$ starting at $\tilde{x}_0$. The subgroup $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) \subset \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is precisely

the set of all homotopy classes $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ for which γ' is a loop. Notice that since all maps in the diagram are covering maps, $\tilde{\gamma}$ is also a lift of γ' via the covering map q . Then $[\gamma] \in H$ so that γ' is a loop if and only if the end point of $\tilde{\gamma}$ is in $q^{-1}(y_0) = H \cdot \tilde{x}_0$. Under the natural bijection between $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ and $f^{-1}(x_0) = G \cdot \tilde{x}_0$, this just means $[\gamma] \in H$, hence $p_*\pi_1(Y, y_0) = H$. $\square$

17.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 17.1. The following proves a generalization of Theorem 17.1. We assume that the three spaces in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} (Z, z_0) & \xrightarrow{q} & (Y, y_0) & \xrightarrow{p} & (X, x_0), \\ & & \searrow P & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

are all reasonable and the three maps are pointed covering maps, where q and P are both regular. Let us abbreviate the automorphism groups of P and q by

$$G := \text{Aut}(P), \quad \text{and} \quad H := \text{Aut}(q).$$

- Use the path-lifting property to prove the following lemma: If $\Psi \in G$ and $\psi \in \text{Aut}(p)$ are deck transformations for which the relation $q \circ \Psi = \psi \circ q$ holds at the base point $z_0 \in Z$, then it holds everywhere.
Hint: For any $z \in Z$, choose a path from z_0 to z , then use Ψ , ψ and the covering projections to cook up other paths in Z , Y and X . Some of them are lifts of others, and two important ones will turn out to be the same.
- Deduce from part (a) that H is the subgroup of G consisting of all deck transformations $\Psi : Z \rightarrow Z$ for P that satisfy $\Psi(z_0) \in q^{-1}(y_0)$.
- Show that if $P : Z \rightarrow X$ is regular then so is $q : Z \rightarrow Y$. Give two proofs: one using the result of part (b), and another using the characterization of regularity in terms of normal subgroups.
- Recall that the **normalizer** (*Normalisator*) $N(H) \subset G$ of the subgroup H is by definition the largest subgroup of G that contains H as a normal subgroup, i.e.

$$N(H) := \{g \in G \mid gHg^{-1} = H\}.$$

Show that if the cover $q : Z \rightarrow Y$ is regular, then for any $\Psi \in N(H)$, there exists a deck transformation $\psi : Y \rightarrow Y$ of p satisfying the relation $q \circ \Psi = \psi \circ q$, and it is unique. Moreover, the correspondence $\Psi \mapsto \psi$ defines a group homomorphism $N(H) \rightarrow \text{Aut}(p)$ whose kernel is H .

- Show that if the cover $P : Z \rightarrow X$ is also regular, then the homomorphism $N(H) \rightarrow \text{Aut}(p)$ in part (d) is also surjective, and thus descends to an isomorphism

$$N(H)/H \xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Aut}(p).$$

Remark: Theorem 17.1 follows as the special case of this exercise in which Z is simply connected.

EXERCISE 17.2 (*). Show that the two actions of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ on the universal cover constructed in the proof of Proposition 17.8 are the same.

EXERCISE 17.3. Prove the following:

- Proposition 17.10: If a G -action is free and properly discontinuous, then G is discrete.
- (*) Proposition 17.11: For any covering map $p : Y \rightarrow X$, the action of $\text{Aut}(p)$ on Y as in Example 17.4 is free and properly discontinuous.

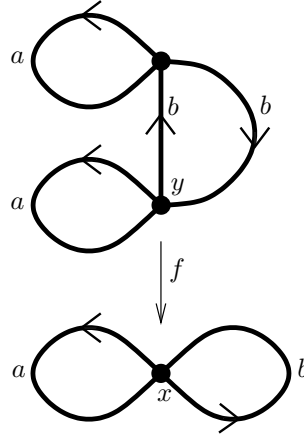


FIGURE 14. The covering map in Exercise 17.4.

EXERCISE 17.4. Figure 14 describes a base-point preserving covering map $f : (Y, y) \rightarrow (X, x)$, where $X \cong S^1 \vee S^1$, the two generators of $\pi_1(X, x) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$ are labeled by loops a and b based at x , and the preimages of these loops in Y are given the same labels. Let us write elements of $\pi_1(X, x)$ accordingly as words in the letters a and b .

- What is the subgroup $f_*(\pi_1(Y, y)) \subset \pi_1(X, x)$? Describe it as $\langle S \rangle$ or $\langle S \rangle_N$, meaning the smallest subgroup or normal subgroup respectively containing some specific subset $S \subset \pi_1(X, x)$. Find also a specific element $w \in \pi_1(X, x)$ such that $w \notin f_*(\pi_1(Y, y))$.
- Draw a similar picture to describe a covering map $g : (Z, z) \rightarrow (X, x)$ such that $g_*(\pi_1(Z, z)) = \langle a^2, b^2, ab, ba \rangle_N$.

Hint: First determine what the quotient group $\pi_1(X, x) / \langle a^2, b^2, ab, ba \rangle_N$ is, and use this to deduce the degree of the cover g . Then consider loops in X based at x , and determine whether their lifts to Z starting at the base point should close up or not.

18. Manifolds

18.1. Basic notions and examples. I have mentioned manifolds already a few times in this course, but now it is time to discuss them somewhat more precisely. While we do not plan to go to deeply into this subject this semester, the goal is in part to understand what the main definitions are and why, forming the basis of the subject known as “geometric topology”. In so doing, we will also establish an inventory of examples and concepts that will serve as useful intuition when we start to talk about homology next week.

DEFINITION 18.1. A **topological manifold** (*Mannigfaltigkeit*) of dimension $n \geq 0$ (often abbreviated with the term “ n -manifold”) is a second countable Hausdorff space M such that every point $p \in M$ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$.

More generally, a **topological n -manifold with boundary** (*Mannigfaltigkeit mit Rand*) is a second countable Hausdorff space M such that every point $p \in M$ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to either $\mathbb{R}^n$ or the so-called “ n -dimensional half-space”

$$\mathbb{H}^n := [0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}.$$

The third condition in each of these definitions is probably the most intuitive, and is the most distinguishing feature of manifolds: we abbreviate it by saying that manifolds are “locally Euclidean”. It means in effect that sufficiently small open subsets of a manifold can be described via

local coordinate systems. The technical term for this is “chart”: a **chart** (*Karte*) on an n -manifold with boundary is a homeomorphism

$$\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \Omega$$

where $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ and $\Omega \subset \mathbb{H}^n$ are open subsets. As special cases, Ω may be the whole of $\mathbb{H}^n$, or an open ball in $\mathbb{H}^n$ disjoint from

$$\partial\mathbb{H}^n := \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1},$$

in which case Ω is also homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$. It follows that on any n -manifold (with or without boundary), every point is in the domain of a chart. Conversely, if we are given a collection of charts $\{\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ such that $M = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$, then after shrinking the domains and targets of these charts if necessary, we can assume every point $p \in M$ is in the domain of some chart $\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega_\alpha$ such that Ω_α is either an open ball in $\mathbb{H}^n \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^n$ or a half-ball with boundary on $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$, so that Ω is homeomorphic to either $\mathbb{R}^n$ or $\mathbb{H}^n$. This means M is locally Euclidean, so both versions of the third condition in our definition can be rephrased as the condition that M is covered by charts. The **boundary** of a manifold M with boundary can now be defined as the subset

$$\partial M := \{p \in M \mid \varphi(p) \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n \text{ for some chart } \varphi\},$$

which is clearly an $(n-1)$ -manifold (without boundary).

The word “topological” is included before “manifold” in order to make the distinction between topological manifolds and *smooth manifolds*, which we will discuss a little bit below. By default in this course, you should assume that everything we refer to simply as a “manifold” is actually a *topological* manifold unless otherwise specified. (If this were a differential geometry course, you would instead want to assume that “manifold” always means *smooth* manifold.) One can regard manifolds without boundary as being special cases of manifolds M with boundary such that $\partial M = \emptyset$, so we shall also use “manifold” as an abbreviation for the term “manifold with boundary” and will generally specify “without boundary” when we want to assume $\partial M = \emptyset$. You should be aware that some books adopt different conventions for such details, e.g. some authors assume $\partial M = \emptyset$ always unless the words “with boundary” are explicitly included.

REMARK 18.2. The following detail deserves emphasis: The way we have expressed the definition of the boundary $\partial M \subset M$ above makes sense in part because when we defined the notion of a chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \Omega$, we required²⁷ its image Ω to be an open subset of the half-space $\mathbb{H}^n$, and not necessarily an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$. If we were allowing arbitrary open subsets $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, then every point $p \in M$ would be a boundary point, because e.g. one could take any chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \Omega$ with $p \in \mathcal{U}$ and compose it with a translation on $\mathbb{R}^n$ so that $\varphi(p) = 0 \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$. Requiring $\Omega \subset \mathbb{H}^n$ prevents this in general, because if we start with a chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \Omega$ whose image contains an open ball around $\varphi(p)$, then translating it to achieve $\varphi(p) = 0$ will produce something whose image cannot be contained in $\mathbb{H}^n$. In fact, the translation trick works only for points $p \in \mathcal{U}$ with $\varphi(p) \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$, as these are precisely the points for which Ω does not contain any ball around $\varphi(p)$. It can happen that $\Omega \subset \mathbb{H}^n$ is *also* an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$: this is true if and only if $\Omega \cap \partial\mathbb{H}^n = \emptyset$, and in that case, none of the points in the domain of the chart are boundary points. One can show that whenever $\varphi(p) \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$ for some chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \Omega$ with $p \in \mathcal{U}$, the same must hold for all other charts whose domains contain p ; in other words, no point of M can be simultaneously a boundary point and an *interior* point, where the latter means that some chart maps it into $\mathbb{H}^n \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^n$. For $n \leq 2$, this can be proved using methods that we have already developed (see Exercise 19.2); the proof for $n > 2$ requires some other methods that we haven’t developed yet, but will soon, e.g. singular homology.

²⁷This convention is not universal: many books allow charts to have images that are arbitrary open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$. The latter is a sensible convention especially if one only wants to consider manifolds with empty boundary, and even if nonempty boundaries are allowed, one can work with charts defined in this way, but the definition of $\partial M \subset M$ would need to be expressed a bit differently.

Manifolds are usually what we have in mind when we think of spaces that are “nice” or “reasonable”. In particular, the following is an immediate consequence of the observation that every point in $\mathbb{R}^n$ or $\mathbb{H}^n$ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to the closed n -disk:

PROPOSITION 18.3. *For an n -manifold M and a point $p \in M$, every neighborhood of p contains one that is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n$.* $\square$

COROLLARY 18.4. *Manifolds are locally compact and locally path-connected. They are also **locally contractible**, meaning every neighborhood of every point in M contains a contractible neighborhood. In particular, they are “reasonable” in the sense of Definition 16.1, whenever they are connected.* $\square$

It follows via Theorem 7.18 that a manifold M is connected if and only if it is path-connected. More generally, the path-components of M are the same as its connected components (cf. Prop. 7.17), each of which are open and closed subsets, hence M is homeomorphic to the disjoint union of its connected components. It is similarly easy to show that these connected components are also manifolds.

DEFINITION 18.5. A manifold M is **closed** (*geschlossen*) if it is compact and $\partial M = \emptyset$. It is **open** (*offen*) if none of its connected components are closed, i.e. all of them either are noncompact or have nonempty boundary.

You need to be aware that these usages of the words “closed” and “open” are different from the notions of closed or open subsets in a topological space. The distinction between a “closed manifold” and a “closed subset” is at least more explicit in German: the former is a *geschlossene Mannigfaltigkeit*, while the latter is an *abgeschlossene Teilmenge*. For openness there is the same ambiguity in German and English, but it is rarely a problem: you just need to pay attention to the context in which these adjectives are used and what kinds of nouns they are modifying. We will not have much occasion to talk about open manifolds in this course, and many authors apparently dislike seeing the word “open” used in this way, but it has some advantages, e.g. in differential topology, there are some elegant theorems that can be stated most naturally for open manifolds but are not true for manifolds that are not open.

EXAMPLE 18.6. Any discrete space with only countably many points is a 0-manifold. (Discrete spaces with uncountably many points are excluded because they are not second countable.) Conversely, this is an accurate description of every 0-manifold, and the closed ones are those that are finite. Note that a 0-manifold can never have boundary.

EXAMPLE 18.7. The line $\mathbb{R}$, the interval $(-1, 1)$ and the circle S^1 are all examples of 1-manifolds without boundary, where S^1 is closed and the others are open. Further examples without boundary are obtained by taking arbitrary countable disjoint unions of these examples, e.g. $S^1 \sqcup \mathbb{R}$ is a 1-manifold without boundary, though it is neither closed nor open since it has one closed component and one that is not closed. Some examples of 1-manifolds with nonempty boundary include the interval $I = [0, 1]$, whose boundary is the compact 0-manifold $\partial I = \{0, 1\}$, and $[0, 1)$, whose boundary is $\partial[0, 1) = \{0\}$.

EXAMPLE 18.8. The word **surface** (*Fläche*) refers in general to a 2-dimensional manifold. Examples without boundary include S^2 , $\mathbb{T}^2 = S^1 \times S^1$, the surfaces Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$, $\mathbb{RP}^2$, $\mathbb{R}^2$, and arbitrary countable disjoint unions of any of these. One can also take connected sums of these examples to obtain more, though as we’ve seen, not all of the examples that arise in this way are new, e.g. Σ_g for $g \geq 1$ is the g -fold connected sum of copies of $\mathbb{T}^2$. Some compact examples with boundary include $\mathbb{D}^2$ (with $\partial\mathbb{D}^2 = S^1$) and the surface $\Sigma_{g,m}$ of genus g with $m \geq 1$ holes cut out, which has $\partial\Sigma_{g,m} \cong \coprod_{i=1}^m S^1$. An obvious noncompact example with nonempty boundary is the half-plane $\mathbb{H}^2$, with $\partial\mathbb{H}^2 \cong \mathbb{R}$.

EXAMPLE 18.9. Some examples of arbitrary dimension n without boundary are S^n , $\mathbb{RP}^n$, $\mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbb{T}^n := S^1 \times \dots \times S^1$, any open subset of any of these, and anything obtained from these by (countable) disjoint unions or connected sums.²⁸ Some obvious examples with nonempty boundary are $\mathbb{D}^n$ (with $\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$), and $[-1, 1] \times \mathbb{T}^{n-1}$, whose boundary is the disjoint union of two copies of $\mathbb{T}^{n-1}$.

18.2. Smooth manifolds. While we don't plan to do very much with it in this course, we now make a brief digression on the subject of *smooth* manifolds, which are the main object of study in differential geometry and differential topology. As preparation, observe that if $\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega_\alpha$ and $\varphi_\beta : \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow \Omega_\beta$ are two charts on the same manifold M , then on any region $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ where they overlap, we can think of them as describing two alternative coordinate systems, so that there is a well-defined “coordinate transformation” map switching from one to the other. To be more precise, $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta)$ and $\varphi_\beta(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta)$ are open subsets of Ω_α and Ω_β respectively, and there is a homeomorphism from one to the other defined via the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta & \\ \swarrow \varphi_\alpha & & \searrow \varphi_\beta \\ \varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) & \xrightarrow{\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}} & \varphi_\beta(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \end{array}$$

The map $\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}$ is called the **transition map** (*Übergang*) relating φ_α and φ_β . The key point about a transition map is that its domain and target are open subsets of a Euclidean space (or half-space), thus we know what it means for such a map to be “differentiable”. This observation makes it possible to do differential calculus on manifolds and to speak of functions $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as being differentiable or not: the idea is that f should be called differentiable if it appears differentiable whenever it is written in a local coordinate system. But for this to be well defined, we need to be assured that the answer to the differentiability question will not change if we change coordinate systems, i.e. if we compose our local coordinate expression for f with a transition map. If all conceivable charts for M are allowed, then the answer will indeed sometimes change, because the composition of a differentiable function with a non-differentiable map is not usually differentiable. We therefore need to be able to assume that transition maps are always differentiable, and since this is not true if all conceivable charts are allowed, we need to restrict the class of charts that we consider. This restriction introduces a bit of structure on M that is not determined by its topology, but is something extra:

DEFINITION 18.10. A **smooth structure** (*glatte Struktur*) on an n -dimensional topological manifold M is a maximal collection of charts $\{\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ for which $M = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ and the corresponding transition maps $\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in J$ are of class C^∞ . A topological manifold endowed with a smooth structure is called a **smooth manifold** (*glatte Mannigfaltigkeit*).

It is easy to see that a single topological manifold can have multiple distinct smooth structures, e.g. on $M = \mathbb{R}$, the functions $\varphi_\alpha(t) = t$ and $\varphi_\beta(t) = t^3$ are homeomorphisms $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and can thus be regarded as charts, but $\varphi_\alpha \circ \varphi_\beta^{-1}$ is not everywhere differentiable, hence φ_α and φ_β can each be regarded as belonging to smooth structures on $\mathbb{R}$, but they are distinct smooth structures. That is a relatively uninteresting example, but there are also known examples of topological manifolds admitting multiple smooth structures that are not even equivalent up to *diffeomorphism* (the smooth version of homeomorphism), as well as topological manifolds that do not admit any smooth structure at all. Such things are very hard to prove, but you should not worry about them right

²⁸Recall from Lecture 13 the connected sum of two n -manifolds M and N : it is defined by deleting the interiors of two embedded n -disks from M and N and then gluing them together along the spheres S^{n-1} at the boundaries of these disks.

now, because the basic fact is that most manifolds we encounter in nature have natural smooth structures. A very high proportion of them come from the following geometric version of the implicit function theorem.

THEOREM 18.11 (implicit function theorem). *Suppose $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open subset, $F : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is a C^∞ -map and $q \in \mathbb{R}^k$ is a point such that for all $p \in F^{-1}(q)$, the derivative $dF(p) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ is surjective (we say in this case that q is a **regular value** of F). Then $F^{-1}(q) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a smooth manifold of dimension $n - k$.* $\square$

The above theorem is provided “for your information,” meaning we do not plan to either prove or use it in any serious way in this course, but you should be aware that it exists because it provides many examples of manifolds that arise naturally in various applications. For instance:

EXAMPLE 18.12. The n -sphere $S^n = F^{-1}(1)$, where $F : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : \mathbf{x} \mapsto |\mathbf{x}|^2$, which has 1 as a regular value.

EXAMPLE 18.13. The special linear group $\mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{R}) = \det^{-1}(1)$ for the determinant map $\det : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. One can show that 1 is a regular value of $\det$ by relating the derivative of the determinants of a family of matrices passing through $\mathbf{1}$ to the trace of the derivative of that family of matrices. Thus $\mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ is a smooth manifold of dimension $n^2 - 1$.

18.3. Spaces that are not manifolds. Now let’s look at a couple of non-examples.

EXAMPLE 18.14. The wedge sum $S^1 \vee S^1$ is *not* a manifold of any dimension. It does look like a 1-manifold in the complement of the base point $x \in S^1 \vee S^1$, but x does not have any neighborhood homeomorphic to Euclidean space. Indeed, sufficiently small neighborhoods $\mathcal{U} \subset S^1 \vee S^1$ of x all look like two line segments intersecting, so that if we delete the point x , we obtain a space $\mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}$ with four path-components. This cannot happen in an n -manifold for any n , as deleting a point from $\mathbb{R}$ produces two path-components, while deleting a point from $\mathbb{R}^n$ with $n \geq 2$ leaves a space that is still path-connected.

EXAMPLE 18.15. Here is a space that is locally Euclidean and second countable, but not Hausdorff: the line with two zeroes, i.e. $X := (\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\})/\sim$ with $(x, 0) \sim (x, 1)$ for all $x \neq 0$. If we endow X with the quotient topology induced by the natural topology of $\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\} \cong \mathbb{R} \amalg \mathbb{R}$, then a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is open if and only if its preimage under the quotient projection $\mathbb{R} \times \{0, 1\} \rightarrow X$ is open, and it follows in particular that the images of $\mathbb{R} \times \{0\}$ and $\mathbb{R} \times \{1\}$ under this projection are open subsets of X that are each (in obvious ways) homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$. The two zeroes $0_0 := [(0, 0)]$ and $0_1 := [(0, 1)]$ therefore each have neighborhoods homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, and so (for more obvious reasons) does every other point, so the line with two zeroes would count as a 1-manifold if we did not require manifolds to be Hausdorff. We should emphasize that we are considering the quotient topology on X , not the pseudometric topology (cf. Example 6.11); X with the pseudometric topology is not locally homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, because every neighborhood of 0_0 must also contain 0_1 and vice versa, so the two subsets described above would no longer be open.

EXAMPLE 18.16. The following is a compact variation on the previous example: writing X for the line with two zeroes, its one point compactification X^* is obtained by adding a single point called ∞ , which is the limit of any sequence in X that has no bounded subsequence. Just as the one point compactification $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ of $\mathbb{R}$ is homeomorphic to S^1 , we can think of X^* as the result of replacing one point $0 \in \mathbb{R} \subset S^1$ with a pair of points $0_0, 0_1 \in X^*$ that each have neighborhoods homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, but with every neighborhood of 0_0 intersecting every neighborhood of 0_1 . This would also be a 1-manifold if manifolds were not required to be Hausdorff.

18.4. The classification of 1-manifolds. You probably don't need much convincing by this point that spaces which are Hausdorff and second countable are "good," while those that lack either of these properties are "bad". Nonetheless, it's worth taking a moment to consider *why* it would be bad if we dropped either of these conditions from the definition of a manifold. The first answer is clearly that if we dropped the Hausdorff axiom, then Example 18.15 would be a manifold, and we don't like Example 18.15. But there are better reasons. One of them is related to the implicit function theorem, Theorem 18.11 above, which produces many examples of manifolds that are subsets of larger-dimensional Euclidean spaces. Notice that in this situation, it is completely unnecessary to verify whether those subsets are Hausdorff or second countable, because every subset of a finite-dimensional Euclidean space is both. (See Exercise 4.3 if you've forgotten how we know that $\mathbb{R}^n$ is second countable.) Now, it is reasonable to ask whether *all* conceivable manifolds arise from something similar to Theorem 18.11, i.e. are all of them embeddable into $\mathbb{R}^N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$? The answer is yes, though clearly it would not be if the Hausdorff and second countability conditions were not included:

THEOREM 18.17. *Every topological manifold is homeomorphic to a closed subset of $\mathbb{R}^N$ for $N \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large.* $\square$

This is another theorem that I am providing "for your information," as I do not intend to use it for anything and therefore will not prove it. A readable proof for the case of a compact manifold appears in [Hat02, Corollary A.9]. The noncompact case is significantly harder and proofs typically do not appear in textbooks, but the idea is outlined and some precise references given in [Lee11, p. 116]. I would caution you in any case against taking this theorem more seriously than it deserves: while it's nice to know that all manifolds are in some sense *submanifolds* of some $\mathbb{R}^N$, many of them do not come with any canonical choice of embedding into $\mathbb{R}^N$, so this property is not in any way intrinsic to their structure and one should (and usually can) avoid using it to prove things about manifolds. It might also be argued that Theorem 18.17 undermines my point about the Hausdorff and second countability assumptions being indispensable, since it may seem desirable to be able to consider "manifolds" that are *more general* than just submanifolds of Euclidean spaces.

As a general principle, mathematicians consider a definition to be a "good" definition if it appears as the hypothesis for a good theorem. I'm not sure if Theorem 18.17 truly qualifies as a good theorem. But I want to talk about another one that I think is better.

THEOREM 18.18. *Every connected nonempty 1-manifold without boundary is homeomorphic to either S^1 or $\mathbb{R}$.*

If this statement sounds at first too restrictive, it makes up for it by being extremely useful. In combination with the implicit function theorem, one can deduce from it e.g. the possible topologies of regular level sets of arbitrary smooth functions $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. This ability has a surprising number of beautiful applications in differential topology and related fields; one example is the definition of the "mapping degree," sketched in Exercise 19.3. Those applications are typically based on the following corollary for compact manifolds with boundary.

COROLLARY 18.19. *Every compact 1-manifold M with boundary is homeomorphic to a disjoint union of finitely many copies of S^1 and $[0, 1]$. In particular, ∂M consists of evenly many points.*

PROOF. Since M is compact, it can have at most finitely many connected components (otherwise we can find a noncompact closed subset by choosing one point from every component). Restricting to connected components, it will therefore suffice to show that every connected compact 1-manifold M is either S^1 or $[0, 1]$. Theorem 18.18 implies that $M \cong S^1$ if $\partial M = \emptyset$, so assume otherwise. Then ∂M is a closed subset and therefore is compact, and it is also a 0-manifold, which

means it is a nonempty finite set. Let us modify M by attaching a half-line $[0, \infty)$ to each boundary point, that is, let

$$\widehat{M} := M \cup_{\partial M} \left(\coprod_{p \in \partial M} [0, \infty) \right).$$

This makes $\widehat{M}$ a noncompact connected 1-manifold with empty boundary, so by Theorem 18.18, $\widehat{M} \cong \mathbb{R}$. It follows that $M \subset \widehat{M}$ is homeomorphic to a path-connected compact subset of $\mathbb{R}$. All such subsets are compact intervals $[a, b]$, hence $M \cong [0, 1]$. $\square$

The proof of Theorem 18.18 given below is based on a series of exercises outlined in [Gal87]. I will not go through every step in exhaustive detail, as my main objective is just to point out explicitly where the Hausdorff and second countability conditions are needed. You saw already from Examples 18.15 and 18.16 that the theorem becomes false if the Hausdorff condition is dropped, and after the proof we will look at an even stranger example to see what can happen without second countability.

Here is a lemma that depends explicitly on the Hausdorff property, e.g. you will find if you look again at the line with two zeroes (Example 18.15) that it is not satisfied in that particular example.

LEMMA 18.20. *Suppose M is a Hausdorff space with two overlapping open subsets $\mathcal{U}_\alpha, \mathcal{U}_\beta \subset M$ that are each homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, and neither is contained in the other. Then each connected component $\mathcal{W}$ of $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ and has compact closure $\overline{\mathcal{W}} \subset M$ homeomorphic to $[0, 1]$, whose boundary consists of a point $p_\alpha \in \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ that is not in $\mathcal{U}_\beta$ and a point $p_\beta \in \mathcal{U}_\beta$ that is not in $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$.*

PROOF. Choose explicit homeomorphisms $\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\varphi_\beta : \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The image $\varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is necessarily a connected open subset of $\mathbb{R}$, and is therefore an open interval, implying $\mathcal{W} \cong \mathbb{R}$. But $\varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W})$ cannot be the entirety of $\mathbb{R}$, as that would imply $\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U}_\beta$ since φ_β is a homeomorphism, and thus $\mathcal{U}_\beta \subset \mathcal{U}_\alpha$, which was excluded in the hypotheses. For the same reasons, $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W})$ is an open interval in $\mathbb{R}$, but not the entirety of $\mathbb{R}$.

Let us show that the closure $\overline{\mathcal{W}} \subset M$ contains two boundary points p_α, p_β with the stated properties. To find p_α , choose a point $t \in \mathbb{R}$ that is in the closure of $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ but not in $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W})$. Since φ_α is a homeomorphism, there must then exist a sequence $x_n \in \mathcal{W}$ converging to a point $p_\alpha := \varphi_\alpha^{-1}(t) \in \mathcal{U}_\alpha$, and p_α cannot belong to $\mathcal{U}_\beta$ since this would imply $p_\alpha \in \mathcal{W}$ and thus $t \in \varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W})$. We claim: $|\varphi_\beta(x_n)| \rightarrow \infty$. Indeed, if this does not hold, then after replacing x_n with a suitable subsequence, we can assume $\varphi_\beta(x_n)$ converges to some point $y \in \mathbb{R}$, in which case x_n also converges to $x := \varphi_\beta^{-1}(y) \in \mathcal{U}_\beta$ since φ_β is a homeomorphism. But we already know $x_n \rightarrow p_\alpha$, so the assumption that M is Hausdorff implies $x = p_\alpha$ and gives a contradiction, since $p_\alpha \notin \mathcal{U}_\beta$.

It follows from the claim above that $\varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ is an unbounded interval, and since it is not the entirety of $\mathbb{R}$, it is therefore an infinite half-interval of the form $(-\infty, a)$ or (b, ∞) for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Reversing the roles of α and β , a similar conclusion holds for $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W})$, so for concreteness, let us suppose

$$\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W}) = (-\infty, a) \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W}) = (b, \infty),$$

in which case the recipe described above for defining $p_\alpha, p_\beta \in \overline{\mathcal{W}}$ gives

$$p_\alpha = \varphi_\alpha^{-1}(a), \quad p_\beta = \varphi_\beta^{-1}(b).$$

(Only minor modifications to this discussion are necessary if $\varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W})$ is instead bounded below or $\varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W})$ bounded above.) Moreover, the transition map

$$\mathbb{R} \supset \varphi_\alpha(\mathcal{W}) = (-\infty, a) \xrightarrow{\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}} (b, \infty) = \varphi_\beta(\mathcal{W}) \subset \mathbb{R},$$

being a homeomorphism between two open intervals in $\mathbb{R}$, is a monotone function whose value approaches $\pm\infty$ at the bounded end of its domain, and the same applies to its inverse, implying that this transition map also has a *finite* limit at the unbounded end of its domain. Now if $x_n \in \mathcal{W}$ is any sequence that has no subsequence converging to any point in $\mathcal{W}$ or to p_β , it follows that $|\varphi_\beta(x_n)| \rightarrow \infty$ and thus $\varphi_\alpha(x_n) \rightarrow a$, implying $x_n \rightarrow p_\alpha$. This proves that the union of $\mathcal{W}$ with the two points p_α, p_β is compact, as claimed. Putting the obvious topology on the extended interval $[b, \infty]$, φ_β now has a unique extension to a homeomorphism $\overline{\mathcal{W}} \rightarrow [b, \infty]$ that sends $p_\alpha \mapsto \infty$, so $\overline{\mathcal{W}}$ has the topology of a compact interval. $\square$

Note that in the setting of the lemma, $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ may in general have multiple connected components, but the proof showed that a homeomorphism $\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ sends each of them to an unbounded half-interval. Here's a useful fact we know about $\mathbb{R}$: you can't fit more than two disjoint unbounded half-intervals into it!

COROLLARY 18.21. *In the setting of Lemma 18.20, $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ has either one or two connected components.* $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 18.18. Given a nonempty connected 1-manifold M without boundary, every point has an open neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, and since M is second countable, we can cover M with a *finite or countable* collection $\{\mathcal{U}_n \subset M\}_{n=1}^N$ of such neighborhoods with homeomorphisms $\varphi_n : \mathcal{U}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$; here N is either a natural number or ∞ . After removing some of these sets from the collection, we can assume without loss of generality that none of them are contained in any one of the others.

If $N = 1$, then M is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, and we are done.

If $N \geq 2$, then since M is also Hausdorff and connected, we can appeal to Lemma 18.20 and Corollary 18.21 in order to relabel the subsets $\{\mathcal{U}_n\}_{n=1}^N$ in the following manner. Choose $\mathcal{U}_1$ to be an arbitrary set in the collection. By definition $\mathcal{U}_1$ is an open subset of M , but it might also be a closed subset—if it is, then since M is connected, we can conclude that $M = \mathcal{U}_1 \cong \mathbb{R}$, so again we are done. If however $\mathcal{U}_1 \subset M$ is not a closed subset, then it is not the complement of any open set, and in particular it is not the complement of the union of the rest of the sets in our collection, which means at least one of them—which we shall now call $\mathcal{U}_2$ —must intersect $\mathcal{U}_1$. There are now three possibilities:

- (1) If $\mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2$ has two connected components, one can deduce from Lemma 18.20 that $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ is homeomorphic to S^1 , which is compact and is therefore (since M is Hausdorff) a closed subset of M . Since it is clearly also an open subset and M is connected, this implies $M = \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2 \cong S^1$, so we are done.
- (2) If $\mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2$ has only one connected component, then $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ must be homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$. If $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ is also a closed subset of M , then connectedness again implies $M = \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2 \cong \mathbb{R}$, and we are done.
- (3) If $\mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2$ has only one connected component and the subset $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2 \subset M$ is not closed, then appealing again to the fact that M is connected, $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2$ must intersect one of the remaining subsets in our collection, which we shall now call $\mathcal{U}_3$.

Now repeat the previous step like so: if $(\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2) \cap \mathcal{U}_3$ has two connected components, we can conclude $M = \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2 \cup \mathcal{U}_3 \cong S^1$, and if not, then $\mathcal{U}_1 \cup \mathcal{U}_2 \cup \mathcal{U}_3 \cong \mathbb{R}$ and either this is all of M or it has nonempty intersection with one of the remaining sets in the collection. If the latter happens, repeat. And so on.

If N is finite, this process eventually exhausts all the sets $\mathcal{U}_1, \dots, \mathcal{U}_N$ and produces a homeomorphism of M to either S^1 or $\mathbb{R}$, the former if an intersection with two connected components ever occurs, and the latter otherwise.

If N is infinite, the process may still terminate if an intersection with two connected components appears, implying that finitely many of the sets $\mathcal{U}_n$ cover M and it is homeomorphic to S^1 .

The remaining possibility is that the process never terminates, but instead produces a countable sequence of nested open subsets

$$I_1 \subset I_2 \subset I_3 \subset \dots \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n = M,$$

where each $I_n := \mathcal{U}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{U}_n$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ and is obtained from I_{n-1} by gluing two copies of $\mathbb{R}$ together along a pair of connected half-intervals of infinite length. Up to homeomorphism, we could instead describe this process as follows: identify I_1 with $(0, 1)$, and by induction, if I_{n-1} for some $n \geq 2$ has been identified with a finite interval (a, b) , then I_n is identified with the union of (a, b) and another finite open interval that contains either a or b in its interior and has an end point in (a, b) . Up to homeomorphism, we can thus assume $I_{n-1} = (a, b)$ and I_n is either $(a - 1, b)$ or $(a, b + 1)$. Continuing this process indefinitely, the union $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$ gets identified with some subinterval in $\mathbb{R}$, and is thus homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$. $\square$

The second countability axiom became relevant in the last step of this proof because M was presented as the union of a *countable* collection of intervals; if we had been forced to assume that the collection of Euclidean neighborhoods covering M was uncountable, we would not have been able to conclude in the same manner that M is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$. I would now like to describe an example showing that this danger is serious, and that something other than S^1 or $\mathbb{R}$ can indeed arise if the second countability axiom is dropped. We will need to appeal to a rather non-obvious result from elementary set theory. Recall that a **totally ordered set** $(I, <)$ consists of a set I with a partial order $<$ such that for all pairs of elements $x, y \in I$, at least one of the conditions $x < y$ or $y < x$ holds. Such a set is said to be **well ordered** if every subset of I contains a smallest element. The most familiar example of a well-ordered set is the natural numbers. For the purposes of our example below, we need a well-ordered set that is uncountable.

LEMMA 18.22. *There exists an uncountable well-ordered set $(\omega_1, \leq)$ such that for every $x \in \omega_1$, at most countably many elements $y \in \omega_1$ satisfy $y \leq x$.*

Understanding this lemma requires some knowledge of the **ordinal numbers** (*Ordinalzahlen*), which we do not have time to describe here in detail, but the intuitive idea is to think of any well-ordered set as a “number,” call two such numbers equivalent if there exists an order-preserving bijection from one to the other, and write $x \leq y$ whenever there exists an order-preserving injection from x into y . Informally, an ordinal number can be regarded as an equivalence class of well-ordered sets under this notion of equivalence. We can then think of each natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ as an ordinal number by identifying it with the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$, and this identification obviously produces the correct ordering relation for the natural numbers. But there are also infinite ordinal numbers, e.g. the set $\mathbb{N}$ itself. Informally again, the set ω_1 in the above lemma is defined to be the “smallest uncountable ordinal”.

To see what this really means, we need a slightly more formal definition of the ordinal numbers—the informal description above is a bit hard to make precise in formal set-theoretic terms. A more concrete description of the ordinal numbers was introduced by Johann von Neumann, and the idea is to regard each ordinal number as a set whose elements are also sets, namely each ordinal is the set of all ordinals that precede it. In particular, we label the empty set $\emptyset$ as 0, identify the natural number 1 with the set $\{0\} = \{\emptyset\}$, identify 2 with the set $\{0, 1\} = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$, identify

$$3 = \{0, 1, 2\} = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\{\emptyset\}\}\}$$

and so forth. Although the notation quickly becomes confusing, one can make sense of von Neumann's general definition:

DEFINITION 18.23. A set S is an ordinal number if and only if S is well ordered with respect to set membership and every element of S is also a subset of S .

If this definition makes your head spin, rest assured that I have the same reaction, but the concept of the ordinal numbers does not rely on anything other than the standard axioms of set theory. With this definition in place, one can define ω_1 as the union of all countable ordinals, which is necessarily uncountable since it would otherwise contain itself.

We now use this to construct a Hausdorff space that is path-connected and locally homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ but is not second countable. This space and various related constructions are sometimes referred to as the **long line**. Let

$$L = \omega_1 \times [0, 1),$$

and define a total order on L such that $(x, s) \leq (y, t)$ whenever either $x \leq y$ or both $x = y$ and $s \leq t$ hold. Writing $x < y$ to mean $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$ for $x, y \in L$, the total order determines a natural topology on L , called the **order topology**, whose base is the collection of all “open” intervals

$$(a, b) := \{x \in L \mid a < x < b\}$$

for arbitrary values $a, b \in L$. The proof of the following statement is an amusing exercise for a rainy day.

PROPOSITION 18.24. *Every point of L has a neighborhood homeomorphic to either $\mathbb{R}$ or (in the case of $(0, 0) \in L$) the half-interval $[0, \infty)$. Moreover, L is Hausdorff and is sequentially compact, but not compact; in particular the set $\{(x, 1/2) \mid x \in \omega_1\} \subset L$ is an uncountable discrete subset of L , implying that L cannot be second countable.* $\square$

I'm guessing you find it especially surprising that this enormous space L is sequentially compact, but that has to do with a peculiar property built into the definition of the set ω_1 : every sequence in ω_1 has an upper bound. This is almost immediate from the definition of the ordinal numbers, as for any given sequence $x_n \in \omega_1$, the elements x_n are also (necessarily countable) sets of ordinal numbers, hence their union $\bigcup_n x_n$ is another ordinal number and is countable, meaning it is an element of ω_1 , and it clearly bounds the sequence from above.

In dimensions $n \geq 2$, there are further constructions of non-second countable but locally Euclidean Hausdorff spaces which do not rely on anything so exotic as the ordinal numbers. An example is the *Prüfer surface*; see Exercise 18.2. But I'm only talking about these things now in order to explain why I will never mention them again.

18.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 18.1. Show that the compact non-Hausdorff space in Example 18.16 admits an open covering by two sets homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$ whose intersection with each other has three connected components.

EXERCISE 18.2. The **Prüfer surface** is an example of a space that would be a connected 2-dimensional manifold if we did not require manifolds to be second countable. It is defined as follows: let $\mathbb{H} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y > 0\}$, and associate to each $a \in \mathbb{R}$ a copy of the plane $X_a := \mathbb{R}^2$. The Prüfer surface is then

$$\Sigma := \mathbb{H} \amalg \left(\coprod_{a \in \mathbb{R}} X_a \right) / \sim$$

where the equivalence relation identifies each point $(x, y) \in X_a$ for $y > 0$ with the point $(a + xy, y) \in \mathbb{H}$. Notice that $\mathbb{H}$ and X_a for each $a \in \mathbb{R}$ can be regarded naturally as subspaces of Σ .

- (a) Prove that Σ is Hausdorff.
- (b) Prove that Σ is path-connected.
- (c) Prove that every point in Σ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$.
- (d) Prove that a second countable space can never contain an uncountable discrete subset. Then find an uncountable discrete subset of Σ .

19. Surfaces and triangulations

As far as I'm aware, dimension one is the only case in which the problem of classifying *arbitrary* (compact or noncompact) manifolds up to homeomorphism has a reasonable solution. In this lecture, we will do the next best thing in dimension two: we will classify all *compact* surfaces. We will focus in particular on closed and connected surfaces. The classification of compact connected surfaces with boundary can easily be derived from this (see Exercise 20.3), and of course, compact disconnected surfaces are all just disjoint unions of finitely many connected surfaces, so we lose no generality by restricting to the connected case.

19.1. An inventory of closed surfaces. Let us first enumerate the closed connected surfaces that we are already familiar with.

EXAMPLES 19.1. The sphere $S^2 = \Sigma_0$ and torus $T^2 = \Sigma_1$ are both examples of “oriented surfaces of genus g ,” which can be defined for any nonnegative integer $g \geq 0$ and denoted by Σ_g . In particular, we've seen that for each $g \geq 1$, Σ_g is homeomorphic to the g -fold connected sum of copies of T^2 , and we have also computed its fundamental group

$$\pi_1(\Sigma_g) \cong \left\{ a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g \mid \prod_{i=1}^g [a_i, b_i] = e \right\},$$

whose abelianization is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{2g}$.

EXAMPLES 19.2. An analogous sequence of surfaces can be defined by taking repeated connected sums of copies of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, e.g. $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$ is homeomorphic to the Klein bottle. By the same trick that we used in Lecture 13 to understand Σ_g , the g -fold connected sum $\#_{i=1}^g \mathbb{RP}^2$ is homeomorphic to a space obtained from a polygon with $2g$ edges by identifying them in pairs according to the sequence $a_1, a_1, \dots, a_g, a_g$, thus

$$\pi_1(\#_{i=1}^g \mathbb{RP}^2) \cong \{a_1, \dots, a_g \mid a_1^2 \dots a_g^2 = e\}.$$

Exercise 19.1 shows that the fundamental group arising in Example 19.2 has abelianization isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{g-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. Appealing to the standard classification of finitely generated abelian groups, we deduce that all of our examples so far are topologically distinct:

LEMMA 19.3. *No two of the closed surfaces listed in Examples 19.1 and 19.2 are homeomorphic.* □

You might now be wondering whether new examples can be constructed by taking the connected sum of a surface from Example 19.1 with some surface from Example 19.2. The answer is no:

PROPOSITION 19.4. *$\mathbb{RP}^2 \# T^2$ is homeomorphic to the connected sum of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ with the Klein bottle.*²⁹

²⁹This proposition has its very own Youtube video, see <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aBbDvKq4JqE&t=20s>. Maybe you'll find it helpful... I'm not entirely sure if I did.

PROOF. Given any surface Σ with two disjoint disks removed, one can construct a new surface by attaching a “handle” of the form $[-1, 1] \times S^1$:

$$\Sigma' := \left(\Sigma \setminus (\mathbb{D}^2 \amalg \mathbb{D}^2) \right) \cup_{S^1 \amalg S^1} ([-1, 1] \times S^1).$$

This operation is essentially the same as the connected sum, except we allow the two disks to be embedded (disjointly) into a single surface Σ rather than two separate surfaces; we sometimes call this a “self-connected sum”. As with the connected sum, it depends on a choice of embedding

$$i_1 \amalg i_2 : \mathbb{D}^2 \amalg \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma,$$

but only up to homotopy through embeddings, i.e. modifying the embedding through a continuous 1-parameter family of embeddings will change Σ' into something homeomorphic to the original Σ' .

Let us now shift our perspective on the operation that changes Σ into Σ' . For this it would be helpful to have some pictures, and I do not have time to draw them, but I recommend having a look at Figure 1 in [FW99]. Suppose the two holes you’re drilling in Σ are right next to each other, but before you drill them, you push the surface up a bit from underneath, creating a disk-shaped lump. Now pick two smaller disk-shaped areas within that lump and push those up even further. Then drill the holes in those two places and attach the handle. We haven’t changed any of the topology in creating these “lumps,” but we have changed the picture, and if you’re imagining it the way that I intended, it now looks like instead of cutting out two holes and attaching a handle, you cut out *one* hole (the base of the original lump) and attached $\Sigma_{1,1}$, the torus with a disk removed. In other words, you performed the connected sum of Σ with $\mathbb{T}^2$:

$$\Sigma' \cong \Sigma \# \mathbb{T}^2.$$

So far so good. . . now let’s modify the procedure once more. Viewing $\mathbb{D}^2$ as the unit disk in $\mathbb{C}$, let’s replace one of our embeddings $i_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \Sigma$ with another one that has the same image but changes the parametrization by complex conjugation:

$$i'_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma : z \mapsto i_1(\bar{z}).$$

While we will now be cutting out the same two holes in Σ , the way that we attach the handle at the first hole needs to change because $i'_1|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2}$ parametrizes the circle in the opposite direction from $i_1|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^2}$. The effect is the same as if you were to cut open Σ' along the circle at the boundary of the first hole, flip it’s orientation and then glue it back together. Unfortunately you cannot do this in 3-dimensional space—for the same reasons that you cannot embed a Klein bottle into $\mathbb{R}^3$ —but it’s easy to define the topological space that results from this modification. The effect is precisely to replace the torus in the above description of a connected sum with the Klein bottle; if we call Σ'' the space that results from attaching the handle along this modified gluing map, we have

$$\Sigma'' \cong \Sigma \# K^2,$$

where K^2 denotes the Klein bottle.

Finally, let’s specify this to the case $\Sigma = \mathbb{RP}^2$. The projective plane has a special property that many surfaces don’t: it contains an embedded Möbius band, call it $\mathbb{M}$. Now suppose we construct $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{T}^2$ by embedding two small disks disjointly into $\mathbb{M} \subset \mathbb{RP}^2$, then cutting both out and gluing in a handle. By the previous remarks, the homeomorphism type of the resulting surface will not change if we now move the first hole continuously along a circle traversing $\mathbb{M}$, and the orientation reversal as we traverse $\mathbb{M}$ thus allows us to deform $i_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ to $i'_1 : \mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^2$ through a continuous family of embeddings disjoint from the second disk. This proves that if $\Sigma = \mathbb{RP}^2$, then the two surfaces Σ' and Σ'' described above are homeomorphic. $\square$

It is sometimes useful to make a distinction between two types of handle attachment that were described in the above proof. In one case, the two holes $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ are embedded “right next to each

other” and with opposite orientations—in precise terms, this means we focus on the domain of a single chart on Σ , assume both holes are in this domain, define i'_1 by translating the image of i_2 in some direction to make it disjoint, and then define $i_1(z) = i'_1(\bar{z})$. The handle attachment that results is straightforward to draw, see e.g. Figure 1 in [FW99]. If we then leave the positions of the two holes the same but reverse an orientation by replacing i_1 with i'_1 , the handle attachment can no longer be embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, though this does not stop some authors from trying to draw pictures of it anyway (see Figure 2 in [FW99]). This type of handle attachment is sometimes referred to as a **cross-handle**. One should not take this terminology too seriously since the main point of the above prove was that in certain cases such as $\Sigma = \mathbb{RP}^2$, there is no globally meaningful distinction between ordinary handles and cross-handles, i.e. if the two holes do not lie in the same chart, it is not always possible to say that we are dealing with one type of handle and not the other. The distinction does make sense however if both holes are in the same chart, so we will occasionally also use the term “cross-handle” in this situation.

19.2. The classification theorem. Proposition 19.4 told us that the most obvious way to produce new examples of closed connected surfaces out of the inventory in Examples 19.1 and 19.2 does not actually give anything new. The reason for this turns out to be that there are no others:

THEOREM 19.5. *Every closed connected surface is homeomorphic to either Σ_g for some $g \geq 0$ or $\#_{i=1}^g \mathbb{RP}^2$ for some $g \geq 1$, where the integer g is in each case unique.*

The uniqueness in this statement already follows from the computations of fundamental groups explained above, so in light of Proposition 19.4, we only still need to show that every closed connected surface other than the sphere is homeomorphic to something constructed out of copies of $\mathbb{T}^2$ and $\mathbb{RP}^2$ by connected sums. (Note that whenever both $\mathbb{T}^2$ and $\mathbb{RP}^2$ appear in this collection, Prop. 19.4 allows us to replace $\mathbb{T}^2$ with two copies of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, as $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$ is the Klein bottle.) We will sketch a proof of this below that is due to John Conway and known colloquially as Conway’s “ZIP proof”. Another readable account of it is given in [FW99].

To frame the problem properly, let us say that for Σ a compact (but not necessarily closed or connected) surface, Σ is *ordinary* if there is a finite sequence of compact surfaces

$$\Sigma^{(0)}, \Sigma^{(1)}, \dots, \Sigma^{(m)} = \Sigma$$

such that $\Sigma^{(0)}$ is a finite disjoint union of spheres $\coprod_{i=1}^N S^2$, and each $\Sigma^{(j+1)}$ is homeomorphic to something obtained from $\Sigma^{(j)}$ by performing one of the following operations:

- (1) Removing an open disk from the interior, i.e.

$$\Sigma^{(j+1)} \cong \Sigma^{(j)} \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2$$

for some embedding $\mathbb{D}^2 \hookrightarrow \Sigma^{(j)} \setminus \partial\Sigma^{(j)}$;

- (2) Attaching a handle (or “cross-handle”) to connect two separate boundary components $\ell_1, \ell_2 \subset \partial\Sigma^{(j)}$, i.e.

$$\Sigma^{(j+1)} \cong \Sigma^{(j)} \cup_{\ell_1 \sqcup \ell_2} ([-1, 1] \times S^1)$$

for some choice of homeomorphism $\partial([-1, 1] \times S^1) = S^1 \sqcup S^1 \rightarrow \ell_1 \sqcup \ell_2$;

- (3) Attaching a disk (called a **cap**) to a boundary component $\ell \subset \partial\Sigma^{(j)}$, i.e.

$$\Sigma^{(j+1)} \cong \Sigma^{(j)} \cup_{\ell} \mathbb{D}^2$$

for some choice of homeomorphism $\partial\mathbb{D}^2 = S^1 \rightarrow \ell$;

- (4) Attaching a Möbius band (called a **cross-cap**) $\mathbb{M}$ to a boundary component $\ell \subset \partial\Sigma^{(j)}$, i.e.

$$\Sigma^{(j+1)} \cong \Sigma^{(j)} \cup_{\ell} \mathbb{M}$$

for some choice of homeomorphism $\partial\mathbb{M} \cong S^1 \rightarrow \ell$.

The classification of 1-manifolds is implicitly in the background of the last three operations: since $\Sigma^{(j)}$ is a compact 2-manifold, $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$ is a closed 1-manifold and is therefore always a finite disjoint union of circles. Observe now that each of the operations can be reinterpreted in terms of connected sums, e.g. cutting out two holes and then attaching a handle or cross-handle is equivalent to taking the connected sum with $\mathbb{T}^2$ or $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$, while attaching a cap or cross-cap gives connected sums with S^2 or $\mathbb{RP}^2$ respectively. It follows that any ordinary surface that is also closed and connected necessarily belongs to our existing inventory of closed and connected surfaces, thus it will suffice to prove:

LEMMA 19.6. *Every closed surface is ordinary.*

19.3. Triangulations. At this point in almost every topology class, it becomes necessary to cheat a bit and appeal to a fundamental result about surfaces that is believable and yet far harder to prove than we have time to discuss in any detail. I'm referring to the existence of *triangulations*. This is not only a useful tool in classifying surfaces, but also will play a large motivational role when we introduce homology. The following is thus simultaneously a necessary digression behind the proof of Lemma 19.6 and also a preview of things to come.

The idea of a triangulation is to decompose a topological n -manifold into many homeomorphic pieces that we think of as “ n -dimensional triangles”. More precisely, the **standard n -simplex** is defined as the set

$$\Delta^n := \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in I^{n+1} \mid t_0 + \dots + t_n = 1\}$$

for each integer $n \geq 0$. This makes Δ^0 the one-point space $\{1\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, while Δ^1 is a compact line segment in $\mathbb{R}^2$ homeomorphic to the interval I , Δ^2 is the compact region in a plane bounded by a triangle, Δ^3 is the compact region in a 3-dimensional vector space bounded by a tetrahedron, and so forth. For a surface Σ , we would now like to view copies of Δ^2 as fundamental building blocks of Σ , arranged in such a way that the intersection between any two of those building blocks is either empty or is a copy of Δ^1 or Δ^0 . One can express this condition in purely combinatorial terms by thinking of Δ^n as the convex hull of its $n + 1$ *vertices*, which are the standard basis vectors of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. In this way, an n -simplex is always determined by $n + 1$ vertices, and this idea can be formalized via the notion of a *simplicial complex*.

DEFINITION 19.7. A **simplicial complex** (*Simplizialkomplex*) K consists of two sets V and S , called the sets of **vertices** (*Eckpunkte*) and **simplices** (*Simplizes*) respectively, where the elements of S are nonempty finite subsets of V , and $\sigma \in S$ is called an **n -simplex** of K if it has $n + 1$ elements. We require the following conditions:

- (1) Every vertex $v \in V$ gives rise to a 0-simplex in K , i.e. $\{v\} \in S$;
- (2) If $\sigma \in S$ then every subset $\sigma' \subset \sigma$ is also an element of S .

For any n -simplex $\sigma \in S$, its subsets are called its **faces** (*Seiten* or *Facetten*), and in particular the subsets that are $(n - 1)$ -simplices are called **boundary faces** (*Seitenflächen*) of σ . The second condition above thus says that for every simplex in the complex, all of its boundary faces also belong to the complex. With this condition in place, the first condition is then equivalent to the requirement that every vertex in the set V belongs to at least one simplex.

The complex K is said to be **finite** if V is finite, and it is **n -dimensional** if

$$\sup_{\sigma \in S} |\sigma| = n + 1,$$

i.e. n is the largest number for which K contains an n -simplex.

Though the definition above is purely combinatorial, there is a natural way to associate a topological space $|K|$ to any simplicial complex K . We shall describe it only in the case of a

finite complex,³⁰ since that is what we need for our discussion of compact surfaces. Given $K = (V, S)$, choose a numbering of the vertices $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_N\}$ and associate to each k -simplex $\sigma = \{v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_k}\}$ the set

$$\Delta_\sigma := \left\{ (t_1, \dots, t_N) \in I^N \mid t_{i_0} + \dots + t_{i_k} = 1 \text{ and } t_j = 0 \text{ for all } v_j \notin \sigma \right\}.$$

Notice that Δ_σ is homeomorphic to the standard k -simplex Δ^k , but lives in the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^N$ spanned by the specific coordinates corresponding to its vertices. The **polyhedron** (*Polyeder*) of K is then the compact space

$$|K| := \bigcup_{\sigma \in S} \Delta_\sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^N.$$

While the definition above makes $|K|$ a subset of a Euclidean space that may have very large dimension in general, it is not so hard to picture $|K|$ in a few simple examples.

EXAMPLE 19.8. Suppose $V = \{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$ and S is defined to consist of all subsets of V . Then $|K|$ is just the standard 2-simplex Δ^2 .

EXAMPLE 19.9. Suppose $V = \{v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ and S contains the subsets $A := \{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$ and $B := \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, plus all of their respective subsets. Then $|K|$ contains two copies of the triangle Δ^2 , which we can label A and B , and they intersect each other along a single common edge connecting the vertices labeled v_1 and v_2 . In particular, $|K|$ is homeomorphic to a 2-dimensional square I^2 , formed by gluing two triangles together along one edge.

DEFINITION 19.10. A **triangulation** (*Triangulierung*) of a compact topological n -manifold M is a homeomorphism of M to the polyhedron of a finite n -dimensional simplicial complex.

In particular, this makes precise the notion of decomposing a surface Σ into triangles (copies of Δ^2) whose intersections with each other are always simplices of lower dimension. Observe that in a triangulated surface Σ with $\partial\Sigma = \emptyset$, the fact that every point in one of the 1-simplices σ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^2$ implies that σ is a boundary face of *exactly two* 2-simplices in the triangulation. One can say the same about the $(n-1)$ -simplices in any triangulation of a closed n -manifold. This is not a property that arbitrary simplicial complexes have, but it is a general property of the complexes that appear in triangulations of closed manifolds.

THEOREM 19.11. *Every closed surface admits a triangulation.*

This theorem is old enough for the first proof to have been published in German [Rad25], and it was not the main result of the paper in which it appeared, yet it is in some sense far harder than it has any right to be—it seems to be one of the rare instances in mathematics where learning cleverer high-powered techniques does not really help. I can at least sketch what is involved. Since a closed surface Σ can be covered by finitely many charts, it can also be covered by a finite collection of regions homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^2$, which is homeomorphic to the standard 2-simplex Δ^2 . Of course the interiors of these 2-simplices overlap, which is not allowed in a triangulation, but the idea is to examine each of the overlap regions and subdivide it further into simplices. By “overlap region,” what I mean is the following: if $D_1, \dots, D_N \subset \Sigma$ denote the finite collection of disks $D_i \cong \Delta^2$ covering Σ , whose boundaries are loops ∂D_i , then the closure of each connected component of $\Sigma \setminus \bigcup_i \partial D_i$ is a region that needs to be subdivided into triangles. After perturbing each of the disks D_i so that its boundary intersects the other boundaries only finitely many times, we can arrange

³⁰The polyhedron of a finite simplicial complex has an obvious topology because it comes with an embedding into some finite-dimensional Euclidean space. For infinite complexes this is not true, and thus more thought is required to define the *right* topology on $|K|$. We would need to talk about this if we wanted to define triangulations of noncompact spaces, but since we don't want that right now, we will not. The correct topology on infinite complexes will be discussed next semester; see 30.

for each of these overlap regions to be bounded by embedded circles, and notice that since each of the regions is contained in at least one of the disks D_i , we can view them as subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$. Now, I don't know about you, but I find it not so hard to believe that regions in $\mathbb{R}^2$ bounded by embedded circles can be subdivided into triangles in a reasonable way—I would imagine that writing down a complete algorithm to do this is a pain in the neck, but it sounds plausible. It may surprise you however to know that it is very far from obvious what the region bounded by an embedded circle in $\mathbb{R}^2$ can look like in general. Actually the answer is simple and is what you would expect: the region is homeomorphic to a disk, but this is not at all easy to prove, it is an important theorem in classical topology known as the *Schönflies theorem*. With this result in hand, one can formulate an algorithm for triangulating surfaces as sketched above by triangulating the disk-like overlap regions. Complete accounts of this are given in [Moi77] and [Tho92].

Note that if Σ is not just a topological 2-manifold but also has a *smooth* structure, then one can avoid the Schönflies theorem by appealing to some basic facts from Riemannian geometry. Choosing a Riemannian metric allows us to define the notion of a “straight line” (geodesic) on the manifold, and one can arrange in this case for the disks D_i to be convex, so that the overlap regions are also convex and therefore obviously homeomorphic to disks. This trick actually works in arbitrary dimensions, leading to the result that *smooth* manifolds can be triangulated in any dimension. For topological manifolds this is not true in general: it is true in dimension three (see [Moi77]), but from dimension four upwards there are examples of topological manifolds that do not admit triangulations. The case of dimension five has only been understood since 2013—see [Man14] for a readable survey of this subject and its history.

19.4. Proof of the classification. Enough about triangulations: let's just assume that surfaces can be triangulated, and use this to finish the classification theorem.

PROOF OF LEMMA 19.6. Assume Σ is a closed surface homeomorphic to the polyhedron $|K|$ of a finite 2-dimensional simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ with 2-simplices $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$. By abuse of notation, we shall also denote by $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$ the corresponding subsets of Σ homeomorphic to the standard 2-simplex Δ^2 . The latter is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^2 \cong S^2 \setminus \mathbb{D}^2$, thus

$$\Sigma^{(0)} := \sigma_1 \amalg \dots \amalg \sigma_N$$

is ordinary. The idea now is to reconstruct Σ from this disjoint union by gluing pairs of 2-simplices together along corresponding boundary faces one at a time, producing a sequence of compact surfaces $\Sigma^{(j)}$, each of which may be disconnected and have nonempty boundary except for the last in the sequence, which is Σ . The operation changing $\Sigma^{(j)}$ to $\Sigma^{(j+1)}$ is performed by gluing together two arcs $\ell_1, \ell_2 \subset \partial\Sigma^{(j)}$, i.e. we can write

$$\Sigma^{(j+1)} = \Sigma^{(j)} / \sim \quad \text{where} \quad \sim \text{ identifies } \ell_1 \text{ with } \ell_2,$$

with ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 assumed to be individual boundary faces of two distinct 2-simplices. These boundary faces are each homeomorphic to the compact interval I , and their interiors are disjoint subsets of $\Sigma^{(j)}$, but they may have boundary points (vertices of the triangulation) in common if some neighboring pair of corresponding boundary faces has already been glued together in the process of turning $\Sigma^{(0)}$ into $\Sigma^{(j)}$. One can now imagine various scenarios, based on the knowledge (thanks to the classification of 1-manifolds) that every connected component of $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$ is a circle:

Case 1: $\ell_1 \cup \ell_2$ forms a single connected component of $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$. Gluing them together is then equivalent to attaching either a cap or a cross-cap to that boundary component, depending on the orientation of the homeomorphism that identifies them.

Case 2: ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 form part of a single connected component of $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$, but not all of it, i.e. their boundary vertices are not exactly the same, so that there are either one or two gaps between them forming additional arcs on some circle in $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$. Gluing them together then is

equivalent to attaching a cap or cross-cap as in case 1, except that it leaves one or two holes where the gaps were, so we can realize this operation by attaching the cap/cross-cap and drilling holes afterward.

Case 3: ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 lie on different connected components of $\partial\Sigma^{(j)}$. Then neither can be the entirety of a boundary component since both are homeomorphic to I instead of S^1 , though it's useful to imagine what would happen if both really were the entirety of a boundary component: gluing them together would then be equivalent to attaching a handle. The useful way to turn this picture into reality is to imagine both ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 as making up *most* of their respective boundary components, each leaving a very small gap where their end points fail to come together. Gluing ℓ_1 to ℓ_2 is then equivalent to attaching a handle but then drilling a small hole in it.

In all of these cases, the operation that converts $\Sigma^{(j)}$ into $\Sigma^{(j+1)}$ can be realized by a finite sequence of operations from our stated list, so carrying out this procedure as many times as necessary to convert $\Sigma^{(0)}$ into Σ produces a surface that is ordinary. $\square$

19.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 19.1. For $i = 1, \dots, g-1$, let $e_i \in \mathbb{Z}^{g-1}$ denote the i th standard basis vector. Show that there is a well-defined homomorphism $G := \{a_1, \dots, a_g \mid a_1^2 \dots a_g^2 = e\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{g-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ such that

$$a_i \mapsto \begin{cases} (e_i, 0) & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, g-1, \\ (-1, \dots, -1, 1) & \text{for } i = g, \end{cases}$$

and that it descends to an isomorphism of the abelianization of G to $\mathbb{Z}^{g-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$.

EXERCISE 19.2. Recall that if Σ is a surface with boundary, the **boundary** $\partial\Sigma$ is defined as the set of all points $p \in \Sigma$ such that some chart $\varphi: \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \Omega \subset \mathbb{H}^2$ defined on a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \Sigma$ of p satisfies $\varphi(p) \in \partial\mathbb{H}^2$. Here $\mathbb{H}^2 := [0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, $\partial\mathbb{H}^2 := \{0\} \times \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{H}^2$, and Ω is an open subset of $\mathbb{H}^2$. One can analogously define $p \in \Sigma$ to be an *interior point* of Σ if some chart maps it to $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$. Prove that no point on $\partial\Sigma$ is also an interior point of Σ .

Hint: If you have two charts defined near p such that one sends p to $\partial\mathbb{H}^2$ while the other sends it to $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$, then a transition map relating these two charts maps some neighborhood in $\mathbb{H}^2$ of a point $x \in \mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$ to a neighborhood in $\mathbb{H}^2$ of a point $y \in \partial\mathbb{H}^2$. What happens to this homeomorphism if you remove the points x and y ? Think about the fundamental group.

Remark: A similar result is true for topological manifolds of arbitrary dimension, but you do not yet have enough tools at your disposal to prove this. A proof using singular homology will be possible before the end of the semester.

EXERCISE 19.3. This exercise concerns manifolds with smooth structures, which were discussed briefly in Lecture 18 (see especially Definition 18.10 and Theorem 18.11). We will need the following additional notions:

- For two smooth manifolds M and N , a map $f: M \rightarrow N$ is called **smooth** if for every pair of smooth charts ψ_β on N and φ_α on M , the map $f_{\beta\alpha} := \psi_\beta \circ f \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}$ is C^∞ wherever it is defined. (In other words, f is “ C^∞ in local coordinates”.)
- For $f: M \rightarrow N$ a smooth map between smooth manifolds, a point $q \in N$ is a **regular value** of f if for all charts φ_α on M and ψ_β on N such that q is in the domain of ψ_β , $\psi_\beta(q)$ is a regular value of $f_{\beta\alpha}$. (In other words, q is a “regular value of f in local coordinates”.)

An easy corollary of the usual implicit function theorem (Theorem 18.11) then states that if M is a smooth m -manifold without boundary, N is a smooth n -manifold and $f: M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map that has $q \in N$ as a regular value, the preimage $f^{-1}(q) \subset M$ is a smooth submanifold³¹ of

³¹A subset $Y \subset M$ of a smooth m -manifold M is called a **smooth submanifold** (*glatte Untermannigfaltigkeit*) of dimension k if every point $p \in Y$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ admitting a so-called **slice chart** (*Bügelkarte*),

dimension $m - n$. If M has boundary, then one should assume additionally that q is a regular value of the restricted map $f|_{\partial M} : \partial M \rightarrow N$, and the conclusion is then that $Q := f^{-1}(q)$ is a smooth manifold of dimension $m - n$ with boundary $\partial Q = Q \cap \partial M$.

We will use the following perturbation lemma as a block box: if M and N are compact smooth manifolds, $q \in N$ and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is continuous, then every neighborhood of f in $C(M, N)$ with the compact-open topology (cf. Exercise 7.9) contains a smooth map $f_\epsilon : M \rightarrow N$ for which q is a regular value of both f_ϵ and $f_\epsilon|_{\partial M}$. Moreover, if $f|_{\partial M}$ is already smooth and has q as a regular value, then the perturbation can be chosen such that $f_\epsilon|_{\partial M} = f|_{\partial M}$. Proofs of these statements can be found in standard books on differential topology such as [Hir94].

If you take all of this as given, then you can use it to define something quite beautiful. Assume M and N are closed connected smooth manifolds of the same dimension n . Then for any smooth map $f : M \rightarrow N$ with regular value $q \in N$, the implicit function theorem implies that $f^{-1}(q)$ is a compact 0-manifold, i.e. a finite set of points. Define the **mod 2 mapping degree** $\deg_2(f) \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ of f by

$$\deg_2(f) := |f^{-1}(q)| \pmod{2},$$

i.e. $\deg_2(f)$ is $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ if the number of points in $f^{-1}(q)$ is even, and $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ if it is odd.

- (a) Prove that for any given choice of the point $q \in N$, the degree $\deg_2(f) \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ depends only on the homotopy class of the map $f : M \rightarrow N$.

Hint: If you have a homotopy $H : I \times M \rightarrow N$ between two maps, perturb it as necessary and look at $H^{-1}(q)$. Use the classification of compact 1-manifolds.

Remark: One can show with a little more effort that $\deg_2(f)$ also does not depend on the choice of the point q , and moreover, it has a well-defined extension to continuous (but not necessarily smooth) maps $f : M \rightarrow N$, defined by setting $\deg_2(f) := \deg_2(f_\epsilon)$ for any sufficiently close smooth perturbation f_ϵ that has q as a regular value.

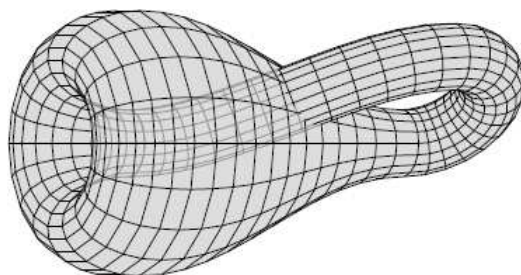
- (b) Prove that every continuous map $f : S^2 \rightarrow S^2$ homotopic to the identity is surjective.
 (c) What goes wrong with this discussion if we allow M to be a noncompact manifold? Describe two homotopic maps $f, g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ for which $\deg_2(f)$ and $\deg_2(g)$ can be defined in the manner described above but are not equal.
 (d) Prove that if $n > m$, every continuous map $S^m \rightarrow S^n$ is homotopic to a constant map.
Hint: What does it mean for a point $q \in S^n$ to be a regular value of $f : S^m \rightarrow S^n$ if $n > m$?

20. Orientations

This lecture is in part an addendum to the classification of surfaces, though it will also introduce some concepts that will be useful to have in mind when we discuss homology.

20.1. Orientation-preserving homeomorphisms. I have used the word “orientation” many times in this course without giving any precise explanation of what it means. I want to do that now, at least for manifolds of dimensions one and two. The canonical example to have in mind is the Klein bottle:

meaning a smooth chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with the property that $Y \cap \mathcal{U} = \varphi^{-1}(\mathbb{R}^k \times \{0\})$. Covering Y with slice charts then gives Y the structure of a smooth k -manifold for which the inclusion $Y \hookrightarrow M$ is a smooth map. As an important special case: the boundary $\partial M \subset M$ of a smooth m -manifold is always a smooth $(m - 1)$ -dimensional submanifold.



This standard picture of the Klein bottle is unfortunately the image of a *non-injective* map $i : K^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ into 3-dimensional Euclidean space from a certain closed 2-manifold K^2 : in differential geometry, one would call $i : K^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ an *immersion*, which fails to be an *embedding* (and its image is therefore not a *submanifold* of $\mathbb{R}^3$) because one can see a pair of disjoint circles $C_1, C_2 \subset K^2$ such that $i(C_1) = i(C_2)$. For the following informal discussion, however, let us ignore this detail and pretend that $i : K^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is an embedding, with no self-intersections.³² Now, aside from the fact that it cannot be embedded into $\mathbb{R}^3$, what most of us really find strange about the Klein bottle is that we cannot make a meaningful distinction between the “inside” and the “outside” of the surface. If, for instance, you were an insect and somebody tried to trap you inside a glass Klein bottle, then you could just walk along the surface until you are standing on the opposite side of the glass, and you are free. In mathematical terms, this means that the Klein bottle $K^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ admits an embedded loop $\gamma : I \rightarrow K^2$ along which a continuous family of nonzero vectors $V(t) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ can be found which are orthogonal to the surface at each $\gamma(t)$ and satisfy $V(1) = -V(0)$. By contrast, if you take any embedded loop $\gamma : I \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ on the torus in its standard representation as a tube-like subset of $\mathbb{R}^3$, and choose a normal vector field $V(t)$ along this loop, $V(1)$ will always need to be a positive multiple of $V(0)$. That’s because there *is* a meaningful distinction between the outside and inside of the torus $\mathbb{T}^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.³³

But this discussion of “inside” vs. “outside” is not really satisfactory, because whenever we talk about normal vectors, we are referring to a piece of data that is not intrinsic to the spaces $\mathbb{T}^2$ or K^2 . It depends rather on how we choose to embed or immerse them in $\mathbb{R}^3$. So how can we talk about orientations without mentioning normal vectors?

To answer this, imagine again that you are an insect standing on the surface of the Klein bottle, and while standing in place, you turn around in a circle, rotating 360 degrees to your left. An observer from the outside will see you turn, but the *direction* of the turn that observer sees will depend on which side of the glass you are standing on. In particular, if you turn around like this and then follow the aforementioned path to come back to the same point but on the other side of the glass, then when you turn again 360 degrees to the left, the outside observer will see you turning the other way. We can use this turning idea to formulate a precise notion of orientation without mentioning normal vectors.

Informally, let us agree that an orientation of a surface should mean a choice of which kinds of rotations at each point are to be labeled “clockwise” as opposed “counterclockwise”. This is still not a precise mathematical definition, but now we are making progress. The term “counterclockwise rotation” has a precise and canonical definition in $\mathbb{R}^2$, for instance, thus we can agree that $\mathbb{R}^2$ has a canonical orientation. The natural thing to do is then to use charts to define orientations

³²Notice that if we were willing to map K^2 into $\mathbb{R}^4$ instead of $\mathbb{R}^3$, then we could easily turn i into an injective map $K^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ just by slightly perturbing the fourth coordinate along C_1 but not along C_2 .

³³The fancy way of saying this in differential-geometric language is that the *normal bundle* of the standard immersion $K^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is nontrivial, whereas the standard embedding $\mathbb{T}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ has trivial normal bundle. If you don’t know what that means, don’t worry about it for now.

on a surface Σ via their local identifications with $\mathbb{R}^2$. There's just one obvious problem with this idea: if all charts are allowed, then the definition of an orientation at some point might depend on our choice of chart to use near that point, because the transition map relating two charts might interchange counterclockwise and clockwise rotations. It therefore becomes important to restrict the class of allowed charts so that transition maps do not change orientations, i.e. so that they are *orientation preserving*. Our main task is to give the latter term a precise definition, and this can be done in terms of winding numbers.

Recall the following notion from Exercise 10.5. For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\epsilon > 0$, define a counterclockwise loop about z by

$$\gamma_{z,\epsilon} : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C} : e^{i\theta} \mapsto z + \epsilon e^{i\theta}.$$

Note that for fixed $z \in \mathbb{C}$, varying the value of $\epsilon > 0$ does not change the homotopy class of this loop in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}$, and for a suitable choice of base point it is always a generator of $\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, define also the loop

$$\gamma_{z,\epsilon}^k : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : e^{i\theta} \mapsto z + \epsilon e^{ki\theta},$$

which covers $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ exactly k times if $k > 0$, covers it $|k|$ times with reversed orientation if $k < 0$, and is constant if $k = 0$. Now for any other loop $\alpha : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}$, the **winding number** (*Windungszahl*) of α about z is an integer characterized uniquely by the condition

$$\text{wind}(\alpha; z) = k \iff \alpha \underset{h}{\sim} \gamma_{z,\epsilon}^k \quad \text{in } \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}.$$

If $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset \mathbb{C}$ are open subsets and $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is a homeomorphism, then for any $z \in \mathcal{U}$ with $f(z) = w \in \mathcal{V}$, we can assume the loop $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ lies in $\mathcal{U}$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small, and the fact that f is bijective makes $f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ a loop in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}$. It follows that there is a well-defined winding number $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; w) \in \mathbb{Z}$, and shrinking $\epsilon > 0$ to a smaller number $\epsilon' > 0$ obviously will not change it since $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ and $\gamma_{z,\epsilon'}$ are homotopic in $\mathcal{U} \setminus \{z\}$, so that $f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ and $f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon'}$ are homotopic in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}$.

LEMMA 20.1. *In the situation described above, $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; w)$ is always either 1 or -1 .*

PROOF. Choose $\epsilon > 0$ small enough so that the image of $f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ lies in a ball $B_r(w)$ about w with radius $r > 0$ sufficiently small such that $B_r(w) \subset \mathcal{V}$. Then for $\delta \in (0, r)$, the homotopy class of $\gamma_{w,\delta}$ generates $\pi_1(B_r(w) \setminus \{w\}) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{w\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and $k := \text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; w)$ is the unique integer such that $f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ is homotopic in $B_r(w) \setminus \{w\}$ to $\gamma_{w,\delta}^k$. Since $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ generates $\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\})$, there is also a unique integer $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{w,\delta}$ is homotopic in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}$ to $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}^\ell$. This implies

$$\gamma_{z,\epsilon} = f^{-1} \circ f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon} \underset{h}{\sim} f^{-1} \circ \gamma_{w,\delta}^k \underset{h}{\sim} \gamma_{z,\epsilon}^{k\ell} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\},$$

hence $k\ell = 1$. Since k and ℓ are both integers, we conclude both are ± 1 . $\square$

The proof of the following is Exercise 20.1:

LEMMA 20.2. *In the setting of Lemma 20.1, the subsets $\mathcal{U}_\pm = \{z \in \mathcal{U} \mid \text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; f(z)) = \pm 1\}$ are each both open and closed, so in particular, the sign of this winding number is constant on each connected component of $\mathcal{U}$.* $\square$

One can define winding numbers just as well for loops in $\mathbb{R}^2$ by identifying $\mathbb{R}^2$ with $\mathbb{C}$ via $(x, y) \leftrightarrow x + iy$. We have been using complex numbers purely for notational convenience, but in the following we will refer instead to domains in $\mathbb{R}^2$ or the half-plane $\mathbb{H}^2$. The discussion also makes sense for homeomorphisms between open subsets of $\mathbb{H}^2$ as long as we only consider points z in the interior $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$, since the loop $\gamma_{z,\epsilon}$ is then contained in $\mathbb{H}^2$ for ϵ sufficiently small. Note that by Exercise 19.2, a homeomorphism between open subsets of $\mathbb{H}^2$ always maps points in $\partial\mathbb{H}^2$ to $\partial\mathbb{H}^2$ and points in $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$ to $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$.

DEFINITION 20.3. Given open subsets $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset \mathbb{H}^2$, a homeomorphism $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is called **orientation preserving** (*orientierungserhaltend*) if $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; f(z)) = 1$ for all $z \in \mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$ and $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small. It is called **orientation reversing** (*orientierungsumkehrend*) if $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; f(z)) = -1$ for all $z \in \mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \partial\mathbb{H}^2$ and $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small.

Lemmas 20.1 and 20.2 together imply that a homeomorphism is always either orientation preserving or orientation reversing on each individual connected component. Similar notions can also be defined in all positive dimensions, not only dimension two, though one needs to replace winding numbers with a different way of measuring the local behavior of a homeomorphism in higher dimensions. In dimension one, the proper definition is fairly obvious:

DEFINITION 20.4. Given open subsets $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}$ in $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{H} := [0, \infty)$, a homeomorphism $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is called **orientation preserving** if it is an increasing function, and **orientation reversing** if it is a decreasing function.

I will refrain for now from stating the definition for dimensions $n \geq 3$, since it requires a certain amount of language (involving degrees of maps between spheres) that we have not yet adequately defined. A more straightforward definition is available however if you are willing to restrict from homeomorphisms to *diffeomorphisms*, i.e. bijections that are C^∞ and have C^∞ inverses. Actually, C^1 is good enough: the point is that the derivative $df(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ of such a map at any point x is guaranteed to be an *invertible* linear map, so it has a nonzero determinant. One then calls the map orientation preserving if the determinant of its derivative is everywhere positive, and orientation reversing if that determinant is everywhere negative. We will not worry about this in the following since we will almost exclusively talk about orientations for manifolds of dimension at most two. Nonetheless, there is no harm in stating a definition of orientation that is valid for topological manifolds of arbitrary dimension, and the definition will look slightly familiar if you recall our discussion of smooth structures in Lecture 18.

DEFINITION 20.5. An **orientation** (*Orientierung*) of an n -manifold M for $n \geq 1$ is a maximal collection of charts $\{\varphi_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ such that $M = \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$ and all transition maps $\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha^{-1}$ are orientation preserving. If M is a 0-manifold, we define an orientation on M to be a function $\epsilon : M \rightarrow \{1, -1\}$, which partitions M into sets of positively/negatively oriented points $M_\pm := \epsilon^{-1}(\pm 1)$.

We say that M is **orientable** (*orientierbar*) if it admits an orientation, and refer to any manifold endowed with the extra structure of an orientation as an **oriented manifold** (*orientierte Mannigfaltigkeit*).

Specializing again to dimension 2, an orientation of M allows you to draw small loops around arbitrary points in M and label them “counterclockwise” or “clockwise” in a consistent way, where consistency means in effect that you can never deform a counterclockwise loop continuously through small loops around other points and end up with a clockwise loop. The actual definition of counterclockwise comes from the special collection of charts that an orientation provides: we call these **oriented charts**, and define a small loop about a point in M to be counterclockwise if and only if it looks counterclockwise in an oriented chart.

If M is a 1-manifold, then instead of talking about loops or rotations, we can simply label orientations with arrows: the orientation defines which paths in M can be called “increasing” as opposed to “decreasing”.

REMARK 20.6. One can show that any orientation-preserving homeomorphism between open subsets of $\mathbb{H}^2$ restricts to the boundary as an orientation-preserving homeomorphism between open subsets of $\partial\mathbb{H}^2 \cong \mathbb{R}$. It follows that there is a natural notion of induced **boundary orientation**, i.e. on any orientable surface Σ with boundary, a choice of orientation on Σ induces a natural

orientation on $\partial\Sigma$ by taking the oriented charts on the latter to be restrictions of the oriented charts on Σ . An analogous statement is true for manifolds with boundary in all dimensions. For $\dim M = 1$, one defines the boundary orientation of ∂M by setting $\epsilon(p) = 1$ whenever the “increasing” direction of M points from the interior of M toward the boundary point $p \in \partial M$, and $\epsilon(p) = -1$ whenever this direction points from $p \in \partial M$ toward the interior. (Different authors may define this in slightly different ways, but it usually doesn’t matter: the point is just to choose a convention and be consistent about it.)

20.2. Oriented triangulations. Let us specialize this discussion to manifolds with triangulations, i.e. manifolds that are homeomorphic to the polyhedron of a simplicial complex. The latter is an essentially combinatorial notion, so orientations of such objects can also be defined in combinatorial terms. Recall that if J is any finite set, any bijection $\pi : J \rightarrow J$ is a permutation of its elements, that is, one can identify π with some element of the symmetric S_N group on N objects after choosing a numbering $v_1, \dots, v_N$ for the elements in J . The symmetric group S_N is generated by *flips*, meaning permutations that interchange two elements of J while leaving the rest fixed, and we say that $\pi \in S_N$ is an **even** permutation if it can be written as a composition of evenly many flips; otherwise it is an **odd** permutation. If we represent π by an N -by- N matrix permuting the N standard basis vectors of $\mathbb{R}^N$, then we can recognize the even/odd permutations as those for which this matrix has positive/negative determinant respectively; in fact, the matrices of even permutations always have determinant $+1$, and those of odd permutations have determinant -1 . To motivate the next definition, recall the definition of the standard n -simplex $\Delta^n = \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \mid t_0 + \dots + t_n = 1\}$. Any element of the symmetric group on $n+1$ objects can be regarded as a permutation of the vertices of Δ^n numbered from 0 to n , and the matrix representation of this permutation then defines a linear map on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ that permutes the standard basis vectors accordingly. That linear map preserves the subset $\Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, and it is an orientation-preserving transformation on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ if and only if its determinant is positive, which is equivalent to requiring the permutation to be even.

DEFINITION 20.7. For a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$, an **orientation** of an n -simplex $\sigma \in S$ for $n \geq 1$ is an equivalence class of orderings of the vertices $v \in \sigma$, where two orderings are defined to be equivalent if and only if they are related to each other by an even permutation. An orientation of a 0-simplex is defined simply as an assignment of the number $+1$ or -1 to that vertex.

For simplices of dimension 1 or 2 there are easy ways to illustrate in pictures what this definition means; see Figure 15. The figure shows the six possible ways of ordering the three vertices of a 2-simplex, where the individual choices in each row are related to each other by even permutations and thus define equivalent orientations, whereas each choice is related to the one directly underneath it by a single flip, which is an odd permutation. We can represent the orientation itself by drawing a circular arrow that follows the direction of the sequence of vertices labeled 0, 1, 2, and this arrow depends *only* on the orientation since even permutations of three objects are also *cyclical* permutations.

Another intuitive fact you can infer from Figure 15 is that an orientation of a 2-simplex induces a natural **boundary orientation** for each of its 1-dimensional boundary faces. The latter orientations are represented in the picture by arrows pointing from one vertex to another, meant to indicate the ordering of the two vertices, and the visual recipe is simply that the arrows of all three edges together should describe the same kind of rotation as the circular arrow on the 2-simplex. This can also be reduced to a purely combinatorial algorithm, and it makes sense in every dimension. For an n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$, the k th **boundary face** $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$ of σ is the $(n-1)$ -simplex whose vertices include all the $v_0, \dots, v_n$ except v_k . Clearly if the vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ come with an ordering, then the vertices of $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$ inherit an ordering from this, though here we

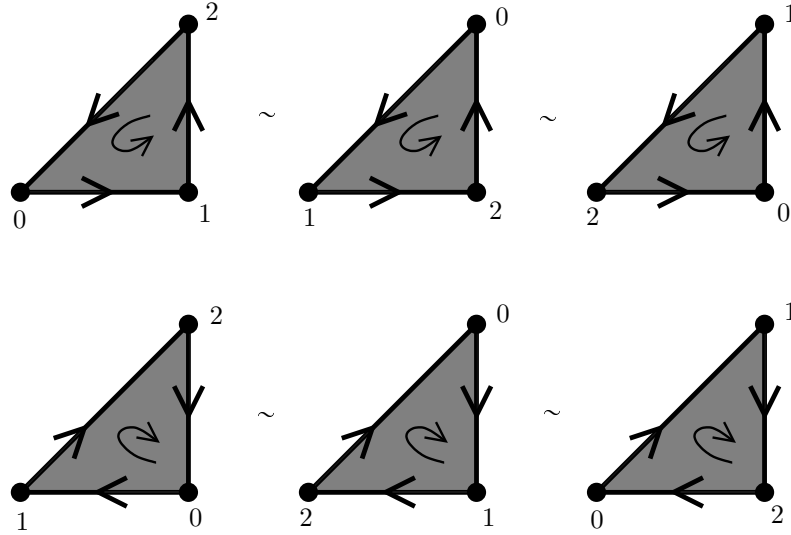


FIGURE 15. The six distinct orderings that define the two possible orientations of a 2-simplex.

have to be a bit careful because applying an even permutation to $v_0, \dots, v_n$ and then eliminating v_k may produce a sequence that differs from $v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n$ by an *odd* permutation. To get a well-defined orientation on $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$, one can instead do the following: notice that the sequence $v_0, \dots, v_k$ can be reordered as $v_k, v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n$ by a sequence of k flips. Permutations of this new sequence that fix the first object v_k are then equivalent to permutations of the vertices of $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$, so the even/odd parity of the permutation does not change if we remove v_k from the list. We must not forget however that in order to produce the list with v_k at the front, we performed k flips, meaning a permutation that is even if and only if k is even. This discussion implies that the following notion of boundary orientation is well defined.

DEFINITION 20.8. Given an oriented n -simplex for $n \geq 2$ with vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ ordered accordingly, the induced **boundary orientation** of its k th boundary face $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$ is defined as the same ordering of its vertices (with v_k removed) if k is even, and otherwise it is defined by any odd permutation of this ordering. For $n = 1$, the boundary orientations are defined by assigning the sign $+1$ to $\partial_{(0)}\sigma = \{v_1\}$ and -1 to $\partial_{(1)}\sigma = \{v_0\}$.

You should now take a moment to stare again at Figure 15 and assure yourself that the boundary orientations indicated there are consistent with this definition.

DEFINITION 20.9. An **oriented triangulation** of a closed surface Σ is a triangulation $\Sigma \cong |K|$ together with a choice of orientation for each 2-simplex in the complex K such that for every 1-simplex σ in K , the two induced boundary orientations that it inherits as a boundary face of two distinct 2-simplices are opposite.

The point of the condition on 1-simplices is to ensure that the orientations of any two neighboring 2-simplices are “compatible” in the sense that each of the circular arrows can be pushed continuously into the other. Figure 16 (left) shows an example of an oriented triangulation of $\mathbb{T}^2$. The arrows on 1-simplices in this picture are not meant to represent boundary orientations, but are just the usual indications of which 1-simplices on the boundary of the square should be glued together and how. We see in particular that the orientations indicated by these arrows on simplices

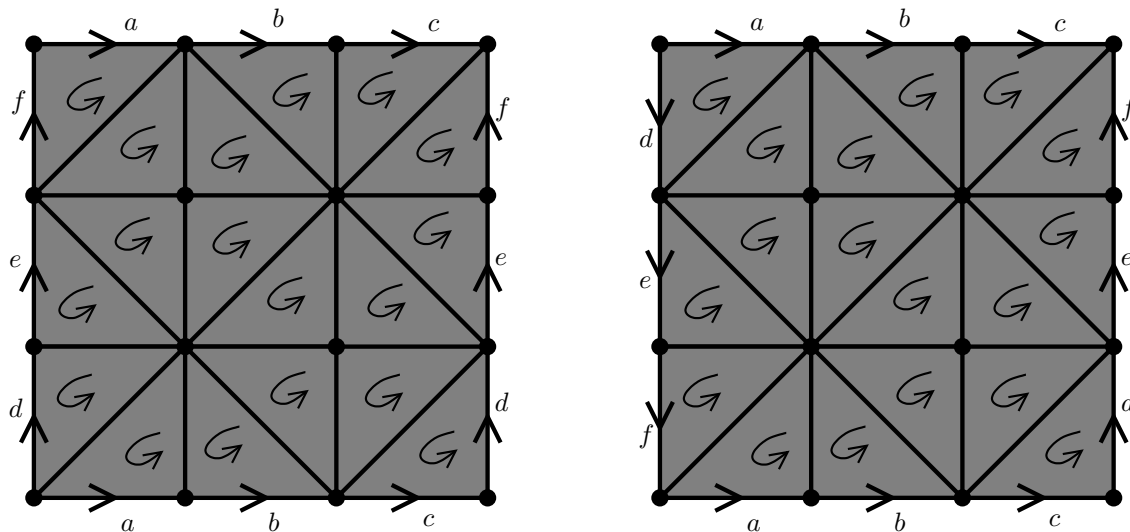


FIGURE 16. An oriented triangulation of the 2-torus (left) and a failed attempt to orient a triangulation of the Klein bottle (right).

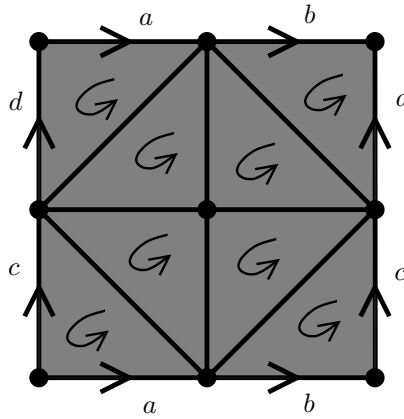
d, e, f are the right boundary orientation on the right hand side but the wrong one on the left hand side. According to Definition 20.9, this is exactly what we want. Figure 16 (right) then shows what goes wrong if we try to do the same thing with a Klein bottle. If we imagine that this triangulation admits an orientation, then it will be represented by either clockwise or counterclockwise loops in each 2-simplex in the picture, all of them the same because they must induce opposite orientations on all the 1-dimensional boundary faces between them. In the picture, they are all drawn counterclockwise. But notice that in both copies of each of the 1-simplices d, e, f , the arrow matches the induced boundary orientation, so this picture does not define a valid oriented triangulation. The next theorem implies in fact that no triangulation of the Klein bottle can be oriented.

THEOREM 20.10. *The following conditions are equivalent for any closed connected surface Σ .*

- (1) Σ is orientable.
- (2) Σ admits an oriented triangulation.
- (3) Σ does not contain any subset homeomorphic to the Möbius band.

COROLLARY 20.11. *Every closed, connected and orientable surface is homeomorphic to Σ_g for some $g \geq 0$. $\square$*

All of the ideas required for proving Theorem 20.10 have been discussed already, so let us merely sketch how they need to be put together. The equivalence of (1) and (2) is easy to understand by drawing small loops: clearly a choice of “counterclockwise loops” around points in the interior of any 2-simplex $\sigma \subset \Sigma$ determines a cyclic ordering of the vertices of that simplex, and conversely. Notice that this correspondence has a slightly non-obvious corollary: if some triangulation of Σ can be oriented, then so can all others. It should also be intuitively clear why (1) implies (3): if Σ contains a Möbius band, then no globally consistent notion of counterclockwise loops can be defined, since deforming it continuously along certain closed paths around the Möbius band would reverse it. For the converse, we can appeal to the classification of surfaces and observe that any surface Σ satisfying the third condition is homeomorphic to one of the surfaces Σ_g , which can be represented by a polygon with $4g$ sides. In the polygon picture, it is an easy exercise to construct an

FIGURE 17. Not actually a triangulation of $\mathbb{T}^2$.

oriented triangulation for Σ_g (see Exercise 20.2). Alternatively, one can produce an orientation of the manifold Σ_g from the knowledge that it can be embedded smoothly into $\mathbb{R}^3$ as the boundary of a compact region, thus splitting $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \Sigma_g$ into a bounded “inside” region and an unbounded “outside” region. Associating to each point $z \in \Sigma$ the unique unit vector $\nu(z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ that points orthogonally to Σ at z from the inside toward the outside, one can then use a version of the “right hand rule” to define a notion of counterclockwise rotations about the axis spanned by $\nu(z)$.

REMARK 20.12. The relationship between (2) and (3) can also be understood in terms of the presence of cross-caps or cross-handles in our proof of the classification of surfaces: the orientable surfaces are precisely those which can be constructed without any cross-caps or cross-handles, which turns out to work if and only if the 2-simplices can be assigned orientations for which the gluing maps between matching 1-simplices are orientation reversing.

REMARK 20.13. You might be wondering whether it’s really necessary for the triangulations in Figure 16 to have so many simplices, e.g. could one not also triangulate $\mathbb{T}^2$ with only eight 2-simplices as shown in Figure 17? The trouble is that what Figure 17 shows is not actually a triangulation, because in a simplicial complex, each simplex is uniquely determined by its vertices, whereas in Figure 17, the way that points are identified along the boundary of the square means that e.g. the two triangles at the lower-left and the lower-right have exactly the same set of vertices, despite being different subsets of $\mathbb{T}^2$.

This concludes our discussion of surfaces.

20.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 20.1. Prove Lemma 20.2.

Hint: Since the two sets are complementary, it suffices to prove both are open. What happens to $\text{wind}(f \circ \gamma_{z,\epsilon}; w)$ if you perturb z and w independently of each other by very small amounts?

EXERCISE 20.2. Construct an explicit oriented triangulation of Σ_g for each $g \geq 0$. Then, just for fun, count how many k -simplices it has for each $k = 0, 1, 2$. You will find that the number of 0-simplices minus the number of 1-simplices plus the number of 2-simplices is $2 - 2g$. (Someday next semester we’ll discuss the Euler characteristic, and then you’ll see why this is true.)

EXERCISE 20.3. In Exercise 14.2 we considered the space $\Sigma_{g,m}$, defined by cutting the interiors of $m \geq 0$ disjoint disks out of the oriented surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$.

- (a) Prove that every compact, orientable, connected surface with boundary is homeomorphic to $\Sigma_{g,m}$ for some values of $g, m \geq 0$.
Hint: If Σ is a compact 2-manifold, then $\partial\Sigma$ is a closed 1-manifold, and we classified all of the latter. With this knowledge, there is a cheap trick by which you can turn any compact surface with boundary into a closed surface, and then apply what you have learned about the classification of closed surfaces. Don't forget to keep track of orientations.
- (b) Prove that $\Sigma_{g,m}$ is homeomorphic to $\Sigma_{h,n}$ if and only if $g = h$ and $m = n$.

21. Higher homotopy, bordism, and simplicial homology

21.1. Detecting holes in spaces. The rest of this semester's course will be about homology, but before defining it, I want to discuss some related ideas that should help motivate the definition. In some sense, all of the algebraic topological invariants we discuss in this course can be viewed as methods for “detecting holes” in a topological space. Let me start by describing a few concrete examples in which the fundamental group either does or does not succeed in this task.

EXAMPLE 21.1. If we replace $\mathbb{R}^2$ with $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2$, then the fundamental group changes from 0 to $\mathbb{Z}$, with the boundary of $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2$ representing a generator of $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2)$, so this is one type of hole that π_1 detects very well.

EXAMPLE 21.2. A 3-dimensional generalization of Example 21.1 is to replace $\mathbb{R}^3$ by $(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \times \mathbb{R}$, which amounts to cutting the neighborhood of a line $\{0\} \times \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}$ out of $\mathbb{R}^3$. Since the extra factor $\mathbb{R}$ is contractible, this example essentially admits a deformation retraction to the previous one, so we still find a generator of $\pi_1((\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \times \mathbb{R}) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ which detects the removal of the tube $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2 \times \mathbb{R}$.

EXAMPLE 21.3. A different type of generalization of Example 21.1 is to remove a 3-dimensional ball from $\mathbb{R}^3$, and here the fundamental group performs less well: $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is 0, and $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^3)$ is still zero since $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^3$ is homotopy equivalent to S^2 and the latter is simply connected. There clearly is a “hole” here, but π_1 does not see it.

EXAMPLE 21.4. There are also examples in which π_1 seems to detect something other than a hole. Let $\Sigma_{g,m}$ denote the surface of genus g with m holes cut out, so Σ_2 is homeomorphic to a surface constructed by gluing together two copies of $\Sigma_{1,1}$ along their common boundary:

$$\Sigma_2 \cong \Sigma_{1,1} \cup_{\partial\Sigma_{1,1}} \Sigma_{1,1}.$$

Let $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \Sigma_2$ denote a loop parametrizing the common boundary of these copies of $\Sigma_{1,1}$. As we saw in Exercise 14.2, γ represents a nontrivial element in $\pi_1(\Sigma_2)$, though it is in the kernel of the natural homomorphism of $\pi_1(\Sigma_2)$ to its abelianization. The latter will turn out to be related to the following geometric observation: while γ cannot be extended to any map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow \Sigma_2$, it can be extended to a map on *some* surface with boundary S^1 , e.g. it admits an extension to the inclusion $\Sigma_{1,1} \hookrightarrow \Sigma_2$. In this sense, there is no actual hole there for γ to detect; it is instead detecting a different phenomenon that has to do with the distinction between “disk-shaped” holes and “holes with genus”.

I'm now going to start suggesting possible remedies for the drawbacks encountered in the last two examples. We will have to try a few times before we can point to the “right” remedy, but all of the objects we discuss along the way are also interesting and worthy of study.

21.2. Higher homotopy groups. For any integer $k \geq 0$, fix a base point $t_0 \in S^k$ and associate to any pointed space (X, x_0) the set

$$\pi_k(X, x_0) = \{f : (S^k, t_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)\} / \sim_{h+},$$

where the equivalence relation $\sim_{h+}$ here means base-point preserving homotopy. This clearly reproduces the fundamental group when $k = 1$. When $k = 0$, $S^0 = \partial\mathbb{D}^1 = \{1, -1\}$ is a discrete space with two points, one of which must be the base point and is thus constrained to map to x_0 , but the other can move freely within each path-component of X , so $\pi_0(X, x_0)$ is in bijective correspondence with the set of path-components of X . This set does not naturally have any group structure, though it does naturally have a “neutral” element, represented by the map that sends both points in S^0 to the base point x_0 . It turns out that for $k \geq 2$, $\pi_k(X, x_0)$ can always be given the structure of an *abelian* group whose identity element is represented by the constant map

$$0 := [(S^k, t_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0) : t \mapsto x_0].$$

The precise definition of the group operation is a bit less obvious than for $k = 1$, so I will not go into it in this brief sketch. As with the fundamental group, one can show that $\pi_k(X, x_0)$ is independent of the base point up to isomorphism whenever X is path-connected, and it is also isomorphic for any two spaces that are homotopy equivalent. We will prove these statements next semester in *Topologie II*, but feel free to have a look at [Hat02, §4.1] if you can’t bear to wait.

Here are a couple of things that can be proved about the higher homotopy groups using something resembling our present state of knowledge in this course:

EXAMPLE 21.5. The identity map $S^k \rightarrow S^k$ represents a nontrivial element of $\pi_k(S^k)$ for every $k \geq 1$. This follows from Exercise 19.3, which sketches the notion of the mod 2 mapping degree in order to show that every map $S^k \rightarrow S^k$ homotopic to the identity is surjective (and therefore nonconstant). More generally, one can use the integer-valued mapping degree for maps $S^k \rightarrow S^k$ to prove that $\pi_k(S^k) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, just like the case $k = 1$. A very nice account of this is given in [Mil97].

EXAMPLE 21.6. For every pair of integers $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n > k$, $\pi_k(S^n) = 0$. This follows easily from a general result in differential topology that allows us to approximate any continuous map between smooth manifolds by a smooth map for which any given point in the target space can be assumed to be a regular value. When $n > k$, the latter means that for any given $q \in S^n$ and a continuous map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$, we can approximate f with a map whose image does not contain q and is thus contained in $S^n \setminus \{q\} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$. The latter admits a deformation retraction to any point it contains, so composing the perturbed map $S^k \rightarrow S^n \setminus \{q\}$ with a deformation retraction of $S^n \setminus \{q\}$ to the base point gives a homotopy of f to the constant map.

Now here is the first piece of bad news about π_k : in general it is rather hard to compute. So hard, in fact, that the answers to certain basic questions about π_k remain unknown, e.g. one of the most popular open questions in modern topology is how to compute $\pi_k(S^n)$ in general when $k > n$. Various special cases are known, but the as-yet incomplete effort to extend these special cases to a general theorem has played a large role in motivating the development of modern homotopy theory. We will need to have more and easier techniques at our disposal before we can discuss such things in earnest.

21.3. Bordism groups. The higher homotopy groups do remedy one of the drawbacks of π_1 that I pointed out above: e.g. π_2 can be used to detect the hole in $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^3$ since, by homotopy invariance,

$$\pi_2(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^3) \cong \pi_2(S^2) \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

with the inclusion $S^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^3$ representing a generator. But there’s another drawback here: while π_k can detect higher-dimensional holes, they are still holes of a fairly specific type which one might call “sphere-shaped” holes. What kind of hole is not sphere-shaped, you ask? Is there such a thing as a “torus-shaped” hole? How about this one:

EXAMPLE 21.7. Let $X = S^1 \times \mathbb{R}^2$ and $X_0 = S^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$, so $X \setminus X_0 = S^1 \times (\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^2)$ admits a deformation retraction to $\partial \bar{X}_0 = S^1 \times S^1 = \mathbb{T}^2$. By homotopy invariance, we have $\pi_1(X) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_1(X \setminus X_0) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{T}^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$, so π_1 does at least partly detect the removal of X_0 from X . But since $X \setminus X_0$ is homotopy equivalent to a surface, there is also an intrinsically 2-dimensional phenomenon going on in this picture, and it seems natural to ask: does $X \setminus X_0$ contain any surface detecting the fact that X_0 has been removed from X ? We can almost immediately give the following answer: if such a surface exists, it is *not* a sphere, in fact $\pi_2(X) = \pi_2(X \setminus X_0) = 0$. To see this, we can use the homotopy invariance of π_2 : the spaces X and $X \setminus X_0$ are homotopy equivalent to S^1 and $\mathbb{T}^2$ respectively, so it suffices to prove $\pi_2(S^1) = \pi_2(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$. Now observe that both S^1 and $\mathbb{T}^2$ are spaces whose universal covers ($\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{R}^2$ respectively) happen to be contractible. In general, suppose $p : \tilde{Y} \rightarrow Y$ denotes the universal cover of some reasonable space Y , and $\tilde{Y}$ is contractible. Since S^2 is simply connected, any map $f : S^2 \rightarrow Y$ can be lifted to $\tilde{f} : S^2 \rightarrow \tilde{Y}$, but the contractibility of $\tilde{Y}$ then implies that $\tilde{f}$ is homotopic to a constant map. Composing that homotopy with $p : \tilde{Y} \rightarrow Y$ gives a corresponding homotopy of $f = p \circ \tilde{f} : S^2 \rightarrow Y$ to a constant map, proving $\pi_2(Y) = 0$.

The preceding example is meant to provide motivation for a new invariant that might be able to detect holes that are not “sphere-shaped”. The idea is to forget about the special role played by spheres in the definition of π_k , but remember the fact that S^k is a closed k -dimensional manifold. Similarly, if M is a k -manifold, the homotopy relation for maps defined on M is defined in terms of maps on $I \times M$, which gives a special status to a very particular class of $(k+1)$ -manifolds with boundary. Since we are now allowing arbitrary closed k -manifolds in place of spheres, it also seems natural to allow arbitrary compact $(k+1)$ -manifolds with boundary for defining equivalence, instead of just manifolds of the form $I \times M$. Following this train of thought to its logical conclusion leads to *bordism theory*.³⁴

For any space X and each integer $k \geq 0$, let

$$\Omega_k(X) := \{(M, f)\} / \sim,$$

where M is any closed (but not necessarily connected or nonempty)³⁵ k -manifold, $f : M \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map, and we write $(M_+, f_+) \sim (M_-, f_-)$ if and only if there exists a compact $(k+1)$ -manifold W with $\partial W \cong M_- \sqcup M_+$ and a map $F : W \rightarrow X$ such that $F|_{M_\pm} = f_\pm$. You should take a moment to think about why $\sim$ defines an equivalence relation. Any two pairs that are equivalent in this sense are said to be **bordant**, and the pair (W, F) is called a **bordism** between them.

EXAMPLE 21.8. $(M, f) \sim (M, g)$ whenever f and g are homotopic maps $M \rightarrow X$, as the homotopy $H : I \times M \rightarrow X$ defines a bordism $(I \times M, H)$.

EXAMPLE 21.9. Recall from Example 21.4 the loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \Sigma_2$ whose image separates Σ_2 into two pieces both homeomorphic to $\Sigma_{1,1}$. Either of the two inclusions $\Sigma_{1,1} \hookrightarrow \Sigma_2$ in this picture can be viewed as a bordism between (S^1, γ) and $(\emptyset, \cdot)$, where $\cdot$ denotes the unique map $\emptyset \rightarrow X$. Hence $[(S^1, \gamma)] = [(\emptyset, \cdot)] \in \Omega_1(\Sigma_2)$.

³⁴In the older literature, “bordism theory” was usually called “cobordism theory,” and it is still common in most subfields of geometry and topology to refer to manifolds whose boundaries are disjoint unions of a given pair of closed manifolds as “cobordisms” instead of “bordisms”. The elimination of the “co-” in “cobordism” is presumably motivated by the fact that bordism groups define a covariant functor instead of a contravariant functor, which makes it more analogous to *homology* than to *cohomology*. I promise you this footnote will make more sense after *Topologie II*.

³⁵Note that the empty set is a k -manifold for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Look again at the definition of manifolds, and you will see that this is true.

Since the manifolds representing elements of $\Omega_k(X)$ need not be connected, the disjoint union provides an obvious definition for a group operation on $\Omega_k(X)$. This operation is necessarily commutative since $X \amalg Y$ has a natural identification with $Y \amalg X$ for any two spaces X and Y . Now would be a good moment to mention the following notational convention: whenever a group G is known a priori to be abelian, we shall from now on denote the group operation in G as *addition* (with a “+” sign) rather than multiplication.

DEFINITION 21.10. We give $\Omega_k(X)$ the structure of an abelian group by defining

$$[(M_1, f_1)] + [(M_2, f_2)] := [(M_1 \amalg M_2, f_1 \amalg f_2)],$$

where $f_1 \amalg f_2 : M_1 \amalg M_2 \rightarrow X$ denotes the unique map whose restriction to $M_i \subset M_1 \amalg M_2$ is f_i for $i = 1, 2$. The identity element is

$$0 := [(\emptyset, \cdot)],$$

with $\cdot : \emptyset \rightarrow X$ denoting the unique map. The group $\Omega_k(X)$ is called the **k -dimensional unoriented bordism group** of X . We say that a pair (M, f) is **null-bordant** whenever $[(M, f)] = 0$, meaning there exists a compact $(k+1)$ -manifold W with $\partial W \cong M$ and a map $F : W \rightarrow X$ with $F|_M = f$.

Referring back to Example 21.7, one can now show that the bordism class represented by the inclusion $\mathbb{T}^2 = \partial \bar{X}_0 \hookrightarrow X \setminus X_0$ is nontrivial in $\Omega_2(X \setminus X_0)$. One way to prove this uses the mod 2 mapping degree (cf. Exercise 19.3) for maps $f : \mathbb{T}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2$: by an argument similar to the proof that $\deg_2(f)$ depends only on the homotopy class of f , one can show that $\deg(f) = 0$ whenever $(\mathbb{T}^2, f)$ is null-bordant. It follows that $[(\mathbb{T}^2, \text{Id})] \neq 0 \in \Omega_2(\mathbb{T}^2)$ since $\deg_2(\text{Id}) = 1$, and this element of $\Omega_2(\mathbb{T}^2)$ can be identified with the aforementioned inclusion using the homotopy equivalence between $\mathbb{T}^2$ and $X \setminus X_0$. In summary, Ω_2 does indeed detect “ $\mathbb{T}^2$ -shaped” holes.

The algebraic structure of $\Omega_k(X)$ is also extremely simple, one might even say too simple, in light of the following result saying that every element in $\Omega_k(X)$ is its own inverse:

PROPOSITION 21.11. For every $[(M, f)] \in \Omega_k(X)$, $[(M, f)] + [(M, f)] = 0$.

PROOF. Let $W = I \times M$ and $F : W \rightarrow X : (s, x) \mapsto f(x)$. Then $\partial W \cong \emptyset \amalg (M \amalg M)$ and $F|_{M \amalg M} = f \amalg f$, hence (W, F) is a bordism between $(M \amalg M, f \amalg f)$ and $(\emptyset, \cdot)$.³⁶ $\square$

One obtains a slightly more interesting algebraic structure by restricting to orientable manifolds and keeping track of orientations. Recall from the previous lecture that a manifold endowed with the extra structure of an orientation is called an *oriented manifold*; we will continue to denote such objects by single letters such as M , but you should keep in mind that they include slightly more data than just a set with its topology. If M is an oriented manifold, we shall denote by $-M$ the same manifold with its orientation reversed: this can always be defined by replacing each of the oriented charts on M by their compositions with an orientation-reversing homeomorphism $\mathbb{H}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^n$ such as $(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, -x_n)$. Recall also from Remark 20.6 that any oriented manifold W with boundary determines a natural *boundary orientation* on ∂W . Whenever we write expressions like $\partial W \cong M$ in the context of oriented manifolds, we will always mean there is a homeomorphism $\partial W \rightarrow M$ that matches the given orientation of M to the boundary orientation of ∂W induced by the given orientation of W .

³⁶One of the slightly confusing things about $\Omega_k(X)$ is that there is always some ambiguity about how to split up the various connected components of ∂W into M_- and M_+ . For the bordism in the proof of Prop. 21.11, one can equally well view it as a bordism between (M, f) and (M, f) , but we are ignoring this because it does not give us any information beyond the fact that the bordism relation is reflexive.

DEFINITION 21.12. The k -dimensional oriented bordism group of X is³⁷

$$\Omega_k^{\text{SO}}(X) := \{(M, f)\} / \sim,$$

where M is a closed (but not necessarily connected or nonempty) oriented k -manifold, $f : M \rightarrow X$ is continuous, and the oriented bordism relation $(M_+, f_+) \sim (M_-, f_-)$ means that there exists a compact oriented $(k+1)$ -manifold W and a map $F : W \rightarrow X$ such that

$$\partial W \cong -M_- \amalg M_+$$

and $F|_{M_{\pm}} = f_{\pm}$. The group operation on $\Omega_k^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is defined via disjoint union as with $\Omega_k(X)$.

Proposition 21.11 is not true for oriented bordism groups: its proof fails due to the fact that the oriented boundary of $I \times M$ is $-M \amalg M$, not $M \amalg M$.

Let us compare both groups in the case $k = 0$. We claim that

$$\Omega_0(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} \mathbb{Z}_2,$$

while

$$\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} \mathbb{Z},$$

where $\pi_0(X)$ is an abbreviation for the set of path-components of X . For concreteness, consider a case where X has exactly three path-components $X_1, X_2, X_3 \subset X$, so the claim is that $\Omega_0(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^3$ and $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^3$. An element of $\Omega_0(X)$ is an equivalence class of pairs (M, f) , where M is a closed 0-manifold, i.e. a finite discrete set, and $f : M \rightarrow X$. Let us number the elements of M as $x_1, \dots, x_N$, and suppose there are two elements that are mapped by f to the same path-component, say $f(x_1), f(x_2) \in X_1$. Then there exists a path $\gamma : I_{12} \rightarrow X$, where $I_{12} := I$, satisfying $\gamma(0) = f(x_1)$ and $\gamma(1) = f(x_2)$. Now define $W := I_{12} \amalg I_3 \amalg \dots \amalg I_N$ where each I_j for $j = 3, \dots, N$ is another copy of I , and decompose the boundary $\partial W = M_- \amalg M_+$ so that M_+ contains ∂I_{12} and $1 \in \partial I_j$ for every $j = 3, \dots, N$, while M_- contains $0 \in \partial I_j$ for every $j = 3, \dots, N$. Defining $F : W \rightarrow X$ such that $F|_{I_{12}} := \gamma$ and F sends I_j to the constant $f(x_j)$ for each $j = 3, \dots, N$, we now have a bordism between (M, f) and (M', f') where $M' := M \setminus \{x_1, x_2\}$ and f' is the restriction of f . One can do this for any pair of points in M that are mapped to the same path-component, so that whenever (M, f) and (N, g) have the same number of points (mod 2) mapped into each path-component, there exists a bordism between them. Conversely, any bordism between two pairs (M, f) and (N, g) is of the form (W, F) where W is a compact 1-manifold with boundary, and by the classification of 1-manifolds, this can only mean a finite disjoint union of circles and compact intervals. Since each of these components individually can only be mapped into one of the path-components X_1, X_2, X_3 and each has either zero or two boundary points, it follows that for each $i = 1, 2, 3$, the number of points of M or N that are mapped into X_i can only differ by an even number. We have just proved the following: given $[(M, f)] \in \Omega_0(X)$, let $f_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$ denote the number (mod 2) of points in M that f maps into X_i . Then

$$\Omega_0(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^3 : [(M, f)] \mapsto (f_1, f_2, f_3)$$

is an isomorphism.

To understand $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X)$, we need to keep in mind that an oriented 0-manifold M is not just a finite set of points, but it also comes with a map $\epsilon : M \rightarrow \{1, -1\}$ telling us which points are to be regarded as “positively oriented” as opposed to “negatively oriented” (cf. Definition 20.5). It is now no longer possible to cancel arbitrary pairs as in the unoriented case, but suppose $M = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$

³⁷The “SO” in the notation $\Omega_k^{\text{SO}}(X)$ stands for the group $\text{SO}(k)$, the special orthogonal group. This has to do with the fact that $\text{SO}(k)$ is precisely the subgroup of $\text{O}(k)$ consisting of orthogonal transformations that are *orientation preserving*.

and f sends both x_1 and x_2 into X_1 , and also that $\epsilon(x_1) = -1$ while $\epsilon(x_2) = +1$. We can again choose a path $\gamma : I_{12} \rightarrow X_1$ with $\gamma(0) = f(x_1)$ and $\gamma(1) = f(x_2)$, and define $W = I_{12} \amalg I_3 \amalg \dots \amalg I_N$ and $F : W \rightarrow X$ as before. Before we can call (W, F) an oriented bordism, we need to specify the orientation of W . Let us assume I_{12} is oriented so that $\epsilon(1) = +1$ and $\epsilon(0) = -1$, while for $j = 3, \dots, N$, orient I_j such that $\epsilon(1) = \epsilon(x_j)$ and $\epsilon(0) = -\epsilon(x_j)$. We now have $\partial W = -M' \amalg M$ where $M' = M \setminus \{x_1, x_2\}$ with the same orientations on the points $x_3, \dots, x_N$, hence (W, F) is an oriented bordism between (M, f) and (M', f') . It is possible to construct such a bordism to eliminate any pair of points in M that have opposite signs and are mapped to the same path-component of X . Thus if we define $f_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ for each $i = 1, 2, 3$ by

$$f_i := \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(X_i)} \epsilon(x),$$

it follows that any two pairs (M, f) and (N, g) for which $f_i = g_i$ for every i must admit an oriented bordism. Conversely, the classification of 1-manifolds again implies that an arbitrary oriented bordism (W, F) between two pairs (M, f) and (N, g) is a map defined on a finite disjoint union of oriented intervals and circles, and since the two boundary points of an oriented interval I are always oriented with opposite signs, any component of W whose boundary lies entirely in one of M or $-N$ contributes zero to the counts defining the numbers f_i and g_i , while components that have one boundary point in M and one in $-N$ make the same contribution ± 1 to f_i and g_i . This proves that the map

$$\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^3 : [(M, f)] \mapsto (f_1, f_2, f_3)$$

is well defined and is also an isomorphism.

While computing the 0-dimensional bordism groups is not hard, we run into a serious (though interesting!) difficulty with the higher-dimensional bordism groups: they can be nontrivial even if X is only a one-point space. When $X = \{\text{pt}\}$, we abbreviate

$$\Omega_k := \Omega_k(\{\text{pt}\}), \quad \Omega_k^{\text{SO}} := \Omega_k^{\text{SO}}(\{\text{pt}\}),$$

and notice that since there is only one map from each manifold to $\{\text{pt}\}$, the elements of Ω_k^{SO} are equivalence classes of oriented closed manifolds M where $M \sim N$ whenever $\partial W \cong -M \amalg N$ for some compact oriented manifold W ; elements of Ω_k can be described in the same way after deleting the word “oriented” everywhere. In particular, we have $[M] = 0 \in \Omega_k$ if and only if M is homeomorphic to the boundary of some compact $(k+1)$ -manifold. The question of whether a given manifold can be the boundary of another compact manifold is interesting, and the answer is often not obvious. For $k = 1$ it is not so hard: the classification of 1-manifolds implies that every bordism class $[M]$ in Ω_1 or Ω_1^{SO} is represented by a finite disjoint union of circles, and since $S^1 = \partial \mathbb{D}^2$, all of these are (oriented) boundaries, hence

$$\Omega_1 = \Omega_1^{\text{SO}} = 0.$$

It is similarly easy to see that all closed oriented surfaces are boundaries of compact oriented 3-manifolds: just take your favorite embedding of Σ_g into $\mathbb{R}^3$ and consider the region bounded by that embedded surface. For the oriented 3-dimensional case, we do not have any simple classification result to rely upon, but one can instead appeal to a standard (though not so trivial) result from low-dimensional topology known as the Dehn-Lickorish theorem, which can be interpreted as presenting arbitrary closed oriented 3-manifolds as boundaries of compact oriented 4-manifolds obtained by attaching “2-handles” to $\mathbb{D}^4$. We can therefore say

$$\Omega_2^{\text{SO}} = \Omega_3^{\text{SO}} = 0.$$

However, in the unoriented case, there is already trouble in dimension two: it is known that there does not exist any compact 3-manifold whose boundary is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{RP}^2$. This can be

proved using methods that we will cover in *Topologie II*, notably the Poincaré duality isomorphism between the homology and cohomology groups of closed manifolds (see Lecture 27 for a preview). A similar argument implies that the complex counterpart of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, the complex projective space $\mathbb{CP}^2$, is a closed oriented 4-manifold that never occurs as the boundary of any compact oriented 5-manifold. This implies

$$[\mathbb{RP}^2] \neq 0 \in \Omega_2, \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbb{CP}^2] \neq 0 \in \Omega_4^{\text{SO}}.$$

This reveals that in general, the k -dimensional bordism groups of a one-point space contain a lot more information than one might expect: instead of just telling us something about the rather boring space $\{\text{pt}\}$, they tell us something about the classification of closed k -manifolds, namely which ones can appear as boundaries of other compact manifolds and which ones cannot. That is an interesting question, and one that is very much worth studying at some point, but as with the higher homotopy groups, we will need to have a much wider range of simpler techniques at our disposal before we are equipped to tackle it.

21.4. Simplicial homology. The first version of homology theory that we will now discuss can be regarded as an attempt to capture much of the same information about X that is seen by the bordism groups $\Omega_n(X)$ and $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$, but without requiring us to know anything about the (generally quite hard) problem of classifying closed n -manifolds. The first idea is that instead of allowing arbitrary closed manifolds as domains, we consider manifolds with triangulations, so that all the data can be expressed in terms of simplices. The followup idea is that now that everything is expressed in terms of simplices, there is no need to mention manifolds at all.

Consider a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ with associated polyhedron $X := |K|$, and for each integer $n \geq 0$, let $S_{(n)} \subset S$ denote the set of n -simplices. As auxiliary data, we also fix an abelian group G , which in principle can be arbitrary, but for reasons related to the distinction between oriented and unoriented bordism, we will typically want to choose G to be either $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

DEFINITION 21.13. The group of n -chains in K (with **coefficients** in G) is the abelian group

$$C_n^\Delta(K; G) := \bigoplus_{\sigma \in S_{(n)}} G,$$

whose elements can be written as finite sums $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ with $a_i \in G$ and $\sigma_i \in S_{(n)}$, with the group operation defined by

$$\sum_i a_i \sigma_i + \sum_i b_i \sigma_i = \sum_i (a_i + b_i) \sigma_i.$$

An n -chain is in some sense an abstract algebraic object, but if we choose $G = \mathbb{Z}$ and consider an n -chain $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ whose coefficients are all $a_i = \pm 1$, then you can picture the chain geometrically as the union of the n -simplices in X corresponding to each σ_i in the sum, with orientations determined by the signs a_i . These subsets are always compact, and if the particular set of n -simplices is chosen appropriately, then they will sometimes look like n -dimensional manifolds embedded in X . Our goal is now to single out a special class of n -chains that are analogous to *closed* n -dimensional manifolds embedded in X , i.e. the n -chains that have “empty boundary”. This can be done by writing down an algebraic operation that describes the boundary of each individual simplex. To define this properly, we need to choose an orientation for every simplex in S ; note that this has nothing intrinsically to do with oriented triangulations, as it is a completely arbitrary choice with no compatibility conditions required, so it can always be done. With this choice in place, for each $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S_{(n)}$, set

$$\partial \sigma := \sum_{k=0}^n \epsilon_k \partial_{(k)} \sigma \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where as usual $\partial_{(k)}\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ denotes the k th boundary face of σ , and $\epsilon_k \in \{1, -1\}$ is defined to be $+1$ if the chosen orientation of the $(n-1)$ -simplex $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$ matches the boundary orientation it inherits from σ (see Definition 20.8), and -1 if these two orientations are opposite. There is now a uniquely determined group homomorphism

$$\partial_n : C_n^\Delta(K; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; G) : \sum_i a_i \sigma_i \mapsto \sum_i a_i (\partial \sigma_i),$$

where the multiplication of each coefficient $a_i \in G$ by a sign $\epsilon_k = \pm 1$ is defined in the obvious way as an element of G . (Notice that if $G = \mathbb{Z}_2$, the signs ϵ_k become irrelevant because every coefficient a_i then satisfies $a_i = -a_i$.) Strictly speaking, the definition above only makes sense for $n \geq 1$ since there are no (-1) -simplices; in light of this, we set

$$\partial_0 := 0.$$

We call the subgroup $\ker \partial_n \subset C_n^\Delta(K; G)$ the group of n -**cycles**, or equivalently, the **closed** n -chains. The elements of the subgroup $\text{im } \partial_{n+1} \subset C_n^\Delta(K; G)$ are called **boundaries**.

LEMMA 21.14. $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

PROOF. You should think of this as an algebraic or combinatorial expression of the geometric fact that the boundary of any n -manifold with boundary is always an $(n-1)$ -manifold with *empty* boundary. On a more mundane level, the result holds due to cancelations, e.g. suppose A is an oriented 2-simplex whose oriented 1-dimensional boundary faces are denoted by a, b, c , giving

$$\partial_2 A = a + b + c.$$

Suppose further that the vertices of A are denoted by α, β, γ , all oriented with positive signs, but the arrow determined by the orientation of a points toward α and away from γ , while b points toward β and away from α , and c points toward γ but away from β . This gives the three relations

$$\partial_1 a = \alpha - \gamma, \quad \partial_1 b = \beta - \alpha, \quad \partial_1 c = \gamma - \beta,$$

thus $\partial_1 \circ \partial_2 A = \partial_1(a + b + c) = (\alpha - \gamma) + (\beta - \alpha) + (\gamma - \beta) = 0$. Similar cancelations occur in every dimension. $\square$

Lemma 21.14 is often abbreviated with the formula

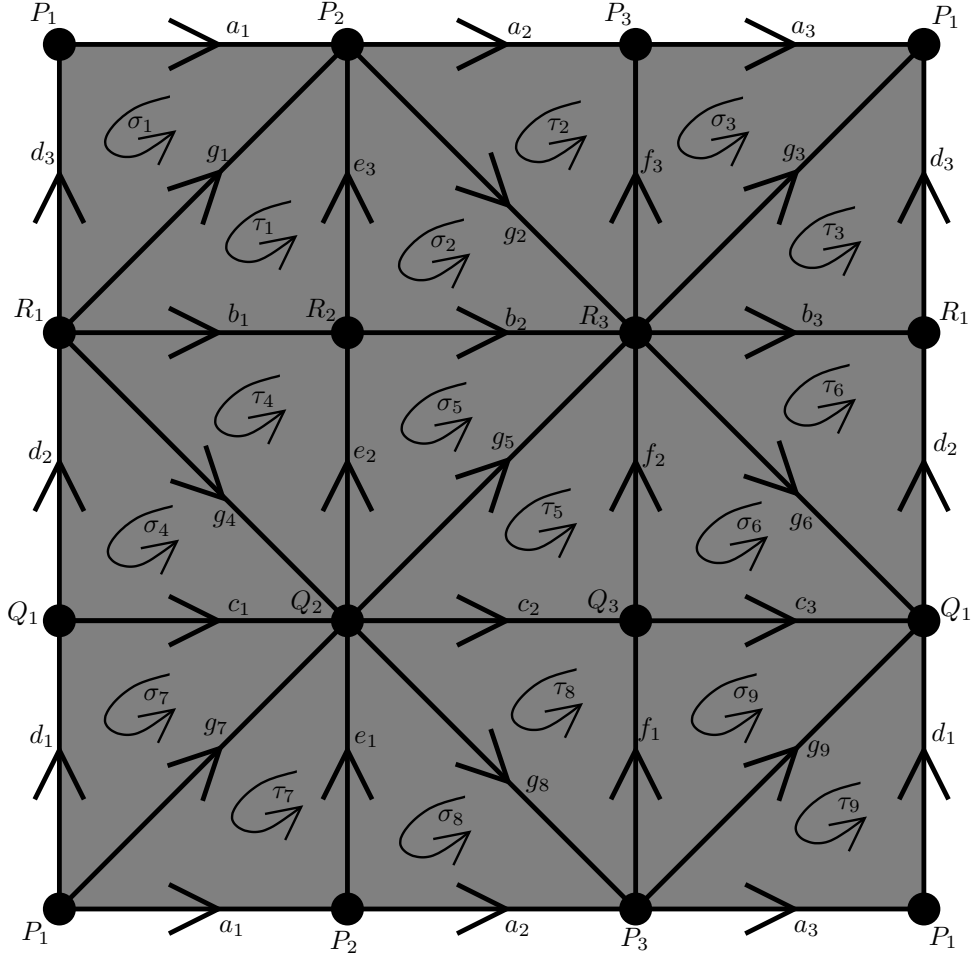
$$\partial^2 = 0,$$

and we will sometimes abbreviate $\partial := \partial_n$ when there is no chance of confusion. The formula implies in particular that $\text{im } \partial_{n+1}$ is a subgroup of ∂_n for every $n \geq 0$. Since all these groups are abelian and subgroups are therefore normal, we can now consider quotients:

DEFINITION 21.15. The n th **simplicial homology** group of the complex K (with coefficients in G) is

$$H_n^\Delta(K; G) := \ker \partial_n / \text{im } \partial_{n+1}.$$

It is worth comparing this definition to the bordism groups $\Omega_n(X)$ and $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$, as the extra layer of algebra involved in the definition of homology obscures a fairly direct analogy. Instead of closed n -manifolds M with maps $f : M \rightarrow X$, homology considers n -cycles, meaning formal linear combinations of n -simplices $c := \sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ with $\partial c = 0$. The bordism relation $(M_+, f_+) \sim (M_-, f_-)$ is now replaced by the condition that two cycles $c, c' \in \ker \partial_n$ represent the same homology class $[c] = [c'] \in H_n^\Delta(K; G)$ if $c - c' \in \text{im } \partial_{n+1}$, i.e. their difference is the boundary of an $(n+1)$ -chain (analogous to a map defined on a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold with boundary). When this holds, we say that the cycles c and c' are **homologous**. Finally, we will see that the distinction between $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ and $\Omega_n(X)$ now corresponds to the distinction between $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$.

FIGURE 18. A simplicial complex with $|K| = \mathbb{T}^2$.

Let's compute an example. Figure 18 shows an oriented triangulation of $\mathbb{T}^2$ with eighteen 2-simplices, twenty-seven 1-simplices, and nine vertices labeled as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} S_2 &= \{\sigma_1, \tau_1, \dots, \sigma_9, \tau_9\}, \\ S_1 &= \{a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, f_1, f_2, f_3, g_1, \dots, g_9\}, \\ S_0 &= \{P_1, P_2, P_3, Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, R_1, R_2, R_3\}. \end{aligned}$$

In addition to the orientations of the 2-simplices that come from this being an oriented triangulation, the figure shows (via arrows) an arbitrary choice of orientations for all 1-simplices, and we shall assume all the 0-simplices are oriented with a positive sign. One can now begin writing down relations such as

$$\partial\sigma_1 = g_1 - a_1 - d_3, \quad \partial\tau_1 = b_1 + e_3 - g_1, \quad \partial a_1 = P_2 - P_1$$

and so forth, but writing down all such relations would be rather tedious, so let us instead try to reason more geometrically. The computation of $H_0^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ is not hard in any case: all 0-chains are cycles since $\partial_0 = 0$, including the nine generators P_i, Q_i, R_i for $i = 1, 2, 3$, but all nine of them

are also homologous to each other since any pair of them can be connected by a path of oriented 1-simplices leading from one to the other, e.g. $\partial a_1 = P_2 - P_1$ implies $[P_1] = [P_2]$, and $\partial e_3 = P_2 - R_2$ implies $[P_2] = [R_2]$. The result is

$$H_0^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

with a canonical generator represented by any of the vertices in the complex. Notice that this matches the oriented bordism group $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(\mathbb{T}^2)$ since $\mathbb{T}^2$ is path-connected.

Let's look at the 1-cycles. There is a 1-cycle for every continuous loop we can find that follows a path through 1-simplices—we just have to insert minus signs wherever there is an arrow pointing the wrong way, in order to ensure the necessary cancelation of 0-simplices. For example, traversing the boundary of the lower-right square gives

$$\partial(a_3 + d_1 - c_3 - f_1) = 0,$$

so $a_3 + d_1 - c_3 - f_1$ is a 1-cycle, but not a very interesting one, since it is also the boundary of the region filled by the 2-simplices σ_9 and τ_9 : in particular,

$$\partial(\sigma_9 + \tau_9) = (g_9 - c_3 - f_1) + (a_3 + d_1 - g_9) = a_3 + d_1 - c_3 - f_1,$$

hence $[a_3 + d_1 - c_3 - f_1] = 0 \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$. To find more interesting 1-cycles, it helps to remember what we already know about $\pi_1(\mathbb{T}^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$. We can easily find two loops through 1-simplices that represent the two distinct generators of this fundamental group: one of them is $a_1 + a_2 + a_3$, and we easily see that

$$\partial(a_1 + a_2 + a_3) = (P_2 - P_1) + (P_3 - P_2) + (P_1 - P_3) = 0.$$

Another is $b_1 + b_2 + b_3$, but notice that the loops corresponding to these two 1-cycles are homotopic in $\mathbb{T}^2$, and relatedly, they form the boundary of the region filled by the six 2-simplices σ_i, τ_i for $i = 1, 2, 3$,

$$\partial(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 + \tau_1 + \tau_2 + \tau_3) = (b_1 + b_2 + b_3) - (a_1 + a_2 + a_3),$$

implying $[a_1 + a_2 + a_3] = [b_1 + b_2 + b_3] \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$. Similar reasoning shows that $c_1 + c_2 + c_3$ is yet another 1-cycle representing the same homology class as both of these. One can show however that this homology class really is nontrivial, and it is not the only one: the other generator of $\pi_1(\mathbb{T}^2)$ corresponds to any of the three homologous 1-cycles $d_1 + d_2 + d_3$, $e_1 + e_2 + e_3$ or $f_1 + f_2 + f_3$. The end result is

$$H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2,$$

the same as the fundamental group.

As observed at the beginning of this lecture, the fact that $\mathbb{T}^2$ has a contractible universal cover implies that $\pi_2(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$, so if there are any interesting 2-cycles in $\mathbb{T}^2$, they will not look like spheres. But if you think that $H_2(K; \mathbb{Z})$ should have something to do with the oriented bordism group $\Omega_2^{\text{SO}}(\mathbb{T}^2)$, then there is a fairly obvious candidate for a 2-cycle in this picture: $\mathbb{T}^2$ itself is a closed oriented manifold, and the oriented triangulation we have chosen turns it into a 2-cycle:

$$\partial(\sigma_1 + \tau_1 + \dots + \sigma_9 + \tau_9) = 0.$$

The point is that since the triangulation is oriented, writing down each individual term in this sum would produce a linear combination of 1-simplices in which every 1-simplex in the complex appears exactly twice, but with opposite signs, thus adding up to 0. It should be easy to convince yourself that no nontrivial 2-chain that does not include all eighteen of the 2-simplices can ever be a cycle, as its boundary will have to include some 1-simplices that have nothing to cancel with. It follows easily that all 2-cycles in this complex are integer multiples of the one found above, and none of them are boundaries, since there are no 3-simplices, thus

$$H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

I can now state a theorem that is really rather amazing, though I'm sorry to say that we will not be able to prove it until next semester:

THEOREM 21.16. *For any simplicial complex K , the simplicial homology groups $H_n^\Delta(K; G)$ depend (up to isomorphism) on the topological space $X = |K|$, i.e. the polyhedron of K , but not on the complex K itself.*

This theorem seems to have been known for quite a while before the reasons behind it were properly understood. At the dawn of homology theory, the subject had a very combinatorial flavor, and the use of triangulations as a tool for understanding manifolds proved to be very successful. A fairly natural strategy for proving Theorem 21.16 was formulated near the beginning of the 20th century and was based on a conjecture called the **Hauptvermutung**:³⁸ it claims essentially that any two triangulations of the same topological space can be turned into the same triangulation by a process of subdivision. Subdivision replaces each individual simplex σ with a triangulation by smaller simplices, so it makes the chain groups $C_n^\Delta(K; G)$ much larger, but it is not too hard to show that the homology resulting from these enlarged chain groups is isomorphic to the original, hence if the Hauptvermutung is true, Theorem 21.16 follows. The only trouble is that the Hauptvermutung is false, as was discovered in the 1960's; moreover, we now also know examples of closed topological manifolds that cannot be triangulated at all, so that simplicial complexes do not provide the ideal framework for understanding manifolds in general. But in the mean time, the mathematical community discovered much better ways of proving Theorem 21.16, namely by defining another invariant for arbitrary topological spaces X that manifestly only depends on the topology of X without any auxiliary structure, but also can be shown to match simplicial homology whenever X is a polyhedron. That invariant is singular homology, and it will be our topic for the rest of this semester.

21.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 21.1. For any pointed space (X, x) there is a natural group homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ defined by

$$\Phi([\gamma]) := [(S^1, \gamma)],$$

where we are choosing a base point $t \in S^1$ and representing elements $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X, x)$ via pointed maps $\gamma : (S^1, t) \rightarrow (X, x)$.

- Show that Φ is well defined, because $\Phi([\gamma])$ depends on the map $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ only up to homotopy.
- Prove that Φ is a group homomorphism.
Hint: Figure 19 illustrates a construction that can be used to show $\Phi([\alpha \cdot \beta]) = \Phi([\alpha]) + \Phi([\beta])$ for any two pointed maps $\alpha, \beta : S^1 \rightarrow X$. All you really need to do is explain the meaning of the picture.
- Show that whenever X is path-connected, the homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is surjective.
- Show that for the closed oriented surface Σ_g of any genus $g \geq 2$, the homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(\Sigma_g) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(\Sigma_g)$ is not injective, and describe a specific nontrivial element in its kernel.

Hint: See Exercise 14.2.

EXERCISE 21.2. Figure 20 shows a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ whose associated polyhedron $|K|$ is homeomorphic to the Klein bottle. There are nine vertices labeled P_i, Q_i, R_i for $i = 1, 2, 3$, twenty-seven 1-simplices labeled by letters $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i, e_i, f_i$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$ and g_i for $i = 1, \dots, 9$, and

³⁸This is what the conjecture was called in English—one does not translate the word *Hauptvermutung*.

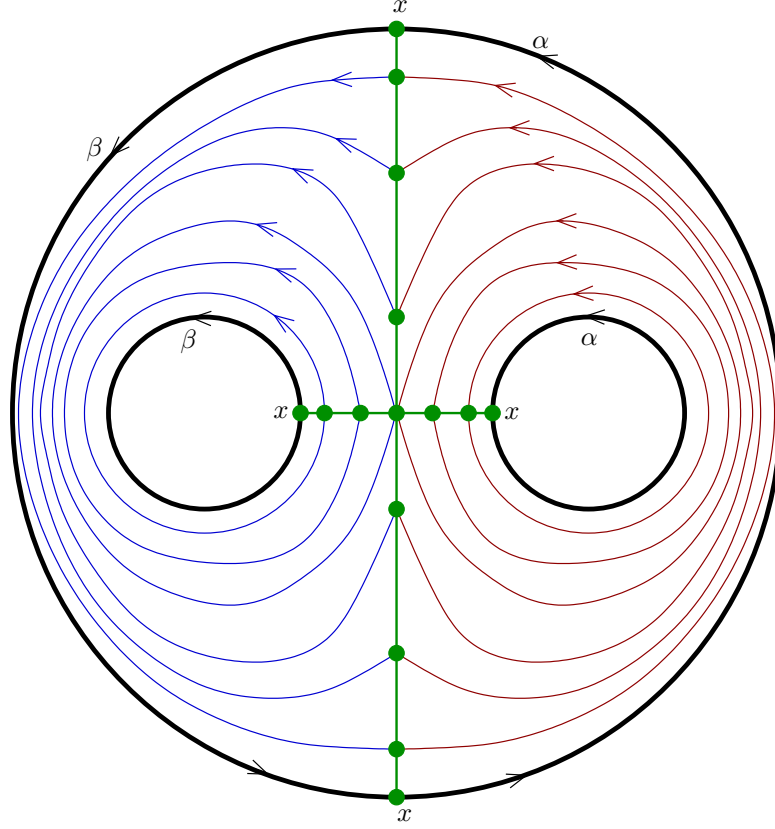


FIGURE 19. A useful bordism relation for the proof that $\Phi([\alpha][\beta]) = \Phi([\alpha]) + \Phi([\beta])$ in Exercise 21.1.

eighteen 2-simplices labeled σ_i, τ_i for $i = 1, \dots, 9$. The picture also shows a choice of orientation for each of the 2-simplices (circular arrows represent a cyclic ordering of the vertices) and 1-simplices (arrows point from the first vertex to the last).³⁹ Assume every 0-simplex is chosen to have the positive orientation.

- Write down the 1-chains $\partial\sigma_i, \partial\tau_i \in C_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ explicitly for each $i = 1, \dots, 9$.
- Prove that $H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and write down a specific 2-cycle that generates it.
Hint: If this were an oriented triangulation, there would be an obvious way to find a 2-cycle with integer coefficients, as one does with $\mathbb{T}^2$ using Figure 18. The use of $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients is meant to make up for the fact that the triangulation is not oriented.
- Prove that $H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.
Hint: Consider how the coefficients of individual 1-simplices in $\partial \sum_{i=1}^9 (a_i \sigma_i + b_i \tau_i) \in C_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ are determined. Show that if $\sum_{i=1}^9 (a_i \sigma_i + b_i \tau_i)$ is a cycle, then $a_1 = b_1 = \dots = a_9 = b_9$, but also $b_9 + a_1 = 0$.

³⁹Notice however that this does not define an oriented triangulation, as the chosen orientations of neighboring 2-simplices are not always compatible with each other. The Klein bottle does not admit an oriented triangulation.

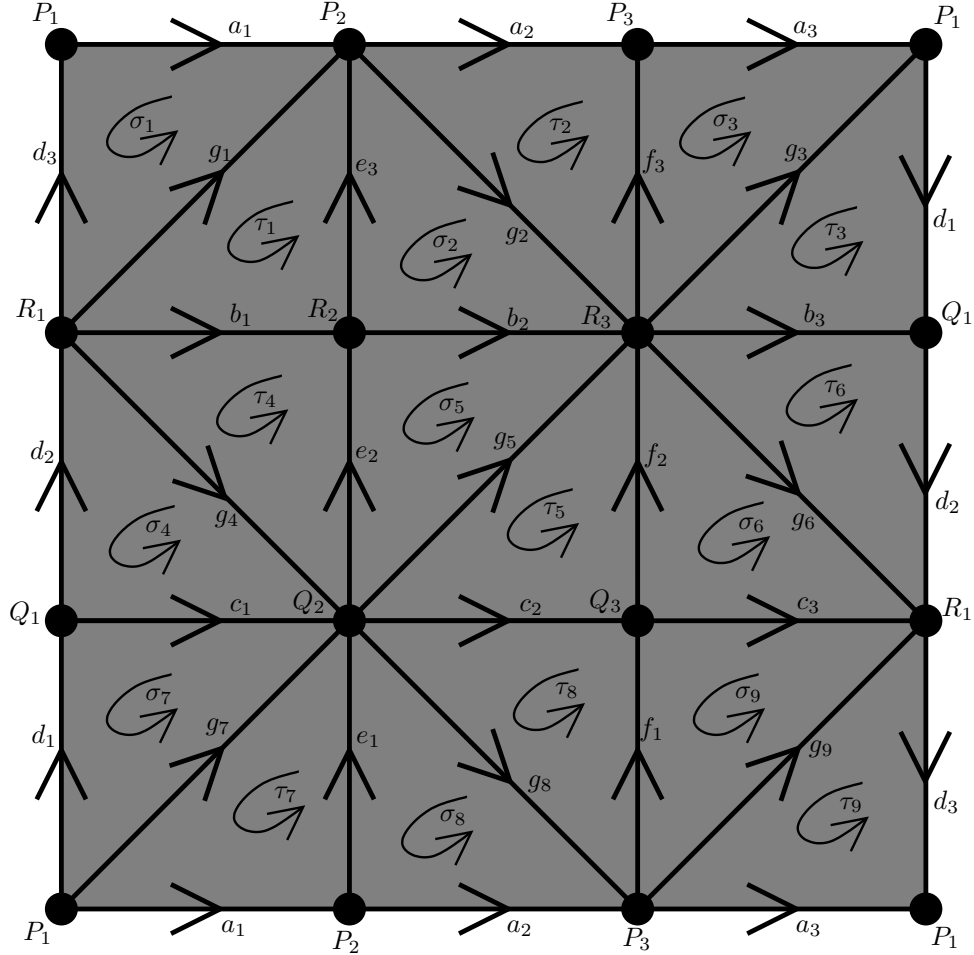


FIGURE 20. The Klein bottle as a polyhedron with chosen orientations for the 1- and 2-simplices.

- (d) Show that the 1-cycle $d_1 + d_2 + d_3$ represents a nontrivial homology class $[d_1 + d_2 + d_3]$ in both $H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, but satisfies $2[d_1 + d_2 + d_3] = 0 \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $[d_1 + d_2 + d_3] = 0 \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Q})$.⁴⁰

22. Singular homology

So here's the challenge: how do we define a topological invariant that captures the same information as simplicial homology, but without ever referring to a simplicial complex? The answer to this turns out to be fairly simple, but speaking for myself, the first time I heard it, I thought it sounded crazy. There seemed to be no way that one could ever compute such a thing, or if one could, then it was hard to imagine what geometric insight would be gained from the computation. I've been leading up to this definition gradually over the last few lectures in order to give you some intuition about what kind of invariant we are looking for and why. The hope is that, equipped

⁴⁰In any abelian group G , there is an obvious definition of mg for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $g \in G$, so e.g. $2[d_1 + d_2 + d_3] := [d_1 + d_2 + d_3] + [d_1 + d_2 + d_3]$.

with this intuition, your first reaction to seeing the definition of singular homology might be that it has a fighting chance of answering some question you actually care about.

22.1. Algebraic preliminaries. It will be convenient to first establish some basic principles of the subject known as *homological algebra*. We have already seen an example of the first definition in our discussion of simplicial homology.

DEFINITION 22.1. A ($\mathbb{Z}$ -graded) **chain complex** (*Kettenkomplex*) of abelian groups (C_*, ∂) consists of a sequence $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of abelian groups together with homomorphisms $\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-2}$ is the trivial homomorphism for every n .

We sometimes denote the direct sum of all the chain groups C_n in a chain complex by

$$C_* := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n,$$

whose elements can all be written as finite sums $\sum_i a_i$ with $a_i \in C_{n_i}$ for some integers $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. An element $x \in C_*$ is said to have **degree** (*Grad*) n if $x \in C_n$. The individual homomorphisms $\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ extend uniquely to a homomorphism $\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ which has **degree** -1 , meaning it maps elements of any given degree to elements of one degree less. We sometimes indicate this by abusing notation and writing

$$\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_{*-1}.$$

The collection of relations $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n = 0$ for all n can now be abbreviated by the single relation

$$\partial^2 = 0,$$

which is equivalent to the condition that $\text{im } \partial_{n+1} \subset \ker \partial_n$ for every n . We call ∂ the **boundary map** (*Randoperator*) in the complex. Elements in $\ker \partial \subset C_*$ are called **cycles** (*Zykel*), while elements in $\text{im } \partial \subset C_*$ are called **boundaries** (*Ränder*).

DEFINITION 22.2. The **homology** (*Homologie*) of a chain complex (C_*, ∂) is the sequence of abelian groups

$$H_n(C_*, \partial) := \ker \partial_n / \text{im } \partial_{n+1}$$

for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We sometimes denote

$$H_*(C_*, \partial) := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} H_n(C_*, \partial),$$

which makes $H_*(C_*, \partial)$ a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded abelian group.

Every element of $H_n(C_*, \partial)$ can be written as an equivalence class $[c]$ for some n -cycle $c \in \ker \partial_n$, and we call $[c]$ the **homology class** (*Homologieklass*) represented by c . Two cycles $a, b \in \ker \partial_n$ are called **homologous** (*homolog*) if $[a] = [b] \in H_n(C_*, \partial)$, meaning $a - b \in \text{im } \partial_{n+1}$.

REMARK 22.3. For the examples of chain complexes (C_*, ∂) we consider in this course, C_n is always the trivial group for $n < 0$, mainly because the degree n typically corresponds to a geometric dimension and dimensions cannot be negative. But there is no need to assume this in the general algebraic definitions. In other settings, there are plenty of interesting examples of chain complexes that have nontrivial elements of negative degree.

The next definition will be needed when we want to show that continuous maps between topological spaces induce homomorphisms of their singular homology groups.

DEFINITION 22.4. Given two chain complexes (A_*, ∂^A) and (B_*, ∂^B) , a **chain map** (*Kettenabbildung*) from (A_*, ∂^A) to (B_*, ∂^B) is a sequence of homomorphisms $f_n : A_n \rightarrow B_n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$(22.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}^A} & A_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n^A} & A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^A} \dots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}^B} & B_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n^B} & B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^B} \dots \end{array}$$

In other words, a chain map is a homomorphism $f : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ of degree zero satisfying $\partial^B \circ f = f \circ \partial^A$.

PROPOSITION 22.5. Any chain map $f : (A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial^B)$ determines homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow H_n(B_*, \partial^B)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ via the formula

$$f_*[a] := [f(a)].$$

PROOF. There are two things to prove: first, that whenever $a \in A_n$ is a cycle, so is $f(a) \in B_n$. This is clear since $\partial^A a = 0$ implies $\partial^B(f(a)) = f(\partial^A a) = 0$ by the chain map condition. Second, we need to know that f maps boundaries to boundaries, so that it descends to a well-defined homomorphism $\ker \partial_n^A / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^A \rightarrow \ker \partial_n^B / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^B$. This is equally clear, since $a = \partial^A x$ implies $f(a) = f(\partial^A x) = \partial^B f(x)$. $\square$

22.2. The singular chain complex. With these algebraic preliminaries out of the way, we now proceed to define the chain complex of singular homology. As in simplicial homology, we fix an arbitrary abelian group G as auxiliary data, called the **coefficient group**; in practice it will usually be either $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2$, occasionally $\mathbb{Q}$. Recall that for integers $n \geq 0$, the **standard n -simplex** is the set

$$\Delta^n = \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in I^{n+1} \mid t_0 + \dots + t_n = 1\}.$$

For each $k = 0, \dots, n$, the **k th boundary face** of Δ^n is the subset

$$\partial_{(k)} \Delta^n := \{t_k = 0\} \subset \Delta^n,$$

which is canonically homeomorphic to Δ^{n-1} via the map

$$(22.2) \quad \partial_{(k)} \Delta^n \rightarrow \Delta^{n-1} : (t_0, \dots, t_{k-1}, 0, t_{k+1}, \dots, t_n) \mapsto (t_0, \dots, t_{k-1}, t_{k+1}, \dots, t_n).$$

DEFINITION 22.6. Given a topological space X , a **singular n -simplex** in X is a continuous map $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$.

Let $\mathcal{K}_n(X)$ denote the set of all singular n -simplices in X , and define the **singular n -chain group** with coefficients in G by

$$C_n(X; G) = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)} G.$$

Note that this definition also makes sense for $n < 0$ if we agree that $\mathcal{K}_n(X)$ is then empty since there is no such thing as a simplex of negative dimension, hence the groups $C_n(X; G)$ are trivial in these cases. In general, elements in $C_n(X; G)$ can be written as finite sums $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ where $a_i \in G$ and $\sigma_i \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)$. This clearly looks similar to the simplicial chain groups, but if you're paying attention properly, you may at this point be feeling nervous about the fact that $C_n(X; G)$ is a *bloody enormous* group: algebraically it is very simple, but the set $\mathcal{K}_n(X)$ that generates it is usually uncountably infinite. It's probably even larger than you are imagining, because a singular n -simplex is not just a "simplex-shaped" subset of X , but it is also the parametrization of that subset, so any two distinct parametrizations $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, even if they have exactly the same image,

define different elements of $\mathcal{K}_n(X)$ and thus different generators of $C_n(X; G)$.⁴¹ If this makes you nervous, then you are right to feel nervous: it is a minor miracle that we will eventually be able to extract useful and computable information from groups as large as $C_n(X; G)$. You will see.

The next step is to define a boundary map $C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X; G)$. As in simplicial homology, this is done by writing a formula for $\partial\sigma$ for each generator $\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)$, and the formula follows the same orientation convention that we saw in our discussion of oriented triangulations, cf. Definition 20.8: set

$$\partial\sigma := \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k (\sigma|_{\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n}) \in C_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where each $\sigma|_{\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n}$ is regarded as a singular $(n-1)$ -simplex using the identification $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n = \Delta^{n-1}$ from (22.2).

This uniquely determines a homomorphism

$$\partial : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X; G) : \sum_i a_i \sigma_i \mapsto \sum_i a_i \partial\sigma_i,$$

and the usual cancelation phenomenon implies:

LEMMA 22.7. $\partial^2 = 0$. □

22.3. Some basic computations. The n th singular homology group (*singuläre Homologiegruppe*) with coefficients in G is now defined by

$$H_n(X; G) := H_n(C_*(X; G), \partial).$$

In the case $G = \mathbb{Z}$, this is often abbreviated by

$$H_n(X) := H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

The direct sum of these groups for all n is denoted by $H_*(X; G)$, though informally, this notation is also sometimes used with the symbol “ $*$ ” acting as an integer-valued variable just like n .

I encourage you to compare the following result with our computation of the bordism groups $\Omega_0(X)$ and $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X)$ in Lecture 21.

PROPOSITION 22.8. *For any space X and any coefficient group G , $H_0(X; G) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} G$, i.e. it is a direct sum of copies of G for every path-component of X .*

PROOF. Since Δ^0 is a one-point space, the set $\mathcal{K}_0(X)$ of singular 0-simplices $\sigma : \Delta^0 \rightarrow X$ can be identified naturally with X , and we shall write 0-chains accordingly as finite sums $\sum_i a_i x_i$ with $a_i \in G$ and $x_i \in X$. Similarly, Δ^1 is homeomorphic to the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, and if we choose a homeomorphism $[0, 1] \rightarrow \Delta^1$ sending 1 to $\partial_{(0)}\Delta^1$ and 0 to $\partial_{(1)}\Delta^1$, we can think of each $\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_1(X)$ as a path $\sigma : I \rightarrow X$ and write the boundary operator as

$$\partial\sigma = \sigma(1) - \sigma(0) \in C_0(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Since there are no (-1) -chains, every $a \in G$ and $x \in X$ then define a 0-cycle $ax \in C_0(X; G)$, but ax and ay are homologous whenever x and y belong to the same path-component since then any path $\sigma : I \rightarrow X$ from x to y gives $\partial(a\sigma) = ay - ax$. Choosing a point x_α in each path-component X_α , we can now say that every 0-cycle is homologous to a unique 0-cycle of the form $\sum_\alpha c_\alpha x_\alpha$, where the sum ranges over all the path-components of X but only finitely many of the coefficients $c_\alpha \in G$ are nonzero. If two cycles of this form are homologous, then they differ by the boundary of a 1-chain, which is a finite linear combination of paths, and since each path is confined to a single

⁴¹The word “singular” in this context refers to the fact that there is no condition beyond continuity required for the maps $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, i.e. they need not be injective, nor differentiable (even if X happens to be a smooth manifold), and so their images might not look “simplex-shaped” at all, but could instead be full of singularities.

path-component and has two end points with opposite orientations, the conclusion is that both 0-cycles have the same coefficients. $\square$

The next result is a straightforward exercise based on the definitions, and you should also compare it with our previous discussion of the bordism groups of a point, if only to observe that the result is very different: while bordism groups require some information about the classification of manifolds which has nothing to do with the one-point space, the singular homology of $\{\text{pt}\}$ is much simpler.

THEOREM 22.9. *For the 1-point space $\{\text{pt}\}$ and any coefficient group G , singular homology satisfies*

$$H_n(\{\text{pt}\}; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{for } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. See Exercise 22.1. $\square$

Let us discuss the group $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ for an arbitrary space X . As noted above in our proof of Proposition 22.8, Δ^1 is homeomorphic to the interval I , thus there is a bijection

$$(22.3) \quad \{\text{paths } I \rightarrow X\} \leftrightarrow \mathcal{K}_1(X)$$

which identifies each path γ with a singular 1-simplex (denoted by the same symbol) such that, under the canonical identification of $\mathcal{K}_0(X)$ with X ,

$$\partial\gamma = \gamma(1) - \gamma(0).$$

Notice in particular that if γ is a loop, then it also defines a 1-cycle. More generally, let us write elements of $C_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ as finite sums $\sum_i m_i \gamma_i$ where $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and the γ_i are understood as singular 1-simplices via the above bijection, so

$$\partial \sum_i m_i \gamma_i = \sum_i m_i (\gamma_i(1) - \gamma_i(0)) \in C_0(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Now observe that since the coefficients m_i are integers, we are free to assume they are all ± 1 at the cost of allowing repeats in the finite list of paths γ_i . It will then be convenient to think of $-\gamma_i$ as the reversed path γ_i^{-1} , which makes sense if you look at the boundary formula since

$$\partial(-\gamma_i) = -(\gamma_i(1) - \gamma_i(0)) = \gamma_i(0) - \gamma_i(1) = \gamma_i^{-1}(1) - \gamma_i^{-1}(0) = \partial(\gamma_i^{-1}).$$

Thinking in these terms and continuing to assume $m_i = \pm 1$, $\sum_i m_i \gamma_i$ will now be a cycle if and only if the finite set of paths $\gamma_i^{m_i}$ can be arranged in some order so that they form a loop, i.e. each can be concatenated with the next in the list, and the last can be concatenated with the first. This is precisely what is needed in order to ensure that every 0-simplex in $\partial \sum_i m_i \gamma_i$ cancels out. This suggests a relationship between $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and $\pi_1(X)$, but notice that there is some ambiguity in the correspondence: in general there may be multiple ways that the paths $\gamma_i^{m_i}$ can be ordered to produce a loop, and different loops produced in this way need not always be homotopic to each other. In fact, one should not expect $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and $\pi_1(X)$ to be the same, since $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is abelian by definition, but $\pi_1(X)$ usually is not. It turns out that the next best thing is true.

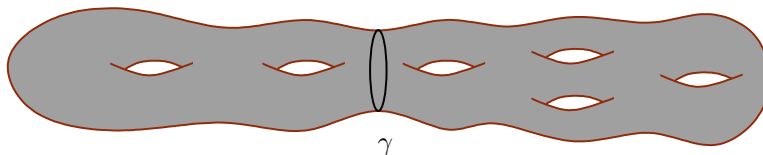
THEOREM 22.10. *For any path-connected space X with base point $x_0 \in X$, the bijection (22.3) determines a group homomorphism*

$$h : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

which descends to an isomorphism of the abelianization $\pi_1(X, x_0)/[\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)]$ to $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$.

We say that a cycle $c \in C_*(X; G)$ is **nullhomologous** if $[c] = 0 \in H_*(X; G)$, or equivalently, c is a boundary. According to the discussion above, every loop $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = x_0$ can be viewed as a 1-cycle, and that cycle is nullhomologous if and only if $[\gamma]$ belongs to the commutator subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$.

EXAMPLE 22.11. Recall from Exercise 14.2 the embedded loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \Sigma_g$ for $g \geq 2$ whose image separates Σ_g into two surfaces of genus $h \geq 1$ and $k \geq 1$ respectively with one boundary component each:



We computed in that exercise that $[\gamma]$ is a nontrivial element of the commutator subgroup of $\pi_1(\Sigma_g)$, thus by Theorem 22.10, γ represents the trivial class in $H_1(\Sigma_g; \mathbb{Z})$. This should not be surprising, since γ also parametrizes the boundary of a compact oriented submanifold of Σ_g , e.g. for this same reason, γ also represents the trivial bordism class in $\Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(\Sigma_g)$. One can find an explicit 2-chain whose boundary is γ by decomposing the surface $\Sigma_{h,1}$ into 2-simplices so as to reinterpret the inclusion $\Sigma_{h,1} \hookrightarrow \Sigma_g$ as a linear combination of singular 2-simplices in Σ_g .

The proof of Theorem 22.10 is not trivial, but it is simple enough to leave as a guided homework problem (see Exercise 22.2). The homomorphism $h : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is called the **Hurewicz map**. There exists a similar Hurewicz homomorphism $\pi_k(X) \rightarrow H_k(X; \mathbb{Z})$ for every $k \geq 1$, which we will discuss in *Topologie III* (see Lecture 73). Note that for $k \geq 2$, $\pi_k(X)$ is always abelian, so it is reasonable in those cases to hope that the Hurewicz map might be an honest isomorphism. A result called Hurewicz's theorem gives conditions under which this turns out to hold, thus providing a nice way to compute higher homotopy groups in some cases since, as we will see, computing homology is generally easier. But there are also simple examples in which $\pi_k(X)$ and $H_k(X; \mathbb{Z})$ are totally different. We saw for instance in the previous lecture that $\pi_2(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$ due to the lifting theorem, but one can use any oriented triangulation of $\mathbb{T}^2$ to produce a singular 2-cycle that can be shown to be nontrivial in $H_2(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$. Homology classes in the image of the Hurewicz map are sometimes called *spherical* homology classes. The example of $\mathbb{T}^2$ shows that for $n \geq 2$, one cannot generally expect all classes in $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ to be spherical.

22.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 22.1 (*). Prove Theorem 22.9, on the computation of singular homology for a 1-point space.

Hint: For each integer $n \geq 0$, there is exactly one singular n -simplex $\Delta^n \rightarrow \{\text{pt}\}$, so the chain groups $C_n(\{\text{pt}\}; G)$ are all naturally isomorphic to G . What is $\partial : C_n(\{\text{pt}\}; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(\{\text{pt}\}; G)$?

EXERCISE 22.2 (*). Let us prove Theorem 22.10. Assume X is a path-connected space, fix $x_0 \in X$ and abbreviate $\pi_1(X) := \pi_1(X, x_0)$, so elements of $\pi_1(X)$ are represented by paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ with $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = x_0$. Identifying the standard 1-simplex

$$\Delta^1 := \{(t_0, t_1) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid t_0 + t_1 = 1, t_0, t_1 \geq 0\}$$

with $I := [0, 1]$ via the homeomorphism $\Delta^1 \rightarrow I : (t_0, t_1) \mapsto t_1$, every path $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ corresponds to a singular 1-simplex $\Delta^1 \rightarrow X$, which we shall denote by $\tilde{h}(\gamma)$ and regard as an element of the singular 1-chain group $C_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$. Show that $\tilde{h}$ has each of the following properties:

- (a) If $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ satisfies $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1)$, then $\partial \tilde{h}(\gamma) = 0$.

- (b) For any constant path $e : I \rightarrow X$, $\tilde{h}(e) = \partial\sigma$ for some singular 2-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^2 \rightarrow X$.
- (c) For any paths $\alpha, \beta : I \rightarrow X$ with $\alpha(1) = \beta(0)$, the concatenated path $\alpha \cdot \beta : I \rightarrow X$ satisfies $\tilde{h}(\alpha) + \tilde{h}(\beta) - \tilde{h}(\alpha \cdot \beta) = \partial\sigma$ for some singular 2-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^2 \rightarrow X$.
Hint: Imagine a triangle whose three edges are mapped to X via the paths α , β and $\alpha \cdot \beta$. Can you extend this map continuously over the rest of the triangle?
- (d) If $\alpha, \beta : I \rightarrow X$ are two paths that are homotopic with fixed end points, then $\tilde{h}(\alpha) - \tilde{h}(\beta) = \partial f$ for some singular 2-chain $f \in C_2(X; \mathbb{Z})$.
Hint: If you draw a square representing a homotopy between α and β , you can decompose this square into two triangles.
- (e) Applying $\tilde{h}$ to paths that begin and end at the base point x_0 , deduce that $\tilde{h}$ determines a group homomorphism $h : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [\gamma] \mapsto [\tilde{h}(\gamma)]$.

We call $h : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ the **Hurewicz homomorphism**. Notice that since $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is abelian, $\ker h$ automatically contains the commutator subgroup $[\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)] \subset \pi_1(X)$ (see Exercise 12.2), thus h descends to a homomorphism on the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$,

$$\Phi : \pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)] \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

We will now show that this is an isomorphism by writing down its inverse. For each point $p \in X$, choose arbitrarily a path $\omega_p : I \rightarrow X$ from x_0 to p , and choose ω_{x_0} in particular to be the constant path. Regarding singular 1-simplices $\sigma : \Delta^1 \rightarrow X$ as paths $\sigma : I \rightarrow X$ under the usual identification of I with Δ^1 , we can then associate to every singular 1-simplex $\sigma \in C_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ a concatenated path

$$\tilde{\Psi}(\sigma) := \omega_{\sigma(0)} \cdot \sigma \cdot \omega_{\sigma(1)}^{-1} : I \rightarrow X$$

which begins and ends at the base point x_0 , hence $\tilde{\Psi}(\sigma)$ represents an element of $\pi_1(X)$. Let $\Psi(\sigma)$ denote the equivalence class represented by $\tilde{\Psi}(\sigma)$ in the abelianization $\pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)]$. This uniquely determines a homomorphism⁴²

$$\Psi : C_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)] : \sum_i m_i \sigma_i \mapsto \sum_i m_i \Psi(\sigma_i).$$

- (f) Show that $\Psi(\partial\sigma) = 0$ for every singular 2-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^2 \rightarrow X$, and deduce that Ψ descends to a homomorphism $\Psi : H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)]$.
- (g) Show that $\Psi \circ \Phi$ and $\Phi \circ \Psi$ are both the identity map.
- (h) For a closed surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 2$, find an example of a nontrivial element in the kernel of the Hurewicz homomorphism $\pi_1(\Sigma_g) \rightarrow H_1(\Sigma_g)$. *Hint: See Exercise 14.2.*

23. Relative homology and long exact sequences

The above results for $H_0(X; G)$ and $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ provide some evidence that in spite of being defined as quotients of groups with uncountably many generators, the singular homology groups $H_n(X; G)$ might turn out to be computable more often than we'd expect. In this lecture, we'll introduce a powerful computational tool that is also a fundamental concept in homological algebra.

23.1. Chain maps. Let us start by clarifying in what sense singular homology is a topological invariant.

LEMMA 23.1. *Every continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ determines a chain map $f_* : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y; G)$ via the formula $f_*\sigma := f \circ \sigma$ for singular n -simplices $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$.*

⁴²Since $\pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)]$ is abelian, we are adopting the convention of writing its group operation as addition, so the multiplication of an integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ by an element $\Psi(\sigma) \in \pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)]$ is defined accordingly.

PROOF. It is straightforward to check that $\partial(f_*\sigma) = f_*(\partial\sigma) \in C_{n-1}(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ for all $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, thus the uniquely determined homomorphism

$$f_* : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_n(Y; G) : \sum_i a_i \sigma_i \mapsto \sum_i a_i (f \circ \sigma_i)$$

defines a chain map. $\square$

Notice that the chain maps in the above lemma also satisfy $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$ whenever f and g are composable continuous maps, and the chain map induced by the identity map on X is simply the identity homomorphism on $C_*(X; G)$. Applying Proposition 22.5 thus gives the following result, which implies that homeomorphic spaces always have isomorphic singular homology groups:

COROLLARY 23.2. *Continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ determine group homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X; G) \rightarrow H_n(Y; G)$ for every n and G such that $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$ whenever f and g can be composed, and the identity map satisfies $(\text{Id})_* = \text{Id}$.* $\square$

REMARK 23.3. Recall that in the analogue of Corollary 23.2 for the fundamental group, the map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is required to be base-point preserving, due to the fact that the definitions of $\pi_1(X)$ and $\pi_1(Y)$ require choices of base points in X and Y respectively. In most applications, base points are an extra piece of data that one doesn't actually care about but needs to keep track of anyway. One of the advantages of singular homology in comparison with the fundamental group is that its definition does not require any choice of base point, and Corollary 23.2 thus holds for *arbitrary* continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$.

We will show in the next lecture that the homomorphisms f_* induced by continuous maps f only depend on f up to homotopy, which has the easy consequence that $H_*(X; G)$ only depends on the homotopy type of X .

23.2. Relative homology. Let us generalize the discussion somewhat. Algebraic gadgets often have the feature that they become easier to compute if you add more structure to them, sometimes at the cost of making the basic definitions slightly more elaborate. We will now do that with singular homology by introducing the *relative homology* groups of pairs. A **pair of spaces** (X, A) , often abbreviated as simply a “pair,” (*topologisches Paar*) consists of a topological space X and a subset $A \subset X$. Given two pairs (X, A) and (Y, B) , a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a **map of pairs** if $f(A) \subset B$, and in this case we write

$$f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B).$$

This is an obvious generalization of the definition of a pointed map, where arbitrary subsets have now replaced base points. Similarly, two maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ are **homotopic** if there exists a homotopy $H : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ between f and g such that $H(s, \cdot) : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a map of pairs for every $s \in I$, or equivalently,

$$H(I \times A) \subset B.$$

Two pairs (X, A) and (Y, B) are **homeomorphic** if there exist maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ and $g : (Y, B) \rightarrow (X, A)$ such that $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are the identity maps on (X, A) and (Y, B) respectively, and f and g are in this case called **homeomorphisms of pairs**. If $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are not necessarily equal but are homotopic (as maps of pairs) to the respective identity maps, then we call each of them a **homotopy equivalence of pairs** and say that (X, A) and (Y, B) are homotopy equivalent, written

$$(X, A) \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} (Y, B).$$

One can regard every individual space X as a pair by identifying it with $(X, \emptyset)$, in which case the above definitions reproduce the usual ones for maps between ordinary spaces.

The relative homology of a pair (X, A) is based on the trivial observation that since every singular simplex in A is also a singular simplex in X whose boundary faces are all contained in A , $C_n(A; G)$ is naturally a subgroup of $C_n(X; G)$ for each n , and the boundary map $\partial : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X; G)$ sends $C_n(A; G)$ to $C_{n-1}(A; G)$. It follows that ∂ descends to a sequence of well-defined homomorphisms on the quotients

$$C_n(X, A; G) := C_n(X; G) / C_n(A; G),$$

and since ∂^2 is still zero, $(C_*(X, A; G), \partial)$ is a chain complex, called the **relative singular chain complex** of the pair (X, A) with coefficients in G . Its homology groups are the **relative singular homology** (*relative singuläre Homologie*),

$$H_n(X, A; G) := H_n(C_*(X, A; G), \partial).$$

The case $A = \emptyset$ reproduces $H_n(X; G)$ as we defined it in the previous lecture, and these are sometimes called the **absolute** homology groups of X so as to distinguish them from relative homology groups. As in absolute homology, we may sometimes abbreviate the case of integer coefficients by

$$H_n(X, A) := H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Lemma 23.1 extends in an obvious way to the relative chain complex: if $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a map of pairs, then the absolute chain map $f_* : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y; G)$ sends the subgroup $C_*(A; G)$ into $C_*(B; G)$ and thus descends to a chain map

$$f_* : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B; G),$$

implying the relative version of Corollary 23.2:

THEOREM 23.4. *Maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ determine group homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B; G)$ for every n and G such that $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$ whenever f and g can be composed, and the identity map on (X, A) induces the identity homomorphism on $H_n(X, A; G)$. $\square$*

Since $C_n(X, A; G)$ is a quotient, its elements are technically equivalence classes, but in order to avoid having too many equivalence relations floating around in the same discussion, let us instead think of them as ordinary n -chains $c \in C_n(X; G)$, keeping in mind that two such n -chains $a, b \in C_n(X; G)$ define the same element of $C_n(X, A; G)$ whenever $a - b \in C_n(A; G)$, meaning a and b differ by a linear combination of simplices that are all contained in A . A chain $c \in C_n(X; G)$ can then be called a **relative cycle** if the element of $C_n(X, A; G)$ it determines is a cycle, which means ∂c belongs to $C_{n-1}(A; G)$. Notice that a relative cycle need not be an **absolute cycle** in general (meaning $\partial c = 0$), though absolute cycles also define relative cycles. Relative cycles $c \in C_n(X; G)$ define relative homology classes $[c] \in C_n(X, A; G)$, and two relative cycles $b, c \in C_n(X; G)$ are homologous (meaning $[b] = [c] \in H_n(X, A; G)$) if and only if

$$b - c = a + \partial x \quad \text{for some } a \in C_n(A; G), x \in C_{n+1}(X; G).$$

In particular, a relative cycle is nullhomologous if and only if it is the sum of a boundary plus a chain contained in A . If you find these algebraic relations overly abstract and would like some advice on how to actually *visualize* relative cycles, see §23.4.

23.3. Exact sequences. The reason for introducing relative homology groups $H_*(X, A; G)$ was *not* that we wanted a tool for distinguishing non-homeomorphic pairs—the relative homology is such a tool, but our primary interest remains the space X on its own, rather than the pair (X, A) . The usefulness of relative homology lies in the fact that there is a relation between the three groups $H_*(X; G)$, $H_*(A; G)$ and $H_*(X, A; G)$ for any pair (X, A) , and indeed, one might hope to encounter situations in which two out of these three groups are easy to compute, so that a computation of the third one then comes for free. Let's make this idea more precise.

We begin with a seemingly trivial observation: let $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : X = (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ denote the natural inclusions,⁴³ and consider the sequence of chain maps

$$(23.1) \quad 0 \longrightarrow C_*(A; G) \xrightarrow{i_*} C_*(X; G) \xrightarrow{j_*} C_*(X, A; G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where the first and last maps are each trivial. The map j_* is obviously surjective, as it is actually just the quotient projection

$$C_*(X; G) \longrightarrow C_*(X, G)/C_*(A; G) = C_*(X, A; G).$$

The map i_* is similarly the inclusion $C_*(A; G) \hookrightarrow C_*(X; G)$ and is thus injective, and its image is precisely the kernel of j_* . This means that every term in this sequence has the property that the image of the preceding map equals the kernel of the next one. In general, a sequence of abelian groups with homomorphisms

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_{n-2} \xrightarrow{f_{n-2}} A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} A_{n+2} \longrightarrow \dots$$

is called **exact** (*exakt*) if $\ker f_n = \operatorname{im} f_{n-1}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If all the groups except for two neighboring groups in the sequence are trivial, then it suffices to look at a sequence of four groups with only one nontrivial homomorphism

$$0 \longrightarrow A_1 \xrightarrow{f} A_2 \longrightarrow 0,$$

and the exactness of the sequence then simply means that $f : A_1 \rightarrow A_2$ is both injective and surjective, i.e. it is an isomorphism. In this sense, one can think of an exact sequence as a generalization of the notion of an isomorphism between two abelian groups. The next simplest case is what is called a **short exact sequence** (*kurze exakte Sequenz*), in which all except three of the groups and two of the homomorphisms are trivial,

$$0 \longrightarrow A_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} A_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} A_3 \longrightarrow 0.$$

Exactness in this case means three things: f_1 is injective, f_2 is surjective, and $\operatorname{im} f_1 = \ker f_2$. The sequence in (23.1) is what we call a **short exact sequence of chain maps**, because the abelian groups in each term are also chain complexes and the homomorphisms between them are chain maps. One can now wonder what happens if we replace these chain complexes with their homology groups and the chain maps with the induced homomorphisms on homology: will the resulting sequence be exact? The answer is no, but what is actually true is much better and more useful than this:

THEOREM 23.5. *Suppose (A_*, ∂^A) , (B_*, ∂^B) and (C_*, ∂^C) are chain complexes and*

$$0 \longrightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{f} B_* \xrightarrow{g} C_* \longrightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain maps. Then there exists a natural homomorphism $\partial_ : H_n(C_*, \partial^C) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*, \partial^A)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the sequence*

$$(23.2) \quad \begin{aligned} \dots &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n+1}(A_*, \partial^A) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_{n+1}(B_*, \partial^B) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_{n+1}(C_*, \partial^C) \\ &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n(A_*, \partial^A) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(B_*, \partial^B) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_n(C_*, \partial^C) \\ &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A_*, \partial^A) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_{n-1}(B_*, \partial^B) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_{n-1}(C_*, \partial^C) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \dots \end{aligned}$$

is exact.

⁴³Strictly speaking, j in this context is just the identity map on X , but we cannot call it that since we are viewing it as a map between two non-identical pairs of spaces. It is a map of pairs due to the trivial fact that $\emptyset \subset A$.

The sequence of homology groups in this theorem is called a **long exact sequence** (*lange exakte Sequenz*), and the maps $\partial_* : H_n(C_*, \partial^C) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*, \partial^A)$ are called the **connecting homomorphisms** in this sequence. In particular, this result turns (23.1) into the so-called **long exact sequence of the pair** (X, A) ,

$$(23.3) \quad \dots \rightarrow H_{n+1}(X, A; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n(A; G) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(X; G) \xrightarrow{j_*} H_n(X, A; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A; G) \rightarrow \dots$$

To see why this might be useful, notice what it implies if we happen to know for some reason that one of the three groups $H_n(X; G)$, $H_n(A; G)$ or $H_n(X, A; G)$ is trivial for every n ; for concreteness, let's suppose it is known that $H_*(X, A; G) = 0$. This knowledge turns the long exact sequence (23.3) into an infinite collection of two-term exact sequences

$$0 \longrightarrow H_n(A; G) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(X; G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

implying that for every n , the map $i_* : H_n(A; G) \rightarrow H_n(X; G)$ is an isomorphism. If we are also lucky enough to know already what $H_*(A; G)$ is, then the computation of $H_*(X; G)$ is thus complete. An argument of this type will be used in Lecture 25 as the final step in computing $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ for every $n \geq 1$.

Theorem 23.5 is a purely algebraic statement, and it is proved by a straightforward but nonetheless slightly surprising procedure known as “diagram chasing”. I will not give the full argument here, because that would bore you to tears, but I will explain the first couple of steps, and I highly recommend that you work through the rest yourself the next time you are half-asleep and in need of amusement on an airplane, or recovering from surgery on heavy pain medication, as the case may be.⁴⁴ The basic idea is to write down a great big commutative diagram, examine at each step exactly what information you can deduce from exactness and commutativity, and then let the diagram tell you what to do.

Here is the diagram we need—it commutes because f and g are chain maps, and each of its rows is an exact sequence of abelian groups:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
 & & \downarrow \partial^A & & \downarrow \partial^B & & \downarrow \partial^C \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n+1} \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow \partial^A & & \downarrow \partial^B & & \downarrow \partial^C \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{f} & B_n & \xrightarrow{g} & C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow \partial^A & & \downarrow \partial^B & & \downarrow \partial^C \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow \partial^A & & \downarrow \partial^B & & \downarrow \partial^C \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n-2} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n-2} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n-2} \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow \partial^A & & \downarrow \partial^B & & \downarrow \partial^C \\
 & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots
 \end{array}$$

⁴⁴I first learned about exact sequences around the same time that I had all four of my wisdom teeth removed in a complicated procedure that left me drowsily dependent on prescription pain medication for about three weeks afterward. It turns out that that was exactly the right frame of mind in which to work through diagram chasing arguments without getting bored.

We start by writing down a reasonable candidate for the map $\partial_* : H_n(C_*, \partial^C) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*, \partial^A)$. Given $[c] \in H_n(C_*, \partial^C)$, $c \in C_n$ is necessarily a cycle, and exactness tells us that $g : B_n \rightarrow C_n$ is surjective, hence $c = g(b)$ for some $b \in B_n$. Then using commutativity,

$$0 = \partial^C c = \partial^C g(b) = g(\partial^B b),$$

so $\partial^B b \in \ker g \subset B_{n-1}$, and using exactness again, this implies $\partial^B b = f(a)$ for some $a \in A_{n-1}$. Notice that a is uniquely determined by b since (using exactness again) f is injective. Applying commutativity again, we now observe that

$$f(\partial^A a) = \partial^B(f(a)) = \partial^B \partial^B b = 0$$

since $(\partial^B)^2 = 0$, and the injectivity of f then implies $\partial^A a = 0$. So just by chasing the diagram from C_n to A_{n-1} , we found a cycle $a \in A_{n-1}$, and it seems reasonable to define

$$\partial_*[c] := [a] \in H_{n-1}(A, \partial^A).$$

We need to check that this is well defined, as two arbitrary choices were made in the procedure going from $[c]$ to $[a]$. One was the choice of an element $b \in B_n$ with $g(b) = c$, so we could get a different cycle $a' \in A_{n-1}$ by choosing a different element $b' \in g^{-1}(c)$ and requiring $f(a') = \partial^B b'$. But then $b' - b$ belongs to $\ker g = \text{im } f$, hence we can write $b' - b = f(x)$ for some $x \in A_n$, implying

$$f(a' - a) = f(a') - f(a) = \partial^B(b' - b) = \partial^B(f(x)) = f(\partial^A(x)),$$

and since f is injective, $a' - a = \partial^A x$, implying that a and a' are homologous cycles. The other choice we made was the cycle $c \in C_n$, which in principle we are free to replace by any homologous cycle $c' \in C_n$ and then follow the same procedure to produce a different cycle $a' \in A_{n-1}$. If we do this, then $c' - c = \partial^C z$ for some $z \in C_{n+1}$, and since g is surjective, $z = g(y)$ for some $y \in B_{n+1}$. We then have

$$c' - c = \partial^C(g(y)) = g(\partial^B(y)),$$

and since we now know that we are free to choose any $b \in g^{-1}(c)$ and $b' \in g^{-1}(c')$, we can set

$$b' := b + \partial^B(y).$$

This implies $\partial^B b' = \partial^B b$, thus the condition $f(a') = \partial^B b'$ produces $a' = a$, and we have finished the proof that ∂_* is well defined.

It remains to prove that ∂_* really is a homomorphism, and that the long exact sequence really is exact, i.e. that $\ker \partial_* = \text{im } g_*$, $\ker g_* = \text{im } f_*$ and $\ker f_* = \text{im } \partial_*$. This can all be done by the same kinds of straightforward arguments as above, but I'm sure you can see now why I'm not going to write down the complete details here.

I have one final remark, however, about the long exact sequence of a pair (X, A) . If you redo the diagram chase above for the particular short exact sequence (23.1), you end up with a precise and very natural formula for the connecting homomorphisms

$$\partial_* : H_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A; G).$$

The procedure starts with a relative n -cycle $c \in C_n(X, A; G)$, from which we need to pick $b \in j_*^{-1}(c) \subset C_n(X; G)$, but if we apply the usual convention of regarding relative cycles in (X, A) as chains in X , then c is already in $C_n(X; G)$ and we can pick b to be exactly the same chain c . Next we look at $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(X; G)$ and find the unique cycle $a \in C_{n-1}(A; G)$ that is sent to ∂c under the inclusion $C_{n-1}(A; G) \hookrightarrow C_{n-1}(X; G)$. In other words, $a = \partial c$, so the “obvious” formula is the right one (see Exercise 23.2):

$$(23.4) \quad \partial_*[c] = [\partial c].$$

This looks more trivial than it is, e.g. you might think that $[\partial c]$ should automatically be 0 because ∂c is a boundary, but the point is that c is a chain in X , it might not be confined to A , so ∂c is

certainly a cycle in A (as a consequence of the fact that c is a relative chain in (X, A)) but it need not be the boundary of any chain in A , and $[\partial c]$ may very well be a nontrivial homology class in $H_{n-1}(A; G)$.

It is not hard to give a direct proof based on (23.4) that the sequence (23.3) is exact; see Exercise 23.2.

REMARK 23.6. Exercise 23.2 is straightforward and doable in a much shorter time than the proof of Theorem 23.5, so we could have skipped the abstract homological algebra discussion without losing anything that is essential for the current semester. However, I wanted to make the point that the long exact sequence of a pair is not just an isolated topological phenomenon—it is a special case of a much more general algebraic principle, and that principle reappears in many other contexts in various branches of mathematics. We will see it again several times in *Topologie II*.

23.4. Geometric intuition. The following extended digression is not logically necessary for our development of basic homology theory, but you might still appreciate some intuition on the following question: what do relative n -cycles actually *look like*? Actually, that's also a valid question when applied to absolute n -cycles, and we've only really addressed it so far for $n = 0$ and $n = 1$. The best way I know for visualizing absolute cycles is via the analogy with bordism theory. Recall that elements of $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ are equivalence classes of maps $f : M \rightarrow X$ where M is a closed oriented n -manifold. If M admits an oriented triangulation, then after choosing an ordering for all the vertices in this triangulation and assigning orientations accordingly to each simplex in the triangulation, one can identify each k -simplex $\sigma \subset M$ with a map $\Delta^k \rightarrow M$ that parametrizes it, thus defining a singular k -simplex in M . For $k = n$ in particular, the condition in Definition 20.9 relating the orientations of neighboring n -simplices implies that the sum $\sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i$ of all the singular n -simplices in the triangulation—with appropriate signs $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ attached in order to describe their orientations in the triangulation—is a cycle in $C_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$. This is true because in $\partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i$, every $(n-1)$ -simplex of the triangulation appears exactly twice, but the orientation condition requires these two instances to appear with opposite signs. The resulting singular homology class is denoted by

$$[M] := \left[\sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i \right] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$$

and called the **fundamental class** (*Fundamentalklasse*) of M . We cannot prove it right now, but we will see in *Topologie II* that $[M]$ does not depend on the choice of triangulation, and it can even be defined for arbitrary closed and oriented topological manifolds, which need not admit triangulations. The map $f : M \rightarrow X$ then determines a corresponding cycle $\sum_i \epsilon_i (f \circ \sigma_i) \in C_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and an n -dimensional homology class $f_*[M] \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$.

How can we recognize when two n -cycles in X defined in this way are homologous, or equivalently, when $\sum_i \epsilon_i (f \circ \sigma_i)$ is nullhomologous? A nice answer can again be extracted from bordism theory. If $[(M, f)] = 0 \in \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$, it means there exists a compact oriented $(n+1)$ -manifold W with $\partial W \cong M$ and a map $F : W \rightarrow X$ with $F|_M = f$. Suppose W admits an oriented triangulation that restricts to ∂W as an oriented triangulation of M . Identifying the $(n+1)$ -simplices τ_j in this triangulation with singular $(n+1)$ -simplices in W and then adding them up with suitable signs $\epsilon_j = \pm 1$ as in the previous paragraph produces an $(n+1)$ -chain in X of the form $\sum_j \epsilon_j (F \circ \tau_j)$, whose boundary is the n -cycle representing $f_*[M]$. Thus if oriented triangulations can always be assumed to exist, then $f_*[M] = 0 \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ whenever (M, f) is nullbordant, and similarly, $f_*[M] = g_*[N] \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ will hold whenever (M, f) and (N, g) are related by an oriented bordism. We will also see in *Topologie II* that these statements remain true without mentioning triangulations.

You may be wondering how general this discussion really is, i.e. does *every* integral homology class in X arise from a map of a closed manifold into X ? The answer is in general no, but if X is a nice enough space like the polyhedron of a finite simplicial complex, then something almost as good is true. The proof of the following famous result of Thom would be far beyond the scope of this course, and we will not make use of it, but it is nice to know that it exists.

THEOREM 23.7 (R. Thom [Tho54]). *If X is a compact polyhedron, then for every $n \geq 0$ and $A \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$, there exists a closed n -manifold M , a map $f : M \rightarrow X$ and a number $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $kA = f_*[M]$.* $\square$

To talk about relative homology classes, we could now allow M to be a compact oriented n -manifold with boundary and assume that its oriented triangulation also defines an oriented triangulation of ∂M . The chain $\sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i \in C_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is then no longer a cycle, because $(n-1)$ -simplices on ∂M are not canceled, they each appear exactly once. Instead, $\partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i$ is an $(n-1)$ -cycle representing the fundamental class of ∂M , and $\sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i$ is therefore a relative cycle in $(M, \partial M)$, defining a **relative fundamental class**

$$[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Given a pair (X, A) , any map $f : (M, \partial M) \rightarrow (X, A)$ now determines a relative cycle $\sum_i \epsilon_i (f \circ \sigma_i) \in C_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ and relative homology class $f_*[M] \in H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$. For intuition, it is usually helpful to assume that f is an embedding, so a relative n -cycle in (X, A) then looks like an oriented and triangulated compact n -dimensional submanifold in X whose boundary lies in A .

Finally, note that one can drop the orientations from this entire discussion at the cost of replacing $\mathbb{Z}$ coefficients with $\mathbb{Z}_2$. Indeed, if M is closed and has a triangulation but not one that is orientable, then the n -chain defined by adding up the n -simplices may not be a cycle because its boundary may include some $(n-1)$ -simplex that appears twice without canceling. But since $2 = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$, this sum still defines a cycle in $C_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and therefore also a fundamental class

$$[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

This reveals that unoriented bordism classes in $\Omega_n(X)$ determine homology classes in $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, and the analogue of Theorem 23.7 remains true in this case without any need for the multiplicative factor $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

23.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 23.1 (*). Work through the rest of the proof of Theorem 23.5, the existence of the long exact sequence resulting from any short exact sequence of chain complexes. Stop when you either finish, get tired, or simply decide that you believe the theorem.

EXERCISE 23.2. In this lecture, we used an algebraic result about short exact sequences of chain complexes with chain maps in order to derive the long exact sequence of a pair (X, A) in relative singular homology, and in particular, the existence of the connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : H_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A)$ that fit into that exact sequence.

- (a) Work through enough details of the diagram chase behind Theorem 23.5 to show that for any class $[c] \in H_n(X, A)$ represented by a relative n -cycle $c \in C_n(X)$, the map ∂_* is given explicitly by the formula

$$\partial_*[c] = [\partial c],$$

where on the right hand side, ∂c is regarded as an $(n-1)$ -cycle in $C_{n-1}(A)$, and thus represents a homology class in $H_{n-1}(A)$. Achtung: the n -chain $c \in C_n(X)$ need not be contained in A , so its boundary $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A)$ could represent a nontrivial homology class in $H_{n-1}(A)$, even though the class it represents in $H_{n-1}(X)$ is definitely trivial.

- (b) Use the formula in part (a) to give a direct proof of the exactness of the sequence (23.3) for any pair of spaces (X, A) , independently of Theorem 23.5.
- (c) Deduce also the following “naturality” property: for any map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the long exact sequences of (X, A) and (Y, B) form the rows of a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
 \dots & \longrightarrow & H_n(A) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X, A) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(A) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\
 & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \\
 \dots & \longrightarrow & H_n(B) & \longrightarrow & H_n(Y) & \longrightarrow & H_n(Y, B) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(B) & \longrightarrow & \dots
 \end{array}$$

EXERCISE 23.3. Let $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ denote the inclusion map for a pair (X, A) . Show that the induced homomorphism $i_* : H_n(A) \rightarrow H_n(X)$ is an isomorphism for all n if and only if the relative homology groups $H_n(X, A)$ vanish for all n .

EXERCISE 23.4. Suppose the following diagram of abelian groups and homomorphisms commutes, and that both of its rows are exact sequences, meaning $\text{im } f = \ker g$, $\text{im } g' = \ker h'$ and so forth.⁴⁵

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
 A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C & \xrightarrow{h} & D & \xrightarrow{i} & E \\
 \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma & & \downarrow \delta & & \downarrow \varepsilon \\
 A' & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' & \xrightarrow{g'} & C' & \xrightarrow{h'} & D' & \xrightarrow{i'} & E'
 \end{array}$$

- (a) Prove that if α , β , δ and ε are all isomorphisms, then so is γ .

*This result is known as the **five-lemma**.*

- (b) Here is an application: given a map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, show that if any two of the induced homomorphisms $H_k(X) \rightarrow H_k(Y)$, $H_k(A) \rightarrow H_k(B)$ and $H_k(X, A) \rightarrow H_k(Y, B)$ are isomorphisms for every k , then so is the third.

Hint: You need the result of Exercise 23.2(c) for this.

24. Homotopy invariance and excision

We need to prove two more theorems about singular homology before it becomes a truly useful tool. Both will require a bit of work, but the almost immediate payoff will be that we can then compute the homology of spheres in every dimension. This has several important applications, including the general case of the Brouwer fixed point theorem, and the basic fact that open sets in $\mathbb{R}^n$ are never homeomorphic to open sets in $\mathbb{R}^m$ unless $n = m$. It is also the first step in developing an algorithm to compute the singular homology of any CW-complex, a general class of “reasonable” spaces that includes all smooth manifolds and all simplicial complexes.

24.1. Homotopy invariance. Here is our first task for today.

THEOREM 24.1. *The map $f_* : H_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B; G)$ induced for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by a map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ depends only on the homotopy class of f (as a map of pairs).*

The obvious corollary about homotopy equivalent spaces is a result of tremendous theoretical importance, and I would like to point out how much simpler its proof is than that of the corresponding statement about fundamental groups (Theorem 10.20). The complication in the case of π_1 was that its definition depends on a choice of base point, but the notion of homotopy equivalence does not—as a result, we had to find a workaround to cope with the fact that homotopy inverses need not be base-point preserving. In homology, one can also allow for base points by considering pairs (X, A) where $A \subset X$ is a single point, but homotopies between maps of pairs are required

⁴⁵The lack of any additional arrows to the left of A and A' or to the right of E and E' means that there is no assumption about the kernels of f and f' or the images of i and i' .

to respect this extra data, which makes the proofs easier. And unlike the fundamental group, homology also makes sense for pairs (X, A) with $A = \emptyset$, in which case the terms “homotopy” and “homotopy equivalence” mean the same thing that they always did.

COROLLARY 24.2. *If $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a homotopy equivalence of pairs, then the induced maps $f_* : H_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B; G)$ are isomorphisms.*

PROOF. Suppose $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a homotopy equivalence, so it has a homotopy inverse $g : (Y, B) \rightarrow (X, A)$. Then $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are homotopic to the identity maps on (Y, B) and (X, A) respectively, so that Theorem 24.1 gives $f_* \circ g_* = \mathbb{1}$ and $g_* \circ f_* = \mathbb{1}$ for the induced maps on homology, implying that both are isomorphisms. $\square$

The proof of Theorem 24.1 requires another fundamental notion from homological algebra. It should be clear that if $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are two non-identical maps, then the induced chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y; G)$ will not be identical, even if f and g are homotopic. It is still possible however for two distinct chain maps to descend to exactly the same map between homology groups. What we need for Theorem 24.1 is an algebraic mechanism to recognize when this happens, and that mechanism is called *chain homotopy*.

DEFINITION 24.3. A **chain homotopy** (*Kettenhomotopie*) between two chain maps $f, g : (A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial^B)$ is a sequence of homomorphisms $h_n : A_n \rightarrow B_{n+1}$ such that for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$f_n - g_n = \partial_{n+1}^B \circ h_n + h_{n-1} \circ \partial_n^A.$$

In other words, a chain homotopy between f and g is a homomorphism $h : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ of degree +1 such that $f - g = \partial^B \circ h + h \circ \partial^A$. We sometimes abuse notation and write

$$h : A_* \rightarrow B_{*+1}$$

to emphasize that a chain homotopy is a homomorphism of degree 1.

Two chain maps that admit a chain homotopy between them are called **chain homotopic** (*kettenhomotop*), and it is not hard to show that this defines an equivalence relation on chain maps. You can picture a chain homotopy as a sequence of down-left diagonal arrows in the diagram (22.1), though you need to be a little careful with that diagram since a chain homotopy does not make it commute. The main importance of chain homotopies comes from the following result.

PROPOSITION 24.4. *If there exists a chain homotopy between two chain maps f and g from (A_*, ∂^A) to (B_*, ∂^B) , then they induce the same homomorphisms*

$$f_* = g_* : H_n(A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow H_n(B_*, \partial^B)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

PROOF. If $h : A_* \rightarrow B_{*+1}$ is a chain homotopy, then given any $[a] \in H_n(A_*, \partial^A)$, we have $\partial^A a = 0$ and thus

$$f(a) - g(a) = \partial^B h(a) + h(\partial^A a) = \partial^B (h(a)),$$

hence $f(a)$ and $g(a)$ are homologous cycles. $\square$

If you're seeing the notion of chain homotopies for the first time, you might think that the definition above looks a bit unmotivated—it is not obvious for instance whether this is the *only* reasonable algebraic condition that makes two chain maps induce the same map on homology. However, the following lemma and its proof provide convincing evidence that this definition is the right one: it turns out that chain homotopies are the *natural* algebraic structure that arises in the singular chain complex from a homotopy between continuous maps. We will see that they arise naturally in many other contexts as well.

LEMMA 24.5. *If there exists a homotopy between the maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, then there also exists a chain homotopy between the induced chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B; G)$.*

Theorem 24.1 is an immediate consequence of this lemma and Proposition 24.4, so our remaining task is to prove the lemma. For notational simplicity, let us start under the assumption

$$A = B = \emptyset,$$

as the general case will only require a few extra remarks beyond this. Suppose $H : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy between $f = H(0, \cdot)$ and $g = H(1, \cdot)$. Associate to each singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ the map

$$h_\sigma : I \times \Delta^n \rightarrow Y : (s, t) \mapsto H(s, \sigma(t)),$$

so $h_\sigma(0, \cdot) = f \circ \sigma$ and $h_\sigma(1, \cdot) = g \circ \sigma$. If we pretend for a moment that the maps in this picture are all embeddings, then we can picture h_σ as tracing out a “prism-shaped” region in Y whose boundary consists of three pieces, two of which are the n -simplices traced about by $f_*\sigma$ and $g_*\sigma$. If we pay proper attention to orientations, then $f_*\sigma$ will get a negative orientation because the boundary orientation for $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$ induces opposite orientations on $\{0\} \times \Delta^n$ and $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$. But there is a third piece of $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$ that we haven’t mentioned yet, namely $I \times \partial\Delta^n$. If we regard $I \times \Delta^n$ as a compact oriented $(n+1)$ -manifold with boundary, then its oriented boundary turns out to be⁴⁶

$$(24.1) \quad \partial(I \times \Delta^n) = (-\{0\} \times \Delta^n) \cup (\{1\} \times \Delta^n) \cup (-I \times \partial\Delta^n).$$

This relation will be the geometric motivation behind the chain homotopy formula.

The idea now is to define a chain homotopy $h : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(Y; G)$ by associating to each singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ a linear combination of singular $(n+1)$ -simplices in Y determined by the prism map $h_\sigma : I \times \Delta^n \rightarrow Y$. Unfortunately, $I \times \Delta^n$ is not a simplex, but there are various natural ways to decompose it into simplices, i.e. to triangulate it. In principle, the result should not depend on how this is done, so long as the triangulation has reasonable properties, thus we will not explain the details here except to state what properties are needed:

LEMMA 24.6. *There exists a sequence of oriented triangulations of the sequence of spaces $I \times \Delta^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ satisfying the following properties:*

- (1) $\{0\} \times \Delta^n$ and $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$ are boundary faces of $(n+1)$ -simplices in the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$;
- (2) Under the natural identification of each boundary face $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ with Δ^{n-1} , the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ restricts to $I \times \partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ as the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^{n-1}$.

A precise algorithm to produce such triangulations of $I \times \Delta^n$ is described in [Hat02, p. 112]. I recommend taking a moment to draw pictures of how it might be done for $n = 1$ and $n = 2$. In the following, we will assume that parametrizations $\tau_i : \Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow I \times \Delta^n$ of the finite set of $(n+1)$ -simplices in these triangulations have also been chosen such that for a suitable choice of signs $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ determined by their orientations,

$$\sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i \in C_{n+1}(I \times \Delta^n; \mathbb{Z})$$

defines a relative cycle in $(I \times \Delta^n, \partial(I \times \Delta^n))$; in other words, all interior n -simplices in the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ appear twice with opposite signs in $\partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i$, so that what remains is an

⁴⁶One can deduce the signs in (24.1) from things that were said in Lecture 20, though it’s a bit tedious, and for now I would encourage you to just believe me that the signs are correct. There is an easier way to see it using the notion of orientation for *smooth* manifolds and their tangent spaces, which we do not have space to talk about here, but you’ll likely see things like this again in differential geometry at some point.

n -chain in the boundary. The stated conditions on the triangulation guarantee in fact that $\partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i$ will consist of the following terms:

- (1) A single term for the obvious parametrization $\Delta^n \rightarrow \{1\} \times \Delta^n$, whose attached coefficient we can assume without loss of generality is $+1$;
- (2) Another term for the obvious parametrization $\Delta^n \rightarrow \{0\} \times \Delta^n$, whose attached coefficient must now be -1 for orientation reasons;
- (3) Linear combinations (with coefficients ± 1) of the n -simplices triangulating $I \times \partial_{(k)} \Delta^n = I \times \Delta^{n-1}$ for each boundary face of Δ^n .

With this in hand, there is a unique homomorphism $h : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y; G)$ defined on each singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ by the formula

$$h(\sigma) := \sum_i \epsilon_i (h_\sigma \circ \tau_i) \in C_{n+1}(Y; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where the sum is over all the parametrized $(n+1)$ -simplices $\tau_i : \Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow I \times \Delta^n$ in our triangulation from Lemma 24.6, and the $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ are determined by their orientations as outlined above. In light of (24.1), we then have

$$\partial h(\sigma) = g_* \sigma - f_* \sigma - h(\partial \sigma),$$

where the third term comes from the restriction of h_σ to the triangulated subset $-I \times \partial \Delta^n$ in the oriented boundary of $I \times \Delta^n$. It follows that $h : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(Y; G)$ satisfies $\partial \circ h + h \circ \partial = g_* - f_*$, i.e. h is a chain homotopy.

This concludes the proof of Lemma 24.5 in the case $A = B = \emptyset$. In the general case, the given homotopy satisfies the additional assumption

$$H(I \times A) \subset B,$$

thus following through with the above construction, h_σ has image contained in B whenever σ has image in A . It follows that the chain homotopy we constructed sends $C_n(A; G)$ into $C_{n+1}(B; G)$ and thus descends to the quotients as a chain homotopy

$$h_* : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(Y, B; G)$$

between the relative chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B; G)$. The proof of the lemma is now complete, and with it, the proof of the homotopy invariance of singular homology.

Let us pick some low-hanging fruit from this result.

COROLLARY 24.7 (via Exercise 22.1). *For any contractible space X and any coefficient group G , $H_n(X; G)$ is isomorphic to G for $n = 0$ and vanishes for $n \neq 0$.* $\square$

COROLLARY 24.8 (via Theorem 22.10). *If X is homotopy equivalent to S^1 , then $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.* $\square$

24.2. Excision. The second big theorem for today is called the *excision* property. It is based on the intuition that since $H_*(X, A; G)$ is supposed to ignore anything that happens entirely inside the subset A , removing smaller subsets $B \subset A$ should not change the relative homology, i.e. we expect

$$H_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \cong H_*(X, A; G).$$

This works under a mild assumption on what it means for a subset B to be “smaller” than A .

THEOREM 24.9 (excision). *For any pair (X, A) , if $B \subset A$ is a subset with closure contained in the interior of A , then the inclusion of pairs $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces isomorphisms*

$$i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(X, A; G)$$

for all n and G .

The assumption $B \subset \bar{B} \subset \mathring{A} \subset A \subset X$ means essentially that the two open subsets $\mathring{A}$ and $X \setminus \bar{B}$ cover X . In this setting, let us say that a chain $c \in C_n(X; G)$ is *decomposable* if c can be written as a sum of a chain in A plus a chain in $X \setminus B$, i.e. c belongs to the subgroup $C_n(A; G) + C_n(X \setminus B; G) \subset C_n(X; G)$. The excision theorem is closely related to the observation that every relative n -cycle in (X, A) is homologous to one that is decomposable. Indeed, if this is true and every $[c] \in H_n(X, A; G)$ can be written without loss of generality as $c = c_A + c_{X \setminus B}$ for some $c_A \in C_n(A; G)$ and $c_{X \setminus B} \in C_n(X \setminus B; G)$, then since c is a relative cycle, $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A; G)$, implying $\partial c_{X \setminus B}$ is also in $C_{n-1}(A; G)$ since ∂c_A must be as well, thus $\partial c_{X \setminus B} \in C_{n-1}(A \setminus B; G)$. This proves that $c_{X \setminus B}$ is a relative n -cycle for the pair $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$, so it represents a homology class in $H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$, and obviously

$$i_*[c_{X \setminus B}] = [c]$$

since $c_A \in C_n(A; G)$ represents the trivial element of $C_n(X, A; G)$. This proves surjectivity in Theorem 24.9, modulo the detail about why we are allowed to restrict our attention to decomposable chains. The latter is where most of the hard work is hidden.

Let us reframe the discussion slightly and suppose $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset X$ are two subsets whose interiors form an open cover of X ,

$$X = \mathring{\mathcal{U}} \cup \mathring{\mathcal{V}}.$$

We would like to develop a procedure for replacing any given chain $c \in C_n(X; G)$ with one that is in the subgroup $C_n(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_n(\mathcal{V}; G) \subset C_n(X; G)$ but represents the same homology class in cases where c is a (relative) cycle. If you followed the extended digression on how to visualize n -cycles at the end of the previous lecture, then you can imagine an intuitive reason why this should be possible: consider a homology class that is presented in the form $f_*[M] \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ for some triangulated oriented n -manifold M and a map $f : M \rightarrow X$. In this case, the definition of a cycle representing $f_*[M]$ depends on a choice of oriented triangulation for M , but we do not really expect the homology class $f_*[M]$ to depend on this triangulation, and in particular, we should be free to replace the triangulation by a *finer* one, which has more simplices but each one small enough to be contained in either $\mathcal{U}$ or $\mathcal{V}$ (or both). It is not hard to imagine that one could achieve this simply by triangulating each individual simplex in M to decompose it into strictly smaller simplices, and the process could then be repeated finitely many times to make the simplices as small as we like. This process is called *subdivision*. We shall now describe an inductive algorithm that makes the idea precise.

The **barycentric subdivision** of the standard n -simplex Δ^n is an oriented triangulation of Δ^n defined as follows. If $n = 0$, then Δ^0 is only a single point, so it cannot be subdivided any further and our triangulation of Δ^0 will consist only of that single 0-simplex. Now by induction, assume the desired triangulation of Δ^m has already been defined for all $m \leq n - 1$. Under the natural identification of each boundary face $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ with Δ^{n-1} , this means in particular that a triangulation of $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ has been chosen for each $k = 0, \dots, n$. Now for each $(n - 1)$ -simplex σ in that triangulation, define σ' to be the n -simplex in Δ^n that is linearly spanned by the n vertices of σ plus one extra vertex that is in the interior of Δ^n , the so-called **barycenter**

$$b_n := \left(\frac{1}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1} \right) \in \Delta^n.$$

It is straightforward to check that the collection of all n -simplices σ' defined in this way from $(n - 1)$ -simplices σ in boundary faces $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ forms a triangulation of Δ^n , and one can also assign it an orientation based on the orientations of the triangulations of $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$. Some pictures for $n = 1, 2, 3$ are shown in [Hat02, p. 120].

As usual with triangulations of manifolds, one can assign to each n -simplex $\sigma' \subset \Delta^n$ in the barycentric subdivision of Δ^n a parametrization $\tau : \Delta^n \xrightarrow{\cong} \sigma' \subset \Delta^n$ such that the sum over all

such parametrized simplices τ_i with attached signs $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ determined by their orientations in the triangulation produces a relative n -cycle in $(\Delta^n, \partial\Delta^n)$,

$$\sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i \in C_n(\Delta^n; \mathbb{Z}), \quad \partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i \in C_{n-1}(\partial\Delta^n; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where $(n-1)$ -simplices in the interior of Δ^n do not appear in $\partial \sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i$ because each is a boundary face of two n -simplices whose induced boundary orientations cancel. We can then use this to define a homomorphism

$$S : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_n(X; G)$$

via the formula

$$S(\sigma) := \sum_i \epsilon_i (\sigma \circ \tau_i)$$

for each $n \geq 0$ and $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$. Essentially, S replaces each singular n -simplex σ by a linear combination (with coefficients ± 1) of the restrictions of σ to the subdivided pieces of its domain.

LEMMA 24.10. $S : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$ is a chain map.

PROOF. This follows from the relation $\partial S(\sigma) = S(\partial\sigma)$ for each $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, which is a direct consequence of the inductive nature of the subdivision algorithm: boundary faces of the smaller simplices in the subdivision are also the simplices in a subdivision of the original boundary faces. $\square$

LEMMA 24.11. $S : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$ is chain homotopic to the identity map.

PROOF. As in the proof of Lemma 24.5, the chain homotopy here comes from a particular choice of oriented triangulation of the prism $I \times \Delta^n$. A picture of this triangulation and a precise algorithm to construct it are given in [Hat02, p. 122]. We want it in particular to have the following properties:

- (1) Its restriction to $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$ is the barycentric subdivision of Δ^n ;
- (2) Its restriction to $\{0\} \times \Delta^n$ consists only of that one n -simplex, with no subdivision;
- (3) Its restriction to each $I \times \partial_{(k)} \Delta^n$ matches the chosen triangulation of $I \times \Delta^{n-1}$.

The third property means that the construction is again inductive: we start with $n = 0$ by choosing the trivial triangulation of $I \times \Delta^0 = I$, and then increase the dimension one at a time such that the triangulation already defined for $I \times \Delta^{n-1}$ determines the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$. Since it is an oriented triangulation, one can now define a relative $(n+1)$ -cycle in $(I \times \Delta^n, \partial(I \times \Delta^n))$ of the form

$$\sum_i \epsilon_i \tau_i \in C_{n+1}(I \times \Delta^n; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where $\tau_i : \Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow I \times \Delta^n$ are parametrizations of the simplices in the triangulation and the signs $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ are determined by their orientations. Let

$$\pi : I \times \Delta^n \rightarrow \Delta^n$$

denote the obvious projection map. The desired chain homotopy $h : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X; G)$ is then determined by the formula

$$h(\sigma) = \sum_i \epsilon_i (\sigma \circ \pi \circ \tau_i).$$

In computing $\partial h(\sigma)$, n -simplices in the interior of $I \times \Delta^n$ make no contribution due to the usual cancelations, but there are contributions from the induced triangulation of $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$, and the chain homotopy relation again follows from the geometric formula (24.1) for the oriented boundary

of $I \times \Delta^n$. Namely, restricting to $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$ gives the barycentric subdivision $S(\sigma)$, restricting to $-\{0\} \times \Delta^n$ gives $-\sigma$, and restricting to $-I \times \partial\Delta^n$ gives the same operator applied to $\partial\sigma$, hence

$$\partial h(\sigma) = S(\sigma) - \sigma - h(\partial\sigma),$$

proving $S - \mathbb{1} = \partial h + h\partial$. $\square$

The chain homotopy result implies that our subdivision map $S : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$ has the main property we want, namely it induces the identity homomorphism $H_*(X; G) \rightarrow H_*(X; G)$, and since S clearly also preserves $C_*(A; G)$ for any $A \subset X$, the same is also true for the relative homology groups of (X, A) . It then remains true if we replace S by any iteration S^m for integers $m \geq 1$, thus we can apply S repeatedly in order to make the individual simplices in a chain as small as we like. In particular, for any $c \in C_*(X; G)$, we will have $S^m c \in C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G)$ for m sufficiently large. This is enough information to prove the excision theorem, so let's go ahead and do that.

PROOF OF THEOREM 24.9. The hypotheses of the theorem imply that X is the union of the interiors of $X \setminus B$ and A , so given any class $[c] \in H_n(X, A; G)$ with a relative n -cycle $c \in C_n(X; G)$ representing it, c can be replaced by an iterated subdivision $S^m c$ for large $m \in \mathbb{N}$ that represents the same relative homology class $[S^m c] = [c] \in H_n(X, A; G)$ but is also decomposable, meaning it is the sum of a chain in $X \setminus B$ with a chain in A . Let's assume that c has already been replaced with $S^m c$ in this way, so that without loss of generality,

$$c = c_A + c_{X \setminus B} \quad \text{for some} \quad c_A \in C_n(A; G), \quad c_{X \setminus B} \in C_n(X \setminus B; G).$$

Having made this assumption, the reason why $i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; G)$ is surjective was explained already in the paragraph after the statement of the theorem: the fact that $c \in C_n(X, A; G)$ is a relative n -cycle means $\partial c \in C_n(A; G)$ and therefore also $\partial c_{X \setminus B} \in C_n(A; G)$, so that $c_{X \setminus B}$ is a relative n -cycle in $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$, thus representing a class $[c_{X \setminus B}] \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ that satisfies

$$i_*[c_{X \setminus B}] = [c].$$

The proof that $i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; G)$ is injective uses subdivision in a slightly different way. Suppose $c \in C_n(X \setminus B; G)$ is a relative n -cycle representing a homology class $[c] \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ with $i_*[c] = 0 \in H_n(X, A; G)$. Since i is just an inclusion map, $i_*[c] = 0$ means that after reinterpreting c as an n -chain in X instead of just in $X \setminus B$, c is a boundary of some $(n+1)$ -chain in X , modulo one that is contained in A , i.e. we have

$$c = \partial b + a \quad \text{for some } b \in C_{n+1}(X; G) \text{ and } a \in C_n(A; G).$$

Applying ∂ to both sides of this equation gives $\partial c = \partial a$, which implies since c is a relative n -cycle in $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$ that $\partial a \in C_n(A \setminus B; G)$, i.e. none of the singular simplices that make up the $(n-1)$ -cycle ∂a intersect B . If we happened to know that the chains $b \in C_{n+1}(X; G)$ and $a \in C_n(A; G)$ also have that property, i.e. that they are made up only of singular simplices that do not intersect B , then we would be done: indeed, we could then interpret b as an $(n+1)$ -chain in $X \setminus B$ and a as an n -chain in $A \setminus B$, so that the relation $c = \partial b + a$ also implies $[c] = 0 \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$. As it stands, each of b and a might very well intersect B , but we can now use subdivision to replace them with chains that do not. Indeed, the homology class $[c] \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ does not change if we replace c with $S^m c$ for any $m \geq 1$, and since S is a chain map, the relation $c = \partial b + a$ then implies $S^m c = S^m(\partial b) + S^m a = \partial(S^m b) + S^m a$. Choosing m sufficiently large and replacing each of a, b, c with their m -fold subdivisions, we can now assume without loss of generality that all three are decomposable; for $c \in C_n(X \setminus B; G)$ and $a \in C_n(A; G)$ this is not new information since

we already assumed them to be contained in $X \setminus B$ or A respectively, but for $b \in C_{n+1}(X; G)$ we can now write

$$b = b_A + b_{X \setminus B} \quad \text{for some} \quad b_A \in C_{n+1}(A; G), \quad b_{X \setminus B} \in C_{n+1}(X \setminus B; G).$$

The relation $c = \partial b + a$ thus becomes

$$c = \partial b_{X \setminus B} + (\partial b_A + a),$$

and we observe that since c and $\partial b_{X \setminus B}$ are both n -chains in $X \setminus B$, the same must therefore be true for $\partial b_A + a$, meaning it is actually contained in $A \setminus B$. This proves $[c] = 0 \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$. $\square$

24.3. Chain homotopy equivalence. The remainder of this lecture should be considered optional for now, as it is not needed for the purposes of this semester's course. However, when we study cohomology next semester, we will need a slightly better version of the excision result than Theorem 24.9. One thing you've probably gathered by now is that a chain homotopy is always a useful thing to have, so when one exists, we should take note of it. Theorem 24.9 can be seen as a consequence of the stronger result that the inclusion $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces a **chain homotopy equivalence** (*Kettenhomotopieäquivalenz*)

$$i_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow C_*(X, A; G).$$

In case the meaning of this terminology is not obvious, this means there exists a chain map $\psi : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ such that $\psi \circ i_*$ and $i_* \circ \psi$ are each chain homotopic to the identity; we call ψ a **chain homotopy inverse** of i_* .

The following statement turns our previous discussion of subdivision into an actual chain homotopy equivalence that has several applications in the further development of the theory, e.g. we will use it again next semester when we discuss the homology analogue of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem, known as the *Mayer-Vietoris* exact sequence. To understand the statement, it is important to be aware that for any subsets $U, V \subset X$, the subgroup $C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G) \subset C_*(X; G)$ is also a chain complex in a natural way. Indeed, the boundary operator on $C_*(X; G)$ maps each of $C_*(U; G)$ and $C_*(V; G)$ to themselves, thus it also preserves their sum.

LEMMA 24.12. *For any subsets $U, V \subset X$ with $X = \mathring{U} \cup \mathring{V}$, the inclusion map*

$$j : C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G) \hookrightarrow C_*(X; G)$$

admits a chain homotopy inverse

$$\rho : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G)$$

such that $\rho \circ j = \mathbb{1}$, and moreover, there is a chain homotopy $h : C_(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X; G)$ of $j \circ \rho$ to the identity such that h vanishes on $C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G)$.*

PROOF. Let me first point out how one would intuitively wish to prove this, and why it will not work. As observed above, any chain $c \in C_*(X; G)$ can be mapped into $C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G)$ via S^m if the integer m is sufficiently large, so S^m seems like a good candidate for the chain homotopy inverse ρ . The problem however is that we don't know in general how large m needs to be, and in fact the answer depends on the chain c : for any fixed integer m , one can always find a singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ whose boundary is close enough to the boundary of U or V so that the m -fold subdivision $S^m(\sigma)$ includes some simplex that is not fully contained in either one. This means that regardless of how large we make m , S^m can never map *all* of $C_*(X; G)$ into $C_*(U; G) + C_*(V; G)$, and it will require a bit more cleverness to come up with a candidate for a map ρ that does this. Our approach will be somewhat indirect: instead of writing down ρ , we will first write down a (somewhat naive) candidate for the chain homotopy h in terms of the chain homotopies between S^m and $\mathbb{1}$ for varying values of m . We will then be able to verify that h really

is a chain homotopy between $\mathbb{1}$ and something; that so-called “something” will be defined to be ρ , whose further properties we can then verify.

Let $h_1 : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X; G)$ denote the chain homotopy provided by Lemma 24.11 for the barycentric subdivision chain map $S : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$, i.e. it satisfies $S - \mathbb{1} = \partial h_1 + h_1 \partial$. We claim that for all integers $m \geq 0$, the map

$$h_m := h_1 \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} S^k : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X; G)$$

then satisfies

$$(24.2) \quad S^m - \mathbb{1} = \partial h_m + h_m \partial,$$

so h_m is a chain homotopy between S^m and the identity. Note that the case $m = 0$ is included here, with $S^0 = \mathbb{1}$ and $h_0 = 0$, so the claim is trivial in that case, and the definition of h_1 establishes it for $m = 1$. If we now use induction and assume that the claim holds for powers of S up to $m - 1 \geq 1$, then since S commutes with ∂ ,

$$\begin{aligned} S^m - \mathbb{1} &= (S^{m-1} - \mathbb{1})S + (S - \mathbb{1}) = (\partial h_{m-1} + h_{m-1} \partial)S + \partial h_1 + h_1 \partial \\ &= \left(\partial h_1 \sum_{k=0}^{m-2} S^k + h_1 \sum_{k=0}^{m-2} S^k \partial \right) S + \partial h_1 + h_1 \partial = \partial h_1 \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} S^k + h_1 \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} S^k \partial + \partial h_1 + h_1 \partial \\ &= \partial h_1 \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} S^k + h_1 \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} S^k \partial = \partial h_m + h_m \partial. \end{aligned}$$

For any given $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, the iterated subdivision maps S^m can be assumed to satisfy

$$(24.3) \quad S^m(\sigma) \in C_*(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_*(\mathcal{V}; G)$$

if m is large enough, so for each $n \geq 0$ and $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, let $m_\sigma \geq 0$ denote the smallest integer for which (24.3) holds with $m = m_\sigma$. We can then define a homomorphism $h : C_n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X; G)$ for each $n \geq 0$ via

$$h(\sigma) := h_{m_\sigma}(\sigma).$$

Let us see whether this is a chain homotopy. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (\partial h + h \partial)(\sigma) &= \partial h_{m_\sigma}(\sigma) + h_{m_\sigma}(\partial \sigma) + (h - h_{m_\sigma})(\partial \sigma) \\ &= (S^{m_\sigma} - \mathbb{1})(\sigma) + (h - h_{m_\sigma})(\partial \sigma) = ([S^{m_\sigma} + (h - h_{m_\sigma})\partial] - \mathbb{1})(\sigma). \end{aligned}$$

Use this to define $\rho : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$ by

$$\rho(\sigma) := S^{m_\sigma}(\sigma) + (h - h_{m_\sigma})(\partial \sigma),$$

so the relation

$$(24.4) \quad \partial h + h \partial = \rho - \mathbb{1}$$

is satisfied. The latter implies that ρ is a chain map since applying ∂ from either the left or right on the left hand side of (24.4) gives $\partial h \partial$, thus on the right hand side we obtain $(\rho - \mathbb{1})\partial = \partial(\rho - \mathbb{1})$. To understand ρ better, we need to observe that each boundary face τ appearing in $\partial \sigma$ satisfies $m_\tau \leq m_\sigma$ since m_σ is clearly enough (but need not be the minimal number of) iterations of S to put σ (and therefore also τ) in $C_*(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_*(\mathcal{V}; G)$. Now if $\sigma \in C_*(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_*(\mathcal{V}; G)$, then $S^{m_\sigma}(\sigma) = \sigma$ since $m_\sigma = 0$, and the above remarks imply $h(\partial \sigma) = h_0(\partial \sigma) = 0$ as well, thus $\rho(\sigma) = \sigma$ and we conclude

$$\rho \circ j = \mathbb{1}.$$

It remains to show that for all $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, $\rho(\sigma)$ is a linear combination of simplices that are each contained in either $\mathcal{U}$ or $\mathcal{V}$. We have $S^{m_\sigma}(\sigma) \in C_*(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_*(\mathcal{V}; G)$ by the definition of m_σ ,

so it suffices to inspect the other term $(h - h_{m_\sigma})(\partial\sigma)$. Here again we observe that $\partial\sigma$ is a sum of singular $(n-1)$ -simplices τ for which $m_\tau \leq m_\sigma$, and

$$(h - h_{m_\sigma})\tau = (h_{m_\tau} - h_{m_\sigma})\tau = -h_1 \sum_{k=m_\tau}^{m_\sigma-1} S^k(\tau) \in C_n(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_n(\mathcal{V}; G).$$

This last conclusion requires you to recall how h_1 was constructed in the proof of Lemma 24.11: in particular, it maps any simplex that is contained in either $\mathcal{U}$ or $\mathcal{V}$ to a linear combination of simplices that have this same property.

One last detail: the chain homotopy $h : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X; G)$ vanishes on $C_*(\mathcal{U}; G) + C_*(\mathcal{V}; G)$ since every singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ with image in either $\mathcal{U}$ or $\mathcal{V}$ satisfies $m_\sigma = 0$, thus $h(\sigma) = h_{m_\sigma}(\sigma) = h_0(\sigma) = 0$. $\square$

Now we can prove the “chain level” result that implies Theorem 24.9.

LEMMA 24.13. *If $A, B \subset X$ are subsets with $\bar{B} \subset \overset{\circ}{A}$, then the inclusion $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces a chain homotopy equivalence $i_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow C_*(X, A; G)$.*

PROOF. Consider the quotient chain complex $(C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)) / C_*(A; G)$, which has a natural identification with the group of all finite sums $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ with coefficients $a_i \in G$ and singular simplices $\sigma_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ that have image in $X \setminus B$ but not contained in A . The point here is that while simplices with $\sigma(\Delta^n) \subset A$ are also generators of $C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)$, they are all equivalent to zero in the quotient. As it happens, the quotient complex $C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) = C_*(X \setminus B; G) / C_*(A \setminus B; G)$ can be described in exactly the same way, with the same set of generators: singular simplices that are contained in $X \setminus B$ but not contained in A . Since the obvious inclusion $C_*(X \setminus B; G) \hookrightarrow C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)$ sends $C_*(A \setminus B; G)$ into $C_*(A; G)$, it follows that this inclusion descends to a chain map of quotient complexes

$$C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow (C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)) / C_*(A; G)$$

which is in fact an *isomorphism* of chain complexes, i.e. it has an inverse, which is also a chain map. This is a trivial observation; we have not done anything interesting yet.

But in light of this identification of two quotient chain complexes, it will suffice to prove that the chain map

$$(24.5) \quad (C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)) / C_*(A; G) \xrightarrow{j} C_*(X; G) / C_*(A; G) = C_*(X, A; G)$$

induced on these quotients by the obvious inclusion

$$C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G) \xrightarrow{j} C_*(X; G)$$

is a chain homotopy equivalence. Since $X \setminus \bar{B}$ and $\overset{\circ}{A}$ form an open cover of X , Lemma 24.12 provides a chain homotopy inverse for j , namely the map $\rho : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_*(X \setminus B; G) + C_*(A; G)$, defined in terms of subdivision. That map satisfies $\rho \circ j = \mathbb{1}$, thus ρ restricts to the identity on the subgroup $C_*(A; G) \subset C_*(X; G)$ and therefore descends to a map on quotients going the opposite direction to j in (24.5). It also satisfies $j \circ \rho - \mathbb{1} = \partial h + h \partial$ for a chain homotopy $h : C_*(X; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X; G)$ that vanishes on $C_*(A; G)$, thus h also descends to the quotient $C_*(X; G) / C_*(A; G)$ as a chain homotopy $h : C_*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X, A; G)$ satisfying $j \circ \rho - \mathbb{1} = \partial h + h \partial$ on the quotient complexes. $\square$

REMARK 24.14. We will not need it this semester, but since the notions of chain maps and chain homotopies did not appear in our discussion of simplicial homology, you might wonder if they nonetheless have some role to play in that context. Chain maps arise for instance from *simplicial maps*: given two simplicial complexes $K = (V, S)$ and $K' = (V', S')$, a map $f : V \rightarrow V'$ is called a simplicial map if for every simplex σ of K , the images under f of the vertices of σ form the vertices

(possibly with repetition) of a simplex of K' . A simplicial map naturally determines a continuous map of the associated polyhedra $|K| \rightarrow |K'|$ which maps each n -simplex in $|K|$ linearly to a k -simplex in $|K'|$ for some $k \leq n$. It is not hard to show that f also naturally induces a chain map $f_* : C_*(K; G) \rightarrow C_*(K'; G)$, defined by sending each n -simplex σ in K to its image k -simplex in K' if $k = n$ and otherwise sending σ to 0. In light of this, Proposition 22.5 implies (unsurprisingly) that any *bijective* simplicial map from K to K' induces an isomorphism of the simplicial homology groups $H_*^\Delta(K; G) \rightarrow H_*^\Delta(K'; G)$. Chain homotopies play an important role when one considers subdivisions of a simplicial complex, e.g. one can adapt the notion of barycentric subdivision so that it naturally associates to any simplicial complex K a larger complex K' with a homeomorphism of $|K'|$ to $|K|$ such that the simplices in K' triangulate the individual simplices of K into smaller pieces. This defines a chain map $S : C_*(K; G) \rightarrow C_*(K'; G)$ sending each simplex of K to the linear combination of simplices of K' that triangulate it, and importantly, S turns out to be a chain homotopy equivalence, so it follows from Proposition 24.4 that the induced homomorphism $S_* : H_*^\Delta(K; G) \rightarrow H_*^\Delta(K'; G)$ is an isomorphism. This was historically considered one of the major motivations to believe that simplicial homology depends only on the underlying space $|K|$ and not on the simplicial complex itself (cf. Theorem 21.16). We saw a closely analogous phenomenon in our proof of the excision property above, though in the simplicial context, one usually has to consult some of the older textbooks (e.g. [Spa95] is quite nice) to find adequate discussions of such topics.

25. The homology of the spheres, and beyond

It is time to put the results of the last few lectures together and compute $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$. The computation proceeds by induction on the dimension n , making use of the convenient fact that the suspension of S^n is homeomorphic to S^{n+1} .

25.1. Suspension isomorphisms. Suspensions provide us with our first interesting example of a homotopy equivalence of pairs:

EXAMPLE 25.1. Recall from Lecture 11 that the **suspension** (*Einhangung*) SX of a space X is defined by gluing together two copies of its cone,

$$(25.1) \quad SX = C_+X \cup_X C_-X,$$

where $C_+X := ([0, 1] \times X)/(\{1\} \times X)$, $C_-X := ([-1, 0] \times X)/(\{-1\} \times X)$, and we identify X with the subset $\{0\} \times X$ in each. Let $p_\pm \in SX$ denote the points at the tips of the two cones, defined by collapsing $\{\pm 1\} \times X$. Then the inclusion

$$(C_+X, X) \hookrightarrow (SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\})$$

is a homotopy equivalence of pairs. Indeed, one can define a deformation retraction $H : I \times (SX \setminus \{p_-\}) \rightarrow SX \setminus \{p_-\}$ by pushing points in $C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}$ continuously upward toward X while leaving C_+X fixed, so that $H(1, \cdot)$ is the identity while $H(0, \cdot)$ retracts $SX \setminus \{p_-\}$ to C_+X and $H(s, \cdot)$ preserves $C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}$ for every $s \in I$. The resulting retraction of pairs $(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) \rightarrow (C_+X, X)$ is a homotopy inverse for the inclusion. Let us spell this out more explicitly in the special case where $X = S^{n-1}$, so SX is then homeomorphic to S^n . The decomposition (25.1) then becomes a splitting of S^n into two hemispheres $\mathbb{D}_+^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n \cong \mathbb{D}_-^n$ glued along an “equator” homeomorphic to S^{n-1} ,

$$S^n \cong \mathbb{D}_+^n \cup_{S^{n-1}} \mathbb{D}_-^n,$$

and our homotopy equivalence of pairs is now the resulting inclusion map

$$(\mathbb{D}_+^n, S^{n-1}) \hookrightarrow (S^n \setminus \{p_-\}, \mathbb{D}_-^n \setminus \{p_-\}),$$

where p_- is now the “south pole,” i.e. the center of $\mathbb{D}_-^n$.

The homotopy equivalence in Example 25.1 gives rise to an interesting relationship between $H_*(X; G)$ and $H_*(SX; G)$ for any space X . Ponder the following diagram:

$$(25.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} H_k(X; G) & & H_{k+1}(SX; G) \\ \partial_* \uparrow & & \downarrow \varphi_* \\ H_{k+1}(C_+X, X; G) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & H_{k+1}(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}; G) \xrightarrow{j_*} H_{k+1}(SX, C_-X; G) \end{array}$$

Here ∂_* denotes the connecting homomorphism from the long exact sequence of the pair (C_+X, X) , while the maps j_* and φ_* are induced by the obvious inclusions of pairs

$$\begin{aligned} (SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) &\xrightarrow{j} (SX, C_-X), \\ (SX, \emptyset) &\xrightarrow{\varphi} (SX, C_-X). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\{p_-\} \subset C_-X$ is a closed subset in the interior of C_-X , excision (Theorem 24.9) implies that j_* is an isomorphism. We claim that if $k \geq 1$, then ∂_* and φ_* are both also isomorphisms. For the first, consider the long exact sequence of the pair (C_+X, X) :

$$\dots \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(C_+X; G) \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(C_+X, X; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_k(X; G) \longrightarrow H_k(C_+X; G) \longrightarrow \dots$$

Since C_+X is contractible, homotopy invariance implies that the first and last of these four terms vanish, as $H_n(\{\text{pt}\}; G) = 0$ for all $n > 0$. The sequence thus becomes

$$0 \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(C_+X, X; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_k(X; G) \longrightarrow 0$$

for each $k \geq 1$, so exactness implies that ∂_* is an isomorphism. For φ_* , we instead take an excerpt from the long exact sequence of (SX, C_-X) :

$$\dots \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(C_-X; G) \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(SX; G) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} H_{k+1}(SX, C_-X; G) \longrightarrow H_k(C_-X; G) \longrightarrow \dots$$

The contractibility of C_-X again makes the first and last terms vanish if $k \geq 1$, leaving

$$0 \longrightarrow H_{k+1}(SX; G) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} H_{k+1}(SX, C_-X; G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

so that φ_* is also an isomorphism. We have proved:

THEOREM 25.2. *For all spaces X , abelian groups G and integers $k \geq 1$, the diagram (25.2) defines an isomorphism*

$$S_* = \varphi_*^{-1} \circ j_* \circ i_* \circ \partial_*^{-1} : H_k(X; G) \rightarrow H_{k+1}(SX; G).$$

□

25.2. Computing the homology of spheres. For the spheres S^n with $n \geq 1$, we already know $H_0(S^n; G)$ and $H_1(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$; the former is G because S^n is path-connected (Proposition 22.8), and the latter is the abelianization of $\pi_1(S^n)$ by Theorem 22.10. Since $SS^n \cong S^{n+1}$, we can now compute $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ inductively for every $n \geq 1$:

THEOREM 25.3. *For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$H_k(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } k = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{for all other } k. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Proposition 22.8 gives $H_0(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. For $k = n$, $H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ follows by an inductive argument starting from $H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and applying Theorem 25.2. For any $k = 1, \dots, n-1$, a similar inductive argument starting from $H_1(S^{n-k+1}; \mathbb{Z}) = \pi_1(S^{n-k+1}) = 0$ gives $H_k(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. For $k > n$, repeatedly applying Theorem 25.2 identifies $H_k(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ with $H_{k-n}(S^0; \mathbb{Z})$, where $k-n > 0$ and S^0 is a discrete space of two points. But one can easily adapt

Theorem 22.9 to prove by direct computation that $H_m(X; G) = 0$ for any $m > 0$ whenever X is a discrete space. $\square$

25.3. Applications. We can now extend our proof of the Brouwer fixed point theorem to all dimensions. The basic ingredients are the same as before: first, if a map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has no fixed point, then we can use it to define a retraction $g : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow S^{n-1} = \partial\mathbb{D}^n$. In Lecture 10, we used the fundamental group to prove that no such retraction exists when $n = 2$. The argument for this did not require many specific properties of the fundamental group: the key point was just the fact that continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$ induce homomorphisms $\pi_1(X) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y)$ in a way that is compatible with composition of maps, and the homology groups have this same property. In particular:

PROPOSITION 25.4. *If $f : X \rightarrow A$ is a retraction to a subset $A \subset X$ with inclusion $i : A \hookrightarrow X$, then for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and abelian groups G , $f_* : H_n(X; G) \rightarrow H_n(A; G)$ is surjective, while $i_* : H_n(A; G) \rightarrow H_n(X; G)$ is injective.* $\square$

PROOF OF THE BROUWER FIXED POINT THEOREM. Arguing by contradiction, assume a map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ without fixed points exists, and therefore also a retraction $g : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow S^{n-1}$. We may assume $n \geq 2$ since the case $n = 1$ follows already from the intermediate value theorem for continuous functions on $[-1, 1]$. By Exercise 25.2, g induces a surjective homomorphism

$$g_* : H_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}).$$

But this is impossible since $H_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{n-1}(\{\text{pt}\}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and $H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. $\square$

Here is another easy application.

THEOREM 25.5. *A topological manifold of dimension n is not also a topological manifold of dimension $m \neq n$.*

PROOF. Let us assume m and n are both at least 2, as the result can otherwise be proved via easier methods. (Hint: Removing a point from $\mathbb{R}$ makes it disconnected.) We argue by contradiction and assume M is a manifold with an interior point admitting a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$ and also a neighborhood homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^m$ for $m \neq n$. By choosing a suitable pair of charts and writing down their transition maps, we can produce from this a pair of open neighborhoods of the origin $\Omega_n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\Omega_m \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ admitting a homeomorphism $f : \Omega_n \rightarrow \Omega_m$ with $f(0) = 0$. Choose $\epsilon > 0$ small enough so that f maps the closed ϵ -ball $\overline{B_\epsilon^n(0)} \subset \Omega_n$ about the origin into the δ -ball $B_\delta^m(0) \subset \Omega_m$ for some $\delta > 0$, where the latter is also small enough so that $B_\delta^m(0) \subset \Omega_m$. Since $f(0) = 0$ and f is a homeomorphism, f sends the $(n-1)$ -dimensional sphere

$$S_\epsilon^{n-1} := \partial \overline{B_\epsilon^n(0)} \subset \Omega_n$$

into $B_\delta^m(0) \setminus \{0\}$, and similarly, f^{-1} sends $B_\delta^m(0) \setminus \{0\}$ into $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$. The composition

$$f^{-1} \circ f|_{S_\epsilon^{n-1}} : S_\epsilon^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$$

is actually just the inclusion $S_\epsilon^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, which is a homotopy equivalence, thus it induces an isomorphism between two nontrivial homology groups

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong H_{n-1}(S_\epsilon^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{(f^{-1} \circ f)_*} H_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

But since $(f^{-1} \circ f)_* = f_*^{-1} \circ f_*$, this is also the composition of the two maps

$$H_{n-1}(S_\epsilon^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_{n-1}(B_\delta^m(0) \setminus \{0\}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f_*^{-1}} H_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Since $B_\delta^m(0) \setminus \{0\}$ is homotopy equivalent to S^{m-1} , and we have $m \neq n$ and $n-1 \neq 0$,

$$H_{n-1}(B_\delta^m(0) \setminus \{0\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{n-1}(S^{m-1}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0,$$

proving that $f_*^{-1} \circ f_*$ is the trivial map, and this is a contradiction. $\square$

25.4. From simplicial to singular homology. At this point, I believe I've proved everything that I promised to prove in earlier lectures, so the course *Topologie I* is officially over. We nonetheless have a bit of time left, so in the rest of this lecture and the next two, I'm going to sketch a few interesting things that are connected to what we've learned so far about homology—these are topics that will be treated in more detail in *Topologie II*.

First, let's state a precise relation between the simplicial and singular homologies of a compact polyhedron. Assume $K = (V, S)$ is a finite simplicial complex, and choose an ordering of its set of vertices, labelling them

$$V = \{v_1, \dots, v_N\}.$$

The corresponding polyhedron $X := |K|$ is then defined as a subset of the vector space $\mathbb{R}^N$,

$$X = \bigcup_{\sigma \in S} |\sigma| \subset \mathbb{R}^N,$$

where for each simplex $\sigma = \{v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_n}\}$ of dimension $n \geq 0$, we can use the standard basis $e_1, \dots, e_N \in \mathbb{R}^N$ to describe $|\sigma| \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ as the convex hull of the specific basis vectors $e_{i_0}, \dots, e_{i_n}$. Let us order the vertices of σ consistently with the chosen ordering of the set of all vertices, i.e. so that $i_0 < \dots < i_n$. This ordering determines a distinguished parametrization of $|\sigma| \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ in the form

$$\hat{\sigma} : \Delta^n \rightarrow X : (t_0, \dots, t_n) \mapsto t_0 e_{i_0} + \dots + t_n e_{i_n},$$

and in this way, we have associated to each n -simplex $\sigma \in S$ of the simplicial complex K a *singular* n -simplex $\hat{\sigma} : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ in its polyhedron.

Recall from §21.4 that writing down the boundary operator on $C_*^\Delta(K; G)$ requires choosing an orientation for each simplex of the complex. In the present situation, the chosen ordering on V determines a natural choice of orientation for each simplex. Letting $[v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_n}]$ denote the generator of $C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ corresponding to the simplex $\sigma = \{v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_n}\}$, assuming $i_0 < \dots < i_n$, the formula for the boundary operator is then

$$\partial[v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_n}] = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [v_{i_0}, \dots, v_{i_{k-1}}, v_{i_{k+1}}, \dots, v_{i_n}].$$

This closely resembles the formula for the boundary operator in the singular chain complex $C_*(X; G)$ (see §22.2), and in fact, it follows that for any choice of abelian coefficient group G , the unique homomorphism

$$C_*^\Delta(K; G) \xrightarrow{\Psi} C_*(X; G)$$

that acts on generators by sending each simplex σ of K to its associated parametrization $\hat{\sigma}$ is a chain map.

The following result is a special case of a more general theorem about CW-complexes and cellular homology, whose proof will take up two or three lectures in *Topologie II*:

THEOREM 25.6. *For any finite simplicial complex K and the associated compact polyhedron $X = |K|$, and for any abelian coefficient group G , the chain map $\Psi : C_*^\Delta(K; G) \rightarrow C_*(X; G)$ described above induces an isomorphism*

$$H_*^\Delta(K; G) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(X; G).$$

Since singular homology is manifestly an invariant of the topological space X , independent of triangulations, we obtain:

COROLLARY 25.7. *Any two triangulations of the same compact polyhedron have isomorphic simplicial homology.* $\square$

The next consequence follows from the fact that for any *finite* simplicial complex K , i.e. one that has only finitely many vertices (and therefore also finitely many simplices), the chain groups $C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ are all finitely generated, and are trivial in degrees n for which K contains no n -simplices. We can also restate this using coefficients in a field $\mathbb{K}$, so that $C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{K})$ and $H_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{K})$ are naturally vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$, rather than just abelian groups:

COROLLARY 25.8. *For any compact polyhedron X , the singular homology $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ with integer coefficients is a finitely-generated abelian group, and with coefficients in a field $\mathbb{K}$, $H_*(X; \mathbb{K})$ is a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{K}$. Moreover, for any coefficient group G , $H_n(X; G)$ is trivial whenever n is larger than the dimension of every simplex in a triangulation of X .* $\square$

Despite the unwieldy size of the singular chain groups $C_n(X)$, this result shows that for reasonable spaces, the singular homology groups are of reasonable size.

25.5. Euler characteristic. Let's conclude with a striking application of Theorem 25.6. The following definition makes sense for any compact polyhedron, in light of Corollary 25.8.

DEFINITION 25.9. The **Euler characteristic** of a compact polyhedron X is the integer

$$\chi(X) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (-1)^n \dim_{\mathbb{R}} H_n(X; \mathbb{R}).$$

You will see other variations on this definition in various places, e.g. we could have replaced $\mathbb{R}$ by any other choice of field $\mathbb{K}$ for the coefficients, and we could also have used integer coefficients if we had replaced the notion of “dimension” with the *rank* of finitely-generated abelian groups. All of these variations give equivalent definitions, but the equivalence is not so easy to prove, and in any case, we will not need to know this for the discussion below. We've chosen to use real coefficients because it allows us to work in the world of real vector spaces, and linear algebra is a slightly easier subject than the algebra of finitely-generated abelian groups.

The remarkable fact about the Euler characteristic is that it can be computed directly from a finitely-generated chain complex, without actually needing to compute the homology. To see this, let us choose a simplicial complex K with $|K| \cong X$ and abbreviate

$$C_n := C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{R}), \quad H_n := H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{R})$$

for each $n \geq 0$, and let

$$B_n \subset Z_n \subset C_n$$

denote the sets of n -boundaries and n -cycles respectively. Since we are using real coefficients, these are all real vector spaces, with $B_n \subset Z_n \subset C_n$ forming linear subspaces. The boundary operator $\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ has kernel Z_n and image B_{n-1} , so it descends to an isomorphism $C_n/Z_n \cong B_{n-1}$, implying

$$\dim C_n = \dim Z_n + \dim B_{n-1}.$$

Since $H_n = Z_n/B_n$, we then have

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(X) &= \sum_n (-1)^n (\dim Z_n - \dim B_n) = \sum_n (-1)^n (\dim C_n - \dim B_{n-1} - \dim B_n) \\ &= \sum_n (-1)^n \dim C_n, \end{aligned}$$

where in the last expression, the dimensions of B_n have cancelled out due to the alternating signs. The dimension of C_n is just the number of n -simplices in the chosen triangulation of X , so we've proved:

THEOREM 25.10. *For any triangulation of a compact polyhedron X ,*

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \#(n\text{-simplices}) = \chi(X).$$

In particular, this integer is a topological invariant, and is thus the same for every choice of triangulation. $\square$

EXAMPLE 25.11. The 2-sphere has $\chi(S^2) = 2$. This follows if we combine the computation of $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ in §25.2 with a fact that was not mentioned yet: the result is closely analogous for any choice of coefficient group G , namely

$$H_k(S^n; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } k = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{for all other } k. \end{cases}$$

This doesn't follow from the argument given in §25.2, which used the isomorphism between $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$, a fact that does not carry over so easily to arbitrary coefficients—however, there are ways of getting around this using *reduced* homology, which we will discuss next semester. If you believe this computation, then we have

$$\chi(S^2) = \dim H_0(S^2; \mathbb{R}) - \dim H_1(S^2; \mathbb{R}) + \dim H_2(S^2; \mathbb{R}) = 1 - 0 + 1 = 2.$$

Alternatively, if you believe Theorem 25.10, then you can equally well deduce $\chi(S^2)$ from any choice of triangulation of S^2 . For example, S^2 is homeomorphic to the boundary of the standard 3-simplex Δ^3 , and the boundary faces of Δ^3 therefore define a triangulation of S^2 , having exactly four vertices, six 1-simplices, and four 2-simplices, thus

$$\chi(S^2) = 4 - 6 + 4 = 2.$$

Magic!

EXAMPLE 25.12. It is not much harder to work out the result for Σ_g with any $g \geq 0$: the answer is

$$\chi(\Sigma_g) = 2 - 2g.$$

Off the top of my head, I can think of two completely different ways to prove this by decomposing Σ_g into simplices and counting them with signs: regardless of the choices in the decomposition, the answer will always be the same. Go ahead. Try it.

25.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 25.1. For any space X and integer $k \geq 1$, the isomorphism

$$S_* : H_k(X) \rightarrow H_{k+1}(SX),$$

in Theorem 25.2 was constructed out of the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} H_k(X) & \xrightarrow{\quad S_* \quad} & H_{k+1}(SX) & & \\ \partial_* \uparrow & & \downarrow k_* & & \\ H_{k+1}(C_+X, X) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & H_{k+1}(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & H_{k+1}(SX, C_-X) \end{array}$$

in which $SX := C_+X \cup_X C_-X$ denotes the suspension of X , defined by gluing together two homeomorphic copies $C_\pm X$ of its cone CX , and $p_- \in C_-X \subset SX$ denotes the tip of the bottom cone. All the maps in this diagram are isomorphisms due to various ways of applying the homotopy invariance and excision theorems, as well as long exact sequences of pairs. One can use the diagram to write down a formula for S_* , but it isn't an immediately useful formula since it involves k_*^{-1} and ∂_*^{-1} , which we cannot so easily write in terms of cycles. Nonetheless, we can characterize S_* in terms of cycles as follows:

- (a) Show that for any k -cycle $b \in C_k(X) \subset C_k(SX)$, there exist two $(k+1)$ -chains $c_{\pm} \in C_{k+1}(C_{\pm}X) \subset C_{k+1}(SX)$ such that

$$(25.3) \quad \partial c_+ = -\partial c_- = b$$

and S_* satisfies

$$(25.4) \quad S_*[b] = [c_+ + c_-].$$

Moreover, show that the formula (25.4) holds for any pair of $(k+1)$ -chains $c_{\pm} \in C_{k+1}(C_{\pm}X)$ satisfying (25.3).

Hint: Start with a relative cycle representing $[c_+] \in H_{k+1}(C_+X, X)$, use the formula in Exercise 23.2 for ∂_ , then follow the arrows wherever they lead you. When you get to the map k_* , deduce whatever you can from the fact that it is an isomorphism.*

- (b) In the special case $X = S^k$, we have $SS^k \cong S^{k+1}$ and $H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, so induction on k gives $H_k(S^k; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. In this case we can define a distinguished generator $[S^k] \in H_k(S^k; \mathbb{Z})$, the *fundamental class* of S^k , inductively as follows:

- $[S^1] \in H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ is the image under the isomorphism $\pi_1(S^1) \rightarrow H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ of the canonical generator of $\pi_1(S^1)$ defined by the loop $\text{Id} : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$.
- $[S^{k+1}] := S_*[S^k] \in H_{k+1}(S^{k+1}; \mathbb{Z})$ for $k \geq 1$.

Prove by induction that for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the class $[S^k] \in H_k(S^k; \mathbb{Z})$ can be represented by a cycle of the form $\sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i$, where $\epsilon_i = \pm 1$ and $\sigma_i : \Delta^k \rightarrow S^k$ are parametrizations of the k -simplices in an oriented triangulation of S^k .

Hint: There may be multiple valid ways to do this, but in my solution, I end up with 2^k simplices of dimension k in the triangulation of S^k .

EXERCISE 25.2. Prove Proposition 25.4 on the homomorphisms induced on homology by retractions.

26. Axiomatic homology theories

26.1. The Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. Here's a bit of good news: while the proofs of homotopy invariance and excision in Lecture 24 may have seemed somewhat unpleasant, we will hardly ever need to engage in such hands-on constructions via subdivision of simplices in the future. That is because almost everything one actually needs to know in order to use homology in applications follows from a small set of results that we've spent the last few lectures proving. These results form an axiomatic description of general "homology theories," which was first codified by Eilenberg-Steenrod [ES52] and Milnor [Mil62] around the middle of the 20th century. An **axiomatic homology theory** can be thought of as a function

$$(X, A) \mapsto h_*(X, A)$$

that associates to each pair of spaces a sequence of abelian groups $\{h_n(X, A)\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$, and has some additional properties that make it computable for nice spaces and useful for applications in the same way that singular homology is. Identifying each single space X with the pair $(X, \emptyset)$ as usual, one abbreviates

$$h_n(X) := h_n(X, \emptyset).$$

Besides the actual groups $h_n(X, A)$, the theory h_* comes with some additional data: first, it should also associate to each map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ a sequence of homomorphisms

$$f_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(Y, B), \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

with the properties that $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$ whenever the composition of f and g makes sense, and the identity map $\text{Id} : (X, A) \rightarrow (X, A)$ gives rise to the identity homomorphism $\text{Id}_* = \mathbb{1} : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$. Category theory has a technical term for things like this: we call h_* a **functor** from the

category of pairs of topological spaces to the category of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded abelian groups. There is one additional piece of data: since the long exact sequences of pairs in singular homology were very useful in the computation of $H_*(S^n)$, we would like to have similar exact sequences for h_* , and one of the ingredients required for this is a sequence of *connecting homomorphisms*

$$\partial_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A), \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Aside from fitting into an exact sequence as described below, we want these maps to be compatible with the homomorphisms induced on h_* by maps of pairs, in the following sense: any map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ restricts to a continuous map $A \rightarrow B$, so it induces homomorphisms $f_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(Y, B)$ and $f_* : h_n(A) \rightarrow h_n(B)$, which we would like to fit together with ∂_* into the following commutative diagram for each n :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(A) \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ h_n(Y, B) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(B) \end{array}$$

The fancy category-theoretic term for this condition is “naturality”: more specifically, ∂_* defines for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ a so-called **natural transformation** from the functor $(X, A) \mapsto h_n(X, A)$ to the functor $(X, A) \mapsto h_n(A) := h_n(A, \emptyset)$. The precise meanings of these terms from category theory will be discussed in the first lecture of next semester’s course.

The original list of axioms stated in [ES52] included the properties described above, but they are usually not regarded as actual axioms in modern treatments, since they can instead be summarized with category-theoretic terminology such as “ h_* is a functor and ∂_* is a natural transformation”. The further conditions we want these things to satisfy are then the following:

- (HOMOTOPY) $f_* : h_*(X, A) \rightarrow h_*(Y, B)$ depends only on the homotopy class of $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$.
- (EXACTNESS) For the inclusions $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$, the sequence

$$\dots \rightarrow h_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A) \rightarrow \dots$$

is exact.

- (EXCISION) If $B \subset \bar{B} \subset \mathring{A} \subset A \subset X$, then the inclusion $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces an isomorphism $h_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \rightarrow h_*(X, A)$.
- (DIMENSION) $h_n(\{\text{pt}\}) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$. The potentially nontrivial abelian group

$$G := h_0(\{\text{pt}\})$$

is then called the **coefficient group** of h_* .

- (ADDITIVITY) For any collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with inclusion maps $i^\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the homomorphisms $i_*^\alpha : h_*(X_\alpha) \rightarrow h_*(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta)$ determine an isomorphism

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} h_*(X_\alpha) \rightarrow h_*\left(\coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha\right).$$

Put together, these properties of an axiomatic homology theory h_* are known as the **Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms**, and they were first written down in [ES52] with the exception of the additivity axiom, which was added later by Milnor [Mil62].⁴⁷

⁴⁷One can show that for *finite* disjoint unions, the additivity axiom follows from the others—it was thus unnecessary from the perspective of Eilenberg and Steenrod because they were mainly interested in compact spaces, in particular the polyhedra of finite simplicial complexes. The extra axiom becomes important however as soon as the discussion is extended to include noncompact spaces with infinitely many connected components.

As a first application, we observe that the construction of the isomorphism $H_k(X; G) \cong H_{k+1}(SX; G)$ in Theorem 25.2 did not require any knowledge of singular chain complexes or chain maps, beyond the fact that the resulting homology groups satisfy the axioms. Let's review:

THEOREM 26.1. *For any homology theory h_* satisfying the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, any space X and any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a natural isomorphism $h_k(X) \cong h_{k+1}(SX)$.*

PROOF. We can use the same diagram as in the proof of Theorem 25.2, but with $H_*(\cdot; G)$ replaced by h_* :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_k(X) & & h_{k+1}(SX) \\ \cong \uparrow & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_{k+1}(C_+X, X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_{k+1}(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_{k+1}(SX, C_-X) \end{array}$$

Both vertical maps in the diagram are isomorphisms due to the exactness axiom, plus the fact that since cones CX are contractible,

$$h_n(CX) \cong h_n(\{\text{pt}\}) = 0 \quad \text{for } n \geq 1,$$

where the first isomorphism comes from the homotopy axiom, and the vanishing of $h_n(\{\text{pt}\})$ follows from the dimension axiom. The homotopy axiom also implies that the map $h_{k+1}(C_+X, X) \rightarrow h_{k+1}(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\})$ induced by the inclusion $(C_+X, X) \hookrightarrow (SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\})$ is an isomorphism, since the latter is a homotopy equivalence of pairs, and the excision axiom implies that the inclusion $(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) \hookrightarrow (SX, C_-X)$ likewise induces an isomorphism $h_{k+1}(SX \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) \rightarrow h_{k+1}(SX, C_-X)$. $\square$

The suspension isomorphisms $H_k(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{k+1}(S^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z})$ provided the inductive step in our computation of $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$, which was therefore *mostly* based on the axioms. I say “mostly,” because we did cheat slightly in using the isomorphism $H_1(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_1(S^n)$ to start the induction: the proof of that isomorphism is a fairly hands-on argument with singular simplices, and it does not follow from the axioms. But actually, we could have gotten around this with a little more effort. There is a more general version of Theorem 26.1 that is also valid for $k = 0$, at the cost of replacing $h_0(X)$ by a slightly different group called the *reduced* homology $\tilde{h}_0(X)$. The trouble with Theorem 26.1 in the $k = 0$ case is the vertical map at the left: the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : h_1(C_+X, X) \rightarrow h_0(X)$ is not an isomorphism in general, because one of the neighboring terms in the long exact sequence will typically be nontrivial, namely

$$h_0(C_+X) \cong h_0(\{\text{pt}\}),$$

which is the coefficient group of h_* . This limitation of the suspension isomorphisms is the reason why we appealed to knowledge of the fundamental group for starting the induction in our proof of Theorem 26.1. But there is a formal trick to avoid this problem: reduced homology $\tilde{h}_*$ is a variant of h_* that fits into all the same exact sequences, but is defined in a slightly more elaborate way so that we have

$$\tilde{h}_n(\{\text{pt}\}) = 0 \quad \text{for all } n,$$

not just for $n \neq 0$. If we had used this, we could have done an inductive argument reducing the homology of every sphere S^n to the homology of S^0 , which is the disjoint union of two one-point spaces, so its homology is determined by the dimension and additivity axioms. This version of the argument eliminates any need for specifying the coefficients $G = \mathbb{Z}$, and it also works for any axiomatic homology theory, thus giving:

THEOREM 26.2. *For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and any theory h_* satisfying the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms with coefficient group G ,*

$$h_k(S^n) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } k = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{for all other } k. \end{cases}$$

Now, a word of caution. In the last few lectures, we proved two things about singular homology that cannot be deduced merely from the formal properties codified in the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, and they are in fact *not true* for arbitrary axiomatic homology theories. One of these was Proposition 22.8, which related H_0 of an arbitrary space X to the set $\pi_0(X)$ of path-components of X via the formula

$$(26.1) \quad H_0(X; G) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} G.$$

This looks at first like it should be related to the additivity axiom: if X is homeomorphic to the disjoint union of its path-components $X_\alpha \subset X$, then additivity gives $H_0(X; G) \cong \bigoplus_\alpha H_0(X_\alpha; G)$, but there is unfortunately nothing in the axioms to imply $H_0(X_\alpha; G) \cong G$ for an arbitrary path-connected space X_α , unless X_α happens to be contractible. There is also a more serious problem, though you may have forgotten about it since we started focusing only on “nice” spaces after Lecture 7: not every space is homeomorphic to the disjoint union of its path-components. Manifolds have this property, and so do locally path-connected spaces in general—the latter follows from a combination of Exercise 7.3, Proposition 7.17 and Theorem 7.18. But not every space is locally path-connected, and no such assumption was imposed on X when we computed $H_0(X; G)$.

Another important result that does not follow from the axioms is Theorem 22.10, on the natural homomorphism

$$(26.2) \quad \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

for any path-connected space X , and the isomorphism it induces between $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$. Its proof (carried out in Exercise 22.2) similarly required a hands-on examination of the chain complex $C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that underlies the definition of $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$. In this context, allow me to point out an odd detail that you may or may not have noticed about the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms: they never mention any chain complex at all. Homology theories in the sense of Eilenberg-Steenrod need not generally come from chain complexes—in practice, most of them do, though often in less direct ways than singular homology, and one cannot derive from the axioms any direct intuition about the geometric meaning of elements in the groups $h_0(X)$ and $h_1(X)$. Part of the point of the axioms is that for most of the interesting applications of homology, it should suffice to know that a homology theory *exists* and satisfies the right formal properties, because if those properties hold, then one can typically carry out the applications one wants without even knowing how the theory itself is defined. This “highbrow” perspective does not suffice however for computations like (26.1) and (26.2), which are unique to singular homology and its underlying chain complex.

26.2. A sketch of Čech homology. Singular homology is not the only theory that satisfies the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, though it has been the standard one that people use for over half a century. While the alternatives have gone out of fashion, a few of them do still occasionally resurface in research articles. I would like to give a quick sketch of one of them, if only to demonstrate how two completely different ideas can sometimes lead to invariants that detect more-or-less the same information.

While singular homology tries to understand spaces by viewing singular n -simplices as basic building blocks of n -dimensional objects, the Čech homology theory studies them instead via the combinatorial properties of their open coverings. Suppose in particular that $\mathcal{O} := \{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is an open covering of a space X . One can associate to any such covering an abstract simplicial

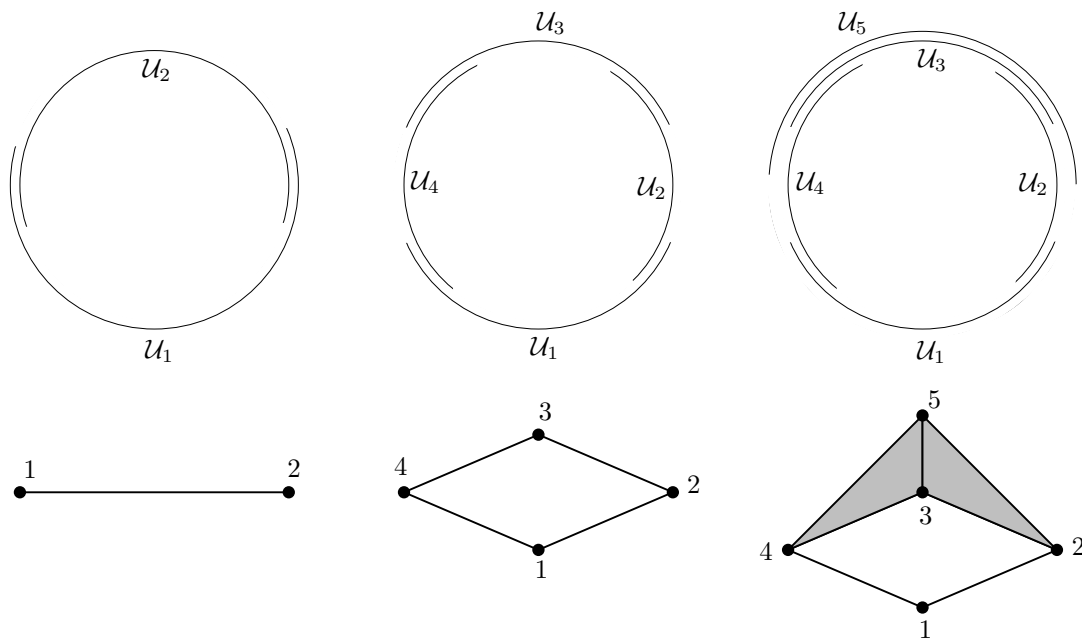


FIGURE 21. Three examples of open coverings of S^1 and their nerves, with vertices labeled $k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ in correspondence with the open sets $\mathcal{U}_k \subset S^1$. The rightmost example includes two 2-simplices in addition to vertices and 1-simplices.

complex $K_{\mathcal{O}} = (V, S)$, called the **nerve** of the covering: its set of vertices V is the index set J , or equivalently the set of open sets that belong to the covering, and a subset $\sigma := \{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n\} \subset V$ is defined to be an n -simplex $\sigma \in S$ of the complex $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ if and only if

$$\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_0} \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n} \neq \emptyset.$$

This easily satisfies the required conditions for a simplicial complex: each vertex $\alpha \in V$ defines a 0-simplex $\{\alpha\} \in S$ since $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha} \neq \emptyset$, and each face of $\sigma = \{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n\} \in S$ is also a simplex in the complex since every nontrivial subcollection of the sets $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_0}, \dots, \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n}$ must still have nonempty intersection. As with all simplicial complexes, $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ gives rise to a topological space, its polyhedron $|K_{\mathcal{O}}|$, but that space need not look at all similar to X : for example, if X is something as simple as S^1 , then even if the open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is finite, the simplicial complex $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ may have arbitrarily large dimension, namely the largest number $n \geq 0$ such that $n + 1$ of the sets in the covering have a nonempty intersection.

The example $X = S^1$ is quite instructive, however, if one compares what $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ looks like for a few simple choices of open coverings. Figure 21 shows three such choices, two of which give rise to 1-dimensional simplicial complexes, and in the third case, the simplicial complex is 2-dimensional. The polyhedra of these three simplicial complexes are all different spaces, none homeomorphic to any of the others, but you may notice that the last two have something in common: they are homotopy equivalent, and not just to each other, but also to the original space, $X = S^1$. The polyhedron in the first example is not homotopy equivalent to S^1 , but the other two open coverings also happen to have a nice property that this one does not: in the other two, the intersection sets $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_0} \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n}$ are always contractible, whereas in the first covering, $\mathcal{U}_1 \cap \mathcal{U}_2$ is a disconnected set. Open coverings in which the sets $\mathcal{U}_{\alpha_0} \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n}$ are always contractible have a special status:

they are called *good* covers, and for sufficiently nice spaces such as smooth manifolds, one can show that every open covering has a refinement that is a good cover. Figure 21 hints at an intriguing general phenomenon: for sufficiently nice open coverings of sufficiently nice spaces X , the nerve of the cover can be viewed as a simplicial model for X itself, up to homotopy type. This suggests that the *simplicial* homology $H_*^\Delta(K_{\mathcal{O}}; G)$ of the nerve should encode interesting topological information about X , and that is how Čech homology is defined: for sufficiently nice open coverings $\mathcal{O}$ of X , the **Čech homology** of X with coefficient group G is

$$\check{H}_*(X; G) := H_*^\Delta(K_{\mathcal{O}}; G).$$

I am being deliberately vague now, because making this definition more precise would require a discussion of inverse limits and chain homotopy equivalences which we do not have time for right now: in particular, some serious work would be required in order to show that $H_*^\Delta(K_{\mathcal{O}}; G)$ up to isomorphism is independent of the choice of (sufficiently nice!) open covering $\mathcal{O}$. The examples on the circle in Figure 21 are intended to convince you that this idea might not be completely outlandish.

Since the definitions of $H_*(X; G)$ and $\check{H}_*(X; G)$ seem very different, it is somewhat remarkable that for a wide class of spaces that includes all compact manifolds, they are isomorphic. One way to explain this is by ignoring the definitions of these two invariants, and concentrating instead on their formal properties: after extending Čech homology to an invariant of pairs (X, A) rather than just individual spaces X , one can show (under one or two extra assumptions, and for suitable choices of coefficient group G) that it satisfies the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, just like singular homology. As a consequence, any computation that relies only on the formal properties of homology theories—homotopy invariance, excision, long exact sequences and so forth—applies equally well to $H_*(X; G)$ and $\check{H}_*(X; G)$.

EXAMPLE 26.3. The following demonstrates a non-axiomatic way to see that the Čech and singular homologies are isomorphic whenever X is the polyhedron of a finite simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$. For any vertex $v \in V$ of the underlying simplicial complex, the **open star** of v is defined as the open set

$$\text{st } v \subset X$$

containing all points that lie in simplices having v as a vertex (see Figure 22). These sets define a distinguished open covering of X ,

$$\mathcal{O} := \{\text{st } v \mid v \in V\},$$

and we observe that for any finite collection of vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n \in V$,

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^n \text{st } v_k \neq \emptyset \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S.$$

In other words, the nerve $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ of $\mathcal{O}$ is naturally isomorphic to the original complex K ! Nonempty intersections of open stars also admit a concise geometric description: for any n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S$ of K , $\text{st } v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st } v_n \subset X$ is the set of all points that lie in simplices having σ as a face. Since each simplex is represented in the polyhedron as a convex subset of a vector space, there is then an obvious deformation retraction of $\text{st } v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st } v_n$ to the barycenter of σ , implying that $\text{st } v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st } v_n$ is contractible, and $\mathcal{O}$ is therefore a so-called *good* cover. This means we can use $\mathcal{O}$ to compute the Čech homology of X , and in light of the isomorphism between simplicial and singular homology, we obtain

$$\check{H}_*(X; G) \cong H_*^\Delta(K_{\mathcal{O}}; G) \cong H_*^\Delta(K; G) \cong H_*(X; G).$$

This result applies to all compact polyhedra.

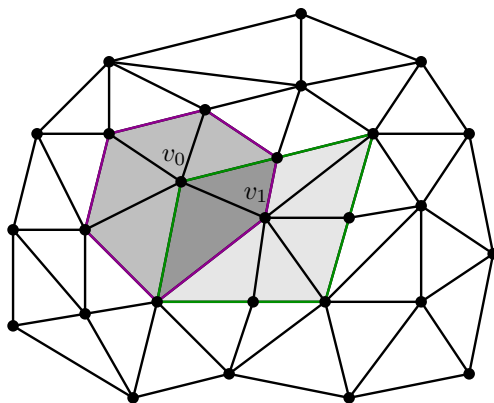


FIGURE 22. The open stars of two neighboring vertices v_0 and v_1 in a simplicial complex.

It is not true that $H_*(X; G)$ and $\check{H}_*(X; G)$ are always isomorphic, but one has to consider fairly ugly spaces in order to see the difference. A hint of where to look comes from our computation $H_0(X; G) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} G$: as mentioned above, this result does not follow from the axioms. As it turns out, $\check{H}_0(X; G)$ does not care whether the space X is *path*-connected, but cares instead whether it is *connected*.

LEMMA 26.4. *If X is a connected space, then for any open cover $\mathcal{O}$ of X , the polyhedron $|K_{\mathcal{O}}|$ of its nerve is path-connected.*

PROOF. If $|K_{\mathcal{O}}|$ is not path-connected, then we can split $|K_{\mathcal{O}}|$ into the disjoint union of two subsets

$$|K_{\mathcal{O}}| = Y_0 \amalg Y_1$$

which are the polyhedra of simplicial subcomplexes of $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ such that there is no continuous path from Y_0 to Y_1 , implying in particular that no simplex of $K_{\mathcal{O}}$ contains vertices in both Y_0 and Y_1 . It follows that if we define $\mathcal{U}_i \subset X$ for $i = 0, 1$ to be the union of all the open sets that correspond to vertices in Y_i , then $\mathcal{U}_0$ and $\mathcal{U}_1$ are two nonempty disjoint open sets whose union is X , and X is therefore not connected. $\square$

Way back in Lecture 7, we saw examples of spaces that are connected but not path-connected. One can deduce from Lemma 26.4 that whenever X is such a space, $\check{H}_0(X; G) \cong G$, but according to (26.1), $H_0(X; G)$ is larger. Using suspensions, one can also derive from this examples of path-connected spaces X for which $\check{H}_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is not isomorphic to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$. But again: spaces like this are ugly—they are not the kinds of spaces that arise naturally in most applications.

REMARK 26.5. In the discussion above, I have swept an uncomfortable fact about $\check{H}_*(X; G)$ under the rug: most versions of Čech homology satisfy *most* of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, but not quite all of them. For technical reasons having to do with the formal properties of inverse limits in homological algebra, $\check{H}_*(X; G)$ does not generally satisfy the exactness axiom unless one restricts to *compact* pairs (X, A) and a restrictive class of coefficient groups, e.g. G can be any *finite* abelian group, or any finite-dimensional vector space over a field. This shortcoming is one reason why Čech homology has not been used very much in the past half-century. On the other hand, another major topic for next semester's course will be *cohomology*, which is a kind of dualization of homology that has its own closely related set of axioms. The most popular cohomology theory

is singular cohomology, but there is also a Čech cohomology theory, which has strictly better formal properties than its undualized counterpart, i.e. it satisfies all of the conditions required for an axiomatic cohomology theory, and even has one or two desirable properties that singular cohomology does not. The ability of Čech cohomology to relate local and global properties of spaces via the combinatorics of their open coverings makes it an essential and frequently used tool in certain branches of mathematics, especially in algebraic geometry.

27. Cell complexes

We've seen that all axiomatic homology theories are isomorphic on the spaces S^n , though they need not be isomorphic in peculiar examples such as connected spaces that are not path-connected. It is natural to wonder: how large is the class of spaces X for which the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms completely determine their homologies $h_*(X)$? The spaces with this property happen to be the spaces for which most of the more advanced techniques of algebraic topology have something interesting to say, so they play a starring role in the subject from this point forward.

27.1. Attaching cells. A plausible first guess for the class of spaces we want to consider would be *polyhedra*: the topological spaces associated to abstract simplicial complexes. But there is a larger class of spaces, called *cell complexes* (or the fancier term “CW-complexes”), which are actually easier to work with and much more general. It is known that all smooth manifolds or simplicial complexes are also cell complexes, and all topological manifolds are at least homotopy equivalent to cell complexes. We saw one concrete example in Lecture 14: when we proved that every finitely presented group occurs as the fundamental group of some compact Hausdorff space (Theorem 13.2), the space we constructed was a wedge of circles with a finite set of disks attached. The general idea of a cell complex is to build up a space inductively as a nested sequence of “skeleta” of various dimensions, where the n -skeleton is always constructed by attaching n -disks to the $(n-1)$ -skeleton. In this language, the space constructed in the proof of Theorem 13.2 was a 2-dimensional cell complex, because it had a 1-skeleton (the wedge of circles) and a 2-skeleton (the attached disks). Here is the general definition in the case where there are only finitely many cells.

DEFINITION 27.1. A space X is called a (finite) **cell complex** (*Zellenkomplex*) of dimension n if it contains a nested sequence of subspaces $X^0 \subset X^1 \subset \dots \subset X^{n-1} \subset X^n = X$ such that:

- (1) X^0 is a finite discrete set;
- (2) For each $m = 1, \dots, n$, X^m is homeomorphic to a space constructed by attaching finitely many m -disks $\mathbb{D}^m$ to X^{m-1} along maps $\partial\mathbb{D}^m \rightarrow X^{m-1}$.

In general, the collection of m -disks attached to X^{m-1} at each step need not be nonempty; if it is empty, then $X^m = X^{m-1}$, but we implicitly assume $X^n \neq X^{n-1}$ when we call X “ n -dimensional”.

We call $X^m \subset X$ the **m -skeleton** of X . The definition implies that for each $m = 1, \dots, n$, there is a finite set $\mathcal{K}_m(X)$ and a so-called **attaching map** $\varphi_\alpha : S^{m-1} \rightarrow X^{m-1}$ associated to each $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}_m(X)$ such that

$$X^m \cong \left(\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}_m(X)} \mathbb{D}^m \right) \cup_{\varphi_m} X^{m-1},$$

where $\varphi_m : \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}_m(X)} \partial\mathbb{D}^m \rightarrow X^{m-1}$ denotes the disjoint union of the maps $\varphi_\alpha : S^{m-1} \rightarrow X^{m-1}$, each defined on the boundary of the disk indexed by α . As a set, X^m is the union of X^{m-1} with a disjoint union of open disks

$$e_\alpha^m \cong \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^m \quad \text{for each } \alpha \in \mathcal{K}_m(X),$$

called the m -cells of the complex. For $m = 0$, we call the discrete points of the 0-skeleton X^0 the **0-cells**, and denote this set by $\mathcal{K}_0(X)$.

Since $\Delta^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n$, it is easy to see that polyhedra are also cell complexes: the n -cells are the interiors of the n -simplices, while the n -skeleton is the union of all simplices of dimension at most n , and the attaching maps $S^{n-1} \cong \partial\Delta^n \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ are each homeomorphisms onto their images. In general, the attaching maps in a cell complex do not need to be injective, they only must be continuous, so while the m -cells e_α^m look like open m -disks, their closures in X might not be homeomorphic to closed disks. For instance, here is an example with an n -cell whose boundary is collapsed to a point, so its closure is not a disk, but a sphere:

EXAMPLE 27.2. Consider a cell complex that has one 0-cell and no cells of dimensions $1, \dots, n-1$, so its m -skeleton for every $m < n$ is a one-point space, but there is one n -cell e_α^n attached via the unique map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow \{\text{pt}\}$. The resulting space $X = X^n$ is homeomorphic to S^n .

EXAMPLE 27.3. Here is another way to decompose S^n into cells. Start with two 0-cells, called e_+^0 and e_-^0 ; their disjoint union is the 0-skeleton $X^0 \cong S^0$. We can then construct $X^1 \cong S^1$ from this by attaching two 1-cells, e_+^1 and e_-^1 , each attached so that one end point of the interval $\mathbb{D}^1 = [-1, 1]$ is identified with e_+^0 and the other with e_-^0 . Now if we think of S^1 as the equator in S^2 , we can construct S^2 by gluing a pair of 2-cells e_+^2 and e_-^2 along attaching maps $\partial\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X^1 \cong S^1$ that are homeomorphisms; the result is $X^2 \cong S^2$, with e_+^2 as the northern hemisphere, e_-^2 as the southern hemisphere, and $X^1 \cong S^1$ as the equator. Continuing inductively, one can always turn S^{n-1} into S^n by attaching exactly two n -cells along attaching maps that are homeomorphisms, producing

$$S^n \cong e_+^0 \cup e_-^0 \cup \dots \cup e_+^{n-1} \cup e_-^{n-1} \cup e_+^n \cup e_-^n.$$

EXAMPLE 27.4. The usual presentation of Σ_g as a polygon with $4g$ sides subject to a certain equivalence relation also describes a cell decomposition of Σ_g . It has a single 0-cell e^0 , with which every vertex of the polygon is identified, and since the $4g$ sides have exactly $2g$ distinct labels, each appearing twice, the cell decomposition has $2g$ 1-cells, each attached in the only way possible to the single 0-cell, so that the 1-skeleton X^1 is a wedge sum of $2g$ copies of S^1 . The interior of the polygon is then a single 2-cell, with an attaching map $\partial\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X^1$ that is determined by the pattern of letters and arrows labelling the polygon. In summary,

$$\Sigma_g \cong e^0 \cup \underbrace{e^1 \cup \dots \cup e^1}_{2g} \cup e^2.$$

27.2. The cellular chain complex. The **cellular homology** of a cell complex $X = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} X^n$ is now defined as follows. Given an abelian coefficient group G , let

$$C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) := \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)} G = \left\{ \text{finite sums } \sum_i c_i e_{\alpha_i}^n \mid c_i \in G, \alpha_i \in \mathcal{K}_n(X) \right\}$$

denote the abelian group of finite linear combinations of generators e_α^n corresponding to the n -cells in the complex, with coefficients in G . A boundary map $\partial : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X; G)$ is determined by the formula

$$\partial e_\alpha^n = \sum_{\beta \in \mathcal{K}_{n-1}(X)} [e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] e_\beta^{n-1},$$

where the **incidence numbers** $[e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] \in \mathbb{Z}$ are determined as follows. For each $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{K}_{n-1}(X)$, let

$$X_\beta := X^{n-1} / (X^{n-1} \setminus e_\beta^{n-1}),$$

i.e. it is a space obtained by collapsing everything in the $(n-1)$ -skeleton except for the individual cell e_β^{n-1} to a point. Since e_β^{n-1} is an open $(n-1)$ -disk with a canonical homeomorphism to $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^{n-1}$, there is a canonical homeomorphism

$$X_\beta = \mathbb{D}^{n-1} / \partial \mathbb{D}^{n-1} \cong S^{n-1}.$$

There is also a quotient projection $q : X^{n-1} \rightarrow X_\beta$, so composing this with the attaching map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ gives a map between two $(n-1)$ -dimensional spheres

$$q \circ \varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X_\beta \cong S^{n-1}.$$

This induces a homomorphism

$$\mathbb{Z} \cong H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{(q \circ \varphi_\alpha)^*} H_{n-1}(X_\beta; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

and all homomorphisms $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ are of the form $x \mapsto dx$ for some $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. The integer d appearing here is called the **degree** of $q \circ \varphi_\alpha$, and that is how we define the incidence number:

$$[e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] := \deg(q \circ \varphi_\alpha).$$

Strictly speaking, this definition only makes sense for $n \geq 2$, since our computation of the homology of spheres does not apply to S^0 , but this is a minor headache that can easily be fixed with an extra definition, as in simplicial homology.

It would take a lot more time than we have right now to explain why this definition of ∂ is the right one, and why it implies $\partial^2 = 0$ in particular. But if you are willing to accept that for now, then we can define the **cellular homology** (*zelluläre Homologie*) groups

$$H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) := H_n(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G), \partial),$$

and we can almost immediately carry out a surprisingly easy computation:

EXAMPLE 27.5. The cell decomposition of S^n in Example 27.2 gives

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } k = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{for all other } k. \end{cases}$$

Indeed, for $n \geq 2$ we can see this without doing any work, because $C_0^{\text{CW}}(S^n; G) \cong C_n^{\text{CW}}(S^n; G) \cong G$ are the only nontrivial chain groups, so ∂ simply vanishes and the homology groups are the chain groups. For $n = 1$, you need a little bit more information that I haven't given you, but one can show also in this case that $\partial = 0$, so the result is the same.

In reality, cellular homology is not a *new* homology theory as such, it is just an extremely efficient way of computing any axiomatic homology theory for spaces that are nice enough to have cell decompositions. The following result has been the main tool used for computations of singular homology for most of its history, and it implies in particular the fact that *simplicial* homology is a topological invariant (cf. Theorem 21.16). We will work through a complete proof next semester, and the first step in that proof will be the computation of $h_*(S^n)$.

THEOREM 27.6. *For any cell complex X and any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G , $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong h_*(X)$.*

This theorem is the real reason why homology is considered one of the “easier” invariants to work with in algebraic topology: for most of the spaces that arise in practice, and all compact manifolds in particular, $H_*(X)$ can be computed after replacing the unmanageably large singular chain complex with the cellular chain complex, which is *finitely* generated. Having only finitely many generators means that in principle, one can always just feed all the information from the chain complex into a computer program, then press a button and get an answer.

Cell decompositions provide an especially easy way to compute the Euler characteristic. Repeating the algebraic computation of §25.5, with the cellular chain complex replacing the simplicial chain complex, Theorem 27.6 implies:

COROLLARY 27.7. *For any finite cell complex X , the Euler characteristic $\chi(X) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is well defined and satisfies*

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \#(n\text{-cells}).$$

□

As a sanity check, we can easily verify that the distinct cell decompositions of S^n in Examples 27.2 and 27.3 give the same result,

$$\chi(S^n) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Using Example 27.4, we also have

$$\chi(\Sigma_g) = \#(0\text{-cells}) - \#(1\text{-cells}) + \#(2\text{-cells}) = 1 - 2g + 1 = 2 - 2g.$$

EXAMPLE 27.8. The projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$ can be represented by a “polygon” with two vertices and two (curved) sides that are identified with each other. Analogously to Example 27.4, the result is a cell decomposition having one 0-cell (because both vertices are identified), one 1-cell (because both sides are identified) and one 2-cell,

$$\mathbb{RP}^2 \cong e^0 \cup e^1 \cup e^2,$$

thus

$$\chi(\mathbb{RP}^2) = 1 - 1 + 1 = 1.$$

27.3. A preview of Poincaré duality. Poincaré duality is a deep theorem about the homology of closed manifolds that is of fundamental importance in geometric topology. The complete statement—to say nothing of the proof—would require several lectures’ worth of preparation, but one can already see a hint of it in Figure 23.

The picture shows a portion of a closed triangulated manifold M of dimension $n = 2$, with the 1-simplices and vertices of the triangulation depicted in black. We’ve added a red dot at the barycenter of each n -simplex, and drawn a red line segment connecting the barycenters of any two n -simplices that share a boundary face. Note that since M is assumed to be a manifold without boundary, every $(n - 1)$ -simplex in the triangulation is a boundary face of exactly two n -simplices. As a consequence, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the $(n - 1)$ -simplices in the triangulation and the red line segments joining the red dots. Moreover, every vertex of the triangulation is contained in a unique polygon bounded by the red segments. If we think of the red dots as 0-cells, the red line segments as 1-cells, and the polygons bounded by them as 2-cells, they form what is called the **dual cell decomposition** of M determined by the original triangulation. One can generalize this idea to a closed manifold M of arbitrary dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, constructing out of any triangulation of M a dual cell decomposition for which there are bijective correspondences

$$\{k\text{-simplices of the triangulation}\} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \{(n - k)\text{-cells of the dual cell decomposition}\},$$

for each $k = 0, \dots, n$. This hints at a relationship between the homology groups $H_k(M)$ and $H_{n-k}(M)$, though thinking purely in terms of homology is not quite the right perspective for this; the right perspective relates $H_k(M)$ to the corresponding *cohomology* group $H^{n-k}(M)$, which is related to $H_{n-k}(M)$, but is not exactly the same thing. We will save that discussion for next

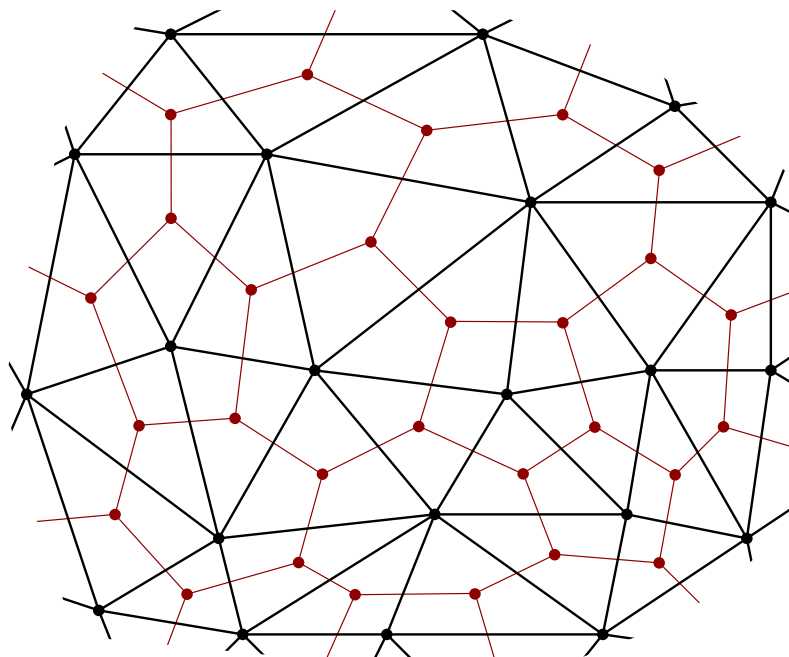


FIGURE 23. A triangulation of a surface and its dual cell decomposition.

semester, and instead focus for now on the Euler characteristic. Since $\chi(M)$ can be computed using *any* choice of cell decomposition for M , the bijection mentioned above implies

$$\begin{aligned}\chi(M) &= \sum_k (-1)^k \#(k\text{-simplices}) = \sum_k (-1)^k \#(\text{dual } (n-k)\text{-cells}) \\ &= (-1)^n \sum_k (-1)^k \#(\text{dual } k\text{-cells}) = (-1)^n \chi(M).\end{aligned}$$

This proves:

THEOREM 27.9. *For a triangulable closed topological manifold n -manifold M , if n is odd, then $\chi(M) = 0$. $\square$*

REMARK 27.10. Theorem 27.9 is also true without assuming M is triangulable, because the most general versions of Poincaré duality can be proved without any reference to triangulations. But in the application explained below, we will use only the case $\dim M = 3$, and it is known that all 3-manifolds do admit triangulations (see [Moi77]).

27.4. The projective plane is not a boundary. As an interesting application of the machinery sketched above, we can now understand the simplest example of a closed manifold that is not the boundary of any compact manifold.

The result is most elegantly stated in terms of the unoriented bordism groups $\Omega_n := \Omega_n(\{\text{pt}\})$, introduced in Lecture 21. Recall that elements $[M] \in \Omega_n$ are represented by closed n -manifolds M , with an equivalence relation such that $[M] = [N]$ if and only if there exists a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold whose boundary is $M \amalg N$; we say in this case that M and N are **bordant**. The abelian group structure on Ω_n is defined via disjoint unions

$$[M] + [N] := [M \amalg N],$$

with the empty manifold representing the trivial element $0 := [\emptyset] \in \Omega_n$, thus a closed n -manifold M represents the trivial element in Ω_n if and only if it is **nullbordant**, meaning that M is the boundary of a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold.

The computation $\Omega_1 = 0$ is easy, because the classification of closed 1-manifolds is very simple: there is only the circle and finite disjoint unions of copies of the circle, and since S^1 is the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^2$, every element is therefore trivial in Ω_1 . The computation of Ω_2 is also not too hard, since we have a precise classification of closed 2-manifolds, but it is no longer obvious whether all of them are boundaries of compact 3-manifolds. A couple of simple lemmas about the structure of Ω_n will help us to boil this question down to its essentials.

LEMMA 27.11. *Every element $[M] \in \Omega_n$ satisfies $[M] + [M] = 0$.*

PROOF. $M \amalg M \cong \partial([-1, 1] \times M)$. □

LEMMA 27.12. *Every bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_n$ can be represented by a nonempty connected manifold M , and addition in Ω_n can be realized via the connected sum,*

$$[M] + [N] = [M \# N].$$

PROOF. The first statement follows from the second, since we can always represent the trivial bordism class by the nonempty connected manifold $S^n = \partial\mathbb{D}^{n+1}$, and every closed manifold M is homeomorphic to the disjoint union of its connected components $M_1, \dots, M_k$, giving

$$[M] = [M_1] + \dots + [M_k] = [M_1 \# \dots \# M_k],$$

where $M_1 \# \dots \# M_k$ is connected. It thus remains only to prove that for any two closed n -manifolds M, N , the manifolds $M \amalg N$ and $M \# N$ are bordant. An explicit compact $(n+1)$ -manifold for this purpose can be constructed by starting from $[0, 1] \times (M \amalg N)$ and then attaching to it an “ n -dimensional 1-handle” $[-1, 1] \times \mathbb{D}^n$ by identifying $\partial[-1, 1] \times \mathbb{D}^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n \amalg \mathbb{D}^n$ with the disjoint union of a pair of disks in $\{1\} \times (M \amalg N)$, one of them in $\{1\} \times M$, the other in $\{1\} \times N$. The boundary of the $(n+1)$ -manifold constructed in this way is the disjoint union of $\{0\} \times (M \amalg N)$ with an n -manifold constructed by removing disks from $\{1\} \times M$ and $\{1\} \times N$ and then connecting the resulting holes via a “tube” $[-1, 1] \times S^{n-1} \subset \partial([-1, 1] \times \mathbb{D}^n)$; the latter is $M \# N$. □

With Lemma 27.12 in hand, we can compute Ω_2 by running through the list of closed connected 2-manifolds, and asking which of them occur as boundaries of compact 3-manifolds. The oriented surfaces Σ_g can all be realized as boundaries of compact domains in $\mathbb{R}^3$, so they all represent the trivial bordism class. By the classification of surfaces, it remains only to consider $\#_{i=1}^g \mathbb{RP}^2$ for each $g \geq 1$, and according to Lemma 27.12, Ω_2 is therefore generated by a single element

$$[\mathbb{RP}^2] \in \Omega_2,$$

which satisfies $2[\mathbb{RP}^2] = 0$ according to Lemma 27.11. It follows that Ω_2 is either the trivial group or it is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$, the latter if and only if $[\mathbb{RP}^2] \neq 0$. This brings us to the essential question: is $[\mathbb{RP}^2]$ the trivial bordism class, or is it not? The question is tricky to answer, because we do not have any list of known 3-manifolds we can run through, inspecting them each to see if they have boundary $\mathbb{RP}^2$. We must instead apply the technology of algebraic topology:

THEOREM 27.13. *There is no compact topological 3-manifold M with ∂M homeomorphic to $\mathbb{RP}^2$.*

PROOF. Assume the contrary, that M is a compact 3-manifold with boundary $\mathbb{RP}^2$, and use it to construct a *closed* 3-manifold

$$\widehat{M} := M \cup_{\mathbb{RP}^2} M$$

by gluing together two copies of M along their common boundary. Since 3-manifolds are triangulable (according to [Moi77]), we can now choose a triangulation of M , which restricts to the boundary as a triangulation of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, and this then determines a triangulation of $\widehat{M}$ in which every simplex in the interior of M appears twice, while every simplex in its boundary appears only once. Using this triangulation to compute $\chi(\widehat{M})$ by counting simplices thus gives

$$\chi(\widehat{M}) = 2\chi(M) - \chi(\mathbb{RP}^2).$$

According to Theorem 27.9, the left hand side is 0, and from Example 27.8, we have $\chi(\mathbb{RP}^2) = 1$, so this gives

$$0 = 2\chi(M) - 1,$$

which cannot be true, since $\chi(M)$ is an integer. □

COROLLARY 27.14. *The unoriented bordism group Ω_2 is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$ and is generated by $[\mathbb{RP}^2]$.* □

27.5. Exercise.

EXERCISE 27.1. Describe explicitly a compact 3-manifold with boundary homeomorphic to the Klein bottle.

Second semester (Topologie II)

28. Categories and functors

The general approach of algebraic topology is to associate to each topological space some algebraic object that can be used to tell “different” spaces apart. One important example we saw last semester was the fundamental group π_1 , which assigns to every pair (X, p) consisting of a topological space X with a choice of base point $p \in X$ a group $\pi_1(X, p)$. Another—which will play a major role in this course from the next lecture onward—is singular homology H_* , which assigns to each space X a whole sequence of abelian groups $H_n(X)$ indexed by the nonnegative integers $n \geq 0$. It is reasonable to think of these in some sense as “functions” with domains consisting of the collection of all topological spaces (possibly with extra data such as a base point), and targets consisting of the collection of all groups. The first semester of this course did not yet develop the right language to make this notion of a “function” precise, so it is time to do so now.

28.1. Some remarks on set theory. One reason why π_1 cannot actually be called a “function” is that its domain, strictly speaking, is not a set (*Menge*). I encourage you to skip the rest of this paragraph if you are not interested in the finer points of axiomatic set theory or the classic set-theoretic paradoxes... but for those who are still reading, let us agree that there is no such thing as the “set of all topological spaces”. Indeed, every set can be made into a topological space by assigning it the discrete topology, so if one can talk about the set of all topological spaces, then one must also be able to talk about the set of all sets, and it is a short step from there to the “set of all sets that do not contain themselves”—at which point we may find ourselves asking whether that particular set contains itself, and promptly jumping off the nearest bridge. The architects of abstract set theory dealt with this dilemma by coming up with a set of axioms that tell you how to construct new sets from old ones, together with a short list of examples of sets (e.g. the empty set) whose existence clearly needs to be assumed, and insisting that *only* collections of objects that arise by applying the given axioms to the given examples should be called *sets*. Of course, we do sometimes also need to discuss collections of objects that do not arise from the axioms of set theory, and the collection of all topological spaces is an example. Such collections are generally called (proper) **classes** (*Klassen*), but since I do not wish to go any further into the subtleties of set theory in this course, I shall continue to refer to them via the informal word **collections**. You should just keep in mind that while such things can be defined, they are not considered equivalent to sets, and thus cannot be used for all the same purposes that sets can: in particular, an arbitrary “collection” cannot serve as the domain of a function according to the standard definitions. This doesn’t make it impossible to define something that intuitively resembles a function on the collection of all topological spaces—it only means that when we define such an object, we are not strictly allowed to call it a “function”. This problem is easy to solve: we shall simply call it something else.

28.2. Categories. Leaving set theory aside, we now introduce some basic notions from category theory. As the examples below should make clear, a category can often be thought of as an answer to the question, “which field of mathematics are we working in?”

DEFINITION 28.1. A **category** (*Kategorie*) $\mathcal{C}$ consists of the following data:

- A collection (i.e. class) $\text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}$, whose elements are called the **objects** (*Objekte*) of $\mathcal{C}$;
- For each $X, Y \in \text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}$ a set $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$, which we shall often abbreviate as

$$\text{Hom}(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$$

when there is no danger of confusion, whose elements are called the **morphisms from X to Y** (*Morphismen von X nach Y*). For each $X \in \text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}$, there is a distinguished⁴⁸ element $\text{Id}_X \in \text{Hom}(X, X)$ called the **identity morphism** of X ;

- For each $X, Y, Z \in \text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}$, a function

$$(28.1) \quad \text{Hom}(X, Y) \times \text{Hom}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(X, Z) : (f, g) \mapsto g \circ f$$

such that $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$, and whenever two of the objects match and Id denotes the corresponding distinguished morphism, $f \circ \text{Id} = f = \text{Id} \circ f$.

NOTATION. For a category $\mathcal{C}$, we will often abuse notation and use the symbol $\mathcal{C}$ to indicate not only the category itself but also its collection of objects, hence

$$X \in \mathcal{C} \quad \text{actually means} \quad X \in \text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}.$$

A morphism $f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ from X to Y will often be denoted with the same arrow notation that is standard for maps between sets, so

$$f : X \rightarrow Y \quad \text{or} \quad X \xrightarrow{f} Y \quad \text{actually means} \quad f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y).$$

The notation $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$ for a set of morphisms is inspired by Example 28.5 below and similar algebraic examples, in which morphisms are actually homomorphisms respecting given algebraic structures. One also often sees this set denoted by $\text{Mor}(X, Y)$ or $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$, though we will not use that notation here.

EXAMPLE 28.2. The category **Top** has $\text{Ob}_{\text{Top}} = \{\text{topological spaces}\}$ and $\text{Hom}(X, Y) = \{f : X \rightarrow Y \mid f \text{ a continuous map}\}$, with Id_X defined for each space X as the identity map and the function (28.1) defined as the usual composition of maps. This defines a category since the identity map is always continuous and the composition of two continuous maps is also continuous. In accordance with the notation convention described above, the statement

$$X \in \text{Top}$$

thus means that X is a topological space.

EXAMPLE 28.3. The category **Set** has $\text{Ob}_{\text{Set}} = \{\text{sets}\}$ and $\text{Hom}(X, Y) = \{f : X \rightarrow Y\}$, meaning that morphisms are simply maps between sets, with no continuity requirement since there is no topology.

EXAMPLE 28.4. The objects of **Diff** are the smooth finite dimensional manifolds, and its morphisms are smooth maps. (As in Example 28.2, the identity is always smooth and the composition of two smooth maps is smooth.)

EXAMPLE 28.5. The category **Grp** has $\text{Ob}_{\text{Grp}} = \{\text{groups}\}$, with $\text{Hom}(G, H)$ defined as the set of all group homomorphisms $G \rightarrow H$ for each $G, H \in \text{Grp}$.

⁴⁸The word “distinguished” appears here because part of the structure of the category $\mathcal{C}$ is the knowledge of which morphism should be called “ Id_X ” for each object X . If we simply required the existence of a morphism that satisfies the conditions stated in the third bullet point, then there might be more than one such element and we would not know which one to call Id_X . But the structure of $\mathcal{C}$ requires each set $\text{Hom}(X, X)$ to contain a specific element that carries that name; there might in theory exist additional morphisms that have the same properties, but only one is called Id_X .

EXAMPLE 28.6. There is a **subcategory** (*Unterkategorie*) **Ab** of **Grp** whose objects consist of all *abelian* groups, with morphisms defined the same way as in **Grp**.

The examples above might give you the impression that in every category, a morphism is just a map that may be required to satisfy some specific properties. But nothing in Definition 28.1 says either that an object must be a kind of set or that a morphism is a map. Here is an example in which the objects are still sets, but the morphisms are *equivalence classes* of maps.

EXAMPLE 28.7. Let **hTop** denote the category whose objects are the same as in **Top**, but with $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$ defined as the set of homotopy classes of continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y$ and $\text{Id}_X \in \text{Hom}(X, X)$ as the homotopy class of the identity map. The function (28.1) is defined in terms of the usual composition of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ by

$$[g] \circ [f] := [g \circ f].$$

(Exercise: check that this is well defined!) We call **hTop** the **homotopy category** of topological spaces.

For some interesting examples in which objects are not sets and the function (28.1) has nothing to do with composition of maps, see Exercises 28.3 and 28.4.

DEFINITION 28.8. In any category, a morphism $f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ is called an **isomorphism** (*Isomorphismus*) if there exists a morphism $f^{-1} \in \text{Hom}(Y, X)$ such that $f^{-1} \circ f = \text{Id}_X$ and $f \circ f^{-1} = \text{Id}_Y$. If an isomorphism exists in $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$, we say that the objects X and Y are **isomorphic** (*isomorph*).

According to this definition, the word “isomorphism” no longer has a strictly algebraic meaning, but will mean whatever is considered to be the notion of “equivalence” in whichever category we are working with. Let’s run through the list: an isomorphism in **Top** is a homeomorphism, in **Set** it is simply a bijection, in **Diff** a diffeomorphism, and in **Grp** or **Ab** it is the usual notion of group isomorphism. The most interesting case so far is **hTop**: two objects in **hTop** are isomorphic if and only if they are homotopy equivalent!

The proof of the following is an easy exercise in applying the axioms of a category:

PROPOSITION 28.9. *For any isomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between two objects of a category, the inverse morphism $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ is unique.* $\square$

REMARK 28.10. It is possible to relax Definition 28.1 by allowing $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$ for each $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ to be an arbitrary class rather than a set, in which case we are not strictly allowed to call the composition map $\text{Hom}(X, Y) \times \text{Hom}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(X, Z)$ a “function,” but the definition still makes sense. In this more general framework, the notion described in Definition 28.1 with morphisms forming sets instead of proper classes is called a **locally small** category. All of the categories we deal with in this course will be locally small, and it takes some nontrivial effort to think up an example of one that is not, so we will not worry about this level of generality any further.

28.3. Functors. The next definition gives us a way of relating two categories to each other. As inspiration, you can think of π_1 , a “function” that associates groups to pointed topological spaces, and in fact does so in a way that makes the groups into *topological invariants*. This results mainly from the fact that continuous maps of spaces induce homomorphisms between the corresponding fundamental groups, implying in particular that homeomorphisms induce group isomorphisms. The notion of a functor is meant as a form of abstract packaging for this idea.

DEFINITION 28.11. Given two categories $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$, a **functor** (*Funktor*) $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ from $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{D}$ assigns to each object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ an object $\mathcal{F}(X) \in \mathcal{D}$ and to each morphism $f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ between any two objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ a morphism $\mathcal{F}(f) \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(Y))$ such that:

- (1) $\mathcal{F}(\text{Id}_X) = \text{Id}_{\mathcal{F}(X)}$ for all $X \in \mathcal{C}$;
- (2) $\mathcal{F}(f \circ g) = \mathcal{F}(f) \circ \mathcal{F}(g)$ for all $g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ and $f \in \text{Hom}(Y, Z)$, $X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{C}$.

EXAMPLE 28.12. Denote by $\mathbf{Top}_*$ the category whose objects are the **pointed spaces** (X, p) , i.e. a topological space X together with a point $p \in X$, with morphisms defined as continuous **pointed maps**, also known as **base point preserving** maps,

$$\text{Hom}((X, p), (Y, q)) := \{f : X \rightarrow Y \mid f \text{ continuous and } f(p) = q\}.$$

The fundamental group then defines a functor $\pi_1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$; indeed, it associates to each pointed space (X, p) the group $\pi_1(X, p)$ and to each pointed map $f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$ the group homomorphism

$$\pi_1(f) := f_* : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, q)$$

such that Id_* is the identity homomorphism and $(f \circ g)_* = f_* \circ g_*$.

EXAMPLE 28.13. There is an obvious functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$ that sends each object $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ to itself and sends each continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ to its homotopy class. This is sometimes called a **forgetful functor**, since it is defined by forgetting some (but not all) of the information carried by the morphisms in $\mathbf{Top}$, i.e. it forgets the actual maps $X \rightarrow Y$, but remembers their homotopy classes.

EXAMPLE 28.14. The fundamental group also defines a functor $\pi_1 : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ where $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ is defined to have the same objects as $\mathbf{Top}_*$, but with $\text{Hom}((X, p), (Y, q))$ defined as the set of pointed homotopy classes of maps $(X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$. (See Theorem 8.10 in Lecture 8 from last semester.) A slightly fancier way to say this is that the functor $\pi_1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ in Example 28.12 is the composition of two functors

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \pi_1 & \\ \text{Top}_* & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \mathbf{hTop}_* \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \mathbf{Grp} \end{array},$$

in which the first is the pointed analogue of the forgetful functor described in Example 28.13. We say in this situation that the functor $\pi_1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ **descends** to the (pointed) homotopy category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

We will later encounter several algebraic constructions and related topological invariants that satisfy most of the conditions of a functor, but differ in one crucial respect: the morphisms they induce go *the other way*. In practice, this phenomenon often arises from the algebraic notion of dualization, and we'll give an example of this kind immediately after the definition.

DEFINITION 28.15. Given two categories $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$, a **contravariant functor** (*kontravarianter Funktor*) $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ from $\mathcal{C}$ to $\mathcal{D}$ assigns to each $X \in \mathcal{C}$ some $\mathcal{F}(X) \in \mathcal{D}$ and to each $f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ for $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ a morphism $\mathcal{F}(f) \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(Y), \mathcal{F}(X))$ such that

- (1) $\mathcal{F}(\text{Id}_X) = \text{Id}_{\mathcal{F}(X)}$ for all $X \in \mathcal{C}$;
- (2) $\mathcal{F}(f \circ g) = \mathcal{F}(g) \circ \mathcal{F}(f)$ for all $g \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ and $f \in \text{Hom}(Y, Z)$, $X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{C}$.

A functor that satisfies the original Definition 28.11 instead of Definition 28.15 can be called **covariant** (*kovariant*) when we want to emphasize that it is not contravariant.

EXAMPLE 28.16. Let $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ denote the category of vector spaces over a fixed field $\mathbb{K}$, so $\text{Hom}(V, W) := \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{K}}(V, W)$ is the space of $\mathbb{K}$ -linear maps $V \rightarrow W$. There is a contravariant functor $\Delta : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ which sends each vector space V to its dual space $\Delta(V) := V^* := \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{K}}(V, \mathbb{K})$ and sends each morphism $A : V \rightarrow W$ to its transpose $\Delta(A) := A^* : W^* \rightarrow V^*$, defined by $A^*(\lambda)v = \lambda(Av)$ for $\lambda \in W^*$ and $v \in V$. It satisfies the conditions of a functor since $(AB)^* = B^*A^*$ and the transpose of the identity $V \rightarrow V$ is the identity $V^* \rightarrow V^*$.

REMARK 28.17. It is possible to avoid Definition 28.15 by instead defining for each category $\mathcal{C}$ the **opposite category** $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}$, which has the same collection of objects but reverses the arrows for all morphisms, meaning $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}}(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Y, X)$. A contravariant functor $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is then the same thing as a covariant functor $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$.

EXAMPLE 28.18. One can speak of “functors of multiple variables” in much the same way as with functions. It is not difficult to show for instance that on the category **Ab** of abelian groups and homomorphisms,

$$\text{Hom} : \text{Ab} \times \text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$$

defines a functor that is contravariant in the first variable and covariant in the second, assigning to each pair of abelian groups (G, H) the group $\text{Hom}(G, H)$ of homomorphisms $G \rightarrow H$.

28.4. Natural transformations. We have one more piece of abstract language to add to this story before we can get back to studying topology. You’ve often seen the words “natural” or “naturally” appearing in statements of theorems, in order to emphasize that something does not depend on any arbitrary choices. In category theory, these words can be given a precise definition.

DEFINITION 28.19. Given two covariant functors $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$, a **natural transformation** (*natürliche Transformation*) T from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G}$ associates to each $X \in \mathcal{C}$ a morphism $T_X \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{G}(X))$ such that for all $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ and $f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$, the following diagram commutes:

$$(28.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \mathcal{F}(X) & \xrightarrow{T_X} & \mathcal{G}(X) \\ \downarrow \mathcal{F}(f) & & \downarrow \mathcal{G}(f) \\ \mathcal{F}(Y) & \xrightarrow{T_Y} & \mathcal{G}(Y) \end{array}$$

The statement that T is a natural transformation from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G}$ for two functors $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is sometimes written with the notation

$$T : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}, \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{F} \xRightarrow{T} \mathcal{G}, \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathcal{F} & \\ \curvearrowright & \Downarrow T & \curvearrowleft \\ & \mathcal{G} & \end{array} \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}.$$

A natural transformation between two contravariant functors can be defined analogously.

REMARK 28.20. The meaning of commutative diagrams such as (28.2) in an abstract category-theoretical framework should hopefully be obvious: in the case at hand, the diagram means the relation

$$\mathcal{G}(f) \circ T_X = T_Y \circ \mathcal{F}(f),$$

i.e. it specifies that two specific compositions of morphisms give rise to the same morphism $\mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}(Y)$. A very large portion of the important definitions and results in category theory can be expressed in terms of commutative diagrams, which make sense due to the axioms of a category, without needing to assume that objects are sets or that morphisms are maps between them.

We will see some nice topological examples of natural transformations in the context of bordism theory in §28.7 below. Here is an algebraic example that you may have heard of before:

EXAMPLE 28.21. Consider again the category $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ of vector spaces over a fixed field $\mathbb{K}$ as in Example 28.16. There is a covariant functor

$$\Delta^2 : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect},$$

assigning to each $V \in \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ the dual of its dual space $(V^*)^*$. Let $\text{Id} : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ denote the identity functor on $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$, which sends each object and morphism to itself. There is then a natural transformation from Id to Δ^2 that assigns to every $V \in \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ a vector space isomorphism $V \rightarrow (V^*)^*$; see Exercise 28.5.

REMARK 28.22. Whenever a vector space V is finite dimensional, the map $V \rightarrow (V^*)^*$ given by the natural transformation in Example 28.21 is an isomorphism, and a large part of the reason why it turns out to define a *natural* transformation is that the definition of this map does not depend on any choices. By contrast, every finite-dimensional vector space is isomorphic to its dual space V^* , but there is no *canonical* way to define such isomorphisms for all vector spaces at once. Notice that since $\text{Id} : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ is a covariant functor while the dualization functor $\Delta : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ from Example 28.16 is contravariant, there is no sensible notion of natural transformations from Id to Δ .

28.5. Bordism groups. It would be too ambitious to attempt a serious discussion of bordism theory in this course, but there are two good reasons to introduce the basic definitions now. First, they give us some elegant new topological examples of functors besides π_1 , including some obviously interesting examples of natural transformations. Second, the geometric idea behind bordism groups will give us motivation for the somewhat less straightforward definition of homology groups in the lectures to come.

NOTATION. This is a convenient moment to mention a notational convention that will be in force throughout the semester: we abbreviate the compact unit interval by

$$I := [0, 1].$$

This will be the meaning of the symbol I in any context that involves paths or homotopies.

For some initial motivation, you can think of π_1 in the following terms: first, elements of $\pi_1(X)$ are represented by base-point preserving maps $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ defined on a specific closed 1-dimensional manifold, namely the circle S^1 . Two such maps $\gamma, \gamma' : S^1 \rightarrow X$ represent the same element if there exists a pointed homotopy

$$h : S^1 \times I \rightarrow X,$$

between them, so in this situation, the disjoint union $\gamma \amalg \gamma' : S^1 \amalg S^1 \rightarrow X$ of the two maps admits a continuous extension to a map $S^1 \times I \rightarrow X$, whose domain is a specific compact 2-dimensional manifold with boundary naturally homeomorphic to $S^1 \amalg S^1$. This way of describing homotopies ignores base points, but base points are not important for our present purposes: what's important rather is that we are talking about maps into X defined on compact 2-manifolds bounded by closed 1-manifolds. If you take this picture and ask what happens when you allow the domains to be arbitrary compact manifolds of arbitrary dimension, bordism theory is what you get.

For the following definition, recall that an n -dimensional manifold M is called **closed** if it is compact and the $(n - 1)$ -dimensional manifold ∂M defined as the boundar of M is empty. We will generally use the term “manifold” as a synonym for “manifold with boundary,” so all manifolds M are allowed to have a nonempty boundary ∂M , but we shall make no overriding assumptions about whether ∂M is nonempty unless extra words such as “closed” are included. It is useful to note however that for any manifold M , the boundary ∂M is a manifold whose own boundary is always empty:

$$\partial(\partial M) = \emptyset.$$

DEFINITION 28.23. For a space $X \in \text{Top}$ and an integer $n \geq 0$, the n th **unoriented bordism group** $\Omega_n^O(X)$ of X consists of equivalence classes $[(M, \varphi)]$ of pairs (M, φ) in which M is a closed smooth n -manifold and $\varphi : M \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map. We call two such pairs (M, φ) and (N, ψ)

equivalent (or **bordant**) if there exists a **bordism** between them, meaning a pair (W, Φ) in which W is a compact smooth $(n+1)$ -manifold, $\Phi : W \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map, and there exists a diffeomorphism

$$\partial W \cong M \amalg N$$

such that

$$\Phi|_{\partial W} = \varphi \amalg \psi.$$

We make $\Omega_n^O(X)$ into an abelian group by using disjoint unions to define addition, thus

$$[(M, \varphi)] + [(N, \psi)] := [(M \amalg N, \varphi \amalg \psi)],$$

with the additive identity element defined by

$$0 := [(\emptyset, \cdot)] \in \Omega_n^O(X),$$

where the empty set $\emptyset$ is understood as a smooth manifold of arbitrary dimension, and $\cdot$ denotes the unique map $\emptyset \rightarrow X$.

A few observations are needed before this definition fully makes sense. First, we should check that the bordism relation described above satisfies the conditions of an equivalence relation: for instance, it is reflexive because for any closed n -manifold M and map $\varphi : M \rightarrow X$, the compact $(n+1)$ -manifold $M \times I$ and map

$$(28.3) \quad M \times I \rightarrow X : (x, t) \mapsto \varphi(x)$$

define a bordism between (M, φ) and itself. The symmetry of the relation is obvious; the most interesting detail is transitivity, which requires some rudimentary knowledge of smooth manifolds and collar neighborhoods, so that two $(n+1)$ -manifolds with diffeomorphic boundary components can be glued together along those components to form a new $(n+1)$ -manifold. Since this discussion is not intended as a comprehensive introduction to bordism theory, I will leave that detail to your imagination for now. Once the bordism relation is understood, it is straightforward to check that the addition operation defined via disjoint unions is well defined on equivalence classes. The remaining question to answer is why $\Omega_n^O(X)$ is a group, i.e. why every element has an additive inverse. This also comes from the map (28.3), because there is another way to interpret it: the boundary of $M \times I$ is naturally diffeomorphic to the disjoint union of $M \amalg M$ with $\emptyset$, which makes $(M \amalg M, \varphi \amalg \varphi)$ bordant to $(\emptyset, \cdot)$ and thus proves

$$[(M, \varphi)] + [(M, \varphi)] = 0 \in \Omega_n^O(X).$$

This not only makes $\Omega_n^O(X)$ a group, but also gives it an especially simple algebraic structure: all of its nontrivial elements have order 2, so the abelian group $\Omega_n^O(X)$ can also be regarded as a vector space over the field $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

REMARK 28.24. The domains in Definition 28.23 were all assumed to be *smooth* manifolds rather than just *topological* manifolds, but there is an equally sensible variation on this definition that requires only topological manifolds and replaces the word “diffeomorphism” (in the definition of the bordism relation) with “homeomorphism”. The main reason to include smoothness in the definition is that methods from differential topology make $\Omega_n^O(X)$ easier to compute than its purely topological counterpart. But for our present purposes, this detail will make no difference at all and can (pseudo-safely) be ignored.

The following observation makes Ω_n^O into a covariant functor

$$\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab},$$

or equivalently (in light of the fact that all nontrivial elements have order two), a functor $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2\text{-Vect}$. Each continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induces a map $f_* : \Omega_n^O(X) \rightarrow \Omega_n^O(Y)$ defined by

$$f_*[(M, \varphi)] := [(M, f \circ \varphi)].$$

It is straightforward to check that this map is well defined and is a group homomorphism. It clearly also sends the identity map $X \rightarrow X$ to the identity homomorphism $\Omega_n^O(X) \rightarrow \Omega_n^O(X)$ and satisfies the relation $(f \circ g)_* = f_*g_*$ for any two continuous maps f, g that are composable. In other words: $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a functor.

A less obvious but very useful observation is that $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ *descends* (in the sense of Example 28.14) to the corresponding homotopy category, and thus also defines a functor

$$\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}.$$

This is an immediate consequence of the following result:

PROPOSITION 28.25. *For any two homotopic maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$, the induced homomorphisms $f_*, g_* : \Omega_n^O(X) \rightarrow \Omega_n^O(Y)$ are identical.*

PROOF. Assume $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy with $H(\cdot, 0) = f$ and $H(\cdot, 1) = g$. Given $[(M, \varphi)] \in \Omega_n^O(X)$, the map

$$M \times I \rightarrow Y : (x, t) \mapsto H(\varphi(x), t)$$

then defines a bordism between $(M, f \circ \varphi)$ and $(M, g \circ \varphi)$, proving $f_*[(M, \varphi)] = g_*[(M, \varphi)] \in \Omega_n^O(Y)$. $\square$

28.6. Oriented bordism. In case you had hoped for a more interesting group in which not all nontrivial elements have order 2, there is a remedy: one can add a bit of extra data to the domain manifolds that are used to represent bordism classes, namely an orientation. If you know already what it means to equip a smooth manifold with an orientation, then great—if not, then this is not the place to discuss it, though we will give a detailed treatment of orientations for *topological* manifolds later in this semester. For present purposes, it will suffice to take the following facts about orientations on faith:

- (1) Many familiar manifolds such as S^1 and the compact surfaces Σ_g of genus g for each $g \geq 0$ are orientable, but not all manifolds are, e.g. the projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$ and the Klein bottle are not. More generally, no manifold that contains a Möbius band (or equivalently, that is the connected sum of something with $\mathbb{RP}^2$) can admit an orientation, because the Möbius band contains a loop such that any choice of orientation at one point gets reversed by moving it continuously along the loop.
- (2) For every orientation of a manifold M , there is another orientation called the **opposite orientation**, and if M is connected, then it admits exactly two orientations, which are opposites of each other. For an oriented manifold M , we sometimes denote by $-M$ the same manifold with the opposite orientation.⁴⁹
- (3) For every manifold M with nonempty boundary, an orientation of M naturally determines an orientation of ∂M , called the **boundary orientation**. The opposite orientation of M then determines the opposite boundary orientation, or in symbols,

$$\partial(-M) = -(\partial M).$$

⁴⁹Another popular way of denoting the oriented manifold $-M$ is $\overline{M}$, especially in certain situations where M comes with a canonical choice of orientation. This is true for instance if M is a *complex* manifold, e.g. the complex projective space $\mathbb{CP}^n$, which inherits a canonical orientation from its complex structure, and $\mathbb{CP}^n$ then denotes the same real manifold with an orientation opposite to the one determined by the complex structure.

- (4) For any two oriented manifolds M, N with $\dim M = m$ and $\dim N = n$, the Cartesian product $M \times N$ is an $(m + n)$ -manifold that inherits a **product orientation**, which depends in general on the order of the factors, though only if both m and n are odd. In symbols,

$$N \times M \cong (-1)^{mn}(M \times N),$$

meaning that the obvious diffeomorphism $M \times N \xrightarrow{\cong} N \times M$ is orientation reversing if m and n are both odd, and is otherwise orientation preserving.

- (5) For M a 0-manifold (also known as a discrete set with at most countably many points), an orientation is simply a function $M \rightarrow \{1, -1\}$, and for any choice of orientation on the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, the boundary orientation assigns opposite signs to the two points of $\partial I = \{0, 1\}$.

DEFINITION 28.26. The n th **oriented bordism group**

$$\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$$

of a space X is defined by modifying Definition 28.23 as follows: the manifold M in each representative (M, φ) is equipped with an orientation, and the manifold W in an **oriented bordism** (W, Φ) between (M, φ) and (N, ψ) is also oriented and equipped with an orientation-preserving diffeomorphism

$$\partial W \cong -M \amalg N,$$

where ∂W is assumed to carry the boundary orientation.

Let us clarify why reversing the orientation of either M or N in the oriented bordism relation is the right thing to do. For any oriented manifold M , assigning the product orientation to $M \times I$ and then the boundary orientation to $\partial(M \times I)$ gives a natural *orientation-preserving* diffeomorphism

$$\partial(M \times I) \cong -M \amalg M.$$

The trivial homotopy (28.3) thus implies again that the bordism relation satisfies $(M, \varphi) \sim (M, \varphi)$, but in the oriented setting, it does *not* imply $[(M, \varphi)] + [(M, \varphi)] = 0$, so that elements of $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ do not need to have order two. Instead, the additive inverse of any given $[(M, \varphi)] \in \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is obtained by reversing the orientation of M ,

$$-[(M, \varphi)] = [(-M, \varphi)] \in \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X).$$

REMARK 28.27. The letters “O” and “SO” appearing in the notation $\Omega_n^{\text{O}}(X)$ and $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ refer to the orthogonal group $\text{O}(n)$ and special orthogonal group $\text{SO}(n)$ respectively, which makes some sense if you recall that $\text{SO}(n)$ is precisely the subgroup of $\text{O}(n)$ consisting of transformations $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ that preserve orientation. A fuller explanation of this notation would be too much of a digression for now, but suffice it to say there also exist other versions of bordism groups corresponding to other families of Lie groups that act linearly on Euclidean space, in which the manifold M in representatives (M, φ) of bordism classes is equipped with extra structure respected by those group actions.

The following easy computation (see Exercise 28.7) demonstrates that, indeed, elements of $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ need not have order 2 in general.

PROPOSITION 28.28. *For any space X , there are natural isomorphisms*

$$\Omega_0^{\text{O}}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad \text{and} \quad \Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} \mathbb{Z},$$

i.e. $\Omega_0^{\text{O}}(X)$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{Z}_2$ with a canonical basis in bijective correspondence with the set $\pi_0(X)$ of path-components of X , and $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is a free abelian group with the same basis. $\square$

Beyond the case $n = 0$, computations of $\Omega_n^O(X)$ and $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ are generally doable, but too difficult to attempt before learning about homology and cohomology, which will be the main objectives of this semester's course. One sees a revealing symptom of the difficulty when one tries to compute either of these groups for the simplest possible nonempty topological space, namely a one-point space.

NOTATION. We will frequently denote by

$$\{*\} \in \mathbf{Top}$$

a topological space consisting of only one point, with the point in this space denoted by

$$* \in \{*\}.$$

The symbol $* \in X$ is sometimes also used to denote the base point of a pointed space $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, if it has not been given any other name.

REMARK 28.29. We sometimes abuse terminology by speaking of “the” one-point space, but of course one-point spaces are not unique, since the one element in the space can literally be anything, e.g. the sets $\{1\}$ and $\{2\}$ are not identical since $1 \neq 2$, and they are also different from the set whose only element is the banana you ate for breakfast this morning. In light of the fact that set theory has no way of defining a “set of all things,” the collection of all possible one-point spaces forms a proper class rather than a set. However, one does have a strong form of uniqueness up to isomorphism in the category $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$: there exists a unique homeomorphism between any two one-point spaces, and this is why referring to them all as “the” one-point space does not do any harm.

For a one-point space $\{*\}$ and any given manifold M , there is only one possible map $M \rightarrow \{*\}$, so elements of the groups⁵⁰

$$\Omega_n^O := \Omega_n^O(\{*\}), \quad \Omega_n^{\text{SO}} := \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(\{*\})$$

can be regarded simply as equivalence classes $[M]$ of closed n -manifolds, and the information encoded in these groups is therefore a coarse version of the classification of closed n -manifolds, subject to an equivalence relation in which boundaries of compact manifolds are equated with the empty set. The classification problem up to homeomorphism or diffeomorphism is well understood for manifolds of dimension at most two, but already from dimension three upward, complete classifications are not known, and the problem is not generally considered tractable. From this perspective, it seems slightly surprising that Ω_n^O and Ω_n^{SO} can in fact be computed, and the answers are often not difficult to write down, but proving them usually takes quite a bit of work. By the end of this semester, we will at least be able to fill in all the gaps in the following special case:

PROPOSITION 28.30. *The group $\Omega_2^O = \Omega_2^O(\{*\})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$, and its unique nontrivial element is the bordism class of the projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$.*

PROOF SKETCH. The nontriviality of $[\mathbb{RP}^2] \in \Omega_2^O(\{*\})$ means that $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not diffeomorphic to the boundary of any compact 3-manifold. If you take this on faith for a moment, the rest of the computation follows easily from the classification of surfaces, as described in Lecture 19 from last semester. Indeed, every closed and *orientable* surface can be presented as the smooth boundary of a compact region in $\mathbb{R}^3$, and thus represents the trivial element in Ω_2^O . The closed, connected

⁵⁰The symbols Ω_n^{SO} and Ω_n^O now each have two possible interpretations, either as functors $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ or as the groups obtained by plugging a one-point space into these functors. It depends on the context.

and non-orientable surfaces, in turn, are all homeomorphic (and in fact also diffeomorphic⁵¹) to connected sums of N copies of $\mathbb{RP}^2$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$. A convenient fact to use in this situation is that for any two closed manifolds M, N of the same dimension n , there exists a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold whose boundary is diffeomorphic to the disjoint union of M, N and the connected sum $M \# N$. This can be proved with a picture, and I will leave it as an exercise, but if you need a hint, try looking up some information on *handle attachment* in geometric topology—the key trick is to “attach a 1-handle” to $(M \amalg N) \times I$. With this understood, one now sees that every closed and connected surface is bordant to some disjoint union of copies of $\mathbb{RP}^2$, and therefore so is every closed and disconnected surface.

So, why is $\mathbb{RP}^2$ not the boundary of any compact 3-manifold? This is harder to explain, but it will follow easily from some computations of homological invariants carried out later in this course. In particular, the Poincaré duality isomorphism implies that the Euler characteristic (an integer-valued invariant that is defined for a wide class of topological spaces including all compact manifolds) of every closed odd-dimensional manifold is zero. If $\mathbb{RP}^2$ were the boundary of some compact 3-manifold Y , then by gluing Y to a copy of itself along the boundary, one would obtain a closed 3-manifold

$$X := Y \cup_{\mathbb{RP}^2} Y$$

whose Euler characteristic $\chi(X)$ satisfies $\chi(X) = 2\chi(Y) - \chi(\mathbb{RP}^2) = 2\chi(Y) - 1$, and therefore could not be zero. $\square$

28.7. More examples of natural transformations. The bordism groups provide us with some examples of natural transformations that are quite easy to write down. Proving the required naturality property, i.e. that the required diagrams commute, is a straightforward exercise in each case.

EXAMPLE 28.31. For every space X and $n \geq 0$, there is an obvious *forgetful* homomorphism

$$\Omega_n^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \Omega_n^{\text{O}} : [(M, \varphi)] \mapsto [(M, \varphi)]$$

defined by forgetting the orientation of the manifold M . Regarding both Ω_n^{SO} and Ω_n^{O} as covariant functors $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$, this defines a natural transformation from Ω_n^{SO} to Ω_n^{O} .

EXAMPLE 28.32. Since S^1 is a closed orientable 1-manifold, one can associate to any pointed space (X, p) a map

$$(28.4) \quad \pi_1(X, p) \xrightarrow{h} \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X) : [\gamma] \mapsto [(S^1, \gamma)],$$

defined by regarding representatives of elements in $\pi_1(X, p)$ as maps $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$. This map is well defined because a homotopy between two maps $\gamma, \gamma' : S^1 \rightarrow X$ gives rise to a bordism between (S^1, γ) and (S^1, γ') . The lemma below shows that $h : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is also a group homomorphism; it is a variation on what is known in homology theory as the *Hurewicz homomorphism*, and we will later see another version of it in that context.

LEMMA 28.33. *For any two base-point preserving loops $\alpha, \beta : S^1 \rightarrow X$ and their concatenation $\alpha \cdot \beta : S^1 \rightarrow X$, $(S^1, \alpha \cdot \beta)$ is bordant to $(S^1 \amalg S^1, \alpha \amalg \beta)$.*

PROOF. See Exercise 28.8. $\square$

⁵¹It is a nontrivial fact that for $n \leq 3$ (though emphatically not for $n \geq 4$), every topological n -manifold admits a smooth structure, and two smooth n -manifolds are homeomorphic if and only if they are diffeomorphic. For closed surfaces, the easiest way to prove this is probably by reproving the standard classification of surfaces in the smooth category. In fact, this is easier than working only with topological surfaces and continuous maps, because Riemannian geometry makes the existence of triangulations on *smooth* manifolds easier to prove.

Continuing with Example 28.32, the following “naturality” property of the map $h : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is nearly immediate from the definitions: for any pointed map $f : (X, p) \rightarrow (Y, q)$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_1(X, p) & \xrightarrow{h} & \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X) \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ \pi_1(Y, q) & \xrightarrow{h} & \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(Y) \end{array}$$

commutes. This *almost* amounts to the statement that h defines a natural transformation from π_1 to Ω_1^{SO} , though before we can say this in precise terms, we have a minor bookkeeping issue to deal with, as $\pi_1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ and $\Omega_1^{\text{SO}} : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ are not functors between exactly the same pairs of categories, strictly speaking. The distinction between $\mathbf{Grp}$ and $\mathbf{Ab}$ is easy to erase since the latter is a subcategory of the former, i.e. we can equally well regard Ω_1^{SO} as a functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$. For the distinction between $\mathbf{Top}_*$ and $\mathbf{Top}$, the obvious thing to do is define Ω_1^{SO} as a functor $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ by composing the usual $\Omega_1^{\text{SO}} : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ with the obvious *forgetful* functor $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$, replacing each pointed space (X, p) with the unpointed space X . With this understood, the commuting diagram above shows that h defines a natural transformation from π_1 to Ω_1^{SO} if both are regarded as functors $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$. For a slightly different variation, we could observe that since $\Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is abelian, the map $h : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ always vanishes on the commutator subgroup

$$[\pi_1(X, p), \pi_1(X, p)] \subset \pi_1(X, p),$$

and thus descends to a well-defined homomorphism on the abelianization of the fundamental group,

$$\pi_1(X, p) / [\pi_1(X, p), \pi_1(X, p)] \xrightarrow{h} \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X).$$

By now you should be unsurprised to learn that *abelianization* can also be regarded as a functor

$$\mathbf{Grp} \xrightarrow{\text{ab}} \mathbf{Ab} : G \mapsto \text{ab}(G) := G / [G, G],$$

and we can then also regard h as a natural transformation from $\text{ab} \circ \pi_1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ to $\Omega_{\text{SO}}^1 : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$.

EXAMPLE 28.34. Let $\Omega_n^\bullet : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ denote either the unoriented or oriented bordism functor. For any two spaces X, Y and integers $m, n \geq 0$, one can define a product operation

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_m^\bullet(X) \otimes \Omega_n^\bullet(Y) &\xrightarrow{\times} \Omega_{m+n}^\bullet(X \times Y), \\ [(M, \varphi)] \otimes [(N, \psi)] &\longmapsto [(M, \varphi)] \times [(N, \psi)] := [(M \times N, \varphi \times \psi)]. \end{aligned}$$

I will leave it as an exercise to convince yourself that this operation is well defined, and to clarify precisely what it means to say that it is *natural*: in particular, for each fixed pair of integers $m, n \geq 0$, this product defines a natural transformation between two functors from the *product category* $\mathbf{Top} \times \mathbf{Top}$ to $\mathbf{Ab}$.

28.8. Exercises.

EXERCISE 28.1. Prove Proposition 28.9 (isomorphisms have unique inverses).

EXERCISE 28.2. Verify the claim in Example 28.18 that $\text{Hom} : \mathbf{Ab} \times \mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ defines a contravariant functor in its first variable and a covariant functor in its second variable.

EXERCISE 28.3. Suppose $\mathcal{A}$ is a category whose objects form a set X , such that for each pair $x, y \in X$, the set of morphisms $\text{Hom}(x, y)$ contains either exactly one element or none. We can turn this into a binary relation by writing $x \bowtie y$ for every pair such that $\text{Hom}(x, y) \neq \emptyset$.

- (a) What properties does the relation $\bowtie$ need to have in order for it to define a category in the way indicated above?
- (b) If $\mathcal{B}$ is another category whose objects form a set Y with morphisms determined by a binary relation $\bowtie$ as indicated above, what properties does a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ need to have in order for it to define a functor from $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{B}$?

EXERCISE 28.4. In any category $\mathcal{C}$, each object X has an **automorphism group** (also called **isotropy group**) $\text{Aut}(X)$, consisting of all the isomorphisms in $\text{Hom}(X, X)$. A **groupoid** is a category in which all morphisms are also isomorphisms.

- (a) Show that if $\mathcal{G}$ is a groupoid and $\mathbf{Grp}$ denotes the usual category of groups with homomorphisms, there exists a contravariant functor from $\mathcal{G}$ to $\mathbf{Grp}$ that assigns to each object X of $\mathcal{G}$ its automorphism group $\text{Aut}(X)$. How does this functor act on morphisms $X \rightarrow Y$? Could you alternatively define it as a *covariant* functor? Conclude either way that whenever X and Y are isomorphic objects in $\mathcal{G}$ (meaning there exists an isomorphism in $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$), the groups $\text{Aut}(X)$ and $\text{Aut}(Y)$ are isomorphic.
- (b) Given a topological space X and two points x, y , let $\text{Hom}(x, y)$ denote the set of homotopy classes (with fixed end points) of paths $[0, 1] \rightarrow X$ from x to y , and define a composition function $\text{Hom}(x, y) \times \text{Hom}(y, z) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(x, z) : (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \alpha \cdot \beta$ by the usual notion of concatenation of paths. Show that this notion of morphisms defines a groupoid whose objects are the points in X .⁵² In this case, what are the automorphism groups $\text{Aut}(x)$ and the isomorphisms $\text{Aut}(y) \rightarrow \text{Aut}(x)$ given by the functor in part (a)?

EXERCISE 28.5. Consider the category $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ of vector spaces over a fixed field $\mathbb{K}$.

- (a) Show that there is a covariant functor Δ^2 from $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ to itself, assigning to each $V \in \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ the dual of its dual space $(V^*)^*$. Describe how this functor acts on morphisms.
- (b) Construct a natural transformation from the identity functor $\text{Id} : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ to Δ^2 that assigns to every $V \in \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ a linear injection $V \rightarrow (V^*)^*$, which is an isomorphism whenever V is finite dimensional.

EXERCISE 28.6. The **conjugate** $\bar{V}$ of a complex vector space V is defined as the same set $\bar{V} := V$ with the same notion of vector addition but with multiplication by scalars $\lambda = a + ib \in \mathbb{C}$ defined as multiplication by the complex conjugate $\bar{\lambda} = a - ib$. In other words, if $V \rightarrow \bar{V} : v \mapsto \bar{v}$ denotes the identity map, then scalar multiplication on $\bar{V}$ is defined so as to make this map complex antilinear, giving the formula

$$\lambda \bar{v} := \overline{\lambda v} \in \bar{V} \quad \text{for } \lambda \in \mathbb{C}, v \in V.$$

- (a) Show that there is a covariant functor $\kappa : \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$ that sends each $V \in \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$ to its conjugate $\bar{V}$, and describe how this functor acts on morphisms.
- (b) Show that if T is a natural transformation from $\text{Id} : \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$ to $\kappa : \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$, then T assigns to each $V \in \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$ the zero map $V \rightarrow \bar{V}$.

Hint: What does the naturality of T imply about the specific morphism $V \rightarrow V : v \mapsto iv$?

Comment: The map $V \rightarrow \bar{V} : v \mapsto \bar{v}$ is always a real-linear isomorphism, but it is not complex linear and is thus not a morphism in $\mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$. Every finite-dimensional complex vector space is of course complex-linearly isomorphic to its conjugate, simply because both spaces have the same dimension, but the lack of any nontrivial natural transformation $\text{Id} \rightarrow \kappa$ is a symptom of the fact that there is generally no canonical way to define such isomorphisms.

EXERCISE 28.7. Prove Proposition 28.28 on the computation of $\Omega_0^O(X)$ and $\Omega_0^{\text{SO}}(X)$ for any space X .

⁵²It is called the **fundamental groupoid** of X .

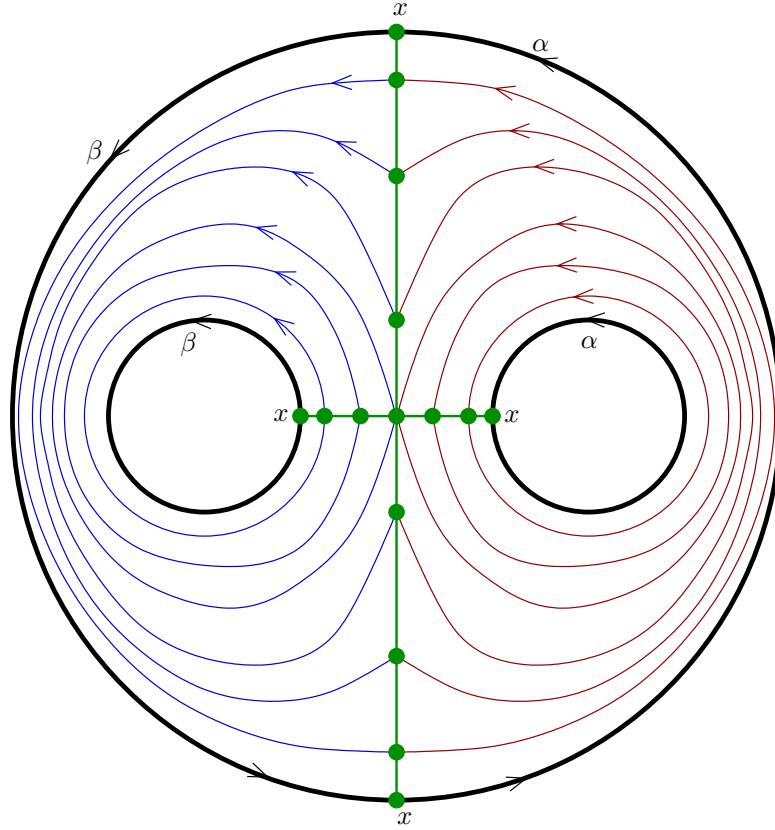


FIGURE 24. A hint for Exercise 28.8.

EXERCISE 28.8. Prove Lemma 28.33, showing that the natural map $h : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow \Omega_1^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is a group homomorphism.

Hint: You are looking for an oriented bordism (Σ, Φ) in which Σ is a compact surface with three boundary components—the simplest surface of this kind is a so-called “pair of pants,” which has the topology of a disk with two holes cut out. Assuming Σ is a pair of pants, try to define $\Phi : \Sigma \rightarrow X$ by first thinking about which subset of Σ should be mapped to the base point $x \in X$. If you get stuck, look at Figure 24.

29. Axioms for homology theories

We will not yet define any specific homology theory in this lecture, but we shall introduce the standard set of axioms satisfied by homology theories, and demonstrate their usefulness in computations. Along the way, we encounter a fundamental tool from homological algebra: exact sequences.

29.1. The category of R -modules. The bordism theories Ω_n^O and Ω_n^{SO} in the previous lecture were defined as functors from **Top** to the category **Ab** of abelian groups, though we saw that the groups $\Omega_n^O(X)$ can also be regarded as vector spaces over $\mathbb{Z}_2$. For homology theory, it is also possible to work entirely in the category **Ab**, but it is sometimes profitable to generalize this to a category that includes both abelian groups and vector spaces as special cases. This generalization

does not require any extra effort, so we might as well work in the more general setting from the beginning.

NOTATION. For the rest of this course, unless otherwise noted, the symbol

$$R$$

will always denote a fixed commutative ring with unit, the choice of which will often not matter. We then denote by

$$R\text{-Mod}$$

the **category of modules over R** , whose morphisms are the R -module homomorphisms. For two modules $G, H \in R\text{-Mod}$, we will denote the set of R -module homomorphisms $G \rightarrow H$ (which is also an R -module) by

$$\text{Hom}_R(G, H) := \text{Hom}_{R\text{-Mod}}(G, H)$$

whenever there is a need to specify R , but the abbreviated notation

$$\text{Hom}(G, H) := \text{Hom}_R(G, H)$$

can also be used when the context is clear. Similarly, we can denote the tensor product of two R -modules by $G \otimes_R H$ whenever R needs to be specified, but we will otherwise abbreviate it as

$$G \otimes H := G \otimes_R H.$$

A trivial R -module⁵³ is denoted by

$$0 \in R\text{-Mod}.$$

For our purposes, abelian groups will be the most important special case of R -modules (see Example 29.1 below), and for that reason, we will sometimes abuse terminology and use the word “group” in places where the word “module” would be more appropriate.

EXAMPLE 29.1. All abelian groups $G \in \mathbf{Ab}$ can equivalently be regarded as modules over the commutative ring $\mathbb{Z}$, with scalar multiplication nx for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $x \in G$ determined in the obvious way by the addition operation. Group homomorphisms are then automatically also $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphisms, and in this sense, the categories $\mathbf{Ab}$ and $\mathbb{Z}\text{-Mod}$ are completely equivalent.

EXAMPLE 29.2. If R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, then an R -module is the same thing as a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$, and $R\text{-Mod}$ is in this case equivalent to the category $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ of vector spaces.

In this course, we will in practice almost exclusively be interested in the special cases where R is either $\mathbb{Z}$ or a field (most often either $\mathbb{Z}_2$, $\mathbb{Q}$, $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$), and the category of R -modules will thus serve mainly as a single umbrella that encompasses both abelian groups and vector spaces.

One subtlety worth noting is that for any choice of the ring R , an R -module can always also be regarded as an abelian group, just by forgetting its scalar multiplication while keeping the addition operation, but doing this changes the definitions of tensor products $G \otimes H$ and the set of homomorphisms $\text{Hom}(G, H)$. For instance, if $G, H \in \mathbb{R}\text{-Vect}$ are real vector spaces, then they are also abelian groups and thus $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules $G, H \in \mathbb{Z}\text{-Mod}$, but their tensor product in the sense of real vector spaces satisfies the relation

$$rg \otimes h = g \otimes rh \in G \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} H \quad \text{for all} \quad g \in G, h \in H, r \in \mathbb{R},$$

whereas the tensor product $G \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} H$ in the sense of abelian groups only satisfies this when $r \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly, every $\mathbb{R}$ -linear map $G \rightarrow H$ is also a homomorphism of abelian groups, but the converse is quite false.

⁵³As with one-point spaces, there is not a unique trivial R -module, but there is a unique R -module isomorphism between any two of them.

DEFINITION 29.3. A **basis** of an R -module G is a subset $\mathcal{B} \subset G$ such that every element $g \in G$ can be written in the form

$$g = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{B}} g_b b$$

for some coefficients $g_b \in G$ that are uniquely determined by g , at most finitely-many of which are nonzero. An R -module is called **free** if it admits a basis.

A choice of basis $\mathcal{B} \subset G$ for a free R -module is equivalent to a choice of R -module isomorphism

$$\bigoplus_{b \in \mathcal{B}} R \xrightarrow{\cong} G,$$

so for instance, an abelian group (i.e. $\mathbb{Z}$ -module) is free if and only if it is isomorphic to a direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{Z}$. Obviously, not every abelian group G has this property, e.g. it is never true if G is finite. On the other hand, a standard argument in linear algebra (using Zorn's lemma for the infinite-dimensional case) shows that every vector space admits a basis, so when R is a field, all R -modules are free. This basic fact is one of the key advantages of having the freedom to work with vector spaces instead of just abelian groups.

29.2. Exact sequences and splittings. In homological algebra, exact sequences play a role comparable to that of Cauchy sequences in analysis; that is to say, the entire subject would be impossible without them.

By a **sequence** (*Sequenz*) of R -modules, we mean a linearly ordered collection of modules A_n for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, together with R -module homomorphisms $\alpha_n : A_n \rightarrow A_{n+1}$. Depending on the context in which sequences arise, we can allow n to vary over any contiguous subset of the integers, which may be unbounded, or bounded above and/or below, so the sequence itself may have finitely or infinitely many terms, with or without a starting or end point. Let us call A_n an **interior** term of the sequence if the sequence also includes both A_{n-1} and A_{n+1} , thus giving rise to a three-term subsequence

$$A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{n-1}} A_n \xrightarrow{\alpha_n} A_{n+1}.$$

In this situation, we say that the sequence is **exact** (*exakt*) at the term A_n if

$$\operatorname{im} \alpha_{n-1} = \ker \alpha_n.$$

We do not define exactness for non-interior terms, i.e. terms that are at the beginning or end of the sequence. An **exact sequence** (*exakte Sequenz*) of R -modules is a sequence that is exact at all of its interior terms.

EXAMPLE 29.4. A sequence of the form $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if f is an isomorphism.

EXAMPLE 29.5. An exact sequence with five terms that begins and ends with trivial modules

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$$

is called a **short exact sequence** (*kurze exakte Sequenz*). Exactness means in this case that f is injective, g is surjective, and $\operatorname{im} f = \ker g$. A popular class of examples is the sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \hookrightarrow B \xrightarrow{q} B/A \rightarrow 0$$

for any submodule $A \subset B$, where q denotes the quotient projection. Another is

$$(29.1) \quad 0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} A \oplus C \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$$

for any two modules A and C , with the obvious inclusion map $i(a) := (a, 0)$ and projection map $p(a, c) := c$.

DEFINITION 29.6. A short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is said to **split**, and is then called a **split exact sequence**, if there exists an isomorphism $B \cong A \oplus C$ identifying it with the sequence in (29.1).

In the category of abelian groups, there are easy examples of short exact sequences that do not split, e.g. writing $q : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} =: \mathbb{Z}_2$ for the quotient projection,

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{q} \mathbb{Z}_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

is such an example, since $\mathbb{Z}$ is not isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. The next result, whose proof is a straightforward exercise, gives a useful practical criterion for short exact sequences to split, and its corollary implies in particular that they *always* split if R is a field.

THEOREM 29.7. *The following conditions on a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ are equivalent:*

- (i) *The sequence splits;*
- (ii) *The injective homomorphism $f : A \rightarrow B$ admits a left-inverse $B \rightarrow A$;*
- (iii) *The surjective homomorphism $g : B \rightarrow C$ admits a right-inverse $C \rightarrow B$.*

□

COROLLARY 29.8. *If C is a free R -module, then every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ splits.*

PROOF. Use a basis of C to define a right-inverse for the surjective map $B \rightarrow C$. □

Here is another popular application of exactness whose proof is an easy exercise.

THEOREM 29.9. *For an exact sequence of the form*

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n \rightarrow C_n \rightarrow A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} B_{n+1} \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \longrightarrow \dots,$$

the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) *The modules C_n are trivial for every n ;*
- (ii) *The maps $f_n : A_n \rightarrow B_n$ are isomorphisms for every n .*

□

29.3. Relative bordism groups. For a first real-life example of an exact sequence that arises naturally in topology, we can generalize the previous lecture's discussion and define **relative bordism groups**

$$\Omega_n^O(X, A)$$

for every so-called **pair of spaces** (X, A) , meaning a space X together with a choice of subset $A \subset X$. Given two pairs of spaces (X, A) and (Y, B) , a **map of pairs**

$$f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B) \quad \text{or} \quad (X, A) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, B)$$

is a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f(A) \subset B$, thus if we assign subspace topologies to A and B , the restriction $f|_A$ becomes a continuous map $A \rightarrow B$. Let us focus the discussion for now on *unoriented* bordism theory; the oriented case is completely analogous. Elements of $\Omega_n^O(X, A)$ are equivalence classes $[(M, \varphi)]$ in which M is a compact smooth n -manifold that is allowed to have nonempty boundary, and φ is a map of pairs

$$(M, \partial M) \xrightarrow{\varphi} (X, A).$$

Two such pairs (M, φ) and (N, ψ) are equivalent if there is a **relative bordism** between them: this means a pair (W, Φ) consisting of a compact smooth $(n+1)$ -manifold W equipped with a smooth embedding

$$M \amalg N \hookrightarrow \partial W,$$

and a map of pairs

$$(W, \partial W \setminus (M \amalg N)) \xrightarrow{\Phi} (X, A)$$

such that $\Phi|_{M \amalg N} = \varphi \amalg \psi$. Note that while the domain of $\varphi : M \rightarrow X$ in this definition is allowed to have nonempty boundary, it may also be closed, thus the definition still makes sense if $A = \emptyset$, and just reproduces the so-called **absolute** bordism groups defined in the previous lecture,

$$\Omega_n^O(X, \emptyset) = \Omega_n^O(X).$$

The group structure of $\Omega_n^O(X, A)$ is again defined via disjoint unions, and there is a straightforward way of associating to each map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ a group homomorphism

$$\Omega_n^O(X, A) \xrightarrow{f_*} \Omega_n^O(Y, B),$$

so that Ω_n^O becomes a functor

$$\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \xrightarrow{\Omega_n^O} \mathbf{Ab},$$

defined on the category $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ of pairs of spaces, whose morphisms are maps of pairs. We can identify $\mathbf{Top}$ with the subcategory of $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ whose objects are pairs of the form $(X, \emptyset)$, and then interpret $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ as an extension of the previously-defined functor $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$.

For any pair (X, A) and $n \geq 1$, there is also a group homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_n^O(X, A) &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} \Omega_{n-1}^O(A), \\ [(M, \varphi)] &\longmapsto [(\partial M, \varphi|_{\partial M})], \end{aligned}$$

which is well defined because if (W, Φ) is a relative bordism between two representatives (M, φ) and (N, ψ) , then restricting Φ to the compact n -manifold obtained by removing the interiors of M and N from ∂W defines an absolute bordism between $(\partial M, \varphi|_{\partial M})$ and $(\partial N, \psi|_{\partial N})$. One can interpret ∂_* as a natural transformation between two functors $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$, the details of which I will leave to the reader. What I really want to point out about ∂_* is the following:

THEOREM 29.10. *Given a pair of spaces (X, A) , let $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ denote the obvious inclusions. Then the sequence of abelian groups*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \Omega_n^O(A) &\xrightarrow{i_*} \Omega_n^O(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} \Omega_n^O(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \Omega_{n-1}^O(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} \Omega_{n-1}^O(X) \longrightarrow \dots \\ \dots \longrightarrow \Omega_1^O(X, A) &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} \Omega_0^O(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} \Omega_0^O(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} \Omega_0^O(X, A) \longrightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

is exact.

COROLLARY 29.11 (via Theorem 29.9). *For a pair of spaces (X, A) , the map $\Omega_n^O(A) \rightarrow \Omega_n^O(X)$ induced by the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ is an isomorphism for every $n \geq 0$ if and only if $\Omega_n^O(X, A) = 0$ for every $n \geq 0$. $\square$*

We will later see an analogue of Theorem 29.10 in singular homology that plays a major role in that theory, and whose proof requires some elementary but non-obvious ideas from homological algebra. It's worth noting that the proof of Theorem 29.10, by comparison, is somewhat more direct and straightforward; see Exercise 29.2.

29.4. The Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. In the early history of homology, multiple packages of invariants were proposed that were easier to compute than the bordism groups, while seeming to measure similar topological information. The resulting theories differ in the details of their definitions—some of them drastically—but turn out to be naturally isomorphic if one restricts them to a “nice” class of spaces, which in practice includes all of the spaces that one is typically interested in, such as manifolds. Eventually, singular homology settled into a special role as the “standard” homology theory that everyone needs to learn, but in fact, one usually doesn’t need to know its precise definition in order to use it. What’s much more important are the *formal* properties that it satisfies, which are common to all homology theories, and were codified in the middle of the 20th century as a set of axioms due to Eilenberg and Steenrod [ES52], with a bit of extra input from Milnor [Mil62].

DEFINITION 29.12. Fix as usual a commutative ring R with unit. An **axiomatic homology theory** h_* valued in the category of R -modules is a collection $\{h_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of covariant functors

$$\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \xrightarrow{h_n} R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h_n(X, A)$$

defined for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, which also determine functors $h_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ by defining

$$h_n(X) := h_n(X, \emptyset).$$

For a map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the R -module homomorphism induced by the functor h_n is denoted by

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{f_*} h_n(Y, B).$$

The data of a homology theory also includes natural transformations ∂_* from the functor $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h_n(X, A)$ to the functor $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h_{n-1}(A)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and we require the following axioms:

- (HOMOTOPY) For any two homotopic maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the induced morphisms $f_*, g_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(Y, B)$ are identical. (See Remark 29.14 below for the notion of a *homotopy of maps of pairs*.)
- (EXACTNESS) For all pairs (X, A) with inclusion maps $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$, the sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow \dots$$

is exact.

- (EXCISION) For any pair (X, A) and any subset $B \subset A$ such that there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ equal to 0 on B and 1 on $X \setminus A$, the map induced by the inclusion $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ is an isomorphism

$$h_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(X, A) \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

- (DIMENSION) For any one-point space $\{*\}$, $h_n(\{*\}) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$. The group $h_0(\{*\})$ is then called the **coefficient group** of the homology theory.⁵⁴

⁵⁴There is a slightly awkward semantic issue in this definition: strictly speaking, what we are calling “ $\{*\}$ ” is not a unique space, but simply *any* choice of space that happens to contain only one element. It follows that the coefficient group $h_0(\{*\})$ is not a uniquely defined R -module, but is rather an isomorphism class of R -modules. Any two choices of one-point spaces P_0 and P_1 are related by a unique homeomorphism $P_0 \rightarrow P_1$, which induces a canonical isomorphism $h_0(P_0) \rightarrow h_0(P_1)$, and the coefficient group of a homology theory is unique in this sense.

- (ADDITIVITY) For any collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with inclusion maps $i^\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the map determined by the induced homomorphisms

$$i_*^\alpha : h_n(X_\alpha) \rightarrow h_n\left(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta\right)$$

is an isomorphism

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} i_*^\alpha : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} h_n(X_\alpha) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n\left(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta\right).$$

You should be able to convince yourself without much trouble that the bordism functors $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab} = \mathbb{Z}\text{-Mod}$ and their oriented counterparts Ω_n^{SO} each satisfy four out of the five Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms; see in particular Exercises 29.2 and 29.3. They do *not* satisfy the dimension axiom: this follows from Proposition 28.30 in the case of unoriented bordism theory, and there is a similar result for the oriented theory involving complex (instead of real) projective spaces. We call h_* a **generalized homology theory** if it satisfies all of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms except for dimension. In some contexts, the word “generalized” is removed, so that homology theories are typically assumed to satisfy four axioms instead of five, and those which also satisfy the dimension axiom are called **ordinary** homology theories. We will generally assume the dimension axiom in this semester, and will not make use of any theories that don’t satisfy it, but some of the results we prove about homology theories will be equally valid for generalized theories, since they do not depend on the dimension axiom.

A few further comments on the axioms are in order.

REMARK 29.13. The original list in [ES52] included three additional axioms at the beginning of the list, but the first two of these are equivalent to the statement that the h_n are functors, and the third simply requires ∂_* to be a natural transformation.

REMARK 29.14. The following definition is hopefully intuitive: a **homotopy** between two maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ between f and g such that $H(\cdot, t)$ is also a map of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ for every $t \in I$, so in other words, H satisfies the condition

$$H(A \times I) \subset B.$$

We could also have chosen to hide the homotopy axiom by calling the h_n functors

$$\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}} \xrightarrow{h_n} R\text{-Mod}$$

instead of $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, where $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$ denotes the **homotopy category of pairs of spaces**, having the same objects as $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, but with homotopy classes of maps of pairs as morphisms. Note that a homotopy of maps of pairs $(X, \emptyset) \rightarrow (Y, \emptyset)$ is just a homotopy of maps $X \rightarrow Y$, making $\mathbf{hTop}$ naturally a subcategory of $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$.

REMARK 29.15. The additivity axiom did not appear in [ES52], but was added later by Milnor [Mil62]. One can show in fact that for *finite* disjoint unions, additivity follows as a consequence of the other axioms (see Exercise 29.4), thus Eilenberg and Steenrod did not need it, because they were mainly concerned with computations for compact polyhedra—compactness precludes infinite disjoint unions.

REMARK 29.16. One often sees the excision axiom stated under a weaker hypothesis on the sets $B \subset A \subset X$, namely that the closure of B is contained in the interior of A . You might find it a challenge to think up an example in which that hypothesis is satisfied but the one we stated is not, and I don’t encourage you to try, because within the class of spaces that are typically considered

interesting to study, the two are fully equivalent; moreover, in all interesting situations I'm aware of, it is as easy to verify the stronger hypothesis as the weaker one. Singular homology does satisfy excision under the weaker hypothesis, but the existence of a function $u : X \rightarrow I$ separating B from $X \setminus A$ is a more natural condition from other points of view, especially in homotopy-theoretic reformulations of homology. The hypotheses originally stated in [ES52] also required B to be open, which is another detail that makes no meaningful difference for the class of spaces typically of interest.

REMARK 29.17. The reason the dimension axiom has the name that it does is that if it were not included in the list of axioms, then for every homology theory h_* , one could use arbitrary degree shifts to define new homology theories such as k_* with $k_n(X, A) := h_{n+1}(X, A)$. The dimension axiom prevents this, in the hope that the value of the subscript n in $h_n(X, A)$ will then have some geometric meaning. The reason for calling $h_0(\{*\})$ a “coefficient group” will become clearer when we write down concrete examples of homology theories.

REMARK 29.18. It is sometimes useful to expand the definition and allow an axiomatic homology theory to be a functor $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ defined on a suitable subcategory $\mathcal{C}$ of $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, so that we need not define $h_*(X, A)$ for *all* pairs (X, A) , but only a subclass. One useful example is the category of **compact pairs**, which are simply pairs of spaces (X, A) such that X is compact Hausdorff and $A \subset X$ is closed. Others include the categories of *polyhedra* and *CW-complexes*, which we'll have more to say about in future lectures. When allowing restrictions of this type, one must take care so that all of the maps needed for expressing the axioms—e.g. the inclusions $A \hookrightarrow X$ and $(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ —are actually morphisms in the category $\mathcal{C}$. In [ES52], this concern motivates the notion of an *admissible* category of pairs, though we have no need to reproduce that definition here.

29.5. Reduced homology. Assume h_* is a collection of functors as in Definition 29.12 satisfying at least the homotopy and exactness axioms. For technical reasons that will become clearer in the next section, it is sometimes useful to replace the groups $h_n(X)$ with certain subgroups $\tilde{h}_n(X) \subset h_n(X)$ called **reduced homology** groups. To define them, we denote by

$$X \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \{*\}$$

the unique map from any given space X to a one-point space. We then use the induced homomorphisms $\epsilon_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(\{*\})$ to define

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) := \ker \left(h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(\{*\}) \right) \subset h_n(X).$$

Observe that if h_* satisfies the dimension axiom, then $\tilde{h}_n(X) = h_n(X)$ for all $n \neq 0$. If $n = 0$ or the dimension axiom is not satisfied, then we can typically expect $\tilde{h}_n(X)$ and $h_n(X)$ to be different, and the best way to relate them to each other is through a split exact sequence. Indeed, observe that the map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ is not only trivially surjective, but also admits a right-inverse, defined by choosing any embedding

$$\{*\} \xrightarrow{i} X.$$

It then follows from functoriality that the homomorphism $\epsilon_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(\{*\})$ likewise is surjective and admits a right-inverse, thus by Theorem 29.7,

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{h}_n(X) \hookrightarrow h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(\{*\}) \rightarrow 0$$

is a split exact sequence, implying the existence of an isomorphism

$$h_n(X) \cong \tilde{h}_n(X) \oplus h_n(\{*\}).$$

If h_* satisfies the dimension axiom and has coefficient group $G = h_0(\{*\})$, this becomes

$$h_n(X) \cong \begin{cases} \tilde{h}_n(X) & \text{if } n \neq 0, \\ \tilde{h}_n(X) \oplus G & \text{if } n = 0. \end{cases}$$

One should keep in mind however that this isomorphism is not generally canonical: it depends on the choice of inclusion $i : \{*\} \hookrightarrow X$, which determines the splitting of the exact sequence relating $\tilde{h}_n(X)$ and $h_n(X)$.

Let us clarify why $\tilde{h}_n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is naturally also a functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.

PROPOSITION 29.19. *The homomorphisms $f_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(Y)$ induced by any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ send $\tilde{h}_n(X)$ into $\tilde{h}_n(Y)$.*

PROOF. Denote $\epsilon^X : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ and $\epsilon^Y : Y \rightarrow \{*\}$ for the unique maps, and notice that $\epsilon^Y \circ f = \text{Id} \circ \epsilon^X$, thus the following diagram commutes.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_n(X) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & h_n(Y) \\ \downarrow \epsilon_*^X & & \downarrow \epsilon_*^Y \\ h_n(\{*\}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} & h_n(\{*\}) \end{array}$$

This implies that $f_*(\ker \epsilon_*^X) \subset \ker \epsilon_*^Y$. □

The next result reveals the main advantage of using $\tilde{h}_*$ in place of h_* for certain applications.

PROPOSITION 29.20. *If X is a contractible space, then $\tilde{h}_n(X) = 0$ for every n .*

PROOF. Contractibility implies that the map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ is a homotopy equivalence, thus by the homotopy axiom, $\epsilon_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(\{*\})$ is an isomorphism, and its kernel $\tilde{h}_n(X)$ is therefore trivial. □

REMARK 29.21. If h_* also satisfies the dimension axiom, then we also have $h_n(X) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$ whenever X is contractible, but $h_0(X)$ is typically nontrivial, as it is isomorphic to the coefficient group. As a consequence, some of the standard applications of reduced homology can also be carried out with unreduced homology, but only if the degree 0 groups are excluded from consideration.

The relative version of reduced homology is defined in a trivial way: we set

$$\tilde{h}_n(X, A) := h_n(X, A) \quad \text{whenever} \quad A \neq \emptyset.$$

This seemingly naive definition is justified by the following considerations. Note first that the functors $\tilde{h}_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ now extend to pairs as functors $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$; here there is nothing to check since the existence of a map of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ with $A \neq \emptyset$ implies $B \neq \emptyset$, so that both reduced relative homology groups match the unreduced case. Next, observe that for any space X , the relative homology groups $h_n(X, X)$ all vanish; this follows from the exactness axiom and Theorem 29.9, as we have an exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} h_n(X) \longrightarrow h_n(X, X) \xrightarrow{\hat{\epsilon}_*} h_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} h_{n-1}(X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

It follows that $\tilde{h}_n(X, A)$ for $A \neq \emptyset$ is in fact the kernel of the map

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(\{*\}, \{*\}) = 0$$

induced by the unique map of pairs $\epsilon : (X, A) \rightarrow (\{*\}, \{*\})$. Moreover, the naturality of the connecting homomorphisms ∂_* gives a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_{n+1}(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_n(A) \\ \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* \\ h_{n+1}(\{*\}, \{*\}) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_n(\{*\}) \end{array}$$

Since the term $h_{n+1}(\{*\}, \{*\})$ is trivial, this diagram proves that the image of $\partial_* : h_{n+1}(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(A)$ is always in the subgroup $\tilde{h}_n(A)$. We can therefore write down a well-defined sequence of homomorphisms

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} \tilde{h}_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} \tilde{h}_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow \dots$$

using the usual inclusions $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$. It is not immediately obvious whether this sequence is exact, but consider the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & \tilde{h}_n(A) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & \tilde{h}_n(X) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & \tilde{h}_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \parallel & & \downarrow & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & h_n(X) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(A) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(\{*\}) & = & h_n(\{*\}) & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & h_{n-1}(\{*\}) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & \end{array}$$

Here the bottom two nontrivial rows are exact due to the exactness axiom, and all columns in the diagram are short exact sequences by construction. The rest is algebra:

PROPOSITION 29.22. *Assume the following diagram of R -modules commutes, all its columns are exact sequences, and the bottom two nontrivial rows are also exact sequences:*

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \dots & A_{n+2} & & A_{n+1} & & A_n & & A_{n-1} & & A_{n-2} & \dots \\ & \downarrow \iota_{n+2} & & \downarrow \iota_{n+1} & & \downarrow \iota_n & & \downarrow \iota_{n-1} & & \downarrow \iota_{n-2} & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+2} & \xrightarrow{g_{n+2}} & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{g_{n+1}} & B_n & \xrightarrow{g_n} & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} & B_{n-2} & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow \epsilon_{n+2} & & \downarrow \epsilon_{n+1} & & \downarrow \epsilon_n & & \downarrow \epsilon_{n-1} & & \downarrow \epsilon_{n-2} & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+2} & \xrightarrow{h_{n+2}} & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{h_{n+1}} & C_n & \xrightarrow{h_n} & C_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{h_{n-1}} & C_{n-2} & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & \end{array}$$

Then the top nontrivial row can be endowed uniquely with maps $f_n : A_n \rightarrow A_{n-1}$ such that the diagram still commutes, and these make that row into an exact sequence.

PROOF. The method behind this proof is commonly known as *diagram chasing*, and we will later see several other examples of it. The basic idea is straightforward: at every step, we examine a particular term in the diagram, consider what is already known about the maps going into and out of that term, and then deduce whatever we can from given conditions such as exactness. In typical situations, whatever can be deduced tells you which term to examine in the next step.

If $f_n : A_n \rightarrow A_{n-1}$ can be defined so that the diagram commutes, then for $a \in A_n$ we need $f_n(a) \in \iota_{n-1}^{-1}(g_n \iota_n(a))$, and this condition will fully determine $f_n(a) \in A_{n-1}$ since ι_{n-1} is injective due to the exactness of columns. To see that the condition can be achieved, notice

$$\epsilon_{n-1} g_n \iota_n = h_n \epsilon_n \iota_n = 0,$$

thus $g_n \iota_n(a) \in \ker \epsilon_{n-1} = \operatorname{im} \iota_{n-1}$. This gives an element $x \in A_{n-1}$ such that $\iota_{n-1}(x) = g_n \iota_n(a)$, so we can set $f_n(a) = x$.

The goal is now to show that $\dots A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots$ is an exact sequence. For each n , commutativity of the diagram gives

$$\iota_{n-2} f_{n-1} f_n = g_{n-1} g_n \iota_n = 0$$

since the middle row is exact, and the exactness of the columns implies in turn that ι_{n-2} is injective, thus $f_{n-1} f_n = 0$. To finish, we need to prove that every $a \in A_n$ satisfying $f_n(a) = 0$ also satisfies $a = f_{n+1}(x)$ for some $x \in A_{n+1}$. Using commutativity, we have

$$0 = \iota_{n-1} f_n(a) = g_n \iota_n(a),$$

thus the exactness of the middle row gives an element $b \in B_{n+1}$ such that $g_{n+1}(b) = \iota_n(a)$. If we knew $\epsilon_{n+1}(b) = 0$, then we could at this point appeal to the exactness of the columns and write $b = \iota_{n+1}(x)$ for some $x \in A_{n+1}$, which would then satisfy $\iota_n f_{n+1}(x) = g_{n+1} \iota_{n+1}(x) = g_{n+1}(b) = \iota_n(a)$ and therefore $f_{n+1}(x) = a$ since ι_n is injective. But $\epsilon_{n+1}(b)$ might not be 0, so to finish the proof, we claim instead that b can be replaced by another element $b' \in B_{n+1}$ that satisfies both $g_{n+1}(b') = \iota_n(a)$ and $\epsilon_{n+1}(b') = 0$.

To find b' , observe that by commutativity and the exactness of the columns,

$$h_{n+1} \epsilon_{n+1}(b) = \epsilon_n g_{n+1}(b) = \epsilon_n \iota_n(a) = 0,$$

thus by the exactness of the bottom row, $\epsilon_{n+1}(b) = h_{n+2}(c)$ for some $c \in C_{n+2}$. Appealing again to the exactness of the columns, ϵ_{n+2} is surjective, so we have $c = \epsilon_{n+2}(y)$ for some $y \in B_{n+2}$. Set

$$b' := b - g_{n+2}(y).$$

This satisfies $g_{n+1}(b') = g_{n+1}(b) - g_{n+1} g_{n+2}(y) = g_{n+1}(b) = \iota_n(a)$, and using commutativity again,

$$\epsilon_{n+1}(b') = \epsilon_{n+1}(b) - \epsilon_{n+1} g_{n+2}(y) = \epsilon_{n+1}(b) - h_{n+2} \epsilon_{n+2}(y) = \epsilon_{n+1}(b) - h_{n+2}(c) = 0.$$

□

We have proved:

THEOREM 29.23. *For any pair of spaces (X, A) and any homology theory h_* , there is an exact sequence of reduced homology groups*

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} \tilde{h}_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} \tilde{h}_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

where $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ are the obvious inclusions and $\partial_* : \tilde{h}_n(X, A) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A)$ is the same map as the usual connecting homomorphism $h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A)$. □

29.6. Suspension isomorphisms. The following general construction leads easily to a complete computation of $h_*(S^n)$ for any axiomatic homology theory. We assume in this section that h_* is a generalized homology theory, so it satisfies all the conditions in Definition 29.12 except possibly the dimension axiom.⁵⁵

Recall that for an arbitrary space X , the **suspension** (*Einhängung*) of X is a space ΣX formed by gluing together two cones $C_+X := CX := (X \times [0, 1]) / (X \times \{1\})$ and $C_-X := (X \times [-1, 0]) / (X \times \{-1\})$ along $X = X \times \{0\} \subset C_\pm X$, in short,

$$\Sigma X := C_+X \cup_X C_-X.$$

THEOREM 29.24. *For every space X , integer $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and generalized homology theory h_* , the diagram (29.2) below gives rise to a natural isomorphism*

$$\Sigma_* := \varphi_*^{-1} \circ j_* \circ i_* \circ \partial_*^{-1} : \tilde{h}_k(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X).$$

PROOF. Let

$$p_+ \in C_+X \subset \Sigma X \quad \text{and} \quad p_- \in C_-X \subset \Sigma X$$

denote the summits of the two cones that are glued together to form the suspension, e.g. if we write $C_+X = (X \times [0, 1]) / (X \times \{1\})$, then $p_+ \in C_+X$ is the point that results from collapsing $X \times \{1\}$. We then consider the diagram

$$(29.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{h}_k(X) & & \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X) \\ \partial_* \uparrow & & \downarrow \varphi_* \\ \tilde{h}_{k+1}(C_+X, X) & \xrightarrow{i_*} \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) & \xrightarrow{j_*} \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X, C_-X) \end{array}$$

in which three of the maps are determined by the obvious inclusions of pairs,

$$\begin{aligned} (C_+X, X) &\xrightarrow{i} (\Sigma X \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}), \\ (\Sigma X \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\}) &\xrightarrow{j} (\Sigma X, C_-X), \\ (\Sigma X, \emptyset) &\xrightarrow{\varphi} (\Sigma X, C_-X). \end{aligned}$$

The first of these is a homotopy equivalence, as there exists a deformation retraction of the pair $(\Sigma X \setminus \{p_-\}, C_-X \setminus \{p_-\})$ to (C_+X, X) , thus i_* is an isomorphism by the homotopy axiom. Since one can easily define a function $u : \Sigma X \rightarrow I$ that vanishes at p_- and equals 1 on C_+X , the excision axiom implies that j_* is also an isomorphism. For the other two maps, we consider the exact sequences provided by Theorem 29.23 for the pairs $(\Sigma X, C_-X)$ and (C_+X, X) , that is

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(C_-X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X, C_-X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_k(C_-X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

and

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(C_+X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(C_+X, X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_k(X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_k(C_+X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

The contractibility of $C_\pm X$ implies via Proposition 29.20 that

$$\tilde{h}_k(C_\pm X) \cong \tilde{h}_k(\{*\}) = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{h}_{k+1}(C_\pm X) \cong \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\{*\}) = 0,$$

thus the exactness of these two sequences implies that φ_* and ∂_* are both isomorphisms.

The *naturality* of the map $\Sigma_* : \tilde{h}_k(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{k+1}(\Sigma X)$ has a precise meaning, because the suspension operation can be understood as a functor $\Sigma : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$, and the statement is then that Σ_* defines a natural transformation between two functors $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, namely $\tilde{h}_k$ and

⁵⁵In fact, the additivity axiom is also not strictly necessary for this discussion, since by Exercise 29.4, it follows from the other axioms in the case of finite disjoint unions.

$\tilde{h}_{k+1} \circ \Sigma$. This follows in a straightforward way using the naturality of the homomorphisms ∂_* ; the details are an exercise. $\square$

29.7. Homology groups of spheres. Recall that the suspension of a sphere is also a sphere, but one dimension higher:

$$\Sigma(S^n) \cong S^{n+1}.$$

This fact and Theorem 29.24 make possible an inductive computation of $h_*(S^n)$ for every axiomatic homology theory and every $n \geq 0$, using the fact that S^0 is the disjoint union of two one-point spaces. Here is the statement; the proof is Exercise 29.6.

THEOREM 29.25. *Assume h_* is an axiomatic homology theory with coefficient group $h_0(\{*\}) = G$. Then for each pair of integers $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \geq 1$,*

$$h_k(S^n) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0 \text{ or } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$\square$

29.8. Exercises.

EXERCISE 29.1 (*). Prove Theorem 29.7 on split exact sequences, and Theorem 29.9 on long exact sequences with every third term vanishing.

EXERCISE 29.2. Prove that the sequence of relative and absolute bordism groups in Theorem 29.10 is exact. Here are a couple of hints:

- For exactness at $\Omega_n^O(X)$: $j_*[(M, \varphi)] = 0$ means $\varphi : M \rightarrow X$ can be extended over a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W with $M \subset \partial W$ such that the extension maps $\partial W \setminus M$ into A . In this situation, M is a *closed* manifold—what does that imply about $\partial W \setminus M$?
- For exactness at $\Omega_n^O(X, A)$: $\partial_*[(M, \varphi)] = 0$ means that $\varphi|_{\partial M} : \partial M \rightarrow A$ extends to a map $V \rightarrow A$ on some compact n -manifold V whose boundary is identified with ∂M . Build a closed n -manifold out of V and M .

EXERCISE 29.3. Prove that the bordism theories Ω_*^O and Ω_*^{SO} satisfy the homotopy, excision, and additivity axioms.

Hint for excision: Suppose $u : X \rightarrow I$ is a function as specified in the excision axiom, and $\varphi : (M, \partial M) \rightarrow (X, A)$ is a map of pairs so that (M, φ) represents a bordism class. By standard results about smooth manifolds, the function $u \circ \varphi : M \rightarrow I$ can be perturbed to a function $v : M \rightarrow I$ such that for some $r \in (0, 1)$, both $v^{-1}(r) \subset M$ and $(v|_{\partial M})^{-1}(r) \subset \partial M$ are smooth submanifolds.

EXERCISE 29.4. Assume h_* is a collection of functors $h_n : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying the exactness and excision axioms of Eilenberg-Steenrod. Given two spaces X, Y and the natural inclusions $i^X : X \hookrightarrow X \amalg Y$ and $i^Y : Y \hookrightarrow X \amalg Y$, show that the map

$$i_*^X \oplus i_*^Y : h_n(X) \oplus h_n(Y) \rightarrow h_n(X \amalg Y) : (x, y) \mapsto i_*^X x + i_*^Y y$$

is an isomorphism, and deduce that h_* also satisfies the additivity axiom for all *finite* disjoint unions.

Hint: Apply exactness and excision to the pairs $(X \amalg Y, X)$ and $(X \amalg Y, Y)$.

EXERCISE 29.5 (*). Assume h_* is an axiomatic homology theory with coefficient group $h_0(\{*\}) = G$. For any two spaces X and Y with maps $\epsilon^X : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ and $\epsilon^Y : Y \rightarrow \{*\}$, show that the natural isomorphism $h_n(X \amalg Y) \cong h_n(X) \oplus h_n(Y)$ identifies $\tilde{h}_n(X \amalg Y)$ with $\ker(\epsilon_*^X \oplus \epsilon_*^Y) \subset$

$h_n(X; G) \oplus h_n(Y; G)$. Then apply this in the case $X = Y = \{*\}$ to identify $\tilde{h}_0(\{*\} \amalg \{*\})$ with the kernel of the map

$$\mathbb{1} \oplus \mathbb{1} : G \oplus G \rightarrow G : (g, h) \mapsto g + h,$$

which is isomorphic to G .

EXERCISE 29.6 (*). Given an axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G , use Theorem 29.24, Exercise 29.5 and an inductive argument to derive a general formula for $\tilde{h}_k(S^n)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \geq 0$, and then deduce from it Theorem 29.25.

EXERCISE 29.7. One of the most popular simple applications of homology is the Brouwer fixed point theorem, which states that for the closed disk $\mathbb{D}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ of any dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, every continuous map $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has a fixed point.

- (a) Deduce the Brouwer fixed point theorem from the following statement: For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ does not admit any retraction to its boundary $\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$.
Hint: If $f : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ has no fixed points, then there is a unique line through x and $f(x)$ for every $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$.
- (b) Assuming the existence of an axiomatic homology theory h_* with a nontrivial coefficient group, deduce from the computation of $h_*(S^{n-1})$ that retractions $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow S^{n-1}$ cannot exist.

EXERCISE 29.8 (*). The subject of this exercise is a standard tool in homological algebra known as the **five-lemma**.

- (a) Suppose the following diagram commutes and that both of its rows are exact, meaning $\text{im } f = \ker g$, $\text{im } g' = \ker h'$ and so forth:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C & \xrightarrow{h} & D & \xrightarrow{i} & E \\ \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma & & \downarrow \delta & & \downarrow \varepsilon \\ A' & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' & \xrightarrow{g'} & C' & \xrightarrow{h'} & D' & \xrightarrow{i'} & E' \end{array}$$

Prove that if α , β , δ and ε are all isomorphisms, then so is γ .

- (b) Here is an application: given a homology theory h_* and a map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, show that if any two of the induced maps $f_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(Y)$, $f_* : h_n(A) \rightarrow h_n(B)$ and $f_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(Y, B)$ are isomorphisms for every n , then so is the third.
- (c) Prove that every homology theory h_* also satisfies a relative version of the additivity axiom, involving disjoint unions of pairs of spaces

$$\coprod_{\beta \in J} (X_\beta, A_\beta) := \left(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta, \coprod_{\beta \in J} A_\beta \right).$$

30. Simplicial homology

As mental preparation for the definition of singular homology, it will be helpful to start with a different theory that is similar but more restrictive. Simplicial homology requires strictly more data for its definition than just a topological space, and thus can only be defined on spaces that are “nice” enough to admit such data. What it lacks in generality, it makes up for in computability and geometric transparency. One can think of simplicial homology as a combinatorial variant of bordism theory, one that is based on simpler building blocks than manifolds, and can thus be studied without any understanding of the (generally difficult) problem of classifying manifolds.

30.1. Simplicial complexes and polyhedra. The spaces on which simplicial homology is defined are called polyhedra, and they are much more restrictive than arbitrary topological spaces, but nonetheless include most of the typical examples of interest, e.g. all smooth manifolds. Intuitively, a polyhedron is a space that can be constructed by gluing together “triangles” of various dimensions, and the resulting decomposition of a polyhedron into “triangular” pieces is therefore known as a *triangulation*. The first necessary step is to define the n -dimensional generalization of a triangle.

DEFINITION 30.1. For an integer $n \geq 0$, the **standard n -simplex** is the topological space

$$\Delta^n := \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid t_0 + \dots + t_n = 1\},$$

endowed with the subspace topology as a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. The $n+1$ standard basis vectors of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ are called the **vertices** (*Eckpunkte*) of Δ^n , and for arbitrary subsets $J \subset \{0, \dots, n\}$, the sets of the form

$$\{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in \Delta^n \mid t_j = 0 \text{ for all } j \in J\}$$

are called the **faces** (*Seiten* or *Facetten*) of Δ^n ; these include in particular the $n+1$ **boundary faces** (*Seitenflächen*)

$$\partial_{(j)} \Delta^n := \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in \Delta^n \mid t_j = 0\}, \quad j = 0, \dots, n.$$

This definition makes Δ^0 the one-point space $\{1\} \subset \mathbb{R}$, while Δ^1 is a compact line segment in $\mathbb{R}^2$ homeomorphic to the interval I , Δ^2 is the compact region in a plane bounded by a triangle, Δ^3 is the compact region in a 3-dimensional vector space bounded by a tetrahedron, and so forth. Observe that every face of Δ^n is homeomorphic to Δ^k for some $k \leq n$, and since the coordinates of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ come with a canonical ordering, there is even a canonical choice of homeomorphism. For instance, the boundary faces $\partial_{(j)} \Delta^n$ are all homeomorphic to Δ^{n-1} , and the canonical homeomorphisms take the form

$$(30.1) \quad \Delta^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\cong} \partial_{(j)} \Delta^n : (t_0, \dots, t_{n-1}) \mapsto (t_0, \dots, t_{j-1}, 0, t_j, \dots, t_{n-1}).$$

We will make frequent use of these canonical homeomorphisms to identify each face of a standard simplex with another standard simplex.

In order to explain how copies of Δ^n for various $n \geq 0$ can be glued together to form a polyhedron, we need to define simplicial complexes, which are fundamentally combinatorial objects.

DEFINITION 30.2. A **simplicial complex** (*Simplizialkomplex*) $K = (V, S)$ consists of two sets V and S , called the sets of **vertices** (*Eckpunkte*) and **simplices** (*Simplizes*) respectively, where the elements of S are finite subsets of V , and $\sigma \in S$ is called an **n -simplex** of K if it has $n+1$ elements. We require the following conditions:

- (1) Every vertex $v \in V$ gives rise to a 0-simplex in K , i.e. $\{v\} \in S$;
- (2) If $\sigma \in S$ then every subset $\sigma' \subset \sigma$ is also an element of S .

For any n -simplex $\sigma \in S$, its subsets are called its **faces** (*Seiten* or *Facetten*), and in particular the subsets that are $(n-1)$ -simplices are called **boundary faces** (*Seitenflächen*) of σ . The second condition above thus says that for every simplex in the complex, all of its faces also belong to the complex. With this condition in place, the first condition is then equivalent to the requirement that every vertex in the set V belongs to at least one simplex.

The complex $K = (V, S)$ is said to be **finite** if V (and therefore also S) is finite, and its **dimension** is

$$\dim K := \sup_{\sigma \in S} \dim \sigma \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\},$$

where we write $\dim \sigma = n$ whenever σ is an n -simplex.

DEFINITION 30.3. A **subcomplex** $K' \subset K$ of a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ is a simplicial complex $K' = (V', S')$ such that $V' \subset V$ and $S' \subset S$.

The **polyhedron** (*Polyeder*) of a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ is a topological space $|K|$ defined as follows. For any set X , we denote

$$X^V := \{\text{functions } V \rightarrow X : v \mapsto t_v\},$$

and think of the values $t_v \in X$ associated to each $v \in V$ as the *coordinates* of an element $t \in X^V$. In particular, $\mathbb{R}^V$ is naturally a real vector space, with a canonical basis that is in bijective correspondence with V . Writing $I = [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ for the unit interval, $I^V \subset \mathbb{R}^V$ is then a convex subset of that vector space. Whenever V is a finite set, we shall assume that $\mathbb{R}^V$ is endowed with its natural topology as a finite-dimensional vector space, and $I^V \subset \mathbb{R}^V$ inherits from this the subspace topology. With this understood, we associate to each n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ in K the set

$$|\sigma| := \left\{ t \in I^V \mid \sum_{v \in \sigma} t_v = 1 \text{ and } t_v = 0 \text{ for all } v \notin \sigma \right\},$$

which is a copy of the standard n -simplex living in the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \cong \mathbb{R}^\sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^V$, and we therefore assign it the topology that it inherits naturally from this finite-dimensional vector space. As a set, the polyhedron $|K|$ is then defined by

$$|K| := \bigcup_{\sigma \in S} |\sigma| \subset I^V.$$

If K is finite, then $|K|$ lives inside the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{R}^V$, and therefore has an obvious topology, for which the topology we already defined on each of the subsets $|\sigma| \subset |K|$ matches the subspace topology. A bit more thought is required at this step if K is infinite. One possible choice would be to endow I^V with the product topology (via its obvious identification with $\prod_{v \in V} I$) and then take the subspace topology on $|K| \subset I^V$, but the product topology turns out not to be the most useful choice here. We will instead let the topology of $|K|$ be determined by that of the individual simplices:

DEFINITION 30.4. Given a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$, the topology of its polyhedron $|K| \subset I^V$ is defined such that a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset |K|$ is open if and only if $\mathcal{U} \cap |\sigma|$ is an open subset of $|\sigma|$ for every simplex $\sigma \in S$.

In other words, $|K|$ is equipped with the strongest⁵⁶ topology for which the inclusions $|\sigma| \hookrightarrow |K|$ are continuous for all σ . You should take a moment to convince yourself that this matches what was already said for the case where K is finite, and you should then prove the following proposition as an exercise:

PROPOSITION 30.5. *For any simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ and any space X , a map $f : |K| \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if $f|_{|\sigma|} : |\sigma| \rightarrow X$ is continuous for every simplex $\sigma \in S$.* $\square$

DEFINITION 30.6. A topological space X is a **polyhedron** (*Polyeder*) if it is homeomorphic to the polyhedron $|K|$ of some simplicial complex K . A choice of such a homeomorphism $X \cong |K|$ is called a **triangulation** (*Triangulierung*) or **simplicial decomposition** of the space X .

⁵⁶For some unfathomable reason, the topology on $|K|$ has traditionally been referred to in the literature as the “weak” topology, and the same strange choice of nomenclature plagues the theory of CW-complexes, which we will begin discussing in Lecture 39. It is a question of perspective: since $|K|$ has a lot of open sets, it is fairly difficult for sequences in $|K|$ to converge, or for maps into $|K|$ to be continuous, but on the flip side, it is relatively easy for functions defined on $|K|$ to be continuous (see Exercise 30.1).

REMARK 30.7. The definition of the term *triangulation* given above is perhaps stricter than some other sensible definitions of this term that one could imagine. What everyone can agree upon is that a triangulation of X should decompose X as a union of compact subsets, each of which is homeomorphic to a standard simplex, such that the intersection of any two of them is a common face of both; this includes the case where one of them is a face of the other, but also cases in which their interiors are disjoint. Definition 30.6 does decompose X in this way, but having a specific choice of homeomorphism $X \cong |K|$ is actually a lot more information, and it is debatable whether this amount of information is truly necessary for most of the important applications of triangulations. It will be useful for our purposes, however, when we want to write down precise relations between the simplicial and singular homologies of a triangulated space.

DEFINITION 30.8. For each integer $n \geq 0$, the **n -skeleton** (*n -Skelett* or *n -Gerüst*) of a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ is the subcomplex $K^n = (V, S^n)$ of K whose set of simplices $S^n \subset S$ consists of all $\sigma \in S$ with $\dim \sigma \leq n$. Similarly, the **n -skeleton** of a polyhedron X with triangulation $X \cong |K|$ is the subspace $X^n \subset X$ formed by the polyhedron of the n -skeleton K^n of K .

This definition presents a polyhedron X as the union of a nested sequence of subspaces, its skeleta of various dimensions,

$$X^0 \subset X^1 \subset X^2 \subset \dots \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} X^n = X,$$

each of which is also a polyhedron. In particular, a polyhedron is n -dimensional (i.e. corresponds to an n -dimensional simplicial complex) if and only if it is equal to its n -skeleton. The 0-skeleton of any polyhedron is just the union of all its vertices—one can show that this is always a discrete set.

While $|K|$ was defined above as a subset of a vector space whose dimension may in general be quite large (or infinite), visualizing $|K|$ in concrete examples is often easier than one might expect.

EXAMPLE 30.9. Suppose $V = \{v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ and S contains the subsets $A := \{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$ and $B := \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, plus all of their respective subsets. Then $|K|$ contains two copies of the triangle Δ^2 , and they intersect each other along a single common edge connecting the vertices labeled v_1 and v_2 . The complex is 2-dimensional, and its 1-skeleton is the union of all the edges of the triangles.

EXAMPLE 30.10. If V has $n+1$ elements and S consists of all subsets of V except for V itself, then $|K|$ is homeomorphic to $\partial\Delta^n$, i.e. the union of all the boundary faces of Δ^n . In particular, this is homeomorphic to S^{n-1} .

EXAMPLE 30.11. Suppose $V = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ for some $n \geq 2$ and S is defined to consist of all the one-element subsets $\{v_i\}$ plus the 1-simplices $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$ and $\{v_n, v_0\}$. Then $|K|$ is a 1-dimensional polyhedron homeomorphic to S^1 .

EXAMPLE 30.12. Taking $V = \mathbb{Z}$ with S as the set of all 0-simplices $\{n\}$ plus 1-simplices of the form $\{n, n+1\}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ gives an infinite (but 1-dimensional) simplicial complex whose polyhedron is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$.

EXAMPLE 30.13. If $V = \mathbb{N}$ and S is the set of all finite subsets of $\mathbb{N}$, then K is an infinite-dimensional simplicial complex. Every simplex in this complex is a face of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ for n sufficiently large, thus you can try to picture $|K|$ as the union of an infinite nested sequence of simplices $\Delta^0 \subset \Delta^1 \subset \Delta^2 \subset \dots$, where each Δ^k is a boundary face of Δ^{k+1} .

DEFINITION 30.14. Given two simplicial complexes $K_1 = (V_1, S_1)$ and $K_2 = (V_2, S_2)$, a **simplicial map** (*simpliciale Abbildung*)

$$\phi : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$$

from K_1 to K_2 is a function $\phi : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ such that $\phi(\sigma) \in S_2$ for every $\sigma \in S_1$.

Note that a simplicial map $K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ need not be injective on any given simplex, i.e. it can send an n -simplex of K_1 onto a k -simplex of K_2 for any $k \leq n$.

DEFINITION 30.15. Let **Simp** denote the category whose objects are simplicial complexes, with simplicial maps as morphisms. An isomorphism of **Simp** is called a **simplicial isomorphism**.

There is a natural way to turn any simplicial map into a continuous map of the polyhedra $|K_1| \rightarrow |K_2|$, known as its **topological realization**. Indeed, denote by $\{e_v\}_{v \in V}$ the natural basis vectors of $\mathbb{R}^V$, so that every element $t \in \mathbb{R}^V$ can be written uniquely as a formal⁵⁷ sum $\sum_{v \in V} t_v e_v$ with coordinates $t_v \in \mathbb{R}$. Then since every element $t \in |K_1|$ is of the form $\sum_{v \in V_1} t_v e_v$, where only finitely many of the coordinates are nonzero and they all add up to 1, we can define

$$|K_1| \xrightarrow{|\phi|} |K_2| : \sum_{v \in V_1} t_v e_v \mapsto \sum_{v \in V_1} t_v e_{\phi(v)} \in I^{V_2}.$$

In other words, for each simplex $\sigma \in S_1$, $|\phi|$ maps $|\sigma|$ onto $|\phi(\sigma)|$ via the restriction of the obvious linear map $\mathbb{R}^\sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\phi(\sigma)}$ that sends basis vectors e_v to $e_{\phi(v)}$ for $v \in \sigma$. We have thus defined a functor

$$\text{Simp} \rightarrow \text{Top} : K \mapsto |K|.$$

Notice that $|\phi| : |K_1| \rightarrow |K_2|$ maps the n -skeleton of $|K_1|$ into the n -skeleton of $|K_2|$ for every $n \geq 0$. Moreover, whenever $\phi : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ is a simplicial isomorphism, it follows that $|\phi| : |K_1| \rightarrow |K_2|$ is a homeomorphism.

REMARK 30.16. We will sometimes abuse terminology by calling a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between two polyhedra **simplicial** if there exist simplicial complexes K and L , a simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$, and homeomorphisms $|K| \cong X$ and $|L| \cong Y$ that identify f with $|\phi|$.

Since we will often be concerned mainly with compact manifolds, the following result enables us to restrict attention to finite simplicial complexes:

PROPOSITION 30.17. *A simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ is finite if and only if its polyhedron $|K|$ is compact.*

This will follow from a more general theorem about CW-complexes that we shall prove in a few weeks, so for now, we'll settle for proving a special case, which happens to cover most of the interesting examples, and is quite easy:

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 30.17 FOR FINITE-DIMENSIONAL COMPLEXES. If K is finite, then $|K|$ is a closed and bounded subset of the finite-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{R}^V$, and is therefore compact.

Conversely, if K is infinite but $\dim K < \infty$, there exists an infinite sequence of distinct simplices $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots \in S$ with the property that each σ_i is not a face of any other simplex in K . Now for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, pick a point $x_i \in |\sigma_i|$ along with an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U}_i \subset |\sigma_i|$ of x_i that is contained in the interior of $|\sigma_i|$. Since σ_i is not a face of any other simplex, we have $\mathcal{U}_i \cap |\sigma| = \emptyset$ for all simplices $\sigma \neq \sigma_i$, thus $\mathcal{U}_i$ defines an open subset of $|K|$ that contains x_i but none of the other

⁵⁷The word “formal” means in this context that we do not require the sum to converge in any sense, as it is a purely algebraic object. In practice, we are only going to consider points $t \in \mathbb{R}^V$ that have finitely many nonzero coordinates, thus the sums converge trivially.

points in the sequence $x_1, x_2, \dots$. This proves that the infinite subset $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subset |K|$ is discrete, hence $|K|$ cannot be compact. $\square$

30.2. The category of chain complexes. In absolute bordism theory, crucial roles are played by the words “closed” and “boundary”: elements are represented by maps defined on *closed* manifolds rather than manifolds that are noncompact or have boundary, and the equivalence relation arises from the fact that certain manifolds are the boundaries of others. One trivial and yet important detail here is the fact that for a compact manifold M with boundary, its boundary ∂M is always a closed manifold: the compactness of ∂M is automatic since $\partial M \subset M$ is a closed subset, but being a boundary also means that ∂M cannot have any boundary points of its own.

In the usual constructions of homology theories—which do not require any knowledge of manifolds—there is an algebraic device that gives useful meaning to the words *closed* and *boundary*, and the fact that boundaries have no boundary of their own is then encoded by a simple algebraic equation, taking the form “ $\partial^2 = 0$ ”.

DEFINITION 30.18. A **chain complex** (*Kettenkomplex*) of R -modules is a sequence of R -modules taking the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$

and satisfying the relation

$$(30.2) \quad \partial_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let’s add some helpful terminology and notation to the definition above. The collection of R -modules C_n forming a chain complex can be packaged together as a single R -module

$$C_* := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n,$$

and writing $\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ for the homomorphism determined uniquely by the maps $\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ for all n , the defining relation (30.2) is then written succinctly as

$$\partial^2 = 0.$$

The chain complex itself can then be denoted by (C_*, ∂) , often abbreviated simply as C_* . We call ∂ the **boundary map**, or **boundary operator** (*Randoperator*), of the complex. An element $c \in C_*$ is said to be **homogeneous** (*homogen*) if it belongs to the specific submodule $C_n \subset C_*$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, which is then called the **degree** (*Grad*) of c , sometimes written as

$$|c| := n \quad \text{for } c \in C_n,$$

and the homogeneous elements of degree n are also called the **n -chains** (*n -Ketten*) of the complex. We say that $c \in C_*$ is **closed** (*geschlossen*) if it satisfies

$$\partial c = 0,$$

and the closed n -chains are called the **n -cycles** (*n -Zykel*) of the complex. Further, $c \in C_*$ is a **boundary** (*Rand*) if it satisfies

$$c = \partial a \quad \text{for some } a \in C_*,$$

and the n -cycles that are also boundaries are called the **n -boundaries**. The relation $\partial^2 = 0$ is equivalent to the condition that all boundaries are also cycles, in other words, $\text{im } \partial_{n+1}$ is always a submodule of $\ker \partial_n$.

REMARK 30.19. For the boundary map $\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ of a chain complex, one sometimes abuses notation and writes

$$\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_{*-1}$$

to emphasize the fact that ∂ sends n -chains to $(n-1)$ -chains for each n . A fancier way to say this is that C_* is naturally a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module, and the boundary map is a homomorphism of **degree** -1 .

DEFINITION 30.20. The **homology** $H_*(C_*) = H_*(C_*, \partial)$ of the chain complex C_* is the collection of quotient modules

$$H_n(C_*) := \ker(\partial_n) / \operatorname{im}(\partial_{n+1}).$$

Their direct sum is denoted by

$$H_*(C_*) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} H_n(C_*).$$

Given a chain complex C_* , elements $[c] \in H_n(C_*)$ are called **homology classes** of degree n : their representatives $c \in C_n$ are n -cycles, and two such n -cycles c, c' represent the same homology class if and only if $c' - c$ is a boundary, in which case we say that they are **homologous**.

DEFINITION 30.21. Given two chain complexes (A_*, ∂^A) and (B_*, ∂^B) , a **chain map** (*Kettenabbildung*) from (A_*, ∂^A) to (B_*, ∂^B) is a collection of homomorphisms $f_n : A_n \rightarrow B_n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$(30.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & A_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}^A} & A_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n^A} & A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^A} \dots \\ & & \downarrow f_{n+1} & & \downarrow f_n & & \downarrow f_{n-1} \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & B_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}^B} & B_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n^B} & B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}^B} \dots \end{array}$$

In other words, a chain map is a homomorphism $f : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ that maps n -chains to n -chains for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and satisfies $\partial^B \circ f = f \circ \partial^A$.

It is easy to check that the composition of two chain maps is also a chain map, and so is the identity map on any chain complex, thus we can define a category

$$\mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) \quad \text{often abbreviated as} \quad \mathbf{Ch},$$

whose objects are chain complexes of R -modules, with chain maps as morphisms. The following easy observation then produces a functor

$$\mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) \xrightarrow{H_n} R\text{-Mod}$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, sending each chain complex to its homology in degree n , and each chain map to the induced homomorphism between homologies.

PROPOSITION 30.22. Any chain map $f : (A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial^B)$ determines homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow H_n(B_*, \partial^B)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ via the formula

$$f_*[a] := [f(a)].$$

PROOF. There are two things to prove: first, that whenever $a \in A_n$ is a cycle, so is $f(a) \in B_n$. This is clear since $\partial^A a = 0$ implies $\partial^B(f(a)) = f(\partial^A a) = 0$ by the chain map condition. Second, we need to know that f maps boundaries to boundaries, so that it descends to a well-defined homomorphism $\ker \partial_n^A / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^A \rightarrow \ker \partial_n^B / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^B$. This is equally clear, since $a = \partial^A x$ implies $f(a) = f(\partial^A x) = \partial^B f(x)$. $\square$

30.3. Ordered simplicial homology. We now describe the first of two versions of the so-called **simplicial chain complex** (*simplizialer Kettenkomplex*) of a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$, the homology of which will be the **simplicial homology** (*simpliziale Homologie*) of K . We will see later that with a bit of care, simplicial homology can be defined as a collection of functors on the subcategory of **Top** consisting of all polyhedra, without needing to specify how each polyhedron is triangulated. For now, however, the definition of the simplicial homology groups will depend explicitly on a simplicial complex, and thus gives us functors $\mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.

The first version of the simplicial chain complex is algebraically simpler than the second, while the second will be easier to interpret geometrically. In practice, we will eventually be able to choose freely between them, because (for slightly nontrivial reasons) their homologies turn out to be naturally isomorphic.

REMARK 30.23. For readers who have seen the definition of simplicial homology in the first semester of these notes (cf. Lecture 21): the complex defined in §30.4 below is cosmetically different from the one that was defined there, but is easily seen to be isomorphic to it (see Remark 30.26). The main difference is that our previous definition required fixing an arbitrary choice of orientation for each simplex, and the definition below avoids making any such choices.

CONVENTION. For the rest of this lecture, and in fact for most of the rest of this course, you should assume that

$$G \in R\text{-Mod}$$

is an arbitrary choice of R -module, which will typically play the role of the coefficient group in whichever version of homology is under discussion. We will include G in the notation for homology in situations where the choice of coefficient group matters, but omit it whenever this choice plays no important role.

Given a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$, define the set

$$\mathcal{K}_n^o(K) := \left\{ (v_0, \dots, v_n) \in V^{\times(n+1)} \mid \text{there exists a } \sigma \in S \text{ with } v_i \in \sigma \text{ for all } i = 0, \dots, n \right\}$$

for each $n \geq 0$. The elements of $\mathcal{K}_n^o(K)$ are thus ordered $(n+1)$ -tuples of vertices such that some simplex of the complex contains all of them. Note that in this definition, we are *not* assuming the $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are all distinct, though if they are, then it means $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S$ is an n -simplex of the complex K , and the ordered tuple $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ is then called an **ordered n -simplex**. The **ordered simplicial chain complex** (with coefficients in G)

$$C_*^o(K) = C_*^o(K; G) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^o(K; G) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^o(K)$$

is defined with

$$C_n^o(K) = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n^o(K)} G$$

for each $n \geq 0$, so that n -chains can be written uniquely as finite sums $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i$ with coefficients $a_i \in G$ attached to canonical generators $\sigma_i \in \mathcal{K}_n^o(K)$. In particular, if the coefficient module G is taken to be the ring R itself, then $C_n^o(K)$ is the free R -module over the set $\mathcal{K}_n^o(K)$; in the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, it is thus a free abelian group. Linearity and the formula

$$(30.4) \quad \partial(v_0, \dots, v_n) := \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k (v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n)$$

uniquely determine a boundary map $\partial : C_n^o(K) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^o(K)$ on this complex for each $n \geq 1$, and we define $C_n^o(K)$ to be trivial for each $n < 0$, so that $\partial : C_n^o(K) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^o(K)$ is necessarily trivial

for each $n \leq 0$. It is a straightforward exercise in sign cancellations to verify that ∂ satisfies $\partial^2 = 0$. The resulting homology groups

$$H_*^o(K) := H_*(K; G) := H_*(C_*^o(K; G), \partial)$$

will be called the **ordered simplicial homology** of K with coefficients in G .

In order to view ordered simplicial homology as a functor, we associate to each simplicial map $f : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ and each $n \geq 0$ the unique R -module homomorphism

$$f_* : C_n^o(K_1) \rightarrow C_n^o(K_2)$$

determined by linearity and the formula

$$f_*(v_0, \dots, v_n) := (f(v_0), \dots, f(v_n)).$$

It is straightforward to check that this defines a chain map $C_*^o(K_1) \rightarrow C_*^o(K_2)$, and thus gives us a functor

$$C_*^o : \text{Simp} \rightarrow \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}).$$

Composing this with the algebraic homology functors $H_n : \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ gives us functors

$$H_n^o : \text{Simp} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod};$$

in particular, simplicial maps $f : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ induce R -module homomorphisms $f_* : H_n^o(K_1) \rightarrow H_n^o(K_2)$ for every n .

30.4. Oriented simplicial homology. The second version of the simplicial chain complex has a similar but smaller set of generators, because it excludes tuples $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ that contain repeats of the same vertex, and instead of keeping track of their orders, it keeps track of orientations. The following combinatorial result makes this possible; its proof is an exercise.

LEMMA 30.24. *For each $n \geq 1$, the boundary map $\partial : C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ defined via (30.4) preserves the subgroup of $C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ generated by all elements of the form*

$$(30.5) \quad (v_0, \dots, v_n) \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text{with } v_i = v_j \text{ for some } i \neq j$$

or of the form

$$(30.6) \quad (v_0, \dots, v_n) - (-1)^{|\tau|} (v_{\tau(0)}, \dots, v_{\tau(n)}) \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$$

for arbitrary $(v_0, \dots, v_n) \in \mathcal{K}_n^o(K)$ and permutations $\tau \in S_{n+1}$, where $(-1)^{|\tau|} = \pm 1$ denotes the sign of the permutation. $\square$

DEFINITION 30.25. An **orientation** (*Orientierung*) of an n -simplex $\sigma \in S$ for $n \geq 1$ in a complex $K = (V, S)$ is an equivalence class of orderings of the vertices of σ , where two orderings are considered equivalent if they differ by an even permutation. The case $n = 0$ is special: an orientation of a 0-simplex is simply a choice of sign $+1$ or -1 , called the **positive** or **negative orientation** respectively.

A simplex endowed with an orientation is called an **oriented simplex** (*orientiertes Simplex*), and any oriented simplex with vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ can be written with the notation

$$\pm[v_0, \dots, v_n],$$

which is understood to mean the simplex $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ with orientation determined by the ordering $v_0, \dots, v_n$ if the sign in front is positive, and the opposite of that orientation if the sign is negative. So for example, the symbols $[v_0, v_1]$ and $-[v_1, v_0]$ represent the same oriented 1-simplex, while that simplex with the opposite orientation can be written as either $-[v_0, v_1]$ or $[v_1, v_0]$. For an oriented 0-simplex $\pm[v_0]$, there is only one possible ordering, and the orientation is thus determined entirely

by the initial sign. For a 2-simplex $\{v_0, v_1, v_2\}$, the fact that cyclic permutations of three elements are always even means

$$[v_0, v_1, v_2] = [v_1, v_2, v_0] = [v_2, v_0, v_1] = -[v_1, v_0, v_2] = -[v_0, v_2, v_1] = -[v_2, v_1, v_0].$$

In pictures of 2-dimensional polyhedra, one can usefully employ arrows on 1-simplices to specify orientations by ordering the two vertices, and circular arrows in 2-simplices to indicate the cyclic orderings that determine their orientations (see Figure 25).

Thanks to Lemma 30.24, the **oriented simplicial chain complex** of $K = (V, S)$ can be defined as a quotient

$$C_*^\Delta(K) := C_*^o(K) / D_*^o(K),$$

where we denote by $D_*^o(K) \subset C_*^o(K)$ the submodule generated by products of arbitrary coefficients $g \in G$ with elements of the form (30.5) or (30.6); this is sometimes called the group of **degenerate chains**. For each generator $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ of $C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$, we shall denote the equivalence class that it represents in the quotient complex by

$$[v_0, \dots, v_n] \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}).$$

This means

$$[v_0, \dots, v_n] = 0 \quad \text{if } v_i = v_j \text{ for some } i \neq j,$$

whereas if the vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are all distinct, then $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ can be interpreted as an oriented n -simplex, and the equivalence relation in the quotient complex then reproduces our previous notational convention for oriented simplices, namely

$$[v_0, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_n] = -[v_0, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_n]$$

for each pair $i \neq j$ in $\{0, \dots, n\}$. The boundary map $\partial : C_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\Delta(K)$ is thus determined by the formula

$$(30.7) \quad \partial[v_0, \dots, v_n] = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k [v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n],$$

and Lemma 30.24 guarantees that this formula is independent of the order in which the vertices are written. We will denote the resulting **oriented simplicial homology** by

$$H_*^\Delta(K) := H_*(C_*^\Delta(K)).$$

One checks easily that the chain maps $f_* : C_*^o(K_1) \rightarrow C_*^o(K_2)$ induced by any simplicial map $f : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ descend to the quotient as chain maps

$$f_* : C_*^\Delta(K_1) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K_2),$$

thus giving a functor

$$C_*^\Delta : \mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}),$$

which composes with the algebraic homology functor to produce functors

$$H_n^\Delta : \mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

for each $n \geq 0$.

Notice moreover that since the chain complex $C_*^\Delta(K)$ is defined as a quotient of $C_*^o(K)$, the quotient projection

$$C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K) : (v_0, \dots, v_n) \mapsto [v_0, \dots, v_n]$$

is also a chain map, and thus induces a natural sequence of homomorphisms

$$H_n^o(K) \rightarrow H_n^\Delta(K), \quad n \geq 0.$$

The word “natural” is meant here in its technical sense, as the map from ordered to oriented simplicial homology can be seen as a natural transformation between two functors $\mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.

We will later in Lecture 33, in fact, that on the homology level (though not on the level of chain complexes), these maps are always isomorphisms. This fact, however, requires a lengthier discussion, and we do not need it just yet.

REMARK 30.26. While it is not so obvious from the definition above, $C_n^\Delta(K) = C_n^\Delta(K; G)$ for a simplicial complex K can be identified with a complex of the form

$$C_n^\Delta(K) \cong \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n^\Delta(K)} G,$$

where the set $\mathcal{K}_n^\Delta(K)$ of generators consists of all n -simplices $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ in the complex K . This perspective gives $C_n^\Delta(K)$ a similar formal structure to that of $C_n^o(K)$, so that for instance $C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ is also a free abelian group, but with a smaller and more manageable set of generators than $C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$. Indeed, each generator of $C_n^\Delta(K)$ is an ordered tuple $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ of vertices in a simplex, but the generators of $C_n^\Delta(K)$ are instead actual n -simplices $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of the complex K , meaning that the vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are required to be distinct, and the order in which they are written does not matter. Some choices are required, however, before $C_n^\Delta(K)$ can be presented in this way: if one makes an arbitrary choice of orientation for each simplex $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of K and writes its vertices in an order consistent with the chosen orientation, then the resulting oriented n -simplex $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ can be used as a generator of $C_n^\Delta(K)$, and there is no need to consider other permutations of the vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$. Writing down $\partial : C_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\Delta(K)$ then requires taking some care with signs, to account for the fact that the arbitrarily chosen orientations of the $(n-1)$ -simplices of K may or may not agree with the orientations of the boundary faces appearing in the usual formula for $\partial[v_0, \dots, v_n]$. The result is essentially the definition of $H_*^\Delta(K)$ that we gave in Lecture 21 last semester, and it is also the description that typically seems most convenient for actual computations of simplicial homology (see e.g. Exercise 30.3). The alternative formulation as a quotient complex shows why it does not actually depend on the choices of orientations.

Comparing the ordered and oriented simplicial chain complexes, the oriented complex has a more obvious geometric interpretation, because its generators are in bijective correspondence with actual simplices. By contrast, the ordered chain complex has a lot of redundant information, since each simplex gives rise to several generators corresponding to the different possible orderings of its vertices. But as we will see, the *ordered* complex is the one that admits a straightforward relationship with the singular homology of a polyhedron.

30.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 30.1 (*). Prove Proposition 30.5: For any simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ and any space X , a map $f : |K| \rightarrow X$ is continuous if and only if $f|_{|\sigma|} : |\sigma| \rightarrow X$ is continuous for every simplex $\sigma \in S$.

EXERCISE 30.2 (*). Prove Lemma 30.24, which establishes that the definition of ∂ on the oriented simplicial chain complex makes sense.

Hint: One does not really need to examine all possible tuples $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ and all of their permutations. It suffices to check cases where $v_k = v_{k+1}$ for some k , and permutations that interchange two neighboring elements.

EXERCISE 30.3. Figure 26 shows a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ whose associated polyhedron $|K|$ is homeomorphic to the Klein bottle. There are nine vertices labeled P_i, Q_i, R_i for $i = 1, 2, 3$, twenty-seven 1-simplices labeled by letters $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i, e_i, f_i$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$ and g_i for $i = 1, \dots, 9$, and eighteen 2-simplices labeled σ_i, τ_i for $i = 1, \dots, 9$. The picture also shows a choice of orientation for each of the 2-simplices (circular arrows represent a cyclic ordering of the vertices) and 1-simplices (arrows point from the first vertex to the last). If we additionally endow each 0-simplex with the

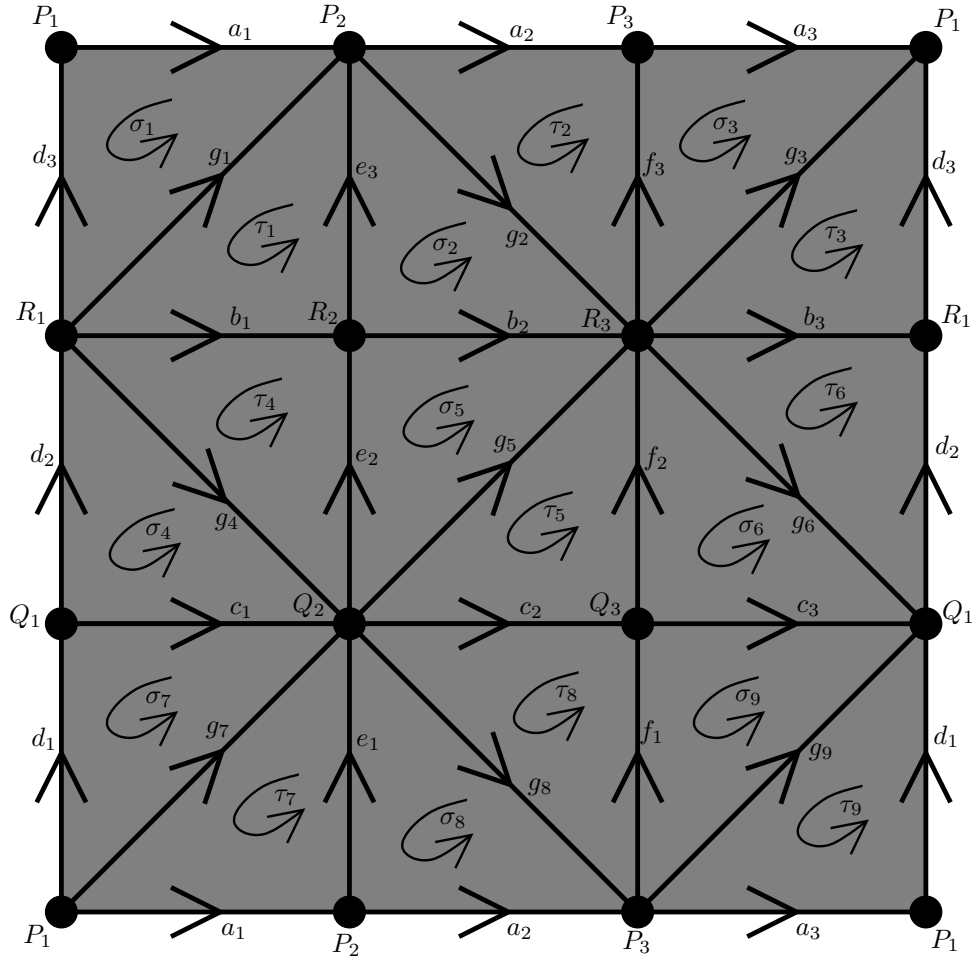


FIGURE 25. The picture shows a simplicial complex K with polyhedron $|K| \cong \mathbb{T}^2$, and choices of orientations on each simplex indicated via arrows (defining cyclic orderings of three vertices in the case of each 2-simplex). With these orientations fixed, plugging in the definition of $\partial : C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ gives e.g. $\partial\sigma_1 = g_1 - a_1 - d_3$, $\partial\tau_1 = b_1 + e_3 - g_1$, $\partial a_1 = P_2 - P_1$, $\partial a_2 = P_3 - P_2$, $\partial a_3 = P_1 - P_3$, and so forth. The complete computation of $H_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ was carried out near the end of Lecture 21 last semester, with $H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ generated by the sum of the eighteen 2-simplices in the complex, $H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2 \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{T}^2) \cong H_1(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$, and $H_0^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z} \cong H_0(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$.

positive orientation, every letter in the picture can be regarded as representing an oriented simplex, and thus a generator of the oriented simplicial chain complex $C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$.

- Write down the 1-chains $\partial\sigma_i, \partial\tau_i \in C_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ explicitly for each $i = 1, \dots, 9$.
- Prove that $H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and write down a specific cycle in $C_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ that generates it.
- Prove that $H_2^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.

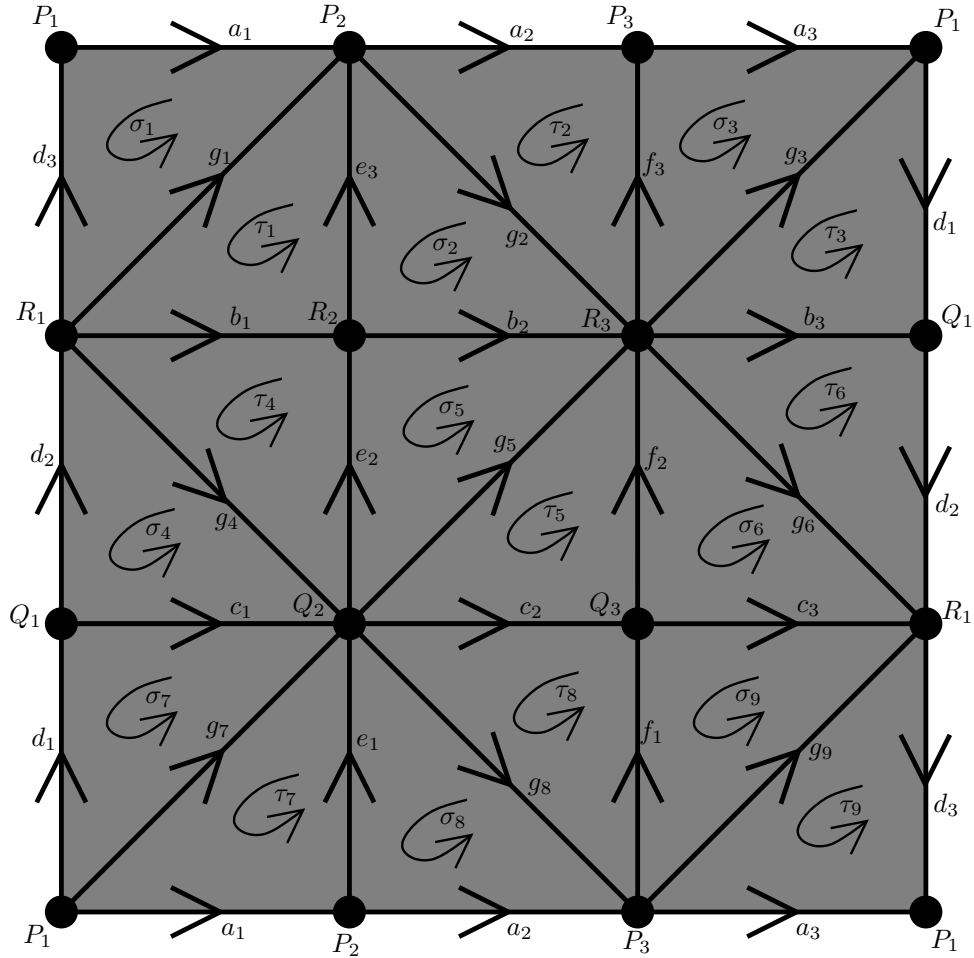


FIGURE 26. The Klein bottle as a polyhedron.

- (d) Show that the 1-cycle $d_1 + d_2 + d_3$ represents a nontrivial homology class $[d_1 + d_2 + d_3]$ in both $H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, but satisfies $2[d_1 + d_2 + d_3] = 0 \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $[d_1 + d_2 + d_3] = 0 \in H_1^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Q})$.

EXERCISE 30.4 (*). The following computations may give you a hint as to why $h_0(\{*\})$ is called the *coefficient group* of an axiomatic homology theory h_* . In the simplicial context, let $\{*\}$ denote a simplicial complex that has exactly one vertex.

- (a) Prove that $H_0^\Delta(\{*\}; G) \cong G$ and $H_n^\Delta(\{*\}; G) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$.
Hint: This is nearly trivial.
- (b) Prove that $H_0^o(\{*\}; G) \cong G$ and $H_n^o(\{*\}; G) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$.
Remark: This is slightly less trivial than part (a), but not difficult.

31. Triangulated manifolds and subdivision

I claimed in the previous lecture that simplicial homology can be viewed as a combinatorial variant of bordism theory. To see what I mean by this, we need to talk about manifolds with triangulations.

31.1. Triangulated manifolds. In this lecture, we will not need any knowledge of smoothness, so the word “manifold” means *topological* manifold, i.e. a second countable Hausdorff space that is locally homeomorphic to a finite-dimensional vector space or half-space. It should be assumed that all manifolds M may have nonempty boundary ∂M unless stated otherwise.

DEFINITION 31.1. An n -dimensional **triangulated manifold** is a topological n -manifold M equipped with a triangulation $M \cong |K|$ that identifies ∂M with the polyhedron of a subcomplex, denoted in the following by

$$\partial K \subset K.$$

The next result is a consequence of the local Euclidean structure of manifolds:

PROPOSITION 31.2. *If $M \cong |K|$ is a triangulated n -dimensional manifold, then the associated simplicial complex K is n -dimensional, and every $(n-1)$ -simplex σ in K is a boundary face of either one or two n -simplices, where the former is the case if and only if σ belongs to the subcomplex triangulating ∂M .* $\square$

In general, it is a subtle question whether a given manifold admits a triangulation. It is known to be true for all *smooth* manifolds, and also for topological manifolds of dimension at most three (see [Moi77]), but not in general for dimensions four and above (see [Man14]). We will not concern ourselves with such questions here, as for our purposes, it is already helpful to consider explicit examples of manifolds with triangulations, such as the picture of $\mathbb{T}^2$ in Figure 25. Our immediate motivation for doing so is to give explicit constructions of some important homology classes. The idea is to turn a triangulation $M \cong |K|$ of a compact n -manifold into an n -chain in the simplicial chain complex of K .

It is easiest to explain how this works in $H^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. Using $\mathbb{Z}_2$ as a coefficient group has the advantage that for any n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of K , we have

$$[v_0, \dots, v_n] = -[v_0, \dots, v_n] \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2),$$

so that all choices of ordering for the vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ produce the same element, and there is thus no need to worry about orientations. Given a compact triangulated n -manifold $M \cong |K|$, we can define an oriented simplicial n -chain by

$$(31.1) \quad c_M := \sum_{\sigma} \mathbf{v}_{\sigma} \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2),$$

where the sum ranges over the set of all n -simplices σ of K , and $\mathbf{v}_{\sigma} = [v_0, \dots, v_n]$ denotes the vertices of $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$, arranged in an arbitrary order. Note that this definition would not make sense if M were not compact, but according to Proposition 30.17, compactness implies that K is a *finite* simplicial complex, so that the sum in the definition of c_M is finite. If $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, then the subcomplex $\partial K \subset K$ triangulating ∂M similarly defines a simplicial $(n-1)$ -chain

$$c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \subset C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2),$$

where we are regarding $C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ as a submodule of $C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, which makes sense because the canonical generators of $C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ (i.e. the $(n-1)$ -simplices of ∂K) are also $(n-1)$ -simplices of K and thus generators of $C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. If $\partial M = \emptyset$, then the recipe above defines the trivial $(n-1)$ -chain, and we can therefore sensibly write

$$c_{\partial M} = 0 \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \quad \text{if } \partial M = \emptyset.$$

PROPOSITION 31.3. *The chains $c_M \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and $c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \subset C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ in the situation above satisfy*

$$\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}.$$

PROOF. By Proposition 31.2, applying ∂ to the right hand side of (31.1) produces exactly two copies of each $(n-1)$ -simplex of K that is not in ∂K , so with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients, they cancel each other. What remains is a single term for each $(n-1)$ -simplex in the triangulation of ∂M , which produces $c_{\partial M}$. $\square$

The proposition implies in particular that whenever M is a *closed* triangulated n -manifold, the n -chain c_M is a cycle, and thus represents a homology class

$$[M] := [c_M] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

We call this the (simplicial) **fundamental class** of M , and refer to c_M as a **fundamental cycle**. In the case $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, we will see when we discuss *relative* simplicial homology in Lecture 34 that c_M still represents a relative homology class for the triangulated pair of spaces $(M, \partial M)$, thus the terms *fundamental cycle* and *fundamental class* remain appropriate (cf. Example 34.7).

Fundamental cycles and classes can also be defined in ordered simplicial homology, but this requires some choices.

DEFINITION 31.4. An **admissible ordering** on a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ assigns to each simplex $\sigma \in S$ a total order on its set of vertices such that the inclusion $\tau \hookrightarrow \sigma$ of each of its faces $\tau \subset \sigma$ is an order-preserving map.

It is easy to see that every simplicial complex admits an admissible ordering, e.g. one can simply choose a total order on the entire set of vertices V , and define the total orders on every simplex $\sigma \subset V$ so that the inclusion $\sigma \hookrightarrow V$ is order preserving. Since we are only talking about compact manifolds in this lecture, our simplicial complexes are always finite, so you don't even need to appeal to any abstract set-theoretic machinery (e.g. the axiom of choice) before choosing a total order on V . There are also situations where establishing a rule to determine total orders on every simplex $\sigma \in S$ is more convenient than choosing a total order on V itself.

Suppose again that $M \cong |K|$ is a compact triangulated n -manifold, and let $\partial K \subset K$ denote the subcomplex whose polyhedron is identified with ∂M . Working with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients, any choice of admissible ordering for K determines an ordered simplicial n -chain of the form

$$c_M := \sum_{\sigma} \mathbf{v}_{\sigma} \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2),$$

in which the sum ranges again over the set of all n -simplices σ of K , and $\mathbf{v}_{\sigma} = (v_0, \dots, v_n)$ denotes the vertices of $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ arranged in increasing order. If $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, the admissible ordering on K restricts to an admissible ordering on ∂K , and thus similarly determines an ordered simplicial $(n-1)$ -chain

$$c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^o(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \subset C_{n-1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2),$$

and we take $c_{\partial M}$ to be $0 \in C_{n-1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ if $\partial M = \emptyset$. It is easy to verify that the analogue of Proposition 31.3 also holds in this situation, and we thus have

$$\partial c_M = c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

It is clear from the construction that the natural chain map $C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ sends each ordered fundamental cycle to the oriented fundamental cycle, so when M is closed, it therefore sends an ordered simplicial fundamental class $[M] \in H_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ to the oriented simplicial fundamental class $[M] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. Once we've proved that the natural map $H_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is an isomorphism, we will be able to deduce from this that the class $[M] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is independent

of choices, even though the fundamental cycle $c_M \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ that represents it does depend on the choice of admissible ordering for the complex.

The following result is a worthwhile exercise in the computation of simplicial homology.

THEOREM 31.5. *For any closed and connected triangulated n -manifold $M \cong |K|$, $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2$, and its unique nontrivial element is the fundamental class $[M]$.* $\square$

31.2. Oriented triangulations. In order to extend the construction of fundamental cycles from $\mathbb{Z}_2$ to integer coefficients, we need triangulations with a bit of extra structure.

DEFINITION 31.6. Suppose $n \geq 1$ and $\pm[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ is an oriented n -simplex in a simplicial complex. The induced **boundary orientation** on the boundary face $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is then given by the oriented $(n-1)$ -simplex $\pm[v_1, \dots, v_n]$.

Note that the oriented simplex $\pm[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ can typically be written in multiple distinct ways with the vertex v_0 appearing first and the other vertices permuted, but the same permutation then applies to the oriented boundary face $\pm[v_1, \dots, v_n]$ and causes the same sign change, so that Definition 31.6 does not depend on any choices. Moreover, the definition determines an orientation on *every* boundary face of $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$, because for any $k = 0, \dots, n$, one can always apply a permutation to rewrite $\pm[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ with v_k in front; in particular, $[v_0, \dots, v_n] = (-1)^k [v_k, v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n]$, so that endowing the face $\{v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ with the boundary orientation determined by $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ produces the oriented simplex

$$(-1)^k [v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n].$$

The formula (30.7) for $\partial[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ in the oriented simplicial chain complex can thus be interpreted as the sum of the $n+1$ boundary faces of $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ endowed with their boundary orientations.

REMARK 31.7. In addition to being consistent with our usual formulas for boundary operators on chain complexes, there is some geometric motivation behind Definition 31.6. In differential geometry, an oriented n -manifold M induces a natural boundary orientation on ∂M , and if M has a triangulation, the orientation of M also induces orientations of the n -simplices in its triangulation. One can check that if the polyhedron $|\sigma|$ of an oriented n -simplex σ in a complex K is viewed as an oriented n -manifold, then the geometric notion of boundary orientation on $\partial|\sigma| \cong S^{n-1}$ matches the induced orientations (according to Definition 31.6) of the boundary faces of σ , which form a triangulation of $\partial|\sigma|$.

DEFINITION 31.8. For an n -dimensional manifold M , an **oriented triangulation** (*orientierte Triangulierung*) of M is a triangulation in which every n -simplex is endowed with an orientation such that for every $(n-1)$ -simplex σ not contained in ∂M , the two boundary orientations it inherits as a boundary face of two distinct oriented n -simplices (cf. Prop. 31.2) are opposite.

I recommend now taking another look at Figure 25 to verify that the orientations of 2-simplices depicted in this picture define an oriented triangulation of $\mathbb{T}^2$. Then, contrast it with Figure 26, which shows a triangulation of the Klein bottle in which orientations of the 2-simplices have been chosen, but they fail to satisfy the conditions of Definition 31.8. (The trouble is with the 1-simplices labeled d_1, d_2, d_3 .) The problem with the Klein bottle is, of course, that it is a *non-orientable* manifold, and it turns out that only orientable manifolds can admit oriented triangulations. We sketched a proof of this for surfaces last semester in Lecture 20, and we will be able to prove it for all manifolds once we have learned enough about singular homology.

EXAMPLE 31.9. The triangulation of S^{n-1} described in Example 30.10 can be oriented by choosing an ordering of the vertex set V , regarding this as an oriented n -simplex σ and then endowing each of its boundary faces with the boundary orientation. The cancelation condition on

$(n-2)$ -simplices in this case is roughly equivalent to the fact that $\partial^2 = 0$ in the simplicial chain complex; see Proposition 31.10 below.

We now consider whether a version of the fundamental cycle $c_M \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ for a compact triangulated n -manifold $M \cong |K|$ with boundary $\partial M \cong |\partial K|$ can also be defined with integer coefficients. Indeed, suppose that an orientation has been chosen for each of the n -simplices σ of K , and consider an n -chain of the form

$$(31.2) \quad c_M := \sum_{\sigma} \mathbf{v}_{\sigma} \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where as usual the sum ranges over the set of all n -simplices $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ in K , and $\mathbf{v}_{\sigma} = [v_0, \dots, v_n]$ is defined by ordering the vertices in accordance with the chosen orientation. Since each $(n-1)$ -simplex of the subcomplex $\partial K \subset K$ triangulating ∂M is a boundary face of a unique n -simplex, the chosen orientations of the n -simplices determine boundary orientations of the $(n-1)$ -simplices of ∂K , which we can use to define an $(n-1)$ -chain

$$c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}).$$

The formula

$$\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}$$

is then satisfied if and only if the chosen orientations of the n -simplices satisfy the condition in Definition 31.8: indeed, this condition means that all contributions to ∂c_M from $(n-1)$ -simplices not in ∂M appear in cancelling pairs, while each $(n-1)$ -simplex in ∂M appears exactly once, with the correct sign. In the case $\partial M = \emptyset$, $c_M \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ is then a cycle, and thus represents an integral fundamental class

$$[M] := [c_M] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}).$$

We summarize:

PROPOSITION 31.10. *For any compact triangulated n -manifold $M \cong |K|$ with an oriented triangulation, the induced triangulation of the boundary $\partial M \cong |\partial K|$ admits a unique orientation for which each $(n-1)$ -simplex of ∂K is oriented as the boundary of an oriented n -simplex of K . The resulting fundamental cycles in $C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ as constructed above then satisfy the relation $\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}$.*

PROOF. The discussion preceding the statement showed that if the triangulation of M is oriented and the orientations of its n -simplices are used in defining $c_M \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and (via boundary orientations) $c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$, then $\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}$. One detail not yet addressed is that the boundary orientations on the $(n-1)$ -simplices of ∂K really do define an oriented triangulation of ∂M : this follows from the relation

$$\partial c_{\partial M} = \partial(\partial c_M) = 0,$$

which means that the two contributions to $\partial c_{\partial M}$ from each $(n-2)$ -simplex in ∂M cancel each other. $\square$

Here is another worthwhile computational exercise:

THEOREM 31.11. *For any closed and connected n -manifold $M \cong |K|$ with an oriented triangulation, $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$, and its fundamental class $[M]$ is a generator.* $\square$

For an analogue in ordered simplicial homology with integer coefficients, we can again choose an admissible ordering for K , but we need to be aware that the resulting ordering of the vertices $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ of each simplex σ might not be consistent with the chosen orientation of σ . We can account for this by including appropriate signs in the formula: we define

$$c_M := \sum_{\sigma} \epsilon_{\sigma} \mathbf{v}_{\sigma} \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where for each n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of our oriented triangulation, with vertices arranged in increasing order, we set $\epsilon_\sigma = \pm 1$ so that $\epsilon_\sigma[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ defines the chosen orientation. Defining

$$c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}^o(\partial K; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_{n-1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$$

in the same manner via the admissible ordering and boundary orientation, the same arguments as before prove $\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}$.

31.3. Triangulated bordism. With triangulated manifolds in hand, the similarity between homology and bordism theory can be made more explicit. Suppose

$$X \cong |K|$$

is a space (but not necessarily a manifold) triangulated by a simplicial complex K , and suppose

$$M \cong |L|$$

is a closed n -manifold with an oriented triangulation. Any simplicial map $\phi : L \rightarrow K$ induces a continuous map $|\phi| : M \rightarrow X$, so that the pair $(M, |\phi|)$ represents an element of the oriented bordism group $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$. A corresponding simplicial homology class can be defined by

$$\phi_*[M] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}),$$

using the integral fundamental class $[M] = [c_M] \in H_n^\Delta(L; \mathbb{Z})$ defined via the oriented triangulation of M . Further, suppose there is an oriented bordism (W, Φ) between $(M, |\phi|)$ and another such pair $(N, |\psi|)$, equipped with the additional data of an oriented triangulation: more precisely, $W \cong |L'|$ is a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold with an oriented triangulation, $\Phi : L' \rightarrow K$ is a simplicial map inducing the continuous map $|\Phi| : W \rightarrow X$, and there is a homeomorphism $\partial W \cong M \amalg (-N)$ that identifies the subcomplex triangulating M with K and $|\Phi|_M$ with $|\phi|$. The minus sign in front of N means that we consider $N \subset \partial W$ to be equipped with an oriented triangulation whose n -simplices carry the *opposite* of the boundary orientations they inherit from the oriented $(n+1)$ -simplices triangulating W . With this understood, we can write $|\psi| := |\Phi|_N : N \rightarrow X$ and obtain a simplicial homology class

$$\psi_*[N] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$$

in the same manner as $\phi_*[M]$. But the triangulated bordism $(W, |\Phi|)$ tells us more: the orientation reversal on N gives the relation

$$\partial c_W = c_{\partial W} = c_M - c_N \in C_n^\Delta(L'; \mathbb{Z}),$$

and plugging this into the chain map $\Phi_* : C_*^\Delta(L'; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$, we have

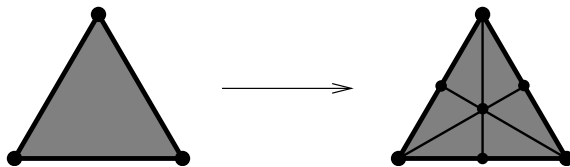
$$\partial(\Phi_* c_W) = \Phi_*(c_M - c_N) = \phi_* c_M - \psi_* c_N \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}),$$

implying

$$\phi_*[M] = \psi_*[N] \in H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}).$$

This matches what happens in bordism theory: two simplicial homology classes represented by closed triangulated manifolds with simplicial maps are the same whenever there is a *triangulated* bordism between them. We will see when we study fundamental classes in singular homology that the entire discussion makes sense in that context as well, but without any need for triangulations.

REMARK 31.12. Orientations were needed for all the triangulations in the discussion above because we were working with integer coefficients. If we did not have orientations, the entire discussion would still make sense after uniformly replacing the coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$ by $\mathbb{Z}_2$, and $H_n^\Delta(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ thus becomes the combinatorial variant of the *unoriented* bordism group $\Omega_n^O(X)$.

FIGURE 27. The barycentric subdivision $\text{Sd}(\Delta^2)$ of Δ^2 .

31.4. Barycentric subdivision. I would now like to describe a specific triangulation of the standard n -simplex Δ^n . One can reasonably ask why it is worth bothering to triangulate a simplex: after all, Δ^n is already a polyhedron in a trivial way. But the point of the following construction is to decompose Δ^n into n -simplices that are strictly *smaller*, and iterating the process will then produce triangulations whose individual n -simplices are as small as we like. This will come in handy when we need to prove the formal properties of singular homology, and it also has some important theoretical consequences for simplicial homology, including one ingredient in the proof that $H_*^o(K)$ and $H_*^\Delta(K)$ really are invariants of the *polyhedron* $|K|$, and not just of the particular simplicial complex K that is used for triangulating it.

For each $n \geq 0$, the point

$$b_n := \left(\frac{1}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1} \right) \in \Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$

is called the **barycenter** of the standard n -simplex; you should imagine it as the center of mass of Δ^n . The following inductive procedure uniquely determines a decomposition of Δ^n for each $n \geq 0$ into smaller pieces $\delta^n \subset \Delta^n$ that are homeomorphic to Δ^n (see Figure 27):

- (1) For $n = 0$, the one-point space Δ^0 cannot be decomposed any further, so its triangulation consists only of a single 0-simplex.
- (2) If the triangulation of Δ^{n-1} has already been defined, then using the canonical identification of the boundary face $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ for each $k = 0, \dots, n$ with Δ^{n-1} , each $(n-1)$ -simplex $\delta^{n-1} \subset \partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ in its triangulation determines an n -simplex $\delta^n \subset \Delta^n$ as the convex hull of δ^{n-1} and the barycenter b_n .

For a more precise description of barycentric subdivision, we should specify an abstract simplicial complex $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ along with a homeomorphism $|\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)| \cong \Delta^n$ defining the triangulation of Δ^n . It is most natural to define $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ so that its vertices are points in Δ^n , and since Δ^n is a subset of the vector space $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, the following condition becomes relevant:

DEFINITION 31.13. Given an integer $n \geq 2$ and a vector space V of dimension at least $n-1$, a set of n points in V is said to be in **general position** if they are not contained in any $(n-2)$ -dimensional plane.

For intuition, here are the simplest examples:

- Two distinct points in a vector space of dimension at least 1 are *always* in general position; general position in this case just means that the two points are distinct.
- Three points in a vector space of dimension at least 2 are in general position if and only if they are not colinear.

In general, for a given set of points $v_0, \dots, v_n \in V$ with $\dim V \geq n \geq 1$, the unique linear map $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow V$ sending the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to the vectors $v_0, \dots, v_n$ restricts to $\Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ as an *embedding* $\Delta^n \hookrightarrow V$ if and only if the points $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are in general position.

The abstract simplicial complex $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ arising from the barycentric subdivision of Δ^n can now be described as follows. One first triangulates the standard 0-simplex with the simplicial complex

whose only vertex is the one point in $\Delta^0 \subset \mathbb{R}$. Then inductively, having defined triangulations of the boundary faces $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n \cong \Delta^{n-1}$ via complexes whose vertices are all identified with points in $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$, each n -simplex of $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ is defined to have vertices $b_n, v_1, \dots, v_n$, where $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ are the vertices of an $(n-1)$ -simplex in the complex triangulating $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n \cong \Delta^{n-1}$ for some $k = 0, \dots, n$. The homeomorphism identifying $|\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)|$ with Δ^n sends each simplex $|\sigma| \subset |\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)|$ into Δ^n via the restriction of the unique linear map that sends each vertex to itself. That this actually defines a homeomorphism $|\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)| \cong \Delta^n$ follows from the following proposition, whose proof is Exercise 31.2:

PROPOSITION 31.14. *For the abstract simplicial complex $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ described above, whose vertices are points in Δ^n :*

- (a) *The vertices of each n -simplex are in general position.*
- (b) *Every point $p \in \Delta^n$ lies in the convex hull of the points $v_0, \dots, v_k \in \Delta^n$ for some simplex $\{v_0, \dots, v_k\}$ of $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$.*

□

If you haven't already done this, you should now pause a moment to think about what the barycentric subdivisions of Δ^n for low values of n look like. The subdivision of Δ^1 will have only two 1-simplices, and since Δ^2 has three boundary faces, its subdivision has six 2-simplices, as shown in Figure 27. In general, the number of n -simplices in the subdivision of Δ^n will be $(n+1)!$. You'll find a picture of the subdivision of Δ^3 in [Hat02, §2.1], among other places; if you ever find a convincing picture of the case $n = 4$, let me know.

The triangulation defined above can be turned into an integral fundamental cycle

$$c_{\Delta^n} \in C_n^{\Delta}(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text{or} \quad c_{\Delta^n} \in C_n^o(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z})$$

after making some additional choices, namely of orientations and/or admissible orderings. There is surely more than one possible recipe for this, but here is one that works. Inductively, assume an admissible ordering and an orientation have already been chosen for the barycentric subdivision of Δ^{n-1} ; for the case $n = 0$, there is no choice of ordering to be made, and we can fix the positive orientation on the unique 0-simplex. Now if $v_1, \dots, v_n$ are the vertices of an $(n-1)$ -simplex on one of the boundary faces $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n = \Delta^{n-1}$ arranged in increasing order, and $\pm[v_1, \dots, v_n]$ is its chosen orientation, define the ordering and orientation of the n -simplex $\{b_n, v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ in Δ^n to be given by

$$(b_n, v_1, \dots, v_n) \quad \text{and} \quad \pm (-1)^k [b_n, v_1, \dots, v_n]$$

respectively. Following our usual prescriptions to define fundamental cycles as simplicial n -chains in $C_n^o(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z})$ or $C_n^{\Delta}(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z})$, the barycentric subdivisions of Δ^n and its boundary faces are then related via the formula

$$\partial c_{\Delta^n} = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k c_{\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n} \quad \text{in} \quad C_{n-1}^o(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z}) \text{ or } C_{n-1}^{\Delta}(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z}),$$

where as usual, $c_{\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n}$ is defined by identifying $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ with Δ^{n-1} , and is then regarded as an element of $C_{n-1}^{\Delta}(\text{Sd}(\Delta^n); \mathbb{Z})$, since the simplices in the subdivision of $\partial_{(k)}\Delta^n$ are also simplices in the subdivision of Δ^n .

Since we can now subdivide a standard simplex into smaller simplices of the same dimension, we can also subdivide *any* polyhedron. Indeed, assuming $K = (V, S)$ is an arbitrary simplicial complex, for each simplex $\sigma \in S$ of K , the corresponding subset $|\sigma| \subset |K|$ has a well-defined barycenter $b_{\sigma} \in |\sigma|$. We can then construct a new simplicial complex

$$\text{Sd}(K) = (V', S')$$

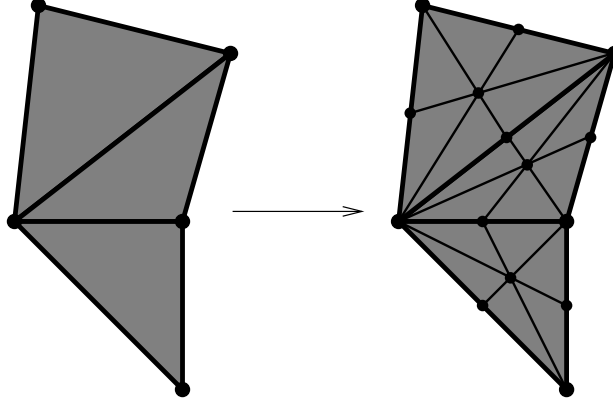


FIGURE 28. Barycentric subdivision of a 2-dimensional simplicial complex.

whose vertices are points in the polyhedron $|K|$, including all the vertices of K plus all the barycenters of its simplices, and such that the simplices of $\text{Sd}(K)$ correspond to simplices in the barycentric subdivisions of the individual simplices of K . The unique linear map $\mathbb{R}^{V'} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^V$ that sends the basis vector $e_v \in \mathbb{R}^{V'}$ corresponding to each vertex $v \in V'$ to the location of that vertex in $|K| \subset \mathbb{R}^V$ now restricts to a homeomorphism

$$|\text{Sd}(K)| \xrightarrow{\cong} |K|,$$

and we can therefore sensibly call $\text{Sd}(K)$ the **barycentric subdivision** of the simplicial complex K . Figure 28 shows a simple 2-dimensional example. By iterating the procedure, one defines an infinite sequence of subdivisions

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\cong} |\text{Sd}^3(K)| \xrightarrow{\cong} |\text{Sd}^2(K)| \xrightarrow{\cong} |\text{Sd}(K)| \xrightarrow{\cong} |K|,$$

thus producing finer triangulations of K whose constituent simplices can be arranged to be arbitrarily small. We adopt the convention

$$\text{Sd}^0(K) := K.$$

Barycentric subdivision defines a functor

$$\text{Sd} : \text{Simp} \rightarrow \text{Simp},$$

because every simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ uniquely determines a simplicial map

$$\text{Sd}(\phi) : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow \text{Sd}(L)$$

that sends the barycenter of each simplex σ of K to the barycenter of the simplex $\phi(\sigma)$ of L . Under the natural homeomorphisms $|K| \cong |\text{Sd}(K)|$ and $|L| \cong |\text{Sd}(L)|$, the topological realizations of ϕ and $\text{Sd}(\phi)$ are the same continuous map $|K| \rightarrow |L|$.

A natural question now arises: what relation is there between the simplicial homologies of K and $\text{Sd}(K)$? Their simplicial chain complexes are obviously not the same; in general, the chain complex for the subdivision $\text{Sd}(K)$ has many more generators than that of K . But the polyhedra of these two complexes are naturally homeomorphic, and it turns out that simplicial homology recognizes this fact. The result is best stated in terms of a concrete chain map. To write it down, note that for any oriented n -simplex $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_n]$ of K , choosing an ordering of the vertices consistent with the orientation identifies $|\sigma| \subset |K|$ with the standard simplex Δ^n , producing an oriented fundamental cycle

$$c_{|\sigma|} \in C_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$$

that depends on the orientation of σ , but not otherwise on the ordering of the vertices.

DEFINITION 31.15. For any simplicial complex K , the chain map

$$C_*^\Delta(K) \xrightarrow{\text{Sd}} C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)),$$

is the unique homomorphism determined by linearity and the formula

$$\text{Sd}(\sigma) := c_{|\sigma|}$$

for generators $\sigma \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$.

It is easy to check that for any simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$, the diagram

$$(31.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_*^\Delta(K) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & C_*^\Delta(L) \\ \downarrow \text{Sd} & & \downarrow \text{Sd} \\ C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) & \xrightarrow{\text{Sd}(\phi)_*} & C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L)) \end{array}$$

commutes. This is a *naturality* property: it means in particular that the chain maps Sd define a natural transformation from the functor $C_*^\Delta : \mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$ to the functor $C_*^\Delta \circ \text{Sd} : \mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$.

In Lecture 33, we will prove:

THEOREM 31.16. *The map $\text{Sd}_* : H_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow H_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ induced by the chain map in Definition 31.15 is an isomorphism.*

31.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 31.1. Prove Theorems 31.5 and 31.11 on the computation of the simplicial homologies $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ for a closed and connected triangulated n -manifold $M \cong |K|$, in the second case with an oriented triangulation. Show moreover that if the triangulation does not admit any orientation, then $H_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.

EXERCISE 31.2 (*). Prove Proposition 31.14, showing that the simplicial complex $\text{Sd}(\Delta^n)$ with vertices in Δ^n defined via the barycentric subdivision algorithm actually defines a triangulation of Δ^n .

Hint: Argue inductively on n . Given any point $p \in \Delta^n$ distinct from the barycenter b_n , draw a straight line from b_n through p . What can you say about the point where this line exits Δ^n ?

EXERCISE 31.3. Show that for $k = 0, \dots, n$, every k -simplex in the barycentric subdivision of Δ^n has vertices of the form $b_0, \dots, b_k$, where b_k is the barycenter of a k -dimensional face σ_k of Δ^n , and for each $j = 0, \dots, k-1$, σ_j is a boundary face of σ_{j+1} .

32. Chain homotopy and simplicial approximation

32.1. The homotopy question. Let us consider the following question about the functoriality of simplicial homology. Suppose $\phi, \psi : K \rightarrow L$ are two simplicial maps between simplicial complexes such that the induced continuous maps of polyhedra $|K| \rightarrow |L|$ are homotopic. Does it follow that the induced homomorphisms

$$\phi_*, \psi_* : H_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow H_*^\Delta(L)$$

are identical? We've seen that bordism theory has a homotopy invariance property of this type, and a similar property is also incorporated into the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for homology theories.

The assumption in the present context is that there exists a continuous map

$$I \times |K| \xrightarrow{h} |L|$$

with $h(0, \cdot) = |\phi|$ and $h(1, \cdot) = |\psi|$. In order to make something useful out of this in *simplicial* homology, it would seem natural to impose an extra condition and require h to be a *simplicial* map, but here we encounter an obstacle: it is not obvious whether $I \times |K|$ has a natural triangulation, which would be needed in order for the notion of a simplicial map to make sense. The polyhedron $|K|$ is a union of simplices $|\sigma| \cong \Delta^n$ of various dimensions $n \geq 0$, and this decomposes $I \times |K|$ into “prism-shaped” subsets of the form

$$I \times \Delta^n \cong \Delta^1 \times \Delta^n.$$

If we can find a sufficiently natural way of triangulating $\Delta^1 \times \Delta^n$, we will obtain from this a triangulation of $I \times |K|$, and thus be able to speak of *simplicial* homotopies $h : I \times |K| \rightarrow |L|$ between $|\phi|$ and $|\psi|$.

32.2. Triangulating products of simplices. Let us frame the question a bit more generally: Is there a natural way to triangulate $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ for every pair of integers $m, n \geq 0$? This product of simplices is a manifold of dimension $m + n$ with boundary

$$\begin{aligned} \partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n) &= (\partial\Delta^m \times \Delta^n) \cup (\Delta^m \times \partial\Delta^n) \\ &= \left(\bigcup_{k=0}^m \partial_{(k)} \Delta^m \times \Delta^n \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{k=0}^n \Delta^m \times \partial_{(k)} \Delta^n \right). \end{aligned}$$

Notice that each term in the union on the second line is canonically homeomorphic to a product of the form $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$ for $k \leq m$ and $\ell \leq n$ with $k + \ell = m + n - 1$. This suggests an inductive condition that would be natural to require on our triangulations: if we assume that suitable triangulations of $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$ have already been constructed for all $k + \ell < m + n$, then we would like our triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ to reproduce these triangulations when restricted to its smooth boundary faces. We shall now describe a direct construction that produces this result.

Denote the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^{m+n+2} = \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ by

$$(e_0, 0), \dots, (e_m, 0), (0, f_0), \dots, (0, f_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1},$$

so we can regard $e_0, \dots, e_m$ as the vertices of Δ^m and $f_0, \dots, f_n$ as the vertices of Δ^n . The triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ we construct has vertex set

$$V := \{(e_i, f_j) \in \Delta^m \times \Delta^n \mid i \in \{0, \dots, m\} \text{ and } j \in \{0, \dots, n\}\},$$

and its k -simplices for $k = 0, \dots, m + n$ will be the convex hulls of certain $(k + 1)$ -tuples of these vertices; in this way, the triangulation $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n \cong |K|$ will be uniquely determined once we have specified a suitable abstract simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$. To specify which subsets should be the vertices of a simplex in K , endow the set $\{0, \dots, m\} \times \{0, \dots, n\}$ with the total order such that $(i, j) \leq (i', j')$ if and only if $i \leq i'$ and $j \leq j'$, so *strict* inequality $(i, j) < (i', j')$ means additionally that $i < i'$ or $j < j'$. For $k = 0, \dots, m + n$, the k -simplices σ of K are then defined as

$$\sigma = \{(e_{i_0}, f_{j_0}), \dots, (e_{i_k}, f_{j_k})\} \subset \Delta^m \times \Delta^n,$$

for all possible strictly increasing sequences

$$(i_0, j_0) < \dots < (i_k, j_k) \in \{0, \dots, m\} \times \{0, \dots, n\}.$$

By this definition, we observe that the $(m + n)$ -simplices all correspond to sequences $(i_0, j_0) < \dots < (i_{m+n}, j_{m+n})$ that begin with $(i_0, j_0) = (0, 0)$ and end with $(i_{m+n}, j_{m+n}) = (m, n)$, thus all of them contain the two specific vertices (e_0, f_0) and (e_m, f_n) . Boundary faces σ of these $(m + n)$ -simplices come in three types, corresponding to sequences $(i_0, j_0) < \dots < (i_{m+n-1}, j_{m+n-1})$ that satisfy the following conditions:

- (1) The sequence $j_0, \dots, j_{m+n-1}$ takes every value in $\{0, \dots, n\}$ but $i_0, \dots, i_{m+n-1}$ misses exactly one value $i \in \{0, \dots, m\}$ (Figure 29, left);

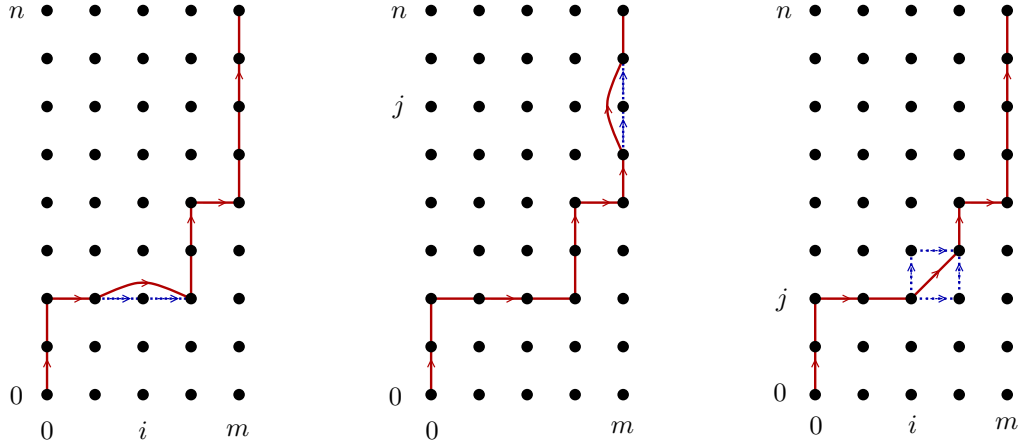


FIGURE 29. Examples of increasing sequences (depicted as paths in a lattice) representing the three types of boundary faces of $(m+n)$ -simplices in the triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$, in this case with $m = 4$ and $n = 8$. Dotted paths indicate the $(m+n)$ -simplices that have these specific $(m+n-1)$ -simplices as boundary faces; in the third example, there are two of them.

- (2) The sequence $i_0, \dots, i_{m+n-1}$ takes every value in $\{0, \dots, m\}$ but $j_0, \dots, j_{m+n-1}$ misses exactly one value $j \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ (Figure 29, middle);
- (3) There are two consecutive terms of the form $(i, j), (i+1, j+1)$ (Figure 29, right).

In the first two cases, the $m+n$ vertices of σ all lie in one of the convex sets

$$\partial_{(i)} \Delta^m \times \Delta^n \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta^m \times \partial_{(j)} \Delta^n.$$

As observed above, the union of these sets for all $i = 0, \dots, m$ and $j = 0, \dots, n$ is $\partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$, and these boundary faces thus determine an $(m+n-1)$ -dimensional subcomplex $\partial K \subset K$ in which the convex hull of the vertices of each simplex is contained in $\partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$. It is easy to check that *all* simplices of K with convex hull contained in $\partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$ are of this form, because for any two points $p, q \in \partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$ that do not both belong to the same one of the $m+n+2$ convex subsets mentioned above, the line segment from p to q passes through the interior of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$. In particular, boundary faces of the third type in the list above do not belong to the subcomplex ∂K .

Since the vertices $(e_i, f_j) \in V$ are all points in $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{m+n+2}$ and the latter is a convex set, the unique linear map $\mathbb{R}^V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m+n+2}$ sending $e_v \mapsto v$ for each $v \in V$ restricts to the polyhedron $|K| \subset \mathbb{R}^V$ as a map

$$(32.1) \quad |K| \rightarrow \Delta^m \times \Delta^n.$$

Exercise 32.1 shows that this map is a homeomorphism, and thus defines a triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$; moreover, restricting it to the subcomplex ∂K formed by simplices with convex hulls contained in $\partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$ gives a homeomorphism $|\partial K| \cong \partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)$. Figure 30 shows the example of the prism $\Delta^1 \times \Delta^2 \cong I \times \Delta^2$.

In order to define fundamental cycles $c_{\Delta^m \times \Delta^n}$ in $C_{m+n}^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $C_{m+n}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ from our triangulation, we need to endow it with an orientation and choose an admissible ordering for the simplicial complex K . The latter is easy, as the total order on $\{0, \dots, k\} \times \{0, \dots, \ell\}$ determines a total order on the set of all vertices of K . In order to define a suitable orientation, let $\mathbf{S}(m, n)$ denote the set of all strictly increasing sequences $(i_0, j_0) < \dots < (i_{m+n}, j_{m+n})$ of $m+n+1$

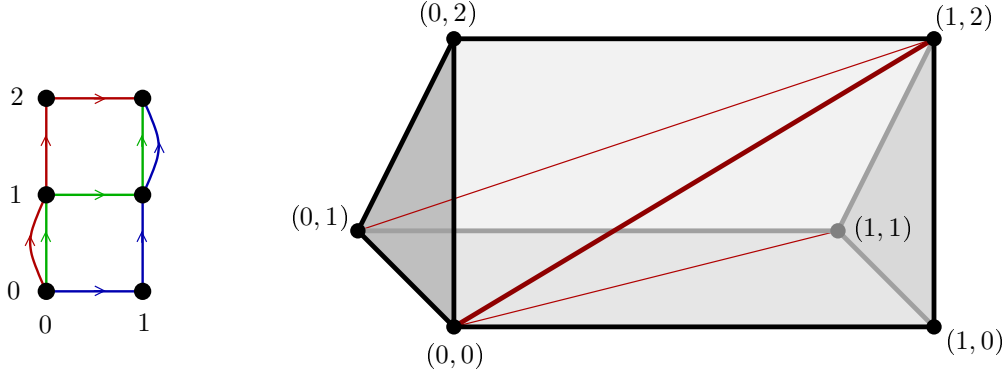


FIGURE 30. The triangulation of the prism $\Delta^1 \times \Delta^2 \cong I \times \Delta^2$ produced via the algorithm of §32.2. The lattice at the left shows (as paths in red, green and blue) the three maximal increasing sequences that correspond to the 3-simplices triangulating $\Delta^1 \times \Delta^2$, and the picture at the right labels each vertex according to its corresponding lattice point.

elements in $\{0, \dots, m\} \times \{0, \dots, n\}$, and write $\sigma_{\mathbf{s}}$ for the $(m+n)$ -simplex of K determined by each $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbf{S}(m, n)$. Denote by $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathbf{S}(m, n)$ the specific sequence

$$(0, 0) < (1, 0) < \dots < (m, 0) < (m, 1) < \dots < (m, n),$$

and define the **parity** $|\mathbf{s}| \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ of any element $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbf{S}(m, n)$ to be the number of steps (modulo 2) required in order to transform $\mathbf{s}_0$ into $\mathbf{s}$ via operations that modify three consecutive terms of a sequence like so:

$$(i-1, j) < (i, j) < (i, j+1) \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad (i-1, j) < (i-1, j+1) < (i, j+1).$$

The rightmost picture in Figure 29 illustrates the idea: the $(m+n-1)$ -simplex represented by the solid path in that picture is a boundary face of two $(m+n)$ -simplices that are related to each other by one of the operations described above, and are therefore assigned opposite parity.

LEMMA 32.1. *The parity $|\mathbf{s}| \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ of elements $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbf{S}(m, n)$ is independent of choices.*

PROOF. Each increasing sequence $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbf{S}(m, n)$ can be represented uniquely as an ordered $(m+n)$ -tuple containing the symbols $R_1, \dots, R_m$ (to represent rightward motions in the lattice) and $U_1, \dots, U_n$ (for upward motions), with the sets of R and U symbols each listed in increasing order. From this perspective, there is a unique permutation that transforms $\mathbf{s}_0$ into $\mathbf{s}$, and $(-1)^{|\mathbf{s}|}$ is the sign of that permutation. $\square$

We now orient our triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ by listing the vertices of each $(m+n)$ -simplex $\sigma_{\mathbf{s}}$ in increasing order and then multiplying the resulting orientation by $(-1)^{|\mathbf{s}|}$. The induced boundary orientations satisfy the required condition due to the fact (illustrated by Figure 29, right) that whenever two $(m+n)$ -simplices share a common boundary face, the corresponding sequences have opposite parity.

The chosen orientation and admissible ordering for K determine a fundamental cycle

$$c_{\Delta^m \times \Delta^n} \in C_{m+n}^{\Delta}(K; \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text{or} \quad C_{m+n}^o(K; \mathbb{Z}).$$

For each $m, n \geq 1$, the relation $\partial c_{\Delta^m \times \Delta^n} = c_{\partial(\Delta^m \times \Delta^n)}$ then becomes the following formula under the usual identification between boundary faces and simplices of one dimension lower:

$$(32.2) \quad \partial c_{\Delta^m \times \Delta^n} = \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^i c_{\partial_{(i)} \Delta^m \times \Delta^n} + (-1)^m \sum_{j=0}^n (-1)^j c_{\Delta^m \times \partial_{(j)} \Delta^n}.$$

REMARK 32.2. If we regard $\partial \Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ and $\Delta^m \times \partial \Delta^n$ as compact topological $(m+n-1)$ -manifolds with matching boundary $\partial \Delta^m \times \partial \Delta^n$ and endow both with the oriented triangulations and admissible orderings that they inherit from $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$, the formula in (32.2) takes the slightly prettier form

$$\partial c_{\Delta^m \times \Delta^n} = c_{\partial \Delta^m \times \Delta^n} + (-1)^m c_{\Delta^m \times \partial \Delta^n}.$$

When we introduce the homological cross product later in this semester, the singular homology version of this relation will take the form

$$\partial(c_{\Delta^m} \times c_{\Delta^n}) = \partial c_{\Delta^m} \times c_{\Delta^n} + (-1)^m c_{\Delta^m} \times \partial c_{\Delta^n},$$

which is written in terms of the obvious fundamental cycle $c_{\Delta^k} \in C_k(\Delta^k; \mathbb{Z})$ for the standard simplex of each dimension with its trivial triangulation, and a bilinear product operation

$$C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y) : A \otimes B \mapsto A \times B$$

that relates the singular chain complexes of any two spaces X, Y and sends $C_m(X) \otimes C_n(Y)$ in general to $C_{m+n}(X \times Y)$. We will have plenty to say about this product later, but the detail I want to comment on right now is the sign $(-1)^m$ appearing on the right hand side of the formula. This is an instance of a general pattern known as the **Koszul sign convention**, which we will see many more examples of in this course. In a nutshell, the rule is that whenever objects carry natural gradings in either $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2$, exchanging the order of two objects with odd degree causes a sign change. In the present context, the “objects” to which this rule applies are not only the chains of certain degrees in Δ^m and Δ^n but also the operator ∂ , which we regard as having degree -1 since it maps k -chains to $(k-1)$ -chains for every k . This means that no sign change is necessary when writing $\partial c_{\Delta^m} \times c_{\Delta^n}$, since the three objects ∂ , c_{Δ^m} and c_{Δ^n} appear here in the same order as on the left hand side, but writing $c_{\Delta^m} \times \partial c_{\Delta^n}$ exchanges the order of ∂ and c_{Δ^m} , and since ∂ has odd degree, a sign change must then result if and only if c_{Δ^m} also has odd degree, meaning m is odd. One could presumably state a general theorem in category-theoretic terms to explain why and in what contexts this particular way of dealing with signs gives the results we want, but I personally would consider writing down that theorem to be more trouble than it is worth. If you haven’t seen the Koszul convention before in one of the many other contexts (e.g. the exterior algebra of differential forms on smooth manifolds) where it naturally arises, then I think that you will in any case learn through experience during the remainder of this course why it is good and useful.

32.3. Simplicial homotopies. In order to specify the assumptions that are useful to impose on a homotopy between two simplicial maps $K \rightarrow L$, we must first describe what properties a triangulation of $I \times |K|$ should have.

DEFINITION 32.3. Assume K is a simplicial complex, and K_I is another simplicial complex for which there is a homeomorphism $\psi : |K_I| \rightarrow I \times |K|$. We will say that this complex and homeomorphism define an **admissible triangulation** of $I \times |K|$ if they have the following properties:

- (1) For $j = 0, 1$, there are simplicial maps

$$\iota^j : K \rightarrow K_I$$

such that $\psi \circ \iota^j$ is the inclusion $|K| = \{j\} \times |K| \hookrightarrow I \times |K|$;

- (2) For every simplex σ of K , there is a subcomplex $\sigma_I \subset K_I$ such that $\psi(|\sigma_I|) = I \times |\sigma|$.

EXAMPLE 32.4. For any simplicial complex K , one can use the construction in §32.2 to define an admissible triangulation $|K_I| \cong I \times |K|$ as follows. Choose a homeomorphism $I \cong \Delta^1$, and an admissible ordering for K . These choices determine for each $n \geq 0$ and each n -simplex σ of K a homeomorphism $I \times |\sigma| \cong \Delta^1 \times \Delta^n$, so that a triangulation of $\Delta^1 \times \Delta^n$ determines a triangulation of $I \times |\sigma|$. The properties of that triangulation also guarantee that for any two simplices σ, σ' of K with a common face τ , the triangulations of $I \times |\sigma|$ and $I \times |\sigma'|$ restrict to the same triangulation on $I \times |\tau|$, and the result is thus a global triangulation of $I \times |K|$ that restricts to $\{0\} \times |K|$ and $\{1\} \times |K|$ as the obvious triangulation of $|K|$.

EXAMPLE 32.5. Since two admissible triangulations of $I \times |K|$ must match the obvious triangulation along both $\{0\} \times |K|$ and $\{1\} \times |K|$, they can be glued together to produce a “concatenated” triangulation of $[0, 2] \times |K| \cong I \times |K|$, which is also admissible.

DEFINITION 32.6. A **simplicial homotopy** between two simplicial maps $\phi, \psi : K \rightarrow L$ consists of an admissible triangulation $I \times |K| \cong |K_I|$ and a simplicial map $h : K_I \rightarrow L$ such that for the simplicial inclusions $\iota^0, \iota^1 : K \hookrightarrow K_I$ mentioned in Definition 32.3, $h \circ \iota^0 = \phi$ and $h \circ \iota^1 = \psi$.

One can easily verify using the specific admissible triangulation in Example 32.4 that every simplicial map admits a simplicial homotopy to itself, and since admissible triangulations can be concatenated as in Example 32.5, the relation of simplicial homotopy is also transitive; in particular, it is an equivalence relation. Moreover, for any composition $\phi \circ \psi$ of simplicial maps, simplicial homotopies $\phi \sim_h \phi'$ and $\psi \sim_h \psi'$ give rise to a simplicial homotopy $\phi \circ \psi \sim_h \phi' \circ \psi'$.

DEFINITION 32.7. We shall denote by **hSimp** the **homotopy category of simplicial complexes**, which has the same objects as **Simp**, but simplicial homotopy classes of simplicial maps as morphisms. An isomorphism of **hSimp** is called a **simplicial homotopy equivalence**, and the inverse of an isomorphism in **hSimp** is called its **simplicial homotopy inverse**.

32.4. From simplicial to chain homotopies. Suppose $|K_I| \cong I \times |K|$ is an admissible triangulation and

$$h : K_I \rightarrow L$$

is a simplicial homotopy between $h \circ \iota^0 = \phi$ and $h \circ \iota^1 = \psi$. Given an oriented n -simplex $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_n] \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ of K , denote its $n+1$ oriented boundary faces by

$$\partial_{(k)}\sigma := (-1)^k[v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_{k+1}, \dots, v_n], \quad k = 0, \dots, n,$$

so that $\partial\sigma = \sum_{k=0}^n \partial_{(k)}\sigma \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$. There is a unique orientation of the triangulation $|\sigma_I| \cong I \times |\sigma| \subset I \times |K|$ for which the induced boundary orientation on $\{1\} \times |\sigma|$ (which is a boundary face of an $(n+1)$ -simplex of σ_I) matches that of σ ; the induced boundary orientation on $\{0\} \times |\sigma|$ will then be opposite that of σ . This orientation thus determines a fundamental cycle

$$c_{I \times |\sigma|} \in C_{n+1}^\Delta(\sigma_I; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_{n+1}^\Delta(K_I; \mathbb{Z}),$$

and we can do the same trick with each of the oriented $(n-1)$ -simplices $\partial_{(k)}\sigma$ for $k = 0, \dots, n$, producing fundamental cycles

$$c_{I \times |\partial_{(k)}\sigma|} \in C_n^\Delta((\partial_{(k)}\sigma)_I; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_n^\Delta(K_I; \mathbb{Z}).$$

The formula (32.2) then specializes to this situation as

$$\partial c_{I \times |\sigma|} = \iota_*^1 \sigma - \iota_*^0 \sigma - \sum_{k=0}^n c_{I \times |\partial_{(k)}\sigma|} \in C_n^\Delta(K_I; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Since $h : K_I \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial map, there is a unique homomorphism

$$C_n^\Delta(K) \xrightarrow{h_\#} C_{n+1}^\Delta(L)$$

defined for each $n \geq 0$ via linearity and the formula

$$h_{\#}(\sigma) := h_* c_{I \times |\sigma|}$$

for oriented n -simplices $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_n]$ of K . Using the fact that $h_* : C_*(K_I) \rightarrow C_*(L)$ is a chain map, the formula above for $\partial c_{I \times |\sigma|}$ implies

$$\partial h_{\#}(\sigma) = \psi_* \sigma - \phi_* \sigma - h_{\#}(\partial \sigma),$$

so that $h_{\#}$ satisfies the so-called **chain homotopy relation**

$$\partial h_{\#} + h_{\#} \partial = g_* - f_*.$$

A brief algebraic digression is now in order.

DEFINITION 32.8. Given two chain maps $f, g : (A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial^B)$, a **chain homotopy** (*Kettenhomotopie*) from f to g is a homomorphism $h : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ that satisfies $h(A_n) \subset B_{n+1}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and the chain homotopy relation

$$\partial^B h + h \partial^A = g - f.$$

We say that f and g are **chain homotopic** if there exists a chain homotopy from f to g .

One easily checks that the notion of chain homotopy defines an equivalence relation between chain maps, and moreover, if f_0 and f_1 are chain homotopic and have well-defined compositions of chain maps $f_j \circ g$, then $f_0 \circ g$ and $f_1 \circ g$ are also chain homotopic; a similar statement applies to compositions of the form $g \circ f_j$. The upshot is that there is a well-defined **homotopy category of chain complexes**

$$\mathbf{hCh}(R\text{-Mod}) \quad \text{abbreviated as} \quad \mathbf{hCh},$$

in which the objects are chain complexes of R -modules and the morphisms are chain homotopy classes of chain maps. An isomorphism in the category $\mathbf{hCh}$ is called a **chain homotopy equivalence** (*Kettenhomotopieäquivalenz*), so a chain map $f : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is a chain homotopy equivalence if and only if it admits a **chain homotopy inverse** $g : B_* \rightarrow A_*$, meaning a chain map such that the compositions $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$ are each chain homotopic to identity maps.

There are two convincing reasons why the category $\mathbf{hCh}$ is important to define: the first is that simplicial homotopies between simplicial maps give rise to chain homotopies between the induced chain maps, as shown above—and we will see later that chain homotopies in the singular chain complex similarly arise from arbitrary homotopies between continuous maps. The second reason is the following easy result, which tells us that the algebraic homology functors $H_n : \mathbf{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ descend to the homotopy category as functors $\mathbf{hCh} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.

PROPOSITION 32.9. *If $f, g : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ are chain homotopic chain maps, then for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the homomorphisms $f_*, g_* : H_n(A_*) \rightarrow H_n(B_*)$ they induce on homology are identical.*

PROOF. Given $[a] \in H_n(A_*)$, the representative $a \in A_n$ is a cycle, so the chain homotopy relation gives $g(a) - f(a) = \partial^B h(a) + h \partial^A a = \partial^B h(a)$, implying $[f(a)] = [g(a)] \in H_n(B_*)$. $\square$

Putting all of this together implies:

COROLLARY 32.10. *If $\phi, \psi : K \rightarrow L$ are simplicial maps related by a simplicial homotopy, then the induced chain maps $\phi_*, \psi_* : C_*^{\Delta}(K) \rightarrow C_*^{\Delta}(L)$ are chain homotopic, and the induced homomorphisms on homology $\phi_*, \psi_* : H_n^{\Delta}(K) \rightarrow H_n^{\Delta}(L)$ are therefore identical. identical for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.* $\square$

COROLLARY 32.11. *If $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial homotopy equivalence, then the induced chain map $\phi_* : C_*^{\Delta}(K) \rightarrow C_*^{\Delta}(L)$ is a chain homotopy equivalence, and thus induces isomorphisms $\phi_* : H_n^{\Delta}(K) \rightarrow H_n^{\Delta}(L)$ for all n .* $\square$

REMARK 32.12. We have used oriented simplicial homology in this discussion for the sake of concreteness, but the discussion also makes sense for ordered simplicial homology.

32.5. Simplicial approximation. The simplicial approximation theorem gives us a useful relation between the category **Simp** and the subcategory of **Top** whose objects are polyhedra.

DEFINITION 32.13. Assume $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map between two polyhedra with fixed triangulations $X \cong |K|$ and $Y \cong |L|$. A **simplicial approximation** of f is then a simplicial map

$$\phi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$$

for some integer $k \geq 0$ such that for every point $x \in X$, the topological realization $|\phi| : X \cong |\text{Sd}^k(K)| \rightarrow |L| \cong Y$ sends x into the smallest simplex of L containing $f(x)$.

We will prove in a moment that when X is compact, simplicial approximations always exist. The word “approximation” conveys the intuition that the topological realization $|\phi| : X \rightarrow Y$ of a simplicial approximation is in some sense “close” to the original map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, as measured by the condition that $|\phi|(x)$ and $f(x)$ always lie in the same simplex. We can express this condition succinctly as

$$(32.3) \quad |\phi|(x) \in |\sigma_L(f(x))|,$$

where for an arbitrary simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ and point $x \in |K|$ in its polyhedron, we denote by

$$\sigma_K(x) \in S$$

the smallest simplex of K for which $x \in |\sigma|$. Equivalently, $\sigma_K(x)$ is the unique simplex of K such that $|\sigma_K(x)|$ contains the point x in its *interior*, rather than in one of its lower-dimensional faces. The condition (32.3) has practical consequences of a homotopy-theoretic nature:

PROPOSITION 32.14. *If $\phi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial approximation of $f : X \rightarrow Y$, then the maps f and $|\phi| : X \cong |\text{Sd}^k(K)| \rightarrow |L| \cong Y$ are homotopic.*

PROOF. Let V denote the set of vertices of L , so $Y \cong |L| \subset \mathbb{R}^V$. Then linear interpolation in $\mathbb{R}^V$ gives rise to a homotopy of maps $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^V$ between f and $|\phi|$, but for every $x \in X$, both $f(x)$ and $|\phi|(x)$ lie in $|\sigma_L(f(x))| \subset |L| \subset \mathbb{R}^V$, which is a convex set, so it follows that every map $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^V$ obtained by linear interpolation also has image in $|L|$. $\square$

REMARK 32.15. We can now comment on why Definition 32.13 involves subdivision, as one might naively have hoped for a simpler definition in which a simplicial approximation of $f : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ is a simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ with $|\phi|$ homotopic to f . There are easy examples to show that if simplicial approximations are characterized in this way, then they will not always exist. For instance, every non-surjective map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ has its image in a contractible space $S^1 \setminus \{*\} \cong \mathbb{R}$ and is thus homotopic to a constant, implying that every map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ homotopic to the identity is surjective. But if we choose two triangulations $S^1 \cong |K|$ and $S^1 \cong |L|$ such that L has strictly more vertices than K , then no simplicial map $K \rightarrow L$ can be surjective, and the identity $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ therefore cannot be homotopic to any simplicial map with respect to these particular triangulations. Of course, this problem goes away if we are also allowed to replace K with a triangulation that has arbitrarily many vertices, e.g. by iterated barycentric subdivision.

LEMMA 32.16. *If $\phi, \psi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$ are two simplicial approximations of a continuous map $f : X \cong |K| \rightarrow |L| \cong Y$, having the same iterated subdivision $\text{Sd}^k(K)$ as their domain, then there exists a simplicial homotopy between ϕ and ψ .*

PROOF. Let V' denote the vertex set of $K' := \text{Sd}^k(K)$, and endow $I \times |K'| \cong I \times X$ with a triangulation as described in Example §32.4, whose set of vertices has a natural identification with $\{0, 1\} \times V'$, with K'_I denoting the underlying simplicial complex with $|K'_I| \cong I \times X$. We claim that there is a (necessarily unique) simplicial map $h : K'_I \rightarrow L$ such that $h(0, v) = \phi(v)$ and $h(1, v) = \psi(v)$ for all $v \in V'$. To see that this map sends simplices of K'_I to simplices of L , recall first that every simplex of K'_I is a subset of $\{0, 1\} \times \sigma$ for some simplex $\sigma \subset V'$ of K' . Let $b_\sigma \in |\sigma| \subset X$ denote the barycenter of σ . Since $\phi : K' \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial map, $|\phi| : X \rightarrow Y$ then sends b_σ to a point in the interior of the simplex $|\phi(\sigma)| \subset Y$. But $|\phi|(b_\sigma)$ also necessarily belongs to the simplex $|\sigma_L(f(b_\sigma))|$, so it follows that $\phi(\sigma)$ is a face of $\sigma_L(f(b_\sigma))$, and by the same argument, $\psi(\sigma)$ is also a face of $\sigma_L(f(b_\sigma))$. It follows that h maps every simplex of K'_I in $\{0, 1\} \times \sigma$ into the simplex $\sigma_L(f(b_\sigma))$, which proves the claim. $\square$

We now address the existence question.

THEOREM 32.17 (simplicial approximation). *Every continuous map from a compact polyhedron to another polyhedron admits a simplicial approximation.*

PROOF. Write $f : X \cong |K| \rightarrow |L| \cong Y$ for the map that is to be approximated, and assume X is compact, so K is a finite simplicial complex. For each vertex v of K , define the so-called **open star** of v in K as the open neighborhood

$$\text{st}_K v \subset X$$

of v formed by the union of the interiors of all simplices of K that have v as a vertex. Figure 31 shows the open stars of two neighboring vertices in a 2-dimensional polyhedron; notice that their intersection contains the interior of the 1-simplex bounded by these two vertices. The collection of all open stars of vertices defines an open covering of any polyhedron. Now, the compactness of X makes the following step possible: after replacing K by a sufficiently fine iterated subdivision $K' := \text{Sd}^k(K)$, we can assume that for every vertex v of K' , there exists a vertex w_v of L such that (see Figure 31 again)

$$f(\text{st}_{K'} v) \subset \text{st}_L w_v.$$

Having associated to each vertex v of K' a vertex w_v of L with this property, we claim that

$$\phi(v) := w_v$$

defines a simplicial map $K' \rightarrow L$ which is a simplicial approximation of f . To see this, notice that for any finite tuple of vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ in K' , the intersection $\text{st}_{K'} v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st}_{K'} v_n \subset X$ is the set of all points $x \in X$ such that $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are all vertices of the simplex $\sigma_{K'}(x)$; in particular, this intersection is nonempty if and only if K' contains a simplex whose vertices are $v_0, \dots, v_n$. It follows that for any simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of K' , there is a nonempty intersection

$$\text{st}_L w_{v_0} \cap \dots \cap \text{st}_L w_{v_n} \supset f(\text{st}_{K'} v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st}_{K'} v_n) \neq \emptyset,$$

implying that $w_{v_0}, \dots, w_{v_n}$ are indeed the vertices (possibly with some repetition) of a simplex in L . This proves that ϕ is a simplicial map. Now for any $x \in X$, suppose $v_0, \dots, v_n$ are the vertices of the simplex $\sigma_{K'}(x)$, whose interior in the polyhedron $|K'| \cong X$ contains x , implying

$$x \in \text{st}_{K'} v_0 \cap \dots \cap \text{st}_{K'} v_n,$$

and thus

$$f(x) \in \text{st}_L w_{v_0} \cap \dots \cap \text{st}_L w_{v_n}.$$

The latter means that the simplex $\sigma_L(f(x))$ whose interior contains $f(x)$ has $w_{v_0}, \dots, w_{v_n}$ among its vertices. Since ϕ is a simplicial map, $|\phi|(x)$ similarly lies in the interior of the simplex $\phi(\sigma_{K'}(x))$, whose vertices are precisely $w_{v_0}, \dots, w_{v_n}$, and this simplex is therefore a face of $\sigma_L(f(x))$, proving $|\phi|(x) \in |\sigma_L(f(x))|$. $\square$

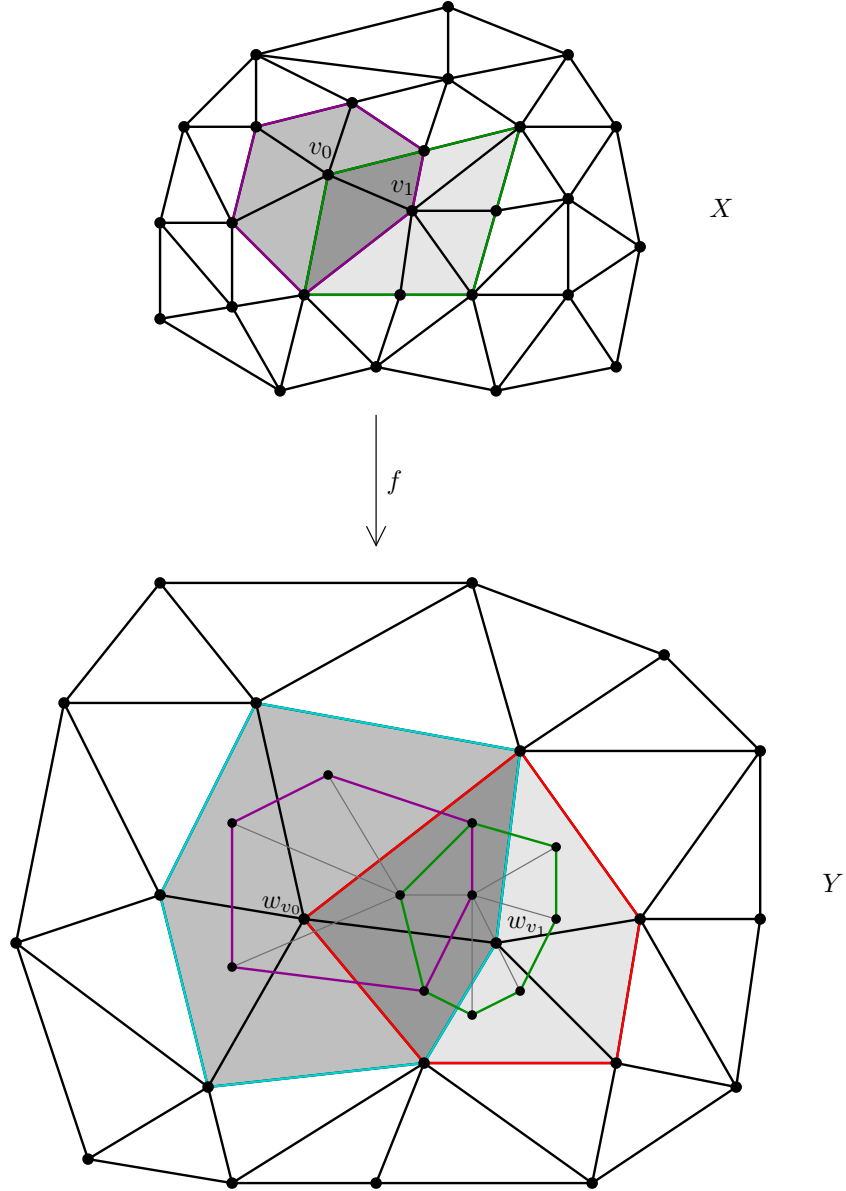


FIGURE 31. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between two polyhedra, with vertices $v_0, v_1 \in X$ and $w_{v_0}, w_{v_1} \in Y$ chosen such that f maps the open star of v_i into the open star of w_{v_i} for $i = 0, 1$. The prescription in the proof of Theorem 32.17 will then produce a simplicial map $g : X \rightarrow Y$ sending $v_i \mapsto w_{v_i}$ for $i = 0, 1$, so the 1-simplex in X bounded by v_0 and v_1 is sent to the 1-simplex in Y bounded by w_{v_0} and w_{v_1} .

Since a simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ gives rise to a continuous map $|\phi| : X \cong |K| \rightarrow |L| \cong Y$ between polyhedra, one can also find simplicial approximations $\phi' : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$ of $|\phi|$, and while this may seem counterintuitive at first, $|\phi'| : X \rightarrow Y$ will not be the same map as $|\phi|$ when $k > 0$,

due to the subdivided complex $\text{Sd}^k(K)$ having strictly more vertices than K . It will be useful to have a precise criterion for subdivided simplicial approximations of simplicial maps:

LEMMA 32.18. *If $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial map, then a map ϕ' sending vertices of $\text{Sd}(K)$ to vertices of L is a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ if and only if it sends the barycenter of every simplex σ of K to a vertex of $\phi(\sigma)$. In particular (since the barycenter of a 0-simplex is its unique vertex), ϕ' matches ϕ on every vertex of the original complex K .*

PROOF. Abbreviate $K' := \text{Sd}(K)$, and assume $\phi' : K' \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$. Every vertex of K' is the barycenter b_σ of a unique simplex σ of K , and $|\phi'(b_\sigma)|$ must then lie in the smallest simplex of L that contains $|\phi(b_\sigma)|$. The latter is a point in the interior of the simplex $\phi(\sigma)$, and since ϕ' is also a simplicial map, $\phi'(b_\sigma)$ is therefore a vertex of $\phi(\sigma)$.

Conversely, suppose ϕ' is any map from the vertices of K' to the vertices of L that sends b_σ to a vertex $w_\sigma := \phi'(b_\sigma)$ of $\phi(\sigma)$ for each simplex σ of K . We claim that ϕ' is then a simplicial map $K' \rightarrow L$ such that for each simplex σ of K and each simplex σ' of the barycentric subdivision of σ , $\phi'(\sigma')$ is a face of $\phi(\sigma)$. Observe first that if this claim holds, then ϕ' is a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$; indeed, for any point $x \in |\sigma_K(x)| \subset |K|$, $|\phi|(x)$ then lies in the interior of the simplex $\phi(\sigma_K(x))$, and $|\phi'|(x)$ also lies in a face of $\phi(\sigma_K(x))$. To prove the claim, observe first that it is trivially true for all the 0-simplices of K , because ϕ' matches ϕ by hypothesis on the vertices of K . Arguing by induction, suppose it is already known for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that for every k -simplex σ of K with $k \leq n-1$, ϕ' sends each simplex in the barycentric subdivision of σ to a face of $\phi(\sigma)$. For σ an n -simplex of K , each n -simplex of its barycentric subdivision is of the form $\{b_\sigma\} \cup \delta$ where b_σ is the barycenter of σ and δ is an $(n-1)$ -simplex in the barycentric subdivision of a boundary face $\partial_{(j)}\sigma$ of σ . The inductive hypothesis dictates that ϕ' sends δ to a face of $\phi(\partial_{(j)}\sigma)$, which is also a face of $\phi(\sigma)$, and since ϕ' sends b_σ to a vertex of $\phi(\sigma)$, it follows that $\phi'(\{b_\sigma\} \cup \delta)$ is similarly a face of $\phi(\sigma)$. This proves the claim. $\square$

When we discuss the functoriality of simplicial homology in Lecture 34, we will need to have a way of constructing simplicial approximations of compositions.

LEMMA 32.19. *Given triangulated polyhedra $X \cong |K|$, $Y \cong |L|$, $Z \cong |J|$ and continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$, suppose $\psi : \text{Sd}^k(L) \rightarrow J$ is a simplicial approximation of g and $\phi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K) \rightarrow \text{Sd}^k(L)$ is a simplicial approximation of f , where in the latter case, we take the triangulation of Y to be given by $\text{Sd}^k(L)$ instead of L . Then $\psi \circ \phi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K) \rightarrow J$ is a simplicial approximation of $g \circ f$.*

PROOF. Given $x \in X$, the hypotheses imply $|\phi|(x) \in |\sigma_{\text{Sd}^k(L)}(f(x))|$, and since $f(x)$ lies in the interior of $|\sigma_{\text{Sd}^k(L)}(f(x))|$ and ψ is a simplicial map, $|\psi|(f(x))$ lies in the interior of the simplex $|\psi(\sigma_{\text{Sd}^k(L)}(f(x)))|$. The fact that ψ is a simplicial approximation of g implies in turn that $|\psi|(f(x)) \in \sigma_J(g(f(x)))$, and $\psi(\sigma_{\text{Sd}^k(L)}(f(x)))$ is therefore a face of $\sigma_J(g(f(x)))$, implying $|\psi \circ \phi|(x) = |\psi|(|\phi|(x)) \in |\sigma_J((g \circ f)(x))|$. $\square$

32.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 32.1 (*). Prove that the map $|K| \rightarrow \Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ described in (32.1) is a homeomorphism.

Hint: This is probably not the only possible approach, but here an inductive argument as in Exercise 31.2 is also possible. Use the fact that certain points are contained in all the n -simplices.

EXERCISE 32.2. Show that for any two triangulated polyhedra $X \cong |K|$ and $Y \cong |L|$ with X compact, if $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are two homotopic continuous maps, then there exist simplicial approximations $\phi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$ of f and $\psi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L$ of g and a simplicial homotopy between

ϕ and ψ .

Hint: Just taking a simplicial approximation of a homotopy $h : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ won't suffice, because the barycentric subdivision of an admissible triangulation of $I \times |K|$ will not typically be an admissible triangulation of $I \times |\text{Sd}(K)|$. But look again at the proof of Theorem 32.17, and think about other ways to replace a triangulation of $I \times X$ with one that has smaller simplices.

33. Acyclic models

We have seen that for any simplicial complex K , there are natural chain maps

$$C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K) : (v_0, \dots, v_n) \mapsto [v_0, \dots, v_n]$$

and

$$C_*^\Delta(K) \xrightarrow{\text{Sd}} C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)).$$

The goal of this lecture is to prove that both are chain homotopy equivalences, thus inducing natural isomorphisms

$$H_n^o(K) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n^\Delta(K) \quad \text{and} \quad H_n^\Delta(K) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$$

for every $n \geq 0$. The second isomorphism will be an important ingredient in our proof in the next lecture that $H_*^\Delta(K)$ is a topological invariant of any compact polyhedron $|K|$, independent of the choice of simplicial complex that triangulates it. Thanks to the first isomorphism, this invariance result then immediately extends to $H_*^o(K)$ as well.

The proofs of the main results in this lecture use an algebraic trick known as the method of *acyclic models*, which will also be quite useful in our later discussion of products in singular homology and cohomology.

NOTATION. Several results in this lecture apply equally well to the ordered and oriented versions of simplicial homology, so the following notational convention will allow us to talk about both at the same time:

$$\begin{aligned} H_*^\bullet &:= H_*^o \text{ or } H_*^\Delta, \\ C_*^\bullet &:= C_*^o \text{ or } C_*^\Delta. \end{aligned}$$

33.1. Reduced simplicial homology and augmentations. We discussed the reduced version $\tilde{h}_*$ of an axiomatic homology theory h_* in §29.5. A reduced version of simplicial homology can be defined analogously, after observing that the one-point space $\{*\}$ is a polyhedron, whose underlying simplicial complex consists only of a single vertex. We shall also denote this one-point simplicial complex by $\{*\}$, and let

$$K \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \{*\}$$

denote the unique simplicial map from any given simplicial complex K to the one-point complex. The reduced (ordered or oriented) simplicial homology is then defined by

$$\tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K) = \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K; G) := \ker \left(H_n^\bullet(K; G) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} H_n^\bullet(\{*\}; G) \right).$$

It defines functors $\tilde{H}_n^\bullet : \text{Simp} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ since for every simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$, the commutative diagram of simplicial maps

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & \xrightarrow{\phi} & L \\ \downarrow \epsilon & & \downarrow \epsilon \\ \{*\} & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}} & \{*\} \end{array}$$

induces a commutative diagram of chain maps and therefore also of homologies,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*^\bullet(K) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & C_*^\bullet(L) \\ \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* \\ C_*^\bullet(\{*\}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} & C_*^\bullet(\{*\}) \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} H_n^\bullet(K) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & H_n^\bullet(L) \\ \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* \\ H_n^\bullet(\{*\}) & \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1}} & H_n^\bullet(\{*\}) \end{array},$$

implying that ϕ_* sends the kernel of the first ϵ_* to the kernel of the second, thus giving a map

$$(33.1) \quad \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{\phi_*} \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(L).$$

As with axiomatic homology, we can always choose a right-inverse of $\epsilon : K \rightarrow \{*\}$, which in this context must be a simplicial map $\{*\} \hookrightarrow K$ sending the unique vertex of $\{*\}$ to a chosen vertex of K , and the induced homomorphism on homology gives rise to a splitting of the short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K) \hookrightarrow H_n^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} H_n^\bullet(\{*\}) \rightarrow 0,$$

and thus an isomorphism $H_n^\bullet(K) \cong \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K) \oplus H_n^\bullet(\{*\})$. We recall from Exercise 30.4 that $H_n^\bullet(\{*\}; G)$ is trivial for $n \neq 0$ and is naturally isomorphic to the coefficient group G for $n = 0$, so the result is

$$H_n^\bullet(K; G) \cong \begin{cases} \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K; G) \oplus G & \text{for } n = 0, \\ \tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K; G) & \text{for } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Working through Exercise 30.4 also leads to the following observation: In both versions of the simplicial chain complex for $\{*\}$, the boundary map $\partial_1 : C_1^\bullet(\{*\}) \rightarrow C_0^\bullet(\{*\})$ at degree 1 is trivial. Indeed, this is immediate in the oriented chain complex because $C_1^\Delta(\{*\})$ is trivial due to the lack of 1-simplices, while in the ordered chain complex, $C_1^o(\{*\})$ has only a single generator $(*, *)$ determined by the unique vertex $*$ in $\{*\}$, which satisfies

$$\partial(*, *) = (*) - (*) = 0.$$

Since $\epsilon_* : C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(\{*\})$ is a chain map, the relation $\epsilon_* \partial = \partial \epsilon_*$ then implies that the composition of $\partial_1 : C_1^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_0^\bullet(K)$ with the so-called **augmentation** $\epsilon_* : C_0^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_0^\bullet(\{*\}) = G$ is trivial, leading to the so-called **augmented chain complex**

$$\dots \rightarrow C_2^\bullet(K; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1^\bullet(K; G) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0^\bullet(K; G) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} G \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots,$$

in which we use the natural isomorphism $C_0^\bullet(\{*\}; G) \cong G$ to replace $C_0^\bullet(\{*\}; G)$ by the coefficient group G , and the augmentation $\epsilon_* : C_0^\bullet(K; G) \rightarrow G$ can then be expressed via the direct formula

$$\epsilon_* \left(\sum_i a_i \sigma_i \right) = \sum_i a_i$$

for any finite linear combination of generators σ_i with coefficients $a_i \in G$. We shall denote the augmented chain complex by $\tilde{C}_*^\bullet(K) = \tilde{C}_*^\bullet(K; G)$, with chain groups

$$\tilde{C}_n^\bullet(K; G) := \begin{cases} C_n^\bullet(K; G) & \text{for } n \neq -1, \\ G & \text{for } n = -1, \end{cases}$$

and boundary map $\partial : \tilde{C}_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_*^\bullet(K)$ matching that of the usual chain complex $C_*^\bullet(K)$ except at degree 0, where it is defined to be the augmentation $\epsilon_* : C_0^\bullet(K; G) \rightarrow G$. It is a straightforward exercise to prove the following:

PROPOSITION 33.1. *For any simplicial complex K , there is a natural isomorphism*

$$H_*(\tilde{C}_*(K; G)) \xrightarrow{\cong} \tilde{H}_*(K; G)$$

that takes the form $[c] \mapsto [c]$ for cycles $c \in \tilde{C}_n(K; G)$ of degree $n \geq 0$. Moreover, any simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ induces a chain map

$$\tilde{C}_*(K; G) \xrightarrow{\phi_*} \tilde{C}_*(L; G)$$

that matches the usual chain map $C_(K; G) \xrightarrow{\phi_*} C_*(L; G)$ in nonnegative degrees and the identity map $G \rightarrow G$ in degree -1 , and the homomorphisms $H_n(\tilde{C}_*(K; G)) \rightarrow H_n(\tilde{C}_*(L; G))$ induced by this chain map match (33.1). $\square$*

DEFINITION 33.2. A chain map Φ between two simplicial chain complexes with the same coefficient group will be called **augmentable** if its restriction Φ_0 to degree zero satisfies the relation

$$\epsilon_* \Phi_0 = \epsilon_*.$$

Equivalently, Φ is augmentable if there exists a chain map between the corresponding augmented chain complexes that matches Φ in all nonnegative degrees and the identity map in degree -1 .

EXAMPLE 33.3. Proposition 33.1 implies that for any simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow L$, the induced chain map $\phi_* : C_*(K; G) \rightarrow C_*(L; G)$ is augmentable. The quotient projection $C_*(K; G) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K; G)$ is also an augmentable chain map for every simplicial complex K , since it takes generators $(v) \in C_0^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ to generators $[v] \in C_0^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$, with $\epsilon_*(v) = \epsilon_*[v] = 1$. For similar reasons, the subdivision chain map $\text{Sd} : C_*^\Delta(K; G) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); G)$ is augmentable, owing to the fact that the barycentric subdivision of a 0-simplex consists only of a single 0-simplex.

33.2. Acyclic complexes. The point of defining reduced simplicial homology is to have a version of simplicial homology that vanishes in *all* degrees for certain contractible polyhedra that arise in applications. We now single out an especially useful class of examples.

DEFINITION 33.4. A chain complex A_* is called **acyclic** if its homology $H_n(A_*)$ vanishes for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

An acyclic chain complex is essentially the same thing as an exact sequence of the form $\dots \rightarrow A_{n+1} \rightarrow A_n \rightarrow A_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots$. In practice, this is how acyclicity is often used: it is a condition guaranteeing that every cycle is also a boundary, i.e. the complex is called “acyclic” because it has no cycles (other than the cycles that must exist because they are boundaries).

PROPOSITION 33.5. *If K is a simplicial complex such that the map $\epsilon : K \rightarrow \{*\}$ is a simplicial homotopy equivalence, then the augmented simplicial chain complex $\tilde{C}_*(K; G)$ is acyclic for all choices of coefficients G .*

PROOF. The hypothesis implies via Corollary 32.11 or its analogue for ordered simplicial homology (see Remark 32.12) that $\epsilon_* : H_n^\bullet(K) \rightarrow H_n^\bullet(\{*\})$ is an isomorphism for every n ; in particular, its kernel is trivial, proving $\tilde{H}_n^\bullet(K) = 0$. $\square$

There are many simple examples of small simplicial complexes that contain a “special” vertex, one that is contained in every simplex of maximal dimension. This is true, for instance, of any complex that consists only of a single n -simplex and all its boundary faces; for this complex, every vertex is “special” in the aforementioned sense. A less trivial example is the complex formed by the barycentric subdivision of a single n -simplex, as all of the n -simplices in the subdivision have the barycenter as a common vertex.

LEMMA 33.6. Suppose $K = (V, S)$ is a simplicial complex with a vertex $* \in V$ such that every simplex $\sigma \in S$ is a face of some simplex containing $*$. Then $\epsilon : K \rightarrow \{*\}$ is a simplicial chain homotopy equivalence.

PROOF. Let $\iota : \{*\} \hookrightarrow K$ denote the simplicial inclusion that sends the unique vertex of the one-point complex $\{*\}$ to the special vertex $* \in V$ mentioned in the hypothesis. We claim that ι is a simplicial homotopy inverse of ϵ . Since $\epsilon \circ \iota$ is already the identity map, it will suffice to find a simplicial homotopy $h : K_I \rightarrow K$ between the identity and the simplicial map $\kappa := \iota \circ \epsilon : K \rightarrow K$, which sends every vertex to $*$. Using the triangulation $I \times |K| \cong |K_I|$ described in Example 32.4, with simplicial inclusions $\iota^0, \iota^1 : K \hookrightarrow K_I$, there is indeed a unique simplicial map $h : K_I \rightarrow K$ such that $h \circ \iota^1 = \text{Id}$ and $h \circ \iota^0 = \kappa$; this map is simplicial because for every simplex σ , the union of σ with the vertex $*$ is also a simplex, implying that h sends every vertex in $I \times |\sigma|$ to a vertex of the simplex $\sigma \cup \{*\} \in S$. $\square$

COROLLARY 33.7. For any simplicial complex K satisfying the hypothesis of Lemma 33.6, the augmented simplicial chain complexes $\tilde{C}_*(K; G)$ and $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(K; G)$ are acyclic for all choices of coefficients G . $\square$

33.3. From ordered to oriented. We now examine the natural chain map

$$(33.2) \quad C_*^o(K) \xrightarrow{\Psi_K} C_*^\Delta(K) : (v_0, \dots, v_n) \mapsto [v_0, \dots, v_n].$$

The word *natural* carries a precise meaning in this context that will be important to clarify. It means that for any other simplicial complex L with a simplicial map $\phi : L \rightarrow K$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*^o(L) & \xrightarrow{\Psi_K} & C_*^\Delta(L) \\ \downarrow \phi_* & & \downarrow \phi_* \\ C_*^o(K) & \xrightarrow{\Psi_L} & C_*^\Delta(K) \end{array}$$

commutes. As a special case, suppose $L \subset K$ is a subcomplex and $\phi : L \hookrightarrow K$ is the inclusion map: the chain maps $\phi_* : C_*^o(L) \rightarrow C_*^o(K)$ and $\phi_* : C_*^\Delta(L) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ are then likewise inclusions of subcomplexes, and naturality implies firstly that Ψ_K sends the subcomplex $C_*^o(L) \subset C_*^o(K)$ into the subcomplex $C_*^\Delta(L) \subset C_*^\Delta(K)$, and secondly that Ψ_L is simply the restriction of Ψ_K to $C_*^o(L)$.

With this observation as motivation, let us say more generally that for a specific simplicial complex K , a chain map $\Psi : C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ is **natural** if for every subcomplex $L \subset K$, Ψ sends $C_*^o(L)$ into $C_*^\Delta(L)$. It's worth noting that this is a fairly strong condition, e.g. if we add the assumption that Ψ is also augmentable, then these conditions uniquely determine Ψ at degree zero. Indeed, each vertex v of K defines a subcomplex $L := \{v\} \subset K$ consisting only of that single vertex, so that $C_0^o(L)$ and $C_0^\Delta(L)$ each have only a single generator, and augmentability dictates the formula $\Psi(v) = [v]$.

In the same manner, one can define the notion of a *natural* chain map in the other direction $C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^o(K)$, or between each of $C_*^\Delta(K)$ or $C_*^o(K)$ and itself. Such chain maps can always be interpreted as natural transformations between two functors to the category of chain complexes, defined on a category that has subcomplexes of K as objects and inclusion maps as morphisms.

The following result explains why the natural homomorphism $H_*^o(K) \rightarrow H_*^\Delta(K)$ induced by the chain map Ψ_K is always an isomorphism, thus making the ordered and oriented versions of simplicial homology interchangeable in practice.

THEOREM 33.8. For every simplicial complex K , the natural chain map $\Psi_K : C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ is a chain homotopy equivalence.

The theorem will follow from three lemmas, each of which should be understood to hold for an arbitrary simplicial complex K :

LEMMA 33.9. *There exists an augmentable natural chain map $\Phi : C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$, and it is unique up to chain homotopy.*

LEMMA 33.10. *Augmentable natural chain maps $C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ are unique up to chain homotopy.*

LEMMA 33.11. *Augmentable natural chain maps $C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ are unique up to chain homotopy.*

Notice that the statements of the last two lemmas only involve uniqueness, not existence. The existence is clear in both cases, because the identity map is a chain map that satisfies the required properties. This trivial observation is used in the following proof.

PROOF OF THEOREM 33.8. As observed in Example 33.3, $\Psi := \Psi_K$ is augmentable, and choosing Φ as provided by Lemma 33.9, the uniqueness up to chain homotopy in Lemmas 33.10 and 33.11 implies that if we are working with integer coefficients, $\Phi \circ \Psi$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi$ are both chain homotopic to the identity, so that Φ is a chain homotopy inverse for Ψ . The validity of this result extends to arbitrary coefficients for relatively trivial algebraic reasons explained in Remark 33.12 below. $\square$

REMARK 33.12. Here is why in the proof of Theorem 33.8, it suffices to consider chain complexes with integer coefficients. The three lemmas above provide chain maps between chain complexes with integer coefficients, but the resulting formulas for these maps on the canonical generators of $C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and $C_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ determine via linearity chain maps on $C_*^o(K; G)$ and $C_*^\Delta(K; G)$ for any coefficient group G . The same applies to chain homotopies, e.g. if $h : C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_{*+1}^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ is a chain homotopy between $\Phi \circ \Psi_K : C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^o(K; \mathbb{Z})$ and the identity, then it determines via linearity a chain homotopy $h : C_*^o(K; G) \rightarrow C_{*+1}^o(K; G)$ between $\Phi \circ \Psi_K : C_*^o(K; G) \rightarrow C_*^o(K; G)$ and the identity for any choice of coefficients G .

The proofs of Lemmas 33.9, 33.10 and 33.11 are very similar, and are based on an idea known as the method of **acyclic models**. We shall carry out the details only for Lemma 33.9, and leave the rest to Exercise 33.1.

PROOF OF LEMMA 33.9. For the entirety of this proof, we assume

$$G := \mathbb{Z}$$

and omit the coefficient group from the notation. We shall prove by induction on the degree $n \geq 0$ that it is possible to construct homomorphisms $\Phi_L : C_n^\Delta(L) \rightarrow C_n^o(L)$ for every subcomplex $L \subset K$ such that Φ_L is the restriction of Φ_K to $C_n^\Delta(L) \subset C_n^\Delta(K)$ and the chain map relation $\Phi_L \partial = \partial \Phi_L$ is satisfied. It would of course suffice to construct Φ_K such that it sends $C_n^\Delta(L) \rightarrow C_n^o(L)$ for every subcomplex $L \subset K$ and then define Φ_L as the restriction, but in practice, we shall do things the other way around, and define Φ_L first for a special class of subcomplexes such that the definition of Φ_K is then uniquely determined.

The beginning of the induction is to define $\Phi_K : C_0^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_0^o(K) : [v] \mapsto (v)$ for every vertex v of K , as this definition is uniquely determined by the requirements that Φ_K should be both natural and augmentable.

For a given $n \geq 1$, we then assume that $\Phi_K : C_k^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_k^o(K)$ has already been defined for every $k \leq n-1$ such that it sends $C_k^\Delta(L)$ to $C_k^o(L)$ for every subcomplex $L \subset K$ and satisfies $\Phi_K \partial = \partial \Phi_K$. The idea for the inductive step is now to first define $\Phi_L : C_n^\Delta(L) \rightarrow C_n^o(L)$ for a specific class of “model” subcomplexes $L \subset K$, which will determine $\Phi_K : C_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_n^o(K)$

via the naturality condition. The model complexes are defined as follows: For any n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of K , let $L_\sigma \subset K$ denote the subcomplex that contains only σ and all its faces. By Corollary 33.7, both versions of the augmented simplicial chain complex for L_σ are acyclic; this is why L_σ is called an “acyclic model”. Now, there is only one generator $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_n] \in C_n^\Delta(L_\sigma)$, so $\Phi_{L_\sigma} : C_n^\Delta(L_\sigma) \rightarrow C_n^o(L_\sigma)$ will be determined as soon as we choose a value for $\tau := \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) \in C_n^o(L_\sigma)$, which must be required to satisfy

$$\partial\tau = \partial\Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) = \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma) \in C_{n-1}^o(L_\sigma).$$

The right hand side of this expression has already been defined due to the inductive hypothesis. Moreover, it is a cycle in the augmented chain complex $\tilde{C}_*^o(L_\sigma)$, since

$$\partial\Phi_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma) = \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\partial^2\sigma) = 0 \in \tilde{C}_{n-2}^o(L_\sigma),$$

where we should clarify that in the case $n = 1$, the operator ∂ acting on 0-chains is actually the augmentation $\epsilon_* : C_0^o(L_\sigma; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\tilde{C}_*^o(L_\sigma)$ is acyclic, it follows that $\Phi_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma)$ is also a boundary, and we can therefore define $\Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma)$ to be any choice of element $\tau \in C_n^o(L_\sigma)$ such that $\partial\tau = \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma)$.

Having made such choices and defined $\Phi_{L_\sigma} : C_n^\Delta(L_\sigma) \rightarrow C_n^o(L_\sigma)$ for the model subcomplex $L_\sigma \subset K$ corresponding to each n -simplex σ of K , we observe now that there is a unique definition of $\Phi_K : C_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_n^o(K)$ that has the correct restriction to all of these subcomplexes, and it automatically satisfies both the chain map relation and the naturality condition.

The construction of Φ_K beyond degree zero involved some arbitrary choices, so it remains to show that any other augmentable natural chain map Φ'_K is chain homotopic to it. We shall use a similar inductive argument to construct homomorphisms $h_K : C_k^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_{k+1}^o(K)$ that satisfy the chain homotopy relation $\partial h_K + h_K \partial = \Phi'_K - \Phi_K$, and here as well it will be convenient to impose a naturality condition, namely that h_K has a well-defined restriction $h_L : C_k^\Delta(L) \rightarrow C_{k+1}^o(L)$ for every subcomplex $L \subset K$. To start the induction, note that Φ_K and Φ'_K are necessarily identical at degree zero, thus it suffices to define $h_K : C_0^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_1^o(K)$ as the trivial homomorphism. Now assume that h_K and its restrictions h_L satisfying the chain homotopy relation have already been defined on chains of degree $k \leq n-1$ for some $n \geq 1$. For each n -simplex $\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of K , we again consider the corresponding model subcomplex $L_\sigma \subset K$, and define $h_{L_\sigma} : C_n^\Delta(L_\sigma) \rightarrow C_{n+1}^o(L_\sigma)$ so that it sends the unique generator $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_n] \in C_n^\Delta(L_\sigma)$ to some element $\tau := h_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) \in C_{n+1}^o(L_\sigma)$ satisfying

$$\partial\tau = \partial h_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) = -h_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma) + \Phi'_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) - \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) \in C_n^o(L_\sigma).$$

This is possible due to acyclicity, since the inductive hypothesis implies that the right hand side is a cycle:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial(-h_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma) + \Phi'_{L_\sigma}(\sigma) - \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma)) &= (-\partial h_{L_\sigma} + \Phi'_{L_\sigma} - \Phi_{L_\sigma})(\partial\sigma) \\ &= h_{L_\sigma}(\partial^2\sigma) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Having extended h_{L_σ} to degree n for each of the model subcomplexes $L_\sigma \subset K$, there is again a unique definition of $h_K : C_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_{n+1}^o(K)$ that has the correct restriction to each of these subcomplexes, and it automatically satisfies the chain homotopy relation. $\square$

The proofs of Lemmas 33.10 and 33.11 are similar, but shorter since one only needs to construct chain homotopies, the existence of suitable chain maps being obvious. Lemma 33.10 also requires the knowledge that $\tilde{C}_*^o(L_\sigma)$ is an acyclic chain complex for each of the model complexes $L_\sigma \subset K$, while for Lemma 33.11, one must instead use the fact that $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(L_\sigma)$ is acyclic. This completes the proof of Theorem 33.8.

33.4. Subdivision is a chain homotopy equivalence. Acyclic models can also be used to prove a chain-level result that implies Theorem 31.16. Recall from Lemma 32.18 that for any simplicial complex K , a map from the vertices of $\text{Sd}(K)$ to the vertices of K that sends the barycenter of each simplex σ of K to a vertex of σ is a simplicial approximation $\pi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow K$ of the identity map $|K| \rightarrow |K|$. In particular, simplicial approximations of this form always exist, even if the polyhedron $|K|$ is not compact. They are sometimes also called **projections**, because they necessarily send each vertex of $\text{Sd}(K)$ that is also a vertex of K to itself.

THEOREM 33.13. *Assume K is a simplicial complex and $\pi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow K$ is a simplicial approximation of the identity map $|K| \rightarrow |K|$. Then $\pi_* : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ is a chain homotopy inverse of the subdivision chain map $\text{Sd} : C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$; in particular, Sd and π_* are both chain homotopy equivalences.*

In order to apply the method of acyclic models to this theorem, we must first decide on a suitable notion of *naturality*. In the present context, the word “natural” should be interpreted in terms of the commutative diagram (31.3), which makes Sd into a natural transformation from the functor $C_*^\Delta : \text{Simp} \rightarrow \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$ to the composition functor

$$\text{Simp} \xrightarrow{\text{Sd}} \text{Simp} \xrightarrow{C_*^\Delta} \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) .$$

In particular, the chain map $\text{Sd} : C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ is natural with respect to inclusions of subcomplexes $\phi : L \hookrightarrow K$. In this situation, $\text{Sd}(L)$ is naturally also a subcomplex of $\text{Sd}(K)$ such that the induced simplicial map $\text{Sd}(\phi) : \text{Sd}(L) \rightarrow \text{Sd}(K)$ is the inclusion, and the chain maps induced by these simplicial inclusions are likewise inclusions of subcomplexes into chain complexes.

With this as motivation, let us say that a chain map $\Psi : C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ is **natural** if for every subcomplex $L \subset K$, it sends $C_*^\Delta(L)$ into $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L))$. Similarly, naturality for chain maps $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ or $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ will mean sending $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(L)$ or $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L))$ respectively for every subcomplex $L \subset K$, and for chain maps $C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$, naturality will mean the same thing it meant in §33.3.

In addition to naturality, we recall from Example 33.3 that the chain map $\text{Sd} : C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ is augmentable, and by Proposition 33.1, so is $\pi_* : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ for any simplicial approximation $\pi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow K$ of the identity map $|K| \rightarrow |K|$. We also already know examples of augmentable natural chain maps $C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ and $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$, as the identity map fits the bill in both cases. The only ingredient still needed for a proof of Theorem 33.13 is the following:

LEMMA 33.14. *Augmentable natural chain maps $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$ are unique up to chain homotopy.*

PROOF. We assume integer coefficients throughout, and suppress this in the notation.

Assume $\Phi_K, \Phi'_K : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ are two augmentable natural chain maps, with restrictions to $C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L))$ for each subcomplex $L \subset K$ denoted by Φ_L, Φ'_L . Unlike the situation in Lemma 33.9, it is not true in this case that Φ_K and Φ'_K must necessarily match at degree zero, but since they are augmentable, we can also equivalently view them as natural chain maps $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$ that are both the identity $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ at degree -1 .

On the augmented complex, a chain homotopy $h_K : \tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{*+1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$ between Φ_K and Φ'_K that restricts to degree -1 as the trivial homomorphism $\tilde{C}_{-1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_0^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$ will give rise to a chain homotopy on the unaugmented complex, thus as the initial step of an inductive argument, we define $h_K(1) := 0 \in \tilde{C}_0^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$ for $1 \in \mathbb{Z} = \tilde{C}_{-1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K); \mathbb{Z})$.

Assume now that $n \geq 0$ and $h_K : \tilde{C}_k^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{k+1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ has been defined and satisfies the chain homotopy relation for all $k \leq n-1$. The next step is to make choices in order to define $h_L : \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L)) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L))$ for certain model subcomplexes $L \subset \text{Sd}(K)$, namely: for each n -simplex σ of K , let $L_\sigma \subset \text{Sd}(K)$ denote the subcomplex formed by the barycentric subdivisions of σ and all its faces. This makes L_σ an n -dimensional simplicial complex whose n -simplices all have the barycenter of σ as a common vertex, so by Corollary 33.7, $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L_\sigma))$ is acyclic. In contrast to the situation of Lemma 33.9, $\tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L_\sigma))$ typically has more than one generator, but this is not a problem: for any oriented n -simplex σ' of the subdivision of σ , representing a generator $\sigma' \in \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(L_\sigma))$, the chain homotopy relation requires that we define $\tau := h_{L_\sigma}(\sigma') \in \tilde{C}_{n+1}^\Delta(L_\sigma)$ to satisfy

$$\partial\tau = -h_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma') + \Phi'_{L_\sigma}(\sigma') - \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma') \in \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(L_\sigma).$$

Note that since we are working in the augmented complex, the symbol “ ∂ ” must be interpreted accordingly, i.e. in the case $n = 0$, $\partial\sigma'$ means $\epsilon_*\sigma' \in \tilde{C}_{-1}^\Delta(L_\sigma) = \mathbb{Z}$. By the inductive hypothesis, applying ∂ to the right hand side of this relation gives

$$\begin{aligned} \partial(-h_{L_\sigma}(\partial\sigma') + \Phi'_{L_\sigma}(\sigma') - \Phi_{L_\sigma}(\sigma')) &= (-\partial h_{L_\sigma} + \Phi'_{L_\sigma} - \Phi_{L_\sigma})(\partial\sigma') \\ &= h_{L_\sigma}(\partial\partial\sigma') = 0, \end{aligned}$$

and acyclicity then guarantees that τ can be chosen to satisfy the required relation. Doing this for all n -simplices in the barycentric subdivision of σ completes the definition of $h_{L_\sigma} : \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(L_\sigma) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1}^\Delta(L_\sigma)$.

Finally, we observe that $\tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$ decomposes as the direct sum

$$\tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) = \bigoplus_{\sigma} \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(L_\sigma),$$

with σ ranging over the set of all n -simplices of K , thus if we impose the usual naturality condition on our chain homotopy, then the definitions of h_{L_σ} uniquely determine $h_K : \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{n+1}^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$, and it automatically satisfies the chain homotopy relation. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 33.13. Since Sd and π_* are both natural and augmentable, Lemma 33.14 implies that $\text{Sd} \circ \pi_*$ is chain homotopic to the identity, while Lemma 33.11 implies the same for $\pi_* \circ \text{Sd}$. On a first pass, this argument works for integer coefficients, but it immediately extends to arbitrary coefficients for the reasons explained in Remark 33.12. $\square$

33.5. Exercise.

EXERCISE 33.1 (*). Carry out the proofs of Lemmas 33.10 and 33.11.

34. Invariance and relative homology

It is time to answer a question of fundamental importance: In what sense is the simplicial homology of a polyhedron independent of its triangulation? In this lecture, we will prove the topological invariance of oriented simplicial homology H_*^Δ , using simplicial approximation to turn the latter into a functor on a suitable subcategory of **Top**. Strictly speaking, the use of simplicial approximation means that our proof will be valid only for *compact* polyhedra, though the main result is valid without assuming compactness—we will not worry about this detail for now, since the more general result will also follow from theorems about cellular homology that we plan to prove later. Having established that H_*^Δ is independent of triangulations, Theorem 33.13 implies that the same is true for H_*^o .

We will conclude our discussion of simplicial homology with a brief introduction to *relative* simplicial homology for simplicial pairs. The algebraic mechanism that leads to exact sequences of

homology groups in this setting will reappear in Lecture 35 when we need to establish the exactness axiom for singular homology.

34.1. The Hauptvermutung. The following preliminary remarks are inessential, but interesting for historical reasons.

In the early development of homology theory, the topological invariance of simplicial homology supported the intuition that the *combinatorial* structure of a simplicial complex—which is what simplicial homology measures—should be determined by the topology of its polyhedron. The concrete formulation of this intuition became known as the *Hauptvermutung*: it was the conjecture that any two triangulations of the same polyhedron become equivalent after sufficiently many iterations of the barycentric subdivision algorithm. Here is a more precise version of the statement, expressed in terms that resemble the simplicial approximation theorem (Theorem 32.17):

HAUPTVERMUTUNG. *For two simplicial complexes K, L and a homeomorphism $f : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ between their polyhedra, there exist integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ and a simplicial isomorphism $\text{Sd}^k(K) \xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Sd}^\ell(L)$ whose topological realization $|K| \cong |\text{Sd}^k(K)| \rightarrow |\text{Sd}^\ell(L)| \cong |L|$ is homotopic to f .*

The Hauptvermutung remained an open question for several decades, until it was shown by Milnor [Mil61] in 1961 to be *false*; for a readable survey of these developments, see [Ran96]. The simplicial approximation theorem demonstrates, however, that the intuition behind the Hauptvermutung is not entirely wrong, and it can be interpreted as showing that the *homotopy* theory of any simplicial complex is determined by the homotopy theory of its polyhedron. This is the real reason why the simplicial homology of compact polyhedra is a topological invariant.

34.2. Continuous maps induce homomorphisms. We would like to show in this subsection that for any continuous map $f : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ between two polyhedra, if f admits a simplicial approximation, then f determines *canonical* homomorphisms $H_n(K) \rightarrow H_n(L)$ for each n . The tricky part is to prove that these homomorphisms are independent of the choice of simplicial approximation.

PROPOSITION 34.1. *Suppose K, L are simplicial complexes, $f : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ is a continuous map between their polyhedra, and*

$$\phi : \text{Sd}^k(K) \rightarrow L \quad \text{and} \quad \psi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K) \rightarrow L$$

are two simplicial approximations of f . Then the chain maps

$$\phi_* \text{Sd}^k : C^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C^\Delta(L) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_* \text{Sd}^\ell : C^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C^\Delta(L)$$

are chain homotopic.

PROOF. If $k = \ell$, then the result follows from Lemma 32.16 and Corollary 32.10. If $\ell > k$, then after factoring out Sd^k and replacing K by $\text{Sd}^k(K)$, we are free to assume without loss of generality that $k = 0$ and $\ell > 0$. With these assumptions in place, Lemma 32.16 allows us to choose ψ freely without changing the chain homotopy class of ψ_* , so we shall let ψ be determined by ϕ in the following manner. Let $\phi_1 : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow L$ be a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$; note that ϕ_1 exists due to the characterization in Lemma 32.18 of simplicial approximations of simplicial maps. Since ϕ itself is a simplicial approximation of f , for each $x \in |K|$, $|\phi|(x)$ lies in the smallest simplex $\sigma_L(f(x))$ of L containing $f(x)$, and similarly, $|\phi_1|(x)$ lies in the smallest simplex of L containing $|\phi|(x)$, which is therefore a face of $\sigma_L(f(x))$: this proves $|\phi_1|(x) \in |\sigma_L(f(x))|$, so that ϕ_1 is also a simplicial approximation of f . If $\ell > 1$, we now choose $\phi_2 : \text{Sd}^2(K) \rightarrow L$ to be a simplicial approximation of $|\phi_1| : |\text{Sd}(K)| = |K| \rightarrow |L|$, and conclude in a similar manner that ϕ_2

is also a simplicial approximation of f . Iterating this process, we obtain a sequence of simplicial approximations of f in the form

$$\phi_j : \text{Sd}^j(K) \rightarrow L, \quad j = 1, \dots, \ell,$$

and set $\psi := \phi_\ell$. For this particular choice of simplicial approximation, the result follows inductively from the special case $\ell = 1$ as stated separately in Lemma 34.2 below. $\square$

LEMMA 34.2. *Suppose K, L are simplicial complexes, $\phi : K \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial map and $\psi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow L$ is a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$. Then the chain maps*

$$\phi_* : C^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C^\Delta(L) \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_* \text{Sd} : C^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C^\Delta(L)$$

are chain homotopic.

We will give two proofs of Lemma 34.2. The first proof is algebraic and relatively short, because it outsources most of the work to Theorem 33.13. The second proof is more geometric, and somewhat more involved, but the effort will pay off when we later discuss subdivision in singular homology.

ALGEBRAIC PROOF OF LEMMA 34.2. Choose a simplicial approximation $\pi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow K$ of the identity map $|K| \rightarrow |K|$, as characterized in Lemma 32.18. The composition $\phi \circ \pi : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow L$ is then a simplicial approximation of $|\phi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$. By Theorem 33.13, $\pi_* : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K)$ is a chain homotopy inverse of $\text{Sd} : C_*^\Delta(K) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K))$, thus $(\psi_* \text{Sd})\pi_* : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}(K)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(L)$ is chain homotopic to ψ_* . Since ψ is also a simplicial approximation of $|\phi|$, Lemma 32.16 gives a simplicial homotopy between ψ and $\phi \circ \pi$, implying that $(\psi_* \text{Sd})\pi_*$ and $\phi_*\pi_*$ are chain homotopic. Composing both on the right with Sd and applying Theorem 33.13 again, we obtain a chain homotopy between $\psi_* \text{Sd}$ and ϕ_* . $\square$

The second proof of Lemma 34.2 is based on a geometric phenomenon: there is another triangulation of the prism $I \times \Delta^n$ that is different from the construction in §32.2, as it instead interpolates between the trivial triangulation of $\{0\} \times \Delta^n$ and the barycentric subdivision of $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$. The case $n = 2$ is depicted in Figure 32. Like the other explicit triangulations we've discussed, it decomposes $I \times \Delta^n$ into convex regions determined by sets of vertices in general position, and it admits an inductive description: for $n = 0$, one takes the obvious triangulation of $I \times \Delta^0 \cong I$ with a single 1-simplex. Assuming that a suitable triangulation of the n -manifold $I \times \Delta^{n-1}$ for some $n \geq 1$ has already been constructed, the $(n+1)$ -simplices of our triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ then come in two types:

- One whose vertices are $(0, e_0), \dots, (0, e_n)$ and $(1, b_n)$, where $e_0, \dots, e_n$ are the standard basis vectors of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ (i.e. the vertices of Δ^n) and $b_n \in \Delta^n$ is the barycenter.
- For each $k = 0, \dots, n$ and each n -simplex $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ in the triangulation of $I \times \partial_{(k)} \Delta^n \cong I \times \Delta^{n-1}$, one with vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n$ and $(1, b_n)$.

Exercise 34.1 shows that this defines an oriented triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$.

GEOMETRIC PROOF OF LEMMA 34.2. Analogously to §32.3, we can use the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ described above to construct a triangulation of $I \times |K|$, with an underlying simplicial complex K_I and simplicial inclusion maps

$$\iota^0 : K \rightarrow K_I, \quad \iota^1 : \text{Sd}(K) \rightarrow K_I$$

whose topological realizations are the inclusions of $\{0\} \times |K|$ and $\{1\} \times |K| \cong \{1\} \times |\text{Sd}(K)|$ respectively into $I \times |K|$. We claim: There is a unique simplicial map

$$h : K_I \rightarrow L \quad \text{such that} \quad h \circ \iota^0 = \phi \quad \text{and} \quad h \circ \iota^1 = \psi.$$

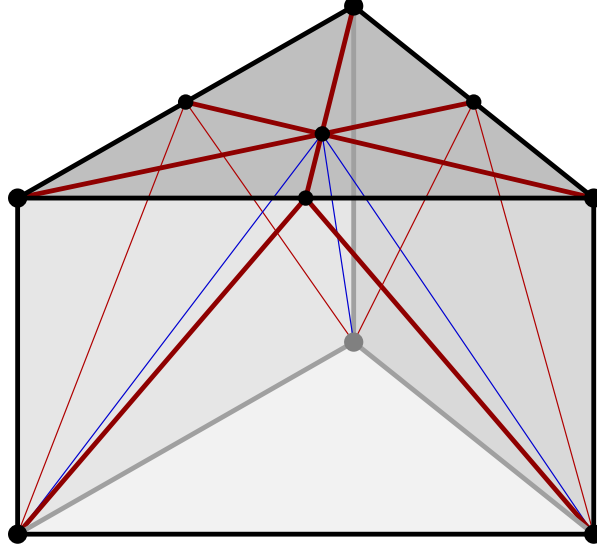


FIGURE 32. A triangulation of $I \times \Delta^2$ interpolating between the trivial triangulation of $\{0\} \times \Delta^2$ and the barycentric subdivision of $\{1\} \times \Delta^2$.

Indeed, these conditions uniquely determine a map from the vertices of K_I to those of L ; we just need to check that this map is simplicial. According to Lemma 32.18, ψ sends the barycenter of every simplex σ of K to a vertex of $\phi(\sigma)$. It follows that for each simplex σ of K , h maps every subset of the set of vertices of K_I in $I \times |\sigma|$ to a face of L ; this proves the claim.

Following the procedure of §32.4, we next associate to each oriented n -simplex $\sigma \in C_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ of K a corresponding fundamental cycle $c_{I \times |\sigma|} \in C_{n+1}^\Delta(K_I; \mathbb{Z})$. The decomposition

$$\partial(I \times \Delta^n) = (\{1\} \times \Delta^n) \cup (\{0\} \times \Delta^n) \cup (I \times \partial \Delta^n)$$

now gives rise to the relation

$$\partial c_{I \times |\sigma|} = \iota_*^1 \text{Sd}(\sigma) - \iota_*^0 \sigma - \sum_{k=0}^n c_{I \times |\partial_{(k)} \sigma|} \in C_n^\Delta(K_I; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where again, $\partial_{(k)} \sigma$ for $k = 0, \dots, n$ denote the oriented boundary faces of σ , so that $\partial \sigma = \sum_{k=0}^n \partial_{(k)} \sigma \in C_{n-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$. Defining

$$C_n^\Delta(K) \xrightarrow{h_\#} C_{n+1}^\Delta(L)$$

for each $n \geq 0$ by $h_\#(\sigma) := h_* c_{I \times |\sigma|}$, the formula above implies

$$\partial h_\#(\sigma) = \psi_* \text{Sd}(\sigma) - \phi_* \sigma - h_\#(\partial \sigma),$$

making $h_\#$ a chain homotopy between ϕ_* and $\psi_* \text{Sd}$. $\square$

34.3. Functoriality. We now turn H_*^Δ into a functor defined on the subcategory

$$\text{Cpct}^\Delta \subset \text{Top}$$

whose objects consist of all compact polyhedra, with arbitrary continuous maps as morphisms. We should clarify: a compact topological space X is an object of Cpct^Δ if and only if it is homeomorphic to the polyhedron $|K|$ of some finite simplicial complex, but the actual complex K and homeomorphism $X \cong |K|$ are *not* considered to be part of the data defining an object of Cpct^Δ .

In general, a polyhedron has infinitely many distinct choices of possible triangulations, and without choosing specific triangulations, there is no canonical way to define what it means for a map between two polyhedra to be simplicial. This is one of a few reasons why we allow *all* continuous maps as morphisms in $\mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta$, rather than just simplicial maps.

THEOREM 34.3. *There exists for each integer $n \geq 0$ and each R -module G a functor*

$$H_n^\Delta = H_n^\Delta(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

that assigns to each compact polyhedron X the simplicial homology $H_n^\Delta(K; G)$ of some finite simplicial complex K whose polyhedron $|K|$ is homeomorphic to X .

Since homeomorphisms are isomorphisms in the category $\mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta$, this result implies:

COROLLARY 34.4. *If K and K' are two finite simplicial complexes with homeomorphic polyhedra $|K| \cong |K'|$, then their simplicial homologies $H_n^\Delta(K)$ and $H_n^\Delta(K')$ are isomorphic.* $\square$

Notice what Theorem 34.3 does not say: we are not claiming that the functor $H_n^\Delta : \mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is unique or canonical, and in fact, some arbitrary choices will need to be made in order to define it. The need for choices, however, does not detract from the power of the theorem. The mere fact that H_n^Δ is a functor on the category $\mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta$, whose morphisms are *arbitrary* continuous maps, is enough to deduce useful consequences such as Corollary 34.4.

PROOF OF THEOREM 34.3. By the axiom of choice, we can associate to every compact polyhedron $X \in \mathbf{Cpct}^\Delta$ a specific choice of finite simplicial complex K_X and triangulation $X \cong |K_X|$. Having done this, define

$$H_n^\Delta(X) := H_n^\Delta(K_X).$$

For each continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between compact polyhedra, choose a simplicial approximation $\phi : \text{Sd}^k(K_X) \rightarrow K_Y$ and define $f_* : H_n^\Delta(X) \rightarrow H_n^\Delta(Y)$ as the composition

$$H_n^\Delta(X) = H_n^\Delta(K_X) \xrightarrow{\text{Sd}_*^k} H_n^\Delta(\text{Sd}^k(K_X)) \xrightarrow{\phi_*} H_n^\Delta(K_Y) = H_n^\Delta(Y) .$$

f_*

This is independent of choices due to Prop. 34.1, so it remains only to check that it satisfies the axioms of a functor. If f is the identity map $X \rightarrow X$, then we can take its simplicial approximation to be the identity map $K_X \rightarrow K_X$, so that f_* is also the identity.

For a composable pair of maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$, choose a simplicial approximation $\psi : \text{Sd}^k(K_Y) \rightarrow K_Z$ of g and a simplicial approximation $\phi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K_X) \rightarrow \text{Sd}^k(K_Y)$ of f , where in the latter case, we are taking the subdivided complex $\text{Sd}^k(K_Y)$ rather than K_Y as the triangulation of Y . Let $\pi : \text{Sd}^k(K_Y) \rightarrow K_Y$ denote the composition

$$\text{Sd}^k(K_Y) \xrightarrow{\pi_k} \text{Sd}^{k-1}(K_Y) \xrightarrow{\pi_{k-1}} \cdots \longrightarrow \text{Sd}^2(K_Y) \xrightarrow{\pi_2} \text{Sd}(K_Y) \xrightarrow{\pi_1} K_Y ,$$

π

where for each $j = 1, \dots, k$, $\pi_j : \text{Sd}^j(K_Y) \rightarrow \text{Sd}^{j-1}(K_Y)$ is a simplicial approximation of the identity map $|\text{Sd}^j(K_Y)| \rightarrow |\text{Sd}^{j-1}(K_Y)|$ as provided by Lemma 32.18, with $\text{Sd}^{j-1}(K_Y)$ taken to be the triangulation of the target polyhedron. Theorem 33.13 then implies that $\pi_* : C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}^k(K_Y)) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(K_Y)$ and $\text{Sd}^k : C_*^\Delta(K_Y) \rightarrow C_*^\Delta(\text{Sd}^k(K_Y))$ are chain homotopy inverses, and we draw the following conclusions from Lemma 32.19:

- $\psi \circ \phi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K_X) \rightarrow K_Z$ is a simplicial approximation of $g \circ f$.

- $\pi : \text{Sd}^k(K_Y) \rightarrow K_Y$ is a simplicial approximation of the identity map $Y \rightarrow Y$.
- $\pi \circ \phi : \text{Sd}^\ell(K_Y) \rightarrow K_Y$ is a simplicial approximation of f .

All this information together makes the following diagram commute, which implies the relation $(g \circ f)_* = g_* f_*$:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 H_n(X) = H_n(K_X) & \xrightarrow{(g \circ f)_*} & H_n(K_Z) = H_n(Z) & & \\
 \searrow \text{Sd}_*^\ell & & \uparrow \psi_* & \swarrow \phi_* & \\
 & H_n(\text{Sd}^\ell(K_X)) & \xrightarrow{\phi_*} & H_n(\text{Sd}^k(K_Y)) & \\
 & \searrow (\pi \circ \phi)_* & \uparrow \text{Sd}_*^k & & \\
 & & H_n(K_Y) & &
 \end{array}$$

f_* (curved arrow from $H_n(K_X)$ to $H_n(K_Y)$)
 g_* (curved arrow from $H_n(K_Z)$ to $H_n(K_Y)$)

□

We can add to this an easy observation based on Exercise 32.2 and the main results of Lecture 32 on simplicial homotopies: the functors $H_n^\Delta : \text{Cpct}^\Delta \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ also descend to the *homotopy category* of compact polyhedra:

THEOREM 34.5 (via Exercise 32.2). *The homomorphism $f_* : H_n^\Delta(X) \rightarrow H_n^\Delta(Y)$ induced by a continuous map f between compact polyhedra depends on f only up to homotopy.* □

34.4. Relative homology. For the remainder of this lecture, we could equally well use ordered or oriented simplicial homology, so we shall again use the notation

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_*^\bullet &:= H_*^o \text{ or } H_*^\Delta, \\
 C_*^\bullet &:= C_*^o \text{ or } C_*^\Delta
 \end{aligned}$$

in order to talk about both at the same time.

In §29.3, we saw that there is a relative version of bordism theory defined for pairs of spaces $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, with long exact sequences that relate the relative bordism groups of (X, A) to the absolute bordism groups of X and A . Something similar is true in all versions of homology theory; let's discuss briefly how it works in simplicial homology.

A **simplicial pair** (K, L) is a simplicial complex K together with a subcomplex $L \subset K$, and a **map of simplicial pairs** $f : (K, L) \rightarrow (K', L')$ is a simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow K'$ that sends L into L' and thus also defines a simplicial map $L \rightarrow L'$. Let us denote by Simp^{rel} the category whose objects are simplicial pairs, and whose morphisms are maps of simplicial pairs. We can identify the category Simp of simplicial complexes with the subcategory

$$\text{Simp} \subset \text{Simp}^{\text{rel}}$$

consisting of pairs of the form $(K, \emptyset)$. The following definition makes sense because for any subcomplex $L \subset K$, the generators of $C_*^\bullet(L)$ are also generators of $C_*^\bullet(K)$, thus making the chain complex $C_*^\bullet(L)$ into a subcomplex of $C_*^\bullet(K)$.

DEFINITION 34.6. The (ordered or oriented) **relative simplicial homology** of a simplicial pair (K, L) with coefficients in G is defined in each degree $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as the homology of the quotient chain complex $C_*^\bullet(K; G)/C_*^\bullet(L; G)$, thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_n^\bullet(K, L) &= H_n^\bullet(K, L; G) := H_n(C_*^\bullet(K, L; G)), \quad \text{where} \\
 C_*^\bullet(K, L) &= C_*^\bullet(K, L; G) := C_*^\bullet(K; G) / C_*^\bullet(L; G).
 \end{aligned}$$

Relative simplicial homology defines functors

$$H_n^\bullet : \mathbf{Simp}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

in a straightforward way: any map of simplicial pairs $\phi : (K, L) \rightarrow (K', L')$ induces a chain map $\phi_* : C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K')$ that also sends $C_*^\bullet(L)$ to $C_*^\bullet(L')$ and thus descends to the quotients as a chain map $\phi_* : C_*^\bullet(K, L) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K', L')$, inducing maps

$$H_n^\bullet(K, L) \xrightarrow{\phi_*} H_n^\bullet(K', L')$$

for each n . In keeping with the identification of $\mathbf{Simp}$ with a subcomplex of $\mathbf{Simp}^{\text{rel}}$, we observe that $H_n(K, \emptyset)$ is the same thing as $H_n(K)$.

Elements $[c] \in H_n^\bullet(K, L)$ can be represented by **relative n -cycles**

$$c \in C_n^\bullet(K) \quad \text{such that} \quad \partial c \in C_{n-1}^\bullet(L).$$

Here, the condition $\partial c \in C_{n-1}^\bullet(L)$ means that the image of c under the quotient projection $C_n^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_n^\bullet(K, L)$ is a cycle, and we understand $[c] \in H_n^\bullet(K, L)$ to mean the homology class represented by that cycle. Two relative n -cycles $a, b \in C_n^\bullet(K)$ then represent the same relative homology class in $H_n^\bullet(K, L)$ if and only if $a - b = \partial c + d$ for some $c \in C_{n+1}^\bullet(K)$ and $d \in C_n^\bullet(L)$. There is a natural homomorphism defined for each $n \geq 1$ by

$$H_n^\bullet(K, L) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}^\bullet(L) : [c] \mapsto [\partial c].$$

Note that, in spite of appearances, the class $[\partial c] \in H_{n-1}^\bullet(L)$ in this expression need not be trivial, because c is an n -chain in K , but might not be an n -chain in L .

EXAMPLE 34.7. For any triangulated n -manifold with boundary $(M, \partial M) \cong (|K|, |\partial K|)$, fundamental cycles $c_M \in C_n^\bullet(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ or (in the oriented case) $c_M \in C_n^\bullet(K; \mathbb{Z})$ are relative n -cycles due to the relation $\partial c_M = c_{\partial M}$.

THEOREM 34.8. *Given a simplicial pair (K, L) , let $i : L \hookrightarrow K$ and $j : (K, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (K, L)$ denote the obvious inclusion maps. Then the sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow H_{n+1}^\bullet(K, L) &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n^\bullet(L) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{j_*} H_n^\bullet(K, L) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}^\bullet(L) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_{n-1}^\bullet(K) \longrightarrow \dots \\ &\longrightarrow H_0^\bullet(L) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_0^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{j_*} H_0^\bullet(K, L) \longrightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

is exact.

It is not hard to verify the exactness of the sequence in this theorem explicitly, but there is also an underlying algebraic phenomenon that deserves more attention. Since $C_*^\bullet(K, L)$ is a quotient, every simplicial pair (K, L) gives rise to an obvious short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(L) \xrightarrow{i_*} C_*^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{j_*} C_*^\bullet(K, L) \rightarrow 0,$$

in which each term is a chain complex and the maps between them are chain maps. The inclusion $C_*^\bullet(L) \hookrightarrow C_*^\bullet(K)$ of chain complexes is in fact the chain map i_* induced by the inclusion $i : L \hookrightarrow K$ of simplicial complexes, and since $j : (K, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (K, L)$ is actually the identity map, the quotient projection $C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K)/C_*^\bullet(L)$ can similarly be understood as the chain map $j_* : C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K, L)$ induced by j . Algebraically, it turns out that short exact sequences of chain complexes and chain maps *always* give rise to long exact sequences relating their homology groups:

PROPOSITION 34.9. *Suppose $0 \rightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{f} B_* \xrightarrow{g} C_* \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of chain complexes and chain maps. Then for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ there exists a so-called **connecting homomorphism***

$\partial_* : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*)$ such that the sequence

$$\begin{aligned} \dots &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n+1}(A_*) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_{n+1}(B_*) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_{n+1}(C_*) \\ &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n(A_*) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(B_*) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_n(C_*) \\ &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A_*) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_{n-1}(B_*) \xrightarrow{g_*} H_{n-1}(C_*) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \dots \end{aligned}$$

is exact. Moreover, this result is functorial in the following sense: suppose we are given another triple of chain complexes A'_* , B'_* and C'_* , with a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_* & \xrightarrow{f} & B_* & \xrightarrow{g} & C_* \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A'_* & \xrightarrow{f'} & B'_* & \xrightarrow{g'} & C'_* \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

in which all maps are chain maps and the bottom row is also exact, and we denote the resulting connecting homomorphisms by $\partial'_* : H_n(C'_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A'_*)$. Then the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & H_{n+1}(C_*) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & H_n(A_*) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & H_n(B_*) & \xrightarrow{g_*} & H_n(C_*) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & H_{n-1}(A_*) & \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \downarrow \gamma_* & & \downarrow \alpha_* & & \downarrow \beta_* & & \downarrow \gamma_* & & \downarrow \alpha_* & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & H_{n+1}(C'_*) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_*} & H_n(A'_*) & \xrightarrow{f'_*} & H_n(B'_*) & \xrightarrow{g'_*} & H_n(C'_*) & \xrightarrow{\partial'_*} & H_{n-1}(A'_*) & \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

also commutes.

The proof of this result is by “diagram chasing,” which we already saw examples of in Proposition 29.22 and Exercise 29.8 (the five-lemma). Let’s do the first step, which is to write down a reasonable candidate for the map $\partial_* : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*)$. We are given a commuting diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{f} & B_n & \xrightarrow{g} & C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_{n-2} & \xrightarrow{f} & B_{n-2} & \xrightarrow{g} & C_{n-2} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \partial \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{array}$$

in which every column is a chain complex and every row is exact. Given $[c] \in H_n(C_*)$, choose a representative $c \in C_n$, which necessarily satisfies $\partial c = 0$. We would like to find some element $a \in A_{n-1}$ that satisfies $\partial a = 0$ so that we can set $\partial_*[c] := [a]$. The idea is to use whatever information the diagram gives us to forge a path from C_n to A_{n-1} . To start with, the exactness of the top row implies that g is surjective, so choose $b \in B_n$ with $g(b) = c$. Since $\partial c = 0$ and the diagram commutes, we also know $\partial g(b) = g(\partial b) = 0$, and exactness of the middle row then implies $\partial b = f(a)$ for some $a \in A_{n-1}$. To see that a is a cycle, we use commutativity again and observe

$f(\partial a) = \partial f(a) = \partial \partial b = 0$, and since the bottom row is exact, f is injective, so this implies $\partial a = 0$. We can therefore sensibly set $\partial_*[c] = [a]$, and step 1 of the proof is complete.

There are still several things to check: steps 2 through 4000 consist of first verifying that the definition of $\partial_* : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A_*)$ we just proposed does not depend on any of the choices we made (e.g. of the representative $c \in C_n$ and the element $b \in g^{-1}(c)$), and after that, we still need to show that the sequence of homology groups really is exact. All of this follows by the same style of diagram chasing—it becomes a bit tedious at some point, but it is not fundamentally difficult. If you haven't done it before, I recommend finding a quiet evening to do so once, so that you never have to do it again.

Similarly, it is not hard to see why the “functoriality” aspect of the statement is true once you have understood the basic idea of diagram chasing. Functoriality in this situation amounts to the statement that there exist natural definitions of categories whose objects are short exact sequences of chain complexes or long exact sequences of R -modules, with morphisms defined in each case via commutative diagrams, such that Proposition 34.9 produces a functor from the former category to the latter. See Exercise 34.4 for a precise formulation in these terms. Exercise 34.3 shows moreover that applying Proposition 34.9 to the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(L) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K, L) \rightarrow 0$ for a simplicial pair (K, L) produces the same connecting homomorphism as in the statement of Theorem 34.8.

34.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 34.1 (*). Let K_I denote the $(n+1)$ -dimensional abstract simplicial complex formed by the sets of vertices in $I \times \Delta^n$ described in §34.2, and define $\partial K_I \subset K_I$ to be the subcomplex of simplices whose vertices have convex hulls lying in $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$.

- (a) Carry out the analogue of Exercise 31.2 to show that K_I defines a triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ for which the subcomplex ∂K_I triangulates $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$.

Hint: To show that every point $p \in I \times \Delta^n$ lies in one of the $(n+1)$ -simplices described, draw a line from $(1, b_n)$ through p and see where it exits through $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$.

- (b) Describe an inductive algorithm to produce suitable admissible orderings and orientations for this triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ for each $n \geq 0$.

EXERCISE 34.2. Carry out the rest of the details of the diagram chase to prove the exactness of the sequence in Proposition 34.9.

EXERCISE 34.3 (*). Show that for any simplicial pair (K, L) , the connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : H_n^\bullet(K, L) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^\bullet(L)$ that arise by plugging the short exact sequence of simplicial chain complexes $0 \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(L) \hookrightarrow C_*^\bullet(K) \rightarrow C_*^\bullet(K, L) \rightarrow 0$ into Proposition 34.9 are given by the formula $\partial_*[c] = \partial c$ for any relative n -cycle $c \in C_n^\bullet(K)$ in (K, L) .

EXERCISE 34.4. Consider the categories **Short** and **Long**, defined as follows. Objects in **Short** are short exact sequences of chain complexes $0 \rightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{f} B_* \xrightarrow{g} C_* \rightarrow 0$ of R -modules, with a morphism from this object to another object $0 \rightarrow A'_* \xrightarrow{f'} B'_* \xrightarrow{g'} C'_* \rightarrow 0$ defined as a triple of chain maps $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A'_*$, $B_* \xrightarrow{\beta} B'_*$ and $C_* \xrightarrow{\gamma} C'_*$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_* & \xrightarrow{f} & B_* & \xrightarrow{g} & C_* \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A'_* & \xrightarrow{f'} & B'_* & \xrightarrow{g'} & C'_* \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

The objects in **Long** are long exact sequences of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules $\dots \rightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\delta} A_n \xrightarrow{F} B_n \xrightarrow{G} C_n \xrightarrow{\delta} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots$, with morphisms from this to another object $\dots \rightarrow C'_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\delta'} A'_n \xrightarrow{F'} B'_n \xrightarrow{G'} C'_n \xrightarrow{\delta'} A'_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots$

$A'_{n-1} \rightarrow \dots$ defined as triples of homomorphisms $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A'_*$, $B_* \xrightarrow{\beta} B'_*$ and $C_* \xrightarrow{\gamma} C'_*$ that preserve the $\mathbb{Z}$ -gradings and make the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\delta} & A_n & \xrightarrow{F} & B_n & \xrightarrow{G} & C_n & \xrightarrow{\delta} & A_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow \gamma & & \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma & & \downarrow \alpha & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & C'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\delta'} & A'_n & \xrightarrow{F'} & B'_n & \xrightarrow{G'} & C'_n & \xrightarrow{\delta'} & A'_{n-1} & \longrightarrow & \dots \end{array}$$

- Show that there is a covariant functor $\mathbf{Simp}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Short}$ assigning to each simplicial pair (K, L) its short exact sequence of (ordered or oriented) simplicial chain complexes.
- Show that there is also a covariant functor $\mathbf{Short} \rightarrow \mathbf{Long}$ assigning to each short exact sequence of chain complexes the corresponding long exact sequence of their homology groups. (Note that this can be composed with the functor in part (a) to define a functor $\mathbf{Simp}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Long}$.)

EXERCISE 34.5. Extend the simplicial approximation theorem to a statement about approximations of continuous maps of pairs by maps of simplicial pairs. Then generalize Theorem 34.3 to define relative simplicial homology as a functor on the category of compact pairs of polyhedra, with continuous maps of pairs as morphisms.

35. Singular homology

35.1. Definitions. The immediate disadvantage of simplicial homology is that its definition requires strictly more data than just a topological space: we need to have a triangulation of that space, and it takes considerable effort to see why different triangulations of the same space produce isomorphic homologies. The definition of singular homology resembles that of simplicial homology, but it explicitly removes the need for a triangulation. The price to be paid for this is that the resulting chain complex seems absurdly large: so large, in fact, that one might find it surprising at first that it is ever possible to explicitly compute the singular homology of a space. I advise you not to think too much about this when you first read the definition, as we will subsequently discuss some properties that make computations of singular homology quite a reasonable task.

DEFINITION 35.1. A **singular n -simplex** (*singulärer n -Simplex*) in a topological space X is defined to be a continuous map $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$. Let

$$\mathcal{K}_n(X) := \{ \sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X \mid \sigma \text{ is continuous} \}$$

denote the set of all singular n -simplices in X . The **singular chain complex** (*singulärer Kettenkomplex*) $C_*(X) = C_*(X; G)$ of X with coefficients in the R -module G is defined such that $C_n(X) = 0$ for all $n < 0$, and for $n \geq 0$,

$$C_n(X) := \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)} G.$$

The boundary map $\partial : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$ for $n \geq 1$ is uniquely determined by linearity and the formula

$$\partial \sigma = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k (\sigma|_{\partial_{(k)} \Delta^n}),$$

where the identification (30.1) is used in order to view each term in the summation as a singular $(n-1)$ -simplex $\sigma|_{\partial_{(k)} \Delta^n} : \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow X$, making the linear combination an element of $C_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z})$. The homology groups of this chain complex form the **singular homology** of X with coefficients in G ,

$$H_n(X) = H_n(X; G) := H_n(C_*(X; G)).$$

There is a fairly obvious way to make

$$C_* : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$$

into a functor: any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between spaces induces a unique chain map

$$f_* : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(Y)$$

determined by linearity and the formula

$$f_*(\sigma) := f \circ \sigma$$

for singular simplices $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$. Composing this functor with $H_n : \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ makes singular homology itself into a collection of functors

$$H_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod},$$

meaning in particular that continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(Y)$ for every $n \geq 0$.

For a pair of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, there is a similarly straightforward extension of the definitions above to the notion of **relative singular homology**

$$H_n(X, A) = H_n(X, A; G) := H_n(C_*(X, A; G)), \quad \text{where}$$

$$C_*(X, A) = C_*(X, A; G) := C_*(X; G) / C_*(A; G),$$

which makes sense because singular simplices in A are also singular simplices in X , making $C_*(A)$ naturally a subcomplex of $C_*(X)$. We have $H_n(X, \emptyset) = H_n(X)$ for all spaces X , and relative singular homology can thus be regarded as an extension of the functor $H_n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ over the larger category $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, in which maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ induce chain maps $f_* : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(Y)$ that descend to the quotients as chain maps $f_* : C_*(X, A) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B)$ and thus induce homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B)$ for all n . As with relative simplicial homology, we can represent relative singular homology classes $[c] \in H_n(X, A)$ via **relative cycles** $c \in C_n(X)$, which are assumed to satisfy $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A)$, and writing them in this way gives rise to an obvious connecting homomorphism

$$H_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A) : [c] \mapsto [\partial c].$$

35.2. Non-axiomatic properties. Before we get to the purely “formal” (i.e. axiomatic) properties of singular homology, let us discuss a few features it has that other axiomatic homology theories do not.

THEOREM 35.2. *For any space X and any coefficient group G , there is a canonical isomorphism*

$$H_0(X; G) = \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} G,$$

where $\pi_0(X)$ is an abbreviation for the set of path-components of X .

The isomorphism in this theorem arises from a pair of convenient coincidences: first, since the standard 0-simplex Δ^0 contains only one point, there is a natural bijection between the set $\mathcal{K}_0(X)$ of singular 0-simplices in X and the set X itself, allowing us to write singular 0-chains as finite linear combinations

$$\sum_i a_i x_i \in C_0(X)$$

of generators $x_i \in X$ with coefficients $a_i \in G$. The second coincidence is that the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, which we normally use for parametrizing paths in X , is homeomorphic to the standard 1-simplex $\Delta^1 \subset I^2$, e.g. via the map

$$(35.1) \quad I \xrightarrow{\cong} \Delta^1 : t \mapsto (1-t, t).$$

This is of course not the only possible choice of such a homeomorphism, but we will use it consistently in this course, for the following reason. The map (35.1) matches boundary points via the correspondence

$$\partial I \ni 0 \mapsto \partial_{(1)} \Delta^1 \subset \partial \Delta^1, \quad \partial I \ni 1 \mapsto \partial_{(0)} \Delta^1 \subset \partial \Delta^1,$$

which may seem backwards when you see it for the first time, but if you recall the way in which signs were associated to the various boundary faces of Δ^n in our definition of the boundary operator $\partial : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$, you might recognize that this particular correspondence is consistent with certain orientation conventions in differential geometry, where the standard orientation of the 1-manifold $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ induces a positive boundary orientation on $1 \in \partial I$ and a negative boundary orientation on $0 \in \partial I$. This detail is unimportant for our present purposes, but what matters is that if we use (35.1) to identify singular 1-simplices in X with paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ and likewise identify singular 0-simplices with points $x \in X$ in the canonical way, then the operator $\partial : C_1(X) \rightarrow C_0(X)$ is now determined by the formula

$$(35.2) \quad \partial \gamma = \gamma(1) - \gamma(0).$$

This tells you why two 0-cycles of the form $mx, my \in C_0(X)$ for $m \in G$ and $x, y \in X$ will always be homologous if x and y lie in the same path-component, and from there it is not a difficult exercise to find an explicit isomorphism $H_0(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\pi_0(X)} G$.

For any choice of base point $p \in X$, the identification (35.1) between I and Δ^1 also gives rise to a natural homomorphism

$$(35.3) \quad h : \pi_1(X, p) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

sending the homotopy class of the loop $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ to the homology class that it represents when regarded as a singular 1-chain with integer coefficients; note that by (35.2), this 1-chain is a cycle because $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ has the same start and end point. The map (35.3) is called the **Hurewicz homomorphism**, and the proof that it is well defined (see e.g. Exercise 22.2 from last semester's *Topologie I* course) relies on several straightforward lemmas, showing for instance that any two homotopic loops based at p give rise to homologous 1-cycles, and the 1-cycle arising from a concatenation of two loops is homologous to the sum of the two corresponding 1-cycles. Since $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is abelian, the Hurewicz map automatically vanishes on the commutator subgroup of $\pi_1(X, p)$, so it descends to a map of the abelianization of $\pi_1(X, p)$ to $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$.

THEOREM 35.3. *If X is path-connected, then the Hurewicz map (35.3) descends to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X) := \pi_1(X, p)$ as an isomorphism*

$$\pi_1(X) / [\pi_1(X), \pi_1(X)] \xrightarrow{\cong} H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

One can prove Theorem 35.3 by writing down an inverse map that transforms any singular 1-cycle (viewed as a formal sum of paths whose end points must satisfy some matching conditions in order to produce a cycle) into a loop based at p by concatenating the associated paths. There are typically many ways that this can be done, but the ambiguity turns out to lie in the commutator subgroup $[\pi_1(X, p), \pi_1(X, p)]$; see last semester's Exercise 22.2 for further hints.

The third property I want to mention is a relationship between simplicial and singular homology. Suppose $K = (V, S)$ is a simplicial complex, with polyhedron $|K|$. There is then a natural

chain map

$$C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*(|K|)$$

defined by associating to each generator $(v_0, \dots, v_n)$ in degree n of the ordered simplicial chain complex the unique singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow |K|$ that extends to a linear map $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^V$ sending the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ to the vectors $e_{v_0}, \dots, e_{v_n} \in \mathbb{R}^V$. As usual, the word “natural” has a precise meaning here, and the map $C_*^o(K) \rightarrow C_*(|K|)$ can be described as a natural transformation between two functors $\mathbf{Simp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$. Letting chain maps descend to maps between homology groups, we obtain natural homomorphisms

$$H_n^o(K) \rightarrow H_n(|K|).$$

In light of the natural isomorphisms $H_n^o(K) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n^\Delta(K)$, we also obtain from this natural homomorphisms $H_n^\Delta(K) \rightarrow H_n(|K|)$, and we will see when we study cellular homology that the latter is also an isomorphism. This gives another way of understanding why simplicial homology is independent of triangulations.

One useful application of this relationship is a construction of fundamental cycles in singular homology: If $M \cong |K|$ is a compact triangulated n -manifold, with a choice of admissible ordering for the underlying simplicial complex, then feeding the resulting fundamental cycle $c_M \in C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ into the natural chain map $C_n^o(K; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow C_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ produces a singular fundamental cycle

$$c_M \in C_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \quad \text{such that} \quad \partial c_M = c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}(\partial M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \subset C_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

If the triangulation is also oriented, then this can all also be done with integer coefficients, producing an integral fundamental cycle

$$c_M \in C_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text{such that} \quad \partial c_M = c_{\partial M} \in C_{n-1}(\partial M; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}).$$

35.3. The axioms. Here is the main result of this lecture.

THEOREM 35.4. *For any R -module G , the functors $H_n(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ and connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : H_n(X, A; G) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A; G)$ defined for all $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfy the axioms of a homology theory (in the sense of Eilenberg-Steenrod) with coefficient group G .*

Let's first dispense with the axioms that are easy exercises. Since a one-point space $\{*\}$ admits only one singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow \{*\}$ for each $n \geq 0$, a computation completely analogous to Exercise 30.4 shows that

$$H_n(\{*\}; G) \cong \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq 0, \\ G & \text{if } n = 0. \end{cases}$$

This shows that $H_* := H_*(\cdot; G)$ satisfies the *dimension* axiom, and moreover, the isomorphism $H_0(\{*\}; G) \cong G$ is canonical. The *additivity* axiom is a similarly straightforward consequence of the definitions.

Now for the interesting part.

PROPOSITION 35.5 (the homotopy axiom). *For any two homotopic maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the induced homomorphisms $f_*, g_* : H_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(Y, B)$ on singular homology are identical.*

PROOF. We consider first the case of absolute homology, so assume $h : I \times X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy between $f := h(0, \cdot)$ and $g := h(1, \cdot)$. For each $n \geq 0$, there is a unique homomorphism $h_\# : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y)$ determined by linearity and the following formula for $h_\#(\sigma) \in C_{n+1}(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ on an arbitrary singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$: we use the maps

$$I \times \Delta^n \xrightarrow{\text{Id} \times \sigma} I \times X \xrightarrow{h} Y,$$

together with the integral fundamental cycle $c_{I \times \Delta^n} \in C_{n+1}(I \times \Delta^n; \mathbb{Z})$ arising from the oriented triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n \cong \Delta^1 \times \Delta^n$ described in §32.2, to define

$$h_{\#}(\sigma) := h_*(\text{Id} \times \sigma)_* c_{I \times \Delta^n} \in C_{n+1}(Y; \mathbb{Z}).$$

One now deduces from the formula for $\partial c_{I \times \Delta^n}$ that $h_{\#} : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(Y)$ is a chain homotopy between f_* and g_* .

Extending this result to the setting of a homotopy $h : (I \times X, I \times A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ between two maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ requires only the extra observation that since $h(I \times A) \subset B$, the chain homotopy $h_{\#}$ constructed above descends to the quotient as a chain homotopy $C_*(X, A) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(Y, B)$ between the two chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_*(X, A) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B)$. $\square$

PROPOSITION 35.6 (the exactness axiom). *For any pair of spaces $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ with inclusion maps $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$, the sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow H_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} H_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow H_0(X, A) \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact.

PROOF. This is a straightforward consequence of Proposition 34.9 and the obvious short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow C_*(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} C_*(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} C_*(X, A) \longrightarrow 0,$$

one only needs to check that the connecting homomorphism produced by the diagram chase in the proof of Proposition 34.9 is the specific map $H_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(A) : [c] \mapsto [\partial c]$. $\square$

Recall that for the excision axiom formulated in Lecture 29, the hypothesis was that $B \subset A \subset X$ and there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ that “separates” B from $X \setminus A$ in the sense that $u|_B \equiv 0$ and $u|_{X \setminus A} \equiv 1$. In singular homology, it suffices to work with a slightly weaker variant of this hypothesis.

PROPOSITION 35.7 (the excision axiom). *Assume $B \subset A \subset X$ such that the closure of B is contained in the interior of A . Then the inclusion of pairs $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces an isomorphism $i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(X, A)$ for every n .*

The proof requires a bit of preparation. For each $n \geq 0$, there is a unique homomorphism

$$\text{Sd} : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_n(X)$$

that is determined by linearity and the formula

$$\text{Sd}(\sigma) := \sigma_* c_{\Delta^n} \in C_n(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ is an arbitrary singular n -simplex and $c_{\Delta^n} \in C_n(\Delta^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is the integral fundamental cycle defined via barycentric subdivision of Δ^n . We will refer to this as the **subdivision operator** on the singular chain complex.

LEMMA 35.8. *For each $m \in \mathbb{N}$, the m th iterate $\text{Sd}^m : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X)$ of the subdivision operator is a chain map, and there exists a chain homotopy $h_m : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_{*+1}(X)$ between Sd^m and the identity map. Moreover, for any subspace $A \subset X$, both Sd^m and h_m preserve the subcomplex $C_*(A) \subset C_*(X)$.*

PROOF. We prove the statement first for $m = 1$. For a given singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$, the chain map relation $\partial \text{Sd}(\sigma) = \sigma_* \partial c_{\Delta^n} = \sigma_* c_{\partial \Delta^n} = \text{Sd}(\partial \sigma)$ follows from the inductive nature of the barycentric subdivision algorithm described in §31.4. To see why Sd is then chain homotopic to the identity, one uses the oriented triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ described in §34.2 and its integral

fundamental cycle $c_{I \times \Delta^n} \in C_{n+1}(I \times \Delta^n; \mathbb{Z})$ to define, for each $n \geq 0$, a homomorphism $h_1 : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X)$ that is given on each generator $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ by

$$h_1(\sigma) = (\text{pr}_2)_*(\text{Id} \times \sigma)_* c_{I \times \Delta^n} \in C_{n+1}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

with $\text{pr}_2 : I \times X \rightarrow X$ denoting the projection to the second factor. Since the triangulation of $I \times \Delta^n$ restricts to $\partial(I \times \Delta^n)$ as the trivial triangulation of $\{0\} \times \Delta^n$, the barycentric subdivision of $\{1\} \times \Delta^n$, and the $(n-1)$ -dimensional case of the same triangulation on each face of $I \times \partial\Delta^n$, we have

$$\partial h_1(\sigma) = (\text{pr}_2)_*(\text{Id} \times \sigma)_* \partial c_{I \times \Delta^n} = \text{Sd}(\sigma) - \sigma - h_1(\partial\sigma),$$

and thus the chain homotopy relation $\partial h_1 + h_1 \partial = \text{Sd} - \text{Id}$. It is clear from the construction that both Sd and h_1 preserve $C_*(A) \subset C_*(X)$ for any $A \subset X$.

For arbitrary $m \in \mathbb{N}$, it is now obvious that Sd^m is also a chain map and is chain homotopic to $\text{Id}^m = \text{Id}$, but we need to check that there is a chain homotopy h_m that preserves subcomplexes $C_*(A) \subset C_*(X)$. One can see this by writing down an inductive definition of h_m , for which various choices are possible, e.g. $h_m := h_{m-1} \text{Sd} + h_1$ does the job. $\square$

Taking m large enough, the operator Sd^m can be applied in principle to replace any singular chain $c \in C_n(X)$ with a chain $\text{Sd}^m c \in C_n(X)$ whose constituent singular simplices are as “small” we like: in particular, if X is covered by the interiors of two subsets

$$X = \mathring{\mathcal{U}} \cup \mathring{\mathcal{V}}, \quad \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset X,$$

then for any given chain $c \in C_n(X)$, taking $m \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large makes the n -chain $\text{Sd}^m c \in C_n(X)$ *decomposable* with respect to this covering, meaning

$$\text{Sd}^m c = u + v \quad \text{for some} \quad u \in C_n(\mathcal{U}), \quad v \in C_n(\mathcal{V}),$$

because every singular n -simplex in the finite linear combination forming $\text{Sd}^m c$ can be assumed to have its image entirely inside either $\mathcal{U}$ or $\mathcal{V}$. Moreover, if $c \in C_n(X)$ is a cycle, then $\text{Sd}^m c \in C_n(X)$ is also a cycle, and the chain homotopy relation

$$\text{Sd}^m c - c = \partial h_m c + h_m \partial c = \partial h_m c$$

shows that c and $\text{Sd}^m c$ represent the same singular homology class. A relative version of this observation will be used in the proof below, and we can now see the significance of the condition $\bar{B} \subset \mathring{A}$: it means that the interiors of A and $X \setminus B$ form an open covering of X .

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 35.7. Given any class $[c] \in H_n(X, A)$ represented by a relative n -cycle $c \in C_n(X)$, we observe that for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$, the chain $\text{Sd}^m c \in C_n(X)$ satisfies

$$\partial(\text{Sd}^m c) = \text{Sd}^m(\partial c) \in C_{n-1}(A),$$

since the subdivision operator $\text{Sd} : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X)$ preserves the subcomplex $C_*(A) \subset C_*(X)$, hence $\text{Sd}^m c$ is also a relative n -cycle. Moreover, the chain homotopy relation $\text{Sd}^m c - c = \partial h_m c + h_m \partial c$ implies $[\text{Sd}^m c] = [c] \in H_n(X, A)$, since $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A)$ implies $h_m \partial c \in C_n(A)$. With this in mind, since the interiors of A and $X \setminus B$ cover X , we can assume without loss of generality after replacing c by $\text{Sd}^m c$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large that the chain c can be decomposed as

$$c = c_A + c_{X \setminus B} \quad \text{for some} \quad c_A \in C_n(A), \quad c_{X \setminus B} \in C_n(X \setminus B).$$

Having made this assumption, the fact that $c \in C_n(X, A)$ is a relative n -cycle means $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A)$ and therefore also $\partial c_{X \setminus B} \in C_{n-1}(A)$, so that $c_{X \setminus B}$ is a relative n -cycle in $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$, thus representing a class $[c_{X \setminus B}] \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$ that satisfies

$$i_*[c_{X \setminus B}] = [c].$$

This proves that $i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \rightarrow H_n(X, A)$ is surjective.

To show that $i_* : H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \rightarrow H_n(X, A)$ is injective, suppose $c \in C_n(X \setminus B)$ is a relative n -cycle in $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$ representing a class $[c] \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$ with $i_*[c] = 0 \in H_n(X, A)$, which means that if c is viewed as an n -chain in X , we have

$$c = \partial b + a \quad \text{for some } b \in C_{n+1}(X) \text{ and } a \in C_n(A).$$

By applying Sd^m to both sides for m sufficiently large, we can assume without loss of generality that b decomposes as

$$b = b_A + b_{X \setminus B} \quad \text{for some } b_A \in C_n(A), b_{X \setminus B} \in C_n(X \setminus B).$$

We then have $c - \partial b_{X \setminus B} = \partial b_A + a$, in which the left hand side is a chain in $X \setminus B$ and the right hand side is a chain in A , implying that the right hand side is also a chain in $A \setminus B$, and the relation $c = \partial b_{X \setminus B} + (\partial b_A + a)$ therefore implies $[c] = 0 \in H_n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B)$. $\square$

The proof of Theorem 35.4 is now complete, and now that we have established the existence of at least one axiomatic homology theory with any given choice of coefficient group, there are many immediate corollaries, e.g. the Brouwer fixed point theorem (cf. Exercise 29.7). In particular, the computation of $h_*(S^n)$ carried out in Lecture 29 can now be considered a valid computation of singular homology, giving

$$H_k(S^n; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0 \text{ or } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

35.4. Chain-level excision. When we study singular cohomology later in this semester, it will be useful to have a stronger variant of the excision property, one that applies to the singular *chain complex* rather than just to its homology:

THEOREM 35.9. *Assume $B \subset A \subset X$ such that the closure of B is contained in the interior of A . Then the inclusion of pairs $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces a chain homotopy equivalence $i_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \rightarrow C_*(X, A)$.*

This obviously implies Proposition 35.7, and we will see in the following that it also more-or-less follows from it, for somewhat nontrivial reasons. The usefulness of Theorem 35.9 will be that it almost immediately implies that similar statements hold after applying certain standard algebraic operations to chain complexes, such as the one that turns homology into cohomology. One gets a hint of this from the following easy observation, which is based on the same trick as Remark 33.12:

LEMMA 35.10. *If Theorem 35.9 holds for singular chain complexes with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, then it also holds for arbitrary choices of coefficients.*

PROOF. Under the stated hypotheses on $B \subset A \subset X$, assume it is known that the map $i_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is a chain homotopy equivalence, which means there exists a chain map $g : C_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; \mathbb{Z})$, a chain homotopy h_1 between $i_*g : C_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ and the identity, and a chain homotopy h_2 between $gi_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; \mathbb{Z})$ and the identity. For any coefficient module G , linearity and the definitions of these maps on the generators of the singular chain complex (i.e. on singular simplices) uniquely determine similar chain maps and chain homotopies that relate $C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ and $C_*(X, A; G)$ in the same manner. $\square$

With the lemma in mind, our goal is now to prove that Theorem 35.9 holds in the special case $G = \mathbb{Z}$. We will deduce this from some general results about chain complexes in the next subsection.

35.5. Chain contractions and mapping cones. A chain complex C_* is called **chain contractible** if there exists a chain homotopy of the identity map $C_* \rightarrow C_*$ to the trivial chain map $0 : C_* \rightarrow C_*$. This implies, in particular, that the homology $H_*(C_*)$ is trivial, because the identity map $H_*(C_*) \rightarrow H_*(C_*)$ is also the zero map.

LEMMA 35.11. *A chain complex of R -modules C_* is chain contractible if and only if there is a splitting of C_n for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ into submodules $C_n = A_n \oplus B_n$ such that $C_n \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}$ vanishes on A_n and maps B_n isomorphically to A_{n-1} .*

PROOF. Assume $h : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ satisfies $h(C_n) \subset C_{n+1}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\partial h + h \partial = \mathbb{1}$. We observe that the homomorphisms ∂h and $h \partial$ in this case are complementary projections, since $\partial^2 = 0$ implies

$$(\partial h)^2 = \partial(h \partial)h = \partial(\mathbb{1} - \partial h)h = \partial h, \quad \text{and} \quad (h \partial)^2 = h(\partial h)\partial = h(\mathbb{1} - h \partial)\partial = h \partial.$$

We therefore obtain a splitting $C_* = A_* \oplus B_*$ with $A_* := \text{im}(\partial h)$ and $B_* := \text{im}(h \partial)$, and setting $A_n := A_* \cap C_n$ and $B_n := B_* \cap C_n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ gives $C_n = A_n \oplus B_n$. Since $\partial(\partial h) = 0$, ∂ vanishes on A_* ; moreover, the definitions of the projections imply that ∂h is the identity map on A_* while $h \partial$ is the identity map on B_* , showing that for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, one obtains an inverse of $B_n \xrightarrow{\partial} A_{n-1}$ by composing $A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{h} C_n$ with the projection $C_n \xrightarrow{h \partial} B_n$.

Conversely, if splittings $C_n = A_n \oplus B_n$ with the stated properties are given, then defining $h : C_n \rightarrow C_{n+1}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ to be trivial on B_n and an inverse of $B_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial} A_n$ on A_n gives a chain contraction. $\square$

We can now clarify the advantage of focusing on the case $G = \mathbb{Z}$ in the proof of Theorem 35.9: it is the fact that chain complexes over $\mathbb{Z}$ are *free* abelian groups, thus making the following result applicable.

LEMMA 35.12. *A chain complex C_* of free abelian groups is acyclic if and only if it is chain contractible.*

PROOF. Assume the chain complex C_* is acyclic and $C_n \subset C_*$ is a free abelian group for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. By a basic result in algebra (see e.g. [Lan02, §III.7]), subgroups of free abelian groups are also free, and this applies in particular to the subgroups

$$Z_n := \ker \left(C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \right).$$

Acyclicity means that the map

$$C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} Z_{n-1}$$

is surjective for every n , and we therefore have a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow Z_n \hookrightarrow C_n \xrightarrow{\partial} Z_{n-1} \rightarrow 0,$$

which splits since Z_{n-1} is free. This splitting identifies C_n with $Z_n \oplus Z_{n-1}$ so that ∂ becomes the projection $Z_n \oplus Z_{n-1} \rightarrow Z_{n-1}$, and chain contractibility now follows from Lemma 35.11. $\square$

REMARK 35.13. Lemma 35.12 also holds under the hypothesis that each $C_n \subset C_*$ is a free R -module if the underlying ring R is a principal ideal domain: the key detail is that under this assumption, submodules of free R -modules are also free, thus providing the splitting of short exact sequences used in the proof. This fact about principal ideal domains depends in general on Zorn's lemma, so it may seem a bit abstract, but one can also avoid using it if one is willing to assume the chain complex is *bounded* above or below, which also suffices for our present purposes; see Exercise 35.2.

What we need next is a way to deduce that something is a chain homotopy equivalence from the fact that some other complex is chain contractible. The right tool for this is the mapping cone.

A quick digression on simplicial complexes will provide some useful motivation.

DEFINITION 35.14. The **cone** of a simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$ is the simplicial complex $CK = (CV, CS)$ with vertices

$$CV := V \cup \{*\}$$

and simplices

$$CS := S \cup \{\{v_0, \dots, v_n, *\} \mid \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S\},$$

where $*$ denotes an *extra* vertex that is assumed to be not an element of the original vertex set V .

The polyhedron $|CK|$ of a cone complex CK has an obvious identification with the topological cone $C|K|$ of the original polyhedron $|K|$, in which the summit of the cone corresponds to the extra vertex $*$ in CV .

For a simplicial pair (K, L) , the cone CL of L also contains L itself as a subcomplex, so we can define the **cone** of the pair (K, L) as the simplicial complex

$$\text{cone}(K, L) := CL \cup_L K,$$

in which the subcomplexes $L \subset CL$ and $L \subset K$ are identified with each other. The vertices of $\text{cone}(K, L)$ thus consist of the vertices of K plus one extra vertex labelled $*$, while its simplices consist of the simplices of K plus, for each $n \geq 0$ and each n -simplex $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ of L , the $(n+1)$ -simplex $\{*, v_0, \dots, v_n\}$. Topologically, the polyhedron $|\text{cone}(K, L)|$ is a space obtained by attaching $|K|$ to the cone $C|L|$ along $|L|$, thus making the inclusion $|L| \hookrightarrow |\text{cone}(K, L)|$ homotopic to a constant map.

The augmented chain complex $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$ contains two types of generators. First, since $K \subset \text{cone}(K, L)$ is a subcomplex, there are the generators corresponding to simplices of K , in addition to $1 \in \mathbb{Z} = \tilde{C}_{-1}^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$, making $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$ a subcomplex of $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$. Secondly, each oriented simplex $[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ of L gives rise to a generator $[*, v_0, \dots, v_n]$ of $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$, defining for each $n \geq -1$ a homomorphism

$$\tilde{C}_n^\Delta(L; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{j} \tilde{C}_{n+1}^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$$

such that $j[v_0, \dots, v_n] := [*, v_0, \dots, v_n]$ and, for the case $n = -1$, $j(1) := [*]$. The map j identifies every n -chain in $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(L; \mathbb{Z})$ with an $(n+1)$ -chain in $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$, but j is not a chain map, and its image is not a subcomplex: instead, we have

$$\partial j[v_0, \dots, v_n] = \partial[*, v_0, \dots, v_n] = [v_0, \dots, v_n] - j(\partial[v_0, \dots, v_n])$$

and, using $\partial = \epsilon_*$ for the degree 0 part of the augmented chain complex, $\partial j(1) = \epsilon_*[*] = 1 = 1 - j(\partial(1))$. The result is a direct sum decomposition

$$\tilde{C}_n^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{C}_{n-1}^\Delta(L; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \tilde{C}_n^\Delta(K; \mathbb{Z})$$

for each $n \geq -1$ such that the boundary map on $\tilde{C}_*^\Delta(\text{cone}(K, L); \mathbb{Z})$ decomposes in block form as

$$\partial = \begin{pmatrix} -\partial^L & 0 \\ i_* & \partial^K \end{pmatrix},$$

where ∂^L and ∂^K denote the boundary maps on the augmented simplicial chain complexes of L and K respectively, and $i : L \hookrightarrow K$ is the inclusion. One can take this as topological motivation for the following algebraic definition.

DEFINITION 35.15. The **mapping cone** of a chain map $\Phi : (A_*, \partial^A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial^B)$ is the chain complex $(\text{cone}(\Phi)_*, \partial)$ with

$$\text{cone}(\Phi)_n := A_{n-1} \oplus B_n \quad \text{and} \quad \partial := \begin{pmatrix} -\partial^A & 0 \\ \Phi & \partial^B \end{pmatrix}.$$

REMARK 35.16. The literature contains a variety of alternative versions of Definition 35.15 with slightly different sign conventions.

It is straightforward to check that for any chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$, one obtains a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow B_* \xrightarrow{i} \text{cone}(\Phi)_* \xrightarrow{\pi} A_*[-1] \longrightarrow 0,$$

where we denote by $A_*[-1]$ the chain complex A_* with its grading shifted so that $A_*[-1]_n := A_{n-1}$, and the maps i and π are the obvious inclusion and projection respectively,

$$B_n \xrightarrow{i} A_{n-1} \oplus B_n, \quad A_{n-1} \oplus B_n \xrightarrow{\pi} A_{n-1}.$$

Plugging this into Proposition 34.9 thus gives a long exact sequence that relates the homology groups of A_* , B_* and the cone, and by inspection of the usual diagram chase, one finds that the connecting homomorphism $H_n(A_*[-1]) = H_{n-1}(A_*) \xrightarrow{\partial^*} H_{n-1}(B_*)$ in this case is simply the map induced on homology by the chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$, so the long exact sequence takes the form

$$(35.4) \quad \dots \longrightarrow H_n(A_*) \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} H_n(B_*) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(\text{cone}(\Phi)_*) \xrightarrow{\pi_*} H_{n-1}(A_*) \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} H_{n-1}(B_*) \longrightarrow \dots$$

The exactness of this sequence implies:

PROPOSITION 35.17. *A chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ induces isomorphisms $H_n(A_*) \rightarrow H_n(B_*)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if its mapping cone $\text{cone}(\Phi)_*$ is acyclic.* $\square$

The following is a chain-level analogue of Proposition 35.17.

THEOREM 35.18. *A chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is a chain homotopy equivalence if and only if its mapping cone $\text{cone}(\Phi)_*$ is chain contractible.*

PROOF. Suppose $\text{cone}(\Phi)_*$ admits a chain contraction, so for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there is a homomorphism

$$h = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} : A_{n-1} \oplus B_n = \text{cone}(\Phi)_n \rightarrow \text{cone}(\Phi)_{n+1} = A_n \oplus B_{n+1}$$

satisfying $h\partial + \partial h = \mathbb{1}$, which amounts to the four equations

$$\begin{aligned} -\partial^A \alpha - \alpha \partial^A + \beta \Phi &= \mathbb{1}, \\ \Phi \alpha + \partial^B \gamma - \gamma \partial^A + \delta \Phi &= 0, \\ -\partial^A \beta + \beta \partial^B &= 0, \\ \Phi \beta + \partial^B \delta + \delta \partial^B &= \mathbb{1} \end{aligned}$$

for the maps $\alpha : A_{n-1} \rightarrow A_n$, $\beta : B_n \rightarrow A_n$, $\gamma : A_{n-1} \rightarrow B_{n+1}$ and $\delta : B_n \rightarrow B_{n+1}$. The third equation makes β a chain map $B_* \rightarrow A_*$, the first makes $-\alpha$ a chain homotopy between $\beta \circ \Phi$ and the identity $A_* \rightarrow A_*$, and the fourth makes δ a chain homotopy between $\Phi \circ \beta$ and the identity $B_* \rightarrow B_*$, proving that β is a chain homotopy inverse of Φ .

We will not need the converse in the application below, so we include here only a sketch of its proof, adapted from an argument in [Bro94, Prop. 0.7].

As a preparatory observation, note that for any two chain complexes (A_*, ∂^A) and (B_*, ∂^B) , there is a chain complex $(\text{Hom}(A_*, B_*), \partial)$ whose degree n part consists of the homomorphisms

$\phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ that satisfy $\phi(A_k) \subset B_{k+n}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, with the boundary operator ∂ given on homogeneous elements $\phi \in \text{Hom}(A_*, B_*)$ of degree $|\phi|$ by

$$\partial\phi := \partial^B \circ \phi - (-1)^{|\phi|} \phi \circ \partial^A.$$

The choice of sign convention used here is motivated by a convention that we will later use for defining tensor products of chain complexes, and it ensures for instance that the obvious evaluation map

$$\text{Hom}(A_*, B_*) \otimes A_* \rightarrow B_* : \phi \otimes a \mapsto \phi(a)$$

is a chain map. This detail is unimportant for now; one can easily check in any case that $(\text{Hom}(A_*, B_*), \partial)$ as defined above is a chain complex. Moreover, the 0-cycles in $\text{Hom}(A_*, B_*)$ are precisely the chain maps from A_* to B_* , and two such cycles are homologous if and only if they are chain homotopic.

Next, we have two claims whose proofs are both straightforward exercises:

Claim 1: For any fixed chain complex C_* , there exists a covariant functor $\text{Ch} \rightarrow \text{Ch}$ that sends each chain complex A_* to the chain complex $\text{Hom}(C_*, A_*)$ and sends each chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ to the chain map

$$\text{Hom}(C_*, \Phi) : \text{Hom}(C_*, A_*) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C_*, B_*) : \phi \mapsto \Phi \circ \phi,$$

and moreover, the chain homotopy class of $\text{Hom}(C_*, \Phi)$ depends only on the chain homotopy class of Φ .

Claim 2: For any chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ and any third chain complex C_* , there is a natural isomorphism between the chain complexes $\text{Hom}(C_*, \text{cone}(\Phi)_*)$ and $\text{cone}(\text{Hom}(C_*, \Phi))_*$.

With these ingredients in place, suppose $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is a chain homotopy equivalence, and abbreviate $C_* := \text{cone}(\Phi)_*$. Claim 1 implies that $\text{Hom}(C_*, \Phi) : \text{Hom}(C_*, A_*) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C_*, B_*)$ is then also a chain homotopy equivalence, and by claim 2, its mapping cone is naturally isomorphic to $\text{Hom}(C_*, C_*)$, implying via Proposition 35.17 that $\text{Hom}(C_*, C_*)$ is acyclic. The vanishing of $H_0(\text{Hom}(C_*, C_*))$ means that every chain map $C_* \rightarrow C_*$ is chain homotopic to zero: since this applies in particular to the identity map $C_* \rightarrow C_*$, it follows that C_* is chain contractible. $\square$

Theorem 35.9 in the case $G = \mathbb{Z}$ is an immediate consequence of the following:

COROLLARY 35.19. *For two chain complexes A_*, B_* of free abelian groups, a chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is a chain homotopy equivalence if and only if the induced maps $\Phi_* : H_n(A_*) \rightarrow H_n(B_*)$ are isomorphisms for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. If $\Phi_* : H_n(A_*) \rightarrow H_n(B_*)$ is an isomorphism for every n , then by Proposition 35.17, $\text{cone}(\Phi)_*$ is acyclic. Since the chain groups A_{n-1} and B_n are free abelian groups, the same holds for $\text{cone}(\Phi)_n = A_{n-1} \oplus B_n$, and it then follows via Lemma 35.12 that $\text{cone}(\Phi)_*$ is also chain contractible. The result now follows from Theorem 35.18. $\square$

35.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 35.1. Let Top_* denote the category of pointed spaces with base-point preserving continuous maps, so that we can regard both π_1 and $H_1(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ as functors from Top_* to the category Grp of groups with homomorphisms. (Note that the base point is irrelevant for the definition of $H_1(\cdot, \mathbb{Z})$, which actually takes values in the smaller subcategory of *abelian* groups, but these details are unimportant for now.) In this context, show that the Hurewicz homomorphism (35.3) defines a natural transformation from π_1 to $H_1(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$.

EXERCISE 35.2. A chain complex C_* is said to be **bounded below** or **bounded above** if $C_n = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ sufficiently small or sufficiently large respectively, e.g. all of the chain complexes that we have used for defining topological invariants so far have been bounded below,

since they satisfy $C_n = 0$ for $n < 0$. Show that if C_* is an acyclic chain complex of R -modules that is bounded above or below and the modules $C_n \subset C_*$ are all free, then C_* is chain contractible. *Hint: Construct a chain contraction inductively by degree, as in the method of acyclic models. The assumption that C_* is bounded above or below gives you a place to start the induction.*

EXERCISE 35.3 (*). Prove that for any two subsets $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset X$ with $X = \mathring{\mathcal{U}} \cup \mathring{\mathcal{V}}$, the obvious inclusion

$$C_*(\mathcal{U}) + C_*(\mathcal{V}) \hookrightarrow C_*(X)$$

is a chain homotopy equivalence.

EXERCISE 35.4 (*). The **reduced** version of singular homology

$$\tilde{H}_n(X) = \tilde{H}_n(X; G) := \ker \left(H_n(X; G) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} H_n(\{*\}; G) \right)$$

is defined in terms of the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$. Show that $\tilde{H}_*(X)$ can also be identified in a natural way with the homology of an **augmented** singular chain complex $\tilde{C}_*(X) = \tilde{C}_*(X; G)$, taking the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow C_2(X; G) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_1(X; G) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_0(X; G) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} G \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots,$$

where the **augmentation** map $\epsilon_* : C_0(X; G) \rightarrow G$ takes the form $\epsilon_* \sum_i a_i \sigma_i := \sum_i a_i$. Show also that continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce chain maps $f_* : \tilde{C}_*(X) \rightarrow \tilde{C}_*(Y)$, and that under the identification $\tilde{H}_n(X) \cong H_n(\tilde{C}_*(X))$, the induced homomorphisms $f_* : \tilde{H}_n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(Y)$ are just restrictions of the usual homomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(Y)$.

36. Triples and the Mayer-Vietoris sequence

In this lecture, we discuss some slightly more elaborate exact sequences that are often useful in computations of homology. These sequences can be derived from the axioms, and are thus common to all axiomatic homology theories, but they are a bit easier to understand in the specific example of singular homology.

36.1. Triples. A **triple** (X, A, B) of spaces consists of a space X and two nested subsets $B \subset A \subset X$. In this situation, there are two obvious inclusion maps

$$(A, B) \xhookrightarrow{i} (X, B) \xhookrightarrow{j} (X, A),$$

and in singular homology there are also natural homomorphisms

$$(36.1) \quad H_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A, B) : [c] \mapsto [\partial c],$$

where $c \in C_n(X)$ denotes a relative n -cycle in (X, A) , which makes $\partial c \in C_{n-1}(A)$ an $(n-1)$ -cycle in A and therefore also a relative $(n-1)$ -cycle in (A, B) .

THEOREM 36.1. *For any axiomatic homology theory h_* , there exist natural homomorphisms $\partial_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A, B)$ associated to every triple of spaces (X, A, B) such that the sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_n(A, B) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_n(X, B) \xrightarrow{j_*} h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A, B) \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow h_0(X, A) \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact, and in the case of singular homology, ∂_ is the map defined in (36.1).*

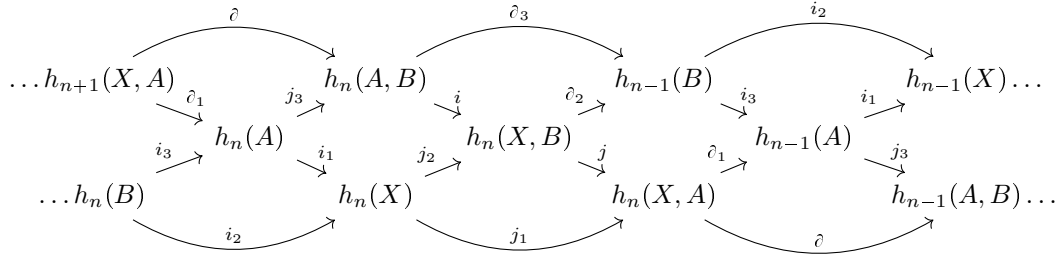
PROOF. Let us first give a proof that applies only to singular homology, since it is quicker and more intuitive. It is simply a matter of applying Proposition 34.9 with the short exact sequence of relative chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow C_*(A, B) \xrightarrow{i_*} C_*(X, B) \xrightarrow{j_*} C_*(X, A) \longrightarrow 0$$

and then inspecting the diagram chase to check that the resulting connecting homomorphism is the map specified in (36.1).

A different argument is needed in order to produce the same result for an arbitrary axiomatic homology theory h_* . It is based on the following “braid” diagram:

(36.2)



The braid consists of four “strands,” three of which you may recognize as the long exact sequences of the pairs (X, A) , (X, B) and (A, B) , as provided by the exactness axiom. The fourth strand is the sequence

$$(36.3) \quad \dots \longrightarrow h_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial} h_n(A, B) \xrightarrow{i} h_n(X, B) \xrightarrow{j} h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial} h_{n-1}(A, B) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

which we would like to prove is exact. Here the map $\partial := j_3 \circ \partial_1$ is defined via the commutativity of the diagram, while all other maps are either induced by the obvious inclusions or are connecting homomorphisms from long exact sequences of pairs. The whole diagram commutes due to the commutativity of the obvious inclusions, plus the naturality of the connecting homomorphisms. The rest is an exercise in diagram chasing; see Exercise 36.1. $\square$

36.2. Mayer-Vietoris sequences in simplicial homology. It is time to discuss the analogue in homology of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem.

The problem is as follows: we are given a space $X = A \cup B$, and we would like to compute the homology $h_*(X)$ in terms of $h_*(A)$, $h_*(B)$ and $h_*(A \cap B)$. Of the versions of homology that we’ve discussed so far, the problem is simplest to solve in simplicial homology, so let’s start with that. As in Lecture 33, we use the notation $H_*^\bullet(K)$ and $C_*^\bullet(K)$ to denote either the ordered or oriented versions of simplicial homology.

Suppose $K = A \cup B$ is a simplicial complex containing $A, B \subset K$ as subcomplexes, in which case $A \cap B$ is automatically also a subcomplex of K . For clarity: the notation $K = A \cup B$ means that every simplex of K is a simplex of A or a simplex of B , and $A \cap B$ denotes the subcomplex of K consisting of simplices that belong to both of the subcomplexes A and B . The inclusions

$$(36.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & A & & \\ & i^A \nearrow & & j^A \searrow & \\ A \cap B & & & & K \\ & i^B \searrow & & j^B \nearrow & \\ & & B & & \end{array}$$

are all simplicial maps, and the induced chain maps can be assembled into a short exact sequence of simplicial chain complexes

$$(36.5) \quad 0 \longrightarrow C_*^\bullet(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} C_*^\bullet(A) \oplus C_*^\bullet(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} C_*^\bullet(K) \longrightarrow 0.$$

Note in particular that the map $j_*^A \oplus j_*^B$ is surjective since every generator of $C_*^\bullet(K)$ is also a generator of $C_*^\bullet(A)$ or $C_*^\bullet(B)$; this is worth pointing out because it is the detail that will become more complicated when we adapt this discussion to singular homology, but let's come back to that in a moment. Plugging (36.5) into Proposition 34.9 gives the **Mayer-Vietoris sequence** of simplicial homology groups, in which close inspection of the usual diagram chase reveals the connecting homomorphism to be of the form stated below:

THEOREM 36.2. *For any simplicial complex $K = A \cup B$ that is the union of two subcomplexes $A, B \subset K$, with simplicial inclusion maps written as in (36.4), there exists a long exact sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow H_{n+1}^\bullet(K) &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n^\bullet(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} H_n^\bullet(A) \oplus H_n^\bullet(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} H_n^\bullet(K) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}^\bullet(A \cap B) \\ &\longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow H_0^\bullet(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} H_0^\bullet(A) \oplus H_0^\bullet(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} H_0^\bullet(K) \longrightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

with connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : H_n^\bullet(K) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^\bullet(A \cap B)$ characterized by the formula

$$\partial_*[a + b] = [\partial a]$$

for any simplicial n -cycle of the form $a + b \in C_n^\bullet(K)$ with $a \in C_n^\bullet(A)$ and $b \in C_n^\bullet(B)$. $\square$

REMARK 36.3. The placement of the minus signs in (36.5) and in the exact sequence of Theorem 36.2 is not universally standard; other reasonable conventions on this are possible.

REMARK 36.4. One easily checks that the connecting homomorphisms in Theorem 36.2 (and therefore the entire Mayer-Vietoris sequence) are natural in the sense that for any simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow K'$ such that $K' = A' \cup B'$ for subcomplexes $A', B' \subset K'$ with $\phi(A) \subset A'$ and $\phi(B) \subset B'$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_n^\bullet(K) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & H_{n-1}^\bullet(A \cap B) \\ \downarrow \phi_* & & \downarrow \phi_* \\ H_n^\bullet(K') & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & H_{n-1}^\bullet(A' \cap B') \end{array}$$

commutes.

We now introduce some terminology that makes the naturality property described in Remark 36.4 easier to express.

DEFINITION 36.5. A **simplicial triad** $(K; A, B)$ consists of a simplicial complex K and two subcomplexes $A, B \subset K$. A **map of simplicial triads** $\phi : (K; A, B) \rightarrow (K'; A', B')$ is a simplicial map $\phi : K \rightarrow K'$ that restricts to the subcomplexes A and B as simplicial maps $A \rightarrow A'$ and $B \rightarrow B'$ respectively.

There is, of course, a category whose objects are simplicial triads, with morphisms given by maps of simplicial triads, and it has a subcategory formed by all triads $(X; A, B)$ that satisfy $X = A \cup B$. Remark 36.4 can now be rephrased to say that the Mayer-Vietoris sequence defines a functor from the aforementioned subcategory of the category of simplicial triads to the category of long exact sequences (cf. Exercise 34.4).

36.3. Mayer-Vietoris sequences in singular homology. We now dispense with triangulations and work with triads of arbitrary topological spaces.

DEFINITION 36.6. A **triad** of spaces $(X; A, B)$ consists of a topological space X and two subspaces $A, B \subset X$. A **map of triads** $f : (X; A, B) \rightarrow (X'; A', B')$ is a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow X'$ such that $f(A) \subset A'$ and $f(B) \subset B'$.

We will consider triads $(X; A, B)$ that satisfy

$$X = A \cup B,$$

with inclusion maps denoted by

$$(36.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & A & & \\ & \nearrow i^A & & \nwarrow j^A & \\ A \cap B & & & & X \\ & \searrow i^B & & \swarrow j^B & \\ & & B & & \end{array}$$

The obvious analogue of the short exact sequence (36.5) for the singular chain complex is not generally exact, because the map $j_*^A \oplus j_*^B : C_*(A) \oplus C_*(B) \rightarrow C_*(X)$ is not surjective: there can be singular simplices $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ with image not fully contained in either A or B . We've seen this problem before, namely in the proof of the excision property for singular homology, and we know how to solve it: subdivision. But in order to make this solution possible, we will have to assume some conditions on the subsets $A, B \subset X$. Let's first observe what can be proved easily: the obvious analogue of (36.5) does become exact if we replace the final term $C_*(X)$ with the subcomplex

$$C_*(A + B) := C_*(A) + C_*(B) \subset C_*(X),$$

producing the short exact sequence

$$(36.7) \quad 0 \longrightarrow C_*(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} C_*(A) \oplus C_*(B) \xrightarrow{J^A \oplus J^B} C_*(A + B) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where we denote by J^A and J^B the inclusions of chain complexes

$$C_*(A) \xhookrightarrow{J^A} C_*(A + B) \xleftarrow{J^B} C_*(B).$$

There is of course a long exact sequence of homology groups associated to the short exact sequence above, but in order for that long exact sequence to be useful as a way of computing $H_*(X)$, we need to be able to deduce the latter from the subcomplex $C_*(A + B) \subset C_*(X)$. Subdivision will make this possible in certain situations, in particular by establishing the conditions of Definition 36.7 below.

NOTATION. We have left the coefficient group G unspecified in this discussion; for situations where the choice of coefficients matters, we shall denote

$$C_*(A + B; G) := C_*(A; G) + C_*(B; G) \subset C_*(X; G).$$

DEFINITION 36.7. A triad $(X; A, B)$ is said to be **excisive** (for singular homology) if the inclusion of subcomplexes $C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z}) \hookrightarrow C_*(A \cup B; \mathbb{Z}) \subset C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ induces an isomorphism on homology,

$$H_*(C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z})) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(A \cup B; \mathbb{Z}).$$

REMARK 36.8. In many sources, the term *excisive triads* refers specifically to a triad satisfying the condition described in Proposition 36.10 below, but Definition 36.7 is more general, which is often useful in applications. When $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad, the two subsets $A, B \subset X$ are often said to form an **excisive couple** in X . Excisive triads are also called *proper* triads in [ES52].

REMARK 36.9. We have formulated Definition 36.7 so that the condition is maximally easy to check, but several seemingly stronger conditions are equivalent to it. Indeed, since $C_*(A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$ and $C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z})$ are chain complexes of free abelian groups, the defining property of an excisive

triad implies via Corollary 35.19 that the inclusion $C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z}) \hookrightarrow C_*(A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$ is also a chain homotopy equivalence. From this, it follows as in Remark 33.12 and Lemma 35.10 that $C_*(A + B; G) \hookrightarrow C_*(A \cup B; G)$ is also a chain homotopy equivalence for arbitrary coefficient groups G , and the homological condition in Definition 36.7 therefore also holds with an arbitrary choice of coefficients. With this in mind, we shall mostly go back to omitting the coefficients from the notation from here on.

Here is the most common situation in which one encounters excisive triads:

PROPOSITION 36.10. *If $A, B \subset X$ are subsets such that $A \cup B = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ is the union of their interiors, then $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad. In particular, this holds whenever A and B are both open in X .*

PROOF. We can replace X by $A \cup B$ and thus assume without loss of generality that the interiors of A and B cover X . The result is then immediate from Exercise 35.3, which states that the inclusion $C_*(A + B) \hookrightarrow C_*(X)$ is in this case a chain homotopy equivalence. In fact, one can first use barycentric subdivision to prove that $(X; A, B)$ forms an excisive triad; the crucial detail is that since every point lies in at least one of either $\mathring{A}$ or $\mathring{B}$, applying barycentric subdivision sufficiently many times to any given chain produces one whose constituent singular simplices are each fully contained in either A or B . This result implies the stronger statement in Exercise 35.3 due to the general properties of chain complexes and mapping cones discussed in §35.5. $\square$

For an excisive triad $(X; A, B)$ with $X = A \cup B$, we can define homomorphisms

$$H_n(X) \xrightarrow{\hat{c}_*} H_{n-1}(A \cap B) : [a + b] \mapsto [\partial a] = -[\partial b], \quad \text{where} \quad a \in C_n(A) \text{ and } b \in C_n(B).$$

Indeed, the defining property of an excisive triad implies that every homology class $[c] \in H_n(X)$ can be represented by the sum of a chain a in A with a chain b in B , and the condition that $a + b$ is a cycle then means $\partial a = -\partial b$, so that the $(n-1)$ -cycle ∂a necessarily lies in $A \cap B$. One can deduce from the injectivity of the map $H_n(C_*(A + B)) \rightarrow H_n(X)$ that the homology class $[\partial a] \in H_{n-1}(A \cap B)$ does not depend on the choice of representation $[c] = [a + b]$; see Exercise 36.2(a). Applying Proposition 34.9 and Exercise 36.2(b), we have:

THEOREM 36.11. *For any space $X = A \cup B$ such that $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for singular homology, the sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow H_{n+1}(X) &\xrightarrow{\hat{c}_*} H_n(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} H_n(A) \oplus H_n(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} H_n(X) \xrightarrow{\hat{c}_*} H_{n-1}(A \cap B) \\ &\longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow H_0(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} H_0(A) \oplus H_0(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} H_0(X) \longrightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

is exact. Moreover, the connecting homomorphisms are natural in the sense that for any map of triads $f : (X; A, B) \rightarrow (X'; A', B')$ such that $X' = A' \cup B'$ and $(X'; A', B')$ is excisive, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\hat{c}_*} & H_{n-1}(A \cap B) \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ H_n(X') & \xrightarrow{\hat{c}_*} & H_{n-1}(A' \cap B') \end{array}$$

commutes. $\square$

Note that the naturality part of the statement follows from the functoriality of the short $\rightarrow$ long exact sequence construction, cf. Proposition 34.9 and Exercise 34.4.

REMARK 36.12. The comment in Remark 36.3 about signs applies here as well: we could have made different but equally good choices of signs in the short exact sequence (36.7), and doing so might force a change in the definition of the connecting homomorphism, e.g. writing $\partial_*[a + b] := [\partial b]$ instead of $\partial_*[a + b] := [\partial a]$. In fact, since these two definitions differ only by a sign, they are interchangeable as far as Theorem 36.11 is concerned.

We will have more use for excisive triads later, when we discuss product structures in relative homology and cohomology. The following result will be important in that discussion, and also provides a useful hint about how to generalize beyond singular homology to the axiomatic setting. Observe that for any two subsets $A, B \subset X$, we have a nested sequence of subcomplexes

$$C_*(A + B) = C_*(A) + C_*(B) \subset C_*(A \cup B) \subset C_*(X)$$

and therefore also quotient projections

$$C_*(X) \rightarrow \frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A + B)} \rightarrow \frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A \cup B)} = C_*(X, A \cup B),$$

which are chain maps.

PROPOSITION 36.13. *For a triad $(X; A, B)$, the following conditions are equivalent.*

- (i) $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for singular homology;
- (ii) The quotient projection

$$\frac{C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})}{C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z})} \rightarrow C_*(X, A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$$

induces isomorphisms of homology groups;

- (iii) The map $H_*(A, A \cap B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(A \cup B, B; \mathbb{Z})$ induced by the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, B)$ is an isomorphism;
- (iv) The map $H_*(B, A \cap B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(A \cup B, A; \mathbb{Z})$ induced by the inclusion $(B, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, A)$ is an isomorphism.

Moreover, if any of these conditions hold, then the same conditions also hold with $\mathbb{Z}$ replaced by an arbitrary coefficient group G .

PROOF. We shall prove that the four statements are equivalent using an arbitrary coefficient group G instead of $\mathbb{Z}$. The fact that everything then follows from the special case $G = \mathbb{Z}$ will then be a consequence of Remark 36.9.

To see that conditions (i) and (ii) are equivalent, consider the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & C_*(A + B) & \hookrightarrow & C_*(X) & \longrightarrow & \frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A + B)} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathbf{1} & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & C_*(A \cup B) & \hookrightarrow & C_*(X) & \longrightarrow & C_*(X, A \cup B) \longrightarrow 0, \end{array}$$

in which both rows are short exact sequences of chain complexes and all arrows are either inclusions or quotient projections. Transforming both rows via Proposition 34.9 into long exact sequences of homology groups then produces a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & H_n(C_*(A + B)) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_n\left(\frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A + B)}\right) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(C_*(A + B)) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X) & \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathbf{1} & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathbf{1} & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & H_n(A \cup B) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X, A \cup B) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(A \cup B) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X) & \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

Each of (i) and (ii) amounts to a condition in which every third vertical arrow in this last diagram is an isomorphism, so if either holds, then the five-lemma implies that the other one does as well.

We next prove that conditions (i) and (iii) are equivalent; since condition (i) is symmetric with respect to the interchange of A and B , it will follow that both are also equivalent to (iv). We observe first that the inclusion $C_*(A) \hookrightarrow C_*(A+B)$ descends to an isomorphism of quotient complexes

$$C_*(A, A \cap B) = \frac{C_*(A)}{C_*(A \cap B)} \xrightarrow{\cong} \frac{C_*(A+B)}{C_*(B)}.$$

The diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \frac{C_*(A)}{C_*(A \cap B)} & \xlongequal{\quad} & C_*(A, A \cap B) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & C_*(A \cup B, B) & \xlongequal{\quad} & \frac{C_*(A \cup B)}{C_*(B)} \\ & & & \searrow \cong & & \nearrow \Phi & \\ & & & & \frac{C_*(A+B)}{C_*(B)} & & \end{array}$$

now shows that the chain map induced by the inclusion $i : (A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, B)$ induces isomorphisms on homology if and only if the same is true of the chain map Φ , which is the result of letting the inclusion $C_*(A+B) \hookrightarrow C_*(A \cup B)$ descend to the quotient by $C_*(B)$. Another argument using long exact sequences and the five-lemma shows that Φ induces isomorphisms on homology if and only if the inclusion $C_*(A+B) \hookrightarrow C_*(A \cup B)$ does; the necessary argument is closely analogous to the proof that (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii), so we leave the details as an exercise. $\square$

36.4. Reduced and relative Mayer-Vietoris sequences. There is an analogue of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for reduced homology, which follows from a similar argument to the one we used for the long exact sequence of the pair. Indeed, whenever $X = A \cup B$ with $(X; A, B)$ an excisive triad for singular homology, we observe that the triad $(\{*\}; \{*\}, \{*\})$ formed by the one-point space $\{*\}$ is automatically excisive, and the Mayer-Vietoris sequences for both triads can then be put together in a commutative diagram as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \dots & \tilde{H}_n(A \cap B) & & \tilde{H}_n(A) \oplus \tilde{H}_n(B) & & \tilde{H}_n(X) & & \tilde{H}_{n-1}(A \cap B) & \dots \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ \dots \longrightarrow & H_n(A \cap B) & \longrightarrow & H_n(A) \oplus H_n(B) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(A \cap B) & \longrightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* \oplus \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & & \downarrow \epsilon_* & \\ \dots \longrightarrow & H_n(\{*\} \cap \{*\}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(\{*\}) \oplus H_n(\{*\}) & \longrightarrow & H_n(\{*\}) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(\{*\} \cap \{*\}) & \longrightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\ & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & & 0 & \end{array}$$

Since all columns of this diagram are exact and so are the bottom two nontrivial rows, Proposition 29.22 provides uniquely determined maps on the top row that preserve the commutativity of the diagram and make the top row exact:

THEOREM 36.14. *In the setting of Theorem 36.11, all maps can be restricted to the respective reduced homology groups to produce an exact sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{H}_n(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} \tilde{H}_n(A) \oplus \tilde{H}_n(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} \tilde{H}_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{H}_{n-1}(A \cap B) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

□

There is also a relative version of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence, which we will need in Lectures 52 and 53 when we construct fundamental classes and prove Poincaré duality. Suppose (X, Y) , (A, C) and (B, D) are pairs of spaces such that $X = A \cup B$ and $Y = C \cup D$, and that the triads $(X; A, B)$ and $(Y; C, D)$ are excisive for singular homology. The relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence then takes the form

(36.8)

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow H_{n+1}(X, Y) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_n(A \cap B, C \cap D) &\xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} H_n(A, C) \oplus H_n(B, D) \\ &\xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} H_n(X, Y) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A \cap B, C \cap D) \longrightarrow \dots, \end{aligned}$$

where we denote the inclusions of pairs

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & (A, C) & & \\ & \nearrow i^A & & \nwarrow j^A & \\ (A \cap B, C \cap D) & & & & (X, Y) \\ & \searrow i^B & & \swarrow j^B & \\ & & (B, D) & & \end{array}$$

A proof of the exactness of this sequence is outlined in Exercise 36.7.

36.5. Axiomatic Mayer-Vietoris sequences. The singular homology version of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence is a sufficient tool for all applications that we will encounter, but our derivation of it had a philosophical drawback: it made direct use of the singular chain complex, rather than relying only on the axioms of a homology theory. In fact, the Mayer-Vietoris sequence does generalize to arbitrary axiomatic homology theories, but the axiomatic proof requires a bit more effort, and some interesting tricks from homological algebra. You may consider this section optional, since it will not be required for our main applications.

Observe first that conditions (iii) and (iv) in Proposition 36.13 give a hint as to the motivation for the word “excisive”: if we write $X' := A \cup B$, $A' := B$ and $B' := B \setminus (A \cap B)$, then the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, B)$ becomes $(X' \setminus B', A' \setminus B') \hookrightarrow (X', A')$ and condition (iii) thus becomes the statement that excision holds in singular homology for the triple (X', A', B') . Statements of this form make sense in any axiomatic homology theory.

DEFINITION 36.15. Given an axiomatic homology theory h_* , we will say that a triad $(X; A, B)$ is **excisive** for the theory h_* if the obvious inclusions of pairs induce isomorphisms

$$h_*(A, A \cap B) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_*(A \cup B, B) \quad \text{and} \quad h_*(B, A \cap B) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_*(A \cup B, A).$$

EXAMPLE 36.16. The excision axiom for h_* implies that $(X; A, B)$ will be an excisive triad whenever there exists a continuous function $u : A \cup B \rightarrow I$ that equals 0 outside of B and 1 outside of A . Urysohn’s lemma guarantees this on well-behaved spaces X that are covered by the interiors of A and B .

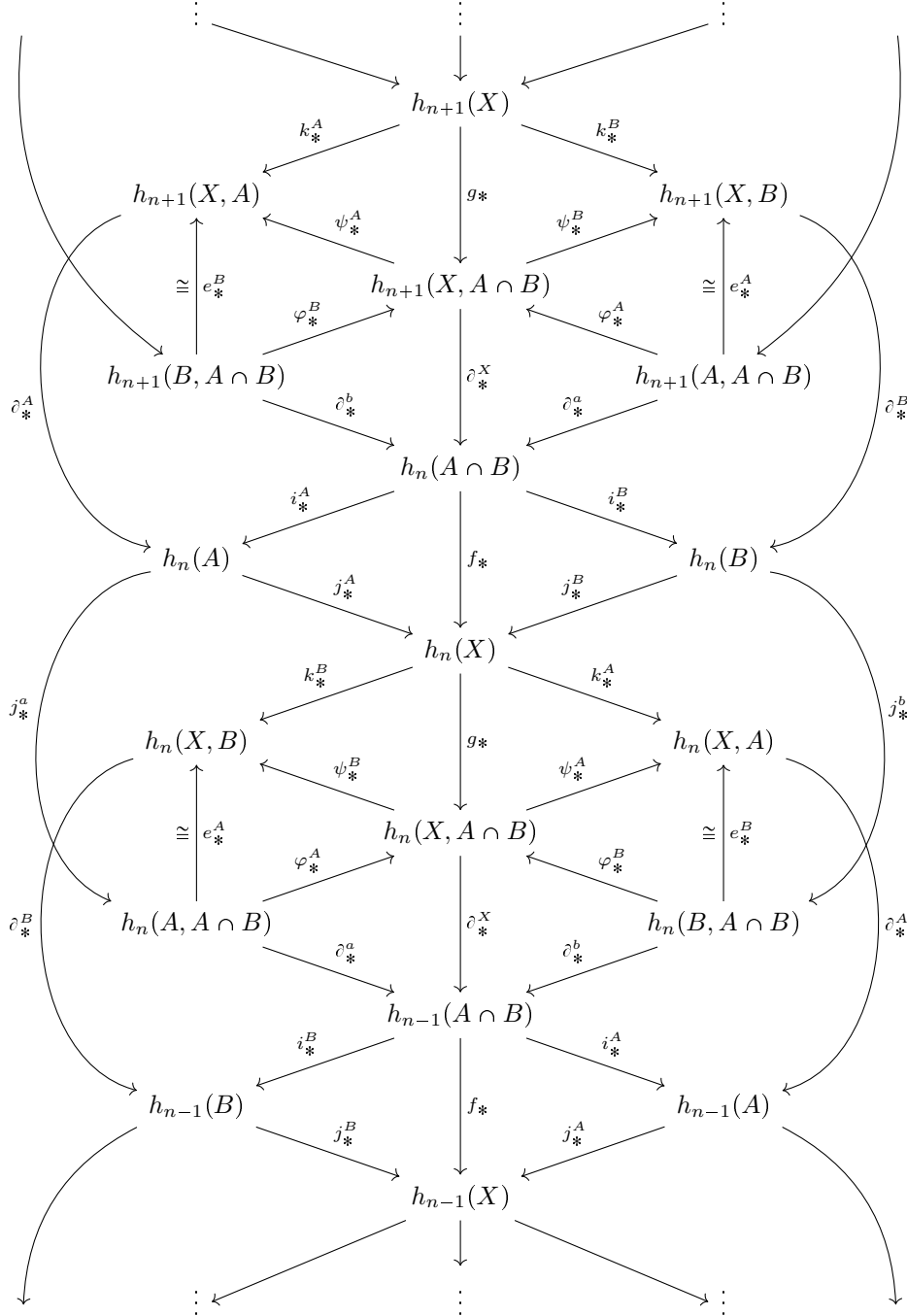


FIGURE 33. The diagram that gives rise to the absolute Mayer-Vietoris sequence of an excisive triad $(X; A, B)$ in an axiomatic homology theory h_* .

For the rest of this section, assume $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for h_* with $X = A \cup B$. We first address the most obvious question: How can we obtain from the axioms natural maps

$$h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A \cap B),$$

which would be needed to play the role of connecting homomorphisms in a Mayer-Vietoris sequence? The answer to this—and in fact to all other questions involving the Mayer-Vietoris sequence—can be derived from the diagram in Figure 33. All maps in this diagram are either the homomorphisms induced by inclusions or the connecting homomorphisms from long exact sequences of pairs, so the commutativity at each triangle or square in the diagram is either obvious or follows from the naturality of connecting homomorphisms. Other than commutativity, the crucial algebraic features of the diagram are the following:

- The vertical maps in the middle form an exact sequence (namely the long exact sequence of the pair $(X, A \cap B)$);
- All sequences of diagonal maps with the same slope are exact, and moreover, so are the long sequences formed by joining multiple three-term diagonal sequences together via curved arrows. (These include the long exact sequences of the pairs (X, A) , (X, B) , $(A, A \cap B)$ and $(B, A \cap B)$, and portions of the exact sequences of the triples $(X, A, A \cap B)$ and $(X, B, A \cap B)$.)
- The maps labelled e_*^A and e_*^B are isomorphisms (due to the excision hypothesis).

As we will see, these algebraic properties are all that is needed in order to prove the exactness of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence.

Using the excision hypothesis, we can define a connecting homomorphism for the Mayer-Vietoris sequence as the composition

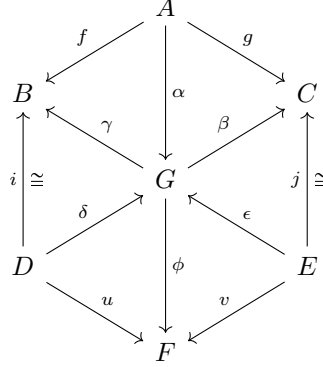
$$(36.9) \quad h_n(X) \xrightarrow{k_*^B} h_n(X, B) \xrightarrow{(e_*^A)^{-1}} h_n(A, A \cap B) \xrightarrow{\partial_*^A} h_{n-1}(A \cap B) .$$


In other words, if you focus on the hexagonal portion of Figure 33 that has $h_n(X)$ and $h_{n-1}(A \cap B)$ at its top and bottom respectively, then ∂_* is defined by traversing the left side of the hexagon from top to bottom. Here it is worth pointing out what is *not* implied by the commutativity of the diagram: commutativity is a local condition pertaining to every individual triangle or square of which the diagram is composed, but it does not mean that every path through the diagram from $h_n(X)$ to $h_{n-1}(A \cap B)$ produces the same map! This would be bad news if it were true, because e.g. the direct vertical path gives $\partial_*^X \circ g_*$, which belongs to the long exact sequence of the pair $(X, A \cap B)$ and is thus trivial. In general, the map ∂_* we have just defined will not be trivial, but the way we defined it begs an obvious question: what is special about the left side of the hexagon instead of the right side, i.e. why not define ∂_* instead as $\partial_*^B \circ (e_*^A)^{-1} \circ k_*^A$?

Actually, there is a satisfying answer to this question: following the right side of the hexagon instead of the left side would produce a definition of ∂_* that is not identical to the one given above, but is just as good, because it differs from it only by a sign:

LEMMA 36.17 (hexagonal lemma). *Assume that all triangles in the following diagram of R -module homomorphisms commute, the maps labelled i and j are isomorphisms, the two three-term*

diagonal sequences going through the center of the hexagon are exact, and $\phi \circ \alpha = 0$.

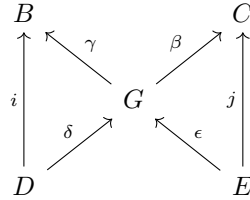


Then the two maps $A \rightarrow F$ formed by composing maps downward along the left and right sides of the hexagon differ by a sign; that is,

$$u \circ i^{-1} \circ f = -v \circ j^{-1} \circ g.$$

The following preparatory result will be useful both in the proof of Lemma 36.17 and in subsequent diagram chases:

LEMMA 36.18. Suppose $D \xrightarrow{\delta} G \xrightarrow{\beta} C$ and $E \xrightarrow{\epsilon} G \xrightarrow{\gamma} B$ are exact sequences of R -modules, and define maps $i : D \rightarrow B$ and $j : E \rightarrow C$ so that the diagram



commutes. If i and j are both isomorphisms, then both of the maps

$$D \oplus E \xrightarrow{\delta \oplus \epsilon} G, \quad \text{and} \quad G \xrightarrow{(\gamma, \beta)} B \oplus C$$

are also isomorphisms.

PROOF. The relations $\gamma \circ \delta = i$, $\beta \circ \epsilon = j$, $\beta \circ \delta = 0$ and $\gamma \circ \epsilon = 0$ imply

$$(36.10) \quad (\gamma, \beta) \circ (\delta \oplus \epsilon) = i \oplus j,$$

and this is an isomorphism by assumption, thus (γ, β) is surjective. To show that it is also injective, suppose $g \in G$ satisfies $\beta(g) = 0$ and $\gamma(g) = 0$. Exactness then gives rise to elements $d \in D$ and $e \in E$ such that $\delta(d) = \epsilon(e) = g$, and therefore $0 = \gamma(g) = \gamma\delta(d) = i(d)$, implying $d = 0$ and thus $g = 0$. This proves that (γ, β) is an isomorphism, and it then follows from (36.10) that $\delta \oplus \epsilon$ is also an isomorphism. $\square$

PROOF OF LEMMA 36.17. Given $a \in A$, there exist unique elements $d \in D$ and $e \in E$ such that $i(d) = f(a)$ and $j(e) = g(a)$, and our objective is to prove

$$u(d) + v(e) = 0.$$

We have

$$(\gamma, \beta) \circ (\delta \oplus \epsilon)(d, e) = (i \oplus j)(d, e) = (f(a), g(a)) = (\gamma, \beta) \circ \alpha(a),$$

and since (γ, β) is an isomorphism by Lemma 36.18, it follows that $(\delta \oplus \epsilon)(d, e) = \delta(d) + \epsilon(e) = \alpha(a)$, implying

$$u(d) + v(e) = \phi \circ \delta(d) + \phi \circ \epsilon(e) = \phi \circ \alpha(a) = 0.$$

□

Since the two versions of the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : h_n(X) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A \cap B)$ described above only differ by a sign, it does not matter which one we use for the purposes of exactness in the theorem below. We've chosen a convention that makes it consistent with the version of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence derived for singular homology in §36.3 (cf. Exercise 36.8), but this is not really an important detail, and as mentioned in Remark 36.12, the singular Mayer-Vietoris sequence contains arbitrary sign conventions of its own.

THEOREM 36.19. *For any axiomatic homology theory h_* and any triad $(X; A, B)$ with $X = A \cup B$ that is excisive for h_* , the sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_n(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{(i_*^A, -i_*^B)} h_n(A) \oplus h_n(B) \xrightarrow{j_*^A \oplus j_*^B} h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A \cap B) \longrightarrow \dots$$

is exact, and it is natural with respect to maps of triads $f : (X; A, B) \rightarrow (X'; A', B')$ such that $X' = A' \cup B'$ and $(X'; A', B')$ is excisive.

REMARK 36.20. The theorem also remains valid if h_* is replaced everywhere by the reduced homology $\tilde{h}_*$. This holds for the same reasons as Theorem 36.14.

The proof of the theorem is a diagram chase based on Figure 33, and we should emphasize that it depends *only* on the algebraic properties of the diagram, i.e. the exactness of certain sequences and the fact that certain maps are isomorphisms due to the excision hypothesis. This is a useful observation, because we will see in Theorem 36.21 below that the same diagram can therefore be used with only minor modifications to establish a special case of the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence as well.

PROOF OF THEOREM 36.19. The main task is to prove that the sequence is exact, as the naturality property is an easy consequence of the naturality of connecting homomorphisms in long exact sequences of pairs.

We start by verifying exactness at the term $h_n(A) \oplus h_n(B)$. Clearly if $(a, b) \in h_n(A) \oplus h_n(B)$ satisfies $(a, b) = (i_*^A(x), -i_*^B(x))$ for some $x \in h_n(A \cap B)$, then

$$(j_*^A \oplus j_*^B)(a, b) = j_*^A a + j_*^B b = j_*^A i_*^A(x) - j_*^B i_*^B(x) = f_*(X) - f_*(X) = 0,$$

so $\text{im}(i_*^A, -i_*^B) \subset \ker(j_*^A \oplus j_*^B)$. Conversely, suppose $(a, -b) \in \ker(j_*^A \oplus j_*^B)$, which means $j_*^A a = j_*^B b =: x \in h_n(X)$. This implies

$$(\psi_*^A, \psi_*^B) \circ g_*(x) = (k_*^A, k_*^B)(x) = (k_*^A j_*^A a, k_*^B j_*^B b) = (0, 0),$$

and since (ψ_*^A, ψ_*^B) is an isomorphism by Lemma 36.18, it follows that $g_*(x) = 0$. Using the exactness of the vertical sequence, we then find an element $z \in h_n(A \cap B)$ satisfying

$$x = f_* z = j_*^A i_*^A z = j_*^B i_*^B z,$$

thus $a - i_*^A z \in \ker j_*^A$ and $b - i_*^B z \in \ker j_*^B$. Using exactness again, this gives elements $u \in h_{n+1}(X, A)$ and $v \in h_{n+1}(X, B)$ such that $\partial_*^A u = a - i_*^A z$ and $\partial_*^B v = b - i_*^B z$, and since e_*^A and e_*^B are isomorphisms, we obtain from this $u' \in h_{n+1}(B, A \cap B)$ and $v' \in h_{n+1}(A, A \cap B)$ with

$$\partial_*^A e_*^B u' = i_*^A \partial_*^B u' = a - i_*^A z \quad \text{and} \quad \partial_*^B e_*^A v' = i_*^B \partial_*^A v' = b - i_*^B z.$$

Setting $y := \partial_*^b u' + \partial_*^a v' \in h_n(A \cap B)$, this implies

$$i_*^A y = i_*^A \partial_*^b u' = a - i_*^A z \quad \text{and} \quad i_*^B y = i_*^B \partial_*^a v' = b - i_*^B z,$$

thus

$$i_*^A(y + z) = a \quad \text{and} \quad i_*^B(y + z) = b,$$

proving $(a, -b) \in \text{im}(i_*^A, -i_*^B)$.

We next prove exactness at $h_n(X)$. If $x = (j_*^A \oplus j_*^B)(a, b) = j_*^A a + j_*^B b \in h_n(X)$ for $a \in h_n(A)$ and $b \in h_n(B)$, then clearly $\partial_* x = 0$, since ∂_* is a composition that starts with k_*^B , and by the hexagonal lemma (Lemma 36.17), it can also be presented with an additional sign as a composition that starts with k_*^A . Now suppose $x \in h_n(X)$ is annihilated by ∂_* , which means that the unique $a \in h_n(A, A \cap B)$ with $e_*^A a = k_*^B x$ satisfies $\partial_*^a a = 0$. By exactness, we then find an element $a' \in h_n(A)$ such that $j_*^a a' = a$, implying

$$k_*^B j_*^A a' = e_*^A j_*^a a' = e_*^A a = k_*^B x,$$

on in other words, $x - j_*^A a' \in \ker k_*^B$. Appealing again to exactness, we then find an element $b' \in h_n(B)$ such that $j_*^B b' = x - j_*^A a'$, giving

$$x = j_*^A a' + j_*^B b' \in \text{im}(j_*^A \oplus j_*^B).$$

Finally, we prove exactness at $h_n(A \cap B)$. If $z = \partial_* x \in h_n(A \cap B)$ for some $x \in h_{n+1}(X)$, then it means that the unique $a \in h_n(A, A \cap B)$ satisfying $e_*^A a = k_*^B x$ also satisfies $\partial_*^a a = z$, and by the hexagonal lemma, the unique $b \in h_n(B, A \cap B)$ satisfying $e_*^B b = k_*^A x$ then satisfies $\partial_*^b b = -z$. It follows that $i_*^A z = i_*^A \partial_*^a a = 0$ and $i_*^B z = i_*^B \partial_*^b b = 0$, so $z \in \ker(i_*^A, -i_*^B)$. Conversely, if $z \in h_n(A \cap B)$ satisfies $i_*^A z = 0$ and $i_*^B z = 0$, the latter implies via exactness that there is an element $b \in h_{n+1}(B, A \cap B)$ satisfying $\partial_*^b b = z$, and we then have

$$0 = i_*^A z = i_*^A \partial_*^b b = \partial_*^A e_*^B b.$$

Applying exactness again, we then find an element $x \in h_{n+1}(X)$ with $k_*^A x = e_*^B b$, and by the definition of ∂_* , it follows that

$$\partial_* x = \partial_*^b b = z.$$

□

The axiomatic version of the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence (36.8) also holds whenever $(X; A, B)$ and $(Y; C, D)$ are two excisive triads for h_* with $C \subset A$, $D \subset B$, $X = A \cup B$ and $Y = C \cup D$. The derivation of this sequence is, unfortunately, not a straightforward extension of what we have done in this section, but a proof in the spirit of Exercise 36.10 can be found in [Ste84]. The good news is that for the applications we will see in Lectures 52 and 53, only the special case of this sequence with $A = B = X$ is actually needed, and this case can be derived from what we have already done with no extra effort:

THEOREM 36.21. *Suppose h_* is an axiomatic homology theory, $(X; C, D)$ is an excisive triad for h_* , and let*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & (X, C) & \\ i^C \swarrow & & \searrow j^C \\ (X, C \cap D) & & (X, C \cup D) \\ i^D \swarrow & & \searrow j^D \\ & (X, D) & \end{array}$$

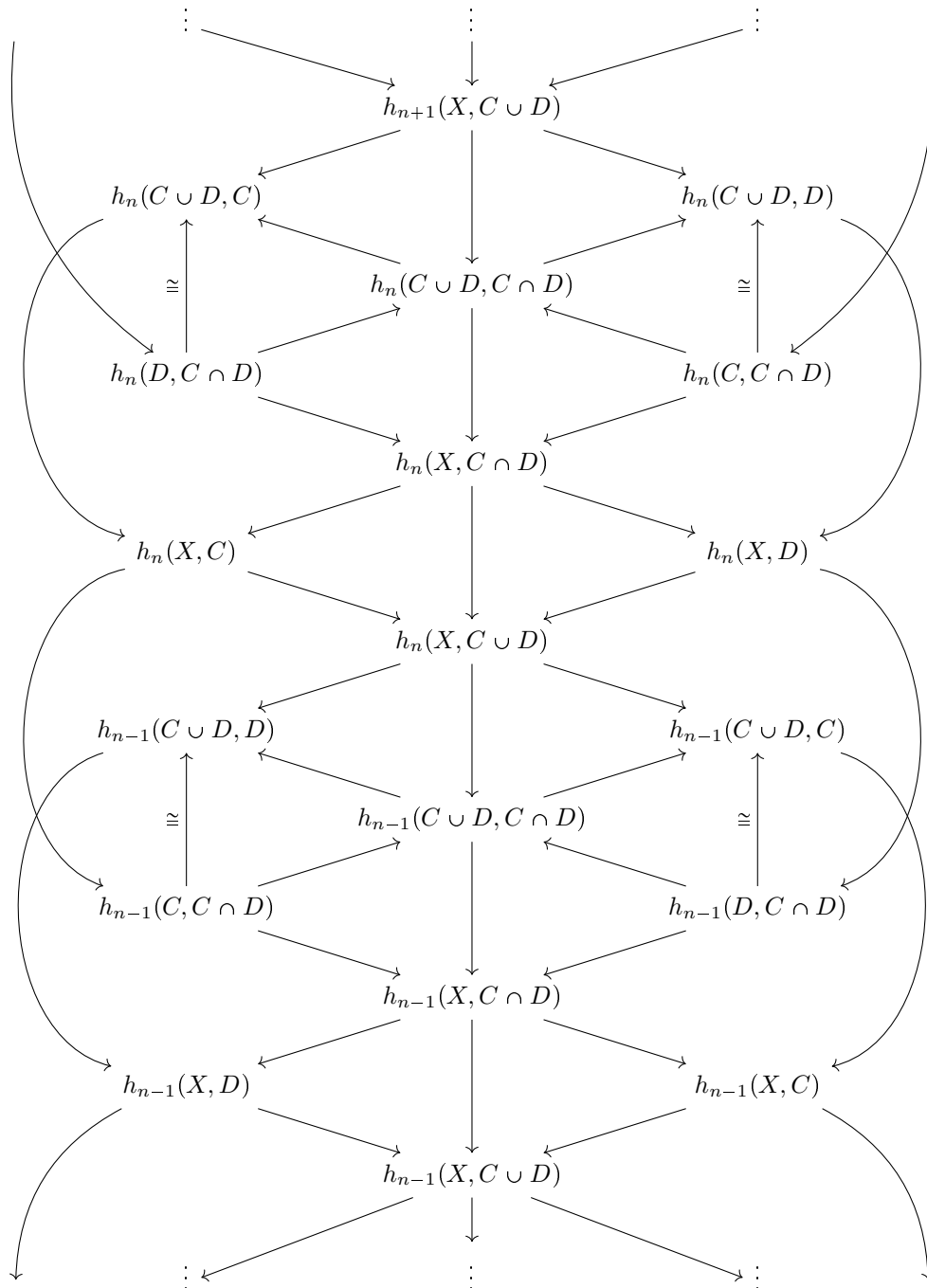


FIGURE 34. The diagram giving rise to the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence for an excisive triad $(X; C, D)$ that need not satisfy $C \cup D = X$.

denote the obvious inclusions of pairs. Then there exist natural connecting homomorphisms

$$h_n(X, C \cup D) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(X, C \cap D)$$

for each n such that the sequence

$$(36.11) \quad \begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow h_{n+1}(X, C \cup D) &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_n(X, C \cap D) \xrightarrow{(i_*^C, -i_*^D)} h_n(X, C) \oplus h_n(X, D) \\ &\xrightarrow{j_*^C \oplus j_*^D} h_n(X, C \cup D) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(X, C \cap D) \longrightarrow \dots, \end{aligned}$$

is exact.

PROOF. The result follows from the same diagram chasing arguments as Theorem 36.19, but applied to the diagram in Figure 34, which has the same algebraic structure as Figure 33. $\square$

36.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 36.1. Deduce via the following steps that the sequence (36.3) appearing as the fourth strand in the braid diagram (36.2) is exact:

- (a) Use the commutativity of the diagram to show that $i \circ \partial = 0$ and $\partial \circ j = 0$.
Hint: Each can be expressed as a different composition that includes two successive maps in an exact sequence.
- (b) Prove that $j \circ i = 0$ by factoring it through the group $h_*(A, A)$, which is always zero. (Why?)
- (c) Use a purely algebraic diagram-chasing argument to prove that the kernel of each map in the sequence (36.3) is contained in the image of the previous one.

EXERCISE 36.2 (*). Assume $X = A \cup B$ is any space with subsets A, B forming an excisive triad $(X; A, B)$ for singular homology.

- (a) Prove that the definition of the homomorphism

$$H_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} H_{n-1}(A \cap B) : [a + b] \mapsto [\partial a] = -[\partial b], \quad \text{where } a \in C_n(A) \text{ and } b \in C_n(B)$$

is independent of choices.

- (b) Prove that the map ∂_* in part (a) is in fact the connecting homomorphism in the long exact sequence that arises by plugging the short exact sequence (36.7) into Proposition 34.9.

EXERCISE 36.3. Derive from the Mayer-Vietoris sequence a simple proof that there is an isomorphism $\tilde{h}_n(X) \cong \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma X)$ for every axiomatic homology theory h_* , every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and every space X , where ΣX denotes the suspension of X .

EXERCISE 36.4. Use Mayer-Vietoris sequences to compute $H_*(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$ by decomposing the torus $\mathbb{T}^2$ into a union of open subsets each homotopy equivalent to S^1 .

Hint: There is a useful algebraic trick for turning any long exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \xrightarrow{\gamma} D \xrightarrow{\delta} E \longrightarrow \dots$$

into a short exact sequence with a specific term in the middle, e.g.

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker}(\alpha) \xrightarrow{\beta} C \xrightarrow{\gamma} \ker(\delta) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where $\operatorname{coker}(\alpha) := B/\operatorname{im}(\alpha)$. If this short exact sequence splits, one obtains from it a formula for C .

EXERCISE 36.5. Use Mayer-Vietoris sequences to compute $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ for

- (a) The projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$.

- (b) The Klein bottle.

Hint: $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is the union of a disk with a Möbius band, and the latter admits a deformation retraction to S^1 . The Klein bottle, in turn, is the union of two Möbius bands, also known as $\mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$.

EXERCISE 36.6. Recall that given two connected topological n -manifolds X and Y , their **connected sum** $X \# Y$ is defined by deleting an open n -disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ from each of X and Y and then gluing $X \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ and $Y \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ together along an identification of their boundary spheres.

- (a) Prove that for any $k = 1, \dots, n-2$ and any coefficient group, $H_k(X \# Y) \cong H_k(X) \oplus H_k(Y)$.

Hint: There are two steps, as you first need to derive a relation between $H_k(X)$ and $H_k(X \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n)$, and then see what happens when you glue $X \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ and $Y \setminus \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$ together.

- (b) It turns out that the formula $H_{n-1}(X \# Y; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_{n-1}(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ also holds if X and Y are both closed orientable n -manifolds with $n \geq 2$, and without orientability we still have $H_{n-1}(X \# Y; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong H_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) \oplus H_{n-1}(Y; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. (One can deduce both results from the properties of fundamental classes in singular homology, which we will discuss later.) Find a counterexample to the formula $H_1(X \# Y; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_1(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ where X and Y are both closed (but not necessarily orientable) 2-manifolds.

EXERCISE 36.7 (*). Here is a way to derive the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence in singular homology. Assume (X, Y) , (A, C) and (B, D) are pairs of spaces such that $X = A \cup B$ and $Y = C \cup D$. Defining the quotient chain complex

$$C_*(A + B, C + D) := C_*(A + B) / C_*(C + D) = \frac{C_*(A) + C_*(B)}{C_*(C) + C_*(D)},$$

we notice that the inclusion $C_*(A + B) \hookrightarrow C_*(X)$ descends to a chain map

$$C_*(A + B, C + D) \rightarrow C_*(X, Y).$$

- (a) Show that if $(X; A, B)$ and $(Y; C, D)$ are excisive triads, then the chain map $C_*(A + B, C + D) \rightarrow C_*(X, Y)$ induces an isomorphism on homology.

Hint: Five-lemma!

- (b) Under the same assumptions as in part (a), derive the exact sequence (36.8) from a short exact sequence of chain complexes $0 \rightarrow C_*(A \cap B, C \cap D) \rightarrow C_*(A, C) \oplus C_*(B, D) \rightarrow C_*(A + B, C + D) \rightarrow 0$.

EXERCISE 36.8. Show that for singular homology, the axiomatic definition of the Mayer-Vietoris connecting homomorphism given by (36.9) matches the definition in the paragraph preceding Theorem 36.11.

EXERCISE 36.9. Applying Lemma 36.18 to the diagram of Figure 33 reveals that whenever $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for h_* , the natural maps

$$(36.12) \quad \begin{aligned} h_n(A, A \cap B) \oplus h_n(B, A \cap B) &\longrightarrow h_n(A \cup B, A \cap B), \\ h_n(A \cup B, A \cap B) &\longrightarrow h_n(A \cup B, A) \oplus h_n(A \cup B, B) \end{aligned}$$

induced by inclusions are both isomorphisms.⁵⁸ Prove the following converse: For any triad $(X; A, B)$, if either of the two maps in (36.12) is an isomorphism, then $(X; A, B)$ is excisive.

⁵⁸The diagram of Figure 33 was produced under the assumption $X = A \cup B$, but if this assumption is not in place, one only needs to modify the diagram by replacing X with $A \cup B$.

Hint: Use exactness in the following diagram to show that the maps φ_^A and φ_*^B are both injective for every n if and only if the maps ψ_*^A and ψ_*^B are both surjective for every n .*

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & h_{n-1}(A, A \cap B) & & h_{n-1}(B, A \cap B) \\
 & \swarrow & & \searrow & \\
 & h_n(A \cup B, A) & & h_n(A \cup B, B) & \\
 & \swarrow \psi_*^A & \nearrow \psi_*^B & & \\
 & h_n(A \cup B, A \cap B) & & & \\
 & \swarrow \varphi_*^B & \nearrow \varphi_*^A & & \\
 & h_n(B, A \cap B) & & h_n(A, A \cap B) & \\
 \nearrow & & & & \nwarrow \\
 h_{n+1}(A \cup B, B) & & & & h_{n+1}(A \cup B, A)
 \end{array}$$

EXERCISE 36.10. Let us outline an alternative way to derive Mayer-Vietoris sequences from the axioms of homology, with less diagram chasing. For the absolute version in Theorem 36.19, the idea can be summarized as follows:

- (1) We associate to any triad $(X; A, B)$ with $X = A \cup B$ another triad $(X'; A', B')$ that satisfies $X' = A' \cup B'$ and is *always* excisive, and comes with a natural map of triads

$$(X'; A', B') \xrightarrow{p} (X; A, B)$$

that restricts to homotopy equivalences $A' \rightarrow A$, $B' \rightarrow B$ and $A' \cap B' \rightarrow A \cap B$, and induces an isomorphism

$$h_*(X') \xrightarrow{\cong} h_*(X)$$

whenever $(X; A, B)$ is excisive.

- (2) For the triad $(X'; A', B')$, we find a subspace $Y \subset X'$ such that there are natural isomorphisms between each term in the Mayer-Vietoris sequence of $(X'; A', B')$ and corresponding terms in the long exact sequence of the pair (X', Y) . The exactness of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence then follows from the exactness axiom.

For convenience in the following, we write

$$J := A \cap B \subset X,$$

and for arbitrary subsets $Z \subset X$, abbreviate

$$Z_0 := Z \times \{0\} \subset X \times I, \quad Z_1 := Z \times \{1\} \subset X \times I, \quad \text{and} \quad Z_I := Z \times I \subset X \times I.$$

With this notation in place, we define the space X' concretely as

$$X' := A_0 \cup J_I \cup B_1 \subset X \times I.$$

This space is a popular gadget in homotopy theory, known as the *mapping cylinder* of the inclusions $A \hookrightarrow A \cap B \hookrightarrow B$; it is intended to be a space that has many homotopy-theoretic features in common with X , but may also have some nicer properties that X lacks. We make X' into a triad $(X'; A', B')$ by defining

$$A' := A_0 \cup J_I, \quad B' := J_I \cup B_1, \quad \text{thus} \quad A' \cap B' = J_I =: J',$$

and notice that the natural projection $p : X \times I \rightarrow X$ restricts to $X' \subset X \times I$ as a map of triads $(X'; A', B') \rightarrow (X; A, B)$ that defines homotopy equivalences $A' \rightarrow A$, $B' \rightarrow B$ and $J' \rightarrow J$. In general, $p : X' \rightarrow X$ itself will not be a homotopy equivalence, but part (c) below reveals that

under suitable hypotheses, it has a property that is almost as good. This depends in part on the observation that $(X'; A', B')$ satisfies the condition in Example 36.16, and is thus an excisive triad for every homology theory.

- (a) Prove that $p : (B', J') \rightarrow (B, J)$ is a homotopy equivalence of pairs.
- (b) Use the fact that $(X'; A', B')$ is excisive to prove that if $(X; A, B)$ is also excisive, then the map $p_* : h_n(X', A') \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$ is an isomorphism for every n .
- (c) Deduce via the 5-lemma and the naturality of long exact sequences that if $(X; A, B)$ is excisive, then the map $p_* : h_n(X') \rightarrow h_n(X)$ is also an isomorphism for every n .

The remainder of this exercise is aimed at identifying the Mayer-Vietoris sequence of $(X'; A', B')$ with the long exact sequence of the pair (X', Y) , where

$$Y := A_0 \amalg B_1 \subset X'.$$

- (d) Find a natural isomorphism

$$h_*(Y) \cong h_*(A') \oplus h_*(B').$$

- (e) Find a natural isomorphism

$$h_*(X', Y) \cong h_*(J \times I, J \times \partial I).$$

Hint: Replace Y with a homotopy equivalent neighborhood of itself in X' , then use excision.

- (f) For an arbitrary space Z , abbreviating $Z_0 := Z \times \{0\} \subset Z \times I$ and $Z_1 := Z \times \{1\} \subset Z \times I$, interpret the hexagonal diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & h_n(Z \times I, Z_0 \amalg Z_1) & & \\
 & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\
 h_{n-1}(Z_0 \amalg Z_1, Z_0) & & & & h_{n-1}(Z_0 \amalg Z_1, Z_1) \\
 & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\
 & h_{n-1}(Z_0 \amalg Z_1) & & & \\
 \uparrow \cong & & \downarrow & & \uparrow \cong \\
 h_{n-1}(Z_1) & & h_{n-1}(Z \times I) & & h_{n-1}(Z_0)
 \end{array}$$

as a derivation of two natural isomorphisms $h_n(Z \times I, Z \times \partial I) \cong h_{n-1}(Z \times I)$ that differ from each other by a sign.

- (g) Show that under the isomorphisms $h_n(Y) \cong h_n(A') \oplus h_n(B')$ and $h_n(X', Y) \cong h_{n-1}(J')$ obtained above, with a suitable choice of sign in the isomorphism $h_n(J \times I, J \times \partial I) \cong h_{n-1}(J')$ from part (f), the maps in the exact sequence of the pair (X', Y) are identified with the maps in the Mayer-Vietoris sequence of $(X'; A', B')$.

Now for the relative version, suppose $(X; C, D)$ is a triad, without assuming $X = C \cup D$, and abbreviate

$$K := C \cap D \subset X.$$

We associate to this the triad $(X'; C', D')$ with

$$X' := X \times I, \quad C' := C_0 \cup K_I, \quad D' := K_I \cup D_1, \quad \text{thus} \quad C' \cap D' = K_I =: K',$$

which is again excisive for the reason described in Example 36.16. The projection $p : X \times I \rightarrow X$ again defines a map of triads $(X'; C', D') \rightarrow (X; C, D)$ which restricts to homotopy equivalences $C' \rightarrow C$, $D' \rightarrow D$ and $K' \rightarrow K$, and in this case, $p : X' \rightarrow X$ itself is also a homotopy equivalence.

(h) Assuming $(X; C, D)$ is also excisive, prove (in the following order) that the maps

$$\begin{aligned} h_*(X', C') &\rightarrow h_*(X, C), \\ h_*(X', D') &\rightarrow h_*(X, D), \\ h_*(C' \cup D', C') &\rightarrow h_*(C \cup D, C), \\ h_*(X', C' \cup D') &\rightarrow h_*(X, C \cup D) \end{aligned}$$

induced by p are isomorphisms.

- (i) Find natural isomorphisms identifying the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence (in the sense of Theorem 36.21) of the triad $(X'; C', D')$ with the long exact sequence of the triple (X', Y', Z') , where

$$Y' := X_0 \times K_I \cup X_1, \quad \text{and} \quad Z' := C_0 \cup K_I \cup D_1.$$

In particular, show that there are natural isomorphisms

$$h_n(Y', Z') \cong h_n(X', C') \oplus h_n(X', D') \quad \text{and} \quad h_n(X', Y') \cong h_{n-1}(X', K')$$

for all n , with a choice of signs to be made in the second case.

Hint: For the second isomorphism, here is an inspirational hexagon.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & h_n(X', Y') & & \\ & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\ h_{n-1}(Y', X_0 \cup K') & & & & h_{n-1}(Y', X_1 \cup K') \\ & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\ & h_{n-1}(Y', K') & & & \\ & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\ h_{n-1}(X_1 \cup K', K') & & h_{n-1}(X', K') & & h_{n-1}(X_0 \cup K', K') \\ & \swarrow & \downarrow & \searrow & \\ & h_{n-1}(X', K') & & & \end{array}$$

(Note: The diagram is a hexagon with $h_{n-1}(Y', K')$ in the center. Arrows point from $h_n(X', Y')$ to the top two nodes, from $h_{n-1}(Y', K')$ to the bottom two nodes, and from the four outer nodes to the center. Vertical arrows on the left and right are labeled $\cong$.)

37. Good pairs and mapping tori

The main subject of this lecture is another computational tool involving an exact sequence, which permits an easy extension of our previous Mayer-Vietoris-based computation of $H_*(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$ to $\mathbb{T}^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

37.1. Good pairs. Here is a useful application of the long exact sequence of a triple. Since $H_*(X, A)$ is defined so as to measure the topology of X while ignoring anything that happens entirely in A , it is natural to expect some relationship between this and the *absolute* homology of the space X/A defined by collapsing $A \subset X$ to a point. Here, we should restrict attention to the case where $A \subset X$ is closed, since X/A may otherwise be a horrible (e.g. non-Hausdorff) space. It turns out that under a further assumption on the pair (X, A) , the relative homology $H_*(X, A)$ is naturally isomorphic to the *reduced* homology $\tilde{H}_*(X/A)$ of the quotient space. To see this, we start by observing that there is a natural isomorphism between the reduced homology of X/A and

the relative homology of the pair $(X/A, A/A)$, in which the subset $A/A \subset X/A$ is actually just a single point. Indeed:

LEMMA 37.1. *For any homology theory h_* , any space X and a point $x \in X$, the inclusion of pairs $(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, \{x\})$ induces an isomorphism*

$$\tilde{h}_*(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} \tilde{h}_*(X, \{x\}) = h_*(X, \{x\}).$$

PROOF. This is immediate from the long exact sequence of $(X, \{x\})$ in reduced homology since $\tilde{h}_*(\{x\}) = 0$. $\square$

Now, observe that the quotient projection $q : X \rightarrow X/A$ is also a map of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, A/A)$ and thus induces a morphism $h_*(X, A) \rightarrow h_*(X/A, A/A)$. Can we expect this map to be an isomorphism? The intuition here is that if we were allowed to remove the subset A and consider the restricted map

$$(X \setminus A, A \setminus A) \xrightarrow{q} ((X/A) \setminus (A/A), (A/A) \setminus (A/A)),$$

then it becomes a homeomorphism, and thus induces an isomorphism between two homology groups that we expect should match $h_*(X, A)$ and $h_*(X/A, A/A)$ due to excision. But we aren't quite allowed to apply excision in this way: normally, the set $B \subset A \subset X$ that we remove from A needs to satisfy a strict condition separating it from $X \setminus A$, and this condition usually does not hold if $B = A$. Conclusion: we need to impose a condition on (X, A) so that A lies strictly inside of something else that will allow us to apply excision. The following bit of informal terminology is adapted from [Hat02].

DEFINITION 37.2. A pair of spaces (X, A) will be called **good** if $A \subset X$ is a closed subset and is a deformation retract of some neighborhood $V \subset X$ such that there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ with $u|_A \equiv 0$ and $u|_{X \setminus V} \equiv 1$.

REMARK 37.3. We have formulated Definition 37.2 to be compatible with the hypothesis of the excision axiom as stated in Lecture 29, but if h_* is singular homology, for which excision holds under a weaker hypothesis, then one can also use a weaker variant of Definition 37.2 in which the existence of the separating function $u : X \rightarrow I$ does not need to be assumed explicitly. That is how the condition is stated in [Hat02].

EXAMPLE 37.4. $(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n)$ is a good pair since $\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$ has a neighborhood homeomorphic to $(-1, 0] \times S^{n-1}$ which deformation retracts to $\{0\} \times S^{n-1}$.

EXAMPLE 37.5. The pair (X, A) with $X = [0, 1]$ and $A = \{1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots, 0\}$ is not good. The easiest way to prove this is probably by showing that it does not satisfy Theorem 37.6 below; see Exercise 37.1.

As you might extrapolate from the two examples just mentioned, most pairs you will encounter in nature are good; it takes some creativity to come up with examples that are not.

THEOREM 37.6. *If (X, A) is a good pair, then for every axiomatic homology theory h_* , the natural quotient map $q : (X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, A/A)$ induces an isomorphism*

$$q_* : h_*(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_*(X/A, A/A),$$

implying via Lemma 37.1 that there is a natural isomorphism $h_(X, A) \cong \tilde{h}_*(X/A)$.*

PROOF. Fix a neighborhood $V \subset X$ of A such that A is a deformation retract of V and there exists a function $u : X \rightarrow I$ that vanishes on A and equals 1 outside of V . The deformation retraction implies that the inclusion $(A, A) \hookrightarrow (V, A)$ is a homotopy equivalence of pairs, thus

$$h_*(V, A) \cong h_*(A, A) = 0,$$

where the latter vanishes due to the long exact sequence of (A, A) . Writing down the long exact sequence of the triple (X, V, A) then gives

$$0 = h_k(V, A) \rightarrow h_k(X, A) \rightarrow h_k(X, V) \rightarrow h_{k-1}(V, A) = 0,$$

so that the map $h_*(X, A) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_*(X, V)$ induced by the inclusion $i : (X, A) \hookrightarrow (X, V)$ is an isomorphism.

One can carry out the same argument after taking the quotient of all spaces by A : the deformation retraction of V to A implies that V/A is contractible and thus $h_*(V/A, A/A) \cong \tilde{h}_*(V/A) = 0$, so the exact sequence of $(X/A, V/A, A/A)$ then implies that the map $h_*(X/A, A/A) \xrightarrow{j_*} h_*(X/A, V/A)$ induced by the inclusion $j : (X/A, A/A) \hookrightarrow (X/A, V/A)$ is an isomorphism.

Now consider the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} h_*(X, A) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & h_*(X, V) & \xleftarrow{k_*} & h_*(X \setminus A, V \setminus A) \\ \downarrow q_* & & \downarrow q_* & & \downarrow q_* \\ h_*(X/A, A/A) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_*(X/A, V/A) & \xleftarrow{\ell_*} & h_*((X/A) \setminus (A/A), (V/A) \setminus (A/A)), \end{array}$$

where i_* and j_* have already been shown to be isomorphisms, and k_* and ℓ_* are also induced by the obvious inclusions. The excision axiom implies that both of the latter are isomorphisms. The rightmost map labeled q_* in this diagram is also an isomorphism since it is induced by the map

$$(X \setminus A, V \setminus A) \xrightarrow{q} ((X/A) \setminus (A/A), (V/A) \setminus (A/A)),$$

which is a homeomorphism. We can now follow a path of isomorphisms from $h_*(X, A)$ all the way to the right of the diagram, then down, then back all the way to $h_*(X/A, A/A)$ at the left, proving that the leftmost map labeled q_* is also an isomorphism. $\square$

The following simple example will appear frequently when we compute the homology of CW-complexes.

EXAMPLE 37.7. Since collapsing the boundary of the disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ produces a sphere $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n \cong S^n$, the theorem implies

$$h_k(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \cong \tilde{h}_k(\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \cong \tilde{h}_k(S^n) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $G := h_0(\{*\})$ is the coefficient group. (Of course it is also not hard to compute this more directly using the reduced long exact sequence of $(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n)$, in which the connecting homomorphism $h_k(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{k-1}(S^{n-1})$ is an isomorphism.)

37.2. Mapping tori. I'd like to talk about another way of computing the homology of $\mathbb{T}^2$ (and many other things), by viewing it as an example of a *mapping torus*.

Given a space X and a map $f : X \rightarrow X$, the **mapping torus** (*Abbildungstorus*) of f is defined to be the quotient space

$$X_f := (X \times I) / \sim, \quad \text{where } (x, 0) \sim (f(x), 1) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

We can regard X itself as a subspace of X_f via the inclusion map⁵⁹

$$i : X \hookrightarrow X_f : x \mapsto [(x, 1)].$$

⁵⁹Of course there are also natural maps $X \rightarrow X_f : x \mapsto [(x, t)]$ for every $t \in I$, and for our purposes it will not matter which one we pick since they are all obviously homotopic. The case $t = 0$ is a little bit awkward however since it might not be injective—we have $[(x, 0)] = [(y, 0)] \in X_f$ whenever $f(x) = f(y)$.

THEOREM 37.8. *For any map $f : X \rightarrow X$ and its mapping torus X_f , every axiomatic homology theory h_* admits a long exact sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_{k+1}(X_f) \longrightarrow h_k(X) \xrightarrow{1-f_*} h_k(X) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_k(X_f) \longrightarrow h_{k-1}(X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

Let's do an example before talking about the proof.

EXAMPLE 37.9. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the n -torus $\mathbb{T}^n = S^1 \times \dots \times S^1$ is the mapping torus of the identity map $\text{Id} : \mathbb{T}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^{n-1}$, so the exact sequence of the mapping torus includes segments of the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_k(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{0} h_k(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_k(\mathbb{T}^n) \xrightarrow{\Phi} h_{k-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{0} h_{k-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \longrightarrow \dots$$

The triviality of the two maps $1 - \text{Id}_* = 0$ here means that we actually have a short exact sequence

$$(37.1) \quad 0 \longrightarrow h_k(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_k(\mathbb{T}^n) \xrightarrow{\Phi} h_{k-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}) \longrightarrow 0.$$

Let us apply this sequence for singular homology with integer coefficients in the case $n = 2$, so $\mathbb{T}^{n-1} = S^1$, and since $H_{k-1}(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ is free for every k , the sequence splits, giving an isomorphism

$$H_k(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_{k-1}(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$$

for every k . By induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can now prove that all homology groups of the torus $\mathbb{T}^n$ for every n are free, so the sequence (37.1) again splits and gives

$$H_k(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_{k-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}).$$

This means that each $H_k(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^r$ for some integer $r \geq 0$, the **rank** (*Rang*) of the group, and these ranks satisfy $\text{rank } H_k(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \text{rank } H_k(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) + \text{rank } H_{k-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$, so they are precisely the numbers in *Pascal's triangle*, i.e. the familiar binomial coefficients:

$$\text{rank } H_k(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \binom{n}{k} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq k \leq n, \quad H_k(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 \text{ for } k > n.$$

Theorem 37.8 gives rise to a similarly straightforward computation of the homology of the Klein bottle; see Exercise 37.2.

To prove the theorem, we shall first state a more general result that implies it. Given two spaces X, Y and maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$, define the space

$$Z := ((X \times I) \amalg Y) / \sim \quad \text{where } (x, 0) \sim f(x) \text{ and } (x, 1) \sim g(x) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

This space comes with a natural inclusion

$$i : Y \hookrightarrow Z,$$

and the special case with $X = Y$ and $g = \text{Id}$ reproduces the mapping torus X_f of $f : X \rightarrow X$. Theorem 37.8 follows immediately from the next statement:

THEOREM 37.10. *Given $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ and the space Z described above, there exists a long exact sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_{k+1}(Z) \longrightarrow h_k(X) \xrightarrow{g_* - f_*} h_k(Y) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_k(Z) \longrightarrow h_{k-1}(X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

for every axiomatic homology theory h_* .

REMARK 37.11. It is not too hard to see intuitively why the composition $i_* \circ (g_* - f_*)$ in this sequence is trivial. Imagine for instance a homology class of the form $a = j_*[M] \in H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ defined via a closed n -manifold M with an oriented triangulation and a map $j : M \rightarrow X$. This gives rise to a map $\tilde{j} : M \times I \rightarrow X \times I : (x, t) \mapsto (j(x), t)$, so that any choice of oriented triangulation on $M \times I$ turns this into a singular $(n+1)$ -chain $c \in C_{n+1}(X \times I; \mathbb{Z})$. Composing $\tilde{j}$ with the quotient projection sending $X \times I$ to Z then produces a chain $c' \in C_{n+1}(Z; \mathbb{Z})$ with

$\partial c' = \pm(g_*a - f_*a)$, thus proving that $g_*a - f_*a \in H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ becomes trivial after acting on it with the map $i_* : H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Z; \mathbb{Z})$.

PROOF OF THEOREM 37.8. Consider the map of pairs $q : (X \times I, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow (Z, Y)$ defined as the composition of the two maps

$$(X \times I, X \times \partial I) \hookrightarrow ((X \times I) \amalg Y, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow (Z, Y),$$

where the first is the inclusion and the second is the quotient projection. Using the naturality of connecting homomorphisms in long exact sequences of pairs, this gives rise to a commuting diagram

$$(37.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & h_{k+1}(X \times I) & \xrightarrow{\beta_*} & h_{k+1}(X \times I, X \times \partial I) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_k(X \times \partial I) & \xrightarrow{\alpha_*} & h_k(X \times I) & \xrightarrow{\beta_*} & \dots \\ & & \downarrow q_* & & \downarrow q_* & & \downarrow q_* & & \downarrow q_* & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_{k+1}(Z) & \longrightarrow & h_{k+1}(Z, Y) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*^-} & h_k(Y) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & h_k(Z) & \longrightarrow & \dots \end{array}$$

where the two rows are the exact sequences of the pairs $(X \times I, X \times \partial I)$ and (Z, Y) , and the maps $\alpha : X \times \partial I \hookrightarrow X \times I$ and $\beta : (X \times I, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X \times I, X \times \partial I)$ are the obvious inclusions. Since $X \times \partial I = X \times \{0, 1\} \cong X \amalg X$, the additivity axiom gives an isomorphism

$$(37.3) \quad j_*^0 \oplus j_*^1 : h_k(X) \oplus h_k(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(X \times \partial I),$$

defined in terms of the inclusions $j^i : X \hookrightarrow X \times \{0, 1\} : x \mapsto (x, i)$ for $i = 0, 1$. Composing this with the inclusion $\alpha : X \times \partial I \hookrightarrow X \times I$, we notice that each of the maps $\alpha \circ j^i : X \hookrightarrow X \times I$ for $i = 0, 1$ is a homotopy equivalence, and they are also homotopic to each other, so by the homotopy axiom, the two maps $(\alpha \circ j^i)_* : h_k(X) \rightarrow h_k(X \times I)$ for $i = 0, 1$ are both the same isomorphism. It follows that

$$\alpha_* \circ (j_*^0 \oplus j_*^1) = (\alpha_* \circ j_*^0) \oplus (\alpha_* \circ j_*^1) : h_k(X) \oplus h_k(X) \rightarrow h_k(X \times I)$$

is surjective, its kernel being the group of all pairs $(c, -c)$ for $c \in h_k(X)$. In particular, α_* itself is surjective, and we have an isomorphism

$$(37.4) \quad \Psi : h_k(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} \ker \alpha_* : c \mapsto (j_*^0 \oplus j_*^1)(-c, c) = j_*^1 c - j_*^0 c.$$

Exactness of the top row now implies $\beta_* = 0$, and the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : H_k(X \times I, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow H_{k-1}(X \times \partial I)$ is thus injective. This makes ∂_* an isomorphism onto its image, which is $\ker \alpha_*$.

Now observe that for the map $q : X \times \partial I \rightarrow Y$, the compositions $q \circ j^i : X \rightarrow Y$ for $i = 0, 1$ are the maps f and g respectively, thus we have

$$(37.5) \quad q_* \circ \Psi : h_k(X) \rightarrow h_k(Y) : c \mapsto g_* c - f_* c = (g_* - f_*)c.$$

On the other hand, the map

$$(X \times I)/(X \times \partial I) \xrightarrow{q} Z/Y$$

determined by $q : (X \times I, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow (Z, Y)$ is a homeomorphism and thus induces an isomorphism

$$q_* : \tilde{h}_*((X \times I)/(X \times \partial I)) \xrightarrow{\cong} \tilde{h}_*(Z/Y),$$

and since both pairs are *good* in the sense of Definition 37.2, Theorem 37.6 implies that the map $q_* : h_*(X \times I, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow h_*(Z, Y)$ is also an isomorphism. We can put all of this information

together to produce a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 h_{k+1}(Z, Y) & \xrightarrow{q_*^{-1}} & h_{k+1}(X \times I, X \times \partial I) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & \ker \alpha_* & \xrightarrow{\Psi^{-1}} & h_k(X) \\
 & \searrow \partial_*^- & & & \downarrow q_* & \nearrow g_* - f_* & \\
 & & & & h_k(Y) & &
 \end{array}$$

in which all the horizontal maps on the top row are isomorphisms. The composition of these maps therefore gives an isomorphism $h_{k+1}(Z, Y) \rightarrow h_k(X)$ that we can use to replace $h_{k+1}(Z, Y)$ by $h_k(X)$ in the bottom row of (37.2); the original connecting homomorphism $\partial_*^- : h_{k+1}(Z, Y) \rightarrow h_k(Y)$ then gets replaced by the map $g_* - f_* : h_k(X) \rightarrow h_k(Y)$, producing an exact sequence as in the statement of the theorem. $\square$

One last comment about mapping tori: the usefulness of the exact sequence in Theorem 37.8 depends heavily on how easy it is to compute the homomorphism $f_* : h_*(X) \rightarrow h_*(X)$. This is not always easy, but sometimes it is, particularly in cases where $h_*(X)$ is relatively simple.

37.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 37.1. Show that for the pair (X, A) in Example 37.5, $H_1(X/A; \mathbb{Z}) \not\cong H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$. *Hint: $H_1(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is not too hard to compute from the long exact sequence of (X, A) , and in particular it is an infinitely-generated but countable group. To compute $H_1(X/A; \mathbb{Z})$, you might notice that X/A is homeomorphic to the so-called Hawaiian earring, which we examined in Exercise 12.3 last semester as an example of an “unreasonable” space. We saw in particular that $\pi_1(X/A)$ admits a surjective homomorphism to the uncountable abelian group $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}$.*

EXERCISE 37.2. The mapping torus of $f : S^1 \rightarrow S^1 : e^{i\theta} \mapsto e^{-i\theta}$ is homeomorphic to the Klein bottle K^2 . Use Theorem 37.8 to compute $H_*(K^2; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_*(K^2; \mathbb{Z}_2)$.

EXERCISE 37.3. The goal of this exercise is to gain a more concrete picture of the connecting homomorphism $\Phi : H_1(X_f; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that appears in the long exact sequence of the mapping torus of a homeomorphism $f : X \rightarrow X$,

$$\dots \rightarrow H_{k+1}(X_f; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{1_* - f_*} H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_k(X_f; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_{k-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \dots$$

in singular homology with integer coefficients. It will be useful to observe first that if $f : X \rightarrow X$ is a homeomorphism, then its mapping torus admits an alternative description as the quotient

$$X_f = (X \times \mathbb{R}) / (x, t) \sim (f(x), t + 1),$$

where the equivalence is defined for every $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Take a moment to convince yourself that this quotient is homeomorphic to the slightly different definition of X_f given above. The new perspective has the advantage that one can view $\tilde{X} := X \times \mathbb{R}$ as a covering space for X_f , with the quotient projection defining a covering map $\tilde{X} \rightarrow X_f$ of infinite degree. Writing $S^1 := \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$, we also see a natural continuous surjective map $\pi : X_f \rightarrow S^1 : [(x, t)] \mapsto [t]$, whose fibers $\pi^{-1}(t)$ are homeomorphic to X for all $t \in S^1$. We shall denote by $i : X \hookrightarrow X_f$ the inclusion of the fiber $\pi^{-1}([0])$.

Assume X is path-connected, so there is a natural isomorphism $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z}$, and notice that X_f is then also path-connected. Since $H_1(X_f; \mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X_f, x)$ for any choice of base point $x \in X_f$, we can identify X with $\pi^{-1}([0]) \subset X_f$, fix a base point $x \in X \subset X_f$ and represent any class in $H_1(X_f; \mathbb{Z})$ by a loop $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X_f$ with $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = x$. Now let $\tilde{\gamma} : [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ denote the unique lift of γ to the cover $\tilde{X} = X \times \mathbb{R}$ such that $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = (x, 0)$. Since γ is a loop, it follows that $\tilde{\gamma}(1) = (f^m(x), m)$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- (a) Prove that under the natural identification of $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ with $\mathbb{Z}$, the connecting homomorphism $\Phi : H_1(X_f; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ can be chosen⁶⁰ such that

$$\Phi([\gamma]) = m,$$

so in particular, $[\gamma] \in \ker \Phi$ if and only if the lift of γ to the cover $\tilde{X}$ is a loop.

- (b) Prove directly from the characterization in part (a) that $\Phi : H_1(X_f; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is surjective.

Remark: Of course this can also be deduced less directly from the exact sequence.

38. Mapping degree

The degree of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ in general is meant to be an answer to the following question: *for each $y \in Y$, how many points are there in $f^{-1}(y)$?* For arbitrary spaces, the answer of course depends on our choice of the point $y \in Y$, e.g. any bounded function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has the property that $f^{-1}(y)$ is empty for some points $y \in \mathbb{R}$ and not for others. It is perhaps surprising that if we are somewhat more restrictive about the class of spaces we consider, and we interpret the question “how many?” in the right way, then the answer no longer depends on y , and in fact, it depends on f only up to homotopy. We are already familiar with one situation where at least the first statement is true: if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a finite covering map and Y is connected, then every fiber $f^{-1}(y) \subset X$ contains the same finite number of points, called the *degree* of the cover (see Theorem 15.8). We will eventually be able to show that a reasonable generalization of this statement is true whenever X and Y are both closed, connected and oriented topological manifolds of the same dimension. The present lecture will prove this, modulo a couple of black boxes involving the computation of $H_n(M)$ when M is an arbitrary closed n -manifold; the general version of that computation will be dealt with in Lecture 52, when we construct fundamental classes without triangulations.

38.1. Degrees of maps between spheres. Let’s talk about the homomorphism $f_* : H_n(S^n) \rightarrow H_n(S^n)$ induced by a map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$. For $n \geq 1$, the following definition makes sense due to the fact that $H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ and homomorphisms $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$ admit very simple characterizations. In order to accommodate the case $n = 0$ under the same umbrella, we can use reduced homology since $\tilde{H}_0(S^0; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\tilde{H}_0(S^0; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

DEFINITION 38.1. The **mapping degree** (*Abbildungsgrad*)

$$\deg(f) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

of a map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ is the unique integer k such that the homomorphism $f_* : \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is given by $c \mapsto kc$. Analogously, the **mod-2 mapping degree**

$$\deg_2(f) \in \mathbb{Z}_2$$

is the unique $k \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ such that $f_* : \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is the map $c \mapsto kc$.

We will not do much with $\deg_2(f)$ in the present lecture, but most of the basic properties of $\deg(f)$ as in the following proposition have obvious analogues for the mod-2 degree. The latter becomes more important when one also wants to consider maps $f : M \rightarrow M$ on a closed connected manifold M that need not be orientable, and we will touch upon this in the next lecture.

PROPOSITION 38.2. *The integer-valued degree for maps $S^n \rightarrow S^n$ has the following properties.*

- (1) If $f, g : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ are homotopic, then $\deg(f) = \deg(g)$.
- (2) For any $f, g : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, $\deg(f \circ g) = \deg(f) \cdot \deg(g)$.

⁶⁰There is a bit of freedom allowed in the definition of Φ , e.g. we could replace it with $-\Phi$ and the sequence would still be exact since $\ker \Phi$ and $\operatorname{im} \Phi$ would not change.

- (3) The identity map $S^n \rightarrow S^n$ has $\deg(\text{Id}) = 1$.
 (4) If f is constant, then $\deg(f) = 0$.
 (5) The degree of any map $f : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ matches its **winding number** (Windungszahl), i.e. it is the unique $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that any continuous function $\theta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(e^{2\pi i t}) = e^{2\pi i \theta(t)}$ satisfies $\theta(1) - \theta(0) = k$.

PROOF. The first three properties are immediate from the homotopy invariance of $\tilde{H}_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ and the fact that it is a functor. For the fourth, observe that any constant map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ can be factored as $i \circ \epsilon$ for the unique map $\epsilon : S^n \rightarrow \{*\}$ and a suitable inclusion $i : \{*\} \hookrightarrow S^n$, thus $f_* : \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ factors through $\tilde{H}_n(\{*\}; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Finally, the fifth property follows from standard facts about $\pi_1(S^1)$ and the natural isomorphism $\tilde{H}_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) = H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_1(S^1)$. $\square$

Recall that the suspension $\Sigma X = C_+X \cup_X C_-X$ of a space X can be regarded as a functor $\text{Top} \rightarrow \text{Top}$ sending objects X to ΣX , where maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ are transformed to maps

$$\Sigma f : \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma Y : [(x, t)] \mapsto [(f(x), t)].$$

In particular, any map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ gives rise to a map $\Sigma f : S^{n+1} \rightarrow S^{n+1}$ using the identification $\Sigma S^n \cong S^{n+1}$.

PROPOSITION 38.3. For any $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, $\deg(f) = \deg(\Sigma f)$.

PROOF. A useful detail you may have learned if you worked out Exercise 36.3 is that the isomorphism $\tilde{H}_{n+1}(\Sigma X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ can always be constructed as the connecting homomorphism in a Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence for ΣX . Given a map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, the naturality of this connecting homomorphism produces a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{H}_{n+1}(S^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \\ \downarrow (\Sigma f)_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ \tilde{H}_{n+1}(S^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \end{array}$$

where the two maps labeled ∂_* are the same isomorphism. Now if $(\Sigma f)_*c = kc$ for some nontrivial $c \in \tilde{H}_{n+1}(S^{n+1}; \mathbb{Z})$, it follows that $\partial_*(\Sigma f)_*c = k\partial_*c = f_*\partial_*c$, where $\partial_*c \in \tilde{H}_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is also nontrivial, hence $\deg(\Sigma f) = k = \deg(f)$. $\square$

PROPOSITION 38.4. If $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ is the restriction to the unit sphere $S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ of an orthogonal linear transformation $\mathbf{A} \in \text{O}(n+1)$, then $\deg(f) = \det(\mathbf{A}) = \pm 1$.

PROOF. Recall that $\text{O}(n+1)$ has exactly two path-components, which can be labeled according to whether their elements have determinant $+1$ or -1 . A given $\mathbf{A} \in \text{O}(n+1)$ thus admits a continuous path in $\text{O}(n+1)$ to the identity matrix $\mathbf{1}$ if and only if $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 1$, whereas if $\det(\mathbf{A}) = -1$, then it admits a path to the reflection matrix

$$R_{n+1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

It follows that $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ is homotopic to the identity and thus has degree 1 if $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 1$, and otherwise f is homotopic to a reflection map. What remains to be shown is that reflection maps always have degree -1 . For $n = 0$ or $n = 1$, this is easy to check by direct calculation, e.g. a reflection on S^1 produces a map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ with winding number -1 , so the claim follows from Proposition 38.2. Now if we assume the claim is true for reflections $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, it suffices to

observe that $\Sigma f : \Sigma S^n \rightarrow \Sigma S^n$ is also a reflection under a suitable identification $\Sigma S^n \cong S^{n+1}$, so by induction, the result follows from Proposition 38.3. $\square$

The basic properties of $\deg(f)$ established thus far already have some quite nontrivial consequences about the topology of spheres. Here are two such results.

THEOREM 38.5. *Every map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ with $\deg(f) \neq (-1)^{n+1}$ has a fixed point.*

PROOF. It is easy to think of a specific map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ that has no fixed point: the antipodal map $x \mapsto -x$ has this property, and its degree according to Proposition 38.4 is $(-1)^{n+1}$. The theorem will follow from the claim that, in fact, *every* map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ with no fixed point is homotopic to the antipodal map, and therefore also has degree $(-1)^{n+1}$.

Indeed, if $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ has no fixed point, then $f(x)$ and $-x$ are never antipodal points for any $x \in S^n$, thus the line in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ connecting them does not pass through the origin. We can parametrize this line by

$$g_t(x) = (1-t)f(x) - tx \quad \text{for } t \in [0, 1],$$

thus defining a continuous 1-parameter family of maps $g_t : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ with $g_0 = f$ and $g_1(x) = -x$. Since $g_t(x)$ is never zero, we can then define a homotopy $h : I \times S^n \rightarrow S^n$ in S^n from f to the antipodal map g_1 by

$$h(t, x) = \frac{g_t(x)}{|g_t(x)|}.$$

$\square$

THEOREM 38.6 (the “hairy sphere” theorem). *If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is even, then there does not exist any continuous nowhere zero vector field on S^n , i.e. there is no map $V : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ such that $V(x)$ is orthogonal to x for all $x \in S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$.*

PROOF. If such a map V exists, then for each $x \in S^n$, we can define $P_x \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ as the 2-dimensional plane spanned by x and $V(x)$, so that $P_x \cap S^n$ is a circle in S^n . The idea is then to follow a path along this circle from x through $V(x)/|V(x)|$ ending at $-x$. Concretely, such a path is given by the formula

$$t \mapsto f_t(x) := (\cos \pi t)x + (\sin \pi t) \frac{V(x)}{|V(x)|} \in S^n \quad \text{for } t \in [0, 1],$$

which defines a homotopy from $f_0 = \text{Id}$ to the antipodal map $f_1(x) = -x$. The degree of the latter was observed in the previous theorem to be $(-1)^{n+1}$, so we conclude $1 = \deg(f_0) = \deg(f_1) = (-1)^{n+1}$, implying n must be odd. $\square$

38.2. Local orientations and degree. The rest of this lecture is aimed at understanding the geometric meaning of the number $\deg(f) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for a map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, and generalizing it to manifolds other than the sphere. We begin by defining a “local” version of homology that is interesting for manifolds in particular, but not necessarily for more general spaces.

DEFINITION 38.7. Suppose M is a topological manifold of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For a homology theory h_* and any interior point $x \in M \setminus \partial M$, the **local homology** of M at x is the group $h_n(M, M \setminus \{x\})$.

It turns out that local homology groups are always isomorphic to the coefficient group $G = h_0(\{*\})$, though the isomorphism itself may depend on various choices. To see this, recall that every interior point x in an n -manifold M admits a so-called **Euclidean neighborhood**; we shall use this term in the following to refer to any (open or compact) neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x together with a choice of homeomorphism

$$\varphi : \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^n \text{ or } \mathbb{D}^n, \quad \text{such that} \quad \varphi(x) = 0,$$

i.e. a coordinate chart identifying x with the origin. The choice of whether to use $\mathbb{R}^n$ or $\mathbb{D}^n$ as a local model for M near x is a matter of taste, and we shall generally use whichever seems more convenient in any given situation. A Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x with coordinate chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ determines a string of isomorphisms

$$(38.1) \quad h_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}) \leftarrow h_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\}) \leftarrow h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{j_*} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong G,$$

in which every arrow without a label is induced by a continuous inclusion map. Here, the first map is an isomorphism due to excision, the connecting homomorphism ∂_* is an isomorphism due to the long exact sequence of the pair $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ in reduced homology, and the map induced by the inclusion $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\})$ is an isomorphism due to a combination of the homotopy and exactness axioms with the five-lemma: indeed, since $j : S^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is a homotopy equivalence, one can apply the five-lemma to the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(S^{n-1}) & \longrightarrow & h_n(\mathbb{D}^n) & \longrightarrow & h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \cong \downarrow j_* & & \cong \downarrow \mathbf{1} & & \downarrow j_* & & \cong \downarrow j_* & & \cong \downarrow \mathbf{1} & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(\mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\}) & \longrightarrow & h_n(\mathbb{D}^n) & \longrightarrow & h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^n) & \longrightarrow & \dots \end{array}$$

If preferred, the same trick can be done with an open Euclidean neighborhood and chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ after replacing the middle term of (38.1) with $h_n(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$.

Specializing to singular homology with integer coefficients, the local homology can be used to define a notion of *orientations* for topological manifolds, without needing to mention triangulations.

DEFINITION 38.8. A **local orientation** of an n -manifold M at an interior point $x \in M \setminus \partial M$ is a choice of generator $[M]_x$ for the group $H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Note that in light of the excision isomorphism

$$H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$$

defined for any Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x , a local orientation can equivalently be regarded as a generator of $H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

EXAMPLE 38.9. If M is a surface without boundary and $x \in M$ is a point, then a specific relative 2-cycle generating $H_2(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ can be defined via a single singular 2-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^2 \rightarrow M$ that embeds the triangle Δ^2 onto a neighborhood of x . Indeed, $\sigma \in C_2(M)$ is clearly a relative cycle in $(M, M \setminus \{x\})$ since σ maps $\partial \Delta^2$ to $M \setminus \{x\}$, and to see that it generates $H_2(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$, one can follow the string of isomorphisms (38.1): they map $[\sigma]$ to the homology class of a 1-cycle in $S^1 \cong \partial \Delta^2$ consisting of the three edges of the triangle, a loop that clearly generates $\pi_1(\partial \Delta^2) \cong H_1(\partial \Delta^2; \mathbb{Z})$. In this picture, we can think of a local orientation at x as a choice (up to homotopy) of a small embedded loop in M about x : since there are two directions that such a loop can wind around x , there are two choices of local orientation.

DEFINITION 38.10. Suppose M and N are manifolds of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a map, and $x \in M \setminus \partial M$ and $y = f(x) \in N \setminus \partial N$ are interior points such that x is an isolated point in the set $f^{-1}(y)$, i.e. there exists an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x such that $f^{-1}(y) \cap \mathcal{U} = \{x\}$. Assume without loss of generality that $\mathcal{U} \subset M \setminus \partial M$ is a Euclidean neighborhood. Given local orientations $[M]_x \in H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ and $[N]_y \in H_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z})$, the **local degree**

$$\deg(f; x) \in \mathbb{Z}$$

of f and x is then defined as the unique integer $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the map $H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z})$ induced by $f : (\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}) \rightarrow (N, N \setminus \{y\})$ sends $[M]_x$ to $k[N]_y$.

Under the same assumptions, the **mod 2 local degree**

$$\deg_2(f; x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2$$

is similarly defined to be the unique $k \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ such that $f_* : H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow H_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ sends $[M]_x$ to $k[N]_y$, where $[M]_x$ and $[N]_y$ are now taken to be the unique nontrivial elements of $H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $H_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ respectively.

Notice that there are no choices involved in the definition of $\deg_2(f; x)$, whereas $\deg(f; x)$ will change sign whenever we change the choice of one of the local orientations.

As explained in (38.1), any choice of Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x gives rise to an isomorphism of $H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ with $\tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. We can use this isomorphism to transform the definition above into a condition about maps between spheres:

PROPOSITION 38.11. *In the setting of Definition 38.10, fix a generator $[S^{n-1}] \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ and Euclidean neighborhoods $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x and $\mathcal{V} \subset N$ of y such that the resulting isomorphisms of $H_n(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_n(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z})$ to $\tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ send $[M]_x$ and $[N]_y$ to $[S^{n-1}]$. Then if $\hat{f}$ denotes the map f written in the chosen local coordinates as a map between neighborhoods of 0 in $\mathbb{R}^n$, we have*

$$\deg(f; x) = \deg \left(\frac{\hat{f}}{|\hat{f}|} \Big|_{\partial \mathbb{D}_\epsilon^n} : \partial \mathbb{D}_\epsilon^n \rightarrow S^{n-1} \right)$$

for all $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small, where $\mathbb{D}_\epsilon^n$ denotes the closed ϵ -disk and its boundary is identified in the obvious way with S^{n-1} , so that the right hand side is the degree of a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$. Similarly, $\deg_2(f; x)$ is related in the same way to the mod 2 degree of the same map $\partial \mathbb{D}_\epsilon^n \rightarrow S^{n-1}$. $\square$

COROLLARY 38.12. *Suppose $\{f_t : M \rightarrow N\}_{t \in [0,1]}$ is a continuous family of maps between two manifolds of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, with interior points $x \in M \setminus \partial M$ and $y \in N \setminus \partial N$ such that x is an isolated point of $f_t^{-1}(y)$ for every t . Then for any fixed choice of local orientations at x and y , $\deg(f_0; x) = \deg(f_1; x)$, and similarly, $\deg_2(f_0; x) = \deg_2(f_1; x)$.*

PROOF. We can interpret both local degrees via Proposition 38.11 as degrees of maps $S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$, and the assumption about the family f_t implies that these two maps between spheres are homotopic. $\square$

EXAMPLE 38.13. Continuing the discussion of Example 38.9, suppose $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a map between surfaces such that x is an isolated point in $f^{-1}(y)$, and suppose we have fixed local orientations $[M]_x \in H_2(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ and $[N]_y \in H_2(N, N \setminus \{y\}; \mathbb{Z})$. Choose small Euclidean neighborhoods $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x and $\mathcal{V} \subset N$ of y such that $f(\mathcal{U}) \subset \mathcal{V}$ and $f^{-1}(y) \cap \mathcal{U} = \{x\}$. Then $[M]_x$ determines a homotopy class of embedded loops $\alpha : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x\}$ winding once around x , so that $f \circ \alpha : S^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\}$ is also uniquely determined up to homotopy. The winding number of $f \circ \alpha$ is then the local degree $\deg(f; x)$; its definition requires a local orientation at y in order to decide which winding numbers are positive and which are negative, i.e. those that wind in the same direction as the loops $S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\}$ determined by $[N]_y$ are considered positive.

Let us discuss more concretely how local degrees of maps from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to itself can be computed. There is a natural way to choose local orientations $[\mathbb{R}^n]_x \in H_n(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ at every point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$: if $\mathbb{D}_x^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ denotes the closed unit disk about x and we identify its boundary in the obvious way with S^{n-1} , then we obtain as in (38.1) a string of natural isomorphisms

$$H_n(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(\mathbb{D}_x^n, \partial \mathbb{D}_x^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}),$$

so that any choice of generator $[S^{n-1}] \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ determines local orientations $[\mathbb{R}^n]_x \in H_n(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ simultaneously. With this choice in place, any continuous map $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined on an open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ has a well-defined local degree at any point $x \in \mathcal{U}$ that is isolated in $f^{-1}(f(x))$, and we notice that $\deg(f; x)$ does not depend on our arbitrary choice of generator $[S^{n-1}]$ since reversing this would reverse *both* of the local orientations $[\mathbb{R}^n]_x$ and $[\mathbb{R}^n]_{f(x)}$. We can now prove:

PROPOSITION 38.14. *Suppose local orientations $[\mathbb{R}^n]_x$ for points $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are fixed according to the prescription above, $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open subset and $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a map that is differentiable at a point $x \in \mathcal{U}$ such that its derivative $df(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is an isomorphism. Then x is an isolated point of $f^{-1}(f(x))$, and $\deg(f; x) = \pm 1$, with sign matching the sign of $\det df(x)$.*

PROOF. We can write $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ near x as

$$f(x+h) = y + df(x)h + |h|\eta(h)$$

for sufficiently small $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $y := f(x)$ and $\eta(h)$ is an $\mathbb{R}^n$ -valued function satisfying $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \eta(h) = 0$. If $df(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is invertible, then there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that $|df(x)h| \geq c|h|$ for all $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$, so

$$|f(x+h) - y| = |df(x)h + |h|\eta(h)| \geq |df(x)h| - |h||\eta(h)| \geq (c - |\eta(h)|)|h|,$$

and the right hand side is positive for all $|h|$ sufficiently small since $\eta(h) \rightarrow 0$. This proves that x is isolated in $f^{-1}(y)$. Now modify f near x by

$$f_t(x+h) = y + df(x)h + \rho_t(h)|h|\eta(h),$$

where $\rho_t(h) \in [0, 1]$ is a family of cutoff functions that equal 1 away from $h = 0$ such that $\rho_0 \equiv 1$ and ρ_1 vanishes on a smaller neighborhood of $h = 0$. This changes f by a homotopy through maps in which x remains an isolated point of $f_t^{-1}(y)$, so in light of Corollary 38.12, we can now assume without loss of generality that the remainder term vanishes completely, i.e. $f(x+h) = y + df(x)h$. Now observe that if we modify f by a further homotopy of the form

$$f_t(x+h) = y + A_t h,$$

where $A_t : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a family of invertible linear transformations, then the local degree still will not change due to Corollary 38.12, thus we are free to assume without loss of generality that $df(x)$ is an *orthogonal* transformation. The corresponding map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$ is then of the type considered in Proposition 38.4, so its degree is the determinant of the orthogonal transformation, which is $+1$ if the original derivative $df(x)$ had positive determinant and -1 otherwise. $\square$

Many applications of the local degree are based on the following result, as it provides a criterion for existence of solutions to equations of the form $f(x) = y$ that are *stable* under small perturbations of f . Its proof is Exercise 38.4.

PROPOSITION 38.15. *If $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open and $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a continuous map with $f(x) = y$ and either $\deg(f; x)$ or $\deg_2(f; x)$ is nonzero for some $x \in \mathcal{U}$, then for any neighborhood $\mathcal{U}_x \subset \mathcal{U}$ of x , there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that every continuous map $\hat{f} : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying $|\hat{f} - f| < \epsilon$ maps some point in $\mathcal{U}_x$ to y .* $\square$

38.3. Mapping degree for closed manifolds. We will now extend the global mapping degree previously defined for maps $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ to maps $f : M \rightarrow N$ between more general closed connected n -manifolds. Most of what follows can also be extended to maps $f : (M, \partial M) \rightarrow (N, \partial N)$ between compact n -manifolds with boundary, so long as $f(\partial M) \subset \partial N$, but we will leave this extension as an exercise for the reader.

Our definition of degree for maps $f : M \rightarrow N$ will necessitate imposing a condition on the manifolds that we consider. It will later turn out that this condition is satisfied for *all* closed and connected manifolds—possibly with a condition on orientations,⁶¹ depending which coefficients we want to use—though it will be a while before we are in a position to fully prove this.

DEFINITION 38.16. Given an axiomatic homology theory h_* , a topological manifold M of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$ will be called **h_* -admissible**⁶² if M is closed and the obvious inclusion $i^x : (M, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus \{x\})$ induces an isomorphism

$$i_*^x : h_n(M) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(M, M \setminus \{x\})$$

for every point $x \in M$. For the case $h_* = H_*(\cdot; G)$, we shall abbreviate the terminology and say that M is **G -admissible**.

Clearly an h_* -admissible n -manifold must have $h_n(M)$ isomorphic to the coefficient group, so there are in general some nontrivial computations of homology to be done before we can prove that any given manifold is admissible. To start with, it will be useful to note that we already know how to do this for spheres of arbitrary dimension:

PROPOSITION 38.17. *For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the sphere S^n is h_* -admissible for every axiomatic homology theory h_* .*

PROOF. See Exercise 38.3. □

Just so it's clear how widely applicable the mapping degree is, let us state a result whose proof in full generality will have to wait until after the general construction of fundamental classes later in this semester. Certain special cases of it, however, are already within reach, and a lot more will be so in the near future, once we've discussed cellular homology.

PROPOSITION 38.18. *Every closed and connected topological manifold M is $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible, and if M is also orientable, then it is $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible.*

PARTIAL PROOF. The cases for which we already know how to prove $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissibility include the spheres S^n and the tori $\mathbb{T}^n$, and we can also prove $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissibility for these, plus certain non-orientable examples such as the projective plane and the Klein bottle. The point is that all of these examples of closed connected n -manifolds M have the following two features in common:

- (1) M admits a triangulation;
- (2) $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and in cases where the triangulation is orientable, $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

The latter fact about S^n was our first serious computation of homology, and for the other manifolds mentioned above, it can be proved using Mayer-Vietoris sequences (see Lecture 36, especially Exercises 36.4 and 36.5), or in certain cases also the exact sequence of a mapping torus (Lecture 37). These two conditions in tandem give us the following. In Lecture 31, we saw that a triangulation of a closed n -manifold M gives rise to a fundamental class in simplicial homology, which we can feed into the natural map from ordered simplicial to singular homology to obtain a singular fundamental class

$$[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2).$$

For any given point $x \in M$, we are free to assume after perhaps a small perturbation of the triangulation that x lies in the interior of one of its n -simplices. The homomorphism $i_*^x : H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow$

⁶¹We will define later what it means in general for a topological n -manifold to be orientable; you may already be able to intuit part of the definition from the notion of “local” orientations introduced in Definition 38.8. A notion of orientations for topological manifolds of dimension $n \leq 2$ was discussed last semester in Lecture 20, and Example 38.9 hints at the relationship between that notion and local orientations in the case $n = 2$.

⁶²This is not a universally standard term, but it is convenient for our purposes at the moment.

$H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ then sends $[M]$ to the class in $H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ represented by a single singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow M$ whose image is the n -simplex of the triangulation containing x ; this n -chain is a relative cycle in $(M, M \setminus \{x\})$ since $\sigma(\partial\Delta^n) \subset M$ does not touch x . We can choose local coordinates in which x is identified with $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\sigma(\Delta^n)$ with the unit disk $\mathbb{D}^n$; following the chain of isomorphisms (38.1) from $H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ to $\tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ then identifies $i_*^x[M] = [\sigma]$ with a fundamental class determined by the obvious triangulation of $\partial\Delta^n \cong S^{n-1}$. It is not hard to prove by induction on n that this fundamental class generates $\tilde{H}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and it follows that $i_*^x[M]$ generates $H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, meaning it is the unique nontrivial element. If we also know $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, this implies that the map $i_*^x : H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \rightarrow H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is an isomorphism. If additionally the triangulation is oriented, then we also have an integral fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ and can similarly deduce the stronger statement that $i_*^x : H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ sends $[M]$ to a *primitive* element, which in this case means a local orientation $[M]_x$ at x . The condition $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ then similarly implies that $[M]$ generates $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ and the map $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism.

By the end of next week, we will also be able to deduce condition (2) above from condition (1), using the deep theorem that $h_*(|K|) \cong H_*^\Delta(K; G)$ for every simplicial complex K and every axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G . For the computation of $H_n^\Delta(K; G)$ when K is the simplicial complex that triangulates a closed connected n -manifold (with or without orientation), see Exercise 31.1. We will then be able to say without any black boxes that every closed connected manifold admitting a triangulation is $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible (and $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible if the triangulation is orientable), which in particular includes all (closed and connected) *smooth* manifolds. For closed topological manifolds without triangulations, the result will follow later from the general construction of fundamental classes in singular homology. $\square$

DEFINITION 38.19. Assume M and N are $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible manifolds of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and choose generators $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $[N] \in H_n(N; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. We then define the **degree** (*Grad*) of any map $f : M \rightarrow N$ to be the unique integer $\deg(f) = k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$f_*[M] = k[N].$$

If M and N are $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible (but not necessarily $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible), one can similarly define the **mod 2 degree** of f as the unique $k \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ such that $f_*[M] = k[N]$ where $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $[N] \in H_n(N; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ are the unique nontrivial elements.

Note that the sign of $\deg(f)$ depends in general on the choices of generators $[M]$ and $[N]$, but if $M = N$, then it is natural to choose $[M] = [N]$, and $\deg(f)$ is then independent of choices since reversing the signs of $[M]$ and $[N]$ simultaneously changes nothing in the relation $f_*[M] = k[N]$. In this way, our new definition recovers the old one for maps $S^n \rightarrow S^n$. The mod 2 degree is in any case defined with no need for choices, since the generators $[M]$ and $[N]$ are unique in homology with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -coefficients. It is again easy to check that the obvious analogues of items (1)–(4) in Proposition 38.2 are satisfied for this new definition.

We can now state the main result relating global and local degrees.

THEOREM 38.20. Suppose M and N are $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible manifolds of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, fix generators $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ and $[N] \in H_n(N; \mathbb{Z})$ and use these to determine local orientations $[M]_x := i_*^x[M]$ and $[N]_y := i_*^y[N]$ at all points $x \in M$ and $y \in N$. Then for any map $f : M \rightarrow N$ and any point $y \in N$ such that $f^{-1}(y)$ is a finite set,

$$(38.2) \quad \deg(f) = \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} \deg(f; x).$$

Similarly, if M and N are $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is any map with a point $y \in N$ such that $f^{-1}(y)$ is finite, we have

$$\deg_2(f) = \sum_{x \in f^{-1}(y)} \deg_2(f; x).$$

We sometimes refer to the expression on the right hand side of (38.2) as the *algebraic count* of points in $f^{-1}(y)$. One can check that if $f : M \rightarrow N$ happens to be a covering map, then for suitable choices of the generators $[M]$ and $[N]$, the local degrees $\deg(f; x)$ are all 1 and the algebraic count is thus the actual count of points. In more general situations, the points must be counted with signs and “weights” determined by the local degree, but the advantage is that the result does not depend on the point $y \in N$, and it only depends on f up to homotopy.

REMARK 38.21. For a given map $f : M \rightarrow N$, there is no guarantee in general that $f^{-1}(y)$ will be a finite set for any choice of $y \in N$; if it isn’t, then the statement of Theorem 38.20 becomes vacuous. Since M and N have the same dimension, however, one can reasonably hope to encounter situations in which f is a local homeomorphism near each $x \in f^{-1}(y)$, implying that $f^{-1}(y) \subset M$ is a discrete subset, and since M is compact, the finiteness of $f^{-1}(y)$ follows. If M and N have smooth structures, then standard results in differential topology imply that this is in fact the “generic” situation, i.e. every continuous map $f : M \rightarrow N$ can be perturbed (without changing its homotopy class) to one that is smooth, and by Sard’s theorem, almost every point $y \in N$ will then be a regular value of the smoothened version of f , making f a local diffeomorphism near every point of $f^{-1}(y)$. In this case the local degree $\deg(f; x)$ at every point $x \in f^{-1}(y)$ can be deduced from the derivative $df(x)$ via Proposition 38.14, and will always be ± 1 .

Theorem 38.20 has a wide range of applications, but it also establishes an important theoretical connection between algebraic and *differential* topology. In the setting of closed differentiable manifolds and smooth maps $f : M \rightarrow N$, there is a natural way to define $\deg(f)$ using transversality results for smooth maps, e.g. one can use the perturbation trick mentioned in Remark 38.21 above to restrict attention to cases in which f is a local diffeomorphism with $\deg(f; x) = \pm 1$ for each $x \in f^{-1}(y)$. One then defines $\deg(f)$ essentially as the right hand side of (38.2) and interprets it as “counting $f^{-1}(y)$ with signs”; the interesting part is then to prove that the result does not depend on y or on f beyond its homotopy class. Without knowing Theorem 38.20 or anything else about homology, the latter can also be proven as a consequence of transversality results—the main point is that if f_0 and f_1 are homotopic, then a generic choice of smooth homotopy $\{f_t : M \rightarrow N\}_{t \in [0,1]}$ between them gives rise to a compact oriented 1-manifold

$$Q := \{(t, x) \in [0, 1] \times M \mid f_t(x) = y\}$$

for which the difference $\#f_0^{-1}(y) - \#f_1^{-1}(y)$ between the two signed counts of preimages of y is interpreted as a signed count of the points in the oriented 0-manifold ∂Q . The classification of 1-manifolds implies that every component of a compact oriented 1-manifold with nonempty boundary has exactly one boundary point that counts positively and one that counts negatively, hence the total count is always zero. This perspective on the degree is explained beautifully in the classic book by Milnor [Mil97].⁶³ It is by no means easy however to see from the differentiable viewpoint what the mapping degree has to do with the homology of manifolds, i.e. why the right hand side of (38.2) matches the left hand side. The proof of that requires the formal properties of homology theories.

PROOF OF THEOREM 38.20. For later convenience, we shall carry out most of the proof in the framework of an arbitrary axiomatic homology theory h_* , assuming M and N to be h_* -admissible.

⁶³The differentiable approach to the mapping degree was also sketched in Exercise 19.3 last semester.

Write

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{x_1, \dots, x_\ell\},$$

fix a Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{V} \subset N$ of y , along with Euclidean neighborhoods $\mathcal{U}_k \subset M$ of the individual points x_k for $k = 1, \dots, \ell$ such that

$$f(\mathcal{U}_k) \subset \mathcal{V} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{U}_k \cap \mathcal{U}_j = \emptyset \text{ for } j \neq k.$$

These assumptions guarantee that $f(\mathcal{U}_k \setminus \{x_k\}) \subset \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\}$, hence f also defines a map of pairs $(\mathcal{U}_k, \mathcal{U}_k \setminus \{x_k\}) \rightarrow (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\})$ for every $k = 1, \dots, \ell$. Now consider the diagram

$$(38.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & h_n(\mathcal{U}_k, \mathcal{U}_k \setminus \{x_k\}) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & h_n(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V} \setminus \{y\}) \\ & \swarrow \alpha_*^k & \downarrow \gamma_*^k & & \downarrow \beta \\ h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\}) & \xleftarrow{p_*^k} & h_n(M, M \setminus f^{-1}(y)) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & h_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}) \\ & \nwarrow i_*^{x_k} & \uparrow j_* & & \uparrow i_*^y \\ & & h_n(M) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & h_n(N) \end{array}$$

where the maps α^k , p^k , γ^k , j and β are all inclusions. By the admissibility assumption, $i_*^{x_k}$ and i_*^y are isomorphisms, and α_*^k and β_* are also isomorphisms by excision. To understand the maps p_*^k for $k = 1, \dots, \ell$, observe that these can all be combined to define a product map

$$p := (p_*^1, \dots, p_*^\ell) : h_n(M, M \setminus f^{-1}(y)) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\}),$$

which fits into the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_n(M, M \setminus f^{-1}(y)) & \xrightarrow{p} & \bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\}) \\ \cong \uparrow & & \cong \uparrow \\ h_n\left(\coprod_{k=1}^\ell (\mathcal{U}_k, \mathcal{U}_k \setminus \{x_k\})\right) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(\mathcal{U}_k, \mathcal{U}_k \setminus \{x_k\}) \end{array}$$

Here the maps are all induced by obvious inclusions, the two vertical maps are isomorphisms by excision, and the bottom horizontal map is an isomorphism due to a combination of the additivity axiom with the five-lemma (see Exercise 29.8), thus p is also an isomorphism. If we use this to replace $h_n(M, M \setminus f^{-1}(y))$ in (38.3) by $\bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\})$, then the map p_*^k becomes simply the projection of $\bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\})$ to the factor $h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\})$. With this replacement understood, we have

$$j_* = (i_*^{x_1}, \dots, i_*^{x_\ell}) : h_n(M) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k=1}^\ell h_n(M, M \setminus \{x_k\}),$$

and the commutativity of the bottom right square in (38.3) then gives the formula

$$(38.4) \quad f_* j_* = \sum_{k=1}^\ell f_* i_*^{x_k} = i_*^y f_* : h_n(M) \rightarrow h_n(N, N \setminus \{y\}).$$

If h_* is $H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ and we apply this formula to the chosen generator $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ with $i_*^{x_k}[M] = [M]_{x_k}$, the result is

$$\sum_{k=1}^\ell f_* [M]_{x_k} = \sum_{k=1}^\ell \deg(f; x_k) [N]_y = i_*^y f_* [M] = \deg(f) i_*^y [N] = \deg(f) [N]_y,$$

from which the formula for the integer-valued degree follows. The formula for the mod 2 degree follows in the same way using $h_* = H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. $\square$

It is easy to see that a non-surjective map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ must have degree 0, because its image then lies in the contractible space $S^n \setminus \{*\} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$, making f homotopic to a constant. The same argument does not work for maps $f : M \rightarrow N$ when N is a more general closed n -manifold, but Theorem 38.20 nonetheless gives us an easy proof of the same statement:

COROLLARY 38.22. *If M and N are $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible n -manifolds with $n \geq 1$ and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is not surjective, then $\deg(f) = 0$. Similarly, if both manifolds are $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible and f is not surjective, then $\deg_2(f) = 0$.*

PROOF. Apply Theorem 38.20 to identify $\deg(f)$ or $\deg_2(f)$ with a suitable count of points in $f^{-1}(y)$ where $y \notin f(M)$. $\square$

In the axiomatic setting, the proof of Theorem 38.20 also gives rise to the following result, which will be of some theoretical importance when we develop cellular homology. Note that by Exercise 38.3, we already know S^n to be h_* -admissible for every h_* and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

THEOREM 38.23. *For any map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ with $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and any axiomatic homology theory h_* , the induced homomorphism $f_* : h_n(S^n) \rightarrow h_n(S^n)$ takes the form $c \mapsto \deg(f)c$.*

PROOF. One can verify explicitly that the corresponding statement about reduced homology holds for all maps $f : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$; this is easy to check because there exist only four distinct maps from S^0 to itself, and the reduced homology of S^0 can be derived directly from the additivity and dimension axioms (cf. Exercise 38.1). We now argue by induction on the dimension, assuming for a given n that homomorphisms $f_* : \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1})$ are always given by multiplication with the integer-valued degree of maps $f : S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$. Using perturbation results from differential topology as mentioned in Remark 38.21, we can assume after a small perturbation of any given map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ within its homotopy class that $f^{-1}(y)$ is a finite set for some $y \in S^n$. Now write $f^{-1}(y) = \{x_1, \dots, x_\ell\}$ and, given $c \in h_n(S^n)$, use (38.4) to write

$$i_*^y f_* c = \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} f_* i_*^{x_k} c \in h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{y\}),$$

where the individual terms on the right hand side involve the homomorphisms

$$f_* : h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{x_k\}) \rightarrow h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{y\}).$$

Using excision and connecting homomorphisms as in Proposition 38.11, one can identify both the domain and target of this map with $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1})$ so that f_* is equivalent to the homomorphism $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1})$ induced by a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$, whose degree is precisely $\deg(f; x_k)$. The inductive hypothesis thus expresses the homomorphism as multiplication by $\deg(f; x_k)$, giving a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{x_k\}) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{y\}) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{\cdot \deg(f; x_k)} & h_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \end{array}$$

Adding up these contributions for every $x_k \in f^{-1}(y)$ produces multiplication by $\deg(f)$ according to Theorem 38.20. $\square$

One consequence of this result is that the definition of $\deg(f)$ for maps $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ does not actually depend on the choice to use *singular* homology in particular—we could have replaced $H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ with any other axiomatic homology theory with coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$ and would thus obtain an equivalent definition.

One can use a similar inductive argument to prove a straightforward relationship between $\deg(f)$ and $\deg_2(f)$; we will later also be to give a purely algebraic proof of the following result, using the universal coefficient theorem.

COROLLARY 38.24. *If M and N are both $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible and $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -admissible, then for every map $f : M \rightarrow N$, $\deg_2(f)$ is the image of $\deg(f)$ under the natural projection $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$.* $\square$

38.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 38.1 (*). There are only four possible maps $f : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$. What are their degrees?

EXERCISE 38.2. Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- (a) Prove that if n is even, every continuous map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ has at least one point $x \in S^n$ where either $f(x) = x$ or $f(x) = -x$. Deduce that every continuous map $\mathbb{R}P^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^n$ has a fixed point if n is even.
- (b) Construct counterexamples to the statement in part (a) for every odd n .

Hint: Consider linear transformations with no real eigenvalues.

EXERCISE 38.3 (*). Prove Proposition 38.17 on the h_* -admissibility of S^n .

Hint: You can choose a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset S^n$ of any $x \in S^n$ homeomorphic to a disk, and use $h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \mathcal{U})$ as a substitute for $h_n(S^n, S^n \setminus \{x\})$ (why?). What kind of space is $S^n \setminus \mathcal{U}$?

EXERCISE 38.4. Prove Proposition 38.15 on the stability of solutions to the equation $f(x) = y$ when $\deg(f; x)$ or $\deg_2(f; x)$ is nonzero.

Hint: Consider the restriction of $\hat{f}$ to the boundary of a small ball about x , and normalize it so that it maps to the sphere surrounding a small ball about y . What can you say about the degree of this map between spheres if $\hat{f}$ maps the ball about x to $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{y\}$?

EXERCISE 38.5. Viewing S^1 as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$, fix a generator $[S^1] \in H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and use it to determine local orientations $[C]_z \in H_n(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}; \mathbb{Z})$ for every point $z \in \mathbb{C}$ via the natural isomorphisms $H_2(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{C} \setminus \{z\}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_2(\mathbb{D}_z, \partial\mathbb{D}_z; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_1(\partial\mathbb{D}_z; \mathbb{Z})$, where $\mathbb{D}_z \subset \mathbb{C}$ denotes the closed unit disk centered at z , whose boundary is canonically identified with S^1 . This choice will be used in the following for the definition of local degrees of maps $f : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined on open subsets $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{C}$; note that changing the generator $[S^1] \in H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ does not change the definition of $\deg(f; z)$ since it changes *both* $[C]_z$ and $[C]_{f(z)}$ by a sign.

- (a) Show that if $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is of the form $f(z) = (z - z_0)^k g(z)$ for some $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and g a continuous map with $g(z_0) \neq 0$, then $\deg(f; z_0) = k$.
- (b) Can you modify the example in part (a) to produce one with $\deg(f; z_0) = -k$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$?
- (c) Let $f : S^2 \rightarrow S^2$ denote the natural continuous extension to $S^2 := \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ of a complex polynomial $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ of degree n . What is $\deg(f)$?
- (d) Pick a constant $t_0 \in S^1$ and let $A \cong S^1 \vee S^1$ denote the subset $\{(x, y) \mid x = t_0 \text{ or } y = t_0\} \subset S^1 \times S^1 = \mathbb{T}^2$. Show that $\mathbb{T}^2/A \cong S^2$, and that the quotient map $\mathbb{T}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2/A$ has degree ± 1 (depending on choices of generators for $H_2(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_2(S^2; \mathbb{Z})$).

EXERCISE 38.6. Find an example of a smooth map $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ that has an isolated zero at the origin with $\deg(f; 0) = 0$ and admits arbitrarily small perturbations that are nowhere zero.

EXERCISE 38.7. Suppose $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ is any continuous map, and $p_+ \in \Sigma S^n = C_+ S^n \cup_{S^n} C_- S^n$ is the vertex of the top cone in the suspension $\Sigma S^n \cong S^{n+1}$. What is $\deg(\Sigma f; p_+)$? Use this to give a new proof (different from that of Proposition 38.3) that $\deg(\Sigma f) = \deg(f)$.

EXERCISE 38.8. Show that every map $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ has degree 0 if $n \geq 2$.

Hint: Lift $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ to the universal cover of $\mathbb{T}^n$.

EXERCISE 38.9. Show that for every $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and every $\mathbb{Z}$ -admissible n -dimensional manifold M with $n \geq 1$, there exists a map $M \rightarrow S^n$ of degree d .

Hint: Try a map that is interesting only on some n -ball in M and constant everywhere else.

EXERCISE 38.10. Using the mod 2 degree, describe examples of maps from $\mathbb{RP}^2$ or the Klein bottle to S^2 that cannot be homotopic to a constant.

39. CW-complexes

39.1. Definitions and first examples. Let's clear up one thing straightaway: the “CW” in “CW-complex” does not stand for my name.

If you must know, the “C” stands for “closure-finite,” and the “W” for “weak topology”. Both of these terms refer to slightly subtle issues involving the definition and properties of the topology on a CW-complex. We'll get to that.

But first, I should tell you what they are. The informal answer is that CW-complexes are spaces that we can construct by gluing disks (of various dimensions) to things along their boundaries. It turns out that almost all spaces of importance in geometric settings can be constructed in this way, so understanding the algebraic topology of CW-complexes opens the way toward an enormous range of applications. The motivation to focus on CW-complexes rather than more general spaces is practical: in essence, CW-complexes are the class of topological spaces for which the subject of algebraic topology is doable.

DEFINITION 39.1 (CW-complexes, part 1 of 2). A **CW-complex** (*CW-Komplex*) or **cell complex** (*Zellkomplex*) is a topological space X that is presented as the union of a nested sequence of subspaces

$$X^0 \subset X^1 \subset X^2 \subset \dots \subset \bigcup_{n \geq 0} X^n = X$$

constructed by the following inductive procedure:

- X^0 is a space with the discrete topology;
- For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is a set $\mathcal{K}^n$ and a collection of maps $\{\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n}$ such that X^n is the result of attaching n -disks $\mathbb{D}^n$ along their boundaries to X^{n-1} via the maps φ_α for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$, i.e.

$$(39.1) \quad X^n = X^{n-1} \cup_{\varphi^n} \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \mathbb{D}^n, \quad \text{where} \quad \varphi^n := \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \varphi_\alpha : \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \partial \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X^{n-1}.$$

We call X^n the **n -skeleton** (*n-Skelett* or *n-Gerüst*) of X . We call the individual points of X^0 the **0-cells** (*0-Zellen*) of the complex, and it will be convenient to also denote $\mathcal{K}^0 := X^0$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$, the interior of the copy of $\mathbb{D}^n$ associated to α in the disjoint union defines an open subset

$$e_\alpha^n \subset X^n,$$

which is called an **n -cell** (*n-Zelle*) of the complex, and the associated map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ is called its **attaching map** (*Anklebeabbildung*). The map

$$\Phi_\alpha^n : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$$

that satisfies $\Phi_\alpha^n|_{\partial \mathbb{D}^n} = \varphi_\alpha$ and restricts to the interior of the disk as the inclusion $e_\alpha^n \hookrightarrow X^n$ is called the **characteristic map** (*charakteristische Abbildung*) of the cell e_α^n . The complex is called **n -dimensional** if n is the largest number for which it contains an n -cell, i.e. $\mathcal{K}^m = \emptyset$ for all $m > n$ but $\mathcal{K}^n \neq \emptyset$.

Let us recall quickly what the notation in (39.1) means: we are defining X^n as a quotient of a disjoint union,

$$X^n = X^{n-1} \amalg \left(\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \mathbb{D}^n \right) / \sim,$$

where $x \sim \varphi^n(x)$ for every $x \in \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \partial \mathbb{D}^n$. The topology of X^n is implicit in this definition: if we know the topology of X^{n-1} , then the topology of X^n is determined via the quotient topology and the disjoint union topology, so in this way one can start from the discrete space X^0 and deduce the topology of every individual skeleton X^n one by one. Now, I'm not sure if you noticed this, but nothing we've said so far specifies the topology of X itself, at least not in the most general cases—it may well happen that $X = X^n$ for some $n \geq 0$ because the complex is finite-dimensional, so then the topology of X^n defines the topology of X , but more needs to be said if the complex is infinite dimensional.

DEFINITION 39.2 (CW-complexes, part 2 of 2). The topology of a CW-complex $X = X^0 \cup X^1 \cup X^2 \cup \dots$ is defined by the condition that a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is open if and only if $\mathcal{U} \cap X^n$ is an open subset of X^n for every $n \geq 0$.

The next two results regarding the topology of CW-complexes are important but straightforward exercises in point-set topology.

PROPOSITION 39.3. *A subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ in a CW-complex is open if and only if for every $n \geq 0$ and every n -cell e_α^n , $\Phi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is an open subset of $\mathbb{D}^n$. In other words, the topology of a CW-complex is the strongest possible topology for which all characteristic maps are continuous.* $\square$

PROPOSITION 39.4. *For any CW-complex X and any space Y , a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if its restriction to the n -skeleton of X is continuous for every $n \geq 0$, or equivalently, if $f \circ \Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow Y$ is continuous for every $n \geq 0$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$.* $\square$

REMARK 39.5. You may by now have noticed an awkward problem with our terminology: the “W” in “CW” supposedly stands for “weak topology,” yet the topology described in Definition 39.2 is not weak at all, but is the *strongest* with a given property. This discrepancy is apparently the fault of J.H.C. Whitehead,⁶⁴ whose influence on the subject was so substantial that many authors still refer to the topology of CW-complexes as “the weak topology” in the literature. Proposition 39.4 at least provides an argument for this term, as a CW-complex X is “weak” in the sense that it is fairly easy for functions defined on X to be continuous.

DEFINITION 39.6. A **cell decomposition** (*Zellenzerlegung*) of a space X is a choice of homeomorphism from X to a CW-complex.

EXAMPLE 39.7. Since the standard n -simplex Δ^n is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n$, the polyhedron $X = |K|$ of any simplicial complex K is also a CW-complex, whose n -cells are the interiors of the n -simplices, and the n -skeleton is thus the union of all the k -simplices for $k \leq n$. The attaching map $\partial \Delta^n \cong S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ of each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ is then a homeomorphism to the polyhedron of the $(n-1)$ -dimensional subcomplex determined by the boundary faces of the corresponding n -simplex, and it follows that all of the characteristic maps in this case are inclusions. A cell decomposition of this type is equivalent to a triangulation.

EXAMPLE 39.8. Recall that $S^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ for $n \geq 1$. This picture of the sphere defines a cell decomposition of S^n with one 0-cell and one n -cell: the 0-cell is the point $e^0 \in \mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ represented by any point in $\partial \mathbb{D}^n$, and the characteristic map of the n -cell e^n is the quotient map

⁶⁴This terminological awkwardness is consistent with certain popular jokes among mathematicians, one of which is that J.H.C. Whitehead's initials actually stand for “Jesus, he's confused!”

$\Phi : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$. This identifies S^n with an n -dimensional CW-complex whose k -skeleton for each $k < n$ is a single point.

Note that in Example 39.8, the attaching map of the n -cell is very far from being injective, thus its characteristic map is also not injective at $\partial \mathbb{D}^n$, in contrast to Example 39.7. On the other hand, the restriction of a characteristic map to the interior of the disk is *always* injective, and is a homeomorphism onto its (open) image.

EXAMPLE 39.9. There is another favorite cell decomposition of S^n in which the k -skeleton for each $k = 0, \dots, n$ is homeomorphic to S^k . The idea is to start with two points $X^0 := S^0$, and then inductively define X^k for each $k = 1, \dots, n$ by regarding $X^{k-1} = S^{k-1}$ as an equator and gluing two cells to it to form the “northern” and “southern” hemispheres of S^k :

$$S^k = S^{k-1} \cup_{\varphi^k} (\mathbb{D}_+^k \amalg \mathbb{D}_-^k).$$

In this case there are exactly two k -cells for each $k = 0, \dots, n$, all attaching maps $S^{k-1} \rightarrow X^{k-1}$ are homeomorphisms, and all characteristic maps are inclusions.

EXAMPLE 39.10. It is natural to define the decomposition $S^n = \mathbb{D}_+^n \cup_{S^{n-1}} \mathbb{D}_-^n$ used in the previous example such that the antipodal map $S^n \rightarrow S^n$ sends $\mathbb{D}_\pm^n$ to $\mathbb{D}_\mp^n$ and restricts to the equator S^{n-1} as the antipodal map, which we can then assume satisfies the same condition with respect to the decomposition $S^{n-1} = \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1} \cup_{S^{n-2}} \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}$ and so forth. In this way, Example 39.9 also gives rise to a cell decomposition of $\mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \mathbb{Z}_2$ with exactly one k -cell for each $k = 0, \dots, n$. The k -skeleton of $\mathbb{RP}^n$ is then a submanifold of the form

$$X^k = \{(x_0, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{RP}^n = S^n / \mathbb{Z}_2 \mid x_{k+1} = \dots = x_n = 0\} \cong \mathbb{RP}^k.$$

In contrast to Example 39.9, the characteristic maps $\mathbb{D}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$ for this cell decomposition are not injective: indeed, the k -cells in Example 39.9 are attached to the $(k-1)$ -skeleton S^{k-1} via a homeomorphism $S^{k-1} \rightarrow S^{k-1}$, but in $\mathbb{RP}^n$ this must be understood as a map to $X^{k-1} = \mathbb{RP}^{k-1} = S^{k-1} / \mathbb{Z}_2$, thus the homeomorphism $S^{k-1} \rightarrow S^{k-1}$ from Example 39.9 gets composed with the quotient projection $S^{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^{k-1}$ and becomes a covering map of degree 2.

EXAMPLE 39.11. This will be harder to picture, but one can adjust Example 39.9 by following the same procedure of attaching two k -cells along homeomorphisms $S^{k-1} \rightarrow X^{k-1}$ for *every* $k \in \mathbb{N}$, without stopping when $k = n$. The result is an infinite-dimensional CW-complex called S^∞ . The best way to picture it is probably as a subset of the infinite-dimensional vector space $\mathbb{R}^\infty := \bigoplus_{k=1}^\infty \mathbb{R}$, consisting of all sequences of real numbers $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$ that have only finitely many nonzero terms. Here we can identify $\mathbb{R}^n$ for each $n \geq 1$ with the subspace $\{(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^\infty\}$, so that $S^k \subset \mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ becomes a subset of $\mathbb{R}^\infty$ that also happens to be contained in S^{k+1} , and S^∞ is the union of the nested sequence of spaces

$$S^0 \subset S^1 \subset S^2 \subset S^3 \subset \dots \subset \bigcup_{k \geq 0} S^k = S^\infty.$$

More concretely, S^∞ is just the subset of $\mathbb{R}^\infty$ defined by the condition $\sum_{i=1}^\infty x_i^2 = 1$, where there is no question about convergence since only finitely many terms can be nonzero. The following observation (see Exercise 39.2) reveals that there is something a bit subtle about the topology of S^∞ : for any convergent sequence $x_k \in S^\infty$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_k \in S^n$ for every k .

REMARK 39.12. The observation about sequences mentioned above demonstrates that S^∞ is in some sense quite different from any “infinite-dimensional sphere” that one would be likely to study in functional analysis. For instance, if S is the set of unit vectors in the infinite-dimensional

Hilbert space

$$\ell^2 := \left\{ \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots) \in \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{R} \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^2 < \infty \right\}$$

with inner product $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle := \sum_i x_i y_i$, then there is no reason for the terms in a convergent sequence in S to belong to any particular finite-dimensional subspace. One can show however that S and S^∞ are nonetheless homotopy equivalent—in fact, both are contractible! (A proof of this for S^∞ can be found in [Hat02, p. 88].)

REMARK 39.13. Combining Examples 39.10 and 39.11 in the obvious way produces another infinite-dimensional CW-complex called $\mathbb{RP}^\infty$, which has exactly one k -cell for every $k \geq 0$. This space is of great theoretical importance, as it arises e.g. as the so-called *classifying space* of the group $\mathbb{Z}_2$, meaning that classification questions for certain classes of vector bundles over reasonable spaces X can be reduced to computations of the set of homotopy classes of maps $X \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$. The theory of characteristic classes is founded in large part on understanding the homotopy types of certain infinite-dimensional CW-complexes such as this one; see e.g. [MS74].

EXAMPLE 39.14. Recall that the closed oriented surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$ can be presented as a polygon with $4g$ sides, with certain pairs of sides identified as dictated by the word $a_1, b_1, a_1^{-1}, b_1^{-1}, a_2, b_2, a_2^{-1}, b_2^{-1}, \dots, a_g, b_g, a_g^{-1}, b_g^{-1}$ (see Definition 14.6 in last semester's Lecture 14). This defines a CW-complex in which there is one 0-cell (the vertices of the polygon are all identified with the same point), $2g$ one-cells which can be labeled $a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g$ and are attached along the unique map $S^0 \rightarrow X^0$, and a single 2-cell attached via a map $S^1 \rightarrow X^1$ that defines the concatenation of loops indicated by the above word.

DEFINITION 39.15. A **subcomplex** of a CW-complex X is a subset $A \subset X$ that is also a CW-complex with n -skeleton $A^n = A \cap X^n$ for all $n \geq 0$, such that every cell in A is also a cell in X with the same characteristic map.

39.2. Compact subsets. Our goal in this lecture is to get as quickly as possible to the definition of cellular homology so that we can compute some examples. For this definition to make sense in full generality, we need to know a basic fact about the point-set topology of CW-complexes that is vacuous in the case of finite complexes, but nontrivial for infinite complexes:

PROPOSITION 39.16. *For any CW-complex X , any compact subspace $K \subset X$ is contained in a finite subcomplex of X , i.e. in a subcomplex with only finitely many cells.*

The following consequence is the reason for the term “closure-finite”:

COROLLARY 39.17. *The closure of each cell in a CW-complex intersects only finitely many other cells.* $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 39.16. *Step 1:* Suppose $A \subset X$ is a subset with the property that for every pair of distinct elements $x, y \in A$, x and y belong to different cells of the complex. We claim then that $A \cap X^n$ is a closed subset of X^n for every integer $n \geq 0$. The proof is by induction on n ; for $n = 0$ it is trivially true since X^0 carries the discrete topology, so all of its subsets are closed. Now if we assume $A \cap X^{n-1} \subset X^{n-1}$ is closed, it follows that for every n -cell e_α^n with attaching map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ and characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$, $\varphi_\alpha^{-1}(A)$ is a closed subset of S^{n-1} . Since at most one element of A can lie in e_α^n , the set $\Phi_\alpha^{-1}(A) \subset \mathbb{D}^n$ is then either $\varphi_\alpha^{-1}(A)$ or the union of this with a single point in the interior of the disk, so in either case it is closed. Viewing X^n itself as a CW-complex in the obvious way and remembering that closed sets are complements of open sets, Proposition 39.3 now implies that $A \cap X^n \subset X^n$ is closed. By induction, this is true for every $n \geq 0$, and it follows via the definition of the topology of X that A is a closed subset of X .

Step 2: Given a compact subset $K \subset X$, we claim that K can intersect at most finitely many distinct cells of X . Otherwise there exists an infinite subset $A \subset K$ in which every element belongs to a different cell. Step 1 implies that $A \subset X$ is closed, and moreover, so is every subset of A , which means that the induced subspace topology on A is the discrete topology. Since K is compact, this makes $A \subset K$ a compact discrete space, contradicting the assumption that A is infinite.

Step 3: We claim that for every $n \geq 0$, every compact subset $K \subset X^n$ is contained in a finite subcomplex of X^n . For $n = 0$ this is obvious since the compact subsets of X^0 are finite. By induction, if the claim is known for compact subsets of X^{n-1} , then it holds in particular for the image of the attaching map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ of any n -cell e_α^n , providing a finite subcomplex $A \subset X^{n-1}$ whose union with e_α^n is a finite subcomplex of X^n containing e_α^n . In light of step 2, this proves the claim for all compact subsets of X^n , as finite unions of finite subcomplexes are also finite subcomplexes.

To conclude, step 3 implies that for every cell e_α^n of the complex, the compact subset $\overline{e_\alpha^n} = \Phi_\alpha(\mathbb{D}^n) \subset X$ is contained in a finite subcomplex, and combining this with the claim in step 2 proves the result. $\square$

39.3. Cellular homology. We can now define the **cellular chain complex** (*zellulärer Kettenkomplex*) associated to a CW-complex X . As usual, we shall fix an arbitrary choice of R -module G to use for coefficients, and omit G from the notation whenever the choice of coefficients is unimportant. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, define $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$ to be the trivial module if $n < 0$, and otherwise

$$C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) = C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) := \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} G,$$

so e.g. $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is the free abelian group generated by the set of n -cells e_α^n in our given cell decomposition of X . We shall regard the cells e_α^n as generators of $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$, thus writing elements of $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$ as sums

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} a_\alpha e_\alpha^n \in C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$$

for coefficients $a_\alpha \in G$, with the understanding that the sum is always finite because at most finitely-many of the coefficients a_α are nonzero. The direct sum of all these groups produces a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) = C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} C_n^{\text{CW}}(X),$$

which we shall now turn into a chain complex by defining a suitable boundary operator $\partial : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_{*-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$. There is a geometric motivation for the definition: for each generator e_α^n of $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$, we want ∂e_α^n to be a linear combination of $(n-1)$ -cells determined by the attaching map φ_α , which tells us how the closure of e_α^n is glued to the $(n-1)$ -skeleton of X . For this purpose, associate to each $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$ with $n \geq 1$ the map $p_\alpha : X^n \rightarrow S^n$ determined by the following diagram:

$$(39.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X^n & \xrightarrow{p_\alpha} & \mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n = S^n \\ \downarrow \text{pr} & \swarrow \Phi_\alpha & \\ X^n / (X^n \setminus e_\alpha^n) & & \end{array}$$

Here pr denotes the quotient projection, and the fact that φ_α maps $\partial \mathbb{D}^n$ into $X^{n-1} \subset X^n \setminus e_\alpha^n$ implies that the characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X^n$ descends to a map of the quotients $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X^n / (X^n \setminus e_\alpha^n)$. The key point is that the latter is a homeomorphism, thus we can invert it to define $p_\alpha = \Phi_\alpha^{-1} \circ \text{pr}$ as a map from $X^n \rightarrow S^n$ after identifying S^n with $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$. This doesn't quite make sense if $n = 0$ since we cannot write " $\mathbb{D}^0 / \partial \mathbb{D}^0 = S^0$," nonetheless there is a natural map

of $X^0/(X^0 \setminus e_\alpha^0)$ to $S^0 = \{1, -1\}$ sending the cell e_α^0 to 1 and the equivalence class represented by every other 0-cell to -1 . This map is a bijection except in the special case $X^0 \cong \{*\}$, i.e. when there is only one 0-cell e_α^0 and $X^0 \setminus e_\alpha^0 = \emptyset$, but in this case the map $X^0/(X^0 \setminus e_\alpha^0) \rightarrow S^0$ is well defined nonetheless, so we will adopt the convention of using it to define

$$(39.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X^0 & \xrightarrow{p_\alpha} & S^0 \\ \downarrow \text{pr} & \nearrow & \\ X^0/(X^0 \setminus e_\alpha^0) & & \end{array}$$

as the analogue of (39.2) for $n = 0$.

DEFINITION 39.18. Given an n -cell e_α^n and an $(n-1)$ -cell e_β^{n-1} in a CW-complex X , we define the **incidence number**

$$[e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] \in \mathbb{Z}$$

as the degree of the map

$$S^{n-1} \xrightarrow{p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha} S^{n-1}$$

defined by composing the attaching map $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ for e_α^n with the map $p_\beta : X^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$ defined by replacing e_α^n with e_β^{n-1} in the diagram (39.2) or (39.3).

Observe that whenever $\overline{e_\alpha^n} \cap e_\beta^{n-1} = \emptyset$, it follows that the image of $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ is disjoint from e_β^{n-1} and is thus mapped to a constant by $p_\beta : X^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$, hence $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha$ is a constant map and $[e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] = 0$. In light of Corollary 39.17, this implies that the sum in the following definition makes sense, because it can only have finitely-many nonzero terms.

DEFINITION 39.19. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the boundary operator $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$ is determined by linearity and the formula

$$\partial e_\alpha^n := \sum_{\beta \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}} [e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n] e_\beta^{n-1}$$

for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$.

We define $\partial : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$ to be the trivial map for every $n \leq 0$, as it must be since its target is then the trivial module.

Let us work out a more useful formula for $\partial : C_1^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_0^{\text{CW}}(X)$. If $X^0 \cong \{*\}$, then $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$ always factors through a one-point space and is therefore a constant map, implying $[e_\beta^0 : e_\alpha^1] = 0$ for all $\beta \in \mathcal{K}^0$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^1$, so $\partial = 0$. If there is more than one 0-cell, then $p_\beta : X^0 \rightarrow S^0$ is the map that sends e_β^0 to $1 \in S^1$ and every other 0-cell to $-1 \in S^1$, so composing it with the attaching map $\varphi_\alpha : \partial \mathbb{D}^1 \rightarrow X^0$ produces the following possibilities:

- If $\varphi_\alpha(1) = e_\beta^0$ and $\varphi_\alpha(-1) \neq e_\beta^0$, then $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$ is the identity map and thus $[e_\beta^0 : e_\alpha^1] = 1$.
- If $\varphi_\alpha(1) \neq e_\beta^0$ but $\varphi_\alpha(-1) = e_\beta^0$, then $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha(\pm 1) = \mp 1$ and thus $[e_\beta^0 : e_\alpha^1] = -1$.
- In all other cases, $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha$ is constant and thus $[e_\beta^0 : e_\alpha^1] = 0$.

Since each point of X^0 is a 0-cell, we can identify it with a generator of $C_0^{\text{CW}}(X)$ and thus deduce from the remarks above the following:

PROPOSITION 39.20. *The map $\partial : C_1^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_0^{\text{CW}}(X)$ is determined by the formula*

$$\partial e_\alpha^1 = \varphi_\alpha(1) - \varphi_\alpha(-1).$$

□

We shall now state two important theorems whose proofs will take up most of the next two lectures: the first states simply that $(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X), \partial)$ is a chain complex.

THEOREM 39.21. *The map $\partial : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ satisfies $\partial^2 = 0$.*

The **cellular homology** (*zelluläre Homologie*) of the CW-complex X with coefficient group G can now be defined as

$$H_*^{\text{CW}}(X) = H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) := H_*(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G), \partial).$$

The notation $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ and $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ is in some sense slightly non-ideal, as it hides the fact that the definitions of these objects depend on more than just a space X and coefficient group G , but also on a cell decomposition of X . The next theorem reveals why this is not a big deal.

THEOREM 39.22. *For any CW-complex X and any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G , there is a natural isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong h_*(X)$.*

We'll say more in the next lecture about the precise meaning of the word “natural” in this statement. Theorem 39.22 has several remarkable consequences that can be recognized immediately: one is that $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ depends (up to isomorphism) only on the topology of X and not on its cell decomposition, and another is that all axiomatic homology theories with any given coefficient group are isomorphic if we restrict them to spaces that are nice enough to have cell decompositions. In light of Example 39.7, this also gives us a new explanation for why the *simplicial* homology of a polyhedron depends only on its topology: the oriented simplicial chain complex of a polyhedron is the same as its cellular chain complex!

Before trying to explain why all this is true, let's look at a couple of examples that will make Theorem 39.22 look more plausible.

EXAMPLE 39.23. We saw in Example 39.8 that S^n for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has a cell decomposition with one 0-cell e^0 and one n -cell e^n , so $X^0 = X^1 = \dots = X^{n-1} \cong \{*\}$ and $X^n = S^n$. These two cells are thus the only generators of $C_*^{\text{CW}}(S^n)$, giving

$$C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n; G) = \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0, n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We claim that on this chain complex, $\partial = 0$, hence $H_*^{\text{CW}}(S^n) = C_*^{\text{CW}}(S^n)$, which matches our previous computation of $h_*(S^n)$ for any axiomatic homology theory. If $n \geq 2$, then the claim holds trivially because for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, either the domain or the target of the map $\partial : C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n) \rightarrow C_{k-1}^{\text{CW}}(S^n)$ is trivial. When $n = 1$ there is still something to check: $\partial : C_1^{\text{CW}}(S^1) \rightarrow C_0^{\text{CW}}(S^1)$ might theoretically be nontrivial since its domain and target are both G . The map will be trivial for every choice of coefficient group if and only if

$$\partial e^1 = [e^0 : e^1]e^0$$

is trivial, i.e. if the incidence number $[e^0 : e^1]$ is 0. This is the degree of a map $p \circ \varphi : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$, where $\varphi : S^0 \rightarrow X^0 \cong \{*\}$ is the attaching map for e^1 and $p : X^0 \rightarrow S^0$ sends e^0 to $1 \in S^0$. Since both of these maps are constant, $[e^0 : e^1] = \deg(p \circ \varphi) = 0$.

EXAMPLE 39.24. We consider S^2 with the alternative cell decomposition described in Example 39.9, which has two k -cells $e_{\pm}^k$ for each $k = 0, 1, 2$, hence $S^2 = e_+^0 \cup e_-^0 \cup e_+^1 \cup e_-^1 \cup e_+^2 \cup e_-^2$, and the k -skeleton is $X^k = S^k \subset S^2$ for $k = 0, 1, 2$. We now have $C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n) = 0$ for $k < 0$ or $k > 2$, while $C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n) = G \oplus G$ for each $k = 0, 1, 2$, with the two factors of the coefficient group G corresponding to the two generators $e_+^k, e_-^k \in C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$. Denote the attaching map for $e_{\pm}^k$

by $\varphi_{\pm}^k : S^{k-1} \rightarrow X^{k-1}$, and denote the projection map as defined in (39.2) by $p_{\pm}^k : X^k \rightarrow S^k$, so $\partial : C_k^{\text{CW}}(S^n) \rightarrow C_{k-1}^{\text{CW}}(S^n)$ is now determined by

$$(39.4) \quad \begin{aligned} \partial e_+^k &= \deg(p_+^{k-1} \circ \varphi_+^k) e_+^{k-1} + \deg(p_-^{k-1} \circ \varphi_+^k) e_-^{k-1}, \\ \partial e_-^k &= \deg(p_+^{k-1} \circ \varphi_-^k) e_+^{k-1} + \deg(p_-^{k-1} \circ \varphi_-^k) e_-^{k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

To compute these degrees, we will need a slightly more concrete description of the maps involved. Let us regard S^2 as the unit sphere in the xyz -plane, with its 1-skeleton formed by the unit circle in the xy -plane, and the 0-skeleton consisting of the two points $(\pm 1, 0, 0)$. It is then natural to parametrize the characteristic maps $\Phi_{\pm}^1 : \mathbb{D}^1 \rightarrow S^2$ of the two 1-cells $e_{\pm}^1$ via the x coordinate, giving

$$\Phi_{\pm}^1 : \mathbb{D}^1 \rightarrow S^2 : x \mapsto (x, \pm \sqrt{1-x^2}, 0),$$

so the attaching maps $\varphi_{\pm}^1 : S^0 \rightarrow S^0$ are the restrictions of these to $\partial \mathbb{D}^1$ and are thus both the identity map $S^0 \rightarrow S^0$. Each of the maps $p_{\pm}^0 : X^0 \rightarrow S^0$ is likewise a bijection in this example, sending its “favorite” 0-cell $e_{\pm}^0$ to $1 \in S^0$ and the other one to $-1 \in S^0$, so in fact, p_+^0 is the identity map $S^0 \rightarrow S^0$ and p_-^0 is the bijection sending ± 1 to ∓ 1 . The latter has degree -1 , so we can now fill in the coefficients for $k = 1$ in (39.4) and write

$$\partial e_+^1 = \partial e_-^1 = e_+^0 - e_-^0.$$

For the 2-cells $e_{\pm}^2$, the most obvious parametrization is defined by inverting the projection $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x, y)$, so we can define the characteristic maps by

$$\Phi_{\pm}^2 : \mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow S^2 : (x, y) \mapsto (x, y, \pm \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}),$$

and the attaching maps $\varphi_{\pm}^2 : S^1 \rightarrow X^1$ thus become once again the identity map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$. To understand the maps $p_{\pm}^1 : X^1 \rightarrow S^1$, let us first agree that the identification of $\mathbb{D}^1/\partial \mathbb{D}^1$ with S^1 should be defined via a path $\gamma : \mathbb{D}^1 \rightarrow S^1$ that sends $\pm 1 \mapsto 1$ and traverses a loop $\gamma(t) \in S^1$ with winding number $+1$ as t goes from -1 to 1 . Now, $p_+^1 : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^1/\partial \mathbb{D}^1$ sends the top half of the circle $S^1 = X^1$ to $\mathbb{D}^1$ via the inverse of our chosen characteristic map Φ_+^1 and sends the bottom half of the circle to a constant: the resulting winding number is $\deg(p_+^1 \circ \varphi_+^2) = -1$. Meanwhile, $p_-^1 : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^1/\partial \mathbb{D}^1$ sends the top half of the circle to a constant but maps the bottom half to $\mathbb{D}^1$ as the inverse of Φ_-^1 , producing $\deg(p_-^1 \circ \varphi_-^2) = 1$. We thus have

$$\partial e_+^2 = \partial e_-^2 = -e_+^1 + e_-^1.$$

With these formulas in place, we can compute the homology of $C_*^{\text{CW}}(S^2)$ explicitly: acting with ∂ on an arbitrary 2-chain $ge_+^2 + he_-^2$ for $g, h \in G$ gives

$$\partial(ge_+^2 + he_-^2) = -(g+h)e_+^1 + (g+h)e_-^1 = (g+h)(-e_+^1 + e_-^1),$$

which vanishes if and only if $g = -h$, so in terms of the obvious identification of $C_2^{\text{CW}}(S^2)$ with $G \oplus G$, the group of 2-cycles takes the form

$$\ker \partial_2 = \{(g, -g) \in G \oplus G \mid g \in G\} \subset C_2^{\text{CW}}(S^2),$$

which is isomorphic to G . Since $C_3^{\text{CW}}(S^2) = 0$, we conclude $H_2^{\text{CW}}(S^2) \cong G$. To find the 1-cycles, we similarly compute

$$\partial(ge_+^1 + he_-^1) = (g+h)e_+^0 - (g+h)e_-^0 = (g+h)(e_+^0 - e_-^0),$$

and this again vanishes if and only if $g = -h$, so the 1-cycles consist of all elements of the form $g(e_+^1 - e_-^1)$. But these are also boundaries since $\partial(-ge_+^2) = g(e_+^1 - e_-^1)$, thus $H_1^{\text{CW}}(S^2) = 0$.

Finally, all 0-chains $ge_+^0 + he_-^0$ are cycles since $C_{-1}^{\text{CW}}(S^2) = 0$, but under the obvious isomorphism $C_0^{\text{CW}}(S^2) = G \oplus G$ we have

$$\text{im } \partial_1 = \{(g, -g) \in G \oplus G \mid g \in G\} \subset C_0^{\text{CW}}(S^2),$$

so $H_0^{\text{CW}}(S^2)$ is isomorphic to the quotient of $G \oplus G$ by this subgroup, which is again G . The end result therefore matches the $n = 2$ case of Example 39.23.

It is not too hard to extend Example 39.24 to a computation of $H_*^{\text{CW}}(S^n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ in terms of the cell decomposition $S^n = e_+^0 \cup e_-^0 \cup \dots \cup e_+^n \cup e_-^n$. Getting all the signs right is a bit of a pain, but all coefficients will again work out to ± 1 in such a way that all nontrivial k -cycles are also boundaries for $k = 1, \dots, n-1$, but the groups $\ker \partial_n$ and $C_0^{\text{CW}}(S^n)/\text{im } \partial_1$ are again both G . The fact that getting all the signs right is a bit tricky is an argument for doing the computation via the simpler cell decomposition $S^n = e^0 \cup e^n$ instead, as in Example 39.23, so we will invest considerable effort during the next lecture into proving that this is allowed, because the isomorphism class of $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ depends in general only on the topology of X and not on its cell decomposition.

Let's do one more easy example.

EXAMPLE 39.25. We saw in Example 39.14 that the closed oriented surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$ has a cell decomposition with one 0-cell e^0 , $2g$ cells of dimension one which we can label

$$e_{a_1}^1, e_{b_1}^1, \dots, e_{a_g}^1, e_{b_g}^1,$$

and a single 2-cell e^2 , which is the interior of the usual polygon with $4g$ sides. In particular, the 0-skeleton X^0 is a single point, and the 1-skeleton X^1 is a wedge of $2g$ circles labeled $a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g$ that all intersect only at X^0 . Since there is only one 0-cell, all of the 1-cells are cycles in $C_1^{\text{CW}}(\Sigma_g)$:

$$\partial e_{a_j}^1 = \partial e_{b_j}^1 = 0 \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, g.$$

The attaching map $\varphi : S^1 \rightarrow X^1$ of the 2-cell is a loop that traverses a_1 , then b_1 , then a_1 again backwards and b_1 again backwards, then moves on to a_2, b_2 and so forth, ending with b_g backwards. Composing this with the projection $p_{a_1} : X^1 \rightarrow S^1$ that collapses $X^1 \setminus e_{a_1}^1$ to a point, we obtain a concatenation of the loop a_1 with a constant path and then a_1^{-1} followed by another constant path, resulting in a map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ with degree 0. The same happens with all the other projections p_{a_j}, p_{b_j} , so that all of the incidence numbers in the computation of ∂e^2 vanish and we obtain

$$\partial e^2 = 0.$$

This proves that $\partial = 0$ for the entire cellular chain complex with arbitrary coefficients, hence

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(\Sigma_g; G) = C_k^{\text{CW}}(\Sigma_g; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } k = 0, 2, \\ G^{2g} & \text{for } k = 1, \\ 0 & \text{for } k < 0 \text{ and } k > 2. \end{cases}$$

39.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 39.1 (*). Prove Propositions 39.3 and 39.4 concerning the definition of the topology of a CW-complex.

EXERCISE 39.2. Show that if $x_k \in S^\infty$ is a convergent sequence, then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_k \in S^n$ for every k . (Note that this statement follows immediately from Proposition 39.16, but it is worth trying to do the exercise independently of this, in order to develop some intuition as to why Proposition 39.16 is true.)

Hint: Given $x \in S^n \subset S^\infty$ and a sequence $x_k \in S^\infty$ such that $x_k \notin S^k$ for all k , construct a

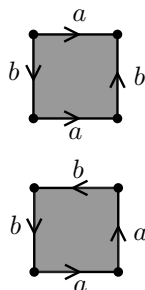


FIGURE 35. The two cell decompositions of the Klein bottle that are considered in Exercise 39.4.

neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset S^\infty$ of x such that $x_k \notin \mathcal{U}$ for all k .

EXERCISE 39.3. Convince yourself that if K is a simplicial complex and its polyhedron $X = |K|$ is viewed as a CW-complex as in Example 39.7, then its cellular chain complex $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ is isomorphic to its oriented simplicial chain complex $C_*^\Delta(K)$.

EXERCISE 39.4. Figure 35 shows two spaces that you may recall from *Topologie I* are both homeomorphic to the Klein bottle. Each also defines a cell complex $X = X^0 \cup X^1 \cup X^2$ consisting of one 0-cell, two 1-cells (labeled a and b) and one 2-cell.

- Compute $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$, $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ for both complexes. (You'll know you've done something wrong if the answers you get from the two complexes are not isomorphic!)
- Recall that the **rank** (*Rang*) of a finitely generated abelian group G is the unique integer $k \geq 0$ such that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^k \oplus T$ for some finite group T . Verify for both cell decompositions of the Klein bottle above that

$$\sum_k (-1)^k \text{rank } H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \sum_k (-1)^k \dim_{\mathbb{Z}_2} H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) = \sum_k (-1)^k \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Q}) = 0.$$

(Congratulations, you've just computed the Euler characteristic of the Klein bottle! A comprehensive discussion of this invariant is coming up in Lecture 42.)

EXERCISE 39.5. The **complex projective n -space** $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is a compact $2n$ -manifold defined as the set of all complex lines through the origin in $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$, or equivalently,

$$\mathbb{CP}^n = (\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \sim$$

where two points $z, z' \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ are equivalent if and only if $z' = \lambda z$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. It is conventional to write elements of $\mathbb{CP}^n$ in so-called *homogeneous coordinates*, meaning the equivalence class represented by $(z_0, \dots, z_n) \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ is written as $[z_0 : \dots : z_n]$. Notice that $\mathbb{CP}^n$ can be partitioned into two disjoint subsets

$$\mathbb{C}^n \cong \{[1 : z_1 : \dots : z_n] \in \mathbb{CP}^n\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{CP}^{n-1} \cong \{[0 : z_1 : \dots : z_n] \in \mathbb{CP}^n\}.$$

- Show that the partition $\mathbb{CP}^n = \mathbb{C}^n \cup \mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$ gives rise to a cell decomposition of $\mathbb{CP}^n$ with one $2k$ -cell for every $k = 0, \dots, n$.
- Compute $H_*(\mathbb{CP}^n)$ and $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n)$ for an arbitrary coefficient group.

Hint: This is easy.

40. Invariance of cellular homology

Our goal in this lecture is to prove Theorem 39.22 for finite-dimensional CW-complexes: more precisely, given any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficients $G = h_0(\{*\})$ and a CW-complex X that is equal to its N -skeleton X^N for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, we will establish an isomorphism $h_n(X) \cong H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G)$ for every $n \geq 0$. Dropping the condition $\dim X < \infty$ will then be the main objective of the next lecture.

40.1. The isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong h_*(X)$. The key idea behind the proof of Theorem 39.22 is to establish a relationship between $h_*(X)$ and the homology of a chain complex built out of the long exact sequences of the pairs (X^n, X^{n-1}) and (X^{n+1}, X^n) . It will turn out that the latter chain complex can be identified naturally with $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$.

LEMMA 40.1. *For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, (X^n, X^{n-1}) is a good pair in the sense of Definition 37.2.*

PROOF. Since $X^n = X^{n-1} \cup_{\varphi^n} \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \mathbb{D}^n$, it suffices to set $V := X^{n-1} \cup_{\varphi^n} \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\mathbb{D}^n \setminus \{0\})$. $\square$

By Theorem 37.6, we now have a natural isomorphism $h_*(X^n, X^{n-1}) \cong \tilde{h}_*(X^n/X^{n-1})$ for each $n \geq 1$. Observe next that the disjoint union of the characteristic maps of n -cells defines a map of pairs

$$\Phi^n := \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \Phi_\alpha : \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \rightarrow (X^n, X^{n-1}).$$

We claim that this map descends to a *homeomorphism* between the quotients

$$\Phi^n : \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \mathbb{D}^n \Big/ \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \partial \mathbb{D}^n \xrightarrow{\cong} X^n/X^{n-1}.$$

Indeed, under the usual identification $\mathbb{D}^n/\partial \mathbb{D}^n = S^n$ that regards the collapsed boundary of $\mathbb{D}^n$ as a base point in S^n , the quotient on the left hand side here becomes the wedge sum $\bigvee_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} S^n$, with all copies of S^n attached at this base point. By inspection, the right hand side is exactly the same thing: X^n/X^{n-1} is the union of all the n -cells, which Φ^n identifies with copies of $\mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n$, and the quotient collapses the boundaries of all these disks to a point. With this understood, it follows that the map Φ_*^n at the bottom of the following diagram is an isomorphism, and so therefore is the map at the top:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_*\left(\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n)\right) & \xrightarrow{\Phi_*^n} & h_*(X^n, X^{n-1}) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ \tilde{h}_*\left(\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \mathbb{D}^n \Big/ \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \partial \mathbb{D}^n\right) & \xrightarrow{\Phi_*^n} & \tilde{h}_*(X^n/X^{n-1}). \end{array}$$

Applying the additivity axiom (in conjunction with the five-lemma as in Exercise 29.8) to identify $h_*\left(\coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n)\right)$ with $\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} h_*(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n)$, this proves:

LEMMA 40.2. *The characteristic maps $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \rightarrow (X^n, X^{n-1})$ determine isomorphisms*

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\Phi_\alpha)_* : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} h_*(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_*(X^n, X^{n-1})$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. $\square$

The long exact sequence of $(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n)$ in reduced homology implies that the connecting homomorphisms

$$h_k(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \tilde{h}_{k-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq n \end{cases}$$

are isomorphisms for all k and n , thus we've proved

$$(40.1) \quad h_k(X^n, X^{n-1}) \cong \begin{cases} C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} G & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq n. \end{cases}$$

We've been assuming $n \geq 1$ so far, but it is not hard to incorporate $n = 0$ into this discussion: if we set

$$X^{-1} := \emptyset,$$

then $h_k(X^0, X^{-1}) = h_k(X^0)$ is simply the homology of a discrete space, i.e. the disjoint union of one-point spaces

$$X^0 = \bigsqcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^0} \{*\},$$

so that (40.1) is also correct in this case due to the dimension and additivity axioms. The group $h_n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ can therefore serve as a stand-in for $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G)$ in our proof of Theorem 40.10.

The plan going forward is to use the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms to construct a boundary operator on $\bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} h_n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ and prove that the homology of the resulting chain complex is isomorphic to $h_*(X)$. The last step will then be to show that our boundary map on $\bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} h_n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ matches the cellular boundary map $\partial : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_{*-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$ under our identification.

Let us first derive some more consequences from the vanishing of $h_k(X^n, X^{n-1})$ for $k \neq n$. Observe that whenever either $k > n$ or $k < n - 1$, the long exact sequence of (X^n, X^{n-1}) contains a segment of the form

$$(40.2) \quad 0 = h_{k+1}(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_k(X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_k(X^n) \rightarrow h_k(X^n, X^{n-1}) = 0,$$

implying that the inclusion $X^{n-1} \hookrightarrow X^n$ induces an isomorphism $h_k(X^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(X^n)$. This has two immediate consequences. For $k > n$, we can apply these isomorphisms repeatedly to decrease n to 0:

$$h_k(X^n) \cong h_k(X^{n-1}) \cong \dots \cong h_k(X^0) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^0} h_k(\{*\}) = 0,$$

where at the last step we have applied the additivity and dimension axioms, using the fact that X^0 is a discrete space. This already proves a quite nontrivial fact that we did not yet know, though you may have expected it: for any homology theory, the homology groups of an n -dimensional CW-complex vanish in dimensions greater than n .

LEMMA 40.3. *For every $k > n$, $h_k(X^n) = 0$.* □

Similarly, starting with $k < n$ and applying (40.2) repeatedly to increase n gives:

LEMMA 40.4. *For every $k < n$, the inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X^{n+1} \hookrightarrow X^{n+2} \hookrightarrow \dots$ induce isomorphisms $h_k(X^n) \cong h_k(X^{n+1}) \cong h_k(X^{n+2}) \cong \dots$* □

We can now proceed to the heart of the proof of Theorem 39.22. We define for each $n \geq 1$ a map

$$\beta_n : h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2})$$

by combining the long exact sequences of the pairs (X^n, X^{n-1}) and (X^{n+1}, X^n) in the following diagram:

$$(40.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & h_n(X^{n-1}) & \xlongequal{\quad} & 0 \\ & & & & \downarrow & & \\ 0 & \parallel & & & & & \\ \downarrow & & & & & & \\ h_{n+1}(X^n) & \rightarrow & h_{n+1}(X^{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{j_{n+1}} & h_{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n) & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & h_n(X^n) \xrightarrow{i_n} h_n(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow h_n(X^{n+1}, X^n) \\ & & & \searrow \beta_{n+1} & \downarrow j_n & & \parallel \\ & & & & h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) & & 0 \\ & & & & \downarrow \partial_n & & \\ & & & & h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}) & & \end{array}$$

In other words, we define $\beta_{n+1} := j_n \circ \partial_{n+1}$ for each $n \geq 0$, and of course $\beta_0 := 0$. (We can use the convention $X^{-1} := \emptyset$ so that the diagram also makes sense in the case $n = 0$.) The relation $\beta_0 \circ \beta_1$ is then trivially true, while for every $n \geq 1$, we have

$$\beta_n \circ \beta_{n+1} = j_{n-1} \circ \partial_n \circ j_n \circ \partial_{n+1} = 0$$

since $\partial_n \circ j_n = 0$, thus we can now regard the sequence

$$(40.4) \quad \dots \rightarrow h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\beta_n} h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow h_1(X^1, X^0) \xrightarrow{\beta_1} h_0(X^0) \xrightarrow{\beta_0} 0 \rightarrow \dots$$

as a chain complex whose individual chain groups are canonically isomorphic to the chain groups in $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$. The exactness of the horizontal and vertical sequences in the diagram now give us the following observations: first, i_n is surjective, and thus descends to an isomorphism

$$(40.5) \quad h_n(X^n) / \ker i_n \xrightarrow[\cong]{i_n} h_n(X^{n+1}).$$

Second, j_{n-1} is injective, thus

$$\ker \beta_n = \ker(j_{n-1} \circ \partial_n) = \ker \partial_n = \text{im } j_n,$$

and since j_n is also injective, it maps $h_n(X^n)$ isomorphically to $\ker \beta_n$. Moreover, it maps the subgroup $\ker i_n = \text{im } \partial_{n+1}$ isomorphically to $\text{im } \beta_{n+1}$, implying that j_n descends to an isomorphism

$$(40.6) \quad h_n(X^n) / \ker i_n \xrightarrow[\cong]{j_n} \ker \beta_n / \text{im } \beta_{n+1}.$$

The latter is of course the n th homology group of the chain complex (40.4). Let us at this point make a simplifying assumption and suppose the CW-complex X is finite-dimensional: then there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $X = X^N$. For any given integer $n \geq 0$ we can then take $N \geq n+1$ without loss of generality, and use Lemma 40.4 to conclude via (40.5) and (40.6) that

$$\ker \beta_n / \text{im } \beta_{n+1} \cong h_n(X^{n+1}) \cong h_n(X^{n+2}) \cong \dots \cong h_n(X^N) = h_n(X).$$

We will discuss in the next lecture how to lift the assumption $\dim X < \infty$, but if you are willing to accept this assumption for now, then the proof that $h_*(X) \cong H_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ will be complete as soon as we can show that the boundary maps β_n in (40.4) are the same as our usual cellular

boundary maps. In other words, we need to prove that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \\ \downarrow \partial & & \downarrow \beta_n \\ C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}) \end{array}$$

commutes for every n , where the horizontal maps are the canonical isomorphisms that we discussed above. The result that $\partial^2 = 0$ on $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ will also follow from this, since we already know $\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_n = 0$.

Here is a useful observation: the characteristic maps $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n) \rightarrow (X^n, X^{n-1})$ also induce maps of quotients $\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X^n/X^{n-1}$ such that the direct sum of the induced map on reduced homology

$$(40.7) \quad \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\Phi_\alpha)_* : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_n(X^n/X^{n-1})$$

is an isomorphism. Indeed, under the natural isomorphisms between relative homology for good pairs and reduced homology of quotients, this is equivalent to Lemma 40.2. The advantage of rewriting this map in terms of quotients is, however, that we can explicitly write down its inverse. We recall the projections $p_\alpha : X^n \rightarrow X^n/(X^n \setminus e_\alpha^n) = \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n$ that appear in the definition of the cellular boundary map, and notice that p_α sends X^{n-1} to the base point in $\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n$ represented by points in the boundary, hence it descends to a map

$$p_\alpha : X^n/X^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n.$$

LEMMA 40.5. *The inverse of the map (40.7) is*

$$\prod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (p_\alpha)_* : \tilde{h}_n(X^n/X^{n-1}) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n).$$

PROOF. Since we already know that (40.7) is an isomorphism, it will suffice to prove that $\prod_\beta (p_\beta)_* \circ \bigoplus_\alpha (\Phi_\alpha)_*$ is the identity map on $\bigoplus_\alpha \tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n)$. This follows from the fact that $p_\alpha \circ \Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n$ is the identity map and thus induces the identity on $\tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n)$, while for $\beta \neq \alpha$, $p_\beta \circ \Phi_\alpha$ is a constant map and thus factors through a one-point space, so the map it induces on $\tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n)$ is trivial. $\square$

Here's a diagram to help us understand what β_n has to do with the cellular boundary map:

$$(40.8) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) & & C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X) & \\ & \parallel & & \parallel & \\ \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\bigoplus_\alpha \partial_*} & \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial\mathbb{D}^n) & \xrightarrow{\partial^{\text{CW}}} & \bigoplus_{\beta \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\mathbb{D}^{n-1}/\partial\mathbb{D}^{n-1}) \\ \cong \downarrow \bigoplus_\alpha (\Phi_\alpha)_* & & \downarrow \bigoplus_\alpha (\varphi_\alpha)_* & & \uparrow \Pi_\beta (p_\beta)_* \cong \\ h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{q_*} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}) \\ & \searrow \beta_n & \downarrow j_{n-1} & & \downarrow \cong \\ & & h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}, X^{n-2}/X^{n-2}) \end{array}$$

The following details deserve clarification:

- The map labeled q_* is induced by the quotient projection $q : X^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}$.

- Regarding the same quotient projection as a map of pairs produces the horizontal map at the bottom, which we proved in Theorem 37.6 is an isomorphism. Composing the latter with (the inverse of) the lower right vertical isomorphism from the reduced long exact sequence of $(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2}, X^{n-2}/X^{n-2})$ produces the usual natural isomorphism $h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2})$.
- We have replaced $h_{n-1}(X^{n-1})$ with $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(X^{n-1})$ for the middle term in the composition $\beta_n = j_{n-1} \circ \partial_n$, which is fine because the connecting homomorphism in the long exact sequence of a pair always has its image in reduced homology anyway.
- The diagram is intended to serve as a **definition** of the map $\partial^{\text{CW}} : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$, i.e. it is what $\beta_n : h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2})$ turns into after using canonical isomorphisms to replace its domain and target with cellular chain groups.

The point here is really just to replace the target $h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2})$ of β_n with $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(X^{n-1}/X^{n-2})$ so that we can then use Lemma 40.5 to identify the latter with $C_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(X)$ via an explicit formula. The resulting formula for ∂^{CW} is

$$\prod_{\beta \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}} (p_\beta)_* \circ \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} (\varphi_\alpha)_* : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\beta \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}).$$

This is determined by the collection of endomorphisms of $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1})$ induced by $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{K}^n$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{K}^{n-1}$, and by Theorem 38.23, each of these maps is just multiplication by the degree of $p_\beta \circ \varphi_\alpha$, also known as the incidence number $[e_\beta^{n-1} : e_\alpha^n]$. This proves that ∂^{CW} is indeed simply the cellular boundary map ∂ , and in particular, the latter satisfies $\partial^2 = 0$.

The proof of Theorem 39.22 in the case $\dim X < \infty$ is now complete up to one minor quibble: not every detail in the presentation above made sense in the case $n = 0$, in particular where the quotient $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ was mentioned. But these discrepancies are easy to fix; see Exercise 40.2.

40.2. The relative case. There is also a relative version of cellular homology. A **CW-pair** (CW-Paar) is a pair of CW-complexes (X, A) such that A is a subcomplex of X . In this case $C_*^{\text{CW}}(A)$ is a subcomplex of $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$, i.e. it is a subgroup preserved by the boundary map, giving rise to a quotient chain complex

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) = C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) := C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) / C_*^{\text{CW}}(A).$$

The homology of this complex is the **relative cellular homology**

$$H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) = H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) := H_*(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G)).$$

Theorem 39.22 generalizes to this setting as follows.

THEOREM 40.6. *For any CW-pair (X, A) and any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G , there is a natural isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) \cong h_*(X, A)$.*

The proof of this theorem in the finite-dimensional case is Exercise 40.1. It is a somewhat lengthy exercise, but it is not fundamentally difficult—every step is simply a minor generalization of something that we saw in the proof of Theorem 39.22, and working through it is one of the best ways to achieve a deeper understanding of the isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong h_*(X)$.

40.3. Cellular maps and naturality. By this point you should not be surprised to learn that one can define a category CW^{rel} whose objects are CW-pairs, such that $C_*^{\text{CW}} : \text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$ and $H_n^{\text{CW}} : \text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ become functors. But I still need to tell you what the morphisms in CW^{rel} are.

DEFINITION 40.7. A continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between CW-complexes is called a **cellular map** (*zelluläre Abbildung*) if $f(X^n) \subset Y^n$ for every $n \geq 0$. More generally, if (X, A) and (Y, B) are CW-pairs, a **map of CW-pairs** is a cellular map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f(A) \subset B$. (Its restriction $f|_A : A \rightarrow B$ is then automatically a cellular map.)

EXAMPLE 40.8. If X and Y are polyhedra (and therefore also CW-complexes as explained in Example 39.7), then any simplicial map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is also a cellular map.

In contrast to simplicial maps, a cellular map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ need not generally map cells of X to cells of Y . Instead, the image of an individual cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ may cover many n -cells $e_\beta^n \subset Y$, and it may cover some of them multiple times, which can be measured by an incidence number analogous to the one appearing in the definition of ∂ . On the 0-skeleton, the situation is straightforward: since $f(X^0) \subset Y^0$ and each 0-cell e_α^0 is just a single point, $f(e_\alpha^0)$ is always a specific 0-cell in Y , so that for each 0-cell e_β^0 of Y we can define

$$[e_\beta^0 : e_\alpha^0] := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(e_\alpha^0) = e_\beta^0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

For $n \geq 1$, the key observation is that since $f(X^n) \subset Y^n$ and $f(X^{n-1}) \subset Y^{n-1}$, f descends to a map of quotients, $X^n/X^{n-1} \rightarrow Y^n/Y^{n-1}$ and we can therefore consider the composition

$$(40.9) \quad S^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n \xrightarrow{\Phi_\alpha} X^n/X^{n-1} \xrightarrow{f} Y^n/Y^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} Y^n/(Y^n \setminus e_\beta^n) \xrightarrow{\Phi_\beta^{-1}} \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n \cong S^n,$$

where the map labeled pr is the natural quotient projection, and the map Φ_β on quotients is invertible for the same reason as before. We shall denote the degree of this map by

$$[e_\beta^n : e_\alpha^n] \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

This incidence number vanishes whenever $e_\beta^n \cap f(\overline{e_\alpha^n}) = \emptyset$ since the map in (40.9) is in this case constant, so Proposition 39.16 implies that for each individual $e_\alpha^n \subset X$, there are at most finitely many $e_\beta^n \subset Y$ with $[e_\beta^n : e_\alpha^n] \neq 0$. This allows us to define a homomorphism

$$f_* : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$$

acting on the generators $e_\alpha^n \in C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$ as

$$(40.10) \quad f_* e_\alpha^n = \sum_{e_\beta^n} [e_\beta^n : e_\alpha^n] e_\beta^n,$$

where the sum ranges over all n -cells $e_\beta^n \subset Y$ and has only finitely many nonzero terms.

As a sanity check, it is a simple but worthwhile exercise to show that if X and Y are the same CW-complex and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the identity map, the incidence number $[e_\beta^n : e_\alpha^n]$ is 1 for $\alpha = \beta$ and 0 otherwise, so in particular, $f_* : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$ is then the identity homomorphism. Another worthwhile exercise is to show that if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ are cellular maps, then

$$(g \circ f)_* = g_* \circ f_* : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(Z).$$

This discussion of induced maps extends in an obvious way to the relative case: if $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a map of CW-pairs, then f_* maps $C_*^{\text{CW}}(A)$ into $C_*^{\text{CW}}(B)$ and thus descends to a homomorphism

$$f_* : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B).$$

The proof of the next theorem will arise naturally from the proof of the much bigger theorem that follows it.

THEOREM 40.9. *For any map of CW-pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, $f_* : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B)$ is a chain map and thus induces homomorphisms $f_* : H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow H_n^{\text{CW}}(Y, B)$ for every n . In particular, the cellular chain complex and cellular homology with coefficients in any given R -module G define functors*

$$C_*^{\text{CW}} = C_*^{\text{CW}}(\cdot; G) : \text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}), \quad \text{and} \quad H_n^{\text{CW}} = H_n^{\text{CW}}(\cdot; G) : \text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod},$$

where CW^{rel} denotes the category of CW-pairs, with morphisms defined as maps of CW-pairs.

We can now clarify the meaning of the word “natural” in Theorems 39.22 and 40.6.

THEOREM 40.10. *Suppose h_* is an axiomatic homology theory with coefficient group G . Then the isomorphisms $H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) \cong h_n(X, A)$ for CW-pairs $(X, A) \in \text{CW}^{\text{rel}}$ are natural in the sense that for any map of CW-pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Psi_{(X, A)}} & h_n(X, A) \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ H_n^{\text{CW}}(Y, B; G) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Psi_{(Y, B)}} & h_n(Y, B) \end{array}$$

commutes.

In the language of category theory, this theorem says the following. There is a functor $\text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ that sends each CW-pair to the underlying pair of spaces and each map of CW-pairs to the underlying continuous map, and composing h_n with this functor for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ produces a functor $\text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$. Theorems 40.6 and 40.10 together define a natural transformation from $H_n^{\text{CW}}(\cdot; G)$ to the latter functor, associating to every CW-pair (X, A) the isomorphism $\Psi_{(X, A)}$.

For the proof of Theorem 40.10, we shall focus on the absolute case and leave the relative case as an exercise.

If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a cellular map, then it defines a map of pairs $(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow (Y^n, Y^{n-1})$ for every n , and thus induces homomorphisms from every term in the diagram (40.3) to the

corresponding term in a similar diagram for Y . Something like this:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & & & h_n(Y^{n-1}) & \\
 & & & & & \downarrow & \\
 h_{n+1}(Y^n) & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(Y^{n+1}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(Y^{n+1}, Y^n) & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & h_n(Y^n) & \xrightarrow{i_n} & h_n(Y^{n+1}) \\
 & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* & \nearrow f_* \\
 & & & & h_n(X^{n-1}) & \downarrow j_n & h_n(Y^n, Y^{n-1}) & \downarrow j_n & h_n(Y^{n-1}) \\
 & & & & \downarrow \beta_{n+1} & \downarrow j_n & \downarrow \beta_n & \downarrow j_n & \downarrow \beta_{n-1} \\
 h_{n+1}(X^n) & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(X^{n+1}) & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n) & \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} & h_n(X^n) & \xrightarrow{i_n} & h_n(X^{n+1}) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\
 & & & & \downarrow \beta_{n+1} & \downarrow j_n & \downarrow \beta_n & \downarrow j_n & \downarrow \beta_{n-1} & & \\
 & & & & h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) & \downarrow & h_n(X^{n-1}) & & & & \\
 & & & & \downarrow & & h_{n-1}(X^{n-1}) & & & &
 \end{array}$$

All of the red arrows in this three-dimensional diagram are maps induced by f , and the diagram commutes due to the naturality of long exact sequences. In particular, we now have

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 h_{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n) & \xrightarrow{\beta_{n+1}} & h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \\
 \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\
 h_{n+1}(Y^{n+1}, Y^n) & \xrightarrow{\beta_{n+1}} & h_n(Y^n, Y^{n-1}),
 \end{array}$$

so that f_* defines a chain map from the chain complex (40.4) to the corresponding chain complex for Y , and therefore determines a chain map $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow H_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$. To relate this to the map $f_* : h_*(X) \rightarrow h_*(Y)$, recall that the isomorphism $H_n^{\text{CW}}(X) = \ker \beta_n / \text{im } \beta_{n+1} \cong h_n(X)$ is defined in terms of the maps i_n and j_n in the diagram, along with the map induced by the inclusion $X^{n+1} \hookrightarrow X$, and all of these commute with f_* , thus we also obtain

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 H_n^{\text{CW}}(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(X) \\
 \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\
 H_n^{\text{CW}}(Y) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(Y).
 \end{array}$$

To finish, we just need to check that under the canonical identification of $h_n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ and $h_n(Y^n, Y^{n-1})$ with $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X)$ and $C_n^{\text{CW}}(Y)$ respectively, the map $f_* : h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_n(Y^n, Y^{n-1})$ matches the formula we gave in (40.10) for maps $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(Y)$ induced by cellular maps. This will prove simultaneously the statement that the homomorphism in (40.10)

is a chain map. Here is the analogue of the diagram (40.8) for the situation at hand:

$$(40.11) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) & & C_n^{\text{CW}}(Y) \\ \parallel & & \parallel \\ \bigoplus_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} \tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n) & \xrightarrow{f_*^{\text{CW}}} & \bigoplus_{e_\beta^n \subset Y} \tilde{h}_n(\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \\ \cong \downarrow \bigoplus_\alpha (\Phi_\alpha)_* & & \uparrow \Pi_\beta (p_\beta)_* \cong \\ \tilde{h}_n(X^n / X^{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{f_*} & \tilde{h}_n(Y^n / Y^{n-1}) \end{array}$$

The direct sums here are over the set of all n -cells e_α^n in X or e_β^n in Y , and the diagram is to be understood as a definition of the map $f_*^{\text{CW}} : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(Y)$, which is equivalent to $f_* : h_n(X^n, X^{n-1}) \rightarrow h_n(Y^n, Y^{n-1})$ under the canonical isomorphisms. It produces the formula

$$f_*^{\text{CW}} = \prod_{e_\beta^n \subset Y} (p_\beta)_* \circ f_* \circ \bigoplus_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} (\Phi_\alpha)_* : \bigoplus_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} \tilde{h}_n(S^n) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{e_\beta^n \subset Y} \tilde{h}_n(S^n),$$

and this map is determined by the set of all its “matrix elements”

$$(p_\beta)_* \circ f_* \circ (\Phi_\alpha)_* = (p_\beta \circ f \circ \Phi_\alpha)_* : \tilde{h}_n(S^n) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_n(S^n)$$

for each individual $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ and $e_\beta^n \subset Y$. Applying Theorem 38.23 again, this map is multiplication by $\deg(p_\beta \circ f \circ \Phi_\alpha) = [e_\beta^n : e_\alpha^n]$, thus f_*^{CW} does indeed match the formula given in (40.10) for $f_* : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(Y)$.

The proof of Theorem 40.10 is now complete except for one detail that is outsourced to Exercise 40.2.

The major unresolved issue we still have is the simplifying assumption $\dim X < \infty$ that was imposed in order to argue that $h_n(X^{n+1}) \cong h_n(X)$. We will discuss in the next lecture how to lift this assumption.

40.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 40.1 (*). Prove Theorem 40.6 on the isomorphism $h_*(X, A) \cong H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G)$ for finite-dimensional CW-pairs (X, A) and any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficients G .

Hint: Start by showing that $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G)$ is canonically isomorphic to $h_n(X^n \cup A, X^{n-1} \cup A)$, and instead of the long exact sequence of the pair (X^n, X^{n-1}) , consider the long exact sequence of the triple $(X^n \cup A, X^{n-1} \cup A, A)$.

EXERCISE 40.2. Some portions of the proofs of Theorems 39.22 and 40.10 given above did not make sense for $n = 0$, especially when $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ was mentioned. Adapt the discussion as needed for that particular case.

41. Direct limits and infinite-dimensional cell complexes

If X is an infinite-dimensional CW-complex, then the arguments of the previous lecture do not suffice to prove $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong h_*(X)$ for every axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G . What they do prove is that for every integer $n \geq 0$, there are isomorphisms

$$H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong h_n(X^{n+1}) \cong h_n(X^{n+2}) \cong h_n(X^{n+3}) \cong \dots,$$

where the maps $h_n(X^{n+k}) \rightarrow h_n(X^{n+k+1})$ are induced by the inclusions $X^{n+k} \hookrightarrow X^{n+k+1}$, and moreover, these isomorphisms are natural in the sense that for any cellular map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the

induced homomorphism $f_* : H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \rightarrow H_n^{\text{CW}}(Y; G)$ fits into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(X^{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(X^{n+2}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(X^{n+3}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \dots \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\ H_n^{\text{CW}}(Y; G) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(Y^{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(Y^{n+2}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(Y^{n+3}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \dots \end{array}$$

To get from here to a computation of $h_n(X)$, the idea is to interpret X as a “limit” of the sequence of spaces $X^0, X^1, X^2, \dots, X^n, \dots$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. If the functor h_n could be shown to be “continuous” with respect to such limits, we would conclude

$$(41.1) \quad h_n(X) = h_n\left(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} X^k\right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} h_n(X^k),$$

and the value of this limit seems intuitively clear since all the groups in the sequence

$$h_n(X^{n+1}), h_n(X^{n+2}), h_n(X^{n+3}), \dots$$

are isomorphic to $H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; G)$. To make all this precise, we need to explain in what sense a topological space X can be a “limit” of a sequence of spaces $\{X^k\}_{k=0}^\infty$, and similarly for a sequence of abelian groups or R -modules such as $\{h_n(X^k)\}_{k=0}^\infty$. We will then see that the continuity relation (41.1) really does hold for any sequence X^k consisting of the skeleta of a CW-complex.

41.1. Direct systems, targets and limits. Suppose J is a set with a pre-order $<$, i.e. $<$ is reflexive ($\alpha < \alpha$) and transitive ($\alpha < \beta$ and $\beta < \gamma$ implies $\alpha < \gamma$), but the relations $\alpha < \beta$ and $\beta < \alpha$ need not imply $\alpha = \beta$, so $<$ need not be a partial order. Recall that $(J, <)$ is called a **directed set** (*gerichtete Menge*) if for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$, there exists $\gamma \in J$ with $\gamma > \alpha$ and $\gamma > \beta$. The most common directed set in our examples will be $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$, or sometimes $(\mathbb{N}_0, \leq)$ where $\mathbb{N}_0 := \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$. Some more interesting examples will arise when we discuss Poincaré duality and Čech (co-)homology later in this semester; see also Example 41.5 below.

In the following, we use the notation $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ to indicate that f is a morphism from X to Y , where X and Y may be objects in an arbitrary category. In this way we can use commutative diagrams to encode relations between compositions of morphisms in any category—one should keep in mind however that the literal meaning of such a diagram may vary radically depending on the category we are working with.

DEFINITION 41.1. Given a category $\mathcal{C}$, a **direct system** (*induktives System*) $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ over the directed set $(J, <)$ associates to each $\alpha \in J$ an object X_α of $\mathcal{C}$, along with morphisms

$$\varphi_{\beta\alpha} \in \text{Hom}(X_\alpha, X_\beta) \quad \text{for each } \alpha < \beta$$

such that

$$\varphi_{\alpha\alpha} = \text{Id}_{X_\alpha}$$

and the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta\alpha}} & X_\beta & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\gamma\beta}} & X_\gamma \\ & & \searrow \varphi_{\gamma\alpha} & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

commutes for every triple $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$ with $\alpha < \beta < \gamma$.

REMARK 41.2. Exercise 28.3 shows that a pre-order $<$ on a set J can be encoded by calling J the collection of objects in a category $\mathcal{J}$, such that for each pair $x, y \in J$, the set of morphisms $\text{Hom}(x, y)$ contains exactly one element whenever $x < y$ and is otherwise empty. A direct system in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$ is then nothing other than a (covariant) functor $\mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.

EXAMPLE 41.3. For any CW-complex X , its collection of skeleta $\{X^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ forms a direct system in $\mathbf{Top}$ over $(\mathbb{N}_0, \leq)$, with the maps φ_{mn} for each $m \geq n$ defined as the inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X^m$. Similarly, the skeleta of a CW-pair define a direct system in $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$.

EXAMPLE 41.4. For any axiomatic homology theory h_* taking values in the category of R -modules, the homologies of the skeleta of a CW-complex form direct systems in $R\text{-Mod}$ over $(\mathbb{N}_0, \leq)$: indeed, for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, there is a direct system consisting of the modules $\{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ and for every $m \geq n$ the map $h_k(X^n) \rightarrow h_k(X^m)$ induced by the inclusion $X^n \hookrightarrow X^m$.

The last example illustrates the following general observation, which is immediate from the definitions:

PROPOSITION 41.5. *If $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $\mathcal{A}$ over $(J, <)$, and $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a covariant functor, then $\{\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha), \mathcal{F}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha})\}$ forms a direct system in $\mathcal{B}$ over $(J, <)$.* $\square$

The notion of “convergence” for a direct system will necessarily look somewhat different from what we’ve seen before for sequences or nets: in most categories, there is no obvious topology or metric with which to measure how closely the objects X_α approach some limiting object X_∞ as $\alpha \in J$ becomes large. What we do have in every category is the notion of morphisms and the composition function $(f, g) \mapsto f \circ g$, so this is the structure that we will use. The idea is to measure the convergence of a direct system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ in terms of the morphisms from each X_α to other fixed objects in the category.

DEFINITION 41.6. For a direct system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$, a **target** $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ of the system consists of an object Y of $\mathcal{C}$ together with associated morphisms $f_\alpha \in \text{Hom}(X_\alpha, Y)$ for each $\alpha \in J$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta\alpha}} & X_\beta \\ & \searrow f_\alpha & \swarrow f_\beta \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

commutes for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$ with $\alpha < \beta$.

DEFINITION 41.7. A target $\{X_\infty, \varphi_\alpha\}$ of the direct system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is called a **direct limit**⁶⁵ (*induktiver Limes*) of the system and written as

$$X_\infty = \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$$

if it satisfies the following “universal” property: for all targets $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ of $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$, there exists a unique morphism $f_\infty \in \text{Hom}(X_\infty, Y)$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} & X_\infty \\ & \searrow f_\alpha & \downarrow f_\infty \\ & & Y \end{array}$$

commutes for every $\alpha \in J$.

The essential meaning of a direct limit can be encoded in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta\alpha}} & X_\beta & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\gamma\beta}} & X_\gamma & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\} \\ & & & & & & \downarrow \\ & & & & & & Y \end{array}$$

⁶⁵Direct limits are also sometimes called **inductive limits**, and they are a special case of a more general notion in category theory called **colimits** (*Kolimes*); cf. Exercise 41.8.

where we assume $\alpha < \beta < \gamma < \dots \in J$. The key feature of the object $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is that whenever an object Y and morphisms $X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$ in a commuting diagram of this type are given, the “limit” morphism from $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ to Y indicated by the dashed arrow must also exist and be unique.

Note that from these definitions, there is generally no guarantee that a direct limit exists, and if it exists then it is generally not unique. Indeed, the proof of the following is an easy exercise:

PROPOSITION 41.8. *If $\{X, f_\alpha\}$ is a direct limit of $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ and Y is another object such that there exists an isomorphism $\psi \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$, then $\{Y, \psi \circ f_\alpha\}$ is also a direct limit of $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$. $\square$*

The non-uniqueness exhibited by the proposition above is however the worst thing that can happen: if $\{X, f_\alpha\}$ and $\{Y, g_\alpha\}$ are any two direct limits of the same system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$, then the universal property provides unique morphisms $g_\infty \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ and $f_\infty \in \text{Hom}(Y, X)$ satisfying $g_\infty \circ f_\alpha = g_\alpha$ and $f_\infty \circ g_\alpha = f_\alpha$ for every $\alpha \in J$. It follows that $f_\infty \circ g_\infty$ is the unique morphism from X to X satisfying $(f_\infty \circ g_\infty) \circ f_\alpha = f_\alpha$ for every $\alpha \in J$, which implies $f_\infty \circ g_\infty = \text{Id}_X$. A similar argument shows $g_\infty \circ f_\infty = \text{Id}_Y$, thus X and Y are isomorphic, and there is a distinguished isomorphism relating them. For this reason, we shall typically feel free to refer to “the” (rather than “a”) direct limit of any system for which a limit exists.

The next result computes direct limits in a situation that is of concrete interest for the homology of a CW-complex X : recall from the previous lecture that for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the sequence of homology groups $h_k(X^0) \rightarrow h_k(X^1) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow h_k(X^n) \rightarrow h_k(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow \dots$ stabilizes as $n \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. the maps induced by the inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X^{n+1}$ all become isomorphisms as soon as n is sufficiently large. The intuition here is the same as in the elementary observation that for any sequence that is “eventually constant,” its limit is what you think it should be. The proof is Exercise 41.2.

PROPOSITION 41.9. *Suppose $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$ with the property that for some $\alpha_0 \in J$, $\varphi_{\gamma\beta} \in \text{Hom}(X_\beta, X_\gamma)$ is an isomorphism for every $\beta, \gamma \in J$ with $\beta > \alpha_0$ and $\gamma > \alpha_0$. For each $\alpha \in J$, choose $\gamma \in J$ such that $\gamma > \alpha$ and $\gamma > \alpha_0$, and define*

$$\varphi_\alpha := \varphi_{\gamma\alpha_0}^{-1} \circ \varphi_{\gamma\alpha} \in \text{Hom}(X_\alpha, X_{\alpha_0}).$$

Then the morphism φ_α does not depend on the choice of the element $\gamma \in J$, and $\{X_{\alpha_0}, \varphi_\alpha\}$ defines a direct limit of the system, i.e. $X_{\alpha_0} = \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$. $\square$

41.2. Constructions of direct limits. For the categories that we are most interested in, we will see presently that direct limits always exist and can be described in more concrete terms.

LEMMA 41.10. *Suppose $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$, where $\mathcal{C}$ is any category in which objects are sets (possibly with extra structure) and morphisms are maps between them. For any $\alpha, \beta \in J$, $x \in X_\alpha$ and $y \in X_\beta$, define the relation $x \sim y$ to mean*

$$x \sim y \iff \varphi_{\gamma\alpha}(x) = \varphi_{\gamma\beta}(y) \text{ for some } \gamma \in J \text{ with } \gamma > \alpha \text{ and } \gamma > \beta.$$

Then $\sim$ is an equivalence relation on the set-theoretic disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$.⁶⁶

PROOF. See Exercise 41.3. $\square$

PROPOSITION 41.11. *If $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $\mathbf{Top}$ over $(J, <)$, then its direct limit is the space*

$$\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\} = \coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha / \sim,$$

⁶⁶The **set-theoretic disjoint union** of a collection of sets $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ can be defined in general as the set $\{(\alpha, x) \mid \alpha \in J, x \in X_\alpha\}$, i.e. it is a union of all the sets X_α , but defined such that even if some pair of the sets X_α and X_β for $\alpha \neq \beta$ have elements in common, they are each identified with *disjoint* subsets of $\coprod_{\gamma \in J} X_\gamma$. The disjoint union of topological spaces is defined in the same way, but with the extra structure of a topology, which for the purposes of Exercise 41.3 is not needed.

where the equivalence relation is defined as in Lemma 41.10, and the associated morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ are the compositions of the inclusions $X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$ with the quotient projection. Moreover, the topology on $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is the strongest topology for which the maps $\varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ are continuous for all $\alpha \in J$.

PROOF. Abbreviate $X_\infty = \coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha / \sim$. The topology of X_∞ is determined from that of the individual spaces X_α via the quotient and disjoint union topologies: concretely, this means that a set $\mathcal{U} \subset X_\infty$ is open if and only if its preimage $q^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \coprod_{\beta} X_\beta$ via the quotient projection $q : \coprod_{\beta} X_\beta \rightarrow X_\infty$ is open, and the latter is true if and only if $q^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \cap X_\alpha$ is open in X_α for every $\alpha \in J$. Since $q^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \cap X_\alpha = \varphi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$, this means that $\mathcal{U} \subset X_\infty$ is open if and only if every $\varphi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset X_\alpha$ is open, thus characterizing the topology of X_∞ as the strongest for which every map $\varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\infty$ is continuous. An easy corollary of this observation is that for any other space Y , a map $f : X_\infty \rightarrow Y$ is continuous if and only if the maps $f \circ \varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$ are continuous for all $\alpha \in J$ (cf. Prop. 39.4).

It is clear that $\{X_\infty, \varphi_\alpha\}$ is a target since for any $\alpha, \beta \in J$ with $\alpha < \beta$, the relation

$$\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_{\beta\alpha}(x) = \varphi_\alpha(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in X_\alpha$$

follows from the fact that $x \sim \varphi_{\beta\alpha}(x)$. Now assuming $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ is another target, we need to show that there is a unique continuous map $f_\infty : X_\infty \rightarrow Y$ satisfying the condition $f_\infty \circ \varphi_\alpha = f_\alpha$ for every $\alpha \in J$. To write down $f_\infty(x)$ for an arbitrary element $x \in X_\infty$, observe that since the quotient projection $q : \coprod_{\beta} X_\beta \rightarrow X_\infty$ is surjective, we have $x = q(x_\alpha) = \varphi_\alpha(x_\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in J$ and $x_\alpha \in X_\alpha \subset \coprod_{\beta} X_\beta$, so in order to achieve $f_\infty \circ \varphi_\alpha = f_\alpha$, we are forced to define

$$f_\infty(x) := f_\alpha(x_\alpha).$$

We claim that $f_\infty(x)$ is then independent of the choice of element $x_\alpha \in q^{-1}(x)$. Indeed, suppose $\beta \in J$ and $x_\beta \in X_\beta \subset \coprod_{\gamma} X_\gamma$ such that $\varphi_\beta(x_\beta) = q(x_\beta) = x$. The equivalence $x_\alpha \sim x_\beta$ then means that for some $\gamma \in J$ satisfying $\gamma > \alpha$ and $\gamma > \beta$,

$$\varphi_{\gamma\alpha}(x_\alpha) = \varphi_{\gamma\beta}(x_\beta) =: x_\gamma \in X_\gamma,$$

and thus $f_\gamma(x_\gamma) = f_\alpha(x_\alpha) = f_\beta(x_\beta)$. This proves that a map $f_\infty : X_\infty \rightarrow Y$ with the desired properties is well defined and uniquely determined, though a remark is still required on why f_∞ is continuous: this follows from the previous paragraph since $f_\infty \circ \varphi_\alpha = f_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$ is continuous for every $\alpha \in J$. $\square$

REMARK 41.12. Proposition 41.11 extends in an obvious way to give a concrete description of any direct limit in the category $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ of pairs of spaces.

Consider the specific direct system of topological spaces $\{X^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ from Example 41.3, consisting of the skeleta of a CW-complex X with maps $X^m \hookrightarrow X^n$ for $n \geq m$ defined by inclusion. Considering the quotient $X^\infty := \coprod_{n=0}^\infty X^n / \sim$ as in Proposition 41.11 along with the natural maps $\varphi_n : X^n \rightarrow X^\infty$, the disjoint union of the inclusion maps $i_n : X^n \hookrightarrow X$ descends to the quotient as a bijection

$$\coprod_{n=0}^\infty i_n : \coprod_{n=0}^\infty X^n / \sim \xrightarrow{\cong} X$$

which identifies φ_n with the inclusion i_n for each n . Since the topology of both X^∞ and X is the strongest for which the maps φ_n or i_n respectively are all continuous, this bijection is a homeomorphism, and we've proved:

COROLLARY 41.13. For the direct system of Example 41.3 formed by the skeleta of a CW-complex X ,

$$\varinjlim \{X^n\} = X,$$

with the associated morphisms $X^n \rightarrow \varinjlim \{X^n\}$ defined as the inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X$. $\square$

We next consider the analogue of Proposition 41.11 in the category $R\text{-Mod}$ of R -modules.

PROPOSITION 41.14. *If $\{G_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $R\text{-Mod}$ over $(J, <)$, then its direct limit is the module*

$$\varinjlim \{G_\alpha\} = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha / H,$$

where $H \subset \bigoplus_{\alpha} G_\alpha$ is the submodule generated by all elements of the form $g - \varphi_{\beta\alpha}(g)$ for $g \in G_\alpha$ and $\beta > \alpha$, and the associated homomorphisms $\varphi_\alpha : G_\alpha \rightarrow \varinjlim \{G_\alpha\}$ are the compositions of the natural inclusions $G_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigoplus_{\beta} G_\beta$ with the quotient projection.

PROOF. Abbreviating $G_\infty = \bigoplus_{\alpha} G_\alpha / H$, it is easy to see that $\{G_\infty, \varphi_\alpha\}$ is a target. Given another target $\{A, \psi_\alpha\}$, the condition $\psi_\beta \circ \varphi_{\beta\alpha} = \psi_\alpha$ for each $\beta > \alpha$ implies that the homomorphism

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} \psi_\alpha : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \rightarrow A$$

vanishes on the submodule H and thus descends to a homomorphism $\psi_\infty : G_\infty \rightarrow A$ that satisfies $\psi_\infty \circ \varphi_\alpha = \psi_\alpha$ for all α . $\square$

REMARK 41.15. A minor variation on Proposition 41.14 gives a similar description of direct limits in the category of chain complexes; see Exercise 41.4.

41.3. The mapping telescope. We have seen above that any CW-complex X can be identified with the direct limit of its skeleta. Combining Proposition 41.9 with the computations of the previous lecture proves moreover that for any axiomatic homology theory h_* and any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the direct system of R -modules $\{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ stabilizes as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and thus has direct limit $h_k(X^n)$ for any n sufficiently large, which matches $H_k^{\text{CW}}(X^n) = H_k^{\text{CW}}(X)$. This gives an isomorphism

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty.$$

The isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \cong h_*(X)$ will therefore follow if we can prove that the functors h_k behave “continuously” under this direct limit, i.e. the question becomes

$$\varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\} \cong h_k(\varinjlim \{X^n\})?$$

It is time to insert a word of caution: the next example shows that singular homology does *not* always behave as nicely as one would hope with respect to direct limits.

EXAMPLE 41.16. Define $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ to be the collection of all countable subspaces of S^1 , with a partial order assigned to the index set such that

$$\alpha < \beta \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad X_\alpha \subset X_\beta.$$

In this case we can define $\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow X_\beta$ to be the inclusion map and regard $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ as a direct system of topological spaces. One can show that $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is homeomorphic to S^1 , but $\varinjlim \{H_1(X_\alpha; \mathbb{Z})\}$ is not isomorphic to $H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$; see Exercise 41.5.

To see nonetheless why it might *sometimes* be true that $\varinjlim \{h_k(X_\alpha)\} \cong h_k(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\})$, let us observe first that there is always a natural morphism between these two objects. Indeed, suppose more generally that $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in some category $\mathcal{A}$ over $(J, <)$, and $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a covariant functor, thus producing a direct system $\{\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha), \mathcal{F}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha})\}$ in $\mathcal{B}$. If $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ exists, then the natural morphisms

$$X_\alpha \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$$

for every $\alpha \in J$ induce morphisms

$$\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha) \xrightarrow{\Phi_\alpha := \mathcal{F}(\varphi_\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\})$$

which satisfy

$$\Phi_\beta \circ \mathcal{F}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha}) = \mathcal{F}(\varphi_\beta) \circ \mathcal{F}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha}) = \mathcal{F}(\varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_{\beta\alpha}) = \mathcal{F}(\varphi_\alpha) = \Phi_\alpha$$

for all $\beta > \alpha$ and thus make $\{\mathcal{F}(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}), \Phi_\alpha\}$ a target of the system $\{\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha), \mathcal{F}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha})\}$. If we assume that $\varinjlim \{\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha)\}$ also exists, then it now follows via the universal property of the direct limit that there is a limiting morphism

$$(41.2) \quad \varinjlim \{\mathcal{F}(X_\alpha)\} \xrightarrow{\Phi_\infty} \mathcal{F}(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}).$$

In the setting of a homology theory h_* and a CW-complex X with its direct system of skeleta $\{X^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$, taking $\mathcal{F} := h_k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ in the discussion above gives us a natural homomorphism

$$(41.3) \quad \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \xrightarrow{\Phi_\infty} h_k(X).$$

The following result then fills the final gap in our proof of the isomorphism $H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong h_k(X)$ for all CW-complexes:

THEOREM 41.17. *For all CW-complexes X , axiomatic homology theories h_* and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the natural map (41.3) is an isomorphism.*

The proof of this theorem uses an ingenious trick in which the direct limit $X = \varinjlim \{X^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ is replaced by a slightly different space that is a target of the system “up to homotopy”. We can frame the setup a bit more generally: rather than assuming the X^n are the skeleta of a given CW-complex, suppose to start with that we are simply given a sequence of spaces and maps

$$X^0 \xrightarrow{f^0} X^1 \xrightarrow{f^1} X^2 \xrightarrow{f^2} \dots$$

This sequence is to be understood as a direct system in **Top**, where the associated map $X^m \rightarrow X^n$ for any $n > m$ is defined as a composition of successive maps f^i . The direct limit of this system can be constructed as in Proposition 41.11, but instead of that, we shall consider the **mapping telescope** of the sequence, defined as the space

$$T := (X^0 \times [0, 1]) \cup_{f^0} (X^1 \times [1, 2]) \cup_{f^1} (X^2 \times [2, 3]) \cup_{f^2} \dots,$$

where for each $n \geq 0$, the set $X^n = X^n \times \{n+1\}$ is attached to $X^{n+1} = X^{n+1} \times \{n+1\}$ along the map f^n . The mapping telescope comes with a sequence of inclusions

$$X^n = X^n \times \{n\} \xrightarrow{i^n} T,$$

such that the diagram

$$(41.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} X^0 & \xrightarrow{f^0} & X^1 & \xrightarrow{f^1} & X^2 & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & & & \searrow i^1 & \searrow i^2 & \\ & & & & & & T \\ & & \nearrow i^0 & \nearrow i^1 & \nearrow i^2 & & \end{array}$$

commutes *up to homotopy*, meaning that compositions formed by distinct paths between two objects on the diagram need not be identical maps, but they are homotopic. In particular, the inclusions $i^n : X^n \hookrightarrow T$ make T a target of the system $\{X^n, f^n\}$ if the latter is regarded as a direct system in the homotopy category **hTop**, and one can show that this target even satisfies a weak version of the universal property for direct limits in **hTop**, though this is not strictly correct—in reality, T is not a direct limit in any category, but is an example of something slightly different

called a *homotopy colimit*. For present purposes, it is not necessary to know what this means, but the following easy observation will be important: by the homotopy axiom, applying the functor h_k to the entirety of the homotopy-commutative diagram (41.4) produces a genuine commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} h_k(X^0) & \xrightarrow{f_*^0} & h_k(X^1) & \xrightarrow{f_*^1} & h_k(X^2) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & & & \searrow i_*^1 & \searrow i_*^2 & \\ & & & & & & \searrow i_*^0 \\ & & & & & & h_k(T) \end{array},$$

thus making $h_k(T)$ a target of the direct system of R -modules $\{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$, so that there is a unique limiting homomorphism

$$(41.5) \quad \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \rightarrow h_k(T)$$

LEMMA 41.18. *The map (41.5) is always an isomorphism.*

PROOF. By Proposition 41.14, we can identify $\varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ with the quotient of the direct sum $\bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty h_k(X^n)$ by the submodule generated by all elements of the form $c - f_*^n c \in h_k(X^n) \oplus h_k(X^{n+1})$ for $n \geq 0$ and $c \in h_k(X^n)$. As it turns out, that is precisely the same description that we get for $h_k(T)$ if we compute it using the long exact sequence of the mapping torus established in Lecture 37. Indeed, T can be identified with the mapping torus of the map

$$\prod_{n=0}^\infty X^n \xrightarrow{f} \prod_{n=0}^\infty X^n$$

whose restriction to $X^m \subset \prod_{n=0}^\infty X^n$ for each $m \geq 0$ is $X^m \xrightarrow{f^m} X^{m+1}$. Theorem 37.8 thus gives a long exact sequence

$$\dots \rightarrow h_k\left(\prod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi_k} h_k\left(\prod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \rightarrow h_k(T) \rightarrow h_{k-1}\left(\prod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi_{k-1}} h_{k-1}\left(\prod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \rightarrow \dots,$$

where $\Phi_k := 1 - f_*$. One can always turn a long exact sequence into a short exact sequence with a desired term in the middle: in the case at hand, one obtains from this trick a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \Phi_k \rightarrow h_k(T) \rightarrow \ker \Phi_{k-1} \rightarrow 0.$$

Now, using the additivity axiom, we can identify Φ_k with the map

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ -f_*^0 & \mathbb{1} & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & -f_*^1 & \mathbb{1} & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & -f_*^2 & \mathbb{1} & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -f_*^3 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} : \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty h_k(X^n) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty h_k(X^n),$$

which is easily seen to be injective for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, turning the exact sequence above into an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{coker} \Phi_k \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(T).$$

But in fact, the image of Φ_k in $\bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty h_k(X^n)$ is precisely the submodule that gets quotiented out in order to construct the direct limit, and this isomorphism is precisely the map (41.5). $\square$

The mapping telescope T of the sequence $\{X^n, f^n\}$ is a different space from the direct limit $X := \varinjlim \{X^n\}$, and in general $h_k(T)$ and $h_k(X)$ also are not isomorphic. The situation is nicer, however, if we impose a few extra assumptions that hold in the case where $\{X^n\}$ is the sequence

of skeleta of a CW-complex. A simplifying feature in that situation is that the spaces X^n are all subsets of the direct limit X , and the maps $f^n : X^n \rightarrow X^{n+1}$ are all inclusions. The mapping telescope can thus be understood as a subset of $X \times [0, \infty)$,

$$T = (X^0 \times [0, 1]) \cup (X^1 \times [1, 2]) \cup (X^2 \times [2, 3]) \cup \dots \subset X \times [0, \infty).$$

PROPOSITION 41.19. *Assume X is a CW-complex and*

$$A_0 \subset A_1 \subset A_2 \subset \dots \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n = X$$

is a nested sequence of subcomplexes such that for every $n \geq 0$, the n -skeleton X^n is contained in A_m for some $m \geq 0$. Then for the mapping telescope $T \subset X \times [0, \infty)$ of the direct system consisting of the spaces $\{A_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and their inclusions, there exists a deformation retraction of $X \times [0, \infty)$ to T .

The proof of this proposition uses the following lemma.

LEMMA 41.20. *For any CW-pair (X, A) , there exists a deformation retraction of $X \times [0, 1]$ to the subset $(A \times [0, 1]) \cup (X \times \{1\})$.*

PROOF. We start by constructing a deformation retraction of $(X^0 \cup A) \times [0, 1]$ to $(A \times [0, 1]) \cup (X^0 \times \{1\})$. This is easy: one only has to push $e_{\alpha}^0 \times [0, 1]$ to $e_{\alpha}^0 \times \{1\}$ for each isolated 0-cell e_{α}^0 that does not belong to A . One then proceeds inductively: Assuming for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that a suitable deformation retraction of $(X^{n-1} \cup A) \times [0, 1]$ to $(A \times [0, 1]) \cup (X^{n-1} \times \{1\})$ has already been constructed, one must extend it so that X^{n-1} is replaced by X^n . This simply requires extending it to each individual n -cell e_{α}^n , which amounts to extending a given deformation retraction of $S^{n-1} \times [0, 1]$ to a deformation retraction of $\mathbb{D}^n \times [0, 1]$, and you will easily convince yourself that this can be done, roughly for the same reasons that $\mathbb{D}^n \times [0, 1]$ admits a deformation retraction to the subset $(\mathbb{D}^n \times \{1\}) \cup (S^{n-1} \times [0, 1])$. The topology of a CW-complex is defined such that any map constructed in this manner by induction on the dimensions of the skeleta is automatically continuous. $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 41.19. We define a homotopy $H : I \times X \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow X \times [0, \infty)$ as follows. For $t \in [1/2, 1]$, $H(t, \cdot) : X \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow X \times [0, \infty)$ is a map that fixes $X \times [1, \infty)$, is the identity for $t = 1$, and for $t = 1/2$ is a retraction to $(A_0 \times [0, 1]) \cup (X \times [1, \infty))$ constructed via Lemma 41.20. For $t \in [1/4, 1/2]$, we apply Lemma 41.20 again to construct a further deformation fixing $X \times [2, \infty)$ so that at $t = 1/4$, we have a retraction to $(A_0 \times [0, 1]) \cup (A_1 \times [1, 2]) \cup (X \times [2, \infty))$. Continuing in this manner with an infinite sequence of deformations, one obtains a deformation defined for $t \in (0, 1]$, but it has the property that for each $n \geq 0$, the deformation does not change anything on $A_n \times [0, \infty)$ for $t > 0$ sufficiently close to 0. Since each finite-dimensional skeleton of X is contained in one of the subsets A_n , it follows that the deformation has a unique continuous extension to $t = 0$, and this extension produces a retraction of $X \times [0, \infty)$ to T . $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 41.17. For each $n \geq 0$, we can put the inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X$, $i^n : X^n \hookrightarrow T$, $X = X \times \{0\} \hookrightarrow X \times [0, \infty)$ and $T \hookrightarrow X \times [0, \infty)$ together in a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X^n & \hookrightarrow & X \\ \downarrow i^n & & \downarrow \\ T & \hookrightarrow & X \times [0, \infty) \end{array},$$

which is not strictly commutative but commutes up to homotopy, and Proposition 41.19 tells us that the bottom arrow is a homotopy equivalence, which is also obviously true of the arrow at

the right. By the homotopy axiom, this gives rise to a strictly commutative diagram of homology groups

$$\begin{array}{ccc} h_k(X^n) & \longrightarrow & h_k(X) \\ \downarrow i_*^n & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_k(T) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(X \times [0, \infty)) \end{array},$$

in which two of the arrows are already known to be isomorphisms, and therefore also a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} h_k(X^n) & \longrightarrow & h_k(X) \\ \downarrow \bigoplus_n i_*^n & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_k(T) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(X \times [0, \infty)) \end{array}.$$

Both of the maps defined on $\bigoplus_n h_k(X^n)$ in this diagram descend to its quotient by the image of the map Φ_k that appeared in the proof of Lemma 41.18, and this quotient is the direct limit of the homology groups, giving rise to another commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} & \longrightarrow & h_k(X) \\ \cong \downarrow & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_k(T) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(X) \times [0, \infty) \end{array},$$

in which the top arrow is the natural map in the statement of the theorem, while the arrow at the left is the isomorphism in Lemma 41.18. $\square$

We will not carry out the details here, but this entire discussion can be extended to the setting of a CW-pair (X, A) . Using $h_n(X^n \cup A, X^{n-1} \cup A)$ as substitutes for the relative cellular chain groups $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A)$ as sketched in Exercise 40.1, one obtains isomorphisms

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(X^{k+1} \cup A, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(X^{k+2} \cup A, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} \dots \xrightarrow{\cong} \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n \cup A, A)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \rightarrow h_k(X, A),$$

in which the homomorphism at the end is determined via the universal property of the direct limit by the maps induced by the inclusions of pairs $(X^n \cup A, A) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$. It is possible to adapt the entire mapping telescope discussion to accommodate CW-pairs and thus show that this last map is an isomorphism. An alternative approach is to write down the obvious long exact sequence in cellular homology that results from the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(A) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow 0$, and show that its connecting homomorphisms fit into commutative diagrams together with $\partial_* : h_k(X, A) \rightarrow h_{k-1}(A)$ and the natural maps $H_k^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow h_k(X, A)$ and $H_{k-1}^{\text{CW}}(A) \rightarrow h_{k-1}(A)$. This produces a diagram relating the long exact sequences of (X, A) in H_*^{CW} and h_* , together with the natural maps from the former to the latter, and the result in the absolute case then combines with the five-lemma to prove that $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow h_*(X, A)$ is an isomorphism.

Finally, one should also check naturality, i.e. that the homomorphisms $f_* : H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \rightarrow H_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B)$ induced by cellular maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ fit together into commutative diagrams with the maps $f_* : h_*(X, A) \rightarrow h_*(Y, B)$ and isomorphisms $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \cong h_*(X, A)$ and $H_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B) \cong h_*(Y, B)$. In the absolute case, for a cellular map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, this amounts to

verifying that all squares in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 H_k^{\text{CW}}(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(X^{k+1}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(X^{k+2}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \dots \xrightarrow{\cong} \varinjlim \{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(X) \\
 \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \\
 H_k^{\text{CW}}(Y) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(Y^{k+1}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_k(Y^{k+2}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \dots \xrightarrow{\cong} \varinjlim \{h_k(Y^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \xrightarrow{\cong} h_k(Y)
 \end{array}$$

commute, where the map between the two direct limits is uniquely determined by the universal property. That the squares on the left commute was established in the proof of Theorem 40.10, so the only real question here involves the rightmost square, but here also, commutativity can be deduced from the uniqueness condition in the universal property.

We shall leave the further details as exercises, and thus regard the proofs of Theorems 39.22 and 40.10 as complete.

41.4. Singular homology of direct limits. The following discussion is not strictly necessary, but you may be interested to know that in the particular case of singular homology, there is also a more hands-on way to prove that the natural map $\varinjlim \{H_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \rightarrow H_k(X)$ is an isomorphism for every CW-complex X .

Recall that for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $H_k : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is in fact the composition of two functors: the first is $C_* : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}$, which sends each space X to its singular chain complex with coefficients in a given module G , and the second is $H_k : \mathbf{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, sending a chain complex to its homology in degree k . The second of these two functors turns out to be extremely well behaved with respect to direct limits.

PROPOSITION 41.21. *Suppose $(J, <)$ is a directed set, with a chain complex C_*^α associated to each $\alpha \in J$ and a chain map $\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : C_*^\alpha \rightarrow C_*^\beta$ associated to each pair $\alpha < \beta \in J$ such that $\{C_*^\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system in $\mathbf{Ch}$ over $(J, <)$. Then choosing $\mathcal{F}$ to be the functor $H_k : \mathbf{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map*

$$\Phi_\infty : \varinjlim \{H_k(C_*^\alpha)\} \rightarrow H_k(\varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\})$$

defined as in (41.2) is an isomorphism of R -modules.

The proof of the proposition uses the following consequence of Proposition 41.14, which makes proving things about direct limits of abelian groups or R -modules (or chain complexes thereof) considerably easier.

LEMMA 41.22. *The following statements hold for any direct system $\{G_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ in $R\text{-Mod}$ or $\mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$ over a directed set $(J, <)$:*

- (i) *For every $x \in \varinjlim \{G_\alpha\}$, there exists $\beta \in J$ and $x_\beta \in G_\beta$ such that $x = \varphi_\beta(x_\beta)$.*
- (ii) *For every $\beta \in J$ and $x_\beta \in G_\beta$ satisfying $\varphi_\beta(x_\beta) = 0 \in \varinjlim \{G_\alpha\}$, there exists $\gamma > \beta$ such that $\varphi_\gamma(x_\beta) = 0 \in G_\gamma$.*

PROOF. Writing $\varinjlim \{G_\alpha\} = \bigoplus_\alpha G_\alpha / H$, any given element $x \in \varinjlim \{G_\alpha\}$ is an equivalence class represented by an element

$$\sum_{\alpha \in J_0} g_\alpha \in \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$$

for some finite subset $J_0 \subset J$. Since $(J, <)$ is a directed set, we can then find an element $\beta \in J$ satisfying $\beta > \alpha$ for every $\alpha \in J_0$, so

$$\sum_{\alpha \in J_0} g_\alpha - \sum_{\alpha \in J_0} \varphi_{\beta\alpha}(g_\alpha) \in H,$$

implying that $x_\beta := \sum_{\alpha \in J_0} \varphi_{\beta\alpha}(g_\alpha) \in G_\beta$ satisfies $\varphi_\beta(x_\beta) = x$.

For the second statement, we observe that $\varphi_\beta(x_\beta) = 0$ holds if and only if $x_\beta \in G_\beta \subset \bigoplus_\alpha G_\alpha$ belongs to the submodule H , meaning

$$(41.6) \quad x_\beta = \sum_{i=1}^N (g_i - \varphi_{\beta_i \alpha_i}(g_i))$$

for some finite collection of elements $\beta_i > \alpha_i \in J$ and $g_i \in G_{\alpha_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$. Choose a finite subset $J_0 \subset J$ that contains all the α_i, β_i for $i = 1, \dots, N$, along with an element $\gamma \in J$ such that $\gamma > \alpha$ for all $\alpha \in J_0$. Applying the homomorphism $\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J_0} \varphi_{\gamma \alpha}$ to both sides of (41.6) then produces $\varphi_{\gamma \beta}(x_\beta) \in G_\gamma$ on the left hand side and kills the right hand side since for each i ,

$$\left(\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J_0} \varphi_{\gamma \alpha} \right) (g_i - \varphi_{\beta_i \alpha_i}(g_i)) = \varphi_{\gamma \alpha_i}(g_i) - \varphi_{\gamma \beta_i} \circ \varphi_{\beta_i \alpha_i}(g_i) = \varphi_{\gamma \alpha_i}(g_i) - \varphi_{\gamma \alpha_i}(g_i) = 0.$$

We have thus proved $\varphi_{\gamma \beta}(x_\beta) = 0$. $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 41.21. We prove first that Φ_∞ is surjective. Given a homology class $[c] \in H_k(\varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\})$ represented by a k -cycle $c \in \varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\}$, Lemma 41.22 implies $c = \varphi_\beta(c_\beta)$ for some $\beta \in J$ and $c_\beta \in C_k^\beta$, where $\varphi_\beta : C_*^\beta \rightarrow \varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\}$ denotes the natural morphism associated to the direct limit. Since $\partial c = 0$ and φ_β is a chain map, we have $\varphi_\beta(\partial c_\beta) = 0$, so by Lemma 41.22, we can find some $\gamma > \beta$ and replace c_β with $c_\gamma := \varphi_{\gamma \beta}(c_\beta) \in C_k^\gamma$ such that $\varphi_\gamma(c_\gamma) = \varphi_\gamma \circ \varphi_{\gamma \beta}(c_\beta) = \varphi_\beta(c_\beta) = c$ but also $\partial c_\gamma = 0$, and c_γ thus represents a homology class $[c_\gamma] \in H_k(C_*^\gamma)$. Now let

$$\Psi_\gamma : H_k(C_*^\gamma) \rightarrow \varinjlim \{H_k(C_*^\alpha)\}$$

denote the natural morphism associated to the direct limit of the system $\{H_k(C_*^\alpha), \Phi_{\gamma \alpha}\}$, where $\Phi_{\gamma \alpha} := (\varphi_{\gamma \alpha})_* : H_k(C_*^\alpha) \rightarrow H_k(C_*^\gamma)$ for $\gamma > \alpha$. Writing $\Phi_\gamma := (\varphi_\gamma)_* : H_k(C_*^\gamma) \rightarrow H_k(\varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\})$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_k(C_*^\gamma) & \xrightarrow{\Psi_\gamma} & \varinjlim \{H_k(C_*^\alpha)\} \\ & \searrow \Phi_\gamma & \downarrow \Phi_\infty \\ & & H_k(\varinjlim \{C_*^\alpha\}) \end{array}$$

commutes by the definition of Φ_∞ , thus $\Phi_\infty(\Psi_\gamma[c_\gamma]) = \Phi_\gamma[c_\gamma] = [\varphi_\gamma(c_\gamma)] = [c]$, proving that Φ_∞ is surjective.

The proof of injectivity uses all the same ideas, so we shall leave it as an exercise. $\square$

An essential role in the proof above was played by Lemma 41.22, which is a tool for replacing statements about direct limits with corresponding statements about individual objects in the direct system. We saw in Exercise 41.5 that the singular homology functors $H_k : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ are not always continuous with respect to direct limits; since H_k is the composition of two functors $H_k : \mathbf{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ and $C_* : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}$, Proposition 41.21 implies that something must go wrong in general with the continuity of $C_* : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}$. The following result therefore contains an extra hypothesis that is not satisfied in pathological examples such as Exercise 41.5, but certainly is satisfied (due to Proposition 39.16) by the direct system formed by the skeleta of any CW-complex. The key point is that since every singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ has image contained in a compact set, this extra hypothesis will allow us to write it as $\varphi_\beta \circ \sigma_\beta$ for some $\beta \in J$ and a singular n -simplex $\sigma_\beta : \Delta^n \rightarrow X_\beta$, producing an analogue of Lemma 41.22 for the situation at hand.

PROPOSITION 41.23. *Suppose $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta \alpha}\}$ is a direct system of topological spaces over $(J, <)$ satisfying the following conditions:*

- (1) For every $\alpha \in J$, X_α is a subspace of $X := \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ and the maps $\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ and $\varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow X$ are the natural inclusions;
 (2) Every compact subset $K \subset X$ is contained in X_α for some $\alpha \in J$.

Then choosing $\mathcal{F}$ to be the singular chain complex functor $C_* : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ch}$ with an arbitrary coefficient group G , the chain map

$$\Phi_\infty : \varinjlim \{C_*(X_\alpha)\} \rightarrow C_*(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\})$$

defined as in (41.2) is an isomorphism of chain complexes.

PROOF. For surjectivity, given $c = \sum_i g_i \sigma_i \in C_n(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\})$, the finitely many singular n -simplices $\sigma_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow \varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ can each be written as $\sigma_i = \varphi_{\alpha_i} \circ \sigma'_i$ for some $\alpha_i \in J$ and $\sigma'_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow X_{\alpha_i}$ since Δ^n is compact. We can then find $\beta \in J$ with $\beta > \alpha_i$ for all i and define $\sigma''_i := \varphi_{\beta\alpha_i} \circ \sigma'_i : \Delta^n \rightarrow X_\beta$, so

$$\sigma_i = \varphi_{\alpha_i} \circ \sigma'_i = \varphi_\beta \circ \varphi_{\beta\alpha_i} \circ \sigma'_i = \varphi_\beta \circ \sigma''_i,$$

producing an element $c_\beta := \sum_i g_i \sigma''_i \in C_n(X_\beta)$ such that $(\varphi_\beta)_* c_\beta = c$. Writing $\Psi_\beta : C_*(X_\beta) \rightarrow \varinjlim \{C_*(X_\alpha)\}$ for the natural map associated to the direct limit, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X_\beta) & \xrightarrow{\Psi_\beta} & \varinjlim \{C_*(X_\alpha)\} \\ & \searrow (\varphi_\beta)_* & \downarrow \Phi_\infty \\ & & C_*(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}) \end{array}$$

commutes by the definition of Φ_∞ , and thus gives $\Phi_\infty(\Psi_\beta(c_\beta)) = c$.

Injectivity is again proved by similar arguments, which we shall leave as an exercise. $\square$

Applying Propositions 41.21 and 41.23 together, we've proved:

THEOREM 41.24. *Under the same hypotheses as in Proposition 41.23, there is a natural isomorphism*

$$\varinjlim \{H_k(X_\alpha)\} \xrightarrow{\cong} H_k(\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\})$$

for every $k \geq 0$ and every choice of coefficient group. $\square$

41.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 41.1. Prove Proposition 41.8 on the non-uniqueness of direct limits.

Remark: The invertibility of ψ is needed only for showing that $\{Y, \psi \circ f_\alpha\}$ satisfies the universal property; it is already a target without this.

EXERCISE 41.2 (*). Prove Proposition 41.9, on direct limits of systems that are eventually constant.

EXERCISE 41.3. Prove Lemma 41.10 on the equivalence relation defined on the set-theoretic disjoint union for any direct system of sets and maps.

EXERCISE 41.4. Prove the obvious analogue of Proposition 41.14 for direct systems in the category $\mathbf{Ch} = \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$ of chain complexes of R -modules.

EXERCISE 41.5. For the direct system $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ described in Example 41.16, prove the claim that $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\} \cong S^1$ but $\varinjlim \{H_1(X_\alpha; \mathbb{Z})\}$ is not isomorphic to $H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$.

Hint: Describing $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ as in Proposition 41.11, it is not hard to find a natural bijection between $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ and $\bigcup_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha = S^1$, but you need to check that the topology of this direct limit matches the standard topology of S^1 .

EXERCISE 41.6. Each of the following spaces can be defined as a direct limit in terms of the natural inclusions $\mathbb{F}^m \hookrightarrow \mathbb{F}^n$ for $n \geq m$, where $\mathbb{F}$ is $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$, and we identify $\mathbb{F}^m$ with the subspace $\mathbb{F}^m \oplus \{0\} \subset \mathbb{F}^n$. In particular, $\mathbb{R}^{m+1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ gives rise to inclusions $S^m \hookrightarrow S^n$ and $\mathbb{RP}^m \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$, and the complex version gives $\mathbb{CP}^m \hookrightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$. Use cell decompositions to compute the homology with integer coefficients for each space:

- (a) $S^\infty = \varinjlim \{S^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$
- (b) $\mathbb{RP}^\infty = \varinjlim \{\mathbb{RP}^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$
- (c) $\mathbb{CP}^\infty = \varinjlim \{\mathbb{CP}^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

EXERCISE 41.7. Suppose $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is a direct system of topological spaces such that each X_α is a subspace of some fixed topological space X , $\beta > \alpha$ if and only if $X_\alpha \subset X_\beta$, and the maps $\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ in this case are the natural inclusions. Let us use Proposition 41.11 to identify $\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\}$ with $\coprod_\alpha X_\alpha / \sim$, in terms of the equivalence relation

$$X_\alpha \ni x \sim y \in X_\beta \iff \varphi_{\gamma\alpha}(x) = \varphi_{\gamma\beta}(y) \text{ for some } \gamma \in J \text{ with } \gamma > \alpha, \gamma > \beta.$$

The disjoint union of the inclusions $X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigcup_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$ then descends to the quotient as a bijection

$$\varinjlim \{X_\alpha\} \rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha,$$

and we have seen examples where it is a homeomorphism: this is true in particular for the direct system consisting of the skeleta of a CW-complex. The following example shows however that it need not be a homeomorphism in general: let $J = (0, 1)$ and consider the family of sets $X_t = \{0\} \cup (t, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ for $t \in J$, ordered by inclusion. The union of these sets is $[0, 1]$, but show that the topological space $\varinjlim \{X_t\}$ is not connected.

EXERCISE 41.8. Direct limits are a special case of a more general notion in category theory called *colimits*. In order to express the definition, recall (cf. Remark 41.2) that every pre-ordered set $(J, <)$ can be encoded as a category $\mathcal{J}$ in which relations $\alpha < \beta$ are viewed as morphisms $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, and from this perspective, a direct system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ over $(J, <)$ in the category $\mathcal{C}$ is the same thing as a (covariant) functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. To define targets and direct limits in this language, one can identify each object Y of $\mathcal{C}$ with the “constant” functor $\mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ that sends every $\alpha \in J$ to Y and every morphism $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ of $\mathcal{J}$ to the identity morphism $Y \rightarrow Y$. Note that if $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ are two such constant functors associated to objects X, Y respectively in $\mathcal{C}$, then a natural transformation from $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{Y}$ must associate to every $\alpha \in J$ the same morphism $X \rightarrow Y$, and conversely, every morphism $X \rightarrow Y$ determines a natural transformation $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$. A target $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ of the system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\beta\alpha}\}$ is now the same thing as a natural transformation $T_Y : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, assigning to each object α of $\mathcal{J}$ the morphism $T_Y(\alpha) := f_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$, and in this language, a target $T_X : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ is called universal (and is thus a direct limit of the system) if for every target $T_Y : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, there is a unique natural transformation $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ such that $T_Y = \Phi \circ T_X$.

Having expressed the definition of a direct limit in this form, the whole discussion still makes sense if one replaces the category $\mathcal{J}$ associated with the directed set $(J, <)$ by an arbitrary⁶⁷ category $\mathcal{A}$. For reasons that may become clearer when you look at the examples below, a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is then often referred to as a *diagram* in $\mathcal{C}$ over $\mathcal{A}$. A target is again simply a natural transformation $T_X : \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ to the constant functor $\mathcal{X} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ determined by some object X

⁶⁷I say “arbitrary,” but in practice, $\mathcal{A}$ is almost always taken to be a *small* category, meaning that its objects form an honest set, rather than a proper class. In many important special cases, $\mathcal{A}$ contains only finitely many objects, and there are already interesting examples (as in Exercise 41.8(c)) in which it has only two.

of $\mathcal{C}$, and it is called a **colimit** of the diagram if it satisfies the universal property described above. In this case one often writes

$$X = \operatorname{colim} \mathcal{F},$$

though it is important to keep in mind that the colimit consists of not just the object X but also the morphisms $T_X(\alpha) : \mathcal{F}(\alpha) \rightarrow X$ associated to each object α of $\mathcal{A}$. As with direct limits, colimits are not guaranteed to exist, and they are also not generally unique, but the universal property guarantees that they are unique up to canonical isomorphisms whenever they exist.

- (a) If $\mathcal{A}$ is a category whose objects form a set J and whose morphisms consist of only the identity morphism on each object, then a diagram $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is simply a collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of objects in $\mathcal{C}$, and a colimit of such a diagram is called a **coproduct** of the collection. Flesh out the details of the following statement: coproducts in the categories **Top** and **Top^{rel}** are disjoint unions, and coproducts in **Ab**, **R-Mod** and **Ch** are direct sums.
- (b) Give a concrete description of coproducts in the categories **Top_{*}** (pointed spaces) and **Grp** (not necessarily abelian groups).
Hint: Both answers are constructions that were introduced in last semester's Topologie I course.
- (c) If $\mathcal{A}$ contains only two objects α, β and its morphisms consist only of the identity morphisms on α, β plus exactly two morphisms $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$, then a diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ can be described as a pair of objects in $\mathcal{C}$ with a pair of morphisms

$$X \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{f} \\ \xrightarrow{g} \end{array} Y,$$

and a colimit of such a diagram is called a **coequalizer**. Give an explicit description of coequalizers in the categories **Top** and **R-Mod**.

Hint: Use quotients.

- (d) Prove: If $\mathcal{C}$ is a category in which coproducts and coequalizers always exist, then every direct system in $\mathcal{C}$ has a direct limit.
Hint: Special cases of this yield the explicit descriptions of direct limits in Top and R-Mod that appear in Propositions 41.11 and 41.14.

42. Euler characteristic and fixed points

We would now like to discuss a few applications of the isomorphism

$$H_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A; G) \cong H_*(X, A; G).$$

42.1. Finitely-generated homology. One of the advantages of cellular homology is that for compact spaces, cell decompositions are always finite, so that the cellular chain complex has only finitely-many generators. Working with coefficients in the ring R , this means in particular that the entire chain complex is a finitely-generated R -module, and therefore so is the homology:

COROLLARY 42.1. *If (X, A) is a compact CW-pair, then $H_*(X, A; R)$ is a finitely-generated R -module. In particular, $H_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is a finitely-generated abelian group, and for any field $\mathbb{K}$, $H_*(X, A; \mathbb{K})$ is a finite-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{K}$. $\square$*

Note that the corollary is actually two statements in one, as it says on the one hand that $H_n(X, A; R)$ is finitely generated for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, but a second implication is that $H_n(X, A; R)$ is *trivial* for all but finitely many values of n .

It is similarly obvious that $C_k^{\text{CW}}(X)$ and therefore also $H_k^{\text{CW}}(X)$ must vanish for any CW-pair that has no k -cells:

COROLLARY 42.2. *If (X, A) is an n -dimensional CW-pair, then $H_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k > n$ and every choice of coefficients.* $\square$

REMARK 42.3. As I'm sure I've mentioned a few times by now, it is not too hard to prove that every smooth n -manifold is triangulable and is therefore also an n -dimensional CW-complex, so Corollary 42.2 applies to every smooth n -manifold. It also applies to every n -dimensional *topological* manifold, though this is less easy to see—there exist manifolds that do not admit cell decompositions, but it is also known that every n -dimensional manifold is *homotopy equivalent* to a CW-complex of dimension n or less. Since singular homology depends only on homotopy type, Corollary 42.2 still applies.

For a closed n -manifold, we will see another proof that $H_k(M) = 0$ for all $k > n$ when we talk about Poincaré duality later in the semester, and that proof requires no knowledge of cell decompositions. It's worth mentioning that homology is in this sense very different from the higher homotopy groups: there are plenty of n -dimensional manifolds M that have $\pi_k(M) \neq 0$ for some $k > n$, e.g. the simplest example is $\pi_3(S^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. This is one of the details that makes homology generally easier than homotopy theory.

REMARK 42.4. By results of Palais [Pal66] proved in 1966, it is also known that every smooth (but not necessarily finite-dimensional) Fréchet manifold is homotopy equivalent to a (not necessarily finite-dimensional) CW-complex. Fréchet manifolds are spaces that can be covered by charts identifying them locally with Fréchet spaces, a class of complete metrizable topological vector space that includes all Banach spaces, plus popular non-Banach examples like the space of C^∞ -functions on a compact smooth manifold. For example, if M and N are two smooth finite-dimensional manifolds and M is compact, then $C^\infty(M, N)$ is naturally a Fréchet manifold. Since many results of algebraic topology hold only for CW-complexes, Palais's theorem makes the techniques of the subject applicable in many of the functional-analytic settings that are used to study nonlinear PDEs.

42.2. The Hopf trace formula. There are situations in which interesting topologically invariant information can be extracted from the cellular chain complex without even computing its homology. The following algebraic result makes this possible.

THEOREM 42.5 (Hopf trace formula). *Suppose C_* is a finite-dimensional chain complex of vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{K}$, and $f : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ is a $\mathbb{K}$ -linear chain map. Then*

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr} \left(C_n \xrightarrow{f} C_n \right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr} \left(H_n(C_*) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(C_*) \right).$$

PROOF. For the boundary maps $\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, abbreviate

$$Z_n := \ker \partial_n \subset C_n, \quad B_n := \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1} \subset C_n, \quad H_n := Z_n / B_n.$$

Denote $f_{C_n} := f|_{C_n} : C_n \rightarrow C_n$, and note that since f is a chain map, it restricts to these subspaces and the quotient as linear maps

$$Z_n \xrightarrow{f_{Z_n}} Z_n, \quad B_n \xrightarrow{f_{B_n}} B_n, \quad H_n \xrightarrow{f_{H_n}} H_n,$$

such that the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_n & \hookrightarrow & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & B_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow f_{Z_n} & & \downarrow f_{C_n} & & \downarrow f_{B_{n-1}} \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_n & \hookrightarrow & C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial_n} & B_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

and its rows are exact. Here it is convenient to make use of the assumption that all these objects are *vector spaces*, not just abelian groups or modules—it guarantees in particular that a short exact sequence always splits, i.e. we can choose a subspace of C_n complementary to Z_n and use the map ∂_n to identify that subspace with B_{n-1} , giving a (non-canonical) isomorphism

$$C_n \cong Z_n \oplus B_{n-1}.$$

Identifying C_n in this way with $Z_n \oplus B_{n-1}$, the map $f_{C_n} : C_n \rightarrow C_n$ becomes a matrix of the form

$$f_{C_n} = \begin{pmatrix} f_{Z_n} & g \\ 0 & f_{B_{n-1}} \end{pmatrix}$$

for some linear map $g : B_{n-1} \rightarrow Z_n$. Here the lower-left term vanishes because f_{C_n} preserves the subspace Z_n , and the other off-diagonal term might not vanish because f_{C_n} need not preserve the complementary subspace, yet if we restrict f_{C_n} to this subspace and project away the term in Z_n , what remains is the map $B_{n-1} \rightarrow B_{n-1}$ induced by the same chain map f , i.e. it is the lower-right term $f_{B_{n-1}}$. This formula proves

$$(42.1) \quad \operatorname{tr}(f_{C_n}) = \operatorname{tr}(f_{Z_n}) + \operatorname{tr}(f_{B_{n-1}}).$$

Now apply the same argument to the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & B_n & \hookrightarrow & Z_n & \longrightarrow & H_n \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow f_{B_n} & & \downarrow f_{Z_n} & & \downarrow f_{H_n} \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & B_n & \hookrightarrow & Z_n & \longrightarrow & H_n \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

where the maps $Z_n \rightarrow H_n$ are the natural quotient projections and the rows are therefore exact. We obtain

$$\operatorname{tr}(f_{Z_n}) = \operatorname{tr}(f_{B_n}) + \operatorname{tr}(f_{H_n}),$$

and combining this with (42.1) gives

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n [\operatorname{tr}(f_{C_n}) - \operatorname{tr}(f_{B_{n-1}})] = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr}(f_{Z_n}) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n [\operatorname{tr}(f_{B_n}) + \operatorname{tr}(f_{H_n})],$$

which implies the desired result after dropping the extraneous terms $\operatorname{tr}(f_{B_n})$ from both sides. $\square$

Plugging the identity map $C_* \rightarrow C_*$ into the Hopf trace formula gives:

COROLLARY 42.6. *For C_* a finite-dimensional chain complex of vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{K}$,*

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \dim_{\mathbb{K}} C_n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_n(C_*).$$

$\square$

42.3. Betti numbers and the Euler characteristic. Associating a sequence of abelian groups or R -modules to every topological space is a nice thing to do, but sometimes one would prefer something simpler, e.g. a *number*. There are several numerical invariants that we can now associate to spaces in terms of their homology.

DEFINITION 42.7. For any space X and integer $k \geq 0$, the k th **Betti number** of X is the nonnegative (or possibly infinite) integer

$$b_k(X) := \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} H_k(X; \mathbb{Q}).$$

REMARK 42.8. Several alternative definitions of $b_k(X)$ will become possible once we've proved the universal coefficient theorem, e.g. it will turn out that the coefficient field $\mathbb{Q}$ in Definition 42.7 can freely be replaced by any other field of characteristic zero. One can also use $\mathbb{Z}$ coefficients: recall that according to the classification of finitely-generated abelian groups, every such group G is isomorphic to

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}^n \oplus T,$$

for a unique integer $n \geq 0$ and a unique finite group T . Concretely, T is the **torsion subgroup** of G , meaning the group of all elements $g \in G$ that satisfy $mg = 0$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. The quotient G/T is then a finitely-generated abelian group with trivial torsion, and thus turns out to be a free abelian group; the smallest number of elements required to generate this group is the same integer $n \geq 0$ that appears in the isomorphism above, and is called the **rank** (*Rang*) of G ,

$$\text{rank } G := n \geq 0, \quad \text{where} \quad G \cong \mathbb{Z}^n \oplus \text{torsion}.$$

We will see as a corollary of the universal coefficient theorem that $H_k(X; \mathbb{K}) \cong H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{K}$ whenever $\mathbb{K}$ is a field of characteristic zero. If $H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n \oplus T$ for a torsion group T , it follows in this situation that

$$H_k(X; \mathbb{K}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}^n \otimes \mathbb{K}) \oplus (T \otimes \mathbb{K}) \cong \mathbb{K}^n$$

since $\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{K} \cong \mathbb{K}$ and $T \otimes \mathbb{K}$ is trivial, and another way of defining the Betti numbers is therefore

$$b_k(X) = \text{rank } H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

We will see when we study the singular cohomology groups $H^k(X; G)$ that $b_k(X)$ can equally well be defined as the rank of $H^k(X; \mathbb{Z})$ or the dimension of $H^k(X; \mathbb{K})$ for a field $\mathbb{K}$ of characteristic zero, because another version of the universal coefficient theorem implies that these numbers are all the same. In differential geometry, you may also see a definition of $b_k(M)$ for smooth manifolds M as the dimension of the de Rham cohomology $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M)$, which is a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$. This matches our definition above due to de Rham's theorem, which provides an isomorphism between $H_{\text{dR}}^k(M)$ and the singular cohomology group $H^k(M; \mathbb{R})$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{R}$.

DEFINITION 42.9. For any space X with finitely-generated singular homology over $\mathbb{Z}$, the **Euler characteristic** (*Eulercharakteristik*) of X is the integer⁶⁸

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k b_k(X) \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

The usefulness of $\chi(X)$ as an invariant derives from Corollary 42.6, which gives us a very easy way to compute $\chi(X)$ whenever X is a finite cell complex, without even needing to compute its homology! The following result is a direct consequence of Corollary 42.6 and the isomorphism $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Q}) \cong H_*(X; \mathbb{Q})$.

THEOREM 42.10. *For any compact space X that admits a cell decomposition, every such decomposition satisfies*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n |\mathcal{K}^n| = \chi(X),$$

where $|\mathcal{K}^n| \geq 0$ denotes the number of n -cells in the decomposition. □

EXAMPLE 42.11. For $n \geq 0$, we have $\chi(S^n) = 2$ when n is even and $\chi(S^n) = 0$ when n is odd. One can see this by writing S^n as the union of one 0-cell with one n -cell, or almost as easily, by writing S^n as the union of two k -cells for every $k = 0, \dots, n$.

⁶⁸Let's be clear about this notational detail: χ is the Greek letter "chi," not a variety of the letter "X" in a strange font. The χ of course stands for "characteristic".

EXAMPLE 42.12. For the closed oriented surface Σ_g of genus $g \geq 0$, we computed $H_*(\Sigma_g)$ in Example 39.25: taking rational coefficients, the nontrivial homology groups are $H_0(\Sigma_g; \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Q}$, $H_1(\Sigma_g; \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Q}^{2g}$ and $H_2(\Sigma_g; \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Q}$, thus

$$\chi(\Sigma_g) = 1 - 2g + 1 = 2 - 2g.$$

But one can also compute $\chi(\Sigma_g)$ without computing $H_*(\Sigma_g)$ at all, just by observing that Σ_g has a cell decomposition with one 0-cell, one 2-cell and $2g$ cells of dimension 1; this is the same cell decomposition we used in Example 39.25, but there is no longer any need to compute the boundary map.

Here is an application of a more combinatorial nature. Recall that a **graph** (Graph) consists of a set V whose elements are called **vertices** (Ecken or Punkte), and a set E whose elements are called **edges** (Kanten), each of which is associated to a particular pair of vertices. Graphs are typically depicted by drawing a point for each vertex and drawing a curve for each edge such that its end points are the two vertices associated to that edge, and in this way every graph Γ naturally gives rise to a 1-dimensional CW-complex $|\Gamma|$ whose 0-cells are the vertices and 1-cells are the edges. The space $|\Gamma|$ is compact if and only if the graph Γ is finite, meaning both V and E are finite, and we say that Γ is **connected** if $|\Gamma|$ is a connected space. A finite connected graph is called a **tree** (Baum) if it contains no **cycles**, meaning there does not exist any finite sequence of distinct vertices $v_0, \dots, v_N \in V$ together with a finite sequence of distinct edges $e_0, \dots, e_N$ such that the end points of e_j are v_j and v_{j+1} for $j = 0, \dots, N-1$ but the end points of e_N are v_N and v_0 . Now, since $|\Gamma|$ is a 1-dimensional CW-complex, we have $H_k(|\Gamma|) = 0$ for all k except 0 and 1. If Γ is connected, then $|\Gamma|$ is also path-connected and therefore $H_0(|\Gamma|; \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Q}$. Since there are no 2-cells, $H_1(|\Gamma|; \mathbb{Q})$ is isomorphic to the subgroup of 1-cycles in $C_1^{\text{CW}}(|\Gamma|; \mathbb{Q})$, but it is not hard to prove that if Γ is a tree, then there are also no nontrivial 1-cycles in the chain complex, so $H_1(|\Gamma|; \mathbb{Q}) = 0$. This proves $\chi(|\Gamma|) = 1$, and combining it with Theorem 42.10, we then have:

THEOREM 42.13. *For any finite graph Γ with v vertices and e edges, if Γ is a tree, then $v - e = 1$.* $\square$

Here is an application to covering spaces. The proof of the following lemma is Exercise 42.1.

LEMMA 42.14. *Suppose X is a compact cell complex and $\pi : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map of finite degree $d \in \mathbb{N}$. Then Y admits a cell decomposition such that $Y^n = \pi^{-1}(X^n)$ for every n , and every individual n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ corresponds to exactly d cells in Y whose characteristic maps $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow Y$ are lifts of the characteristic map $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$ for e_α^n .* $\square$

In conjunction with Theorem 42.10, the lemma implies:

THEOREM 42.15. *If X is a finite cell complex and $\pi : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map of finite degree $d \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\chi(Y) = d\chi(X)$.* $\square$

As an easy application, the fact that $\chi(X)$ is always an integer allows us to deduce that there are not very many ways for an even-dimensional sphere to be the universal cover of something else:

COROLLARY 42.16. *If $\pi : S^n \rightarrow X$ is a d -fold covering map, n is even and X is a CW-complex, then d is either 1 or 2.* $\square$

EXAMPLE 42.17. Clearly both options in the above corollary are possible: $d = 1$ is always possible since the identity map is a covering map, and $d = 2$ occurs for the natural quotient projection $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^n$.

42.4. The Lefschetz fixed point theorem. As another application of cellular homology and the Hopf trace formula, I'd like to address the following general question:

QUESTION 42.18. *What topological conditions on a map $X \xrightarrow{f} X$ are sufficient to guarantee that f has a fixed point?*

We saw one example last semester: by the Brouwer fixed point theorem, no conditions at all are needed for f if X is a disk. We also saw in Lecture 38 that for $X = S^n$, every map f that does not have degree $(-1)^{n+1}$ must have a fixed point—this is a homotopy-invariant condition, but of course it is important to include the exception in this statement, as e.g. the antipodal map does not have any fixed points.

DEFINITION 42.19. For any space X and a field $\mathbb{K}$ such that $H_*(X; \mathbb{K})$ is finite dimensional, the **Lefschetz number** (*Lefschetz-Zahl*) of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ is defined by

$$L_{\mathbb{K}}(f) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr} (H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(X; \mathbb{K})) \in \mathbb{K}.$$

In the case $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}$, we denote this more simply by

$$L(f) := L_{\mathbb{Q}}(f).$$

Notice that by the homotopy axiom for homology, $L_{\mathbb{K}}(f)$ depends on f only up to homotopy.

REMARK 42.20. We will not need to know this for our discussion, but it's interesting to note that while the definition above makes $L(f)$ a rational number, it is secretly always an integer. If X is a finite CW-complex and f a cellular map, then this follows easily from the Hopf trace formula, as $L_{\mathbb{Q}}(f)$ is then the same as the alternating sum of the traces of maps $f_* : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ that are represented in the canonical basis by matrices with integer entries. Without these assumptions, it follows more generally from the universal coefficient theorem, which will give us a natural isomorphism $H_*(X; \mathbb{Q}) \cong H_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$, so that the maps $f_* : H_*(X; \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow H_*(X; \mathbb{Q})$ can also be presented as matrices with integer entries. More precisely, every endomorphism $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ preserves the torsion subgroup $T_n \subset H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and thus descends to an endomorphism of the free part of $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$,

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})/T_n \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})/T_n,$$

which is a free abelian group. Thus f_* can again be presented as an integer matrix with respect to any basis of this free group, and the alternating sum of the traces of these matrices is the integer $L(f)$.

EXAMPLE 42.21. If X has finitely-generated homology and $f : X \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to the identity map, then $L(f) = \chi(X)$.

THEOREM 42.22 (Lefschetz-Hopf). *If X is a compact polyhedron and $\mathbb{K}$ is a field, then every map $f : X \rightarrow X$ satisfying $L_{\mathbb{K}}(f) \neq 0$ has a fixed point.*

Before discussing the proof, we give one application and a few remarks. The application is an extension of the famous “hairy sphere” theorem (recall Theorem 38.6), and its proof requires some knowledge of the flow of a smooth vector field from differential geometry.

COROLLARY 42.23. *For any closed smooth manifold M with $\chi(M) \neq 0$, there is no continuous vector field on M that is nowhere zero.*

PROOF. If such a vector field exists, then we can approximate it with a smooth vector field X that is also nowhere zero. The flow of X for some small but nonzero time $t > 0$ is then a diffeomorphism $\varphi_X^t : M \rightarrow M$ with no fixed points, but is clearly also homotopic to the identity, thus $L(\varphi_X^t) = \chi(M) = 0$. $\square$

REMARK 42.24. Another easy corollary of the theorem is that it also holds for spaces somewhat more general than compact polyhedra: it holds in particular whenever X is a compact **Euclidean neighborhood retract**, meaning X admits a topological embedding $X \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that some neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ of X admits a retraction to X . It is not so hard to prove (see [Hat02, Corollary A.9]) that all compact topological manifolds have this property, even those which do not admit triangulations. In this situation, even if X does not have a triangulation, we can triangulate $\mathbb{R}^N$ finely enough so that all simplices touching $X \subset \mathbb{R}^N$ are contained in the neighborhood $\mathcal{U}$, and the retraction $r : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow X$ then makes X a retract of a compact polyhedron $K \subset \mathcal{U}$ containing X . Now if $f : X \rightarrow X$ has $L_{\mathbb{K}}(f) \neq 0$, one can consider the map

$$i \circ f \circ r : K \rightarrow K$$

where $i : X \hookrightarrow K$ is the inclusion, and use Exercise 42.2 to prove $L_{\mathbb{K}}(i \circ f \circ r) = L_{\mathbb{K}}(f)$, so that Theorem 42.22 guarantees a fixed point for $i \circ f \circ r$. But $i \circ f \circ r(x) = x$ implies $x \in X$ and $f(x) = x$.

REMARK 42.25. Lefschetz's original version of the fixed point theorem applied only to manifolds and was thus more restrictive, but it has the following nice feature that Theorem 42.22 lacks. For a map $f : M \rightarrow M$ on an n -manifold with at most finitely many fixed points, the Lefschetz number $L(f)$ gives not only a sufficient condition but also an *algebraic count* of the fixed points, in the same sense that the degree of a map $f : M \rightarrow N$ counts the points in $f^{-1}(q)$ for any $q \in N$. The proof of this version is best expressed in terms of Poincaré duality and homological intersection theory; see e.g. [Bre93, §VI.12]. As a consequence, one can then extend Corollary 42.23 to the statement that on a closed oriented manifold M , for any vector field that has at most finitely many zeroes, the algebraic count of these zeroes is $\chi(M)$; this is known as the *Poincaré-Hopf theorem*.

REMARK 42.26. It is easy to see that the compactness of X in Theorem 42.22 is essential: for instance, $\mathbb{R}$ has finitely-generated homology and $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : x \mapsto x + 1$ is homotopic to the identity, hence $L(f) = \chi(\mathbb{R}) = 1$, even though f has no fixed points.

REMARK 42.27. Figure 36 shows a compact space X that violates the Lefschetz fixed point theorem because it is not a polyhedron. Indeed, X has three path-components, two (the outer and inner circle) that are homeomorphic to S^1 and one (the spiral in between) homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, thus

$$H_*(X) \cong H_*(S^1) \oplus H_*(S^1) \oplus H_*(\mathbb{R}),$$

implying $\chi(X) = \chi(S^1) + \chi(S^1) + \chi(\mathbb{R}) = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$. But it is easy to visualize a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ that is homotopic to the identity and has no fixed points, e.g. define f by a small rotation, with radii adjusted appropriately so that it preserves the spiral. (You may notice that X is also an example of a space that is connected but not path-connected—that is a property that polyhedra never have.)

The idea behind the proof of Theorem 42.22 is that a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ with no fixed points can be modified to a *cellular* map whose induced chain map has no diagonal terms, and must therefore have Lefschetz number zero. The main tool needed for this is the simplicial approximation theorem (see Theorem 32.17).

PROOF OF THEOREM 42.22. Assume X is a compact polyhedron, $\mathbb{K}$ is a field and $f : X \rightarrow X$ has no fixed points. Compact polyhedra are metrizable, so we can choose a metric $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ on X and observe that since X is compact, there exists a number $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$d(x, f(x)) \geq \epsilon > 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

After repeated subdivisions, we can assume without loss of generality that every simplex in the triangulation of X has diameter less than $\epsilon/2$. Now let X' denote the same space but with its

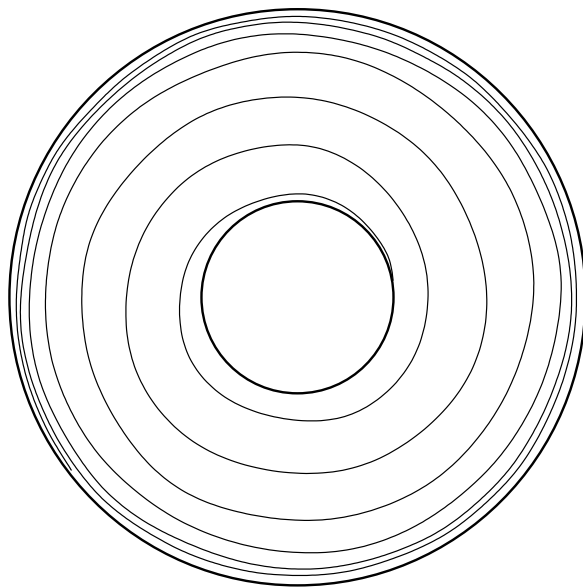


FIGURE 36. A compact space X with $\chi(X) = 1$ admitting maps homotopic to the identity that have no fixed point.

triangulation further subdivided so that the simplicial approximation theorem applies, giving a simplicial map

$$g : X' \rightarrow X$$

that is homotopic to f as a continuous map. Since the n -skeleton of X is contained in the n -skeleton of X' for every $n \geq 0$, one can also regard g as a *cellular* (though not simplicial) map

$$g : X' \rightarrow X'.$$

Now, every simplex in either X' or X has diameter less than $\epsilon/2$, and since $g(x)$ and $f(x)$ always lie in a common simplex of X , it follows that $d(g(x), f(x)) < \epsilon/2$ for every $x \in X$. Therefore,

$$d(x, g(x)) \geq d(x, f(x)) - d(f(x), g(x)) > \epsilon - \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

implying that x and $g(x)$ never belong to the same simplex of X' . It follows that the diagonal incidence numbers $[e_\alpha^n : e_\alpha^n]$ vanish for every n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X'$ defined as the interior of an n -simplex in our subdivided triangulation, implying that the induced chain map

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X'; \mathbb{K}) \xrightarrow{g_*} C_*^{\text{CW}}(X'; \mathbb{K})$$

has only zeroes along the diagonal, and its trace in every dimension is therefore 0. By the Hopf trace formula, it follows that $L_{\mathbb{K}}(g) = L_{\mathbb{K}}(f) = 0$. $\square$

42.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 42.1. Prove Lemma 42.14 on covering spaces of CW-complexes.

Hint: The key point here is that characteristic maps $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$ will always lift to the cover since $\mathbb{D}^n$ is simply connected. It's probably easiest if you argue by induction on n .

EXERCISE 42.2. Suppose $A \subset X$ is a subspace with inclusion $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and a retraction $r : X \rightarrow A$, and X has finite-dimensional homology with coefficients in some field $\mathbb{K}$. Show that

$H_*(A; \mathbb{K})$ is also finite dimensional, and for any map $f : A \rightarrow A$, the induced maps $f_* : H_n(A; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H_n(A; \mathbb{K})$ and $(i \circ f \circ r)_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{K})$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfy

$$\mathrm{tr}(f_*) = \mathrm{tr}((i \circ f \circ r)_*).$$

Hint: Write $(i \circ f \circ r)_* = i_* f_* r_*$ as the composition of two homomorphisms $f_* r_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H_n(A; \mathbb{K})$ and $i_* : H_n(A; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{K})$, and recall the formula $\mathrm{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) = \mathrm{tr}(\mathbf{BA})$.

43. Singular cohomology

43.1. Motivation. Singular cohomology assigns to each topological space X and each R -module G a sequence of R -modules $H^n(X; G)$ whose direct sum we denote by

$$H^*(X; G) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} H^n(X; G), \quad \text{or more succinctly,} \quad H^*(X) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} H^n(X).$$

It is closely related to singular homology, and in many (though not all) cases is isomorphic to it, but it has a slightly different structure. The most obvious difference is that as a collection of functors from **Top** to $R\text{-Mod}$, cohomology is *contravariant*, meaning that continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce homomorphisms

$$f^* : H^n(Y) \rightarrow H^n(X),$$

going the opposite direction from homology. You may at this stage rightfully question what is to be gained from this cosmetic difference: as we will see, the most significant advantage is that if we take coefficients in the ring $G := R$, then $H^*(X; R)$ has a natural product structure, called the **cup product**

$$H^k(X; R) \otimes H^\ell(X; R) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(X; R).$$

This structure can be extremely useful in computations. Moreover, we will see that in the special case where X is a closed oriented n -manifold, $\cup$ gives rise to a product structure on homology that has deep geometric meaning, the **intersection product**

$$H_{n-k}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-k-\ell}(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [M] \otimes [N] \mapsto [M] \cdot [N] := [M \cap N].$$

This expression assumes that M and N are closed oriented submanifolds of codimension k and ℓ respectively in X , and the right hand side should be taken with a grain of salt at the moment since extra conditions are required in order for it to make sense, i.e. in order for the intersection $M \cap N \subset X$ to be a submanifold of the correct dimension and thus represent a homology class. Before explaining this, we will need to introduce **Poincaré duality**, which gives natural isomorphisms

$$H^k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n-k}(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

whenever X is a closed oriented n -manifold, and thus implies various unexpected relations among the numerical invariants that one can define out of homology, e.g. the fact that every closed odd-dimensional manifold has Euler characteristic zero. These relations can be motivated geometrically in terms of triangulations, thus they were at least partially understood long before the development of cohomology theory, but the proper formulation of the isomorphism requires that we first define $H^*(X)$.

As further motivation, I would like to start by explaining a concrete topological application to a familiar problem, but one that cannot be solved using homology alone. The proof below is complete modulo a few major technical details that we will have to work through over the next several lectures, so you may consider this as motivation for the effort that will go into those details. We recall from Exercise 39.5 the complex projective space $\mathbb{CP}^n$, defined as the space of all complex lines through the origin in $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$, meaning literally the quotient space

$$\mathbb{CP}^n = (\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \mathbb{C}^*,$$

where the multiplicative group $\mathbb{C}^* := \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ is understood to act on $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ by scalar multiplication.

THEOREM 43.1. *For every even $n \geq 0$, every continuous map $f : \mathbb{CP}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ has a fixed point.*

PROOF (MODULO TECHNICAL DETAILS). We saw in Exercise 39.5 that $\mathbb{CP}^n$ has a cell decomposition of the form $e^0 \cup e^2 \cup \dots \cup e^{2n}$, i.e. it has a single k -cell for each even k from 0 to $2n$, which makes its cellular homology trivial to compute since the boundary map is necessarily zero. We will see that its singular cohomology can be computed in the same way via this cell decomposition, and gives the same answer:

$$H^k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{for } k = 0, 2, 4, \dots, 2n, \\ 0 & \text{for all other } k. \end{cases}$$

We will also see that there is a universal coefficient theorem expressing $H^k(X; G)$ up to isomorphism in terms of $H_k(X; \mathbb{Z})$, $H_{k-1}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and G , and one deduces from this theorem two things: first, that the Lefschetz number $L(f) \in \mathbb{Z}$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ can be computed equally well using homology or cohomology, and second, that we are free to use $H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ modulo torsion in place of $H^*(X; \mathbb{Q})$ for this computation. Thus for a map $f : \mathbb{CP}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$, we can write

$$L(f) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^k \operatorname{tr} (H^k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})) = \sum_{k=0}^n \operatorname{tr} (H^{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})).$$

Now we take advantage of the cup product on $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$, which has the following properties:

- It is *natural*, i.e. for all $\alpha, \beta \in H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$, $f^*(\alpha \cup \beta) = f^*\alpha \cup f^*\beta$. (This is a general property of the cup product with respect to continuous maps between arbitrary spaces.)
- If $\alpha \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is a generator, then for each $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$,

$$\alpha^k := \underbrace{\alpha \cup \dots \cup \alpha}_k \in H^{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

is also a generator. We will prove this as a corollary of Poincaré duality, which holds since $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is a closed and oriented manifold.

Now fixing a generator $\alpha \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$, every continuous map $f : \mathbb{CP}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ gives rise to a unique integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$f^*\alpha = m\alpha$$

since $H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. It follows via the two properties above that for each $k = 0, \dots, n$, the generator $\alpha^k \in H^{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ satisfies

$$f^*(\alpha^k) = f^*(\alpha \cup \dots \cup \alpha) = f^*\alpha \cup \dots \cup f^*\alpha = m^k \alpha^k,$$

and the Lefschetz number of f is therefore

$$L(f) = 1 + m + \dots + m^n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

This is clearly not equal to 0 if $m = 1$. On the other hand, if $m \neq 1$, then we can rewrite it as

$$L(f) = \frac{1 - m^{n+1}}{1 - m},$$

which is zero if and only if $m^{n+1} = 1$. Since m is an integer and we have already excluded the case $m = 1$, this can only happen if $m = -1$, and then only if n is odd. The result thus follows from the Lefschetz fixed point theorem. $\square$

43.2. The functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ and cochains. Let's talk about algebra. Given a chain complex (C_*, ∂) of R -modules, we obtain its homology in degree $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by applying the functor $H_n : \text{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, which discards some of the information in (C_*, ∂) in the hope of obtaining something more computable. The algebraic idea behind cohomology is to pre-process the chain complex via a *dualization* functor before passing it to the functor H_n .

You are certainly already familiar with the notion of the dual space of a vector space. More generally, the **dual** of a module A over a commutative ring R is defined as the module of R -module homomorphisms to R ,

$$\text{Hom}(A, R) = \text{Hom}_R(A, R) = \{R\text{-module homomorphisms } A \rightarrow R\},$$

which reproduces the definition familiar from linear algebra if R is a field. In particular, the dual of an abelian group A is the abelian group of group homomorphisms $A \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.

More generally, we can fix an arbitrary R -module G and consider the functor

$$R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : A \mapsto \text{Hom}(A, G).$$

This is perhaps the simplest example of a **contravariant** functor, as one can naturally associate to each homomorphism $\Phi : A \rightarrow B$ a homomorphism in the other direction

$$\Phi^* : \text{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G)$$

defined by

$$\Phi^*(\lambda) := \lambda \circ \Phi \in \text{Hom}(A, G) \quad \text{for } \lambda \in \text{Hom}(B, G).$$

You should take a moment to convince yourself that this satisfies the relations characteristic of a contravariant functor (see Definition 28.15): the identity map $\mathbb{1} : A \rightarrow A$ induces the identity map $\mathbb{1}^* : \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G)$, and $(\Phi\Psi)^* = \Psi^*\Phi^*$ whenever Φ and Ψ can be composed.

If A is a free R -module with basis $\mathcal{B}$, then homomorphisms $\varphi : A \rightarrow G$ are uniquely determined by the elements $\varphi(b) \in G$ for every $b \in \mathcal{B}$, and $\text{Hom}(A, G)$ thus has a natural bijective correspondence with the set of all functions $\mathcal{B} \rightarrow G$,

$$\text{Hom}(A, G) \cong \{\text{functions } \varphi : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow G\}, \quad \text{assuming} \quad A \cong \bigoplus_{b \in \mathcal{B}} R.$$

This special case is important, because the modules that we feed into $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ in order to define singular cohomology will always be *free* R -modules.

We next define what $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ should mean when C_* is a chain complex with boundary operator $\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_{*-1}$. Since C_* is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module, we would like $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ to be another $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module: the obvious definition is then

$$\text{Hom}(C_*, G) := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{Hom}(C_n, G),$$

so that $\text{Hom}(C_n, G)$ is the submodule of elements with degree n in $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$.⁶⁹ Now we can dualize the map $\partial : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ to obtain a map

$$\partial^* : \text{Hom}(C_*, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C_*, G) : \alpha \mapsto \alpha \circ \partial,$$

which sends $\text{Hom}(C_n, G)$ to $\text{Hom}(C_{n+1}, G)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and clearly satisfies $(\partial^*)^2 = 0$. For reasons that are best not to worry about right now (but see Remark 43.3), we're going to introduce

⁶⁹If you know enough algebra and are paying close attention, you might now notice an incongruity in our notation: unless C_* happens to be nonzero in only finitely many degrees, $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ as we've defined it is not literally the module of all homomorphisms $C_* \rightarrow G$. That would be $\prod_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \text{Hom}(C_n, G)$, as dualizing infinite direct sums generally gives rise to direct products. This should not be a cause for concern, you just need to keep in mind that the notation $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ is not to be interpreted too literally.

an extra sign and define

$$(43.1) \quad \delta : \text{Hom}(C_*, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C_*, G) : \alpha \mapsto (-1)^{|\alpha|+1} \partial^* \alpha,$$

where $\alpha \in \text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ here is assumed to be a homogeneous element of degree $|\alpha|$, i.e. it belongs to $\text{Hom}(C_n, G)$ for $n = |\alpha|$. This clearly also satisfies the relation

$$\delta^2 = 0,$$

and it is a map of degree +1, meaning it sends $\text{Hom}(C_n, G)$ to $\text{Hom}(C_{n+1}, G)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We shall refer to any $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module $A^* = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} A^n$ endowed with a homomorphism $\delta : A^* \rightarrow A^*$ of degree +1 satisfying $\delta^2 = 0$ as a **cochain complex**. Up to a minor matter of bookkeeping, this is the same thing as a chain complex, and the notions of **chain map** and **chain homotopy** carry over in obvious ways: in particular, a chain homotopy between two chain maps $\varphi, \psi : A^* \rightarrow B^*$ of cochain complexes (A^*, δ_A) and (B^*, δ_B) is a homomorphism $h : A^* \rightarrow B^*$ of degree -1 that satisfies the usual chain homotopy relation

$$\varphi - \psi = h\delta_A + \delta_B h.$$

The **cohomology** of a cochain complex (A^*, δ) is the $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module

$$H^*(A^*, \delta) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} H^n(A^*, \delta) := \ker \delta / \text{im } \delta,$$

so in other words $H^n(A^*, \delta) = \ker \delta_n / \text{im } \delta_{n-1}$ if $A^n \xrightarrow{\delta_n} A^{n+1}$ denotes the restriction of δ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. With these notions in place, we can associate to any chain complex (C_*, ∂) its **cohomology** with coefficients in G : this is the collection of R -modules

$$H^n(C_*, \partial; G) := H^n(\text{Hom}(C_*, G), \delta), \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

The functor that replaces a chain complex with its cohomology in any given degree $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ can be expressed as the composition of two functors:

$$\text{Ch} \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)} \text{CoCh} \xrightarrow{H^n} R\text{-Mod}.$$

Here CoCh denotes the category whose objects are cochain complexes, with morphisms defined as chain maps, and $H^n : \text{CoCh} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is a covariant functor, in fact exactly the same functor as $H_n : \text{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, but with the cosmetic difference that it is fed with cochain complexes instead of chain complexes. The functor

$$\text{Hom}(\cdot, G) : \text{Ch} \rightarrow \text{CoCh}$$

replaces a chain complex (C_*, ∂) with the cochain complex $(\text{Hom}(C_*, G), \delta)$ as defined above, and it is contravariant: it associates to each chain map $\varphi : (A_*, \partial_A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial_B)$ the dual map

$$\varphi^* : (\text{Hom}(B_*, G), \delta_B) \rightarrow (\text{Hom}(A_*, G), \delta_A),$$

which is a chain map since for $\beta \in \text{Hom}(B_n, G)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi^* \delta_B \beta &= \varphi^* ((-1)^{n+1} \partial_B^* \beta) = (-1)^{n+1} \varphi^* \partial_B^* \beta = (-1)^{n+1} (\partial_B \varphi)^* \beta = (-1)^{n+1} (\varphi \partial_A)^* \beta \\ &= (-1)^{n+1} \partial_A^* \varphi^* \beta = \delta_A \varphi^* \beta. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence, the composition functors $H^n(\cdot; G) : \text{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ are also contravariant: they associate to each chain map $\varphi : (A_*, \partial_A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial_B)$ the homomorphisms $H^n(\text{Hom}(B_*, G), \delta_B) \rightarrow H^n(\text{Hom}(A_*, G), \delta_A)$ induced by the chain map φ^* , and we shall also denote the induced morphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules by

$$\varphi^* : H^*(B_*, \partial_B; G) \rightarrow H^*(A_*, \partial_A; G).$$

Two further algebraic observations are worth recording before we go back to topology.

PROPOSITION 43.2. *If $\varphi, \psi : (A_*, \partial_A) \rightarrow (B_*, \partial_B)$ are chain maps between chain complexes and $h : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is a chain homotopy between φ and ψ , then the map $\eta : \text{Hom}(B_*, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A_*, G)$ defined for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by*

$$\text{Hom}(B_n, G) \xrightarrow{\eta} \text{Hom}(A_{n-1}, G) : \beta \mapsto (-1)^n h^* \beta$$

is a chain homotopy between φ^ and ψ^* .*

PROOF. We have $\varphi^* - \psi^* = (\varphi - \psi)^* = (h\partial_A + \partial_B h)^* = \partial_A^* h^* + h^* \partial_B^*$, thus for any $\beta \in \text{Hom}(B_n, G)$,

$$(\delta_A \eta + \eta \delta_B) \beta = \partial_A^* h^* \beta + h^* \partial_B^* \beta = (\varphi^* - \psi^*) \beta.$$

□

In category-theoretic terms, the proposition means that $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ descends to a well-defined functor

$$\text{Hom}(\cdot, G) : \mathbf{hCh} \rightarrow \mathbf{hCoCh},$$

where $\mathbf{hCoCh}$ is the category with cochain complexes as objects and chain homotopy classes of chain maps as morphisms. As a consequence, $H^n(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{Ch} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ likewise descends to a functor

$$H^n(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{hCh} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}.$$

The second observation is that for any chain complex (C_*, ∂) , the canonical pairing

$$(43.2) \quad \text{Hom}(C_n, G) \times C_n \rightarrow G : (\alpha, c) \mapsto \alpha(c)$$

descends to homology to give a well-defined pairing

$$(43.3) \quad H^n(C_*, \partial; G) \times H_n(C_*, \partial) \rightarrow G : ([\alpha], [c]) \mapsto \langle [\alpha], [c] \rangle := \alpha(c).$$

To see that this is well defined, we observe that if $\delta\alpha$ and ∂c are both assumed to be zero, then in the case $c = \partial a$ for some $a \in C_{n+1}$, we have

$$\alpha(\partial a) = (\partial^* \alpha)(a) = \pm(\delta\alpha)(a) = 0,$$

and similarly if $\alpha = \delta\beta$ for some $\beta \in \text{Hom}(C_{n-1}, G)$,

$$(\delta\beta)(c) = \pm(\partial^* \beta)(c) = \pm\beta(\partial c) = 0.$$

We will often refer to (43.3) as the **evaluation** of cohomology classes on homology classes.

REMARK 43.3. The reason for the sign in (43.1) can be understood in terms of the “chain-level” evaluation map (43.2). Since it is bilinear, it can be expressed as a homomorphism

$$\text{Hom}(C_n, G) \otimes C_n \rightarrow G,$$

which extends in a trivial way to all degrees as a homomorphism

$$(43.4) \quad \text{Hom}(C_*, G) \otimes C_* \rightarrow G$$

if we define $\alpha(c) := 0$ whenever $\alpha \in \text{Hom}(C_k, G)$ and $c \in C_\ell$ for $k \neq \ell$. With a little care, we can then rephrase the fact that (43.3) is well defined as a corollary of the fact that (43.4) is a chain map. For this, we need to make sense of $\text{Hom}(C_*, G) \otimes C_*$ as a chain complex. Given two chain complexes (A_*, ∂^A) and (B_*, ∂^B) , there is a natural way to make $A_* \otimes B_*$ into a chain complex with

$$(A_* \otimes B_*)_n := \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} A_k \otimes B_\ell$$

by defining $\partial : A_* \otimes B_* \rightarrow A_* \otimes B_*$ on tensor products of homogeneous elements $a \otimes b \in A_k \otimes B_\ell \subset A_* \otimes B_*$ by

$$\partial(a \otimes b) := \partial a \otimes b + (-1)^{|a|} a \otimes \partial b.$$

The sign in this definition is in keeping with the Koszul sign convention (cf. Remark 32.2), and we will see more motivation for it when we later study product structures on homology; one can easily check in any case that the presence of the sign $(-1)^{|a|}$ ensures the relation $\partial^2 = 0$, thus making $(A_* \otimes B_*, \partial)$ a chain complex. Now, before we can regard $\text{Hom}(C_*, G) \otimes C_*$ as a chain complex, we must also face the fact that $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ strictly speaking is not a chain complex, but a *cochain* complex. However, any cochain complex becomes a chain complex if we simply reverse the degrees by a sign, so let us write

$$\text{Hom}(C_*, G)_n := \text{Hom}(C_{-n}, G)$$

and think of δ as a homomorphism that sends $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)_n$ to $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)_{n-1}$. The fact that $\alpha(c) = 0$ whenever $\alpha \in \text{Hom}(C_k, G)$ and $c \in C_\ell$ with $k \neq \ell$ then means that the map (43.4) vanishes on all elements of degree nonzero in the tensor product chain complex, so it becomes natural to understand the right hand side as a chain complex that has G in degree 0 and the trivial group in all other degrees. With this convention in place, the boundary map on the right hand side is zero, so the chain map condition demands that for all $\alpha \in \text{Hom}(C_k, G)$ and $c \in C_\ell$,

$$\partial(\alpha \otimes c) = \delta\alpha \otimes c + (-1)^k \alpha \otimes \partial c \mapsto (\delta\alpha)(c) + (-1)^k \alpha(\partial c) = 0,$$

leading in the case $k = \ell - 1 = n$ to the formula

$$(\delta\alpha)(c) = -(-1)^n \alpha(\partial c) = (-1)^{n+1} (\partial^* \alpha)(c).$$

The sign in (43.1) is therefore necessary in order to make the evaluation $\text{Hom}(C_*, G) \otimes C_* \rightarrow G$ a chain map in this sense.

It is not strictly necessary to adopt this sign convention, and many textbooks do not; you will notice of course that the definition of $H^*(C_*, \partial; G)$ does not care whether the sign is included since it does not change $\ker \delta$ or $\text{im } \delta$. But if we don't include the sign here, we will be forced to insert a different unwanted sign somewhere later in the development of the theory. I am trying to stay consistent with the conventions in [Bre93].

43.3. The singular cochain complex. The **singular cohomology** of a pair of spaces (X, A) with coefficients in an R -module G is now defined by applying the algebraic processing described above to the singular chain complex with coefficients in the ring R : that is,

$$H^*(X, A) = H^*(X, A; G) := H^*(C_*(X, A; R); G) = H^*(\text{Hom}(C_*(X, A; R), G)).$$

As we do with homology, we shall follow the practice of omitting the coefficient group G from the notation for cohomology in most situations where the choice of coefficients is unimportant. It is standard to abbreviate the cochain complex $\text{Hom}(C_*(X, A; R), G)$ by

$$C^*(X, A) = C^*(X, A; G) := \text{Hom}(C_*(X, A; R), G)$$

and refer to elements of $C^*(X, A)$ as **singular cochains** with coefficients in G . Elements of $\ker \delta \subset C^*(X, A)$ and $\text{im } \delta \subset C^*(X, A)$ are likewise called (singular) **cocycles** and **coboundaries** respectively. The reason to use $C_*(X, A; R)$ in the definition rather than chain groups with a different choice of coefficients is that for each $n \geq 0$, $C_n(X, A; R)$ is a *free* R -module. In particular, homomorphisms $\varphi \in C^n(X)$ from $C_n(X; R)$ to G are uniquely determined by their values on the generators of $C_n(X; R)$, i.e. the singular n -simplices $\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)$, and we therefore have a canonical identification

$$C^n(X) = G^{\mathcal{K}_n(X)} = \prod_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_n(X)} G = \{\text{functions } \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G\}.$$

We will often use this identification to regard cochains $\varphi \in C^n(X)$ simply as functions $\varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G$. With this understood, we plug in (43.1) and the usual formula for the boundary operator

$\partial : C_{n+1}(X; R) \rightarrow C_n(X; R)$ to find a corresponding formula for the **coboundary operator** $\delta : C^n(X) \rightarrow C^{n+1}(X)$, in the form

$$(43.5) \quad (\delta\varphi)(\sigma) = (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \varphi(\sigma|_{\partial_{(k)}\Delta^{n+1}}) \quad \text{for } \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G, \quad \sigma \in \mathcal{K}_{n+1}(X).$$

In the relative case, we can think of a homomorphism $\varphi : C_n(X, A; R) = C_n(X; R)/C_n(A; R) \rightarrow G$ as equivalent to a homomorphism $\varphi : C_n(X; R) \rightarrow G$ that vanishes on the submodule $C_n(A; R) \subset C_n(X; R)$, so this is the same thing as a function $\mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G$ that vanishes on the subset $\mathcal{K}_n(A) \subset \mathcal{K}_n(X)$:

$$C^n(X, A) = \left\{ \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G \mid \varphi|_{\mathcal{K}_n(A)} = 0 \right\}.$$

The formula (43.5) then gives the correct homomorphism $\delta : C^n(X, A) \rightarrow C^{n+1}(X, A)$ by restriction.

As a functor, $H^n = H^n(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is the composition of three functors,

$$\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \xrightarrow{C_*(\cdot; R)} \mathbf{Ch} \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)} \mathbf{CoCh} \xrightarrow{H^n} R\text{-Mod},$$

one of which is contravariant, thus $H^n(\cdot; G)$ is also contravariant. Concretely, this means that continuous maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ induce “pullback” homomorphisms

$$f^* : H^n(Y, B) \rightarrow H^n(X, A)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. These maps are induced by the chain map $f^* : C^*(Y, B) \rightarrow C^*(X, A)$ defined by

$$(f^*\varphi)(c) := \varphi(f_*c) \quad \text{for } \varphi \in C^n(Y, B), \quad c \in C_n(X, A; R).$$

By the previous algebraic discussion, there is a natural pairing

$$H^*(X, A; G) \otimes H_*(X, A; R) \rightarrow G : [\varphi] \otimes [c] \mapsto \langle [\varphi], [c] \rangle := \varphi(c),$$

which we call the **evaluation** of the cohomology class $[\varphi]$ on the homology class $[c]$, and it satisfies

$$(43.6) \quad \langle f^*[\varphi], [c] \rangle = \langle [\varphi], f_*[c] \rangle \quad \text{for } [\varphi] \in H^*(Y, B; G), \quad [c] \in H_*(X, A; R), \quad (X, A) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, B).$$

Let us conclude this lecture with two straightforward but revealing computations of $H^n(X)$ for particular values of n . We start with the case $n = 0$.

For any space X , $C^{-1}(X) = 0$, thus $H^0(X)$ is simply the kernel of the map $C^0(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} C^1(X)$, also known as the group of 0-cocycles. Under the usual identification of $\mathcal{K}_0(X)$ with X and $\mathcal{K}_1(X)$ with the set of paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$, (43.5) gives

$$(\delta\varphi)(\gamma) = \pm [\varphi(\gamma(1)) - \varphi(\gamma(0))] \quad \text{for } \varphi : X \rightarrow G, \quad \gamma : I \rightarrow X,$$

which vanishes for all paths γ if and only if $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y)$ for every pair of points $x, y \in X$ that are in the same path-component of X . A function $\varphi : X \rightarrow G$ is therefore a 0-cocycle if and only if it is constant on path-components, meaning it is equivalent to a function $\pi_0(X) \rightarrow G$. We’ve proved:

THEOREM 43.4. *For any space X and R -module G , there is a canonical isomorphism*

$$H^0(X; G) \cong \prod_{\pi_0(X)} G.$$

□

REMARK 43.5. This proves that $H^0(X; G) \cong H_0(X; G)$ if X has only finitely-many path-components, but otherwise $H^0(X; G)$ is larger than $H_0(X; G)$. Indeed, for any collection of modules $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$, the direct sum $\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ can be identified with the submodule of the direct product $\prod_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ consisting of tuples $\{g_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ that have at most finitely-many nonzero coordinates. For

example, if the index set J is $\mathbb{N}$ and $G_\alpha = \mathbb{Z}_2$ for every $\alpha \in J$, then $\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ is countably infinite but $\prod_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ is uncountable.

The second computation relates $H^1(X; G)$ to $\pi_1(X)$; we shall give a brief sketch and leave the details as exercises. Assume X is a path-connected space, and identify Δ^1 with $I = [0, 1]$ as usual so that singular 1-cochains $\varphi \in C^1(X; G)$ can be interpreted as functions from the set of paths $\{\gamma : I \rightarrow X\}$ to G .

THEOREM 43.6. *For any path-connected pointed space (X, x) and any R -module G , there exists an isomorphism*

$$\Psi : H^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(X, x), G) : [\varphi] \mapsto \Psi_\varphi,$$

defined via the formula

$$\Psi_\varphi([\gamma]) := \varphi(\gamma) \quad \text{for paths } \gamma : I \rightarrow X \text{ with } \gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = x.$$

The proof of the theorem is divided up into Exercises 43.1, 43.2 and 43.3.

43.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 43.1. Show that a singular 1-cochain $\varphi \in C^1(X; G)$ is a cocycle if and only if it satisfies both of the following:

- (i) For all paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$, $\varphi(\gamma) \in G$ depends only on the homotopy class of γ with fixed end points;
- (ii) For every pair of paths $\alpha, \beta : I \rightarrow X$ with $\alpha(1) = \beta(0)$, $\varphi(\alpha \cdot \beta) = \varphi(\alpha) + \varphi(\beta)$.

Hint: If $\sigma : \Delta^2 \rightarrow X$ is a singular 2-simplex, one can identify its three boundary faces with paths $\alpha, \beta, \gamma : I \rightarrow X$ such that $\alpha \cdot \beta$ is homotopic to γ with fixed end points.

EXERCISE 43.2. Show that a singular 1-cochain $\varphi \in C^1(X; G)$ is a coboundary if and only if there exists a function⁷⁰ $\psi : X \rightarrow G$ such that for all paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$, $\varphi(\gamma) = \psi(\gamma(1)) - \psi(\gamma(0))$.

EXERCISE 43.3. Prove that for any $x \in X$, there is a well-defined homomorphism

$$\Psi : H^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(X, x), G) : [\varphi] \mapsto \Psi_\varphi$$

such that for each 1-cocycle $\varphi \in C^1(X; G)$, $\Psi_\varphi : \pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow G$ is given by

$$\Psi_\varphi([\gamma]) = \varphi(\gamma) \quad \text{for } x \stackrel{\gamma}{\sim} x.$$

Then prove that Ψ is injective and surjective.

Hint: For injectivity, you need to show that if $\varphi(\gamma) = 0$ for all loops γ then φ satisfies the condition in Exercise 43.2. For surjectivity, it might help to observe that since $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is the abelianization of $\pi_1(X, x)$ and G is abelian, $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(X, x), G) = \text{Hom}(H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$, so the map $\Psi : H^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(X, x), G)$ can then be identified with

$$H^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) : [\varphi] \mapsto \langle [\varphi], \cdot \rangle.$$

You then need to show that every homomorphism to G from the group Z_1 of 1-cycles that vanishes on the subgroup $B_1 \subset Z_1$ of boundaries can be extended to a homomorphism $C_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow G$. Use the fact that $0 \rightarrow Z_1 \hookrightarrow C_1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\partial} B_0 \rightarrow 0$ is a split exact sequence. (Why?)

⁷⁰Note that since neither G nor the set of singular 0-simplices $K_0(X) \cong X$ in this discussion is understood to be endowed with a topology, there is no continuity assumption on the function $\psi : X \rightarrow G$.

44. Axioms for cohomology

44.1. Eilenberg-Steenrod revisited. Each of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for homology theories has an analogue that is satisfied by singular cohomology, thus giving rise to the notion of *axiomatic* cohomology theories. The proof that $H^*(\cdot; G)$ satisfies the axioms is at this point quite easy; it is mostly a matter of reusing the same lemmas that were used for proving properties of $H_*(\cdot; G)$, but with most of the arrows reversed.

DEFINITION 44.1. An **axiomatic cohomology theory** h^* valued in the category of R -modules is a collection $\{h^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ of contravariant functors

$$\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \xrightarrow{h^n} R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h^n(X, A),$$

which also determine functors $h^n : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ by defining

$$h^n(X) := h^n(X, \emptyset),$$

with maps of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ inducing homomorphisms

$$h^n(Y, B) \xrightarrow{f^*} h^n(X, A).$$

The data of the theory also includes natural transformations δ^* from the functor $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h^n(A)$ to the functor $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : (X, A) \mapsto h^{n+1}(X, A)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that the following axioms are satisfied:

- (HOMOTOPY) For any two homotopic maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, the induced morphisms $f^*, g^* : h^*(Y, B) \rightarrow h^*(X, A)$ are identical.
- (EXACTNESS) For all pairs (X, A) with inclusion maps $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$, the sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow h^{n-1}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^*} h^n(X, A) \xrightarrow{j^*} h^n(X) \xrightarrow{i^*} h^n(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^*} h^{n+1}(X, A) \longrightarrow \dots$$

is exact.

- (EXCISION) For any pair (X, A) and any subset $B \subset X$ such that there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ equal to 0 on B and 1 on $X \setminus A$, the map induced by the inclusion $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ is an isomorphism

$$h^n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h^n(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

- (DIMENSION) For any one-point space $\{*\}$, $h^n(\{*\}) = 0$ for all $n \neq 0$. The group $h^0(\{*\})$ is then called the **coefficient group** of the cohomology theory.
- (ADDITIVITY) For any collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with inclusion maps $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the induced homomorphisms $i_\alpha^* : h^* \left(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta \right) \rightarrow h^*(X_\alpha)$ determine an isomorphism

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} i_\alpha^* : h^* \left(\coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta \right) \xrightarrow{\cong} \prod_{\alpha \in J} h^*(X_\alpha).$$

THEOREM 44.2. For any R -module G , the singular cohomology $H^*(\cdot; G)$ is an axiomatic cohomology theory with coefficient group G .

PROOF. The main reason for the homotopy axiom is Proposition 43.2 in the previous lecture, which implies that if the two chain maps $f_*, g_* : C_*(X, A; R) \rightarrow C_*(Y, B; R)$ are chain homotopic, then so are the two chain maps $f^*, g^* : C^*(Y, B; G) \rightarrow C^*(X, A; G)$.

Exactness follows from the fact that if we dualize the usual short exact sequence of singular chain complexes $0 \rightarrow C_*(A; R) \xrightarrow{i_*} C_*(X; R) \xrightarrow{j_*} C_*(X, A; R) \rightarrow 0$, then the resulting sequence of chain maps

$$(44.1) \quad 0 \leftarrow C^*(A; G) \xleftarrow{i^*} C^*(X; G) \xleftarrow{j^*} C^*(X, A; G) \leftarrow 0$$

is also exact. Indeed, under the canonical identifications of these groups with sets of functions $\mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G$ or $\mathcal{K}_n(A) \rightarrow G$, j^* becomes the obvious inclusion

$$j^* : \left\{ \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G \mid \varphi|_{\mathcal{K}_n(A)} = 0 \right\} \hookrightarrow \left\{ \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G \right\},$$

and i^* becomes the restriction map

$$i^* : \left\{ \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(X) \rightarrow G \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \varphi : \mathcal{K}_n(A) \rightarrow G \right\} : \varphi \mapsto \varphi|_{\mathcal{K}_n(A)},$$

which is manifestly surjective and has kernel equal to $\text{im } j^*$. I should caution you against thinking that the exactness of this dualized sequence follows automatically from abstract nonsense—we will see when we study the universal coefficient theorem that not every short exact sequence remains exact after it is dualized. But this one does. As a result, (44.1) is what we may sensibly call a short exact sequence of *cochain* complexes, which is the same thing as a short exact sequence of chain complexes except that the coboundary operator raises degrees instead of lowering them. The usual diagram-chasing argument therefore produces from this a long exact sequence of the homology groups of the complexes, with a connecting homomorphism that raises the degree by 1.

The excision property is where we need to make use of the *chain-level* excision result established in Theorem 35.9. Indeed, if $B \subset \bar{B} \subset \dot{A} \subset A \subset X$, then the inclusion $i : (X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induces a chain homotopy equivalence $i_* : C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; R) \rightarrow C_*(X, A; R)$, meaning in particular that there is a chain map $\rho_* : C_*(X, A; R) \rightarrow C_*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; R)$ such that $\rho_* i_*$ and $i_* \rho_*$ are each chain homotopic to the identity. Dualizing both i_* and ρ_* then produces chain maps $i^* : C^*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C^*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$ and $\rho^* : C^*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G) \rightarrow C^*(X, A; G)$ such that by Proposition 43.2, $i^* \rho^*$ and $\rho^* i^*$ are also chain homotopic to the identity, hence

$$i^* : C^*(X, A; G) \rightarrow C^*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$$

is a chain homotopy equivalence and induces an isomorphism $H^*(X, A; G) \rightarrow H^*(X \setminus B, A \setminus B; G)$.

The dimension axiom and the computation of the coefficient group are straightforward since there is only one singular n -simplex $\sigma_n \in \mathcal{K}_n(\{*\})$ for each $n \geq 0$, giving canonical isomorphisms

$$C^n(\{*\}; G) \xrightarrow{\cong} G : \varphi \mapsto \varphi(\sigma_n).$$

The map $\delta : C^n(\{*\}; G) \rightarrow C^{n+1}(\{*\}; G)$ then becomes

$$\delta_n : G \rightarrow G : g \mapsto (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k g = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ (-1)^{n+1} g & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

For $n > 0$ even, this means $\ker \delta_n = \text{im } \delta_{n-1}$ and thus $H^n(\{*\}; G) = 0$. For $n > 0$ odd, we instead have $\ker \delta_n = 0$ and thus $H^n(\{*\}; G) = 0$. The only special case is $n = 0$, for which $H^0(\{*\}; G) = \ker \delta_0 = G$.

The additivity axiom is a straightforward consequence of the fact that since no individual singular simplex can have image in more than one component of a disjoint union, the chain complex $C_*\left(\coprod_{\beta} X_{\beta}; R\right)$ splits naturally into a direct sum of chain complexes $\bigoplus_{\beta} C_*(X_{\beta}; R)$. Dualizing then changes the direct sum to a direct product as we saw in the computation of $H^0(X; G)$ in the previous lecture. We leave the details as an exercise. $\square$

We mention in passing that there is also a cohomological version of the exact sequence of triples (36.3); see Exercise 44.1.

44.2. Reduced cohomology. Every cohomology theory h^* also has a **reduced** version, which is again defined in terms of the unique map

$$\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}.$$

Choosing any embedding $i : \{*\} \rightarrow X$, the fact that $\epsilon \circ i$ is the identity map implies that

$$(\epsilon \circ i)^* = i^* \epsilon^* : h^*(\{*\}) \rightarrow h^*(\{*\})$$

is also the identity, so $\epsilon^* : h^*(\{*\}) \rightarrow h^*(X)$ is injective and has i^* as a left-inverse. We then define

$$\tilde{h}^*(X) := \text{coker } \epsilon^* = h^*(X) / \text{im } \epsilon^*,$$

so that the quotient projection $h^*(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}^*(X)$ fits into a split exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow h^*(\{*\}) \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} h^*(X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}^*(X) \longrightarrow 0,$$

implying via the dimension axiom that if h^* has coefficient group G ,

$$h^n(X) \cong \begin{cases} \tilde{h}^n(X) \oplus G & \text{for } n = 0, \\ \tilde{h}^n(X) & \text{for } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

If X is contractible, then ϵ is a homotopy equivalence and $\epsilon^* : h^*(\{*\}) \rightarrow h^*(X)$ is thus an isomorphism, so its cokernel is trivial:

THEOREM 44.3. *For any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* , if X is contractible, $\tilde{h}^*(X) = 0$. $\square$*

As with homology, this result is mainly useful because of the role that trivial homology groups play in exact sequences. We showed in Lecture 29 via diagram-chasing arguments that the homology long exact sequence of a pair (X, A) is also exact if all homology groups are replaced by their reduced versions, where the reduced homology of a pair (X, A) with $A \neq \emptyset$ is defined to match the ordinary homology. We can do the same thing here: if we define

$$\tilde{h}^*(X, A) := h^*(X, A) \quad \text{if } A \neq \emptyset,$$

then repeating the arguments of Lecture 29 with reversed arrows gives:

THEOREM 44.4. *For any pair (X, A) and any axiomatic cohomology theory, the sequence*

$$\dots \longrightarrow \tilde{h}^{n-1}(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^*} \tilde{h}^n(X, A) \xrightarrow{j^*} \tilde{h}^n(X) \xrightarrow{i^*} \tilde{h}^n(A) \xrightarrow{\delta^*} \tilde{h}^{n+1}(X, A) \longrightarrow \dots$$

is also well defined and exact. $\square$

It is a straightforward exercise to verify:

PROPOSITION 44.5. *For any space X and R -module G , the reduced singular cohomology $\tilde{H}^*(X; G)$ is also the cohomology (with coefficients in G) of the **augmented** chain complex*

$$\dots \longrightarrow C_2(X; R) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_1(X; R) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_0(X; R) \xrightarrow{\epsilon} \tilde{C}_{-1}(X; R) := R \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots,$$

described in Exercise 35.4. $\square$

Other useful features of axiomatic homology that carry over to axiomatic cohomology with minimal effort include the computation

$$h^k(S^n) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0 \text{ or } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

the suspension isomorphisms

$$\tilde{h}^n(X) \cong \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma X),$$

and also the isomorphisms

$$h^n(X, A) \cong \tilde{h}^n(X/A)$$

for good pairs (X, A) . The details are worked out in the exercises at the end of this lecture.

REMARK 44.6. You may by now be getting the impression that cohomology is always isomorphic to homology, especially in light of the computation of $h^*(S^n)$ quoted above. There is a grain of truth in this, but the whole story is more complicated: e.g. we will see from the universal coefficient theorem that $H^*(X; G)$ is fully determined up to isomorphism by $H_*(X; R)$ and G , but it is not always isomorphic to $H_*(X; G)$, especially e.g. if we work over the ring $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ has torsion. It also deserves to be emphasized that for arbitrary axiomatic theories, the premise does not always make sense: in contrast to the obvious “duality” between $H^*(\cdot; G)$ and $H_*(\cdot; R)$, not every axiomatic cohomology theory h^* has a corresponding axiomatic homology theory h_* (cf. Remark 44.10 at the end of this lecture).

44.3. The Mayer-Vietoris sequence. Under suitable assumptions on a space $X = A \cup B$ that is the union of two subsets, one can use a diagram chase as in Theorem 36.19 to derive from the axioms a Mayer-Vietoris sequence for any axiomatic cohomology theory. This is essentially just a matter of redoing all the arguments of §36.5 with reversed arrows, and we shall leave the details as an exercise.

For singular cohomology, the Mayer-Vietoris sequence can be also be seen more directly, and under the same assumptions as its homological counterpart. Suppose $A, B \subset X$ are subsets with inclusion maps

$$(44.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & A & & \\ & \nearrow i_A & & \nwarrow j_A & \\ A \cap B & & & & X \\ & \searrow i_B & & \swarrow j_B & \\ & & B & & \end{array}$$

such that $X = A \cup B$ and $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for singular homology, e.g. because the interiors of A and B cover X . Let

$$C_*(A; R) \xhookrightarrow{J_A} C_*(A + B; R) \xhookleftarrow{J_B} C_*(B; R)$$

denote the obvious inclusions of subcomplexes of $C_*(X; R)$, where we recall the notation

$$C_*(A + B; R) := C_*(A; R) + C_*(B; R) \subset C_*(X; R).$$

The Mayer-Vietoris sequence in singular homology was derived in §36.3 from a short exact sequence of chain complexes in the form

$$0 \longrightarrow C_*(A \cap B) \xrightarrow{((i_A)_*, -(i_B)_*)} C_*(A) \oplus C_*(B) \xrightarrow{J_A \oplus J_B} C_*(A + B) \longrightarrow 0.$$

For the present discussion, we take the coefficient module in the singular chain complex to be the ring R , and apply the functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot; G)$ to this short exact sequence; in light of the natural isomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}(C_*(A), G) \oplus \text{Hom}(C_*(B), G) &\xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Hom}(C_*(A) \oplus C_*(B), G) \\ (\varphi, \psi) &\mapsto \varphi \oplus \psi \end{aligned}$$

the result can be written as

$$0 \longleftarrow C^*(A \cap B; G) \xleftarrow{(i_A^* \oplus (-i_B^*))} C^*(A; G) \oplus C^*(B; G) \xleftarrow{(J_A^*, J_B^*)} C^*(A + B; G) \longleftarrow 0,$$

where we are abbreviating

$$C^*(A + B; G) := \text{Hom}(C_*(A + B; R), G).$$

The dual maps

$$\begin{aligned} i_A^* : C^*(A; G) &\rightarrow C^*(A \cap B; G), & i_B^* : C^*(B; G) &\rightarrow C^*(A \cap B; G), \\ J_A^* : C^*(A + B; G) &\rightarrow C^*(A; G), & J_B^* : C^*(A + B; G) &\rightarrow C^*(B; G) \end{aligned}$$

are all canonical restriction maps, e.g. J_A^* replaces a homomorphism $\varphi : C_*(A + B; R) \rightarrow G$ with its restriction to the submodule $C_*(A; R)$. It is now an easy exercise to check that the dualized sequence is also exact.

To make use of this, we need to identify the cohomology of the cochain complex $C^*(A + B; G)$ with something more familiar. The assumption that $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad means that the inclusion $C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z}) \hookrightarrow C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ induces an isomorphism on homology, but as explained in Remark 36.9, this implies the seemingly stronger statement that the inclusion of chain complexes is a chain homotopy equivalence, and it follows in turn that the inclusion $J : C_*(A + B; R) \hookrightarrow C_*(X; R)$ is likewise a chain homotopy equivalence. Now by Proposition 43.2, so is its dualization

$$J^* : C^*(X; G) \rightarrow C^*(A + B; G),$$

which therefore induces an isomorphism

$$H^*(X; G) \xrightarrow{\cong} H^*(C^*(A + B; G)).$$

Combining this with the usual diagram-chasing result gives:

THEOREM 44.7 (Mayer-Vietoris sequence for cohomology). *If $A, B \subset X$ are subsets with inclusions written as in (44.2) such that $X = A \cup B$ and $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for singular homology, then there exist connecting homomorphisms $\delta^* : H^n(A \cap B; G) \rightarrow H^{n+1}(X; G)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that the sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \leftarrow H^{n+1}(X; G) \xleftarrow{\delta^*} H^n(A \cap B; G) \xleftarrow{i_A^* \oplus (-i_B^*)} H^n(A; G) \oplus H^n(B; G) \\ \xleftarrow{(j_A^*, j_B^*)} H^n(X; G) \xleftarrow{\delta^*} H^{n-1}(A \cap B; G) \leftarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

is exact, and this sequence is also natural with respect to maps $f : X \rightarrow X' = \mathring{A}' \cup \mathring{B}'$ satisfying $f(A) \subset \mathring{A}'$ and $f(B) \subset \mathring{B}'$. $\square$

44.4. Cellular cohomology. The cellular cohomology of a CW-pair (X, A) with coefficients in G is defined as the cohomology of the cellular chain complex, or equivalently,

$$H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; G) := H_*(C_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; G)),$$

where we define the **cellular cochain complex**

$$C_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; G) := \text{Hom}(C_{\text{CW}}^{\text{CW}}(X, A; R), G).$$

This gives a collection of contravariant functors $H_{\text{CW}}^n : \text{CW}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ that are typically not very hard to compute. The coboundary map $\delta : C_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; G) \rightarrow C_{\text{CW}}^{n+1}(X, A; G)$ can be expressed in terms of the same incidence numbers that describe the cellular boundary map: indeed, for each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$, define its dual cochain

$$\varphi_\alpha^n \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; R), \quad \varphi_\alpha^n(e_\beta^n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \beta = \alpha, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

These generators form a basis of $C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; R)$ if there are only finitely many n -cells, and any element of $C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ can then similarly be described as a linear combination of the φ_α^n with

coefficients in G . Formally, the latter remains true when there are infinitely-many n -cells, so long as we adopt a suitable interpretation of infinite sums of the form $\sum_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} g_\alpha \varphi_\alpha^n$, which have well-defined evaluations on $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; R)$ even if infinitely-many of the coefficients $g_\alpha \in G$ are nonzero. A more precise way to say this is that dualizing direct sums gives direct products, so in light of the isomorphism $\text{Hom}(R, G) \cong G$ defined by evaluation on the generator $1 \in R$, there are canonical isomorphisms

$$C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) = \text{Hom}(C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; R), G) = \text{Hom}\left(\bigoplus_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} R, G\right) \cong \prod_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} \text{Hom}(R, G) \cong \prod_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} G,$$

and $\sum_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} g_\alpha \varphi_\alpha^n \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ is to be interpreted as the element that corresponds canonically with $\{g_\alpha\} \in \prod_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} G$. With this understood, we shall abuse terminology by calling the elements φ_α^n a “basis” of $C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; R)$, and observe that the coboundary operator $\delta : C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) \rightarrow C_{\text{CW}}^{n+1}(X; G)$ is uniquely determined if we write down a formula for $\delta\varphi_\alpha^n \in C_{\text{CW}}^{n+1}(X; R)$ for each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$. For any $(n+1)$ -cell $e_\beta^{n+1} \subset X$, we have

$$(\delta\varphi_\alpha^n)(e_\beta^{n+1}) = (-1)^{n+1} \varphi_\alpha^n(\partial e_\beta^{n+1}) = (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{e_\gamma^n \subset e_\beta^{n+1}} \varphi_\alpha^n([e_\gamma^n : e_\beta^{n+1}]e_\gamma^n) = (-1)^{n+1} [e_\alpha^n : e_\beta^{n+1}],$$

thus the required formula is

$$\delta\varphi_\alpha^n = (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{e_\beta^{n+1} \subset X} [e_\alpha^n : e_\beta^{n+1}] \varphi_\beta^{n+1}.$$

As with homology, cellular cohomology provides a powerful tool for computing arbitrary axiomatic cohomology theories on spaces that have cell decompositions:

THEOREM 44.8. *For any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* with coefficient group G and every CW-pair (X, A) , there exist isomorphisms $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; G) \rightarrow h^n(X, A)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and they are natural in the sense that every cellular map $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ gives rise to a commutative diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; G) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h^n(X, A) \\ f^* \uparrow & & \uparrow f^* \\ H_{\text{CW}}^n(Y, B; G) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h^n(Y, B) \end{array}$$

For finite-dimensional complexes, this theorem can be proved in a way that closely parallels the corresponding argument for cellular homology carried out in Lectures 40. One starts by deriving from the axioms (in particular the correspondence $h^*(X, A) \cong \tilde{h}^*(X/A)$ for good pairs) a natural isomorphism

$$h^k(X^n, X^{n-1}) \cong \prod_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} h^k(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n)$$

for every k and n ; here the direct product takes on the role formerly played by the direct sum, due to its appearance in the cohomological version of the additivity axiom. One then uses the long exact sequence of $(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n)$ in cohomology to prove that the right hand side is zero for all $k \neq n$ but (since $h^n(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n) \cong \tilde{h}^{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong G$) is identical to the cellular n -cochain group $C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) \cong \prod_{e_\alpha^n \subset X} G$ when $k = n$. Putting $h^n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ for each $n \geq 0$ in the role of $C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$, one then assembles the long exact sequences of (X^{n+1}, X^n) and (X^n, X^{n-1}) into the

diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & & h^n(X^{n-1}) & \xlongequal{\quad} & 0 \\
 & & & & \uparrow & & \\
 0 & & & & & & \\
 \parallel & & & & & & \\
 h^{n+1}(X^n) & \leftarrow & h^{n+1}(X^{n+1}) & \xleftarrow{j_{n+1}^*} & h^{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n) & \xleftarrow{\delta_n^*} & h^n(X^n) \xleftarrow{i_n^*} h^n(X^{n+1}) \leftarrow h^n(X^{n+1}, X^n) \\
 & & & \nwarrow \gamma_n & \uparrow j_n^* & & \parallel \\
 & & & & h^n(X^n, X^{n-1}) & & 0 \\
 & & & & \uparrow \delta_{n-1}^* & & \\
 & & & & h^{n-1}(X^{n-1}) & &
 \end{array}$$

in which the diagonal arrow defines maps γ_n so that the sequence

$$h^0(X^0) \xrightarrow{\gamma_0} h^1(X^1, X^0) \xrightarrow{\gamma_1} h^2(X^2, X^1) \longrightarrow \dots$$

becomes a cochain complex. One can check that γ_n is equivalent to the cellular coboundary map $C_{CW}^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{\delta} C_{CW}^{n+1}(X; G)$ under the natural isomorphisms $h^n(X^n, X^{n+1}) \cong C_{CW}^n(X; G)$. The diagram then allows us to deduce that the map $i_n^* : h^n(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow h^n(X^n)$ is injective and j_n^* descends to an isomorphism

$$\ker \gamma_n / \operatorname{im} \gamma_{n-1} \xrightarrow{j_n^*} \operatorname{im} i_n^* \cong h^n(X^{n+1}) \cong h^n(X^{n+2}) \cong \dots,$$

thus giving an isomorphism $H_{CW}^n(X; G) \cong h^n(X)$ if $X = X^N$ for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large. To handle CW-pairs (X, A) with $A \neq \emptyset$, one carries out this same argument with $h^n(X^n, X^{n-1})$ replaced by $h^n(X^n \cup A, X^{n-1} \cup A)$, and the long exact sequence of (X^n, X^{n-1}) replaced by the sequence of the triple $(X^n \cup A, X^{n-1} \cup A, A)$.

44.5. Alexander-Spanier cohomology. We have not yet had occasion to mention any specific axiomatic homology or cohomology theories outside of the singular theory. Most of them have suffered in popularity since singular (co)homology became pre-eminent in the mid-twentieth century, but some are still used routinely in certain fields, especially the Čech theory, which we will discuss in the next lecture. We now give a brief description of the absolute version of another cohomology theory that is somewhat simpler to define.

For integers $n \geq 0$ and a fixed choice of R -module G , let $\bar{C}^n(X) = \bar{C}^n(X; G)$ denote the R -module of equivalence classes of functions

$$\varphi : X^{n+1} = \underbrace{X \times \dots \times X}_{n+1} \rightarrow G,$$

where we say $\varphi \sim \psi$ whenever φ and ψ are identical on some neighborhood of the **diagonal**

$$\Delta := \{(x, \dots, x) \in X^{n+1} \mid x \in X\}.$$

The addition operation and R -module structure of $\bar{C}^n(X)$ are defined pointwise, so e.g. for two equivalence classes $[\varphi], [\psi] \in \bar{C}^n(X)$, $[\varphi] + [\psi] \in \bar{C}^n(X)$ is represented by the function $\varphi + \psi : X^{n+1} \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$(\varphi + \psi)(x_0, \dots, x_n) := \varphi(x_0, \dots, x_n) + \psi(x_0, \dots, x_n).$$

You should take a moment to assure yourself that the equivalence class of $\varphi + \psi$ is independent of the choice of representatives $\varphi \in [\varphi]$ and $\psi \in [\psi]$. Note that since G is not assumed to have a topology, there is no continuity condition on the functions $X^{n+1} \rightarrow G$ representing elements of $\bar{C}^n(X)$.

Instead, $\bar{C}^n(X)$ detects the topology of X via the notion of “neighborhoods of $\Delta \subset X^{n+1}$ ” that is used to define the equivalence relation.

To make the collection of modules $\bar{C}^n(X)$ for $n \geq 0$ into a cochain complex, we associate to each function $\varphi : X^{n+1} \rightarrow G$ the function $\delta\varphi : X^{n+2} \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$(\delta\varphi)(x_0, \dots, x_{n+1}) := \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \varphi(x_0, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_{n+1}).$$

This defines a homomorphism from the module of $(n+1)$ -functions to the module of $(n+2)$ -functions such that $\delta^2 = 0$, and it preserves the submodule of functions that vanish near the diagonal, thus it descends to a coboundary homomorphism

$$\delta : \bar{C}^n(X) \rightarrow \bar{C}^{n+1}(X).$$

Extending this to all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by defining $\bar{C}^n(X) = 0$ for $n < 0$, we obtain a cochain complex $(\bar{C}^*(X), \delta)$, and its cohomology is the **Alexander-Spanier cohomology** of X with coefficients in G , denoted by

$$\bar{H}^n(X) = \bar{H}^n(X; G) := H^n(\bar{C}^*(X; G)), \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

It is not hard to give $\bar{H}^*$ the structure of a contravariant functor: given a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, one defines a chain map

$$f^* : \bar{C}^*(Y) \rightarrow \bar{C}^*(X) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \circ (f \times \dots \times f),$$

thus inducing homomorphisms $f^* : \bar{H}^*(Y) \rightarrow \bar{H}^*(X)$. With some more effort, one can also define relative groups $\bar{H}^*(X, A)$ and prove that $\bar{H}^*$ satisfies all of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for a cohomology theory. A good exposition of the details can be found e.g. in [Spa95, §6.4–6.5].

It is instructive to unpack more explicitly the conditions that define cocycles and coboundaries in $\bar{C}^0(X)$ and $\bar{C}^1(X)$. Elements $\varphi \in \bar{C}^0(X)$ are simply functions $\varphi : X \rightarrow G$; here the equivalence relation is trivial since the diagonal in $X^1 = X$ is the whole space. Acting on such a function with δ gives the equivalence class of functions $X \times X \rightarrow G$ represented by

$$(\delta\varphi)(x, y) = \varphi(y) - \varphi(x),$$

hence $\delta\varphi = 0 \in \bar{C}^1(X)$ means that $\varphi(y) = \varphi(x)$ for all $(x, y) \in X \times X$ in some neighborhood of the diagonal. In other words, the 0-cocycles in $\bar{C}^*(X)$ are precisely the *locally constant* functions $X \rightarrow G$, i.e. those which are constant on the connected components of X , and $\bar{H}^0(X; G)$ is therefore naturally isomorphic to the group of locally constant functions $X \rightarrow G$, or equivalently, the direct product of copies of G over the set of connected components of X . This, of course, often matches the description of the singular cohomology group $H^0(X; G)$ that we gave in Theorem 43.4, but not always: $\bar{H}^0(X)$ and $H^0(X)$ differ on spaces whose connected components and path-components do not match.

Elements of $\bar{C}^1(X)$ are represented by functions $\varphi : X \times X \rightarrow G$, and such a function represents a coboundary if and only if there exists a function $\psi : X \rightarrow G$ such that

$$\varphi(x, y) = \psi(y) - \psi(x)$$

for all $x, y \in X$ sufficiently close together, i.e. for $(x, y) \in X \times X$ in some neighborhood of the diagonal. More generally, φ represents a 1-cocycle if and only if it satisfies

$$(\delta\varphi)(x, y, z) = \varphi(y, z) - \varphi(x, z) + \varphi(x, y) = 0,$$

or equivalently

$$\varphi(x, z) = \varphi(x, y) + \varphi(y, z),$$

for all triples of points $x, y, z \in X$ that are sufficiently close to each other. Looking at special cases with $z = x$, this relation forces $\varphi(x, y)$ to be an antisymmetric function of x and y in some

neighborhood of the diagonal. I recommend thinking through the proof of the following result in order to gain some intuition on what this cocycle condition means, and what $\bar{H}^1(X)$ actually measures.

PROPOSITION 44.9. *For any path-connected space X and any choice of base point $p \in X$, there is a well-defined and injective homomorphism*

$$\bar{H}^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi(X, p), G) : [\varphi] \mapsto \Psi_{[\varphi]}$$

such that for any representative cocycle $\varphi \in \bar{C}^1(X; G)$ and loop $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ from p to itself, one can choose a sufficiently fine partition $0 =: t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{N-1} < t_N := 1$ of $[0, 1]$ to compute

$$\Psi_{[\varphi]}([\gamma]) = \sum_{j=1}^N \varphi(\gamma(t_j), \gamma(t_{j-1})).$$

The Alexander-Spanier theory $\bar{H}^*$ satisfies an “extra” axiom that singular cohomology does not, the so-called *continuity* axiom, which we will come back to in the next lecture since it involves inverse limits (cf. Theorem 45.25). For this reason, $\bar{H}^*$ is sometimes useful in applications that involves spaces which cannot be assumed to be as nice as CW-complexes.

REMARK 44.10. It is interesting to note that $\bar{C}^*(X; G)$ is not in any obvious way the dual complex of a chain complex, thus it is far from obvious at this stage what the definition of “Alexander-Spanier homology” might be. A corresponding homology theory was defined in an appendix of [Spa48], but its definition is much more complicated, requiring inverse limits, and as a result, it suffers from certain technical drawbacks that we will also see in the next lecture in the context of Čech homology, namely it fails in general to satisfy the exactness axiom.

44.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 44.1. Describe a cohomological version of the “braid” diagram (36.2) and use it to prove that for every triple of spaces (X, A, B) with $B \subset A \subset X$ and every axiomatic cohomology theory h^* , the maps induced by the inclusions $i : (A, B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$ and $j : (X, B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ fit into a long exact sequence

$$\dots \leftarrow h^{n+1}(X, A) \xleftarrow{\delta^*} h^n(A, B) \xleftarrow{i^*} h^n(X, B) \xleftarrow{j^*} h^n(X, A) \xleftarrow{\delta^*} h^{n-1}(A, B) \leftarrow \dots$$

Give also an alternative proof of this for singular cohomology using a short exact sequence of cochain complexes.

EXERCISE 44.2 (*). Adapt the proof of Theorem 29.24 to prove that for any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* and any space X , there is a natural isomorphism $\tilde{h}^n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma X)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

EXERCISE 44.3 (*). For any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* and two spaces X and Y with maps $\epsilon_X : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ and $\epsilon_Y : Y \rightarrow \{*\}$, show that the isomorphism $h^*(X \amalg Y) \cong h^*(X) \times h^*(Y)$ given by the additivity axiom identifies $\tilde{h}_*(X \amalg Y)$ with the cokernel of the map

$$(\epsilon_X^*, \epsilon_Y^*) : h^*(\{*\}) \rightarrow h^*(X) \times h^*(Y).$$

Then apply this in the case $X = Y = \{*\}$ to identify $\tilde{h}^0(\{*\} \amalg \{*\})$ with the cokernel of the diagonal map $G \rightarrow G \times G$, where $G = h^0(\{*\})$. Conclude in particular

$$\tilde{h}^n(S^0) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

EXERCISE 44.4 (*). Combine the previous two exercises to prove by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that for any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* with coefficient group G ,

$$h^k(S^n) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = 0 \text{ or } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

EXERCISE 44.5 (*). Adapt the proof of Theorem 37.6 to prove that for any axiomatic cohomology theory h^* and any good pair (X, A) , there is a natural isomorphism

$$h^*(X, A) \cong \tilde{h}^*(X/A).$$

EXERCISE 44.6. Adapt the diagram-chasing arguments in Lecture 36 to show that every axiomatic cohomology theory h^* admits a Mayer-Vietoris sequence under a suitable hypothesis on $X = A \cup B$, and that it also works if h^* is replaced by $\tilde{h}^*$.

EXERCISE 44.7 (*). Work out the further details of the proof of Theorem 44.8 for finite-dimensional CW-pairs.

EXERCISE 44.8. Prove Proposition 44.9, and show moreover that the map $\bar{H}^1(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_1(X, p), G)$ is an isomorphism if X is S^1 or $\mathbb{R}$.

45. Inverse limits, CW-complexes and Čech theory

As an initial goal in this lecture, we'd like to do for cohomology what was done for homology in Lecture 41: extend the isomorphism $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; G) \cong h^*(X, A)$ so that it also applies to infinite-dimensional CW-pairs (X, A) . This necessitates a quick introduction to inverse limits, and we will observe a peculiarity of inverse limits in comparison with direct limits that makes the discussion slightly more complicated than its homological counterpart. Having inverse limits in the picture also gives us an opportunity to sketch a first example of an axiomatic homology theory other than singular homology: we will give a brief overview of Čech homology, and see in the process that it fails for technical reasons to satisfy *all* of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms without substantial caveats. On the other hand, its cohomological counterpart does not have this drawback: Čech cohomology is a fully legitimate axiomatic cohomology theory, and is a popular tool in certain branches of mathematics, especially algebraic geometry.

45.1. Inverse systems, targets and limits. It is easy to see how inverse limits naturally arise in the context of cellular cohomology. For an infinite-dimensional CW-complex X , we saw in Lecture 41 that X is the direct limit of a direct system of topological spaces $\{X^n\}_{n=0}^\infty$, consisting of the finite-dimensional skeleta of X with their obvious inclusions. Applying any homology functor $h_k : \text{Top} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ to this system gives a direct system of R -modules $\{h_k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$, but something different happens if we instead apply a cohomology functor h^k , due to contravariance: we obtain a sequence of R -modules $\{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ together with the homomorphisms

$$h^k(X^n) \longrightarrow h^k(X^m) \quad \text{induced by inclusions} \quad X^m \hookrightarrow X^n.$$

The key detail here is that the maps $h^k(X^n) \rightarrow h^k(X^m)$ are defined whenever $n \geq m$ rather than $n \leq m$, thus $\{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ with these maps does not define a direct system over the directed set $(\mathbb{N}_0, \leq)$. It is instead an example of an inverse system, and therefore requires a different notion of limit.

DEFINITION 45.1. Given a category $\mathcal{C}$ and a directed set $(J, <)$, an **inverse system** (*projektives System*) $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$ associates to each $\alpha \in J$ an object X_α of $\mathcal{C}$, along with morphisms

$$\varphi_{\alpha\beta} \in \text{Hom}(X_\beta, X_\alpha) \quad \text{for each} \quad \alpha < \beta$$

such that

$$\varphi_{\alpha\alpha} = \text{Id}_{X_\alpha}$$

and the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X_\alpha & \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} & X_\beta & \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\beta\gamma}} & X_\gamma \\ & \searrow & & \swarrow & \\ & & \varphi_{\alpha\gamma} & & \end{array}$$

commutes for every triple $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$ with $\alpha < \beta < \gamma$.

REMARK 45.2. In terms of the category $\mathcal{J}$ corresponding to the directed set $(J, <)$ as in Remark 41.2, an inverse system in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$ is the same thing as a contravariant functor $\mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$.

Convergence of inverse systems is defined analogously to direct systems, the main difference being that most arrows go the other way.

DEFINITION 45.3. For an inverse system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ in $\mathcal{C}$ over $(J, <)$, a **target** $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ of the system consists of an object Y of $\mathcal{C}$ together with associated morphisms $f_\alpha \in \text{Hom}(Y, X_\alpha)$ for each $\alpha \in J$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} & X_\beta \\ f_\alpha \swarrow & & \searrow f_\beta \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

commutes for every pair $\alpha, \beta \in J$ with $\alpha < \beta$.

DEFINITION 45.4. A target $\{X_\infty, \varphi_\alpha\}$ of the inverse system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ is called an **inverse limit**⁷¹ (*projektiver Limes*) of the system and written as

$$X_\infty = \varprojlim \{X_\alpha\}$$

if it satisfies the following “universal” property: for all targets $\{Y, f_\alpha\}$ of $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$, there exists a unique morphism $f_\infty \in \text{Hom}(Y, X_\infty)$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xleftarrow{\varphi_\alpha} & X_\infty \\ f_\alpha \swarrow & & \uparrow f_\infty \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

commutes for every $\alpha \in J$.

The meaning of an inverse limit can be encoded in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} X_\alpha & \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} & X_\beta & \xleftarrow{\varphi_{\beta\gamma}} & X_\gamma & \xleftarrow{\quad} & \dots \xleftarrow{\quad} \varprojlim \{X_\alpha\} \\ & & & & & & \uparrow \text{dashed} \\ & & & & & & Y \end{array}$$

where we assume $\alpha < \beta < \gamma < \dots \in J$, and the defining feature of $\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is that the morphism indicated by the dashed arrow must exist and be unique whenever all the other morphisms in the diagram are given.

As with direct limits, there is no guarantee from these definitions that an inverse limit must exist, but for the categories we are most interested in, its existence can be established by describing it more concretely. One should not confuse the statement that an inverse limit exists with any

⁷¹Inverse limits are also sometimes called **projective limits**, and they constitute a special case of the general category-theoretical notion of **limits** (as opposed to *colimits*, cf. Exercise 41.8).

claim that it is nonempty—the empty set is also a topological space and can appear as the limit of an inverse system in **Top** (see Example 45.10 below).

The proofs of the following propositions are worthwhile exercises.

PROPOSITION 45.5. *If $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ is an inverse system in **Top** over $(J, <)$, then its inverse limit is the space*

$$\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\} = \left\{ \{x_\alpha\} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \mid x_\alpha = \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x_\beta) \text{ for all } \alpha, \beta \in J \text{ with } \alpha < \beta \right\},$$

with the associated morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : \varprojlim \{X_\beta\} \rightarrow X_\alpha$ defined via the natural projections $\prod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta \rightarrow X_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$. Moreover, the topology on $\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is the weakest for which the maps $\varphi_\alpha : \varprojlim \{X_\beta\} \rightarrow X_\alpha$ are all continuous. $\square$

REMARK 45.6. Proposition 45.5 extends in obvious ways to describe inverse limits in the categories **Set** of sets and **Top^{rel}** of pairs of spaces.

PROPOSITION 45.7. *Consider an inverse system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ in **Top** for which the spaces X_α are all subspaces of some fixed topological space X , $\beta > \alpha$ holds if and only if $X_\beta \subset X_\alpha$, and the maps $\varphi_{\alpha\beta} : X_\beta \rightarrow X_\alpha$ are all inclusions. Then $\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\} = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$, with the associated morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : \varprojlim \{X_\beta\} \rightarrow X_\alpha$ given by the obvious inclusions. $\square$*

REMARK 45.8. The obvious analogue of Proposition 45.7 involving direct limits and unions is only sometimes true, e.g. it works for viewing any CW-complex as the direct limit of its skeleta, but Exercise 41.7 shows an example in which the direct limit and the union are the same set with different topologies. In this sense, inverse systems in the category **Top** are somewhat better behaved than direct systems.

The following result about inverse limits of compact Hausdorff spaces is a consequence of Tychonoff's theorem (see Exercise 45.3):

PROPOSITION 45.9. *For any inverse system $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ of topological spaces such that every X_α is nonempty, compact and Hausdorff, $\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\} \neq \emptyset$. $\square$*

EXAMPLE 45.10. Combining the previous two propositions produces the well-known fact that in any Hausdorff space, the intersection of any collection of nonempty compact subsets that all have nonempty pairwise intersections is nonempty. It is easy to see that the compactness condition cannot be dropped from this statement: for instance, taking the collection of intervals $\{(0, 1/n]\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as an inverse system in the sense of Proposition 45.7, the inverse limit is

$$\varprojlim \{(0, 1/n]\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (0, 1/n] = \emptyset.$$

PROPOSITION 45.11. *If $\{G_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ is an inverse system in **R-Mod** over $(J, <)$, its inverse limit is a module of the form*

$$\varprojlim \{G_\alpha\} = \left\{ \{g_\alpha\} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \mid g_\alpha = \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(g_\beta) \text{ for all } \alpha, \beta \in J \text{ with } \alpha < \beta \right\},$$

with the associated homomorphisms $\varphi_\alpha : \varprojlim \{G_\beta\} \rightarrow G_\alpha$ defined via the projections $\prod_{\beta \in J} G_\beta \rightarrow G_\alpha$ all $\alpha \in J$. $\square$

REMARK 45.12. There is an obvious analogue of Proposition 45.11 for inverse systems in the category **Ch** = **Ch(R-Mod)** of chain complexes of R -modules.

For the following result, we say that a subset $J_0 \subset J$ of a directed set $(J, <)$ is **cofinal** if for every $\alpha \in J$ there exists some $\beta \in J_0$ such that $\beta > \alpha$.

PROPOSITION 45.13. Assume $\{X_\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ is an inverse system over $(J, <)$ in any category, and suppose $J_0 \subset J$ is a cofinal set with the property that for every $\alpha, \beta \in J_0$ with $\alpha < \beta$, $\varphi_{\alpha\beta} \in \text{Hom}(X_\beta, X_\alpha)$ is an isomorphism. Then $\varprojlim \{X_\alpha\}$ is isomorphic to X_γ for any $\gamma \in J_0$. $\square$

45.2. Exactness and the derived inverse limit functor. I want to point out a technical issue that sometimes makes inverse limits in the category of R -modules a bit trickier to deal with than direct limits.

The following pleasant feature of direct limits in $R\text{-Mod}$ was observed in Proposition 41.21: for a direct system of chain complexes, the homology of the direct limit is naturally isomorphic to the direct limit of the homologies. This was used in §41.4 to give a direct proof that

$$H_*(X) \cong H_*(\varinjlim \{X^n\}) \cong \varinjlim \{H_*(X^n)\} \cong \varinjlim \{H_*^{\text{CW}}(X^n)\} \cong H_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$$

for the direct system $\{X^n\}$ consisting of the finite-dimensional skeleta of a CW-complex X . If you try to prove the analogous result about inverse limits of chain complexes, you'll find that you get stuck: homology and inverse limits are two functors that, in general, do not commute with each other.

The problem can be distilled to a special case involving chain complexes with trivial homology, i.e. exact sequences. Consider first a direct system $\{A_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ of R -modules given in the form of a sequence

$$A_0 \xrightarrow{\phi_0} A_1 \xrightarrow{\phi_1} A_2 \xrightarrow{\phi_2} \dots$$

By Proposition 41.14, the direct limit of $\{A_n\}$ can be expressed as the cokernel of the homomorphism

$$(45.1) \quad \Phi := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ -\phi_0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & -\phi_1 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & -\phi_2 & 1 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\phi_3 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} : \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty A_n \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{n=0}^\infty A_n.$$

In the mapping telescope discussion in §41.3, we made use of the fact that Φ is always injective, because its kernel appeared in an exact sequence, thus giving rise to an isomorphism between its cokernel (i.e. a direct limit) and the homology of the mapping torus.

Here is another way in which the injectivity of Φ is useful. Suppose we have a short exact sequence of sequences $0 \rightarrow \{A_n\} \xrightarrow{f} \{B_n\} \xrightarrow{g} \{C_n\} \rightarrow 0$, meaning a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_0 & \xrightarrow{f_0} & B_0 & \xrightarrow{g_0} & C_0 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \phi_0 & & \downarrow \psi_0 & & \downarrow \theta_0 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_1 & \xrightarrow{f_1} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{g_1} & C_1 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \phi_1 & & \downarrow \psi_1 & & \downarrow \theta_1 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_2 & \xrightarrow{f_2} & B_2 & \xrightarrow{g_2} & C_2 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \phi_2 & & \downarrow \psi_2 & & \downarrow \theta_2 \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & \varinjlim \{A_n\} & \xrightarrow{f} & \varinjlim \{B_n\} & \xrightarrow{g} & \varinjlim \{C_n\} \end{array}$$

in which all the rows are exact, except possibly the bottom row, containing the direct limits. Note that the maps $f : \varinjlim \{A_n\} \rightarrow \varinjlim \{B_n\}$ and $g : \varinjlim \{B_n\} \rightarrow \varinjlim \{C_n\}$ are uniquely determined by the commutativity of this diagram, due to the universal property of direct limits, e.g. the diagram makes $\varinjlim \{B_n\}$ a target of $\{A_n\}$ and thus determines uniquely a map $\varinjlim \{A_n\} \rightarrow \varinjlim \{B_n\}$. If you like Proposition 41.21, then you can apply it here—we have a special case involving chain complexes with trivial homology—and the conclusion will be that the bottom row of the this diagram must in fact form a short exact sequence

$$(45.2) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \varinjlim \{A_n\} \xrightarrow{f} \varinjlim \{B_n\} \xrightarrow{g} \varinjlim \{C_n\} \longrightarrow 0.$$

But without using Proposition 41.21, we can also see this as follows. The three direct limits can be expressed as cokernels of injective homomorphisms

$$\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \xrightarrow{\Phi} \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n, \quad \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \xrightarrow{\Psi} \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n, \quad \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n \xrightarrow{\Theta} \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n,$$

defined as in (45.1), and the commutativity of the diagram implies that the following diagram also commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \bigoplus_n A_n & \xrightarrow{\oplus_n f_n} & \bigoplus_n B_n & \xrightarrow{\oplus_n g_n} & \bigoplus_n C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \Phi & & \downarrow \Psi & & \downarrow \Theta \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \bigoplus_n A_n & \xrightarrow{\oplus_n f_n} & \bigoplus_n B_n & \xrightarrow{\oplus_n g_n} & \bigoplus_n C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \end{array}$$

Here the rows are all short exact sequences, and extra rows of trivial modules have been added so that we can view each column in a trivial way as a chain complex, i.e. the diagram is a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Applying Proposition 34.9 then gives a long exact sequence that is not actually very long, since most of its terms are trivial: *a priori*, the only terms that can be nontrivial are

$$(45.3) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \ker \Phi \xrightarrow{f} \ker \Psi \xrightarrow{g} \ker \Theta \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} \Phi \xrightarrow{f} \operatorname{coker} \Psi \xrightarrow{g} \operatorname{coker} \Theta \longrightarrow 0,$$

where the map $\ker \Theta \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \Phi$ is a connecting homomorphism arising from Proposition 34.9, and all other maps are determined by f_n and g_n in obvious ways. Using the knowledge that Φ , Ψ and Θ are actually injective, and identifying their cokernels with direct limits, the conclusion is precisely the short exact sequence written in (45.2).

So what happens if we try to do the same trick with inverse limits? For an inverse system of the form

$$A_0 \xleftarrow{\phi_1} A_1 \xleftarrow{\phi_2} A_2 \xleftarrow{\phi_3} \dots,$$

the inverse limit of $\{A_n\}$ is identified via Proposition 45.11 with the kernel of the homomorphism

$$(45.4) \quad \Phi := \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & -\phi_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} & -\phi_2 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & \mathbb{1} & -\phi_3 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbb{1} & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} : \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \longrightarrow \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n.$$

You will find if you investigate it that the map Φ cannot be assumed surjective in general, and we shall therefore give its cokernel a name,

$$\varprojlim^1 \{A_n\} := \text{coker } \Phi.$$

Now suppose we have a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_0 & \xrightarrow{f_0} & B_0 & \xrightarrow{g_0} & C_0 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow \phi_1 & & \uparrow \psi_1 & & \uparrow \theta_1 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_1 & \xrightarrow{f_1} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{g_1} & C_1 \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow \phi_2 & & \uparrow \psi_2 & & \uparrow \theta_2 \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A_2 & \xrightarrow{f_2} & B_2 & \xrightarrow{g_2} & C_2 \longrightarrow 0, \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \varprojlim \{A_n\} & \xrightarrow{f} & \varprojlim \{B_n\} & \xrightarrow{g} & \varinjlim \{C_n\} \end{array}$$

in which the maps on the bottom row are again uniquely determined by the universal property, and every row except that one is assumed exact. Identifying the three inverse limits with the kernels of maps

$$\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n \xrightarrow{\Phi} \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} A_n, \quad \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \xrightarrow{\Psi} \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n, \quad \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n \xrightarrow{\Theta} \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$$

defined as in (45.4), we can produce from this a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & \prod_n A_n & \xrightarrow{\prod_n f_n} & \prod_n B_n & \xrightarrow{\prod_n g_n} & \prod_n C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & \downarrow \Phi & & \downarrow \Psi & & \downarrow \Theta & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & \prod_n A_n & \xrightarrow{\prod_n f_n} & \prod_n B_n & \xrightarrow{\prod_n g_n} & \prod_n C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots &
 \end{array}$$

resulting in a long exact sequence of the same form as in (45.3), which can be rewritten as

$$0 \longrightarrow \varprojlim \{A_n\} \xrightarrow{f} \varprojlim \{B_n\} \xrightarrow{g} \varprojlim \{C_n\} \longrightarrow \varprojlim^1 \{A_n\} \xrightarrow{f} \varprojlim^1 \{B_n\} \xrightarrow{g} \varprojlim^1 \{C_n\} \longrightarrow 0.$$

The bad news we derive from this discussion is that taking the inverse limit of an inverse system of short exact sequences $0 \rightarrow \{A_n\} \rightarrow \{B_n\} \rightarrow \{C_n\} \rightarrow 0$ does not automatically produce a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \varprojlim \{A_n\} \rightarrow \varprojlim \{B_n\} \rightarrow \varprojlim \{C_n\} \rightarrow 0$. Exactness can fail in particular at the rightmost nontrivial term $\varprojlim \{C_n\}$, and its failure is measured by the term $\varprojlim^1 \{A_n\}$, which depends only on the first inverse system in the sequence. For this reason and others, it is useful to be able to recognize circumstances in which $\varprojlim^1 \{A_n\}$ vanishes; here is one that will be relevant for the discussion of CW-complexes:

LEMMA 45.14. *Suppose $A_0 \xleftarrow{\phi_1} A_1 \xleftarrow{\phi_2} A_2 \xleftarrow{\phi_3} \dots$ is an inverse system of R -modules such that for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, the maps ϕ_n are isomorphisms for all $n \geq N$. Then $\varprojlim^1 \{A_n\} = 0$.*

PROOF. One needs to show that the map $\Phi : \prod_n A_n \rightarrow \prod_n A_n$ in (45.4) is surjective, i.e. that given any $\{b_n\} \in \prod_n A_n$, the equations $a_n - \phi_{n+1}(a_{n+1}) = b_n$ can be solved for $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$. In fact, there exists a unique solution satisfying $a_N = b_N$, which can be found by solving the equations for $n > N$ and $n < N$ recursively; the cases with $n > N$ require the assumption that ϕ_n is invertible. $\square$

We've touched in this section upon a few subjects that are large topics in homological algebra: the fact that direct limits of exact sequences are exact gets summarized by saying that $\varinjlim$ is an *exact functor*, whereas the functor $\varprojlim$ is only *left-exact*, and its failure to be exact is measured via the *derived functor* $\varprojlim^1$. These notions will appear again in a slightly different context when we study the universal coefficient theorem.

45.3. Cohomology of the mapping telescope. With the subtle aspects of $\varprojlim$ and $\varprojlim^1$ out of the way, we can now quickly finish the proof that $H_{CW}^*(X; G) \cong h^*(X)$ for infinite-dimensional CW-complexes and axiomatic cohomology theories with coefficient group G .

As in §41.3, we start by forming the mapping telescope T of the sequence

$$X^0 \hookrightarrow X^1 \hookrightarrow X^2 \hookrightarrow \dots,$$

which is also the mapping torus of a map $f : \coprod_{n=0}^{\infty} X^n \rightarrow \coprod_{n=0}^{\infty} X^n$. There is a cohomological version of the exact sequence of mapping tori discussed in Lecture 37, and in the present setting, it produces a long exact sequence of the form

$$h^{k-1}\left(\coprod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi_{k-1}} h^{k-1}\left(\coprod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \longrightarrow h^k(T) \longrightarrow h^k\left(\coprod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right) \xrightarrow{\Phi_k} h^k\left(\coprod_{n \geq 0} X^n\right),$$

with $\Phi_k := 1 - f^*$. The usual algebraic trick turns this into a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker}(\Phi_{k-1}) \longrightarrow h^k(T) \longrightarrow \ker(\Phi_k) \longrightarrow 0,$$

and using the additivity axiom to identify $h^*(\coprod_n X^n)$ with $\prod_n h^*(X^n)$ puts Φ_k in precisely the form considered in the previous subsection, giving natural isomorphisms

$$\ker \Phi_k \cong \varprojlim \{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}, \quad \operatorname{coker} \Phi_k \cong \varprojlim^1 \{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}.$$

Our short exact sequence can thus be written as

$$0 \longrightarrow \varprojlim^1 \{h^{k-1}(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \longrightarrow h^k(T) \longrightarrow \varprojlim \{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \longrightarrow 0.$$

If we had no further information about the sequence $X^0 \hookrightarrow X^1 \hookrightarrow X^2 \hookrightarrow \dots$, then we would not be able to say now that we have computed the cohomology of its mapping telescope; a short exact sequence with $h^k(T)$ at the center is typically a weaker result than a full computation of $h^k(T)$. But we do have more information, because just as in the homological case, the vanishing of $h^k(X^n, X^{n-1})$ for $k \neq n$ implies that the maps $h^k(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow h^k(X^n)$ induced by inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X^{n+1}$ are isomorphisms for all $n > k$. Lemma 45.14 therefore implies

$$\varprojlim^1 \{h^{k-1}(X^n)\} = 0,$$

and we therefore have a natural isomorphism

$$h^k(T) \cong \varprojlim \{h^k(X^n)\}.$$

The rest of the story is the same as in §41.3: the mapping telescope T is a deformation retract of $X \times [0, \infty)$, giving rise to natural isomorphisms

$$h^k(X) \cong h^k(X \times [0, \infty)) \cong h^k(T) \cong \varprojlim \{h^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \cong \varprojlim \{H_{\text{CW}}^k(X^n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \cong H_{\text{CW}}^k(X).$$

45.4. Čech homology and cohomology. Now that we have inverse limits, we can describe another axiomatic homology theory besides the singular theory. The caveat is that it doesn't quite work: the failure of $\varprojlim$ to preserve exactness of sequences prevents the theory sketched below from satisfying the exactness axiom without some restrictions. On the other hand, its cohomological variant depends on direct limits instead of inverse limits, and consequently does not have this drawback.

The idea behind Čech homology is to measure the topology of a space X in terms of the combinatorial data formed by the overlaps of open sets in an arbitrarily fine open covering of X . The starting point is the observation that for any given open covering, the overlaps can be encoded in the form of an abstract simplicial complex.

For a space X , let $\mathcal{O}(X)$ denote the set of open coverings of X , so each element $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ is a set whose elements are open subsets of X with the property that

$$\bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}} \mathcal{U} = X.$$

Similarly, for any pair of spaces (X, A) , we define $\mathcal{O}(X, A)$ to be the set of all pairs $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$ such that

$$\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X), \quad \mathfrak{U}_A \subset \mathfrak{U} \quad \text{and} \quad A \subset \bigcup_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}_A} \mathcal{U}.$$

DEFINITION 45.15. For each open covering $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ of a space X , the **nerve** of $\mathfrak{U}$ is the simplicial complex $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ whose set of vertices is $\mathfrak{U}$, and whose simplices are the finite subsets $\sigma \subset \mathfrak{U}$ such that

$$\bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \in \sigma} \mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset.$$

More generally, for each pair of spaces (X, A) and $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$, the **nerve** of $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$ is the simplicial pair

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) := (\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}), \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)),$$

where $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A) \subset \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ denotes the subcomplex whose set of vertices is $\mathfrak{U}_A$, and whose simplices are the finite subsets $\sigma \subset \mathfrak{U}_A$ such that

$$A \cap \bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \in \sigma} \mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset.$$

You should take a moment to contemplate why $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ satisfies all the conditions of a simplicial complex, with $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)$ as a subcomplex; in particular, every subset of a simplex is also a simplex since the condition $\bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \in \sigma} \mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$ clearly remains true after deleting some sets from the collection in σ . Notice also that $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)$ is the nerve of the open covering of A formed by the sets $\{\mathcal{U} \cap A\}_{\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}_A}$. The Čech homology theory will be defined in terms of the (ordered) *simplicial* homology of the nerves $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$ of open coverings of (X, A) , denoted by

$$H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)) = H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}), \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) = H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}), \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A); G).$$

Here we are fixing an arbitrary choice of R -module G to be used for coefficients in simplicial homology, and it will then also serve as the coefficient group of Čech homology. As usual, G will be omitted from the notation whenever nothing important depends on this choice.

Figure 37 shows some examples of open coverings $\mathfrak{U}$ of S^1 and the polyhedra $|\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})|$ that arise from their nerves. We see that in one case, $|\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})|$ is homeomorphic to S^1 ; this is not a coincidence, and we'll come back to it shortly. In general, however, $|\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})|$ need not be homeomorphic, nor even homotopy equivalent, to the space that is being covered, and in fact, the nerve of an open covering of X can easily be an infinite-dimensional simplicial complex, even when X is something as tame as a compact polyhedron. Thus we clearly cannot hope in general to use the nerve of a single covering of X in order to define a topological invariant of X . What seems more promising, however, is to consider an open covering together with all of its possible refinements.

A **refinement** of an open covering $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ is another open covering $\mathfrak{U}' \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ such that every $\mathcal{U}' \in \mathfrak{U}'$ is a subset of some $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$. For pairs (X, A) , we say similarly that a refinement of $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ is an element $(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ such that $\mathfrak{U}'$ is a refinement of $\mathfrak{U}$ and $\mathfrak{U}'_A$ is a refinement of $\mathfrak{U}_A$. The definition means that there exists a function

$$F : \mathfrak{U}' \rightarrow \mathfrak{U}, \quad F(\mathcal{U}'_A) \subset \mathfrak{U}_A$$

such that for every $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}'$, $\mathcal{U} \subset F(\mathcal{U})$. It follows that if $\sigma \subset \mathfrak{U}'$ is a simplex of $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}')$, then

$$\bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \in \sigma} F(\mathcal{U}) \supset \bigcap_{\mathcal{U} \in \sigma} \mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset,$$

hence $F(\sigma) \subset \mathfrak{U}$ is a simplex of $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$, and similarly, F maps simplices of $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}'_A)$ to simplices of $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)$. In other words, F is a simplicial map from $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}')$ to $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$, and in the relative case, a map of simplicial pairs:

$$F : \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A).$$

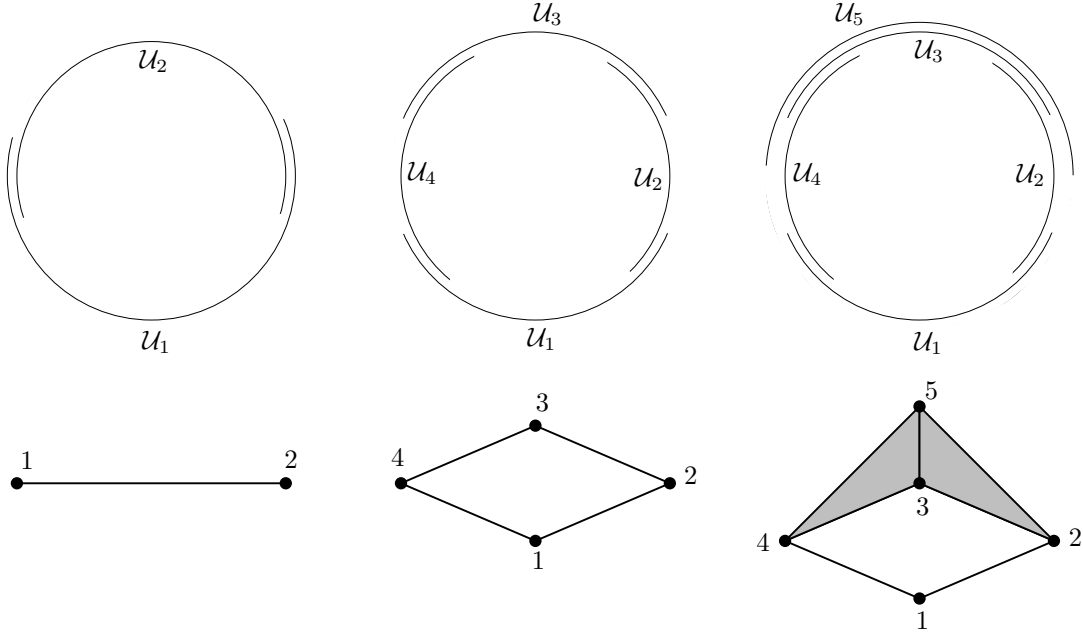


FIGURE 37. Three examples of open coverings of S^1 and their nerves, with vertices labeled $k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ in correspondence with the open sets $\mathcal{U}_k \subset S^1$. The rightmost example includes two 2-simplices in addition to vertices and 1-simplices.

It therefore induces a chain map between the corresponding ordered simplicial chain complexes

$$(45.5) \quad F_* : C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A)) \rightarrow C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)).$$

One obvious concern in this discussion is that F is not uniquely determined by the refinement, i.e. for each $\mathcal{U}' \in \mathfrak{U}'$, there may be more than one $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$ containing $\mathcal{U}'$. But the following result gives an enormous hint as to what we should do next:

PROPOSITION 45.16 ([ES52, Corollary IX.2.14]). *Given an open covering $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ and a refinement $(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A)$ of $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$, the chain homotopy class of the induced chain map (45.5) on ordered simplicial chain complexes is independent of choices.* $\square$

It follows that we can associate to any refinement $\beta := (\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ of an open covering $\alpha := (\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ a natural homomorphism of simplicial homology groups

$$\varphi_{\alpha\beta} : H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\beta)) \rightarrow H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\alpha)).$$

One can view this as defining an inverse system: indeed, let us define a pre-order on $\mathcal{O}(X, A)$ by writing

$$\beta > \alpha$$

whenever β is a refinement of α . (Note that it is not a partial order, as two open coverings can easily be refinements of each other without being identical.) Since any two open coverings have a common refinement, this makes $(\mathcal{O}(X, A), <)$ a directed set, and the result above associates homomorphisms $\varphi_{\alpha\beta}$ of homology groups in each degree to any pair $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ with $\beta > \alpha$.

DEFINITION 45.17. The **Čech homology** of a pair of spaces (X, A) with coefficients in an R -module G is defined as the collection of R -modules

$$\check{H}_n(X, A) = \check{H}_n(X, A; G) := \varprojlim \{H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G)\}_{(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

It is slightly harder than for singular homology to see why this should define a collection of functors $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, but still not so hard. The main point is that whenever $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is a continuous map of pairs and $\alpha = (\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(Y, B)$ is an open covering of (Y, B) , there is an induced open covering $f^*\alpha \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ of (X, A) consisting of the subsets $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ for $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$, and whenever $\beta \in \mathcal{O}(Y, B)$ is a refinement of α , $f^*\beta \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ is clearly also a refinement of $f^*\alpha$. The obvious correspondence between the open sets in $f^*\alpha$ and those in α then defines a simplicial map $\mathcal{N}(f^*\alpha) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\alpha)$, giving a homomorphism

$$f_* : H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(f^*\alpha)) \rightarrow H_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\alpha))$$

for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}(Y, B)$. Using the universal property of the inverse limit, one can derive from this a morphism

$$f_* : \check{H}_*(X, A) \rightarrow \check{H}_*(Y, B)$$

between the corresponding inverse limits, and prove that it satisfies the usual conditions for $\check{H}_*$ to be a functor. This implies in particular that homeomorphic pairs have the same Čech homology.

What is probably harder to see at this stage is why one should ever expect $\check{H}_*(X, A)$ to be isomorphic to the singular homology $H_*(X, A)$. To this end, consider the case where X is the polyhedron of a finite simplicial complex $K = (V, S)$. We saw in Lecture 32.5 the notion of the *open star* of a vertex v in K , which defines an open set

$$\text{st } v \subset X$$

containing all points that lie in simplices that have v as a vertex (see Figure 38). These sets define a distinguished open covering of X ,

$$\mathfrak{U}_K := \{\text{st } v \mid v \in V\},$$

and recall that for any finite collection of vertices $v_0, \dots, v_n \in V$, we have

$$\bigcap_{k=0}^n \text{st } v_k \neq \emptyset \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \in S.$$

In other words, the nerve of $\mathfrak{U}_K$ is naturally isomorphic to the complex K itself. Now if $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ is another open covering, since X is compact, we can always find a refinement of $\mathfrak{U}$ in the form $\mathfrak{U}_{K'}$, by applying barycentric subdivision to the simplices of K enough times, producing a new simplicial complex K' with more and smaller simplices but a homeomorphic polyhedron $|K'| = X$, and since barycentric subdivision induces chain homotopy equivalences, the induced map

$$H_*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_{K'})) \rightarrow H_*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_K))$$

resulting from the fact that $\mathfrak{U}_{K'} > \mathfrak{U}_K$ is always an isomorphism. In other words, the open coverings that arise from successive barycentric subdivisions of K form a *cofinal set* in $\mathcal{O}(X)$ that satisfies the hypotheses of Proposition 45.13, and thus provides enough information to compute the inverse limit. The result is:

THEOREM 45.18. *For any compact polyhedron $X = |K|$ with underlying simplicial complex K , $\check{H}_*(X; G) \cong H_*^o(K; G)$ for every choice of coefficients G .* $\square$

Since $H_*^o(K; G) \cong H_*^\Delta(K; G) \cong H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \cong H_*(X; G)$, it follows in particular that Čech homology is isomorphic to singular homology on compact polyhedra. Notice, by the way, that this implies yet another new proof that simplicial homology is independent of the triangulation of

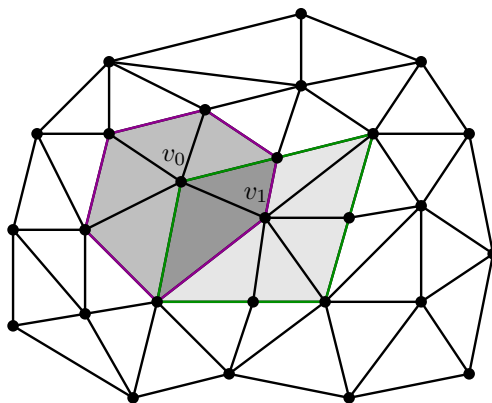


FIGURE 38. The open stars of two neighboring vertices v_0 and v_1 in a simplicial complex.

a compact polyhedron, with no need to pass through any axiomatic homology theory—it follows now from the fact Čech homology is a topological invariant.

It is not *always* true however that $\check{H}_*(X) \cong H_*(X)$.

LEMMA 45.19. *If X is a connected space, then for every open covering $\mathfrak{U}$ of X , the nerve $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ is connected.*

PROOF. If $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ is not connected then it can be decomposed as a disjoint union of two nonempty subcomplexes $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}) \cong K_0 \amalg K_1$. Let $X_0 \subset X$ denote the union of all the sets $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$ that are vertices of K_0 , and define $X_1 \subset X$ similarly via K_1 . Then both are nonempty open sets, their union is X , and they are disjoint, since otherwise $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ would have to contain a 1-simplex with one vertex in K_0 and one in K_1 . This proves that X is not connected. $\square$

THEOREM 45.20. *For any connected space X and any choice of coefficients G , $\check{H}_0(X; G) \cong G$.*

PROOF. Lemma 45.19 implies that for every $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$, $H_0^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G) \cong H_0^\Delta(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G) \cong G$. It is similarly easy to show that the canonical map $H_0^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}'); G) \rightarrow H_0^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G)$ for any refinement $\mathfrak{U}'$ of $\mathfrak{U}$ is an isomorphism, and that the inverse limit is therefore isomorphic to G . $\square$

This result is different in general from singular homology in degree 0, which splits over a direct sum of the *path-components* (not connected components) of each space. So, for instance, Figure 36 in Lecture 42 shows an example of compact space $X \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with

$$H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^3 \quad \text{but} \quad \check{H}_0(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

Needless to say, that space is not a CW-complex, and one should expect better results in general for CW-complexes, as we saw with polyhedra in Theorem 45.18. At least $\check{H}_*$ and H_* will match on all CW-pairs if they have the same coefficient group and $\check{H}_*(\cdot; G)$ satisfies the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. So does it? The answer is a bit surprising.

THEOREM 45.21. *For every choice of coefficient module G , the functors $\check{H}_n(\cdot; G) : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ satisfy all of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms except for exactness, but they do not satisfy exactness in general.*

An actual counterexample to the exactness axiom is explained in [ES52, §X.4]. It would take at least a few lectures to either explain that counterexample or prove that the rest of the axioms are satisfied, so we'll mostly skip it since this discussion of Čech theory is only meant to be a brief

digression away from the main topic of the course. But it's worth taking a closer look at how one would naturally try to prove the exactness axiom, and why it fails in general. It also succeeds in some cases, so the negative statement in Theorem 45.21 is not the end of the story.

The problem with the exactness axiom results from the failure of inverse limits to preserve exactness of sequences. If (X, A) is a pair of spaces and $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$, then $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A) \subset \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ is a subcomplex and the short exact sequence of ordered simplicial chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) \longrightarrow C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})) \longrightarrow C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)) = C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}), \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) \longrightarrow 0$$

gives rise to a long exact sequence of simplicial homology groups

$$(45.6) \quad \dots \rightarrow H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) \rightarrow H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})) \rightarrow H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) \rightarrow \dots$$

If $(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)$ is a refinement of $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$, it is not hard to show that the canonical maps in the inverse systems fit together with the long exact sequences for these two pairs into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})) & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}_A)) \rightarrow \dots \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \dots & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}'_A)) & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}')) & \rightarrow & H_n^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A)) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}'_A)) \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

The universal property uniquely determines from this data a sequence

$$(45.7) \quad \dots \rightarrow \check{H}_n(A) \rightarrow \check{H}_n(X) \rightarrow \check{H}_n(X, A) \rightarrow \check{H}_{n-1}(A) \rightarrow \dots,$$

but it need not be exact in general. The following concrete example shows that, at least algebraically, this danger is real:

EXAMPLE 45.22. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, denote by $0 \rightarrow A_n \rightarrow B_n \rightarrow C_n \rightarrow 0$ the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0$, and define homomorphisms $\varphi_{n-1, n}$ for each $n \geq 2$ by

$$A_n \xrightarrow{\cdot 3} A_{n-1}, \quad B_n \xrightarrow{\cdot 3} B_{n-1}, \quad C_n \xrightarrow{1} C_{n-1}.$$

Then the resulting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & A_1 & \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} & C_1 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \uparrow & & \cdot 3 \uparrow & & \cdot 3 \uparrow & & 1 \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & A_2 & \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} & B_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} & C_2 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \uparrow & & \cdot 3 \uparrow & & \cdot 3 \uparrow & & 1 \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & A_3 & \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} & B_3 & \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} & C_3 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \end{array}$$

commutes. By Proposition 45.11, the inverse limits of the individual columns are as follows: first,

$$\varprojlim \{A_n\} = \left\{ (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z} \mid a_{n-1} = 3a_n \text{ for all } n \geq 2 \right\} = 0,$$

and $\varprojlim \{B_n\}$ similarly vanishes since no integer is divisible by arbitrarily large powers of 3. On the other hand,

$$\varprojlim \{C_n\} = \left\{ (c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots) \in \prod_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathbb{Z}_2 \mid c_{n-1} = c_n \text{ for all } n \geq 2 \right\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2,$$

so the resulting sequence of inverse limits is of the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots,$$

which is not an exact sequence.

In general, suppose we are given an inverse system of chain complexes $\{C_*^\alpha, \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ indexed by α in some directed set $(J, <)$, so we have a commuting diagram for every $\beta > \alpha$ in the form

$$(45.8) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}^\alpha & \xrightarrow{\partial^\alpha} & C_n^\alpha & \xrightarrow{\partial^\alpha} & C_{n-1}^\alpha \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \varphi_{\alpha\beta} \uparrow & & \varphi_{\alpha\beta} \uparrow & & \varphi_{\alpha\beta} \uparrow \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & C_{n+1}^\beta & \xrightarrow{\partial^\beta} & C_n^\beta & \xrightarrow{\partial^\beta} & C_{n-1}^\beta \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

and assume moreover that the rows of these diagrams are always exact. By Proposition 45.11 and Remark 45.12, the inverse limit is a chain complex

$$C_*^\infty := \varprojlim \{C_*^\alpha\} = \left\{ \{x_\alpha\} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} C_*^\alpha \mid \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x_\beta) = x_\alpha \text{ for all } \beta > \alpha \right\},$$

where the chain complex boundary map can be written as

$$\partial^\infty := \prod_{\alpha \in J} \partial^\alpha \Big|_{C_*^\infty} : C_*^\infty \rightarrow C_*^\infty,$$

the restriction to the submodule $C_*^\infty \subset \prod_{\alpha} C_*^\alpha$ being well defined since $\varphi_{\alpha\beta}(\partial^\beta x_\beta) = \partial^\alpha \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x_\beta) = \partial^\alpha x_\alpha$ for all $\beta > \alpha$ and $x_\beta \in C_*^\beta$. Given $x = \{x_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J} \in C_n^\infty$ with $\partial^\infty \{x_\alpha\} = 0$, we have $\partial^\alpha x_\alpha = 0$ for all $\alpha \in J$, and the exactness of the rows in (45.8) then implies $x_\alpha = \partial^\alpha y_\alpha$ for some $y_\alpha \in C_{n+1}^\alpha$. We can now observe a concrete reason why the exactness of $\dots \rightarrow C_{n+1}^\alpha \rightarrow C_n^\alpha \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\alpha \rightarrow \dots$ for every α might fail to imply the exactness of $\dots \rightarrow C_{n+1}^\infty \rightarrow C_n^\infty \rightarrow C_{n-1}^\infty \rightarrow \dots$: the trouble is that the elements y_α are not generally unique, and if they are chosen arbitrarily, then they need not satisfy

$$(45.9) \quad \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(y_\beta) = y_\alpha \quad \text{for all } \beta > \alpha,$$

without which $\{y_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ will not be an element of C_{n+1}^∞ .

To get a firmer handle on this problem, define for each $\alpha \in J$ the nonempty subset

$$K_\alpha := (\partial^\alpha)^{-1}(x_\alpha) \subset C_{n+1}^\alpha.$$

The chain map relation and the condition $\varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x_\beta) = x_\alpha$ then imply

$$\varphi_{\alpha\beta}(K_\beta) \subset K_\alpha \quad \text{for all } \beta > \alpha,$$

which makes the collection of sets $\{K_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with maps $K_\beta \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\alpha\beta}} K_\alpha$ into an inverse system in **Set** over $(J, <)$. By Proposition 45.5 and Remark 45.6, $\varprojlim \{K_\alpha\}$ is then the set of all elements $\{y_\alpha\} \in \prod_{\alpha \in J} K_\alpha$ such that (45.9) is satisfied, in which case we then have $\{y_\alpha\} \in C_{n+1}^\infty$ with $\partial^\infty \{y_\alpha\} = \{x_\alpha\}$. The essential question thus boils down to this:

Is $\varprojlim \{K_\alpha\}$ nonempty?

Example 45.22 implies that the answer must sometimes be no, and indeed, we know from Example 45.10 that an inverse limit of nonempty sets or topological spaces can easily be the empty set.

To make progress, we need to add more assumptions. Suppose first of all that the individual groups C_n^α for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\alpha \in J$ are finite. Then the sets K_α are also finite, and if we assign them the discrete topology, we can view them all as nonempty compact Hausdorff spaces. In this

case there is a positive result we can use: Proposition 45.9 implies that $\varprojlim \{K_\alpha\}$ will then always be nonempty, which fills the gap at the end of our proof that the limit sequence is exact!

I would like to point out that this trick for the case of finite groups is fairly abstract: hidden inside Proposition 45.9 is Tychonoff's theorem on the compactness of arbitrary products of compact spaces (cf. Lecture 6 from last semester), which depends on Zorn's lemma and thus the axiom of choice. As a consequence, we are guaranteed the existence of some $y \in (\partial^\infty)^{-1}(x)$ whenever $\partial^\infty x = 0$, but we cannot even begin to suggest how one might find y in practice. In the classic book of Eilenberg and Steenrod (see [ES52, Theorem 5.7 and Lemma 5.8 in Chapter VIII]), there is a linear-algebraic variation on this trick that also uses Zorn's lemma, and similarly solves the problem whenever the modules C_n^α are all assumed to be finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{K}$, with ∂^α and $\varphi_{\alpha\beta}$ as $\mathbb{K}$ -linear maps. These two scenarios are relevant to Čech homology under certain assumptions: in particular, suppose the coefficient group G is either finite or a finite-dimensional vector space over a field, and (X, A) is a *compact pair*, meaning X is a compact Hausdorff space and $A \subset X$ is closed. In this case, our open coverings of (X, A) always have finite refinements, whose nerves are then finite simplicial pairs, and the groups in the sequence (45.6) are therefore all either finite or are finite-dimensional vector spaces over a field $\mathbb{K}$. These conditions imply that exactness is preserved under the inverse limit, and we obtain:

THEOREM 45.23. *If G is either a finite abelian group or a finite-dimensional vector space over a field, then the restriction of Čech homology $\check{H}_*(\cdot; G)$ to the category $\mathbf{Cpct}^{\text{rel}}$ of compact pairs defines an axiomatic homology theory on $\mathbf{Cpct}^{\text{rel}}$.* $\square$

Having defined Čech homology, you will have little trouble guessing how to define Čech cohomology: we must replace the simplicial homology of the nerve of an open covering $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$ of (X, A) with its (ordered) **simplicial cohomology**,

$$H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G) := H^*(C_*^o(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A; R); G).$$

For any refinement $(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A)$ of $(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$, the resulting simplicial map $F : \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A) \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A)$ induces a chain map $F_* : C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A); R) \rightarrow C_*^o(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); R)$ uniquely up to chain homotopy, which therefore dualizes to a map of cochain complexes that is (by Proposition 43.2) likewise unique up to chain homotopy, producing a canonically defined morphism

$$F^* : H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G) \rightarrow H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}', \mathfrak{U}'_A); G).$$

Notice what has happened as a result of dualization: the collection of simplicial homology groups $\{H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G)\}_{(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)}$ was an inverse system, but the reversal of arrows now means that the corresponding cohomology groups

$$\{H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G)\}_{(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)}$$

form a *direct* system, and we define the **Čech cohomology** of (X, A) with coefficients in G to be the direct limit

$$\check{H}^*(X, A) = \check{H}^*(X, A; G) := \varinjlim \{H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A); G)\}_{(\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{U}_A) \in \mathcal{O}(X, A)}.$$

There is a huge technical advantage in the fact that $\check{H}^*(X, A)$ is defined via a direct limit instead of an inverse limit: $\varinjlim$ is an exact functor, and one can use this to prove that unlike $\check{H}_*$, the cohomology $\check{H}^*$ satisfies the exactness axiom without any restrictions.

THEOREM 45.24 (see [ES52, Spa95]). *For any choice of R -module G , the Čech cohomology $\check{H}^* = \check{H}^*(\cdot; G)$ is an axiomatic cohomology theory with coefficient group G .* $\square$

It follows that $\check{H}^*(X; G)$ and $H^*(X; G)$ are isomorphic whenever X is a CW-complex. To find examples in which $\check{H}^*(X; G)$ and $H^*(X; G)$ differ, it suffices again to consider a space X that is connected but not path-connected. Recall from Lemma 45.19 that whenever $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ is an open covering of a connected space X , the nerve $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ is also connected, thus $H^0(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G) \cong G$. One can deduce from this that if X is connected, then $\check{H}^0(X; G) \cong G$, and the reduced Čech cohomology of X in degree zero vanishes. Exercise 44.2 then implies $\check{H}^1(\Sigma X; G) = 0$. But if X has more than one path-component, then $\check{H}^0(X; G)$ and $H^1(\Sigma X; G)$ are both nontrivial; the latter is isomorphic to $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma X), G)$ since the suspension ΣX is always path-connected, thus ΣX is an example of a space for which $\check{H}^1(\Sigma X; G) \not\cong \text{Hom}(\pi_1(\Sigma X), G) \cong H^1(\Sigma X; G)$.

The Čech theory also has one nice property that the singular theory does not: it is *continuous* with respect to inverse limits of spaces. The condition can be formulated for any axiomatic homology theory h_* as follows: suppose $\{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha), \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ is an inverse system of pairs of spaces over some directed set $(J, <)$. The associated morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : \varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\} \rightarrow (X_\alpha, A_\alpha)$ then induce homomorphisms

$$(\varphi_\alpha)_* : h_n(\varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\}) \rightarrow h_n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha),$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, which make $\{h_n(\varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\}), (\varphi_\alpha)_*\}$ a target of the inverse system

$$\{h_n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha), (\varphi_{\alpha\beta})_*\}$$

in the category of R -modules. By the universal property of inverse limits, there is then a canonical limit morphism

$$h_n(\varprojlim \{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\}) \rightarrow \varprojlim \{h_n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\}.$$

For a cohomology theory h^* , an inverse system of pairs of spaces instead gives rise to a *direct* system of cohomologies $\{h^n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha; G), \varphi_{\alpha\beta}^*\}$, for which the maps $h^n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha) \rightarrow h^n(\varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\})$ induced by $\varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\} \rightarrow (X_\alpha, A_\alpha)$ make $h^n(\varprojlim \{(X_\beta, A_\beta)\})$ into a target and thus determine a canonical limit morphism

$$\varinjlim \{h^n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\} \rightarrow h^n(\varprojlim \{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\}).$$

The following result is often quoted as a selling point of the Čech theory in comparison with singular homology and cohomology. One can show in fact that every compact pair is the inverse limit of some inverse system of compact pairs that are homotopy equivalent to CW-pairs, thus the theorem can be used to understand the topology of very “wild” spaces for which singular homology cannot be expected to give a reasonable answer.

THEOREM 45.25 (continuity in Čech theory; see [ES52, Chapter X]). *For any inverse system of compact pairs $\{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha), \varphi_{\alpha\beta}\}$ and any choice of coefficients G , the canonical maps*

$$\begin{aligned} \check{H}_n(\varprojlim \{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\}; G) &\longrightarrow \varprojlim \{\check{H}_n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha; G)\}, \\ \varinjlim \{\check{H}^n(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\} &\longrightarrow \check{H}^n(\varprojlim \{(X_\alpha, A_\alpha)\}). \end{aligned}$$

are isomorphisms for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. □

For the failure of singular homology or cohomology to satisfy the continuity condition described above, see Exercise 45.5.

REMARK 45.26. In the previous lecture, we gave a brief sketch of yet another axiomatic cohomology theory $\bar{H}^*$, the Alexander-Spanier cohomology. One can show that $\bar{H}^*$ also has the continuity property described in Theorem 45.25. Since all compact Hausdorff spaces are inverse limits of spaces homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, it follows that up to isomorphism, there

is only one cohomology theory on compact Hausdorff spaces that satisfies all of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms plus continuity. In particular, $\check{H}^*(X; G) \cong \bar{H}^*(X; G)$ whenever X is compact and Hausdorff, though both may be different from $H^*(X; G)$. (This result can be generalized beyond compact spaces using sheaf cohomology; details are carried out in [Spa95, Chapter 6].)

45.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 45.1 (*). Prove Propositions 45.5 and 45.11, giving explicit descriptions of inverse limits in the categories **Top** and **R-Mod**.

EXERCISE 45.2. Prove Proposition 45.7, on the intersection of a family of subspaces as an inverse limit.

EXERCISE 45.3. Prove Proposition 45.9 on nonempty inverse limits of compact Hausdorff spaces.

Hint: By Tychonoff's theorem, $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ is compact, which means that every net in $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ has a cluster point (see Lecture 5 from last semester). For every index β , one can choose an element $x^{\beta} = \{x_{\alpha}^{\beta}\} \in \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ whose coordinates satisfy $x_{\alpha}^{\beta} = \varphi_{\alpha\beta}(x_{\beta}^{\beta})$ for every $\alpha < \beta$ and are arbitrary for all other α . The collection $\{x^{\beta} \in \prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}\}_{\beta \in J}$ then defines a net in $\prod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$, which therefore has a cluster point. Prove that the cluster point belongs to $\varprojlim \{X_{\alpha}\}$. (For a slightly different argument that does not use nets, see [ES52, Theorem VIII.3.6]; it does still require Tychonoff's theorem.)

EXERCISE 45.4 (*). Prove Proposition 45.13 on limits of inverse systems that are “eventually constant,” and describe the associated morphisms $\varprojlim \{X_{\beta}\} \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\alpha}} X_{\alpha}$ for every $\alpha \in J$.

Advice: This problem becomes a bit easier if you work in any of the categories **Top**, **R-Mod** or **Ch** so that you can use the results of Propositions 45.5 or 45.11 (plus Remark 45.12). But it can also be done without that assumption, just by using the universal property and playing with commutative diagrams.

EXERCISE 45.5. Find an example of a compact space X that is connected but not path-connected and is the inverse limit of a system $\{X_{\alpha}\}$ of path-connected spaces. Conclude that for this example,

$$H_*(\varprojlim \{X_{\alpha}\}) \not\cong \varprojlim \{H_*(X_{\alpha})\}.$$

Hint: Use Proposition 45.7.

EXERCISE 45.6. Find an example of a path-connected space X for which $\check{H}_1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) = 0$ but $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) \neq 0$. Can you also describe a specific nontrivial element of $\pi_1(X)$?

Hint: Take the suspension of something that is connected but not path-connected.

46. Universal coefficient theorems and exact functors

Our goal in this and the next lecture is to clarify precisely how $H_*(X; G_1)$ and $H_*(X; G_2)$ or the corresponding cohomologies are related to each other for different choices of coefficient modules G_1 and G_2 . In fact, we are stating this question for singular (co)homology, but the answer will apply equally well to simplicial or cellular (co)homology. It is, in reality, an algebraic question, and the methods we need in order to answer it come from homological algebra.

There are two versions of the universal coefficient theorem: one for homology, and one for cohomology. Both posit the existence of a natural split exact sequence that reduces in favorable cases to the statement that a certain natural map is an isomorphism. In the case of singular cohomology with coefficients in an abelian group G , the natural map in question is

$$H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) : [\alpha] \mapsto \langle [\alpha], \cdot \rangle,$$

defined in terms of the evaluation pairing $\langle [\alpha], [c] \rangle := \alpha(c)$, and the theorem gives a split exact sequence of the form

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) \longrightarrow H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where $\text{Ext} : \mathbf{Ab} \times \mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ is a functor that is guaranteed to vanish under various conditions. When it vanishes, the conclusion is that h is an isomorphism, and more generally, the theorem implies that h is always surjective, and in light of the splitting,

$$H^n(X; G) \cong \text{Hom}(H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G).$$

The version described above assumes only that G is an abelian group, but this is where it can become extremely useful to distinguish between abelian groups and modules over a commutative ring R other than $\mathbb{Z}$. If G is viewed as an R -module, then the natural map arising from the evaluation pairing takes the form

$$H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G),$$

and we will see that whenever R is a principal ideal domain (e.g. $\mathbb{Z}$ or a field), the universal coefficient theorem gives a split exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X; R), G) \longrightarrow H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where Ext is in this case a functor $R\text{-Mod} \times R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$. The usefulness of this added generality is that one obtains a wider range of criteria for the vanishing of Ext , e.g. it turns out that it *always* vanishes if R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, and the universal coefficient theorem then reduces to the straightforward statement that for any vector space G over $\mathbb{K}$, the natural map

$$H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; \mathbb{K}), G)$$

is a vector space isomorphism. That is one of the results that will be proved in the present lecture.

For singular homology with coefficients in an R -module G , the natural map to consider takes the form

$$H_n(X; R) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(X; G) : \left[\sum_i a_i \sigma_i \right] \otimes g \mapsto \left[\sum_i a_i g \sigma_i \right],$$

and the homological version of the universal coefficient theorem gives a natural split exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow H_n(X; R) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(X; G) \longrightarrow \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(X; R), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where $\text{Tor} : R\text{-Mod} \times R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is another functor that is guaranteed to vanish under various conditions, e.g. whenever either of the R -modules $H_{n-1}(X; R)$ or G is free, implying in such cases that $h : H_n(X; R) \otimes G \rightarrow H_n(X; G)$ is an isomorphism.

Analogous results hold for simplicial or cellular (co)homology, as consequences of the algebraic versions of the universal coefficient theorem. In the present lecture, we will prove the special cases of these results in which the extra Tor or Ext terms vanish, implying that the natural maps labelled above as h are isomorphisms. The definitions of the functors Tor and Ext will be given in the next lecture, along with the general versions of the universal coefficient theorems.

REMARK 46.1. Readers who have not previously encountered tensor products in the category of abelian groups or R -modules may want to look at Exercise 46.1 before continuing.

46.1. Principal ideal domains. Up until this point in our development of homology and cohomology, there has always been a fixed commutative ring R in the background: most algebraic objects we've considered have been modules over R , and the choice of the ring R has typically been completely arbitrary. In the universal coefficient theorems, the choice of R is no longer arbitrary, because we will need to assume that R is a **principal ideal domain**. If you've forgotten what a principal ideal domain is, then there is no pressing need to look up the definition right now, so long as you are willing to accept the following basic fact about them:

PROPOSITION 46.2 (see [Lan02, §III.7]). *If R is a principal ideal domain, then every submodule of a free R -module is also free.* $\square$

In particular, this is true when R is $\mathbb{Z}$, hence subgroups of free abelian groups are also free, and it also holds whenever R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, since *all* vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$ are free $\mathbb{K}$ -modules. Those are the main cases typically of interest.

46.2. The functors $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$. For any space X and any R -module G , there is an obvious relationship between $H_*(X; R)$ and $H^*(X; G)$ at the level of their underlying chain/cochain complexes: the cochain complex $C^*(X; G)$ is obtained by feeding the chain complex $C_*(X; R)$ into the contravariant functor

$$\text{Hom}(\cdot, G) : \text{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}) \rightarrow \text{CoCh}(R\text{-Mod}).$$

In fact, $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ is, in the first place, a contravariant functor

$$\text{Hom}(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod},$$

and it has certain properties that we will formalize in the next subsection such that any chain complex

$$(46.1) \quad \dots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$

can be fed term-by-term into $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ in order to produce a cochain complex

$$(46.2) \quad \dots \longleftarrow \text{Hom}(C_{n+1}, G) \xleftarrow{\partial_{n+1}^*} \text{Hom}(C_n, G) \xleftarrow{\partial_n^*} \text{Hom}(C_{n-1}, G) \longleftarrow \dots,$$

with each of the maps ∂_n^* defined by feeding ∂_n into the functor. The way that we actually defined the cochain complex $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ in Lecture 43 was slightly different: the coboundary operators were given some extra signs depending on the degree, but the cohomology is unchanged by this detail, so if our goal is to relate $H_*(C_*)$ and $H^*(C_*; G)$, we may as well regard $H^*(C_*; G)$ as the cohomology of the complex in (46.2).

CONVENTION. For this and the next lecture, we will use the notation $\text{Hom}(C_*, G)$ to denote the cochain complex in (46.2) rather than the variant with extra signs defined in Lecture 43. This is a harmless abuse of notation since the cohomology does not depend on the extra signs.

For homology, it is also possible to obtain the chain complex underlying $H_*(X; G)$ by feeding the chain complex underlying $H_*(X; R)$ into a functor, this time one that is covariant. For this purpose, we use the tensor product of R -modules and consider the functor

$$\otimes G : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod},$$

which sends a module $A \in R\text{-Mod}$ to the module $A \otimes G \in R\text{-Mod}$, and sends a homomorphism $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ to the homomorphism

$$\phi \otimes 1 : A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G : a \otimes g \mapsto \phi(a) \otimes g.$$

Feeding the chain complex C_* in (46.1) term-by-term into $\otimes G$ produces a new chain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \otimes G \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1} \otimes \mathbb{1}} C_n \otimes G \xrightarrow{\partial_n \otimes \mathbb{1}} C_{n-1} \otimes G \longrightarrow \dots,$$

which we will denote by

$$C_* \otimes G \in \mathbf{Ch}(R\text{-Mod}).$$

We observe that for the singular chain complex $C_*(X; R)$ of a space X and any R -module G , there is a natural isomorphism of chain complexes

$$C_*(X; R) \otimes G \xrightarrow{\cong} C_*(X; G) : \left(\sum_i r_i \sigma_i \right) \otimes g \mapsto \sum_i (r_i g) \sigma_i.$$

For the relative singular homology of a pair of spaces (X, A) , there is a similar isomorphism $C_*(X, A; R) \otimes G \cong C_*(X, A; G)$, and there are also analogous isomorphisms for cellular or simplicial chain complexes.

In summary: chain or cochain complexes with coefficients in an arbitrary R -module G can be obtained by starting from $C_*(X; R)$ (or its cellular or simplicial counterparts) and applying the functors $\otimes G$ or $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$. The following detail will turn out to be important: the chain groups $C_n(X; R)$ are *free* modules over R , thus all versions of singular/cellular/simplicial homology or cohomology can be obtained algebraically from one that is built out of free R -modules.

46.3. Additive and exact functors. Both $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ are examples of *additive* functors $R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, a notion that we shall now make precise.

REMARK 46.3. Several of the definitions in this section can be extended to the more general context of functors $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ between a pair of arbitrary *abelian categories*. Philosophically, abelian categories are the correct setting in which to study exact sequences and diagram-chasing arguments, though for our present purposes, working in that general setting would impose an unnecessarily extreme level of abstraction. We will therefore keep things more concrete by working only in the specific abelian category $R\text{-Mod}$, and considering only functors from $R\text{-Mod}$ to itself.

DEFINITION 46.4. A functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is called **additive** if for every pair of R -modules A and B , the map that $\mathcal{F}$ defines from $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ to either $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(B))$ (in the covariant case) or $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(B), \mathcal{F}(A))$ (in the contravariant case) is a homomorphism of abelian groups.

Additive functors have two crucial properties that we will need to make use of. First, if $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ are two homomorphisms whose composition $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ vanishes, then in the covariant case, the fact that $\mathcal{F}$ defines a group homomorphism $\text{Hom}(A, C) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(C))$ implies

$$\mathcal{F}(g) \circ \mathcal{F}(f) = \mathcal{F}(g \circ f) = 0 \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(C)),$$

simply because group homomorphisms preserve the 0 element. It follows that covariant additive functors preserve the property of being a chain complex, i.e. any chain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} A_{n-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$

gives rise to a chain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_{n+1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f_{n+1})} \mathcal{F}(A_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f_n)} \mathcal{F}(A_{n-1}) \longrightarrow \dots$$

If $\mathcal{F}$ is instead a contravariant additive functor, then one obtains a cochain complex

$$\dots \longleftarrow \mathcal{F}(A_{n+1}) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(f_{n+1})} \mathcal{F}(A_n) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(f_n)} \mathcal{F}(A_{n-1}) \longleftarrow \dots$$

For a chain complex A_* , we will denote by $\mathcal{F}(A_*)$ the chain complex or cochain complex obtained by feeding A_* into an additive functor $\mathcal{F}$.

The second important property is that additive functors preserve finite direct sums: in particular, for every pair of R -modules A and B , one obtains a natural isomorphism $\mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \cong \mathcal{F}(A) \oplus \mathcal{F}(B)$. To understand why, we can write down a relation between certain maps that characterizes direct sums uniquely up to isomorphism. Indeed, consider the canonical inclusion and projection maps

$$(46.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} A & & & & A \\ & \searrow i_A & & \nearrow \pi_A & \\ & & A \oplus B & & \\ & \nearrow i_B & & \searrow \pi_B & \\ B & & & & B \end{array}$$

i.e. $i_A(a) = (a, 0)$, $\pi_A(a, b) = a$ and so forth. Abbreviating $C := A \oplus B$, these maps satisfy the five relations

$$(46.4) \quad \pi_A i_A = \mathbb{1}_A, \quad \pi_B i_B = \mathbb{1}_B, \quad \pi_A i_B = 0, \quad \pi_B i_A = 0, \quad i_A \pi_A + i_B \pi_B = \mathbb{1}_C.$$

Conversely, suppose C is some other R -module, and that we are given four homomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & & & & A \\ & \searrow i_A & & \nearrow \pi_A & \\ & & C & & \\ & \nearrow i_B & & \searrow \pi_B & \\ B & & & & B \end{array}$$

that likewise satisfy the five relations in (46.4). It then follows that the maps

$$A \oplus B \xrightarrow{i_A \oplus i_B} C \quad \text{and} \quad C \xrightarrow{(\pi_A, \pi_B)} A \oplus B$$

are inverse to each other, and thus determine an isomorphism $C \cong A \oplus B$ that identifies the maps i_A, i_B and π_A, π_B with the canonical inclusions and projections respectively. The point is this: if $\mathcal{F}$ is a covariant additive functor, then plugging the diagram (46.3) into $\mathcal{F}$ gives us four maps

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathcal{F}(A) & & & & \mathcal{F}(A) \\ & \searrow \mathcal{F}(i_A) & & \nearrow \mathcal{F}(\pi_A) & \\ & & \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) & & \\ & \nearrow \mathcal{F}(i_B) & & \searrow \mathcal{F}(\pi_B) & \\ \mathcal{F}(B) & & & & \mathcal{F}(B) \end{array}$$

that similarly satisfy the five relations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}(\pi_A) \mathcal{F}(i_A) &= \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{F}(A)}, & \mathcal{F}(\pi_B) \mathcal{F}(i_B) &= \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{F}(B)}, \\ \mathcal{F}(\pi_A) \mathcal{F}(i_B) &= 0, & \mathcal{F}(\pi_B) \mathcal{F}(i_A) &= 0, \\ \mathcal{F}(i_A) \mathcal{F}(\pi_A) + \mathcal{F}(i_B) \mathcal{F}(\pi_B) &= \mathbb{1}_C, \end{aligned}$$

where C now denotes $\mathcal{F}(A \oplus B)$, and the last three relations all depend crucially on the fact that $\mathcal{F}$ preserves addition of morphisms. One therefore obtains an isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \cong \mathcal{F}(A) \oplus \mathcal{F}(B)$$

that identifies $\mathcal{F}(i_A), \mathcal{F}(i_B)$ and $\mathcal{F}(\pi_A), \mathcal{F}(\pi_B)$ with the canonical inclusions and projections respectively. If $\mathcal{F}$ is instead a *contravariant* additive functor, then both the arrows and the order

of composition get reversed when plugging the maps from (46.3) into $\mathcal{F}$, thus producing four homomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathcal{F}(A) & & & & \mathcal{F}(A) \\ & \searrow \mathcal{F}(\pi_A) & & \nearrow \mathcal{F}(i_A) & \\ & & \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) & & \\ & \nearrow \mathcal{F}(\pi_B) & & \searrow \mathcal{F}(i_B) & \\ \mathcal{F}(B) & & & & \mathcal{F}(B) \end{array}$$

that satisfy the relations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}(i_A)\mathcal{F}(\pi_A) &= \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{F}(A)}, & \mathcal{F}(i_B)\mathcal{F}(\pi_B) &= \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{F}(B)}, \\ \mathcal{F}(i_B)\mathcal{F}(\pi_A) &= 0, & \mathcal{F}(i_A)\mathcal{F}(\pi_B) &= 0, \\ \mathcal{F}(\pi_A)\mathcal{F}(i_A) + \mathcal{F}(\pi_B)\mathcal{F}(i_B) &= \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{F}(C)} \end{aligned}$$

for $C := \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B)$. These relations again determine a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \cong \mathcal{F}(A) \oplus \mathcal{F}(B),$$

but the roles of the inclusions and projections have been reversed: the isomorphism identifies $\mathcal{F}(\pi_A) : \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B)$ with the inclusion $\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \oplus \mathcal{F}(B)$, $\mathcal{F}(i_A) : \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A)$ with the projection $\mathcal{F}(A) \oplus \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A)$, and so forth.

Recall that if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0$ is a split exact sequence, then C can be identified isomorphically with $A \oplus B$ so that the map $A \rightarrow C$ becomes the inclusion i_A and $C \rightarrow B$ becomes the projection π_B . One easy consequence of the natural isomorphisms explained above is then that split-exactness is preserved by additive functors:

PROPOSITION 46.5. *For any additive functor $\mathcal{F}$ and any split exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$, the sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0, & \quad \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is covariant, or} \\ 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow 0, & \quad \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is contravariant} \end{aligned}$$

is also split exact. □

The main examples of additive functors you should have in mind at the moment are $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ for any fixed R -module G , and there are indeed natural isomorphisms

$$(A \oplus B) \otimes G \cong (A \otimes G) \oplus (B \otimes G), \quad \text{Hom}(A \oplus B, G) \cong \text{Hom}(A, G) \oplus \text{Hom}(B, G)$$

for any pair of R -modules A, B . The word “natural” in this context can be given a precise meaning in terms of commuting diagrams; I will leave it as an exercise to spell out the details.

If the sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ in Proposition 46.5 is assumed exact but not split exact, then there is no guarantee that the sequence obtained by feeding it into an additive functor will also be exact. We will see in particular that this is not true in general for either $\otimes G$ or $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$, but it is true sometimes, and this property is useful enough to deserve a name:

DEFINITION 46.6. An additive functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is called an **exact functor** if for every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$, the sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0, & \quad \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is covariant, or} \\ 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow 0, & \quad \text{if } \mathcal{F} \text{ is contravariant} \end{aligned}$$

is also exact.

Definition 46.6 appears to give a special role to *short* exact sequences, but the following result shows that this appearance is deceptive:

PROPOSITION 46.7. *An additive functor $\mathcal{F}$ is exact if and only if it preserves exactness for all (not just short) exact sequences. Equivalently: $\mathcal{F}$ is exact if and only if for every exact sequence $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, the induced sequence $\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C)$ is also exact.*

PROOF. See Exercise 46.2. □

We will see in the next lecture that the functors $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ are not exact in general, and this is the reason why both versions of the universal coefficient theorem assert the existence of natural split exact sequences rather than straightforward isomorphisms. On the other hand, it is useful to note that they are exact under certain circumstances, such as when the ring R is assumed to be a field:

PROPOSITION 46.8. *For any field $\mathbb{K}$, every additive functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$ is exact.*

PROOF. Every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ splits since C admits a basis, so Proposition 46.5 implies that the sequence remains exact after feeding it into $\mathcal{F}$. □

46.4. The main argument. We now explain the core of the argument behind both versions of the universal coefficient theorem.

We saw above that any additive functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ turns a chain complex C_* of R -modules

$$\dots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \dots$$

into a new chain complex $\mathcal{F}(C_*)$ if $\mathcal{F}$ is covariant, or a cochain complex if $\mathcal{F}$ is contravariant. We now ask:

QUESTION 46.9. *For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, what relation is there between $\mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ and $H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$ or $H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$ (in the covariant or contravariant case respectively)?*

We will be interested mainly in two specific examples: in the first, $\mathcal{F}$ is $\otimes G$, and the problem is thus to find a relation between $H_n(C_*) \otimes G$ and $H_n(C_* \otimes G)$, so for instance, we would in this way find a relation between $H_n(X; R) \otimes G$ and $H_n(X; G)$. In the second example, $\mathcal{F}$ is the contravariant functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$, so we are looking to relate $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G)$ to $H^n(C_*; G) = H^n(\text{Hom}(C_*, G))$; in the setting of singular (co)chain complexes, this will mean a relation between $\text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G)$ and $H^n(X; G)$. We shall impose two general assumptions that make the problem somewhat more tractable:

- ASSUMPTION 1: The chain groups $C_n \subset C_*$ are *free* R -modules;
- ASSUMPTION 2: The ring R is a principal ideal domain.

Both assumptions hold, for instance, whenever C_* is a singular/cellular/simplicial chain complex with coefficients in either an abelian group or a vector space over a field. They imply in particular that not only the modules C_n for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ but also their submodules

$$B_n := \text{im} \left(C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \right), \quad Z_n := \ker \left(C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \right)$$

consisting of boundaries and cycles respectively are free R -modules. Let

$$B_n \xhookrightarrow{i_n} Z_n \xhookrightarrow{j_n} C_n$$

denote the inclusion maps, and observe that since ∂_n vanishes on both B_n and Z_n , we can regard

$$B_* := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} B_n \quad \text{and} \quad Z_* := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} Z_n$$

as chain complexes with trivial boundary operators, so that the inclusions

$$B_* \xhookrightarrow{i} Z_* \xhookrightarrow{j} C_*$$

are chain maps.

Consider first the case where the additive functor $\mathcal{F}$ is covariant. The boundary operator $C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}$ has image $B_{n-1} \subset C_{n-1}$ by definition, so let us denote by

$$C_* \xrightarrow{\partial'} B_{*-1}$$

the resulting surjective chain map, and write its restriction to the degree n level as

$$C_n \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} B_{n-1}.$$

This notation may seem pedantic at first, because $C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}$ and $C_n \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} B_{n-1}$ are the same map, just with different understandings of what their targets are. But it will be useful to have this notational distinction when we feed them into the functor $\mathcal{F}$, because $\mathcal{F}(B_{n-1})$ cannot necessarily be understood as a submodule of $\mathcal{F}(C_{n-1})$: indeed, applying $\mathcal{F}$ to the inclusion $j_{n-1}i_{n-1} : B_{n-1} \hookrightarrow C_{n-1}$ produces a homomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j_{n-1}i_{n-1})} \mathcal{F}(C_{n-1})$$

that need not be injective in general! What we can say instead is the following: the obvious commutative diagram

$$(46.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_n & \xrightarrow{\partial'_n} & B_{n-1} \\ \downarrow \partial_n & \swarrow j_{n-1}i_{n-1} & \\ C_{n-1} & & \end{array}$$

remains commutative after applying $\mathcal{F}$, thus producing

$$(46.6) \quad \mathcal{F}(\partial_n) = \mathcal{F}(j_{n-1}i_{n-1})\mathcal{F}(\partial'_n) = \mathcal{F}(j_{n-1})\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1})\mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)$$

as the essential relation between $\mathcal{F}(C_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial_n)} \mathcal{F}(C_{n-1})$ and $\mathcal{F}(C_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)} \mathcal{F}(B_{n-1})$.

With that bit of preparation out of the way, the next step in finding a relation between $\mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ and $H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$ is to observe that

$$(46.7) \quad 0 \longrightarrow Z_* \xrightarrow{j} C_* \xrightarrow{\partial'} B_{*-1} \longrightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence of chain maps, and it splits since B_{*-1} is free, being a submodule of a free module over a principal ideal domain. It follows via Proposition 46.5 that

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(Z_*) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(C_*) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')} \mathcal{F}(B_{*-1}) \longrightarrow 0$$

is also a split exact sequence of chain maps, and the boundary operators on the chain complexes $\mathcal{F}(Z_*)$ and $\mathcal{F}(B_{*-1})$ are still trivial, so the resulting long exact sequence of homologies takes the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B_n) \xrightarrow{\Phi_n} \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)*} H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')*} \mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\Phi_{n-1}} \mathcal{F}(Z_{n-1}) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

where Φ_n and Φ_{n-1} are connecting homomorphisms. Let's take a closer look at what the map $\Phi_n : \mathcal{F}(B_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Z_n)$ actually is. If you recall how connecting homomorphisms were constructed

in Proposition 34.9, the diagram that we need to chase is:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\
 & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{F}(Z_{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j_{n+1})} & \mathcal{F}(C_{n+1}) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial'_{n+1})} & \mathcal{F}(B_n) \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow 0 & & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\partial_{n+1}) & & \downarrow 0 \\
 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{F}(Z_n) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j_n)} & \mathcal{F}(C_n) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)} & \mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \longrightarrow 0 \\
 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\partial_n) & & \downarrow \\
 & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots
 \end{array}$$

Every element $b \in \mathcal{F}(B_n)$ is a cycle (of degree $n+1$) in the chain complex $\mathcal{F}(B_{*-1})$ and is also $\mathcal{F}(\partial'_{n+1})c$ for some $c \in \mathcal{F}(C_{n+1})$, and $\Phi_n(b) \in \mathcal{F}(Z_n)$ will then be determined by the condition that for a suitable choice of $c \in \mathcal{F}(C_{n+1})$,

$$\mathcal{F}(j_n)\Phi_n(b) = \mathcal{F}(\partial_{n+1})c.$$

Now notice: according to (46.6), $\mathcal{F}(\partial_{n+1})c = \mathcal{F}(j_n)\mathcal{F}(i_n)\mathcal{F}(\partial'_{n+1})c = \mathcal{F}(j_n)\mathcal{F}(i_n)b$, thus the required condition is satisfied by $\Phi_n(b) := \mathcal{F}(i_n)b$, and our long exact sequence therefore becomes

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i_n)} \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)_*} H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')_*} \mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1})} \mathcal{F}(Z_{n-1}) \longrightarrow \dots$$

Letting $\mathcal{F}(j)_*$ descend to the quotient by its kernel and rewriting the image of $\mathcal{F}(\partial')_*$ as a kernel gives the short exact sequence

$$(46.8) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} \mathcal{F}(i_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)_*} H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')_*} \ker \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) \longrightarrow 0.$$

We will eventually deduce the general version of the universal coefficient theorem for homology from this short exact sequence.

In order to understand more precisely what $\operatorname{coker} \mathcal{F}(i_n)$ and $\ker \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1})$ are, it helps to examine a second short exact sequence

$$(46.9) \quad 0 \longrightarrow B_n \xrightarrow{i_n} Z_n \xrightarrow{q_n} H_n(C_*) \longrightarrow 0,$$

in which q_n denotes the quotient projection. Feeding this into the functor $\mathcal{F}$ produces a chain complex

$$(46.10) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(B_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i_n)} \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(q_n)} \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \longrightarrow 0,$$

though since $H_n(C_*)$ need not be a free R -module, there is no guarantee that the sequence (46.9) splits, and therefore no guarantee that (46.10) will be exact. It will thus be helpful at this point to impose a third assumption on our setting, though we will put considerable effort into lifting this assumption in the next lecture:

- ASSUMPTION 3: The functor $\mathcal{F}$ is exact.

The added assumption guarantees that (46.10) is indeed an exact sequence for every value of $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. One immediate consequence is that $\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1})$ is injective, thus

$$\ker \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) = 0,$$

and another is that $\mathcal{F}(q_n)$ is surjective and descends to an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{coker} \mathcal{F}(i_n) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\mathcal{F}(q_n)} \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) .$$

Using these to replace the first and last nontrivial terms in the short exact sequence (46.8), the sequence now contains only two nontrivial terms, and we conclude that there is a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \xrightarrow[\cong]{h} H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)).$$

At this level of generality, one cannot quite write down an explicit formula for the map h , but the argument above characterizes h as the unique map such that

$$(46.11) \quad h(x) = [\mathcal{F}(j_n)z] \in H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \quad \text{for any } z \in \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \text{ with } \mathcal{F}(q_n)z = x \in \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)).$$

Indeed, it will be useful to note for later that this characterization of h does not require $\mathcal{F}$ to be an exact functor, but only requires the sequence (46.10) to be exact at its middle and last terms, which makes $\mathcal{F}(q_n) : \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ a surjective map that descends to an isomorphism $\text{coker } \mathcal{F}(i_n) \cong \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$. This means in particular that one can choose a suitable $z \in \mathcal{F}(Z_n)$ for any given $x \in \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$, and its equivalence class in the quotient $\mathcal{F}(Z_n)/\text{im } \mathcal{F}(i_n) = \text{coker } \mathcal{F}(i_n)$ is unique. The map $\text{coker } \mathcal{F}(i_n) \rightarrow H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$ in the exact sequence (46.8) then arises by letting the chain map $\mathcal{F}(j) : \mathcal{F}(Z_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C_*)$ descend to homology as the map $\mathcal{F}(Z_n) \rightarrow H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) : z \mapsto [\mathcal{F}(j_n)z]$, and then letting the latter descend to the quotient of $\mathcal{F}(Z_n)$ by $\text{im } \mathcal{F}(i_n)$. The result is precisely the characterization in (46.11). For the special case $\mathcal{F} = \otimes G$, one easily deduces from this that h is the canonical map

$$(46.12) \quad H_n(C_*) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(C_* \otimes G) : [c] \otimes g \mapsto [c \otimes g].$$

We've proved a first special case of the universal coefficient theorem for homology:

THEOREM 46.10. *Suppose C_* is a chain complex of free modules over a principal ideal domain R , and G is an R -module such that $\otimes G : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is an exact functor. Then the natural map $h : H_n(C_*) \otimes G \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes G)$ described in (46.12) is an isomorphism for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\square$*

By Proposition 46.8, the extra hypothesis that $\otimes G$ is exact holds in particular whenever R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, so for any vector space G over $\mathbb{K}$, we obtain natural vector space isomorphisms

$$H_n(X, A; \mathbb{K}) \otimes G \cong H_n(X, A; G)$$

for all $n \geq 0$ and all pairs of spaces (X, A) , and similarly in cellular or simplicial homology.

Adapting the argument above for the case of a contravariant exact functor $\mathcal{F}$ is straightforward. Instead of a chain complex, $\mathcal{F}(C_*)$ is now a cochain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial_n)} \mathcal{F}(C_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial_{n+1})} \mathcal{F}(C_{n+1}) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

and applying $\mathcal{F}$ to the diagram (46.5) produces

$$(46.13) \quad \mathcal{F}(\partial_n) = \mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)\mathcal{F}(j_{n-1}i_{n-1}) = \mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1})\mathcal{F}(j_{n-1})$$

as a relation between $\mathcal{F}(C_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial_n)} \mathcal{F}(C_n)$ and $\mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial'_n)} \mathcal{F}(C_n)$. Plugging the split exact sequence (46.7) into $\mathcal{F}$ produces a short exact sequence of cochain complexes

$$0 \longleftarrow \mathcal{F}(Z_*) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(C_*) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')} \mathcal{F}(B_{*-1}) \longleftarrow 0,$$

and therefore a long exact sequence

$$\dots \longleftarrow \mathcal{F}(B_n) \xleftarrow{\Phi_n} \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)^*} H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')^*} \mathcal{F}(B_{n-1}) \xleftarrow{\Phi_{n-1}} \mathcal{F}(Z_{n-1}) \longleftarrow \dots$$

One needs to do another quick diagram-chasing exercise to figure out what the connecting homomorphisms Φ_n are, but the answer will not surprise you: as in the covariant case, one finds

$$\Phi_n = \mathcal{F}(i_n) : \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B_n),$$

and the proof depends on the relation (46.13). Turning the long exact sequence into a short exact sequence with $H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$ as the middle term thus gives

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{coker} \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) \longrightarrow H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \longrightarrow \ker \mathcal{F}(i_n) \longrightarrow 0.$$

If the functor $\mathcal{F}$ is exact, then it also turns the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow B_n \xrightarrow{i_n} Z_n \xrightarrow{q_n} H_n(C_*) \rightarrow 0$ into a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(q_n)} \mathcal{F}(Z_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i_n)} \mathcal{F}(B_n) \longrightarrow 0,$$

implying that $\operatorname{coker} \mathcal{F}(i_n) = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and giving a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\mathcal{F}(q_n)} \ker \mathcal{F}(i_n) \subset \mathcal{F}(Z_n).$$

Our previous short exact sequence thus becomes an isomorphism

$$(46.14) \quad H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \xrightarrow[\cong]{h} \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)).$$

The map $h : H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ is characterized uniquely by the relation

$$(46.15) \quad \mathcal{F}(q_n)h([\varphi]) = \mathcal{F}(j_n)\varphi \quad \text{for all } \varphi \in \ker \mathcal{F}(\partial_{n+1}) \subset \mathcal{F}(C_n),$$

due to the fact that $\mathcal{F}(q_n)$ maps $\mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ isomorphically to $\ker \mathcal{F}(i_n)$. In the special case $\mathcal{F} = \operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, G)$, this makes h the map $H^n(C_*; G) \xrightarrow{h} \operatorname{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G)$ defined via evaluation of cochains on chains,

$$(46.16) \quad h([\alpha])[c] = \alpha(c).$$

The resulting special case of the universal coefficient theorem for cohomology reads:

THEOREM 46.11. *Suppose C_* is a chain complex of free modules over a principal ideal domain R , and G is an R -module such that $\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is an exact functor. Then the natural map $h : H^n(C_*; G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G)$ described in (46.16) is an isomorphism for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\square$*

Once again, Proposition 46.8 provides the exactness hypothesis for free whenever R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, so for the singular cohomology of a pair of spaces (X, A) and any vector space G over $\mathbb{K}$, one obtains vector space isomorphisms

$$H^n(X, A; G) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(H_n(X, A; \mathbb{K}), G),$$

and similarly for cellular or simplicial homology. This result is already interesting when G is taken to be the field $\mathbb{K}$ itself, because it then identifies the cohomology $H^n(X, A; \mathbb{K})$ with the dual vector space of the homology $H_n(X, A; \mathbb{K})$. One immediate application is that we can freely replace homology by cohomology in order to compute the Betti numbers of a space,

$$b_k(X) = \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} H_k(X; \mathbb{Q}) = \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} H^k(X; \mathbb{Q}),$$

and since every matrix has the same trace as its transpose, one can similarly use cohomology to compute Lefschetz numbers, as mentioned in the motivational introduction to Lecture 43; for details on the latter result, see Exercise 46.3.

46.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 46.1. The following exercise is for readers who have not previously encountered tensor products in the categories of abelian groups or R -modules. We first recall the definition. Given a set S , let $F(S) := \bigoplus_{e \in S} R \in R\text{-Mod}$ denote the free R -module generated by this set; each of its elements can be written as $\sum_{e \in S} r_e e$ for a unique set of coefficients $r_e \in R$, assuming that only finitely-many of them are nonzero so that the sum is well defined. The **tensor product** of two R -modules A and B is then defined as a certain quotient of the free R -module generated by $A \times B$, namely

$$A \otimes B := F(A \times B)/N,$$

where $N \subset F(A \times B)$ is the smallest submodule containing all elements of the form $(a + a', b) - (a, b) - (a', b)$, $(a, b + b') - (a, b) - (a, b')$, $(ra, b) - r(a, b)$ and $(a, rb) - r(a, b)$ for $a, a' \in A$, $b, b' \in B$ and $r \in R$. We denote the equivalence class represented by $(a, b) \in F(A \times B)$ in the quotient by

$$a \otimes b := [(a, b)] \in A \otimes B.$$

Recall that for R -modules A, B, C , a map $\Phi : A \oplus B \rightarrow C$ is called **bilinear** if the maps $A \rightarrow C : a \mapsto \Phi(a, b_0)$ and $B \rightarrow C : b \mapsto \Phi(a_0, b)$ are R -module homomorphisms for all choices of fixed elements $a_0 \in A$ and $b_0 \in B$.

- Show that the map $G \oplus H \rightarrow G \otimes H : (g, h) \mapsto g \otimes h$ is bilinear, and deduce from this that for any $g \in G$ and $h \in H$, $0 \otimes h = g \otimes 0 = 0 \in G \otimes H$.
- Show that for any bilinear map $\Phi : G \oplus H \rightarrow K$ of R -modules, there exists a unique R -module homomorphism $\Psi : G \otimes H \rightarrow K$ such that $\Phi(g, h) = \Psi(g \otimes h)$ for all $(g, h) \in G \oplus H$.
- Show that for any R -module G , the map $G \rightarrow G \otimes R : g \mapsto g \otimes 1$ is an isomorphism. Write down its inverse.
Hint: Use part (b) to write down homomorphisms in terms of bilinear maps.
- Find a natural isomorphism from $(G \oplus H) \otimes K$ to $(G \otimes K) \oplus (H \otimes K)$.
- Given two sets S and T , find a natural isomorphism from $F(S) \otimes F(T)$ to $F(S \times T)$.
- For any R -modules A, B, C, D and homomorphisms $f : A \rightarrow B$, $g : C \rightarrow D$, show that there exists a homomorphism

$$f \otimes g : A \otimes C \rightarrow B \otimes D$$

defined uniquely by the condition $(f \otimes g)(a \otimes c) = f(a) \otimes g(c)$ for all $a \in A$ and $c \in C$.

- In the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, an element $a \in G$ of an abelian group G is said to be **torsion** if $ma = 0$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that if every element of G is torsion and $\mathbb{K}$ is a field of characteristic zero (regarded as an abelian group with respect to addition), then $G \otimes \mathbb{K} = 0$.

EXERCISE 46.2 (*). Prove Proposition 46.7 on conditions equivalent to the exactness of an additive functor.

Hint: First show that if $\mathcal{F}$ is exact, then it preserves injectivity or surjectivity of morphisms. Then replace any given exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ with one that takes the form $0 \rightarrow A/\ker(f) \rightarrow B \rightarrow \text{im}(g) \rightarrow 0$.

EXERCISE 46.3 (*). Fix an R -module G and an integer $n \geq 0$.

- Show that the canonical homomorphisms $h : H_n(X; R) \otimes G \rightarrow H_n(X; G)$ and $h : H^n(X; G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G)$ have the following naturality properties: for any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_n(X; R) \otimes G & \xrightarrow{h} & H_n(X; G) \\ \downarrow f_* \otimes 1 & & \downarrow f_* \\ H_n(Y; R) \otimes G & \xrightarrow{h} & H_n(Y; G) \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} H^n(X; G) & \xrightarrow{h} & \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G) \\ f^* \uparrow & & f^* \uparrow \\ H^n(Y; G) & \xrightarrow{h} & \text{Hom}(H_n(Y; R), G) \end{array}$$

both commute, where $f^* : \text{Hom}(H_n(Y; R), G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G)$ denotes the dualization of $f_* : H_n(X; R) \rightarrow H_n(Y; R)$.

- (b) Prove that for any field $\mathbb{K}$, the Lefschetz number $L_{\mathbb{K}}(f)$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ defined in §42.4 satisfies

$$L_{\mathbb{K}}(f) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \text{tr} \left(H^n(X; \mathbb{K}) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^n(X; \mathbb{K}) \right).$$

Remark: For the computation of Lefschetz numbers in terms of homology or cohomology with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, see Exercises 47.11 and 47.12 in the next lecture.

47. The derived functors Tor and Ext

Now comes the bad news: the natural maps

$$H_n(X; R) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(X; G), \quad \text{and} \quad H^n(X; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G)$$

are not always isomorphisms. We proved in the previous lecture that they are isomorphisms whenever R is a principal ideal domain and G is an R -module for which $\otimes G$ or $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ respectively is an exact functor $R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$. We saw that both are exact when R is a field, but in the present lecture, we shall confront the reality that both can, in general, fail to be exact functors. On the other hand, this failure is not catastrophic, and it can be measured in precise terms via the nontriviality of certain auxiliary functors called

$$\text{Tor}(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Ext}(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}.$$

Once these have been defined and their main properties elucidated, they will furnish us with a third term in each of the short exact sequences that constitute the general versions of the universal coefficient theorems.

47.1. The properties of Tor and Ext. We now state two theorems whose proofs will occupy the bulk of this lecture.

THEOREM 47.1. *Assume R is a commutative ring with unit. There exists a sequence of functors*

$$\text{Tor}_n : R\text{-Mod} \times R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

which are canonically defined up to natural isomorphisms and covariant in both variables, and have the following properties:

- (1) *For every short exact sequence of R -modules $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ and every fixed R -module G , the maps $f_* : \text{Tor}_n(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Tor}_n(B, G)$ and $g_* : \text{Tor}_n(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Tor}_n(C, G)$ defined by feeding f and g respectively into the functors $\text{Tor}_n(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ fit into a long exact sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \rightarrow \text{Tor}_2(A, G) \xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Tor}_2(B, G) \xrightarrow{g_*} \text{Tor}_2(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Tor}_1(A, G) \xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Tor}_1(B, G) \xrightarrow{g_*} \text{Tor}_1(C, G) \\ \rightarrow A \otimes G \xrightarrow{f \otimes 1} B \otimes G \xrightarrow{g \otimes 1} C \otimes G \rightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

- (2) *For every fixed R -module G and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the functors $\text{Tor}_n(\cdot, G)$ and $\text{Tor}_n(G, \cdot)$ are additive; in particular, there are natural isomorphisms*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tor}_n(A \oplus B, G) &\cong \text{Tor}_n(A, G) \oplus \text{Tor}_n(B, G), \\ \text{Tor}_n(G, A \oplus B) &\cong \text{Tor}_n(G, A) \oplus \text{Tor}_n(G, B) \end{aligned}$$

for all pairs of R -modules A, B .

- (3) $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ whenever either of A or G is a free R -module.⁷²
 (4) $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G) = 0$ for all $n \geq 2$ and all A, G whenever R is a principal ideal domain.
 (5) In the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $\operatorname{Tor}_1(A, G) = 0$ whenever either A or G has no torsion.
 (6) If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ has the property that no nonzero element $x \in R$ satisfies $kx = 0$, then for every R -module G , one has

$$\operatorname{Tor}_1(R/kR, G) \cong \ker \left(G \xrightarrow{\cdot k} G \right), \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{Tor}_n(R/kR, G) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

- (7) There are natural isomorphisms $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n(G, A)$ for all $n \geq 1$ and all A, G .

A few comments on this statement before we continue. First, the words “canonically defined up to natural isomorphisms” may seem mysterious at first, but the proof of the theorem will make their meaning clear (see in particular Remark 47.27). The definitions of the functors Tor_n depend on choices, but the resulting functors are canonical in the sense that for any two such functors Tor_n and Tor'_n defined via different choices, there is a natural isomorphism $\operatorname{Tor}_n \Rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}'_n$, meaning a natural transformation such that the resulting morphisms $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}'_n(A, G)$ are isomorphisms for every A, G .

Second, we will be concerned mainly with cases where R is a principal ideal domain, so that the “higher” Tor functors Tor_n all vanish for $n \geq 2$, leaving only the case $n = 1$, which gets a special name

$$\operatorname{Tor}(A, G) := \operatorname{Tor}_1(A, G).$$

The long exact sequence arising from any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ then becomes a sequence with at most six nontrivial terms,

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(B, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(C, G) \rightarrow A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G \rightarrow C \otimes G \rightarrow 0.$$

Third, if you are familiar with the classification of finitely-generated abelian groups, then you will notice that the properties listed in the theorem make computations of $\operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$ a straightforward matter in the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, i.e. when A and G are just abelian groups, at least if they are finitely generated. In light of additivity and the vanishing of Tor on torsion-free groups, $\operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$ can always be expressed as a direct sum of terms arising from the formula

$$\operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}_k, \mathbb{Z}_\ell) \cong \ker \left(\mathbb{Z}_\ell \xrightarrow{\cdot k} \mathbb{Z}_\ell \right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\gcd(k, \ell)}.$$

Lastly: just like the symbol $A \otimes G$, $\operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$ and $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G)$ have different meanings depending on whether A and G are regarded as mere abelian groups (i.e. $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules) or as modules over some other ring $R \neq \mathbb{Z}$. In situations where this distinction is important, one sometimes sees notation such as

$$\operatorname{Tor}^R(A, G) := \operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$$

to specify that we are working with a functor on $R\text{-Mod}$ rather than Ab . I prefer to avoid such notational clutter and let the context determine the precise meaning of $\operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$, but one should be aware that in some books, the convention is to reserve this notation for the case $\operatorname{Tor}^{\mathbb{Z}}(A, G)$, and write Tor^R explicitly whenever any ring R other than $\mathbb{Z}$ is to be used.

Here’s the contravariant cousin of Theorem 47.1.

THEOREM 47.2. *Assume R is a commutative ring with unit. There exists a sequence of functors*

$$\operatorname{Ext}_n : R\text{-Mod} \times R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},$$

which are canonically defined up to natural isomorphisms and contravariant in the first variable but covariant in the second variable, and have the following properties:

⁷²We will see in §47.4 that this statement also holds under a somewhat weaker hypothesis, namely that A or G is a *projective* R -module, though in typical cases of interest, the two conditions are equivalent (cf. Remark 47.19).

- (1) For every short exact sequence of R -modules $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ and every fixed R -module G , the maps $f^* : \text{Ext}_n(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_n(A, G)$ and $g^* : \text{Ext}_n(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_n(B, G)$ defined by feeding f and g respectively into the functors $\text{Ext}_n(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ fit into a long exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C, G) \xrightarrow{g^*} \text{Hom}(B, G) \xrightarrow{f^*} \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_1(C, G) \xrightarrow{g^*} \text{Ext}_1(B, G) \xrightarrow{f^*} \text{Ext}_1(A, G) \\ \rightarrow \text{Ext}_2(C, G) \xrightarrow{g^*} \text{Ext}_2(B, G) \xrightarrow{f^*} \text{Ext}_2(A, G) \rightarrow \dots$$

- (2) For every fixed R -module G and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the functors $\text{Ext}_n(\cdot, G)$ and $\text{Ext}_n(G, \cdot)$ are additive; in particular, there are natural isomorphisms

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ext}_n(A \oplus B, G) &\cong \text{Ext}_n(A, G) \oplus \text{Ext}_n(B, G), \\ \text{Ext}_n(G, A \oplus B) &\cong \text{Ext}_n(G, A) \oplus \text{Ext}_n(G, B) \end{aligned}$$

for all pairs of R -modules A, B .

- (3) $\text{Ext}_n(A, G) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ whenever A is a free R -module⁷³ or $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ is an exact functor.
 (4) $\text{Ext}_n(A, G) = 0$ for all $n \geq 2$ and all A, G whenever R is a principal ideal domain.
 (5) If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ has the property that no nonzero element $x \in R$ satisfies $kx = 0$, then for every R -module G , one has

$$\text{Ext}_1(R/kR, G) \cong \text{coker} \left(\text{Hom}(R, G) \xrightarrow{\cdot k} \text{Hom}(R, G) \right), \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Ext}_n(R/kR, G) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

The same remarks made above for the Tor functors regarding their uniqueness up to natural isomorphism and their computability in the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$ apply equally well to the Ext functors. In light of the vanishing of Ext_n for $n \geq 2$ when R is a principal ideal domain, we similarly adopt the notation

$$\text{Ext}(A, G) := \text{Ext}_1(A, G),$$

thus turning the long exact sequence arising from any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ into another six-term sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(A, G) \rightarrow 0.$$

In the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, computing $\text{Ext}(A, G)$ when A is a finitely-generated abelian group reduces to taking direct sums of terms arising from the formula

$$\text{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}_k, G) \cong \text{coker} \left(\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, G) \xrightarrow{\cdot k} \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, G) \right) \cong G/kG.$$

The symmetry isomorphism $\text{Tor}_n(A, G) \cong \text{Tor}_n(G, A)$ also has an analogue for the Ext functors, but it is less straightforward to state; it involves an alternative definition of $\text{Ext}_n(A, G)$ that will be sketched in §47.6.

47.2. Left- and right-exact functors. The most important features of Theorems 47.1 and 47.2 are the long exact sequences, which quantify the failure of $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ to be exact functors, e.g. we see from Theorem 47.1 that for any given short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ and any R -module G , the induced sequence $0 \rightarrow A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G \rightarrow C \otimes G \rightarrow 0$ will be exact whenever $\text{Tor}(C, G) = 0$. Even when this is not the case, the theorem implies that the sequence

$$A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G \rightarrow C \otimes G \rightarrow 0$$

⁷³As in Theorem 47.1, this statement also holds under the seemingly weaker (but typically equivalent) hypothesis that A is projective.

will be exact in any case, i.e. exactness always holds at the second and third nontrivial terms, and we see in Theorem 47.2 that $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ has a similar property with the arrows reversed. There is terminology to describe additive functors with these properties.

DEFINITION 47.3. An additive covariant functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is called **right-exact** if for every exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C \rightarrow 0$, the sequence

$$\mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0$$

is also exact, and **left-exact** if for every exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C$, the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(C)$$

is also exact. Similarly, if $\mathcal{F}$ is additive and contravariant, it is called **right-exact** if for every exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C$, the sequence

$$\mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow 0$$

is also exact, and **left-exact** if for every exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C \longrightarrow 0$, the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(i)} \mathcal{F}(A)$$

is also exact.

Recalling Definition 46.6 from the previous lecture, we see that a functor is exact if and only if it is both right-exact and left-exact.

PROPOSITION 47.4. For any R -module G , the functors $\otimes G : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ are right-exact and left-exact respectively.

PROOF. Exactness of a sequence $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C \rightarrow 0$ means that j vanishes on $\text{im}(i)$ and descends to an isomorphism

$$(47.1) \quad \text{coker}(i) = B / \text{im}(i) \xrightarrow[\cong]{j} C.$$

The goal is now to show that the induced sequences

$$A \otimes G \xrightarrow{i \otimes 1} B \otimes G \xrightarrow{j \otimes 1} C \otimes G \longrightarrow 0$$

and

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(C, G) \xrightarrow{j^*} \text{Hom}(B, G) \xrightarrow{i^*} \text{Hom}(A, G)$$

are both exact. The first is equivalent to showing that the map

$$(47.2) \quad \text{coker}(i \otimes 1) = (B \otimes G) / \text{im}(i \otimes 1) \xrightarrow{j \otimes 1} C \otimes G$$

to which $j \otimes 1$ descends is an isomorphism, while the second is equivalent showing that j^* defines an isomorphism

$$(47.3) \quad \text{Hom}(C, G) \xrightarrow{j^*} \ker(i^*) \subset \text{Hom}(B, G).$$

We can establish both by writing down explicit inverses: first, one easily checks that the map

$$C \otimes G \rightarrow \text{coker}(i \otimes 1) : c \otimes g \mapsto [b \otimes g]$$

defined by choosing any $b \in j^{-1}(c)$ is a well-defined homomorphism inverse to the map in (47.2). To write down an inverse of (47.3), it is useful to note that $\ker(i^*) \subset \text{Hom}(B, G)$ consists of all homomorphisms $\varphi : B \rightarrow G$ that vanish on $\text{im}(i) \subset B$ and thus descend to maps $\text{coker}(i) \rightarrow G$,

giving a natural identification of $\ker(i^*)$ with $\text{Hom}(\text{coker}(i), G)$. Using this identification, the inverse of (47.3) is the map

$$\text{Hom}(\text{coker}(i), G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C, G) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \circ j^{-1},$$

where j^{-1} in this context denotes the inverse of the isomorphism (47.1). $\square$

The reason that $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ can each fail in general to be exact is that the injectivity of a map $i : A \hookrightarrow B$ does not guarantee the injectivity of $i \otimes \mathbb{1} : A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G$, nor the surjectivity of $i^* : \text{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G)$. Both can be framed as conditions on the R -module G .

DEFINITION 47.5. An R -module G is **flat** if for every pair of R -modules A, B with an injective homomorphism $i : A \hookrightarrow B$, the homomorphism $i \otimes \mathbb{1} : A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G$ is also injective.

DEFINITION 47.6. An R -module G is **injective** if for every pair of R -modules A, B with an injective homomorphism $i : A \rightarrow B$ and a homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow G$, one can find a third homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi} : B \rightarrow G$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & B & \\ \uparrow i & \searrow \tilde{\varphi} & \\ A & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & G \end{array}$$

commutes. In other words: Every injection $A \xrightarrow{i} B$ has a surjective dual $\text{Hom}(B, G) \xrightarrow{i^*} \text{Hom}(A, G)$.

The right-exactness of $\otimes G$ and left-exactness of $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ now imply:

COROLLARY 47.7. An R -module G is flat if and only if the functor $\otimes G$ is exact, and G is injective if and only if the functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ is exact. $\square$

EXAMPLE 47.8. Consider the exact sequence of abelian groups

$$(47.4) \quad 0 \longrightarrow 2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} \mathbb{Z}_2 \longrightarrow 0$$

formed by the inclusion i and quotient projection. Feeding it into the functor $\otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 : \text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$ gives

$$0 \longrightarrow 2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{\cdot 2} \mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{pr} \otimes \mathbb{1}} \mathbb{Z}_2 \otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow 0,$$

which is not exact since multiplication by 2 is the trivial map on $\mathbb{Z}_2$, hence the map $i \otimes \mathbb{1} : 2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_2$ fails to be injective. This shows that $\mathbb{Z}_2$ is not a flat $\mathbb{Z}$ -module and $\otimes \mathbb{Z}_2 : \text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$ is not an exact functor.

EXAMPLE 47.9. The isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules $2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : m \mapsto m/2$ cannot be extended from the subgroup $2\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ to a homomorphism $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. This shows that $\mathbb{Z}$ is not an injective $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, and in particular, feeding the exact sequence (47.4) into $\text{Hom}(\cdot, \mathbb{Z}) : \text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$ produces a non-exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_2, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\text{pr}^*} \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{i^*} \text{Hom}(2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow 0,$$

with exactness failing at the term $\text{Hom}(2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$ because the map $i^* : \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(2\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z})$ dual to the inclusion $i : 2\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is not surjective.

In the previous lecture, we made use of the fact that feeding a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ into any additive functor $\mathcal{F}$ does produce an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow 0$ whenever the original sequence splits, which is true for instance if C is a free R -module. It will be useful to note that this trick also works under a somewhat weaker assumption than freeness. As you've seen in covering space theory, it is often useful to be able to recognize when

“lifting” problems can be solved, and the following dualization of Definition 47.6 does something similar in algebraic settings.

DEFINITION 47.10. An R -module G is called **projective** if for every surjective homomorphism $\pi : B \rightarrow A$, every homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow A$ can be lifted to a homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi} : G \rightarrow B$ so that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & B \\ & \nearrow \tilde{\varphi} & \downarrow \pi \\ G & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & A \end{array}$$

The following result makes more precise the sense in which the notions of projectivity and injectivity are dual to each other; its proof is an exercise.

PROPOSITION 47.11. *For any R -module G , the covariant functor $\text{Hom}(G, \cdot) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is left-exact, and it is exact if and only if G is projective.* $\square$

EXAMPLE 47.12. Every free R -module is also projective. Indeed, if G has a basis $\mathcal{B} \subset G$, then the required lift $\tilde{\varphi} : G \rightarrow B$ can be defined by choosing any $\tilde{\varphi}(e) \in \pi^{-1}(\varphi(e))$ for each $e \in \mathcal{B}$ and extending $\tilde{\varphi}$ to the unique homomorphism with these values on the basis elements.

EXAMPLE 47.13. The abelian group $\mathbb{Z}_2$ is not a projective $\mathbb{Z}$ -module. For instance, the lift in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & \mathbb{Z} \\ & \nearrow \tilde{\varphi} & \downarrow \text{pr} \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & \xrightarrow{1} & \mathbb{Z}_2 \end{array}$$

can never exist since $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}_2, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.

Now suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of R -modules and, instead of assuming C is free, suppose it is projective. The identity map $C \rightarrow C$ then admits a lift $\varphi : C \rightarrow B$ satisfying $j \circ \varphi = \mathbb{1}$, so φ is a right-inverse of j . We conclude:

PROPOSITION 47.14. *If C is a projective R -module and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence, then the sequence splits, and the sequence induced by feeding it into any additive functor is therefore also split exact.* $\square$

Let us now collect some tools for recognizing the flatness of a module.

LEMMA 47.15. *For any collection $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of R -modules, $G := \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha$ is flat if and only if G_α is flat for every $\alpha \in J$.*

PROOF. Given an injective homomorphism $i : A \rightarrow B$, tensoring with the direct sum G produces a “diagonal” homomorphism

$$A \otimes \left(\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \right) = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} (A \otimes G_\alpha) \xrightarrow{\bigoplus_{\alpha} i \otimes \mathbb{1}} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} (B \otimes G_\alpha) = B \otimes \left(\bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha \right)$$

which is injective if and only if all of its diagonal entries $i \otimes \mathbb{1} : A \otimes G_\alpha \rightarrow B \otimes G_\alpha$ are injective. $\square$

LEMMA 47.16. *Every free R -module is flat.*

PROOF. Free modules are isomorphic to direct sums of copies of R , so thanks to Lemma 47.15, this follows from the trivial observation that R itself is a flat R -module. $\square$

LEMMA 47.17. *Every projective R -module is a direct summand of a free R -module.*

PROOF. Given an R -module G , choose any free R -module F that admits a surjective homomorphism $\pi : F \rightarrow G$, e.g. one could take F to be the free R -module on the set of all elements of G , with π as the unique homomorphism determined by the inclusions of those elements. We now have a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \ker \pi \hookrightarrow F \xrightarrow{\pi} G \longrightarrow 0,$$

and if G is projective, then Proposition 47.14 gives a splitting of this sequence, and therefore an isomorphism $F \cong G \oplus \ker \pi$. $\square$

COROLLARY 47.18. *All projective R -modules are flat.* $\square$

REMARK 47.19. If R is a principal ideal domain, then Lemma 47.17 and Proposition 46.2 together imply that projective R -modules and free R -modules are the same thing. But we will not need to make any concrete use of this fact, as projectivity on its own is already a quite useful condition.

The following result lies in the background of the fact stated in Theorem 47.1 that $\text{Tor}(A, B) = 0$ whenever A or B is a torsion-free $\mathbb{Z}$ -module; its proof is Exercise 47.3.

PROPOSITION 47.20. *Every torsion-free abelian group is a flat $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.* $\square$

47.3. Projective resolutions. By now we have some motivation to believe that there is something special about R -modules that are projective: in particular, Proposition 47.14 and Corollary 47.18 imply that the results of the previous lecture produce a natural isomorphism

$$H_n(C_*) \otimes G \cong H_n(C_* \otimes G)$$

whenever either $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ or G happens to be projective. Unfortunately, plenty of interesting R -modules (such as the abelian group $\mathbb{Z}_2$) are not projective, and the natural map $h : H_n(C_*) \otimes G \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes G)$ will then sometimes fail to be an isomorphism; we still need a better understanding of what happens in such cases.

As an attempt at motivating the next definition, here is an unnecessarily verbose way of restating the observation that everything is fine if $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ is projective: everything is fine if there exists an exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow P \rightarrow H_{n-1}(C_*) \rightarrow 0$$

in which all terms to the left of $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ are projective. This is clear: an exact sequence of this form is equivalent to an isomorphism $P \rightarrow H_{n-1}(C_*)$, and P is then projective if and only if $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ is projective. The point of framing the issue in these terms is that in homological algebra, exact sequences can be regarded as generalizations of isomorphisms, but they exist in many situations where actual isomorphisms do not.

DEFINITION 47.21. A **projective resolution** $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of an R -module A consists of an exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} A_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} A \longrightarrow 0$$

such that all of the A_n for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ are projective R -modules and the final nontrivial term is A .

The notation $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ for a projective resolution makes sense from the following perspective. Let A_* denote the chain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_2 \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} A_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A_0 \longrightarrow A_{-1} := 0 \longrightarrow A_{-2} := 0 \longrightarrow \dots$$

obtained by truncating the exact sequence after A_0 , and identify A with the trivial chain complex that has A itself in degree 0 and the trivial module in all other degrees. The fact that α is surjective

and satisfies $\alpha \circ \alpha_1 = 0$ then allows us to regard α as a surjective chain map $A_* \rightarrow A$, also known as an *augmentation* of the chain complex A_* , for which the resulting augmented chain complex

$$\tilde{A}_* := \bigoplus_{n=-1}^{\infty} \tilde{A}_n \quad \text{with} \quad \tilde{A}_{-1} := A \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{A}_n := A_n \text{ for } n \geq 0$$

is the original exact sequence in the projective resolution. In these terms, a projective resolution of A is the same thing as a chain complex A_* of projective modules that is trivial in all negative degrees and has trivial homology in all positive degrees, together with an augmentation $\alpha : A_* \rightarrow A$ for which the reduced homology $\tilde{H}_*(A_*) := H_*(\tilde{A}_*)$ is trivial.

PROPOSITION 47.22. *Every R -module A admits a projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$. Moreover, if R is a principal ideal domain, the resolution can be chosen such that A_n is the trivial R -module for every $n \geq 2$.*

PROOF. Pick any generating set $S_0 \subset A$, i.e. a set such that every element of A can be written (perhaps non-uniquely) as $\sum_{e \in S_0} r_e e$ for some coefficients $r_e \in R$, at most finitely-many of which are nonzero. This can always be done, since e.g. it would suffice to choose $S_0 = A$, though smaller subsets are also possible. We then consider the free R -module $A_0 := \bigoplus_{e \in S_0} R$ generated by the set S_0 , and define $\alpha : A_0 \rightarrow A$ as the unique R -module homomorphism that extends the inclusion $S_0 \hookrightarrow A$, noting that α is surjective by construction. Next, pick S_1 to be a generating subset of $\ker \alpha \subset A_0$, and define $A_1 := \bigoplus_{e \in S_1} R$ and $\alpha_1 : A_1 \rightarrow \ker \alpha$ analogously; this defines $\alpha_1 : A_1 \rightarrow A_0$ such that $\text{im } \alpha_1 = \ker \alpha$. Now continue this process inductively: all of the modules A_n produced in this way are free, and therefore projective.

If R is a principal ideal domain, then after defining $A_0 \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ as described above, we can exploit Proposition 46.2 to conclude that $\ker \alpha \subset A_0$ is also a free R -module, and thus simplify the construction by defining $A_1 := \ker \alpha$ with $A_1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A_0$ as the inclusion, and then set $A_n := 0$ for all $n \geq 2$. $\square$

There seem to be quite a lot of arbitrary choices involved in constructing projective resolutions, but the next result shows that they are more unique than one might expect.

PROPOSITION 47.23. *Given an R -module homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ and any projective resolutions $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of A and $B_* \xrightarrow{\beta} B$ of B , there exists a sequence of R -module homomorphisms $\varphi_n : A_n \rightarrow B_n$ for $n \geq 0$ which, together with $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$, form a chain map $\varphi_* : \tilde{A}_* \rightarrow \tilde{B}_*$ between the corresponding augmented chain complexes, i.e. the diagram*

$$(47.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & A_2 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} & A_1 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} & A_0 & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & A \\ & & \downarrow \varphi_2 & & \downarrow \varphi_1 & & \downarrow \varphi_0 & & \downarrow \varphi \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & B_2 & \xrightarrow{\beta_2} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{\beta_1} & B_0 & \xrightarrow{\beta} & B \end{array}$$

commutes. Moreover, this chain map is unique up to chain homotopy.

COROLLARY 47.24. *For any two projective resolutions $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ and $A'_* \xrightarrow{\alpha'} A$ of the same R -module A , the chain complexes A_* and A'_* admit a chain homotopy equivalence $\varphi_* : A_* \rightarrow A'_*$ whose restriction $\varphi_0 : A_0 \rightarrow A'_0$ to degree 0 satisfies $\alpha' \circ \varphi_0 = \alpha$.*

PROOF. Proposition 47.23 can be applied with $\varphi : A \rightarrow A$ as the identity map to produce chain maps between A_* and A'_* in both directions, and uniqueness of up to chain homotopy then implies that both of their compositions are chain homotopic to the identity. $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 47.23. For convenience, we can treat A and B as the degree -1 terms in augmented chain complexes and thus write $A_{-1} := A$, $B_{-1} := B$, $\varphi_{-1} := \varphi$, $\alpha_0 := \alpha$ and

$\beta_0 := \beta$. Arguing by induction, assume for some integer $k \geq 0$ that the maps $\varphi_{-1}, \dots, \varphi_{k-1}$ in (47.5) have already been constructed so that all the relevant squares commute. We must then find a map $\varphi_k : A_k \rightarrow B_k$ such that $\beta_k \varphi_k = \varphi_{k-1} \alpha_k$. Notice that

$$\beta_{k-1} \varphi_{k-1} \alpha_k = \varphi_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1} \alpha_k = 0,$$

thus $\text{im}(\varphi_{k-1} \alpha_k) \subset \ker \beta_{k-1} = \text{im} \beta_k$, and we can therefore define φ_k to be any solution to the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & B_k \\ & \nearrow \varphi_k & \downarrow \beta_k \\ A_k & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{k-1} \alpha_k} & \ker \beta_{k-1} \end{array}$$

A solution exists since A_k is projective. The existence of the complete chain map φ_* now follows by induction on k .

For uniqueness, suppose φ_* and ψ_* are two chain maps as above, and we want to define a chain homotopy between them, i.e. a sequence of maps $h_k : A_k \rightarrow B_{k+1}$ for $k \geq 0$ satisfying

$$\varphi_k - \psi_k = \beta_{k+1} h_k + h_{k-1} \alpha_k$$

for every k . For this to make sense when $k = 0$, we need also a map $h_{-1} : A \rightarrow B_0$, which we define as $h_{-1} := 0$. Assume for some $k \geq 0$ that $h_{-1}, \dots, h_{k-1}$ have already been constructed, so we now need to find a map $h_k : A_k \rightarrow B_{k+1}$ such that

$$\beta_{k+1} h_k = \varphi_k - \psi_k - h_{k-1} \alpha_k.$$

We observe that by commutativity and the chain homotopy relation for $k-1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_k (\varphi_k - \psi_k - h_{k-1} \alpha_k) &= (\varphi_{k-1} - \psi_{k-1}) \alpha_k - \beta_k h_{k-1} \alpha_k \\ &= (\beta_k h_{k-1} + h_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1} - \beta_k h_{k-1}) \alpha_k = h_{k-2} \alpha_{k-1} \alpha_k = 0, \end{aligned}$$

so $\text{im}(\varphi_k - \psi_k - h_{k-1} \alpha_k) \subset \ker \beta_k = \text{im} \beta_{k+1}$, and h_k can now be defined as any solution to the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & B_{k+1} \\ & \nearrow h_k & \downarrow \beta_{k+1} \\ A_k & \xrightarrow{\varphi_k - \psi_k - h_{k-1} \alpha_k} & \ker \beta_k \end{array}$$

The result now follows again by induction on k . $\square$

The next result serves as the technical engine behind the long exact sequences in Theorems 47.1 and 47.2.

PROPOSITION 47.25 (horseshoe lemma). *Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of R -modules and $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ and $C_* \xrightarrow{\gamma} C$ are projective resolutions of A and C respectively. Then there exists a projective resolution $B_* \xrightarrow{\beta} B$ of B and maps $A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n$ and $B_n \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n$ for each $n \geq 0$ such that the diagram in Figure 39 commutes, and the rows $0 \rightarrow A_n \rightarrow B_n \rightarrow C_n \rightarrow 0$ for all $n \geq 0$ are split exact sequences.*

PROOF. Let us label the given exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A_{-1} \xrightarrow{f_{-1}} B_{-1} \xrightarrow{g_{-1}} C_{-1} \rightarrow 0$ and, arguing by induction, suppose for some $n \geq 0$ that rows $k = -1, \dots, n-1$ of the diagram above have already been constructed and have the desired properties. For convenience, label $\alpha_0 := \alpha$, $\beta_0 := \beta$ and $\gamma_0 := \gamma$, and define $\alpha_{-1}, \beta_{-1}, \gamma_{-1}$ to be the unique maps from A, B, C respectively to

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & A_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} f_2 \text{---}} & B_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} g_2 \text{---}} & C_2 \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow \alpha_2 & & \downarrow \beta_2 & & \downarrow \gamma_2 \\
0 & \longrightarrow & A_1 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} f_1 \text{---}} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} g_1 \text{---}} & C_1 \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow \alpha_1 & & \downarrow \beta_1 & & \downarrow \gamma_1 \\
0 & \longrightarrow & A_0 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} f_0 \text{---}} & B_0 & \xrightarrow{\text{---} g_0 \text{---}} & C_0 \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \beta & & \downarrow \gamma \\
0 & \longrightarrow & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & \xrightarrow{g} & C \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
& & 0 & & 0 & & 0
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 39. The diagram constructed in the horseshoe lemma. The modules B_n and the dashed arrows need to be constructed; everything else is given.

the trivial module. As a preliminary observation, we claim that the short exact sequence at row $n - 1$ restricts to a short exact sequence

$$(47.6) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \ker \alpha_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \ker \beta_{n-1} \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} \ker \gamma_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0.$$

If $n = 0$ this just means that the original sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is exact, and for $n \geq 1$, we can deduce this from a long exact sequence of homologies obtained as follows. Consider the short exact sequence of chain complexes obtained by adding to rows $-1, \dots, n - 1$ of the diagram infinitely many rows that contain only trivial modules. The exactness of the original columns then forces the homology in degree $n - 2$ to vanish, while the homologies in degree $n - 1$ are just the kernels of the respective maps, and (47.6) thus arises as the portion of the long exact sequence corresponding to row $n - 1$. Most importantly, we conclude from this that g_{n-1} maps $\ker \beta_{n-1}$ surjectively onto $\ker \gamma_{n-1}$.

Now we proceed with the inductive step. What makes the construction of row n of the diagram relatively straightforward is the expectation that the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A_n \rightarrow B_n \rightarrow C_n \rightarrow 0$ we are looking for should split: indeed, any short exact sequence with C_n as its last nontrivial term will automatically split, since C_n is projective (cf. Prop. 47.14). We can therefore construct B_n with this in mind, i.e. we define $B_n := A_n \oplus C_n$, with $f_n : A_n \hookrightarrow A_n \oplus C_n$ and $g_n : A_n \oplus C_n \rightarrow C_n$ as the obvious inclusion and projection respectively. Note that by Exercise 47.2, $A_n \oplus C_n$ is projective. The remaining task is thus to find a map

$$A_n \oplus C_n \xrightarrow{\beta_n} B_{n-1}$$

that satisfies

$$(47.7) \quad \operatorname{im} \beta_n = \ker \beta_{n-1}, \quad \gamma_n \circ g_n = g_{n-1} \circ \beta_n, \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_n \circ f_n = f_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n.$$

Denote the natural inclusions into the direct sum by

$$i_A : A_n \hookrightarrow A_n \oplus C_n, \quad i_C : C_n \hookrightarrow A_n \oplus C_n,$$

so we have

$$i_A = f_n \quad \text{and} \quad g_n \circ i_C = \mathbf{1}_{C_n}.$$

Any pair of maps $\beta_A : A_n \rightarrow B_{n-1}$ and $\beta_C : C_n \rightarrow B_{n-1}$ will determine a unique $\beta_n : A_n \oplus C_n \rightarrow B_{n-1}$ via the relations

$$\beta_A := \beta_n \circ i_A : A_n \rightarrow B_{n-1} \quad \beta_C := \beta_n \circ i_C : C_n \rightarrow B_{n-1},$$

and the relation $\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_n = 0$ then holds trivially if $n = 0$, and for $n \geq 1$, it holds if and only if

$$\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_A = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_C = 0.$$

Since $i_A = f_n$, (47.7) demands that β_A satisfy the relation

$$\beta_A = \beta_n \circ f_n = f_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n,$$

which uniquely determines it, i.e. we now define $\beta_A := f_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n$ and observe that for $n \geq 1$, it conveniently satisfies

$$\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_A = \beta_{n-1} \circ f_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n = f_{n-2} \circ \alpha_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n = 0.$$

The relation $\beta_n \circ f_n = f_{n-1} \circ \alpha_n$ in (47.7) will now be satisfied regardless of how β_C is defined, and the additional conditions $\gamma_n \circ g_n = g_{n-1} \circ \beta_n$ and $\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_n = 0$ will hold if and only if β_C is a map $C_n \rightarrow \ker \beta_{n-1}$ satisfying

$$(47.8) \quad g_{n-1} \circ \beta_C = \gamma_n \circ g_n \circ i_C = \gamma_n.$$

Since γ_n has image in $\ker \gamma_{n-1}$ and g_{n-1} maps $\ker \beta_{n-1}$ surjectively onto $\ker \gamma_{n-1}$, the fact that C_n is projective now guarantees the existence of a map $\beta_C : C_n \rightarrow \ker \beta_{n-1}$ that lifts $\gamma_n : C_n \rightarrow \ker \gamma_{n-1}$ via the surjection $g_{n-1} : \ker \beta_{n-1} \rightarrow \ker \gamma_{n-1}$ in precisely the sense of (47.8), so let us choose β_C to be any map with this property. The definition of row n in the diagram is now complete: by construction the diagram still commutes, and $\beta_{n-1} \circ \beta_n = 0$.

The only remaining question is whether $\text{im } \beta_n = \ker \beta_{n-1}$, but in fact, this now follows for more-or-less formal reasons. Indeed, consider the short exact sequence of chain complexes obtained by replacing everything in the diagram except for rows $n-1$ and n with trivial modules, and replacing row $n-1$ with $0 \rightarrow \ker \alpha_{n-1} \rightarrow \ker \beta_{n-1} \rightarrow \gamma_{n-1} \rightarrow 0$, i.e. the diagram in Figure 40. The resulting long exact sequence of homologies⁷⁴ takes the form

$$\dots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \ker \alpha_n \rightarrow \ker \beta_n \rightarrow \ker \gamma_n \rightarrow \frac{\ker \alpha_{n-1}}{\text{im } \alpha_n} \rightarrow \frac{\ker \beta_{n-1}}{\text{im } \beta_n} \rightarrow \frac{\ker \gamma_{n-1}}{\text{im } \gamma_n} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots,$$

and of the three quotients in this sequence, two of them are already assumed to be trivial, implying that the third must be as well. $\square$

47.4. Left and right derived functors. Your first instinct when you see a chain map like $\varphi_* : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ as in Proposition 47.23 might be to look at the homomorphisms it induces between the homologies of the two chain complexes, but that is not very interesting in this situation since by exactness, those homologies can only be nontrivial in degree 0, where the original exact sequences of the projective resolutions have been truncated. Something much more interesting happens, however, if we now feed those exact sequences into an additive functor

$$\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

that is covariant and right-exact, or contravariant and left-exact.

⁷⁴What we are using here is a version of a popular result in homological algebra called the *snake lemma*. We are deducing it from the fact that short exact sequences of chain complexes give long exact sequences on homology, but it is also possible to do things the other way around, i.e. to prove the snake lemma directly via a diagram chase and then derive from it the usual result about short and long exact sequences.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & A_n & \xrightarrow{f_n} & B_n & \xrightarrow{g_n} & C_n \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \downarrow \alpha_n & & \downarrow \beta_n & & \downarrow \gamma_n & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & \ker \alpha_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} & \ker \beta_{n-1} & \xrightarrow{g_{n-1}} & \ker \gamma_{n-1} \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & \\
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots &
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 40. The short exact sequence of chain complexes that implies $\text{im } \beta_n = \ker \beta_{n-1}$.

We consider first the covariant case. Given any projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of an R -module A , we can let $\mathcal{F}$ operate on the chain complex A_* to obtain a chain complex $\mathcal{F}(A_*)$ with terms

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_2) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_2)} \mathcal{F}(A_1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)} \mathcal{F}(A_0) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots,$$

along with a homomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(A_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(A).$$

If $\mathcal{F}$ is an exact functor, then by Proposition 46.7, the sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_2) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_2)} \mathcal{F}(A_1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)} \mathcal{F}(A_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow 0$$

will also be exact, implying that the homologies $H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*))$ of the chain complex $\mathcal{F}(A_*)$ are all trivial for $n > 0$. The only nontrivial homology here will be in degree 0, where the exactness of $\mathcal{F}$ forces $\mathcal{F}(\alpha) : \mathcal{F}(A_0) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A)$ to be a surjective map that descends to an isomorphism

$$(47.9) \quad H_0(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) = \mathcal{F}(A_0) / \text{im}(\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)) = \mathcal{F}(A_0) / \ker(\mathcal{F}(\alpha)) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{F}(A).$$

In fact, the latter is still true if $\mathcal{F}$ is not exact but only right-exact, because $\mathcal{F}(A_1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)} \mathcal{F}(A_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow 0$ is then still an exact sequence. But if $\mathcal{F}$ is not left-exact, then we no longer have any reason to expect $H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*))$ to be trivial for $n > 0$, and in fact, these homologies can be regarded as measurements of the failure of $\mathcal{F}$ to be an exact functor. The crucial consequence of Proposition 47.23 and Corollary 47.24 is now that, up to isomorphism, these homologies are all *independent of the choice of projective resolution*! Indeed, one can operate with $\mathcal{F}$ on the entirety of the diagram (47.5) to produce a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\dots & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{F}(A_2) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_2)} & \mathcal{F}(A_1) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)} & \mathcal{F}(A_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(A) \\
& & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\varphi_2) & & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\varphi_1) & & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\varphi_0) & \downarrow \mathcal{F}(\varphi) \\
\dots & \longrightarrow & \mathcal{F}(B_2) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\beta_2)} & \mathcal{F}(B_1) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\beta_1)} & \mathcal{F}(B_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\beta)} \mathcal{F}(B)
\end{array}$$

that represents a chain map $\mathcal{F}(\varphi_*) : \mathcal{F}(A_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B_*)$ associated to any homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$, and applying $\mathcal{F}$ also to the chain homotopy relation shows that such chain maps are similarly unique up to chain homotopy. Letting the chain maps descend to homology now associates to each $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ a sequence of R -module homomorphisms

$$H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} H_n(\mathcal{F}(B_*)) \quad \text{for each } n \geq 0,$$

which are defined independently of the choices of chain maps in Proposition 47.23, and at the degree 0 level, the relation $\varphi \circ \alpha = \beta \circ \varphi_0$ implies that they match $\mathcal{F}(\varphi) : \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B)$ under the natural isomorphisms $H_0(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) \cong \mathcal{F}(A)$ and $H_0(\mathcal{F}(B_*)) \cong \mathcal{F}(B)$, i.e. the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_0(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathcal{F}(A) \\ \downarrow \varphi_* & & \downarrow \varphi \\ H_0(\mathcal{F}(B_*)) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathcal{F}(B) \end{array}$$

commutes. If we now apply this construction with $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ as the identity map $A \rightarrow A$ but with two different choices of projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ and $A'_* \xrightarrow{\alpha'} A$, then the fact that it can be done in both directions implies that the maps on homology are isomorphisms

$$H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(\mathcal{F}(A'_*)) \quad \text{for each } n \geq 0,$$

which for $n = 0$ fit into the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_0(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathcal{F}(A) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \parallel \\ H_0(\mathcal{F}(A'_*)) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathcal{F}(A) \end{array}$$

This discussion justifies the following definition.

DEFINITION 47.26. Fix a choice of projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ for each R -module A . Given a covariant right-exact functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, the associated **left derived functors**

$$L_n \mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

are defined for each integer $n \geq 0$ by associating to each R -module A the R -module

$$L_n \mathcal{F}(A) := H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*)),$$

and to each homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ the homomorphism

$$L_n \mathcal{F}(A) = H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*)) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} H_n(\mathcal{F}(B_*)) = L_n \mathcal{F}(B)$$

determined by the unique chain homotopy class of chain maps $A_* \rightarrow B_*$ provided by Proposition 47.23.

REMARK 47.27. You would be within your rights to find something slightly unsatisfactory about the way Definition 47.26 is stated: On the one hand, making arbitrary choices of projective resolutions in advance for every conceivable R -module requires an unnecessarily broad invocation of the axiom of choice, and it seems to make the definition of the functors $L_n \mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ rather far from unique or canonical. On the other hand, Corollary 47.24 ensures that this ambiguity is never really going to matter, because while making different choices of projective resolution for a single module A leads technically to two different definitions of the module $L_n \mathcal{F}(A)$ for each $n \geq 0$, these two modules come equipped with a canonical isomorphism between them. In practice, one does not actually make choices of projective resolutions in advance; one typically rather finds that

in whatever application one is interested in, particular projective resolutions arise naturally, and are therefore the most convenient choices to use.

DEFINITION 47.28. For any R -module G and each integer $n \geq 0$, the functor

$$\mathrm{Tor}_n(\cdot, G) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod} : A \mapsto \mathrm{Tor}_n(A, G)$$

is defined as the left derived functor $\mathrm{Tor}_n(\cdot, G) := L_n\mathcal{F}$ associated to the right-exact functor $\mathcal{F} := \otimes G$. More explicitly,

$$\mathrm{Tor}_n(A, G) := H_n(A_* \otimes G)$$

for any R -module A with a choice of projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$.

Aside from some details involving the functoriality of $\mathrm{Tor}_n(A, G)$ with respect to G , the following result about left derived functors implies most of the properties of Tor_n listed in Theorem 47.1:

THEOREM 47.29. For any covariant right-exact functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, the left derived functors $L_n\mathcal{F}$ have the following properties:

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \text{ Every short exact sequence } 0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow 0 \text{ gives rise to a long exact sequence} \\ \dots \longrightarrow L_2\mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{L_2\mathcal{F}(f)} L_2\mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{L_2\mathcal{F}(g)} L_2\mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow L_1\mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{L_1\mathcal{F}(f)} L_1\mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{L_1\mathcal{F}(g)} L_1\mathcal{F}(C) \\ \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(C) \longrightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

(2) The functors $L_n\mathcal{F}$ are additive; in particular, there are natural isomorphisms

$$L_n\mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \cong L_n\mathcal{F}(A) \oplus L_n\mathcal{F}(B)$$

for all pairs of R -modules A, B .

(3) $L_n\mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ whenever A is projective or $\mathcal{F}$ is exact.

(4) $L_n\mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ for all $n \geq 2$ and all A whenever R is a principal ideal domain.

(5) There are natural isomorphisms $L_0\mathcal{F}(A) \cong \mathcal{F}(A)$ for all R -modules A .

(6) If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ has the property that no nonzero element $x \in R$ satisfies $kx = 0$, then one has

$$L_1\mathcal{F}(R/kR) \cong \ker \left(\mathcal{F}(R) \xrightarrow{\cdot k} \mathcal{F}(R) \right), \quad \text{and} \quad L_n\mathcal{F}(R/kR) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

PROOF. The natural isomorphisms $L_0\mathcal{F}(A) \cong \mathcal{F}(A)$ asserted in property (5) were already explained in the discussion surrounding (47.9).

For property (1), given a short exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow 0$, the horseshoe lemma (Proposition 47.25) allows us to choose suitable projective resolutions so that we get a corresponding short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{f_*} B_* \xrightarrow{g_*} C_* \longrightarrow 0.$$

Even better, this sequence splits, due to the fact that its last nontrivial term is projective, so we can plug it into any additive functor $\mathcal{F}$ and obtain yet another short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_*) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f_*)} \mathcal{F}(B_*) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g_*)} \mathcal{F}(C_*) \longrightarrow 0.$$

Passing to homology via Proposition 34.9 and replacing $L_0\mathcal{F}$ with $\mathcal{F}$ via the natural isomorphisms now gives a long exact sequence of derived functors as claimed.

Property (2) requires proving that for any two R -module homomorphisms $f, g : A \rightarrow B$ and each $n \geq 0$, the homomorphisms $L_n\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow L_n\mathcal{F}(B)$ given by $L_n\mathcal{F}(f + g)$ and $L_n\mathcal{F}(f) + L_n\mathcal{F}(g)$ are identical. In fact, if $f_*, g_* : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ denote the corresponding chain maps as provided by Proposition 47.23, one can take $f_* + g_*$ as the chain map associated to $f + g : A \rightarrow B$, from which the result follows.

For property (3), note first that if A is projective, then it admits a projective resolution of the form $\dots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{1} A \rightarrow 0$, in which $A_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$, hence $L_n \mathcal{F}(A) = H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_n))$ also vanishes. If on the other hand $\mathcal{F}$ is an exact functor, then $L_n \mathcal{F}(A) = H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_n))$ vanishes for all $n \geq 1$ because for any projective resolution $A_* \rightarrow A$, the induced sequence $\dots \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_2) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_1) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_0)$ is exact.

Property (4) follows by choosing a projective resolution $A_* \rightarrow A$ with $A_n = 0$ for all $n \geq 2$, as provided by Proposition 47.22.

Property (6) is an interesting exercise; specifically, it is Exercise 47.4. $\square$

Next, suppose that $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is contravariant and left-exact. Starting from a choice of projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ for each R -module A , one feeds the chain complex A_* into $\mathcal{F}$ and obtains a cochain complex $\mathcal{F}(A_*)$, whose cohomologies define the **right derived functors**

$$R_n \mathcal{F}(A) := H_n(\mathcal{F}(A_*)), \quad n \geq 0.$$

These are contravariant functors due to Proposition 47.23, which associates to any homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ a chain map $\varphi_* : A_* \rightarrow B_*$, giving rise to a chain map $\mathcal{F}(\varphi_*) : \mathcal{F}(B_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_*)$ that induces maps $R_n \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R_n \mathcal{F}(A)$ for each $n \geq 0$. The chain map $\varphi_* : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is of course not unique, but any other such map $\psi_* : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ is related to it by a chain homotopy $h_* : A_* \rightarrow B_{*+1}$, which can similarly be fed into $\mathcal{F}$ to produce a chain homotopy $\mathcal{F}(h_*) : \mathcal{F}(B_*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A_{*-1})$ between $\mathcal{F}(\varphi_*)$ and $\mathcal{F}(\psi_*)$, showing that the induced map $R_n \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R_n \mathcal{F}(A)$ is independent of choices. Applying the same argument to $1 : A \rightarrow A$ with two different choices of projective resolution gives canonical isomorphisms between the two versions of $R_n \mathcal{F}(A)$ defined via these choices.

The left-exactness of $\mathcal{F}$ implies that the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} \mathcal{F}(A_0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_1)} \mathcal{F}(A_1) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\alpha_2)} \dots$$

is exact at the first two nontrivial terms, meaning that $\mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ defines an isomorphism of $\mathcal{F}(A)$ onto $\ker \mathcal{F}(\alpha_1) \subset \mathcal{F}(A_0)$. Since $\mathcal{F}(A_0)$ is the first nontrivial term in the cochain complex $\mathcal{F}(A_*)$, this kernel is just the zeroth cohomology of that complex, and we therefore have a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(A) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\mathcal{F}(\alpha)} R_0 \mathcal{F}(A).$$

The contravariant analogue of Theorem 47.29 is proved by variations on the same arguments, which we shall leave as an exercise:

THEOREM 47.30. *For any contravariant left-exact functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, the right derived functors $R_n \mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ have the following properties:*

(1) *Every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ gives rise to a long exact sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(g)} \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(f)} \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow R_1 \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{R_1 \mathcal{F}(g)} R_1 \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{R_1 \mathcal{F}(f)} R_1 \mathcal{F}(A) \\ \longrightarrow R_2 \mathcal{F}(C) \xrightarrow{R_2 \mathcal{F}(g)} R_2 \mathcal{F}(B) \xrightarrow{R_2 \mathcal{F}(f)} R_2 \mathcal{F}(A) \longrightarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

(2) *The functors $R_n \mathcal{F}$ are additive; in particular, there are natural isomorphisms*

$$R_n \mathcal{F}(A \oplus B) \cong R_n \mathcal{F}(A) \oplus R_n \mathcal{F}(B)$$

for all pairs of R -modules A, B .

(3) *$R_n \mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ for all $n \geq 1$ whenever A is projective or $\mathcal{F}$ is exact.*

(4) *$R_n \mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ for all $n \geq 2$ and all A whenever R is a principal ideal domain.*

(5) *There are natural isomorphisms $R_0 \mathcal{F}(A) \cong \mathcal{F}(A)$ for all R -modules A .*

(6) If $k \in \mathbb{N}$ has the property that no nonzero element $x \in R$ satisfies $kx = 0$, then one has

$$R_1\mathcal{F}(R/kR) \cong \operatorname{coker}\left(\mathcal{F}(R) \xrightarrow{\cdot k} \mathcal{F}(R)\right), \quad \text{and} \quad R_n\mathcal{F}(R/kR) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

□

47.5. Symmetry of Tor. We have not yet discussed in what sense $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, \cdot) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is also a functor for each $n \geq 0$, but this is not hard to understand. The first important observation is that the tensor product $A \otimes G$ can also be regarded in an obvious way as a functor $A \otimes : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ with respect to G for any fixed R -module A . In fact, this works just as well if one fixes not just a single module but a chain complex C_* , producing a functor

$$C_* \otimes : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ch}(R\text{-Mod})$$

that sends any R -module G to the chain complex $C_* \otimes G$ and any homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ to a chain map of the form

$$1 \otimes \varphi : C_* \otimes G \rightarrow C_* \otimes H,$$

thus inducing maps

$$H_n(C_* \otimes G) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} H_n(C_* \otimes H)$$

for each n . Applying this in particular to the chain complex A_* arising from a projective resolution $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of any R -module A produces natural maps

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, G) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} \operatorname{Tor}_n(A, H)$$

induced by any homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$, and one easily checks that for $n = 0$, the natural isomorphism identifies φ_* with $1 \otimes \varphi : A \otimes G \rightarrow A \otimes H$. We leave it as an exercise to show that the functors $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, \cdot) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ are also additive for every $n \geq 0$ and $A \in R\text{-Mod}$.

With that understood, one can now show that any short exact sequence of “coefficient” modules

$$0 \longrightarrow G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K \longrightarrow 0$$

naturally gives rise to a long exact sequence

$$(47.10) \quad \begin{aligned} \dots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_2(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_2(A, H) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_2(A, K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1(A, H) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1(A, K) \\ \rightarrow A \otimes G \rightarrow A \otimes H \rightarrow A \otimes K \rightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

much as in the first property listed in Theorem 47.1. The proof does not require the horseshoe lemma; see Exercise 47.6.

The last detail of Theorem 47.1 remaining to be addressed is the symmetry isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n(B, A).$$

This symmetry is the reason why any criterion on B that implies the vanishing of $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, B)$ can be applied equally well to A or vice versa, e.g. according to Proposition 47.20, B is a flat $\mathbb{Z}$ -module whenever it has no torsion, hence $\otimes B$ is an exact functor, and it follows via symmetry that $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, B)$ also vanishes whenever A is torsion free.

The isomorphism $\operatorname{Tor}_n(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}_n(B, A)$ should not be surprising since there is already a natural isomorphism $A \otimes B \cong B \otimes A$ for every pair of R -modules, which is the special case $n = 0$. Here is a nice way to see the general case.

After choosing projective resolutions $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ and $B_* \xrightarrow{\beta} B$, we can form the commutative diagram in Figure 41, which is called a **double complex**, because of each its rows and each of its columns is a chain complex. Let us number the rows and columns with integers so that $A_m \otimes B_n$ is in row m and column n . Since A_m and B_n are projective for each $m, n \geq 0$, Corollary 47.18 implies that the functors $A_m \otimes$ and $\otimes B_n$ are exact, which makes the m th row and n th column for

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & A_2 \otimes B_2 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_2} & A_2 \otimes B_1 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_1} & A_2 \otimes B_0 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} & A_2 \otimes B & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& & \downarrow \alpha_2 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_2 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_2 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_2 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow & & \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & A_1 \otimes B_2 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_2} & A_1 \otimes B_1 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_1} & A_1 \otimes B_0 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} & A_1 \otimes B & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& & \downarrow \alpha_1 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_1 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_1 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha_1 \otimes 1 & & \downarrow & & \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & A_0 \otimes B_2 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_2} & A_0 \otimes B_1 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_1} & A_0 \otimes B_0 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta} & A_0 \otimes B & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& & \downarrow \alpha \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \alpha \otimes 1 & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & A \otimes B_2 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_2} & A \otimes B_1 & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \beta_1} & A \otimes B_0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\
& & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & &
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 41. The double complex that implies $\text{Tor}_n(A, B) \cong \text{Tor}_n(B, A)$.

each $m, n \geq 0$ into an exact sequence. The only potentially non-exact sequences we can see are therefore the chain complex $A_* \otimes B$ in column -1 , whose homology is

$$H_m(A_* \otimes B) = \text{Tor}_m(A, B),$$

and similarly the complex $A \otimes B_*$ in row -1 , whose homology we can identify with

$$H_n(A \otimes B_*) \cong \text{Tor}_n(B, A)$$

using the natural isomorphism $A \otimes B_* \cong B_* \otimes A$. The rest is a diagram-chasing exercise:

PROPOSITION 47.31. *Suppose (C_*, d) and (C^*, ∂) are chain complexes with $C_{-1} = C^{-1} =: C$ which form row -1 and column -1 respectively of a double complex $\{C_j^i\}_{i,j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ as shown in Figure 42, with the property that all other rows and columns are exact, and $C_j^i = 0$ whenever $i < -1$ or $j < -1$. Then there is a natural isomorphism*

$$H_n(C^*, \partial) \cong H_n(C_*, d)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. □

Applying Proposition 47.31 to the specific double complex in Figure 41 yields the promised isomorphisms $\text{Tor}_n(A, B) \cong \text{Tor}_n(B, A)$. The proof of Theorem 47.1 is now complete.

47.6. The other definition of Ext. We will not need the following detail in subsequent developments, but it would seem criminal not to mention the property of the functors $\text{Ext}_n : R\text{-Mod} \times R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ that is analogous to the symmetry of Tor_n .

Since Ext_n is contravariant in one of its variables but covariant in the other, symmetry is out of the question. The key instead is to fix an R -module G and develop derived functors for the covariant functor $\text{Hom}(G, \cdot)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & C_2^2 & \xrightarrow{d_2^2} & C_1^2 & \xrightarrow{d_1^2} & C_0^2 & \xrightarrow{d_0^2} & C^2 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \downarrow \hat{c}_2^2 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_1^2 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_0^2 & & \downarrow \hat{c}^2 & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & C_2^1 & \xrightarrow{d_2^1} & C_1^1 & \xrightarrow{d_1^1} & C_0^1 & \xrightarrow{d_0^1} & C^1 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \downarrow \hat{c}_2^1 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_1^1 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_0^1 & & \downarrow \hat{c}^1 & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & C_2^0 & \xrightarrow{d_2^0} & C_1^0 & \xrightarrow{d_1^0} & C_0^0 & \xrightarrow{d_0^0} & C^0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \downarrow \hat{c}_2^0 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_1^0 & & \downarrow \hat{c}_0^0 & & \downarrow \hat{c}^0 & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & C_2 & \xrightarrow{d_2} & C_1 & \xrightarrow{d_1} & C_0 & \xrightarrow{d_0} & C & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
\cdots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 42. The abstract double complex in Exercise 47.8.

According to Proposition 47.11, $\text{Hom}(G, \cdot)$ is left-exact, and it is exact if and only if G is projective. The theory of left derived functors developed so far is not appropriate for left-exact covariant functors, but one can develop an analogous theory, in which most of the arrows are reversed. The main idea is to replace projective resolutions $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of a module A by **injective resolutions** $A \xrightarrow{\alpha} A^*$, which are exact sequences

$$0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} A^0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} A^1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A^2 \longrightarrow \cdots$$

in which the modules A^n for all $n \geq 0$ are injective. It is pretty easy to think of modules that are *not* injective, e.g. we saw in Example 47.9 that $\mathbb{Z}$ is not an injective $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, since the isomorphism $2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : m \mapsto m/2$ cannot be extended from the subgroup $2\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ to a homomorphism $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. In this regard, the obvious problem with $\mathbb{Z}$ is that it is not *divisible*, meaning it contains elements $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ that cannot be written as $m = k\ell$ for some $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ and arbitrary natural numbers k . Any abelian group G that is not divisible will fail to be injective due to examples such as $\varphi : k\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G$ for $k \geq 2$ as described above. A somewhat less obvious fact is that the converse also holds: every divisible abelian group is an injective $\mathbb{Z}$ -module (see e.g. [Bre93, Proposition V.6.2]), thus producing simple examples of injective $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules such as the rational numbers $\mathbb{Q}$. With this knowledge, in fact, it is not so difficult to show that every abelian group is isomorphic to a subgroup of one that is injective, and there are also relatively simple ways of extending that result to the context of modules over an arbitrary commutative ring (see [Bae40, ES53]). I do not intend to either prove or make essential use of such a fact, but let us record it here for future reference, since it forms an important component of the big picture:

LEMMA 47.32. *Every R -module is isomorphic to a submodule of one that is injective.* $\square$

If you believe Lemma 47.32, then you will easily convince yourself that every R -module admits an injective resolution: the lemma can be used to define $\alpha : A \rightarrow A^0$ as the inclusion of A into

a larger injective module A^0 , whose quotient by $\text{im}(\alpha) \subset A^0$ can then be included into another injective module A^1 , and so forth. An injective resolution of A yields a cochain complex

$$\dots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow A^0 \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} A^1 \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A^2 \longrightarrow \dots,$$

which we shall abbreviate by A^* , and plugging this into an additive covariant functor $\mathcal{F}$ then yields another cochain complex $\mathcal{F}(A^*)$. If $\mathcal{F}$ is left-exact, then the right derived functors of $\mathcal{F}$ are defined for each $n \geq 0$ by

$$R_n\mathcal{F}(A) := H^n(\mathcal{F}(A^*)).$$

It is straightforward to prove an injective analogue of Proposition 47.23, so that any homomorphism $\varphi : A \rightarrow B$ gives rise to a unique chain homotopy class of chain maps $\varphi_* : A^* \rightarrow B^*$ between the corresponding injective resolutions. Feeding such a chain map into $\mathcal{F}$ gives a chain map $\mathcal{F}(A^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B^*)$, thus inducing a natural homomorphism $R_n\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow R_n\mathcal{F}(B)$ that is independent of choices, and proving at the same time that $R_n\mathcal{F}$ is (up to natural isomorphisms) independent of the choices of injective resolutions. There is also an injective analogue of the horseshoe lemma (Proposition 47.25), turning any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ into a short exact sequence of cochain complexes $0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B^*) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C^*) \rightarrow 0$; the exactness of the latter follows from the observation that a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A^n \rightarrow B^n \rightarrow C^n \rightarrow 0$ splits whenever A^n is injective, because injectivity guarantees the existence of a left-inverse for the injective map $A^n \rightarrow B^n$. The result is that for a left-exact covariant functor $\mathcal{F}$, any short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ gives rise to a long exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow R_1\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow R_1\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R_1\mathcal{F}(C) \\ \rightarrow R_2\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow R_2\mathcal{F}(B) \rightarrow R_2\mathcal{F}(C) \rightarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

The functors $R_n\mathcal{F}$ are easily shown to be additive, and the left-exactness of $\mathcal{F}$ gives rise to a natural isomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(A) \cong R_0\mathcal{F}(A).$$

Moreover, $R_n\mathcal{F}(A) = 0$ for every $n \geq 1$ whenever $\mathcal{F}$ is exact or A is injective.

Since $\text{Hom}(A, \cdot)$ is left-exact for any A , we can apply this machinery to define a second variant of the sequence of Ext functors, which we shall denote for now by

$$\text{Ext}^n(A, \cdot) := R_n(\text{Hom}(A, \cdot)),$$

so explicitly,

$$\text{Ext}^n(A, B) = H^n(\text{Hom}(A, B^*))$$

for the cochain complex $\text{Hom}(A, B^*)$ arising from any injective resolution $B \xrightarrow{\beta} B^*$ of B . We can then observe that Ext^n has several properties matching those of Ext_n , though seemingly for different reasons. Indeed,

$$\text{Ext}^n(A, B) = 0 \quad \text{for every } n \geq 1 \text{ if } A \text{ is projective or } B \text{ is injective,}$$

the reason being that $\text{Hom}(A, \cdot)$ is exact if A is projective, and $0 \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{1} B \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots$ is an injective resolution if B is injective. Similarly, a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow G \rightarrow H \rightarrow K \rightarrow 0$ produces a long exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, H) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, K) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(A, H) \\ \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(A, K) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(A, H) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(A, K) \rightarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

due to the general properties of right derived functors, and a similar sequence for the functors Ext_n can be obtained via more direct arguments (with no need of the horseshoe lemma), using the covariant functoriality of Ext_n in the second variable; see Exercise 47.6. The analogous result

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\cdots & \rightarrow & 0 & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_2, B) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_2, B^0) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_2, B^1) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_2, B^2) & \rightarrow & \cdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\cdots & \rightarrow & 0 & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_1, B) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_1, B^0) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_1, B^1) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_1, B^2) & \rightarrow & \cdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\cdots & \rightarrow & 0 & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_0, B) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_0, B^0) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_0, B^1) & \rightarrow & \text{Hom}(A_0, B^2) & \rightarrow & \cdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\cdots & \rightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Hom}(A, B^0) & \longrightarrow & \text{Hom}(A, B^1) & \longrightarrow & \text{Hom}(A, B^2) & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
\cdots & \rightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \\
& \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\
& \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots
\end{array}$$

FIGURE 43. The double complex that implies $\text{Ext}_n(A, B) \cong \text{Ext}^n(A, B)$.

for Ext^n shows that it is likewise a contravariant functor in its first variable, and that short exact sequences $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ give rise to long exact sequences

$$\begin{aligned}
0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(B, G) \\
\rightarrow \text{Ext}^1(A, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(C, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(B, G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}^2(A, G) \rightarrow \dots,
\end{aligned}$$

thus matching the form of the sequence for Ext_n obtained from the general theory of contravariant right derived functors. All this provides strong evidence that Ext_n and Ext^n are, secretly, the same thing.

We will leave the details as an exercise, but an explicit (and natural) isomorphism $\text{Ext}_n(A, B) \cong \text{Ext}^n(A, B)$ can be obtained from the double complex in Figure 43. Here, $A_* \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ is a projective resolution of A , $B \xrightarrow{\beta} B^*$ is an injective resolution of B , and the vertical and horizontal maps are all obtained via the contravariant and covariant functoriality of Hom in its first and second variables respectively. The n th cohomology of the cochain complex $\text{Hom}(A_*, B)$ in the leftmost nontrivial column is $\text{Ext}_n(A, B)$, the n th cohomology of the complex $\text{Hom}(A, B^*)$ in the lowest nontrivial row is $\text{Ext}^n(A, B)$, and all the other rows and columns are exact, due to the fact that each A_n is projective and each B^n is injective, making $\text{Hom}(A_n, \cdot)$ and $\text{Hom}(\cdot, B_n)$ exact functors. The rest, as they say, is diagram chasing (cf. Proposition 47.31).

47.7. The universal coefficient theorems. We now have more than enough machinery in place to prove the general versions of the universal coefficient theorems.

The setting is again as follows: R is a principal ideal domain, C_* is a chain complex of free R -modules, G is a fixed R -module, and $\mathcal{F}$ is either the covariant functor $\otimes G$ or the contravariant functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$. In contrast with the previous lecture, we will now avoid assuming that $\mathcal{F}$ is an exact functor.

In the covariant case $\mathcal{F} = \otimes G$, the arguments in the previous lecture produced a short exact sequence

$$(47.11) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \text{coker } \mathcal{F}(i_n) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(j)_*} H_n(C_* \otimes G) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\partial')^*} \ker \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where $i_n : B_n \hookrightarrow Z_n$ is the inclusion and ∂' denotes the chain map $C_* \rightarrow B_{*-1}$ defined via the boundary operator on C_* , which induces a chain map $\mathcal{F}(\partial') : C_* \otimes G \rightarrow B_{*-1} \otimes G$ and then

descends to homology as a homomorphism $\mathcal{F}(\partial')_* : H_n(C_* \otimes G) \rightarrow B_{n-1} \otimes G$ whose image is the kernel of

$$\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) = i_{n-1} \otimes \mathbb{1} : B_{n-1} \otimes G \rightarrow Z_{n-1} \otimes G.$$

The step where exactness was used was when the short exact sequence

$$(47.12) \quad 0 \longrightarrow B_n \xrightarrow{i_n} Z_n \xrightarrow{q_n} H_n(C_*) \longrightarrow 0$$

was fed into the functor $\mathcal{F}$. Without exactness, the resulting chain complex will not generally be an exact sequence, but for $\mathcal{F} = \otimes G$, we can instead extract from Theorem 47.1 a long (but not very long) exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Tor}(H_n(C_*), G) \longrightarrow B_n \otimes G \xrightarrow{i_n \otimes \mathbb{1}} Z_n \otimes G \xrightarrow{q_n \otimes \mathbb{1}} H_n(C_*) \otimes G \longrightarrow 0,$$

in which the initial term is actually $\text{Tor}(Z_n, G)$, which vanishes because Z_n is a free R -module. This sequence is only slightly more complicated than what we had in the exact case: we can still conclude from it that $\mathcal{F}(q_n) = q_n \otimes \mathbb{1}$ is surjective and descends to an isomorphism

$$\text{coker}(i_n \otimes \mathbb{1}) \xrightarrow[\cong]{q_n \otimes \mathbb{1}} H_n(C_*) \otimes G,$$

but the major difference is that while the kernel of $\mathcal{F}(i_n) = i_n \otimes \mathbb{1}$ was previously trivial, we now instead have an isomorphism

$$\text{Tor}(H_n(C_*), G) \xrightarrow{\cong} \ker(i_n \otimes \mathbb{1}).$$

Making these substitutions in (47.11) gives a short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow H_n(C_*) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(C_* \otimes G) \longrightarrow \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

in which the map h admits the same characterization as in (46.11) and is thus the usual canonical homomorphism $[c] \otimes g \mapsto [c \otimes g]$.

One further detail should be addressed before we state a theorem: the sequence obtained above splits. One sees this by choosing left-inverses $p_n : C_n \rightarrow Z_n$ for the inclusions $j_n : Z_n \hookrightarrow C_n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and using them to write down a left-inverse for the injection $h : \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \rightarrow H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$. Indeed, the existence of left-inverses $p_n : C_n \rightarrow Z_n$ is guaranteed because the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow Z_n \hookrightarrow C_n \rightarrow B_{n-1} \rightarrow 0$ splits, due to the fact that B_{n-1} is free. Put these left-inverses together for all n to define a left-inverse of the chain map $j : Z_* \rightarrow C_*$, denoted by $p : C_* \rightarrow Z_*$. Unfortunately, p is not typically a chain map, for fairly obvious reasons: the boundary operator on Z_* is trivial, but $p_{n-1}\partial_n : C_n \rightarrow Z_{n-1}$ sends C_n onto B_{n-1} and then simply includes it into Z_{n-1} , giving a nontrivial map. But if we compose p_n with the quotient projection $q_n : Z_n \rightarrow H_n(C_*)$ and regard $H_*(C_*)$ as a chain complex with trivial boundary operator, then the composition $q_{n-1}p_{n-1}\partial_n$ vanishes, giving rise to a chain map

$$C_* \xrightarrow{qp} H_*(C_*),$$

which at degree n is the composition $q_n \circ p_n : C_n \rightarrow H_n(C_*)$. Feeding this into $\mathcal{F}$ and regarding the $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded module $\mathcal{F}(H_*(C_*)) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ similarly as a chain complex with trivial boundary operators, we obtain a chain map

$$\mathcal{F}(C_*) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(qp)} \mathcal{F}(H_*(C_*)),$$

and the map that this induces on homology at degree n takes the form

$$\mathcal{F}(qp)_* : H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) : [y] \mapsto \mathcal{F}(q_n p_n)y.$$

We claim that this map is a left-inverse of $h : \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \rightarrow H_n(\mathcal{F}(C_*))$. Indeed, for any $x \in \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$, choosing $z \in \mathcal{F}(Z_n)$ with $\mathcal{F}(q_n)z = x$ and applying (46.11), we find

$$\mathcal{F}(qp)_* h(x) = \mathcal{F}(qp)_* ([\mathcal{F}(j_n)z]) = \mathcal{F}(q_n p_n) \mathcal{F}(j_n)z = \mathcal{F}(q_n) \mathcal{F}(p_n j_n)z = \mathcal{F}(q_n)z = x,$$

due to the fact that p_n is a left-inverse of j_n .

I will leave it as an exercise to verify naturality in the following statement, but otherwise, we've proved:

THEOREM 47.33 (universal coefficient theorem for homology). *For any chain complex C_* of free modules over a principal ideal domain R , any fixed R -module G and any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists a split exact sequence*

$$0 \longrightarrow H_n(C_*) \otimes G \xrightarrow{h} H_n(C_* \otimes G) \longrightarrow \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where h is the natural map $[c] \otimes g \mapsto [c \otimes g]$. Moreover, the sequence (but not its splitting) is natural, in the sense that for any chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ between two chain complexes of free R -modules, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & H_n(A_*) \otimes G & \xrightarrow{h} & H_n(A_* \otimes G) & \longrightarrow & \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(A_*), G) \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow \Phi_* \otimes \mathbb{1} & & \downarrow (\Phi \otimes \mathbb{1})_* & & \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & H_n(B_*) \otimes G & \xrightarrow{h} & H_n(B_* \otimes G) & \longrightarrow & \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(B_*), G) \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

commutes, where $\text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(A_*), G) \rightarrow \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(B_*), G)$ is the map induced by $\Phi_* : H_{n-1}(A_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(B_*)$ via the functoriality of Tor . $\square$

The cohomological variant of this result follows by analogous arguments, most of which already appeared in the previous lecture: for the left-exact functor $\mathcal{F} := \text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$, we obtain a short exact sequence

$$(47.13) \quad 0 \longrightarrow \text{coker } \mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) \longrightarrow H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \longrightarrow \ker \mathcal{F}(i_n) \longrightarrow 0,$$

while feeding (47.12) into $\mathcal{F}$ gives the not-very-long exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G) \xrightarrow{q_n^*} \text{Hom}(Z_n, G) \xrightarrow{i_n^*} \text{Hom}(B_n, G) \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_n(C_*), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

in which the rightmost term is $\text{Ext}(Z_n, G)$, again vanishing because Z_n is free. This sequence identifies the kernel of $\mathcal{F}(i_n) = i_n^*$ with $\text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G)$ and the cokernel of $\mathcal{F}(i_{n-1}) = i_{n-1}^*$ with $\text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G)$, so that (47.13) becomes

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G) \longrightarrow H^n(C_*; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G) \longrightarrow 0.$$

To see that this sequence splits, we can again make use of a left-inverse $p : C_* \rightarrow Z_*$ of the inclusion chain map $j : Z_* \rightarrow C_*$. Feeding $qp : C_* \rightarrow H_*(C_*)$ into $\mathcal{F}$ produces a chain map

$$\mathcal{F}(qp) : \mathcal{F}(H_*(C_*)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(C_*)$$

between two cochain complexes, where $\mathcal{F}(H_*(C_*)) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$ is regarded as a cochain complex with trivial coboundary operator. The induced map on cohomology in degree n is then a homomorphism

$$\mathcal{F}(qp)_* : \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*)) \rightarrow H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)),$$

which can be verified to be a right-inverse of the surjective map $h : H^n(\mathcal{F}(C_*)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(H_n(C_*))$.

We conclude:

THEOREM 47.34 (universal coefficient theorem for cohomology). *For any chain complex C_* of free modules over a principal ideal domain R , any fixed R -module G and any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists a split exact sequence*

$$0 \longrightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G) \longrightarrow H^n(C_*; G) \xrightarrow{h} \text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G) \longrightarrow 0,$$

where h is the natural map $[\alpha] \mapsto \langle [\alpha], \cdot \rangle$. Moreover, the sequence (but not its splitting) is natural, in the sense that for any chain map $\Phi : A_* \rightarrow B_*$ between two chain complexes of free R -modules, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(A_*), G) & \longrightarrow & H^n(A_*; G) & \xrightarrow{h} & \text{Hom}(H_n(A_*), G) \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \uparrow \Phi^* & & \uparrow \Phi^* & & \uparrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(B_*), G) & \longrightarrow & H^n(B_*; G) & \longrightarrow & \text{Hom}(H_n(B_*), G) \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

commutes, where $\text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(B_*), G) \rightarrow \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(A_*), G)$ is the map induced by $\Phi_* : H_{n-1}(A_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(B_*)$ via the contravariant functoriality of Ext in its first variable. $\square$

In both of Theorems 47.33 and 47.34, one of the most useful features is the splitting, which gives us isomorphisms

$$\begin{aligned} H_n(C_* \otimes G) &\cong (H_n(C_*) \otimes G) \oplus \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G), \\ H^n(C_*; G) &\cong \text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(C_*), G), \end{aligned}$$

or e.g. for the singular (co)homology of a space X ,

$$\begin{aligned} H_n(X; G) &\cong (H_n(X; R) \otimes G) \oplus \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(X; R), G), \\ H^n(X; G) &\cong \text{Hom}(H_n(X; R), G) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_{n-1}(X; R), G). \end{aligned}$$

It should be emphasized however that these splittings are not *natural*: they depend on arbitrary choices and thus cannot be expected to be preserved by the homomorphisms induced by maps between different spaces.

47.8. Applications. We briefly sketch here a few useful applications of the universal coefficient theorems, leaving the proofs as exercises.

Recall that for any path-connected space X , there is a natural map $\pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that descends to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$ as an isomorphism; moreover, Theorem 43.6 then gives a natural isomorphism $H^1(X; G) \cong \text{Hom}(\pi_1(X), G)$ for any coefficient group G . Since G is necessarily abelian, every homomorphism $\pi_1(X) \rightarrow G$ descends to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$, thus identifying $\text{Hom}(\pi_1(X), G)$ with $\text{Hom}(H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$. But in fact, the isomorphism

$$H^1(X; G) \cong \text{Hom}(H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$$

can be obtained without mentioning $\pi_1(X)$, and without assuming X is path-connected; it follows directly from the universal coefficient theorem for cohomology, according to Exercise 47.9.

Another application concerns the definition of the Betti numbers $b_n(X)$ of a space: we defined $b_n(X)$ in Lecture 42 as the dimension of the rational vector space $H_n(X; \mathbb{Q})$, but in Exercises 47.11 and 47.12, one uses the universal coefficient theorems to deduce several alternative formulas for $b_n(X)$, namely

$$b_n(X) = \text{rank } H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \text{rank } H^n(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H^n(X; \mathbb{K}),$$

where $\mathbb{K}$ is allowed to be any field of characteristic zero. This formula is false in general if $\mathbb{K}$ has finite characteristic, but remarkably, the usual formula for the Euler characteristic

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n b_n(X) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^n \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H^n(X; \mathbb{K})$$

turns out to be valid nonetheless for coefficients in an arbitrary field $\mathbb{K}$, even in cases where $b_n(X)$ and $\dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_n(X; \mathbb{K})$ do not match for individual values of n . These exercises also reveal that the Lefschetz number $L(f)$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$, which was defined in §42.4 using homology with rational coefficients, can be computed in terms of the homomorphism induced by f on the *free part* of $H_*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ or $H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$,

$$H_n^{\text{free}}(X) := H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})/\text{torsion}, \quad H_{\text{free}}^n(X) := H^n(X; \mathbb{Z})/\text{torsion},$$

namely

$$L(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr} \left(H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \operatorname{tr} \left(H_{\text{free}}^n(X) \xrightarrow{f^*} H_{\text{free}}^n(X) \right).$$

This proves on the one hand that $L(f)$ is always an integer (not just a rational number), and it also provides the freedom to compute $L(f)$ in terms of cohomology, as in the application sketched at the beginning of Lecture 43.

Finally, Exercise 47.13 establishes a technical result that lies somewhere in the background of the famous Poincaré conjecture. When combined with some results about the homology of manifolds to be proved later in this semester, it will imply that for every closed topological n -manifold M ,

$$\operatorname{torsion}(H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})) = 0.$$

This will serve as one step in a somewhat intricate argument proving that every simply-connected closed 3-manifold is homotopy equivalent to S^3 , thus motivating the most popular statement of the Poincaré conjecture in dimension three: every simply-connected closed 3-manifold is homeomorphic to S^3 . The obvious analogue of that statement in dimensions four and upward is easily seen to be false—the correct statement of the Poincaré conjecture for arbitrary dimensions is rather that every closed n -manifold *homotopy equivalent* to S^n is also homeomorphic to it. This is in fact a known theorem, and is highly nontrivial for every $n \geq 3$: the cases $n \geq 5$ were established by Smale in the 1960's, the case $n = 4$ followed by work of Friedman in the 1980's, and the hardest case is $n = 3$, proved by Perelman at the beginning of the current century.

47.9. Exercises.

EXERCISE 47.1. Prove Proposition 47.11 on the left-exactness of $\operatorname{Hom}(G, \cdot)$ and exactness in the case that G is projective.

EXERCISE 47.2. Show that if A and B are both projective R -modules, then $A \oplus B$ is also projective.

Remark: If you're already a fan of universal properties, you may want to try proving this statement without using the concrete definition of the direct sum of two R -modules, but instead using the fact that it is a coproduct in the category $R\text{-Mod}$ (cf. Exercise 41.8). Using this language essentially makes the result valid not just for R -modules but in arbitrary abelian categories.

EXERCISE 47.3 (*). Prove Proposition 47.20, stating that torsion-free $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules are flat.
Hint: Given abelian groups A, B, G and an injective homomorphism $i : A \hookrightarrow B$, show that any nontrivial element in the kernel of $i \otimes 1 : A \otimes G \rightarrow B \otimes G$ is also in the kernel of the restriction of this map to $A \otimes G_0 \rightarrow B \otimes G_0$ for some finitely-generated subgroup $G_0 \subset G$. If G is torsion free, what does the classification of finitely-generated abelian groups tell you about G_0 ?

EXERCISE 47.4 (*). Prove the formula for $L_n \mathcal{F}(R/kR)$ stated in Theorem 47.29.
Hint: Every additive functor $\mathcal{F} : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ has the following property (why?). For every R -module A and every integer $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathcal{F}$ sends the morphism $A \rightarrow A : x \mapsto kx$ to the morphism $\mathcal{F}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(A) : y \mapsto ky$.

Further hint: you already know this for $k = 1$, just because $\mathcal{F}$ is a functor.

EXERCISE 47.5 (*). Prove Theorem 47.30, the contravariant analogue of Theorem 47.29 on the properties of derived functors.

EXERCISE 47.6. Suppose $0 \rightarrow G \xrightarrow{\varphi} H \xrightarrow{\psi} K \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of R -modules, and A is another R -module.

- (a) Derive the long exact sequence (47.10) that ends with $\dots \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}_1(A, K) \rightarrow A \otimes G \rightarrow A \otimes H \rightarrow A \otimes K \rightarrow 0$.

Hint: Show that for any projective resolution $A_ \xrightarrow{\alpha} A$ of A , there is a short exact sequence of chain complexes*

$$0 \rightarrow A_* \otimes G \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \varphi} A_* \otimes H \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \psi} A_* \otimes K \rightarrow 0.$$

The fact that the modules A_n are projective is relevant here; it implies that each of the functors $A_n \otimes : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is exact.

- (b) Derive a similar long exact sequence of the form $\dots \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}_1(A, K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, H) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, K) \rightarrow 0$.

EXERCISE 47.7. Set $R := \mathbb{Z}$, and show that for an abelian group G with torsion subgroup $T(G) \subset G$ and any other abelian group A , the map

$$\operatorname{Tor}(A, T(G)) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, G)$$

induced by the inclusion $T(G) \hookrightarrow G$ is an isomorphism.

Hint: Use a long exact sequence.

EXERCISE 47.8. Prove Proposition 47.31 on the isomorphism $H_n(C^*, \partial) \cong H_n(C_*, d)$ arising from a double complex, and clarify what it means to call this isomorphism *natural*.

Hint: Chasing the diagram should feel a bit like climbing stairs.

EXERCISE 47.9. Show that for every space X and abelian group G , the natural map $h : H^1(X; G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(H_1(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$ is an isomorphism.

Hint: The computation of $H_0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ tells you something about $\operatorname{Ext}(H_0(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$.

EXERCISE 47.10 (*). In this exercise, $\mathbb{K}$ is a field, but it will be regarded as merely an abelian group for the purposes of tensor products and Tor and Ext functors.

- (a) Show that for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, the three abelian groups $\mathbb{Z}_m \otimes \mathbb{K}$, $\operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}_m, \mathbb{K})$ and $\operatorname{Ext}(\mathbb{Z}_m, \mathbb{K})$ are all isomorphic to each other, and are all either trivial or isomorphic to $\mathbb{K}$.

Hint: $\mathbb{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{K} : k \mapsto mk$ is a linear map between two 1-dimensional vector spaces.

- (b) Deduce that for any *finite* abelian group T , $T \otimes \mathbb{K}$, $\operatorname{Tor}(T, \mathbb{K})$ and $\operatorname{Ext}(T, \mathbb{K})$ are all isomorphic abelian groups, and they also all have natural $\mathbb{K}$ -module structures that make them isomorphic vector spaces.

EXERCISE 47.11 (*). Assume in this exercise that $\mathbb{K}$ is a field of characteristic zero.

- (a) Show that for any chain complex C_* of free abelian groups, the canonical map

$$H_*(C_*) \otimes \mathbb{K} \xrightarrow{h} H_*(C_* \otimes \mathbb{K}) : [c] \otimes k \mapsto [c \otimes k]$$

is an isomorphism. Note that on both sides of this map, $\mathbb{K}$ should be regarded as an abelian group rather than a $\mathbb{K}$ -module (since $H_*(C_*)$ and C_* are not assumed to be $\mathbb{K}$ -modules), thus $\otimes$ denotes the tensor product of abelian groups.

Remark: It follows in particular that for any space X and any field $\mathbb{K}$ of characteristic zero, the canonical map $h : H_(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{K} \rightarrow H_*(X; \mathbb{K})$ is an isomorphism.*

- (b) Where does the proof in part (a) fail if $\mathbb{K}$ is a field with finite characteristic? What happens, for instance, if $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $C_* = C_*(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z})$?

- (c) Recall that the *rank* of a finitely-generated abelian group G with torsion subgroup $T \subset G$ is the unique integer $r \geq 0$ such that $G/T \cong \mathbb{Z}^r$. Deduce from part (a) that for any space X with finitely-generated homology groups over $\mathbb{Z}$, the Betti numbers $b_n(X) = \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} H_n(X; \mathbb{Q})$ satisfy

$$b_n(X) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_n(X; \mathbb{K}) = \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H^n(X; \mathbb{K}) = \text{rank } H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Find a counterexample showing that this need not hold if $\mathbb{K}$ has finite characteristic.

- (d) Let $H_n^{\text{free}}(X)$ denote the quotient of $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ by its torsion subgroup, and observe that for any map $f : X \rightarrow X$, the induced homomorphism $f_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ descends to a map $f_* : H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \rightarrow H_n^{\text{free}}(X)$. If $H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is finitely generated, then $H_n^{\text{free}}(X)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^r$ for $r := \text{rank } H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$, thus $f_* : H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \rightarrow H_n^{\text{free}}(X)$ can be represented by an r -by- r matrix with integer entries whose trace $\text{tr}(f_*) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is independent of choices. Using the naturality of the map $h : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Q})$, show that the Lefschetz number $L(f) \in \mathbb{Q}$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ as defined in §42.4 satisfies

$$L(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \text{tr} \left(H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n^{\text{free}}(X) \right).$$

This proves in particular that $L(f)$ is an integer.

EXERCISE 47.12 (*). Suppose $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and C_* is a chain complex of free abelian groups such that the homology groups $H_n(C_*)$ and $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ are finitely generated. For $k \in \{n-1, n\}$, the classification of finitely-generated abelian groups allows us to write

$$H_k(C_*) = H_k^{\text{free}} \oplus T_k,$$

where $T_k \subset H_k(C_*)$ is a finite subgroup (the torsion) and $H_k^{\text{free}} := H_k(C_*)/T_k$ is a free abelian group of finite rank. Let H_{free}^k in turn denote the quotient of $H^k(C_*; \mathbb{Z})$ by its torsion subgroup.

- (a) Show that the map $h : H^n(C_*; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_n(C_*), \mathbb{Z})$ determines a natural isomorphism

$$H_{\text{free}}^n \xrightarrow[\cong]{h} \text{Hom}(H_n^{\text{free}}, \mathbb{Z}),$$

implying in particular that there is a (non-natural) isomorphism $H_{\text{free}}^n \cong H_n^{\text{free}}$. One obtains from this yet another new formula for the n th Betti number of a space X ,

$$b_n(X) = \text{rank } H^n(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

- (b) Show that the torsion subgroup of $H^n(C_*; \mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(C_*)$.
 (c) Show that for any space X with finitely-generated homology, the formula

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^k \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H_k(X; \mathbb{K}) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^k \dim_{\mathbb{K}} H^k(X; \mathbb{K})$$

holds for arbitrary fields $\mathbb{K}$ (not just with characteristic zero).

Hint: Exercise 47.10 will be helpful here.

- (d) Show that the Lefschetz number of a map $f : X \rightarrow X$ satisfies

$$L(f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \text{tr} \left(H_{\text{free}}^n(X) \xrightarrow{f^*} H_{\text{free}}^n(X) \right).$$

EXERCISE 47.13 (*). Suppose C_* is a chain complex of free abelian groups such that for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $H_n(C_*)$ is finitely generated and satisfies

$$H_n(C_* \otimes \mathbb{Z}_p) \cong H_n(C_*) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_p$$

for every prime $p \in \mathbb{N}$. Prove that $H_{n-1}(C_*)$ is torsion free.

48. The cross product

The main question for this lecture is straightforward: if we understand $H_*(X)$ and $H_*(Y)$, can we use them to compute $H_*(X \times Y)$?

In the bordism theory sketched in Lecture 28, it is easy to see that there is a product operation

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega_m^\bullet(X) \otimes \Omega_n^\bullet(Y) &\xrightarrow{\times} \Omega_{m+n}^\bullet(X \times Y), \\ [(M, \varphi)] \otimes [(N, \psi)] &\longmapsto [(M, \varphi)] \times [(N, \psi)] := [(M \times N, \varphi \times \psi)].\end{aligned}$$

The reason this is straightforward to define is that the product of two closed manifolds is also a closed manifold. We will see in this lecture that one can define a similarly straightforward product in cellular homology, using the fact that k -cells $e^k \cong \mathbb{D}^k$ can be identified homeomorphically with cubes, so that the product of a k -cell with an ℓ -cell becomes a $(k + \ell)$ -cell. Defining such a product in singular homology is less straightforward, because the product of two simplices is not a simplex in any obvious way, but here we can make use of the triangulation of $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ introduced in §32.2, or as a purely algebraic alternative, the method of acyclic models (see Lecture 33).

48.1. The product of two CW-complexes. Suppose X and Y are both compact CW-complexes, and consider the product $X \times Y$. This has a natural cell decomposition such that

$$(X \times Y)^n = \bigcup_{0 \leq k \leq n} X^k \times Y^{n-k}.$$

It is easiest to see this if we choose a homeomorphism of the disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ with the n -dimensional cube I^n and thus regard I^n as the domain of the characteristic maps of n -cells. Since $I^{k+\ell} = I^k \times I^\ell$, any pair consisting of a k -cell $e_\alpha^k \subset X$ and ℓ -cell $e_\beta^\ell \subset Y$ with characteristic maps $\Phi_\alpha : I^k \rightarrow X$ and $\Phi_\beta : I^\ell \rightarrow Y$ respectively gives rise to a $(k + \ell)$ -cell

$$e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell \subset X \times Y$$

with characteristic map

$$\Phi_\alpha \times \Phi_\beta : I^{k+\ell} \rightarrow X \times Y : (s, t) \mapsto (\Phi_\alpha(s), \Phi_\beta(t)).$$

Using coefficients in a commutative ring R , the bilinear operation

$$C_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \times C_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\times} C_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R)$$

defined on the cellular chain complex by sending a pair of generators $(e_\alpha^k, e_\beta^\ell)$ to $e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell$ is called the (chain-level) **cellular cross product**. The following formula for the boundary map arises from the geometric intuition that the boundary of a product of manifolds $M \times N$ consists of all points $(x, y) \in M \times N$ such that either $x \in \partial M$ or $y \in \partial N$; in particular, this description can be applied to the boundary of the cube $I^{k+\ell} = I^k \times I^\ell$, which is the domain of the characteristic map for a product cell $e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell$. One then has to think somewhat more carefully about orientations to get the signs right (see Exercise 48.3).⁷⁵

PROPOSITION 48.1. *For any pair of CW-complexes X and Y with a k -cell $e_\alpha^k \subset X$ and an ℓ -cell $e_\beta^\ell \subset Y$, the cellular chain complex of $X \times Y$ with its induced cell decomposition and coefficients in any commutative ring R satisfies*

$$\partial(e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell) = \partial e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell + (-1)^k e_\alpha^k \times \partial e_\beta^\ell \in C_{k+\ell-1}^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R).$$

□

⁷⁵An explicit proof of the formula in Prop. 48.1 can also be found in [Hat02, Prop. 3B.1].

Being a bilinear map of R -modules, the cross product is equivalent to an R -module homomorphism

$$C_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes C_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\times} C_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R),$$

namely the unique homomorphism that sends $e_\alpha^k \otimes e_\beta^\ell$ to $e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell$ for every pair of cells of the appropriate dimensions in X and Y . More generally, one can include two arbitrary coefficient modules $G, H \in R\text{-Mod}$ in the picture and define

$$C_k^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \otimes C_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; H) \xrightarrow{\times} C_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; G \otimes H),$$

$$ge_\alpha^k \otimes he_\beta^\ell \mapsto (g \otimes h)(e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell)$$

for $g \in G$ and $h \in H$. The first version follows from this one by taking $G = H := R$ and using the canonical R -module isomorphism $R \otimes R \cong R : r \otimes s \mapsto rs$. Taking the direct sum of these maps over all pairs of integers $k, \ell \geq 0$, the chain-level cellular cross product now determines an R -module homomorphism

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y; H) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; G \otimes H).$$

In the case $G = H := R$, this map is in fact an R -module *isomorphism*, due to the easy observation that both sides are free R -modules with canonical bases that are in bijective correspondence with each other.

48.2. The Künneth formula. The following purely algebraic definition should now hopefully seem quite natural.

DEFINITION 48.2. Given chain complexes (A_*, ∂^A) and (B_*, ∂^B) of R -modules, the **tensor product chain complex** $(A_* \otimes B_*, \partial)$ is defined by

$$(48.1) \quad (A_* \otimes B_*)_n = \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} A_k \otimes B_\ell,$$

where the direct sum is understood to be over the set of all pairs $(k, \ell) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ with $k + \ell = n$, and the boundary map is determined by the formula

$$(48.2) \quad \partial(a \otimes b) = \partial^A a \otimes b + (-1)^k a \otimes \partial^B b \quad \text{for } a \in A_k, b \in B_\ell.$$

You should take a moment to assure yourself that this really defines a chain complex: ∂^2 includes some terms that vanish because $(\partial^A)^2$ and $(\partial^B)^2$ both vanish, but also cross terms $\partial^A a \otimes \partial^B b$ that disappear due to sign cancelations. Here is another easy thing to check: given chain maps $f : A_* \rightarrow A'_*$ and $g : B_* \rightarrow B'_*$, there is a chain map

$$(48.3) \quad f \otimes g : A_* \otimes B_* \rightarrow A'_* \otimes B'_* : a \otimes b \mapsto f(a) \otimes g(b).$$

We can now rephrase Proposition 48.1 as follows:

PROPOSITION 48.3. *For any choices of coefficient modules $G, H \in R\text{-Mod}$, the chain-level cellular cross product determines a chain map*

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y; H) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; G \otimes H) : a \otimes b \rightarrow a \times b,$$

and it is an isomorphism of chain complexes in the case $G = H := R$. □

REMARK 48.4. The signs in formulas such as (48.2) can be deduced consistently from the *Koszul sign convention*, which made a previous appearance when we were constructing oriented triangulations of products of simplices (see Remark 32.2). The idea is to regard every element $a \in A_k$ in a chain complex A_* as *even* or *odd* depending on whether k is even or odd, while also regarding boundary maps such as $\partial : A_* \rightarrow A_*$ as having degree -1 (and thus odd) since they send A_k to A_{k-1} . The rule is then that a sign changes every time the order of two odd objects is

interchanged. In other words, the sign in the formula $\partial(a \otimes b) = \partial a \otimes b + (-1)^k a \otimes \partial b$ comes from the fact that in the last term, we have interchanged the order of ∂ and a , which produces a sign if and only if a is odd (since ∂ is always odd). Similar sign conventions appear in many branches of mathematics, and they are often determined by the signs of permutations, e.g. a familiar example in differential geometry is the formula for the exterior derivative of a wedge product of differential forms.

With product cell complexes as motivation, it is important to be able to compute the homology of a tensor product chain complex, and it seems a good guess that the answer should be related to the tensor product of the individual homologies of the two complexes. As with the universal coefficient theorem, we can begin by observing that there is a canonical map: for any two chain complexes A_*, B_* and each $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$, we can define

$$H_k(A_*) \otimes H_\ell(B_*) \rightarrow H_{k+\ell}(A_* \otimes B_*) : [a] \otimes [b] \mapsto [a \otimes b].$$

It is an easy exercise to check that this is a well-defined homomorphism, and taking the direct sum of these maps for all choices of $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ with a fixed sum produces a canonical map

$$(48.4) \quad \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(A_*) \otimes H_\ell(B_*) \rightarrow H_n(A_* \otimes B_*)$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. It seems reasonable to hope that this will at least sometimes be an isomorphism. What's actually true is in fact a direct generalization of the universal coefficient theorem.

THEOREM 48.5 (algebraic Künneth formula). *Assume R is a principal ideal domain, C_*, C'_* are chain complexes of R -modules, and C_* is free. Then the map (48.4) for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ fits into a natural short exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(C_*) \otimes H_\ell(C'_*) \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k(C_*), H_\ell(C'_*)) \rightarrow 0,$$

and the sequence splits (but not naturally).

As usual, the word “natural” in this statement has a technical meaning in terms of natural transformations, so that for any two pairs of chain complexes A_*, A'_* and B_*, B'_* satisfying the hypotheses of the theorem, the maps in the two exact sequences will fit into commutative diagrams together with the maps induced by any pair of chain maps $A_* \rightarrow B_*$ and $A'_* \rightarrow B'_*$.

The statement becomes a bit more concise if we define the operation $\otimes$ and the functor Tor on pairs of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules $A_* = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} A_k$ and $B_* = \bigoplus_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} B_\ell$, i.e. a grading on $A_* \otimes B_*$ is defined via (48.1), and similarly,

$$\text{Tor}(A_*, B_*) := \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (\text{Tor}(A_*, B_*))_n, \quad \text{where} \quad (\text{Tor}(A_*, B_*))_n := \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} \text{Tor}(A_k, B_\ell).$$

We will have some further comments below on why this is a sensible definition, but one immediate practical reason is that the exact sequence in Theorem 48.5 can now be written as

$$0 \rightarrow H_*(C_*) \otimes H_*(C'_*) \rightarrow H_*(C_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow (\text{Tor}(H_*(C_*), H_*(C'_*)))_{*-1} \rightarrow 0,$$

where the subscript “ $* - 1$ ” on the last term indicates the downward degree shift. The splitting gives rise to a (non-canonical) isomorphism

$$H_*(C_* \otimes C'_*) \cong (H_*(C_*) \otimes H_*(C'_*)) \oplus (\text{Tor}(H_*(C_*), H_*(C'_*)))_{*-1},$$

which can be used in practice to compute the cellular homology of products. We will see at the end of this lecture how this can also be applied directly to singular homology, without needing to know that singular and cellular homologies are isomorphic.

Both the statement and the proof of the Künneth formula can be regarded as direct generalizations of the universal coefficient theorem for homology if we extend the range of our definitions

accordingly. Indeed, if one takes the chain complex C'_* to be a single R -module G in degree 0 and trivial in every other degree, then its homology is itself, and Theorem 48.5 reduces to precisely the universal coefficient theorem. Replacing G with a chain complex C'_* does not actually add much complication to the proof, if one adopts the right perspective.

Let us first clarify why it is sensible to extend Tor to a functor on the category

$$R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$$

of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules $A_* = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} A_n$, whose morphisms consist of R -module homomorphisms $A_* \rightarrow B_*$ that map A_n to B_n for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. One can speak of additive, exact, left-exact and right-exact functors on $R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ in exactly the same way as for functors on $R\text{-Mod}$: the direct sum $A_* \oplus B_*$ of two $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules has an obvious $\mathbb{Z}$ -grading with $(A_* \oplus B_*)_n := A_n \oplus B_n$, and exact sequences of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules are simply exact sequences of R -modules that each carry the grading as extra structure and thus require the morphisms in the sequence to preserve it. Given any $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module $G_* = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} G_n$, the functor

$$\otimes G_* : R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}} : A_* \mapsto A_* \otimes G_*$$

is right-exact for the same reasons that $\otimes G : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is right-exact, and one can similarly define left derived functors $\text{Tor}_n(\cdot, G_*) := L_n(\otimes G_*) : R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ as a way of measuring its failure to be left-exact. This requires choosing for any $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module A_* a projective resolution

$$\dots \longrightarrow A_{*,2} \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} A_{*,1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} A_{*,0} \xrightarrow{\alpha} A_* \longrightarrow 0,$$

i.e. an exact sequence in which each $A_{*,n} = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} A_{k,n}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module that is projective, meaning that the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & H_* \\ & \nearrow \tilde{\varphi} & \downarrow \pi \\ A_{*,n} & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & G_* \end{array}$$

can be solved in the category $R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ whenever $\varphi : A_{*,n} \rightarrow G_*$ and $\pi : H_* \rightarrow G_*$ are homomorphisms that preserve gradings and π is surjective. It is straightforward to check that a $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module $G_* = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} G_n$ is projective if and only if the individual R -modules G_n are all projective, and a projective resolution $A_{*,*} \xrightarrow{\alpha} A_*$ in $R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is thus equivalent to a collection of projective resolutions $A_{k,*} \xrightarrow{\alpha} A_k$ in $R\text{-Mod}$, one for each $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. For this reason, defining $\text{Tor}_n(A_*, G_*)$ as a left derived functor in the category $R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ gives the same result as the more naive definition, in which we simply regard $A_* = \bigoplus_k A_k$ and $G_* = \bigoplus_{\ell} G_{\ell}$ as R -modules and assign to the R -module $\text{Tor}_n(A_*, G_*)$ the $\mathbb{Z}$ -grading such that

$$\text{Tor}_n(A_*, G_*)_m = \bigoplus_{k+\ell=m} \text{Tor}_n(A_k, G_{\ell})$$

for each $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

With those formalities out of the way, let us go ahead and repeat the main details of the proof of the universal coefficient theorem in terms that are general enough to prove the Künneth formula as well.

PROOF OF THEOREM 48.5. As in the proof of the universal coefficient theorem, we abbreviate the submodules of boundaries and cycles in C_n by $B_n \subset Z_n \subset C_n$, and think of $B_* := \bigoplus_n B_n$ and $Z_* := \bigoplus_n Z_n$ as chain complexes with trivial boundary maps, so their homologies are $H_n(Z_*) = Z_n$ and $H_n(B_*) = B_n$. We shall denote by B_{*-1} the chain complex that is the same as B_* but with all degrees shifted one step downward, meaning $(B_{*-1})_n = B_{n-1}$. Since R is a principal

ideal domain and C_* (and therefore also its submodule $B_* \subset C_*$) is free, the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow Z_* \hookrightarrow C_* \xrightarrow{\partial} B_{*-1} \rightarrow 0$ splits, and so therefore does the sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow Z_* \otimes C'_* \longrightarrow C_* \otimes C'_* \rightarrow B_{*-1} \otimes C'_* \longrightarrow 0,$$

which is also a short exact sequence of chain complexes. One detail that is now different from the universal coefficient theorem is that the boundary operators on the first and third of these chain complexes may be nontrivial, though their homologies are still easy to write down. For instance, the submodules of homogeneous elements in $Z_* \otimes C'_*$ are

$$(Z_* \otimes C'_*)_n = \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} Z_k \otimes C'_\ell,$$

and since Z_* is a free chain complex with trivial boundary, we can choose a basis $\mathcal{B}_k$ of each Z_k and thus obtain an isomorphism of this to

$$(Z_* \otimes C'_*)_n \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} \bigoplus_{e \in \mathcal{B}_k} R \otimes C'_\ell \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} \bigoplus_{e \in \mathcal{B}_k} C'_\ell,$$

so that $(Z_* \otimes C'_*)_n \xrightarrow{\partial} (Z_* \otimes C'_*)_{n-1}$ becomes the corresponding direct sum of the boundary maps $C'_\ell \rightarrow C'_{\ell-1}$. The homology of this complex is thus

$$H_n(Z_* \otimes C'_*) \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} \bigoplus_{e \in \mathcal{B}_k} H_\ell(C'_*) \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} Z_k \otimes H_\ell(C'_*),$$

a formula that can be written concisely as a natural isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules

$$H_*(Z_* \otimes C'_*) \cong Z_* \otimes H_*(C'_*).$$

Since $B_{*-1} \subset Z_{*-1} \subset C_{*-1}$ is also free, the homology of $B_{*-1} \otimes C'_*$ admits a similar description, except that the degree shift gives

$$(B_{*-1} \otimes C'_*)_n = \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} B_{k-1} \otimes C'_\ell = \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} B_k \otimes C'_\ell$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and we therefore have natural isomorphisms

$$H_n(B_{*-1} \otimes C'_*) = H_{n-1}(B_* \otimes C'_*) \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} B_k \otimes H_\ell(C'_*),$$

or in concise form,

$$H_*(B_{*-1} \otimes C'_*) = H_{*-1}(B_* \otimes C'_*) \cong (B_* \otimes H_*(C'_*))_{*-1}.$$

The short exact sequence of chain complexes now gives rise as usual to a long exact sequence of homologies

$$\dots \rightarrow H_n(B_* \otimes C'_*) \xrightarrow{\Phi_n} H_n(Z_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(B_* \otimes C'_*) \xrightarrow{\Phi_{n-1}} H_{n-1}(Z_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow \dots,$$

where the maps labeled Φ_n, Φ_{n-1} are the connecting homomorphisms, and we can then turn this into a short exact sequence centered around $H_n(C_* \otimes C'_*)$ in the usual way, namely

$$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \Phi_n \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow \ker \Phi_{n-1} \rightarrow 0,$$

or if we take the direct sum over all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, a short exact sequence of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules

$$(48.5) \quad 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} \Phi_* \rightarrow H_*(C_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow \ker \Phi_{*-1} \rightarrow 0.$$

Inspecting the diagram chase behind the long exact sequence reveals that the map $\Phi_* : H_*(B_* \otimes C'_*) \rightarrow H_*(Z_* \otimes C'_*)$ is the obvious thing: it is the map

$$H_*(B_* \otimes C'_*) \cong B_* \otimes H_*(C'_*) \xrightarrow{i_* \otimes \mathbb{1}} Z_* \otimes H_*(C'_*) \cong H_*(Z_* \otimes C'_*)$$

induced by the inclusions $B_* \xrightarrow{i_*} Z_*$. In order to understand the kernel and cokernel of $i_* \otimes \mathbb{1}$, one feeds the short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow B_* \xrightarrow{i_*} Z_* \xrightarrow{q_*} H_*(C_*) \rightarrow 0$$

into the functor $\otimes H_*(C'_*) : R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}_{\mathbb{Z}}$ and obtains a long (but not very long) exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \text{Tor}(H_*(C_*), H_*(C'_*)) \longrightarrow B_* \otimes H_*(C'_*) &\xrightarrow{i_* \otimes \mathbb{1}} Z_* \otimes H_*(C'_*) \\ &\xrightarrow{q_* \otimes \mathbb{1}} H_*(C_*) \otimes H_*(C'_*) \longrightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

in which the leftmost term $\text{Tor}(Z_*, H_*(C'_*)) = 0$ vanishes because $Z_* \subset C_*$ is free. This leads to the isomorphisms

$$\text{coker}(i_* \otimes \mathbb{1}) \cong H_*(C_*) \otimes H_*(C'_*),$$

and

$$\ker(i_* \otimes \mathbb{1}) \cong \text{Tor}(H_*(C_*), H_*(C'_*)).$$

The sequence we were looking for is now obtained by plugging these isomorphisms into (48.5), with attention to the downward degree shift in the third term.

The proofs of naturality and the splitting proceed as similar generalizations of the proof of the universal coefficient theorem, so we shall leave those steps as exercises. $\square$

It's worth taking special note of what the Künneth formula implies if we take R to be a field $\mathbb{K}$, so that all chain complexes in the discussion are vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$. All such spaces are *free* $\mathbb{K}$ -modules, since vector spaces always admit bases, thus

$$\text{Tor}(A, B) = 0 \quad \text{for all vector spaces } A, B \text{ over } \mathbb{K},$$

and we therefore obtain:

COROLLARY 48.6. *For any field $\mathbb{K}$ and any two chain complexes C_* and C'_* of vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$, the canonical map*

$$\bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(C_*) \otimes H_\ell(C'_*) \rightarrow H_n(C_* \otimes C'_*)$$

is a $\mathbb{K}$ -linear isomorphism for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\square$

This result is one of the reasons why it is often easier to compute homology with field coefficients than over the integers.

48.3. The cross product on cellular homology. We've seen that if X and Y are CW-complexes and we assign the product cell decomposition to $X \times Y$, there is an obvious isomorphism of chain complexes of R -modules

$$(48.6) \quad C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\cong} C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R) : a \otimes b \mapsto a \times b,$$

determined by the rule that for each pair of cells $e_\alpha^k \subset X$ and $e_\beta^\ell \subset Y$, $e_\alpha^k \otimes e_\beta^\ell$ is sent to the product $(k + \ell)$ -cell $e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell \subset X \times Y$. Composing the induced R -module isomorphism on homology with the natural map

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) \rightarrow H_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y; R)) : [x] \otimes [y] \mapsto [x \otimes y]$$

gives rise to a bilinear cross product on homology,

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R).$$

If R is additionally a principal ideal domain, then the Künneth formula also holds, producing for each integer $n \geq 0$ a natural (and non-naturally split) short exact sequence of R -modules

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \otimes H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R) &\xrightarrow{\times} H_n^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; R) \\ &\longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k^{\text{CW}}(X; R), H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y; R)) \longrightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

with the pleasing feature that the Tor term vanishes whenever R is taken to be a field. This exact sequence is the cellular version of the **topological Künneth formula**. We will discuss in the next section how to establish such an exact sequence directly in singular homology, without needing to assume that X and Y are CW-complexes.

REMARK 48.7. There is an annoying point that we've been glossing over so far in our discussion of product CW-complexes: if X and Y are two CW-complexes, then the product topology on $X \times Y$ might not always match the topology defined on $X \times Y$ via its product cell decomposition. The difference, however, is subtle: it turns out that both topologies are the same if X and Y are compact, and more generally, the two topologies always define the same notion of compact subsets in $X \times Y$, and their induced subspace topologies on any compact subset of $X \times Y$ are the same. In particular, this means that if our main concern is to determine when a map $K \rightarrow X \times Y$ from some compact space K is continuous, then both topologies give the same answer (see Exercise 48.2). Applying this observation for maps $\Delta^n \rightarrow X \times Y$, it follows that the singular homology of $X \times Y$ does not depend on whether we use the product topology or the CW-complex topology, hence the isomorphism $H_*(X \times Y; G) \cong H_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y; G)$ holds as usual. With this in mind, we shall assume from now on that $X \times Y$ carries the product topology.

48.4. The singular cross product. Since cellular and singular homologies are isomorphic, the cellular cross product determines a homomorphism

$$(48.7) \quad H_k(X; R) \otimes H_\ell(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; R)$$

whenever X and Y come with cell decompositions. It is far from obvious at this stage whether $\times$ is independent of the choices of cell decompositions of X and Y . We shall deal with this by replacing the cellular cross product with an operation on singular homology that can be defined without reference to any cell decompositions. It should be emphasized that the construction we are about to give is distinctly for *singular* homology, i.e. it relies on the definition of H_* and not just on the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, so it does not give us anything for more general axiomatic homology theories. This does not mean that a cross product on other homology theories cannot be defined, but only that it must be defined for each theory separately, with the final step being to prove that it matches the cellular cross product when applied to CW-complexes.

There are good geometric reasons to expect that a product map (48.7) should exist. If you like to think about elements of $H_k(X; \mathbb{Z})$ as represented by closed oriented k -dimensional submanifolds $M \subset X$ as in Lecture 31, then since the product of two closed oriented manifolds is also a closed oriented manifold, it would make sense to define

$$[M] \times [N] := [M \times N] \in H_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$$

for a k -manifold $M \subset X$ and ℓ -manifold $N \subset Y$. It will be easy to see that the singular cross product has this property when $[M]$ and $[N]$ are defined via oriented triangulations, and we will be able to generalize this to a statement independent of triangulations once we have learned how to define fundamental classes on topological manifolds in general. But not every singular homology class can be represented by a submanifold, so the question remains: how should (48.7) be defined in general?

Since there is always a canonical homomorphism $H_*(X; R) \otimes H_*(Y; R) \rightarrow H_*(C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R))$, we would obtain a map (48.7) if we had a chain map

$$C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*(X \times Y; R)$$

to play the role in singular homology that (48.6) plays in cellular homology. In order to write down such a map, we need to decide what $\sigma \times \tau \in C_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$ should mean if we are given a pair of singular simplices $\sigma : \Delta^k \rightarrow X$ and $\tau : \Delta^\ell \rightarrow Y$. Unfortunately, $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$ is not a simplex in any canonical way, so we cannot simply write down the continuous map

$$(48.8) \quad \sigma \times \tau : \Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell \rightarrow X \times Y : (s, t) \mapsto (\sigma(s), \tau(t))$$

and call it a generator of $C_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; R)$. But we've dealt with this kind of thing before using subdivision: a natural approach is to fix a reasonable oriented triangulation of $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$ for every pair of integers $k, \ell \geq 0$, giving rise to a relative fundamental cycle $c_{\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell} \in C_{k+\ell}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell; \mathbb{Z})$, and then use the continuous map (48.8) to push this fundamental cycle forward, defining

$$\sigma \times \tau := (\sigma \times \tau)_* c_{\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell} \in C_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}).$$

What this does in practice is make $\sigma \times \tau \in C_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$ a sum of singular simplices obtained by restricting the map (48.8) to the $(k+\ell)$ -simplices in the triangulation, and if $\sigma \times \tau$ can be defined in this way for the chain complex with integer coefficients, then the definition extends immediately to coefficients in any commutative ring R . A good triangulation to use for this purpose was described in §32.2, and the formula (32.2) for $\partial c_{\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell}$ guarantees that the unique R -module homomorphism $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*(X \times Y)$ obtained by defining $\sigma \times \tau$ in this way will be a chain map. This will serve as our first (but not last) definition of the chain-level singular cross product. The definition has a strong geometric advantage: if M and N are closed manifolds with oriented triangulations, then the cross product of their fundamental cycles by this definition will be the fundamental cycle for a triangulation of $M \times N$, thus justifying the formula $[M] \times [N] = [M \times N]$.

One may wonder, of course, whether defining cross products via the particular subdivision algorithm in §32.2 is the only sensible way to do things: there might be other good subdivision algorithms that produce different definitions of a chain-level cross product. This will be okay if it turns out that the dependence on choices disappears after descending from chain complexes to homology. In practice, the most convenient way to see how this works is to avoid mentioning triangulations at all, but instead employ an algebraic trick: the method of acyclic models, which was used in Lecture 33 to show that the natural chain map from the ordered to the oriented versions of the simplicial chain complex is a chain homotopy equivalence. In the setting of singular chain complexes, acyclic model arguments produce an abundance of natural chain maps that descend to product structures on homology and cohomology.

REMARK 48.8. One can find in various textbooks (e.g. [Vic94, Spa95]) a result called the *acyclic model theorem*, which is applicable to a wide variety of problems, but is difficult to digest, as it is typically expressed in heavily abstract category-theoretic language. We prefer in these notes to follow the approach of [Bre93] and demonstrate the method by example.

A preparatory comment is in order before we continue. If we can define a cross product on the singular chain complex with integer coefficients, then for the reasons explained in Remark 33.12, the definition and its important properties will almost immediately extend to coefficients in an arbitrary commutative ring R .

LEMMA 48.9. *One can assign to every tuple of topological spaces X, Y a chain map*

$$\Phi : C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$$

that satisfies $\Phi(x \otimes y) = (x, y)$ on 0-chains under the canonical identification of singular 0-simplices with points, and is natural in the sense that for any continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}) \\ \downarrow f_* \otimes g_* & & \downarrow (f \times g)_* \\ C_*(X'; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y'; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & C_*(X' \times Y'; \mathbb{Z}) \end{array}$$

commutes. Moreover, Φ with these properties is unique up to chain homotopy.

PROOF. In the following proof, the coefficient group is always assumed to be $\mathbb{Z}$ but will be omitted from the notation. We observe first that if $\Phi : C_0(X) \otimes C_0(Y) \rightarrow C_0(X \times Y)$ is defined as required, then it trivially satisfies the chain map relation $\Phi \circ \partial = \partial \circ \Phi$ on chains of degree 0 since they are all annihilated by the boundary maps, and it also satisfies the naturality condition

$$(f \times g)_* \Phi(x \otimes y) = (f(x), g(y)) = \Phi(f_* \otimes g_*)(x \otimes y)$$

for any maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$, $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$ and points $x \in X$, $y \in Y$ (regarded as singular 0-simplices). We shall now argue by induction and assume that maps $\Phi : C_k(X) \otimes C_\ell(Y) \rightarrow C_{k+\ell}(X \times Y)$ have been defined for all spaces X, Y and all integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ with $k + \ell \leq n - 1$ for some $n \geq 1$, such that the chain map and naturality conditions are satisfied on chains up to degree $n - 1$. To extend this to chains of degree n , we start by defining Φ on a particular collection of models: for each integer $k \geq 0$, let $i_k : \Delta^k \rightarrow \Delta^k$ denote the identity map on the standard k -simplex, and regard this as a singular k -chain in the space Δ^k :

$$i_k \in C_k(\Delta^k).$$

Given integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ with $k + \ell = n$, let us consider $i_k \otimes i_\ell \in C_k(\Delta^k) \otimes C_\ell(\Delta^\ell)$ and try to define

$$\Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in C_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell).$$

To satisfy the chain map relation, $\Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell)$ needs to have the property that

$$(48.9) \quad \partial \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = \Phi(\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)) \in C_{n-1}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell),$$

where $\Phi(\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell))$ is given by the inductive hypothesis since Φ has already been defined on chains up to degree $n - 1$. Since it also satisfies the chain map relation up to degree $n - 1$, we have

$$(48.10) \quad \partial \Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = \Phi \partial^2(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = 0,$$

so $\Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)$ is a singular $(n - 1)$ -cycle in $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$. This is a vacuous statement when $n = 1$, but in this case it can also be improved: letting $\epsilon : C_0(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ denote the augmentation in the augmented chain complex $\tilde{C}_*(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$, we observe that if $k = 1$ and $\ell = 0$, then $\partial(i_1 \otimes i_0) = \partial i_1 \otimes i_0$ is a sum of two generators of $C_0(\Delta^1) \otimes C_0(\Delta^0)$ with coefficients 1 and -1 respectively, so $\Phi \partial(i_1 \otimes i_0)$ is similarly a sum of two generators with coefficients 1 and -1 . The same holds in the case $k = 0$ and $\ell = 1$, proving that in either case,

$$(48.11) \quad \epsilon \Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = 0 \quad \text{when} \quad n = 1.$$

Now comes the crucial point: $\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell$ is contractible, so its reduced singular homology is trivial. In light of (48.10) and (48.11), this means

$$[\Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)] = 0 \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell),$$

implying $\Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)$ is in the image of $C_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$, hence the relation (48.9) has solutions, and we can define $\Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in C_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$ to be any element such that

$$(48.12) \quad \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in \partial^{-1}(\Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)).$$

This is an arbitrary choice, but such an element certainly exists.

Having chosen $\Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in C_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$ for every $k, \ell \geq 0$ with $k + \ell = n$, we claim that the general extension of $\Phi : C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y)$ to all chains of degree n is uniquely determined by the naturality condition. Indeed, given any pair of spaces X and Y and singular simplices $\sigma : \Delta^k \rightarrow X$ and $\tau : \Delta^\ell \rightarrow Y$ with $k + \ell = n$, we have

$$\sigma = \sigma_* i_k \in C_k(X), \quad \tau = \tau_* i_\ell \in C_\ell(Y),$$

so naturality requires $\Phi : C_k(X) \otimes C_\ell(Y) \rightarrow C_n(X \times Y)$ to have the property that

$$\Phi(\sigma \otimes \tau) = \Phi(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (\sigma \times \tau)_* \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell).$$

Let us take this as a *definition* of $\Phi(\sigma \otimes \tau)$, and verify that Φ now satisfies all the required properties on chains up to degree n . Keeping σ and τ as above, the fact that $\sigma_* : C_*(\Delta^k) \rightarrow C_*(X)$, $\tau_* : C_*(\Delta^\ell) \rightarrow C_*(Y)$ and $(\sigma \times \tau)_* : C_*(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y)$ are chain maps and the naturality of Φ up to degree $n - 1$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} \partial \Phi(\sigma \otimes \tau) &= \partial(\sigma \times \tau)_* \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (\sigma \times \tau)_* \partial \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (\sigma \times \tau)_* \Phi \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = \Phi(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*) \partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= \Phi \partial(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = \Phi \partial(\sigma \otimes \tau), \end{aligned}$$

where we have also used the fact that the tensor product of two chain maps induces a chain map on the tensor product chain complex (see (48.3)). This establishes the chain map property. To see that naturality also holds, consider two continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$: then

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(f_* \otimes g_*)(\sigma \otimes \tau) &= \Phi((f \circ \sigma)_* \otimes (g \circ \tau)_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = ((f \circ \sigma) \times (g \circ \tau))_* \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (f \times g)_*(\sigma \times \tau)_* \Phi(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (f \times g)_* \Phi(\sigma \otimes \tau). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the inductive step and thus proves the existence of the natural chain map Φ .

The same approach will establish uniqueness up to chain homotopy. Assuming Φ and Ψ are two natural chain maps as in the statement of the theorem, we would like to associate to each pair of spaces X and Y a collection of maps

$$h : C_k(X) \otimes C_\ell(Y) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X \times Y)$$

for every pair of integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ and $n = k + \ell$, such that

$$\partial h + h \partial = \Phi - \Psi.$$

We claim that this can be done so that the obvious naturality property is also satisfied, i.e. so that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_k(X) \otimes C_\ell(Y) & \xrightarrow{h} & C_{n+1}(X \times Y) \\ \downarrow f_* \otimes g_* & & \downarrow (f \times g)_* \\ C_k(X') \otimes C_\ell(Y') & \xrightarrow{h} & C_{n+1}(X' \times Y') \end{array}$$

commutes for every pair of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$.

Since Φ and Ψ match precisely on all 0-chains, we are free to define $h : C_0(X) \otimes C_0(Y) \rightarrow C_1(X \times Y)$ as the trivial map, and the naturality property is obviously also satisfied for this choice. Now by induction, assume h has been defined so as to satisfy both the chain map relation and naturality on all chains up to degree $n - 1$ for some $n \geq 1$. To extend this to degree n , we proceed as before by trying first to define h on the models $i_k \otimes i_\ell \in C_k(\Delta^k) \otimes C_\ell(\Delta^\ell)$ for $k + \ell = n$. We need $h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in C_{n+1}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$ to satisfy

$$\partial h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (-h \partial + \Phi - \Psi)(i_k \otimes i_\ell),$$

where the right hand side is already determined since $\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell)$ has degree $n - 1$. Applying ∂ to the right hand side, we use the chain homotopy relation in degree $n - 1$ and the fact that Φ and Ψ are chain maps to prove

$$\partial(-h\partial + \Phi - \Psi)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (-\partial h + \Phi - \Psi)\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (h\partial)\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = 0,$$

hence $(-h\partial + \Phi - \Psi)(i_k \otimes i_\ell)$ is a cycle in $C_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$. It is therefore also a boundary since $H_n(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell) = 0$, so we can define $h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in C_{n+1}(\Delta^k \times \Delta^\ell)$ to be any element satisfying

$$h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \in \partial^{-1}((-h\partial + \Phi - \Psi)(i_k \otimes i_\ell)).$$

Now we extend this definition to all possible $\sigma \otimes \tau \in C_k(X) \otimes C_\ell(Y)$ by requiring naturality, i.e. we define $h(\sigma \otimes \tau) \in C_{n+1}(X \times Y)$ by

$$h(\sigma \otimes \tau) = h(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) := (\sigma \times \tau)_* h(i_k \otimes i_\ell).$$

We must then check that the chain homotopy relation is satisfied on $\sigma \otimes \tau$, and indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\partial h + h\partial)(\sigma \otimes \tau) &= \partial(\sigma \times \tau)_* h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) + h\partial(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (\sigma \times \tau)_* \partial h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) + h(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)\partial(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (\sigma \times \tau)_*(\partial h + h\partial)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (\sigma \times \tau)_*(\Phi - \Psi)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (\Phi - \Psi)(\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (\Phi - \Psi)(\sigma \otimes \tau), \end{aligned}$$

where we've used the fact that $(\sigma \times \tau)_*$ and $\sigma_* \otimes \tau_*$ are chain maps, the naturality of h on $(n - 1)$ -chains, and the naturality of Φ and Ψ . Finally, we need to verify that our definition of h on n -chains satisfies naturality: given $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} h(f_* \otimes g_*)(\sigma \otimes \tau) &= h((f \circ \sigma)_* \otimes (g \circ \tau)_*)(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = ((f \circ \sigma) \times (g \circ \tau))_* h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) \\ &= (f \times g)_*(\sigma \times \tau)_* h(i_k \otimes i_\ell) = (f \times g)_* h(\sigma \otimes \tau). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the inductive step and finishes the proof. $\square$

The proof above was a bit long, but not conceptually difficult once the basic idea is understood, and we will need to make use of this idea several more times. The general pattern is always as follows. We want to define a chain map that is typically not unique or canonical, but should take a specific form on 0-chains and should also be “natural” in the sense of category theory; the latter is always a precise condition that can be expressed in terms of commutative diagrams. We then proceed by induction on the degree of the chains, where at each step in the induction, we start by trying to define the map on a specific set of “models,” which are **acyclic** in the sense that their (reduced) homology vanishes. The latter makes it possible to define our map on the models so that the required conditions are satisfied, and the rest of the definition is then uniquely determined by naturality. Having extended the definition up by one degree in this way, we must then check that it still satisfies both the chain map and the naturality conditions. With this induction complete, one can then use the same approach again to prove that any two chain maps with the required properties are chain homotopic. I wanted to show you one last example of this method with every step worked out in detail, but when I need to use this from now on, I will typically only tell you the main idea and leave the remaining details as exercises.

The chain map $\Phi : C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$ from Lemma 48.9 uniquely determines a chain map of R -modules

$$C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y; R)$$

for any commutative ring R . For any two choices of the chain map Φ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, a chain homotopy between them similarly determines a chain homotopy between the resulting chain maps $C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y; R)$. The induced map on homology is therefore independent

of choices, and it can be composed with the canonical map from $H_*(X; R) \otimes H_*(Y; R)$ to define what we will henceforth call the **singular cross product**

$$H_*(X; R) \otimes H_*(Y; R) \longrightarrow H_*(C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R)) \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} H_*(X \times Y; R).$$

$\searrow \quad \times \quad \nearrow$

This definition is not only independent of choices, but is also natural in the sense that there is a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_*(X; R) \otimes H_*(Y; R) & \xrightarrow{\times} & H_*(X \times Y; R) \\ \downarrow f_* \otimes g_* & & \downarrow (f \times g)_* \\ H_*(X'; R) \otimes H_*(Y'; R) & \xrightarrow{\times} & H_*(X' \times Y'; R) \end{array}$$

for any pair of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$.

Before we can feed this into the algebraic Künneth formula as we did with cellular homology, there is a missing ingredient. The cellular version of $\Phi : C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y; R)$ was not only a chain map, but was in fact an *isomorphism* of chain complexes, which allowed us to replace the homology of a tensor product of chain complexes in the Künneth formula with the cellular homology of a product CW-complex. There is no obvious reason why Φ should be an isomorphism, except on 0-chains, for which it clearly is one; moreover, the cellular counterpart of Φ was canonically defined, whereas Φ itself depends on many choices and is canonical only up to chain homotopy. What we can therefore reasonably expect is for Φ to be a chain homotopy equivalence. This is where the method of acyclic models really demonstrates its power.

LEMMA 48.10. *One can assign to every tuple of topological spaces X, Y chain maps*

$$\begin{aligned} C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}) &\xrightarrow{\theta} C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}), \\ C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) &\xrightarrow{\alpha} C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}), \\ C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}) &\xrightarrow{\beta} C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}), \end{aligned}$$

which are uniquely determined up to chain homotopy by a naturality condition and their definitions on 0-chains,

$$\theta(x, y) = x \otimes y, \quad \alpha(x \otimes y) = x \otimes y, \quad \beta(x, y) = (x, y).$$

Here, naturality of θ means that there is a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\theta} & C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \\ \downarrow (f \times g)_* & & \downarrow f_* \otimes g_* \\ C_*(X' \times Y'; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\theta} & C_*(X'; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y'; \mathbb{Z}) \end{array}$$

for any pair of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$, and naturality is defined similarly for α and β .

Notice that for each of the last two maps, the identity is an example of a map satisfying the required conditions, and so are the compositions $\Phi \circ \theta$ and $\theta \circ \Phi$, thus the uniqueness up to chain homotopy implies that Φ and θ are chain homotopy inverses. This proves:

COROLLARY 48.11 (Eilenberg-Zilber theorem). *The natural chain maps*

$$C_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightleftharpoons[\theta]{\Phi} C_*(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z})$$

are chain homotopy inverses, and are thus both chain homotopy equivalences. Moreover, for any commutative ring R , the same holds for the chain maps of R -modules between $C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R)$ and $C_*(X \times Y; R)$ that these determine. $\square$

PROOF OF LEMMA 48.10. As before, we shall omit the coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$ from the notation, but the fact that we are using this particular coefficient group will be relevant for the following reason: since $\mathbb{Z}$ is a principal ideal domain, the Künneth formula holds for chain complexes of abelian groups. The statement of the lemma uniquely specifies the definitions of the desired chain maps on 0-chains, and these clearly satisfy the naturality condition, so we use the method of acyclic models to extend the definition to chains of all degrees $n \geq 1$ by induction on n . For $\theta : C_*(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y)$, assume we already have a definition on $C_k(X \times Y)$ for all $k = 0, \dots, n-1$. We extend it to n -chains starting with the model

$$d_n : \Delta^n \rightarrow \Delta^n \times \Delta^n : t \mapsto (t, t),$$

interpreted as an element in $C_n(\Delta^n \times \Delta^n)$. The definition of $\theta(d_n) \in \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} C_k(\Delta^n) \otimes C_\ell(\Delta^n)$ should be chosen to satisfy

$$\partial\theta(d_n) = \theta(\partial d_n) \in \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} C_k(\Delta^n) \otimes C_\ell(\Delta^n),$$

where the right hand side is already determined since ∂d_n has degree $n-1$. To see if this is possible, we observe that since θ is a chain map up to degree $n-1$,

$$\partial(\theta\partial d_n) = \theta\partial^2(d_n) = 0,$$

so $\theta\partial d_n$ is an $(n-1)$ -cycle in $C_*(\Delta^n) \otimes C_*(\Delta^n)$. Now observe that since Δ^n is contractible, the algebraic Künneth formula implies

$$H_m(C_*(\Delta^n) \otimes C_*(\Delta^n)) \cong \bigoplus_{k+\ell=m} H_k(\Delta^n) \otimes H_\ell(\Delta^n) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & \text{if } m = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where all the Tor terms have vanished because every $H_k(\Delta^n)$ is a free abelian group. In particular this implies that the cycle $\theta\partial d_n$ is also a boundary if $n \geq 2$, and we can therefore choose $\theta(d_n)$ to satisfy

$$(48.13) \quad \theta(d_n) \in \partial^{-1}(\theta\partial d_n).$$

The case $n = 1$ is special since $H_0(\Delta^n) \otimes H_0(\Delta^n) = \mathbb{Z}$ is not trivial, but if we identify Δ^1 with the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, then it is easy to check that

$$\theta\partial(d_1) = \theta((1, 1) - (0, 0)) = 1 \otimes 1 - 0 \otimes 0$$

is a boundary, e.g. of $1 \otimes i_1 + i_1 \otimes 0$ if $i_1 \in C_1(\Delta^1)$ is the singular 1-simplex given by the identity map.⁷⁶ In either case, $\theta(d_n)$ can be defined so that (48.13) holds.

Now for an arbitrary singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X \times Y$, we can use the projection maps $\pi_X : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $\pi_Y : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ to write

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Delta^n & \xrightarrow{d_n} & \Delta^n \times \Delta^n \xrightarrow{(\pi_X \circ \sigma) \times (\pi_Y \circ \sigma)} X \times Y, \\ & \searrow \sigma & \nearrow \\ & & \end{array}$$

so naturality requires that we define

$$\theta(\sigma) = \theta((\pi_X \circ \sigma) \times (\pi_Y \circ \sigma))_* d_n := ((\pi_X \circ \sigma)_* \otimes (\pi_Y \circ \sigma)_*) \theta(d_n).$$

⁷⁶Equivalently, at this step one could introduce a natural augmentation on the complex $C_*(\Delta^1) \otimes C_*(\Delta^1)$ such that the resulting reduced homology vanishes and $\theta\partial(d_1)$ is in its kernel.

It is then a straightforward matter to check that this extension of θ to all n -chains satisfies the chain map and naturality conditions, and one can use the same method to construct a chain homotopy between any two such natural chain maps. We leave these steps as exercises, along with the uniqueness up to chain homotopy of α and β , as none of these steps require any new ideas. $\square$

REMARK 48.12. I will give you the same advice about acyclic models that I typically give about diagram chasing: the next time you find yourself bored on a long flight or train ride, finish the proof of Lemma 48.10. It's relaxing.

Corollary 48.11 implies that for any commutative ring R , the natural map

$$\Phi_* : H_*(C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R)) \rightarrow H_*(X \times Y; R)$$

used in the definition of the singular cross product is an isomorphism, so we can now use it to replace the middle term in the algebraic Künneth formula, proving:

COROLLARY 48.13 (topological Künneth formula). *For any principal ideal domain R , any spaces X, Y and every integer $n \geq 0$, the singular cross product fits into a natural short exact sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(X; R) \otimes H_\ell(Y; R) &\xrightarrow{\times} H_n(X \times Y; R) \\ &\longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k(X; R), H_\ell(Y; R)) \longrightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the sequence splits (but not naturally). $\square$

In particular, we can always choose field coefficients to make the Tor terms vanish:

COROLLARY 48.14. *For any spaces X and Y and any field $\mathbb{K}$, the cross product on singular homology with coefficients in $\mathbb{K}$ defines natural $\mathbb{K}$ -vector space isomorphisms*

$$\times : \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(X; \mathbb{K}) \otimes H_\ell(Y; \mathbb{K}) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(X \times Y; \mathbb{K}).$$

for every integer $n \geq 0$. $\square$

The alert reader may notice that there is at least one important question we have not addressed yet: if X and Y are CW-complexes, are the singular and cellular cross products the same? The answer is of course yes, but we will not discuss it at length, since we don't plan to carry out any serious applications of the cellular cross product—it is useful to have in mind for intuition and motivation, but the product on singular homology will play a much more important role in further developments. One other (and closely related) question we have not addressed is how to define the cross product on *relative* singular homology. We will come back to this next week, after introducing the cohomology cup product.

48.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 48.1. Using product cell complexes, describe a cell decomposition of the torus $\mathbb{T}^n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that the cellular boundary map vanishes. Use this to prove that for any axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient group G ,

$$h_k(\mathbb{T}^n) \cong G^{\binom{n}{k}}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $0 \leq k \leq n$.

EXERCISE 48.2. Recall that the topology of a CW-complex X is defined normally as the strongest topology for which the characteristic maps of all cells $\Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^k \rightarrow X$ are continuous. Given another CW-complex Y , let Z and Z' denote the set $X \times Y$ with two (potentially) different topologies: we assign to Z the product topology, and to Z' the topology of the product CW-complex induced by the cell decompositions of X and Y .

- (a) Prove that every open set in Z is also an open set in Z' , i.e. the identity map $Z' \rightarrow Z$ is continuous.

*Remark: In general, the identity map $Z' \rightarrow Z$ might not be a homeomorphism!*⁷⁷

- (b) Prove that the identity map $Z' \rightarrow Z$ is a homeomorphism if X and Y are both compact.
 (c) Prove that a subset $K \subset Z$ is compact if and only if it is compact in Z' , and the two subspace topologies induced by Z and Z' on K are the same. Deduce from this that Z and Z' have the same singular homology groups.

EXERCISE 48.3. This problem is intended to elucidate in differential-geometric terms the intuitive reason behind the formula $\partial(e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell) = \partial e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell + (-1)^k e_\alpha^k \times \partial e_\beta^\ell$ stated in Proposition 48.1 for the boundary map on product CW-complexes.

Recall first that an **orientation** of a real n -dimensional vector space V means an equivalence class of bases, where two bases are equivalent if they are connected to each other by a continuous family of bases. The fact that the group $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ has two connected components (determined by whether the determinant is positive or negative) means that every real vector space of dimension $n > 0$ has exactly two choices of orientation.⁷⁸ On an oriented vector space, we call a basis **positive** whenever it belongs to the equivalence class determined by the orientation. A linear isomorphism $V \rightarrow W$ between two oriented vector spaces is called **orientation preserving** if it maps positive bases to positive bases, and is otherwise **orientation reversing**.

A smooth n -manifold M has a **tangent space** $T_x M$ at every point x , which is an n -dimensional vector space. If you haven't seen this notion in differential geometry, then you should just picture M as a regular level-set $f^{-1}(0) \subset \mathbb{R}^k$ of some smooth function $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k-n}$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$; a famous theorem of Whitney says that every smooth n -manifold can be described in this way if $k \geq 2n$. The tangent space $T_x M$ at each point $x \in M$ is then the n -dimensional linear subspace $\ker df(x) \subset \mathbb{R}^k$. With this notion understood, an **orientation of M** means a choice of orientation for every tangent space $T_x M$ such that the orientations vary continuously with x , i.e. every point $x_0 \in M$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ admitting a continuous family of bases $\{(v_1(x), \dots, v_n(x))\}_{x \in \mathcal{U}}$ of the tangent spaces $T_x M$ such that all of them are positive. If M and N are smooth manifolds of the same dimension, then any smooth map $f : M \rightarrow N$ has a derivative $df(x) : T_x M \rightarrow T_{f(x)} N$ at every point $x \in M$, and we call f an **immersion** if $df(x)$ is an isomorphism for every $x \in M$. If M and N are both oriented, then an immersion $f : M \rightarrow N$ is called **orientation preserving/reversing** if $df(x) : T_x M \rightarrow T_{f(x)} N$ is orientation preserving/reversing for every $x \in M$.

- (a) Convince yourself that S^2 admits an orientation (i.e. it is **orientable**), but $\mathbb{RP}^2$ and the Klein bottle do not.

If V and W are both oriented vector spaces, we define the **product orientation** of $V \oplus W$ to be the one such that if $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ and $(w_1, \dots, w_m)$ are positive bases of V and W respectively, then $(v_1, \dots, v_n, w_1, \dots, w_m)$ is a positive basis of $V \oplus W$. This notion carries over immediately to a product of manifolds M and N since for each $(x, y) \in M \times N$, $T_{(x,y)}(M \times N)$ can be naturally

⁷⁷This is easily said, but writing down actual counterexamples is surprisingly difficult, e.g. it turns out that they must involve uncountable many cells. For more on such bizarre issues, see [BT].

⁷⁸Dimension zero must always be treated as a special case in orientation discussions. For this informal discussion we make our lives easier by assuming all dimensions are positive.

identified with $T_x M \oplus T_y N$, hence orientations of M and N give rise to a product orientation of $M \times N$.

- (b) Show that if M and N are oriented manifolds of dimensions m and n respectively, then for the natural product orientations, the map $M \times N \rightarrow N \times M : (x, y) \mapsto (y, x)$ is orientation preserving if either m or n is even, and orientation reversing if both m and n are odd.

If M is an n -manifold with boundary, then its boundary ∂M is naturally an $(n-1)$ -manifold, and for each $x \in \partial M$, the tangent space $T_x(\partial M)$ is naturally a codimension 1 linear subspace of $T_x M$. The set $T_x M \setminus T_x(\partial M)$ thus has two connected components, characterized as the tangent vectors in $T_x M$ that point “outward” or “inward” with respect to the boundary. Now if M has an orientation, this induces on ∂M the so-called **boundary orientation**, defined such that for any choice of *outward* pointing vector $\nu \in T_x M$, a basis $(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$ of $T_x(\partial M)$ is positive (with respect to the orientation of ∂M) if and only if the basis $(\nu, X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$ of $T_x M$ is positive with respect to the orientation of M . Take a moment to convince yourself that this notion is well defined.

The simplest example is also the most relevant for our discussion of cell complexes: the closed n -disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ is a compact n -dimensional smooth manifold with boundary $\partial \mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1}$. Since all the tangent spaces to $\mathbb{D}^n$ are canonically isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbb{D}^n$ has a canonical orientation, and this determines a canonical orientation for S^{n-1} .

Finally, consider a product $M \times N$ of two smooth manifolds with boundary, with dimensions m and n respectively. This is a slightly more general object called a “smooth manifold with boundary and corners”; rather than defining this notion precisely, let us simply agree that in the complement of the “corner” $\partial M \times \partial N$, the object $M \times N$ is a smooth manifold whose boundary $\partial(M \times N)$ is the union of two smooth manifolds $\partial M \times N$ and $M \times \partial N$ of dimension $m+n-1$. The question is: what orientations should these two pieces of $\partial(M \times N)$ carry?

- (c) Assume M and N are both oriented, $M \times N$ is endowed with the resulting product orientation and ∂M and ∂N are each endowed with the boundary orientation. Show that the induced boundary orientation on $\partial(M \times N)$ always matches the product orientation of $\partial M \times N$, and that it matches the product orientation of $M \times \partial N$ if and only if m is even.

Remark: The result of part (c) can be summarized as follows. If M has an orientation and we denote the same manifold with the opposite orientation by $-M$, then for any two oriented manifolds M and N of dimensions m and n respectively,

$$\partial(M \times N) = (\partial M \times N) \cup (-1)^m (M \times \partial N).$$

If you apply this to the case $M = \mathbb{D}^m$ and $N = \mathbb{D}^n$ and consider that the degree of a map $S^k \rightarrow S^k$ changes sign if you compose it with an orientation-reversing homeomorphism, you may now be able to imagine the reason for the sign in the cellular boundary formula $\partial(e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell) = \partial e_\alpha^k \times e_\beta^\ell + (-1)^k e_\alpha^k \times \partial e_\beta^\ell$.

49. Products in singular cohomology

The main goal of this lecture is to define the cup product on singular cohomology and establish its basic properties, so that for any space X and any choice of commutative coefficient ring R , $H^*(X; R)$ becomes a graded-commutative ring with unit. Before that, we also have some loose ends to tie up regarding the cross product on homology, including its extension to cohomology. In this lecture, we will get more mileage than ever before out of the method of acyclic models: the basic pattern is that in the singular chain and cochain complexes, acyclic model arguments give rise to certain natural chain maps that are canonical up to chain homotopy, and letting these chain maps descend to (co)homology tells us things about the cross and cup products.

CONVENTION. In this lecture, the coefficient module for singular homology and cohomology is always—unless otherwise noted—a fixed commutative ring R with unit. Having a ring structure on the coefficient group is important for several reasons, which I will endeavor to point out explicitly whenever they are relevant. It will usually not be necessary to assume that R is a principal ideal domain.

49.1. Properties of the cross product. Recall that the singular cross product $H_k(X) \otimes H_\ell(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}(X \times Y)$ was defined in the previous lecture in terms of a natural chain map

$$(49.1) \quad C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \xrightarrow{\times := \Phi} C_*(X \times Y) ,$$

which we will refer to henceforth as the *chain-level* singular cross product. It gives rise to the homological cross product via the simple formula

$$[a] \times [b] := [a \times b] \in H_{k+\ell}(X \times Y)$$

for cycles $a \in C_k(X)$ and $b \in C_\ell(Y)$, where the homology class $[a \times b]$ is independent of choices because the chain-level cross product is canonically defined up to chain homotopy, even though the chain map itself depends on a multitude of arbitrary choices. These definitions do not depend in any essential way on the choice to use ring coefficients: the acyclic model argument behind the construction of (49.1) was carried out with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$, but one can immediately deduce from it the existence of a canonical (up to chain homotopy) chain map

$$C_*(X; G) \otimes C_*(Y; H) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*(X \times Y; G \otimes H)$$

for any pair of coefficient modules G, H , thus giving rise to a more general homological product of the form

$$(49.2) \quad H_k(X; G) \otimes H_\ell(Y; H) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}(X \times Y; G \otimes H).$$

This reduces to the case with arbitrary ring coefficients if one sets $G = H := R$ and uses the canonical isomorphism $R \otimes R \cong R$.

A crucial detail for which ring coefficients are important is that the chain map (49.1) is a chain homotopy equivalence, because another acyclic model argument carried out in Lemma 48.10 produces a chain homotopy inverse

$$(49.3) \quad C_*(X \times Y) \xrightarrow{\theta} C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) .$$

The construction of θ was again carried out with integer coefficients, and it used the fact that $\mathbb{Z}$ is a principal ideal domain, because the acyclicity of the complex $C_*(\Delta^n; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes C_*(\Delta^n; \mathbb{Z})$ in positive degrees was deduced from the algebraic Künneth formula. But defining the map (49.3) over $\mathbb{Z}$ immediately determines a similar definition over any coefficient ring R , due to the fact that $C_*(X \times Y; R)$ and $C_*(X; R) \otimes C_*(Y; R)$ are both free R -modules with the same set of generators as their counterparts over $\mathbb{Z}$; this observation does not require R to be a principal ideal domain.

To take the discussion further, we shall now state three more results involving natural chain maps that are canonical up to homotopy, each of which takes the form of a diagram that *commutes up to chain homotopy*. Such statements always have the following meaning: for any two paths between the same pair of terms in the diagram, the associated compositions of chain maps are chain homotopic.

LEMMA 49.1. *For any three spaces X, Y, Z , the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(Z) & \xrightarrow{\times \otimes \mathbb{1}} & C_*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(Z) \\ \downarrow \mathbb{1} \otimes \times & & \downarrow \times \\ C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y \times Z) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*(X \times Y \times Z) \end{array}$$

commutes up to chain homotopy.

PROOF. We leave the details as an exercise, but the point is to show via an acyclic model argument that natural chain maps $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(Z) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y \times Z)$ that take the form $x \otimes y \otimes z \mapsto (x, y, z)$ at the degree 0 level are unique up to chain homotopy. The result follows because $\times \circ (\times \otimes \mathbb{1})$ and $\times \circ (\mathbb{1} \otimes \times)$ are both examples of chain maps with these properties. $\square$

The two ways of proceeding from $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(Z)$ to $C_*(X \times Y \times Z)$ in the diagram of Lemma 49.1 represent two ways of computing the chain-level cross product of three chains $a \in C_k(X)$, $b \in C_\ell(Y)$ and $c \in C_m(Z)$, either as $(a \times b) \times c$ or as $a \times (b \times c)$. The result does not say that these two products are equal, because the two chain maps are only chain homotopic, not identical. But the chain homotopy implies that if we take the three chains a, b, c to be cycles and care only about the homology class of the threefold product, we get equality, hence:

COROLLARY 49.2. *The cross product on singular homology is associative, i.e. for any $[a] \in H_k(X)$, $[b] \in H_\ell(Y)$ and $[c] \in H_m(Z)$, one has*

$$([a] \times [b]) \times [c] = [a] \times ([b] \times [c]) \in H_{k+\ell+m}(X \times Y \times Z).$$

$\square$

So much for associativity; let's talk about commutativity. A straightforward relation such as $[a] \times [b] = [b] \times [a]$ would not make sense, since $X \times Y$ and $Y \times X$ are not technically the same space, but of course there is a canonical homeomorphism between them, which we shall denote by

$$X \times Y \xrightarrow{\tau} Y \times X : (x, y) \mapsto (y, x).$$

On top of this detail, the following must be added: the obvious map $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(X)$ defined by $a \otimes b \mapsto b \otimes a$ is not a chain map, but it is an easy exercise to verify that it becomes a chain map if we introduce an appropriate sign, an accordance with the Koszul sign convention: the chain map we need will be denoted by

$$C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \xrightarrow{\sigma} C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(X) : a \otimes b \mapsto (-1)^{|a| \cdot |b|} b \otimes a.$$

The proof of the following lemma is then a straightforward acyclic model argument, showing the uniqueness of certain natural chain maps $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(Y \times X)$ up to chain homotopy:

LEMMA 49.3. *For any two spaces X, Y , the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*(X \times Y) \\ \cong \downarrow \sigma & & \cong \downarrow \tau_* \\ C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*(Y \times X) \end{array}$$

commutes up to chain homotopy.

$\square$

COROLLARY 49.4. *The cross product on singular homology is graded commutative in the sense that for any $[a] \in H_k(X)$ and $[b] \in H_\ell(Y)$,*

$$\tau_*([a] \times [b]) = (-1)^{k\ell} [b] \times [a].$$

$\square$

The next result gives us something akin to a “unit” element for the singular cross product. Note that for a one-point space $\{*\}$, there is a canonical R -module isomorphism

$$C_0(\{*\}) \cong R,$$

which we shall use in the following to identify R with a submodule of the chain complex $C_*(\{*\})$. With that understood, one can use the unit $1 \in R$ to define chain maps

$$\begin{aligned} C_*(X) &\xrightarrow{u_L} C_*(\{*\}) \otimes C_*(X) : a \mapsto 1 \otimes a, \\ C_*(X) &\xrightarrow{u_R} C_*(X) \otimes C_*(\{*\}) : a \mapsto a \otimes 1. \end{aligned}$$

LEMMA 49.5. *For any space X , the diagrams*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{u_L} & C_*(\{*\}) \otimes C_*(X) \\ & \searrow \cong & \downarrow \times \\ & & C_*(\{*\} \times X) \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{u_R} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(\{*\}) \\ & \searrow \cong & \downarrow \times \\ & & C_*(X \times \{*\}) \end{array}$$

commute up to chain homotopy, where the isomorphisms indicated by the diagonal arrows are induced by the obvious homeomorphisms $\{\} \times X \cong X \cong X \times \{*\}$.*

PROOF. Acyclic models blabla. $\square$

COROLLARY 49.6. *Under the obvious identifications $\{*\} \times X = X = X \times \{*\}$, the homology class $[1] \in H_0(\{*\})$ represented by the unit $1 \in R \subset C_0(\{*\})$ defines a unit for the cross product on singular homology, in the sense that*

$$[1] \times [a] = [a] = [a] \times [1]$$

for all $[a] \in H_(X)$.* $\square$

REMARK 49.7. With the exception of the special role played by the unit element $1 \in R$ in Corollary 49.6, none of the three corollaries stated above really depends on the use of ring coefficients; all three can be extended to statements about the cross product (49.2) on homology with arbitrary coefficients. We do not plan to make use of such a generalization in this course, and will thus leave the details as an exercise.

49.2. The cohomological cross product. In cellular cohomology with coefficients in the ring R , there is a cross product

$$H_{\text{CW}}^k(X) \otimes H_{\text{CW}}^\ell(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{\text{CW}}^{k+\ell}(X \times Y) : [\varphi] \otimes [\psi] \mapsto [\varphi] \times [\psi] := [\varphi \times \psi]$$

determined uniquely for any two CW-complexes X, Y by the condition that for all $\varphi \in C_{\text{CW}}^k(X)$, $\psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^\ell(Y)$, $a \in C_k^{\text{CW}}(X)$ and $b \in C_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y)$,

$$(49.4) \quad (\varphi \times \psi)(a \times b) = (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} \varphi(a) \psi(b) \in R.$$

Here, the sign is motivated by the Koszul sign convention, and we will see below why it must appear in order for certain natural maps to satisfy the chain map condition. Defining a cochain-level cross product via (49.4) uses the ring structure of R in two ways: most obviously, that structure is the reason why the product $\varphi(a)\psi(b) \in R$ is well defined. More subtly, (49.4) uniquely determines $\varphi \times \psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^{k+\ell}(X \times Y)$ due to the fact that for ring coefficients, the chain-level cellular cross product $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y)$ is an isomorphism, so that evaluating $\varphi \times \psi$ on $(k+\ell)$ -chains of the form $a \times b$ determines its evaluation on all other $(k+\ell)$ -chains in $X \times Y$. For a more direct formula, we could denote the inverse of the chain-level cross product by $\theta : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$ and write

$$(\varphi \times \psi)(c) := (\varphi \otimes \psi) \circ \theta(c)$$

for $c \in C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y)$, where the evaluation of $\varphi \otimes \psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^*(X) \otimes C_{\text{CW}}^*(Y)$ on elements of $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$ is determined by the formula

$$(49.5) \quad (\varphi \otimes \psi)(a \otimes b) := (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} \varphi(a) \psi(b) \in R,$$

with the understanding that evaluations such as $\varphi(a)$ vanish for any homogeneous elements $\varphi \in C_{\text{CW}}^*(X)$ and $a \in C_*^{\text{CW}}(X)$ whose degrees do not match. This notion of evaluation determines a natural homomorphism

$$(49.6) \quad C_{\text{CW}}^*(X) \otimes C_{\text{CW}}^*(Y) \xrightarrow{F} \text{Hom}(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y), R).$$

We can now explain the reason for the sign in (49.5), which gives rise to the sign in (49.4): this sign makes (49.6) into a chain map, which it would not otherwise be. The cochain-level cellular cross product is therefore a composition of two chain maps

$$C_{\text{CW}}^*(X) \otimes C_{\text{CW}}^*(Y) \xrightarrow{F} \text{Hom}(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y), R) \xrightarrow{\theta^*} \text{Hom}(C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y), R) = C_{\text{CW}}^*(X \times Y),$$

$\searrow \quad \times \quad \nearrow$

and is thus a chain map in itself, which is why it descends to a well-defined operation $[\varphi] \times [\psi]$ on cohomology classes.

In singular homology, the chain-level cross product is not an isomorphism, but it is a chain homotopy equivalence, and it therefore makes sense to use its chain homotopy inverse θ in the same way that its cellular counterpart was used above. This leads to a **cochain-level singular cross product**

$$(49.7) \quad C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \xrightarrow{F} \text{Hom}(C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y), R) \xrightarrow{\theta^*} \text{Hom}(C_*(X \times Y), R) = C^*(X \times Y),$$

$\searrow \quad \times \quad \nearrow$

where F denotes the canonical chain map

$$C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \xrightarrow{F} \text{Hom}(C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y), R)$$

defined via the evaluation pairing in (49.5). Since $\times$ is a chain map, it gives rise to a well-defined cross product on singular cohomology with ring coefficients,

$$H^k(X) \otimes H^\ell(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{k+\ell}(X \times Y) : [\varphi] \otimes [\psi] \mapsto [\varphi] \times [\psi] := [\varphi \times \psi].$$

THEOREM 49.8. *The cross product on singular cohomology satisfies the obvious analogues of the associativity, graded commutativity and unit properties stated for the homological cross product in Corollaries 49.2, 49.4 and 49.6, with the role of the unit element played by $[1] \in H^0(\{*\})$ for $1 \in R \cong C^0(\{*\})$.*

PROOF. Since the chain-level cross product is a chain homotopy equivalence, one can invert and then dualize the diagrams in Lemmas 49.1, 49.3 and 49.5 to produce similar diagrams for the cochain-level cross product, namely

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \otimes C^*(Z) & \xrightarrow{\times \otimes \mathbb{1}} & C^*(X \times Y) \otimes C^*(Z) \\ \downarrow 1 \otimes \times & & \downarrow \times \\ C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y \times Z) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C^*(X \times Y \times Z) \end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C^*(X \times Y) \\ \cong \downarrow \sigma & & \cong \uparrow \tau^* \\ C^*(Y) \otimes C^*(X) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C^*(Y \times X) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{u_L^* \circ F} & C^*({\{*\}}) \otimes C^*(X) \\
& \searrow \cong & \downarrow \times \\
& & C^*({\{*\}} \times X)
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{ccc}
C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{u_R^* \circ F} & C^*(X) \otimes C^*({\{*\}}) \\
& \searrow \cong & \downarrow \times \\
& & C^*(X \times {\{*\}})
\end{array},$$

where $\sigma : C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \rightarrow C^*(Y) \otimes C^*(X)$ is the chain map $\varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto (-1)^{|\varphi| \cdot |\psi|} \psi \otimes \varphi$. After descending to cohomology, these diagrams imply associativity, graded commutativity, and the formulas $[1] \times [\varphi] = [\varphi]$ and $[\varphi] \times [1] = [\varphi]$ respectively. $\square$

In contrast to cellular (co)homology, the relation (49.4) between the homological and cohomological cross products is not strictly true at the chain level—indeed, a precise relation of this form makes no sense when the (co)chain-level cross products are defined only up to chain homotopy. The next lemma says, however, that the relation holds up to chain homotopy. This is where the particular sign choice made in the definition of the cochain complex $C^*(X) = \text{Hom}(C_*(X), R)$ in Lecture 43 becomes important, as it allows us to interpret the evaluation pairing

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow R_*$$

as a chain map, after viewing $C^*(X)$ as a chain complex with its grading inverted, and defining R_* to be the chain complex that has R in degree 0 and trivial modules in all other degrees (cf. Remark 43.3). Note that since the R -modules R and $R \otimes R$ are canonically isomorphic, the same is true of the chain complexes R_* and $R_* \otimes R_*$.

LEMMA 49.9. *For any two spaces X, Y , the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times \otimes \times} & C^*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(X \times Y) \\
\downarrow \mathbf{1} \otimes \sigma \otimes \mathbf{1} & & \downarrow \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \\
C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \otimes \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle} & R_* \otimes R_*
\end{array}$$

commutes up to chain homotopy, where $\sigma : C^(Y) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C^*(Y)$ denotes the chain map $\psi \otimes a \mapsto (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} a \otimes \psi$.*

PROOF. The proof is a straightforward computation using the definition of the cochain-level cross product in (49.7) and the fact that θ composed with the chain-level cross product is chain homotopic to the identity. $\square$

COROLLARY 49.10. *The cross products on singular homology and cohomology are related by the formula*

$$\langle [\varphi] \times [\psi], [a] \times [b] \rangle = (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} \langle [\varphi], [a] \rangle \cdot \langle [\psi], [b] \rangle$$

for homogeneous elements $[\varphi] \in H^(X)$, $[\psi] \in H^*(Y)$, $[a] \in H_*(X)$ and $[b] \in H_*(Y)$.* $\square$

49.3. The cup product. The cup product on $H^*(X)$ with coefficients in a ring R can be defined in terms of the cross product, but it is more general and more useful to regard it as yet another structure arising from a natural chain map that is canonical up to chain homotopy. The following theorem is proved by a succession of straightforward acyclic models arguments, in which one can (as usual) specialize to the case of integer coefficients and then deduce from it the generalization to coefficients in R . As a preliminary remark, note that for any space X , there is a natural inclusion of R -modules

$$R \hookrightarrow C^0(X) = C^0(X; R),$$

identifying each $r \in R$ with the cochain whose value on every singular 0-simplex is r . In slightly fancier terms, the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ admits a right-inverse, implying that the induced chain map $\epsilon^* : C^*(\{*\}) \rightarrow C^*(X)$ is injective, and the inclusion described above identifies R with the image of the injection $\epsilon^* : R = C^0(\{*\}) \hookrightarrow C^0(X)$. Regarding each $r \in R$ in this way as a 0-cochain, it is also a 0-cocycle, giving rise to a natural inclusion

$$R \hookrightarrow H^0(X) = H^0(X; R) : r \mapsto [r].$$

In particular, the unit element $1 \in R$ is now identified with the homomorphism

$$C_0(X) \xrightarrow{1} R : \sum_i r_i \sigma_i \mapsto \sum_i r_i \quad \text{for } r_i \in R \text{ and } \sigma_i : \Delta^0 \rightarrow X,$$

which you may recognize as the *augmentation* that is used in constructing the augmented chain complex $\tilde{C}_*(X; R)$. Extending this map trivially to chains of nonzero degrees makes it a chain map

$$C_*(X) \xrightarrow{1} R_*.$$

THEOREM 49.11. *One can associate to every space X a chain map $C_*(X) \xrightarrow{\Psi} C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$ that takes the form $\Psi(x) = x \otimes x$ on generators of degree 0 and is natural in the sense that any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ gives rise to a commutative diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ \downarrow f_* & & \downarrow f_* \otimes f_* \\ C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(Y) \end{array}.$$

Moreover, these two properties determine Ψ uniquely up to chain homotopy, and the following diagrams commute up to chain homotopy:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ \downarrow \Psi & & \downarrow \Psi \otimes 1 \\ C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ & \searrow \Psi & \downarrow \sigma \\ & & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \end{array},$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ \downarrow \cong & \swarrow 1 \otimes 1 & \\ R_* \otimes C_*(X) & & \end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ \downarrow \cong & \swarrow 1 \otimes 1 & \\ C_*(X) \otimes R_* & & \end{array}.$$

Here, the chain map σ is defined as in Lemma 49.3, and the downward arrows in the last two diagrams represent the canonical isomorphisms between $C_*(X)$ and its tensor products with R_* . $\square$

The chain map $\Psi : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$ in Theorem 49.11 is called a **diagonal approximation**.

DEFINITION 49.12. Given a diagonal approximation Ψ , the **cochain-level cup product**

$$C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \xrightarrow{\cup} C^*(X) : \varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto \varphi \cup \psi$$

on the singular cochain complex of a space X with coefficients in a commutative ring R is the chain map defined as the composition

$$C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \xrightarrow{F} \text{Hom}(C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X), R) \xrightarrow{\Psi^*} \text{Hom}(C_*(X), R) = C^*(X).$$

$\cup$

This determines the **cup product** on singular cohomology,

$$[\varphi] \cup [\psi] := [\varphi \cup \psi] \in H^{k+\ell}(X) \quad \text{for} \quad [\varphi] \in H^k(X), [\psi] \in H^\ell(X).$$

As you've hopefully come to expect by now, the cochain-level cup product is dependent on choices, but as a chain map $C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \rightarrow C^*(X)$ it is independent of those choices up to chain homotopy, implying that the induced product on cohomology is canonically defined.

As a slightly more direct formula for the cochain-level cup product, we can write

$$(\varphi \cup \psi)(c) = (\varphi \otimes \psi) \circ \Psi(c) \quad \text{for } \varphi \in C^k(X), \psi \in C^\ell(X), c \in C_{k+\ell}(X).$$

This still seems a bit abstract if one only has a general acyclic models argument to provide the diagonal approximation Ψ , but it is also possible to write down explicit examples of diagonal approximations. A favorite choice for this is known as the **Alexander-Whitney** diagonal approximation, and can be defined as follows. Number the vertices of the standard n -simplex $\Delta^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ as $0, \dots, n$, and given any integers $0 \leq j_0 < j_1 < \dots < j_k \leq n$, let

$$[j_0, \dots, j_k] \subset \Delta^n$$

denote the k -dimensional face of Δ^n spanned by the vertices $j_0, \dots, j_k$, which is identified naturally with the standard k -simplex. For instance, in this notation, the j th boundary face of Δ^n is $\partial_{(j)} \Delta^n = [0, \dots, j-1, j+1, \dots, n]$ for each $j = 0, \dots, n$. Now define $\Psi : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$ via the formula

$$\Psi(\sigma) := \sum_{k+\ell=n} (\sigma|_{[0, \dots, k]}) \otimes (\sigma|_{[k, \dots, n]})$$

for each singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$. It is a straightforward exercise to verify that this satisfies the conditions of a diagonal approximation.

Plugging the Alexander-Whitney approximation into $\varphi \cup \psi = (\varphi \otimes \psi) \circ \Psi$ gives the following formula for the cup product of cochains: for any singular n -simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ with $n = k + \ell$,⁷⁹

$$(\varphi \cup \psi)(\sigma) = (-1)^{k\ell} \varphi(\sigma|_{[0, \dots, k]}) \psi(\sigma|_{[k, \dots, n]}).$$

On its own, this formula is seldom very useful, since explicit computations with singular cochains are almost never practical. What is slightly more reasonable, however, is to use the same formula for computing the cup product in the *simplicial* cohomology of a simplicial complex, which of course is a special case of cellular cohomology and is therefore isomorphic to its singular cohomology. This trick is sometimes used for explicit computations of singular cohomology rings; see for instance [Hat02, Examples 3.7 and 3.8], or [Bre93, Example VI.4.6]. I will avoid computations like that in these notes, essentially for two reasons: first, they depend on a nontrivial fact we have not proved about the natural product structures on singular and simplicial cohomology being the same; second, they are ugly. We will see that there are more elegant ways to carry out all the computations we need.

To that end, let us now establish some properties of the cup product that will be essential in further developments.

THEOREM 49.13. *The cup product $\cup : H^*(X) \otimes H^*(X) \rightarrow H^*(X)$ on cohomology with coefficients in the ring R has the following properties.*

(1) *It is natural: for all continuous maps $f : Y \rightarrow X$ and $[\varphi], [\psi] \in H^*(X)$,*

$$f^*([\varphi] \cup [\psi]) = f^*[\varphi] \cup f^*[\psi].$$

(2) *It is associative: for all $[\varphi], [\psi], [\eta] \in H^*(X)$,*

$$([\varphi] \cup [\psi]) \cup [\eta] = [\varphi] \cup ([\psi] \cup [\eta]).$$

⁷⁹The formula we have derived here for the cochain $\varphi \cup \psi$ matches a formula in [Bre93] but differs from [Hat02] by a sign if k and ℓ are both odd. This is due to the sign convention in (43.1) for the definition of coboundary maps.

(3) It is graded commutative: for all $[\varphi] \in H^k(X)$ and $[\psi] \in H^\ell(X)$,

$$[\varphi] \cup [\psi] = (-1)^{k\ell} [\psi] \cup [\varphi].$$

(4) It has a unit: under the canonical inclusion $R \hookrightarrow H^0(X) : r \mapsto [r]$, the unit $1 \in R$ and any $[\varphi] \in H^*(X)$ satisfy

$$[1] \cup [\varphi] = [\varphi] \cup [1] = [\varphi].$$

(5) It determines the cohomological cross product for two spaces X, Y via the formula

$$[\varphi] \times [\psi] = \pi_X^*[\varphi] \cup \pi_Y^*[\psi]$$

for $[\varphi] \in H^*(X)$ and $[\psi] \in H^*(Y)$, where $\pi_X : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $\pi_Y : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ are the natural projections.

(6) It is determined by the cohomological cross product via the formula

$$[\varphi] \cup [\psi] = d^*([\varphi] \times [\psi])$$

for $[\varphi], [\psi] \in H^*(X)$, where $d : X \rightarrow X \times X$ denotes the diagonal map $x \mapsto (x, x)$.

PROOF. Naturality is a consequence of the naturality property of diagonal approximations and of the canonical chain map $F : C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X), R)$. Associativity, graded commutativity and the unit property can all be deduced from diagrams of chain maps that commute up to chain homotopy, and are constructed by dualizing the diagrams in Theorem 49.11, namely,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{\cup} & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \\ \uparrow \cup & & \uparrow \cup \otimes \mathbb{1} \\ C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{\mathbb{1} \otimes \cup} & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{\cup} & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \\ & \nwarrow \cup & \downarrow \sigma \\ & & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) & \xrightleftharpoons[\mathbb{1}]{\cup \cdot 1} & C^*(X) \\ C^*(X) & \xrightleftharpoons[\mathbb{1}]{1 \cup \cdot} & C^*(X) \end{array}$$

where $\sigma : C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \rightarrow C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X)$ denotes the chain map $\varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto (-1)^{|\varphi| \cdot |\psi|} \psi \otimes \varphi$.

For the two properties relating the cup and cross products, we need two more diagrams involving diagonal approximations, which can be shown to commute up to chain homotopy by straightforward acyclic model arguments, namely

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X \times Y) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(X \times Y) \\ & \searrow \theta & \downarrow (\pi_X)_* \otimes (\pi_Y)_* \\ & & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ & \searrow d_* & \uparrow \theta \\ & & C_*(X \times X) \end{array}.$$

This is an unimportant detail, but it may be amusing to note that each of these diagrams implies the other (exercise!), so it is only really necessary to carry out one acyclic model argument here. What's more important is that both diagrams can be dualized, producing the diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X \times Y) & \xleftarrow{\cup} & C^*(X \times Y) \otimes C^*(X \times Y) \\ & \nwarrow \times & \uparrow \pi_X^* \otimes \pi_Y^* \\ & & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) & \xleftarrow{\cup} & C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \\ & \nwarrow d^* & \downarrow \times \\ & & C^*(X \times X) \end{array},$$

which imply the last two properties. $\square$

49.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 49.1 (*). Prove the formula

$$([\alpha] \cup [\varphi]) \times ([\beta] \cup [\psi]) = (-1)^{|\varphi| \cdot |\beta|} ([\alpha] \times [\beta]) \cup ([\varphi] \times [\psi])$$

for homogeneous elements $[\alpha], [\varphi] \in H^*(X)$ and $[\beta], [\psi] \in H^*(Y)$.

EXERCISE 49.2. In this exercise we compute the cohomology ring $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n; R)$ for every $n \geq 1$, with coefficients in any commutative ring R with unit. The idea is to derive the cup product from information about the homological cross product

$$H_k(\mathbb{T}^m; R) \otimes H_\ell(\mathbb{T}^n; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}(\mathbb{T}^{m+n}; R)$$

obtained via the Künneth formula.

The homology of $\mathbb{T}^n$ is fairly easy to compute because $\mathbb{T}^n = S^1 \times \dots \times S^1$ has a natural structure as a product cell complex (cf. Exercise 48.1). Without mentioning cell complexes, we can also use an inductive argument based on the Künneth formula. Indeed, the case $n = 1$ is trivial since $\mathbb{T}^1 = S^1$, so in particular, $H_*(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ is a finitely generated free abelian group. Let's call its canonical generators

$$[*] \in H_0(S^1; \mathbb{Z}), \quad [S^1] \in H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}),$$

i.e. $[*]$ is the homology class represented by any singular 0-simplex $\Delta^0 \rightarrow S^1$, and $[S^1]$ is the class represented by the identity map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ under the isomorphism $H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_1(S^1)$.

(a) Derive from the Künneth formula an isomorphism

$$H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{m-1}(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus H_m(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$$

for every $n \geq 2$ and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Deduce that $H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is always a finitely-generated abelian group, whose rank is an entry in Pascal's triangle,

$$\text{rank } H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = \binom{n}{m}.$$

Hint: Since you already know that $H_(S^1; \mathbb{Z})$ is finitely generated and free, you can prove by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that the same is true for $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$; this should remove any need to worry about Tor terms.*

(b) For each $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and each choice of integers $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_m \leq n$, define the homology class

$$e_{j_1, \dots, j_m} := A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \in H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$$

by setting $A_{j_i} := [S^1]$ for each $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $A_j := [*]$ for all other $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Deduce from the Künneth formula that the set of all such elements forms a basis of $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$.

It will be useful to have an alternative description of the degree 1 generators $e_j \in H_1(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ that appear in part (b). Pick a base point $t_0 \in S^1$ and consider the embedding

$$(49.8) \quad i_j : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{T}^n : x \mapsto (\underbrace{t_0 \times \dots \times t_0}_{j-1}, x, \underbrace{t_0 \times \dots \times t_0}_{n-j}).$$

Note that different choices of the base point $t_0 \in S^1$ give homotopic maps $i_j : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$, thus the induced map $(i_j)_* : H_*(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is independent of this choice.

(c) Show that for each $j = 1, \dots, n$, $(i_j)_*[S^1] = e_j$.

Hint: For the case $j = n$, you can identify S^1 in the obvious way with $\{\} \times S^1$ and then write $i_n : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ as*

$$i_n = \iota \times \text{Id} : \{*\} \times S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{T}^{n-1} \times S^1,$$

with $\iota : \{*\} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^{n-1}$ denoting the inclusion of the point $(t_0, \dots, t_0)$. The naturality of the cross product then gives a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_0(\{*\}; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\times} & H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \\ \downarrow \iota_* \otimes \mathbb{1} & & \downarrow (i_n)_* \\ H_0(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H_1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow{\times} & H_1(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}). \end{array}$$

Use the fact that $[*] \times [S^1] = [S^1]$ for the canonical generator $[*] \in H_0(\{*\}; \mathbb{Z})$, after identifying $\{*\} \times S^1 = S^1$, while $\iota_* : H_0(\{*\}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(\mathbb{T}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism relating the canonical generators.

- (d) Use the universal coefficient theorem to upgrade the computation of $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ above to a computation of $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; G)$ for arbitrary coefficient groups G . Deduce in particular that for any commutative ring R with unit, $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; R)$ has the structure of a finitely-generated free R -module, with a basis in bijective correspondence with the basis of $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ described above.

Remark: There is no need to assume that R is a principal ideal domain here, as we are only using the universal coefficient theorem and Künneth formula for $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules.

- (e) Show that for each $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, the natural map

$$H^m(\mathbb{T}^n; R) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; R), R) : [\varphi] \mapsto \langle [\varphi], \cdot \rangle$$

is an R -module isomorphism, implying $H^m(\mathbb{T}^n; R) \cong R^{\binom{n}{m}}$.

Hint: Again, you do not need to assume here that R is a principal ideal domain. Just regard R at first as an abelian group, prove that the natural map from $H^m(\mathbb{T}^n; R)$ to the abelian group of group homomorphisms $H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow R$ is a group isomorphism, and then use what you know about the algebraic structure of $H_m(\mathbb{T}^n; R)$.

Henceforth, we fix R as the coefficient ring for both $H_*(\mathbb{T}^n)$ and $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n)$ and omit it from the notation wherever possible, regarding these groups as R -modules. We can write down a canonical basis for $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n)$ as follows. For $n = 1$, define

$$\lambda \in H^1(S^1)$$

to be the unique cohomology class such that

$$\langle \lambda, [S^1] \rangle = 1 \in R.$$

Now for each choice of integers $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_m \leq n$, define

$$\lambda_{j_1, \dots, j_m} := \alpha_1 \times \dots \times \alpha_n \in H^m(\mathbb{T}^n),$$

where we choose $\alpha_{j_i} := \lambda$ for each $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $\alpha_j = [1] \in H^0(S^1)$ for all other $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. By Corollary 49.10, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \lambda_{j_1, \dots, j_m}, e_{k_1, \dots, k_m} \rangle &= \langle \alpha_1 \times \dots \times \alpha_n, A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \rangle = \pm \langle \alpha_1, A_1 \rangle \dots \langle \alpha_n, A_n \rangle \\ &= \begin{cases} \pm 1 & \text{if } j_i = k_i \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, m, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

proving that the collection of classes $\lambda_{j_1, \dots, j_m}$ for all choices $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_m \leq n$ is a basis for $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n)$ as a free R -module.

To describe $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n)$ as a ring, we now need to compute each product of the form $\lambda_{j_1, \dots, j_m} \cup \lambda_{k_1, \dots, k_q} \in H^{m+q}(\mathbb{T}^n)$. We start with an observation about the 1-dimensional classes $\lambda_j \in H^1(\mathbb{T}^n)$. Consider for each $j = 1, \dots, n$ the projection map

$$\pi_j : \mathbb{T}^n \rightarrow S^1 : (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto x_j,$$

which is related to the inclusions $i_j : S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ defined in (49.8) above by

$$\pi_j \circ i_k = \begin{cases} \text{Id} : S^1 \rightarrow S^1 & \text{if } j = k, \\ \text{constant} & \text{if } j \neq k. \end{cases}$$

(f) Show that $\pi_j^* \lambda = \lambda_j$ for each $j = 1, \dots, n$.

Hint: Evaluate both $\pi_j^ \lambda$ and λ_j on the generators $e_i \in H_1(\mathbb{T}^n)$.*

(g) Use Theorem 49.13(5) to prove that for any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and integers $1 \leq j_1 < \dots < j_m \leq n$,

$$\lambda_{j_1} \cup \dots \cup \lambda_{j_m} = \lambda_{j_1, \dots, j_m}.$$

Conclude that the ring $H^*(\mathbb{T}^n; R)$ is isomorphic to the exterior algebra $\Lambda_R[\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n]$ over R on n generators of degree 1.

50. Relative cross, cup and cap products

We have two issues to address before we can wrap up the discussion of products: first, there is a product that intertwines homology and cohomology, called the *cap* product, which will be needed in order to define the Poincaré duality isomorphism in a few lectures. Second, the entire discussion of products so far has been restricted to *absolute* singular homology and cohomology, but we will occasionally also need products in relative (co)homology. The latter requires us to dust off the notion of *excisive triads*, which appeared in Lecture 36 in the context of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence.

CONVENTION. As in the previous lecture, the default assumption here will be that we use a fixed commutative ring R with unit for the coefficients in singular homology and cohomology.

50.1. The cap product. The previous lecture stated several results about the existence and uniqueness up to chain homotopy of natural chain maps, but there are still one or two interesting results of this type that we have not seen. As preparation, recall that the evaluation pairing

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow R_* : \varphi \otimes c \mapsto \langle \varphi, c \rangle,$$

defined by $\langle \varphi, c \rangle := \varphi(c)$ when $|\varphi| = |c|$ and $\langle \varphi, c \rangle := 0$ otherwise, is a chain map if we regard $C^*(X)$ as a chain complex by inserting minus signs in front of the degrees of homogeneous elements. This convention will help you remember the correct subscripts to write in the following definition, which generalizes the evaluation pairing.

DEFINITION 50.1. Given a diagonal approximation $\Psi : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$, the **chain-level cap product**

$$C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \xrightarrow{\cap} C_*(X) : \varphi \otimes c \mapsto \varphi \cap c$$

on a space X is the chain map defined as the composition

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\mathbb{1} \otimes \Psi} C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\sigma \otimes \mathbb{1}} C_*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\ & \searrow \cap & \downarrow \mathbb{1} \otimes \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \\ & & C_*(X) \otimes R_* = C_*(X) \end{array},$$

where $\sigma : C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C^*(X)$ denotes the chain map $\varphi \otimes c \mapsto (-1)^{|c| \cdot |\varphi|} c \otimes \varphi$. This determines the **cap product** on singular cohomology and homology,

$$H^k(X) \otimes H_\ell(X) \xrightarrow{\cap} H_{\ell-k}(X) : [\varphi] \otimes [c] \mapsto [\varphi] \cap [c] := [\varphi \cap c].$$

As usual, the homological cap product is independent of choices because the chain maps appearing in its chain-level variant are canonical up to chain homotopy.

Before continuing, let's unpack the definition of the chain-level cap product. Given a cochain $\varphi \in C^k(X)$ and a chain $c \in C_\ell(X)$, the result of plugging c into a diagonal approximation can be written as a finite sum

$$\Psi(c) = \sum_i a_i \otimes b_i \in C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X),$$

in which the degrees of the individual terms a_i and b_i may vary but always satisfy $|a_i| + |b_i| = \ell$. To obtain $\varphi \cap c$, we carry out the composition

$$\varphi \otimes c \mapsto \varphi \otimes \Psi(c) = \sum_i (\varphi \otimes a_i \otimes b_i) \mapsto \sum_i (-1)^{|a_i| \cdot |\varphi|} a_i \otimes \varphi \otimes b_i \mapsto \sum_i (-1)^{|a_i| \cdot |\varphi|} \langle \varphi, b_i \rangle a_i,$$

where in the last term, $\langle \varphi, b_i \rangle$ can only be nonzero when $|b_i| = k$, implying $|a_i| = \ell - k$ so that the resulting chain is homogeneous with degree $\ell - k$. If we apply the Koszul sign convention to define $\mathbb{1} \otimes \varphi : C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes R_* = C_*(X)$ by

$$(\mathbb{1} \otimes \varphi)(a \otimes b) := (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\varphi|} \mathbb{1}(a) \langle \varphi, b \rangle,$$

we obtain the slightly more succinct formula

$$(50.1) \quad \varphi \cap c = (\mathbb{1} \otimes \varphi) \circ \Psi(c).$$

The real motivation to define the cap product in this way is that it satisfies the following chain-level relation with the cup product:

$$(50.2) \quad \langle \psi \cup \varphi, c \rangle = \langle \psi, \varphi \cap c \rangle$$

for any $\psi, \varphi \in C^*(X)$ and $c \in C_*(X)$. Indeed, in the simple case where $\Psi(c)$ takes the form $a \otimes b$ for some $a, b \in C_*(X)$, one computes $\varphi \cap c = (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\varphi|} \langle \varphi, b \rangle a$ and thus

$$\langle \psi, \varphi \cap c \rangle = (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\varphi|} \langle \psi, a \rangle \langle \varphi, b \rangle = (\psi \otimes \varphi)(a \otimes b) = (\psi \otimes \varphi) \circ \Psi(c) = \langle \psi \otimes \varphi, c \rangle.$$

It follows immediately via linearity that the relation also holds in the general case with $\Psi(c)$ of the form $\sum_i a_i \otimes b_i$. One can show in fact that the chain-level cup product uniquely determines the chain-level cap product via the relation (50.2), and of course, the relation also holds at the (co)homology level:

$$(50.3) \quad \langle [\psi] \cup [\varphi], [c] \rangle = \langle [\psi], [\varphi] \cap [c] \rangle \quad \text{for} \quad [\varphi], [\psi] \in H^*(X), [c] \in H_*(X).$$

We can now clarify in what sense the cap product generalizes the evaluation pairing: if the classes $[\varphi] \in H^*(X)$ and $[c] \in H_*(X)$ have the same degree, then taking $[\psi] := [1] \in H^0(X)$ in the latter relation gives

$$(50.4) \quad \langle [1], [\varphi] \cap [c] \rangle = \langle [\varphi], [c] \rangle.$$

Note that in this situation, $[\varphi] \cap [c]$ belongs to $H_0(X)$, which is canonically isomorphic to the coefficients R if X is path-connected, the canonical isomorphism being

$$\langle [1], \cdot \rangle : H_0(X) \rightarrow R,$$

which sends the class represented by any singular 0-simplex $\sigma : \Delta^0 \rightarrow X$ to the unit $1 \in R$.

REMARK 50.2. If desired, one can use the Alexander-Whitney diagonal approximation to turn (50.1) into a more precise chain-level formula for $\varphi \cap c$. A formula of this type appears as the definition of the cap product in [Hat02, §3.3], though with slightly different conventions than we are using here.

LEMMA 50.3. *The following diagrams commute up to chain homotopy:*

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C^*(X) \otimes C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{1 \otimes \cap} & C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \\
 \downarrow \cup \otimes 1 & & \downarrow \cap \\
 C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) & \xrightarrow{\cap} & C_*(X)
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 C_*(X) \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{1 \cap \cdot} \\ \xleftarrow{1} \end{array} C_*(X) .$$

PROOF. These can be deduced from the diagrams for diagonal approximations in Theorem 49.11. $\square$

COROLLARY 50.4. *The cap and cup products on singular (co)homology are related by the associativity relation*

$$([\psi] \cup [\varphi]) \cap [c] = [\psi] \cap ([\varphi] \cap [c])$$

for $[\psi], [\varphi] \in H^*(X)$ and $[c] \in H_*(X)$, and furthermore,

$$[1] \cap [\varphi] = [\varphi]$$

for all $[\varphi] \in H_*(X)$. $\square$

We observe that in light of (50.4) the associativity relation of Corollary 50.4 generalizes the relation (50.3) for cap and cup products under evaluation.

Two more properties of the cap product will be important to understand. The first is naturality: the mixture of covariance and contravariance makes the statement look slightly more complicated than for the cup product or cross products, but the correct relation is

$$f_*(f^* \varphi \cap c) = \varphi \cap f_* c \quad \text{for} \quad X \xrightarrow{f} Y, \varphi \in C^*(Y) \text{ and } c \in C_*(X).$$

Indeed, one can use the naturality of diagonal approximations to verify this relation directly from the definitions, and since it holds at the chain level, it also holds after descending to (co)homology:

$$(50.5) \quad f_*(f^*[\varphi] \cap [c]) = [\varphi] \cap f_*[c] \quad \text{for} \quad X \xrightarrow{f} Y, [\varphi] \in H^*(Y) \text{ and } [c] \in H_*(X).$$

For the second property, we need one more acyclic model argument, in which the uniqueness up to chain homotopy of natural chain maps $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(X \otimes Y)$ satisfying certain conditions implies the following:

LEMMA 50.5. *For any spaces X, Y and any diagonal approximation Ψ and chain/cochain-level cross products, the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*(X \times Y) \\
 \downarrow \Psi \otimes \Psi & & \downarrow \Psi \\
 C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(Y) & & \\
 \downarrow 1 \otimes \sigma \otimes 1 & & \\
 C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times \otimes \times} & C_*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(X \times Y)
 \end{array}$$

commutes up to chain homotopy, where $\sigma : C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \rightarrow C_*(Y) \otimes C_*(X)$ is the chain map $a \otimes b \mapsto (-1)^{|a| \cdot |b|} b \otimes a$. $\square$

Dualizing the appropriate pieces of this diagram and writing $\sigma : C^*(Y) \otimes C^*(X) \rightarrow C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) : \psi \otimes a \mapsto (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} a \otimes \psi$, one deduces:

COROLLARY 50.6. *The diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\quad \times \quad} & C_*(X \times Y) \\
 \uparrow \cap \otimes \cap & & \uparrow \cap \\
 C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \otimes C_*(Y) & & \\
 \uparrow \mathbb{1} \otimes \sigma \otimes \mathbb{1} & & \\
 C^*(X) \otimes C^*(Y) \otimes C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) & \xrightarrow{\quad \times \otimes \times \quad} & C^*(X \times Y) \otimes C_*(X \times Y)
 \end{array}$$

commutes up to chain homotopy. $\square$

COROLLARY 50.7. *The cap product and cross products on homology and cohomology are related by the formula*

$$([\varphi] \times [\psi]) \cap ([a] \times [b]) = (-1)^{|a| \cdot |\psi|} ([\varphi] \cap [a]) \times ([\psi] \cap [b])$$

for homogeneous elements $[\varphi] \in H^*(X)$, $[\psi] \in H^*(Y)$, $[a] \in H_*(X)$ and $[b] \in H_*(Y)$. $\square$

50.2. Relative cross products. Our whole discussion of products so far has focused on absolute homology and cohomology, so you may be wondering how it extends to pairs relative (co)homology for pairs (X, A) with $A \neq \emptyset$. In singular homology, the answer to this question turns out to be surprisingly subtle, but one gets an important hint about what to do if one starts by asking the same question about cellular homology, where the answer is much easier.

Relative chain complexes are quotient complexes, so let's start with an algebraic observation. If A and B are modules over a fixed ring, and $A_0 \subset A$ and $B_0 \subset B$ are submodules, then the homomorphism

$$A \otimes B \xrightarrow{\pi_A \otimes \pi_B} \frac{A}{A_0} \otimes \frac{B}{B_0}$$

determined by the quotient projections $\pi_A : A \rightarrow A/A_0$ and $\pi_B : B \rightarrow B/B_0$ descends to a natural isomorphism

$$\frac{A \otimes B}{(A_0 \otimes B) + (A \otimes B_0)} \xrightarrow{\cong} \frac{A}{A_0} \otimes \frac{B}{B_0}.$$

Indeed, its inverse is obtained by noticing that if we compose the canonical bilinear map $A \oplus B \rightarrow A \otimes B$ with the quotient projection, it descends to a bilinear map $(A/A_0) \oplus (B/B_0) \rightarrow (A \otimes B) / ((A_0 \otimes B) + (A \otimes B_0))$.

If (X, A) and (Y, B) are CW-pairs, then applying the algebraic observation above to their relative cellular chain complexes with coefficients in a fixed ring R gives a natural isomorphism

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B) \cong \frac{C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)}{(C_*^{\text{CW}}(A) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)) + (C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(B))}.$$

As it happens, the denominator on the right hand side is not only a subcomplex of the chain complex $C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y)$, but its image under the isomorphism $\times : C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y) \rightarrow C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y)$ is the cellular chain complex of the subset

$$(A \times Y) \cup (X \times B) \subset X \times Y,$$

which is a subcomplex of the CW-complex $X \times Y$. It follows that $\times$ descends to an isomorphism of chain complexes

$$C_*^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*^{\text{CW}}((X, A) \times (Y, B))$$

if we define the product of two CW-pairs to be

$$(50.6) \quad (X, A) \times (Y, B) := (X \times Y, (A \times Y) \cup (X \times B)).$$

The most general version of the cross product on relative cellular homology thus takes the form

$$H_k^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \otimes H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}((X, A) \times (Y, B)),$$

and the Künneth formula (in the case where R is a principal ideal domain) then becomes

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k^{\text{CW}}(X, A) \otimes H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y, B) &\xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}^{\text{CW}}((X, A) \times (Y, B)) \\ &\longrightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k^{\text{CW}}(X, A), H_\ell^{\text{CW}}(Y, B)) \longrightarrow 0. \end{aligned}$$

Adapting this discussion for singular homology is slightly nontrivial, and it does not completely work for arbitrary pairs (X, A) and (Y, B) , but it will work for most pairs that we are actually interested in. We shall adopt (50.6) as a definition of the product of two pairs of spaces.⁸⁰ Applying the naturality property of the chain-level cross product $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*(X \times Y)$ to the inclusions $A \hookrightarrow X$ and $B \hookrightarrow Y$, we see that $\times$ maps $C_*(A) \otimes C_*(Y)$ into $C_*(A \times Y)$ and $C_*(X) \otimes C_*(B)$ into $C_*(X \times B)$, thus it descends to a natural chain map

$$C_*(X, A) \otimes C_*(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} C_*((X, A) \times (Y, B)),$$

so that the cross product on relative homology is well defined:

$$H_k(X, A) \otimes H_\ell(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}((X, A) \times (Y, B)).$$

This part of the story works without any further conditions, and it can also be made to work with arbitrary coefficients.

We run into a complication, however, if we want either to define the cross product on relative *cohomology* or to prove a relative Künneth formula. Both require the chain homotopy inverse $\theta : C_*(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y)$ of the chain-level cross product, and this does *not* always descend to a map

$$C_*((X, A) \times (Y, B)) \rightarrow C_*(X, A) \otimes C_*(Y, B).$$

The problem is that if we are given a chain in the subspace $(A \times Y) \cup (X \times B)$, there is generally no reason to expect that θ will send it into the subcomplex $(C_*(A) \otimes C_*(Y)) + (C_*(X) \otimes C_*(B)) \subset C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y)$. What we can immediately say instead is that $\times$ and θ descend to chain homotopy inverses between the two quotient complexes

$$(50.7) \quad \frac{C_*(X) \otimes C_*(Y)}{(C_*(A) \otimes C_*(Y)) + (C_*(X) \otimes C_*(B))} \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\times} \\ \xleftarrow{\theta} \end{array} \frac{C_*(X \times Y)}{C_*(A \times Y) + C_*(X \times B)}.$$

⁸⁰This definition of $(X, A) \times (Y, B)$ is the right one for talking about the cross product and Künneth's formula, but for other purposes, it is not a good way of defining the “product” of two objects in the category $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$. It suffers in particular from the fact that the obvious projection maps from $X \times Y$ to X or Y do not generally define morphisms from $(X, A) \times (Y, B)$ to (X, A) or (Y, B) under this definition. (Think about it.) There is a more obvious alternative definition of the product for an arbitrary collection of pairs of spaces which does not have this problem with projection maps. That is the right definition to use if, say, one wants an explicit description of inverse limits in $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, in the spirit of Proposition 45.5.

The complex at the left is just $C_*(X, A) \otimes C_*(Y, B)$, which is what we want, but the one at the right is not the same as $C_*((X, A) \times (Y, B))$. However, the identity map does descend to a natural chain map

$$\frac{C_*(X \times Y)}{C_*(A \times Y) + C_*(X \times B)} \longrightarrow \frac{C_*(X \times Y)}{C_*((A \times Y) \cup (X \times B))} = C_*((X, A) \times (Y, B)),$$

and it does happen sometimes that this chain map induces an isomorphism on homology. Recall from Proposition 36.13: this is true whenever $(X \times Y; A \times Y, X \times B)$ forms an *excisive triad* for singular homology.

Now, using the quotient complex at the right hand side of (50.7) as a stand-in for $C_*((X, A) \times (Y, B))$, we obtain a relative version of the Eilenberg-Zilber theorem and therefore a relative Künneth formula:

THEOREM 50.8. *For relative singular homology with coefficients in a principal ideal domain R , if (X, A) and (Y, B) are pairs such that the subsets $(X \times Y; A \times Y, X \times B)$ forms an excisive triad, then there is a natural short exact sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(X, A) \otimes H_\ell(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} H_{k+\ell}((X, A) \times (Y, B)) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k(X, A), H_\ell(Y, B)) \rightarrow 0,$$

and the sequence splits. $\square$

Adapting this discussion for cohomology requires the following lemma:

LEMMA 50.9. *If $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad, then for any abelian group G , the map on cohomology*

$$H^*(X, A \cup B; G) \rightarrow H^*\left(\frac{C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})}{C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z})}; G\right)$$

induced by the natural chain map $C_(X; \mathbb{Z})/C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X, A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism.*

PROOF. Both $C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})/C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z})$ and $C_*(X, A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$ are chain complexes of free abelian groups, so Corollary 35.19 and Proposition 36.13 imply that $C_*(X; \mathbb{Z})/C_*(A + B; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_*(X, A \cup B; \mathbb{Z})$ is a chain homotopy equivalence. It follows via Proposition 43.2 that this remains true after dualizing it. $\square$

If $(X \times Y; A \times Y, X \times B)$ forms an excisive triad, the lemma now allows us to identify the cohomology of the quotient complex $C_*(X \times Y)/(C_*(A \times Y) + C_*(X \times B))$ with $H^*((X, A) \times (Y, B))$, so that dualizing the chain map θ in (50.7) gives rise to a cross product on relative singular cohomology

$$H^k(X, A) \otimes H^\ell(Y, B) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{k+\ell}((X, A) \times (Y, B)).$$

Let's identify some concrete situations in which the technical condition required for relative cross products is satisfied:

LEMMA 50.10. *A triad $(X; A, B)$ is excisive for singular homology whenever any of the following conditions hold:*

- (1) *A and B are both open in X ;*
- (2) *$A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$;*
- (3) *X is a CW-complex with A and B as subcomplexes.*

PROOF. The first case is immediate from Proposition 36.10, and the second case is trivial. For the third case, we recall the homological characterization of excisive triads in Proposition 36.13: $(X; A, B)$ forms an excisive triad if the inclusion of pairs $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, B)$ induces

an isomorphism in relative singular homology with integer coefficients. If A and B are both subcomplexes of a CW-complex X , then $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (A \cup B, B)$ is a map of CW-pairs, and the relative cellular chain complexes of both are freely generated by the set of cells in A that are not also cells in B , implying that the induced chain map is an isomorphism of cellular chain complexes. The result then follows from the isomorphism between cellular and singular homology. $\square$

Here is an interesting application of the relative Künneth formula. If (X, x_0) and (Y, y_0) are two pointed spaces, their **smash product** $X \wedge Y$ is defined as the quotient space

$$X \wedge Y := (X \times Y) / ((\{x_0\} \times Y) \cup (X \times \{y_0\})).$$

Strictly speaking, this construction depends on the choice of base points, but we shall suppress this in the notation. Notice that the subset being quotiented out is homeomorphic to the wedge sum $X \vee Y$, so it is sensible to write

$$X \wedge Y = (X \times Y) / (X \vee Y).$$

It is now straightforward to check that for any base-point preserving continuous maps $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (X', x'_0)$ and $g : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (Y', y'_0)$, the product map $f \times g : X \times Y \rightarrow X' \times Y'$ descends to the quotient as a continuous map

$$f \wedge g : X \wedge Y \rightarrow X' \wedge Y'.$$

EXAMPLE 50.11. For any integers $k, \ell \geq 0$, $S^k \wedge S^\ell \cong S^{k+\ell}$. This is obvious if either k or ℓ is 0, and otherwise, we can identify S^n with $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and choose the equivalence class of the boundary to be the base point. The claim then follows easily from the fact that there is a homeomorphism $\mathbb{D}^{k+\ell} \cong \mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^\ell$ identifying $\partial \mathbb{D}^{k+\ell}$ with $(\partial \mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^\ell) \cup (\mathbb{D}^k \times \partial \mathbb{D}^\ell)$.

Now assume X and Y are both CW-complexes, with base points chosen to be 0-cells in their cell decompositions, so by Lemma 50.10, $X \times Y$ and its subcomplexes $\{x_0\} \times Y$ and $X \times \{y_0\}$ form an excisive triad, and the Künneth formula is thus valid for the pairs $(X, \{x_0\})$ and $(Y, \{y_0\})$. Since $(X, \{x_0\}) \times (Y, \{y_0\}) = (X \times Y, X \vee Y)$, the Künneth formula now takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} H_k(X, \{x_0\}) \otimes H_\ell(Y, \{y_0\}) &\xrightarrow{\times} H_n(X \times Y, X \vee Y) \\ &\rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(H_k(X, \{x_0\}), H_\ell(Y, \{y_0\})) \rightarrow 0, \end{aligned}$$

or under the natural isomorphisms $H_*(X, A) = \tilde{H}_*(X/A)$ for good pairs,

$$(50.8) \quad 0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n} \tilde{H}_k(X) \otimes \tilde{H}_\ell(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} \tilde{H}_n(X \wedge Y) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+\ell=n-1} \text{Tor}(\tilde{H}_k(X), \tilde{H}_\ell(Y)) \rightarrow 0.$$

50.3. Relative cup and cap products. Recall that the cochain-level cup product $C^k(X) \otimes C^\ell(X) \rightarrow C^{k+\ell}(X) : \varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto \varphi \cup \psi$ produces a cochain of the form

$$(50.9) \quad \varphi \cup \psi = (\varphi \otimes \psi) \circ \Psi : C_*(X) \rightarrow R,$$

where Ψ is any choice of diagonal approximation, meaning a natural chain map $C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$ that acts on singular 0-simplices as the diagonal map. We claim that whenever $A, B \subset X$ are two subspaces such that $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad for singular homology, this gives rise to a well-defined relative cup product

$$H^k(X, A) \otimes H^\ell(X, B) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(X, A \cup B).$$

Indeed, under this assumption, Lemma 50.9 identifies $H^*(X, A \cup B)$ with the cohomology of the complex $C_*(X)/(C_*(A) + C_*(B))$, and one can then choose any diagonal approximation $\Psi : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) \otimes C_*(X)$ and make sense of

$$\varphi \cup \psi = (\varphi \otimes \psi) \circ \Psi : \frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A) + C_*(B)} \rightarrow R$$

for $\varphi \in C^*(X, A)$ and $\psi \in C^*(X, B)$, the point here being that since Ψ is natural, it sends any chain in either $C_*(A)$ or $C_*(B)$ to something in $C_*(A) \otimes C_*(A)$ or $C_*(B) \otimes C_*(B)$, which is then annihilated by $\varphi \otimes \psi$ since φ vanishes on $C_*(A)$ and ψ vanishes on $C_*(B)$. One can show that this version of $\cup$ satisfies properties analogous to those listed in Theorem 49.13, as the homotopy-commutative diagrams underlying those properties still make sense after descending to whichever quotient complexes are permitted by the excisive triad assumption.

As a special case, the product

$$H^k(X, A) \otimes H^\ell(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(X, A)$$

is well defined for *every* pair (X, A) , as $(X; A, A)$ always trivially forms an excisive triad.

Similarly, the relative cap product takes the form

$$(50.10) \quad H^*(X, A) \otimes H_*(X, A \cup B) \xrightarrow{\cap} H_*(X, B)$$

for any two subsets $A, B \subset X$ such that $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad. To see why this works, observe that the chain-level cap product pairing

$$C^*(X) \otimes C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X) : \varphi \otimes c \mapsto \varphi \cap c = (\mathbb{1} \otimes \varphi) \circ \Psi(c)$$

always descends to a well-defined map on the relative complexes

$$C^*(X, A) \otimes \frac{C_*(X)}{C_*(A) + C_*(B)} \rightarrow C_*(X, B),$$

as $\varphi \in C^*(X, A)$ means $\varphi : C_*(X) \rightarrow R$ vanishes on $C_*(A) \subset C_*(X)$, so if $c \in C_*(A)$ then $\Psi(c) \in C_*(A) \otimes C_*(A)$ and $\varphi \cap c$ thus vanishes, whereas if $c \in C_*(B)$, then $\Psi(c) \in C_*(B) \otimes C_*(B)$ and $\varphi \cap c \in C_*(B)$. Now if $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad, the homology of $C_*(X)/(C_*(A) + C_*(B))$ has a natural identification with $H_*(X, A \cup B)$, thus making sense of (50.10).

50.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 50.1. Assuming the coefficient ring R to be field $\mathbb{K}$, find an alternative proof of the formula in Corollary 50.7 relating the cap and cross products, using Exercise 49.1.

EXERCISE 50.2. Show that for the cross product on reduced homology as described in (50.8) and the identification of $S^k \wedge S^\ell$ with $S^{k+\ell}$ as indicated in Example 50.11, if $[S^k] \in \tilde{H}_k(S^k)$ and $[S^\ell] \in \tilde{H}_\ell(S^\ell)$ are generators, then $[S^k] \times [S^\ell] \in \tilde{H}_{k+\ell}(S^{k+\ell})$ is also a generator.

EXERCISE 50.3. Suppose $f : S^k \rightarrow S^k$ and $g : S^\ell \rightarrow S^\ell$ are base-point preserving maps.

- Use the naturality of the Künneth formula to prove $\deg(f \wedge g) = \deg(f) \cdot \deg(g)$.
- Find an alternative proof of $\deg(f \wedge g) = \deg(f) \cdot \deg(g)$ using the following fact from differential topology: any continuous map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^k$ admits a small perturbation to a smooth map such that for almost every point $x \in S^k$, $f^{-1}(x)$ is a finite set of points at which the local degree of f is ± 1 . (This follows from Sard's theorem.)

- (c) Using the definition of cellular chain maps and the cellular cross product, prove that the cellular cross product is natural, i.e. if $f : X \rightarrow X'$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Y'$ are cellular maps, then the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_*^{\text{CW}}(X) \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y) & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*^{\text{CW}}(X \times Y) \\ \downarrow f_* \otimes g_* & & \downarrow (f \times g)_* \\ C_*^{\text{CW}}(X') \otimes C_*^{\text{CW}}(Y') & \xrightarrow{\times} & C_*^{\text{CW}}(X' \times Y') \end{array}$$

commutes.

Comment: With significantly more effort, one can proceed from this exercise to a proof that the cellular cross product matches the cross product on singular homology under the natural isomorphisms $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; R) \cong H_*(X; R)$ for all CW-complexes X . We will not go into this since we do not intend to use the cellular cross product for anything beyond intuition, but the basic idea (by reducing to the case of wedges of spheres and then computing both explicitly in that case) is outlined in a slightly different context in [Hat02, p. 279].

51. The orientation bundle

The next few lectures will focus on a new topic: the global topology of finite-dimensional topological manifolds.⁸¹

51.1. Finitely-generated homology. There is a basic fact about manifolds that was briefly mentioned in the context of the Lefschetz fixed point theorem (Lecture 42), and now deserves to be repeated: every compact manifold M admits a topological embedding into $\mathbb{R}^N$ for N sufficiently large (see [Hat02, Appendix A]), and is therefore a *Euclidean neighborhood retract*. In particular, this means there exists a compact polyhedron P with a retraction $r : P \rightarrow M$. Using coefficients in a commutative ring R , the homology of P is a finitely-generated R -module, since its simplicial chain complex is finitely generated, and it follows that the singular homology of M is likewise finitely generated. Since this statement relies on knowledge of the homology of compact CW-complexes, it is true not just for singular homology, but in fact for any axiomatic homology theory with ring coefficients:

THEOREM 51.1. *For every compact manifold M and any axiomatic homology theory $\{h_n : \text{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ with coefficients $h_0(\{*\}) \cong R$, the homology $h_*(M) = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} h_n(M)$ is a finitely-generated R -module.* $\square$

As usual, the statement that $h_*(M)$ is finitely generated is really two statements in one, namely that $h_k(M)$ is finitely generated for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and also that it vanishes for all k outside of a finite range. One consequence of the main theorem in this lecture will be that, in fact, $h_k(M)$ must always vanish when $k > \dim M$.

51.2. Orientations. I would now like to discuss what it means for a topological manifold to be *orientable*. We discussed this somewhat in Lecture 31 through the lens of *oriented triangulations*, but that characterization of orientations requires some extra data that might not exist, i.e. not every topological manifold is triangulable. Another natural approach would be to generalize something that we discussed specifically for surfaces in Lecture 20 last semester: one needs to first understand what it means to say that a homeomorphism between two open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$ is “orientation preserving,” so that an orientation on M can then be defined to mean a covering of M by charts with the property that any two overlapping charts are related by a coordinate transformation that

⁸¹I will typically omit the word “topological” and just say “manifold”, as for most of this discussion it will not be at all necessary to mention smooth structures.

preserves orientations. If we work with smooth manifolds, then it is fairly easy to make this precise, because we can say that a *smooth* coordinate transformation preserves orientations if and only if its derivative at every point is a linear map $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with positive determinant. For maps that are continuous but not differentiable, it takes more effort to say precisely what “orientation preserving” means, and the most elegant way to do it uses homology.

Instead of working with coordinate transformations, the standard approach in algebraic topology is via the notion of *local orientations*, which we saw already in our discussion of the mapping degree (Lecture 38). Recall that if $\dim M = n$, then for every axiomatic homology theory h_* and every interior point $x \in M \setminus \partial M$, there is a locally Euclidean neighborhood $\mathbb{R}^n \cong \mathcal{U}_x \subset M$ of x that gives rise (via the usual axioms of homology) to natural isomorphisms

$$(51.1) \quad \begin{aligned} h_k(M, M \setminus \{x\}) &\cong h_k(\mathcal{U}_x, \mathcal{U}_x \setminus \{x\}) \cong h_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}) \cong h_k(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n) \\ &\cong \tilde{h}_{k-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where $G = h_0(\{*\}) \in R\text{-Mod}$ is the coefficient module. We call

$$h_n(M | x) := h_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}) \cong G$$

the **local homology** group of M at x , and if h_* has coefficients $G = \mathbb{Z}$, a **local orientation** of M at x is defined to be a choice of generator

$$[M]_x \in h_n(M | x) \cong H_n(M | x; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

At every interior point x , there clearly are two possible choices of local orientations. The question now is: if we have chosen a local orientation of M at every point $x \in M \setminus \partial M$, what should it mean to say that these orientations *vary continuously* with x ?

To answer this question, we can start by viewing the local homology groups $h_*(M | x) := h_*(M, M \setminus \{x\})$ as an example of “restricting” the homology of M to smaller subsets—in this case, the one-point subset $\{x\} \subset M$. More generally, any subset $A \subset M$ determines relative homology groups

$$h_*(M | A) := h_*(M, M \setminus A),$$

which we shall call the “homology of M restricted to A ”. In singular homology, for instance, the chain complex underlying $H_*(M | A)$ does not see any chains that fail to intersect A , and the cycles in this complex are chains whose boundaries are disjoint from A . By subdivision, we can also restrict our attention to arbitrarily “small” singular simplices, which means that $H_*(M | A)$ really only depends on the topology of arbitrarily small neighborhoods of A in M . (One can of course use the excision property to make this statement more precise.) For any further subset $B \subset A \subset M$, the identity map on M defines a natural inclusion of pairs $(M, M \setminus A) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus B)$, which therefore induces natural “restriction” homomorphisms

$$j_{B,A} : h_*(M | A) \rightarrow h_*(M | B),$$

or in the case where B is a single point $x \in A$,

$$j_{x,A} : h_*(M | A) \rightarrow h_*(M | x).$$

Note that the absolute homology $h_*(M)$ itself is also an example of a restricted homology group, namely $h_*(M | M)$.

Since the isomorphism $h_n(M | x) \cong G$ only holds when $x \in M$ lies in the interior $M \setminus \partial M$, it will be convenient to assume in most of the following discussion that M has empty boundary,

$$\partial M = \emptyset.$$

Now, in order to relate the local homology groups $h_n(M|x)$ to each other for two distinct but nearby points $x \in M$, suppose $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^n$ is a chart defined on some open set $\mathcal{U} \subset M$, and let $A \subset \mathcal{U}$ denote the subset $\varphi^{-1}(\mathbb{D}^n)$. Then for any point $x \in A$, the maps induced by φ^{-1} and the obvious inclusions of pairs fit together in a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} h_n(M|x) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathcal{U}|x) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\varphi^*} & h_n(\mathbb{R}^n|\varphi(x)) \\ j_{x,A} \uparrow & & & & \cong \uparrow \\ h_n(M|A) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathcal{U}|A) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\varphi^*} & h_n(\mathbb{R}^n|\mathbb{D}^n), \end{array}$$

in which the two horizontal maps at the left are isomorphisms by excision, and the vertical map at the right is an isomorphism due to a combination of homotopy equivalence and the five-lemma, proving that

$$j_{x,A} : h_n(M|A) \rightarrow h_n(M|x)$$

is an isomorphism. We shall say in this situation that $A \subset M$ is a **disk-like neighborhood** of $x \in M$.

DEFINITION 51.2. An **orientation** of an n -dimensional topological manifold M with empty boundary is a choice of local orientations $[M]_x \in H_n(M|x; \mathbb{Z})$ for every $x \in M$ satisfying the following consistency condition: for every disk-like neighborhood $A \subset M$ and all $x, y \in A$,

$$j_{x,A}^{-1}[M]_x = j_{y,A}^{-1}[M]_y \in H_n(M|A; \mathbb{Z}).$$

In the case $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, we define an orientation of M to be an orientation of its interior $M \setminus \partial M$.

REMARK 51.3. The choice to use singular homology in Definition 51.2 is arbitrary; any axiomatic homology theory with coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$ would do just as well.

A manifold equipped with an orientation will be called an **oriented manifold** (*orientierte Mannigfaltigkeit*). In light of (51.1), you can imagine an orientation as a choice for every $x \in M \setminus \partial M$ of a favorite generator $[S_x] \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}(S_x; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for some small $(n-1)$ -sphere S_x enclosing x , with the property that translating S_x to S_y through a coordinate chart containing x and y produces an isomorphism $\tilde{H}_{n-1}(S_x; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}(S_y; \mathbb{Z})$ sending $[S_x]$ to $[S_y]$. You should take a moment to contemplate why this description matches Definition 51.2 in the case $M = \mathbb{R}^n$.

51.3. Orientation bundles. The notion of orientation described above admits fruitful generalizations, and in order to express them in the most useful language, let us again assume $\partial M = \emptyset$, fix an axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficient module $G := h_0(\{*\}) \in R\text{-Mod}$, and abbreviate

$$\Theta_x^G := h_n(M|x) \cong H_n(M|x; G) \cong G$$

for each point $x \in M$, or simply

$$\Theta_x := h_n(M|x)$$

for situations where knowledge of the coefficient group is unimportant. This associates to each point $x \in M$ an R -module Θ_x that is isomorphic to the fixed module $G = h_0(\{*\})$, though without a canonical choice of isomorphism. The union of all these modules defines a set that we shall denote by

$$\Theta = \Theta^G := \bigcup_{x \in M} \Theta_x^G.$$

In this definition, we are regarding Θ_x and Θ_y as disjoint sets whenever $x \neq y$, so Θ is set-theoretically their disjoint union; I am avoiding writing it as $\bigsqcup_{x \in M} \Theta_x$ since this notation normally carries connotations about the topology of the union, and those connotations would be inconsistent with the next definition.

DEFINITION 51.4. For an n -manifold M with empty boundary, the **orientation bundle** of M with coefficients in G is the set $\Theta = \Theta^G$ defined above, endowed with the topology generated by the collection of subsets

$$\mathcal{B} := \{\mathcal{U}_c \subset \Theta \mid \mathcal{U} \subset M \text{ open and } c \in h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}})\},$$

where for $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ and $c \in h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}})$ we define

$$\mathcal{U}_c := \{j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}}(c) \in \Theta_x \mid x \in \mathcal{U}\}.$$

PROPOSITION 51.5. The collection of subsets $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathcal{U}_c\}$ appearing in Definition 51.4 is the base of a topology on Θ for which the natural projection map

$$p : \Theta \rightarrow M$$

sending Θ_x to x for each $x \in M$ is continuous and is a covering map.

PROOF. To show that $\mathcal{B}$ is the base of a topology, we need to show first that these sets cover all of Θ , and second that any finite intersection of such sets is also a union of such sets. The former is true because for any $x \in M$ and $c \in \Theta_x$, we can pick an open set $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ whose closure is a disk-like neighborhood $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \subset M$ of x , for which we showed above that $j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}} : h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}}) \rightarrow \Theta_x$ is an isomorphism, thus $c \in \mathcal{U}_{c'}$ for $c' := j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}}^{-1}(c)$.

For finite intersections, consider two open sets $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \subset M$ and classes $a \in h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}})$ and $b \in h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{V}})$. Then $\mathcal{U}_a \cap \mathcal{V}_b \subset \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}} \Theta_x$, and we observe that for $x \in \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ and any subset $A \subset \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ containing x , the maps $j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}}$ and $j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{V}}}$ both factor through $h_n(M \mid A)$:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & & j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}} & \\ & & & \curvearrowright & \\ h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}}) & & & & \Theta_x \\ & \searrow j_{A,\bar{\mathcal{U}}} & & & \uparrow j_{x,A} \\ & h_n(M \mid A) & & & \\ & \nearrow j_{A,\bar{\mathcal{V}}} & & & \\ h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{V}}) & & & j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{V}}} \curvearrowleft & \end{array}$$

Choose $A \subset \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ to be a disk-like neighborhood, so that $j_{x,A}$ is an isomorphism for every $x \in A$. Now if $x \in A$ and $c \in \Theta_x$ belongs to both $\mathcal{U}_a$ and $\mathcal{V}_b$, it means

$$c = j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}}(a) = j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{V}}}(b) = j_{x,A}(c') \quad \text{where} \quad c' := j_{x,A}^{-1}(c) = j_{A,\bar{\mathcal{U}}}(a) = j_{A,\bar{\mathcal{V}}}(b),$$

hence $c \in \mathring{A}_{c'}$, and conversely, the diagram also demonstrates that $\mathring{A}_{c'} \subset \mathcal{U}_a \cap \mathcal{V}_b$. This proves that $\mathcal{U}_a \cap \mathcal{V}_b$ is a union of sets $\mathring{A}_c \in \mathcal{B}$, where A ranges over disk-like neighborhoods contained in $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$.

To prove that $p : \Theta \rightarrow M$ is continuous and is a covering space, the main idea is as follows: for each $x \in M$, choose a disk-like neighborhood $A \subset M$ of x and observe that the isomorphism $j_{x,A} : h_n(M \mid A) \rightarrow h_n(M \mid x)$ factors through $h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}})$ for any smaller open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathring{A}$ of x , implying that $j_{x,\bar{\mathcal{U}}} : h_n(M \mid \bar{\mathcal{U}}) \rightarrow h_n(M \mid x)$ is also an isomorphism. One can use this to show that for each $x \in \mathring{A}$, assigning the discrete topology to Θ_x makes the map

$$(p, \psi) : p^{-1}(A) \rightarrow A \times \Theta_x$$

a homeomorphism, where the map $\psi : p^{-1}(A) \rightarrow \Theta_x$ is defined such that its restriction to $\Theta_y \subset p^{-1}(A)$ for each $y \in A$ is $j_{x,A} \circ j_{y,A}^{-1} : \Theta_y \rightarrow \Theta_x$. Using this to identify $p^{-1}(A)$ with $A \times \Theta_x$ turns $p^{-1}(A) \xrightarrow{p} A$ into the trivial covering map $A \times \Theta_x \rightarrow A : (a, c) \mapsto a$. $\square$

REMARK 51.6. The orientation bundle Θ^G and covering map $p : \Theta^G \rightarrow M$ obviously depend on $G = h_0(\{*\})$, but up to isomorphism, they are otherwise independent of the choice of axiomatic homology theory.

REMARK 51.7. The word “bundle” is borrowed from differential geometry, where fiber bundles $p : E \rightarrow B$ generalize the notion of a covering space by allowing the fibers $p^{-1}(b) \subset E$ to be more interesting topological spaces (typically manifolds or vector spaces), rather than just discrete sets. In general, a fiber bundle whose fibers are discrete is equivalent to a covering map. The orientation bundle also has a bit more structure than this, since its fibers Θ_x are R -modules—this makes $p : \Theta \rightarrow M$ a *sheaf* of R -modules. For readers who may know what this means and find it interesting: $p : \Theta \rightarrow M$ is the *completion* of the *presheaf* that associates to each open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ the R -module $h_n(M|_{\mathcal{U}})$.

DEFINITION 51.8. For each subset $A \subset M$, we denote

$$\Theta|_A := p^{-1}(A) \subset \Theta$$

and call the covering map $\Theta|_A \xrightarrow{p} A$ the **restriction** of the orientation bundle to A . A **section** (*Schnitt*) of Θ along A is by definition a continuous map $s : A \rightarrow \Theta$ such that $p \circ s = \text{Id}_A$, i.e. it continuously associates to each $x \in A$ an element $s(x) \in \Theta_x$. The set of all sections of Θ along A will be denoted by $\Gamma(\Theta|_A)$, with the special case $A = M$ denoted simply by $\Gamma(\Theta)$. We say a section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ has **compact support** if it satisfies $s(x) = 0$ for all x outside some compact subset of A , and denote the set of sections with this property by

$$\Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) \subset \Gamma(\Theta|_A).$$

The sets $\Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ and $\Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$ defined above are both R -modules in a natural way; see Exercise 51.2 for details.

Our previous definition of orientations can now be recouched in the following terms.

DEFINITION 51.9. An **orientation** of M along a subset $A \subset M$ is a section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}|_A)$ such that $[M]_x := s(x)$ generates $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for every $x \in A$.

More generally, if R is a commutative ring with unit, an **R -orientation** of M along $A \subset M$ is a section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^R|_A)$ such that for every $x \in A$, $s(x)$ generates Θ_x^R as an R -module, i.e. $Rs(x) = \Theta_x^R$. If such a section exists, we say that M is **orientable over R** along A , or simply **R -orientable** along A . A manifold with nonempty boundary can be included in this definition by calling M itself **R -orientable** if it is R -orientable along its interior $M \setminus \partial M$.

REMARK 51.10. When $G = h_0(\{*\})$ is a ring R , one should not be misled by the isomorphism $\Theta_x^R \cong \tilde{h}_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \cong R$ into thinking that Θ_x^R is a ring—it is an R -module, and the isomorphism $\Theta_x^R \cong R$ respects that R -module structure, but Θ_x^R does not have any natural ring structure in general.

The geometric meaning of R -orientations when $R \neq \mathbb{Z}$ merits further comment, but let's first look a bit more closely at the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$. There are exactly two possible choices of generators $[M]_x$ in each fiber $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \cong \mathbb{Z}$, that is, the two local orientations of M at x . Let us write

$$\widetilde{M} := \{c \in \Theta^{\mathbb{Z}} \mid c \text{ is a local orientation}\} \subset \Theta^{\mathbb{Z}},$$

in other words, $\widetilde{M}$ is the union for all $x \in M$ of the two generators of $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Assigning to $\widetilde{M} \subset \Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}$ the subspace topology, it is easy to see that the restriction of $p : \Theta^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow M$ defines a two-to-one covering map

$$\pi := p|_{\widetilde{M}} : \widetilde{M} \rightarrow M : [M]_x \mapsto x.$$

It is called the **orientation double cover** of M . Observe now that if M is orientable over a connected subset $A \subset M$, then there are exactly two choices of orientation, given by some section $s : A \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$ and its opposite, $-s : A \rightarrow \widetilde{M}$, i.e. the section of $\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}|_A$ for which $-s + s = 0$. The images of these two sections are disjoint, but by the definition of the topology on $\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}$, they are both also open subsets of $\pi^{-1}(A) \subset \widetilde{M}$, implying that $\pi^{-1}(A)$ is disconnected. Conversely, the proof of the following result is an exercise:

LEMMA 51.11. *If $A \subset M$ is connected and $\pi^{-1}(A) \subset \widetilde{M}$ has more than one connected component, then each component intersects $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}}$ for every $x \in A$. It follows in this situation that $\pi^{-1}(A) \subset \widetilde{M}$ has exactly two components, each of which is the image of a section of $\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}$ along A . $\square$*

Combining this with the previous remarks proves:

PROPOSITION 51.12. *For any connected subset $A \subset M$, $\pi^{-1}(A) \subset \widetilde{M}$ has either one or two connected components, where the latter is the case if and only if M is orientable along A . $\square$*

EXAMPLE 51.13. For $M = \mathbb{RP}^2$, the orientation double cover is equivalent to the standard covering $S^2 \rightarrow S^2/\mathbb{Z}_2 = \mathbb{RP}^2$ defined via the antipodal map on S^2 . In particular, $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is orientable along a loop $\gamma \subset \mathbb{RP}^2$ if and only if γ has a lift to S^2 that is a loop (instead of a path with distinct end points).

The main advantage of generalizing to other coefficient rings $R \neq \mathbb{Z}$ arises from the following observation about the case $R = \mathbb{Z}_2$:

PROPOSITION 51.14. *Every manifold is orientable over $\mathbb{Z}_2$.*

PROOF. Each fiber $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}_2}$ of the orientation bundle consists only of the trivial element $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$ and the nontrivial element $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2$, so there is a unique nontrivial section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}_2})$, defined by $s(x) = 1$ for all x . $\square$

PROPOSITION 51.15. *For every abelian group G , there is a natural group isomorphism*

$$\Phi_x : \Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \otimes G \xrightarrow{\cong} \Theta_x^G$$

for each $x \in M$ such that if $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}}|_A)$ is a section and $g \in G$, then $s'(x) := \Phi_x(s(x) \otimes g)$ defines a section $s' \in \Gamma(\Theta^G|_A)$.

PROOF. Since Θ^G depends on G but not on the specific choice of axiomatic homology theory with G as coefficients, we can choose to use singular homology and thus write $\Theta_x^G = H_n(M|x; G)$. The map Φ_x then comes from the universal coefficient theorem, which applies because $\mathbb{Z}$ is a principal ideal domain and $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} = H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$ is the homology of a chain complex of free $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules $C_*(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})$. It is an isomorphism because $\text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(M|x; \mathbb{Z}), G) = 0$, since $H_{n-1}(M|x; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. $\square$

COROLLARY 51.16. *If M is orientable along A , then it is also R -orientable along A for every choice of coefficient ring R . $\square$*

51.4. The compact support axiom. Before the most important result about orientation bundles can be proved axiomatically, we will need to add one additional axiom to the usual list from Eilenberg-Steenrod. Recall that a **compact pair** is a pair of spaces (X, A) such that X is compact and $A \subset X$ is closed. For pairs of spaces, we shall write

$$(X', A') \subset (X, A)$$

when $X' \subset X$ and $A' \subset A$.

DEFINITION 51.17. An axiomatic homology theory h_* is said to be **compactly supported** if for every $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ and every $c \in h_n(X, A)$, there exists a compact pair $(X', A') \subset (X, A)$ such that c lies in the image of the map $h_n(X', A') \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$ induced by the inclusion.

EXAMPLE 51.18. Singular homology is compactly supported since singular n -chains always have images contained in compact subsets. More precisely, for any singular n -chain $\sum_i a_i \sigma_i \in C_n(X; G)$ that is a relative n -cycle in (X, A) , the same chain is also a relative n -cycle in the compact pair $(X', A') \subset (X, A)$ defined by $X' := \bigcup_i \sigma_i(\Delta^n)$ and $A' := \bigcup_i \sigma_i(\partial \Delta^n)$.

PROPOSITION 51.19. *Suppose h_* is a compactly supported homology theory, $(X', A') \subset (X, A)$ is a compact pair, and $c \in h_*(X', A')$ belongs to the kernel of the map $h_*(X', A') \rightarrow h_*(X, A)$ induced by the inclusion. Then c also belongs to the kernel of the map $h_*(X', A') \rightarrow h_*(X'', A'')$ induced by the inclusion of (X', A') into another compact pair (X'', A'') with*

$$(X', A') \subset (X'', A'') \subset (X, A).$$

Proposition 51.19 is one of those results that are easier to prove directly in the case of singular homology, so let us do that before tackling the general case.

PROOF OF PROP. 51.19 FOR SINGULAR HOMOLOGY. Suppose (X', A') is a compact pair with an inclusion into (X, A) , and $c \in C_n(X')$ is a singular n -chain that is a relative cycle in (X', A') , and therefore also in (X, A) , such that the class it represents in $H_n(X, A)$ vanishes. The latter means that there is an $(n+1)$ -chain $b = \sum_i b_i \sigma_i \in C_{n+1}(X)$ and an n -chain $a = \sum_j a_j \sigma_j \in C_n(A)$ such that $c = \partial b + a$. Setting $X'' := \bigcup_i \sigma_i(\Delta^{n+1}) \cup X' \subset X$ and $A'' := \bigcup_j \sigma_j(\Delta^n) \cup A' \subset A$ then gives a compact pair (X'', A'') that contains (X', A') and is contained in (X, A) , such that $b \in C_{n+1}(X'')$ and $a \in C_n(A'')$, showing that c represents the trivial class in $H_n(X'', A'')$. $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 51.19 (GENERAL CASE). We first establish the absolute case, i.e. assuming $X' \subset X$ is a compact subset and $c \in h_n(X')$ vanishes under the map $i_* : h_n(X') \rightarrow h_n(X)$ induced by the inclusion $i : X' \hookrightarrow X$, we show that c also vanishes under the map induced by the inclusion $j : X' \hookrightarrow X''$ into some compact set $X'' \subset X$ containing X . Indeed, the long exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_{n+1}(X, X') \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_n(X) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_n(X') \longrightarrow \dots$$

produces a class $b \in h_{n+1}(X, X')$ such that $\partial_* b = c$, and the compact support axiom then implies the existence of a compact pair $(A, A') \subset (X, X')$ and an element $a \in h_{n+1}(A, A')$ that maps to b under the homomorphism $h_{n+1}(A, A') \rightarrow h_{n+1}(X, X')$ induced by the inclusion. Let $X'' := A \cup X'$, and note that X'' is compact since A and X' both are. Using the inclusions $\varphi : (A, A') \hookrightarrow (X'', X')$, $k : X'' \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : X' \hookrightarrow X''$, the naturality of long exact sequences produces a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & h_{n+1}(A, A') & & & & \\ & & \downarrow \varphi_* & & & & \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(X'', X') & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_n(X') & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_n(X'') \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \downarrow k_* & & \downarrow \mathbb{1} & & \downarrow k_* \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}(X, X') & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_n(X') & \xrightarrow{i_*} & h_n(X) \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

in which the bottom two rows are exact. Since $k_* \varphi_* a = b$, we deduce $c = \partial_* k_* \varphi_* a = \partial_* \varphi_* a$, and thus $j_* c = j_* \partial_* \varphi_* a = 0$.

Now the relative case: we assume $(X', A') \subset (X, A)$ is a compact pair and $c \in h_n(X', A')$ vanishes under $i_* : h_n(X', A') \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$, with $i : (X', A') \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ denoting the inclusion of

pairs. The obvious inclusions and the naturality of long exact sequences produce the following commutative diagram with exact rows:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A') & \xrightarrow{j'_*} & h_n(X') & \xrightarrow{\varphi'_*} & h_n(X', A') & \xrightarrow{\partial'_*} & h_{n-1}(A') & \xrightarrow{j'_*} & h_{n-1}(X') & \longrightarrow & \dots \\
 & & \downarrow i_* & & \downarrow i_* & & \downarrow i_* & & \downarrow i_* & & \downarrow i_* & & \\
 \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} & h_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(A) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_{n-1}(X) & \longrightarrow & \dots
 \end{array}$$

The diagram implies that $\partial'_*c \in h_{n-1}(A')$ is in the kernel of $i_* : h_{n-1}(A') \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A)$, so the absolute case of the result implies the existence of a compact set $A'' \subset A$ containing A' such that ∂'_*c also vanishes under the map $i'_* : h_{n-1}(A') \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A'')$ induced by the inclusion $i' : A' \hookrightarrow A''$. Setting

$$X'' := X' \cup A''$$

then produces a compact pair (X'', A'') with inclusions

$$(X', A') \xleftarrow{i'} (X'', A'') \xleftarrow{i''} (X, A),$$

and thus a more elaborate commutative diagram with three exact rows,

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A') & \xrightarrow{j'_*} & h_n(X') & \xrightarrow{\varphi'_*} & h_n(X', A') & \xrightarrow{\partial'_*} & h_{n-1}(A') & \xrightarrow{j'_*} & h_{n-1}(X') & \longrightarrow & \dots \\
 & & \downarrow i'_* & & \downarrow i'_* & & \downarrow i'_* & & \downarrow i'_* & & \downarrow i'_* & & \\
 \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A'') & \xrightarrow{j''_*} & h_n(X'') & \xrightarrow{\varphi''_*} & h_n(X'', A'') & \xrightarrow{\partial''_*} & h_{n-1}(A'') & \xrightarrow{j''_*} & h_{n-1}(X'') & \longrightarrow & \dots \\
 & & \downarrow i''_* & & \downarrow i''_* & & \downarrow i''_* & & \downarrow i''_* & & \downarrow i''_* & & \\
 \dots & \longrightarrow & h_n(A) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} & h_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(A) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & h_{n-1}(X) & \longrightarrow & \dots
 \end{array}$$

Since $0 = i'_*\partial'_*c = \partial''_*i'_*c$, exactness of the middle row implies $i'_*c = \varphi''_*b$ for some $b \in h_n(X'')$, and the hypothesis on c then implies $0 = i''_*i'_*c = i''_*\varphi''_*b = \varphi_*i''_*b$, so that by the exactness of the bottom row, $i''_*b = j_*a$ for some $a \in h_n(A)$. By the compact support axiom, there is a compact subset $K \subset A$ such that the map $h_n(K) \rightarrow h_n(A)$ induced by the inclusion has a in its image, and after replacing both A'' and X'' by their respective unions with K , we can now assume without loss of generality that $a = i''_*a''$ for some $a'' \in h_n(A'')$. It follows that $i''_*b = j_*i''_*a'' = i''_*j''_*a''$, thus $b - j''_*a'' \in \ker i''_* \subset h_n(X'')$. By the absolute case of the result, we can now replace X'' with a larger compact set in order to assume without loss of generality that $b - j''_*a'' = 0 \in h_n(X'')$, or in other words, $b = j''_*a''$. This implies $i'_*c = \varphi''_*j''_*a'' = 0 \in h_n(X'', A'')$. $\square$

51.5. Sections and fundamental classes. We would now like to formulate a relationship between the R -module of sections $\Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ and the homology $h_n(M|A)$.

LEMMA 51.20. *Assume h_* is a compactly supported axiomatic homology theory and Θ denotes the associated orientation bundle over an n -manifold M with empty boundary. Then for every closed subset $A \subset M$, there exists an R -module homomorphism*

$$J_A : h_n(M|A) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) : c \mapsto s_c$$

defined by $s_c(x) := j_{x,A}(c)$ for $x \in A$.

PROOF. We need to show two things about the map $s_c : A \rightarrow \Theta|_A$, first that it is continuous, and second that its support is compact. After this it will be obvious that J_A is a homomorphism. Let's consider first the support of s_c .

Given $c \in h_n(M|A) = h_n(M, M \setminus A)$, the compact support axiom provides a compact pair (K, L) with an inclusion $i : (K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A)$ such that $c = i_*c'$ for some $c' \in h_n(K, L)$. For $x \in A$, we then have a composition of inclusions

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & j & & \\ & \swarrow & \searrow & & \\ (K, L) & \xrightarrow{i} & (M, M \setminus A) & \hookrightarrow & (M, M \setminus \{x\}) \end{array}$$

such that $s_c(x) = j_*c'$. But if $x \notin K$, then $K \subset M \setminus \{x\}$ and j thus factors through the pair $(M \setminus \{x\}, M \setminus \{x\})$, whose homology is trivial, implying $s_c(x) = 0$, i.e. the support of s_c is contained in K .

For continuity, we start with the observation that if $A \subset X$ happens to have the property that $j_{x,A}$ is an isomorphism for every $x \in A$, then the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 51.5 identifies $\Theta|_A$ with $A \times \Theta_x$ so that s_c looks like a “constant section” $x \mapsto (x, g)$ for some $g \in \Theta_x$ and is thus obviously continuous. We can reduce the situation to this case as follows. Given $c \in h_n(M|A)$, write $c = i_*c'$ as in the previous paragraph, with $c' \in h_n(K, L)$ and the inclusion of a compact pair $i : (K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A)$. Since L is compact and disjoint from A , every $x \in A$ admits a disk-like neighborhood $\bar{U} \subset M$ disjoint from L , so that the inclusion $(K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus \{x\})$ factors through $(M, M \setminus \bar{U})$, giving rise to a class

$$c'' \in h_n(M|\bar{U}) \quad \text{such that} \quad j_{x,\bar{U}}(c'') = s_c(x) \text{ for all } x \in \bar{U} \cap A.$$

On a neighborhood of x , our section s_c is therefore the restriction of a section defined on the disk-like neighborhood $\bar{U}$, and the latter is continuous for the reasons stated above. $\square$

Here is the main theorem about the orientation bundle.

THEOREM 51.21. *If M is a topological n -manifold with empty boundary and h_* is a compactly supported homology theory, then for every closed subset $A \subset M$, the map $J_A : h_n(M|A) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$ is an isomorphism, and $h_k(M|A) = 0$ for all $k > n$.*

The proof of this theorem is a bit long, so we will save it for the next lecture, and focus for now on its corollaries.

COROLLARY 51.22. *Assume M is a topological n -manifold with empty boundary, and h_* is a compactly supported homology theory with coefficients G . Then:*

- (1) $h_k(M) = 0$ for all $k > n$.
- (2) If M is noncompact and connected, then additionally $h_n(M) = 0$.
- (3) If M is compact, connected and orientable, then $h_n(M) \cong G$.
- (4) If M is compact and connected but not orientable, then $h_n(M) \cong \{g \in G \mid 2g = 0\}$.

Moreover, if h_* has coefficients in the ring R and M is compact and R -orientable, then any choice of R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^R)$ determines a unique element

$$[M] \in h_n(M) \quad \text{such that} \quad j_{x,M}[M] = s(x) \text{ for all } x \in M,$$

and if M is additionally connected, then the R -module $h_n(M)$ is isomorphic to R and has $[M]$ as a generator.

PROOF. We work through the claims one by one:

- (1) Follows from $h_k(M|A) = 0$ with $A = M$.
- (2) If M is noncompact and connected then $\Gamma_c(\Theta) = 0$, since any section with compact support must equal zero somewhere; indeed, continuity then implies that the subset $\{x \in M \mid s(x) = 0\}$ is both open and closed, so it is all of M .

- (3) Taking $A = M$ gives an isomorphism $h_n(M) \cong \Gamma(\Theta)$, where the compact support condition is irrelevant since M is compact. Then given an orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^{\mathbb{Z}})$ and the natural group isomorphisms $\Phi_x : \Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \otimes G \rightarrow \Theta_x^G$ from the universal coefficient theorem (cf. Proposition 51.15), we obtain an injective group homomorphism

$$G \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta^G) : g \mapsto s_g \quad \text{where} \quad s_g(x) := \Phi_x(s(x) \otimes g).$$

This homomorphism is also surjective if M is connected, because in this case, the value of a section at any one point uniquely determines the section.

- (4) For the submodule $G_0 = \{g \in G \mid 2g = 0\}$, we can again use the isomorphisms $\Phi_x : \Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}} \otimes G \rightarrow \Theta_x^G$ to define an injective homomorphism

$$G_0 \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta^G) : g \mapsto s_g \quad \text{where} \quad s_g(x) := \Phi_x(\pm[M]_x \otimes g).$$

Here the choice of local orientation $\pm[M]_x \in \Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is arbitrary and $s_g(x)$ does not depend on it, since $g = -g$. We leave it as an exercise to show that this map is also surjective whenever M is connected and non-orientable: in particular, since $\widetilde{M}$ is connected, given any $x \in M$, there is no section taking the value $[M]_x \otimes g$ at x for some generator $[M]_x \in \Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $g \in G$ unless $g = -g$.

For the last statement, we observe that any R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^R)$ belongs to $\Gamma_c(\Theta^R)$ if M is compact, in which case the distinguished class $[M] \in h_n(M)$ can be written as $J_M^{-1}(s)$. If M is also connected, then the map $\Gamma(\Theta^R) \rightarrow \Theta_x^R : s \mapsto s(x)$ is an isomorphism for any chosen point $x \in M$, thus s generates $\Gamma(\Theta^R)$ as an R -module, implying that $[M]$ does the same for $h_n(M)$. $\square$

DEFINITION 51.23. The generator $[M] \in h_n(M) \cong R$ associated by Corollary 51.22 to any R -orientation of a closed n -manifold M and a compactly supported homology theory h_* with coefficients R is called the **fundamental class** of M .

51.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 51.1. Assume M is an n -manifold and $\{h_k : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an axiomatic homology theory. Given a point $x \in M$, let J denote the set of all open neighborhoods of x , and write $\mathcal{U} < \mathcal{V}$ whenever $\mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{U}$. This makes $(J, <)$ into a directed set, and whenever $\mathcal{U} < \mathcal{V}$ there is an associated homomorphism $j_{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{U}} : h_n(M|\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow h_n(M|\mathcal{V})$, so that the collection of R -modules $\{h_n(M|\mathcal{U})\}_{\mathcal{U} \in J}$ forms a direct system. Find a canonical isomorphism

$$\varinjlim \{h_n(M|\mathcal{U})\} \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(M|x).$$

EXERCISE 51.2. Suppose M is a manifold, G is an R -module, $\Theta = \Theta^G$ is the associated orientation bundle over M , and $A \subset M$ is a subset. Show that $\Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ and $\Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$ are both naturally R -modules, with addition of sections and scalar multiplication defined pointwise, i.e.

$$(s_1 + s_2)(x) := s_1(x) + s_2(x) \in \Theta_x, \quad (rs)(x) := rs(x) \in \Theta_x$$

for $s_1, s_2, s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_A)$, $r \in R$ and $x \in A$.

EXERCISE 51.3 (*). Prove Lemma 51.11 on the connected components of the orientation double cover.

Hint: Show that the set of $x \in A$ for which $\Theta_x^{\mathbb{Z}}$ intersects a given component of $\pi^{-1}(A)$ is both open and closed.

EXERCISE 51.4. Prove that if M is a non-orientable connected topological manifold, then $\pi_1(M)$ contains a subgroup of index 2. In particular, this implies that every simply connected manifold is orientable.

EXERCISE 51.5 (*). Suppose M is any connected topological manifold of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- (a) Prove that the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is $\mathbb{Z}_2$ if M is compact and non-orientable, and it is otherwise trivial.

Hint: Use the universal coefficient theorem to compute $\text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(M), \mathbb{Z}_p) = 0$ for various values of $p \geq 2$, and see what you can deduce from it (cf. Exercise 47.13). You may want to consider separately the cases where M is noncompact, compact and orientable, or compact and non-orientable.

- (b) Deduce that if $H_*(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is finitely generated and M is orientable, then $H^n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$.

EXERCISE 51.6. Here is an interesting application of Čech cohomology to the question of orientability of manifolds. Fix a space X and R -module G , and recall that the set $\mathcal{O}(X)$ of all open coverings of X admits an ordering relation $<$ that makes it into a directed set: we write $\mathfrak{U} < \mathfrak{U}'$ whenever $\mathfrak{U}'$ is a refinement of $\mathfrak{U}$. There is a direct system of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules over $\mathcal{O}(X)$ whose direct limit is Čech cohomology, namely

$$\check{H}^*(X; G) := \varinjlim \{H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G)\}_{\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)},$$

where $\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U})$ is the so-called nerve of the open covering $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$, defining a simplicial complex, and $H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G)$ is the cohomology with coefficients in G of its ordered simplicial complex. Concretely, $H_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G)$ is the cohomology of a cochain complex $\check{C}^*(\mathfrak{U}; G) := C_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); G)$, where $\check{C}^n(\mathfrak{U}; G) = 0$ for $n < 0$ and, for each $n \geq 0$, $\check{C}^n(\mathfrak{U}; G)$ is the R -module of all functions φ that assign an element of G to each ordered $(n+1)$ -tuple of sets $\mathcal{U}_0, \dots, \mathcal{U}_n \in \mathfrak{U}$ with nonempty intersection:

$$\varphi(\mathcal{U}_0, \dots, \mathcal{U}_n) \in G \quad \text{assuming} \quad \mathcal{U}_0 \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_n \neq \emptyset.$$

The coboundary map $\delta : \check{C}^n(\mathfrak{U}; G) \rightarrow \check{C}^{n+1}(\mathfrak{U}; G)$ is defined by

$$(\delta\varphi)(\mathcal{U}_0, \dots, \mathcal{U}_{n+1}) := (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \varphi(\mathcal{U}_0, \dots, \hat{\mathcal{U}}_k, \dots, \mathcal{U}_{n+1}),$$

where the hat over $\hat{\mathcal{U}}_k$ means that that term is skipped. The cohomologies of these cochain complexes form a direct system over $(\mathcal{O}(X), <)$ because, as mentioned in Lecture 45, refinements $\mathfrak{U}' > \mathfrak{U}$ give rise to chain maps $C_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}')) \rightarrow C_o^*(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}))$ that are canonical up to chain homotopy, so dualizing these gives chain maps $\check{C}^*(\mathfrak{U}; G) \rightarrow \check{C}^*(\mathfrak{U}'; G)$ that are also canonical up to chain homotopy and therefore induce canonical maps on the cohomology groups.

Let us call an open covering $\mathfrak{U}$ *admissible* if intersections between two sets in $\mathfrak{U}$ are always connected; this will be a useful technical condition in the following, and one can show that at least if X is a smooth manifold, every open covering of X has an admissible refinement, so assume this from now on.⁸² We are going to consider covering⁸³ maps $f : Y \rightarrow X$ of degree 2. Recall that two such covering maps (Y_i, f_i) for $i = 1, 2$ are called **isomorphic** if there exists a homeomorphism $\varphi : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y_1 & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Y_2 \\ & \searrow f_1 & \swarrow f_2 \\ & X & \end{array}$$

⁸²Alternatively, one could avoid the need for connected intersections by using Čech cohomology with sheaf coefficients, cf. [Spa95, Chapter 6].

⁸³Caution! This exercise now contains two distinct meanings of the word “cover”: one in the sense of “open covering” (*Überdeckung*) and the other in the sense of “covering map” (*Überlagerung*). I am trying very hard to ensure that it would be clear in each instance which meaning is intended.

commutes. We will say that a covering map (Y, f) is **trivial** if it is isomorphic to the **trivial double cover**

$$X \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \rightarrow X : (x, i) \mapsto x.$$

Given $f : Y \rightarrow X$, any open covering $\mathfrak{U} \in \mathcal{O}(X)$ can be replaced with a refinement such that every $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$ is **evenly covered** by $f : Y \rightarrow X$, meaning $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})$ is the union of two disjoint subsets $\mathcal{V}_0, \mathcal{V}_1 \subset Y$ such that $f|_{\mathcal{V}_i} : \mathcal{V}_i \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ is a homeomorphism for $i = 0, 1$. After a further refinement, assume $\mathfrak{U}$ is also admissible. We can now choose for each $\mathcal{U} \in \mathfrak{U}$ a so-called **local trivialization**, meaning a homeomorphism

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{U}} : f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$$

that sends $f^{-1}(x)$ to $\{x\} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ for each $x \in \mathcal{U}$. This determines a set of continuous **transition functions** $g_{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}} : \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$ for each intersecting pair $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V} \in \mathfrak{U}$, defined such that the map

$$(\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}) \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \xrightarrow{\Phi_{\mathcal{V}} \circ \Phi_{\mathcal{U}}^{-1}} (\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$$

takes the form $(x, i) \mapsto (x, i + g_{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}}(x))$. Note that since $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ is always assumed connected, the transition functions are all constant, i.e. they associate to each ordered pair $(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V})$ of sets in $\mathfrak{U}$ with $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V} \neq \emptyset$ an element $\varphi(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}) := g_{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}} \in \mathbb{Z}_2$. See if you can prove the following:

- (a) $\varphi \in \check{C}^1(\mathfrak{U}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is a cocycle, and choosing different local trivializations changes φ by a coboundary.
- (b) Feeding $[\varphi] \in H_o^1(\mathcal{N}(\mathfrak{U}); \mathbb{Z}_2)$ into the canonical map to the direct limit produces a class $w_1(f) \in \check{H}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ that is independent of the choice of admissible open covering.
- (c) If X is an n -manifold and $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is its orientation double cover, then

$$w_1(X) := w_1(f) \in \check{H}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

is zero if and only if X is orientable. (We call $w_1(X)$ the first **Stiefel-Whitney class** of X .)

52. Existence of the fundamental class

I owe you a proof of Theorem 51.21, on which the general construction of fundamental classes is based. First, we need to finish unpacking its consequences and say what can be said about compact manifolds with boundary.

52.1. Relative fundamental classes. The construction of fundamental classes $[M] \in h_n(M)$ described in the previous lecture works specifically for manifolds that are closed, but only a little bit more effort is required in order to extract from Theorem 51.21 a similar construction for compact manifolds with nonempty boundary. We've already learned from the triangulated manifolds in Lecture 31 what to expect: when M is compact but $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, $[M]$ should live in the relative homology of the pair $(M, \partial M)$. Recall that when M has nonempty boundary, the orientability of M is defined purely in terms of its interior

$$\overset{\circ}{M} := M \setminus \partial M,$$

as the orientation bundle is not defined (or at least it does not have nice properties) along ∂M . We will therefore need a basic observation from point-set topology in order to relate M and $\overset{\circ}{M}$: namely, if the boundary ∂M is compact, then it has a so-called **collar neighborhood** (*Kragenumbgebung*) in M , meaning a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of ∂M that is homeomorphic to $(-1, 0] \times \partial M$ via a homeomorphism sending ∂M to $\{0\} \times \partial M$ as the identity map. This is not completely obvious, but the proof is not hard (see e.g. [Hat02, Proposition 3.42]). It follows that M is homotopy equivalent to its interior, hence the latter has finitely generated homology if M is compact.

Theorem 51.21 can be applied to $\mathring{M}$, and gives an isomorphism

$$J_A : h_n(\mathring{M}, \mathring{M} \setminus A) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$$

for any closed subset $A \subset \mathring{M}$. Taking $h_* = \{h_k : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ to be a homology theory with coefficients $h_0(\{*\}) \cong R$, any R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_{\mathring{M}})$ determines a generator $[M]_x := s(x) \in h_n(M|x) \cong R$ for each interior point $x \in \mathring{M}$. We will refer to a relative homology class

$$[M] \in h_n(M, \partial M)$$

as a **relative fundamental class** for M if the natural map $i^x : h_n(M, \partial M) \rightarrow h_n(M|x)$ defined via the inclusion $(M, \partial M) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus \{x\})$ sends $[M]$ to a generator

$$[M]_x := i^x_*[M] \in \Theta_x \cong R \quad \text{such that} \quad R[M]_x = \Theta_x$$

for every $x \in \mathring{M}$. In this way, a relative fundamental class $[M]$ determines an R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_{\mathring{M}})$ with $s(x) := [M]_x$, and we would now like to show that the converse also holds if M is compact, i.e. that every R -orientation determines in this way a relative fundamental class. If $\partial M = \emptyset$, then $[M]$ will be an absolute class in $h_n(M)$, and its existence is a direct consequence of the isomorphism $h_n(M) \cong \Gamma(\Theta)$ in Theorem 51.21. It is not difficult to show (see Exercise 52.1) that if M is equipped with a triangulation, then the constructions of fundamental cycles in Lecture 31 via simplicial homology give rise to relative fundamental classes in this sense, living in $H_n(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z})$ if the triangulation is oriented, and $H_n(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ if orientations are ignored. Without triangulations, we have the following more general result:

THEOREM 52.1. *If M is a compact manifold with boundary carrying an R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^R|_{\mathring{M}})$, then for any compactly supported homology theory h_* with coefficients R , s determines a unique relative fundamental class $[M] \in h_n(M, \partial M)$ with $i^x_*[M] = s(x)$ for all $x \in \mathring{M}$, and if M is connected, then the R -module $h_n(M, \partial M)$ is isomorphic to R and is generated by $[M]$.*

PROOF. Identify a neighborhood of ∂M in M with $(-1, 0] \times \partial M$ and for $\epsilon > 0$ small, let $M_\epsilon \subset M$ denote the complement of $(-\epsilon, 0] \times \partial M \subset M$, which is a compact set homotopy equivalent to M . Now if $x \in M_\epsilon$, consider the commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} h_n(M, \partial M) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_n(M, M \setminus M_\epsilon) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathring{M}, \mathring{M} \setminus M_\epsilon) \\ & \searrow i^x_* & \downarrow j_{x, M_\epsilon} & & \downarrow j_{x, M_\epsilon} \\ & & h_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathring{M}, \mathring{M} \setminus \{x\}) \end{array}$$

where several maps are labeled as isomorphisms due to homotopy invariance. An R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_{\mathring{M}})$ determines a generator $[M]_x := s(x) \in h_n(\mathring{M}|x) \cong R$ for each $x \in \mathring{M}$, and its restriction to M_ϵ is a compactly supported section of $\Gamma(\Theta|_{M_\epsilon})$, thus it also determines via Theorem 51.21 a unique $[M]_\epsilon \in h_n(\mathring{M}|M_\epsilon)$ such that $j_{x, M_\epsilon}[M]_\epsilon = [M]_x$ for every $x \in M_\epsilon$. Following the two isomorphisms at the top of the diagram, $[M]_\epsilon$ now determines a class $[M] \in h_n(M, \partial M)$ that satisfies $i^x_*[M] = [M]_x \in h_n(M|x)$ for all $x \in M_\epsilon$. We leave it as an exercise to check that this definition of $[M] \in h_n(M, \partial M)$ does not depend on the choice of $\epsilon > 0$, which can always be arranged sufficiently small so that any given interior point $x \in \mathring{M}$ lies in M_ϵ . (Hint: The isomorphism of Theorem 51.21 can again be used to show that for two $\epsilon, \delta > 0$, $[M]_\epsilon$ and $[M]_\delta$ have the same image under the natural maps to $h_n(M|M_\epsilon \cap M_\delta)$, which is an isomorphism.)

Since $h_n(M, \partial M) \cong h_n(\mathring{M}|M_\epsilon) \cong \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{M_\epsilon}) = \Gamma(\Theta|_{M_\epsilon})$, we deduce $h_n(M, \partial M) \cong R$ with $[M]$ as a generator if M (and therefore also M_ϵ) is connected, because the map $\Gamma(\Theta|_{M_\epsilon}) \rightarrow \Theta_x \cong R$ defined by evaluating sections at any point $x \in M_\epsilon$ is then an R -module isomorphism that sends $s|_{M_\epsilon}$ to $[M]_x$. $\square$

52.2. The proof of Theorem 51.21. The unfinished business of the previous lecture was the proof that the natural map

$$J_A : h_n(M | A) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) : c \mapsto s_c$$

is an isomorphism and $h_k(M | A) = 0$ for all $k > n$, assuming M is a topological n -manifold without boundary, $A \subset X$ is a closed subset and h_* is a compactly supported axiomatic homology theory. The proof follows a certain pattern common to theorems about manifolds: we start by proving by direct means that it holds whenever A is a special type of “small” subset that can be found in some neighborhood of every point in a manifold. One can view this as the first step in a generalized notion of proof by induction, where the “inductive step” involves using a Mayer-Vietoris sequence to extend the validity of the theorem to unions or intersections of sets for which it is already known to hold.

As a convenient bit of terminology, we shall call a compact subset $A \subset M$ in an n -manifold M **convex** if A is contained in a Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ with a chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^n$ such that the set $\varphi(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex. The usefulness of this condition lies in the fact that whenever we have two overlapping compact convex subsets $A, B \subset M$ that lie in *the same* Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ and look convex with respect to *the same* chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^n$, it follows that $A \cap B \subset M$ is also convex, since intersections of convex subsets in $\mathbb{R}^n$ are always convex.

The following lemma is a simple exercise in point-set topology: the idea is to form a nested sequence of sets that are finite unions of convex balls.

LEMMA 52.2. *In a topological n -manifold M , every compact subset $A \subset M$ can be written as $A = \bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ for a nested sequence of subsets $M \supset A_1 \supset A_2 \supset A_3 \supset \dots \supset A$ such that each A_i is a finite union of compact convex subsets.* $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 51.21. The proof is divided into seven steps.

Step 1: We claim that the theorem is true whenever $A \subset M$ is a compact convex subset. Indeed, A is in this case contained in a disk-like neighborhood $\bar{\mathcal{U}} \subset M$, so that for every $x \in A$, the composition

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & j_{x, \bar{\mathcal{U}}} & & \\ & \swarrow \cong & & \searrow & \\ h_k(M | \bar{\mathcal{U}}) & \xrightarrow{j_{A, \bar{\mathcal{U}}}} & h_k(M | A) & \xrightarrow{j_{x, A}} & h_k(M | x) \end{array}$$

is an isomorphism. We claim that the map $j_{A, \bar{\mathcal{U}}} : h_k(M | \bar{\mathcal{U}}) \rightarrow h_k(M | A)$ is also an isomorphism. Since A and $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ are contained in a Euclidean neighborhood, this is equivalent via excision and rescaling to the claim that

$$h_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{j_{K, \mathbb{D}^n}} h_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus K)$$

is an isomorphism for any compact convex subset $K \subset \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ containing the origin. This is true because radial lines outward from the origin remain outside of K as soon as they leave K , giving rise to a deformation retraction of $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus K$ to $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{D}^n$. The inclusion thus induces an isomorphism $h_*(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus K) \rightarrow h_*(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{D}^n)$, and the usual five-lemma trick using the long exact sequences of the pairs $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{D}^n)$ and $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus K)$ then proves the claim. It follows now that $j_{x, A} : h_k(M | A) \rightarrow h_k(M | x)$ is also an isomorphism for every $x \in A$. For $k > n$, this proves $h_k(M | A) = 0$, while for $k = n$, we observe that Θ admits a unique section on $\bar{\mathcal{U}}$ with any given value at x , and it follows that $J_A : h_n(M | A) \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ is an isomorphism.

Step 2: For the first of three “inductive” steps, we show that if $A, B \subset M$ are two subsets such that the theorem holds for A , B and $A \cap B$, then it also holds for $A \cup B$. The tool required for this is the relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence from §36.4. Since A and B are both closed, the

complements of these and $A \cap B$ and $A \cup B$ are all open, and the sets $M \setminus A$ and $M \setminus B$ thus form an open covering of $M \setminus (A \cap B)$. The obvious inclusions of pairs

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & (M, M \setminus A) & \\ \swarrow & & \searrow \\ (M, M \setminus (A \cup B)) & & (M, M \setminus (A \cap B)) \\ \searrow & & \swarrow \\ & (M, M \setminus B) & \end{array}$$

then give rise to a long exact sequence of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \rightarrow h_{k+1}(M|A) \oplus h_{k+1}(M|B) &\rightarrow h_{k+1}(M|A \cap B) \rightarrow h_k(M|A \cup B) \\ &\rightarrow h_k(M|A) \oplus h_k(M|B) \rightarrow h_k(M|A \cap B) \rightarrow \dots \end{aligned}$$

If $k > n$, then the sequence places $h_k(M|A \cup B)$ in between two vanishing terms and thus proves $h_k(M|A \cup B) = 0$. To handle the case $k = n$, observe that the groups of compactly supported sections along these various subsets also fit into a natural exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{A \cup B}) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) \oplus \Gamma_c(\Theta|_B) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{A \cap B}),$$

where the first map sends $s \in \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{A \cup B})$ to $(s|_A, -s|_B) \in \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) \oplus \Gamma_c(\Theta|_B)$, and the second sends $(s, t) \in \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) \oplus \Gamma_c(\Theta|_B)$ to $s|_{A \cap B} + t|_{A \cap B}$. Note that this is not a full “short” exact sequence: we are not claiming that the last map in the sequence is surjective, as it might not be possible to extend a given section along $A \cap B$ to a section along A or B . It should be evident however that the sequence is exact at all other terms. Moreover, the maps in both sequences commute with the natural maps from homology groups to groups of sections; in order to fit the resulting commutative diagram inside the margins, let’s abbreviate

$$h_k^X := h_k(M|X) \quad \text{for any } k \geq 0 \text{ and subset } X \subset M,$$

so that the diagram in question looks like

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} h_{n+1}^A \oplus h_{n+1}^B & \longrightarrow & h_{n+1}^{A \cap B} & \longrightarrow & h_n^{A \cup B} & \longrightarrow & h_n^A \oplus h_n^B \longrightarrow h_n^{A \cap B} \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow J_{A \cup B} & & \downarrow J_A \oplus J_B \cong \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{A \cup B}) & \longrightarrow & \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) \oplus \Gamma_c(\Theta|_B) \longrightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_{A \cap B}) \end{array}$$

The five-lemma now implies that $J_{A \cup B}$ is also an isomorphism.

Step 3: The second inductive step is to show that if the theorem holds for each set $A_i \subset M$ in a nested sequence of compact subsets $A_1 \supset A_2 \supset A_3 \supset \dots$, then it also holds for $A_\infty := \bigcap_{i=1}^\infty A_i \subset M$. This requires a direct limit argument, and for this step we must make explicit use of the assumption that the homology theory h_* is compactly supported—or in the case of singular homology, the fact that singular chains are always confined to compact subsets.

Observe first that the sequence of inclusions

$$(M, M \setminus A_1) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_2) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_3) \hookrightarrow \dots (M, M \setminus A_\infty)$$

induces a sequence of homomorphisms

$$h_*(M|A_1) \rightarrow h_*(M|A_2) \rightarrow h_*(M|A_3) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow h_*(M|A_\infty),$$

so that $\{h_*(M|A_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$ forms a direct system of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules, with $h_*(M|A_\infty)$ as a target. We claim that the sequence of maps $h_*(M|A_i) \rightarrow h_*(M|A_\infty)$ satisfies the universal property so

that $h_*(M|A_\infty)$ is in fact the direct limit $\varinjlim \{h_*(M|A_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$. For this, we need to show that if H is another R -module with a sequence of morphisms $\Phi_i : h_*(M|A_i) \rightarrow H$ making the diagram

$$(52.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} h_*(M|A_1) & \longrightarrow & h_*(M|A_2) & \longrightarrow & h_*(M|A_3) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow h_*(M|A_\infty) \\ & & & & \searrow \Phi_1 & & \searrow \Phi_3 \\ & & & & & & \searrow \Phi_\infty \\ & & & & & & H \end{array}$$

commute, then the map Φ_∞ indicated by the dashed arrow exists and is unique. Indeed, we can define $\Phi_\infty(c)$ for any given class $c \in h_k(M|A_\infty)$ using the compact support axiom: suppose (K, L) is a compact pair with an inclusion $i : (K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_\infty)$ such that $c = i_* c_K$ for some $c_K \in h_k(K, L)$. The sets L and A_∞ are then disjoint and are both compact, thus A_∞ has an open neighborhood $A_\infty \subset \mathcal{U} \subset M$ disjoint from L , and A_i must be contained in $\mathcal{U}$ for all sufficiently large $i \in \mathbb{N}$, as one would otherwise find a nested sequence of nonempty compact subsets $A_1 \cap (M \setminus \mathcal{U}) \supset A_2 \cap (M \setminus \mathcal{U}) \supset \dots$ with empty intersection $A_\infty \cap (M \setminus \mathcal{U}) = \emptyset$. It follows that A_i is also disjoint from L for all $i > 0$ sufficiently large, and we then have inclusions

$$(K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_i) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_\infty),$$

so that feeding c_K into the induced maps $h_k(K, L) \rightarrow h_k(M|A_i)$ produces classes $c_i \in h_k(M|A_i)$ with $c = j_{A_\infty, A_i}(c_i)$. The uniqueness of $\Phi_\infty(c)$ follows: the commutativity of the diagram (52.1) requires setting $\Phi_\infty(c) := \Phi_i(c_i)$ for some $i \gg 0$, and in light of the inclusions

$$(K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_i) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_j) \quad \text{for } j > i,$$

we have $j_{A_j, A_i}(c_i) = c_j$ and conclude from this that our definition of $\Phi_\infty(c)$ does not depend on the choice of large number $i \in \mathbb{N}$. To see that it also does not depend on the choice of element $c_K \in h_k(K, L)$, suppose we have $c'_K \in h_k(K, L)$ with $i_* c_K = i_* c'_K = c$, so that $c_K - c'_K$ lies in the kernel of the map $h_k(K, L) \rightarrow h_k(M|A_\infty)$ induced by the inclusion $(K, L) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_\infty)$. By Proposition 51.19, we can then find another compact pair (K', L') with inclusions $(K, L) \hookrightarrow (K', L') \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_\infty)$ such that $c_K - c'_K$ lies in the kernel of the induced map $h_k(K, L) \rightarrow h_k(K', L')$. Since L' is another compact set disjoint from A_∞ , we also have $L' \cap A_i = \emptyset$ for i sufficiently large, giving inclusions

$$(K, L) \hookrightarrow (K', L') \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus A_i),$$

and it follows that the induced map $h_k(K, L) \rightarrow h_k(M|A_i)$ sends c_K and c'_K to the same element c_i . With this knowledge, it is easy to check that our definition of $\Phi_\infty(c)$ is also independent of the choice of compact pair $(K, L) \subset (M, M \setminus A_\infty)$, and that Φ_∞ defined in this way is a homomorphism that makes the diagram (52.1) commute.

By restricting sections to smaller domains, we also have a sequence of restriction homomorphisms

$$\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_1}) \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_2}) \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_3}) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty}),$$

and we can use a similar trick to identify $\varinjlim \{\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_i})\}_{i=1}^\infty$ with $\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty})$. Indeed, the problem now is to show that any sequence of homomorphisms $\varphi_i : \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_i}) \rightarrow H$ as in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_1}) & \longrightarrow & \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_2}) & \longrightarrow & \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_3}) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty}) \\ & & & & \searrow \varphi_1 & & \searrow \varphi_3 \\ & & & & & & \searrow \varphi_\infty \\ & & & & & & H \end{array}$$

gives rise to a unique map $\varphi_\infty : \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty}) \rightarrow H$. The key here is the observation that since $p : \Theta \rightarrow M$ is a covering map, A_∞ has an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ such that every section $A_\infty \rightarrow \Theta|_{A_\infty}$ has a unique extension over $\mathcal{U}$, which is therefore defined on A_i for $i \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently

large. The desired map φ_∞ is thus defined on any $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty})$ by extending s to A_i and then applying φ_i .

With these preliminaries in place, the hypothesis $h_k(M|A_i) = 0$ for $k > n$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$ now implies

$$h_k(M|A_\infty) \cong \varinjlim \{h_k(M|A_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty = 0 \quad \text{for } k > n.$$

For $k = n$, we can combine both of the direct systems above into a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} h_n(M|A_1) & \longrightarrow & h_n(M|A_2) & \longrightarrow & h_n(M|A_3) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow h_n(M|A_\infty) \\ \cong \downarrow J_{A_1} & & \cong \downarrow J_{A_2} & & \cong \downarrow J_{A_3} & & \downarrow J_{A_\infty} \\ \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_1}) & \longrightarrow & \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_2}) & \longrightarrow & \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_3}) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty}), \end{array}$$

so that the sequence of isomorphisms $J_{A_i} : h_n(M|A_i) \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_i})$ defines an isomorphism between the two direct systems, and its limit is therefore an isomorphism between the direct limits. One can make this precise by composing maps in this diagram so as to understand $\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty})$ as a target of the system $\{h_n(M|A_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$, whose limit map is necessarily J_{A_∞} , but since the J_{A_i} are all invertible, one can similarly understand $h_n(M|A_\infty)$ as a target of $\{\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_i})\}_{i=1}^\infty$ and obtain from this a limit map $\Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\infty}) \rightarrow h_n(M|A_\infty)$ that is the inverse of J_{A_∞} .

Step 4: Steps 1 and 3 applied only to *compact* subsets $A \subset M$, but the next inductive step introduces noncompact subsets by allowing infinite disjoint unions. Let us call a collection of compact subsets $\{A_\alpha \subset M\}_{\alpha \in J}$ **separated** if they admit a collection of open neighborhoods $\{A_\alpha \subset \mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset M\}_{\alpha \in J}$ such that $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta = \emptyset$ for all $\alpha \neq \beta$. The claim now is that if the theorem holds for every A_α in a separated collection of compact subsets, then it also holds for their union $A := \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} A_\alpha$. The point of the separation condition is that if we write $\mathcal{U} := \bigcup_{\alpha \in J} \mathcal{U}_\alpha$, then $(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U} \setminus A) \cong \coprod_{\alpha} (\mathcal{U}_\alpha, \mathcal{U}_\alpha \setminus A_\alpha)$, so the excision and additivity axioms give natural isomorphisms

$$h_*(M|A) \cong h_*(\mathcal{U}|A) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_*(\mathcal{U}_\alpha|A_\alpha) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_*(M|A_\alpha).$$

This already implies $h_k(M|A) = 0$ for all $k > n$. For degree n , these isomorphisms fit together into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} h_n(M|A) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathcal{U}|A) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_n(\mathcal{U}_\alpha|A_\alpha) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_n(M|A_\alpha) \\ \downarrow J_A & & \downarrow J_A & & \downarrow \bigoplus_{\alpha} J_{A_\alpha} & & \cong \downarrow \bigoplus_{\alpha} J_{A_\alpha} \\ \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) & \xlongequal{\quad} & \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \bigoplus_{\alpha} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\alpha}) & \xlongequal{\quad} & \bigoplus_{\alpha} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\alpha}), \end{array}$$

where the isomorphism $\bigoplus_{\alpha} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\alpha}) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$ sends each $\sum_{\alpha} s_{\alpha} \in \bigoplus_{\alpha} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\alpha})$ to the unique section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ such that $s|_{A_\alpha} = s_{\alpha}$ for every $\alpha \in J$. Note that s necessarily has compact support since the sets A_α are compact and only finitely many of the summands in $\sum_{\alpha} s_{\alpha} \in \bigoplus_{\alpha} \Gamma(\Theta|_{A_\alpha})$ can be nonzero. Conversely, a section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta|_A)$ with compact support can be nonzero only on finitely many of the components A_α , and is therefore in the image of the map from the direct sum. This proves that $J_A : h_n(M|A) \rightarrow \Gamma_c(\Theta|_A)$ is an isomorphism.

Step 5: We claim that the theorem holds for every compact set $A \subset M$ that is contained in a Euclidean neighborhood. According to Lemma 52.2, any such set is the intersection of a nested sequence of sets that are each finite unions of compact convex sets, where we can assume all the convex sets are contained in the *same* Euclidean neighborhood. In this case, all intersections of these sets are also compact and convex, so combining steps 1 and 2 proves that the theorem holds for all the finite unions of convex sets, and step 3 then establishes it for A .

Step 6: We extend the theorem to arbitrary compact subsets $A \subset M$. In light of Lemma 52.2, this now follows directly from steps 5, 2 and 3, as A is the intersection of a nested sequence of compact sets that are each finite unions of sets contained in Euclidean neighborhoods. (The fact

that those sets can be assumed convex is no longer relevant, but since any intersection between them is contained in a Euclidean neighborhood, step 5 now replaces step 1.)

Step 7: The extension of the theorem to an arbitrary closed $A \subset M$ can now be achieved as follows. I need to appeal to a slightly nontrivial point-set topological fact about manifolds: every finite-dimensional topological manifold M has a one-point compactification M^* that is *metrizable*. Recall that the one-point compactification of any space X is defined as the union of X with one extra point $X^* := X \cup \{\infty\}$ with $\infty \notin X$, where a subset of X^* is considered open if it is either an open set in X or takes the form $(X \setminus K) \cup \{\infty\}$ for some closed and compact set $K \subset X$. While X^* is always compact, it can easily have horrible topological properties unless X is an especially nice space, e.g. X^* is Hausdorff if and only if X is both Hausdorff and locally compact (cf. Exercise 7.8 from last semester's *Topologie I* class). The one-point compactification M^* of a manifold M is not usually a manifold (the major exception being $(\mathbb{R}^n)^* \cong S^n$), but it is always a metrizable space. This is easy to see if you believe the (also nontrivial) theorem that every n -manifold admits a proper topological embedding into a Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^N$ of sufficiently high dimension N . A proof of this is sketched in [Lee11, p. 116], with several details either left as exercises or outsourced to other references. Since the embedding $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$ is proper, it extends to an embedding $M^* \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{R}^N)^* \cong S^N$, so a metric on M^* can be defined as the restriction of a metric on S^N .

With this detail in place, let $\text{dist}(\cdot, \cdot)$ denote a metric on M^* and exhaust A by the countable sequence of subsets

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &:= \{x \in A \mid 1 \leq \text{dist}(x, \infty) < \infty\}, \\ A_2 &:= \{x \in A \mid 1/2 \leq \text{dist}(x, \infty) \leq 1\}, \\ A_3 &:= \{x \in A \mid 1/3 \leq \text{dist}(x, \infty) \leq 1/2\}, \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

all of which are intersections of A with closed (and therefore compact) subsets of M^* , so they are compact, and the theorem holds for each of them by step 6. We can now apply step 4 to conclude that the theorem also holds for the noncompact subsets

$$B := \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{2j-1}, \quad C := \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{2j}, \quad B \cap C = \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \{x \in A \mid \text{dist}(x, \infty) = 1/j\},$$

all of which are unions of separated collections of compact sets. We then conclude from step 2 that the theorem also holds for $A = B \cup C$. $\square$

52.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 52.1. Show that under the natural isomorphism $H_*^{\Delta}(K) \cong H_*(|K|)$ between simplicial and singular homologies, the simplicial fundamental classes constructed in Lecture 31 for compact triangulated manifolds also satisfy the conditions required in the present lecture for relative fundamental classes on general compact manifolds.

Hint: For each interior point $x \in \overset{\circ}{M}$, you can assume after a harmless modification of the triangulation that x lies in the interior of one of its n -simplices.

EXERCISE 52.2. In this exercise, assume M is an n -manifold with boundary and h_* is a compactly supported homology theory whose coefficients are the ring R . Let $\Theta^M \rightarrow M$ and $\Theta^{\partial M} \rightarrow \partial M$ denote the associated orientation bundles over $\overset{\circ}{M}$ and ∂M respectively, hence

$$\Theta_y^M = h_n(M|y) \cong R, \quad \text{for } y \in \overset{\circ}{M}, \quad \Theta_x^{\partial M} = h_{n-1}(\partial M|x) \cong R \quad \text{for } x \in \partial M.$$

The goal is to prove the following two statements:

- (1) There is a natural homomorphism $\partial_* : \Gamma(\Theta^M) \rightarrow \Gamma(\Theta^{\partial M})$ that associates to any R -orientation of M an R -orientation ∂M .
- (2) If M is compact with an R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^M)$ and $[M] \in h_n(M, \partial M)$ and $[\partial M] \in h_{n-1}(\partial M)$ are the fundamental classes corresponding to the R -orientations s and $\partial_* s \in \Gamma(\Theta^{\partial M})$, then the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : h_n(M, \partial M) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(\partial M)$ in the long exact sequence of the pair $(M, \partial M)$ satisfies

$$\partial_*[M] = [\partial M].$$

It follows via the long exact sequence that $[\partial M] \in h_{n-1}(\partial M)$ lies in the kernel of the map $h_{n-1}(\partial M) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(M)$ induced by the inclusion $\partial M \hookrightarrow M$. One can use this e.g. to define natural transformations of the form $[(M, \varphi)] \mapsto \varphi_*[M]$ from bordism theory to singular homology,

$$\Omega_n^O(X) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) \quad \text{and} \quad \Omega_n^{SO}(X) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

using fundamental classes $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ of unoriented closed manifolds in the first case and integral fundamental classes $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ of oriented closed manifolds in the second case.

Consider the following setup. Let $\mathbb{H}^n := [0, \infty) \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\partial\mathbb{H}^n := \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$, and for the closed unit disk $\mathbb{D}^n \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, denote

$$\mathbb{D}_+^n := \mathbb{D}^n \cap \mathbb{H}^n, \quad \mathbb{D}^{n-1} := \mathbb{D}^n \cap \partial\mathbb{H}^n \subset \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}.$$

Now given a point $x \in \partial M$, choose a closed neighborhood $\mathcal{D}_+^n \subset M$ of x in M , making $\mathcal{D}^{n-1} := \mathcal{D}_+^n \cap \partial M$ likewise a closed neighborhood of x in ∂M , such that there exists a homeomorphism of pairs

$$(M, \partial M) \supset (\mathcal{D}_+^n, \mathcal{D}^{n-1}) \cong (\mathbb{D}_+^n, \mathbb{D}^{n-1})$$

identifying $x \in \partial M$ with the origin $0 \in \mathbb{D}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}$. In this neighborhood, choose also an interior point $y \in \mathcal{D}_+^n \setminus \mathcal{D}^{n-1}$ and let

$$\ell \subset \mathcal{D}_+^n$$

denote the path from x to y that is identified under the homeomorphism $(\mathcal{D}_+^n, \mathcal{D}^{n-1}) \cong (\mathbb{D}_+^n, \mathbb{D}^{n-1})$ with a straight line segment in $\mathbb{D}_+^n$. Note that topologically, $\mathcal{D}_+^n$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n$ and is thus a compact n -manifold with boundary, whose boundary we will denote as usual by $\partial\mathcal{D}_+^n \cong S^{n-1}$.

(a) Stare for a while at the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & \Theta_y^M & & & & \\
 & & \parallel & & & & \\
 h_n(M, \partial M) & \longrightarrow & h_n(M | y) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathcal{D}_+^n | y) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_n(\mathcal{D}_+^n, \partial\mathcal{D}_+^n) \\
 \partial_* \downarrow & & \partial_* \downarrow & & \partial_* \downarrow \approx & & \partial_* \downarrow \cong \\
 \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial M) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(M \setminus \{y\}) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\mathcal{D}_+^n \setminus \{y\}) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial\mathcal{D}_+^n) \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \approx & & \downarrow \cong \\
 h_{n-1}(\partial M | x) & \xrightarrow{\approx} & h_{n-1}(M \setminus \{y\}, M \setminus \ell) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_{n-1}(\mathcal{D}_+^n \setminus \{y\}, \mathcal{D}_+^n \setminus \ell) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & h_{n-1}(\partial\mathcal{D}_+^n | x) \\
 \parallel & \nwarrow \cong & & & & \nearrow \cong & \\
 \Theta_x^{\partial M} & & h_{n-1}(\mathcal{D}^{n-1} | x) & & & &
 \end{array}$$

All maps in this diagram are either connecting homomorphisms from long exact sequences of pairs or are induced by obvious inclusions of pairs. Convince yourself that the diagram commutes, and then explain which of the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms imply that each of the maps labelled with the symbol “ $\cong$ ” is an isomorphism.

- (b) Deduce from the diagram itself that each of the maps labelled with the symbol “ $\approx$ ” is also an isomorphism.
- (c) Use the diagram in part (a) to construct homomorphisms $\Phi : h_n(M, \partial M) \rightarrow h_n(\mathcal{D}_+^n, \partial \mathcal{D}_+^n)$ and $\Psi : \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial M) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial \mathcal{D}_+^n)$ such that the following diagram commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \Theta_y^M & \xleftarrow{\cong} \Theta_y^{\mathcal{D}_+^n} \\
 & \nearrow & \uparrow \cong \\
 h_n(M, \partial M) & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & h_n(\mathcal{D}_+^n, \partial \mathcal{D}_+^n) \\
 \downarrow \partial_* & & \downarrow \partial_* \cong \\
 \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial M) & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\partial \mathcal{D}_+^n) \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \cong \\
 \Theta_x^{\partial M} & \xleftarrow{\cong} \Theta_x^{\mathcal{D}_+^{n-1}} & \xrightarrow{\cong} \Theta_x^{\partial \mathcal{D}_+^n}
 \end{array} ,$$

where all maps are once again either connecting homomorphisms or induced by obvious inclusions of pairs. Explain why each of the maps labelled with “ $\cong$ ” is an isomorphism.

- (d) Use the diagram in part (c) to construct an isomorphism $\Theta_y^M \rightarrow \Theta_x^{\partial M}$ that is associated to any boundary point $x \in \partial M$ and any interior point $y \in \overset{\circ}{M}$ in a sufficiently small neighborhood of x in M , and convince yourself that this isomorphism does not depend on the choices involved in the construction. Derive from it a homomorphism

$$\Gamma(\Theta^M) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \Gamma(\Theta^{\partial M})$$

that sends R -orientations of M to R -orientations of ∂M .

- (e) Assuming M and ∂M are endowed with R -orientations related via the map in part (d), prove that the associated fundamental classes are related by $\partial_*[M] = [\partial M]$.

EXERCISE 52.3. The following is a variant of Exercise 52.2 that applies specifically to singular homology with coefficients in the ring R . Assume M satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 52.1 and thus has a relative fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M; R)$.

- (a) Show that if M and ∂M are both connected and ∂M is nonempty, then ∂M is also R -orientable, and the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : H_n(M, \partial M; R) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(\partial M; R)$ in the long exact sequence of $(M, \partial M)$ is an isomorphism sending $[M]$ to the fundamental class $[\partial M]$ of ∂M (for a suitable choice of orientation of ∂M).

Hint: Focus on the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$. It is easy to prove that ∂_ is injective; show that if it were not surjective, then $H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ would have torsion, contradicting the result of Exercise 51.5(a).*

- (b) Generalize the result of part (a) to prove $\partial_*[M] = [\partial M]$ without assuming ∂M is connected.

Hint: For any connected component $N \subset \partial M$, consider the exact sequence of the triple $(M, \partial M, \partial M \setminus N)$ and notice that $H_{n-1}(\partial M, \partial M \setminus N) \cong H_{n-1}(N)$ by excision.

Remark: In the setting of triangulated manifolds, a similar result with coefficients $\mathbb{Z}_2$ or $\mathbb{Z}$ can be deduced from Propositions 31.3 and 31.10 via the natural isomorphism between simplicial and singular homology, in light of Exercise 52.1.

EXERCISE 52.4 (*). The goal of this exercise is to prove that the product $M \times N$ of two R -oriented manifolds inherits a natural R -orientation, and in the compact case, the associated fundamental class $[M \times N]$ is given by the cross product $[M] \times [N]$. Note that if M and N

are topological manifolds of dimensions m and n respectively with boundary, then $M \times N$ is a topological $(m+n)$ -manifold with boundary

$$\partial(M \times N) = (\partial M \times N) \cup (M \times \partial N),$$

thus in terms of the product for pairs of spaces defined in §50.2, we have

$$(M, \partial M) \times (N, \partial N) = (M \times N, \partial(M \times N)).$$

We work in the setting of an axiomatic homology theory h_* with coefficients R , and assume the existence of a cross product

$$h_k(X, A) \otimes h_\ell(Y, B) \rightarrow h_{k+\ell}((X, A) \times (Y, B)) : a \otimes b \mapsto a \times b$$

for arbitrary pairs of spaces (X, A) and (Y, B) .⁸⁴ One can formulate various axioms to guarantee that the cross product in h_* has desirable properties: these should include associativity, graded commutativity and a unit property as in §49.1, plus e.g. a Leibniz rule for feeding products into connecting homomorphisms. We will not go into the details here, but the crucial consequence of these axioms should be that the cross product on h_* matches the *cellular* cross product when restricted to CW-pairs. This implies, for instance, that the map

$$(52.2) \quad h_m(\mathbb{D}^m, \partial\mathbb{D}^m) \otimes h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n) \xrightarrow{\times} h_{m+n}(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n, \partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n))$$

is an isomorphism; let us take this as an axiom in the following.

- (a) Show that the analogues of the map (52.2) in cellular and singular homology with ring coefficients are isomorphisms.

Remark: The Künneth formula offers one convenient approach to this, but only if R is a principal ideal domain. Try to do without that assumption.

- (b) Given an m -manifold M and an n -manifold N with interior points $x \in \mathring{M}$ and $y \in \mathring{N}$, we have

$$(M, M \setminus \{x\}) \times (N, N \setminus \{y\}) = (M \times N, (M \times N) \setminus \{(x, y)\}),$$

so that the relative cross product defines a map

$$\Theta_x^M \otimes \Theta_y^N \xrightarrow{\times} \Theta_{(x,y)}^{M \times N}.$$

Show that this map is an isomorphism, and that it gives rise to a homomorphism

$$\Gamma(\Theta^M) \otimes \Gamma(\Theta^N) \xrightarrow{\times} \Gamma(\Theta^{M \times N}) : s \otimes t \mapsto s \times t$$

given by $(s \times t)(x, y) = s(x) \times t(y)$. Conclude that if $s \in \Gamma(\Theta^M)$ and $t \in \Gamma(\Theta^N)$ are R -orientations, then so is $s \times t \in \Gamma(\Theta^{M \times N})$.

- (c) Deduce via the naturality of the cross product with respect to maps of the form $(M, \partial M) \rightarrow (M, M \setminus \{x\})$ and $(N, \partial N) \rightarrow (N, N \setminus \{y\})$ that if M and N are compact manifolds with R -orientations and $M \times N$ is equipped with the product R -orientation arising from part (b), then the corresponding fundamental classes $[M] \in h_m(M, \partial M)$, $[N] \in h_n(N, \partial N)$ and $[M \times N] \in h_{m+n}(M \times N, \partial(M \times N))$ are related by

$$[M] \times [N] = [M \times N].$$

⁸⁴If necessary, it would also be possible to work with the less ambitious assumption that the cross product is defined whenever $(X \times Y; A \times Y, X \times B)$ is an excisive triad for h_* . One can use excision and collar neighborhoods to show that this is always true when the pairs are $(M, \partial M)$ and $(N, \partial N)$ for compact manifolds M and N .

53. Poincaré duality

53.1. The statement. The classical perspective on Poincaré duality is demonstrated by Figure 44. The picture shows a portion of a closed triangulated manifold M of dimension $n = 2$, with the 1-simplices and vertices of the triangulation depicted in black. We've then added a red dot at the barycenter of each n -simplex and drawn a red line segment connecting the barycenters of any two n -simplices that share a boundary face. Note that since M is assumed to be a manifold without boundary, every $(n - 1)$ -simplex in the triangulation is a boundary face of exactly two n -simplices. As a consequence, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the $(n - 1)$ -simplices in the triangulation and the red line segments joining the red dots. Moreover, every vertex of the triangulation is contained in a unique polygon bounded by the red segments. If we think of the red dots as 0-cells, the red line segments as 1-cells and the polygons bounded by them as 2-cells, they form what is called the **dual cell decomposition** of M determined by the original triangulation. We could now write down two quite different chain complexes to compute the homology of M : let us denote by $C_*^\Delta(M)$ the simplicial chain complex of the original triangulation, and by $C_*^{\text{CW}}(M)$ the cellular chain complex for its dual cell complex. Evidently, there is a natural bijection

$$C_k^\Delta(M) \rightarrow C_{n-k}^{\text{CW}}(M),$$

defined by sending each k -simplex of the triangulation to its dual $(n - k)$ -cell. You will notice an interesting thing, however, if you try to understand what happens to the boundary map under this bijection: it transforms the boundary map of $C_*^\Delta(M)$ into the *coboundary* map of $C_*^{\text{CW}}(M)$. Thus it can be more properly interpreted as a bijective chain map

$$C_*^\Delta(M) \rightarrow C_*^{n-*}(M),$$

therefore giving rise to an isomorphism $H_k(M) \xrightarrow{\cong} H^{n-k}(M)$ for each $k = 0, \dots, n$.

REMARK 53.1. Did you notice where we used the assumption that M is compact in the above discussion? The notion of the dual cell decomposition makes sense on any triangulated manifold, compact or not, so there is still a bijection $C_k^\Delta(M) \rightarrow C_{n-k}^{\text{CW}}(M)$, and simplicial and cellular homology also still make sense in the noncompact case. A problem emerges, however, if the triangulation is infinite and we try to pay attention to the boundary map by defining a chain isomorphism $C_*^\Delta(M) \rightarrow C_*^{n-*}(M)$. If you don't immediately see why, then keep this question in mind as you read the rest of this lecture, and we'll come back to it at the end.

It would be a bit of an effort to make the idea of the dual cell decomposition precise and general enough to prove an actual theorem, and it would then be a theorem that applies only to *triangulated* manifolds, which is more restrictive than we would like. The key feature that makes Poincaré duality possible is not the triangulation—there are many examples of compact n -dimensional polyhedra X for which $H^k(X) \not\cong H_{n-k}(X)$. The important detail is rather that we are talking specifically about *manifolds*, e.g. it is the locally Euclidean structure of M in the above example that enables us to identify the regions surrounded by dual 1-cells as 2-cells in bijective correspondence with the original vertices. Now that we know there is good reason to expect an isomorphism $H^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$, we observe that a candidate for this isomorphism arises naturally from the previous two topics we discussed in this course: the fundamental class, and the cap product, neither of which had anything directly to do with triangulations. Here's the main theorem in its standard form.

THEOREM 53.2 (Poincaré duality). *For any closed n -manifold M with an R -orientation and corresponding fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M; R)$ for some commutative ring R with unit, the map*

$$H^k(M; R) \xrightarrow{\text{PD}} H_{n-k}(M; R) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]$$

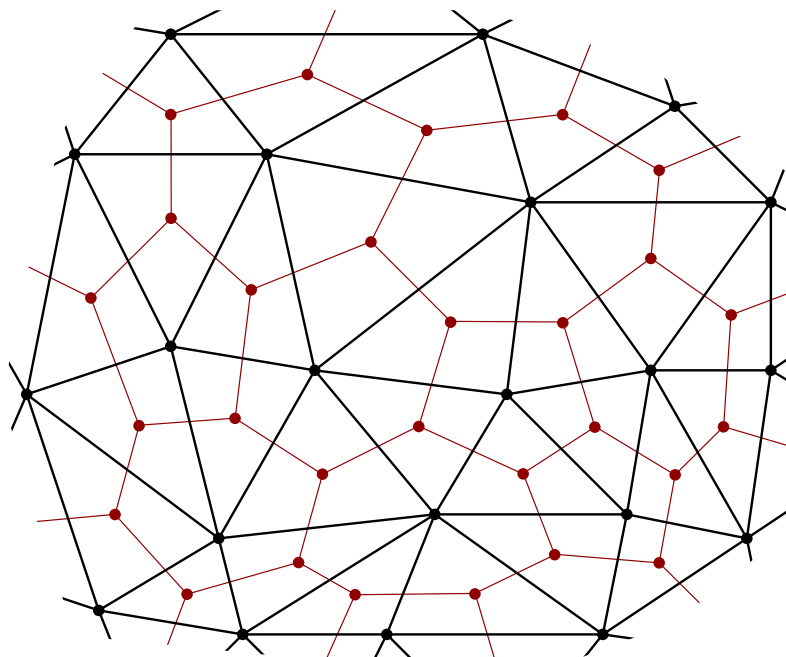


FIGURE 44. A triangulation of a surface and its dual cell decomposition.

is an isomorphism for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

REMARK 53.3. The proof of Theorem 53.2 will be based mostly on the formal (i.e. axiomatic) properties of homology and cohomology, thus it would also be possible—with some effort—to formulate a more general version of Poincaré duality that identifies axiomatic cohomology groups $h^k(M)$ with axiomatic homology groups $h_{n-k}(M)$ under suitable assumptions. The use of the cap product in the definition of the map $\text{PD} : H^k(M; R) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M; R)$ gives a big hint that something more than just the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms is needed, as the axioms do not automatically give rise to extra algebraic structures like the cup and cap products—in fact, the axioms do not even provide an evaluation pairing of $h^*(M)$ with $h_*(M)$, as seems natural in the realm of singular (co)homology. It is possible and sometimes desirable, however, to add extra axioms so that the existence of a cup product on h^* satisfying reasonable properties is explicitly assumed, giving rise to the notion of a *multiplicative* cohomology theory. One can similarly introduce axioms for cross products on both h^* and h_* , as well as a so-called *duality pairing* to play the role of a cap product intertwining h^* with h_* . The required definitions can be found e.g. in [tD08, §17.2–3 and §18.2]. In the following exposition of Poincaré duality and intersection theory, we will make our lives easier by explicitly using singular homology and cohomology, but the properties we will make use of in the proof are mostly axiomatic in nature.

CONVENTION. Unless otherwise specified, the coefficients for singular homology and cohomology in this lecture will always be the fixed commutative ring R with unit, and R will usually be omitted from the notation.

53.2. Applications. Before getting into the proof of the duality theorem, let's pick some low-hanging fruit and state a few corollaries. Recall that by the universal coefficient theorem, the Betti numbers of a space can be expressed as ranks of either the homology or the cohomology groups, which are the same in corresponding degrees. Poincaré duality thus gives a nontrivial relation between them:

COROLLARY 53.4. *For every closed orientable n -manifold M ,*

$$b_k(M) = b_{n-k}(M)$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Moreover, without any orientability assumption, the same relation also holds for the so-called " $\mathbb{Z}_2$ Betti numbers," i.e.

$$\dim_{\mathbb{Z}_2} H_k(M; \mathbb{Z}_2) = \dim_{\mathbb{Z}_2} H_{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. □

COROLLARY 53.5. *Every closed odd-dimensional manifold M satisfies $\chi(M) = 0$.*

PROOF. In the oriented case, this follows because $b_k(M)$ and $b_{n-k}(M)$ cancel each other in the alternating sum that defines $\chi(M)$. If M is not orientable, one can reach the same conclusion using the $\mathbb{Z}_2$ Betti numbers, thanks to Exercise 47.12(c). □

Here is an application of Corollary 53.5 that plays a fundamental role in bordism theory. For context, observe that every closed oriented surface is the boundary of a compact oriented 3-manifold; we know this because we have a complete classification of such surfaces (see Lecture 19 from last semester), and we can realize all of them as boundaries of compact regions in $\mathbb{R}^3$. It is harder to see, but nonetheless true, that every closed oriented 3-manifold bounds a compact 4-manifold. This fact is originally due to Rokhlin [Roh51], and it can also be deduced easily from a slightly later result known as the Lickorish-Wallace theorem, which is fundamental in the study of 3-manifolds: it states that every closed oriented 3-manifold M can be obtained by performing surgery along a link in S^3 , and from this it is a short step to presenting M as the boundary of a 4-manifold constructed by attaching 4-dimensional 2-handles to $\mathbb{D}^4$. The following result shows that the question of which oriented manifolds are boundaries becomes more interesting from dimension four upwards.

COROLLARY 53.6. *There is no compact 5-manifold with boundary homeomorphic to $\mathbb{CP}^2$.*

PROOF. Suppose M is a compact manifold with $\partial M \cong \mathbb{CP}^2$. We can then construct a closed 5-manifold $\widehat{M}$ by gluing M to a copy of itself along the matching boundary,

$$\widehat{M} := M \cup_{\mathbb{CP}^2} M,$$

and by Corollary 53.5, $\chi(\widehat{M}) = 0$. But according to Exercise 53.1, we also have

$$\chi(\widehat{M}) = 2\chi(M) - \chi(\mathbb{CP}^2),$$

a formula that admits an easy interpretation if we assume M has a cell decomposition with ∂M as a subcomplex: counting the cells in $M \amalg M$ with appropriate signs gives $2\chi(M)$, but this overcounts each cell in ∂M by a factor of 2, leading to $-\chi(\mathbb{CP}^2)$ as a correction term. Thanks to its cell decomposition with one cell in each even dimension, we know the homology of $\mathbb{CP}^2$ and therefore know its Euler characteristic: it is 3, implying that $2\chi(M) - \chi(\mathbb{CP}^2)$ can never be 0. □

Poincaré duality also provides considerable information about the ring structure of $H^*(M)$ as a consequence of the relation $\langle \psi \cup \varphi, [M] \rangle = \langle \psi, \varphi \cap [M] \rangle$. For each $k = 0, \dots, n$, consider the bilinear form $Q : H^k(M; R) \times H^{n-k}(M; R) \rightarrow R$ defined via the R -module homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} H^k(M) \otimes H^{n-k}(M) &\xrightarrow{Q} R \\ \varphi \otimes \psi &\mapsto Q(\varphi, \psi) := \langle \varphi \cup \psi, [M] \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

For reasons that we will discuss in the next two lectures, this is called the **intersection form** on M . In the case $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $Q(\varphi, \psi)$ vanishes whenever either φ or ψ is torsion, thus it descends to a bilinear map on the free part $H_{\text{free}}^*(M) := H^*(M; \mathbb{Z})/\text{torsion}$,

$$H_{\text{free}}^k(M) \otimes H_{\text{free}}^{n-k}(M) \xrightarrow{Q} \mathbb{Z}.$$

For a general pair of R -modules A and B , a bilinear map $Q : A \times B \rightarrow G$ (or equivalently an R -module homomorphism $Q : A \otimes B \rightarrow G$) is called **nonsingular** if the maps $A \rightarrow \text{Hom}(B, G) : a \mapsto Q(a, \cdot)$ and $B \rightarrow \text{Hom}(A, G) : b \mapsto Q(\cdot, b)$ are both isomorphisms.

COROLLARY 53.7. *For any closed n -manifold M with a $\mathbb{K}$ -orientation and corresponding fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{K})$ for some field $\mathbb{K}$, the intersection form*

$$H^k(M; \mathbb{K}) \otimes_{\mathbb{K}} H^{n-k}(M; \mathbb{K}) \xrightarrow{Q} \mathbb{K}$$

is nonsingular for every $k = 0, \dots, n$, and if M is oriented, Q descends to the free part of $H^(M; \mathbb{Z})$ as a nonsingular bilinear form $H_{\text{free}}^k(M) \otimes H_{\text{free}}^{n-k}(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. With integer coefficients, we saw in Exercise 47.12(a) that the canonical map $h : H_{\text{free}}^{n-k}(M) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(H_{n-k}^{\text{free}}(M), \mathbb{Z}) : \varphi \mapsto \langle \varphi, \cdot \rangle$ is an isomorphism. Since the duality map $\text{PD} : H^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ is also an isomorphism, it and its inverse each map torsion to torsion and thus descend to the free parts as isomorphisms $H_{\text{free}}^k(M) \cong H_{n-k}^{\text{free}}(M)$. We can then compose h with the dualization of PD to form an isomorphism

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_{\text{free}}^{n-k}(M) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{h} \text{Hom}(H_{n-k}^{\text{free}}(M), \mathbb{Z}) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\text{PD}^*} \text{Hom}(H_{\text{free}}^k(M), \mathbb{Z}) \\ & \searrow \Phi & \nearrow \\ & \cong & \end{array}$$

To see what this map actually is, we choose $\psi \in H_{\text{free}}^{n-k}(M)$ and $\varphi \in H_{\text{free}}^k(M)$ and compute:

$$\Phi(\psi)(\varphi) = (\text{PD}^* \circ h(\psi))(\varphi) = h(\psi) \circ \text{PD}(\varphi) = \langle \psi, \varphi \cap [M] \rangle = \langle \psi \cup \varphi, [M] \rangle = Q(\psi, \varphi),$$

so this proves the first of two statements required for showing that Q is nonsingular on the free parts with integer coefficients. But the second required statement is equivalent to this, since $Q(\psi, \varphi) = (-1)^{k(n-k)} Q(\varphi, \psi)$. The argument with field coefficients is completely analogous since, in that case as well, the canonical map $h : H^{n-k}(M; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{K}}(H_{n-k}(M; \mathbb{K}), \mathbb{K})$ is a vector space isomorphism. $\square$

COROLLARY 53.8. *If M is a closed oriented n -manifold and $\varphi \in H^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is a primitive⁸⁵ element for some $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, then there exists some $\psi \in H^{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ with $Q(\varphi, \psi) = 1$. The same result holds with coefficients in a field $\mathbb{K}$ for every $\varphi \neq 0 \in H^k(M; \mathbb{K})$ if M is $\mathbb{K}$ -oriented.*

PROOF. The primitivity hypothesis means that the projection of φ to $H_{\text{free}}^k(M)$ is nontrivial and generates a subgroup $H \subset H_{\text{free}}^k(M)$ such that $H_{\text{free}}^k(M)/H$ has no torsion, implying that it is free (see e.g. [Lan02, Chapter I, Theorem 8.4]). It follows that φ can be taken as the first

⁸⁵Recall that $\varphi \in H^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is **primitive** if φ is not $m\psi$ for any $\psi \in H^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ and an integer $m \geq 2$. In particular, this rules out that φ is torsion, since $m\varphi = 0$ would imply $(m+1)\varphi = \varphi$.

element in a basis of $H_{\text{free}}^k(M)$, so that there exists a homomorphism $\Phi : H_{\text{free}}^k(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $\Phi(\varphi) = 1$. The result then follows from the nonsingularity of Q . In the field case, one can instead appeal to the fact that every nonzero element in a vector space can be an element of a basis. $\square$

As important applications of the nonsingularity of the intersection form (see Exercises 53.3 and 53.4), one can fully compute the ring structures of $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, giving ring isomorphisms of each to quotients of polynomial rings with one generator,

$$\begin{aligned} H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) &\cong \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/(\alpha^{n+1}), & |\alpha| = 2, \\ H^*(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}_2) &\cong \mathbb{Z}_2[\alpha]/(\alpha^{n+1}), & |\alpha| = 1. \end{aligned}$$

These results can also be extended without much difficulty to compute the cohomology rings of the infinite-dimensional cell complexes $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ and $\mathbb{RP}^\infty$, which are not manifolds, but the fact that their finite-dimensional skeleta are manifolds gives enough information to carry out the computation. Note that the computation of $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ fills in the last remaining gap in our proof from Lecture 43 (see Theorem 43.1) that all maps $f : \mathbb{CP}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ have fixed points when n is even.

53.3. The noncompact version. Like the construction of the fundamental class, the proof of Poincaré duality starts by showing that the result is in some sense true “locally,” and then uses a form of induction based on Mayer-Vietoris sequences and direct limits to piece together local results into a global result. We therefore need to formulate a more general version of the theorem that can make sense for small neighborhoods in manifolds, rather than just for an entire *closed* manifold.

Fix a coefficient ring R , and suppose M is an n -manifold without boundary that is not necessarily compact, but is endowed with an R -orientation $s \in \Gamma(\Theta) := \Gamma(\Theta^R)$. This section does not have compact support if M is noncompact, but if we choose a compact subset $K \subset M$, then $s|_K \in \Gamma(\Theta|_K)$ trivially does have compact support, and therefore corresponds under Theorem 51.21 to a distinguished homology class

$$[M]_K := J_K^{-1}(s) \in H_n(M|K).$$

Recall from Lecture 50 that the relative cohomology with coefficients in the ring R admits a cap product pairing

$$\cap : H^k(M, M \setminus K) \otimes H_n(M, M \setminus K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M),$$

which is well defined in this case because the triad $(M; M \setminus K, \emptyset)$ is trivially excisive. We can therefore define a “restricted” duality map by

$$\text{PD}_K : H^k(M|K) \rightarrow H_n(M) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]_K.$$

Now consider what happens to this map if we replace K by a larger compact subset $K' \subset M$ that contains K : first, since $[M]_K \in H_n(M|K)$ and $[M]_{K'} \in H_n(M|K')$ are determined by the same globally-defined section $s \in \Gamma(\Theta)$, the map induced by the inclusion

$$i : (M, M \setminus K') \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus K)$$

satisfies

$$i_*[M]_{K'} = [M]_K.$$

The naturality property (50.5) of the cap product then implies that for all $\varphi \in H^k(M|K)$,

$$i_*(i^*\varphi \cap [M]_{K'}) = \text{PD}_{K'}(i^*\varphi) = \varphi \cap [M]_K = \text{PD}_K(\varphi),$$

where “ i_* ” has disappeared in the second expression since $\text{PD}_{K'}(i^*\varphi)$ is an *absolute* homology class and $i : M \rightarrow M$ is just the identity map. The result is a commutative diagram

$$(53.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} H^k(M | K) & \xrightarrow{i^*} & H^k(M | K') \\ & \searrow \text{PD}_K & \downarrow \text{PD}_{K'} \\ & & H_{n-k}(M), \end{array}$$

which means that we can view the maps $\text{PD}_K : H^k(M | K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ as defining a target of a direct system of R -modules $\{H^k(M | K)\}_K$ over the directed set of compact subsets $K \subset M$, with the partial order defined by inclusion. By the universal property of the direct limit, there is then a uniquely determined homomorphism

$$\text{PD} : \varinjlim \{H^k(M | K)\}_K \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M).$$

DEFINITION 53.9. For any space X , we define the **compactly supported cohomology** of X with coefficients in an abelian group G as the direct limit

$$H_c^*(X) = H_c^*(X; G) := \varinjlim \{H^*(X | K; G)\}_K,$$

where K ranges over the set of all compact subsets of X , ordered by inclusion and forming a direct system via the maps $H^*(X | K; G) \rightarrow H^*(X | K'; G)$ induced by inclusions $(X, X \setminus K') \hookrightarrow (X, X \setminus K)$ whenever $K \subset K'$.

With this definition in place, the previous discussion produces natural homomorphisms

$$\text{PD} : H_c^k(M; R) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M; R)$$

for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ whenever M is a (possibly noncompact) manifold of dimension n with a fixed R -orientation. We can now state the noncompact version of Poincaré duality:

THEOREM 53.10. *For every R -oriented topological n -manifold M and every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the map*

$$\text{PD} : H_c^k(M; R) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M; R),$$

defined as the direct limit of the maps $\text{PD}_K : H^k(M | K; R) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M; R) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]_K$ for all compact subsets $K \subset M$, is an isomorphism.

Before continuing, let us make some observations about the properties of compactly supported cohomology, leaving the proofs as exercises.

First, $H_c^k(M)$ is nothing new if M is compact, as in this case the existence of a maximal element $M \subset M$ in the directed set of compact subsets gives rise to a natural isomorphism $H_c^*(M) \cong H^*(M)$. One can show moreover that this isomorphism identifies the map $\text{PD} : H_c^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ defined above with the usual map $\varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]$; see Exercise 53.5. For this reason, Theorem 53.10 implies the compact version of Poincaré duality, Theorem 53.2.

Second, $H_c^*(M)$ is an invariant of M up to homeomorphism, but not homotopy type, and certain simple computations therefore work out a bit differently than one might at first expect. One important example (see Exercise 53.6) that we'll need to make use of is

$$H_c^k(\mathbb{R}^n; G) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq n, \end{cases}$$

which bears more resemblance to $H^k(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n)$ than $H^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and this is of course not a coincidence. It turns out that H_c^* does not define a contravariant functor on **Top**, because an arbitrary continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ does not induce a well-defined homomorphism $f^* : H_c^*(Y) \rightarrow H_c^*(X)$ unless it is also *proper*, meaning that preimages of compact sets are compact. Homeomorphisms do have

this property, and that's why $H_c^*(X)$ is a topological invariant, but it fails to be a homotopy type invariant, as demonstrated by the result quoted above, which shows that

$$H_c^*(\mathbb{R}^n) \not\cong H_c^*(\{*\}).$$

Finally, it is interesting to note that $H_c^*(X)$ can be constructed without direct limits as the cohomology of a cochain complex consisting of “compactly supported” cochains; see Exercise 53.6 for the details.

53.4. Proof of the theorem. We proceed toward the proof of Theorem 53.10. The argument that follows will bear a resemblance to the inductive construction of the fundamental class in the previous lecture. We start with a purely local result to begin the induction.

LEMMA 53.11. *For either choice of orientation of $\mathbb{R}^n$, the map $\text{PD} : H_c^k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is an isomorphism for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

PROOF. There is an obvious cofinal set of compact subsets to use in computing $H_c^k(\mathbb{R}^n) = \varinjlim \{H^k(\mathbb{R}^n | K)\}_K$: every compact subset $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is contained in the disk $\mathbb{D}_r^n$ of sufficiently large radius $r > 0$, and the natural maps $H^k(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}_r^n) \rightarrow H^k(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}_{r'}^n)$ are isomorphisms for all $r' > r$, thus

$$H_c^k(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong H^k(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n) \cong \begin{cases} R & \text{if } k = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq n. \end{cases}$$

Similarly, $H_{n-k}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is R if $k = n$ and vanishes otherwise, so it suffices to prove that for any chosen pair of generators $\varphi \in H^n(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n) \cong R$ and $[\mathbb{R}^n]_{\mathbb{D}^n} \in H_n(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n) \cong R$, $\varphi \cap [\mathbb{R}^n]_{\mathbb{D}^n}$ is also a generator of $H_0(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong R$. This is true since the universal coefficient theorem gives an isomorphism $H^n(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n) \cong \text{Hom}(H_n(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n), R)$ by evaluation of cohomology classes on homology classes, so that $\langle \varphi, \cdot \rangle$ generates $\text{Hom}(H_n(\mathbb{R}^n | \mathbb{D}^n), R)$ and thus

$$\langle 1, \varphi \cap [\mathbb{R}^n]_{\mathbb{D}^n} \rangle = \langle \varphi, [\mathbb{R}^n]_{\mathbb{D}^n} \rangle \in R$$

is a generator of R . □

The inductive step unsurprisingly requires Mayer-Vietoris sequences. To prepare for this, we first need to understand the functoriality of H_c^* slightly better. Exercise 53.6 reveals that continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ do not always induce homomorphisms $f^* : H_c^*(Y) \rightarrow H_c^*(X)$ unless an additional condition is imposed, i.e. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ needs to be proper. We will be especially interested in inclusion maps $A \hookrightarrow X$ for subspaces $A \subset X$, and these are typically *not* proper, e.g. if A is open but not closed, which will be the main case of interest. In this situation, however, there is a natural map going the other direction, from $H_c^*(A)$ to $H_c^*(X)$. This follows from excision: if X is a Hausdorff space with subsets $K \subset A \subset X$ such that A is open and K is compact, then $X \setminus A$ is a closed subset contained in the open set $X \setminus K$, hence the inclusion $(A, A \setminus K) \hookrightarrow (X, X \setminus K)$ is an excision map and induces an isomorphism

$$H^*(X | K) \xrightarrow{\cong} H^*(A | K).$$

Now for any compact set $L \subset X$ that contains K , composing the inverse of this isomorphism with the natural map $H^*(X | K) \rightarrow H^*(X | L)$ induced by the inclusion $(X, X \setminus L) \hookrightarrow (X, X \setminus K)$ produces a map $H^*(A | K) \rightarrow H^*(X | L)$:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & H^*(X | K) & \\ \swarrow \cong & & \searrow \\ H^*(A | K) & \xrightarrow{\quad} & H^*(X | L). \end{array}$$

If we then compose this with the natural map of $H^*(X|L)$ to the direct limit $H_c^*(X)$, it produces a map $H^*(A|K) \rightarrow H_c^*(X)$ for every compact $K \subset A$, and one can easily check that this map is independent of the choice of compact subset $L \subset X$ containing K ; moreover, if $K' \subset A$ is another compact set containing K , then the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H^*(A|K) & \longrightarrow & H^*(A|K') \\ & \searrow & \downarrow \\ & & H_c^*(X) \end{array}$$

commutes. This makes $H_c^*(X)$ a target of the direct system $\{H^*(A|K)\}_K$, so that there is a uniquely determined limit map

$$H_c^*(A) \rightarrow H_c^*(X).$$

We will refer to this always as the *natural map induced by the inclusion* $A \hookrightarrow X$, and it is important to understand that it is only well defined when $A \subset X$ is open.

LEMMA 53.12. *If M is an R -oriented n -manifold and $A \subset M$ is an open subset, then for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the natural maps on H_c^* and H_* induced by the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow M$ fit into a commutative diagram of the form*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H_c^k(A) & \longrightarrow & H_c^k(M) \\ \downarrow \text{PD} & & \downarrow \text{PD} \\ H_{n-k}(A) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(M) \end{array}$$

PROOF. Given a compact set $K \subset A$, pick any compact set $L \subset M$ that contains K , and denote the obvious inclusions

$$A \xhookrightarrow{i} M, \quad (A, A \setminus K) \xhookrightarrow{i} (M, M \setminus K), \quad (M, M \setminus L) \xhookrightarrow{j} (M, M \setminus K).$$

We then claim that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & H^k(M|K) & & \\ & \swarrow \cong & & \searrow j^* & \\ H^k(A|K) & & & & H^k(M|L) \\ \downarrow \text{PD}_K & & & & \downarrow \text{PD}_L \\ H_{n-k}(A) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & & & H_{n-k}(M) \end{array}$$

commutes. To see this, observe that there is another map we could add to this diagram and sensibly denote by PD_K , namely $H^k(M|K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]_K$; let's call this one PD'_K to avoid confusion, and note that by (53.1), it satisfies

$$\text{PD}_L \circ j^* = \text{PD}'_K.$$

Viewing i as a map of pairs, we also have $i_*[A]_K = [M]_K$, and naturality of the cap product then implies that for all $\varphi \in H^k(M|K)$,

$$i_* \circ \text{PD}_K \circ i^* \varphi = i_* (i^* \varphi \cap [A]_K) = \varphi \cap i_*[A]_K = \varphi \cap [M]_K = \text{PD}'_K(\varphi),$$

thus proving the claim. This implies in particular that for the natural maps $H^*(A|K) \rightarrow H^*(M|L)$ that determine $H_c^*(A) \rightarrow H_c^*(M)$ via the direct limit, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} H^k(A|K) & \longrightarrow & H^k(M|L) \\ \downarrow \text{PD}_K & & \downarrow \text{PD}_L \\ H_{n-k}(A) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(M) \end{array}$$

always commutes. The rest is essentially abstract nonsense: if we let $\Psi : H_c^k(A) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ denote the difference between the maps defined via the two possible paths in the diagram of the lemma, we can now view Ψ as the limiting map for a family of maps $H^k(A|K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ over the directed set of compact subsets $K \subset A$, and the diagram above forces all these maps to vanish, hence so does Ψ . $\square$

Now suppose $M = A \cup B$, where $A, B \subset M$ are open subsets (and therefore also n -manifolds without boundary). The Mayer-Vietoris sequence we need for H_c^* arises from the natural maps induced by the inclusions of $A \cap B$ into A and B and of each of these into M . Concretely, given any compact subsets $K \subset A$ and $L \subset B$, there are natural inclusions of pairs

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & (M, M \setminus K) & & \\ & \swarrow & & \searrow & \\ (M, M \setminus (K \cup L)) & & & & (M, M \setminus (K \cap L)) \\ & \swarrow & & \searrow & \\ & & (M, M \setminus L) & & \end{array}$$

which give rise to a relative Mayer-Vietoris sequence in cohomology. The following diagram combines this sequence with the natural excision isomorphisms and localized duality maps:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots \longrightarrow & H^k(M|K \cap L) & \longrightarrow & H^k(M|K) \oplus H^k(M|L) & \longrightarrow & H^k(M|K \cup L) & \longrightarrow H^{k+1}(M|K \cap L) \longrightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong & & \parallel & \downarrow \cong \\ \dots \longrightarrow & H^k(A \cap B|K \cap L) & \longrightarrow & H^k(A|K) \oplus H^k(B|L) & \longrightarrow & H^k(M|K \cup L) & \longrightarrow H^{k+1}(A \cap B|K \cap L) \longrightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow \text{PD}_{K \cap L} & & \downarrow \text{PD}_K \oplus \text{PD}_L & & \downarrow \text{PD}_{K \cup L} & \downarrow \text{PD}_{K \cap L} \\ \dots \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(A \cap B) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(A) \oplus H_{n-k}(B) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(M) & \longrightarrow H_{n-k-1}(A \cap B) \longrightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

We take the horizontal maps in the bottom row to be the usual maps in the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for $H_*(A \cup B)$, and if the signs are chosen appropriately,⁸⁶ then the same arguments as in the proof of Lemma 53.12 imply that this diagram commutes, with the possible exception of the bottom right square involving connecting homomorphisms. It turns out that this square also commutes, and the proof is not especially deep, but it is a tedious calculation, so we will skip it and simply refer to [Hat02, pp. 246–247]. The result is:

⁸⁶Recall that in the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for $H_*(A \cup B)$, there needs to be a minus sign in the definition of either of the maps $H_k(A \cap B) \rightarrow H_k(A) \oplus H_k(B)$ or $H_k(A) \oplus H_k(B) \rightarrow H_k(A \cup B)$. For most purposes it does not matter which term gets the minus sign, but since we are now relating *two* Mayer-Vietoris sequences to each other, the signs in both need to be consistent.

LEMMA 53.13. *The diagram in (53.2) commutes, and passing to the direct limit over all choices of compact subsets $K \subset A$ and $L \subset B$ then produces a commutative diagram*

$$(53.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots \rightarrow H_c^k(A \cap B) & \longrightarrow & H_c^k(A) \oplus H_c^k(B) & \longrightarrow & H_c^k(M) & \longrightarrow & H_c^{k+1}(A \cap B) \rightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow \text{PD} & \downarrow \text{PD} \oplus \text{PD} & & \downarrow \text{PD} & & \downarrow \text{PD} \\ \dots \rightarrow H_{n-k}(A \cap B) & \rightarrow & H_{n-k}(A) \oplus H_{n-k}(B) & \rightarrow & H_{n-k}(M) & \rightarrow & H_{n-k-1}(A \cap B) \rightarrow \dots \end{array}$$

in which both rows are exact.

SKETCH OF THE PROOF. Aside from the tedious verification that (53.2) commutes, the claim that the top row of (53.3) is exact is slightly nontrivial: this follows from the general fact that direct limits of exact sequences in the category of R -modules are always exact. A special case of this phenomenon was discussed in §45.2 (along with the fact that it does *not* hold for inverse limits), and more generally, it follows as a special case of Proposition 41.21, which states that the functor taking chain complexes to their homologies is continuous under direct limits—an exact sequence is nothing other than a chain complex with trivial homology. $\square$

Applying the five-lemma now gives:

COROLLARY 53.14. *If the duality map is an isomorphism on A , B and $A \cap B$, then it is also an isomorphism on $M = A \cup B$.* $\square$

Open convex sets in Euclidean neighborhoods are homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n$, and so is the intersection of any two such sets in the same Euclidean neighborhood, so Lemmas 53.11 and 53.13 are enough to prove that PD is an isomorphism on any finite union of open convex sets in a single Euclidean neighborhood. Now observe that *any* open set in a Euclidean neighborhood is the union of a countable collection of convex open sets: indeed, just take any covering collection of open balls and reduce it to a countable subcover. Something similar is true in fact for any manifold M : since manifolds are second countable, every open cover of M has a countable subcover (see Lemma 5.25), so one can start with any covering by convex sets in Euclidean neighborhoods and reduce to a countable subcover. Since these coverings consist of countable collections $\mathcal{V}_1, \mathcal{V}_2, \mathcal{V}_3, \dots$, one can also arrange them into nested sequences of open subsets

$$\mathcal{U}_1 := \mathcal{V}_1 \subset \mathcal{U}_2 := \mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2 \subset \mathcal{U}_3 := \mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2 \cup \mathcal{V}_3 \subset \dots$$

whose unions cover everything. In other words, every manifold is the union of a nested sequence of open subsets that are each finite unions of convex sets. We therefore need a lemma for passing from a nested sequence of open subsets to its union.

LEMMA 53.15. *Suppose $\mathcal{U}_1 \subset \mathcal{U}_2 \subset \mathcal{U}_3 \subset \dots \subset M$ is a nested sequence of open subsets of an R -oriented n -manifold M such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{U}_i = M$. If the duality map is an isomorphism on $\mathcal{U}_i$ for every $i \in \mathbb{N}$, then it is also an isomorphism on M .*

PROOF. The idea is to present $H_{n-k}(M)$ and $H_c^k(M)$ as direct limits of the sequences of R -modules $H_{n-k}(\mathcal{U}_i)$ and $H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_i)$ respectively. In the former case, we already know how to do this: it is easy to check that the direct limit of the spaces $\{\mathcal{U}_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ with respect to inclusion is M , and since every compact subset of M must be contained in $\mathcal{U}_i$ for i sufficiently large, Theorem 41.24 provides a natural isomorphism

$$\varinjlim \{H_*(\mathcal{U}_i)\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(\varinjlim \{\mathcal{U}_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}) = H_*(M).$$

For the cohomology, the fact that every $\mathcal{U}_i$ is open in $\mathcal{U}_j$ for $j > i$ and also open in M gives rise to natural maps

$$H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_1) \rightarrow H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_2) \rightarrow H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_3) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow H_c^*(M),$$

making $\{H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty$ a direct system, and we claim that $H_c^*(M)$ is its direct limit. This can be proved by establishing the universal property: if we have a sequence of morphisms $f_i : H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_i) \rightarrow A$ to some other $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -module A such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_1) & \longrightarrow & H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_2) & \longrightarrow & H_c^*(\mathcal{U}_3) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow H_c^*(M) \\ & & & & \searrow f_1 & & \searrow f_3 \\ & & & & & & \downarrow f_\infty \\ & & & & & & A \end{array}$$

commutes, then we need to show that the map f_∞ in this diagram exists and is unique. To define $f_\infty(\varphi)$ for some $\varphi \in H_c^k(M)$, observe that φ is necessarily in the image of the natural map $H^k(M|K) \rightarrow H_c^k(M)$ for some compact set $K \subset M$, and since K is compact, it must be contained in $\mathcal{U}_N$ for $N \in \mathbb{N}$ sufficiently large. Excision then allows us to regard φ as an element of $H^k(\mathcal{U}_N|K)$, which therefore represents some element of $H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_N)$, so we define $f_\infty(\varphi)$ by applying f_N to this element. Proving that this is independent of choices is now a routine matter of writing down diagrams to check that they commute, so we shall leave it as an exercise.

By Lemma 53.12, we now obtain a commutative diagram

$$(53.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_1) & \longrightarrow & H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_2) & \longrightarrow & H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_3) & \longrightarrow & \dots \\ \downarrow \text{PD} & & \downarrow \text{PD} & & \downarrow \text{PD} & & \\ H_{n-k}(\mathcal{U}_1) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(\mathcal{U}_2) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-k}(\mathcal{U}_3) & \longrightarrow & \dots \end{array}$$

in which the vertical maps are all isomorphisms, thus it defines an isomorphism between the two direct systems. These therefore have a limiting map which is also an isomorphism, and one can check that the limiting map is PD:

$$\varinjlim \{H_c^k(\mathcal{U}_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty \xlongequal{\quad} H_c^k(M) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\text{PD}} H_{n-k}(M) \xlongequal{\quad} \varinjlim \{H_{n-k}(\mathcal{U}_i)\}_{i=1}^\infty.$$

□

PROOF OF THEOREM 53.10. Lemmas 53.11 and 53.13 prove the theorem for all finite unions of convex open sets $\mathbb{R}^n$, and feeding this into Lemma 53.15 then establishes it for all open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$. In a manifold M , the intersection of two open sets contained in Euclidean neighborhoods is also contained in a Euclidean neighborhood, so another application of Lemma 53.13 now proves the theorem for all finite unions of open subsets in Euclidean neighborhoods, and we can then present M as a nested union of such subsets and establish the theorem for M via a second application of Lemma 53.15. □

In subsequent applications, it will be important also to have relative versions of the Poincaré duality isomorphism that apply to an R -oriented compact n -manifold M with boundary. In this situation, the fundamental class is a relative class $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M; R)$, and the relative cap product pairing

$$H^k(X, A) \otimes H_\ell(X, A \cup B) \xrightarrow{\cap} H_{\ell-k}(X, B),$$

which was defined in (50.10) whenever $(X; A, B)$ is an excisive triad, gives us two obvious options for interpreting the formula $\text{PD}(\varphi) := \varphi \cap [M]$, namely as a map

$$H^k(M, \partial M; R) \xrightarrow{\text{PD}} H_{n-k}(M; R) \quad \text{or} \quad H^k(M; R) \xrightarrow{\text{PD}} H_{n-k}(M, \partial M; R).$$

In fact, both of these are isomorphisms, a result that is sometimes called **Lefschetz duality**. A proof of this fact is sketched in Exercise 53.7.

REMARK 53.16. Here is the promised addendum to Remark 53.1. When M is compact and has an oriented triangulation, $C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ has an obvious identification with the free abelian group generated by all the k -simplices in the triangulation: indeed, if we fix an orientation on each k -simplex and call $\mathcal{K}_k(M)$ the resulting set of oriented k -simplices so that $C_k^\Delta(M; \mathbb{Z}) = \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathcal{K}_k(M)} \mathbb{Z}$, then the dual elements $\varphi_\sigma : C_k^\Delta(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined on generators $\tau \in \mathcal{K}_k(M)$ by

$$\varphi_\sigma(\tau) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \tau = \sigma, \\ 0 & \text{if } \tau \neq \sigma \end{cases}$$

form a basis for $C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$. In this case, we obtain a chain isomorphism

$$C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_{n-k}^{\text{CW}}(M; \mathbb{Z})$$

by sending each of the k -cochains φ_σ to the $(n-k)$ -cell dual to σ , and the isomorphism $H^k(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ follows. The trouble if M is not compact is that $C_k^\Delta(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is now an infinitely-generated free abelian group, so its dual $C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is not isomorphic to it, but is actually much larger: the cochains φ_σ do not form a basis for $C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ since they only span the subgroup of homomorphisms $C_k^\Delta(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ that are nonzero on finitely many simplices. As a consequence, $C_\Delta^k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ and $C_{n-k}^{\text{CW}}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ are not isomorphic, but now that you've seen how Poincaré duality works for singular homology on noncompact manifolds, you may be able to guess how to fix this: the cochains φ_σ do span a *subcomplex* of $C_\Delta^*(M; \mathbb{Z})$, whose homology is the simplicial version of $H_c^*(M; \mathbb{Z})$.

53.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 53.1. Suppose X and Y are two compact n -manifolds with homeomorphic boundaries $\partial X \cong \partial Y \cong M$, and $Z := X \cup_M Y$ is a closed n -manifold constructed by gluing them together along their boundaries. Prove the formula

$$\chi(Z) = \chi(X) + \chi(Y) - \chi(M).$$

Hint: This is easy if you assume X and Y have cell decompositions that restrict to their boundaries as matching cell decompositions of M . Without that assumption, you can consider the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for $Z = A \cup B$, where $B \cong (-1, 1) \times M$ is the union of collar neighborhoods of ∂X and ∂Y , and A is a disjoint union of open subsets homotopy equivalent to X and Y . Don't try to compute $H_(Z)$ with this, just view the Mayer-Vietoris sequence itself as a chain complex whose homology is trivial. What does Corollary 42.6 then tell you?*

EXERCISE 53.2. Show that the Klein bottle is homeomorphic to the boundary of a compact (and necessarily non-orientable) 3-manifold, but $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not.

EXERCISE 53.3 (*). We can now compute the ring structure of $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$. Take the usual cell decomposition $\mathbb{CP}^n = e^0 \cup e^2 \cup \dots \cup e^{2n}$, and for $k = 1, \dots, n$, let $\alpha_k \in H^{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ denote the generator that evaluates to 1 on the generator of $H_{2k}(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ represented by the $2k$ -cell.

- Use Corollary 53.8 to prove $\alpha_k \cup \alpha_{n-k} = \pm \alpha_n$ for every k .
- Generalize part (a) to show that $\alpha_k \cup \alpha_\ell = \pm \alpha_{k+\ell}$ for every $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k + \ell \leq n$.

Hint: There is a natural inclusion $\mathbb{CP}^{k+\ell} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ that is a cellular map. How does it act on cohomology?

This proves that the ring $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ is generated by the single element $\alpha := \alpha_1 \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$, subject only to the relation $\alpha^{n+1} = 0$ since $H^k(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for all $k > 2n$. We conclude that there

is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded rings⁸⁷

$$H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/(\alpha^{n+1}), \quad |\alpha| = 2,$$

where $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ denotes the ring of integer-valued polynomials in one variable α , $(\alpha^{n+1}) \subset \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is the ideal generated by α^{n+1} , and the grading is determined by the condition that the variable α has degree 2 while all coefficients have degree 0.

- (c) Use inclusions $\mathbb{CP}^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ to find a graded ring isomorphism $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$, where again $|\alpha| = 2$.

EXERCISE 53.4 (*). Compute each of the following cohomology rings:

- (a) $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^n; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[\alpha]/(\alpha^{n+1})$ with $|\alpha| = 1$.
 (b) $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[\alpha]$ with $|\alpha| = 1$.

EXERCISE 53.5 (*). Show that if M is compact, there is a natural isomorphism $H_c^*(M) \cong H^*(M)$ which identifies the map $\text{PD} : H_c^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M)$ defined via the direct limit with the usual duality map $\varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]$.

EXERCISE 53.6. In the following, suppose G is any abelian group.

- (a) Prove that $H_c^n(\mathbb{R}^n; G) \cong G$ and $H_c^k(\mathbb{R}^n; G) = 0$ for all $k \neq n$.
 (b) Construct a canonical isomorphism between $H_c^*(X; G)$ and the cohomology of the subcomplex $C_c^*(X; G) \subset C^*(X; G)$ consisting of every cochain $\varphi : C_k(X) \rightarrow G$ that vanishes on all simplices with images outside some compact subset $K \subset X$. (Note that K may depend on φ).
 (c) Recall that a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called **proper**⁸⁸ if for every compact set $K \subset Y$, $f^{-1}(K) \subset X$ is also compact. Show that proper maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce homomorphisms $f^* : H_c^*(Y; G) \rightarrow H_c^*(X; G)$, making $H_c^*(\cdot; G)$ into a contravariant functor on the category of topological spaces with morphisms defined as proper maps.
 (d) Deduce from part (c) that $H_c^*(\cdot; G)$ is a topological invariant, i.e. $H_c^*(X; G)$ and $H_c^*(Y; G)$ are isomorphic whenever X and Y are homeomorphic.
 (e) In contrast to part (c), show that $H_c^*(\cdot; G)$ does *not* define a functor on the usual category of topological spaces with morphisms defined to be continuous (but not necessarily proper) maps.

Hint: Think about maps between $\mathbb{R}^n$ and the one-point space.

EXERCISE 53.7. Fix a coefficient ring R and assume M is a compact R -oriented n -manifold with boundary, with $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M) = H_n(M, \partial M; R)$ as its relative fundamental class. The relative cap product with $[M]$ then gives rise to two natural maps

$$(53.5) \quad \text{PD} : H^k(M, \partial M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M),$$

$$(53.6) \quad \text{PD} : H^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M, \partial M),$$

both defined by $\text{PD}(\varphi) = \varphi \cap [M]$. We would now like to prove that both are isomorphisms, a result known as *Lefschetz duality*.

⁸⁷A **$\mathbb{Z}$ -graded ring** is a ring R that is split into a direct sum $R = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} R_n$ such that any $a \in R_k$ and $b \in R_\ell$ have product $ab \in R_{k+\ell}$.

⁸⁸This definition of properness is standard in the study of manifolds, though for certain purposes, it is sometimes considered an inadequate definition if considering spaces that are not assumed second countable and Hausdorff (the general definition of properness is then a slightly stronger condition). As far as I can tell, it's still an adequate definition for the purposes of Exercise 53.6.

- (a) Find a cofinal family of compact subsets $A \subset \mathring{M} := M \setminus \partial M$ such that the natural maps in the diagram

$$H^*(\mathring{M} | A) \longleftarrow H^*(M | A) \longrightarrow H^*(M, \partial M)$$

are isomorphisms. Use this to find a natural isomorphism (cf. Exercise 41.2)

$$H_c^*(M) \cong H^*(M, \partial M),$$

and deduce via Theorem 53.10 that (53.5) is an isomorphism.

- (b) Show that the long exact sequences of the pair $(M, \partial M)$ in homology and cohomology fit together into a commutative diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots \rightarrow & H^k(M, \partial M) & \xrightarrow{j^*} & H^k(M) & \xrightarrow{i^*} & H^k(\partial M) & \xrightarrow{\delta^*} H^{k+1}(M, \partial M) \rightarrow \dots \\ & \downarrow \cdot \cap [M] & & \downarrow \cdot \cap [M] & & \downarrow \cdot \cap [\partial M] & \downarrow \cdot \cap [M] \\ \dots \rightarrow & H_{n-k}(M) & \xrightarrow{j_*} & H_{n-k}(M, \partial M) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & H_{n-k-1}(\partial M) & \xrightarrow{i_*} H_{n-k-1}(M) \rightarrow \dots, \end{array}$$

where $i : \partial M \hookrightarrow M$ and $j : (M, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (M, \partial M)$ denote the usual inclusions.

- (c) Deduce from the diagram in part (b) that the map in (53.6) is also an isomorphism.
 (d) If M has a triangulation, interpret the isomorphisms (53.5) and (53.6) in terms of the dual cell decomposition.

EXERCISE 53.8. For two closed, connected and oriented manifolds M, N of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the **degree** $\deg(f) \in \mathbb{Z}$ of a map $f : M \rightarrow N$ is defined to be the unique integer d such that

$$H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_n(N; \mathbb{Z}) : [M] \mapsto d[N].$$

Use the nonsingularity of the intersection form $Q : H^k(M; \mathbb{K}) \otimes H^{n-k}(M; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ with coefficients in a field $\mathbb{K}$ to show that if $f : M \rightarrow N$ has nonzero degree $d := \deg(f)$ and $\mathbb{K}$ is a field whose characteristic does not divide d , the induced maps $f^* : H^k(N; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H^k(M; \mathbb{K})$ and $f_* : H_k(M; \mathbb{K}) \rightarrow H_k(N; \mathbb{K})$ are injective and surjective respectively for every k .

54. The Thom class

54.1. A preview of intersection theory. Our next goal is to explain the intersection product on the homology of a closed manifold, which sheds considerable light on the intuitive geometric meaning of both the cup product and the Poincaré duality isomorphism. The following quick sketch is for motivational purposes only; it will be supplemented by precise definitions and proofs in the next lecture.

CONVENTION. In order to simplify notation, for this and the next lecture we will generally work with integer coefficients

$$H_*(M) := H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}), \quad H^*(M) := H^*(M; \mathbb{Z})$$

for homology and cohomology, which requires imposing assumptions about orientations in several places. Note that thanks to the universal coefficient theorem, most things that can be done with integer coefficients can also be done with coefficients in an arbitrary commutative ring R , because orientable manifolds are also R -orientable. If one prefers to drop the orientation assumptions, one still always has the option to work with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients.

In the previous lecture, we defined the intersection form on the cohomology of a closed oriented n -manifold M as

$$Q(\alpha, \beta) := \langle \alpha \cup \beta, [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{for} \quad \alpha \in H^k(M), \beta \in H^{n-k}(M).$$

In light of the Poincaré duality isomorphism

$$H^k(M) \xrightarrow{\text{PD}} H_{n-k}(M) : \varphi \mapsto \varphi \cap [M]$$

and the relation $\langle \alpha \cup \beta, [M] \rangle = \langle \alpha, \beta \cap [M] \rangle$, the intersection form can also be written as

$$Q(\alpha, \beta) = \langle \alpha, \text{PD}(\beta) \rangle = (-1)^{k(n-k)} \langle \beta, \text{PD}(\alpha) \rangle,$$

thus giving an interpretation of Poincaré duality: it identifies the cohomology class $\beta \in H^{n-k}(M)$ with the homology class $B := \text{PD}(\beta) \in H_k(M)$ such that feeding B into the evaluation by other cohomology classes $\alpha \in H^k(M)$ is equivalent to feeding β into the intersection form $Q(\alpha, \beta)$. That's nice, but of course it would be nicer if we also understood what the intersection form means, and why it is called what it is.

The answer comes from the following relation, to be proved in the next lecture. For suitable pairs of closed submanifolds $A, B \subset M$ and cohomology classes $\alpha \in H^k(M)$ and $\beta \in H^\ell(M)$ that are Poincaré dual to the homology classes represented by the submanifolds,

$$\text{PD}(\alpha) = [A] \in H_{n-k}(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{PD}(\beta) = [B] \in H_{n-\ell}(M)$$

one has

$$(54.1) \quad \text{PD}(\alpha \cup \beta) = [B \cap A] \in H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M).$$

In other words, Poincaré duality identifies the cup product with a so-called *intersection product*, which measures intersections of closed submanifolds homologically. Some conditions are needed in order to fully make sense of this, e.g. you can infer from (54.1) that $B \cap A \subset M$ is expected to be a closed submanifold with codimension equal to the sum of the codimensions of A and B , but this is not automatic—it requires a technical condition that we will specify in the next lecture. This condition necessitates working in the smooth category, so we will eventually add the assumption that all manifolds in this picture are smooth.

Let us elaborate on what happens when the dimensions are complementary, i.e. the case $k + \ell = n$. In this situation, $B \cap A$ is a closed 0-dimensional manifold, meaning a finite set of points. If we are using integer coefficients and assuming everything to be oriented, then $B \cap A$ will also inherit an orientation, which means each point comes with a sign attached to it, and counting these points with signs is equivalent to evaluating the unit cohomology class $1 \in H^0(M)$ on the homology class $[B \cap A] \in H_0(M)$, giving

$$\begin{aligned} \#(B \cap A) &= \langle 1, [B \cap A] \rangle = \langle 1, (\alpha \cup \beta) \cap [M] \rangle = \langle 1 \cup (\alpha \cup \beta), [M] \rangle = \langle \alpha \cup \beta, [M] \rangle \\ &= Q(\alpha, \beta). \end{aligned}$$

That's why it's called the intersection form!

54.2. Tubular neighborhoods and vector bundles. Understanding the intersection product will require understanding what neighborhoods of submanifolds $\Sigma \subset M$ look like, which leads inevitably to the subject of vector bundles. Assume that Σ and M are *smooth* manifolds, so they have tangent spaces: we will denote by $T_x M$ the tangent space of M at a point $x \in M$. If $\Sigma \subset M$ is a smooth submanifold, then its tangent space at each point $x \in \Sigma$ is naturally a linear subspace

$$T_x \Sigma \subset T_x M.$$

The quotient by this subspace is called the **normal space** of Σ in M at x , and will be denoted by

$$N_x \Sigma = N_x^M \Sigma := T_x M / T_x \Sigma.$$

Intuitively, you can imagine the normal space as another subspace of $T_x M$ complementary to $T_x \Sigma$, and indeed, one can realize $N_x \Sigma$ in this way by choosing an inner product on $T_x M$ and identifying the quotient with the orthogonal complement of $T_x \Sigma$ in $T_x M$. The following vague statement

should now seem intuitively plausible: every point in some neighborhood of $\Sigma \subset M$ is obtained by “pushing” some specific point $x \in \Sigma$ in the direction of some specific normal vector in $N_x\Sigma$, after identifying $N_x\Sigma$ with a subspace complementary to $T_x\Sigma \subset T_xM$. In other words, a neighborhood of Σ can be identified with the union of all the normal spaces,

$$N\Sigma = N^M\Sigma := \bigcup_{x \in \Sigma} N_x\Sigma,$$

which is called the **normal bundle** of Σ . Here, the vector spaces $N_x\Sigma$ and $N_y\Sigma$ are regarded as disjoint sets for $x \neq y$, thus $N\Sigma$ is set-theoretically their disjoint union. But one can give $N\Sigma$ a natural topology that is quite different from the disjoint union topology, along with a smooth manifold structure, such that the obvious inclusion

$$\Sigma \hookrightarrow N\Sigma : x \mapsto 0 \in N_x\Sigma$$

is a smooth embedding onto a smooth submanifold, known as the **zero section** of $N\Sigma$, and contracting each of the vector spaces $N_x\Sigma$ to $0 \in N_x\Sigma$ defines a deformation retraction of $N\Sigma$ to its zero section. This is standard material in differential geometry, and we will not go into the details here except to say that none of them are especially deep or surprising. Both the normal bundle and the **tangent bundle**

$$TM := \bigcup_{x \in M} T_xM$$

are examples of vector bundles, a notion that can be defined equally well in the topological or smooth categories. Here are the main definitions.

DEFINITION 54.1. A (real) **vector bundle** $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ of rank $k \geq 0$ over a space X (called the **base** of the bundle) consists of a space E (the **total space** of the bundle) together with a surjective continuous map $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ (the **bundle projection**) such that for each point $x \in X$, the so-called **fiber**

$$E_x := \pi^{-1}(x) \subset E$$

over x is endowed with the structure of a real k -dimensional vector space, and additionally, the following *local triviality* condition is satisfied. Every point $x \in X$ is contained in a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ on which there exists a **local trivialization**, meaning a homeomorphism

$$E|_{\mathcal{U}} := \pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k$$

such that for each $y \in \mathcal{U}$, Φ defines a vector space isomorphism from E_y to $\{y\} \times \mathbb{R}^k$. The **zero section** of $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is the image of the topological embedding

$$X \hookrightarrow E : x \mapsto 0 \in E_x,$$

and we shall therefore often regard the base X as a subspace $X \subset E$ by identifying it with the zero section.

We call $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ a **smooth vector bundle** if, in addition to the conditions above, X and E are smooth manifolds, the bundle projection $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is a smooth map, and the local trivialization $\Phi : E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ can be arranged to be smooth. In this situation, the manifold E has dimension

$$\dim E = \dim X + k,$$

and it contains the zero section $X \subset E$ and the fibers $E_x \subset E$ as smooth submanifolds. If X has nonempty boundary, then E has boundary $\partial E = E|_{\partial X} := \pi^{-1}(\partial X)$.

It is sometimes useful to choose some auxiliary structure on a vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow X$, such as a **bundle metric** $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, meaning a continuous family of inner products defined on the fibers E_x . Bundle metrics always exist if the space X is somewhat reasonable: one can construct them via

partitions of unity, which exist if X is paracompact, and this is always true e.g. if X is a manifold. Once a bundle metric has been chosen, one can define various subspaces of E such as the **unit disk bundle**

$$\mathbb{D}E := \bigcup_{x \in X} \mathbb{D}E_x, \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbb{D}E_x := \{v \in E_x \mid \langle v, v \rangle \leq 1\} \cong \mathbb{D}^k,$$

and if $k \geq 1$, the **unit sphere bundle**

$$SE := \bigcup_{x \in X} SE_x, \quad \text{where} \quad SE_x := \{v \in E_x \mid \langle v, v \rangle = 1\} \cong S^{k-1}.$$

The spaces $\mathbb{D}E$ and SE with their projections π to X are not vector bundles, but are examples of slightly more general objects called **fiber bundles**, and just as we use the notation

$$E|_{\mathcal{U}} := \pi^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{U}} E_x \subset E$$

for subsets $\mathcal{U} \subset X$, we will similarly use the notation

$$\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}} := E|_{\mathcal{U}} \cap \mathbb{D}E \quad \text{and} \quad SE|_{\mathcal{U}} := E|_{\mathcal{U}} \cap SE.$$

In the situation that will be of greatest interest for us, E is a *smooth* vector bundle over a closed smooth n -manifold $X := M$, and in this case, choosing the bundle metric to be smooth makes $\mathbb{D}E$ into a compact smooth $(n+k)$ -manifold with boundary

$$\partial(\mathbb{D}E) = SE,$$

so that we can speak of relative fundamental classes living in $H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$.

REMARK 54.2. There is almost never a *canonical* choice of bundle metric, and the definitions of $\mathbb{D}E$ and SE depend on this choice, but the following observation should reassure you that none of the important conclusions we draw from these spaces will depend on it. In the situation described above, relative fundamental classes of $\mathbb{D}E$ live in $H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, but if we identify the base M with the zero section $M \subset E$, then thanks to homotopy invariance, the inclusion of pairs $(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \hookrightarrow (E, E \setminus M)$ induces an isomorphism

$$H_*(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(E \mid M),$$

thus identifying $[\mathbb{D}E] \in H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ with a class in $H_{n+k}(E \mid M)$ that will be independent of choices. It would in fact be possible to formulate everything we have to say about vector bundles and their (co)homology in these terms, without ever choosing a bundle metric. Working with disk bundles and sphere bundles has some intuitive advantages, however, and we will therefore do so.

If we are to work with integer coefficients, we will of course require our vector bundles to be oriented, which requires first clarifying what it means for a real k -dimensional vector space V to be oriented.

Since vector spaces are also manifolds, we could define this in terms of the local homology groups $H_k(V \mid v; \mathbb{Z})$ at points $v \in V$, but there is a simpler way that is also standard in differential geometry. There, one defines an **orientation** of the vector space V to be an equivalence class of ordered bases $(v_1, \dots, v_k)$ of V , where two such bases are considered equivalent if and only if there exists a continuous deformation of one to the other through a family of ordered bases. The bases in the chosen equivalence class are then called **positively oriented** bases, and the others are called **negatively oriented**. An ordered basis is equivalent to a vector space isomorphism $V \cong \mathbb{R}^k$, so another way of saying this is that an orientation is a deformation class of isomorphisms to $\mathbb{R}^k$. If we take V to be $\mathbb{R}^k$ itself, then such isomorphisms are literally elements of the general linear group $\text{GL}(k, \mathbb{R})$, and an orientation is thus equivalent to a choice of connected component of $\text{GL}(k, \mathbb{R})$. This group has two components, distinguished by the signs of determinants of matrices. We

conclude that every finite-dimensional real vector space admits exactly two choices of orientation in this sense. To see that this is equivalent to the usual definition we use on topological manifolds, observe that $\mathbb{R}^k$ itself has canonical orientations in both senses: there is the equivalence class of the standard basis, and there are also standard conventions for fixing a canonical generator of $H_k(\mathbb{R}^k | v; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_k(\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \tilde{H}_{k-1}(S^{k-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. A deformation class of isomorphisms $\phi : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow V$ then determines isomorphisms $\phi_* : H_k(\mathbb{R}^k | v; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(V | \phi(v); \mathbb{Z})$ that determine an orientation of V as a topological k -manifold in terms of the canonical orientation of $\mathbb{R}^k$. For this reason, the two notions we've defined for orientations of real finite-dimensional vector spaces can be used interchangeably.

DEFINITION 54.3. An **orientation** of the vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is a choice of orientation of the fibers E_x for each $x \in X$ such that for any local trivialization $\Phi : E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ over a path-connected region $\mathcal{U} \subset X$, the resulting vector space isomorphisms $E_y \rightarrow \{y\} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ for $y \in \mathcal{U}$ are all either orientation preserving or orientation reversing.

It is not difficult to show that if $E \rightarrow X := M$ is a smooth and oriented vector bundle over a smooth oriented manifold M , then the manifold E is also orientable. We will need to fix a convention for defining this orientation of E , and to be consistent about it. Recall from Exercise 52.4 that for any pair of oriented manifolds M and N , the product $M \times N$ inherits a natural orientation that can be defined via the homological cross product. In the smooth category, there are also easier ways to define product orientations, because orientations of M and N are then equivalent to orientations of their tangent bundles $TM \rightarrow M$ and $TN \rightarrow N$, and one can orient the tangent space

$$T_{(x,y)}(M \times N) \cong T_x M \oplus T_y N$$

at each point $(x, y) \in M \times N$ by insisting that for any pair of positively-oriented bases $(v_1, \dots, v_m)$ of $T_x M$ and $(w_1, \dots, w_n)$ of $T_y N$, the basis $(v_1, \dots, v_m, w_1, \dots, w_n)$ of $T_{(x,y)}(M \times N)$ should be positively oriented. Whether you prefer this definition or the equivalent one in Exercise 52.4, we can use it as follows to define orientations of total spaces of vector bundles in terms of product orientations:

DEFINITION 54.4. Assume $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ is a smooth oriented vector bundle over an oriented manifold M . We then endow the total space E with the unique orientation such that for any smooth local trivialization $\Phi|_{\mathcal{U}} : E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ over an open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ for which the isomorphisms $E_y \xrightarrow{\Phi} \{y\} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ are all orientation preserving, the diffeomorphism

$$E|_{\mathcal{U}} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{U}$$

defined by composing Φ with the obvious bijection $\mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{U}$ is orientation preserving. Here, $\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{U}$ is endowed with the product orientation as in Exercise 52.4, determined by the canonical orientation of $\mathbb{R}^k$ and the given orientation of $\mathcal{U} \subset M$.

REMARK 54.5. The reversal of the order of $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathbb{R}^k$ in Definition 54.4 is slightly unfortunate, but it is really just an artefact of the arbitrary convention to define local trivializations as maps to $\mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R}^k$ rather than $\mathbb{R}^k \times \mathcal{U}$. We will find that this is the most convenient convention to use if we want to avoid unwanted signs in statements of the main results in intersection theory.

We can now turn the vague intuition at the beginning of this section into a precise statement of a theorem:

THEOREM 54.6 (tubular neighborhood theorem). *Assume M is a smooth n -manifold without boundary and $\Sigma \subset M$ is a smooth k -dimensional submanifold without boundary, with normal bundle $\pi : N\Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$. Then there exists a diffeomorphism of the total space of $N\Sigma$ onto an open*

neighborhood of $\Sigma \subset M$ that restricts to the canonical identification of the zero section with Σ . Moreover, if M and Σ both carry orientations, then the normal bundle $\pi : N\Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma$ inherits a unique orientation such that the diffeomorphism of $N\Sigma$ with a neighborhood of $\Sigma \subset M$ is orientation preserving.

PROOF SKETCH. This is a standard construction in differential geometry, so we provide a brief sketch using a few ideas from that subject. As auxiliary data, one can choose a Riemannian metric on M and use it to identify each fiber $N_x\Sigma$ of the normal bundle with the orthogonal complement $T_x\Sigma^\perp \subset T_xM$ of $T_x\Sigma \subset T_xM$, thus giving an isomorphism of vector bundles $N\Sigma \cong T\Sigma^\perp \subset TM|_\Sigma$. The metric also defines the notions of *geodesics* and the *exponential map*

$$TM \supset \mathcal{O} \xrightarrow{\exp} M,$$

which is defined on an open neighborhood $\mathcal{O} \subset TM$ of the zero section such that for each $p \in M$ and $X \in T_pM$, $\gamma(t) := \exp(tX)$ is the unique geodesic in M satisfying the initial conditions $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0) = X$. Restricting $\exp$ to the intersection of $T\Sigma^\perp \cong N\Sigma$ with $\mathcal{O}$ then gives a smooth map from some neighborhood of the zero section in $N\Sigma$ to M that restricts to the zero section as the identity map $\Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma \subset M$, and its derivative at each point along the zero section is an isomorphism. The inverse function theorem then implies that this map sends a neighborhood of the zero section diffeomorphically onto a neighborhood of $\Sigma \subset M$. The result now follows by identifying neighborhoods of 0 in each fiber N_xM diffeomorphically with the whole fiber. $\square$

REMARK 54.7. With a little care, the tubular neighborhood theorem can easily be extended to manifolds with boundary: this works in particular if Σ intersects ∂M transversely, with $\partial\Sigma = \Sigma \cap \partial M$, in which case the normal bundle $N\Sigma$ restricts to $\partial\Sigma$ as the normal bundle of the submanifold $\partial\Sigma \subset \partial M$. The notion of *transversality* needed for this will be explained further in the next lecture.

54.3. The Thom isomorphism theorem. The main results about the intersection product are based on two fundamental ingredients: one is Poincaré duality, and the other is some knowledge of the cohomology of vector bundles, since by the tubular neighborhood theorem, these serve as local models for neighborhoods of smooth submanifolds. For any vector bundle, the projection

$$E \xrightarrow{\pi} X$$

is a homotopy equivalence, making $H^*(E)$ isomorphic to $H^*(X)$. One obtains a more interesting relation between E and X by identifying X with the zero section of E and looking at the restricted cohomology $H^*(E|X)$. Choosing a bundle metric in order to define the unit disk bundle $\mathbb{D}E$ and sphere bundle SE with fibers $SE_x = \partial(\mathbb{D}E_x)$, we recall from Remark 54.2 that the inclusion of pairs $(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \hookrightarrow (E, E \setminus X)$ induces an isomorphism $H^*(E|X) \cong H^*(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$. The following theorem could therefore be stated as a result about $H^*(E|X)$ without needing to choose a bundle metric, but it looks a bit prettier as a result about $H^*(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, mainly because for each $x \in X$, the fiber $\mathbb{D}E_x \cong \mathbb{D}^k$ has a well-defined relative fundamental class

$$[\mathbb{D}E_x] \in H_k(\mathbb{D}E_x, SE_x),$$

whose image under the homomorphism induced by the inclusion of pairs $(\mathbb{D}E_x, SE_x) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ we shall denote by

$$[\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_k(\mathbb{D}E, SE).$$

THEOREM 54.8 (Thom isomorphism theorem). *Assume $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is an oriented vector bundle of rank $k \in \mathbb{N}$ over a CW-complex X and is endowed with a bundle metric, which defines the associated unit disk bundle $\mathbb{D}E$ and sphere bundle SE . Then:*

- (1) *There exists a unique relative cohomology class $\tau(E) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, called the **Thom class** of the bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow X$, characterized by the condition that*

$$\langle \tau(E), [\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \rangle = 1 \quad \text{for every } x \in X.$$

- (2) *For every $m \geq 0$, the relative cup product pairing*

$$H^m(\mathbb{D}E) \otimes H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$$

determines an isomorphism

$$H^m(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE) : \varphi \mapsto \pi^* \varphi \cup \tau(E),$$

where $\pi^ : H^m(X) \rightarrow H^m(\mathbb{D}E)$ denotes the homomorphism induced by $\mathbb{D}E \xrightarrow{\pi} X$.*

REMARK 54.9. The Thom isomorphism theorem can be proved under somewhat more general assumptions, as found e.g. in [tD08, §17.9]. In particular, one can allow X to be something more general than a CW-complex, but keeping this assumption makes the proof especially simple. In keeping with the convention stated at the beginning of this lecture, the assumption that E is oriented can be dropped at the cost of using cohomology with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_2$ instead of $\mathbb{Z}$. More generally, one can define a notion of *R-orientability* for vector bundles with respect to an arbitrary commutative ring R , and prove that any R -orientation of $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ gives rise to a unique Thom class $\tau(E) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE; R)$ satisfying $\langle \tau(E), [\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \rangle = 1$ for every $x \in X$, where the relative fundamental classes $[\mathbb{D}E_x] \in H_k(\mathbb{D}E_x, SE_x; R)$ are determined by a continuous family of R -orientations of the fibers.

The application to intersection theory in the next lecture will not require the full strength of Theorem 54.8, but really only the first statement, which serves simultaneously as a definition of the Thom class $\tau(E)$. The proof given below will also establish that there is an isomorphism $H^m(X) \cong H^{k+m}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, but not that it takes the specific form stated in the theorem—in the case where X is a closed oriented manifold, the latter can be deduced via Poincaré duality from Exercise 54.1, using an important fact about Thom classes that will be proved in the next lecture. In the main application we need, X will be a smooth manifold and therefore triangulable, and we can therefore get away with assuming in our proof that X is a polyhedron; this assumption could be relaxed by using a bit more knowledge of the general theory of bundles.

PROOF OF THEOREM 54.8(1), ASSUMING X IS TRIANGULABLE. We are interested in the cohomology of the pair $(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ in positive degrees, and since this is a “good” pair in the sense of Definition 37.2, we are free to replace its relative cohomology with the absolute cohomology of the quotient space,

$$\text{Th}(E) := \mathbb{D}E/SE,$$

known as the **Thom space**. Topologically, $\text{Th}(E)$ is homeomorphic to the one-point compactification of E , and you can picture it as a family of k -spheres $\mathbb{D}E_x/SE_x \cong \mathbb{D}^k/S^{k-1} \cong S^k$ that all intersect each other at exactly one point

$$\infty \in \text{Th}(E),$$

namely the point obtained by collapsing $SE \subset \mathbb{D}E$. The main idea behind the isomorphism $H^m(X) \cong H^{m+k}(\text{Th}(E)) \cong H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ is then to construct out of a cell decomposition of X a closely related cell decomposition of $\text{Th}(E)$, known as the **Thom complex**. Doing this with an arbitrary cell decomposition of X requires the knowledge that vector bundles over disks $\mathbb{D}^n$ are always globally trivializable, which is true but not completely trivial to prove, so we shall now make our lives slightly easier by assuming that X comes with a triangulation. After subdivision, we can then assume without loss of generality that every simplex $\sigma \subset X$ in the triangulation is small enough to be contained in a region $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ on which the disk bundle admits a local trivialization

$\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}} \cong \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{D}^k$, and since $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is assumed oriented, we are also free to assume that the resulting isomorphisms $\mathbb{D}E_x \cong \mathbb{D}^k$ for points $x \in \sigma$ are all orientation preserving. With this assumption in place, we now construct a cell decomposition of $\text{Th}(E)$ inductively as follows:

- The 0-skeleton of $\text{Th}(E)$ consists of the single point $\infty \in \text{Th}(E)$.
- Each 0-simplex $x \in X$ gives rise to a k -cell in $\text{Th}(E)$, namely the fiber $\mathbb{D}E_x$, which is attached by collapsing its boundary to the 0-skeleton $\infty \in \text{Th}(E)$. The union of ∞ with all the k -cells corresponding in this way to 0-simplices of X forms the k -skeleton of $\text{Th}(E)$.
- For each 1-simplex $\sigma \subset X$, we can use a local trivialization as indicated above to identify $\mathbb{D}E|_{\sigma}$ homeomorphically with $\sigma \times \mathbb{D}^k$ and thus regard $\mathbb{D}E|_{\sigma}$ as the closure of a $(k+1)$ -cell, attached via a map $\partial(\sigma \times \mathbb{D}^k) \rightarrow \text{Th}(E)$ that sends $\sigma \times S^{k-1}$ to ∞ and identifies $\partial\sigma \times \mathbb{D}^k$ with a union of k -cells that were constructed in the previous step. This completes the construction of the $(k+1)$ -skeleton of $\text{Th}(E)$.
- Continuing inductively in this manner, every m -simplex $\sigma \subset X$ gives rise to an $(m+k)$ -cell in $\text{Th}(E)$ whose closure is the region $\mathbb{D}E|_{\sigma}$.

In light of the obvious bijective correspondence between the simplices in X and cells in $\text{Th}(E)$, one obtains isomorphisms

$$C_m^{\Delta}(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} C_{m+k}^{\text{CW}}(\text{Th}(E))$$

for every $m \geq 0$, and one can check that these maps satisfy the chain map relation. A key detail here is that the characteristic maps of the cells in $\text{Th}(E)$ are defined using *orientation-preserving* homeomorphisms $\mathbb{D}E_x \cong \mathbb{D}^k$; if orientations were disregarded, then one would find unwanted signs polluting the chain map relation, though this problem goes away of course if one uses coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_2$ instead of $\mathbb{Z}$. Dualizing the chain map $C_*^{\Delta}(X) \rightarrow C_{*+k}^{\text{CW}}(\text{Th}(E))$ then produces a similar isomorphism of cochain complexes, giving rise to isomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} H^m(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\Delta}^m(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\text{CW}}^{m+k}(\text{Th}(E)) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \\ & & & & \Phi & & \\ & & & & \cong & & \end{array}$$

for every $m \geq 0$.

For any simplicial 0-cocycle $\alpha \in C_{\Delta}^0(X)$ and any 0-simplex $x \in X$ in the given triangulation, the construction of the isomorphism gives rise to the relation

$$\langle \Phi([\alpha]), [\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \rangle = \langle [\alpha], [x] \rangle,$$

where the evaluation on the right hand side takes place in the simplicial (co)homology of X , while on the left hand side, it can be understood as the evaluation of a cellular k -cochain on the cellular k -chain in $\text{Th}(E)$ corresponding to x . There is exactly one choice of α that makes this evaluation equal to 1 for every 0-simplex $x \in X$, and we therefore define the Thom class in terms of the unit $1 \in H^0(X)$, hence

$$\tau(E) := \Phi(1) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE).$$

Since every point in X is connected by a continuous path to a 0-simplex of the triangulation, homotopy invariance then implies that $\langle \tau(E), [\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \rangle = 1$ also holds for every point $x \in X$. $\square$

54.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 54.1. For the unit disk bundle $\mathbb{D}E \xrightarrow{\pi} X$ associated to an oriented vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ of rank k over a CW-complex, Theorem 54.8 states an explicit formula for the Thom isomorphism $\Phi : H^m(X) \rightarrow H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ in terms of the Thom class $\tau(E) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, and the relative cup product pairing $H^m(\mathbb{D}E) \otimes H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \rightarrow H^{m+k}(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$, namely

$$\Phi(\alpha) := \pi^* \alpha \cup \tau(E).$$

We will show in the next lecture that in the special case where $X := M$ is a closed oriented n -manifold with fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M)$ and duality isomorphisms $\text{PD}_M : H^\ell(M) \rightarrow H_{n-\ell}(M)$, the Thom class satisfies

$$\text{PD}_{\mathbb{D}E}(\tau(E)) = i_*[M],$$

where $\text{PD}_{\mathbb{D}E}$ denotes the relative duality isomorphism $H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{D}E)$ and $i : M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{D}E$ is the inclusion of the zero section. Taking this as a black box, prove the formula

$$\text{PD}_{\mathbb{D}E} \circ \Phi = i_* \circ \text{PD}_M,$$

and conclude that Φ is an isomorphism.

55. The intersection product

As in the previous lecture, we continue now under the assumption that $\mathbb{Z}$ is the coefficient group for homology and cohomology, with the understanding that $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients can also be used if we wish to drop any assumptions about orientations. When orientation assumptions are in place, the universal coefficient theorem also makes it possible to replace $\mathbb{Z}$ with any commutative ring R with unit.

The **intersection product** is defined on any closed oriented n -manifold M as a pairing

$$H_{n-k}(M) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(M) \xrightarrow{\quad} H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M) : A \otimes B \mapsto A \cdot B$$

that is Poincaré dual to the cup product, i.e. it is uniquely determined by the formula

$$\text{PD}(\alpha) \cdot \text{PD}(\beta) = \text{PD}(\beta \cup \alpha) \quad \text{for all } \alpha \in H^k(M), \beta \in H^\ell(M).$$

The reversal of the order of α and β in this definition looks unnatural at first glance, but should be unsurprising if you keep in mind that the passage from homology to cohomology involves a process of *dualization*, which automatically reverses the orders of compositions.

Our main goal in this lecture is to state and prove a precise version of the formula

$$(55.1) \quad [A] \cdot [B] = [A \cap B]$$

for suitable closed oriented submanifolds $A, B \subset M$. The precise statement will appear in §55.3 after clarifying in §55.2 the required transversality assumptions, which will ensure among other things that $A \cap B \subset M$ is a submanifold with $\text{codim}(A \cap B) = \text{codim}(A) + \text{codim}(B)$. In the case $\dim A + \dim B = n$, this makes $A \cap B$ a closed oriented 0-manifold, meaning a finite set of points with signs attached, and counting these points with signs then produces the intersection form of the Poincaré dual cohomology classes: in precise terms, if we assume $\text{PD}(\alpha) = [A] \in H_{n-k}(M)$ and $\text{PD}(\beta) = [B] \in H_k(M)$, then (55.1) and the relation $(\varphi \cup \psi) \cap c = \varphi \cap (\psi \cap c)$ imply

$$\begin{aligned} (55.2) \quad \langle 1, [A \cap B] \rangle &= \langle 1, (\beta \cup \alpha) \cap [M] \rangle = \langle \beta \cup \alpha, [M] \rangle \\ &= Q(\beta, \alpha) = (-1)^{k(n-k)} Q(\alpha, \beta) \\ &= \langle \beta, [A] \rangle = (-1)^{k(n-k)} \langle \alpha, [B] \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The formula (55.1) will be deduced from a more fundamental result that relates pullbacks of cohomology classes to preimages of submanifolds: roughly speaking, we will show that for smooth maps $f : A \rightarrow M$ and smooth submanifolds $B \subset M$ satisfying suitable conditions such that $f^{-1}(B) \subset A$ is a smooth submanifold with the same codimension as $B \subset M$, one has

$$\text{PD}(\beta) = [B] \in H_*(M) \quad \implies \quad \text{PD}(f^*\beta) = [f^{-1}(B)] \in H_*(A).$$

This gives a transparent geometric interpretation of the Poincaré duality isomorphism: it identifies cohomology classes with homology classes such that pullbacks become preimages.

NOTATION. Here are some useful notational conventions to be adopted throughout this lecture. There will often be multiple compact manifolds in the picture, each having its own Poincaré duality isomorphism, so it will be useful to specify which is which by writing

$$\mathrm{PD}_M : H^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M),$$

rather than just “PD”. In some cases, M will also have nonempty boundary, and we recall from Exercise 53.7 that there are two versions of the duality isomorphism for this situation: both will be denoted by

$$\mathrm{PD}_M : H^k(M, \partial M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathrm{PD}_M : H^k(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M, \partial M).$$

You will always be able to infer which of these two is meant by observing whether the cohomology class fed into it is an absolute class or a relative class.

We will reserve the notation $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M)$ for fundamental classes of compact manifolds, thus for a closed k -dimensional submanifold $A \subset M$, $[A] \in H_k(A)$ will be the fundamental class of A , while the class that A represents in M , i.e. the one obtained by feeding $[A]$ into the homomorphism induced by the inclusion $i : A \hookrightarrow M$, will be denoted by

$$[A]_M := i_*[A] \in H_k(M).$$

Under these conventions, the main result about the intersection product can be written in the form

$$\mathrm{PD}_M(\beta \cup \alpha) = [A \cap B]_M \quad \text{where} \quad \mathrm{PD}_M(\alpha) = [A]_M \text{ and } \mathrm{PD}_M(\beta) = [B]_M.$$

The notation for classes represented by submanifolds should not be confused with the notation

$$[M]_K := J_K^{-1}(s) \in H_n(\mathring{M} | K) \cong H_n(M | K)$$

for fundamental classes restricted to compact subsets $K \subset \mathring{M}$ of the interior, where $s \in \Gamma(\Theta)$ is the orientation corresponding to the fundamental class of M . This notation was used in Lecture 53, and will occasionally still be useful in the following. The context in Lecture 53 was slightly different, because M was assumed to be a (possibly noncompact) manifold without boundary, but if M is compact with boundary and K lies in its interior, then we are free to regard $[M]_K$ as an element of $H_n(M | K)$ because the inclusion of pairs $(\mathring{M}, \mathring{M} \setminus K) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus K)$ is a homotopy equivalence. In terms of the inclusion of pairs $j^K : (M, \partial M) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus K)$, one could equivalently write

$$[M]_K = j^K_*[M] \in H_n(M | K).$$

55.1. The Poincaré dual of a Thom class. The following can be interpreted as a localized special case of the formula $[A] \cdot [B] = [A \cap B]$, and as such, it also serves as one of the main steps in the proof of the general formula. We consider a smooth oriented vector bundle $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ of rank k over a closed, smooth, oriented n -manifold M . The motivation for this setup comes from the tubular neighborhood theorem: a neighborhood of a smooth submanifold can always be identified with a neighborhood of the zero section in the total space of a vector bundle, namely the normal bundle of the submanifold. In the present situation, we are thus identifying M with the zero section $M \subset E$ and regarding it as an n -dimensional submanifold of the $(n+k)$ -dimensional manifold E .

Choose a bundle metric on $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ in order to define the unit disk bundle $\mathbb{D}E$, which is a compact oriented $(n+k)$ -manifold whose boundary is the unit sphere bundle $\partial(\mathbb{D}E) = SE$. Let us pick any point $x \in M$ and count the intersections of the zero section $M \subset \mathbb{D}E$ with the fiber $\mathbb{D}E_x \subset \mathbb{D}E$, which has complementary dimension. The answer is obvious: they intersect precisely at the point $x \in M \subset \mathbb{D}E$, and nowhere else. Since $\mathbb{D}E$ has nonempty boundary, this situation does not fit precisely into the setup for the formula (55.1), though we will discuss in §55.6 relative versions of the intersection product that can accommodate this situation. In any case, if there is a relative version of the correspondence in (55.2) between the intersection product on homology and

the intersection form on cohomology, then for the relative cohomology class $\tau \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ that is Poincaré dual to the zero section $[M]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_n(\mathbb{D}E)$, one should expect to find

$$1 = \langle 1, [\mathbb{D}E_x \cap M] \rangle = \langle \tau, [\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \rangle,$$

where $[\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_k(\mathbb{D}E, SE)$ is the image of the relative fundamental class of the fiber $\mathbb{D}E_x$ under the map induced by the inclusion of pairs $(\mathbb{D}E_x, SE_x) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{D}E, SE)$. If this is true for every point $x \in M$, then according to Theorem 54.8, τ is the Thom class of E ; in other words, the cohomology class Poincaré dual to the zero section is the Thom class. That is what we shall now prove.

We can allow a slightly more general setup than what was considered above, in which M is a compact oriented n -manifold that may also have nonempty boundary, and thus has a relative fundamental class $(M, \partial M)$. In this situation, $\mathbb{D}E$ is still a compact $(n+k)$ -manifold with boundary, but its boundary is a union of two pieces

$$\partial(\mathbb{D}E) = SE \cup \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M}.$$

There is now a relative cap product pairing

$$H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \otimes H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, \partial(\mathbb{D}E)) \xrightarrow{\cap} H_n(\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M}),$$

and we let

$$[M]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_n(\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M})$$

denote the image of $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M)$ under the homomorphism induced by the inclusion of the zero section, regarded as a map of pairs $(M, \partial M) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M})$.

THEOREM 55.1. *In the setting described above,*

$$\tau(E) \cap [M]_{\mathbb{D}E} = [M]_{\mathbb{D}E}.$$

COROLLARY 55.2. *If M is closed, then the Thom class of $\pi : E \rightarrow M$ corresponds under the Poincaré duality isomorphism $PD : H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \rightarrow H_n(\mathbb{D}E)$ to the homology class represented by the zero section.* $\square$

REMARK 55.3. Combining Corollary 55.2 with Exercise 54.1 proves the portion of the Thom isomorphism theorem (Theorem 54.8) that remained unproved in the previous lecture, in the special case where the base of the bundle is a closed manifold.

The main step in the proof of Theorem 55.1 is to prove by explicit computation that it holds in the special case of a trivial bundle over a disk.

LEMMA 55.4. *Theorem 55.1 holds in the special case of a trivial disk bundle $\mathbb{D}E := \mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathbb{D}^n : (v, x) \mapsto x$.*

PROOF. In the situation at hand, we have

$$SE = S^{k-1} \times \mathbb{D}^n, \quad \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial \mathbb{D}^n} = \mathbb{D}^k \times S^{n-1}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{D}E_x = \mathbb{D}^k \times \{x\}$$

for each $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$. By Exercise 52.4, $[\mathbb{D}E] = [\mathbb{D}^k] \times [\mathbb{D}^n] \in H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n, \partial(\mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n))$, and one can check that $\tau(E) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n, S^{k-1} \times \mathbb{D}^n)$ and $[\mathbb{D}^n]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_n(\mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n, \mathbb{D}^k \times S^{n-1})$ are also relative cross products, namely

$$\tau(E) = \alpha \times 1 \quad \text{and} \quad [\mathbb{D}^n]_{\mathbb{D}E} = [*]_{\mathbb{D}^k} \times [\mathbb{D}^n],$$

where $1 \in H^0(\mathbb{D}^n)$ is the unit, $[*]_{\mathbb{D}^k} \in H_0(\mathbb{D}^k)$ is the homology class represented by a single point, and $\alpha \in H^k(\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}) \cong \text{Hom}(H_k(\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}), \mathbb{Z})$ is the unique class such that $\langle \alpha, [\mathbb{D}^k] \rangle = 1$. Indeed, for each $x \in \mathbb{D}^n$, the class $[\mathbb{D}E_x]_{\mathbb{D}E} \in H_k(\mathbb{D}^k \times \mathbb{D}^n, S^{k-1} \times \mathbb{D}^n)$ represented by the fiber

$\mathbb{D}E_x = \mathbb{D}^k \times \{x\}$ is $[\mathbb{D}^k] \times [*]_{\mathbb{D}^n}$, where in this case $[*]_{\mathbb{D}^n} \in H_0(\mathbb{D}^n)$ is again the class represented by a single point, thus

$$\langle \alpha \times 1, [\mathbb{D}^k] \times [*] \rangle = \langle \alpha, [\mathbb{D}^k] \rangle \langle 1, [*]_{\mathbb{D}^n} \rangle = 1,$$

verifying the claim that $\alpha \times 1$ is the Thom class. The identity in Corollary 50.7 now gives

$$\tau(E) \cap [\mathbb{D}E] = (\alpha \times 1) \cap ([\mathbb{D}^k] \times [\mathbb{D}^n]) = (\alpha \cap [\mathbb{D}^k]) \times (1 \cap [\mathbb{D}^n]) = [*]_{\mathbb{D}^k} \times [\mathbb{D}^n] = [\mathbb{D}^n]_{\mathbb{D}E},$$

where the class $\alpha \cap [\mathbb{D}^k] = [*]_{\mathbb{D}^k} \in H_0(\mathbb{D}^k)$ is characterized by the property

$$\langle 1, \alpha \cap [\mathbb{D}^k] \rangle = \langle \alpha, [\mathbb{D}^k] \rangle = 1.$$

□

PROOF OF THEOREM 55.1. The inclusion $(M, \partial M) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M})$ is a homotopy equivalence of pairs and has the projection $\pi : (\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M}) \rightarrow (M, \partial M)$ as a homotopy inverse. The goal is thus to show that $\pi_*(\tau(E) \cap [\mathbb{D}E])$ is the fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M)$, or equivalently, that for each $x \in \mathring{M}$, the image in $H_n(M|x)$ of this class under the map induced by the inclusion of pairs $(M, \partial M) \hookrightarrow (M, M \setminus \{x\})$ is the local orientation $[M]_x$ given by the orientation of M . Choose a closed disk-like neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathring{M}$ of x on which there exists a local trivialization, thus identifying $E|_{\mathcal{U}}$ with a product bundle as in Lemma 55.4. Fix $r \in (0, 1)$ and define the subsets

$$\mathbb{D}_r E := \bigcup_{x \in M} \mathbb{D}_r E_x \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbb{D}_r E_x := \{v \in \mathbb{D}E_x \mid \langle v, v \rangle \leq r^2\}, \quad \text{and} \quad S_r E := \mathbb{D}E \setminus \mathbb{D}_r E.$$

There is then a relative cap product of the form

$$H^k(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E) \otimes H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E_x) \xrightarrow{\cap} H_n(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}E_x),$$

giving us the middle row of the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} H^k(\mathbb{D}E, SE) \otimes H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, \partial(\mathbb{D}E)) & \xrightarrow{\cap} & H_n(\mathbb{D}E, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial M}) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\pi_*} & H_n(M, \partial M) \\ \cong \uparrow i^* & & \downarrow i_* & & \downarrow \\ H^k(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E) \otimes H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E_x) & \xrightarrow{\cap} & H_n(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}E_x) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\pi_*} & H_n(M|x) \\ \downarrow j^* & & \cong \uparrow j_* & & \cong \uparrow \\ H^k(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}, SE|_{\mathcal{U}}) \otimes H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}, \partial(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}})) & \xrightarrow{\cap} & H_n(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}, \mathbb{D}E|_{\partial \mathcal{U}}) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\pi_*} & H_n(\mathcal{U}, \partial \mathcal{U}) \end{array}$$

Here, $i : \mathbb{D}E \rightarrow \mathbb{D}E$ is the identity map, which can be interpreted in various ways as an inclusion of pairs that induces vertical arrows between the top two rows of the diagram, and the inclusion $j : \mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{D}E$ similar induces arrows between the bottom two rows. The maps on the right hand side are likewise induced by obvious inclusions of pairs, and we observe that some of these maps are isomorphisms due to homotopy invariance and/or excision. The meaning of the arrows in opposing directions between the tensor products is the usual naturality relation for cap products, e.g. the upper left square encodes the fact that for any $\tau \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E)$ and $A \in H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, \partial(\mathbb{D}E))$, pushing forward a cap product from the top row gives a cap product from the middle row,

$$i_*(i^* \tau \cap A) = \tau \cap i_* A.$$

By Lemma 55.4, plugging $\tau(E|_{\mathcal{U}}) \otimes [\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}]$ into the bottom left corner of this diagram and then following the bottom row to the right leads to $[\mathcal{U}] \in H_n(\mathcal{U}, \partial \mathcal{U})$, so that following it one step upward then produces $[M]_x \in H_n(M|x)$. The map i^* in the upper left is an isomorphism, so there is a unique class $\tau \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E | \mathbb{D}_r E)$ such that $i^* \tau$ is the Thom class $\tau(E) \in H^k(\mathbb{D}E | SE)$, and one then deduces from the defining property of Thom classes that $j^* \tau$ is similarly the Thom class of the restricted bundle $E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$. In the same manner, the defining property of fundamental classes

implies that $[\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}] \in H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}, \partial(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathcal{U}}))$ and $[\mathbb{D}E] \in H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E, \partial(\mathbb{D}E))$ have the same image in $H_{n+k}(\mathbb{D}E|_{\mathbb{D}_r E_x})$, namely the restricted fundamental class $[\mathbb{D}E]_{\mathbb{D}_r E_x}$. One deduces from these facts and the commutativity of the diagram that if $\tau(E) \otimes [\mathbb{D}E]$ is plugged in at the upper left corner, following it to the right and then down to $H_n(M|x)$ leads to $[M]_x$. $\square$

55.2. Transversality. We now discuss the technical conditions needed to ensure that intersections of submanifolds are submanifolds of the expected dimension. It would be possible in theory to formulate the entirety of this discussion in terms of topological manifolds, without mentioning smoothness, but working in the smooth category provides substantial advantages due to the implicit function theorem, and in any case, the most important applications of the intersection product are in the theory of smooth manifolds.

For a smooth manifold M , we denote its tangent space at a point $p \in M$ by $T_p M$, and for a smooth map $f : M \rightarrow N$, its derivative at a point $p \in M$ is a linear map $T_p M \rightarrow T_{f(p)} N$ that we shall denote by

$$T_p M \xrightarrow{T_p f} T_{f(p)} N.$$

The resulting map $Tf : TM \rightarrow TN$ between tangent bundles is also called the **tangent map** of f .

DEFINITION 55.5. Suppose $f : A \rightarrow M$ is a smooth map between smooth manifolds and $B \subset M$ is a smooth submanifold. We say that f is **transverse** to B , written

$$f \pitchfork B,$$

if for every $x \in f^{-1}(B)$ and $y := f(x) \in B$,

$$T_y M = \text{im}(T_x f) + T_y B.$$

If $A \subset M$ is another smooth submanifold, we say that it is transverse to B and write

$$A \pitchfork B$$

if the inclusion map $A \hookrightarrow M$ is transverse to B , which means that for every point $y \in A \cap B$,

$$T_y M = T_y A + T_y B.$$

The transversality condition $f \pitchfork B$ has the following important consequence, due to the implicit function theorem. Assume none of the manifolds in the picture have boundary. Then locally, smooth submanifolds $B \subset M$ can always be presented as regular level sets $g^{-1}(q)$ of smooth functions $g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$, where $k := \text{codim}(B)$, and $f \pitchfork B$ then implies that q is also a regular value of the function $g \circ f$, implying:

THEOREM 55.6 (via the implicit function theorem). *Assume $f : A \rightarrow M$ is a smooth map transverse to the submanifold $B \subset M$, where the manifolds A , M and B all have empty boundary. Then $f^{-1}(B)$ is a smooth submanifold of A whose codimension matches the codimension of B in M . In particular, if $A, B \subset M$ are two submanifolds with $A \pitchfork B$, then $A \cap B \subset M$ is a submanifold with*

$$\text{codim}(A \cap B) = \text{codim}(A) + \text{codim}(B).$$

$\square$

We should also talk about orientations. The key observation here is that if $f \pitchfork B$, then for every $x \in f^{-1}(B) \subset A$, the tangent map $T_x f : T_x A \rightarrow T_{f(x)} M$ descends to an isomorphism of normal spaces

$$N_x^A(f^{-1}(B)) \xrightarrow{\cong} N_{f(x)}^M B,$$

thus producing a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} N^A(f^{-1}(B)) & \xrightarrow{Tf} & N^M B \\ \downarrow \pi & & \downarrow \pi \\ A & \xrightarrow{f} & M \end{array}$$

in which the top arrow is a family of vector space isomorphisms parametrized by $x \in A$. If M and B both carry orientations, then the total space of the normal bundle $N^M B$ inherits an orientation via its identification with a neighborhood of $B \subset M$ from the tubular neighborhood theorem. This in turn determines an orientation of the bundle $N^M B \rightarrow B$ itself via Definition 54.4. Using the isomorphisms $N_x^A(f^{-1}(B)) \cong N_{f(x)}^M B$, this determines an orientation of the normal bundle $N^A(f^{-1}(B))$ over $f^{-1}(B)$, and using Definition 54.4 again, there is a unique orientation of $f^{-1}(B)$ that is compatible with this orientation of its normal bundle and the given orientation of A . This will be our convention for orienting preimages $f^{-1}(B)$ when $f \pitchfork B$, and in the special case where f is the inclusion of a submanifold $A \hookrightarrow M$, this also determines an orientation of $A \cap B$. Note that if we reverse the order and write $B \cap A$, then the implication is that the orientation may be different, because we are now orienting $A \cap B$ via its normal bundle as a submanifold of B instead of A . One can check that the orientations of $A \cap B$ and $B \cap A$ differ if and only if the codimensions of A and B are both odd.

55.3. Main results. Here is the precise version of the formula for $[A] \cdot [B]$ that was advertised.

THEOREM 55.7. *Assume M is a closed oriented n -manifold, $A, B \subset M$ are closed oriented submanifolds such that $A \pitchfork B$, and the closed submanifold $A \cap B$ is endowed with the induced orientation as explained in the previous section. Then*

$$[A]_M \cdot [B]_M = [A \cap B]_M.$$

We shall deduce this from the following result, which is more fundamental.

THEOREM 55.8. *Assume M is a closed oriented n -manifold, $B \subset M$ is a closed oriented submanifold, A is a closed manifold, $f : A \rightarrow M$ is a smooth map transverse to B , and the submanifold $f^{-1}(B) \subset A$ is endowed with the induced orientation as explained in the previous section. Then if $\beta \in H^*(M)$ is the class Poincaré dual to $[B]_M \in H_*(M)$, its pullback $f^*\beta \in H^*(A)$ is Poincaré dual to $[f^{-1}(B)]_A \in H_*(A)$.*

Let us derive a generalization of Theorem 55.7 from this result. In the situation of Theorem 55.8, suppose $\alpha, \beta \in H^*(M)$ satisfy

$$\text{PD}_M(\alpha) = f_*[A] \quad \text{and} \quad \text{PD}_M(\beta) = [B]_M.$$

Using the associativity and naturality of the cap product, the theorem then implies

$$\begin{aligned} f_*[A] \cdot [B]_M &= \text{PD}_M(\beta \cup \alpha) = (\beta \cup \alpha) \cap [M] = \beta \cap (\alpha \cap [M]) = \beta \cap f_*[A] \\ &= f_*(f^*\beta \cap [A]) = f_*\text{PD}_A(f^*\beta) = f_*[f^{-1}(B)]_A. \end{aligned}$$

COROLLARY 55.9. *In the setting of Theorem 55.8,*

$$f_*[A] \cdot [B] = f_*[f^{-1}(B)]_A.$$

□

Theorem 55.7 is the special case of this corollary where $f : A \rightarrow M$ is the inclusion of a smooth submanifold.

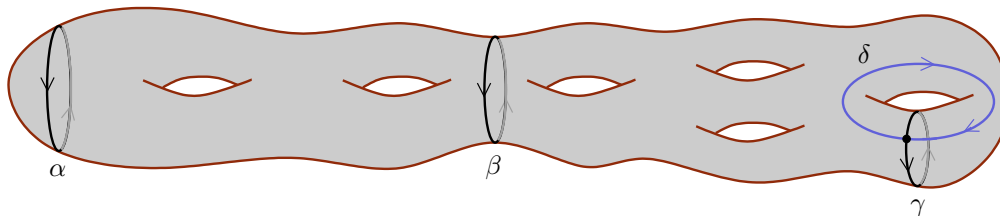


FIGURE 45. The surface and 1-dimensional submanifolds discussed in Example 55.10.

55.4. Applications. In many situations of geometric interest, the intersection product provides an easy criterion for recognizing when a homology class is nontrivial.

EXAMPLE 55.10. Figure 45 shows a closed, connected and orientable surface Σ with four oriented 1-dimensional submanifolds $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \subset \Sigma$, or equivalently, loops $S^1 \hookrightarrow \Sigma$. Since α bounds a disk, it is clearly nullhomotopic, and therefore also nullhomologous, i.e. $[\alpha] = 0 \in H_1(\Sigma)$. One can show by computations of $\pi_1(\Sigma)$ that β is not nullhomotopic, but it clearly is nullhomologous: this follows from the observation that β splits Σ into two connected components, a pair of compact oriented surfaces $\Sigma_{\pm}$ with boundary $\partial\Sigma_{\pm} = \beta$ such that $\Sigma = \Sigma_+ \cup_{\beta} \Sigma_-$. If we factor the inclusion $i : \beta \hookrightarrow \Sigma$ through the inclusions $\beta \hookrightarrow \Sigma_+$ and $\Sigma_+ \hookrightarrow \Sigma$, we notice that the induced map $H_1(\beta) \rightarrow H_1(\Sigma)$ is zero because the map $H_1(\beta) \rightarrow H_1(\Sigma_+)$ is zero (see Exercise 52.2),

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} H_1(\beta) & \xrightarrow{0} & H_1(\Sigma_+) & \longrightarrow & H_1(\Sigma), \\ & & \searrow i_* & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

hence $i_*[\beta] = 0$. The case of $\gamma \subset \Sigma$ is less obvious: it does not split Σ in two pieces, as $\Sigma \setminus \gamma$ is connected, thus it is hard to imagine a 2-chain in Σ that would have γ as its boundary, but this on its own is not a proof that no such chain exists. The intersection product, however, provides a clear criterion showing that $[\gamma] \in H_1(\Sigma)$ cannot be zero: the reason is that there is another loop, $\delta \subset \Sigma$, which intersects γ exactly once transversely, hence their intersection product must satisfy

$$[\gamma] \cdot [\delta] = \pm 1 \in \mathbb{Z} \cong H_0(\Sigma).$$

This proves that both of the classes $[\gamma], [\delta] \in H_1(\Sigma)$ are not only nontrivial, but also primitive in homology with integer coefficients.

The nonseparating loops in Example 55.10 admit the following interesting generalization. If M is an n -manifold, a submanifold $\Sigma \subset M$ is called a **hypersurface** if $\dim \Sigma = n - 1$. Assuming M is connected, we say that $\Sigma \subset M$ **separates** M if $M \setminus \Sigma$ is disconnected.

THEOREM 55.11. *Suppose M is a closed, connected and oriented smooth n -manifold containing a closed, connected and oriented smooth hypersurface $\Sigma \subset M$. Then the homology class $[\Sigma] \in H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is trivial if and only if Σ separates M .*

PROOF. If Σ separates M then we can write $M = M_+ \cup_{\Sigma} M_-$ where $M_{\pm}$ are two compact R -oriented n -manifolds with boundary $\partial M_{\pm} = \Sigma$, so the same argument as in Example 55.10 implies that $[\Sigma] = 0$. On the other hand, if Σ does not separate M , then $M \setminus \Sigma$ is connected, so we can fix a point $z \in \Sigma$ and two nearby points $z_{\pm} \in M \setminus \Sigma$ that lie in a common Euclidean neighborhood with z identifying Σ with $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,⁸⁹ but on opposite sides of Σ , i.e. the n th coordinates of $z_{\pm}$

⁸⁹One of the standard ways of characterizing a *smooth submanifold* $\Sigma \subset M$ is through the existence of **slice charts**: for every $x \in \Sigma$, some neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ of x admits a smooth chart $\varphi : \mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \varphi(\mathcal{U}) \subset^{\text{open}} \mathbb{R}^n$ that identifies a neighborhood of x in Σ with an open subset of the linear subspace $\mathbb{R}^k \times \{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ for $k = \dim \Sigma$.

and z_- have opposite signs. We can then find a smooth path γ joining z_+ to z_- in $M \setminus \Sigma$, and then complete it with a path in the Euclidean neighborhood that passes through Σ once, producing (as in Figure 45) a smooth loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow M$ that intersects Σ exactly once and transversely. It follows that

$$\langle 1, \gamma_*[S^1] \cdot [\Sigma] \rangle = \pm 1,$$

hence $[\Sigma] \in H_{n-1}(M)$ and $\gamma_*[S^1] \in H_1(M)$ are both nontrivial. $\square$

REMARK 55.12. If one drops all orientation assumptions from Theorem 55.11, it remains valid as a statement about homology with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients. This observation is relevant in the corollary below.

If you've been wondering why non-orientable surfaces like $\mathbb{RP}^2$ and the Klein bottle cannot be embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, we can now answer this question. If you can embed them in $\mathbb{R}^3$, then you can also embed them in its one-point compactification, S^3 , which is prevented by the following corollary:

COROLLARY 55.13. *For every $n \geq 2$, closed smooth hypersurfaces in S^n are always orientable.*

PROOF. Suppose to the contrary that $\Sigma \subset S^n$ is a closed non-orientable smooth hypersurface, and without loss of generality assume Σ is connected. Then one can find (as in the proof of Theorem 55.11) a path in $S^n \setminus \Sigma$ that stays within a small neighborhood of Σ but starts and ends on opposite sides of it, thus giving rise to a loop $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow S^n$ that intersects Σ once transversely. Using $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients (since Σ is $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -orientable), the intersection number of Σ with γ is then

$$\langle 1, \gamma_*[S^1] \cdot [\Sigma] \rangle = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2,$$

implying $[\Sigma] \neq 0 \in H_{n-1}(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and $\gamma_*[S^1] \neq 0 \in H_1(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. This contradicts the computation of $H_*(S^n; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. $\square$

REMARK 55.14. The fact that S^n is orientable is not the decisive factor in Corollary 55.13, as there is no obstruction in general to embedding closed non-orientable hypersurfaces into closed orientable manifolds. An easy example is $\mathbb{RP}^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{RP}^3$.

Another interesting application of the intersection product is explained in Exercise 55.2 at the end of this lecture: it is a quantitative version of the Lefschetz fixed point theorem that applies to smooth maps on a closed manifold, and interprets the Lefschetz number as an algebraic count of fixed points.

55.5. Pullbacks and preimages. We now prove Theorem 55.8. In the setting of the theorem, denote

$$Q := f^{-1}(B) \subset A,$$

which is necessarily an oriented submanifold with

$$k := \text{codim}(Q) = \text{codim}(B),$$

and let

$$\beta \in H^k(M), \quad \gamma \in H^k(A)$$

denote the cohomology classes satisfying $\text{PD}_M(\beta) = [B]_M$ and $\text{PD}_A(\gamma) = [Q]_A$. Our goal is to prove $f^*\beta = \gamma$.

Consider the inclusions of pairs

$$(M, \emptyset) \xleftarrow{i} (M, M \setminus B) \xleftarrow{j} (\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B),$$

where the second inclusion arises from the tubular neighborhood theorem, and the maps it induces on relative homology and cohomology are isomorphisms due to homotopy invariance and excision.

As in the proof of Theorem 55.1, we can now represent three relative cap products and the naturality relations between them via a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 H^k(M) \otimes H_n(M) & \xrightarrow{\quad \cap \quad} & H_{n-k}(M) & & \\
 i^* \uparrow & & i_* \downarrow & & \downarrow i_* = 1 \\
 H^k(M|B) \otimes H_n(M|B) & \xrightarrow{\quad \cap \quad} & H_{n-k}(M|B) & & \\
 j^* \downarrow \cong & & j_* \uparrow \cong & & \uparrow j_* \\
 H^k(\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B) \otimes H_n(\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B) & \xrightarrow{\quad \cap \quad} & H_{n-k}(\mathbb{D}N^M B) & &
 \end{array}$$

By the defining property of fundamental classes, we have

$$i_*[M] = [M]_B = j_*[\mathbb{D}N^M B].$$

Moreover, since j^* is an isomorphism on relative cohomology, there is a unique class $\hat{\beta} \in H^k(M|B)$ satisfying

$$j^* \hat{\beta} = \tau(N^M B),$$

and in light of Theorem 55.1, the naturality relation represented by the bottom two rows of the diagram implies

$$\begin{aligned}
 [B]_M &= j_*[B]_{\mathbb{D}N^M B} = j_* (\tau(N^M B) \cap [\mathbb{D}N^M B]) = j_* (j^* \hat{\beta} \cap [\mathbb{D}N^M B]) = \hat{\beta} \cap j_*[\mathbb{D}N^M B] \\
 &= \hat{\beta} \cap [M]_B.
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying the relation represented by the top two rows then gives

$$PD_M(i^* \hat{\beta}) = i^* \hat{\beta} \cap [M] = i_* (i^* \hat{\beta} \cap [M]) = \hat{\beta} \cap i_*[M] = \hat{\beta} \cap [M]_B = [B]_M,$$

and since PD_M is an isomorphism, it follows that

$$i^* \hat{\beta} = \beta.$$

This calculation already has a deep and non-obvious consequence: the cohomology class β Poincaré dual to $[B]_M$ is uniquely determined by a class living in the cohomology of M *restricted to* B , i.e. it depends only on a neighborhood of $B \subset M$, and not on the rest of M . Pulling back via the inclusion of the normal bundle $N^M B$ via the tubular neighborhood theorem, that class becomes precisely the Thom class of $N^M B$.

One can carry out a similar argument with the submanifold $Q = f^{-1}(B) \subset A$ to show that γ is similarly determined by the Thom class of the normal bundle $N^A Q$, with a class $\hat{\gamma} \in H^k(A|Q)$ serving as intermediary between them two. To finish, we note that the embeddings of tubular neighborhoods of $Q \subset A$ and $B \subset M$ can be arranged so that there is a commuting diagram,

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 (A, \emptyset) & \xleftarrow{i} & (A, A \setminus Q) & \xleftarrow{j} & (\mathbb{D}N^A Q, SN^A Q) \\
 \downarrow f & & \downarrow f & & \downarrow Tf \\
 (M, \emptyset) & \xleftarrow{i} & (M, M \setminus B) & \xleftarrow{j} & (\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B)
 \end{array}$$

where $Tf : (\mathbb{D}N^A Q, SN^A Q) \rightarrow (\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B)$ restricts for each $x \in A$ to an orientation-preserving homeomorphism $(\mathbb{D}N_x^A Q, SN_x^A Q) \cong (\mathbb{D}N_{f(x)}^M B, SN_{f(x)}^M B)$, defined as a restriction of

the vector space isomorphism $T_x f : N_x^A Q \rightarrow N_{f(x)}^M B$. This induces a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} H^k(A) & \xleftarrow{i^*} & H^k(A|Q) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{j^*} & H^k(\mathbb{D}N^A Q, SN^A Q) \\ \uparrow f^* & & \uparrow f^* & & \uparrow (Tf)^* \\ H^k(M) & \xleftarrow{i^*} & H^k(M|B) & \xrightarrow[\cong]{j^*} & H^k(\mathbb{D}N^M B, SN^M B) \end{array},$$

and in light of the homeomorphisms $(\mathbb{D}N_x^A Q, SN_x^A Q) \cong (\mathbb{D}N_{f(x)}^M B, SN_{f(x)}^M B)$ defined via Tf , the defining property of Thom classes implies

$$(Tf)^* \tau(N^M B) = \tau(N^A Q).$$

Since the maps j^* are isomorphisms, this implies $f^* \hat{\beta} = \hat{\gamma}$, and pulling back to the left hand side of the diagram then gives $f^* \beta = \gamma$, concluding the proof of Theorem 55.8.

55.6. Relative intersection products. For M a compact, smooth, oriented n -manifold with nonempty boundary, there are multiple ways to generalize the intersection product to relative homology. We will give a quick sketch here and leave the details as exercises.

Just as there are two choices of relative Poincaré duality isomorphism to use, there are essentially two interesting versions of the cup product: in the first variant, one can use the usual cup product on absolute cohomology but identify this via duality with the *relative* homology of the pair $(M, \partial M)$, giving a relative intersection product of the form

$$(55.3) \quad H_{n-k}(M, \partial M) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(M, \partial M) \xrightarrow{\cdot} H_{n-(k+\ell)}(\partial M).$$

Two slightly more subtle variants arise by using the relative cup products

$$H^k(M) \otimes H^\ell(M, \partial M) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(M, \partial M), \quad H^k(M, \partial M) \otimes H^\ell(M) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(M, \partial M)$$

together with the duality isomorphism $\text{PD}_M : H^m(M, \partial M) \rightarrow H_{n-m}(M)$. This produces intersection products of the form

$$(55.4) \quad \begin{aligned} H_{n-k}(M, \partial M) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(M) &\xrightarrow{\cdot} H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M), \\ H_{n-k}(M) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(M, \partial M) &\xrightarrow{\cdot} H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M). \end{aligned}$$

Finally, there is also a relative cup product

$$H^k(M, \partial M) \otimes H^\ell(M, \partial M) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(M, \partial M),$$

which is dual to an absolute intersection product

$$(55.5) \quad H_{n-k}(M) \otimes H_{n-\ell}(M) \xrightarrow{\cdot} H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M),$$

the meaning of which turns out to be exactly the same as when $\partial M = \emptyset$. This last variant can actually be seen as a special case of (55.4): the product $A \cdot B \in H_*(M)$ of two absolute classes $A, B \in H_*(M)$ becomes the same thing as in (55.4) if one first feeds either A or B into the homomorphism $H_*(M) \rightarrow H_*(M, \partial M)$ induced by the inclusion $(M, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (M, \partial M)$, which is equivalent to feeding its dual cohomology class into the pullback homomorphism $H^*(M, \partial M) \rightarrow H^*(M)$ and then computing a relative cup product. For these reasons, the absolute intersection product in (55.5) can be ignored in favor of the relative products (55.4).

All of these variants are identical to the usual absolute intersection product if $\partial M = \emptyset$. If M is a connected manifold with $\partial M \neq \emptyset$ and we consider the case of complementary dimensions $k + \ell = n$, then the variants in (55.4) have an advantage over (55.3): these intersection products give an *absolute* homology class in degree 0, which can therefore be paired with $1 \in H^0(M)$ to recover the usual relation between the intersection product and the intersection form:

$$\langle 1, \text{PD}_M(\alpha) \cdot \text{PD}_M(\beta) \rangle = \langle 1, (\beta \cup \alpha) \cap [M] \rangle = \langle \beta \cup \alpha, [M] \rangle = Q(\beta, \alpha).$$

Note that in general, this version of the intersection form Q pairs an *absolute* cohomology class with a *relative* class in $(M, \partial M)$; the crucial detail is that the product is then in $H_n(M, \partial M)$ instead of $H_n(M)$, so that it can then be evaluated on the relative fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M)$. The usual definition of the intersection form on absolute cohomology classes in this situation gives something trivial, because the interior of M is a connected and noncompact n -manifold, implying $H_n(M) \cong H_n(\mathring{M}) = 0$.

To understand what the various relative intersection products mean, one can generalize Theorem 55.8 as follows. Assume A, B, M are all compact, oriented smooth manifolds with boundary, $f : (A, \partial A) \rightarrow (M, \partial M)$ is a smooth map of pairs with $f^{-1}(\partial M) = \partial A$, $B \subset M$ is a submanifold with $\partial B = B \cap \partial M$, and we additionally have the following transversality conditions:

- $f \pitchfork \partial M$ and $B \pitchfork \partial M$;
- The map $f|_{\mathring{A}} : \mathring{A} \rightarrow \mathring{M}$ is transverse in $\mathring{M}$ to the submanifold $\mathring{B} \subset \mathring{M}$;
- The map $f|_{\partial A} : \partial A \rightarrow \partial M$ is transverse in ∂M to the submanifold $\partial B \subset \partial M$.

In this situation, if $B \subset M$ has codimension k , then ∂B is similarly a codimension k submanifold of ∂M , and

$$Q := f^{-1}(B) \subset A$$

becomes a smooth codimension k submanifold of A that intersects ∂A transversely such that $\partial Q = Q \cap \partial A$ is a codimension k submanifold of ∂A . The generalization of Theorem 55.8 to this setup is straightforward to state, and its proof only requires extending the arguments in §55.5 to a slightly wider context: the result concerns the absolute cohomology classes in $H^k(M)$ and $H^k(A)$ that are Poincaré dual to the relative homology classes $[B]_M \in H_*(M, \partial M)$ and $[Q]_A \in H_*(A, \partial A)$ respectively, and it simply says

$$\text{PD}_M(\beta) = [B]_M \quad \implies \quad \text{PD}_A(f^*\beta) = [f^{-1}(B)]_A.$$

Taking f to be the inclusion of a submanifold $(A, \partial A) \hookrightarrow (M, \partial M)$ with boundary $\partial A = A \cap \partial M$ such that $A \pitchfork \partial M$ and $\partial A \pitchfork \partial B$ in ∂M , one obtains $A \cap B \subset M$ as a compact oriented submanifold intersecting ∂M transversely in $\partial(A \cap B) = A \cap B \cap \partial M$, and the interpretation of (55.3) then becomes

$$[A]_M \cdot [B]_M = [A \cap B]_M \in H_{n-(k+\ell)}(M, \partial M).$$

If one assumes additionally $\partial A = \emptyset$, so that $A \subset M$ is contained in the interior of M , then one has the freedom to interpret $[A]_M$ as living in $H_*(M)$ instead of $H_*(M, \partial M)$, so that the second of the relative intersection products in (55.4) makes sense, and its interpretation is the same: $A \cap B$ is in this case a *closed* oriented submanifold in the interior of M and thus represents a class in $H_*(M)$. Exploiting the graded commutativity of the cup product, the first product in (55.4) inherits from this a similar interpretation.

55.7. Exercises.

EXERCISE 55.1. Suppose M, N are closed, connected, oriented smooth manifolds of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map. Without appealing to the results of Lecture 38, use the intersection product $f_*[M] \cdot [*]_N$ with the homology class of a point $[*]_N \in H_0(N)$ to prove that under a suitable technical assumption on a point $y \in N$, the degree $\deg(f) \in \mathbb{Z}$ of f is a signed count of points in $f^{-1}(y) \subset M$. What exactly is the technical assumption you need?

EXERCISE 55.2. Throughout this exercise, M is a closed, connected and oriented smooth manifold of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We consider intersection products of homology classes with complementary degree and regard such products as integers

$$A \cdot B \in \mathbb{Z} \cong H_0(M) \quad \text{for } A \in H_k(M), B \in H_{n-k}(M),$$

using the canonical isomorphism $H_0(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : C \mapsto \langle 1, C \rangle$. For smooth maps $f : M \rightarrow M$, there is a sharp version of the Lefschetz fixed point theorem that can be stated as an intersection product calculation, namely

$$(55.6) \quad [\Gamma_f]_{M \times M} \cdot [\Delta]_{M \times M} = L(f),$$

where Γ_f denotes the **graph** of f ,

$$\Gamma_f := \{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in M\} \subset M \times M,$$

and Δ is the **diagonal** submanifold

$$\Delta := \Gamma_{\text{Id}} = \{(x, x) \mid x \in M\} \subset M \times M.$$

We equip $\Gamma_f \subset M \times M$ with the orientation such that the embedding

$$M \xrightarrow{i} M \times M : x \mapsto (x, f(x))$$

defines an orientation-preserving diffeomorphism of M to Γ_f ; since Δ is a special case of a graph, it inherits an orientation in the same way. In light of the obvious correspondence between $\Gamma_f \cap \Delta$ and the fixed point set of f , (55.6) implies the Lefschetz fixed point theorem for smooth maps on M ; moreover, it gives a quantitative interpretation of the Lefschetz number $L(f)$ as a signed count of fixed points, under the technical condition that Γ_f and Δ intersect transversely. Our goal in this problem is to prove this formula.⁹⁰

- (a) Prove that if $A, B, C, D \in H_*(M)$ are homology classes (with integer coefficients) whose degrees satisfy

$$|A| + |B| = n = |C| + |D|,$$

then we have the following formula for intersections of cross products of degree n in $M \times M$:

$$(A \times B) \cdot (C \times D) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{|B|} (A \cdot C)(B \cdot D) & \text{if } |B| = |C| \text{ and } |A| = |D|, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Remark: You should forgive yourself if you manage to figure out every detail of this problem except the signs, but my advice on signs is this. For most of the calculation, you'll need to keep track of degrees of cohomology classes rather than homology classes. The assumption $|A| + |B| = n = |C| + |D|$ will allow you to view those degrees also as degrees of homology classes if you prefer.

- (b) For an arbitrary map $f : M \rightarrow M$ and homology classes $A, B \in H_*(M)$ of complementary degree $|A| + |B| = n$, prove the formula

$$[\Gamma_f]_{M \times M} \cdot (A \times B) = (-1)^{|A|} f_* A \cdot B \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Hint: Our definition of the orientation on Γ_f means $[\Gamma_f]_{M \times M} = i_*[M]$. You may at some point find yourself needing to compute $i^*(\alpha \times \beta)$ for some cohomology classes $\alpha, \beta \in H^*(M)$. Try transforming the cross product into a cup product.

Recall that the Lefschetz number $L(f)$ is an alternating sum of the traces of the homomorphisms $f_* : H_k(M; \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow H_k(M; \mathbb{Q})$ for $k = 0, \dots, n$. Choose a basis $\{e_i\}$ of the rational vector space $H_*(M; \mathbb{Q}) = \bigoplus_{k=0}^n H_k(M; \mathbb{Q})$ consisting only of homogeneous elements. The intersection product on $H_*(M; \mathbb{Q})$ is equivalent to the intersection form on $H^*(M; \mathbb{Q})$ and is therefore nonsingular, so that the basis $\{e_i\}$ uniquely determines a *dual* basis $\{e'_i\}$ satisfying the condition

$$e_i \cdot e'_j = \delta_{ij} := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j, \end{cases}$$

⁹⁰As usual, there is also a mod 2 version of (55.6) that holds without any orientability assumptions, in which $L(f)$ is replaced by the $\mathbb{Z}_2$ Lefschetz number $L_{\mathbb{Z}_2}(f) \in \mathbb{Z}_2$.

with the convention that numerical intersection products $A \cdot B \in \mathbb{Z}$ are understood to be 0 if $|A| + |B| \neq n$. Note that by the Künneth formula, the set of all cross products of the form $e_i \times e'_j$ forms a basis of $H_*(M \times M; \mathbb{Q})$, and so does the set of products of the form $e'_i \times e_j$.

- (c) Prove the formula $[\Delta]_{M \times M} = \sum_k e_k \times e'_k$, where the sum ranges over all the chosen basis elements e_k .

Hint: By the nonsingularity of the intersection product, it suffices to check that both sides have the same intersection pairing with $e'_i \times e_j$ for every i, j .

- (d) Prove (55.6).

56. Higher homotopy groups

The last two lectures in this semester will have more the character of a survey, as I want to mention several important things but will not have time to prove many of them.

56.1. Definitions and basic properties. The higher homotopy groups $\pi_n(X)$ were mentioned informally last semester in Lecture 21. Let's give a more formal definition. It will help to have the following popular notation at our disposal: given spaces X and Y , we define the set

$$[X, Y] := \{\text{continuous maps } X \rightarrow Y\} / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation is homotopy. Similarly, for pairs of spaces (X, A) and (Y, B) ,

$$[(X, A), (Y, B)]$$

will denote the set of homotopy classes of maps of pairs. Here one can also specialize to the case where A and B are each a single point (homotopy classes of base-point preserving maps), or extend the definition in an obvious way to allow triples (X, A, B) where $B \subset A \subset X$. In this notation, the fundamental group of a pointed space (X, x_0) can be expressed in two equivalent ways as

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = [(S^1, *), (X, x_0)] = [(I, \partial I), (X, x_0)],$$

where $*$ denotes an arbitrary choice of base point in S^1 , and I is the unit interval $[0, 1]$. Since the latter is homeomorphic to the 1-dimensional unit disk $\mathbb{D}^1$, we could also equivalently write

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = [(\mathbb{D}^1, \partial \mathbb{D}^1), (X, x_0)].$$

These definitions are equivalent to the definition in terms of S^1 because $S^1 \cong \mathbb{D}^1 / \partial \mathbb{D}^1$. Note that there are also higher-dimensional analogues of this statement: S^n is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^n / \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ and $I^n / \partial I^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where I^n here denotes the n -fold product of I , i.e. an n -dimensional unit cube.

DEFINITION 56.1. For each integer $n \geq 0$, we define the set

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) := [(S^n, *), (X, x_0)].$$

When $n \geq 1$, this can be expressed equivalently as

$$\pi_n(X, x_0) = [(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n), (X, x_0)] = [(I^n, \partial I^n), (X, x_0)].$$

As yet this is only a set; we have not given it a group structure. The case $n = 0$ has occasionally been mentioned before: since $S^0 = \{1, -1\}$ and one of these two points must be chosen as a base point and thus mapped to x_0 , $\pi_0(X, x_0)$ is just the set of homotopy classes of maps of the other point to X , so it has a natural bijective correspondence with the set of path-components of X . This is indeed *only* a set, and not a group. The group structure of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ as we learned it in *Topologie I* is based on the notion of concatenation of paths, which makes sense due to the fact that if I_1 and I_2 denote two copies of the unit interval $I = [0, 1]$, then the space obtained by gluing them together end-to-end,

$$(I_1 \amalg I_2) / (I_1 \ni 1 \sim 0 \in I_2)$$

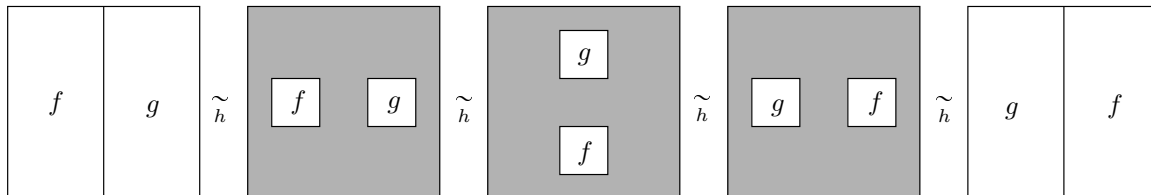


FIGURE 46. The homotopy in the proof of Proposition 56.3.

is homeomorphic to I . One can do the same thing with the cube I^n by singling out one of the coordinates as the one to be concatenated, e.g. if I_1^n and I_2^n denote two copies of I^n , we have

$$(I_1^n \amalg I_2^n) / (I_1^n \ni (1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \sim (0, t_2, \dots, t_n) \in I_2^n) \cong I^n,$$

where the equivalence relation now applies for all values of $(t_2, \dots, t_n) \in I^{n-1}$. This observation leads to the natural group structure on $\pi_n(X, x_0)$. We shall state it here only for $n \geq 2$, since the fundamental group is already familiar, and the standard notation for its group structure is slightly different for reasons that we'll get into in a moment.

DEFINITION 56.2. For $n \geq 2$ and two elements $[f], [g] \in \pi_n(X, x_0)$ represented by maps $f, g : (I^n, \partial I^n) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, we define $[f] + [g] \in \pi_n(X, x_0)$ to be the homotopy class of the map

$$(I^n, \partial I^n) \rightarrow (X, x_0) : (t_1, \dots, t_n) \mapsto \begin{cases} f(2t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } 0 \leq t_1 \leq 1/2, \\ g(2t_1 - 1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } 1/2 \leq t_1 \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

This definition seems a bit arbitrary at first, e.g. one might wonder why the coordinate t_1 is singled out for special treatment when any of the other coordinates would work just as well. The answer is that one could indeed formulate the definition in various alternative ways, but one would always obtain the same result *up to homotopy*. This is easy to see once you've absorbed the proof of the following related fact, which justifies our use of additive notation:

PROPOSITION 56.3. For all $n \geq 2$, the operation in Definition 56.2 makes $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ an abelian group.

PROOF. The proof that $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is a group can be carried out by ignoring $n - 1$ of the coordinates and repeating the same arguments with which we proved last semester that $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is a group. The identity element is exactly what you think it should be: it is represented by the constant map of S^n to x_0 .

The novel feature is that $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is abelian for $n \geq 2$; as we've seen, the fundamental group does not generally have this property. The proof is a homotopy depicted in Figure 46. The shaded region in each picture represents a subset of I^n on which the map takes a constant value, namely the base point x_0 . The leftmost picture shows the map representing $[f] + [g]$ as specified in Definition 56.2, with the cube I^n divided into two halves on which the map restricts to f or g . We then homotop this map by shrinking the two halves to smaller cubes and mapping everything outside the smaller cubes to the base point—this is possible because $f|_{\partial I^n}$ and $g|_{\partial I^n}$ are also constant maps to the base point. After shrinking both cubes far enough, there is enough room to move them past each other so that the roles of f and g are reversed. It should be clear why this trick does not work when $n = 1$. $\square$

With this group structure, $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ is called the **n th homotopy group** of X .

There are also **relative homotopy groups** $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ associated to any pair of spaces (X, A) with a base point $x_0 \in A$. One can define this as a mild generalization of $\pi_n(X, x_0) =$

$[(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n), (X, x_0)]$ by choosing a base point $* \in \partial\mathbb{D}^n$ and setting

$$\pi_n(X, A, x_0) := [(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n, *), (X, A, x_0)].$$

This reduces to $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ if $A = \{x_0\}$, but in all other cases, we need to be aware that it only makes sense for $n \geq 1$; there is no definition of $\pi_0(X, A, x_0)$ for $A \neq \{x_0\}$ since $n = 0$ is the one case where the relation $S^n \cong \mathbb{D}^n/\partial\mathbb{D}^n$ fails to hold. For $n = 1$, we can identify $\mathbb{D}^1$ with I and choose $0 \in I$ as the base point so that $\pi_1(X, A, x_0)$ becomes the set of all homotopy classes of paths in X from x_0 to arbitrary points in A . Since these paths do not need to be loops, there is no obvious notion of concatenation here, so that $\pi_1(X, A, x_0)$ does not have a natural group structure—it is only a set. A group structure can be defined for $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ if $n \geq 2$. To explain this, we reformulate the definition as a generalization of $\pi_n(X, x_0) = [(I^n, \partial I^n), (X, x_0)]$ by singling out a particular boundary face of I^n to play the role of $\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1} \cong I^{n-1}/\partial I^{n-1}$ and treating the rest of ∂I^n as if it were a base point: let

$$J_n := I^{n-1} \times \{0\} \subset \partial I^n$$

and redefine $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ as

$$\pi_n(X, A, x_0) := [I^n, \partial I^n, \overline{\partial I^n \setminus J_n}, (X, A, x_0)].$$

By this definition, the formula in Definition 56.2 still makes sense for $n \geq 2$ and defines a group structure on $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$, though Proposition 56.3 no longer works in the $n = 2$ case. You can see why not if you look again at Figure 46 and imagine that the maps on the bottom edge of each square are not required to be constant, but only to have their images in A : there is now no obvious way to define the map on the shaded areas so that it gives a well-defined homotopy. The argument can be rescued, however, if $n \geq 3$, as we can then assume the two small cubes are “rooted” to the bottom face J_n , but there are still enough dimensions to move them past each other. To summarize:

PROPOSITION 56.4. *For general pairs of spaces (X, A) with a base point $x_0 \in A$, $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ has a natural group structure for every $n \geq 2$, and it is abelian for $n \geq 3$. $\square$*

Like the fundamental group, the higher homotopy groups depend on a choice of base point, but there is an isomorphism

$$\Phi_\gamma : \pi_n(X, y) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(X, x)$$

determined by any path γ from x to y in X . The definition is best explained with a picture: Figure 47 shows a recipe for transforming any map $f : (I^n, \partial I^n) \rightarrow (X, y)$ into a map $(I^n, \partial I^n) \rightarrow (X, x)$ by shrinking the domain of the original map f to a smaller cube within I^n , and then filling the region between this and ∂I^n with copies of the path $x \xrightarrow{\gamma} y$. The picture shows the $n = 2$ case, but if you draw the analogous picture for $n = 1$, you will find that it reproduces exactly the isomorphism $\Phi_\gamma : \pi_1(X, y) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ described in last semester’s Lecture 9. We leave it as an exercise to verify that this really is a well-defined isomorphism, and that it only depends on the (end-point preserving) homotopy class of the path γ . With this in mind, we will sometimes abbreviate

$$\pi_n(X) := \pi_n(X, x_0)$$

when the space X is path-connected and the base point does not play a major role.

There is a fairly obvious way to view π_n as a functor from the category $\mathbf{Top}_*$ of pointed spaces to the category $\mathbf{Grp}$ of groups (or $\mathbf{Ab}$ for $n \geq 2$). Namely, every base-point preserving map $f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ induces a homomorphism

$$f_* : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, y_0) : [\varphi] \mapsto [f \circ \varphi].$$

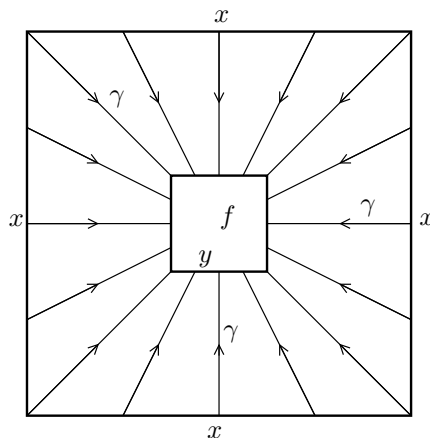


FIGURE 47. The isomorphism $\pi_n(X, y) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, x)$ determined by a path $x \rightsquigarrow y$.

It is similarly easy to see that this homomorphism only depends on the (base-point preserving!) homotopy class of f . The following property is less obvious, but important to know:

THEOREM 56.5. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, then $f_* : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, f(x_0))$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$ and $x_0 \in X$.*

Since we've been talking about homology for the rest of this semester, you may have forgotten why Theorem 56.5 is already a nontrivial statement in the $n = 1$ case, which took some effort to prove in *Topologie I*. The annoying detail is the base point: if $g : Y \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy inverse for f , then it does not automatically induce an inverse for f_* since g need not take $f(x_0)$ back to the base point x_0 ; in general, g_* sends $\pi_n(Y, f(x_0))$ to a different group, $\pi_n(X, g(f(x_0)))$. But this headache can be dealt with in the same way as in the $n = 1$ case, using the isomorphism $\Phi_\gamma : \pi_n(X, g(f(x_0))) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, x_0)$ induced by a path $x_0 \rightsquigarrow g(f(x_0))$, which necessarily exists due to the homotopy inverse condition. The proof is then a direct adaptation of what we already did for the $n = 1$ case in Lecture 9, so we'll leave it as an exercise. The reason this detail was easier in homology theory is that homology does not care about base points, so the homotopy invariance of induced maps $f_* : H_*(X) \rightarrow H_*(Y)$ immediately implied that $H_*(X)$ depends only on the homotopy type of X .

56.2. Sample computations. Let's look at some examples now. It should be said that, in general, higher homotopy groups are not easy to compute—there is nothing quite analogous to cellular homology to produce a practical algorithm for computing $\pi_n(X)$. But to start with, there are some easy cases where theorems that we've proved for other purposes imply computations of $\pi_n(X)$.

EXAMPLE 56.6. For every $k \geq 2$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\pi_k(\mathbb{T}^n) = 0$. This is a consequence of the fact that $\mathbb{T}^n$ has a contractible universal cover, namely $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$. Since S^k is simply connected for $k \geq 2$, every map $f : S^k \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ has a lift $\tilde{f} : S^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, which is homotopic to a constant map since $\mathbb{R}^n$ is contractible. Composing this homotopy with $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$ then gives a homotopy of f to a constant map $S^k \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^n$. (Strictly speaking, one should pay a bit more attention to the base point in this discussion, but that is easy to do.) Note that the circle $S^1 = \mathbb{T}^1$ is a special case of this computation, so we now know *all* the homotopy groups of S^1 .

EXAMPLE 56.7. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k < n$, $\pi_k(S^n) = 0$. One can see this by proving that every map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ with $n > k$ is homotopic to a map $g : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ that is not surjective: then if $p \in S^n \setminus g(S^k)$, it follows that the image of g is in $S^n \setminus \{p\} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$, and is then homotopic to a constant since $\mathbb{R}^n$ is contractible. Here are two possible ways to prove the claim that f is homotopic to something non-surjective: (1) The simplicial approximation theorem (see §32.5) implies that for suitable choices of triangulations of S^k and S^n , f is homotopic to a simplicial map $g : S^k \rightarrow S^n$, which is therefore also a cellular map and thus has image in the k -skeleton of S^n . When $n > k$, the k -skeleton cannot cover all of S^n , thus g is not surjective. (2) There is a very easy proof using basic results of differential topology as in [Mil97]: $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ is homotopic to a smooth map $g : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ that is C^0 -close to f , and Sard's theorem then implies that almost every point $y \in S^n$ is a regular value of g . This means the derivative $T_x g : T_x S^k \rightarrow T_y S^n$ is surjective for every $x \in g^{-1}(y)$, but since that condition can never be satisfied for $n > k$, it follows that $g^{-1}(y) = \emptyset$.

EXAMPLE 56.8. Viewing elements of $\pi_n(S^n)$ as represented by maps $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$, the mapping degree determines an isomorphism

$$\pi_n(S^n) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z} : [f] \mapsto \deg(f)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This is a nontrivial result that does not follow directly from anything we've covered in this course. The case $n = 2$ is implied by a long exact sequence appearing in Example 56.17 below, which gives an isomorphism

$$\pi_2(S^2) \cong \pi_1(S^1).$$

There are various approaches for proving the cases $n > 2$. One is to deduce it from the *Freudenthal suspension theorem*, which states that the natural map

$$\pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\Sigma} \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X)$$

sending the homotopy class of a map $f : S^n \rightarrow X$ to the homotopy class of its suspension $\Sigma f : \Sigma S^n \cong S^{n+1} \rightarrow \Sigma X$ is an isomorphism under certain conditions; in particular, the theorem applies to $X := S^n$ for $n \geq 2$, giving isomorphisms

$$\pi_n(S^n) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Sigma} \pi_{n+1}(S^{n+1}) \quad \text{for each } n \geq 2.$$

A minor technical point: since homotopy groups depend on base points, the Freudenthal theorem requires a slight modification to our usual suspension functor $\Sigma : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$, called the *reduced suspension*, which defines ΣX slightly differently and gives rise to a functor $\Sigma : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ on the category of pointed spaces. We will prove the Freudenthal suspension theorem in next semester's *Topologie III* course, as an application of the homotopy excision theorem. There is an alternative approach to proving $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ via differential topology as in [Mil97], using the so-called *Pontryagin-Thom* construction, which elegantly defines a bijection for any closed, connected and oriented k -manifold M between the set of homotopy classes $[M, S^n]$ and the set of “framed bordism classes” in M . The latter have a natural correspondence with the integers when $k = n$, so in particular, when $\dim M = n$ this proves that the map $\deg : [M, S^n] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a bijection. One must transform arbitrary homotopies into base-point preserving homotopies before this becomes a statement about $\pi_n(S^n)$, but the gap is not hard to fill. The Pontryagin-Thom construction can also be used to give an alternative proof of the suspension theorem, see e.g. [Fre12, Lecture 4].

REMARK 56.9. Another approach sometimes cited for the computation $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is to deduce it from the Hurewicz theorem, which we will outline in the next lecture: for S^n , it gives a natural isomorphism $\pi_n(S^n) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for each $n \geq 2$, generalizing the natural isomorphism between $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and the abelianization of the fundamental group for a path-connected space X . There is a logical drawback to explaining $\pi_n(S^n)$ in this way: the simplest proofs of the Hurewicz

theorem are based on explicit computations in cell complexes that require the result $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ as a prerequisite.

In Example 56.17 at the end of this lecture, we will discuss the interesting case of $\pi_3(S^2)$, which is fairly easy to compute, but the answer may contradict the intuition you've developed from homology, i.e. it is not trivial. Unlike $H_k(M)$, there is no reason in general why $\pi_k(M)$ should vanish when $k > \dim M$.

EXAMPLE 56.10. Just to give you a taste of what is studied in modern homotopy theory: the Freudenthal suspension theorem gives natural isomorphisms

$$\pi_{n+k}(S^n) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Sigma} \pi_{n+k+1}(S^{n+1})$$

for all $k \geq 0$ as soon as n is sufficiently large. The resulting groups that depend only on k are known as the *stable homotopy groups* of the spheres, and can be defined formally as direct limits

$$\pi_k^s := \varinjlim \{\pi_{n+k}(S^n)\}_{n=0}^\infty \cong \pi_{n+k}(S^n) \text{ for } n \gg 0.$$

They have been computed in many cases, but they are not known in general for $k > 64$. The computation of higher homotopy groups of spheres is considered one of the most important open problems in algebraic topology.

56.3. A taste of obstruction theory. The following definition makes the notions of path-connectedness ($n = 0$) and simple connectedness ($n = 1$) into the first two items on an infinite hierarchy of conditions.

DEFINITION 56.11. For integers $n \geq 0$, a space X is called **n -connected** if $\pi_k(X) = 0$ for all $k \leq n$.

We can now give an example of the kind of problem for which computing higher homotopy groups is useful.

THEOREM 56.12. *If X is a CW-complex of dimension at most n and Y is an n -connected space, then all maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic.*

PROOF. We need to show that any two given maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic. The method of the proof is known as “induction over the skeleta”.⁹¹ As preparation, one needs to think through the following exercise: if $f|_{X^k} : X^k \rightarrow Y$ is homotopic to $g|_{X^k} : X^k \rightarrow Y$ for some $k \geq 0$, then f is also homotopic on X to a map $f' : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f'|_{X^k} = g|_{X^k}$. This can be done by using cutoff functions to extend the homotopy from the k -skeleton to all higher-dimensional cells.

Now to start the induction, note that since Y is path-connected, $f|_{X^0}$ and $g|_{X^0}$ are clearly homotopic, as one can just pick a path from $f(x)$ to $g(x)$ for every $x \in X^0$. Now for a given $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, we need to show that if f has already been adjusted by a homotopy so that $f|_{X^{k-1}} = g|_{X^{k-1}}$, then $f|_{X^k}$ is also homotopic to $g|_{X^k}$. It suffices to show that the restrictions of f and g to each k -cell $e_\alpha^k \subset X$ are homotopic via a homotopy that is fixed at the boundary of the cell, i.e. on the $(k-1)$ -skeleton. Let $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}) \rightarrow (X^k, X^{k-1})$ denote the characteristic map of e_α^k . Then $f \circ \Phi_\alpha$ and $g \circ \Phi_\alpha$ are two maps $\mathbb{D}^k \rightarrow Y$ that match at the boundary S^{k-1} , hence we can glue their domains together to form a sphere $S^k \cong \mathbb{D}_+^k \cup_{S^{k-1}} \mathbb{D}_-^k$ and define on this sphere a continuous map

$$F : S^k \rightarrow Y : x \mapsto \begin{cases} f \circ \Phi_\alpha(x) & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{D}_+^k, \\ g \circ \Phi_\alpha(x) & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{D}_-^k. \end{cases}$$

⁹¹It seems that the plural of the English word “skeleton” is different in topology than it is in the rest of the English language. Dictionaries list both “skeletons” and “skeleta,” but I have never heard the latter outside of mathematical contexts, e.g. one would not say that a politician with potentially damaging secrets has “skeleta in the closet”.

Since $\pi_k(Y) = 0$, the map $F : S^k \rightarrow Y$ is homotopic to a constant, which is equivalent to saying that it extends to a map $\mathbb{D}^{k+1} \rightarrow Y$, and this extension can be used to define a homotopy between $f \circ \Phi_\alpha$ and $g \circ \Phi_\alpha$ that is fixed along the boundary. This completes the induction. $\square$

You may notice that Theorem 56.12 has an obvious converse: if Y is not n -connected, then there clearly also exists a CW-complex X of dimension at most n (in particular a sphere) such that not all maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic. This example is the beginning of the subject known as *obstruction theory*, which finds necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence and/or uniqueness (up to homotopy) of various geometric structures, particularly on manifolds. An example of such a geometric structure is an orientation, whose existence on a manifold M is equivalent to the vanishing of a particular element of $H^1(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, called the first Stiefel-Whitney class (see Exercise 51.6). The standard procedure is to express the geometric structure of interest in terms of sections of some fiber bundle associated to the manifold, so that the important question to answer is whether a section of this bundle exists and under what conditions two such sections must be homotopic. By induction over the skeleta, these questions are typically equivalent to the vanishing of certain higher homotopy groups. A detailed exposition of this subject can be found e.g. [Ste51], and we will have more to say about it in next semester's *Topologie III* course.

56.4. Long exact sequences. We have not yet talked much about the relative homotopy groups, and we won't, but I should mention that they appear in a fairly obvious exact sequence. Given a pair of spaces (X, A) and a base point $x_0 \in A$, denote by

$$(A, x_0) \xhookrightarrow{i} (X, x_0) \quad \text{and} \quad (X, x_0, x_0) \xhookrightarrow{j} (X, A, x_0)$$

the obvious inclusions. For each $n \geq 1$ there is also a natural homomorphism

$$\partial_* : \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A, x_0) : [f] \mapsto [f|_{S^{n-1}}],$$

where we regard elements of $\pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ as represented by maps $f : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}, *) \rightarrow (X, A, x_0)$. You can easily check by translating this into the corresponding formula with $f : (I^n, \partial I^n, \partial I^n \setminus J_n) \rightarrow (X, A, x_0)$ that it really is a homomorphism.

THEOREM 56.13. *For $x_0 \in A \subset X$, the sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(X, A, x_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_n(A, x_0) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_n(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_{n-1}(A, x_0) \rightarrow \dots \\ \dots \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_1(X, A, x_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_0(A, x_0) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_0(X, x_0). \end{aligned}$$

is exact.

Some comments on interpretation are required since the last three terms in this sequence are not groups, but only sets. They do have a bit more structure than this, as the constant map to x_0 defines in each case a distinguished element: if one interprets the kernel of each map in this part of the sequence to mean the preimage of the distinguished element, then it makes sense to say that the sequence is exact. The proof of exactness is more straightforward than for most exact sequences that arise in homology theory: instead of constructing chain complexes with a short exact sequence and chasing diagrams, one can just check directly that the image of each map equals the kernel of the next. For details, see [Hat02, Theorem 4.3].

A particular application of this exact sequence leads to one of the most popular tools for computing homotopy groups, called the *homotopy exact sequence of a fibration*. I will express the theorem in the form that arises most often in geometric applications, though it is somewhat less general than what is actually true. In the previous two lectures we saw some examples of vector bundles, which can be imagined as families of vector spaces parametrized by an underlying space,

carrying a topology determined by the notion of *local trivialization*. If one replaces vector spaces with arbitrary topological spaces in this picture, one arrives at the following notion.

DEFINITION 56.14. A **fiber bundle** consists of the following data: topological spaces E , B and F known as the **total space**, **base** and **standard fiber** respectively, and a continuous map $p : E \rightarrow B$, such that B can be covered by open sets $\mathcal{U}$ that admit **local trivializations**, meaning homeomorphisms

$$\Phi : p^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times F$$

that send $p^{-1}(b)$ homeomorphically to $\{b\} \times F$ for each $b \in \mathcal{U}$. The **fibers** of the bundle are the subspaces $E_b := p^{-1}(b) \cong F$ for $b \in B$.

Fiber bundles are often abbreviated with the notation

$$F \hookrightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} B,$$

where the inclusion $F \hookrightarrow E$ is not canonical but is defined by choosing any $b \in B$ and a local trivialization near b to identify $p^{-1}(b)$ with F . Note that while every fiber of a fiber bundle is homeomorphic to the standard fiber, there is typically no *canonical* homeomorphism, since there may be many choices of local trivializations covering each $b \in B$. If we choose base points $b_0 \in B$ and $x_0 \in p^{-1}(b_0) \subset E$, then it is natural to identify F with $p^{-1}(b_0)$ so that we obtain base-point preserving maps

$$(F, x_0) \hookrightarrow (E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p} (B, b_0).$$

A **trivial fiber bundle** is one that admits a single trivialization covering all of B , so that E can be identified globally with $B \times F$ and the map $p : E \rightarrow B$ becomes the obvious projection map $B \times F \rightarrow B$.

There's at least one general class of fiber bundles that you've definitely seen plenty of before: a covering map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is simply a fiber bundle whose standard fiber F is a discrete space, and this is for instance why our terminology for the "orientation bundle" of a manifold makes sense. A fiber bundle of this type admits a local trivialization over a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ if and only if that subset is evenly covered, and it is a trivial fiber bundle if and only if $p : E \rightarrow B$ can be identified with the trivial covering map, i.e. the one for which E is a disjoint union of copies of B and $p : E \rightarrow B$ is the identity map on each copy.

Here is a popular example of a fiber bundle that is not a covering map and is also not trivial—we know it is not trivial since we know several ways of proving that S^3 is not homeomorphic to $S^2 \times S^1$.

EXAMPLE 56.15. The **Hopf fibration** $p : S^3 \rightarrow S^2$ is defined by identifying S^3 with the unit sphere in $\mathbb{C}^2$ and S^2 with the extended complex plane $\mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$, and then writing

$$p : S^3 \rightarrow S^2 : (z_1, z_2) \mapsto \frac{z_1}{z_2}.$$

Equivalently, one can identify S^2 with $\mathbb{CP}^1$ so that this becomes the map

$$p : S^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1 : (z_1, z_2) \mapsto [z_1 : z_2].$$

The fiber containing any given point $(z_1, z_2) \in S^3$ is the set

$$\{(e^{i\theta} z_1, e^{i\theta} z_2) \in S^3 \mid \theta \in \mathbb{R}\} \cong S^1.$$

We leave it as an exercise to check that local trivializations exist near every point.

THEOREM 56.16. *Given a fiber bundle $(F, x_0) \hookrightarrow (E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p} (B, b_0)$ with base points, the map $p : (E, F, x_0) \rightarrow (B, b_0, b_0)$ induces an isomorphism*

$$p_* : \pi_n(E, F, x_0) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(B, b_0)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Plugging this into the exact sequence of (E, F, x_0) thus produces an exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \pi_{n+1}(B, b_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_n(F, x_0) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_n(E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_n(B, b_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_{n-1}(F, x_0) \longrightarrow \dots \\ \dots \longrightarrow \pi_1(E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_1(B, b_0) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_0(F, x_0) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_0(E, x_0), \end{aligned}$$

where the maps $\partial_* : \pi_n(B, b_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(F, x_0)$ send each $[f]$ to $[\tilde{f}|_{S^{n-1}}]$ for $f : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (B, b_0)$ and $\tilde{f} : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}, *) \rightarrow (E, F, x_0)$ solving the lifting problem

$$(56.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & E \\ & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \downarrow p \\ \mathbb{D}^n & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

I will not say anything about the proof of this theorem except that the most important topological property of fiber bundles is the solvability of the lifting problem indicated in (56.1). The proper formulation of this condition is something called the *homotopy lifting property*, and Theorem 56.16 is true in fact for any map $p : E \rightarrow B$ that has the homotopy lifting property for maps of disks into B . Maps with this property are called **Serre fibrations**, and they are somewhat more general than fiber bundles. We saw in *Topologie I* that the lifting problem (56.1) is solvable in the special case of covering maps since $\mathbb{D}^n$ is simply connected; in fact, there exists a *unique* lift that sends a given base point on $\partial\mathbb{D}^n$ to the base point $x_0 \in E$. For more general Serre fibrations, the lift is not always unique, but it is unique up to homotopy, which is why the map $\partial_* : \pi_n(B, b_0) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(E, x_0)$ described in the theorem is well defined.

EXAMPLE 56.17. Returning to the Hopf fibration of Example 56.15, the homotopy exact sequence has segments of the form

$$0 = \pi_2(S^3) \longrightarrow \pi_2(S^2) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_1(S^1) \longrightarrow \pi_1(S^3) = 0,$$

and

$$0 = \pi_3(S^1) \longrightarrow \pi_3(S^3) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_3(S^2) \longrightarrow \pi_2(S^1) = 0.$$

The first yields the isomorphism $\pi_2(S^2) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ mentioned in Example 56.8, while the second proves that the map $p_* : \pi_3(S^3) \rightarrow \pi_3(S^2)$ is an isomorphism. Since $\pi_3(S^3) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is generated by the identity map $S^3 \rightarrow S^3$, this implies that $\pi_3(S^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, with the Hopf fibration itself representing a generator.

EXAMPLE 56.18. In obstruction theory, one often needs to know the homotopy groups of certain topological groups that arise as “structure groups” of fiber bundles. For example, the structure group of any oriented vector bundle with n -dimensional fibers is

$$\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R}) := \{\mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \mid \det \mathbf{A} > 0\}.$$

Here is a trick for computing $\pi_1(\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R}))$. Polar decomposition provides a deformation retraction of $\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$ to $\mathrm{SO}(n)$, the special orthogonal group, thus it suffices to compute $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(n))$. For $n = 1$ and $n = 2$, this is easy because $\mathrm{SO}(1) \cong \{*\}$ and $\mathrm{SO}(2) \cong S^1$. For $n = 3$, it is not hard to find a homeomorphism of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ to $\mathbb{RP}^3$: this arises from the fact that every element of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ defines a rotation about some axis in $\mathbb{R}^3$, so there is a natural map

$$\mathbb{D}^3 \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)$$

that sends the origin to $\mathbf{1}$ and sends the point $r\mathbf{x}$ for $0 < r \leq 1$ and $\mathbf{x} \in S^2$ to the rotation by angle πr about the axis spanned by $\mathbf{x}$. By this definition, a rotation of angle πr about $\mathbf{x}$ is the same

as a rotation of angle $-\pi r$ about $-\mathbf{x}$, so the map is injective on the interior of $\mathbb{D}^3$ but it sends antipodal points on $\partial\mathbb{D}^3$ to the same point, thus descending to a homeomorphism

$$\mathbb{D}^3/\sim \cong \mathrm{SO}(3)$$

where $\mathbf{x} \sim -\mathbf{x}$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\mathbb{D}^3$. This quotient space is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{RP}^3$, thus $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(3)) \cong \pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^3) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

The remaining cases of $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(n))$ can now be deduced from the case $n = 3$ via a homotopy exact sequence. The fiber bundle we need for this purpose has the form

$$\mathrm{SO}(n) \xrightarrow{i} \mathrm{SO}(n+1) \xrightarrow{p} S^n,$$

where

$$i(\mathbf{A}) := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad p(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}e_1,$$

for $e_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0) \in S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. The homotopy exact sequence then has segments of the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow \pi_{k+1}(S^n) \longrightarrow \pi_k(\mathrm{SO}(n)) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_k(\mathrm{SO}(n+1)) \longrightarrow \pi_k(S^n) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

and taking $k = 1$, both $\pi_2(S^n)$ and $\pi_1(S^n)$ vanish if $n \geq 3$. This produces an infinite sequence of isomorphisms

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(3)) \cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(4)) \cong \pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(5)) \cong \dots,$$

proving that $\pi_1(\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ for all $n \geq 3$.

57. The theorems of Hurewicz and Whitehead

57.1. Simply connected 3-manifolds. I have more to say about higher homotopy groups, but I want to focus the discussion around a particular application:

THEOREM 57.1. *Every closed simply connected 3-manifold is homotopy equivalent to S^3 .*

You may have heard of the Poincaré conjecture, which was open for most of the 20th century and proved by Perelman early in the 21st: it strengthens the theorem above to the statement that every closed simply connected 3-manifold is *homeomorphic* to S^3 . Actually, Poincaré himself was originally more ambitious and suggested that every closed 3-manifold M with $H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ should be homeomorphic to S^3 , but he found a counterexample to this conjecture a few years later, now known as the *Poincaré homology sphere*. It was not simply connected and therefore, obviously, not homotopy equivalent to S^3 . Theorem 57.1 thus made Poincaré's strengthened conjecture seem plausible, but in general, there is a very wide gap between homotopy equivalence and homeomorphism, i.e. even in dimension three, there are many known examples of pairs of closed manifolds that are homotopy equivalent but not homeomorphic. The proper statement of Poincaré's conjecture is thus that there is something special about spheres which makes homotopy equivalence imply homeomorphism, and in fact, that is also the right way to state the *higher-dimensional* Poincaré conjecture, proved by Smale around 1960 for dimensions $n \geq 5$ and Freedman around 1980 for dimension 4. From dimension four upwards, it is easy to see that simple connectedness would not be enough, e.g. $\mathbb{CP}^2$ is an easy example of a closed simply connected 4-manifold that is not a sphere, and there are many more. But we can easily distinguish $\mathbb{CP}^2$ from S^4 via its homology, of course. Part of the interest in Theorem 57.1, for our purposes, is the way that the condition $\pi_1(M) = 0$ in dimension three produces just enough constraints on $H_*(M)$ to make all the familiar obstructions to a homotopy equivalence between M and S^3 vanish, starting with the homology and cohomology groups, and then continuing with the higher homotopy groups. Several of the important theorems we've proved in this semester have some role to play in the proof, thus it will serve both as a review of the course and as motivation to introduce two powerful new theorems involving the higher homotopy groups.

57.2. From simply connected to homology sphere. This part of the argument will be a review of techniques developed in the past semester. Our first main objective is to prove the following lemma:

LEMMA 57.2. *If M is a closed and connected 3-manifold with $\pi_1(M) = 0$, then $H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$.*

Any manifold for which this conclusion holds is called a **homology 3-sphere**. We shall prove this as an amalgamation of several smaller lemmas. Assume henceforth that M is a closed and simply connected 3-manifold.

LEMMA 57.3. *$H_n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is finitely generated for all n and vanishes for $n > 3$.*

PROOF. The homology of every compact n -manifold is finitely generated since all such manifolds are Euclidean neighborhood retracts; see Theorem 51.1. The groups $H_k(M; \mathbb{Z})$ for $k > n$ vanish by Corollary 51.22. Alternatively, one could in the present case appeal to the (much harder) fact that all topological 3-manifolds are triangulable (see e.g. [Moi77]), thus M is a 3-dimensional finite cell complex and the lemma therefore follows from cellular homology. $\square$

LEMMA 57.4. *$H_1(M; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$.*

PROOF. This is immediate from the isomorphism of $H_1(M; \mathbb{Z})$ with the abelianization of $\pi_1(M)$. $\square$

LEMMA 57.5. *M is orientable.*

PROOF. If it is not orientable, then its orientation double cover $\pi : \widetilde{M} \rightarrow M$ is a connected 3-manifold. But the Galois correspondence identifies the set of connected covers of M up to isomorphism with the set of all subgroups of $\pi_1(M)$, and the latter has only one element, hence the only connected cover of M is the identity map (which is the universal cover). $\square$

LEMMA 57.6. *For every choice of coefficient group G , $H_3(M; G) \cong G$.*

PROOF. This is true in the top dimension for every closed, connected and oriented manifold, by Corollary 51.22. $\square$

LEMMA 57.7. *$H_2(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is torsion free.*

PROOF. This is true for $H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ whenever M is a closed oriented n -manifold; see Exercise 51.5(a). Since every closed manifold is the disjoint union of its finitely many connected components, it suffices to consider the case where M is connected. The idea is then to apply the universal coefficient theorem for homology with coefficients $\mathbb{Z}_p$ for any prime number p : it gives an isomorphism

$$H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_p) \cong (H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_p) \oplus \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_p),$$

where we are working in the setting of $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules and therefore interpret the tensor product $\otimes$ and the Tor functor in that context. Since $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_p) \cong \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ by Corollary 51.22, this isomorphism implies the vanishing of $\text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_p)$. Since $H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is finitely generated, we can then use the classification of finitely-generated abelian groups to write

$$H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong F \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^N \mathbb{Z}_{k_i} \right)$$

for some free abelian group F and integers $N \geq 0$, $k_1, \dots, k_N \geq 2$, where $N > 0$ if and only if $H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ has torsion. According to the properties of Tor proved in Lecture 47, we then have

$$0 = \text{Tor}(H_{n-1}(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_p) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^N \text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}_{k_i}, \mathbb{Z}_p),$$

implying $\text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}_{k_i}, \mathbb{Z}_p) = 0$ for every $i = 1, \dots, N$ and every prime p . But if p is chosen to be any prime factor of k_1 , then Theorem 47.1(6) also gives

$$\text{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}_{k_1}, \mathbb{Z}_p) = \ker \left(\mathbb{Z}_p \xrightarrow{\cdot k_1} \mathbb{Z}_p \right) = \ker \left(\mathbb{Z}_p \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}_p \right) = \mathbb{Z}_p \neq 0,$$

which is a contradiction unless $N = 0$. $\square$

The last step is to apply Poincaré duality and the universal coefficient theorem for cohomology: the former gives

$$H^2(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_1(M; \mathbb{Z}) = 0,$$

and the latter then implies

$$0 = H^2(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \text{Hom}(H_2(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \text{Ext}(H_1(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}),$$

hence $\text{Hom}(H_2(M; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. Since $H_2(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is torsion free, it follows that $H_2(M; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. We already have isomorphisms $H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ for $n \geq 3$ by Lemmas 57.3 and 57.6, and $H_0(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_0(S^3; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is immediate since M is connected, so this completes the proof of Lemma 57.2.

57.3. From homology sphere to homotopy sphere. The step from $\pi_1(M) = 0$ and $H_*(M) \cong H_*(S^3)$ to $M \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} S^3$ requires two theorems about homotopy groups that we will need to quote without proof, though the proofs (explained e.g. in [Hat02, Chapter 4]) do not require substantial machinery beyond what we have already discussed in this course. Both will appear as important topics in next semester's *Topologie 3* course.

DEFINITION 57.8. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a **weak homotopy equivalence** if for all choices of base points $x_0 \in X$ and $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$, $f_* : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, y_0)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$.

Theorem 56.5 in the previous lecture implies that every homotopy equivalence is also a weak homotopy equivalence. We also know of course that if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, then the induced maps on homology and cohomology groups are isomorphisms, but we are not giving any name to the latter condition because it is not sufficiently useful on its own. By contrast, the notion of a weak homotopy equivalence justifies itself through the following result:

THEOREM 57.9 (Whitehead's theorem). *If X and Y are both homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, then every weak homotopy equivalence $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence.*

While I do not intend to discuss the proof of this theorem here, you will hopefully gain some intuition about it from Theorem 56.12 in the previous lecture. In particular, it should be clear why having cell decompositions of X and Y might be useful in the proof, as e.g. the homotopies needed for showing that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence could be constructed by induction over the skeleta, one cell at a time.

With Whitehead's theorem added to our toolbox, it would suffice to find a map $f : M \rightarrow S^3$ that induces isomorphisms $\pi_n(M) \rightarrow \pi_n(S^3)$ for all n . This project seems hopeless if we don't yet even know how to compute $\pi_n(M)$ for $n \geq 2$, so we first need another tool for transforming our computation of $H_*(M)$ into information about the higher homotopy groups. The obvious tool to consider is the so-called **Hurewicz map**,

$$h : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[S^n],$$

defined in terms of the fundamental class $[S^n] \in H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ and maps $f : (S^n, *) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ representing elements of $\pi_n(X, x_0)$. We've seen that for $n = 1$, this map cannot generally be an isomorphism since $H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is always abelian while $\pi_1(X)$ is not, but the next best thing is

true: when $\pi_0(X) = 0$, $h : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ descends to an isomorphism on the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$. For $n \geq 2$, both groups are abelian, so there is some hope of $h : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ actually being an isomorphism, though we've also seen cases where this is not true: e.g. $\pi_2(\mathbb{T}^2) = 0$ but $H_2(\mathbb{T}^2; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. The Hurewicz theorem gives sufficient conditions for h to be an isomorphism, or to put it another way, for every n -dimensional homology class in X to correspond to a unique *spherical* homology class.

THEOREM 57.10 (Hurewicz's theorem). *Suppose (X, x_0) is a pointed space that is $(n-1)$ -connected for some $n \geq 2$. Then $\tilde{H}_k(X) = 0$ for all $k \leq n-1$, and the Hurewicz map $h : \pi_n(X, x_0) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism.*

A rough idea for the proof of this theorem can be summarized as follows. By a construction based on induction over skeleta, one can first replace the space X with a CW-complex that is weakly homotopy equivalent to it, in which case its homotopy groups and singular homology groups are the same.⁹² Moreover, the assumption that X is $(n-1)$ -connected enables one to construct the CW-complex so that its $(n-1)$ -skeleton contains only a single point, i.e. one starts with a 0-cell and then attaches n -cells and cells of higher dimension, skipping over dimensions $1, \dots, n-1$ entirely. For a CW-complex of this form, cellular homology tells us that $\tilde{H}_k(X) = 0$ for $k \leq n-1$, and it is also not difficult to compute both $H_n(X)$ and $\pi_n(X)$ and show that they match. The main ingredients needed for computing $\pi_n(X)$ in this situation are the homotopy exact sequence for pairs of spaces and the computation $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, mentioned in Example 56.8.

Before we get back to discussing 3-manifolds homotopy equivalent to S^3 , here are a couple of applications of the Hurewicz isomorphism.

COROLLARY 57.11. *If X is path-connected and has universal cover $\tilde{X} \rightarrow X$, then $\pi_2(X) \cong H_2(\tilde{X}; \mathbb{Z})$.*

PROOF. Since S^2 is simply connected, any map $S^2 \rightarrow X$ or homotopy of such maps can be lifted to $\tilde{X}$, implying $\pi_2(X) \cong \pi_2(\tilde{X})$. Since $\tilde{X}$ is simply connected, the Hurewicz theorem then identifies $\pi_2(\tilde{X})$ with $H_2(\tilde{X}; \mathbb{Z})$. $\square$

COROLLARY 57.12. *If X is a simply connected CW-complex with $\tilde{H}_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, then X is contractible.*

PROOF. The Hurewicz theorem gives an isomorphism $\pi_2(X) \cong H_2(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, proving X is 2-connected, so one can then apply the theorem again and conclude $\pi_3(X) \cong H_3(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, and then again... by induction, we deduce $\pi_n(X) = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$. It follows that the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ induces isomorphisms $\epsilon_* : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(\{*\}) = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$ and is therefore a weak homotopy equivalence. Whitehead's theorem then implies that it is also a homotopy equivalence. $\square$

You can now imagine at least part of a strategy to complete the proof of Theorem 57.1: instead of the map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \{*\}$ in the proof of Corollary 57.12, one could take any map $f : M \rightarrow S^3$ of degree 1 and try to prove that $f_* : \pi_n(M) \rightarrow \pi_n(S^3)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$. This idea can be carried out for all $n \leq 3$, as Hurewicz now transforms the computation $H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ into $\pi_1(M) = \pi_2(M) = 0$ and $\pi_3(M) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. For $n \geq 4$, however, we get stuck, among other reasons

⁹²One of these statements is less obvious than the other: it is practically a tautology that homotopy groups are invariants of weak homotopy type, but for singular homology, this invariance is a nontrivial theorem that depends on the choice to use *singular* rather than any other axiomatic homology theory. On the other hand, most important applications of the Hurewicz theorem concern spaces X that are already known to be homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, in which case Whitehead's theorem eliminates the distinction between strong and weak homotopy equivalences, thus making the invariance of singular homology more obvious.

because it is not so clear what $\pi_n(S^3)$ is, and the Hurewicz theorem provides no information about this above the lowest dimension where $\tilde{H}_n(S^3; \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$.

To make further progress, we need a relative version of the Hurewicz theorem. Given $x_0 \in A \subset X$, there is a relative Hurewicz map defined for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ by

$$h : \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[\mathbb{D}^n],$$

where $[f] \in \pi_n(X, A, x_0)$ is represented by a map $f : (\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n, *) \rightarrow (X, A, x_0)$ and $[\mathbb{D}^n] \in H_n(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ denotes the relative fundamental class of $\mathbb{D}^n$. One can check that this map is a homomorphism for each $n \geq 2$. Let us say that the pair (X, A) is **n -connected** if $\pi_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k \leq n$. Since $\pi_2(X, A, x_0)$ is not always abelian, we cannot generally expect $h : \pi_2(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow H_2(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ to be an isomorphism, even if (X, A) is 1-connected. Observe however that if A is additionally assumed to be simply connected, then the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for (X, A) has a segment of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow \pi_2(X) \rightarrow \pi_2(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_1(A) = 0,$$

implying that $\pi_2(X, A)$ is the surjective image of a homomorphism defined on the *abelian* group $\pi_2(X)$, and is therefore also abelian. This serves as a sanity check for the following generalization of Theorem 57.10:

THEOREM 57.13. *Suppose (X, A) is an $(n-1)$ -connected pair of spaces for some $n \geq 2$, where $A \subset X$ is also simply connected and $x_0 \in A$ is a base point. Then $H_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k \leq n-1$, and the relative Hurewicz map $h : \pi_n(X, A, x_0) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism.*

COROLLARY 57.14. *Suppose X and Y are two simply connected spaces that are both homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a map that induces isomorphisms $f_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ for every $n \geq 0$. Then f is a homotopy equivalence.*

PROOF. We first prove it under the simplifying assumption that $X \subset Y$ is a subspace with $f : X \hookrightarrow Y$ as the inclusion map. The long exact sequence of the pair (Y, X) in homology converts the assumption $f_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ into

$$H_n(Y, X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0 \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0.$$

Similarly, the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups includes a segment of the form

$$0 = \pi_1(Y) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, X) \rightarrow \pi_0(X) = 0,$$

implying $\pi_1(Y, X) = 0$, so that the relative Hurewicz theorem can be applied to the pair (Y, X) with $n = 2$, producing an isomorphism $\pi_2(Y, X) \cong H_2(Y, X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ and thus proving that (Y, X) is 2-connected. One can then apply the relative Hurewicz theorem again with $n = 3$, and continue this process inductively to prove $\pi_n(Y, X) = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$. In light of the exact sequence

$$0 = \pi_{n+1}(Y, X) \rightarrow \pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{f_*} \pi_n(Y) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, X) = 0,$$

this proves that $f : X \hookrightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, so Whitehead's theorem implies that it is a homotopy equivalence.

To generalize beyond the case where $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is an inclusion, we consider the **mapping cylinder** of f , defined as the space

$$M_f := ((X \times I) \amalg Y) / \sim \quad \text{where} \quad (x, 1) \sim f(x) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

This space contains disjoint homeomorphic copies of X and Y , namely the images of the inclusion maps

$$i_X : X \hookrightarrow M_f : x \mapsto [(x, 0)], \quad \text{and} \quad i_Y : Y \hookrightarrow M_f : y \mapsto [y],$$

and the latter is a homotopy equivalence due to the obvious deformation retraction of M_f to $i_Y(Y) \subset M_f$ defined by pushing the t -coordinate of each $(x, t) \in X \times I$ upward toward 1. This is one of two crucial properties that the mapping cylinder has; the other is that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y & \xrightarrow{i_Y} & M_f \\ f \uparrow & \nearrow i_X & \\ X & & \end{array}$$

commutes *up to homotopy*, meaning that while the two maps $i_X : X \rightarrow M_f$ and $i_Y \circ f : X \rightarrow M_f$ have disjoint images and are thus obviously not equal, they are homotopic. As a consequence, $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence if and only if $i_X : X \rightarrow M_f$ is a homotopy equivalence, and the inclusion map $i_X : X \hookrightarrow M_f$ can thus be used as a substitute for $f : X \rightarrow Y$ in arguments that depend only on homotopy type. In particular, if X and Y are simply connected and $f_* : H_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism, then M_f is also simply connected and $(i_X)_* : H_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(M_f; \mathbb{Z})$ is also an isomorphism, so the argument of the previous paragraph makes i_X a homotopy equivalence, and so therefore is f . $\square$

CONCLUSION OF THE PROOF OF THEOREM 57.1. We have shown thus far that if M is a closed simply connected 3-manifold, then $H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$. Now pick any map $f : M \rightarrow S^3$ that has degree 1. Such maps are easily found by identifying S^3 with the one-point compactification $\mathbb{R}^3 \cup \{\infty\}$, then choosing a Euclidean neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset M$ and defining $f : M \rightarrow S^3$ to be a homeomorphism $\mathcal{U} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^3$ on this neighborhood while sending every other point to ∞ . The characterization of the mapping degree via local degrees in Lecture 38 implies $\deg(f) = 1$.

It is trivial that $f_* : H_0(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_0(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism, and so is $f_* : H_3(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_3(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ due to the degree assumption. In all other dimensions, both homology groups vanish, so we conclude that $f_* : H_*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(S^3; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism. Since M and S^3 are both simply connected, Corollary 57.14 now implies that f is a homotopy equivalence. $\square$

Third semester (Topologie III)

58. Motivation and notions from category theory

58.1. Detecting exotic 7-spheres. The previous two semesters of this course introduced a few useful algebraic invariants of topological spaces: the fundamental group, homology and cohomology. We have also seen brief glimpses of the higher homotopy groups and bordism groups, though without proving any of the important theorems about them. The agenda for this semester includes a more thorough study of higher homotopy and bordism groups, built on a foundation of elementary homotopy theory. We will also examine some slightly more specialized invariants such as characteristic classes, which play especially important roles in the study of smooth manifolds.

In order to provide some motivation for all the effort, I'd like to start by sketching a proof of one of the most spectacular results of 20th century mathematics: the existence of exotic spheres.

THEOREM (Milnor [Mil56a]). *There exists a smooth manifold Y that is homeomorphic but not diffeomorphic to S^7 .*

REMARK 58.1. The theorem can also be expressed as the statement that S^7 admits smooth structures that are “exotic” in the sense that they are not diffeomorphic to the standard smooth structure that S^7 inherits as a smooth submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^8$. In fact, after Milnor discovered how to construct exotic 7-spheres, a result of Kervaire and Milnor [KM63] showed that there are exactly 28 distinct diffeomorphism classes of smooth structures on S^7 .

The proof sketched below requires several powerful ingredients, each of which will be major topics later in this semester. We present them in the following as black boxes, in addition to one black box that is not part of our agenda for this course, since it would require an entire course of its own for a proper treatment: that is Smale’s solution to the higher-dimensional Poincaré conjecture.⁹³

Ingredient 1: Pontryagin classes.

A real vector bundle over a space X is a family of real vector spaces E_p that are associated to the points $p \in X$ and “vary continuously” with p , in a sense that can be made precise via the notion of *local trivializations*. One can associate to every finite-rank real vector bundle E over reasonable spaces X a sequence of cohomology classes

$$p_k(E) \in H^{4k}(X; \mathbb{Z}), \quad k \in \mathbb{N},$$

called the *Pontryagin classes*; they are among the most popular examples of characteristic classes for vector bundles. The Pontryagin classes vanish for trivial vector bundles, and can thus be used to detect nontriviality. They also are invariants of the bundle up to *stable isomorphism*, meaning that one has $p_k(E) = p_k(E')$ whenever E and E' are two vector bundles over X that become

⁹³Using the higher-dimensional Poincaré conjecture is also ahistorical, since Smale’s result appeared a few years after the first construction of exotic spheres. Indeed, Milnor’s original argument did not require knowing that closed manifolds homotopy equivalent to S^7 are also homeomorphic to it, but using that knowledge makes the argument slightly easier.

isomorphic after taking the direct sum of each with some trivial bundle. In particular, one can take any smooth manifold M and apply this construction to the tangent bundle TM over M , producing classes that we call the *Pontryagin classes* of M :

$$p_k(M) := p_k(TM) \in H^{4k}(M; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Note that while $H^*(M; \mathbb{Z})$ depends only on the topology of M , $p_k(M)$ depends explicitly on its smooth structure, without which the notion of a tangent bundle does not make sense.

Ingredient 2: Signature.

Recall that for a compact oriented topological manifold M of dimension $4k$, possibly with boundary, the *intersection form* is the quadratic form Q_M on $H^{2k}(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z})$ defined by

$$Q_M(\alpha) := \langle \alpha \cup \alpha, [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where $[M] \in H_{4k}(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z})$ denotes the relative fundamental class of M . If talking about quadratic forms on abelian groups seems scary, one can instead define Q_M on the rational vector space $H^{2k}(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Q})$ or the real vector space $H^{2k}(M, \partial M; \mathbb{R})$, so that it becomes an object of linear algebra, and after choosing a suitable basis, it can be expressed in terms of a symmetric matrix, with real eigenvalues. The *signature* of M is the integer

$$\sigma(M) := \#\{\text{positive eigenvalues}\} - \#\{\text{negative eigenvalues}\} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

obtained by counting positive and negative eigenvalues with multiplicity.

Ingredient 3: Bordism and the Hirzebruch signature formula.

The signature formula of Hirzebruch is a deep relation between the signature of any closed oriented smooth manifold with dimension divisible by 4 and its Pontryagin classes. The special case $\dim M = 8$ takes the form

$$(58.1) \quad \sigma(M) = \frac{1}{45} \langle 7p_2(M) - p_1(M) \cup p_1(M), [M] \rangle.$$

A popular way to prove this formula is based on bordism theory: two closed oriented n -manifolds M_+, M_- are called *bordant* if, after reversing the orientation of M_- , the disjoint union of M_+ with M_- admits an orientation-preserving diffeomorphism to the boundary of some compact oriented $(n+1)$ -manifold. This defines an equivalence relation on closed oriented n -manifolds, and the set of equivalence classes (also called *bordism classes*) forms an abelian group denoted by Ω_n^{SO} , with the group operation defined via disjoint unions. Even better, the direct sum

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} := \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}$$

has a natural ring structure defined via Cartesian products of manifolds. It is not so difficult to prove via methods covered in the previous semester that the signature of M depends only on its bordism class, and moreover, it defines a ring homomorphism

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : M \mapsto \sigma(M).$$

As it turns out, the right hand side of (58.1) can also be understood as a special case of something that is a ring homomorphism $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. The formula thus becomes easy to prove if one understands the generators of the ring Ω_*^{SO} , and this is possible: up to minor details involving torsion elements, one can show that Ω_*^{SO} is generated by the complex projective spaces $\mathbb{CP}^{2k}$ for $k \geq 0$. Once this is understood, it suffices to verify that the formula holds for these specific spaces, which can be done by explicit computation.

The relation (58.1) implies something highly nonobvious: the left hand side is an integer by definition, but the right hand side looks more like a rational number. The formula thus shows that

the Pontryagin classes of closed oriented smooth manifolds cannot be arbitrary: they must always conspire to make sure that the integer $\langle 7p_2(M) - p_1(M) \cup p_1(M), [M] \rangle$ is divisible by 45.

The construction.

The closed 7-manifold Y in the statement of the theorem is constructed as the boundary of a compact oriented smooth 8-manifold X . The main idea behind this construction is known as “plumbing of spheres”, and I will not give an explicit description of it here, except to say that it can be constructed and its essential properties proved using only methods that were covered in the previous two semesters of this course. The properties one needs X and $Y = \partial X$ to have are the following:

- $\sigma(X) = 8$;
- Y is simply connected;
- $H_2(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ and $H_3(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ both vanish;
- The tangent bundle TX is *stably trivial*, i.e. its direct sum with some trivial vector bundle is another trivial vector bundle.

Since Pontryagin classes are invariant under stable isomorphism of vector bundles, the fact that TX is stably trivial implies one more property worth noting:

- $p_1(X) = 0$.

Ingredient 4: Poincaré duality.

This is not a black box, as you have hopefully seen the Poincaré duality isomorphism proved before, e.g. in Lecture 53 of last semester’s course. The closed 7-manifold Y is simply connected and therefore also orientable, since by standard results of covering space theory, the orientation double cover of a simply-connected manifold cannot be connected. Since $H_1(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is the abelianization of $\pi_1(Y)$, we have $H_1(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = H_2(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = H_3(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, and Poincaré duality then implies

$$H^6(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = H^5(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = H^4(Y; \mathbb{Z}) = 0.$$

Using the universal coefficient theorem, this is enough information to prove that Y is a so-called *homology 7-sphere*, meaning

$$H_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^7; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Ingredient 5: Higher homotopy groups and the Hurewicz theorem.

Lecture 56 at the end of last semester’s course gave a sketch of the abelian groups

$$\pi_n(Y), \quad n \geq 2,$$

and we will have a lot more to say about them in this semester. As a set, $\pi_n(Y)$ can be regarded as the set of pointed homotopy classes of base-point preserving maps $f : S^n \rightarrow Y$, thus generalizing one of the popular definitions of the fundamental group $\pi_1(Y)$. For each $n \geq 1$, there is a natural relation between homology and homotopy groups given by the *Hurewicz homomorphism*

$$\pi_n(Y) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[S^n],$$

where $[S^n] \in H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ denotes the integral fundamental class of the sphere with its standard orientation. One of the first things you learned about singular homology was probably that if Y is path-connected, then the natural map $\pi_1(Y) \rightarrow H_1(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ descends to an isomorphism between $H_1(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ and the abelianization of $\pi_1(Y)$. For $n \geq 2$, there is no need to say the word “abelianization” since the groups $\pi_n(Y)$ are already abelian, and the Hurewicz theorem states that if $\pi_k(Y)$ vanishes for all $k < n$, then the groups $H_k(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ also vanish and the Hurewicz map $\pi_n(Y) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism. For the specific 7-manifold Y described above, an inductive argument based on the Hurewicz theorem extends the isomorphism $H_*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_*(S^7; \mathbb{Z})$ to a sequence of isomorphisms $\pi_k(Y) \cong \pi_k(S^7)$ for $k \leq 7$. As we will indicate in a moment, one can say more than this using a relative version of the Hurewicz theorem.

Ingredient 6: Whitehead's theorem.

It is known that all topological manifolds are homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, and even if you don't assume that this is known, one can easily deduce it for the specific manifold Y due to the way that it is constructed. For spaces homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, Whitehead's theorem states that any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ for which the induced homomorphisms $f_* : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y)$ are isomorphisms (for all possible choices of base points) must be a homotopy equivalence. This is a very useful way to recognize homotopy equivalences in terms of standard algebraic invariants. It leads also to another result that is sometimes called the *homology Whitehead theorem*: if X and Y are both *simply connected* spaces homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a map such that the induced homomorphism $f_* : H_*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism in all degrees, then f is a homotopy equivalence. The proof of this result combines Whitehead's theorem with a relative version of the Hurewicz theorem: the latter relates relative homology groups $H_n(Y, B; \mathbb{Z})$ to corresponding relative homotopy groups $\pi_n(Y, B)$, which fit into a natural long exact sequence together with the absolute homotopy groups of Y and B .

Ingredient 7: The higher-dimensional Poincaré conjecture.

For the 7-manifold Y described above, the homology Whitehead theorem leads to the conclusion that any map $f : Y \rightarrow S^7$ of degree 1 is necessarily a homotopy equivalence. Smale [Sma61] proved in 1961 that for every dimension $n \geq 5$, closed n -manifolds homotopy equivalent to S^n are also homeomorphic to it, and we therefore conclude that Y is homeomorphic to S^7 .

It's worth noting that the homeomorphism $Y \cong S^7$ is based on a quite large volume of heavy machinery from both algebraic and differential topology. Even if you read through the details of how $Y = \partial X$ is constructed and feel able to visualize the manifold, you should not expect to be able to visualize its homeomorphism to S^7 .

Conclusion of the proof.

Now for the crucial step: how do we know that Y is not *diffeomorphic* to S^7 ? One argues by contradiction: if they are diffeomorphic, then one can use this diffeomorphism to construct a new closed oriented smooth 8-manifold

$$M := X \cup_{S^7} \mathbb{D}^8.$$

One can now use familiar methods from last semester (e.g. the Mayer-Vietoris sequence) to prove

$$p_1(M) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma(M) = 8.$$

But according to the Hirzebruch signature formula, it follows that

$$45\sigma(M) = 45 \cdot 8 = 7\langle p_2(M), [M] \rangle.$$

The right hand side of this equation is clearly a multiple of 7 and the left hand side is clearly not, so this gives a contradiction: the only possible conclusion is that the manifold M described here cannot be constructed, because there is no diffeomorphism of Y with S^7 .

58.2. Category-theoretic notation. The first portion of this semester's course will introduce some fundamental ideas from homotopy theory. It is possible in principle to develop this material without relying on notions from abstract category theory, but some knowledge of category theory will be very helpful for motivating the importance of certain definitions, thus helping to keep our eyes on the big picture.

I will assume that the reader is already familiar with the basic notions of categories, functors and natural transformations, as covered e.g. in last semester's Lecture 28. Some knowledge of direct and inverse limits as covered in Lectures 41 and 45 will also be helpful.

We now fix some notation that will be used throughout the semester.

For any category $\mathcal{C}$, we can denote the collection of objects of the category by $\text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}}$, but we will abbreviate it more often simply as $\mathcal{C}$, thus

$$X \in \mathcal{C} \quad \text{actually means} \quad X \in \text{Ob}_{\mathcal{C}},$$

i.e. X is an object of $\mathcal{C}$. For two objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, the set of morphisms from X to Y can be denoted by $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$, which we will abbreviate as

$$\text{Hom}(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$$

whenever it is not necessary to specify which category is meant. In certain contexts, e.g. in the category of sets or topological spaces, one also sometimes writes

$$Y^X := \text{Hom}(X, Y).$$

The individual morphisms from X to Y will often be denoted with the same arrow notation that is used for maps between sets, thus

$$f : X \rightarrow Y \quad \text{or} \quad X \xrightarrow{f} Y \quad \text{actually means} \quad f \in \text{Hom}(X, Y).$$

The composition of two morphisms $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ can be denoted either as

$$g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z \quad \text{of} \quad gf : X \rightarrow Z;$$

the latter is often suitable for various algebraic categories, so long as the symbol “ gf ” does not have any obvious alternative interpretation. For each object $X \in \mathcal{C}$, the identity morphism $X \rightarrow X$ may be written as Id_X or 1_X depending on the context, which can also be abbreviated as Id or 1 respectively. In some books, one also sees $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$ denoted by $\text{Mor}(X, Y)$ or $\mathcal{C}(X, Y)$, but we will avoid that notation here.

We use the notation

$$\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \mathcal{D}$$

to denote a (covariant or contravariant) functor $\mathcal{F}$ from a category $\mathcal{C}$ to a category $\mathcal{D}$. For a morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ of $\mathcal{C}$, we will normally denote by

$$\mathcal{F}(f) : \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Y) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{F}(f) : \mathcal{F}(Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(X)$$

the induced morphism of $\mathcal{D}$, though in certain contexts (especially in algebraic categories), it will also be natural to abbreviate the notation for the covariant and contravariant cases respectively by

$$f_* : \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Y) \quad \text{or} \quad f^* : \mathcal{F}(Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(X).$$

Every category $\mathcal{C}$ has an **opposite category** $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}$, which has the same objects as $\mathcal{C}$ but reverses the directions of all morphisms, hence

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}}}(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Y, X) \quad \text{for all } X, Y \in \mathcal{C}.$$

This is really just a notational device for reversing arrows: it gives us the freedom to identify contravariant functors $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ with covariant functors $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$, so that without loss of generality, all functors are covariant. We will not make frequent use of this trick, but it will occasionally make our lives easier.

There is a natural notion of the product $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ of two categories $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$, so that the notion of a “functor of two variables” can be defined formally as a functor of the form $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. The following example presents itself immediately: for any category $\mathcal{C}$, the assignment to each pair of objects (A, B) of the set of morphisms $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ can be regarded as a functor

$$\text{Hom} : \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Set} : (A, B) \mapsto \text{Hom}(A, B),$$

which is covariant in the second variable and contravariant in the first. In more formal terms, this means that Hom defines a covariant functor

$$\text{Hom} : \mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \text{Set}$$

on the product category $\mathcal{C}^{\text{op}} \times \mathcal{C}$.

Finally, for two functors $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ that are either both covariant or both contravariant, the notation

$$T : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{G}, \quad \text{or} \quad \mathcal{F} \xRightarrow{T} \mathcal{G}, \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & \mathcal{F} & \\ \curvearrowright & \Downarrow T & \curvearrowleft \\ & \mathcal{G} & \end{array}$$

means that T is a natural transformation from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\mathcal{G}$. Recall that T is called a **natural isomorphism** if the morphisms $T(X) : \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}(X)$ it defines for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$ are isomorphisms of $\mathcal{D}$; this is equivalent to the statement that T has an inverse natural transformation $T^{-1} : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$.

REMARK 58.2. A category is called **small** if its objects form a *set*, as opposed to a proper class. Most of the familiar categories that arise in algebraic topology are not small, because e.g. the collection of all topological spaces is too large to be considered a set without running afoul of the standard set-theoretic paradoxes. On the other hand, we are tacitly assuming in our discussion of category theory that all categories $\mathcal{C}$ are **locally small**, which means that for each pair of objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, the morphisms $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$ from X to Y form a set. This is true for all the categories we will consider; one can think up examples that satisfy all the other conditions required of a category and not this one, but it takes some effort, and we will have no need for such examples.

58.3. An inventory of useful categories. Let us now run through the list of standard categories that will be mentioned frequently in this course.

Top and Top_* : We denote the category of topological spaces and continuous maps by **Top**, and the category of **pointed spaces** and **pointed maps** by **Top_{*}**. More precisely, objects of **Top_{*}** are of the form $(X, x) \in \text{Top}_*$, where $X \in \text{Top}$ is a space and $x \in X$ is a choice of base point, and $\text{Hom}_{\text{Top}_*}((X, x), (Y, y))$ is the set of continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with $f(x) = y$. The isomorphisms in **Top** and **Top_{*}** are homeomorphisms; base-point preserving in the case of **Top_{*}**. You are already familiar with **Top_{*}** as the category on which the fundamental group functor π_1 is most naturally defined, and we will see it play a similar role for the higher homotopy groups. When there is no danger of confusion, objects of **Top_{*}** will often be written simply as spaces X , with the chosen base point of such a space denoted by

$$* \in X.$$

The symbol $*$ can also be used to denote any one-point space, and in that context, it is understood as an object of either **Top** or **Top_{*}**,

$$* \in \text{Top} \quad \text{or} \quad * \in \text{Top}_*.$$

Set and Set_* : The objects of **Set** are sets and its morphisms are maps of sets—since the sets are not assumed endowed with any extra structure such as topologies, we do not impose any condition (such as continuity) on maps. The pointed analogue of **Set** is **Set_{*}**: its objects are so-called **pointed sets** (X, x) , consisting of a set $X \in \text{Set}$ and a choice of base point $x \in X$, and morphisms $(X, x) \rightarrow (Y, y)$ in **Set_{*}** are maps of sets $f : X \rightarrow Y$ that satisfy $f(x) = y$.

hTop and hTop_* : These are the **homotopy categories** associated to **Top** and **Top_{*}** respectively, and they are the categories in which most of homotopy theory is conducted. They have the same objects as **Top** and **Top_{*}** respectively, but their morphisms are *homotopy classes* of maps rather than actual maps. In the case of **hTop_{*}**, homotopy means **pointed homotopy**, i.e. two

pointed maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are pointed homotopic if there exists a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g such that $H(*, t) = *$ for all $t \in I$, so

$$H_t := H(\cdot, t) : X \rightarrow Y$$

is likewise a pointed map for each $t \in I$. Here we abbreviate the unit interval by

$$I := [0, 1],$$

which is a useful bit of shorthand notation for whenever we talk about homotopies. The isomorphisms in $\mathbf{hTop}$ are homotopy equivalences, and isomorphisms in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ are sometimes called **pointed homotopy equivalences**.

$\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, $\mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$, $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*^{\text{rel}}$: The objects of $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ are **pairs of spaces** (X, A) , meaning a space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ together with a subset $A \subset X$, and morphisms $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ are **maps of pairs**, meaning continuous maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with $f(A) \subset B$. A **homotopy of pairs** between two maps of pairs $f, g : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is similarly a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $H(A \times I) \subset B$, meaning that $H_t := H(\cdot, t)$ is a map of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ for every $t \in I$. Taking homotopy classes as morphisms gives the homotopy category of maps of pairs $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$. You are familiar with $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ as the category on which homology and cohomology functors are defined, and they descend to $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$ due to the homotopy axiom. A further enhancement is to consider **pointed pairs**

$$(X, A, *) \in \mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}},$$

with the base point $*$ assumed to lie in A , so that both $(X, *)$ and $(A, *)$ are objects of $\mathbf{Top}_*$ and the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a pointed map. Morphisms $(X, A, *) \rightarrow (Y, B, *)$ of $\mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$ are then maps of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ that also send the base point to the base point. We leave it as an exercise to give a precise definition of the associated homotopy category $\mathbf{hTop}_*^{\text{rel}}$. We will later define *relative* homotopy groups $\pi_n(X, A)$ for pointed pairs, so that the functors π_n are defined on $\mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$ and descend to $\mathbf{hTop}_*^{\text{rel}}$.

Diff: The category of smooth finite-dimensional manifolds, with smooth maps as morphisms.

Grp and **Ab**: The category of groups and homomorphisms is **Grp**, and **Ab** $\subset$ **Grp** is the subcategory whose objects consist only of *abelian* groups.

$\mathbb{K}$ -Vect: The category of vector spaces over a given field $\mathbb{K}$, with linear maps as morphisms.

R -Mod: The category of modules over a given commutative ring R with unit, with R -module homomorphisms as morphisms. If R is a field $\mathbb{K}$, then $R\text{-Mod}$ is the same thing as $\mathbb{K}\text{-Vect}$, whereas for $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $R\text{-Mod}$ is naturally equivalent to **Ab**.

Further categories will be introduced later as the need arises.

58.4. Initial and terminal objects. In a category $\mathcal{C}$, an object $0 \in \mathcal{C}$ is called an **initial object** if for every object $X \in \mathcal{C}$, there is a unique morphism $0 \rightarrow X$. Similarly, $1 \in \mathcal{C}$ is called a **terminal object** if for every object $X \in \mathcal{C}$, there is a unique morphism $X \rightarrow 1$. There is no guarantee in general that an initial or terminal object should exist, nor should one expect it to be unique, but the uniqueness of morphisms implies that there is a canonical isomorphism between any two initial objects and between any two terminal objects, so they are indeed unique up to isomorphism.

EXAMPLE 58.3. The category **Top** has a unique initial object, namely the empty set, and any one-point space $* \in \mathbf{Top}$ serves as a terminal object.⁹⁴

EXAMPLE 58.4. In $\mathbf{Top}_*$, a one-point space $* \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ is simultaneously an initial and terminal object.

⁹⁴One-point spaces are not unique—in fact the collection of all one-point spaces is not even a set, but rather a proper class—but of course there is a canonical homeomorphism between any two one-point spaces.

EXAMPLE 58.5. In $R\text{-Mod}$ for any given commutative ring R , a trivial module $\{0\} \in R\text{-Mod}$ is both an initial object and a terminal object.⁹⁵

For an example in which initial and terminal objects need not exist, see Exercise 58.1.

58.5. Adjoint functors. I think it wise to give an example of the next definition before stating the definition itself.

In the category $R\text{-Mod}$ of modules over a fixed commutative ring R , the tensor product is characterized by the property that for any three R -modules A, B, C , the natural map

$$\text{Hom}(A \otimes B, C) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \text{Hom}(A, \text{Hom}(B, C)), \quad \alpha(\Phi)(a)(b) := \Phi(a \otimes b)$$

is a bijection. Indeed,

$$\text{Hom}_2(A, B; C) := \text{Hom}(A, \text{Hom}(B, C))$$

can be interpreted as the set of R -bilinear maps $A \times B \rightarrow C$, so the fact that α is bijective means that every such bilinear map factors through the canonical R -bilinear map $A \times B \rightarrow A \otimes B$ and a uniquely determined R -module homomorphism $A \otimes B \rightarrow C$. In fact, α is not just a bijection; it is also an R -module isomorphism, though that detail is unimportant for the present discussion.

To rephrase things in more formal terms, fix an R -module B and let

$$\mathcal{L} := \otimes B : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

denote the covariant functor that sends objects A to $A \otimes B$ and morphisms $\Phi : A \rightarrow A'$ to

$$\mathcal{L}(\Phi) := \Phi \otimes 1 : A \otimes B \rightarrow A' \otimes B : a \otimes b \mapsto \Phi(a) \otimes b.$$

Further, let

$$\mathcal{R} := \text{Hom}(B, \cdot) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$$

denote the covariant functor that sends objects C to $\text{Hom}(B, C)$ and morphisms $\Phi : C \rightarrow C'$ to

$$\mathcal{R}(\Phi) := \Phi_* \in \text{Hom}(\text{Hom}(B, C), \text{Hom}(B, C')), \quad \Phi_* \Psi := \Phi \circ \Psi.$$

The bijection α can now be written as

$$\text{Hom}(\mathcal{L}(A), C) \xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Hom}(A, \mathcal{R}(C)).$$

It is a straightforward exercise to check that this bijection also satisfies the naturality condition in the following definition.

DEFINITION 58.6. Assume $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$ are categories and $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{L} : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ are functors that are either both covariant or both contravariant. We say that $\mathcal{R}$ is a **right-adjoint** of $\mathcal{L}$ (thus making $\mathcal{L}$ a **left-adjoint** of $\mathcal{R}$) if there exists a natural isomorphism between the two functors $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \text{Set}$ defined by

$$(A, B) \mapsto \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{L}(B), A) \quad \text{and} \quad (A, B) \mapsto \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(B, \mathcal{R}(A)).$$

In other words, there is a bijection $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{L}(B), A) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(B, \mathcal{R}(A))$ associated to each $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ such that for every pair of morphisms $\varphi \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, A')$ and $\psi \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(B', B)$, the

⁹⁵As with one-point spaces, $R\text{-Mod}$ does not contain a single object that can be called “the” trivial module, since any set of one element (whose element can be allowed to be anything) could be endowed with an R -module structure and then called $\{0\} \in R\text{-Mod}$. But there is a canonical isomorphism between any two trivial R -modules.

diagram⁹⁶

$$(58.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{L}(B), A) & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(B, \mathcal{R}(A)) \\ \varphi_* \mathcal{L}(\psi)^* \downarrow & & \downarrow \mathcal{R}(\varphi)_* \psi^* \\ \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{L}(B'), A') & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(B', \mathcal{R}(A')) \end{array}$$

commutes.⁹⁷

REMARK 58.7. A given functor need not have either a left-adjoint or a right-adjoint, and we will see that functors that do have one or the other have some special properties (see e.g. Theorems 59.5 and 59.17 in the next lecture). One can use a version of the Yoneda lemma (see Exercises 58.2 and 58.3) to show that for any functor that has a left- or right-adjoint, that adjoint is unique up to natural isomorphism.

The discussion above shows that for any R -module G , the functors $\otimes G$ and $\mathrm{Hom}(G, \cdot)$ from $R\text{-Mod}$ to itself are adjoint to each other. We will later see some fairly nontrivial examples of adjunction between functors on the category of pointed spaces and its associated homotopy category. Here is a simpler example that also involves spaces.

EXAMPLE 58.8. Fixing a one-point space $*$, there is a functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ that sends each space X to the pointed space

$$X_+ := X \amalg *$$

in which the extra point added by the disjoint union is regarded as a base point; under this functor, maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ are sent to pointed maps $f_+ : X_+ \rightarrow Y_+$ that restrict to X as f and map $*$ to itself. There is also a **forgetful functor** $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$, which takes any pointed space and forgets its base point. We then have a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X_+, Y) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y)$$

since every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ corresponds to a unique pointed map $f_+ : X_+ \rightarrow Y$ such that $f_+|_X = f$. This makes the functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_* : X \mapsto X_+$ a left-adjoint of the forgetful functor.

58.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 58.1. Describe what initial and terminal objects are in each of the following categories, if they exist:

- (a) **Ring**: the category of (not necessarily commutative) rings with unit and ring homomorphisms.
- (b) **Fld**: the subcategory of **Ring** whose objects are fields.

EXERCISE 58.2 (*). The Yoneda lemma is a useful tool from abstract category that carries the following message: the objects of a category can be characterized via their morphisms to or from other objects. The general statement of the lemma is hard for most humans to digest on a first try, so I will focus here on a specific corollary that will be concretely useful in our development of homotopy theory: it can be used to prove that two objects of a category are isomorphic, so e.g. one can apply it in **hTop** to establish homotopy equivalences. Some concrete applications appear in Exercises 58.3 and 58.4 below.

⁹⁶This version of the diagram assumes that $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ are both covariant; there is an analogous version for the case where both are contravariant.

⁹⁷Note that in the diagram (58.2), $\varphi_* \mathcal{L}(\psi)^* = \mathcal{L}(\psi)^* \varphi_*$ and $\mathcal{R}(\varphi)_* \psi^* = \psi^* \mathcal{R}(\varphi)_*$, so the order in which these compositions are written on the vertical maps does not matter. One sometimes sees the diagram written as two separate diagrams in which either φ or ψ is taken to be the identity morphism.

In any category $\mathcal{C}$, each object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ determines a covariant functor

$$\mathrm{Hom}(X, \cdot) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set},$$

which associates to each object $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ the set $\mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$ of morphisms and to each morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathcal{C}$ the map

$$\mathrm{Hom}(X, Y) \xrightarrow{f_*} \mathrm{Hom}(X, Z) : g \mapsto f \circ g.$$

There is similarly a contravariant functor $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, X) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ for which morphisms $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ induce maps

$$\mathrm{Hom}(Z, X) \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathrm{Hom}(Y, X) : g \mapsto g \circ f.$$

- Show that for any two objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, each morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ determines a natural transformation $T_f : \mathrm{Hom}(Y, \cdot) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}(X, \cdot)$ associating to each object $Z \in \mathcal{C}$ the set map $f^* : \mathrm{Hom}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}(X, Z)$, and that if f is an isomorphism, then the map f^* is bijective for every $Z \in \mathcal{C}$, i.e. T_f is then a *natural isomorphism*.
- Show conversely that every natural transformation $T : \mathrm{Hom}(Y, \cdot) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}(X, \cdot)$ is T_f for a unique morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$, which is an isomorphism of $\mathcal{C}$ if and only if T_f is a natural isomorphism. It follows that X and Y are isomorphic whenever the sets of morphisms $\mathrm{Hom}(X, Z)$ and $\mathrm{Hom}(Y, Z)$ are in bijective correspondence for every third object Z , in a way that is natural with respect to Z .
- Prove contravariant analogues of parts (a) and (b) involving the functors $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, X)$ and $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, Y)$.

EXERCISE 58.3. Show that for every left/right-adjoint functor, the corresponding right/left-adjoint functor is unique up to natural isomorphism.

Hint: You can use Exercise 58.2 for this, e.g. if $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}' : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ are two left-adjoints of $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$, derive an isomorphism $\mathcal{L}(B) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{L}'(B)$ for each $B \in \mathcal{B}$ from a natural transformation between two functors $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ defined via $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}$.

EXERCISE 58.4. Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ is any category for which the sets $\mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$ can be regarded as objects in $\mathcal{C}$ for every $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$, and suppose $\otimes : \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a functor such that the functors $\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ defined by $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot \otimes \cdot, \cdot)$ and $\mathrm{Hom}_2 := \mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, \mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, \cdot))$ are naturally isomorphic, so in particular, for every triple of objects $X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{C}$, there is a bijection of sets

$$\mathrm{Hom}(X \otimes Y, Z) \cong \mathrm{Hom}(X, \mathrm{Hom}(Y, Z))$$

that is natural with respect to all three. The main example to have in mind is the tensor product functor on $R\text{-Mod}$, and the condition described above is often called the *universal property* of tensor products.

- Prove that there is a natural isomorphism relating any two functors $\otimes, \otimes' : \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ that satisfy the condition described above. In other words: tensor products are uniquely determined (up to natural isomorphism) by the universal property.
- Prove that $\otimes$ is associative in the sense that the functors $\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ defined by $(X, Y, Z) \mapsto X \otimes (Y \otimes Z)$ and $(X, Y, Z) \mapsto (X \otimes Y) \otimes Z$ are naturally isomorphic. Prove it using only the universal property, i.e. do not use any knowledge of how $\otimes$ is actually defined in any specific categories.

59. Limits, colimits, pullbacks and pushouts

Many constructions that are familiar in various categories can be understood as special cases of the category-theoretic notions of limits or colimits. Examples of limits include products in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Ab}$ as well as inverse limits of inverse systems in any category; dually, the disjoint union in

$\mathbf{Top}$ and the direct sum in $\mathbf{Ab}$ are examples of colimits, as is the direct limit of a direct system in any category. In this course, we will have a lot of use for two specific cases of limits and colimits, known as pullbacks and pushouts respectively: among other things, we'll see in the next lecture that certain pullbacks and pushouts can be used to define useful notions of “exact sequences” in non-algebraic categories such as $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

59.1. Diagrams and colimits. We assume in the following that $\mathcal{J}$ is a small category, $\mathcal{C}$ is another category, and $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a covariant functor. For reasons that will become clearer when we look at some examples, $\mathcal{F}$ will also be referred to as a **diagram in $\mathcal{C}$ over $\mathcal{J}$** .

EXAMPLE 59.1. Recall that a set J with a pre-order $<$ is called a **directed set** if for every pair of elements in J there is a third element that is at least as large as both. We can identify the directed set $(J, <)$ with a category $\mathcal{J}$ for which J is the set of objects and for each $\alpha, \beta \in J$, the set $\text{Hom}(\alpha, \beta)$ is nonempty if and only if $\alpha < \beta$, in which case it contains exactly one element, denoted in the following by $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$. A functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ then associates to each $\alpha \in J$ an object $X_\alpha := \mathcal{F}(\alpha) \in \mathcal{C}$, along with morphisms

$$X_\alpha \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta\alpha} := \mathcal{F}(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)} X_\beta \quad \text{for each} \quad \alpha < \beta,$$

such that whenever $\alpha < \beta < \gamma$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\beta\alpha}} & X_\beta & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{\gamma\beta}} & X_\gamma \\ & \searrow \varphi_{\gamma\alpha} & & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

commutes. This form of diagram is often called a **direct system** in $\mathcal{C}$ over the directed set $(J, <)$; cf. last semester's Lecture 41.

For any given object $X \in \mathcal{C}$, there is a **constant functor**

$$\mathcal{J} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{X}} \mathcal{C} : \alpha \mapsto X \quad \text{for all } \alpha \in \mathcal{J}$$

that associates to every morphism $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in $\mathcal{J}$ the identity morphism $\text{Id}_X : X \rightarrow X$. In this context, a natural transformation $T_X : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ will be called a **target** of the diagram $\mathcal{F}$.

EXAMPLE 59.2. Continuing in the context of the direct system in Example 59.1, a target $T_X : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ associates to each $\alpha \in J$ a morphism $T_X(\alpha) : X_\alpha \rightarrow X$ such that whenever $\alpha < \beta$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{T_X(\alpha)} & X \\ \downarrow \varphi_{\beta\alpha} & & \downarrow \text{Id}_X \\ X_\beta & \xrightarrow{T_X(\beta)} & X \end{array}$$

commutes. This is consistent with the usual use of the word “target” for direct systems.

Finally, the target $T_X : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ is called a **colimit** of the diagram $\mathcal{F}$ if the following **universal property** holds: for every target $T_Y : \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$, there exists a unique natural transformation $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ such that $T_Y = \Phi \circ T_X$. We abbreviate this condition by writing

$$X = \text{colim}(\mathcal{F}).$$

You should now take a moment to convince yourself of the following: a natural transformation $\Phi : \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ between two constant functors with values X and Y respectively is equivalent to a single morphism $X \rightarrow Y$.

commutes. By hypothesis, $\mathcal{L}$ has a right-adjoint functor $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, so that there is a natural bijection

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathcal{L}(A), B) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\alpha} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(A, \mathcal{R}(B))$$

for every $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$. Interpreting the diagram (59.1) as the relation $\psi_\alpha = \mathcal{L}(\varphi_{\beta\alpha})^* \psi_\beta$, the naturality of α with respect to A (cf. (58.2)) implies the relation $\varphi_{\beta\alpha}^* \alpha(\psi_\beta) = \alpha(\psi_\alpha)$, meaning that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\alpha(\psi_\alpha)} & \mathcal{R}(Y) \\ \varphi_{\beta\alpha} \downarrow & \nearrow \alpha(\psi_\beta) & \\ X_\beta & & \end{array}$$

commutes, making $\mathcal{R}(Y)$ with the morphisms $\alpha(\psi_\alpha) : X_\alpha \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(Y)$ a target of the diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$. By the universal property of $X = \mathrm{colim}(\mathcal{F})$, it follows that there is a unique morphism $u : X \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(Y)$ such that $u \circ \varphi_\alpha = \alpha(\psi_\alpha)$ for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$. Applying the naturality of α again, it follows that $\alpha^{-1}(u) \circ \mathcal{L}(\varphi_\alpha) = \psi_\alpha$, so that the morphism $\alpha^{-1}(u) : \mathcal{L}(X) \rightarrow Y$ establishes the universal property of $\mathcal{L}(X)$ as a target of $\mathcal{L} \circ \mathcal{F}$. $\square$

59.2. Coproducts. Assume $\mathcal{J}$ is a category consisting of exactly two objects $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{J}$ and only identity morphisms. A diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is then simply a choice of two objects $X_\alpha := \mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ and $X_\beta := \mathcal{F}(\beta)$ of $\mathcal{C}$, and a target is a pair of morphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & & \\ & \searrow i_\alpha & \\ & & X \\ & \nearrow i_\beta & \\ X_\beta & & \end{array}$$

to some third object $X \in \mathcal{C}$. This target is a colimit if and only if for every other target given by morphisms $f_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$ and $f_\beta : X_\beta \rightarrow Y$, there is a unique morphism $u : X \rightarrow Y$ making the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X_\alpha & & & & \\ & \searrow i_\alpha & & \searrow f_\alpha & \\ & & X & \xrightarrow{u} & Y \\ & \nearrow i_\beta & & \nearrow f_\beta & \\ X_\beta & & & & \end{array}$$

commute. We call X in this case a **coproduct** of X_α and X_β , sometimes written as

$$X = X_\alpha \coprod X_\beta.$$

More generally, if $\mathcal{J}$ is any small category that contains only identity morphisms, then a diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ associates an object $X_\alpha \in \mathcal{C}$ to each $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$, and a colimit X of such a diagram is called a **coproduct** of the objects $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{J}}$, written

$$X = \coprod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{J}} X_\alpha.$$

A coproduct comes with a collection of morphisms $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow \coprod_\beta X_\beta$ for $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$, and it is characterized by the universal property that for any object $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ with a collection of morphisms $f_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$, there is a unique morphism $u : \coprod_\beta X_\beta \rightarrow Y$ making the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{i_\alpha} & \coprod_\beta X_\beta \xrightarrow{u} Y \\ & \searrow f_\alpha & \nearrow \\ & & \end{array}$$

commute for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$.

REMARK 59.6. The notation $\coprod$ can be used for coproducts in arbitrary categories, but different notation is often appropriate in certain specific categories where coproducts can be described via familiar operations, as in some of the examples below.

EXAMPLE 59.7. Coproducts in **Top** are disjoint unions, and the associated morphisms $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow \coprod_\beta X_\beta$ are the obvious inclusions. There is a similar description of coproducts in **Top^{rel}**.

EXAMPLE 59.8. In **Diff**, any countable collection of smooth manifolds $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ has a coproduct defined the same way as in **Top**, since the disjoint union $\coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha$ is also a smooth manifold. But since the most common definition of manifolds requires them to be second countable, this does not work for arbitrary uncountable collections of manifolds, thus not all coproducts exist in **Diff**.

EXAMPLE 59.9. In **Ab**, **R-Mod** and **K-Vect**, coproducts are direct sums, with the associated morphisms $i_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow \coprod_\beta X_\beta$ given by the natural inclusions $X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigoplus_\beta X_\beta$.

EXAMPLE 59.10. The coproduct in **Top_{*}** of a collection of pointed spaces $\{(X_\alpha, x_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is given by the **wedge sum**

$$\bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha := \coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \Big/ x_\alpha \sim x_\beta \text{ for all } \alpha, \beta \in J,$$

where the base point of $\bigvee_\alpha X_\alpha$ is defined to be the equivalence class of all the base points of the summands, and the associated morphisms are given by the obvious pointed inclusions $X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigvee_\beta X_\beta$.

EXAMPLE 59.11. In **Grp**, the coproduct of a collection $\{G_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of groups is the **free product**

$$\ast_{\alpha \in J} G_\alpha := \{\text{reduced words in elements of the groups } G_\alpha \text{ for } \alpha \in J\},$$

with the associated morphisms given by the inclusions $G_\alpha \hookrightarrow \ast_\beta G_\beta$ that send each element of G_α to a one-letter word. Note that if the groups G_α all happen to be abelian, then their coproduct in **Grp** is still a different (and typically nonabelian) group than their coproduct in **Ab**; this is because the universal properties satisfied by these two versions of the coproduct are different.

59.3. Coequalizers. Suppose $\mathcal{J}$ is the category represented pictorially via the diagram

$$\alpha \begin{array}{c} \rightrightarrows \\ \lleftarrow \end{array} \beta,$$

meaning it has exactly two objects $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{J}$ and, in addition to the required identity morphisms, exactly two other morphisms, which both go from α to β . A functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ then amounts to a diagram of the form

$$(59.2) \quad X_\alpha \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{f} \\ \xrightarrow{g} \end{array} X_\beta,$$

consisting of two objects X_α, X_β of $\mathcal{C}$ and two morphisms $f, g : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$. Note: We do not assume that this diagram “commutes”, which would mean that f and g are the same morphism; for an arbitrary diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, there is no reason why $\mathcal{F}$ should send the two morphisms $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ to the same morphism $X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$. A colimit of a diagram of this form is called a **coequalizer** of the pair of morphisms $f, g : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$. Concretely, a target of such a diagram can be identified with an object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ together with a morphism $\varphi : X_\beta \rightarrow X$ such that

$$\varphi \circ f = \varphi \circ g,$$

so that either of these two compositions determines the corresponding morphism $X_\alpha \rightarrow X$. It satisfies the universal property of a coequalizer if and only if for every object $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ and morphism $\psi : X_\beta \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $\psi \circ f = \psi \circ g$, there is a unique morphism $u : X \rightarrow Y$ such that $u \circ \varphi = \psi$.

EXAMPLE 59.12. In **Top**, the coequalizer of a pair of maps $f, g : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ can be constructed as the quotient space

$$X := X_\beta / \sim, \quad \text{where} \quad f(x) \sim g(x) \text{ for all } x \in X_\alpha,$$

with the associated morphism $X_\beta \rightarrow X$ defined as the quotient projection. Coequalizers in **Ab**, **R-Mod** and **$\mathbb{K}$ -Vect** can similarly be constructed as quotients.

You may recall from Lecture 41 last semester that in **Top**, the direct limit of an arbitrary direct system can be constructed explicitly as a certain quotient of a disjoint union, and similarly, direct limits in **R-Mod** (and therefore also **Ab** and **$\mathbb{K}$ -Vect**) can be constructed as quotients of direct sums. Now that you can view disjoint unions and direct sums as examples of the same phenomenon in different categories, it might not surprise you to learn that at a formal level, both of these constructions are really the same thing. The role of quotients can be played by coequalizers, and in fact, it works not just for direct limits, but for arbitrary colimits.

THEOREM 59.13. *If $\mathcal{C}$ is a category in which all coproducts and coequalizers exist, then all colimits exist.*

PROOF SKETCH. Given a diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, denote $X_\alpha := \mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$, and write $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{J}, \mathcal{J})$ for the set of all morphisms between arbitrary objects of $\mathcal{J}$. (Note that $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{J}, \mathcal{J})$ is a set rather than a proper class, since the category $\mathcal{J}$ is assumed to be small.) Now define $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ to be the coproduct

$$Y := \coprod_{\phi \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{J}, \mathcal{J})} X_\phi, \quad \text{where} \quad \text{for } \phi \in \text{Hom}(\alpha, \beta), X_\phi := X_\alpha,$$

and define $Z \in \mathcal{C}$ as the slightly simpler coproduct

$$Z := \coprod_{\beta \in \mathcal{J}} X_\beta.$$

For each $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{J}$ and $\phi \in \text{Hom}(\alpha, \beta)$, let $f_\phi : X_\phi \rightarrow Z$ denote the composition of the morphism $\mathcal{F}(\phi) : X_\phi = X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ with the canonical morphism $X_\beta \rightarrow \coprod_{\gamma \in \mathcal{J}} X_\gamma$ of the coproduct; the universal property of the coproduct then dictates that the collection of morphisms $f_\phi : X_\phi \rightarrow Z$ determines a morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$. Similarly, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is determined by the collection of morphisms $g_\phi : X_\phi \rightarrow Z$ defined for each $\phi \in \text{Hom}(\alpha, \beta)$ as the compositions of $\text{Id}_{X_\alpha} : X_\phi = X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\alpha$ with the canonical morphism $X_\alpha \rightarrow \coprod_{\gamma \in \mathcal{J}} X_\gamma$. One now checks that the coequalizer of the two morphisms $f, g : Y \rightarrow Z$ satisfies the universal property for $\text{colim}(\mathcal{F})$. $\square$

59.4. Limits, products and equalizers. Just as direct limits are special cases of colimits, inverse limits are special cases of a dual notion, known in category theory simply as limits. Suppose again that $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a diagram, and write $X_\alpha := \mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ for $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$. For the purposes of limits, a **target** of $\mathcal{F}$ is a natural transformation $T_X : \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$, where $\mathcal{X}$ is a constant functor whose value is some object $X \in \mathcal{C}$, thus a target associates morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : X \rightarrow X_\alpha$ to each $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$. One calls this target a **limit** and writes

$$X = \lim(\mathcal{F})$$

if it satisfies the universal property that for every target $T_Y : \mathcal{Y} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ with associated morphisms $\psi_\alpha : Y \rightarrow X_\alpha$, there is a unique morphism $u : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $\psi_\alpha = \varphi_\alpha \circ u$ for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$.

Taking $\mathcal{J}$ to be a category with only identity morphisms, a limit of the diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is called a **product** and is often denoted by

$$\lim(\mathcal{F}) = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathcal{J}} X_\alpha.$$

As a target, it comes with an associated morphism $\prod_{\beta} X_\beta \xrightarrow{\pi_\alpha} X_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$. The universal property means that for any object Y with a collection of morphisms $f_\alpha : Y \rightarrow X_\alpha$, there is a uniquely determined morphism $f : Y \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y & \xrightarrow{f} & \prod_{\beta} X_\beta \xrightarrow{\pi_\alpha} X_\alpha \\ & \searrow f_\alpha & \uparrow \\ & & X_\alpha \end{array}$$

commutes for every $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$.

EXAMPLE 59.14. In **Top**, Cartesian products with the product topology and the natural projection maps $\pi_\alpha : \prod_{\beta} X_\beta \rightarrow X_\alpha$ define products in the category-theoretic sense. The same holds for the natural notion of products and projections in the usual algebraic categories **R-Mod**, **Ab**, **K-Vect** and **Grp**.

A limit of a diagram of the form (59.2) is called an **equalizer**. In this situation, a target is an object X together with a morphism $\varphi : X \rightarrow X_\alpha$ such that

$$f \circ \varphi = g \circ \varphi,$$

and it satisfies the universal property of an equalizer if for every such target $\psi : Y \rightarrow X_\alpha$, there is a unique morphism $u : Y \rightarrow X$ satisfying $\varphi \circ u = \psi$.

EXAMPLE 59.15. In **Top**, the equalizer of a pair of maps $f, g : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ can be defined as the subspace

$$X := \{x \in X_\alpha \mid f(x) = g(x)\},$$

together with the inclusion map $X \hookrightarrow X_\alpha$. One can similarly define equalizers in **R-Mod** (and therefore also in **Ab** or **K-Vect**) as submodules of X_α .

The following results are dual to the results about colimits stated above, and we shall leave their proofs as exercises. In particular, Theorem 59.18 generalizes the explicit constructions of inverse limits in the categories **Top** and **R-Mod** described in last semester's Lecture 45.

PROPOSITION 59.16. *If $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is a diagram with two limits $T_X : \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$ and $T_Y : \mathcal{Y} \Rightarrow \mathcal{F}$, specified by collections of morphisms $X \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} \mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ and $Y \xrightarrow{\psi_\alpha} \mathcal{F}(\alpha)$ respectively for each $\alpha \in \mathcal{J}$, then there is a unique isomorphism*

$$f : X \xrightarrow{\cong} Y \quad \text{such that} \quad \varphi_\alpha = \psi_\alpha \circ f \text{ for all } \alpha \in \mathcal{J}.$$

□

THEOREM 59.17. *If $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a covariant right-adjoint functor, then for every diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} : \alpha \mapsto X_\alpha$ admitting a limit $X := \lim(\mathcal{F})$ with associated morphisms $\varphi_\alpha : X \rightarrow X_\alpha$, the diagram $\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ has limit*

$$\mathcal{R}(X) = \lim(\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{F})$$

with associated morphisms $\mathcal{R}(\varphi_\alpha) : \mathcal{R}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(X_\alpha)$. $\square$

THEOREM 59.18. *If $\mathcal{C}$ is a category in which all products and equalizers exist, then all limits exist.* $\square$

59.5. Pullbacks and pushouts. A **pullback**, also known as a **fiber product**, is a limit of a diagram of the form

$$(59.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & X & \\ & \downarrow f & \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

More precisely, we consider a category $\mathcal{J}$ with exactly three objects $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{J}$ and exactly one morphism $\alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ and $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$, in addition to the identity morphisms; we can depict $\mathcal{J}$ as the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \alpha & \\ & \downarrow & \\ \beta & \longrightarrow & \gamma \end{array},$$

and consider a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ with $\mathcal{F}(\alpha) = X$, $\mathcal{F}(\beta) = Y$ and $\mathcal{F}(\gamma) = Z$, thus producing the diagram (59.3). For defining a limit of this diagram, a target can be represented by a square-shaped commutative diagram

$$(59.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{G} & X \\ \downarrow F & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array},$$

in which the morphisms $P \rightarrow X$ and $P \rightarrow Y$ are indicated explicitly, while a third morphism $P \rightarrow Z$ is defined implicitly as either of the compositions $f \circ G$ or $g \circ F$. The universal property for P with these morphisms is the statement that for any object Q with morphisms $\varphi : Q \rightarrow X$ and $\psi : Q \rightarrow Y$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Q & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & X \\ \downarrow \psi & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

commutes, there is a unique morphism $u : Q \rightarrow P$ for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} Q & & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & & X \\ & \searrow u & & \searrow & \\ & P & \xrightarrow{G} & & X \\ & \downarrow F & & \downarrow f & \\ & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & & Z \end{array}$$

also commutes. If this holds, then P (together with its morphisms to X and Y) is called a **pullback** or **fiber product** of the morphisms $X \xrightarrow{f} Z \xleftarrow{g} Y$ represented by the diagram (59.3), and (59.4) is then also called a **pullback square**.

EXAMPLE 59.19. In **Top**, a fiber product of two maps $f : X \rightarrow Z$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ can be constructed explicitly as the intersection locus

$$X \times_{f,g} Y := \{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid f(x) = g(y)\},$$

together with the morphisms to X and Y given by the obvious projection maps.

REMARK 59.20. Some motivation for the term “pullback” as a synonym for “fiber product” comes from the theory of fiber bundles. Suppose in particular that we imagine the map $f : X \rightarrow Z$ as decomposing the space X into a family of subspaces

$$\{X_z := f^{-1}(z) \subset X\}_{z \in Z}$$

parametrized by points $z \in Z$; the subspaces X_z are called *fibers* of the map f . The projection to Y then similarly decomposes the fiber product

$$P := X \times_{f,g} Y \xrightarrow{F := \text{pr}_Y} Y$$

as a family of fibers

$$P_y := \{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid f(x) = z := g(y)\} \cong X_{g(y)},$$

so the fibers of P are also fibers of X , but “pulled back” along the map $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ so that they are parametrized by points in Y instead of Z .

The colimit that serves in a dual role to the pullback construction is called a **pushout**: the category $\mathcal{J}$ is now of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \alpha & \longrightarrow & \gamma \\ \downarrow & & \\ \beta & & \end{array},$$

so that a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ with $\mathcal{F}(\alpha) = Z$, $\mathcal{F}(\beta) = Y$ and $\mathcal{F}(\gamma) = X$ can be depicted in the form

$$(59.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & & \\ Y & & \end{array}.$$

A target of $\mathcal{F}$ is again produced by filling in the missing vertex to form a square-shaped commutative diagram,

$$(59.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow G \\ Y & \xrightarrow{F} & P \end{array},$$

thus defining three morphisms $G : X \rightarrow P$, $F : Y \rightarrow P$ and $G \circ f = F \circ g : Z \rightarrow P$. This target then satisfies the universal property and is called a pushout of the morphisms $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and

$g : Z \rightarrow Y$ if and only if for arbitrary objects Q with morphisms $\varphi : X \rightarrow Q$ and $\psi : Y \rightarrow Q$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Q \end{array}$$

commutes, there is a unique morphism $u : P \rightarrow Q$ for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow G \\ Y & \xrightarrow{F} & P \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \searrow \varphi \\ \downarrow u \\ \searrow \psi \end{array} \quad Q$$

also commutes. If this holds, then the diagram (59.6) is called a **pushout square**.

EXAMPLE 59.21. A pushout in **Top** of two maps $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$ can be constructed by gluing together the spaces X and Y along Z , producing the space

$$X \mathbin{f \cup_g Y} := (X \amalg Y) / f(z) \sim g(z) \text{ for all } z \in Z,$$

together with the morphisms from X and Y to $X \mathbin{f \cup_g Y}$ given by the obvious inclusion maps.

59.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 59.1. Let's talk about some coproducts and products in algebraic settings.

- What is a coproduct of two objects in the category **Ring** of rings with unit? Try to describe it explicitly.
- Same question about products in **Ring**. (This one is perhaps easier.)
- Show that two fields of different characteristic can have neither a product nor a coproduct in the category **Fld** of fields.

EXERCISE 59.2 (*). Assume J is a set, and $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ and $\{Y_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ are collections of objects in some category $\mathcal{C}$ such that the products

$$\left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \xrightarrow{\pi_\beta^X} X_\beta \right\}_{\beta \in J}, \quad \left\{ \prod_{\alpha \in J} Y_\alpha \xrightarrow{\pi_\beta^Y} Y_\beta \right\}_{\beta \in J},$$

and coproducts

$$\left\{ X_\beta \xrightarrow{i_\beta^X} \coprod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \right\}_{\beta \in J}, \quad \left\{ Y_\beta \xrightarrow{i_\beta^Y} \coprod_{\alpha \in J} Y_\alpha \right\}_{\beta \in J}$$

exist. In what sense does an arbitrary collection of morphisms $\{f_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ uniquely determine morphisms

$$\prod_{\alpha \in J} f_\alpha : \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} Y_\alpha, \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{\alpha \in J} f_\alpha : \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} Y_\alpha?$$

Argue in terms of universal properties, without using your knowledge of how to represent products and coproducts in any specific categories.

EXERCISE 59.3. In defining limits and colimits of diagrams $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, the set of objects in $\mathcal{J}$ is not required to be nonempty. When it is empty, we can think of $\text{colim}(\mathcal{F})$ as a coproduct of an empty collection of objects in $\mathcal{C}$, and $\text{lim}(\mathcal{F})$ similarly as a product of an empty collection of objects. Show that a coproduct of an empty collection of objects is an initial object, and a product of an empty collection of objects is a terminal object.

EXERCISE 59.4. In any category $\mathcal{C}$, one says that **finite limits/colimits** exist if every diagram $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{J} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ for which $\mathcal{J}$ has only finitely-many objects admits a limit/colimit. Show that finite colimits always exist if and only if all pushouts exist and $\mathcal{C}$ has an initial object. Dually, finite limits always exist if and only if all pullbacks exist and $\mathcal{C}$ has a terminal object.

Hint: By Theorems 59.13 and 59.18, it suffices if you can express arbitrary (co-)equalizers and finite (co-)products in terms of pushouts or pullbacks.

EXERCISE 59.5. Assume $\mathcal{A}$ is a category in which the sets $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ of morphisms $A \rightarrow B$ for each $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ are equipped with the structure of abelian groups such that composition $\text{Hom}(A, B) \times \text{Hom}(B, C) : (f, g) \mapsto g \circ f$ is always a bilinear map. (Popular examples are the categories **Ab** of abelian groups and $R\text{-Mod}$ of modules over a commutative ring R .) A **biproduct** of two objects $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$ is an object $C \in \mathcal{A}$ equipped with four morphisms

$$(59.7) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & A & & & A \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ & i_A & & \pi_A & \\ & & C & & \\ & \nearrow & & \searrow & \\ & i_B & & \pi_B & \\ & B & & & B \end{array}$$

that satisfy the five relations

$$(59.8) \quad \pi_A i_A = \mathbb{1}_A, \quad \pi_B i_B = \mathbb{1}_B, \quad \pi_A i_B = 0, \quad \pi_B i_A = 0, \quad i_A \pi_A + i_B \pi_B = \mathbb{1}_C.$$

In the categories **Ab** or $R\text{-Mod}$, an example of a biproduct of A and B is the direct sum $A \oplus B$ with its canonical inclusion and projection maps. The category $\mathcal{A}$ is called **additive** if every pair of objects has a biproduct.

- Show that for any biproduct as in the diagram (59.7), C with the morphisms i_A, i_B is a coproduct of A and B , and with the morphisms π_A, π_B it is also a product of A and B .
- Show that in the categories **Ab** and $R\text{-Mod}$, every biproduct of two objects A, B admits an isomorphism to $A \oplus B$ that identifies the four maps in (59.7) with the obvious inclusions and projections.
- A (covariant or contravariant) functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ between two additive categories is called an **additive functor** if the map defined by $\mathcal{F}$ from $\text{Hom}(A, B)$ to $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(A), \mathcal{F}(B))$ or (in the contravariant case) $\text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}(B), \mathcal{F}(A))$ is a group homomorphism for all $A, B \in \mathcal{A}$. Show that additive functors send all biproducts in $\mathcal{A}$ to biproducts in $\mathcal{B}$.

Remark: Popular examples of additive functors $\text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$ or $R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ are $\otimes G$, $G \otimes$, $\text{Hom}(\cdot, G)$ and $\text{Hom}(G, \cdot)$ for any fixed module G , as these arise in the universal coefficient theorems for homology and cohomology.

EXERCISE 59.6. The category **Diff** of smooth manifolds is one in which many limits and colimits do not exist. An important example is the fiber product of two smooth maps $f : M \rightarrow Q$ and $g : N \rightarrow Q$, which matches the usual topological fiber product

$$M \times_f N := \{(x, y) \in M \times N \mid f(x) = g(y)\} \subset M \times N$$

if the maps f and g are **transverse** to each other (written $f \pitchfork g$), because the implicit function theorem then gives $M \times_g N$ a natural smooth manifold structure for which the obvious projections to M and N are smooth.⁹⁸ If, on the other hand, f and g are not transverse, then the examples below show that all bets are off.

- (a) Suppose $F : P \rightarrow M$ and $G : P \rightarrow N$ are smooth maps that define a target in Diff for the fiber product diagram defined by f and g ; in other words, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{F} & M \\ \downarrow G & & \downarrow f \\ N & \xrightarrow{g} & Q \end{array}$$

commutes and consists entirely of smooth manifolds and smooth maps. Interpret this diagram as defining a smooth map

$$u : P \rightarrow M \times N$$

whose image lies in the *topological* fiber product $M \times_g N \subset M \times N$, and show that if F and G satisfy the universal property for a fiber product in Diff, then u is a continuous bijection of P onto $M \times_g N \subset M \times N$.

- (b) Deduce that if $M \times_g N \subset M \times N$ is a smooth submanifold of $M \times N$, then $M \times_g N$ with its projection maps to M and N does in fact define a fiber product in Diff. (Note that this may sometimes hold even if f and g are not transverse.)
 (c) Consider the example $M = N = Q := \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x) := x^2$ and $g(y) := y^2$, thus

$$M \times_g N = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 = y^2\}.$$

You will easily convince yourself that this topological fiber product is not a manifold. Show that the pair of maps f, g does not admit any fiber product in Diff. Note that this is a stronger statement than just the observation that $\{x^2 = y^2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is not an object of Diff.

Hint: You can use parts (a) and (b) to show that if P is a smooth fiber product, then it contains a special point $p \in P$ such that $P \setminus \{p\}$ is diffeomorphic to $\{x^2 = y^2\} \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$.

- (d) Here's a weirder example: Let $M = Q := \mathbb{R}$, define $N := *$ as a manifold of one point with $g : N \rightarrow Q = \mathbb{R}$ mapping to 0, and choose $f : M = \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} = Q$ to be any smooth function with

$$f^{-1}(0) = \{-1, -1/2, -1/3, \dots\} \cup \{0\} \cup \{\dots, 1/3, 1/2, 1\}.$$

(If you have doubts about the existence of such a function, try making minor modifications to the function e^{-1/x^2} , or something similar.) Show that in this case, a fiber product in Diff does exist, but is not homeomorphic to the topological fiber product.

Hint: What can you say about continuous maps from locally path-connected spaces to $f^{-1}(0) \subset \mathbb{R}$?

⁹⁸Transversality is a condition on the derivatives of f and g at all points $x \in M$ and $y \in N$ such that $f(x) = g(y) =: p$; writing the derivatives at these points as linear maps $df(x) : T_x M \rightarrow T_p Q$ and $dg(y) : T_y N \rightarrow T_p Q$ between the appropriate tangent spaces, it means that the subspaces $\text{im } df(x)$ and $\text{im } dg(y)$ span all of $T_p Q$. Choosing suitable local coordinates near each point $(x, y) \in M \times_g N$, one can identify $M \times_g N$ locally with the zero-set of a smooth map whose derivative at (x, y) is surjective if and only if the transversality condition holds, so that the implicit function theorem makes $M \times_g N$ a smooth submanifold of $M \times N$.

EXERCISE 59.7. Let $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ denote the category of pairs of spaces and maps of pairs. When defining the cross and cup products on relative homology and cohomology, one often sees the product of two pairs defined as

$$(X, A) \times (Y, B) = (X \times Y, A \times Y \cup X \times B).$$

- (a) Why is this definition of $\times$ not actually a *product* (in the sense of category theory) on the category $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$? What do categorical products in $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ actually look like?
- (b) In the spirit of Exercise 58.4, I would like to argue that $\times$ as defined above should be interpreted as a *tensor product* on $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$. Due to some subtle point-set topological issues that I'd rather not get into until Lecture 61, it's best for now to dispense with topologies and work instead in the category $\mathbf{Set}^{\text{rel}}$, whose objects are pairs (X, A) of sets with $A \subset X$, and whose morphisms $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ are arbitrary (not necessarily continuous) maps $X \rightarrow Y$ that send A into B . In this setting, how can you regard each of the sets $\text{Hom}((X, A), (Y, B))$ as an object of $\mathbf{Set}^{\text{rel}}$ such that there are natural bijections

$$\text{Hom}((X, A) \times (Y, B), (Z, C)) \cong \text{Hom}((X, A), \text{Hom}((Y, B), (Z, C)))$$

for all choices of pairs?

60. Exactness and homotopy pullbacks/pushouts

60.1. Notation for maps and homotopy sets. We now begin the study of elementary homotopy theory. The main category in which this subject takes place is $\mathbf{hTop}$, the category of (unpointed) spaces and homotopy classes of maps. However, more interesting algebraic structures are often found if one adds a bit of auxiliary data and considers spaces with base points, leading to the category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. You saw this already when you learned about the fundamental group. Most of the interesting theorems we prove in homotopy theory will live in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ rather than $\mathbf{hTop}$, but there will also be some results telling us how to deduce theorems about $\mathbf{hTop}$ from theorems about $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

The fundamental objects of study in homotopy theory are the so-called **homotopy sets**

$$[X, Y] := \{\text{homotopy classes of maps } X \rightarrow Y\}$$

for any two spaces X, Y . We will allow this notation to mean two distinct things depending on the context: if no base points have been chosen for X and Y , then $[X, Y]$ will mean exactly what is written above, without further qualification. If on the other hand X and Y are *pointed* spaces, then by default we will interpret $[X, Y]$ to mean the set of pointed homotopy classes of pointed maps $X \rightarrow Y$, thus

$$[X, Y] = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}}(X, Y) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}_*}(X, Y)$$

depending on the context. Occasionally, we may want to take two pointed spaces X, Y and forget their base points in order to consider *unpointed* homotopy classes (also known as **free homotopy classes**) of maps between them, in which case some additional notation is needed to avoid ambiguity: when necessary, we will therefore clear up the confusion by writing

$$[X, Y]_{\circ} := \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}}(X, Y) \quad \text{but} \quad [X, Y]_{+} := \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}_*}(X, Y).$$

We must also sometimes consider unpointed or pointed pairs of spaces, i.e. the categories $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*^{\text{rel}}$. For two pairs $(X, A), (Y, B)$, we write

$$[(X, A), (Y, B)] := \{\text{homotopy classes of maps of pairs } (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)\},$$

with the understanding that this should mean *pointed* homotopy classes of maps of pairs whenever base points in A and B have been chosen, hence

$$[(X, A), (Y, B)] = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}}((X, A), (Y, B)) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{hTop}_*^{\text{rel}}}((X, A), (Y, B)),$$

with the notation $[(X, A), (Y, B)]_o$ and $[(X, A), (Y, B)]_+$ used to specify free or pointed respectively when there is ambiguity. Occasionally, we will also encounter more complicated objects such as *triads* and *tetrads* of spaces, and will use similar notation for homotopy sets in those contexts.

As long as we are clarifying such things, let us introduce notation for the morphisms in **Top** and **Top_{*}**: for any two spaces X, Y , we denote

$$Y^X := \mathcal{F}(X, Y) := \{\text{continuous maps } X \rightarrow Y\},$$

which we interpret to mean *pointed* maps whenever the context is **Top_{*}** and X, Y have been endowed with base points, hence

$$Y^X = \mathcal{F}(X, Y) = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X, Y).$$

The notation Y^X is also sometimes used for the set of *all* unpointed or pointed (but not necessarily continuous) maps $X \rightarrow Y$ when working in the context of the categories **Set** or **Set_{*}**. In situations where X and Y are pointed topological spaces but we wish to have the freedom to ignore their base points, we shall write

$$\mathcal{F}_o(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}}(X, Y) \quad \text{but} \quad \mathcal{F}_+(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X, Y).$$

I have two more notational conventions to clarify. Given maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$, we write

$$f \underset{h}{\sim} g$$

to indicate that f and g are homotopic, and if $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is a concrete choice of homotopy between them, we can also write

$$f \overset{H}{\rightsquigarrow} g,$$

thus thinking of the homotopy as a path in $\mathcal{F}(X, Y)$ from f to g . As usual, this can mean unpointed or pointed homotopy, or homotopy of maps of pairs, depending on the context.

Commutative diagrams in a homotopy category have a different literal meaning than the same diagrams if they are interpreted in the corresponding category of spaces and maps. Given spaces X, Y, Z, Q and maps f, g, φ, ψ , I will use a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & \sim & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Q \end{array}$$

to mean that $\varphi \circ f$ and $\psi \circ g$ need not be identical maps but are homotopic, whatever that means in whichever category the objects of the diagram live in, e.g. if they are pointed spaces it means pointed homotopic, for spaces without base points it just means homotopic—it may also mean *chain* homotopic if the objects are chain complexes. If I write the variant

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & \underset{\alpha}{\sim} & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Q \end{array}$$

then it means that α is a homotopy (or chain homotopy as the case may be) from $\varphi \circ f$ to $\psi \circ g$. It wasn't easy to figure out how to render this in LaTeX, so maybe that's why most textbooks don't do it.

REMARK 60.1. There is no universal standard for most of this notation, and what I have written above is similar to various books but not identical to any of them. You've probably seen $\mathcal{F}(X, Y)$ written before as $C(X, Y)$, but I'm going to avoid this because the C could be mistaken

for a *cone* construction that we will make much use of later. There are also many books in which $[X, Y]$ is only allowed to mean the *unpointed* homotopy set, with different notation such as $[X, Y]^0$ (see e.g. [tD08]) used for sets of pointed homotopy classes. We prefer in these notes to let the precise meaning of $[X, Y]$ depend on the context, which cuts down on the need to duplicate statements that are equally valid in the pointed and unpointed categories. We will use similar conventions later for cones and suspensions, which have pointed and unpointed variants. Where I write $f \xrightarrow{H} g$, [tD08] writes $H : f \simeq g$.

60.2. Exact sequences in pointed categories. A central result in elementary homotopy theory is a pair of “exact” sequences that can be associated to every pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, called the Puppe *fiber sequence*

$$\dots \rightarrow \Omega^2 X \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 f} \Omega^2 Y \rightarrow \Omega F(f) \rightarrow \Omega X \xrightarrow{\Omega f} \Omega Y \rightarrow F(f) \rightarrow X \xrightarrow{f} Y,$$

and *cofiber sequence*

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \rightarrow \text{cone}(f) \rightarrow \Sigma X \xrightarrow{\Sigma f} \Sigma Y \rightarrow \Sigma \text{cone}(f) \rightarrow \Sigma^2 X \xrightarrow{\Sigma^2 f} \Sigma^2 Y \rightarrow \dots$$

It will turn out that in suitable contexts, most of the familiar long exact sequences of algebraic topology can be derived from these two: the exact sequences of pairs in homology and cohomology are corollaries of the cofiber sequence, while the fiber sequence gives rise to exact sequences of higher homotopy groups. Before we can explain all that, or what all the terms in these sequences are and where they come from, we have an issue of terminology to clear up: what does it mean for a sequence

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$$

of pointed spaces and pointed maps to be exact?

We are doing homotopy theory, so we really should be thinking in the category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ rather than $\mathbf{Top}_*$, but this at first just makes the question more puzzling: if f and g are only homotopy classes rather than precise maps, then the condition “ $\text{im } f = \ker g$ ” does not make sense because we have no unambiguous way to define either $\text{im } f$ or $\ker g$. On the other hand, the condition “ $g \circ f = 0$ ” does have a reasonable interpretation: there is a preferred homotopy class of pointed maps $X \rightarrow Z$, namely that of the constant map, so if this is our understanding of the symbol “0”, then $g \circ f = 0$ means that $g \circ f$ is pointed homotopic to a constant map. A slightly fancier way to express that condition is that the diagram

$$(60.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow g \\ * & \longrightarrow & Z \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy. After the previous lecture, the sight of a square-shaped diagram might induce you to ask the following question: what does it tell us if this diagram turns out to be a pullback or pushout square?

Let’s return for a moment to more familiar territory and talk about exact sequences of R -modules, because in that context, I think you’ll find the answer intriguing.

PROPOSITION 60.2. *For two R -module homomorphisms $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$, the following conditions are equivalent:*

- (i) *The sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ is exact;*
- (ii) *The sequence $0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(Q, A) \xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Hom}(Q, B) \xrightarrow{g_*} \text{Hom}(Q, C)$ is exact for every R -module Q ;*

(iii) *The diagram*

$$(60.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow g \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & C \end{array}$$

commutes and is a pullback square.

Moreover, the following conditions are also equivalent:

- (iv) *The sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow 0$ is exact;*
- (v) *The sequence $0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, Q) \xrightarrow{g^*} \operatorname{Hom}(B, Q) \xrightarrow{f^*} \operatorname{Hom}(A, Q)$ is exact for every R -module Q ;*
- (vi) *The diagram (60.2) commutes and is a pushout square.*

In particular, $0 \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence if and only if (60.2) commutes and is both a pullback and a pushout square.

PROOF. We start with conditions (i)–(iii), in which the most interesting detail for our purposes will be the equivalence of conditions (ii) and (iii). Assume first that the diagram commutes and is a pullback square. The condition $gf = 0$ then implies that for every $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, A)$, $g_*f_*\varphi = (gf)\varphi = 0 \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, C)$, hence $\operatorname{im} f_* \subset \ker g_*$. We then need to show that every $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, B)$ with $g_*\psi = g\psi = 0$ is also $f_*\varphi = f\varphi$ for a unique $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, A)$. This follows from the universal property of the pullback, which produces the diagram

$$(60.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & Q & & \\ & \searrow \varphi & \downarrow \psi & \searrow \psi & \\ & & A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow g \\ & & 0 & \longrightarrow & C \end{array}$$

Conversely, if the sequence in (ii) satisfies $g_*f_* = 0$, then $0 = g_*f_*(1_A) = gf$, so the diagram commutes, and the exactness of the sequence then means precisely that the universal property described above is satisfied.

The implication (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) is easy: first, $g_*f_* = 0$ implies $\operatorname{im} f \subset \ker g$ as explained above. Now to see that the sequence in (i) is exact at B , set $Q := \ker g$ and take $\psi \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, B)$ to be the inclusion $\ker g \hookrightarrow B$, so that $g_*\psi = g\psi = 0$. The exactness of the sequence in (ii) at $\operatorname{Hom}(Q, B)$ then gives an element $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(Q, A)$ such that $f_*\varphi = f\varphi = \psi$, proving $\ker g = \operatorname{im} \psi \subset \operatorname{im} f$. In the same manner, the exactness of the sequence in (ii) at $\operatorname{Hom}(Q, A)$ implies the exactness of the sequence in (i) at A .

Finally, the implication (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) holds because $\operatorname{Hom}(Q, \cdot) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is a left-exact functor for every $Q \in R\text{-Mod}$; see Prop. 47.11 in last semester's Lecture 47.

The equivalence of conditions (iv)–(vi) follows by analogous arguments: the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B & & \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow g & \searrow \psi & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & C & \searrow \varphi & \\ & & & & Q \end{array}$$

represents the universal property of the pushout, and shows at the same time that the sequence in (v) is exact because every $\psi \in \text{Hom}(B, Q)$ with $f^*\psi = \psi f = 0$ is also $\varphi g = g^*\varphi$ for a unique $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(C, Q)$. To get from (v) to (iv), one notes first that the condition $f^*g^* = 0$ implies $0 = f^*g^*\mathbf{1}_C = gf$ and thus $\text{im } f \subset \ker f$, while taking $Q := B/\text{im}(f) = \text{coker}(f)$ with $\psi \in \text{Hom}(B, Q)$ as the quotient projection, one has $f^*\psi = \psi f = 0$ and therefore finds a unique $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(C, Q)$ such that $\psi = g^*\varphi = \varphi g$, implying $\ker g \subset \ker \psi = \text{im } f$. Conversely, the implication (iv) $\Rightarrow$ (v) follows from the fact that $\text{Hom}(\cdot, Q) : R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ is a left-exact functor (see Prop. 47.4 in last semester's Lecture 47). $\square$

A portion of Proposition 60.2 can be generalized beyond $R\text{-Mod}$ to a larger range of categories that includes $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. Before explaining this, we note the following detail: if instead of condition (ii) we had only wanted to prove that the three-term sequence

$$\text{Hom}(Q, A) \xrightarrow{f^*} \text{Hom}(Q, B) \xrightarrow{g^*} \text{Hom}(Q, C)$$

is exact at the middle term for every $Q \in R\text{-Mod}$, we could have done this under a slightly weaker hypothesis than condition (iii). Exactness at $\text{Hom}(Q, B)$ requires the existence of the map $\varphi : Q \rightarrow A$ appearing in the diagram (60.3), but it does not require this map to be unique. A similar remark applies to condition (v), and the following notion therefore becomes useful:

DEFINITION 60.3. A commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{F} & B \\ \downarrow G & & \downarrow g \\ C & \xrightarrow{f} & D \end{array}$$

in a category $\mathcal{C}$ is called a **weak pullback square**, and A (with the morphisms F and G) is a **weak pullback** of the diagram $B \xrightarrow{g} D \xleftarrow{f} C$, if for every commutative diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Q & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & B \\ \downarrow \psi & & \downarrow g \\ C & \xrightarrow{f} & D \end{array},$$

there exists a (not necessarily unique) morphism $u : Q \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi = F \circ u$ and $\psi = G \circ u$. Similarly, it is called a **weak pushout square**, and D (with the morphisms f and g) is a **weak pushout** of the diagram $B \xleftarrow{F} A \xrightarrow{G} C$, if for every commutative diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{F} & B \\ \downarrow G & & \downarrow \psi \\ C & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Q \end{array},$$

there exists a (not necessarily unique) morphism $u : D \rightarrow Q$ such that $\varphi = u \circ f$ and $\psi = u \circ g$.

For a sequence $X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$ of pointed spaces with pointed homotopy classes of maps, there is no obvious way to make sense of a condition like $\text{im } f = \ker g$, which would correspond to conditions (i) and (iv) in Prop. 60.2. On the other hand, there is more hope for conditions (ii) and (v): we can choose an arbitrary auxiliary space Q and consider induced sequences of pointed homotopy sets

$$[Q, X] \xrightarrow{f^*} [Q, Y] \xrightarrow{g^*} [Q, Z], \quad \text{and} \quad [Z, Q] \xrightarrow{g^*} [Y, Q] \xrightarrow{f^*} [X, Q].$$

These sequences live naturally in the category $\mathbf{Set}_*$ of pointed sets: indeed, every pointed homotopy set contains a distinguished element, the homotopy class of the unique constant pointed map. It is not difficult to define a reasonable notion of exactness for sequences of pointed set maps:

DEFINITION 60.4. A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ of objects and morphisms in the category $\mathbf{Set}_*$ is said to be **exact** at B if

$$\mathrm{im} f = \ker g := g^{-1}(*),$$

where $*$ $\in C$ denotes the base point of C . A sequence of arbitrary length in $\mathbf{Set}_*$ will then be called exact if it is exact at all of its interior terms.

REMARK 60.5. One word of caution about Definition 60.4: in a “short” exact sequence of pointed set maps

$$* \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \longrightarrow *,$$

exactness at C means (as expected) that g is surjective, but exactness at A only means $\ker f = \{*\} \subset A$, which does not automatically imply that f is injective unless we have more algebraic structure to work with. For this reason, we will not bother attempting to generalize the details in Prop. 60.2 that involve the trivial initial term in the sequences of conditions (ii) and (v).

REMARK 60.6. Strictly speaking, the condition in Definition 60.4 for a three-term sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ to be exact only requires C to have a base point; one can also allow A and B to be unpointed sets.

Let us now frame the problem in more general category-theoretic terms.

DEFINITION 60.7. A **pointed category** $\mathcal{C}$ is a category containing an object $0 \in \mathcal{C}$ that is both initial and terminal; this object is then called a **zero** or **null** object.

We’ve seen a few examples of pointed categories already: $\mathbf{Top}_*$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ are both pointed, with one-point spaces as zero objects, and $R\text{-Mod}$ is also pointed, with trivial modules as zero objects.

REMARK 60.8. Neither $\mathbf{Top}$ nor $\mathbf{hTop}$ is pointed, but there is a standard procedure to produce a pointed category out of any category $\mathcal{C}$ that has a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{C}$: a **pointed object** of $\mathcal{C}$ is a pair (X, x) consisting of an object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ together with a morphism $x : 1 \rightarrow X$. One then defines a category $\mathcal{C}_0$ whose objects are the pointed objects of $\mathcal{C}$, with morphisms $(X, x) \rightarrow (Y, y)$ defined to be morphisms $f : X \rightarrow Y$ for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & 1 & \\ x \swarrow & & \searrow y \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

commutes. Doing this trick with $\mathbf{Top}$ just produces $\mathbf{Top}_*$, the usual category of pointed spaces, since a continuous map $* \rightarrow X$ is equivalent to a choice of base point in a space X . In $\mathbf{hTop}$, a morphism $* \rightarrow X$ is only a homotopy class and thus does not determine a precise base point, but instead determines a preferred path-component of X . The pointed category $\mathbf{hTop}_0$ arising from $\mathbf{hTop}$ is therefore not $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, but instead the category whose objects are (necessarily nonempty) spaces X with preferred path-components, and morphisms $X \rightarrow Y$ in this category are (unpointed) homotopy classes of maps $X \rightarrow Y$ that send the preferred path-component of X to the preferred path-component of Y . One can use $\mathbf{hTop}_0$ to extend some of the theory of exact sequences outlined below from the pointed to the unpointed homotopy category.

In any pointed category $\mathcal{C}$, the set $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$ of morphisms between two objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ has a distinguished element called $0 \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$, determined by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{0} & Y \\ & \searrow & \nearrow \\ & 0 & \end{array} .$$

One can use the uniqueness of morphisms to and from $0 \in \mathcal{C}$ to show that the definition of the morphism $0 \in \text{Hom}(X, Y)$ does not depend on the choice of zero object; this is closely related to the fact that zero objects (as with initial and terminal objects more generally) are unique up to canonical isomorphisms. Note that since $*$ is the zero object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, this definition of a zero morphism is consistent with the way that the diagram (60.1) is used for characterizing the condition “ $g \circ f = 0$ ”. It also has the appealing property that the composition of 0 with any other morphism is also 0 .

The existence of a distinguished element means that $\text{Hom}(X, Y)$ is not just a set, but is in fact a *pointed* set. Moreover, for any given object $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$, the induced set maps

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hom}(X, Y) &\xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Hom}(X, Z) : \varphi \mapsto f \circ \varphi \\ \text{Hom}(Z, X) &\xrightarrow{f^*} \text{Hom}(Y, X) : \psi \mapsto \psi \circ f \end{aligned}$$

both send $0 \mapsto 0$, and are thus *pointed* set maps. In other words, each $X \in \mathcal{C}$ defines functors

$$\text{Hom}(X, \cdot) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}_* \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Hom}(\cdot, X) : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}_* .$$

REMARK 60.9. The following observation has applications to the category $\mathbf{hTop}$: If $\mathcal{C}$ is a category with a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{C}_0$ denotes the associated category of pointed objects as in Remark 60.8, then each $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and $(Y, y) \in \mathcal{C}_0$ determines a natural base point $0 \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y)$, which is determined by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{0} & Y \\ & \searrow & \nearrow y \\ & 1 & \end{array} .$$

One can then interpret Hom as a functor

$$\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}_0 \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}} \mathbf{Set}_* ,$$

contravariant in the first variable and covariant in the second. In the example $\mathcal{C} := \mathbf{hTop}$, this means that for any $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$, choosing a preferred path-component of Y determines a base point of $[X, Y]_0$, namely the homotopy class of a constant map $X \rightarrow Y$ with image in the preferred path-component. Moreover, maps $f : Y \rightarrow Y'$ that preserve preferred path-components determine pointed maps of homotopy sets $f_* : [X, Y]_0 \rightarrow [X, Y']_0$, and arbitrary maps $f : X \rightarrow X'$ determine pointed set maps $f^* : [X', Y]_0 \rightarrow [X, Y]_0$.

Proposition 60.2 can now be adapted for arbitrary pointed categories as follows; the proof requires nothing that was not already in the proof of Prop. 60.2, so we will omit it.

PROPOSITION 60.10. Assume $\mathcal{C}$ is a pointed category, and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ are morphisms of this category. Then the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow g \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z \end{array}$$

commutes and is a weak pullback square if and only if for every object $Q \in \mathcal{C}$, the sequence of pointed set maps

$$\mathrm{Hom}(Q, X) \xrightarrow{f_*} \mathrm{Hom}(Q, Y) \xrightarrow{g_*} \mathrm{Hom}(Q, Z)$$

is exact. Moreover, the diagram commutes and is a weak pushout square if and only if for every object $Q \in \mathcal{C}$, the sequence of pointed set maps

$$\mathrm{Hom}(Z, Q) \xrightarrow{g^*} \mathrm{Hom}(Y, Q) \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathrm{Hom}(X, Q)$$

is exact. □

The upshot is that in pointed categories such as $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, there are generally *two* useful notions of exactness: one involving weak pullbacks, the other involving weak pushouts. In general, they are not equivalent to each other, and in the familiar algebraic categories such as $R\text{-Mod}$, each implies the usual notion of exactness, but the converse is generally false due to the failure of the functors $R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$ defined by $\mathrm{Hom}(Q, \cdot)$ and $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, Q)$ to be exact. When we develop the Puppe sequences in detail, we will see that the fiber sequence is exact in the pullback sense, thus leading to exact sequences of pointed homotopy sets of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow [Q, \Omega^2 Y] \rightarrow [Q, \Omega F(f)] \rightarrow [Q, \Omega X] \xrightarrow{(\Omega f)^*} [Q, \Omega Y] \rightarrow [Q, F(f)] \rightarrow [Q, X] \xrightarrow{f^*} [Q, Y]$$

for arbitrary pointed spaces Q , while the cofiber sequence is exact in the pushout sense, producing dualized exact sequences of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow [\Sigma^2 X, Q] \rightarrow [\Sigma \mathrm{cone}(f), Q] \rightarrow [\Sigma Y, Q] \xrightarrow{(\Sigma f)^*} [\Sigma X, Q] \rightarrow [\mathrm{cone}(f), Q] \rightarrow [Y, Q] \xrightarrow{f^*} [X, Q].$$

We'll come back to these sequences and fill in the details in a few weeks.

REMARK 60.11. Proposition 60.10 also has a variant that can be applied in $\mathbf{hTop}$, even though $\mathbf{hTop}$ is not a pointed category. If $\mathcal{C}$ is any category with a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{C}$, then one can define the category $\mathcal{C}_0$ of *pointed objects* as explained in Remark 60.8. A commuting diagram in $\mathcal{C}$ of the form

$$(60.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow g \\ 1 & \xrightarrow{z} & Z \end{array}$$

then determines a pointed object $(Z, z) \in \mathcal{C}_0$, and for any other object $Q \in \mathcal{C}$, the morphism $z : 1 \rightarrow Z$ endows $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Q, Z)$ with a base point as explained in Remark 60.9, so that by Remark 60.6, one can make sense of the condition that

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Q, X) \xrightarrow{f_*} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Q, Y) \xrightarrow{g_*} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Q, Z)$$

is an exact sequence. Note that this notion of exactness depends on the choice of morphism $z : 1 \rightarrow Z$, which need not be unique, but if it is the same one that appears in the diagram (60.4), then one easily checks that the sequence is exact for every $Q \in \mathcal{C}$ if and only if the diagram is a weak pullback square. Applying this in the case $\mathcal{C} = \mathbf{hTop}$, the diagram (60.4) means that

$g \circ f$ is homotopic to a constant, and Z then becomes a pointed object of $\mathbf{hTop}$ whose preferred path-component is the one that contains the image of $g \circ f$.

The dual statement is slightly more complicated: here we must choose not just an object $Q \in \mathcal{C}$ but a *pointed* object $(Q, q) \in \mathcal{C}_0$, so that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Q)$ becomes equipped with a natural base point, and exactness of the dualized sequence therefore makes sense. But it is also still true that the diagram (60.4) makes Z into a pointed object, and the correct statement then turns out to be that this diagram is a weak pushout in $\mathcal{C}$ if and only if for every pointed object $Q \in \mathcal{C}_0$, the sequence

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_0}(Z, Q) \xrightarrow{g^*} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Y, Q) \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Q)$$

is exact. Here $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_0}(Z, Q)$ depends on the *pointed* objects (Z, z) and (Q, q) : it is the subset of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Z, Q)$ consisting of all morphisms $\varphi : Z \rightarrow Q$ such that $\varphi \circ z = q$. The sequence is not exact in general (in fact it does not even satisfy $f^*g^* = 0$) if $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_0}(Z, Q)$ is replaced by $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Z, Q)$. The situation is nicer, however, if one chooses Q to be an object for which there is only one morphism $1 \rightarrow Q$; in the case $\mathcal{C} = \mathbf{hTop}$, this would be the condition that Q is path-connected. Then there is no distinction between $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}_0}(Z, Q)$ and $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Z, Q)$, and the base point of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Q)$ does not depend on any choices, e.g. if $\mathcal{C} = \mathbf{hTop}$ and Q is a path-connected space, then $[X, Q]_0$ contains a unique homotopy class of constant maps.

60.3. Mapping cylinders and mapping path spaces. The addition of the word “weak” in Proposition 60.10 is good news, because it turns out that in the homotopy categories $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, *weak* pullbacks and pushouts are easy to construct, whereas actual pullbacks and pushouts do not always exist (see Exercise 60.6). This contrasts with the categories $\mathbf{Top}$ and $\mathbf{Top}_*$, in which all limits and colimits can be constructed explicitly. We now explain concrete constructions that produce weak pullbacks and pushouts in the homotopy categories. We begin with the pushout.

DEFINITION 60.12. Assume $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$ are continuous maps between spaces. The **unreduced** (double) **mapping cylinder** of f and g is the space

$$Z_0(f, g) := (X \amalg (Z \times I) \amalg Y) / \sim, \quad \text{where } (z, 0) \sim f(z) \text{ and } (z, 1) \sim g(z) \text{ for all } z \in Z.$$

If f and g are pointed maps between pointed spaces, we can also define their **reduced** (double) mapping cylinder as the pointed space

$$Z_+(f, g) := \left(X \vee \frac{Z \times I}{* \times I} \vee Y \right) / \sim, \quad \text{where } [(z, 0)] \sim f(z) \text{ and } [(z, 1)] \sim g(z) \text{ for all } z \in Z.$$

For notational flexibility, we will usually denote both versions of the mapping cylinder by $Z(f, g)$ and let the meaning of this symbol depend on the context, thus

$$Z(f, g) := \begin{cases} Z_0(f, g) & \text{when working in } \mathbf{Top}, \\ Z_+(f, g) & \text{when working in } \mathbf{Top}_*. \end{cases}$$

REMARK 60.13. For any space X and subset $A \subset X$, it is natural to regard the quotient X/A as a *pointed* space with the equivalence class of A serving as the base point. This convention was followed above when we wrote $(Z \times I)/(* \times I)$ in the definition of $Z_+(f, g)$, and we shall follow it consistently henceforth.

The mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$ comes with obvious inclusions

$$X \xrightarrow{i_X} Z(f, g) \xleftarrow{i_Y} Y,$$

which are pointed maps in the reduced case, and they fit into a homotopy-commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ g \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow i_X \\ Y & \xrightarrow{i_Y} & Z(f, g) \end{array} .$$

Observe that this diagram is definitely not *strictly* commutative, i.e. it does not commute in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$, since the images of i_X and i_Y are quite different, but it clearly does commute in the corresponding homotopy category. The mapping cylinder now provides weak pushouts in the following manner. Suppose we are given maps $\varphi : X \rightarrow Q$ and $\psi : Y \rightarrow Q$, together with a homotopy $\varphi \circ f \xrightarrow{H} \psi \circ g$, as represented in the diagram

$$(60.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ g \downarrow & \xrightarrow{H} & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\quad} & Q \end{array} \quad \psi$$

This data determines a map $Z(f, g) \xrightarrow{u} Q$ defined by taking the disjoint union of the maps

$$X \xrightarrow{\varphi} Q, \quad Y \xrightarrow{\psi} Q, \quad \text{and} \quad Z \times I \xrightarrow{H} Q,$$

and then descending to the quotient. Note that in the reduced case, this makes sense because $H : Z \times I \rightarrow Q$ is assumed to be a *pointed* homotopy and thus descends to a pointed map $(Z \times I)/(* \times I) \rightarrow Q$. By construction, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Q \\ i_X \downarrow & & \uparrow \psi \\ Z(f, g) & \xrightarrow{u} & Q \\ i_Y \uparrow & & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Q \end{array}$$

commutes, in fact strictly, not just up to homotopy, and we can therefore convert (60.5) into

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ g \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow i_X \\ Y & \xrightarrow{i_Y} & Z(f, g) \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & \varphi \\ & & \downarrow \\ & & Q \end{array} , \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & \psi \\ & & \downarrow \\ & & Q \end{array}$$

which looks strikingly similar to the usual diagram that we draw to describe the universal property of a pushout. The difference is that while the procedure described here defines the map $u : Z(f, g) \rightarrow Q$ canonically, we are not claiming that it is the *only* map (even up to homotopy) that could be fit into such a diagram. Note also that u depends on strictly more data than just a commutative diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$: a specific choice of homotopy H was also used in the construction, and it is possible for different choices of homotopy to produce different homotopy classes of maps $u : Z(f, g) \rightarrow Q$. The construction does show however that the mapping cylinder defines *weak* pushouts in the category $\mathbf{hTop}$ (for the unreduced case) or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ (the reduced case).

It will occasionally be useful to understand to what extent $Z(f, g)$ is an invariant of the homotopy classes of f and g :

THEOREM 60.14. *There exists a category $\mathcal{P}$ whose objects are pushout diagrams (in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$)*

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

such that

- (1) Changing the maps f and g by homotopies produces isomorphic objects of $\mathcal{P}$;
- (2) There is a functor $\mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$ sending each pushout diagram to its mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$.

PROOF SKETCH. Morphisms in $\mathcal{P}$ are diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X & & \\ & \searrow \gamma & \sim \phi & \searrow \alpha & \\ & & Z' & \xrightarrow{f'} & X' \\ & \downarrow g & \downarrow \psi & & \\ Y & & Y' & & \\ & \searrow \beta & & & \end{array},$$

including choices of homotopies ϕ and ψ as part of the data. The notion of composition of such morphisms arises naturally by composing maps and concatenating homotopies. Such a morphism determines a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ \downarrow g & \sim H & \downarrow i_{X'} \circ \alpha \\ Y & \xrightarrow{i_{Y'} \circ \beta} & Z(f', g') \end{array}$$

and therefore also an induced map $Z(f, g) \xrightarrow{u} Z(f', g')$. It is a bit tedious but straightforward to check:

- (1) The map induced by a composition of two morphisms in $\mathcal{P}$ is homotopic to the composition of the two induced maps.
- (2) If the maps α, β, γ all have homotopy inverses, one can use them to construct an inverse morphism in $\mathcal{P}$.

Both only require the same ideas that are needed for proving e.g. that multiplication in the fundamental group is associative. The second point implies, in particular, that the map $Z(f, g) \rightarrow Z(f', g')$ is a homotopy equivalence whenever α, β, γ are. More details can be found in [tD08, §4.1–4.2]. $\square$

COROLLARY 60.15. *If $f \sim_h f'$ and $g \sim_h g'$, then $Z(f, g)$ and $Z(f', g')$ are homotopy equivalent.* $\square$

We next explain the dual construction, which produces weak pullbacks in $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. It will be convenient to denote the space of all paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X$ in a space X by

$$X^I := \mathcal{F}(I, X) := \{\text{continuous maps } I \rightarrow X\}.$$

We regard this as a topological space with the compact-open topology, and note that for each $t \in I$, there is a continuous evaluation map

$$X^I \xrightarrow{\text{ev}_t} X : \gamma \mapsto \gamma(t).$$

DEFINITION 60.16. The (double) **mapping path space** of two maps $f : X \rightarrow Z$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is

$$P(f, g) := X \times_{f \times \text{ev}_0} Z^I \times_{\text{ev}_1} Y = \left\{ (x, \gamma, y) \in X \times Z^I \times Y \mid \gamma \text{ is a path in } Z \text{ from } f(x) \text{ to } g(y) \right\}.$$

Unlike the mapping cylinder, we do not need two distinct constructions of mapping path spaces for working in the pointed and unpointed categories; it suffices rather to observe that if f and g are pointed maps between pointed spaces, then $P(f, g)$ naturally becomes a pointed space with base point $(*, c_*, *) \in P(f, g)$, where $c_* \in Z^I$ denotes the constant path at the base point of Z .

The mapping path space is “dual” to the mapping cylinder in the sense that it fits into all the same diagrams, but with the arrows reversed, e.g. with the obvious projections to X and Y , the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P(f, g) & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} & X \\ \pi_Y \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

commutes up to an obvious homotopy, and any homotopy commutative diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Q & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & X \\ \psi \downarrow & \widetilde{H} & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

naturally determines a map $u : Q \rightarrow P(f, g)$ for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & X \\ & \nearrow \varphi & \uparrow \pi_X \\ Q & \xrightarrow{u} & P(f, g) \\ & \searrow \psi & \downarrow \pi_Y \\ & & Y \end{array}$$

commutes. As a consequence, $P(f, g)$ with its projections to X and Y defines a weak pullback of the diagram $X \xrightarrow{f} Z \xleftarrow{g} Y$ in $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

As with the mapping cylinder, one can show that the homotopy type of $P(f, g)$ depends only on the homotopy classes of f and g ; see Exercise 60.4.

60.4. Homotopy pushouts and pullbacks. The mapping cylinder and mapping path space are regarded as the “standard” examples of a homotopy-invariant notion that we shall now define.

DEFINITION 60.17. A commutative diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ g \downarrow & & \downarrow \varphi \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Q \end{array}$$

is called a **homotopy pushout square** if there exist maps f, g, φ, ψ representing the given homotopy classes and a choice of homotopy from $\varphi \circ f$ to $\psi \circ g$ for which the induced map $Z(f, g) \rightarrow Q$ is a homotopy equivalence.

Similarly, a diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Q & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & X \\ \psi \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

is a **homotopy pullback square** if there exist maps φ, ψ, f, g representing the given homotopy classes and a choice of homotopy from $f \circ \varphi$ to $g \circ \psi$ for which the induced map $Q \rightarrow P(f, g)$ is a homotopy equivalence.

REMARK 60.18. If working in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, then all maps, homotopies and homotopy equivalences in the above definition should be assumed pointed.

For trivial reasons, squares of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z & \xrightarrow{f} & X \\ g \downarrow & & \downarrow i_X \\ Y & \xrightarrow{i_Y} & Z(f, g) \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} P(f, g) & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} & X \\ \pi_Y \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

are always homotopy pushouts and homotopy pullbacks respectively, as there are obvious choices of homotopies $i_X \circ f \rightsquigarrow i_Y \circ g$ and $f \circ \pi_X \rightsquigarrow g \circ \pi_Y$ for which the induced maps $Z(f, g) \rightarrow Z(f, g)$ and $P(f, g) \rightarrow P(f, g)$ are the identity. But the freedom to replace any space in the square by one that is homotopy equivalent to it makes for a wider range of examples of homotopy pushouts and pullbacks, which need not involve any spaces that are actually mapping cylinders or mapping path spaces. Since squares formed by mapping cylinders or mapping path spaces are weak pushouts or weak pullbacks respectively, and the notions of weak pushout/pullback are invariant under isomorphisms in the relevant category, it follows that all homotopy pushouts/pullbacks are also weak pushouts/pullbacks in the homotopy category.

With that understood, we are finally in a position to define the most useful notions of exact sequences in the category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. The following definition should be understood to apply to sequences of arbitrary length that may or may not have a finite start or end point.

DEFINITION 60.19. A sequence of objects and morphisms in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ is called a **homotopy fiber sequence** if for every three-term subsequence $X_{k-1} \xrightarrow{f_{k-1}} X_k \xrightarrow{f_k} X_{k+1}$, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X_{k-1} & \xrightarrow{f_{k-1}} & X_k \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow f_k \\ * & \longrightarrow & X_{k+1} \end{array}$$

commutes in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ and is a homotopy pullback square. Similarly, it is called a **homotopy cofiber sequence** if for every three-term subsequence, the same diagram commutes and is a homotopy pushout square.

The main results of this lecture combine to produce the following consequence:

THEOREM 60.20. *If $\dots \rightarrow X_{k-1} \xrightarrow{f_{k-1}} X_k \xrightarrow{f_k} X_{k+1} \rightarrow \dots$ is a homotopy fiber sequence, then the induced sequence of pointed homotopy sets*

$$\dots \rightarrow [Q, X_{k-1}] \xrightarrow{(f_{k-1})^*} [Q, X_k] \xrightarrow{(f_k)^*} [Q, X_{k+1}] \rightarrow \dots$$

is exact for every $Q \in \mathbf{hTop}_$. Similarly, if it is a homotopy cofiber sequence, then the induced sequence*

$$\dots \rightarrow [X_{k+1}, Q] \xrightarrow{f_k^*} [X_k, Q] \xrightarrow{f_{k-1}^*} [X_{k-1}, Q] \rightarrow \dots$$

is exact for every $Q \in \mathbf{hTop}_$.* □

60.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 60.1. Review the notions of the $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -valued and $\mathbb{Z}$ -valued mapping degrees for maps between closed and connected topological manifolds of the same dimension, as covered e.g. in last semester's Lecture 38. Then:

- (a) Show that for every closed and connected topological manifold M of dimension $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the set $[M, S^n]$ contains at least two elements, and infinitely many if M is orientable.
- (b) Does the set $[S^n, M]$ also always have more than one element?

EXERCISE 60.2. Give explicit examples of homotopic maps

$$f \sim_h f' : Z \rightarrow X \quad \text{and} \quad g \sim_h g' : Z \rightarrow Y$$

such that the mapping cylinders $Z(f, g)$ and $Z(f', g')$ are not homeomorphic. (They will of course be homotopy equivalent!)

EXERCISE 60.3. The **mapping cone** $\text{cone}(f)$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the mapping cylinder $Z(f, \epsilon)$, where ϵ denotes the unique map $X \rightarrow *$. Show that if f is a homotopy equivalence, then $\text{cone}(f)$ is a contractible space.

Hint: Find a useful morphism in the category $\mathcal{P}$ of pushout diagrams.

EXERCISE 60.4. Formulate an analogue for mapping path spaces $P(f, g)$ of Theorem 60.14, and convince yourself in this way that the homotopy type of $P(f, g)$ only depends on the homotopy classes of the two maps $f : X \rightarrow Z$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$.

EXERCISE 60.5. The **join** $X * Y$ of two spaces X and Y is the double mapping cylinder $Z(\pi_X, \pi_Y)$ defined via the projection maps $\pi_X : X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $\pi_Y : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$. Prove that the join of two spheres is always homeomorphic to a sphere: concretely, for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$S^m * S^n \cong S^{m+n+1}.$$

*Hint: Split the double mapping cylinder in half so that you see $S^m * S^n$ as the union of two pieces glued along boundaries that both look like $S^m \times S^n$. Can you think of two compact manifolds that both have $S^m \times S^n$ as boundary? Stare closely at the two pieces, you might recognize them! Now glue them together and ask: what is $S^m * S^n$ the boundary of?*

EXERCISE 60.6. The goal of this exercise is to show that pushouts in the category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ do not always exist. Let $\alpha : S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ denote a double cover of the circle, and fix a base point in S^1 so that α is a pointed map. A diagram of the form

$$(60.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} S^1 & \longrightarrow & * \\ \alpha \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ S^1 & \xrightarrow{\beta} & P \end{array}$$

in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ then means a pointed space P together with an element in the 2-torsion subgroup of its fundamental group

$$\beta \in \pi_1(P)_{(2)} := \{\gamma \in \pi_1(P) \mid \gamma^2 = 0\}.$$

(a) Show that (60.6) is a pushout square in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ if and only if for every space Q , the map

$$[P, Q] \rightarrow \pi_1(Q)_{(2)} : u \mapsto u_*\beta$$

is a bijection.

Assume the condition in part (a) holds, and then consider the surjective map

$$\mathrm{SO}(3) \xrightarrow{p} S^2 : A \mapsto Ae_1,$$

where S^2 is the unit sphere in $\mathbb{R}^3$ and $e_1, e_2, e_3 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ denotes the standard basis. Taking e_1 as a base point in S^2 , we have

$$p^{-1}(e_1) \cong \mathrm{SO}(2) \cong S^1,$$

giving rise to a sequence of pointed spaces

$$S^1 \xhookrightarrow{i} \mathrm{SO}(3) \xrightarrow{p} S^2.$$

We will later see that this is a homotopy fiber sequence; it will follow as an easy consequence of the fact that $p : \mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow S^2$ is a fiber bundle, and therefore also a fibration. Taking this fact for now as a black box, it follows that the induced sequence of pointed homotopy sets

$$[P, S^1] \xrightarrow{i_*} [P, \mathrm{SO}(3)] \xrightarrow{p_*} [P, S^2]$$

is exact.

(b) Derive from part (a) and the exact sequence above a contradiction to known facts about the fundamental groups of S^1 , $\mathrm{SO}(3) \cong \mathbb{RP}^3$ and S^2 .

EXERCISE 60.7. Show that for any two maps $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$, the singular homologies (with arbitrary coefficients) of the spaces X, Y, Z and $Z_\circ(f, g)$ are related by a long exact sequence of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow H_{n+1}(Z_\circ(f, g)) \rightarrow H_n(Z) \rightarrow H_n(X) \oplus H_n(Y) \rightarrow H_n(Z_\circ(f, g)) \rightarrow H_{n-1}(Z) \rightarrow \dots,$$

and describe explicitly what the two homomorphisms in the middle of this sequence look like. Show that it also works with all homology groups replaced by their reduced counterparts.

Hint: There is a relatively straightforward way to apply the Mayer-Vietoris sequence here, but you could also deduce this as a special case of the exact sequence of the generalized mapping torus derived in last semester's Lecture 37.

61. Evaluation maps and adjunction

In the previous lecture, two functors $\Omega, \Sigma : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ appeared without explanation in the two versions of the Puppe sequence: they are called the *loop space* functor and the (reduced) *suspension* functor. I want to define those functors in this lecture, and to prove one of their most useful properties, namely that they are adjoint to each other. The statement will seem obvious from the definitions, but proving it is surprisingly tricky: it depends on certain natural maps being continuous that aren't actually continuous quite as often as one would like. We will also introduce the *smash product*, which serves as a kind of tensor product on the category $\mathbf{Top}_*$, but here one encounters a similarly annoying problem: the smash product looks like it should obviously be associative, but associativity fails in general because not every continuous bijection that looks like a homeomorphism actually is one. The arguments required for resolving these issues could have been carried out in *Topologie I*, but you would not have easily understood at the time why the effort was worthwhile. Our goal is to think through those arguments in this lecture so that we never have to think about them again.

61.1. The exponential law. Let us start the discussion in the category $\mathbf{Set}$ of sets, where we have the freedom to avoid worrying about continuity. In this context, we denote

$$Y^X := \{\text{maps } X \rightarrow Y\}$$

for two sets X, Y . The notation is justified in part by the following observation: for any three sets $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Set}$, there is a natural bijection

$$Z^{X \times Y} \cong (Z^Y)^X,$$

identifying each map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ with the map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow Z^Y$ defined by $\hat{f}(x)(y) := f(x, y)$. This is sometimes called the **exponential law** for sets. We can interpret it as an adjunction relation: defining functors

$$\mathcal{L} := (\cdot) \times Y : \mathbf{Set} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set} : X \mapsto X \times Y$$

and

$$\mathcal{R} := (\cdot)^Y = \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Set}}(Y, \cdot) : \mathbf{Set} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set} : Z \mapsto Z^Y,$$

the bijection becomes

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Set}}(\mathcal{L}(X), Z) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbf{Set}}(X, \mathcal{R}(Z)).$$

You may recognize that this is closely analogous to the adjunction relation between $\otimes G$ and $\text{Hom}(G, \cdot)$ on $R\text{-Mod}$.

Here is the question: If we add topologies and continuity back into the picture, is there similarly a natural bijection between spaces of continuous maps,

$$(61.1) \quad \mathcal{F}(X \times Y, Z) \stackrel{?}{\cong} \mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{F}(Y, Z))?$$

Here we assume the space $\mathcal{F}(Y, Z)$ of continuous maps $Y \rightarrow Z$ is endowed with the compact-open topology, so that $\mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{F}(Y, Z))$ is well defined. In homotopy theory, the case $Y := I$ is of particular interest: abbreviating $Z^I := \mathcal{F}(I, Z)$, we would then have a bijection

$$(61.2) \quad \mathcal{F}(X \times I, Z) \cong \mathcal{F}(X, Z^I),$$

thus identifying homotopies of maps $X \rightarrow Z$ with maps from X to the space Z^I of paths in Z .

The good news is that the bijection (61.2) works; the bad news is that for arbitrary spaces Y , the bijection (61.1) will not always work in the usual topological category. The trouble can be boiled down to the continuity of a single map, the so-called **evaluation map**

$$\text{ev} : Z^Y \times Y \rightarrow Z : (f, y) \mapsto f(y).$$

We will see below that this map is continuous under sufficient hypotheses on Y , but it is not always continuous. The next lemma gives a reason to care about this.

LEMMA 61.1. *For any spaces $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}$ and any continuous map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$, the map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow Z^Y$ defined by $\hat{f}(x)(y) := f(x, y)$ is also continuous, thus defining an injective map*

$$Z^{X \times Y} \xrightarrow{\alpha} (Z^Y)^X : f \mapsto \hat{f}.$$

Moreover, the evaluation map $\text{ev} : Z^Y \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous if and only if the map α is surjective for every choice of the space X .

PROOF. The continuity of $\hat{f}$ is a straightforward exercise using the definitions of the product and compact-open topologies. If $\text{ev} : Z^Y \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous, then for any continuous map $g : X \rightarrow Z^Y$, we can define another continuous map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ as the composition

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times Y & \xrightarrow{g \times \text{Id}} & Z^Y \times Y \xrightarrow{\text{ev}} Z, \\ & \searrow f & \nearrow \end{array}$$

and verify that $\alpha(f) = g$, thus proving that α is surjective. For the converse, see Exercise 61.1. $\square$

61.2. Spaces with continuous evaluation maps. The map $\text{ev} : Z^Y \times Y \rightarrow Z$ looks at first glance like it should always be continuous, but if you sit down and try to prove this, you will find yourself needing to use at least one assumption that was not stated. The following terminology is not standard, but we'll find it a useful notion to keep in mind:

DEFINITION 61.2. We will say that a space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ is **friendly** if the map $\text{ev} : Y^X \times X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous for every space Y .

Recall that a space X is **locally compact** if for every point $x \in X$, every neighborhood of x contains one that is compact. This is equivalent to the seemingly stronger condition that for every compact subset $K \subset X$, every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of K contains a smaller neighborhood $\mathcal{V}$ of K with compact closure $\bar{\mathcal{V}} \subset \mathcal{U}$. The proof of the following result is a standard exercise in point-set topology.

LEMMA 61.3. *Every locally compact space is friendly.* $\square$

EXAMPLE 61.4. The space $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ with its natural subspace topology is not friendly. To see this, suppose $\text{ev} : \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Q}} \times \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Then for every continuous $f_0 : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, every $x_0 \in \mathbb{Q}$ and every neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}$ of $y_0 := f_0(x_0)$, there are open neighborhoods $\mathcal{O} \subset C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ such that $(f, x) \in \mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{W}$ implies $f(x) \in \mathcal{U}$. Without loss of generality, the set $\mathcal{O} \subset C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$ has the form

$$\mathcal{O} = \{f \mid f(K_i) \subset \mathcal{V}_i \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, N\} \subset C(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R})$$

for some finite collection of compact subsets $K_i \subset \mathbb{Q}$ and open subsets $\mathcal{V}_i \subset \mathbb{R}$, $i = 1, \dots, N$. But since compact subsets of $\mathbb{Q}$ cannot contain any open subsets, one can then find two irrational numbers $a < b$ such that

$$\mathcal{W}_0 := (a, b) \cap \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathcal{W}$$

is a nonempty open subset of $\mathcal{W}$ disjoint from $K_1 \cup \dots \cup K_N$. Now define a continuous function $f : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that matches f_0 outside of $\mathcal{W}_0$ but takes a value $f(x) \notin \mathcal{U}$ for some $x \in \mathcal{W}_0$; this is easy since $a, b \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Then $(f, x) \in \mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{W}$ but $f(x) \notin \mathcal{U}$, a contradiction.

REMARK 61.5. Evaluation maps $\text{ev} : Y^X \times X \rightarrow Y$ are always *sequentially* continuous. But this is not good enough for what we need.

In light of Lemma 61.1, the example above shows that the natural injection $\alpha : Z^{X \times Y} \rightarrow (Z^Y)^X$ cannot always be surjective. But in important special cases such as $Y := I$, local compactness fixes the problem due to Lemma 61.3, and we have:

COROLLARY 61.6. *For any two spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$, the natural map $\mathcal{F}(X \times I, Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(X, Y^I)$ is a bijection, and the functors $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$ defined by $(\cdot) \times I$ and $(\cdot)^I$ are therefore adjoint.* $\square$

As spaces of continuous maps, $Z^{X \times Y}$ and $(Z^Y)^X$ also have natural compact-open topologies, and it will occasionally be useful to know whether the natural map between them is not only a bijection but also a homeomorphism.

PROPOSITION 61.7. *Suppose $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ are spaces such that X , Y and $X \times Y$ are all friendly. Then the natural map $\alpha : Z^{X \times Y} \rightarrow (Z^Y)^X$ is a homeomorphism for every space $Z \in \mathbf{Top}$.*

PROOF. To show that α is continuous, it will suffice if we can show that α lies in the image of the natural map

$$\mathcal{F}(Z^{X \times Y} \times X, Z^Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Z^{X \times Y}, (Z^Y)^X),$$

which is just another case of α with different spaces. An obvious map $\beta : Z^{X \times Y} \times X \rightarrow Z^Y$ to consider in this situation is defined by

$$\beta(f, x)(y) := f(x, y),$$

and one easily checks that $\hat{\beta} = \alpha$, so α will be continuous if β is. Since the target of β is another space of maps, we can iterate this trick by observing that β must be continuous if it is in the image of the natural map

$$\mathcal{F}(Z^{X \times Y} \times X \times Y, Z) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Z^{X \times Y} \times X, Z^Y),$$

which is yet another case of α with different spaces. Here we can try $\text{ev} : Z^{X \times Y} \times (X \times Y) \rightarrow Z$, which is indeed continuous since $X \times Y$ is friendly, and it satisfies $\hat{\text{ev}} = \beta$, thus implying that β is continuous, and therefore so is α . Similar tricks will imply that α^{-1} is also continuous, due to the assumption that X and Y are both friendly; see Exercise 61.4. $\square$

PROPOSITION 61.8. *If $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ are both friendly, then the composition map*

$$Z^Y \times Y^X \xrightarrow{c} Z^X : (f, g) \mapsto f \circ g$$

is continuous.

PROOF. Since the image of c is a space of maps, we can again use the trick used in Prop. 61.7 and conclude that c is continuous if it is in the image of the natural map

$$\mathcal{F}(Z^Y \times Y^X \times X, Z) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(Z^Y \times Y^X, Z^X).$$

Defining $\kappa : Z^Y \times Y^X \times X \rightarrow Z$ by $\kappa(f, g, x) := f \circ g(x)$ gives $\hat{\kappa} = c$, and the problem is thus reduced to showing that κ is continuous, which it is, because it is the composition of the two maps

$$Z^Y \times Y^X \times X \xrightarrow{\text{Id} \times \text{ev}} Z^Y \times Y \xrightarrow{\text{ev}} Z,$$

and these are both continuous because X and Y are friendly. $\square$

REMARK 61.9. Proposition 61.8 is not the most general version of such a result that I am aware of, e.g. it is also a standard exercise in point-set topology to show that c is continuous whenever Y is locally compact, without any assumption on X . But I do not want to do that exercise here, and we will not need the result at that level of generality.

61.3. Quotient maps. Another technical problem we will sometimes encounter involves quotients: for any construction that involves both products and quotients, one sometimes wants to know that the order of these operations can be changed around without altering the resulting topology, and this is not always true.

DEFINITION 61.10. A continuous map $q : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is called a **quotient map** if it is surjective and the open sets $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ are precisely the sets for which $q^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \tilde{X}$ is open. Equivalently, q is a quotient map if and only if it descends to a homeomorphism $\tilde{X}/\sim \rightarrow X$, for the equivalence relation $\sim$ on $\tilde{X}$ such that $x \sim y$ means $q(x) = q(y)$.

The crucial property of a quotient map is that in any diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{X} & & \\ q \downarrow & \searrow \tilde{f} & \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y, \end{array}$$

continuity of the map $\tilde{f}$ implies that f is also continuous. The converse is of course obvious, since q is continuous.

I would encourage the reader at this point to try the following exercise: Given two quotient maps $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ and $q : \tilde{Y} \rightarrow Y$, can you show that the product map $p \times q : \tilde{X} \times \tilde{Y} \rightarrow X \times Y$ is also a quotient map? You should try it, but do not try too hard; once you've gotten stuck and realized that it isn't obvious, take a look at [Mun75, pp. 143–144], which will show you a counterexample.

Now, here is the good news:

LEMMA 61.11. *If $Y \in \mathbf{Top}$ is a friendly space, then for every quotient map $q : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$, the product*

$$q \times \text{Id} : \tilde{X} \times Y \rightarrow X \times Y$$

is also a quotient map.

PROOF. We need to show that if the map $g : \tilde{X} \times Y \rightarrow Z$ in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{X} \times Y & & \\ q \times \text{Id} \downarrow & \searrow g & \\ X \times Y & \xrightarrow{f} & Z \end{array}$$

is continuous, then so is $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$. Since Y is friendly, Lemma 61.1 implies that the functors $(\cdot) \times Y$ and $(\cdot)^Y$ are adjoint, producing bijections

$$\mathcal{F}(X \times Y, Z) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{F}(X, Z^Y) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{F}(\tilde{X} \times Y, Z) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathcal{F}(\tilde{X}, Z^Y)$$

that identify maps F to Z with maps $\hat{F}$ to Z^Y . Under this correspondence, the diagram above becomes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \tilde{X} & & \\ q \downarrow & \searrow \hat{g} & \\ X & \xrightarrow{\hat{f}} & Z^Y \end{array},$$

and the assumption that g is continuous implies that $\hat{g}$ is continuous. Since q is a quotient map, it follows that $\hat{f}$ is continuous, and since Y is friendly, therefore also f . $\square$

61.4. The smash product. Our discussion so far has been restricted to unpointed spaces and maps. In the pointed category, the correspondence $\mathcal{F}(X \times Y, Z) \cong \mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{F}(Y, Z))$ is no longer valid even at the level of sets: if base points must be preserved, then a map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ corresponding to a pointed map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$ satisfies stricter conditions than just sending $(*, *) \in X \times Y$ to $* \in Z$. The natural base point of $\mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$ is the constant map to $* \in Z$, so $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ in this situation is constant on the entire subset

$$X \vee Y := (X \times *) \cup (* \times Y) \subset X \times Y,$$

which is naturally homeomorphic to the wedge sum $X \vee Y$. It follows that $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$ descends to a pointed map on the quotient

$$X \wedge Y := (X \times Y) / ((X \times *) \cup (* \times Y)) = (X \times Y) / (X \vee Y).$$

Conversely, every pointed map $f : X \wedge Y \rightarrow Z$ determines a pointed map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$ with

$$\hat{f}(x)(y) = f([x, y]),$$

where we denote by $[x, y] \in X \wedge Y$ the equivalence class represented by $(x, y) \in X \times Y$. If we ignore topologies and continuity, the natural map

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) : f \mapsto \hat{f}$$

is therefore a bijection. The pairing $X \wedge Y$ is called the **smash product** of X and Y , and if X and Y are pointed spaces, it inherits a natural topology as a quotient of a product, as well as a base point, namely the equivalence class of the collapsed subset $X \vee Y \subset X \times Y$. A word of caution: the smash product is not a “product” on $\mathbf{Top}_*$ in the category-theoretic sense. The relation indicated above between the functors $(\cdot) \wedge Y$ and $\mathcal{F}_+(Y, \cdot)$ means that one should—in the spirit of Exercise 58.4—think of $\wedge$ as a *tensor product* on $\mathbf{Top}_*$, though as we will see in a moment, this intuition is imperfect.⁹⁹

We need to check whether the bijection described above remains valid when topologies and continuity are taken into account. After some trivial modifications to the proof of Lemma 61.1, we have:

LEMMA 61.12. *For any pointed spaces $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and any continuous pointed map $f : X \wedge Y \rightarrow Z$, the pointed map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$ defined by $\hat{f}(x)(y) := f([x, y])$ is also continuous, thus defining an injective map*

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) : f \mapsto \hat{f},$$

which is surjective whenever Y is friendly. □

Before we continue, I must caution you about a very awkward property of the smash product: it is not associative in general. We will see that it *is* associative in most of the cases where we really need associativity, but it will take some effort to prove it. Since $X \wedge Y$ is defined as a quotient of a product, this is where we will most urgently need the lemma above about quotient maps.

LEMMA 61.13. *Given three pointed spaces $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, define the quotient space*

$$X \wedge Y \wedge Z := (X \times Y \times Z) / ((* \times Y \times Z) \cup (X \times * \times Z) \cup (X \times Y \times *)).$$

Then the obvious bijection

$$(61.3) \quad X \wedge Y \wedge Z \rightarrow (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z : [x, y, z] \mapsto [[x, y], z]$$

⁹⁹By the same reasoning, the Cartesian product $\times$ on $\mathbf{Top}$ is both a product in the category-theoretic sense and a tensor product, whereas Exercise 59.7 shows that the natural tensor product on $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ is something different from its category-theoretic product.

is continuous, and it is a homeomorphism if Z is friendly. Similarly, the obvious bijection

$$X \wedge Y \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z) : [x, y, z] \mapsto [x, [y, z]]$$

is continuous, and is a homeomorphism if X is friendly.

PROOF. We consider the map (61.3), as the argument for the other map is analogous. Let

$$X \times Y \xrightarrow{q} X \wedge Y, \quad \text{and} \quad (X \wedge Y) \times Z \xrightarrow{q'} (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$$

denote the quotient projections. Continuity then follows from the continuity of the obvious map $X \times Y \times Z \rightarrow (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$, which is a composition of continuous maps

$$X \times Y \times Z = (X \times Y) \times Z \xrightarrow{q \times \text{Id}} (X \wedge Y) \times Z \xrightarrow{q'} (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z,$$

and descends to the quotient $X \wedge Y \wedge Z$. If Z is friendly, then by Lemma 61.11, the map $q \times \text{Id} : (X \times Y) \times Z \rightarrow (X \wedge Y) \times Z$ is also a quotient map, and therefore descends to a homeomorphism

$$\frac{X \times Y \times Z}{\sim} \xrightarrow{\cong} (X \wedge Y) \times Z,$$

where the equivalence relation on the left hand side collapses $((* \times Y) \cup (X \times *)) \times \{z\}$ to a point for each $z \in Z$. Composing the inverse of this homeomorphism with the obvious quotient projection $\frac{X \times Y \times Z}{\sim} \rightarrow X \wedge Y \wedge Z$ then gives a continuous map $(X \wedge Y) \times Z \rightarrow X \wedge Y \wedge Z$ that descends to a continuous inverse $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge Y \wedge Z$ of the map (61.3). $\square$

COROLLARY 61.14. For any pointed spaces $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the obvious bijection

$$(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z) : [[x, y], z] \mapsto [x, [y, z]]$$

is continuous whenever Z is friendly, and its inverse is continuous whenever X is friendly. In particular, it is a homeomorphism if both X and Z are friendly. $\square$

REMARK 61.15. The smash product really is *not* associative in general on unfriendly spaces, e.g. the spaces $\mathbb{Q} \wedge (\mathbb{Q} \wedge \mathbb{N})$ and $(\mathbb{Q} \wedge \mathbb{Q}) \wedge \mathbb{N}$ are not homeomorphic. If you really want to read a proof of this, see e.g. <https://math.uchi.cago.edu/~may/REU2022/REUPapers/Horowitz.pdf>

We will have more to say in the following about the associativity of the smash product, but Corollary 61.14 at least enables us to prove a pointed analogue of Proposition 61.7:

PROPOSITION 61.16. For any pointed spaces $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ such that X and Y are compact and Hausdorff, the natural injection

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z))$$

is a pointed homeomorphism.

PROOF, BEGINNING. We prove first that α is continuous, which follows by an adaptation of the same argument as in the unpointed case, though one particular step requires additional care. The actual assumptions needed for this part are that Y and $X \wedge Y$ are friendly, which certainly follows if X and Y are both compact and Hausdorff, because both spaces and their products are then locally compact.

The first crucial observation is easily verified: if Y and Z are pointed spaces for which the unpointed evaluation map $\text{ev} : \mathcal{F}_o(Y, Z) \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous, then its restriction to $\mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z) \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is of course also continuous, and this restriction then descends to a continuous map

$$\mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z) \wedge Y \xrightarrow{\text{ev}} Z.$$

This works in particular whenever Y is friendly; so far so good.

Analogously to the unpointed case, the proof that $\alpha : \mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z))$ is continuous can be reduced to the fact—following from the observation that $X \wedge Y$ is friendly—that

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \wedge (X \wedge Y) \xrightarrow{\text{ev}} Z$$

is continuous. In order to make use of the latter, one needs to apply twice in succession the fact that continuous maps $X \wedge Y \rightarrow Z$ always have continuous (and in this case pointed) adjoints $X \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$, but here a tricky issue arises that is not relevant in the unpointed case: the smash product is not generally associative, so we do not know whether $\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \wedge (X \wedge Y)$ can freely be replaced by $(\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \wedge X) \wedge Y$ without changing its topology. By Corollary 61.14, however, since Y is friendly, the canonical bijection from the latter product to the former is at least continuous. Composing it with ev above thus gives a continuous map

$$(\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \wedge X) \wedge Y \rightarrow Z : [[f, x], y] \mapsto f([x, y]).$$

The adjoint of this map,

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \wedge X \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$$

is therefore also continuous, and it assigns to each $[f, x]$ the function $y \mapsto f([x, y])$ in $\mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)$. Performing the adjoint trick one more time then gives a continuous map

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)),$$

and that one is precisely α . $\square$

Before proving also that α^{-1} is continuous, let us clarify why it does *not* follow by a minor adaptation of the argument for the unpointed case. The idea would have been to first prove the continuity of the map

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \wedge (X \wedge Y) \rightarrow Z : [f, [x, y]] \mapsto f(x)(y),$$

whose adjoint is α^{-1} . Since X and Y are friendly, it certainly is true that the map

$$(\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \wedge X) \wedge Y \rightarrow Z : [[f, x], y] \mapsto f(x)(y)$$

is continuous, as this can be written as a composition involving two continuous evaluation maps. We would thus be done if we knew that the canonical bijection

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \wedge (X \wedge Y) \rightarrow (\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \wedge X) \wedge Y$$

is continuous, but unfortunately, Corollary 61.14 does not give us that unless $\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z))$ is friendly, which seems highly unlikely without imposing drastically restrictive additional conditions on all three spaces.

But if X and Y are compact and Hausdorff, then we can take a different approach and deduce the continuity of α^{-1} from the knowledge that the corresponding map $(Z^Y)^X \rightarrow Z^{X \times Y}$ in the unpointed case is (since X and Y are also friendly) continuous. This requires a few technical lemmas whose proofs are routine exercises in point-set topology.

Recall that in topology, a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called an **embedding** if it is injective and defines a homeomorphism onto its image $f(X) \subset Y$ with the subspace topology.

LEMMA 61.17. *For any spaces X, Y, Z and an embedding $j : Y \rightarrow Z$, the induced map $j_* : \mathcal{F}(X, Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(X, Z) : f \mapsto j \circ f$ is also an embedding.* $\square$

In order to state a result dual to Lemma 61.17, recall that a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called **proper** if it is a closed map and $f^{-1}(y) \subset X$ is compact for every point $y \in Y$. It is common in differential geometry to use a weaker variant of this condition that follows from it and is equivalent for reasonable spaces (e.g. Hausdorff and second countable), namely the conclusion of the following statement:

LEMMA 61.18. *For any proper map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and any compact subset $K \subset Y$, the set $f^{-1}(K) \subset X$ is also compact.* $\square$

The dual version of Lemma 61.17 is then:

LEMMA 61.19. *For any spaces X, Y, Q and a surjective proper map $q : X \rightarrow Q$, the induced map $q^* : \mathcal{F}(Q, Y) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(X, Y) : f \mapsto f \circ q$ is an embedding.*

QUICK PROOF. Surjectivity of q implies that q^* is injective, and one then needs to show that q^* is an open map to its image (with the subspace topology), for which it suffices to consider any set $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathcal{F}(Q, Y)$ of the form $\{f : Q \rightarrow Y \mid f(K) \subset \mathcal{V}\}$ for some $K \subset Q$ compact and $\mathcal{V} \subset Y$ open, and find a similar open set $\mathcal{O}' \subset \mathcal{F}(X, Y)$ with the property that $f \in \mathcal{O}$ implies $f \circ q \in \mathcal{O}'$. This is easy since $q^{-1}(K) \subset X$ is compact. $\square$

Finally, there happens to be a relevant class of quotient projections that are always proper:

LEMMA 61.20. *For any space X and closed subset $A \subset X$, the quotient projection $X \rightarrow X/A$ is a closed map, and is thus proper if A is also compact.* $\square$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 61.16, CONCLUSION. Let us distinguish $\alpha^{-1} : \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z)$ from its unpointed counterpart

$$\mathcal{F}_o(X, \mathcal{F}_o(Y, Z)) = (Z^Y)^X \xrightarrow{\hat{\alpha}^{-1}} Z^{X \times Y} = \mathcal{F}_o(X \times Y, Z),$$

which we already know is continuous since X , Y and $X \times Y$ are friendly. By Lemma 61.17, the obvious inclusion of $\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z))$ into $\mathcal{F}_o(X, \mathcal{F}_o(Y, Z))$ is an embedding, so $\hat{\alpha}^{-1}$ restricts to this subset as a continuous map

$$\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_o(X \times Y, Z),$$

and this restricted map takes its values in the image of the injective map

$$\mathcal{F}_o(X \wedge Y, Z) \supset \mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \xrightarrow{q^*} \mathcal{F}_o(X \times Y, Z)$$

induced by the quotient map $X \times Y \xrightarrow{q} X \wedge Y$. Since X and Y are compact and Hausdorff, $\{*\} \times Y \cup X \times \{*\} \subset X \times Y$ is a compact and closed subset, implying via Lemma 61.20 that q is a proper map, and by Lemma 61.19, $q^* : \mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_o(X \times Y, Z)$ is therefore a homeomorphism onto its image. Composing the map $\mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_o(X \times Y, Z)$ above with the continuous inverse of that homeomorphism now gives $\alpha^{-1} : \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, Z)) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}_+(X \wedge Y, Z)$, which is therefore continuous. $\square$

We can now extend the range of situations in which the smash product is known to be associative.

PROPOSITION 61.21. *For any $X, Y, Z \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ such that Y and Z are both compact and Hausdorff, the canonical bijection $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z) \rightarrow (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ is a pointed homeomorphism.*

PROOF. Knowing that adjunction gives a homeomorphism under these assumptions (Proposition 61.16) makes it possible to deduce associativity from the Yoneda lemma (Exercise 58.2). For an arbitrary pointed space Q , we obtain a chain of natural bijections

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X \wedge (Y \wedge Z), Q) &\cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y \wedge Z, Q)) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X, \mathcal{F}_+(Y, \mathcal{F}_+(Z, Q))) \\ &\cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}(X \wedge Y, \mathcal{F}_+(Z, Q)) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Top}_*}((X \wedge Y) \wedge Z, Q), \end{aligned}$$

where we should note that the second bijection depends on the correspondence $\mathcal{F}_+(Y \wedge Z, Q) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(Y, \mathcal{F}_+(Z, Q))$ being not just a bijection but also a pointed homeomorphism, and each depends in any case on a friendliness condition that follows from the assumption that Y and Z are compact

and Hausdorff. Exercise 58.2 now tells us that the natural isomorphism in **Set** determined by these bijections corresponds to an isomorphism between $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ and $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ in $\mathbf{Top}_*$, and one only needs to unpack the definitions to check that this isomorphism is the obvious map. $\square$

61.5. Cones, suspensions, loops and so forth. We now use the smash product to associate to any pointed space $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ the following pointed spaces:

- The **reduced cone**

$$C_+X := X \wedge I = \frac{X \times I}{X \times \{0\} \cup * \times I},$$

where we take 0 to be the base point of the interval I . Equivalently, C_+X is the reduced mapping cylinder $Z_+(\epsilon, \text{Id})$ for the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$ and the identity map $\text{Id} : X \rightarrow X$.

- The **reduced cylinder**

$$Z_+X := X \wedge I_+ \cong \frac{X \times I}{* \times I},$$

where $I_+ := I \amalg *$ has the extra point $*$ in I_+ as base point. In rewriting Z_+X as a quotient, we are omitting the part involving the base point of I_+ , and can do so without losing any information since it gets collapsed to the same point as $* \times I$. Equivalently, Z_+X is the reduced mapping cylinder $Z_+(\text{Id}, \text{Id})$ for two copies of the identity map $X \rightarrow X$.

- The **reduced suspension**

$$\Sigma_+X := X \wedge S^1,$$

where S^1 is identified with the pointed space $I/\partial I$, which has the equivalence class of ∂I as the base point. Equivalently, Σ_+X is the reduced mapping cylinder $Z_+(\epsilon, \epsilon)$ for two copies of the trivial map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$.

All three of these spaces have **unreduced** counterparts, which are objects in **Top** and can be defined as the corresponding unreduced mapping cylinders:

$$C_oX := Z_o(\epsilon, \text{Id}), \quad Z_oX := Z_o(\text{Id}, \text{Id}), \quad \Sigma_oX := Z_o(\epsilon, \epsilon).$$

These are all familiar spaces: the unreduced cone and suspension are precisely the cone and suspension that you have seen in earlier topology courses, and Z_oX is just $X \times I$. The reduced versions are all naturally quotients of their unreduced counterparts, obtained by collapsing $* \times I$ to a point, thus

$$C_+X = \frac{C_oX}{C_o(*)}, \quad Z_+X = \frac{Z_oX}{Z_o(*)}, \quad \Sigma_+X = \frac{\Sigma_oX}{\Sigma_o(*)}.$$

As usual, we shall drop the subscripts whenever there is no need to specify whether we are working in the pointed or unpointed category, thus writing

$$CX := C_oX \text{ or } C_+X, \quad ZX := Z_oX \text{ or } Z_+X, \quad \Sigma X := \Sigma_oX \text{ or } \Sigma_+X.$$

The symbols C , Z and Σ can all be regarded in obvious ways as functors $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ in the reduced case, or $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$ in the unreduced case. All three also descend to functors $\mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ or $\mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$, because e.g. homotopies of maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ naturally give rise to homotopies of maps $\Sigma f : \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma Y$.

Since S^1 , I and I_+ are all friendly spaces, Lemma 61.12 gives the following bijections for any two pointed spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, thus producing right-adjoints for the functors C_+ , Z_+ and Σ_+ :

- $\mathcal{F}_+(C_+X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(I, Y)) = \mathcal{F}_+(X, PY)$, where

$$PY := \mathcal{F}_+(I, Y)$$

is the **based path space** of Y , consisting of paths in Y that start at the base point. The latter defines a functor $P : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ that is a right-adjoint of C_+ .

- $\mathcal{F}_+(Z_+X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(I_+, Y)) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_\circ(I, Y)) = \mathcal{F}_+(X, Y^I)$, where we view the **free path space** Y^I as a pointed space whose base point is the constant path at $*$ in Y . The identification of $\mathcal{F}_+(I_+, Y)$ with $\mathcal{F}_\circ(I, Y)$ comes from Example 58.8.
- $\mathcal{F}_+(\Sigma_+X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \mathcal{F}_+(S^1, Y)) = \mathcal{F}_+(X, \Omega Y)$, where we define the **based loop space** of Y by

$$\Omega Y := \mathcal{F}_+(S^1, Y),$$

giving a functor $\Omega : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ that is a right-adjoint of Σ_+ .

One easily checks that these adjunction relations also descend to $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, producing useful natural bijections such as

$$[\Sigma_+X, Y]_+ \cong [X, \Omega Y]_+.$$

61.6. Compactly generated spaces. I do not plan to use it in this course, but our discussion of point-set topological subtleties would be incomplete without mentioning the modern homotopy theorist's favorite trick for dealing with them: the category of *compactly generated* spaces. I will settle here for a very brief outline of the idea, the details of which can be found e.g. in [tD08, §7.9].

A space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ is called **compactly generated** if its topology can be characterized in terms of maps to X from compact Hausdorff spaces: the crucial condition is that a set $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is open if and only if $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset K$ is open for every compact Hausdorff space K and continuous map $f : K \rightarrow X$. Not every space has this property, but one can canonically associate to every space X a compactly generated space kX , its **compactly-generated completion**, which is the same set but with a possibly stronger topology that is compactly generated, such that $X = kX$ if and only if X itself is compactly generated. Even when this does not hold, the spaces X and kX have some important things in common, e.g. a map $f : K \rightarrow kX$ from an arbitrary compact Hausdorff space K is continuous if and only if it is continuous as a map $K \rightarrow X$. It follows that X and kX have the same singular (co)homology and the same homotopy groups, so if the goal is to understand those invariants, then there is no harm in replacing X by kX and thus assuming that *all* spaces are compactly generated. Moreover, reasonable spaces are compactly generated in any case: this is true for all locally compact spaces, and also all spaces that are first countable. Let

$$\mathbf{CG} \subset \mathbf{Top}$$

denote the subcategory whose objects are the compactly generated spaces, with continuous maps as morphisms.

Talking about evaluation maps $\text{ev} : Y^X \times X \rightarrow Y$ requires talking about products and spaces of continuous maps, and here, the category $\mathbf{CG}$ runs into a minor snag: if X and Y are compactly generated, it does not always follow in general that $X \times Y$ or $\mathcal{F}(X, Y)$ must be compactly generated. The solution to this problem seems simple-minded at first, but it works surprisingly well: in the category $\mathbf{CG}$ of compactly generated spaces, one *redefines* the topology on $X \times Y$ to be the *compactly-generated completion* of the usual product topology. It turns out that defining $X \times Y$ in this way makes $\times$ into a categorical product on $\mathbf{CG}$. Similarly, one endows Y^X with the compactly-generated completion of the compact-open topology. With these modifications to the usual definitions, it turns out that the evaluation map $\text{ev} : Y^X \times X \rightarrow Y$ is *always* continuous, for any compactly-generated spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{CG}$. As a consequence, adjunction relations such as

$$\mathcal{F}(X \times Y, Z) \cong \mathcal{F}(X, \mathcal{F}(Y, Z))$$

hold *without restriction* in the compactly-generated category.

In effect, working in CG amounts to waving a magic wand so that the point-set topological difficulties dealt with in this lecture simply go away. The price to pay for this convenience is that not all of the spaces you work with have exactly the topologies that you may think they should, though in practice, this makes little difference for standard applications such as understanding higher homotopy groups. It would take us a bit far afield to explain why the compactly-generated category works the way it does, and we will not need it in any case for most of the theory that we plan to develop in this course.

61.7. Exercises.

EXERCISE 61.1 (*). Fill in the following gaps in the proof of Lemma 61.1:

- (a) Prove that for any continuous map $f : X \times Y \rightarrow Z$, the map $\hat{f} : X \rightarrow Z^Y$ defined by $\hat{f}(x)(y) := f(x, y)$ is also continuous.
- (b) Prove that if the natural map $\alpha : Z^{X \times Y} \rightarrow (Z^Y)^X$ is surjective for every choice of space X , then $\text{ev} : Z^Y \times Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous.

Hint: The identity map from a space to itself is always continuous.

EXERCISE 61.2 (*). Prove Lemma 61.3: The evaluation map $\text{ev} : Y^X \times X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous whenever X is locally compact.

EXERCISE 61.3. Find an explicit example of three spaces X, Y, Z for which the natural map $\alpha : Z^{X \times Y} \rightarrow (Z^Y)^X$ is not surjective.

EXERCISE 61.4 (*). Complete the proof of Proposition 61.7 by showing that if X and Y are friendly, then $\alpha^{-1} : (Z^Y)^X \rightarrow Z^{X \times Y}$ is continuous.

EXERCISE 61.5 (*). The first three parts of this exercise are aimed at proving the distributive law for the smash product with respect to finite wedge sums. After that, we give an application of its associativity.

- (a) Show that for any (finite or infinite) collection of pointed quotient maps $\{q_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow Y\}_{\alpha \in J}$, the map

$$\bigvee_{\alpha \in J} q_\alpha : \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \rightarrow Y$$

determined by the universal property of the coproduct is also a quotient map.

Hint: You can prove this without knowing the definitions of “wedge sum” and “quotient map,” so long as you know what universal properties characterize them.

- (b) Show that for any three pointed spaces X, Y, Z and the quotient projection $q : Y \amalg Z \rightarrow Y \vee Z$, the map

$$\text{Id} \times q : X \times (Y \amalg Z) \rightarrow X \times (Y \vee Z)$$

is also a quotient map. Do you think the statement will remain true if you replace $Y \amalg Z$ with an infinite disjoint union?

Comment: I'd love to know how to give a purely “formal” proof of this, but I don't—the proof that I know requires getting your hands dirty with open sets.

- (c) Deduce that for any three pointed spaces, the canonical bijection

$$X \wedge (Y \vee Z) \cong (X \wedge Y) \vee (X \wedge Z)$$

is a homeomorphism.

Hint: Identify both with quotients of $X \times (Y \amalg Z)$, which is naturally homeomorphic to $(X \times Y) \amalg (X \times Z)$.

- (d) Show that for any two pointed spaces X, Y , there is a canonical continuous bijection $\Sigma(X \wedge Y) \rightarrow X \wedge \Sigma Y$, where Σ denotes the reduced suspension. Show moreover that this bijection is a homeomorphism whenever either X or Y is compact and Hausdorff.

Hint: Use what we proved about the associativity of the smash product.

EXERCISE 61.6. Recall that a one-point space $*$ is a zero object in $\mathbf{Top}_*$, i.e. it is both initial and terminal.

- (a) Compute $X \wedge *$ for an arbitrary $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ without using the definition of the smash product; use only its adjunction property.
 (b) Is there a pointed space $E \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ with the property that $X \wedge E$ and $E \wedge X$ are naturally homeomorphic to X for every $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$?

EXERCISE 61.7 (*). Prove $S^k \wedge S^\ell \cong S^{k+\ell}$, and deduce the formula $\Sigma_+ S^n \cong S^{n+1}$.

Hint: Identify S^k with the quotient of a cube by its boundary, $I^k/\partial I^k$.

EXERCISE 61.8. The *join* $X * Y$ of two spaces was defined in Exercise 60.5 as a special case of a double mapping cylinder, and like all mapping cylinders, it has both an unreduced and a reduced variant.

- (a) To what familiar construction is the unreduced join $X * S^0$ for $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ homeomorphic?
 (b) Same question about the reduced join $X * S^0$ for $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$.

EXERCISE 61.9. The fact that $\Omega : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ descends to a functor $\mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ can be deduced from the following much more general phenomenon. For any fixed space $Z \in \mathbf{Top}$, one can define a covariant functor

$$(\cdot)^Z = \mathcal{F}(Z, \cdot) : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top} : X \mapsto X^Z := \mathcal{F}(Z, X),$$

as well as a contravariant functor

$$Z^{(\cdot)} = \mathcal{F}(\cdot, Z) : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top} : X \mapsto Z^X := \mathcal{F}(X, Z).$$

The fact that both are functors depends on part (a) below, which is a straightforward exercise in point-set topology:

- (a) Show that for any continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the induced maps

$$\begin{aligned} X^Z &\xrightarrow{f^Z} Y^Z, & f^Z(\varphi) &= f_*\varphi := f \circ \varphi, \\ Z^Y &\xrightarrow{Z^f} Z^X, & Z^f(\varphi) &= f^*\varphi := \varphi \circ f \end{aligned}$$

are continuous with respect to the compact-open topology.

Let us now consider whether $(\cdot)^Z$ and $Z^{(\cdot)}$ each descend to functors $\mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$, i.e. does a homotopy between two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ induce homotopies $f^Z \sim_h g^Z$ and $Z^f \sim_h Z^g$? In each case, there is an obvious way to write down the homotopies that one wants, but proving that they are continuous maps takes some effort. It will turn out that they always are, but the amount of effort required to prove it may depend on what assumption you are willing to impose upon Z .

- (b) Show that the functor $Z^{(\cdot)}$ descends to $\mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$.

Hint: You know from part (a) that for any homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$, the map $Z^H : Z^Y \rightarrow Z^{X \times I}$ is continuous. Exploit the fact that I is friendly, and also the existence of a natural continuous map $Z^{X \times I} \rightarrow (Z^X)^I$; note that the latter might not be surjective if you don't assume X is friendly, but you will not need it to be surjective.

- (c) Give a quick and easy proof that if Z is friendly, then the functor $(\cdot)^Z$ also descends to $\mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$.

Part (c) covers the cases that typically arise in this course, such as proving that homotopies between maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ induce homotopies between the corresponding maps $f^I, g^I : X^I \rightarrow Y^I$ on path spaces, and the obvious restriction of that statement to loop spaces. If you want to know why such things would still be true even if you didn't know that I is locally compact, read on.

- (d) Prove that for any three spaces X, Y, Z , the map

$$X^Z \times Y \rightarrow (X \times Y)^Z : (\varphi, y) \mapsto \varphi^y, \quad \text{where} \quad \varphi^y(z) := (\varphi(z), y)$$

is continuous.

Hint/caution: Do not attempt to derive this from any more general statement involving the obvious bijection $X^Z \times Y^Z \cong (X \times Y)^Z$, which is subtler than it looks (see part (f) below). You should instead try a direct proof in the style of Topology I, using the definitions of the compact-open and product topologies.

- (e) Combine the results of parts (a) and (d) to give a general proof, without any assumption on the space Z , that the functor $(\cdot)^Z$ descends to $\mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$.
 (f) Here is why I told you what *not* to try in part (d). For any collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ and another space Z , there is an obvious bijective map

$$\left(\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \right)^Z \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha^Z,$$

i.e. maps to a product space are in one-to-one correspondence with tuples of maps to its factors. Prove that this map is continuous, and that its inverse is also continuous if Z is friendly. Then consider the case where $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a collection of just two spaces X and Y , and try to give a direct proof that the inverse of the obvious bijection $(X \times Y)^Z \rightarrow X^Z \times Y^Z$ is continuous, without assuming that Z is friendly or locally compact. Stop trying once you realize that it isn't so obvious.

Comment: According to [tD08, §2.4, Problem 8], the inverse $X^Z \times Y^Z \rightarrow (X \times Y)^Z$ is indeed continuous whenever Z is Hausdorff.¹⁰⁰

- (g) Deduce from part (f) that for any collection of pointed spaces $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$, there is a natural pointed homeomorphism

$$\Omega \left(\prod_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha \right) \cong \prod_{\alpha \in J} \Omega X_\alpha.$$

62. Fibrations

Fibrations are a class of (typically) surjective maps that have especially good properties from a homotopy-theoretic perspective. Examples of fibrations arise frequently in applications: in particular, an important role in differential geometry is played by *fiber bundles* $p : E \rightarrow B$, which should be imagined as decomposing a space E into a family of subspaces, the so-called *fibers*,

$$\{E_b := p^{-1}(b) \subset E\}_{b \in B}$$

which are all homeomorphic to each other and vary continuously with b . We will have much more to say about fiber bundles later in this course, but you've already seen the simplest special case in Topology I: a fiber bundle for which the fibers E_b are all discrete is simply a *covering map*, making E a covering space of B . Fibrations are more general objects than fiber bundles, in which

¹⁰⁰I am just passing this along as hearsay—I have not attempted to do the exercise in [tD08, §2.4] myself. I also do not happen to know a counterexample in which the inverse really fails to be continuous. Evidently Z would in this case have to be neither Hausdorff nor locally compact, which sounds pretty terrifying.

the fibers need not all be homeomorphic to each other, but we will see that they are nonetheless homotopy equivalent.

There is also a corresponding notion of *injective* maps with good homotopy-theoretic properties, the so-called *cofibrations*: these are closely related to the “good pairs” that you may have seen in homology theory (as in [Hat02], or last semester’s Lecture 36). We’ll get to cofibrations in a few lectures.

62.1. The homotopy lifting property. We begin in this lecture by defining the concept of a fibration, and then discuss several classes of examples.

NOTATION. Given a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$, it will be convenient to denote

$$H_t := H(\cdot, t) : X \rightarrow Y, \quad \text{for } t \in I.$$

In other words, $H_t = H \circ i_t$, where $i_t : X \rightarrow X \times I$ denotes the inclusion

$$X = X \times \{t\} \xrightarrow{i_t} X \times I.$$

You may recall that in the theory of covering maps $p : E \rightarrow B$, an important role is played by the *path lifting property*: paths in B have lifts to E that are uniquely determined by their starting points. This easily gives rise to a *homotopy lifting property*: given a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ and a lift $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ of the initial map H_0 in this homotopy, lifting the paths $t \mapsto H(x, t) \in B$ for each $x \in X$ gives rise to a unique lift $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ of the homotopy such that $\tilde{H}_0 = \tilde{f}$. The following definition says almost the same thing, but it drops the requirement for lifts to be unique. This, it will turn out, dramatically enlarges the range of examples beyond the realm of covering maps.

DEFINITION 62.1. Assume $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}$ is a class of spaces. We say that a map $p : E \rightarrow B$ has the **(free) homotopy lifting property (HLP)** with respect to $\mathcal{C}$ if for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$, every homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ and every lift $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ of $H_0 : X \rightarrow B$ satisfying $p \circ \tilde{f} = H_0$, there exists a lift of H to a homotopy $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ satisfying

$$p \circ \tilde{H} = H \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{H}_0 = \tilde{f}.$$

In other words, the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}_0} & E \\ i_0 \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & B \end{array}$$

is solvable for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and every given $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ and lift $\tilde{H}_0 : X \rightarrow E$ of $H_0 : X \rightarrow B$.

The definition above is intended for working in the unpointed category $\mathbf{hTop}$. For the pointed category $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, there is an analogous definition, in which all maps and homotopies are required to be pointed: let’s spell out the details.

DEFINITION 62.2. Assume $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}_*$ is a class of pointed spaces. We say that a pointed map $p : E \rightarrow B$ has the **(pointed) homotopy lifting property (HLP)** with respect to $\mathcal{C}$ if for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$, every pointed homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ and every lift $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ of $H_0 : X \rightarrow B$ to a pointed map satisfying $p \circ \tilde{f} = H_0$, there exists a lift of H to a pointed homotopy $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ satisfying

$$p \circ \tilde{H} = H \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{H}_0 = \tilde{f}.$$

In other words, the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (X, *) & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}_0} & (E, *) \\ i_0 \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ (X \times I, * \times I) & \xrightarrow{H} & (B, *) \end{array}$$

is solvable for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$ and every given $H : (X \times I, * \times I) \rightarrow (B, *)$ and lift $\tilde{H}_0 : (X, *) \rightarrow (E, *)$ of $H_0 : (X, *) \rightarrow (B, *)$.

There are similarly pointed and unpointed versions of the definition of a fibration; here we give both definitions simultaneously:

DEFINITION 62.3. A (pointed/unpointed) map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is called a (pointed/free) **fibration** if it satisfies the (pointed/free) homotopy lifting property with respect to all (pointed/unpointed) spaces. We call B and E the **base** and **total space** respectively of the fibration, and call the subspaces

$$E_b := p^{-1}(b) \subset E$$

for $b \in B$ its **fibers**.

A fibration as defined above is sometimes also called a **Hurewicz fibration**, in order to distinguish it from certain weaker notions such as the following:

DEFINITION 62.4. A map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is called a **Serre fibration** if it satisfies the homotopy lifting property with respect to all CW-complexes.

The advantage of Serre fibrations is that the condition is easier to verify, so there are more Serre fibrations than Hurewicz fibrations, but a large portion of the general homotopy theory of fibrations also works for Serre fibrations under minor adjustments to hypotheses—this applies especially to results involving higher homotopy groups, which we'll have more to say about later.

REMARK 62.5. The distinction between free and pointed fibrations gets brushed under the rug in many treatments of homotopy theory, and there are some valid but non-obvious reasons for this. Within the class of spaces that are typically important in applications, it turns out that the distinction is trivial. The “easy” portion of this statement is the observation that every *pointed* fibration becomes a *free* fibration after forgetting the base points (see Exercise 62.1). Conversely, one might hope that for any given free fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, one could make an arbitrary choice of base points $* \in B$ and $* \in p^{-1}(*) \subset E$ so that p becomes a pointed map, and then call it a pointed fibration. This, however, is false in general, because the lifted homotopy provided by the free version of the HLP cannot guarantee the existence of a lift that is also a *pointed* homotopy. In this sense, pointed fibrations satisfy a stricter condition than free fibrations, and free fibrations are more plentiful. One can show however that this distinction ceases to be meaningful if a mild technical condition is imposed on the way that base points are chosen. A full explanation of this requires the notion of cofibrations, so we'll come back to it in Lecture 65.

The next result motivates a large portion of the homotopy-theoretic interest in fibrations. We give a statement specifically for pointed fibrations, but it can be extended to free fibrations with a little care (see Exercise 62.2).

THEOREM 62.6. Assume $E \xrightarrow{p} B$ is a pointed map satisfying the pointed homotopy lifting property with respect to a given class of pointed spaces $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}_*$, let $F := p^{-1}(*)$, and denote its inclusion in E by $F \xrightarrow{i} E$. Then for any $X \in \mathcal{C}$, the sequence of pointed homotopy sets

$$[X, F]_+ \xrightarrow{i_*} [X, E]_+ \xrightarrow{p_*} [X, B]_+$$

is exact.

PROOF. The composition $p \circ i$ is constant, so the induced map $[X, F] \rightarrow [X, B]$ sends everything to the base point of $[X, B]$. If $\psi : X \rightarrow E$ represents a pointed homotopy class in the kernel of p_* , it means that there is a homotopy

$$p \circ \psi \xrightarrow{H} \text{const}_*,$$

where $\text{const}_* : X \rightarrow B$ denotes the constant pointed map. By the homotopy lifting property, $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ admits a lift $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ to a pointed homotopy that satisfies $\tilde{H}_0 = \psi$, and $\psi' := \tilde{H}_1 : X \rightarrow E$ then has image in F since $p \circ \psi' = H_1 = \text{const}_*$. It follows that ψ' represents a class in $[X, F]$ with $i_*[\psi'] = [\psi] \in [X, E]$, proving that the sequence is exact. $\square$

DEFINITION 62.7. When $\mathcal{C}$ in Theorem 62.6 is taken to be the class of all pointed spaces, so that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed fibration, the sequence

$$F \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} B$$

is called a **strict fibration sequence**.

Theorem 62.6 is symptomatic of a deeper result that will follow from technology introduced in the next lecture: strict fibration sequences are also homotopy fiber sequences (recall Definition 60.19). Fibrations serve in practice as the main source of examples of homotopy fiber sequences.

62.2. Constructions of fibrations. Beyond the simple example of covering maps mentioned above, fibrations are abundant in nature, and we shall now begin building a repertoire of maps that can be easily recognized as fibrations. Each of the following examples has both an unpointed and a pointed variant unless otherwise noted.

62.2.1. *Projections.* For any spaces B and F , the projection

$$E := B \times F \xrightarrow{p} B : (b, y) \mapsto b$$

is a fibration, since homotopies $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ always have lifts of the form $\tilde{H}(x, t) := (H(x, t), f(x, t))$ determined by arbitrary maps $f : X \times I \rightarrow F$. Note that outside of the special case where F is a discrete space, this example clearly shows the non-uniqueness of the lifted homotopy.

62.2.2. *Evaluation on path space.* The following is the only example for which we will have a need to construct lifted homotopies explicitly.

PROPOSITION 62.8. *For any space Z , the map*

$$Z^I \xrightarrow{(\text{ev}_0, \text{ev}_1)} Z \times Z$$

defined by evaluating paths at their beginning and end points is a fibration.

PROOF. Suppose $H = (F, G) : X \times I \rightarrow Z \times Z$ is a homotopy and $H_0 = (F_0, G_0) : X \rightarrow Z \times Z$ has been lifted to a map $\tilde{H}_0 : X \rightarrow Z^I$. Concretely, this means that for each $x \in X$, we have an associated path $\gamma_x := \tilde{H}_0(x) \in Z^I$ from $F_0(x)$ to $G_0(x)$, and lifting the homotopy then means extending $\{\gamma_x\}_{x \in X}$ to a continuous family of paths

$$\left\{ F(x, t) \xrightarrow{\gamma_{x,t}} G(x, t) \right\}_{(x,t) \in X \times I} \quad \text{such that} \quad \gamma_{x,0} = \gamma_x.$$

We can do this by defining each $\gamma_{x,t}$ for $t > 0$ to be a concatenation

$$F(x, t) \xrightarrow{\alpha_{x,t}} F_0(x) \xrightarrow{\gamma_x} G_0(x) \xrightarrow{\beta_{x,t}} G(x, t),$$

where $\alpha_{x,t}$ and $\beta_{x,t}$ are suitable reparametrizations of the paths $[0,t] \mapsto Z$ defined by $s \mapsto F(x,s)$ and $s \mapsto G(x,s)$ respectively. We leave it as an exercise to choose the parametrizations so that the resulting map $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow Z^I : (x,t) \mapsto \gamma_{x,t}$ is continuous. $\square$

62.2.3. Compositions. If $p : E \rightarrow B$ and $f : B \rightarrow A$ are fibrations, then $f \circ p : E \rightarrow A$ is also a fibration. The proof only requires staring at the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}'_0} & E \\ \downarrow i_0 & \searrow p \circ \tilde{H}'_0 & \downarrow p \\ & \tilde{H}' & B \\ & \searrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow f \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & A \end{array}.$$

The homotopy lifting property for $f : B \rightarrow A$ implies the existence of the lift $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow B$ of $H : X \times I \rightarrow A$ matching $p \circ \tilde{H}'_0$ at $X \times \{0\}$, and the homotopy lifting property for $p : E \rightarrow B$ then lifts $\tilde{H}$ to $\tilde{H}' : X \times I \rightarrow E$ matching the given map $\tilde{H}'_0$ at $X \times \{0\}$.

62.2.4. Products. It is a trivial exercise to verify that for any two given fibrations $p_i : E_i \rightarrow B_i$ with $i = 1, 2$, the product map $p_1 \times p_2 : E_1 \times E_2 \rightarrow B_1 \times B_2$ is also a fibration.

62.2.5. Pullbacks. This is perhaps the most interesting example, and is important from a theoretical standpoint.

PROPOSITION 62.9. *If*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E' & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\ \downarrow p' & & \downarrow p \\ B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

is a pullback diagram in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_$ and $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a (free or pointed) fibration, then so is $p' : E' \rightarrow B'$.*

REMARK 62.10. Under the stated assumptions, E' can be identified with the fiber product $B' \times_{f \times p} E \subset B' \times E$ so that f' and p' become the obvious projections. For any $b \in B'$, writing $E'_b := (p')^{-1}(b) \subset E'$, it follows that

$$E'_b \xrightarrow{f'} E_{f(b)}$$

is a homeomorphism, thus we think of E' as a union of the same collection of fibers as E , but parametrized over B' instead of B . This relation between E and E' is often indicated with the notation

$$f^*E := E',$$

and we call f^*E the **pullback fibration** of E along the map $f : B' \rightarrow B$, or alternatively, the **induced fibration**.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 62.9. In the diagram

$$(62.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} X & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}'_0} & E' & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\ \downarrow i_0 & \searrow p' \circ \tilde{H}'_0 & \downarrow p' & \searrow p \circ f' & \downarrow p \\ & \tilde{H}' & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & \searrow \tilde{H} & & & \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array},$$

the homotopy lifting property for $p : E \rightarrow B$ implies the existence of a lift $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ of $f \circ H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ matching $f' \circ \tilde{H}'_0$ at $X \times \{0\}$. This uniquely determines the map $\tilde{H}' : X \times I \rightarrow E'$ due to the universal property of the pullback, which one sees more easily after rearranging the diagram into the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 X \times I & & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}} & & E \\
 & \searrow \tilde{H}' & & \searrow f' & \\
 & & E' & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\
 & & \downarrow p' & & \downarrow p \\
 & & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\
 & \searrow H & & & \\
 & & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B
 \end{array}$$

From this diagram, we immediately have the relations $p' \circ \tilde{H}' = H$ and $f' \circ \tilde{H}' = \tilde{H}$ as required in (62.1); we still need to show that $\tilde{H}' \circ i_0$ matches the given map $\tilde{H}'_0$. This also follows from the universal property of the pullback, because both are the unique map fitting the role of the dashed arrow in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 X & & \xrightarrow{f' \circ \tilde{H}'_0} & & E \\
 & \searrow & & \searrow f' & \\
 & & E' & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\
 & & \downarrow p' & & \downarrow p \\
 & & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\
 & \searrow H \circ i_0 & & & \\
 & & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B
 \end{array}$$

□

62.2.6. Mapping path spaces. Combining the last few results yields a general class of fibrations that will have important applications:

THEOREM 62.11. *For any maps $f : X \rightarrow Z$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$, the mapping path space $P(f, g) = X \times_{f \times_{\text{ev}_0}} Z^I \times_{\text{ev}_1} \times_g Y$ with its natural projections π_X, π_Y to X and Y determine a fibration*

$$P(f, g) \xrightarrow{(\pi_X, \pi_Y)} X \times Y.$$

Moreover, the individual projections $\pi_X : P(f, g) \rightarrow X$ and $\pi_Y : P(f, g) \rightarrow Y$ are also fibrations.

PROOF. For each $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, the fiber $(\pi_X, \pi_Y)^{-1}(x, y)$ is naturally homeomorphic to the space of all paths $f(x) \rightsquigarrow g(y)$ in Z , which is $(\text{ev}_0, \text{ev}_1)^{-1}(f(x), g(y)) \subset Z^I$, thus giving rise to a pullback square

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 P(f, g) & \longrightarrow & Z^I \\
 (\pi_X, \pi_Y) \downarrow & & \downarrow (\text{ev}_0, \text{ev}_1) \\
 X \times Y & \xrightarrow{f \times g} & Z \times Z
 \end{array}$$

in which the top horizontal map is the projection $P(f, g) = X \times_{f \times_{\text{ev}_0}} Z^I \times_{\text{ev}_1} \times_g Y \rightarrow Z^I$. It follows via Propositions 62.8 and 62.9 that (π_X, π_Y) is a fibration, and the individual projections are also fibrations since they are each a composition of this with the trivial projection of $X \times Y$ to X or Y , which is likewise a fibration. □

62.2.7. Path and loop space functors. We now examine what happens to fibrations under the application of certain functors $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$. The first result works equally well in the unpointed and pointed categories. As shown in Exercise 61.9(a), there is a well-defined functor

$$(\cdot)^I : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}$$

that associates to each space X its path space X^I and to each map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ the map $f^I : X^I \rightarrow Y^I : \gamma \mapsto f \circ \gamma$. It also defines a functor $(\cdot)^I : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ since pointed maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ induce pointed maps $f^I : X^I \rightarrow Y^I$, where for a pointed space X , one takes the base point of X^I to be the constant path at the base point. By Exercise 61.9(c), both functors also descend to the associated homotopy categories.

PROPOSITION 62.12. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration, then so is $p^I : E^I \rightarrow B^I$.*

PROOF. We use the adjunction relation $\mathcal{F}(ZX, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}(X, Y^I)$, where $ZX = Z_\circ X := X \times I$ in the unpointed case, and ZX is otherwise the *reduced* cylinder $Z_+X := (X \times I)/(* \times I)$. This translates the homotopy lifting property for $p^I : E^I \rightarrow B^I$ with respect to a space X into a diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} ZX & \xrightarrow{\quad} & E \\ i_0 \downarrow & \nearrow & \downarrow p \\ ZX \times I & \xrightarrow{\quad} & B \end{array}$$

The lifting problem represented by this diagram is solvable because $p : E \rightarrow B$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to ZX . $\square$

There are two interesting variations on Proposition 62.12 that make sense mainly in the pointed category, where we have the functors

$$P, \Omega : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*,$$

associating to each pointed space X its based path space $PX := \mathcal{F}_+(I, X)$, consisting of paths in X that begin at the base point, and its based loop space $\Omega X := \mathcal{F}_+(S^1, X)$.

PROPOSITION 62.13. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed fibration, then so are $Pp : PE \rightarrow PB$ and $\Omega p : \Omega E \rightarrow \Omega B$.*

PROOF. The proof is completely analogous to that of Proposition 62.12, using the adjunction relations $\mathcal{F}_+(C_+X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, PY)$ and $\mathcal{F}_+(\Sigma_+X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \Omega Y)$. $\square$

REMARK 62.14. All results stated in this section have straightforward analogues for maps that are not fibrations but satisfy the homotopy lifting property with respect to a more restrictive class of spaces, e.g. all of them also hold for Serre fibrations. Slight care is required in adapting the proofs of Propositions 62.12 and 62.13 for Serre fibrations: here one needs the fact that if X is a CW-complex, then the spaces ZX , C_+X and Σ_+X are also CW-complexes.

62.3. Replacing any map with a fibration. The following construction shows that every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a fibration “up to homotopy equivalence”. The spaces $P(f, g)$ defined in Lecture 60 were called “double” mapping path spaces in order to distinguish them from the **mapping path space** of a single map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, which we define to be

$$\begin{aligned} P(f) &:= P(f, \text{Id}_Y) = \{(x, \gamma, y) \in X \times Y^I \times Y \mid \gamma(0) = f(x) \text{ and } \gamma(1) = y\} \\ &\cong \{(x, \gamma) \in X \times Y^I \mid \gamma(0) = f(x)\} = X \times_{f \times \text{ev}_0} Y^I. \end{aligned}$$

Observe that by retracting paths to their start points, one finds a deformation retraction of $P(f)$ to an embedded copy of X , meaning more precisely that the map

$$X \xrightarrow{h} P(f) : x \mapsto (x, \text{const}_{f(x)})$$

is a homotopy inverse of the natural projection $\pi_X : P(f) \rightarrow X$. By Theorem 62.11, π_X is a fibration, and so is the other projection $\pi_Y : P(f) \rightarrow Y$, which has a natural identification with the end-point evaluation map,

$$X \times_{f \circ \text{ev}_0} Y^I \xrightarrow{\pi_Y} Y : (x, \gamma) \mapsto \gamma(1).$$

We therefore have a commutative diagram

$$(62.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ h \downarrow \simeq & \nearrow \pi_Y & \\ P(f) & & \end{array}$$

in which h is a homotopy equivalence and π_Y is a fibration.

Next, choose a point $y_0 \in Y$, or set y_0 to be the base point of Y if we are working in the pointed category, and compare the fibers

$$F := f^{-1}(y_0) \subset X, \quad \text{and} \quad F(f) := \pi_Y^{-1}(y_0) \subset P(f).$$

The space $F(f)$ consists of pairs (x, γ) such that $x \in X$ and γ is a path $f(x) \rightsquigarrow y_0$ in Y , and it is called the **homotopy fiber** of f , because it is a fiber of a fibration to which the given map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is homotopy equivalent. Since (62.2) commutes, the map h restricts to a so-called **comparison map** $F \rightarrow F(f)$, so that we can enlarge the diagram to

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} F & \hookrightarrow & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ h \downarrow & & h \downarrow \simeq & \nearrow \pi_Y & \\ F(f) & \hookrightarrow & P(f) & & \end{array}$$

We will see in the next lecture that the homotopy fiber $F(f)$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is independent of choices up to homotopy equivalence, and whenever $f : X \rightarrow Y$ itself is a fibration, the comparison map $F \xrightarrow{h} F(f)$ is likewise a homotopy equivalence.

62.4. The dual perspective and lifting functions. The following alternative perspective on the homotopy lifting property is sometimes useful. Recall from Lecture 61 that for any two spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$, there is a natural bijection that identifies homotopies $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ with continuous maps $X \rightarrow Y^I$ valued in the path space of Y . Conveniently, if X and Y are also equipped with base points, then a homotopy $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is pointed if and only if the corresponding map $X \rightarrow Y^I$ preserves base points. In terms of path spaces, the homotopy lifting property is equivalent to the diagram

$$(62.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} X & & \xrightarrow{\widetilde{H}_0} & & E \\ & \searrow \widetilde{H} & & \searrow \text{ev}_0 & \\ & & E^I & \xrightarrow{\text{ev}_0} & E \\ & \searrow H & \downarrow p^I & & \downarrow p \\ & & B^I & \xrightarrow{\text{ev}_0} & B \end{array}$$

where in the case of the pointed HLP, we assume all maps in the diagram to be pointed maps. This diagram says that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a free or pointed fibration if and only if E^I with its maps

to E and B^I defines a *weak pullback* of the maps $p : E \rightarrow B$ and $\text{ev}_0 : B^I \rightarrow B$ in the category $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$ respectively. Note that we do not require it to be an actual pullback, since the lifted homotopy $\tilde{H}$ is not assumed to be unique.

We can now point out another reason for the importance of mapping path spaces: $P(f)$ serves as a “universal” space with which to test the homotopy lifting property and determine whether a given map f is a fibration. The explanation for this begins with the observation that for a given map $p : E \rightarrow B$, the mapping path space $P(p) = E \times_{p \times \text{ev}_0} B^I$ is a fiber product, thus giving rise to a pullback square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P(p) & \xrightarrow{\pi_E} & E \\ \downarrow \pi_{B^I} & & \downarrow p \\ B^I & \xrightarrow{\text{ev}_0} & B \end{array}$$

The universal property of the pullback thus determines from the square appearing in (62.3) a map

$$E^I \xrightarrow{\Psi} P(p),$$

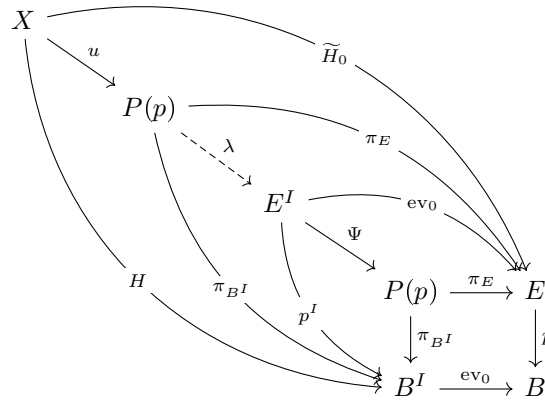
given explicitly by $\Psi(\gamma) = (\text{ev}_0(\gamma), p^I(\gamma)) = (\gamma(0), p \circ \gamma) \in E \times_{p \times \text{ev}_0} B^I = P(p)$. A map

$$\lambda : P(p) \rightarrow E^I$$

is called a **lifting function** for $p : E \rightarrow B$ if it is a right-inverse for Ψ ; concretely, this means that λ associates to each $(x, \gamma) \in E \times B^I$ with $\gamma(0) = p(x)$ a path $\alpha := \lambda(x, \gamma) \in E^I$ starting at x whose composition with p is γ .

THEOREM 62.15. *A map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration if and only if it admits a lifting function.*

PROOF. We use (62.3) to characterize the homotopy lifting property of $p : E \rightarrow B$ with respect to a space X , and enhance the diagram to



Here, the maps Ψ and u are each determined by the universal property of the pullback, and λ exists if and only if $p : E \rightarrow B$ satisfies the homotopy lifting property with respect to $P(p)$. If it does, then the uniqueness requirement of the universal property dictates that $\Psi \circ \lambda : P(p) \rightarrow P(p)$ is the identity map, and $\lambda \circ u$ solves the homotopy lifting problem for the given space X . $\square$

62.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 62.1 (*). Prove that every pointed fibration becomes a free fibration after forgetting the base points.

Hint: Use the adjunction relation in Example 58.8.

EXERCISE 62.2. If $p : E \rightarrow B$ satisfies the *free* homotopy lifting property with respect to a class $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}$ of spaces, one can arbitrarily choose points $b_0 \in B$ and $x_0 \in p^{-1}(b_0) \subset E$, set $F := p^{-1}(b_0)$ and consider the sequence of pointed maps

$$(F, x_0) \xrightarrow{i} (E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p} (B, b_0),$$

where $i : F \hookrightarrow E$ is the inclusion. If the class $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}$ consists of all spaces, then this is also called a **strict fibration sequence**. In general, it cannot be assumed that $(E, x_0) \xrightarrow{p} (B, b_0)$ is a pointed fibration, but one obtains an unpointed analogue of Theorem 62.6 as follows. The base points $x_0 \in F \subset E$ and $b_0 \in B$ determine preferred path-components of F, E, B , making these into pointed objects of the category $\mathbf{hTop}$, so that for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$, the unpointed homotopy sets $[X, F]_\circ$, $[X, E]_\circ$ and $[X, B]_\circ$ become pointed sets, with base points given by the homotopy classes of constant maps to the chosen base points. This makes

$$(62.4) \quad [X, F]_\circ \xrightarrow{i_*} [X, E]_\circ \xrightarrow{p_*} [X, B]_\circ$$

into a sequence of pointed set maps for any unpointed space X .

- (a) Show that under the stated assumptions, the sequence (62.4) is exact for every $X \in \mathcal{C}$.
- (b) Taking as a black box that the map $p : \mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow S^2$ described in Exercise 60.6 is a free fibration, adapt the argument in that exercise to show that pushouts in $\mathbf{hTop}$ do not always exist.

EXERCISE 62.3. The following are two examples of maps $p : E \rightarrow B$ with the property that all fibers $E_b = p^{-1}(b)$ are homotopy equivalent—we will see in the next lecture that this is a property that fibrations must have, though in these examples, the fibers are *not* all homeomorphic, so they cannot be fiber bundles. Determine whether each is actually a fibration.

- (a) The projection $E \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : (x, y) \mapsto x$ of the subset $E := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |y| \leq |x|\}$.
- (b) The projection $E \rightarrow I : (x, y) \mapsto x$ of the subset $E := (I \times \{0\}) \cup (\{0\} \times I)$.

EXERCISE 62.4. A fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ can fail to be surjective for trivial reasons, e.g. B can have path-components $B_0 \subset B$ for which $p^{-1}(B_0) = \emptyset$. Convince yourself that this possibility does not contradict the definition of the homotopy lifting property, and then prove: if $E_{b_0} \neq \emptyset$ for some $b_0 \in B$, then $E_b \neq \emptyset$ for every $b \in B$ in the same path-component as b_0 . In particular, every fibration with nonempty total space E over a path-connected space B is surjective.

63. The transport functor

63.1. Intuition via parallel transport. The transport functor is a technical tool that can be used to prove several important theorems about fibrations in homotopy theory.

The word “transport” evokes the concept of *parallel transport*, which is important in the differential geometry of fiber bundles. The idea is that for a given fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, one wants to associate to any path $x \rightsquigarrow y$ in B a map

$$E_x \xrightarrow{P_\gamma} E_y$$

that depends in a continuous manner on the path γ and its end points $x, y \in B$. In differential geometry, where all spaces are assumed to be smooth manifolds and all maps are smooth, one does this by choosing a *connection* on a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$, which determines P_γ as the flow of a smooth vector field on E covering the velocity vectors of the path γ , thus making P_γ a diffeomorphism. Connections always exist, but they are not unique, and P_γ does depend on the choice of connection, thus parallel transport maps are not canonically defined. However, the space of all connections on a smooth fiber bundle is contractible, so there is a continuous path between any two of them, and it follows that the *homotopy class* of the map $P_\gamma : E_x \rightarrow E_y$ is canonical.

Just as the *path* lifting property of covering maps generalizes to the *homotopy* lifting property of fibrations, the correspondence described above between paths γ in B and maps P_γ between fibers can also be generalized. For any space X , a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ can be regarded as a family of paths $\gamma_x := H(x, \cdot) : I \rightarrow B$ depending continuously on $x \in X$, and should thus give rise to a family of maps

$$E_{H_0(x)} \xrightarrow{P_{\gamma_x}} E_{H_1(x)}$$

that also depends continuously on $x \in X$. One obtains from this a correspondence

$$(63.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \text{lifts} & \begin{array}{c} \widetilde{H}_0 \nearrow \\ X \xrightarrow{H_0} B \end{array} & \mapsto \begin{array}{c} \text{lifts} \\ \begin{array}{c} \widetilde{H}_1 \nearrow \\ X \xrightarrow{H_1} B \end{array} \end{array}$$

defined by

$$\widetilde{H}_1(x) := P_{\gamma_x} \circ \widetilde{H}_0(x).$$

In the smooth category, any connection determines such a correspondence, and at the level of (smooth) homotopy classes of lifts, this correspondence is independent of choices, and depends on H only up to (smooth) homotopy of homotopies. In homotopy theory, we have no smooth structures and cannot talk about connections, but we can nonetheless realistically hope to prove that certain maps exist uniquely up to homotopy.

63.2. Homotopy groupoids and maps over spaces. In order to state the main result properly, we need to define some new categories, the first of which has morphisms that can be understood as *lifts*, as in (63.1).

DEFINITION 63.1. Given a space $B \in \mathbf{Top}$, the category $\mathbf{Top}_B$ of **spaces over B** has objects that are pairs (X, f) with X a space and $f : X \rightarrow B$ a map, and the set of morphisms $\text{Hom}((X, f), (Y, g))$ consists of **maps over B** , meaning maps $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ that make the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Y \\ & \searrow f & \swarrow g \\ & B & \end{array}$$

commute. Two such morphisms φ, ψ are **homotopic over B** if there exists a homotopy $\varphi \stackrel{H}{\rightsquigarrow} \psi$ such that H_t is a morphism $(X, f) \rightarrow (Y, g)$ for every $t \in I$. This notion defines the corresponding homotopy category $\mathbf{hTop}_B$, and isomorphisms in this category are called **homotopy equivalences over B** . There are similar definitions for categories $\mathbf{Top}_{B,*}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_{B,*}$ in which all maps and homotopies are required to be pointed. Given two objects X, Y in $\mathbf{Top}_B$ or $\mathbf{Top}_{B,*}$, we denote by

$$[X, Y]_B := \text{Hom}(X, Y) \text{ in } \mathbf{hTop}_B \text{ or } \mathbf{hTop}_{B,*} \text{ resp.}$$

the set of homotopy classes of (unpointed or pointed) maps $X \rightarrow Y$ over B . We can also write $[(X, f), (Y, g)]_B$ whenever the maps $f : X \rightarrow B$ and $g : Y \rightarrow B$ defining these objects need to be specified.

REMARK 63.2. If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration and $f : X \rightarrow B$ is a map, a morphism $(X, f) \rightarrow (E, p)$ in $\mathbf{Top}_B$ or $\mathbf{Top}_{B,*}$ can be understood as a *lift* of f to a map $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$. This is the way such morphisms appear in Theorem 63.6 below.

The next definition will be a generalization of the fundamental group of a pointed space. On an unpointed space X , one defines the **fundamental groupoid** $\Pi(X)$ as a category whose objects are the points of X , with morphisms $x \rightarrow y$ given by homotopy classes of paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$, and composition of morphisms defined via concatenation of paths. This category is called a **groupoid**

because all of its morphisms are isomorphisms, a trivial observation resulting from the fact that all paths can be reversed. In terms of $\Pi(X)$, the fundamental group $\pi_1(X, x)$ of X with any chosen base point x can be defined as the group of isomorphisms $\text{Hom}(x, x)$ of the object $x \in \Pi(X)$.¹⁰¹

We now extend $\Pi(X)$ to a notion in which the role of paths is played by homotopies of maps from another space into X .

DEFINITION 63.3. Given spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}$, the **homotopy groupoid** $\Pi(X, Y)$ is a category whose objects are maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$, with morphisms

$$\text{Hom}(f, g) := \left\{ \text{homotopies } f \xrightarrow{H} g \right\} / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation is “homotopy of homotopies”: $H \sim H'$ means there is a homotopy $H \xrightarrow{\Phi} H'$ of maps $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $\Phi_s := \Phi(\cdot, \cdot, s) : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ for each $s \in I$ is also a homotopy $f \xrightarrow{\Phi_s} g$. Composition of morphisms is defined by concatenation of homotopies.

For two pointed spaces $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, one also defines a pointed variant of $\Pi(X, Y)$ in which all maps $X \rightarrow Y$ and homotopies $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ mentioned above are required to be pointed. When it is necessary to distinguish, we shall write $\Pi_o(X, Y)$ and $\Pi_+(X, Y)$ for the free and pointed variants of the homotopy groupoid.

REMARK 63.4. It is a straightforward exercise to show that the equivalence relation in the definition of $\text{Hom}(f, g)$ makes composition of morphisms in $\Pi(X, Y)$ associative. The proof is essentially the same as the proof that multiplication in the fundamental group is associative.

EXAMPLE 63.5. For any unpointed space X , the homotopy groupoid $\Pi(*, X)$ is equivalent to the fundamental groupoid $\Pi(X)$. Note that this is the *unpointed* homotopy groupoid $\Pi_o(*, X)$; when X is equipped with a base point, $\Pi_+(*, X)$ is an uninteresting category containing only one object and one morphism.

63.3. Existence of the transport functor. The first important technical result of this lecture is simultaneously a definition. As usual, the statement makes sense in two parallel versions, pointed and unpointed.

THEOREM 63.6. Assume $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a (free or pointed) fibration. Then for any (unpointed or pointed) space X , there exists a well-defined functor

$$\Pi(X, B) \rightarrow \mathbf{Set},$$

called the **transport functor**, which associates to each object $f : X \rightarrow B$ of the homotopy groupoid $\Pi(X, B)$ the set $[(X, f), (E, p)]_B$ of homotopy classes of lifts $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ of f , and associates to each homotopy class of homotopies $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ between two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow B$ a bijection

$$[(X, f), (E, p)]_B \xrightarrow{H_\#} [(X, g), (E, p)]_B,$$

characterized by the formula

$$H_\#[\tilde{f}] = [\tilde{g}] \quad \text{for any homotopy } \tilde{f} \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}} \tilde{g} \text{ that is a lift of } f \xrightarrow{H} g.$$

PROOF. The recipe in the statement specifies the map $H_\# : [(X, f), (E, p)]_B \rightarrow [(X, g), (E, p)]_B$ uniquely, but to show that it is well defined, we need to check that for any given lift $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow E$ of f , the homotopy class of $\tilde{g} : X \rightarrow E$ as a lift of g obtained by this recipe depends only on the homotopy classes of $\tilde{f}$ (as a lift of f) and H (as a homotopy from f to g).

¹⁰¹Strictly speaking, $\text{Hom}(x, x)$ is actually the *opposite* group $\pi_1(X, x)^{\text{op}}$, in which multiplication is defined via concatenation in reverse order: $[\alpha][\beta] := [\beta \cdot \alpha]$.

In order to handle the pointed and unpointed cases simultaneously, we shall identify pointed homotopies $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ with the pointed maps $Z_+X \rightarrow Y$ that they descend to on the reduced cylinder $Z_+X = (X \times I)/(* \times I)$. Since the unreduced cylinder is just $Z_oX = X \times I$, this means that unpointed and pointed homotopies alike can be viewed as maps $ZX \rightarrow Y$, with ZX denoting the unreduced or reduced cylinder accordingly. Let us denote

$$\partial_i ZX := X \times \{i\} \subset X \times I \quad \text{for } i = 0, 1$$

in the unreduced case, and use the same notation in the reduced case for the image of these subsets under the quotient projection $X \times I \rightarrow Z_+X$. We will sometimes abuse notation by identifying $\partial_0 ZX$ and $\partial_1 ZX$ with X in the obvious way.

Suppose now that

$$ZX \times I \xrightarrow{H} B : (z, s) \mapsto H^s(z)$$

defines a family of homotopies $f \xrightarrow{H^s} g$, while

$$X \times I \rightarrow E : (x, s) \mapsto \tilde{f}^s(x)$$

defines a family of lifts of $f : X \rightarrow B$. Assume moreover that $\tilde{H}^0, \tilde{H}^1 : ZX \rightarrow E$ are chosen lifts of $H^0, H^1 : ZX \rightarrow B$ respectively that satisfy $\tilde{H}^i|_{\partial_0 ZX} = \tilde{f}^i$ for $i = 0, 1$. The goal is then to show that the maps $X \rightarrow E$ defined by

$$\tilde{g}^0 := \tilde{H}^1|_{\partial_1 ZX} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{g}^1 := \tilde{H}^0|_{\partial_1 ZX}$$

are homotopic as lifts of g . This will follow from the claim that there exists a lift

$$ZX \times I \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}} E : (z, s) \mapsto \tilde{H}^s(z)$$

of H that matches the maps $\tilde{H}^0$ and $\tilde{H}^1$ already fixed for $s = 0, 1$ and also satisfies

$$\tilde{H}^s|_{\partial_0 ZX} = \tilde{f}^s \quad \text{for all } s \in I;$$

indeed, the desired homotopy $\tilde{g}^0 \rightsquigarrow \tilde{g}^1$ is then given by the family of maps $\tilde{g}^s := \tilde{H}^s|_{\partial_1 ZX}$ for $s \in I$. To prove the claim, we can express the lifting problem at hand via the diagram

$$(63.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} ZX \times \partial I \cup \partial_0 ZX \times I & \xrightarrow{\quad} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ ZX \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & B \end{array}$$

where the horizontal map at the top is determined by the conditions on $\tilde{H}$ specified above, and we require in the pointed case that H and $\tilde{H}$ are pointed homotopies.

In the unpointed case, we have

$$ZX \times \partial I \cup \partial_0 ZX \times I = X \times (I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) \subset X \times I^2 = ZX \times I,$$

and we observe that there is a homeomorphism of pairs

$$(I^2, I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Psi} (I^2, I \times \{0\}),$$

from which we can define another homeomorphism of pairs

$$(63.3) \quad (X \times I^2, X \times (I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I)) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\text{Id}_X \times \Psi} (X \times I^2, X \times (I \times \{0\})) = (ZX \times I, ZX \times \{0\}),$$

so that (63.2) is equivalent to a simpler lifting problem of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} ZX \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \text{dashed} & \downarrow p \\ ZX \times I & \xrightarrow{\quad} & B \end{array}$$

The latter is solvable because $p : E \rightarrow B$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to ZX .

For the pointed case, with $ZX = Z_+X = (X \times I)/(* \times I)$, we can encode the condition of H and $\tilde{H}$ in (63.2) being *pointed* homotopies by letting both descend to the quotient

$$Z_+^2 X := Z_+(Z_+X) = \frac{Z_+X \times I}{* \times I} \cong \frac{X \times I^2}{* \times I^2}.$$

Note that there is a slight subtlety of point-set topology here: writing $q : X \times I \rightarrow Z_+X$ for the quotient projection, the map $q \times \text{Id} : (X \times I) \times I \rightarrow Z_+X \times I$ is a quotient map by Lemma 61.11 since I is friendly, and composing it with the quotient projection $Z_+X \times I \rightarrow Z_+(Z_+X)$ then produces a quotient map $X \times I^2 \rightarrow Z_+^2 X$, so that the obvious bijection $(X \times I^2)/(* \times I^2) \rightarrow Z_+^2 X$ to which it descends is a homeomorphism. With this understood, the pointed version of (63.2) is equivalent to a diagram in which the lower- and upper-left terms are replaced by the quotient $(X \times I^2)/(* \times I^2)$ and the corresponding quotient of the subset $X \times (I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) \subset X \times I^2$ respectively. The homeomorphism of pairs in (63.3) descends to a homeomorphism of pairs between the corresponding quotients, so that we are then free to replace the upper-left term in the diagram by $(X \times I \times \{0\})/(* \times I \times \{0\}) = \partial_0 Z_+(Z_+X)$, producing the modified lifting problem

$$(63.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \partial_0 Z_+(Z_+X) & \xrightarrow{\quad} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} \text{ dashed} & \downarrow p \\ Z_+(Z_+X) & \xrightarrow{H} & B \end{array}$$

Since pointed maps on $Z_+(Z_+X)$ are equivalent to pointed homotopies of maps defined on Z_+X , this problem is solvable due to the fact that $p : E \rightarrow B$ satisfies the pointed homotopy lifting property with respect to Z_+X .

Having proved that the map $H_{\#} : [(X, f), (E, p)]_B \rightarrow [(X, g), (E, p)]_B$ induced by a homotopy $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ is well defined, it is clear from the construction that concatenations of homotopies induce compositions of maps, and the construction therefore defines a functor $\Pi(X, B) \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$. Finally, we observe that since all morphisms in $\Pi(X, B)$ are isomorphisms, the same automatically holds for all morphisms of $\mathbf{Set}$ in the image of this functor, implying that the maps $H_{\#}$ are always bijections. $\square$

REMARK 63.7. Theorem 63.6 also holds under the assumption that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a Serre fibration and X is a CW-complex. For the proof, one only needs to know that since the cylinder ZX is also a CW-complex, $p : E \rightarrow B$ also satisfies the homotopy lifting property with respect to ZX .

63.4. Homotopy equivalences of fibrations. As a first application of the transport functor, we give a useful criterion to detect when two fibrations over the same base are equivalent. In homotopy theory, the appropriate notion of equivalence for two fibrations $p : E \rightarrow B$ and $p' : E' \rightarrow B$ over B is *homotopy equivalence over B* , i.e. isomorphism in the category $\mathbf{hTop}_B$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_{B,*}$. Explicitly, it means that one has homotopy inverses $f : E \rightarrow E'$ and $g : E' \rightarrow E$ that

both fit into the diagram

$$(63.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} E & \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{f} \\ \xleftarrow{g} \end{array} & E' \\ & \searrow p \quad \swarrow p' & \\ & B & \end{array},$$

with the additional condition that there are homotopies $g \circ f \rightsquigarrow \text{Id}_E$ and $f \circ g \rightsquigarrow \text{Id}_{E'}$ given by 1-parameter families of maps $h_t : E \rightarrow E$ and $h'_t : E' \rightarrow E'$ that similarly fit into diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{h_t} & E \\ & \searrow p \quad \swarrow p & \\ & B & \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} E' & \xrightarrow{h'_t} & E' \\ & \searrow p' \quad \swarrow p' & \\ & B & \end{array}$$

It follows in particular that for every point $b \in B$, f and g restrict to maps between the corresponding fibers E_b and E'_b that are likewise homotopy inverses, thus giving homotopy equivalences between each fiber of E and the corresponding fiber of E' . Note that if we are working in the pointed category, then it follows that f and g restrict to pointed homotopy equivalences between the fibers of E and E' over the base point $* \in B$, but other fibers do not have natural base points, so for $b \neq * \in B$, one can only speak of *unpointed* homotopy equivalences $E_b \simeq E'_b$.

Note that for arbitrary maps $p : E \rightarrow B$ and $p' : E' \rightarrow B$, the existence of the homotopy inverses f and g in the diagram (63.5) does not on its own imply that the spaces $p^{-1}(b)$ and $(p')^{-1}(b)$ are homotopy equivalent for any given $b \in B$; this need not hold without the extra condition on homotopies described above. It turns out however that if p and p' are both fibrations, then the extra condition does not need to be checked:

THEOREM 63.8. *If $E \xrightarrow{p} B$ and $E' \xrightarrow{p'} B$ are two fibrations and $f : E \rightarrow E'$ is a homotopy equivalence of spaces that is also a map over B (with respect to p, p'), then f is also a homotopy equivalence over B .*

We discuss some consequences of this theorem before proving it. The most obvious consequence concerns the *comparison* map defined in §62.3, i.e. for a given map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and a chosen point $y_0 \in Y$, one has the map from its fiber $F := f^{-1}(y_0)$ to its homotopy fiber $F(f) := \pi_Y^{-1}(y_0) \subset P(f)$ appearing in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} F & \hookrightarrow & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ h \downarrow & & h \downarrow \simeq & \nearrow \pi_Y & \\ F(f) & \hookrightarrow & P(f) & & \end{array},$$

with the homotopy equivalence $h : X \hookrightarrow P(f) = X \times_{f \times_{\text{ev}_0}} Y^I$ given by $h(x) := (x, \text{const}_{f(x)})$. The map $\pi_Y : P(f) \rightarrow Y : (x, \gamma) \mapsto \gamma(1)$ on the mapping path space is always a fibration, and if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is also a fibration, Theorem 63.8 implies that $h : X \hookrightarrow P(f)$ is also a homotopy equivalence over Y , so that we conclude:

COROLLARY 63.9. *For any fibration $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the comparison map from its fiber to its homotopy fiber is a homotopy equivalence.* $\square$

REMARK 63.10. In the pointed context, Corollary 63.9 gives a *pointed* homotopy equivalence between fibers over the base point.

Using Exercise 63.1 at the end of this lecture, it also follows that whenever we have two ways of replacing a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ by fibrations $p_i : E_i \rightarrow Y$ as in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} E_0 & \xleftarrow{\sim_{h.e.}} & X & \xrightarrow{\sim_{h.e.}} & E_1 \\ & \searrow \sim & \downarrow f & \swarrow \sim & \\ & p_0 & Y & p_1 & \end{array},$$

the two fibrations must be homotopy equivalent over Y , and their corresponding fibers therefore homotopy equivalent. In particular, all reasonable definitions of the term “homotopy fiber” give the same thing up to homotopy equivalence.

To prepare the proof of Theorem 63.8, note that given a map $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ and a space E , f induces a map

$$[Y, E] \xrightarrow{f^*} [X, E] : \varphi \mapsto f^* \varphi := \varphi \circ f,$$

which is obviously bijective if f is a homotopy equivalence. If we are also given maps $q : Y \rightarrow B$ and $p : E \rightarrow B$, then for any map $\varphi : Y \rightarrow E$ over B , the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & f^* \varphi := \varphi \circ f & & \\ & \nearrow f & & \searrow \varphi & \\ X & & Y & & E \\ & \searrow f^* q := q \circ f & \downarrow q & \swarrow p & \\ & & B & & \end{array}$$

means that f also induces a map

$$[(Y, q), (E, p)]_B \xrightarrow{f^*} [(X, f^* q), (E, p)]_B.$$

LEMMA 63.11. *In the situation above, if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, then the map $[(Y, q), (E, p)]_B \xrightarrow{f^*} [(X, f^* q), (E, p)]_B$ is also bijective.*

PROOF. Given a homotopy inverse $g : Y \rightarrow X$ of X , choose a homotopy $\text{Id}_Y \xrightarrow{H} f \circ g$, so that $q \circ H$ is then a homotopy of maps $Y \rightarrow B$ from q to $q \circ f \circ g = g^* f^* q$. We claim that the diagram

$$(63.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & & (q \circ H)_\# & & \\ & \nearrow & & \searrow & \\ [(Y, q), (E, p)]_B & \xrightarrow{f^*} & [(X, f^* q), (E, p)]_B & \xrightarrow{g^*} & [(Y, g^* f^* q), (E, p)]_B \end{array}$$

commutes. The reason is that for any given map $(Y, q) \xrightarrow{\varphi} (E, p)$ over B , the following diagram reveals that there is an obvious choice of lift for the homotopy $q \circ H : Y \times I \rightarrow B$ with initial condition $\varphi : Y \rightarrow E$:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} Y & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & E & & \\ & \searrow \text{Id} & \nearrow \varphi & & \\ & & Y & & \\ \downarrow i_0 & \nearrow H & \searrow q & & \downarrow p \\ Y \times I & \xrightarrow{q \circ H} & B & & \end{array}$$

Choosing $\varphi \circ H : Y \times I \rightarrow E$ as the lifted homotopy, it defines a homotopy from φ to $\varphi \circ f \circ g = g^* f^* \varphi$ and thus proves the claim. Since $(q \circ H)_\#$ is a bijection, it follows that f^* is injective and g^* is

surjective. Using a homotopy of $g \circ f$ to Id_X , one can apply the same trick again to show that the composition

$$[(X, f^*q), (E, p)]_B \xrightarrow{g^*} [(Y, g^*f^*q), (E, p)]_B \xrightarrow{f^*} [(X, f^*g^*f^*q), (E, p)]_B$$

is also bijective, implying that the same map g^* is also injective, and thus bijective. Since the composition g^*f^* in (63.6) is bijective, it now follows that f^* is bijective. $\square$

REMARK 63.12. The proof of Lemma 63.11 should remind you of the proof that homotopy equivalences induce isomorphisms of fundamental groups (in spite of the annoying detail that the homotopy inverse need not respect base points). In fact, there is a dual version of this lemma for cofibrations, a special case of which involves homotopy classes of maps $S^1 \rightarrow X$ over a one-point space, and the result in that case is precisely the isomorphism of fundamental groups.

PROOF OF THEOREM 63.8. In light of Lemma 63.11, the theorem follows from yet another version of the Yoneda lemma; see Exercise 63.2. $\square$

REMARK 63.13. If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is not a fibration but satisfies the homotopy lifting property with respect to some class of spaces $\mathcal{C}$, then the proof of Lemma 63.11 still works for any $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$. Using Exercise 63.2, it follows that Theorem 63.8 also holds for two Serre fibrations $p : E \rightarrow B$ and $p' : E' \rightarrow B$ if E and E' have the homotopy type of CW-complexes.

63.5. The homotopy theorem for fibrations. Recall from §62.2.5 that for any fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, a map $f : B' \rightarrow B$ induces a *pullback fibration* $p_f : f^*E \rightarrow B'$ that fits into a pullback square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\ \downarrow p_f & & \downarrow p \\ B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

For the purposes of this section, we define f^*E to be the explicitly-constructed fiber product

$$f^*E = B' \times_p E = \{(b, x) \in B' \times E \mid x \in E_{f(b)}\},$$

in which case the maps p_f and f' are the obvious projections to B' and E respectively. We will now prove that up to homotopy equivalence over B' , the pullback fibration $p_f : f^*E \rightarrow B'$ depends on f only up to homotopy.

LEMMA 63.14. *Given a (free or pointed) fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ and any (unpointed or pointed) space B' , one can associate to every homotopy $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ of maps $B' \rightarrow B$ a map $\Phi_H : f^*E \rightarrow g^*E$ such that the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E & \xrightarrow{\Phi_H} & g^*E \\ & \searrow p_f & \swarrow p_g \\ & B' & \end{array}$$

commutes and the following conditions are satisfied:

- (1) *The homotopy class of Φ_H as a map over B' depends only on the homotopy class of H as a homotopy $f \rightsquigarrow g$;*

(2) *The diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\ \Phi_H \downarrow & \sim \nearrow g' & \\ g^*E & & \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy;

(3) *Given two homotopies $f \xrightarrow{F} g$ and $g \xrightarrow{G} h$ of maps $B' \rightarrow B$, denoting their concatenation by $f \xrightarrow{F \cdot G} h$, the maps $f^*E \rightarrow h^*E$ defined by $\Phi_G \circ \Phi_F$ and $\Phi_{F \cdot G}$ are homotopic over B' .*

Before proving the lemma, let us take note of some important consequences:

THEOREM 63.15. *In the setting of Lemma 63.14, there exists a functor*

$$\Pi(B', B) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{hTop}_{B'} & \text{in the free case,} \\ \mathbf{hTop}_{B',*} & \text{in the pointed case} \end{cases}$$

*that associates to each object $B' \xrightarrow{f} B$ of $\Pi(B', B)$ the induced fibration $p_f : f^*E \rightarrow B'$, and to each homotopy class of homotopies $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ of maps $B' \rightarrow B$ the homotopy class of maps over B' defined by $\Phi_H : f^*E \rightarrow g^*E$. Moreover, the maps Φ_H arising in this way are homotopy equivalences over B' .*

PROOF. This is immediate from Lemma 63.14 up to the detail about Φ_H being a homotopy equivalence over B' , but the latter is an automatic consequence of the fact that all morphisms in $\Pi(B', B)$ are isomorphisms, and so therefore are all morphisms of $\mathbf{hTop}_{B'}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_{B',*}$ that arise from the functor. $\square$

COROLLARY 63.16 (homotopy theorem for fibrations). *For any fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ and two homotopic maps $f, g : B' \rightarrow B$, the induced fibrations f^*E and g^*E are homotopy equivalent over B' .* $\square$

For any free fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, we can apply Corollary 63.16 with $B' := *$ and describe arbitrary paths in B as unpointed homotopies of maps $* \rightarrow B$, giving:

COROLLARY 63.17. *For any free fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, fibers over points in the same path-component of B are homotopy equivalent.* $\square$

REMARK 63.18. Since pointed fibrations become free fibrations after forgetting base points (see Exercise 62.1), Corollary 63.17 also applies to pointed fibrations, but it gives *free* homotopy equivalences between different fibers. Indeed, pointed homotopy equivalences would not make sense in this context, because fibers over points other than the base point of B do not have natural base points.

The next result says that pulling back a fibration via a homotopy equivalence produces a new fibration that is homotopy equivalent to the original.

THEOREM 63.19. *For any pullback square*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f^*E & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\ \downarrow p' & & \downarrow p \\ B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

*in which $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration, if $f : B' \rightarrow B$ is a homotopy equivalence, then so is $f' : f^*E \rightarrow E$.*

PROOF. Use a homotopy inverse $g : B \rightarrow B'$ of f and a homotopy $\text{Id}_B \xrightarrow{H} f \circ g$ to produce the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & \text{Id}_E & & & & \\
 & \nearrow & \sim & \searrow & & & \\
 \text{Id}_B^* E = E & \xrightarrow[\simeq]{\Phi_H} & g^* f^* E & \xrightarrow{g'} & f^* E & \xrightarrow{f'} & E \\
 & \searrow p & \downarrow p'' & & \downarrow p' & & \downarrow p \\
 & & B & \xrightarrow{g} & B' & \xrightarrow{f} & B
 \end{array}$$

where the homotopy-commutative portion at the top comes from Lemma 63.14(2). Since Φ_H is a homotopy equivalence, it follows that f' has a right-inverse and g' has a left-inverse in the homotopy category. Reversing the roles and using a homotopy of $g \circ f$ to the identity then shows that both are isomorphisms. $\square$

COROLLARY 63.20. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration and B is contractible, then the inclusion $p^{-1}(*) \hookrightarrow E$ of its fiber is a homotopy equivalence.*

PROOF. Apply the previous corollary to the pullback of $p : E \rightarrow B$ via the inclusion $* \hookrightarrow B$. $\square$

REMARK 63.21. The corollary applies to *every* fiber if “homotopy equivalence” is interpreted in the unpointed sense. If the fibration is pointed and B is contractible in the pointed sense, meaning that the unique map $B \rightarrow *$ is a pointed homotopy equivalence, then we can also say that the inclusion of the fiber over the base point is a pointed homotopy equivalence.

PROOF OF LEMMA 63.14. Assume $H : B' \times I \rightarrow B : (b, t) \mapsto f_t(b)$ is a homotopy from f_0 to f_1 . We can define a 1-parameter family of maps $\Phi_t : f_0^* E \rightarrow f_t^* E$ via the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 f_0^* E & & \xrightarrow{\widetilde{f_t \circ p_0}} & & E \\
 \searrow \Phi_t & & \searrow f'_t & & \downarrow p \\
 & f_t^* E & \xrightarrow{f'_t} & E & \\
 \searrow p_0 & \downarrow p_t & & & \downarrow p \\
 & B' & \xrightarrow{f_t} & B &
 \end{array}$$

where the square portion of the diagram is the pullback square for $f_t^* E$,

$$f_0^* E \times I \xrightarrow{\widetilde{H'}} E : (x, t) \mapsto \widetilde{f_t \circ p_0}(x)$$

denotes a lift of the homotopy

$$f_0^* E \times I \xrightarrow{H'} B : (x, t) \mapsto f_t \circ p_0(x)$$

with initial condition $\widetilde{f_0 \circ p_0} := f'_0$, and Φ_t is then determined by the universal property of the pullback. Note that this dictates $\Phi_0 = \text{Id}$, since the diagram determines Φ_t uniquely. We define

$$\Phi_H := \Phi_1 : f_0^* E \rightarrow f_1^* E,$$

and observe that $\widetilde{H'}$ is then a homotopy from f'_0 to $f'_1 \circ \Phi_H$. Moreover, $\widetilde{f_1 \circ p_0}$ can be expressed in terms of the transport functor,

$$[\widetilde{f_1 \circ p_0}] = H'_\# [f'_0] \in [(f_0^* E, f_1 \circ p_0), (E, p)]_B,$$

so its homotopy class as a map over B is determined by f'_0 and the homotopy class of the homotopy $f_0 \circ p_0 \xrightarrow{H'} f_1 \circ p_0$, which is determined in turn by the homotopy class of the homotopy $f_0 \xrightarrow{H} f_1$. By the universal property of the pullback, this determines the homotopy class of Φ_H as a map over B' , and we have thus established conditions (1) and (2) in the lemma.

To prove condition (3), consider a family of maps $B' \xrightarrow{f_t} B$ parametrized by $t \in [0, 2]$, which we can think of as a concatenation $f_0 \xrightarrow{F \cdot G} f_2$ of two homotopies $f_0 \xrightarrow{F} f_1$ and $f_1 \xrightarrow{G} f_2$. The maps $\Phi_F : f_0^* E \rightarrow f_1^* E$ and $\Phi_G : f_1^* E \rightarrow f_2^* E$ are determined in the manner described above by lifted homotopies $\tilde{F}'$ and $\tilde{G}'$,

$$\begin{aligned} f_0^* E \times [0, 1] &\xrightarrow{\tilde{F}'} E : (x, t) \mapsto \widetilde{f_t \circ p_0}, & p \circ \widetilde{f_t \circ p_0} &= f_t \circ p_0, \\ f_1^* E \times [1, 2] &\xrightarrow{\tilde{G}'} E : (x, t) \mapsto \widetilde{f_t \circ p_1}, & p \circ \widetilde{f_t \circ p_1} &= f_t \circ p_1, \end{aligned}$$

with initial conditions $\widetilde{f_0 \circ p_0} = f'_0$ and $\widetilde{f_1 \circ p_1} = f'_1$. We can then extend the lifted homotopy $\tilde{F}'$ to $\widetilde{f_0^* E \times [0, 2]}$ as follows in order to define a suitable lift for the concatenation: for $t \in [1, 2]$, let $\widetilde{f_t \circ p_0} := \widetilde{f_t \circ p_1} \circ \Phi_F$, so that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} f_0^* E & & & & \widetilde{f_t \circ p_0} \\ & \searrow \Phi_F & & \searrow \widetilde{f_t \circ p_1} & \\ & f_1^* E & & & \\ & \searrow \Phi_t & & \searrow f'_t & \\ & f_t^* E & \xrightarrow{f'_t} & E & \\ & \downarrow p_t & & \downarrow p & \\ & B' & \xrightarrow{f_t} & B & \end{array}$$

p_0 (curved arrow from $f_0^* E$ to B')

commutes, where $\Phi_t : f_1^* E \rightarrow f_t^* E$ is again determined by the universal property of the pullback. Note that for $t = 1$, this agrees with the previous definition of $\widetilde{f_1 \circ p_0}$ since $\widetilde{f_1 \circ p_1} \circ \Phi_F = f'_1 \circ \Phi_F = \widetilde{f_1 \circ p_0}$. With these choices of lifted homotopies in place, the universal property determines

$$\Phi_G = \Phi_2, \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi_{F \cdot G} = \Phi_2 \circ \Phi_F = \Phi_G \circ \Phi_F.$$

□

63.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 63.1 (*). Assume $p : E \rightarrow Y$ is a fibration and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a map.

(a) Show that if $\varphi : X \rightarrow E$ is a map for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & E \\ & \searrow f \quad \sim \quad \swarrow p & \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy, then φ can be replaced with a homotopic map $X \rightarrow E$ that makes the diagram commute strictly.

- (b) Deduce the basic uniqueness result about fibrations associated to a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, namely that for any diagram of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} E_0 & \xleftarrow{\sim} & X & \xrightarrow{\sim} & E_1 \\ & \searrow \sim & \downarrow f & \swarrow \sim & \\ & p_0 & Y & p_1 & \end{array}$$

in which $p_0 : E_0 \rightarrow Y$ and $p_1 : E_1 \rightarrow Y$ are both fibrations, the two fibrations are homotopy equivalent over Y .

EXERCISE 63.2 (*). Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ is a category and $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is a morphism in $\mathcal{C}$ with the property that the maps

$$\mathrm{Hom}(Y, X) \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathrm{Hom}(X, X) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathrm{Hom}(Y, Y) \xrightarrow{f^*} \mathrm{Hom}(X, Y)$$

defined via $f^*\varphi := \varphi \circ f$ are both bijections. Prove that f is an isomorphism of $\mathcal{C}$. Then use this to finish the proof of Theorem 63.8, that every homotopy equivalence $E \rightarrow E'$ that is also a map over B for two fibrations $E, E' \rightarrow B$ is also a homotopy equivalence over B .

EXERCISE 63.3. Prove that if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a free fibration whose base B is contractible, then it is homotopy equivalent over B to a fibration of the form $B \times F \rightarrow B : (b, x) \mapsto b$, where F can be chosen to be the fiber E_b of E over any point $b \in B$. Deduce from this an alternative proof of Corollary 63.20, stating that the inclusion of each fiber into E is a homotopy equivalence.

EXERCISE 63.4 (*). Homotopy pullbacks/pushouts are sometimes nicer spaces to work with than actual pullbacks/pushouts, and with that in mind, the result proved in this exercise can be a useful technical tool. Assume

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} & X \\ \downarrow \pi_Y & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

is a pullback square in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$. If we interpret this as a homotopy-commutative diagram with a trivial homotopy, it naturally determines a map to the standard example of a homotopy pullback of the same two maps $f : X \rightarrow Z$ and $g : Y \rightarrow Z$, namely the mapping path space $P(f, g)$:

$$P \xrightarrow{u} P(f, g).$$

We will show in this exercise that if either $f : X \rightarrow Z$ or $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ is a fibration, then $u : P \rightarrow P(f, g)$ is a homotopy equivalence, so that for purposes of homotopy theory, P can freely be replaced by $P(f, g)$. Since the roles can obviously be interchanged, we focus on the case where $f : X \rightarrow Z$ is a fibration.

- (a) Consider a pair of pullback squares of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{\pi_X} & X \\ \downarrow \pi_Y & & \downarrow f \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} P' & \xrightarrow{\pi'_X} & X' \\ \downarrow \pi'_Y & & \downarrow f' \\ Y' & \xrightarrow{g'} & Z \end{array}$$

with the same space Z in the bottom right corner. In what sense does a pair of maps $\varphi : X \rightarrow X'$ and $\psi : Y \rightarrow Y'$ over Z uniquely determine a map $P \rightarrow P'$?

- (b) The double mapping path space $P(f, g) = X \times_{f \times_{\text{ev}_0}} Z^I \times_{\text{ev}_1} Y$ can also be constructed as an honest pullback in terms of Y and the single mapping path space $P(f) = X \times_{f \times_{\text{ev}_0}} Z^I$, giving rise to a pullback square of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P(f, g) & \longrightarrow & P(f) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \pi_Z \\ Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \end{array}$$

where $\pi_Z(x, \gamma) := \gamma(1)$. Using this diagram, show that the homotopy equivalence $h : X \hookrightarrow P(f)$ defined in §62.3 and the identity map $Y \rightarrow Y$ determine via part (a) a map $P \rightarrow P(f, g)$ that is identical to the map u previously defined.

- (c) Using homotopy equivalences over Z , prove that if $f : X \rightarrow Z$ is a fibration, then $u : P \rightarrow P(f, g)$ is a homotopy equivalence.

64. Cofibrations

As fibrations are the preferred class of (mostly) surjective maps in homotopy theory, cofibrations are the preferred class of injective maps. The relevant definitions are obtained by a nearly deterministic process of reversing the arrows in the theory of fibrations: maps into a space are thus replaced by maps defined on that space, and lifting problems become extension problems. Almost every result stated in this lecture also has a direct counterpart in the theory of fibrations, with a proof that is formally analogous, and we will therefore leave most of those proofs as exercises.

64.1. The homotopy extension property. We begin with a notion that can be considered formally dual to the homotopy lifting property.

DEFINITION 64.1. Given a class of spaces $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}$, a map $j : A \rightarrow X$ is said to have the **(free) homotopy extension property (HEP)** with respect to $\mathcal{C}$ if for every $Y \in \mathcal{C}$, every homotopy $h : A \times I \rightarrow Y$ and every map $H_0 : X \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $H_0 \circ j = h_0 := h(\cdot, 0)$, there exists a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $H_t \circ j = h_t$ for all t . In other words, the problem

$$(64.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{i_0} & A \times I \\ \downarrow j & & \downarrow j \times \text{Id} \\ X & \xrightarrow{i_0} & X \times I \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{h} \\ \searrow H \\ \xrightarrow{H_0} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} Y \\ \end{array}$$

is solvable for arbitrary $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ and maps h, H_0 . For a class $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}_*$ of pointed spaces, a pointed map $j : A \rightarrow X$ is similarly said to have the **(pointed) homotopy extension property** with respect to $\mathcal{C}$ if it satisfies the condition described above with H_0 assumed to be a pointed map and h, H required to be pointed homotopies.

The word “extension” is motivated by the case in which $j : A \rightarrow X$ is the inclusion of a subspace, and as we will see below, cofibrations are *always* embeddings, so that one loses no generality by restricting to such special cases.

The dual perspective on the homotopy extension property, in which homotopies $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ are instead regarded as maps $X \rightarrow Y^I$ to path space, produces the diagram

$$(64.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{h} & Y^I \\ \downarrow j & \nearrow H & \downarrow \text{ev}_0 \\ X & \xrightarrow{H_0} & Y \end{array}$$

which makes it look more like a lifting problem. Indeed, this diagram tells us for instance that for any space Z , the inclusion $i_0 : Z \hookrightarrow Z \times I$ of $Z \times \{0\}$ has the homotopy extension property with respect to any space Y , as a consequence of the fact that $\text{ev}_0 : Y^I \rightarrow Y$ is a fibration, and thus has the homotopy lifting property with respect to Z .

The diagram (64.1), on the other hand, has an obvious interpretation in terms of pushouts: it says that $j : A \rightarrow X$ has the homotopy extension property with respect to all spaces if and only if the square in that diagram is a weak pushout square—the word “weak” must be included here since the extended homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is not required to be unique.

DEFINITION 64.2. A (pointed/unpointed) map $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a (pointed/free) **cofibration** if it has the (pointed/free) homotopy extension property with respect to all spaces. We call the domain A the **cobase** of the cofibration, and define its **cofiber** to be the quotient $X/j(A)$.

REMARK 64.3. Given a free cofibration $j : A \rightarrow X$, any choice of base points that makes it into a pointed map makes it also a pointed cofibration: this observation is trivial, because extensions of pointed homotopies are automatically also pointed homotopies. On the other hand, one cannot simply forget the base points of a pointed cofibration and call it a free cofibration, because the ability to extend pointed homotopies does not guarantee that arbitrary free homotopies can also be extended. We will have more to say about this in the next lecture.

Recall from Lecture 62 that every fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ gives rise to a *strict fibration sequence* $F \hookrightarrow E \rightarrow B$, where F is a fiber. The dual notion is called a **strict cofibration sequence**, meaning a sequence of the form

$$A \xrightarrow{j} X \xrightarrow{q} X/j(A)$$

where $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration and q is the quotient projection to its cofiber. The proof of the following dualization of Theorem 62.6 is a straightforward exercise.

THEOREM 64.4. *Assume $j : A \rightarrow X$ satisfies the (free/pointed) homotopy extension property with respect to a space Y ; if working in the unpointed category, assume also that Y is path-connected (see Remarks 60.8 and 60.9). Let $q : X \rightarrow X/j(A)$ denote the quotient projection to the cofiber. Then the sequence of (unpointed/pointed) homotopy sets*

$$[X/j(A), Y] \xrightarrow{q^*} [X, Y] \xrightarrow{j^*} [A, Y]$$

is exact. □

The theorem hints at the deeper fact that strict cofibration sequences are also homotopy cofiber sequences (recall Definition 60.19); we’ll come back to this when we discuss the Puppe sequences.

REMARK 64.5. In the unpointed case, the assumption in Theorem 64.4 that Y is path-connected can be relaxed by following the prescription outlined in Remark 60.11: namely, we can assume Y is any space endowed with a preferred path-component, thus making it a pointed object of $\mathbf{hTop}$, so that constant maps into the preferred path-component define a natural base point of $[A, Y]_\circ$, and exactness of the sequence of free homotopy sets therefore makes sense. The price to pay for this generality is that $[X/j(A), Y]_\circ$ is no longer quite the right set to have at the beginning of the sequence: the quotient $X/j(A)$ has the equivalence class of $j(A) \subset X$ as a

natural base point, and $[X/j(A), Y]_\circ$ must then be replaced by the smaller set of free homotopy classes of maps $X/j(A) \rightarrow Y$ that send this base point into the preferred path-component of Y . Formally, this is the set of morphisms $X/j(A) \rightarrow Y$ in the category of *pointed objects* of $\mathbf{hTop}$ (cf. Remark 60.8).

Let us quickly mention two useful facts about cofibrations that are not obvious from the definition:

THEOREM 64.6. *Every cofibration $j : A \rightarrow X$ is an embedding, and if the space X is Hausdorff, then j is also a closed map. In particular, every cofibration into a Hausdorff space is equivalent to the inclusion of a closed subset.*

PROOF. See Exercise 64.4. □

One speaks of a **closed cofibration** $j : A \rightarrow X$ if the map j is closed, a condition which, according to Theorem 64.6, comes for free if one is only interested in Hausdorff spaces. The most important examples of cofibrations are all closed, and there are some useful results in the theory that hold *only* for closed cofibrations, thus we will impose this extra assumption whenever it is convenient.

64.2. Constructions of cofibrations. The main class of examples you should have in mind for cofibrations are inclusion maps $A \hookrightarrow X$ for pairs of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ satisfying a technical condition similar to Hatcher's notion of a *good pair* [Hat02]; we'll have more to say about such pairs in the next lecture. The following inventory of more basic examples and constructions is directly dual to the list of fibration constructions in §62.2, and the proofs are straightforward variations on the proofs given there (see Exercise 64.2).

64.2.1. Inclusions into coproducts. For all spaces $A, Q \in \mathbf{Top}$, the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow A \amalg Q$ is a free cofibration, and for pointed spaces $A, Q \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow A \vee Q$ is a pointed cofibration.

64.2.2. Inclusions into cylinders. The following result is dual to the fact (Proposition 62.8) that evaluation maps on path-space are fibrations:

PROPOSITION 64.7. *For any unpointed or pointed space X , the map*

$$X \amalg X \xrightarrow{i_0 \amalg i_1} X \times I \quad \text{or} \quad X \vee X \xrightarrow{i_0 \vee i_1} \frac{X \times I}{\{*\} \times I}$$

is a free or pointed cofibration respectively, where $i_t(x) := (x, t)$.

PROOF. The task in the unpointed case is to show that for any given space Y and maps $h : X \times \partial I \times I \rightarrow Y$ and $H_0 : X \times I \times \{0\} \rightarrow Y$, there exists a map $H : X \times I \times I \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $H|_{X \times I \times \{0\}} = H_0$ and $H|_{X \times \partial I \times I} = h$. In other words, every map to Y defined on the subset

$$X \times (I \times \{0\} \cup \partial I \times I) \subset X \times I^2$$

can be extended over the rest of $X \times I^2$. This is true because I^2 admits a retraction to $I \times \{0\} \cup \partial I \times I$. If X is a pointed space, then the resulting retraction of $X \times I^2$ to $X \times (I \times \{0\} \cup \partial I \times I)$ descends to the quotient in which $* \times I^2$ is collapsed to a point, and this implies the pointed homotopy extension property as well. □

64.2.3. Compositions. The composition of two cofibrations is a cofibration.

64.2.4. Coproducts. Given two free or pointed cofibrations $j_i : A_i \rightarrow X_i$ for $i = 1, 2$, the map

$$j_1 \amalg j_2 : A_1 \amalg A_2 \rightarrow X_1 \amalg X_2 \quad \text{or} \quad j_1 \vee j_2 : A_1 \vee A_2 \rightarrow X_1 \vee X_2$$

is a free or pointed cofibration respectively.

64.2.5. *Pushouts.* The next result is dual to Proposition 62.9:

PROPOSITION 64.8. *If*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & A' \\ \downarrow j & & \downarrow j' \\ X & \xrightarrow{f'} & X' \end{array}.$$

is a pushout square in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_$ and $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a (free or pointed) cofibration, then so is $j' : A' \rightarrow X'$.* $\square$

In the situation of Proposition 64.8, we call $j' : A' \rightarrow X'$ the cofibration **induced** from $j : A \rightarrow X$ by the map $f : A \rightarrow A'$; this construction is sometimes called **change of cobase**. If $j : A \rightarrow X$ and $f : A \rightarrow A'$ are given, one can construct the induced cofibration explicitly by gluing spaces together as in Example 59.21: the pushout is

$$f_*X := A' \mathbin{f \cup_j} X := (A' \amalg X) / f(a) \sim j(a) \text{ for all } a \in A,$$

and the induced cofibration is then the composition of the inclusion into the disjoint union with the quotient projection,

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A' & \hookrightarrow & A' \amalg X & \longrightarrow & A' \mathbin{f \cup_j} X = f_*X \\ & & & \searrow j' & \nearrow \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

Note that in the pointed case, f_*X has an obvious base point since $j : A \rightarrow X$ and $f : A \rightarrow A'$ are pointed maps, and this construction can then equivalently be described as a quotient of a wedge sum.

64.2.6. *Mapping cylinders.* Given two unpointed or pointed maps $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$, the following diagrams present the unreduced or reduced double mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$ as a pushout in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$ respectively:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Z \amalg Z & \xrightarrow{f \amalg g} & X \amalg Y \\ \downarrow i_0 \amalg i_1 & & \downarrow i_X \amalg i_Y \\ Z \times I & \longrightarrow & Z_\circ(f, g) \end{array} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} Z \vee Z & \xrightarrow{f \vee g} & X \vee Y \\ \downarrow i_0 \vee i_1 & & \downarrow i_X \vee i_Y \\ \frac{Z \times I}{* \times I} & \longrightarrow & Z_+(f, g) \end{array}$$

Here the map from $Z \times I$ or $(Z \times I)/(* \times I)$ to $Z(f, g)$ is the composition of the natural inclusion into its coproduct with X and Y and the quotient projection to $Z(f, g)$. Combining §64.2.1 with Propositions 64.7 and 64.8, we have:

THEOREM 64.9. *For any (unpointed/pointed) maps $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$, the (unreduced/reduced) mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$ with its natural inclusions i_X, i_Y of X and Y determines an (unpointed/pointed) cofibration*

$$\begin{array}{ll} X \amalg Y \xrightarrow{i_X \amalg i_Y} Z_\circ(f, g) & \text{in the unpointed case,} \\ X \vee Y \xrightarrow{i_X \vee i_Y} Z_+(f, g) & \text{in the pointed case.} \end{array}$$

Moreover, the individual inclusions $i_X : X \hookrightarrow Z(f, g)$ and $i_Y : Y \hookrightarrow Z(f, g)$ are also cofibrations. $\square$

64.2.7. Cylinders, cones and suspensions. The results of §62.2.7 concerning functors that preserve the fibration property also have counterparts for cofibrations, which follow similarly from adjunction relations.

PROPOSITION 64.10. *If $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a free cofibration, then so is $Z_\circ j : Z_\circ A \rightarrow Z_\circ X$, and if $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a pointed cofibration, then so are $Z_+ j : Z_+ A \rightarrow Z_+ X$, $C_+ j : C_+ A \rightarrow C_+ X$ and $\Sigma_+ j : \Sigma_+ A \rightarrow \Sigma_+ X$.*

PROOF. For the suspension, one uses the adjunction relation $\mathcal{F}_+(\Sigma_+ X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(X, \Omega Y)$ to verify the homotopy extension property of $\Sigma_+ j : \Sigma_+ A \rightarrow \Sigma_+ X$ with respect to a given space Y as a consequence of the fact that $j : A \rightarrow X$ has the homotopy extension property with respect to ΩY . Similar proofs work in the other cases, using the adjunction relations $\mathcal{F}(ZX, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}(X, Y^I)$ and $\mathcal{F}_+(C_+ X, Y) \cong \mathcal{F}_+(PI, Y)$. $\square$

For free cofibrations, there is a similar result involving the unreduced suspension and cone functors, but its proof requires different ideas, so we will come back to this in the next lecture.

64.3. Replacing a map with a cofibration. The following straightforward construction shows that every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a cofibration “up to homotopy equivalence”. The (single) **mapping cylinder of f** is defined by

$$Z(f) := Z(f, \text{Id}_X),$$

so if working in the unpointed category, we can equivalently define the unreduced mapping cylinder as

$$Z_\circ(f) = (Y \amalg (X \times I)) / \sim, \quad \text{where } (x, 0) \sim f(x) \text{ for all } x \in X,$$

and in the pointed category, the reduced mapping cylinder is

$$Z_+(f) = \left(Y \vee \frac{X \times I}{* \times I} \right) / \sim, \quad \text{where } [(x, 0)] \sim f(x) \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Here we have removed some redundant information from the definition of the double mapping cylinder $Z(f, \text{Id}_X)$, which would ordinarily require gluing a copy of X to the cylinder along $X \times \{1\}$; the natural inclusions

$$X \xrightarrow{i_X} Z(f) \xleftarrow{i_Y} Y$$

are thus given by the obvious inclusion of Y into the coproduct and the identification of X with $X \times \{1\}$. By Theorem 64.9, both are cofibrations, and in particular, the cofiber of $i_X : X \hookrightarrow Z(f)$ has an obvious identification with the **mapping cone** of f (cf. Exercise 60.3), thus giving a strict cofibration sequence of the form

$$X \xrightarrow{i_X} Z(f) \xrightarrow{q} Z(f)/X \cong \text{cone}(f).$$

There is an obvious deformation retraction of $Z(f)$ to $Y := i_Y(Y) \subset Z(f)$, so that the map

$$Z(f) \xrightarrow{h} Y$$

defined by $h([(x, t)]) := f(y)$ for $(x, t) \in X \times I$ and $h([y]) := y$ for $y \in Y$ is a homotopy equivalence, with $i_Y : Y \rightarrow Z(f)$ as a homotopy inverse. The diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ & \searrow i_X & \uparrow h \simeq \\ & & Z(f) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{q} & Y/f(X) \\ & \searrow i_X & \uparrow h \simeq & & \uparrow h \\ & & Z(f) & \xrightarrow{q} & \text{cone}(f) \end{array}$$

64.4. Retractions of the cylinder. The interpretation of the homotopy extension property as a *weak pushout* condition as in the diagram (64.1) can be exploited to show that the mapping cylinder $Z(f)$ of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ serves as a “universal” space for testing whether f is a fibration, just as the mapping path space plays this role in the theory of fibrations (cf. §62.4). To see this, look at the diagram

$$(64.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} A & \xhookrightarrow{i_0} & A \times I & & \\ \downarrow j & & \downarrow \varphi_A & & \\ X & \xrightarrow{\varphi_X} & Z_o(j) & \xrightarrow{j \times \text{Id}} & X \times I \\ & & \searrow \Psi & & \downarrow \varphi_A \\ & & & & Z_o(j) \\ & \searrow i_0 & & \nearrow r & \\ & & X \times I & & \\ & \searrow \varphi_X & & & \\ & & & & \\ & \searrow H_0 & & & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

If $j : A \rightarrow X$ is the inclusion of a subspace $A \subset X$ (which is not a loss of generality according to Exercise 64.4), then (64.3) shows that Ψ is the canonical bijection

which need not be a homeomorphism in general because the subspace topology on $X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I \subset X \times I$ may be different from the topology of $Z(j) = (X \amalg (A \times I)) / \sim$. But if $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration, then r restricts to $X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$ as a continuous inverse of this bijection, meaning we have a

homeomorphism $Z(j) \cong X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$, and r can then be interpreted as a *retraction*

$$X \times I \xrightarrow{r} X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I.$$

This proves:

THEOREM 64.11. *The inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ of a subspace $A \subset X$ is a free cofibration if and only if there exists a retraction $X \times I \xrightarrow{r} X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$. $\square$*

There is also a pointed variant of the diagram (64.3) and Theorem 64.11, involving $(X \times I)/(* \times I)$ and reduced mapping cylinders; see Exercise 64.3.

64.5. The transport functor and applications. We shall now systematically dualize the definitions and main results of Lecture 63 concerning the transport functor, leaving most of the proofs as exercises.

DEFINITION 64.12. Given a space A , the category $\mathbf{Top}^A$ of **spaces under A** has objects that are pairs (X, f) with X a space and $f : A \rightarrow X$ a map, and the set of morphisms $\text{Hom}((X, f), (Y, g))$ consists of **maps under A** , meaning maps $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ that make the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & \\ f \swarrow & & \searrow g \\ X & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Y \end{array}$$

commute. Two such morphisms φ, ψ are **homotopic under A** if there exists a homotopy $\varphi \xrightarrow{H} \psi$ such that H_t is a morphism $(X, f) \rightarrow (Y, g)$ for every $t \in I$. This notion defines the corresponding homotopy category $\mathbf{hTop}^A$, and isomorphisms in this category are called **homotopy equivalences under A** . There are similar definitions for categories $\mathbf{Top}^{A,*}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}^{A,*}$ in which all maps and homotopies are required to be pointed. Given two objects $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}^A$ or $\mathbf{Top}^{A,*}$, we denote by

$$[X, Y]^A := \text{Hom}(X, Y) \text{ in } \mathbf{hTop}^A \text{ or } \mathbf{hTop}^{A,*} \text{ resp.}$$

the set of homotopy classes of (unpointed or pointed) maps $X \rightarrow Y$ under A . We can also write $[(X, f), (Y, g)]^A$ whenever the maps $f : A \rightarrow X$ and $g : A \rightarrow Y$ defining these objects need to be specified.

REMARK 64.13. If $j : A \hookrightarrow X$ is the inclusion of a subspace $A \subset X$ and $f : A \rightarrow Y$ is a map, a morphism $(X, j) \rightarrow (Y, f)$ in $\mathbf{Top}^A$ or $\mathbf{Top}^{A,*}$ can be understood as an *extension* of f to a map $X \rightarrow Y$. Since cofibrations are always embeddings, we can also interpret morphisms $(X, j) \rightarrow (Y, f)$ in this way whenever $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration.

The next theorem serves also as a definition of the transport functor of a cofibration.

THEOREM 64.14. *Assume $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a (free/pointed) cofibration. Then for any (unpointed/pointed) space Y , there exists a well-defined functor*

$$\Pi(A, Y) \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$$

*called the **transport functor**, which associates to each object $f : A \rightarrow Y$ of the homotopy groupoid $\Pi(A, Y)$ the set $[(X, j), (Y, f)]^A$ of homotopy classes of extensions $F : X \rightarrow Y$ of $f : A \rightarrow Y$, and associates to each homotopy class of homotopies $f \xrightarrow{h} g$ between two maps $f, g : A \rightarrow Y$ a bijection*

$$[(X, j), (Y, f)]^A \xrightarrow{h_{\#}} [(X, j), (Y, g)]^A$$

characterized by the formula

$$h_{\#}[F] = [G] \quad \text{for any homotopy } F \xrightarrow{H} G \text{ that is an extension of } f \xrightarrow{h} g.$$

PROOF. The proof is closely analogous to that of Theorem 63.6 on the transport functor for fibrations. The main point is to show that if G is determined by h and F according to the stated prescription, then its homotopy class (as an extension of g) depends only on the homotopy classes of F (as an extension of f) and h (as a homotopy from f to g). Suppose

$$ZA \times I \xrightarrow{h} Y : (z, s) \mapsto h^s(z)$$

is a family of homotopies $f \xrightarrow{h^s} g$, and that

$$X \times I \rightarrow Y : (x, s) \mapsto F^s(x)$$

defines a family of extensions $F^s : X \rightarrow Y$ of $f : A \rightarrow Y$. Assume also that $H^0, H^1 : ZX \rightarrow Y$ are chosen extensions of $h^0, h^1 : ZA \rightarrow Y$ satisfying $H^i|_{\partial_0 ZX} = F^i$ for $i = 0, 1$. One then obtains a homotopy of extensions of $g : A \rightarrow Y$ from $G^0 := H^0|_{\partial_1 ZX}$ to $G^1 := H^1|_{\partial_1 ZX}$ if there exists an extension of h to a map

$$ZX \times I \xrightarrow{H} Y : (z, s) \mapsto H^s(z)$$

matching H^0, H^1 for $s \in \{0, 1\}$ and restricting at $\partial_0 ZX$ to F^s for every $s \in I$. The claim holds if and only if the problem represented by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & ZA \times I \\ & & \downarrow Zj \times \text{Id} \\ ZX \times \partial I \cup \partial_0 ZX \times I & \hookrightarrow & ZX \times I \\ & \searrow & \downarrow H \\ & & Y \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright h \\ \curvearrowright \end{array}$$

is solvable. In the unpointed case, writing $ZA = A \times I$ and $ZX = X \times I$, this extension problem can also be written as

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A \times (I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) & \hookrightarrow & A \times I^2 \\ \downarrow j \times \text{Id} & & \downarrow j \times \text{Id} \\ X \times (I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) & \hookrightarrow & X \times I^2 \\ & \searrow & \downarrow H \\ & & Y \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright h \\ \curvearrowright \end{array}$$

Using a homeomorphism of pairs $(I^2, I \times \partial I \cup \{0\} \times I) \cong (I^2, I \times \{0\})$, we can identify this with the simpler extension problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (A \times I) \times \{0\} & \hookrightarrow & A \times I^2 \\ \downarrow j \times \text{Id} & & \downarrow j \times \text{Id} \\ (X \times I) \times \{0\} & \hookrightarrow & X \times I^2 \\ & \searrow & \downarrow H \\ & & Y \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \curvearrowright h \\ \curvearrowright \end{array},$$

and the latter is solvable because, according to Proposition 64.10,

$$A \times I = Z_{\circ} A \xrightarrow{Z_{\circ} j = j \times \text{Id}} Z_{\circ} X = X \times I$$

is a free cofibration.

For the pointed case, one can force all maps and homotopies to be pointed by replacing $X \times I^2$ and $A \times I^2$ and their various subsets in these diagrams with their quotients by $* \times I^2$. The last diagram can then be interpreted as the pointed homotopy lifting property for the map $Z_+ j : Z_+ A \rightarrow Z_+ X$, which is likewise a pointed cofibration due to Proposition 64.10. $\square$

64.6. Comparison maps and the homotopy property. The natural notion of equivalence for two cofibrations $j : A \rightarrow X$ and $j' : A \rightarrow X'$ with the same cobase is, of course, homotopy equivalence $f : X \rightarrow X'$ under A , a condition implying that f descends to a homotopy equivalence between the cofibers $X/j(A)$ and $X'/j'(A)$. The following application of the transport functor is dual to Theorem 63.8.

THEOREM 64.15. *If $j : A \rightarrow X$ and $j' : A \rightarrow X'$ are two cofibrations and $f : X \rightarrow X'$ is a homotopy equivalence of spaces that is also a map under A (with respect to j, j'), then f is also a homotopy equivalence under A .* $\square$

COROLLARY 64.16. *For any cofibration $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the comparison map from its homotopy cofiber cone(f) to its actual cofiber $Y/f(X)$ is a homotopy equivalence.* $\square$

THEOREM 64.17 (homotopy theorem for cofibrations). *For a cofibration $j : A \rightarrow X$ and two homotopic maps $f, g : A \rightarrow A'$, the induced cofibrations $A' \rightarrow f_* X$ and $A' \rightarrow g_* X$ are homotopy equivalent under A' .*

PROOF SKETCH. One uses the transport functor to deduce in the manner of Theorem 63.15 that there is a well-defined functor from $\Pi(A, A')$ to $\mathbf{hTop}^{A'}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}^{A',*}$ associating to each map $f : A \rightarrow A'$ the induced cofibration $A' \rightarrow f_* X$ and to each homotopy class of homotopies between two maps $f, g : A \rightarrow A'$ an isomorphism $f_* X \rightarrow g_* X$ in the homotopy category of spaces under A' . $\square$

The next result is dual to Theorem 63.19:

THEOREM 64.18. *For any pushout square*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & A' \\ \downarrow j & & \downarrow j' \\ X & \xrightarrow{f'} & f_* X \end{array}$$

in which $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration, if $f : A \rightarrow A'$ is a homotopy equivalence, then so is $f' : X \rightarrow f_ X$.* $\square$

COROLLARY 64.19. *If $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a cofibration and the cobase A is contractible, then the quotient projection $X \rightarrow X/j(A)$ to the cofiber is a homotopy equivalence.* $\square$

64.7. Exercises.

EXERCISE 64.1 (*). Prove Theorem 64.4 on the exact sequence of homotopy sets induced by a strict cofibration sequence.

EXERCISE 64.2 (*). Prove all statements in §64.2 about constructions of cofibrations via inclusions into coproducts, compositions, coproducts of maps, and pushouts. If you don't have time for all of these, focus on Proposition 64.8, regarding pushouts.

EXERCISE 64.3 (*). Write down an analogue of the diagram (64.3) for pointed cofibrations, in which $Z(j)$ becomes the reduced mapping cylinder and $X \times I$ is replaced by the quotient $(X \times I)/(\{*\} \times I)$. Deduce from this a theorem characterizing pointed cofibrations $A \hookrightarrow X$ in terms of the existence of a retraction of pointed spaces.

EXERCISE 64.4 (*). A continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called an **embedding** if it is injective and is a homeomorphism onto its image $f(X) \subset Y$ with the subspace topology. Embeddings can also be characterized via the following universal property: an injective continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is an embedding if and only if for every space Z and every (not necessarily continuous) map $g : Z \rightarrow X$, g is continuous whenever the composition $f \circ g$ is continuous. Before proceeding, take a moment to make sure you understand why these two versions of the definition are equivalent.

- Show that for any two maps $f : Z \rightarrow X$ and $g : Z \rightarrow Y$, the natural inclusions of X and Y into the (unreduced or reduced) double mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$ are embeddings.
- Prove the following dual version of the statement in Exercise 63.1(a): For any cofibration $j : A \rightarrow X$ and maps $f : A \rightarrow Y$ and $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & \\ j \swarrow & \sim & \searrow f \\ X & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & Y \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy, φ can be replaced with a homotopic map $X \rightarrow Y$ that makes the diagram commute strictly.

- Use the universal property of embeddings to deduce from parts (a) and (b) that all cofibrations are embeddings.

Hint: What can you conclude from an embedding that is the composition of two other continuous maps?

- Recall that a continuous map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a **closed map** if it sends all closed subsets of X to closed subsets of Y ; in particular, if f is a closed map, then its image $f(X) \subset Y$ is necessarily a closed set in Y . Show that if f is also an embedding, then the converse also holds, i.e. the closed embeddings are precisely those embeddings $f : X \rightarrow Y$ whose images in Y are closed.
- Show that if $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a free cofibration and X is Hausdorff, then j is a closed embedding.

Hint: You can now assume without loss of generality that $A \subset X$ is a subspace with inclusion j . According to Theorem 64.11, whenever such an inclusion is a free cofibration, there exists a retraction

$$X \times I \xrightarrow{r} (X \times \{0\}) \cup (A \times I),$$

so for the inclusion $X = X \times \{1\} \xrightarrow{i_1} X \times I$, it follows that $x \in A$ if and only if $r \circ i_1(x) = i_1(x)$. Use this to present A as the preimage of the diagonal subset for some map from X to a Hausdorff space.

Remark: This has the convenient consequence that the cofiber X/A of a cofibration $j : A \hookrightarrow X$ will be Hausdorff in all examples we ever want to consider (cf. Exercise 6.4 from Topology I).

- Using Exercise 64.3, extend the result of part (e) to pointed cofibrations.
- The natural statement dual to the result of part (c) would be that all fibrations $p : E \rightarrow B$ are quotient maps, but this is unfortunately not quite true. Show that if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration and the base B is locally path-connected, then p is an open map, and is therefore a quotient map if and only if it is surjective. Can you find counterexamples

in which p is not a quotient map, either because it is not surjective or because B is not locally path-connected?

Hint: Thanks to Exercise 63.1(a), you should have the freedom to replace $p : E \rightarrow B$ with the natural fibration $P(p) \rightarrow B$ built out of its mapping path space.

EXERCISE 64.5 (*). The following result is dual to that of Exercise 63.4. A pushout square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C & \xrightarrow{f} & A \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow j_A \\ B & \xrightarrow{j_B} & X \end{array}$$

in $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$ can always also be interpreted as a commuting diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ respectively, so that this data together with the trivial homotopy between $j_A \circ f$ and $j_B \circ g$ naturally determines a map $u : Z(f, g) \rightarrow X$ for which the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & A & \\ i_A \uparrow & \searrow j_A & \\ Z(f, g) & \xrightarrow{u} & X \\ i_B \downarrow & \nearrow j_B & \\ & B & \end{array}$$

commutes strictly. If we identify X with the space $A \cup_C B$ obtained by gluing A and B together along the maps f and g , then

$$Z(f, g) = A \cup_f (C \times I) \cup_g B \xrightarrow{u} A \cup_C B$$

becomes the obvious quotient projection that leaves A and B alone but flattens the cylinder $C \times I$ to C . Show that u is a homotopy equivalence whenever either f or g is a cofibration.

Hint: The double mapping cylinder $Z(f, g)$ can also be constructed by gluing the single mapping cylinder $Z(f) = A \cup_f (C \times I)$ to B along the map $C \times \{1\} = C \xrightarrow{g} B$, and thus also fits into an honest pushout square of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C & \xrightarrow{i_C} & Z(f) \\ \downarrow g & & \downarrow \\ B & \xrightarrow{i_B} & Z(f, g) \end{array} .$$

Use this observation together with Theorem 64.15 to show that $u : Z(f, g) \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy equivalence if $f : C \rightarrow A$ is a cofibration.

65. Well-pointed spaces

We will spend most of this lecture unpacking some consequences of the following definition.

DEFINITION 65.1. A point $x \in X$ in a space is called **nondegenerate** if the inclusion $\{x\} \hookrightarrow X$ is a closed free cofibration. A **well-pointed space** is a pointed space whose base point is nondegenerate.

REMARK 65.2. This definition usually appears in shorter form, as the condition that the inclusion $\{*\} \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration. By Exercise 64.4, the word “closed” does not need to be included if X is Hausdorff (which one normally assumes), and requiring $\{*\} \hookrightarrow X$ to be a *pointed* cofibration would be unhelpful, since it always holds—there is only one pointed homotopy of maps from $*$ to any other space.

Well-pointed spaces constitute a preferred class of pointed spaces in homotopy theory, and the condition is not much of a restriction: almost every pointed space that one encounters in typical applications is well pointed, and it takes some creativity to think up an example of one that is not (see e.g. Exercise 65.1(f)). The typical pattern is that if we are willing to restrict our attention to well-pointed spaces, then we gain the freedom to ignore the distinctions between the pointed and unpointed variants of various definitions, or failing that, to have a much more concrete understanding of the relationship between them.

65.1. NDR-pairs. We now introduce a criterion that makes it easy in practice to check whether a space is well pointed. More generally, it helps us to detect whether the inclusion of a closed subset $A \subset X$ is a cofibration. In homotopy theory, pairs of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ for which $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a closed cofibration serve as a highbrow variant of Hatcher’s notion of “good pairs” (as in [Hat02], or Lecture 36 from last semester).

DEFINITION 65.3. For a space X and closed subset $A \subset X$, we call (X, A) an **NDR-pair**¹⁰² if there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ with $u^{-1}(0) = A$ and a homotopy $\rho : X \times I \rightarrow X$ such that

$$\rho_1 = \text{Id}_X, \quad \rho_t|_A = \text{Id}_A \text{ for all } t \in I, \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_0(\{u < 1\}) \subset A.$$

Further, we call it a **DR-pair** if additionally $u < 1$ everywhere on X , in which case the open subset $\{u < 1\}$ is all of X , and ρ is therefore a deformation retraction of X to A . We will sometimes refer to a pair of functions (u, ρ) satisfying the conditions above as an **NDR-presentation** of the pair (X, A) .

LEMMA 65.4. *If (X, A) and (Y, B) are NDR-pairs, then so is $(X \times Y, A \times Y \cup X \times B)$, and it is a DR-pair whenever either of (X, A) or (Y, B) is a DR-pair. Moreover, if $A \subset X$ is a closed subset such that there exists a retraction $r : X \times I \rightarrow X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$, then (X, A) is an NDR-pair.*

PROOF. The following formulas are adapted from [May99, §6.4]. If (X, A) and (Y, B) have NDR-presentations (u, ρ) and (v, σ) respectively, then we obtain an NDR-presentation (w, φ) of $(X \times Y, A \times Y \cup X \times B)$ by setting

$$w(x, y) := \min\{u(x), v(y)\}$$

and

$$\varphi(x, y, t) := \left(\rho \left(x, t \cdot \min \left\{ 1, \frac{v(y)}{u(x)} \right\} \right), \sigma \left(y, t \cdot \min \left\{ 1, \frac{u(x)}{v(y)} \right\} \right) \right).$$

Here we are following a convention that $\min\{1, p/q\} := 1$ whenever $q = 0$. Some care is nonetheless required to show that $\varphi : X \times Y \times I \rightarrow X \times Y$ is continuous, especially near points where x or y lies on the boundary of A or B respectively. We leave this detail as an exercise, along with the verification that (w, φ) satisfies the conditions of an NDR-presentation; note that if it does, then it clearly also makes $(X \times Y, A \times Y \cup X \times B)$ into a DR-pair if either of the functions u or v is strictly less than 1.

If $A \subset X$ is a closed subset and $r = (\rho, \tau) : X \times I \rightarrow X \times I$ is a retraction onto the subset $X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$, then we can define an NDR-presentation (u, ρ) of (X, A) by setting

$$u(x) := \sup_{t \in I} |t - \tau(x, t)|.$$

We again leave it as an exercise to show that this satisfies the required conditions; in particular, you should think about what goes wrong if we do not explicitly assume $A \subset X$ to be closed. $\square$

¹⁰²The abbreviation stands for “neighborhood deformation retract”.

THEOREM 65.5. *For a closed subset $A \subset X$, the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a free cofibration if and only if (X, A) is an NDR-pair.*

PROOF. If $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration, Theorem 64.11 gives a retraction $r : X \times I \rightarrow X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I$, so that if A is also closed, Lemma 65.4 implies that (X, A) is an NDR-pair. Conversely, one easily checks that $(I, \{0\})$ is a DR-pair, so if (X, A) is an NDR-pair, then $(X \times I, X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I)$ is a DR-pair by Lemma 65.4, implying the existence of the required retraction. $\square$

65.2. Unreduced and reduced suspensions. As a first application of NDR-pairs, we have an unpointed addendum to Proposition 64.10.

PROPOSITION 65.6. *If $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a closed free cofibration, then so are $Z_o j : Z_o A \rightarrow Z_o X$, $C_o j : C_o A \rightarrow C_o X$ and $\Sigma_o j : \Sigma_o A \rightarrow \Sigma_o X$.*

PROOF. We focus on the suspension, since that is the most important case for our purposes. If (X, A) is an NDR-pair, then since $(I, \partial I)$ clearly also is, Lemma 65.4 implies that $(X \times I, X \times \partial I \cup A \times I)$ is as well. Now one checks that the functions defining an NDR-presentation of the latter descend to the quotient in which $X \times \{0\}$ and $X \times \{1\}$ are separately collapsed to points, which turns $X \times \partial I \cup A \times I$ into ΣA and thus determines an NDR-presentation of $(\Sigma X, \Sigma A)$. $\square$

THEOREM 65.7. *For any well-pointed space X , the natural quotient projections*

$$\Sigma_o X \rightarrow \Sigma_+ X = \frac{\Sigma_o X}{\Sigma_o \{*\}}, \quad C_o X \rightarrow C_+ X = \frac{C_o X}{C_o \{*\}}, \quad Z_o X \rightarrow Z_+ X = \frac{Z_o X}{Z_o \{*\}}$$

from the unreduced to the reduced versions of the suspension, cone and cylinder are all homotopy equivalences.

PROOF. Since $\{*\} \hookrightarrow X$ is a closed free cofibration, Proposition 65.6 implies that $\Sigma_o \{*\} \hookrightarrow \Sigma_o X$ also is, but its cobase is contractible, so by Corollary 64.19, the quotient projection to the cofiber is a homotopy equivalence. A similar argument works for the cone and the cylinder. $\square$

REMARK 65.8. Exercise 61.7 shows that for any choice of base point on the sphere S^n , $\Sigma_+ S^n \cong S^{n+1}$, and you will certainly recall from earlier semesters that $\Sigma_o S^n$ is also homeomorphic to S^{n+1} . But the homeomorphism $\Sigma_+ X \cong \Sigma_o X$ in this specific example should really be regarded as a coincidence; it is not canonical, it does not arise from the natural quotient projection $\Sigma_o X \rightarrow \Sigma_+ X$ (which is *never* a homeomorphism), and there is no reason to expect $\Sigma_+ X$ and $\Sigma_o X$ to be homeomorphic spaces in general. In full generality, one should not even expect them to be homotopy equivalent, but actual counterexamples are hard to describe since they require pointed spaces with degenerate base points.

65.3. Free and pointed fibrations. We now examine some variations on the following question: if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed map and is a free fibration, when can we conclude that it is also a pointed cofibration?

In trying to answer such questions, one often encounters lifting problems of the form

$$(65.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \longrightarrow & E \\ \downarrow j & \nearrow & \downarrow p \\ X & \longrightarrow & B \end{array}$$

in which $j : A \rightarrow X$ and $p : E \rightarrow B$ are assumed to be a cofibration and a fibration respectively, and the task is of course to find a map playing the role of the dashed arrow, assuming that the maps represented by solid arrows are given. We will refer to (65.1) in the following as the **fundamental lifting problem (FLP)**. Observe that it has both the homotopy lifting property and the homotopy extension property as special cases; for the latter, one sees this through the

dual perspective represented by the diagram (64.2). There is a beautiful result giving sufficient conditions for the solvability of the FLP; we will only use a special case of it and thus will not prove it in full generality, but here is the statement:

THEOREM 65.9 (see e.g. [Cut21, Fibrations II]). *Assume $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a free fibration and $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a closed free cofibration. If additionally either j or p is a homotopy equivalence, then the fundamental lifting problem (65.1) is solvable.*

We will have use for the following special case of Theorem 65.9, in which $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a homotopy equivalence.

LEMMA 65.10. *The fundamental lifting problem (65.1) is solvable if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is any free fibration and (X, A) is a DR-pair with $j : A \hookrightarrow X$ as the inclusion.*

PROOF. Assume $u : X \rightarrow I$ and $\rho : X \times I \rightarrow X$ make (X, A) a DR-pair, so in particular, $u^{-1}(0) = A$, $\rho_1 = \text{Id}_X$, $\rho_t|_A = \text{Id}_A$ for all $t \in I$ and $\rho_0(X) = A$. The problem to be solved is

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & E \\ \downarrow j & \nearrow h & \downarrow p \\ X & \xrightarrow{g} & B \end{array}$$

As an ansatz, we try to define $h : X \rightarrow E$ in the form

$$h(x) = \tilde{H}(x, u(x)),$$

where $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ is a lift of the homotopy

$$H : X \times I \rightarrow B, \quad H(x, t) := g \circ \rho(x, t).$$

The condition $h(a) = f(a)$ for $a \in A$ is then satisfied if and only if $\tilde{H}_0|_A = f$, which we can arrange by requiring the initial lift of the homotopy to be $\tilde{H}_0 := f \circ \rho_0$. The condition $p \circ h(x) = H(x, u(x)) = g \circ \rho(x, u(x)) = g(x)$ is then satisfied if $\rho(x, u(x)) = x$ for all $x \in X$, which is not necessarily true in general, but can be arranged without loss of generality. Indeed, for each $x \in X$, $\rho(x, \cdot) \in X^I$ is a path starting in A and ending at x , and is a constant path for every $x \in A$. It therefore suffices to reparametrize ρ by speeding up each of these paths so that for each $x \notin A$, $\rho(x, \cdot)$ reaches the end already by time $t = u(x) > 0$. (Exercise: Write this down explicitly and reassure yourself that the modified version of ρ can be made continuous—in $X \setminus A$ and in the interior of A this is obvious, but one needs to think more carefully about the boundary of A .) $\square$

For an application of Lemma 65.10, suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed map that is also a free fibration, and X is a pointed space. It is not obvious in general whether $p : E \rightarrow B$ then satisfies the *pointed* homotopy lifting property with respect to X , but the property will hold if lifting problems of the form

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times \{0\} \cup \{*\} \times I & \longrightarrow & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow & \downarrow p \\ X \times I & \longrightarrow & B \end{array}$$

are always solvable, in particular when the map $X \times \{0\} \cup \{*\} \times I \rightarrow E$ at the top of the square is assumed to send $\{*\} \times I$ to the base point of E . It is easy to show that $(I, \{0\})$ is a DR-pair, so if X is well pointed, so that $(X, \{*\})$ is an NDR-pair, then Lemma 65.4 implies that $(X \times I, X \times \{0\} \cup \{*\} \times I)$ is likewise a DR-pair. Plugging this information into Lemma 65.10, we deduce:

COROLLARY 65.11. *Any pointed map $p : E \rightarrow B$ that is also a free fibration satisfies the pointed homotopy lifting property with respect to all well-pointed spaces.* $\square$

Something even nicer is true if one takes B to be well pointed; in fact, the proof below makes do with a weaker hypothesis than this, but well-pointedness is a standard assumption in homotopy theory, so we will use it for convenience. Recall from Theorem 62.15 that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration if and only if it admits a *lifting function*, meaning a continuous map

$$P(p) = E \times_{p \circ \text{ev}_0} B^I \xrightarrow{\lambda} E^I$$

that associates to each pair $(x, \gamma) \in E \times B^I$ with $\gamma(0) = p(x)$ a path $\tilde{\gamma} := \lambda(x, \gamma) \in E^I$ with $\tilde{\gamma}(0) = x$ and $p \circ \tilde{\gamma} = \gamma$. This result holds in both unpointed and pointed variants: in particular, if the spaces E and B are pointed and $p : E \rightarrow B$ preserves base points, then $P(p)$ and B^I both inherit natural base points, and the existence of a *pointed* lifting function $\lambda : P(p) \rightarrow B^I$ then characterizes the pointed homotopy lifting property for $p : E \rightarrow B$ with respect to arbitrary pointed spaces. If p is only assumed to be a *free* fibration, then a lifting function λ exists, but it might not be a pointed map—our free fibration will thus be also a pointed fibration if and only if the lifting function can be chosen to preserve base points.

THEOREM 65.12. *If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed map and a free fibration whose base B is a well-pointed space, then p is also a pointed fibration.*

PROOF. The assumption that B is well pointed means that $(B, \{*\})$ is an NDR-pair, thus there exists a function $u : B \rightarrow I$ with $u^{-1}(0) = \{*\}$; this is actually the only assumption we will need for the proof. Since $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a free fibration, it admits a lifting function

$$\mu : P(p) \rightarrow E^I,$$

which need not preserve base points; our goal is to construct another lifting function that does preserve base points. To start with, define the continuous function

$$B^I \xrightarrow{\tau} I : \gamma \mapsto \max_{t \in I} \{u \circ \gamma(t)\},$$

whose zero set consists only of the constant path $\text{const}_* \in B^I$ at the base point. We can use this to define a continuous map $\Phi : B^I \rightarrow B^I$ that satisfies $\Phi(\text{const}_*) = \text{const}_*$ and for $\gamma \neq \text{const}_*$ is given by

$$\Phi(\gamma)(t) := \begin{cases} \gamma(t/\tau(\gamma)) & \text{if } 0 \leq t < \tau(\gamma), \\ \gamma(1) & \text{if } \tau(\gamma) \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

The point here is to replace any given path γ with a reparametrization of itself that may reach its end point faster and then stay there, with the speed adjusted so that it becomes arbitrarily fast for paths close to const_* . Having done this, we can define a new lifting function by

$$\lambda : P(p) \rightarrow E^I : (x, \gamma) \mapsto \mu(x, \Phi(\gamma))(\tau(\gamma)t),$$

i.e. having replaced γ with a reparametrization of itself, we lift the modified path and then undo its reparametrization. One easily checks that λ is indeed a lifting function, and since $\tau(\text{const}_*) = 0$, we have $\lambda(*, \text{const}_*)(t) = \mu(*, \text{const}_*)(0) = *$ for all t , so that λ sends the base point $(*, \text{const}_*) \in P(p)$ to the base point $\text{const}_* \in E^I$. $\square$

We will not prove it here or make use of it in this course, but the analogue of Theorem 65.12 for cofibrations is worth mentioning. Its proof is a rather technical argument showing that under the stated assumptions, $(X, j(A))$ is an NDR-pair.

THEOREM 65.13 (see e.g. [MP12, Lemma 1.3.4]). *If $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a pointed cofibration and the spaces A and X are both well pointed, then j is also a free cofibration.*

65.4. Comparing free and pointed homotopy sets. Recall that if Q and X are pointed spaces, we can distinguish between the set $[Q, X]_+$ of pointed homotopy classes of maps $Q \rightarrow X$ and the set $[Q, X]_\circ$ of *free* homotopy classes. We would like to understand how these two sets are related to each other. A related goal is to understand what happens to $[Q, X]_+$ if we change the base point of X , and to this end, let us denote by

$$[Q, X]_x := [(Q, *), (X, x)]_+$$

the set of pointed homotopy classes of maps $Q \rightarrow X$ such that x is considered the base point of X .

If Q is a well-pointed space, then we can do the following useful trick. The free cofibration $\{*\} \hookrightarrow Q$ determines a transport functor $\Pi(X) \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$, which is defined on the fundamental groupoid $\Pi(X) = \Pi(*, X)$ of X ; recall that the objects of the latter are the points of X (equivalently the maps $* \rightarrow X$), and morphisms from x to y are homotopy classes of paths from x to y . The transport functor assigns to each point $x \in X$ the set $[Q, X]_x$, and to each homotopy class of paths $x \xrightarrow{\gamma} y$ with fixed end points a bijective map

$$[Q, X]_x \xrightarrow[\cong]{\gamma\#} [Q, X]_y,$$

which sends $[F] \mapsto [G]$ for any choice of (free) homotopy $F \xrightarrow{H} G$ of maps $Q \rightarrow X$ with $H(*, t) = \gamma(t)$ for all $t \in I$, i.e. an “extension” of the homotopy $\gamma : * \times I \rightarrow X$.

EXAMPLE 65.14. Taking $Q := S^1$ makes $[Q, X]_x$ the fundamental group $\pi_1(X, x)$, and one can show (see Exercise 65.3) that the resulting bijection $\pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, y)$ induced by any homotopy class of paths from x to y is precisely the isomorphism that was introduced in Topology I, defined via concatenation of paths.

THEOREM 65.15. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a (free) homotopy equivalence, then for each $x \in X$ and $y := f(x) \in Y$ and every well-pointed space Q , the induced map*

$$[Q, X]_x \xrightarrow{f_*} [Q, Y]_y$$

is a bijection.

PROOF. The argument is essentially the same as the special case $Q = S^1$, which was probably the first nontrivial theorem of algebraic topology that you saw proved (i.e. that π_1 is a homotopy type invariant). The tricky detail is just that the homotopy inverse $g : Y \rightarrow X$ of f need not respect base points, so writing $g(y) := z \in X$, we obtain a sequence of maps

$$[Q, X]_x \xrightarrow{f_*} [Q, Y]_y \xrightarrow{g_*} [Q, X]_z.$$

But a homotopy H of Id_X to $g \circ f$ then determines a path $\gamma(t) := H(*, t)$ from x to z , and composing the maps $H_t : X \rightarrow X$ with any given pointed map $\varphi : (Q, *) \rightarrow (X, x)$ produces a free homotopy of maps $Q \rightarrow X$ that match γ at the base point, so that by construction,

$$g_* f_* = \gamma\#,$$

proving that $g_* f_*$ is a bijection, and therefore that f_* is injective and g_* is surjective. Since $f \circ g$ is also homotopic to the identity, applying the same argument to

$$[Q, Y]_y \xrightarrow{g_*} [Q, X]_z \xrightarrow{f_*} [Q, Y]_{f(z)}$$

then proves that g_* is also injective, and therefore invertible, and it follows that f_* is also invertible. $\square$

For $Q, X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ with Q well pointed, the construction described above also defines an action of the group $\pi_1(X)$ on the set $[Q, X]_+$:

$$[Q, X]_+ \times \pi_1(X) \rightarrow [Q, X]_+ : ([f], [\gamma]) \mapsto [f] \cdot [\gamma] := \gamma_{\#}[f].$$

This is a *right* action because multiplication in the fundamental group (defined via concatenation of paths) corresponds to composition in the fundamental groupoid *in reverse order*, thus for $[\alpha], [\beta] \in \pi_1(X)$, we have

$$[f] \cdot ([\alpha][\beta]) = [f] \cdot [\alpha \cdot \beta] = \beta_{\#}\alpha_{\#}[f] = ([f] \cdot [\alpha]) \cdot [\beta].$$

EXAMPLE 65.16. In the case $Q := S^1$, Exercise 65.3 characterizes the action of $\pi_1(X, x)$ on $[Q, X]_x$ as the action of $\pi_1(X, x)$ on itself by conjugation.

In general, we have $\gamma_{\#}[f] = [g]$ if and only if there is a free homotopy $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ with $H(*, t) = \gamma(t)$ for all t , and the cofibration condition ensures that such a homotopy exists for any given γ and f . It follows that two pointed maps $Q \rightarrow X$ are freely homotopic if and only if their pointed homotopy classes are related by the action of $\pi_1(X)$. Moreover, if X is path-connected, then for any (not necessarily pointed) map $f : Q \rightarrow X$, one can choose a path γ from $f(*)$ to the base point of X , and thus find a homotopy class $\gamma_{\#}[f] \in [Q, X]_+$ of *pointed* maps $Q \rightarrow X$ that are freely homotopic to f . This proves:

THEOREM 65.17. *The map $[Q, X]_+ \rightarrow [Q, X]_{\circ}$ defined by forgetting the base point descends to an injective map*

$$[Q, X]_+ / \pi_1(X) \rightarrow [Q, X]_{\circ},$$

and it is bijective if X is path-connected. □

COROLLARY 65.18. *For Q well-pointed and X simply connected, two maps $Q \rightarrow X$ are pointed homotopic if and only if they are freely homotopic, i.e. $[Q, X]_+ = [Q, X]_{\circ}$.* □

65.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 65.1 (*). This exercise concerns NDR-pairs and DR-pairs.

- (a) Fill in the gaps in the proof of Lemma 65.4.
- (b) Hatcher [Hat02] calls (X, A) a **good pair** if $A \subset X$ is closed and is a deformation retract of some open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of A . Compare this with the definition of an NDR-pair, and make sure you understand why neither definition implies the other.¹⁰³
- (c) Suppose $A \subset X$ is closed and is a deformation retract of an open neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ of A , and that X admits a metric (compatible with its topology) for which the distance between A and $X \setminus \mathcal{U}$ is positive. Show that (X, A) is then an NDR-pair.
- (d) Show that all CW-pairs (X, A) are NDR-pairs.
Hint: Construct $u : X \rightarrow I$ so that it equals 1 on every cell closure does not touch A , and also on a neighborhood of the center of every cell that is not contained in A . Start with $A \cup X^0$, then extend inductively from $A \cup X^{n-1}$ to $A \cup X^n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- (e) Given a set J , let $\mathbb{R}^J$ denote the vector space $\prod_J \mathbb{R}$, equipped with the product topology; equivalently, you can think of $\mathbb{R}^J$ as the set of all (not necessarily continuous) maps $J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with the topology of pointwise convergence. Show that if the set J is uncountable, then $\{0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^J$ is closed but is not the zero set of any continuous function $u : \mathbb{R}^J \rightarrow I$, and deduce that the inclusion $\{0\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^J$ is not a cofibration.

Hint: If such a function $u : \mathbb{R}^J \rightarrow I$ exists, how can you characterize neighborhoods of the

¹⁰³I will not suggest searching for examples that satisfy one of the definitions but not the other—in practice, almost all of the examples of interest satisfy both. We will see when we study the homotopy-theoretic perspective on homology that the role of good pairs is played in that setting by inclusions that are cofibrations.

form $u^{-1}([0, 1/n))$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$? Use this to construct a sequence of functions $f_n : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies $u(f_n) \rightarrow 0$ but converges pointwise to a nonzero function $f : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The latter will be possible specifically because J is uncountable.

EXERCISE 65.2. Let's talk about examples of well-pointed spaces.

- (a) Show that for any closed free cofibration $A \hookrightarrow X$, the quotient X/A with its obvious base point is a well-pointed space.
- (b) Is the reduced suspension of a well-pointed space always also a well-pointed space?
- (c) Is $X_+ := X \amalg \{*\} \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ a well-pointed space for every $X \in \mathbf{Top}$?

EXERCISE 65.3. Show that in the special case $Q = S^1$, the bijection

$$\pi_1(X, x) = [Q, X]_x \xrightarrow{\gamma\#} [Q, X]_y = \pi_1(X, y)$$

defined in §65.4 can be expressed in terms of concatenation of paths via the explicit formula

$$\gamma\#[\alpha] := [\gamma^{-1} \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma].$$

66. The Puppe sequences

The Puppe fiber and cofiber sequences of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ were first mentioned in Lecture 60, and we now have enough machinery in place to prove the main results about them.

66.1. Strict fibration and cofibration sequences. Recall from Lecture 60: a three-term sequence $F \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} B$ of pointed maps is called a **homotopy fiber sequence** if the diagram

$$(66.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} F & \xrightarrow{i} & E \\ \downarrow & \widetilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ * & \hookrightarrow & B \end{array}$$

commutes up to (pointed) homotopy and is a homotopy pullback square. Concretely, this means that there exists a pointed homotopy H from $p \circ i$ to the constant map $F \rightarrow B$ such that the canonical map

$$F \xrightarrow{u} F(p) := P(p, * \hookrightarrow B)$$

determined by p and H is a pointed homotopy equivalence. The space $F(p)$ is the **homotopy fiber** of $p : E \rightarrow B$, which appeared before in §62.3: writing $\iota : * \rightarrow B$ for the unique pointed map, $F(p)$ is literally the double mapping path space

$$P(p, \iota) = E \times_{p \circ \text{ev}_0} B^I \times_{\text{ev}_1} \iota^*,$$

which has a convenient natural identification with the space of pairs $(x, \gamma) \in E \times B^I$ such that γ is a path in B from $p(x)$ to the base point. The map $u : F \rightarrow F(p)$ is then given by

$$u(x) = (i(x), H(x, \cdot)).$$

Let's add some assumptions: suppose $i : F \rightarrow E$ is the inclusion map $F \hookrightarrow E$ for the subspace $F := p^{-1}(*) \subset E$, in which case $p \circ i$ is constant (not just up to homotopy), so that the diagram (66.1) commutes strictly. We can then choose H to be the trivial homotopy, and $u : F \rightarrow F(p)$ becomes

$$u(x) = (x, \text{const}_*) \in F(p) \subset P(p) = E \times_{p \circ \text{ev}_0} B^I,$$

which is the restriction to $F \subset E$ of the homotopy equivalence $h : E \rightarrow P(p) : x \mapsto (x, \text{const}_{f(x)})$ defined in §62.3. In other words, $u : F \rightarrow F(p)$ is in this case the *comparison map* from the actual fiber of $p : E \rightarrow B$ to its homotopy fiber. By Corollary 63.9 and Remark 63.10, this map is a pointed homotopy equivalence whenever $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed fibration, thus we've proved:

THEOREM 66.1. *Strict fibration sequences $F \hookrightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} B$ are also homotopy fiber sequences.* $\square$

It follows in particular that for a strict fibration sequence in the pointed category, the diagram (66.1) is a weak pullback square in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, implying via Proposition 60.10 that the induced sequence of pointed homotopy sets

$$[X, F]_+ \xrightarrow{i_*} [X, E]_+ \xrightarrow{p_*} [X, B]_+$$

is exact for any $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$. We've already seen in Theorem 62.6 that the latter can be deduced more directly from the homotopy lifting property, but Theorem 66.1 is a deeper result, with the advantage that there is no need to mention any auxiliary space X .

REMARK 66.2. The definition of the term *homotopy fiber sequence* in Lecture 60 was given for the pointed category, but there is also a sensible way to interpret Theorem 66.1 in the unpointed context. We can call a sequence of unpointed maps $F \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} B$ a homotopy fiber sequence if there is a choice of inclusion $\iota : * \hookrightarrow B$ for which the diagram (66.1) commutes up to free homotopy and is a homotopy pullback square; this means the same thing as in the pointed context, except that H is a free homotopy and the map $u : F \rightarrow F(p) := P(p, \iota)$ need only be a free homotopy equivalence. The condition that (66.1) commute up to homotopy really just means that $p \circ i$ is homotopic to a constant map $F \rightarrow B$; the image of that constant map then determines a preferred path-component of B , in which we can choose any point $b_0 \in B$ and treat it as a base point for the purposes of defining $\iota : * \hookrightarrow B$ and $F(p)$. In the situation of a free fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$, we can simply choose any point $b_0 \in B$ and set $F := p^{-1}(b_0) \xrightarrow{i} E$ to produce a strict fibration sequence, and the condition of being a homotopy fiber sequence then reduces as in the pointed case to the fact from Corollary 63.9 that the comparison map $F \rightarrow F(p)$ is a homotopy equivalence, meaning in this case a *free* homotopy equivalence. The diagram (66.1) is therefore a weak pullback square in $\mathbf{hTop}$, implying via Remark 60.11 that the induced sequence

$$[X, F]_\circ \xrightarrow{i_*} [X, E]_\circ \xrightarrow{p_*} [X, B]_\circ$$

is exact for any $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, with the understanding that the base point of $[X, B]_\circ$ is determined by the choice of the point $b_0 \in B$. We saw in Exercise 62.2 that the exactness of this sequence can also be deduced directly from the free homotopy lifting property.

Here is the dual story. A three-term sequence $A \xrightarrow{j} X \xrightarrow{q} Q$ of pointed maps is a **homotopy cofiber sequence** if the diagram

$$(66.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{j} & X \\ \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow q \\ * & \hookrightarrow & Q \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy and is a homotopy pushout square, meaning there is a (pointed) homotopy H from $q \circ j$ to the constant map $A \rightarrow Q$ such that the canonical map

$$\text{cone}(j) \xrightarrow{u} Q$$

is a (pointed) homotopy equivalence. We recall from §64.3 that the **mapping cone** of j , also known as its **homotopy cofiber**, is the double mapping cylinder of $j : A \rightarrow X$ and the unique map $\epsilon : A \rightarrow *$, hence

$$\text{cone}(j) := Z(j, \epsilon) \cong X \cup_j CA,$$

with the cone CA of A glued along the subspace $A \subset CA$ to X via the map $j : A \rightarrow X$. Since we are working in the pointed category, the cones and mapping cylinders appearing here are their

reduced variants, e.g.

$$\text{cone}(j) = \left(X \vee \frac{A \times I}{* \times I \cup A \times \{1\}} \right) \Big/ [(a, 0)] \sim j(a) \text{ for all } a \in A.$$

(See Remark 66.4 below for the unpointed analogue of this discussion.) The map $u : \text{cone}(j) \rightarrow Q$ is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} u([x]) &:= q(x) && \text{for } x \in X, \\ u([a, t]) &:= H(a, t) && \text{for } (a, t) \in (A \times I) / (* \times I \cup A \times \{1\}), \end{aligned}$$

which is well defined since $H(\cdot, 0) = q \circ j$ and H sends $\{*\} \times I \cup A \times \{1\}$ to the base point.

Assume now that $j : A \rightarrow X$ is a pointed cofibration and $q : X \rightarrow Q := X/j(A)$ is the quotient projection to its cofiber. The diagram (66.2) then commutes strictly, so we can choose H to be the trivial homotopy, and $u : \text{cone}(j) \rightarrow X/j(A)$ is thus given by

$$\begin{aligned} u([x]) &:= [x] \in X/j(A) && \text{for } x \in X, \\ u([a, t]) &:= * && \text{for } (a, t) \in (A \times I) / (* \times I \cup A \times \{1\}). \end{aligned}$$

Recalling from §64.3 the homotopy equivalence

$$Z(j) \xrightarrow{h} X$$

defined by $h([(a, t)]) := j(a)$ for $(a, t) \in A \times I$ and $h([x]) := x$ for $x \in X$, we observe that this map descends to the quotients

$$Z(j) \Big/ (A \times \{1\}) \cong \text{cone}(j) \longrightarrow X/j(A)$$

as the map $u : \text{cone}(j) \rightarrow X/j(A)$, which means u is the comparison map from the homotopy cofiber of $j : A \rightarrow X$ to its actual cofiber. According to Corollary 64.16, this map is a pointed homotopy equivalence, so we've proved:

THEOREM 66.3. *Strict cofibration sequences $A \xrightarrow{j} X \rightarrow X/j(A)$ are also homotopy cofiber sequences.* $\square$

REMARK 66.4. There is also an interpretation of Theorem 66.3 for the unpointed category. The condition for $A \xrightarrow{j} X \xrightarrow{q} Q$ to be a homotopy cofiber sequence is then that there exists an inclusion $* \hookrightarrow Q$ for which the diagram (66.2) commutes up to unpointed homotopy and the induced map $\text{cone}_o(j) \rightarrow Q$ from the unreduced cone is a free homotopy equivalence. For a free cofibration $j : A \rightarrow X$ with $q : X \rightarrow X/j(A) =: Q$ as the quotient projection to the cofiber, the map $\text{cone}_o(j) \rightarrow X/j(A)$ is again the comparison map, and is thus a free homotopy equivalence due to Corollary 64.16. It follows that (66.2) is a weak pushout square in $\mathbf{hTop}$, so that the conclusion about exact sequences of homotopy sets stated in Theorem 64.4 and Remark 64.5 can also be deduced from the unpointed version of Proposition 60.10 (see Remark 60.11).

A major advantage of talking about homotopy (co)fiber sequences instead of strict (co)fibration sequences is that the former are homotopy invariant concepts. Let's spell out precisely what this means:

PROPOSITION 66.5. *Suppose the following diagram commutes up to homotopy and the maps α , β and γ are homotopy equivalences,*

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \\ \downarrow \alpha & \sim & \downarrow \beta & \sim & \downarrow \gamma \\ X' & \xrightarrow{f'} & Y' & \xrightarrow{g'} & Z' \end{array}$$

Then $X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$ is a homotopy fiber/cofiber sequence if and only if $X' \xrightarrow{f'} Y' \xrightarrow{g'} Z'$ is. $\square$

The proof of the proposition is a slightly tedious but straightforward exercise: it is simply a matter of composing and concatenating certain homotopies to produce the desired homotopy equivalences (cf. Theorem 60.14 and Exercise 60.4). Observe that strict fibration and cofibration sequences clearly are not homotopy invariant in this sense, as we've seen that *every* map is a fibration or cofibration up to homotopy equivalence.

66.2. The Puppe fiber sequence. Recall that the homotopy fiber $F(f)$ of a pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the space of pairs $(x, \gamma) \in X \times Y^I$ such that γ is a path from $f(x)$ to the base point of Y . Equivalently, $F(f)$ is the double mapping path space of the maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $* \hookrightarrow Y$, and the map

$$F(f) \xrightarrow{\pi_f} X : (x, \gamma) \mapsto x$$

is therefore a pointed fibration by Theorem 62.11. The fiber of this fibration over the base point $* \in X$ has an obvious identification with the based loop space ΩY , with the inclusion of this fiber then given by the map

$$\Omega Y \xrightarrow{i_f} F(f) : \gamma \mapsto (*, \gamma).$$

These maps fit together into the diagram

$$(66.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} & F & & & \\ & \searrow & & & \\ & & X & & \\ & \swarrow \pi_f & \searrow f & & \\ & & P(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_Y} & Y \\ & \swarrow \sim & \uparrow h \simeq & & \\ & F(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_f} & & \\ \nearrow i_f & & & & \\ \Omega Y & & & & \end{array},$$

where $F := f^{-1}(*) \subset X$, $h : X \rightarrow P(f)$ is the homotopy equivalence $x \mapsto (x, \text{const}_{f(x)})$ introduced in §62.3, and its restriction to F is the comparison map $h : F \rightarrow F(f)$. One verifies easily by computation that the middle triangle in this diagram commutes up to homotopy, and the other two commute strictly. An important detail will be that both the horizontal and the upward diagonal sequences of three terms are strict fibration sequences.

Here is the main result of this section:

THEOREM 66.6. *For any pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the sequence of pointed maps*

$$\dots \rightarrow \Omega^2 F(f) \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 \pi_f} \Omega^2 X \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 f} \Omega^2 Y \xrightarrow{\Omega i_f} \Omega F(f) \xrightarrow{\Omega \pi_f} \Omega X \xrightarrow{\Omega f} \Omega Y \xrightarrow{i_f} F(f) \xrightarrow{\pi_f} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

is a homotopy fiber sequence.

The sequence in Theorem 66.6 is called the **Puppe fiber sequence** of the map $f : X \rightarrow Y$.

COROLLARY 66.7. *For any pointed space Z and pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the sequence in Theorem 66.6 induces a long exact sequence of pointed homotopy sets*

$$\dots \rightarrow [Z, \Omega^2 Y] \rightarrow [Z, \Omega F(f)] \rightarrow [Z, \Omega X] \rightarrow [Z, \Omega Y] \rightarrow [Z, F(f)] \rightarrow [Z, X] \rightarrow [Z, Y].$$

$\square$

We will later derive long exact sequences of higher homotopy groups from Corollary 66.7.

REMARK 66.8. For unpointed spaces X, Y and a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, one can always make a choice of base points $y_0 \in Y$ and $x_0 \in f^{-1}(y_0) \subset X$ so that X becomes a pointed map and Theorem 66.6 applies. The statement that the Puppe sequence is a homotopy fiber sequence then means that for each three-term subsequence, a certain diagram is a homotopy pullback square in the pointed category, but whenever this is true, it is automatically also true in the unpointed category (because pointed homotopies are also free homotopies). It then follows via Remark 60.11 that the sequence in Corollary 66.7 is also exact when interpreted as a sequence of *unpointed* homotopy sets, with the understanding that the chosen base points $x_0 \in X$ and $y_0 \in Y$ determine preferred path-components of all the spaces that appear (other than Z) and thus determine base points for all the homotopy sets, along with the definitions of the based loop spaces that appear.

REMARK 66.9. It is a straightforward exercise to check that the Puppe fiber sequence is *natural* with respect to any diagram of pointed maps

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow \varphi & & \downarrow \psi, \\ X' & \xrightarrow{f'} & Y' \end{array}$$

meaning that such a diagram will induce maps between the corresponding terms of the Puppe sequences of f and f' , and thus morphisms of exact sequences of homotopy sets.

Before we commence with the proof of Theorem 66.6, it will be useful to modify the sequence a bit. Every loop space has a natural involution defined by reversing the parametrization of each loop, hence

$$\Omega X \xrightarrow{i} \Omega X : \gamma \mapsto \bar{\gamma}, \quad \text{where} \quad \bar{\gamma}(t) := \gamma(1-t).$$

For a pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, let

$$\Omega X \xrightarrow{-\Omega f} \Omega Y$$

denote the composition with $\Omega f : \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y : \gamma \mapsto f \circ \gamma$ with either $i : \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X$ or $i : \Omega Y \rightarrow \Omega Y$; the result is the same map either way.

LEMMA 66.10. *For any pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the maps $\Omega^2 f := \Omega(\Omega f)$ and $-\Omega(-\Omega f)$ from $\Omega^2 X$ to $\Omega^2 Y$ are pointed homotopic.*

PROOF. Since I and $I^2 = I \times I$ are both locally compact (and therefore friendly), we have a natural homeomorphism $(X^I)^I \cong X^{I^2}$, which gives rise to a homeomorphism of the double loop space,

$$\Omega^2 X \cong \{\alpha : I^2 \rightarrow X \mid \alpha(\partial I^2) = \{*\}\} \subset X^{I^2}.$$

Under this identification, the maps $\Omega^2 X \rightarrow \Omega^2 Y$ defined by $\Omega^2 f$ and $-\Omega(-\Omega f)$ become

$$(\Omega^2 f)(\alpha) = f \circ \alpha, \quad \text{and} \quad -\Omega(-\Omega f)(\alpha) = f \circ \bar{\alpha}, \quad \text{where} \quad \bar{\alpha}(s, t) := \alpha(1-s, 1-t).$$

If we identify I^2 with a round disk and use rotations, we can find a continuous family of homeomorphisms of pairs

$$\{\varphi_\rho : (I^2, \partial I^2) \rightarrow (I^2, \partial I^2)\}_{\rho \in I} \quad \text{such that} \quad \varphi_0 = \text{Id} \text{ and } \varphi_1(s, t) = (1-s, 1-t),$$

and then define a homotopy $H : \Omega^2 X \times I \rightarrow \Omega^2 Y$ from $\Omega^2 f$ to $-\Omega(-\Omega f)$ by

$$H(\alpha, \rho) := \alpha \circ \varphi_\rho.$$

Since I^2 is friendly, one can use Proposition 61.8 to show that H is continuous. $\square$

LEMMA 66.11. *The sequence in Theorem 66.6 is a homotopy fiber sequence if and only if the modified sequence*

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \Omega^3 F(f) \xrightarrow{-\Omega^3 \pi_f} \Omega^3 X \xrightarrow{-\Omega^3 f} \Omega^3 Y \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 i_f} \Omega^2 F(f) \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 \pi_f} \\ \Omega^2 X \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 f} \Omega^2 Y \xrightarrow{-\Omega i_f} \Omega F(f) \xrightarrow{-\Omega \pi_f} \Omega X \xrightarrow{-\Omega f} \Omega Y \xrightarrow{i_f} F(f) \xrightarrow{\pi_f} X \xrightarrow{f} Y \end{aligned}$$

is a homotopy fiber sequence.

PROOF. This follows from Lemma 66.10 and Proposition 66.5 because the involution i defined on any loop space is a homotopy equivalence and the diagram

$$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccc} \dots \Omega^3 X & \xrightarrow{\Omega^3 f} & \Omega^3 Y & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 i_f} & \Omega^2 F(f) & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 \pi_f} & \Omega^2 X & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 f} & \Omega^2 Y & \xrightarrow{\Omega i_f} & \Omega F(f) & \xrightarrow{\Omega \pi_f} & \Omega X & \xrightarrow{\Omega f} & \Omega Y & \xrightarrow{i_f} & F(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_f} & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow \text{Id} & & \downarrow i & & \downarrow i & & \downarrow i & & \downarrow i & & \downarrow \text{Id} & & \downarrow i & & \downarrow \text{Id} & & \downarrow \text{Id} & & \downarrow \text{Id} & & \downarrow \text{Id} \\ \dots \Omega^3 X & \xrightarrow{-\Omega^3 f} & \Omega^3 Y & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 i_f} & \Omega^2 F(f) & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 \pi_f} & \Omega^2 X & \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 f} & \Omega^2 Y & \xrightarrow{-\Omega i_f} & \Omega F(f) & \xrightarrow{-\Omega \pi_f} & \Omega X & \xrightarrow{-\Omega f} & \Omega Y & \xrightarrow{i_f} & F(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_f} & X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

commutes. $\square$

The strategy for proving Theorem 66.6 is now essentially to show that for the sequence with the extra signs in Lemma 66.11, every three-term subsequence is homotopy equivalent in the sense of Proposition 66.5 to a strict fibration sequence. In fact, this is not even necessary for the last three terms, as it is essentially a tautology that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_f} & X \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ * & \longrightarrow & Y \end{array}$$

is a homotopy pullback square; indeed, the map that needs to be a homotopy equivalence in order for this to hold is simply the identity map on $F(f)$. The next three-term sequence from the right is equally easy to deal with, because

$$\Omega Y \xrightarrow{i_f} F(f) \xrightarrow{\pi_f} X$$

is a strict fibration sequence by construction.

The interesting part is the next three-term subsequence to the left of this, and for this purpose, we examine the diagram

$$(66.4) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \Omega X & \xrightarrow{-\Omega f} & \Omega Y & \xrightarrow{i_f} & F(f) & \xrightarrow{\pi_f} & X \\ & \searrow \sim & \downarrow \simeq h & \nearrow \pi_{\pi_f} & \downarrow \simeq h & \nearrow \pi_X & \\ & i_{\pi_f} & F(\pi_f) & \xrightarrow{\sim} & P(\pi_f) & & \end{array},$$

which comes from identifying the map $F(f) \xrightarrow{\pi_f} X$ via homotopy equivalence as in §62.3 with a fibration $P(\pi_f) \xrightarrow{\pi_X} X$ formed from the mapping path space of π_f . Here, the triangle including the maps π_{π_f} and $h : F(f) \rightarrow P(\pi_f)$ commutes up to homotopy, while its two adjacent triangles commute strictly, by the same computation as in the diagram (66.3). The following two details are less trivial.

First, the map $h : \Omega Y \rightarrow F(\pi_f)$, defined as a restriction of the natural homotopy equivalence $h : F(f) \rightarrow P(\pi_f)$ is itself a homotopy equivalence, due to Corollary 63.9 and the fact that π_f is a fibration.

Second, the maps $\Omega X \rightarrow F(\pi_f)$ defined by i_{π_f} and $h \circ (-\Omega f)$ are homotopic. (This is the detail that forces the appearance of all the minus signs in Lemma 66.11.) We prove this by calculation: on close examination of all the definitions, one finds

$$F(\pi_f) = \left\{ (x, \beta, \alpha) \in X \times Y^I \times X^I \mid \text{paths } f(x) \xrightarrow{\beta} * \text{ in } Y \text{ and } x \xrightarrow{\alpha} * \text{ in } X \right\},$$

with explicit formulas for the two maps $\Omega X \rightarrow F(\pi_f)$ given by

$$i_{\pi_f}(\alpha) = (*, \text{const}_*, \alpha), \quad h \circ (-\Omega f)(\alpha) = (*, f \circ \bar{\alpha}, \text{const}_*).$$

A homotopy $H : \Omega X \times I \rightarrow F(\pi_f)$ between them can be written in the form

$$H_s(\alpha) := (\alpha(s), \beta_s, \alpha_s),$$

where for each $s \in I$, we take $\alpha_s \in X^I$ to be a suitable forward reparametrization of $\alpha|_{[s,1]}$, thus giving a path in X from $\alpha(s)$ to the base point that is constant for $s = 1$, while $\beta_s \in Y^I$ is a suitable backward reparametrization of $f \circ \alpha|_{[0,s]}$, giving a path in Y from $f(\alpha(s))$ to the base point that is constant for $s = 0$.

The rest of the three-term subsequences appearing in Lemma 66.11 can now be handled inductively via the following claim: If $F \xrightarrow{j} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ is homotopy equivalent to a strict fibration sequence, then so is $\Omega F \xrightarrow{-\Omega j} \Omega X \xrightarrow{-\Omega f} \Omega Y$. To see this, take any homotopy-commutative diagram relating $F \rightarrow X \rightarrow Y$ via pointed homotopy equivalences to a strict fibration sequence $F' \xrightarrow{i} E \xrightarrow{p} B$, plug the whole diagram into the functor $\Omega : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$, carefully insert a few minus signs as needed, and then cite Proposition 62.13, which tells us that $\Omega F' \xrightarrow{\Omega i} \Omega E \xrightarrow{\Omega p} \Omega B$ is also a strict fibration sequence.

The proof of Theorem 66.6 is now complete.

66.3. The Puppe sequence of a fibration. Before moving on to the cofiber sequence, we mention a variation on Theorem 66.6 that is worked out in Exercise 66.1 below.

If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed fibration with fiber inclusion $F = p^{-1}(*) \xrightarrow{j} E$, then its Puppe fiber sequence can be modified by replacing the homotopy fiber $F(p)$ with the actual fiber F , to which it is homotopy equivalent by Corollary 63.9. This produces a homotopy fiber sequence of the form

$$(66.5) \quad \dots \longrightarrow \Omega^2 E \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 p} \Omega^2 B \xrightarrow{\Omega \delta} \Omega F \xrightarrow{\Omega j} \Omega E \xrightarrow{\Omega p} \Omega B \xrightarrow{\delta} F \xrightarrow{j} E \xrightarrow{p} B,$$

where $\delta : \Omega B \rightarrow F$ is a map defined up to homotopy by viewing the evaluation map $\text{ev} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow B$ as a homotopy of the constant map $\Omega B \rightarrow B$ to itself and feeding it into the transport functor of $p : E \rightarrow B$:

$$[\delta] := \text{ev}_\#[\text{const}_*] \in [(\Omega B, \text{const}_*), (E, p)]_B \cong [\Omega B, F].$$

In other words, we can take $\delta : \Omega B \rightarrow F$ to be $\tilde{\text{ev}}_1$ for any lift $\tilde{\text{ev}} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow E$ of $\text{ev} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow B$ whose initial condition $\tilde{\text{ev}}_0$ is the constant map $\Omega B \rightarrow E$. At the level of individual loops $\gamma \in \Omega B$, this means that $\delta(\gamma) \in F$ is the end point of a lift of the path $* \xrightarrow{\gamma} *$ in B to a path in E that begins at the base point, chosen so that the lift depends continuously on $\gamma \in \Omega B$. The proof that (66.5) is a homotopy fiber sequence just requires showing that this is an accurate description (up to homotopy) of the map $\delta : \Omega B \rightarrow F$ obtained from the modification of the original Puppe sequence in which $F(p)$ is replaced by the homotopy-equivalent space F . See Exercise 66.1 for the details.

66.4. The Puppe cofiber sequence. Working in either $\mathbf{Top}$ or $\mathbf{Top}_*$, every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ gives rise to another diagram dual to (66.3), taking the form

$$(66.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} X & \xrightarrow{i_X} & Z(f) & \longrightarrow & \text{cone}(f) & \xrightarrow{q_f} & \Sigma X \\ & \searrow f & \downarrow \simeq h & \nearrow i_f & \downarrow h & & \\ & & Y & & Y/f(X) & & \end{array},$$

in which the horizontal and upward diagonal sequences of three terms are both strict cofibration sequences. Here, $h : Z(f) \rightarrow Y$ is the homotopy equivalence introduced in §64.3, which descends to the comparison map $h : \text{cone}(f) \rightarrow Y/f(X)$ from the homotopy cofiber of f to its actual cofiber, and i_f is the natural inclusion of Y into the double mapping cylinder $Z(f, \epsilon) = \text{cone}(f)$ of $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$, which is a cofibration by Theorem 64.9. Thinking of $\text{cone}(f)$ as a copy of Y glued to the cone CX of X , collapsing Y to a point produces the suspension ΣX as the cofiber of $i_f : Y \rightarrow \text{cone}(f)$, and $q_f : \text{cone}(f) \rightarrow \Sigma X$ is thus the quotient projection to this cofiber. One verifies by inspection that the middle triangle commutes up to homotopy and the others commute strictly.

THEOREM 66.12. *For any (unpointed or pointed) map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the sequence of maps*

$$(66.7) \quad X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{i_f} \text{cone}(f) \xrightarrow{q_f} \Sigma X \xrightarrow{\Sigma f} \Sigma Y \xrightarrow{\Sigma i_f} \Sigma \text{cone}(f) \xrightarrow{\Sigma q_f} \Sigma^2 X \xrightarrow{\Sigma^2 f} \Sigma^2 Y \longrightarrow \dots$$

is a homotopy cofiber sequence.

COROLLARY 66.13. *For any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and space Z (assumed path-connected if we are working in the unpointed category), the sequence in Theorem 66.12 induces a long exact sequence of homotopy sets*

$$\dots \rightarrow [\Sigma^2 X, Z] \rightarrow [\Sigma \text{cone}(f), Z] \rightarrow [\Sigma Y, Z] \rightarrow [\Sigma X, Z] \rightarrow [\text{cone}(f), Z] \rightarrow [Y, Z] \rightarrow [X, Z]$$

□

REMARK 66.14. In contrast to the fiber sequence in Theorem 66.6, the cofiber sequence comes in two parallel versions for the unpointed and pointed categories, and the suspensions appearing in (66.7) and Corollary 66.13 must be interpreted as unreduced or reduced suspensions accordingly. For the meaning of the term “homotopy cofiber sequence” in the unpointed category, see Remark 66.4. The hypothesis in Corollary 66.13 that Z is path-connected must be included so that the homotopy sets have natural base points (cf. Remark 60.11).

The proof of the theorem is closely analogous to that of Theorem 66.6, so we just include a few remarks. The inductive step follows from Proposition 64.10 in the pointed case and Proposition 65.6 in the unpointed case, which tell us that suspensions of cofibrations are cofibrations. Note that in the unpointed case, this step requires the additional hypothesis that the cofibrations in question are closed, but this is automatic, because they arise from mapping cylinders. It should be clear already that the first three terms form a homotopy cofiber sequence, and shifting one term to the right gives three terms that form an actual strict cofibration sequence. The main step is thus to understand terms three through five; see Exercise 66.2 below. The main result in the background of that step is Corollary 64.16, stating that for a cofibration, the comparison map from its homotopy cofiber to its actual cofiber is a homotopy equivalence.

66.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 66.1 (*). Assume $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a pointed fibration with fiber inclusion $F = p^{-1}(*) \xrightarrow{j} E$. The fact that the Puppe sequence (66.5) of the fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a homotopy fiber sequence follows from Theorem 66.6 in light of the following variation on the diagram (66.4):

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \Omega B & \xrightarrow{\delta} & F & \xrightarrow{j} & E & \xrightarrow{p} & B \\ & \searrow \sim & \downarrow \simeq h & \nearrow \pi_p & \downarrow \simeq h & \nearrow \pi_B & \\ & i_p & F(p) & \xrightarrow{\sim} & P(p) & & \end{array},$$

where $\delta : \Omega B \rightarrow F$ is defined up to pointed homotopy via the transport functor, as explained in §66.3. Here the nontrivial details are again that the map $h : F \rightarrow F(p)$ is a homotopy equivalence (because $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fibration), and that the leftmost triangle in the diagram commutes up to homotopy, i.e.

$$h \circ \delta \sim_h i_p.$$

Prove the latter.

Hint: Try first to convince yourself that $h \circ \delta$ is actually just another version of the map δ , namely the one associated to the fibration $\pi_B : P(p) \rightarrow B$. The goal is then to establish that $i_p : \Omega B \rightarrow F(p)$ is a valid explicit formula for δ in the case of this particular fibration. This will be obvious if you make an intelligent choice of lift of $\text{ev} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow B$ to $P(p)$.

EXERCISE 66.2 (*). The proof of exactness for the Puppe cofiber sequence of a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ hinges on the claim that the rightmost triangle in the following diagram commutes up to homotopy:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} Y & \xrightarrow{i_f} & \text{cone}(f) & \xrightarrow{q_f} & \Sigma X & \xrightarrow{-\Sigma f} & \Sigma Y \\ & \searrow i_Y & \uparrow h \simeq & \searrow i_{i_f} & \uparrow h \simeq & \nearrow q_{i_f} & \\ & & Z(i_f) & \xrightarrow{q_Y} & \text{cone}(i_f) & & \end{array}$$

This diagram makes sense in two parallel versions, with the mapping cones and cylinders understood as the unreduced variants if we are working in $\mathbf{Top}$, and the reduced variants if we are working in $\mathbf{Top}_*$. The maps labelled i are the obvious inclusions into mapping cones or cylinders, maps labelled q are the quotient projections that collapse those included subspaces to a point, $h : Z(i_f) \rightarrow \text{cone}(f)$ is the obvious homotopy inverse of the inclusion $\text{cone}(f) \hookrightarrow Z(i_f)$, and $-\Sigma f$ is the composition of $\Sigma f : \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma Y$ with the inversion map $\Sigma Y \rightarrow \Sigma Y : [(y, t)] \mapsto [(y, -t)]$. Prove the claim about the rightmost triangle.

Hint: If you can draw a useful picture of the space $\text{cone}(i_f)$, it may become almost obvious how the desired homotopy of maps $\text{cone}(i_f) \rightarrow \Sigma Y$ should be defined, and why the minus sign appears in the diagram. (Note that the minus sign is harmless for the proof of Theorem 66.12, for essentially the same reasons as Lemma 66.11.)

67. Group and cogroup objects

For a pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and any other pointed space Q , we now have two long exact sequences of pointed homotopy sets, arising from the fiber and cofiber sequence respectively:

$$(67.1) \quad \dots [Q, \Omega^2 Y] \xrightarrow{(\Omega i_f)^*} [Q, \Omega F(f)] \xrightarrow{(\Omega \pi_f)^*} [Q, \Omega X] \xrightarrow{(\Omega f)^*} [Q, \Omega Y] \xrightarrow{(i_f)^*} [Q, F(f)] \xrightarrow{(\pi_f)^*} [Q, X] \xrightarrow{f_*} [Q, Y]$$

$$(67.2) \quad \dots [\Sigma^2 X, Q] \xrightarrow{(\Sigma q_f)^*} [\Sigma \text{cone}(f), Q] \xrightarrow{(\Sigma i_f)^*} [\Sigma Y, Q] \xrightarrow{(\Sigma f)^*} [\Sigma X, Q] \xrightarrow{q_f^*} [\text{cone}(f), Q] \xrightarrow{i_f^*} [Y, Q] \xrightarrow{f^*} [X, Q]$$

As it stands, the terms in these sequences are pointed sets, and the maps are base-point preserving set maps. The main result of this lecture says that, in fact, most of the terms in these sequences have a lot more useful algebraic structure than that.

THEOREM 67.1. *All terms in (67.1) and (67.2) containing the functors Ω^n or Σ^n for $n \geq 1$ have natural group structures, and the maps between those terms are group homomorphisms. Moreover, for $n \geq 2$, the groups are abelian.*

In other words, while the sequences in (67.1) and (67.2) are exact sequences in the category $\mathbf{Set}_*$, cutting off the last three terms of each makes them exact sequences in $\mathbf{Grp}$, and cutting off another three terms makes them exact sequences in $\mathbf{Ab}$.

The goal of this lecture is to explain why.

EXAMPLE 67.2. Recall from Exercise 61.7 that $\Sigma^n S^0 \cong S^n$, so the homotopy groups $\pi_n(Z)$ of a pointed space Z for $n \geq 0$ can be expressed as

$$\pi_n(Z) = [S^n, Z] \cong [\Sigma^n S^0, Z].$$

The results of this lecture will thus imply that $\pi_n(Z)$ has a natural group structure for every $n \geq 1$ and is abelian for $n \geq 2$, though $\pi_0(Z)$ is in general not a group, but just a pointed set. We will discuss the higher homotopy groups in detail in the next lecture, including applications of the fiber sequence.

REMARK 67.3. An exact sequence in $\mathbf{Grp}$ carries a lot more information than an exact sequence in $\mathbf{Set}_*$. You can't conclude e.g. from the exactness of $\{*\} \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ that f is injective if the maps are only pointed set maps, but you can if they are group homomorphisms.

67.1. Group objects. Here is an idea for defining a “group like” structure on any loop space ΩX . As in the definition of the fundamental group, one can use **concatenation** of loops to define a multiplication map

$$\Omega X \times \Omega X \xrightarrow{m} \Omega X, \quad m(\alpha, \beta) := \alpha \cdot \beta,$$

where $\alpha \cdot \beta$ is a reparametrization of α on the subinterval $[0, 1/2]$ followed by a reparametrization of β on the subinterval $[1/2, 1]$. There is also an obvious definition for an inversion map

$$\Omega X \xrightarrow{i} \Omega X : \alpha \mapsto \bar{\alpha}, \quad \bar{\alpha}(t) := \alpha(1 - t),$$

and we can interpret the base point of ΩX as an identity element, i.e. the image of the unique pointed map

$$* \xrightarrow{e} \Omega X,$$

also known as the constant based loop. Unfortunately, these maps do not make ΩX into a group, e.g. if one defines multiplication of loops by $\alpha\beta := m(\alpha, \beta)$, then multiplication is not associative. You are familiar with this problem already from the definition of the fundamental group, and you also have some idea of what to do about it: we should be working in the homotopy category and thus working with homotopy classes of maps, rather than with precise representatives of those homotopy classes. A vague version of something that will be stated more precisely below is that the maps m , i and e satisfy the axioms of a group structure on ΩX “up to homotopy”.

With a little thought, one can actually make sense of such a statement in a wide variety of categories, not just $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

A quick remark to prepare for the next definition: Recall from Exercise 59.3 that according to the universal property of products, a product of an empty collection of objects in any category $\mathcal{A}$ is by definition a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{A}$, and similarly, a coproduct of an empty collection of objects is an initial object $0 \in \mathcal{A}$. Since the empty set is an example of a finite set, the

assumption that $\mathcal{A}$ admits all finite products/coproducts therefore implies in particular that it admits a terminal/initial object. For any product $X \times Y$ or coproduct $X \coprod Y$ of two objects, we shall denote the associated morphisms to or from X and Y by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & X & \\ \pi_1 \nearrow & & \searrow i_1 \\ X \times Y & & X \coprod Y \\ \pi_2 \searrow & & \nearrow i_2 \\ & Y & \end{array}$$

DEFINITION 67.4. Assume $\mathcal{A}$ is a category in which all finite products exist (including a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{A}$). A **group object** in $\mathcal{A}$ is a tuple (X, m, e, i) consisting of an object $X \in \mathcal{A}$ equipped with morphisms

$$X \times X \xrightarrow{m} X, \quad 1 \xrightarrow{e} X, \quad X \xrightarrow{i} X$$

such that the following diagrams commute:

(1) *Associativity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times X \times X & \xrightarrow{m \times \text{Id}_X} & X \times X \\ \text{Id}_X \times m \downarrow & & \downarrow m \\ X \times X & \xrightarrow{m} & X \end{array}$$

(2) *Identity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times 1 & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_X \times e} & X \times X \\ \searrow \pi_1 & & \downarrow m \\ & & X \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} 1 \times X & \xrightarrow{e \times \text{Id}_X} & X \times X \\ \searrow \pi_2 & & \downarrow m \\ & & X \end{array}$$

(3) *Inverse*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{(\text{Id}_X, i)} & X \times X \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow m \\ 1 & \xrightarrow{e} & X \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{(i, \text{Id}_X)} & X \times X \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow m \\ 1 & \xrightarrow{e} & X \end{array}$$

The group object (X, m, e, i) is called **abelian** if the following diagram also commutes:

(4) *Commutativity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times X & & \\ (\pi_2, \pi_1) \downarrow & \searrow m & \\ X \times X & \xrightarrow{m} & X \end{array}$$

We sometimes refer to m, e, i as the **structure morphisms** of the group object (X, m, e, i) . Given two group objects (X, m_X, e_X, i_X) and (Y, m_Y, e_Y, i_Y) in $\mathcal{A}$, a **morphism of group objects** $(X, m_X, e_X, i_X) \rightarrow (Y, m_Y, e_Y, i_Y)$ is then a morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathcal{A}$ that respects the structure morphisms, meaning that the diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times X & \xrightarrow{f \times f} & Y \times Y \\ \downarrow m_X & & \downarrow m_Y \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}, \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & 1 & \\ e_X \swarrow & & \searrow e_Y \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}, \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\ \downarrow i_X & & \downarrow i_Y \\ X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \end{array}$$

all commute. We denote by $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathcal{A})$ the category whose objects are group objects in $\mathcal{A}$ and whose morphisms are morphisms of group objects.

EXAMPLE 67.5. A group object (G, m, e, i) in $\mathbf{Set}$ is just a group, with $gh := m(g, h)$, $g^{-1} := i(g)$, and $e(*) \in G$ defining the identity element. (Recall that a terminal object in $\mathbf{Set}$ is a set $*$ of one point.) Thus $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Set})$ is naturally isomorphic to the category $\mathbf{Grp}$ of groups. A group object in $\mathbf{Set}_*$ is also simply a group, and since $e : * \rightarrow G$ must then be a pointed set map, it is automatic that the base point of G is the identity element. For this reason, $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Set}_*)$ and $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Set})$ are canonically isomorphic categories.

EXAMPLE 67.6. Similarly, $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Top})$ is the category of topological groups, which could also be described as $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Top}_*)$ since the identity element in any group determines a natural choice of base point that is preserved by the structure morphisms.

EXAMPLE 67.7. A group object in the category $\mathbf{Diff}$ of smooth manifolds is a Lie group, and $\mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{Diff})$ is the category of Lie groups, with smooth group homomorphisms as morphisms.

REMARK 67.8. As a brief nonessential digression, it can also be useful to define other algebraic structures within the context of categories other than $\mathbf{Set}$. For example, an **H-space** (named after Heinz Hopf) is an object of $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ equipped with two morphisms m and e satisfying the identity axiom described above, but without assuming associativity or the existence of inverses. The argument behind the fact that $[\Sigma^n Z, Q]$ and $[Z, \Omega^n Z]$ are abelian for $n \geq 2$ will also imply restrictions on the topologies of H-spaces, notably that their fundamental groups must be abelian (see Exercise 67.3). Here is an interesting fact: the classic algebraic theorem that there are only four real finite-dimensional division algebras ($\mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{C}$, the quaternions and the octonions) was deduced from a topological result, proving via K-theory that S^n can only be an H-space if $n \in \{0, 1, 3, 7\}$.

Here is the precise version of the statement that the maps m, i, e defined above for loop spaces ΩX via concatenation and reversal satisfy the axioms of a group “up to homotopy”:

PROPOSITION 67.9. *For every $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the loop space ΩX with the maps m, e, i described above is a group object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, and this defines a lift of the functor $\Omega : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$,*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \mathbf{Grp}(\mathbf{hTop}_*) & \\ \tilde{\Omega} \nearrow & \downarrow & \\ \mathbf{hTop}_* & \xrightarrow{\Omega} & \mathbf{hTop}_* \end{array},$$

where the downward arrow is the “forgetful” functor that forgets the structure morphisms of each group object and remembers only the object itself. In particular: The continuous pointed map $\Omega f : \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y$ induced by any pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is automatically also a morphism of group objects in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. $\square$

The proof of the proposition is straightforward, using the same ideas as in the proof that $\pi_1(X)$ is a group.

The following result is similarly straightforward, and allows us to turn group objects into actual groups:

PROPOSITION 67.10. *For any covariant functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ that preserves finite products, each group object (X, m, e, i) in $\mathcal{A}$ determines a group object $(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(m), \mathcal{F}(e), \mathcal{F}(i))$ in $\mathcal{B}$ and thus defines a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathbf{Grp}(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}(\mathcal{B})$.* $\square$

REMARK 67.11. The condition “preserves finite products” in Proposition 67.10 means in part that for any two objects $X, Y \in \mathcal{A}$ with product $X \times Y \in \mathcal{A}$, the object $\mathcal{F}(X \times Y) \in \mathcal{B}$ is a product

of $\mathcal{F}(X)$ and $\mathcal{F}(Y)$ in the category-theoretic sense. This condition is needed in order to interpret the morphism $\mathcal{F}(m)$ as

$$\mathcal{F}(X) \times \mathcal{F}(X) = \mathcal{F}(X \times X) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(m)} \mathcal{F}(X).$$

The condition also means that for a terminal object $1 \in \mathcal{A}$, $\mathcal{F}(1)$ is likewise a terminal object of $\mathcal{B}$, making $\mathcal{F}(e)$ a morphism from a terminal object to $\mathcal{F}(X)$.

A particular covariant functor to which Proposition 67.10 can always be applied is

$$\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, \cdot) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$$

for any fixed object $Q \in \mathcal{A}$. Indeed, the universal property of the product implies that there are always natural bijections

$$(67.3) \quad \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, Y \times Z) \cong \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, Y) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, Z),$$

and $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, 1) = \{*\}$ is a terminal object in $\mathbf{Set}$, thus $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, \cdot)$ preserves finite products. For any group object (X, m, e, i) in $\mathcal{A}$, this gives $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$ the structure of a group object in $\mathbf{Set}$, also known as a group. Its multiplication operation is obtained by feeding $m \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X \times X, X)$ into the functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, \cdot)$ and using the natural identification of $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X \times X)$ with $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X) \times \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$, so the product of two morphisms $f, g \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$ is thus

$$fg := m \circ (f, g) \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X).$$

One checks from the definitions (see Exercise 67.1) that for each morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathcal{A}$, the induced set map

$$(67.4) \quad f^* : \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Z, X) \rightarrow \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Y, X)$$

is now also a group homomorphism.

Applying this in the case $\mathcal{A} = \mathbf{hTop}_*$ with the functor $[Q, \cdot] : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}_*$ for a chosen pointed space Q , we deduce:

COROLLARY 67.12. *For every $Q, X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the set $[Q, \Omega X]$ has a natural group structure such that for all homotopy classes of pointed maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the induced map $(\Omega f)_* : [Q, \Omega X] \rightarrow [Q, \Omega Y]$ is a group homomorphism. Moreover, for any pointed map $f : Q \rightarrow P$, the induced map $f^* : [P, \Omega X] \rightarrow [Q, \Omega X]$ is also a group homomorphism. $\square$*

Explicitly, the group structure of $[Q, \Omega X]$ in the situation of Corollary 67.12 is given by

$$[f][g] := [m \circ (f, g)] \in [Q, \Omega X].$$

using the map $m : \Omega X \times \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X$ defined via concatenation.

The fact that the map (67.4) is a group homomorphism for every group object (X, m, e, i) and morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathcal{A}$ can be expressed in more abstract terms as the statement that there is a lift of the contravariant functor $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\cdot, X) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ to a functor $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$, providing the dashed arrow in the diagram

$$(67.5) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & \mathbf{Grp} \\ & \nearrow \text{dashed} & \downarrow \\ \mathcal{A} & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\cdot, X)} & \mathbf{Set} \end{array} .$$

Here, the downward arrow is the forgetful functor $\mathbf{Grp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$, which turns each group into a set by forgetting its group structure. In the spirit of the Yoneda lemma (cf. Exercises 58.2), one can use such lifts of functors as a characterization of group object structures:

PROPOSITION 67.13. *For each object $X \in \mathcal{A}$ in a category $\mathcal{A}$ that admits all finite products, there is a canonical bijective correspondence between group object structures (m, e, i) on X and lifts of the contravariant functor $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\cdot, X) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ to a functor $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ fitting into the diagram (67.5) together with the forgetful functor $\mathbf{Grp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$.*

PROOF SKETCH. Assuming $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$ is a group for each $Q \in \mathcal{A}$ with multiplication denoted by $\boxtimes$, and that $f^* : \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Z, X) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Y, X)$ is a group homomorphism for each morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ in $\mathcal{A}$, we use the group structure on $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X \times X, X)$ to define the morphism

$$m := \pi_1 \boxtimes \pi_2 \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X \times X, X)$$

in terms of the projections $\pi_1, \pi_2 : X \times X \rightarrow X$ to the first and second factor of the product. Similarly, define $i \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, X)$ to be the inverse of Id_X with respect to the group structure $\boxtimes$ on $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, X)$, and define e to be the identity element in the group $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(1, X)$. We leave it as an exercise to check that these morphisms satisfy the axioms of a group object, that the group structure on each set $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$ determined by these morphisms matches the one that was given, and that different structure morphisms m, e, i give rise to different group structures on $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Q, X)$ for certain choices of $Q \in \mathcal{A}$. $\square$

67.2. Cogroup objects. At this point, nearly half of Theorem 67.1 has been proved. We have not yet said anything about why sets of the form $[\Sigma X, Q]$ have natural group structures: it has something to do with the suspension functor, but also with *contravariant* functors such as $[\cdot, Q] : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$. Proposition 67.10 above only works for *covariant* functors, because feeding the diagrams of Definition 67.4 into a contravariant functor reverses their arrows, producing diagrams that no longer describe the axioms of a group object. We are thus led to ask: What kind of structure on an object $X \in \mathcal{A}$ makes $\mathcal{F}(X) \in \mathcal{B}$ into a group object if $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is a contravariant functor?

What's needed here is a set of axioms that include the same diagrams as in Definition 67.4, but with all the arrows reversed. To this end, it is useful to recall (cf. §58.2) the notion of the *opposite* category $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$, which has the same objects as $\mathcal{A}$, but with

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}}(X, Y) := \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Y, X)$$

for every $X, Y \in \mathcal{A}^{\text{op}} = \mathcal{A}$, i.e. the sets of morphisms are the same but all arrows are reversed. This is the definition one needs if one wants to talk about functors without ever saying the words “covariant” and “contravariant”: one can then define a contravariant functor from $\mathcal{A}$ to some other category $\mathcal{B}$ to be a covariant functor from $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$ to $\mathcal{B}$. You should take a moment to convince yourself of the following: An object is terminal in $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$ if and only if it is initial in $\mathcal{A}$, and a product of objects in $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$ is canonically equivalent to a coproduct of the same objects in $\mathcal{A}$. For this reason, the following definition requires assuming $\mathcal{A}$ to be a category in which all finite *coproducts* exist, rather than products.

DEFINITION 67.14. Assume $\mathcal{A}$ is a category in which all finite coproducts exist (including an initial object $0 \in \mathcal{A}$). A **cogroup object** in $\mathcal{A}$ is then a group object in $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$. More concretely, reversing the arrows of the structure morphisms of a group object in $\mathcal{A}^{\text{op}}$ realizes a cogroup object in $\mathcal{A}$ as a tuple $(X, \mu, \epsilon, \iota)$ with structure morphisms

$$X \xrightarrow{\mu} X \coprod X, \quad X \xrightarrow{\epsilon} 0, \quad X \xrightarrow{\iota} X$$

for which the following diagrams commute:

(1) *Co-associativity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{\mu} & X \coprod X \\
 \downarrow \mu & & \downarrow \text{Id}_X \coprod \mu \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{\mu \coprod \text{Id}_X} & X \coprod X \coprod X
 \end{array}$$

(2) *Co-identity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{i_1} & X \coprod 0 \\
 \downarrow \mu & \searrow & \downarrow \text{Id}_X \coprod \epsilon \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_X \coprod \epsilon} & X \coprod 0
 \end{array}
 \quad \text{and} \quad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{i_2} & 0 \coprod X \\
 \downarrow \mu & \searrow & \downarrow \epsilon \coprod \text{Id}_X \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{\epsilon \coprod \text{Id}_X} & 0 \coprod X
 \end{array}$$

(3) *Co-inverse*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & 0 \\
 \downarrow \mu & & \downarrow \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{\text{Id}_X \coprod \iota} & X
 \end{array}
 \quad \text{and} \quad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{\epsilon} & 0 \\
 \downarrow \mu & & \downarrow \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{\iota \coprod \text{Id}_X} & X
 \end{array}$$

The group object (X, m, e, i) is called **abelian** if the following diagram also commutes:

(4) *Co-commutativity*:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{\mu} & X \coprod X \\
 & \searrow \mu & \downarrow i_2 \coprod i_1 \\
 & & X \coprod X
 \end{array}$$

A **morphism of cogroup objects** $(X, \mu_X, \epsilon_X, \iota_X) \rightarrow (Y, \mu_Y, \epsilon_Y, \iota_Y)$ is a morphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ such that the diagrams

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\
 \downarrow \mu_X & & \downarrow \mu_Y \\
 X \coprod X & \xrightarrow{f \coprod f} & Y \coprod Y
 \end{array}, \quad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\
 \searrow \epsilon_X & & \swarrow \epsilon_Y \\
 & 0 &
 \end{array}, \quad \text{and} \quad
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y \\
 \downarrow \iota_X & & \downarrow \iota_Y \\
 X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y
 \end{array}$$

all commute. Let $\mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathcal{A})$ denote the category of cogroup objects in $\mathcal{A}$.

REMARK 67.15. Are you wondering why you've heard of groups before but not cogroups? The initial object in $\mathbf{Set}$ or $\mathbf{Top}$ is $\emptyset$, thus a cogroup object $(X, \mu, \epsilon, \iota)$ in either of these categories must be equipped with a map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow \emptyset$, which is only possible if $X = \emptyset$. The situation in $\mathbf{Set}_*$ and $\mathbf{Top}_*$ is hardly better (see Exercise 67.2). Interesting examples of cogroup objects are only possible in categories that are quite different from $\mathbf{Set}$, e.g. homotopy categories, in which the freedom to have diagrams commute only up to homotopy allows for more possibilities.

The following result dual to Proposition 67.10 is now immediate, as Definition 67.14 has been conceived so as to make it true:

PROPOSITION 67.16. *For any contravariant functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ that takes finite coproducts to finite products (and thus takes any initial object in $\mathcal{A}$ to a terminal object in $\mathcal{B}$), each cogroup object $(X, \mu, \epsilon, \iota)$ in $\mathcal{A}$ determines a group object $(\mathcal{F}(X), \mathcal{F}(\mu), \mathcal{F}(\epsilon), \mathcal{F}(\iota))$ in $\mathcal{B}$ with structure morphisms*

$$\mathcal{F}(X) \times \mathcal{F}(X) \cong \mathcal{F}(X \coprod X) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\mu)} \mathcal{F}(X), \quad 1 \cong \mathcal{F}(0) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\epsilon)} \mathcal{F}(X), \quad \mathcal{F}(X) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}(\iota)} \mathcal{F}(X),$$

and thus defines a functor $\mathcal{F} : \mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}(\mathcal{B})$. □

The hypothesis about finite products and coproducts is satisfied in particular by $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(\cdot, Q) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ for any fixed object $Q \in \mathcal{A}$, because by the universal property of the coproduct, there are natural bijections

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Q) \times \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(Y, Q) \xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}\left(X \coprod Y, Q\right) : (f, g) \mapsto f \coprod g$$

for every $X, Y \in \mathcal{A}$, and $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(0, Q) = \{*\}$ is a terminal object in $\mathbf{Set}$. The multiplication of two morphisms $f, g \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Q)$ for a cogroup object $(X, \mu, \epsilon, \iota)$ can be written explicitly as

$$fg := (f \coprod g) \circ \mu \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Q),$$

and this applies in particular whenever X is a cogroup object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, giving $[X, Q]$ the structure of a group, with multiplication

$$[f][g] := [(f \vee g) \circ \mu] \in [X, Q].$$

For X a cogroup object in $\mathcal{A}$ and $f : Y \rightarrow Z$ a morphism in $\mathcal{A}$, one also checks (Exercise 67.1) that the induced set map

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Y) \xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Z)$$

is a group homomorphism, so that every cogroup object X determines a lift of the covariant functor $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, \cdot) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ to a functor $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$, providing the dashed arrow in the diagram

$$(67.6) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} & & \mathbf{Grp} \\ & \nearrow \text{dashed} & \downarrow \\ \mathcal{A} & \xrightarrow{\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, \cdot)} & \mathbf{Set} \end{array},$$

where the downward arrow is again the forgetful functor. The following result is dual to Proposition 67.13, and has a similar proof:

PROPOSITION 67.17. *For each object $X \in \mathcal{A}$ in a category $\mathcal{A}$ that admits all finite coproducts, there is a canonical bijective correspondence between cogroup object structures (μ, ϵ, ι) on X and lifts of the covariant functor $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, \cdot) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ to a functor $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{Grp}$ fitting into the diagram (67.6) together with the forgetful functor $\mathbf{Grp} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$.* $\square$

We can now explain why the suspension terms in (67.2) also have natural group structures.

PROPOSITION 67.18. *The reduced suspension functor $\Sigma : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ admits a unique lift to a functor $\tilde{\Sigma} : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathbf{hTop}_*)$ fitting together with the forgetful functor $\mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathbf{hTop}_*) \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ in the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathbf{hTop}_*) & \\ \tilde{\Sigma} \nearrow & \downarrow & \\ \mathbf{hTop}_* & \xrightarrow{\Sigma} & \mathbf{hTop}_* \end{array}$$

such that for every $X, Y \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the induced group structure on $[\Sigma X, Y]$ matches the one it inherits from the adjunction relation $[\Sigma X, Y] \cong [X, \Omega Y]$ and the group object structure of ΩY .

PROOF. For any given $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, the existence and uniqueness of a suitable cogroup object structure on ΣX can be deduced from Proposition 67.17 after *defining* the group structure of each $[\Sigma X, Y]$ for each $Y \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ to match that of $[X, \Omega Y]$, and then observing that for each pointed map $f : Y \rightarrow Z$, the induced map

$$[\Sigma X, Y] \xrightarrow{f_*} [\Sigma X, Z]$$

is a group homomorphism, which follows via adjunction from the fact that $\Omega f : \Omega Y \rightarrow \Omega Z$ is a morphism of group objects in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. $\square$

It is not hard to write down explicit structure morphisms

$$\Sigma X \xrightarrow{\mu} \Sigma X \vee \Sigma X, \quad \Sigma X \xrightarrow{\epsilon} *, \quad \Sigma X \xrightarrow{\iota} \Sigma X$$

that satisfy the condition demanded by Proposition 67.18. For ϵ there is no choice to be made, since there is only one pointed map to $*$, and we can take ι to be the inversion map

$$[(x, t)] \mapsto [(x, 1 - t)],$$

which appeared in Exercise 66.2 for proving the main theorem about the Puppe cofiber sequence. The map μ is best described with a picture, or perhaps by abusing an American football: imagine the reduced suspension ΣX as the football, which has a seam from one end to the other that one should imagine is collapsed to a point in the definition of ΣX . If you now draw a circle around the midpoint of the football and squeeze that circle to a point, the result looks like two footballs glued together at matching tips, also known as $\Sigma X \vee \Sigma X$. Viewing the abused football in this way as either $\Sigma X \vee \Sigma X$ or a certain quotient of ΣX , $\mu : \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma X \vee \Sigma X$ becomes the quotient projection.

One checks easily from these formulas that for every pointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, the induced map $\Sigma f : \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma Y$ commutes with the cogroup structure morphisms, thus producing a lift of $\Sigma : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ to $\mathbf{CoGrp}(\mathbf{hTop}_*)$ as stated in Proposition 67.18.

67.3. Commutativity. The one detail of Theorem 67.1 remaining to be proved is that the groups $[Q, \Omega^n X]$ and $[\Sigma^n X, Q]$ are abelian for every $n \geq 2$. This turns out to be related to another issue that is raised by the adjunction relation between Σ and Ω ; here are two examples to illustrate it.

EXAMPLE 67.19. For any pointed space X , we have two equivalent constructions of the group structure on $\pi_1(X) = [S^1, X] \cong [\Sigma S^0, X] \cong [S^0, \Omega X]$:

- (i) Using the cogroup object structure $\Sigma S^0 \xrightarrow{\mu} \Sigma S^0 \vee \Sigma S^0$ defines the product of two homotopy classes of pointed maps $\alpha, \beta : \Sigma S^0 \rightarrow X$ as

$$[\alpha][\beta] := [(\alpha \vee \beta) \circ \mu].$$

You will find if you inspect the definitions and the explicit description of μ given in the previous section that this matches the standard definition of multiplication on $\pi_1(X)$ via concatenation of loops.

- (ii) Using the group object structure $\Omega X \times \Omega X \xrightarrow{m} \Omega X$ defines the product of two homotopy classes of pointed maps $\alpha, \beta : S^0 \rightarrow \Omega X$ as

$$[\alpha][\beta] := [m \circ (\alpha, \beta)].$$

We intentionally defined $\mu : \Sigma S^0 \rightarrow \Sigma S^0 \vee \Sigma S^0$ so as to make these two products identical.

EXAMPLE 67.20. Things are more complicated for $\pi_2(X) = [S^2, X] \cong [\Sigma^2 S^0, X] \cong [\Sigma S^0, \Omega X] \cong [S^0, \Omega^2 X]$, because we can think of two ways of defining products that are not obviously equivalent. Since $[S^0, \Omega^2 X]$ has an obvious identification with the set of path-components of $\Omega^2 X$, we can use elements of $\Omega^2 X$ as representatives, and think of these as maps

$$\alpha : (I^2, \partial I^2) \rightarrow (X, *),$$

where for each $s \in I$, $\alpha(s)$ denotes the loop $t \mapsto \alpha(s, t)$.

- (a) Using the usual recipe to make $\Omega^2 X = \Omega(\Omega X)$ into a group object defines a product $\otimes$ on $\pi_2(X)$ by concatenation of loops in ΩX , which means concatenation of maps $I^2 \rightarrow X$ with respect to the s variable, treating the t variable as an extra parameter. Equivalently, this is the product on $[\Sigma S^0, \Omega X]$ arising from the fact that ΣS^0 is a cogroup object.
- (b) We could instead use the group object structure of ΩX to define one on $\Omega^2 X$ via Proposition 67.10 using the covariant functor $\Omega : \mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$, hence

$$\Omega^2 X \times \Omega^2 X \cong \Omega(\Omega X \times \Omega X) \xrightarrow{\Omega m} \Omega(\Omega X) = \Omega^2 X.$$

Elements of ΩX are functions of the t variable, so this defines a product $\boxtimes$ on $\pi_2(X)$ that concatenates maps $I^2 \rightarrow X$ with respect to t while treating s as an extra parameter. Equivalently, this product on $[\Sigma S^0, \Omega X]$ arises from the fact that ΩX is a group object, ignoring the fact that ΣS^0 is a cogroup object.

LEMMA 67.21. *The products $\otimes$ and $\boxtimes$ on $\pi_2(X)$ described in Example 67.20 satisfy the relation*

$$(67.7) \quad (\alpha \otimes \beta) \boxtimes (\gamma \otimes \delta) = (\alpha \boxtimes \gamma) \otimes (\beta \boxtimes \delta).$$

PROOF. Partition the square I^2 into four congruent squares of side length $1/2$, and imagine parametrizing α on the top-left square of the partition, β on the top-right square, γ on the bottom-left and δ on the bottom-right. The product $\otimes$ is defined by gluing together two squares that are side-by-side, while $\boxtimes$ is defined by gluing together squares positioned one above the other. In this way, the map determined by $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ on the whole square can be viewed as either side of (67.7), depending on whether one chooses to concatenate horizontally and then vertically or the other way around. $\square$

LEMMA 67.22. *If G is a set with two group products $\otimes$ and $\boxtimes$ related by the formula (67.7), then the two products are identical and are commutative.*

PROOF. Let $e_{\otimes}, e_{\boxtimes} \in G$ denote the identity elements with respect to $\otimes$ and $\boxtimes$ respectively. For any $\alpha \in G$, we then have

$$\alpha = \alpha \boxtimes e_{\boxtimes} = (\alpha \otimes e_{\otimes}) \boxtimes (e_{\otimes} \otimes e_{\boxtimes}) = (\alpha \boxtimes e_{\otimes}) \otimes (e_{\otimes} \boxtimes e_{\boxtimes}) = (\alpha \boxtimes e_{\otimes}) \otimes e_{\otimes} = \alpha \boxtimes e_{\otimes},$$

proving that $e_{\otimes} = e_{\boxtimes} =: e$. With this knowledge, we can take any $\alpha, \beta \in G$ and compute

$$\alpha \boxtimes \beta = (\alpha \otimes e) \boxtimes (e \otimes \beta) = (\alpha \boxtimes e) \otimes (e \boxtimes \beta) = \alpha \otimes \beta,$$

showing that $\boxtimes$ and $\otimes$ are the same product. Applying (67.7) one more time, we also have

$$\alpha \boxtimes \beta = (e \otimes \alpha) \boxtimes (\beta \otimes e) = (e \boxtimes \beta) \otimes (\alpha \otimes e) = \beta \otimes \alpha,$$

hence the two identical products are also commutative. $\square$

As the next result shows, what we are describing here is a much more general phenomenon.

THEOREM 67.23. *Suppose X is a cogroup object and Y is a group object in some category $\mathcal{A}$. Then the group products $\otimes$ and $\boxtimes$ defined on $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Y)$ via the cogroup structure of X or the group structure of Y respectively are the same, and they are commutative.*

PROOF. Given four morphisms $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{A}}(X, Y)$, we can construct a morphism

$$X \coprod X \xrightarrow{F} Y \times Y$$

as $F := (\alpha \coprod \beta, \gamma \coprod \delta)$, which can equivalently be written as $(\alpha, \gamma) \coprod (\beta, \delta)$. Composing it with the cogroup morphism $\mu : X \rightarrow X \coprod X$ and group morphism $m : Y \times Y \rightarrow Y$ and writing $(m \circ F) \circ \mu = m \circ (F \circ \mu)$ then produces the two sides of the identity (67.7). $\square$

CONCLUSION OF THE PROOF OF THEOREM 67.1. Groups of the form $[X, \Omega^n Y]$ for $n \geq 2$ can be identified via adjunction with $[\Sigma X, \Omega(\Omega^{n-2} Y)]$. Since ΣX is a cogroup object and $\Omega(\Omega^{n-2} Y)$ is a group object, Theorem 67.23 implies that $[\Sigma X, \Omega(\Omega^{n-2} Y)]$ is abelian. A similar argument works for $[\Sigma^n X, Y]$ whenever $n \geq 2$. $\square$

67.4. Exercises.

EXERCISE 67.1 (*). Verify the following two claims about group and cogroup objects in a category $\mathcal{A}$ and the group structures that they induce on sets of morphisms:

- (a) For any group object X and morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$, the induced map $f^* : \text{Hom}(Z, X) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(Y, X)$ is a group homomorphism.
- (b) For any cogroup object X and morphism $f : Y \rightarrow Z$, the induced map $f_* : \text{Hom}(X, Y) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(X, Z)$ is a group homomorphism.

EXERCISE 67.2. Show that if $(X, \mu, \epsilon, \iota)$ is a cogroup object in Set_* or Top_* , then X is a set of one point.

Hint: Deduce from the co-inverse axiom that $\mu : X \rightarrow X \vee X$ is a constant map.

EXERCISE 67.3. As mentioned in Remark 67.8, an *H-space* (X, m, e) is a pointed space X equipped with homotopy classes of pointed maps $m : X \times X \rightarrow X$ and $e : * \rightarrow X$ that satisfy the *Identity* axiom in Definition 67.4. In other words, an H-space has a multiplication operation that is defined up to homotopy, and a multiplicative identity, but the multiplication need not be associative (even up to homotopy) and inverses need not exist. Clearly, group objects in hTop_* are also H-spaces, but H-spaces are more general objects. Topological groups are also H-spaces, since group objects in Top_* are also group objects in hTop_* .

- (a) Describe the algebraic structure that the pointed homotopy set $[Q, X]$ inherits for any pointed space Q if X is an H-space.
- (b) Prove that if Q is a cogroup object in hTop_* , the group $[Q, X]$ is abelian whenever X is an H-space. Deduce from this the well-known theorem that $\pi_1(X)$ is abelian for every topological group.

EXERCISE 67.4 (*). Fill in the gaps in the proof of Proposition 67.13, characterizing group object structures on $X \in \mathcal{A}$ in terms of lifts of the functor $\text{Hom}(\cdot, X) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \text{Set}$ to Grp . If for some reason you still don't have enough to do after that, write down the proof of the dual result on cogroup object structures, Proposition 67.17.

68. The higher homotopy groups

It is finally time to give official definitions for the groups $\pi_n(X)$ and prove some of their fundamental properties.

68.1. Main definitions. I think you are already familiar with the definition

$$\pi_n(X) := [S^n, X]_+, \quad n \geq 0$$

for pointed spaces $X \in \text{Top}_*$, which requires making an arbitrary choice of base point $*$ in S^n in the sphere. For $n \geq 1$, one can equivalently identify S^n with the quotient space $\mathbb{D}^n / S^{n-1}$, which has the equivalence class of $S^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ as a natural base point, and thus think of $\pi_n(X)$ as a set of homotopy classes of maps of pairs,

$$\pi_n(X) := [\mathbb{D}^n / S^{n-1}, X]_+ \cong [(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}), (X, *)]_o, \quad n \geq 1.$$

Both versions of the definition are useful for intuition, and we will therefore refer to them frequently; they are completely adequate if one is content to define $\pi_n(X)$ only as a pointed set. But for $n \geq 1$, $\pi_n(X)$ is also naturally a group, and it is abelian for $n \geq 2$, facts which the definitions above do not

make especially obvious. We will adopt as our “official” definition of $\pi_n(X)$ a variant that makes this algebraic structure clearer to see. To this end, it will be convenient to replace $S^0 = \partial\mathbb{D}^1 = \{1, -1\}$ with $\partial I = \{0, 1\}$, which we regard as a pointed space with $0 \in \partial I$ as the base point. The reduced suspension of ∂I has a natural identification with $I/\partial I$, which is of course homeomorphic to S^1 , and by induction on n , we find that the n -fold reduced suspension of ∂I is naturally homeomorphic to $I^n/\partial I^n \cong S^n$, which has a natural choice of base point, namely the equivalence class of the boundary of the cube. With this understood, here is the official definition:

DEFINITION 68.1. For any pointed space $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and integer $n \geq 0$, we define

$$\pi_n(X) := [\Sigma_+^n(\partial I), X]_+,$$

which is a pointed set for all n , and is also a group for $n \geq 1$, due to the natural cogroup object structure of the suspension. More concretely, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_0(X) &= [\partial I, X]_+, \\ \pi_n(X) &= [I^n/\partial I^n, X]_+ = [(I^n, \partial I^n), (X, *)]_\circ, \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.\end{aligned}$$

REMARK 68.2. For all discussions involving homotopy groups, it will be convenient to adopt the convention that S^0 is *defined* as $\partial I = \{0, 1\}$, so that Definition 68.1 can be rewritten as

$$\pi_n(X) := [\Sigma_+^n S^0, X]_+, \quad n \geq 0.$$

The plus subscripts will be dropped from now on whenever possible, since we are *always* working in the pointed category unless otherwise specified.

For $n = 1$, Definition 68.1 reproduces one version of the definition of the fundamental group that you saw in Topology I, since pointed maps $I/\partial I \rightarrow X$ are equivalent to paths $I \rightarrow X$ that begin and end at the base point. Example 67.19 in the previous lecture also shows that the group structure on $\pi_1(X)$ obtained via the cogroup object morphisms of $I/\partial I \cong \Sigma(\partial I)$ can be interpreted as concatenation of paths. One extrapolates from Example 67.20 a similar description of the group structure on $\pi_n(X)$ for each $n \geq 2$: explicitly, representing elements $[f] \in \pi_n(X)$ via maps of pairs $f : (I^n, \partial I^n) \rightarrow (X, *)$, the product of two elements $[f], [g] \in \pi_n(X)$ can be represented via a map

$$I^n \rightarrow X : (t_1, \dots, t_n) \mapsto \begin{cases} f(2t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \leq 1/2, \\ g(2t_1 - 1, t_2, \dots, t_n) & \text{if } t_1 \geq 1/2, \end{cases}$$

i.e. concatenation with respect to the first coordinate on the cube. A novel feature when $n \geq 2$ is that there are also $n - 1$ other natural ways to express this product: the one described above arises by using adjunction to write $\pi_n(X) = [\Sigma^n S^0, X] \cong [S^0, \Omega(\Omega^{n-1}X)]$ and then using the natural group object structure of the loop space $\Omega(\Omega^{n-1}X)$, or equivalently, the natural cogroup object structure of the suspension ΣS^0 if we instead write it as $[\Sigma S^0, \Omega^{n-1}X]$. If we instead use the group object structure of the loop space $\Omega(\Omega^{n-2}X)$ to make $[\Sigma S^0, \Omega(\Omega^{n-2}X)]$ into a group, we get a cosmetically different description of its product, and there are in total n distinct ways to do this, corresponding to different choices of variables on I^n that we can single out for concatenation. By Theorem 67.23, all n of these products on $\pi_n(X)$ are identical, and they are also commutative, hence $\pi_n(X)$ is an abelian group when $n \geq 2$. In the situation at hand, one can see this more explicitly, without needing to cite such a general result as Theorem 67.23: by moving small n -cubes around inside of the unit cube I^n , it is not difficult to show that concatenating two maps $f, g : (I, \partial I) \rightarrow (X, *)$ with respect to different variables leads to homotopic maps, and so does reversing their order if $n \geq 2$ (see Figure 48).

In contrast, $\pi_0(X)$ really is *only* a pointed set and not a group in general—it has an obvious identification with the set of path-components of X , with the path-component of the base point serving as a distinguished element. In theoretical terms, the lack of a group structure on $\pi_0(X)$ is

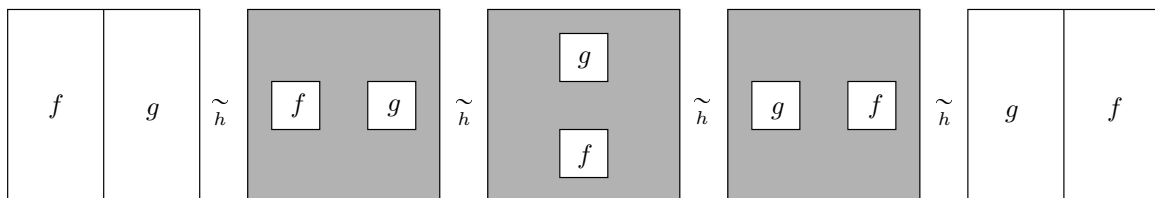


FIGURE 48. A homotopy to demonstrate the reason why $\pi_2(X)$ is abelian. A similar trick works for $\pi_n(X)$ with any $n \geq 2$, but not for $n = 1$.

attributable to the fact that it is the only example of $\pi_n(X)$ in which no suspension or loop space functor appears. On the other hand, even though S^0 is not a cogroup object in any natural way, there are situations in which $\pi_0(X) = [S^0, X]$ will nonetheless have a natural group structure; see Exercise 68.1.

The homotopy groups define functors

$$\mathrm{Top}_* \xrightarrow{\pi_n} \begin{cases} \mathrm{Set}_* & \text{for } n \geq 0, \\ \mathrm{Grp} & \text{for } n \geq 1, \\ \mathrm{Ab} & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

in a fairly obvious way: a pointed map $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ induces the map

$$\pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} \pi_n(Y) : [f] \mapsto [\varphi \circ f],$$

which is a group homomorphism for $n \geq 1$. Since elements of $\pi_n(X)$ are pointed homotopy classes, this functor also descends to a functor defined on $\mathbf{hTop}_*$.

68.2. Relative groups and the long exact sequence. We would now like to extend π_n to a sequence of functors on $\mathrm{Top}_*^{\mathrm{rel}}$, the category of **pointed pairs**, meaning pairs of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathrm{Top}^{\mathrm{rel}}$ equipped with a base point $* \in A$. You've seen how homology works, so it will not surprise you to learn that there is a long exact sequence relating the groups $\pi_n(X)$, $\pi_n(A)$ and $\pi_n(X, A)$ for every pointed pair (X, A) . We will derive that sequence from the Puppe fiber sequence, from which one can also deduce the correct definition of $\pi_n(X, A)$.

Consider a pointed pair of spaces (X, A) , with pointed inclusion map $j : A \hookrightarrow X$. The Puppe fiber sequence of $j : A \hookrightarrow X$ takes the form

$$\dots \longrightarrow \Omega^2 X \longrightarrow \Omega F(j) \longrightarrow \Omega A \xrightarrow{\Omega j} \Omega X \longrightarrow F(j) \longrightarrow A \xrightarrow{j} X,$$

which gives rise to an exact sequence of pointed homotopy sets

$$\dots [S^0, \Omega^2 X] \longrightarrow [S^0, \Omega F(j)] \longrightarrow [S^0, \Omega A] \xrightarrow{(\Omega j)_*} [S^0, \Omega X] \longrightarrow [S^0, F(j)] \longrightarrow [S^0, A] \xrightarrow{j_*} [S^0, X].$$

Using adjunction to change Ω into Σ wherever it appears, this sequence becomes

$$(68.1) \quad \dots \longrightarrow \pi_2(X) \longrightarrow \pi_1(F(j)) \longrightarrow \pi_1(A) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_1(X) \longrightarrow \pi_0(F(j)) \longrightarrow \pi_0(A) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_0(X).$$

The entire sequence is exact in the category Set_* ; removing the last three terms makes it also an exact sequence in Grp , and all of the groups from $\pi_2(X)$ backwards are abelian. The maps to and from the terms $\pi_n(F(j)) = [\Sigma^n S^0, F(j)]$ are induced by the natural inclusion $i_j : \Omega X \hookrightarrow F(j)$ and projection $p_j : F(j) \rightarrow A$ respectively, where making sense of the former requires rewriting $\pi_{n+1}(X) = [\Sigma^{n+1} S^0, X]$ as $[\Sigma^n S^0, \Omega X]$.

The terms $\pi_n(F(j))$ in (68.1) deserve closer scrutiny. Since $j : A \hookrightarrow X$ is an inclusion, we can identify the homotopy fiber $F(j)$ with the space

$$F(j) = \{\gamma \in X^I \mid \gamma(0) \in A \text{ and } \gamma(1) = *\} \subset X^I,$$

which makes $i_j : \Omega X \rightarrow F(j) \subset X^I$ the obvious inclusion and $p_j : F(j) \rightarrow A$ the restriction to $F(j)$ of the map $\text{ev}_0 : X^I \rightarrow X : \gamma \mapsto \gamma(0)$. Representing elements of $\pi_n(F(j))$ via maps $I^n \rightarrow X^I$ which satisfy certain constraints, they are equivalent via adjunction to maps $\alpha : I^{n+1} = I^n \times I \rightarrow X$ that satisfy

$$\alpha(\partial I^n \times I) = \{*\},$$

which ensures that the corresponding map $I^n \rightarrow X^I$ sends ∂I^n to the base point of $F(j) \subset X^I$, and also

$$\alpha(I^n \times \{0\}) \subset A, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha(I^n \times \{1\}) = \{*\},$$

which make the map $I^n \rightarrow X^I$ take values in $F(j) \subset X^I$. We can rewrite this more succinctly after noticing that one of the boundary faces $I^n \times \{0\} \subset \partial I^{n+1}$ of the cube evidently plays a special role, so let us identify

$$I^n := I^n \times \{0\} \subset \partial I^{n+1} \subset I^{n+1},$$

and denote the closure of the union of the rest of the boundary faces of I^{n+1} by

$$J^n := \overline{\partial I^{n+1} \setminus I^n},$$

so that $I^n \cap J^n = \partial I^n$. We have now identified $\pi_n(F(j))$ with the set of homotopy classes of maps $I^{n+1} \rightarrow X$ that send ∂I^{n+1} into A and the subset $J^n \subset \partial I^{n+1}$ to the base point, in short,

$$\pi_{n+1}(X, A) := [(I^{n+1}, \partial I^{n+1}, J^n), (X, A, *)]_{\circ} \cong [(I^{n+1}/J^n, \partial I^{n+1}/J^n), (X, A)]_+.$$

Since the inclusion $I^n \hookrightarrow \partial I^{n+1}$ descends to a homeomorphism $I^n/\partial I^n \xrightarrow{\cong} \partial I^{n+1}/J^n$, an equivalent definition takes the form

$$\pi_{n+1}(X, A) := [(I^{n+1}/J^n, I^n/\partial I^n), (X, A)]_+.$$

This is our official definition of the **relative homotopy groups** of the pointed pair $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$. Since it can be identified canonically with $\pi_n(F(j))$, it makes sense for every $n \geq 0$ and is a group for $n \geq 1$, abelian for $n \geq 2$; that is, $\pi_n(X, A)$ is defined as a pointed set for every $n \geq 1$, has a natural group structure for every $n \geq 2$ and is abelian for every $n \geq 3$. The group structure can be described via concatenation in any of the first n variables on the cube I^{n+1} ; variable $n+1$ is not appropriate for this purpose, because it does not come from the n -fold suspension $\Sigma^n S^0$ appearing in $\pi_n(F(j)) = [\Sigma^n S^0, F(j)]$, but rather from the homotopy fiber $F(j)$ itself, and this is why $\pi_1(X, A)$ has no natural group structure. Note that there is no general definition of $\pi_0(X, A)$. Note also that if $A \subset X$ is taken to be the one-point set $A := \{*\}$, then the definition of $\pi_n(X, A)$ reproduces the absolute group $\pi_n(X)$, hence

$$\pi_n(X, \{*\}) = \pi_n(X)$$

for all $n \geq 1$. This is the analogue for homotopy groups of the fact that the relative homology groups $H_*(X, \emptyset)$ match the absolute groups $H_*(X)$.

One obtains a nicer geometric picture of $\pi_n(X, A)$ from the observation that there is a homeomorphism of pointed pairs

$$(I^n/J^{n-1}, I^{n-1}/\partial I^{n-1}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$$

for any choice of base point $* \in S^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}^n \subset \mathbb{D}^n$. A construction of such a homeomorphism is illustrated in Figure 49: the idea is to choose a point in the interior of I^n to identify with the center of $\mathbb{D}^n$, and then foliate the rest of the interior of I^n by an S^{n-1} -parametrized family of

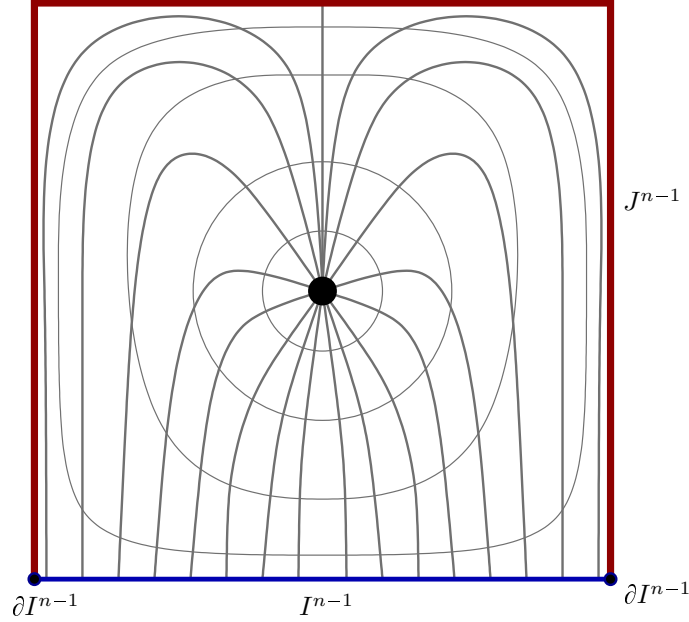


FIGURE 49. A homeomorphism of pointed pairs $(I^n/J^{n-1}, I^{n-1}/\partial I^{n-1}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$.

radial paths emerging from that point and ending on ∂I^n , with exactly one path ending on J^{n-1} , while the rest end in the interior of I^{n-1} . This turns $\pi_n(X, A)$ into

$$\pi_n(X, A) \cong [(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}), (X, A)]_+,$$

which motivates the notation for $\pi_n(X, A)$ as a generalization of $\pi_n(X)$. The only reason not to make this the official definition of $\pi_n(X, A)$ is that from this perspective, we do not clearly see any suspensions or loop spaces, making it less obvious what the group structure of $\pi_n(X, A)$ should be (for $n \geq 2$).

There is again an obvious way to regard π_n for each $n \geq 1$ as a functor

$$\mathrm{Top}_*^{\mathrm{rel}} \xrightarrow{\pi_n} \begin{cases} \mathrm{Set}_* & \text{for } n \geq 1, \\ \mathrm{Grp} & \text{for } n \geq 2, \\ \mathrm{Ab} & \text{for } n \geq 3 \end{cases},$$

with pointed maps of pairs $\varphi : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ giving rise to maps

$$\pi_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} \pi_n(Y, B) : [f] \mapsto [\varphi \circ f].$$

The conclusion of this discussion is that for any pointed pair (X, A) with inclusion $j : A \hookrightarrow X$, there is a natural long exact sequence

$$(68.2) \quad \begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \pi_3(X) &\xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_3(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_2(A) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_2(X) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_2(X, A) \\ &\xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_1(A) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_1(X) \xrightarrow{i_*} \pi_1(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_0(A) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_0(X), \end{aligned}$$

in which the last three terms are in general only pointed sets,¹⁰⁴ but the rest are groups, all abelian from $\pi_2(X)$ backwards. The maps $i_* : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, A)$ in this sequence are what you think

¹⁰⁴Don't let the subscript on $\pi_1(X, A)$ fool you into thinking that it is a group!

they should be (see Exercise 68.2). The maps $\partial_* : \pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A)$ are $(p_j)_* : \pi_n(X, A) = \pi_{n-1}(F(j)) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A)$, induced by $p_j = \text{ev}_0 : F(j) \rightarrow A$, so explicitly, if we identify I^{n-1} with $I^{n-1} \times \{0\} \subset \partial I^n$ in order to represent an element $[\alpha] \in \pi_n(X, A)$ as a homotopy class of maps $\alpha : (I^n, \partial I^n, \partial I^n \setminus I^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A, *)$, then

$$\partial_*[\alpha] = [\alpha|_{I^{n-1}}] \in [(I^{n-1}, \partial I^{n-1}), (A, *)] = \pi_{n-1}(A).$$

Choosing a homeomorphism

$$(68.3) \quad (I^n / J^{n-1}, I^{n-1} / \partial I^{n-1}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$$

so as to represent $[\alpha] \in \pi_n(X, A)$ via a pointed map of pairs $\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ puts this formula in the more appealing form

$$\partial_*[\alpha] = [\alpha|_{\partial \mathbb{D}^n}] \in [S^{n-1}, A] = \pi_{n-1}(A).$$

68.3. Serre fibrations. Recall from §66.3 that for a pointed fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ with fiber inclusion $F := p^{-1}(*) \xrightarrow{j} E$, there is a special version of the Puppe cofiber sequence that has the homotopy fiber $F(p)$ replaced by F :

$$\dots \longrightarrow \Omega^2 E \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 p} \Omega^2 B \xrightarrow{\Omega \delta} \Omega F \xrightarrow{\Omega j} \Omega E \xrightarrow{\Omega p} \Omega B \xrightarrow{\delta} F \xrightarrow{j} E \xrightarrow{p} B.$$

Here, the map $\delta : \Omega B \rightarrow F$ is determined up to homotopy by the homotopy lifting property: it is $\tilde{\text{ev}}_1 : \Omega B \rightarrow E$ for any pointed lift $\tilde{\text{ev}} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow E$ of the homotopy $\text{ev} : \Omega B \times I \rightarrow B : (\gamma, t) \mapsto \gamma(t)$ such that $\tilde{\text{ev}}_0$ is constant. Applying the functor $[S^0, \cdot]$ to this homotopy fiber sequence and then adjunction to replace Ω with Σ , we obtain a long exact sequence of homotopy groups

$$(68.4) \quad \begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \pi_3(B) &\xrightarrow{\ell_*} \pi_2(F) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_2(E) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_2(B) \xrightarrow{\ell_*} \pi_1(F) \\ &\xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_1(E) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_1(B) \xrightarrow{\ell_*} \pi_0(F) \xrightarrow{j_*} \pi_0(E) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_0(B). \end{aligned}$$

If we use adjunction to write

$$\pi_{n+1}(B) = [\Sigma^{n+1} S^0, B] \cong [\Sigma^n S^0, \Omega B] = \pi_n(\Omega B),$$

the connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : \pi_{n+1}(B) \rightarrow \pi_n(F)$ can be expressed as

$$\pi_{n+1}(B) \cong \pi_n(\Omega B) \xrightarrow{\delta_*} \pi_n(F),$$

which concretely means the following. Suppose $[f] \in \pi_{n+1}(B)$ is represented by a map $f : (I^{n+1}, \partial I^{n+1}) \rightarrow (B, *)$, so the equivalent element $[g] \in \pi_n(\Omega B)$ is represented by the map

$$(I^n, \partial I^n) \xrightarrow{g} (\Omega B, *), \quad g(t_1, \dots, t_n)(t) := f(t_1, \dots, t_n, t).$$

Then $\partial_*[f] = [\delta \circ g] \in \pi_n(F)$, where for each $(t_1, \dots, t_n) \in I^n$, $\delta \circ g(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is the end point in F of a lift of the loop $t \mapsto f(t_1, \dots, t_n, t) \in B$ to E starting at the base point, with the additional condition that for $(t_1, \dots, t_n) \in \partial I^n$, the lift is chosen to be constant. Succinctly, the result is

$$\partial_*[f] = [\tilde{f}|_{I^n \times \{1\}}] \in [(I^n, \partial I^n), (F, *)] = \pi_n(F),$$

where $\tilde{f} : I^{n+1} \rightarrow E$ is a solution to the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} I^n \times \{0\} \cup \partial I^n \times I & \xrightarrow{\text{const}_*} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \downarrow p \\ I^{n+1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

Solutions to this lifting problem exist, because it can be expressed equivalently as the pointed homotopy lifting property with respect to $I^n / \partial I^n$. Using a pointed homeomorphism as in (68.3),

one finds another description of $\partial_* : \pi_{n+1}(B) \rightarrow \pi_n(F)$ as follows: if $[f] \in \pi_{n+1}(B)$ is represented by a map of pairs $f : (\mathbb{D}^{n+1}, S^n) \rightarrow (B, *)$, then after fixing a base point $*$ in S^n , one has

$$\partial_*[f] = [\tilde{f}|_{\partial\mathbb{D}^{n+1}}] \in [S^n, F] \cong \pi_n(F),$$

where $\tilde{f} : \mathbb{D}^{n+1} \rightarrow E$ is a pointed map solving the lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & E \\ & \nearrow \tilde{f} & \downarrow p \\ \mathbb{D}^{n+1} & \xrightarrow{f} & B \end{array}$$

One can use the transport functor to show that these descriptions characterize $\partial_* : \pi_{n+1}(B) \rightarrow \pi_n(F)$ uniquely.

In applications, it is sometimes useful to note that the definition of $\partial_* : \pi_{n+1}(B) \rightarrow \pi_n(F)$ described above does not actually require $p : E \rightarrow B$ to satisfy the homotopy lifting property with respect to *all* spaces—in fact, it suffices if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a *Serre* fibration, and thus has the homotopy lifting property with respect to CW-complexes, such as $I^n/\partial I^n$. We will not carry out the details here, but the following theorem can be proved via a fairly direct argument, independently of the general homotopy-theoretic results of the previous lectures. For *Hurewicz* fibrations (which satisfy the homotopy lifting property without restriction), the theorem also follows from our previous results about the Puppe sequences.

THEOREM 68.3. *The sequence (68.4) is exact for all Serre fibrations.* $\square$

68.4. Some computations. Higher homotopy groups are generally not as easy to compute as homology groups, e.g. there is no straightforward algorithm to compute them for CW-complexes. But one has to start somewhere, so here are a few examples to start with.

EXAMPLE 68.4. The groups $\pi_n(S^1)$ are trivial for all $n \geq 2$, and this is true more generally for *any* space whose universal cover is contractible. That is because S^n is simply connected for $n \geq 2$, so by the lifting theorem, all maps $S^n \rightarrow S^1$ lift to the universal cover, so that a contraction of the universal cover can be used to produce a homotopy to a constant map.

EXAMPLE 68.5. Using some technology to be developed in a few lectures, we will see that

$$\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}, \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N},$$

a result which you already know at least for $n = 1$. The following observation shows that $\pi_n(S^n)$ is also nontrivial for $n \geq 2$, and must in fact be *at least* as large as $\mathbb{Z}$: for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \geq 1$, there exists a map $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ whose mapping degree is k . Indeed, maps $f : S^n \rightarrow S^n$ with different degrees cannot be freely homotopic, and therefore also not pointed homotopic. For $n \geq 2$, the distinction between free and pointed homotopy classes disappears in any case since S^n is both well pointed and simply connected (see Corollary 65.18).

EXAMPLE 68.6. For $0 \leq k < n$, $\pi_k(S^n) = 0$ because every map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ with $k < n$ is homotopic to one that is not surjective, and therefore has its image in the contractible space $S^n \setminus \{*\} \cong \mathbb{R}^n$. The fact that f is homotopic to something non-surjective is not as obvious as it sounds, but here are two ways that one can see it: (1) By the simplicial approximation theorem (see Theorem 32.17 from last semester), if one triangulates both S^n and S^k and chooses a sufficiently fine subdivision of the triangulation on S^k , f will be homotopic to a simplicial map, which cannot be surjective since it maps all of S^k into the k -skeleton of S^n . (2) By standard perturbation results in differential topology (see e.g. [Hir94]), every continuous map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$ can be perturbed to a smooth map $f : S^k \rightarrow S^n$, for which Sard's theorem implies that almost every point $q \in S^n$ is a

regular value of f . The latter means that the derivative of f is surjective at every point in $f^{-1}(q)$, and when $n > k$, this can only be true if $f^{-1}(q)$ is empty.

EXAMPLE 68.7 (the Hopf fibration). Identifying S^{2n+1} with the unit sphere in $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} = \mathbb{R}^{2n+2}$ for $n \geq 1$, the quotient projection $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ restricts to the sphere as a fibration

$$S^{2n+1} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{CP}^n,$$

known as the **Hopf fibration**. The fact that this is a fibration will follow from general results about fiber bundles to be proved later in this semester. The fibers of $p : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ are homeomorphic to S^1 , thus the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for this fibration has a segment of the form

$$\pi_{2n+1}(S^1) \longrightarrow \pi_{2n+1}(S^{2n+1}) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_{2n+1}(\mathbb{CP}^n) \longrightarrow \pi_{2n}(S^1),$$

in which the first and last terms both vanish by Example 68.4, thus giving rise to an isomorphism

$$\pi_{2n+1}(\mathbb{CP}^n) \cong \pi_{2n+1}(S^{2n+1}) \neq 0.$$

This is noteworthy because $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is a manifold of real dimension $2n$, so this result stands in marked contrast to what happens in homology, where $H_k(M)$ vanishes for every manifold M of dimension less than k .

68.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 68.1. Recall from Exercise 67.3 that $\pi_1(X)$ is abelian whenever G is a group object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. Under the same assumption, $\pi_0(X) = [S^0, X]$ also has a natural group structure. Describe this group structure explicitly in the case where X is a topological group, viewing $\pi_0(X)$ as the set of path-components of X .

EXERCISE 68.2 (*). Here are a couple of gaps to fill in our discussion of the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups:

- Show that under the natural identification of the relative homotopy group $\pi_n(X, \{*\})$ with the absolute group $\pi_n(X)$ for each $n \geq 1$, the maps $\pi_n(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, A)$ appearing in the long exact sequence become the maps induced by the inclusion of pointed pairs $(X, \{*\}) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$.
- Convince yourself that the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups is natural with respect to morphisms in $\mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$.

EXERCISE 68.3. For any path-connected covering map $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ of a pointed space X , give two proofs that the induced homomorphism

$$\pi_n(\tilde{X}) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_n(X)$$

is an isomorphism for each $n \geq 2$ and is injective for $n = 1$. Use covering space theory for the first proof, and the long exact sequence of a fibration for the second.

EXERCISE 68.4. For a pointed fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ with fiber $F := p^{-1}(*) \subset E$, there is a pointed map of pairs $p : (E, F) \rightarrow (B, \{*\})$ which (in light of Exercise 68.2(b)) induces a map

$$\pi_n(E, F) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_n(B)$$

for each $n \geq 1$. Show that this map is in fact a bijection.

Hint: Many books give a direct proof of this result using the homotopy lifting property, and then use it to deduce the exact sequence of homotopy groups for a fibration from the exact sequence of relative homotopy groups. We have done things the other way around, and you should be able to deduce this isomorphism from the exact sequences.

EXERCISE 68.5. Without using the results of the previous lectures on fibrations and the Puppe sequences, give direct proofs of the exactness of the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for a pointed pair (X, A) and for a Serre fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$.

EXERCISE 68.6. Here are some more computations that can be carried out with the aid of the exact sequence of homotopy groups for a fibration.

- (a) For each $n \geq 1$, there is a fibration

$$\mathrm{SO}(n) \xrightarrow{p} S^{n-1},$$

defined by letting matrices in $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ act linearly on a chosen base point in the unit sphere $S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. A special case of this was mentioned in Exercise 60.6, and I will ask you to take on faith for now that it is a fibration; we will see later that it is a fiber bundle, and all fiber bundles are fibrations. Deduce from it that $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(n)) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ for every $n \geq 3$, and describe a specific loop in $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ that is not nullhomotopic.

Hint: You may want to start by recalling how $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is related to $\mathbb{RP}^3$.

- (b) Regarding S^{2n-1} as the unit sphere in $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{R}^{2n}$, we can let the group $\mathrm{U}(n)$ act linearly on a chosen base point in S^{2n-1} to define a fibration

$$\mathrm{U}(n) \xrightarrow{p} S^{2n-1}$$

for each $n \geq 1$. Deduce from this that $\pi_1(\mathrm{U}(n)) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for every $n \geq 1$, and describe a specific loop that generates the group.

EXERCISE 68.7. Suppose $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a Serre fibration whose fiber inclusion $F \hookrightarrow E$ is pointed homotopic to a constant. Show that $\pi_1(F)$ is abelian and

$$\pi_n(B) \cong \pi_n(E) \oplus \pi_{n-1}(F)$$

for every $n \geq 2$.

Hint: Turn the long exact sequence of homotopy groups into a split short exact sequence. You can construct a splitting out of a homotopy of $F \hookrightarrow E$ to the constant map.

Remark: One obtains some real-life applications of this formula from the quaternionic and octonionic versions of the Hopf fibration

$$S^3 \hookrightarrow S^7 \xrightarrow{p} S^4 \quad \text{and} \quad S^7 \hookrightarrow S^{15} \xrightarrow{p} S^8,$$

which are discussed e.g. in [Hat02, Examples 4.46 and 4.47]. These imply that $\pi_7(S^4)$ and $\pi_{15}(S^8)$ each contain $\mathbb{Z}$ as direct summands.

69. Weak homotopy equivalences

69.1. Statement of Whitehead's theorem. We begin with a definition.

DEFINITION 69.1. An unpointed map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a **weak homotopy equivalence** if for every $x \in X$ and $n \geq 0$, the induced map $f_* : \pi_n(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y, f(x))$ is bijective.

The space S^n with any choice of base point is well pointed, as one can easily show by constructing NDR-presentations (see §65.1), so applying Theorem 65.15 with $Q := S^n$ reveals that every homotopy equivalence in the unpointed category is also a weak homotopy equivalence. In essence, a weak homotopy equivalence is a map that “looks like” a homotopy equivalence as measured by the homotopy groups. The main goal of this lecture is to establish that for CW-complexes, this measurement is good enough:¹⁰⁵

¹⁰⁵Theorem 69.2 is due to J.H.C. Whitehead, the inventor of CW-complexes, who was not apparently related to George Whitehead, the author of [Whi78].

THEOREM 69.2 (Whitehead's theorem). *For two spaces X, Y that are homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes, every weak homotopy equivalence $X \rightarrow Y$ is also a homotopy equivalence.*

A proof of Theorem 69.2 will come near the end of this lecture. One needs to be a bit careful in applying it, because it does *not* say that two CW-complexes with isomorphic homotopy groups in all dimensions must therefore be homotopy equivalent. One only gets this result if one has an actual map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ to induce the isomorphisms. Here is a cautionary counterexample: take $X := S^2 \times \mathbb{RP}^3$ and $Y := \mathbb{RP}^2 \times S^3$. Both are path-connected and have fundamental group $\mathbb{Z}_2$, and they also have the same universal cover $S^2 \times S^3$, implying via Exercise 68.3 that their higher homotopy groups are the same. But by a straightforward Topology 2 exercise, their homologies are different, so they are not homotopy equivalent.

On the other hand, there is at least one popular case in which knowing the homotopy groups are isomorphic suffices, because the choice of map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is obvious:

COROLLARY 69.3. *For any space X with the homotopy type of a CW-complex, X is contractible if and only if $\pi_n(X, x)$ vanishes for all $n \geq 0$ and $x \in X$.*

PROOF. Apply Whitehead's theorem to the unique map $X \rightarrow *$. □

Spaces with vanishing π_n for all $n \geq 0$ are sometimes called **weakly contractible**.

The following example shows that Whitehead's theorem becomes false in general if X and Y are not assumed to be homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes: the **Warsaw circle** (see Figure 50) is a non-contractible space that is nonetheless weakly contractible. To construct it, start with the graph in $\mathbb{R}^2$ of the function $y = \sin(1/x)$ for $0 < x \leq 1$, the so-called *topologist's sine curve*, and take its closure, which includes the compact interval $\{0\} \times [-1, 1]$. Now draw an embedded curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$, starting at the point on the graph with $x = 1$, then circling around to the other side of the y -axis without touching the closure of the graph, and rejoining it at the origin. No continuous path can move through the entirety of the portion of X that contains infinitely-many oscillations, and one can deduce from this that $\pi_n(X) = 0$ for all n . The fastest way I can think of to see that X is not contractible is through the observation that X is the intersection of a nested sequence $X_1 \supset X_2 \supset X_3 \supset \dots \supset X$ of open neighborhoods that are all homotopy equivalent to S^1 , and X can therefore be identified with the inverse limit of this sequence in **Top**. There are invariants in algebraic topology that can detect this fact, because they behave well with respect to inverse limits: singular cohomology is not one of them, but Čech cohomology is, so X cannot be contractible because $\check{H}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \check{H}^1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H^1(S^1; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. A more elementary argument for the non-contractibility of X is outlined in Exercise 69.1.

REMARK 69.4. Since homotopy equivalences are also weak homotopy equivalences, Theorem 69.2 follows immediately if one can prove it under the stricter assumption that X and Y are actual CW-complexes. Allowing spaces that only have the homotopy types of CW-complexes widens the range of applicability, and the theorem is often applied in this form: for example, all topological manifolds have this property, but it is unknown (specifically for non-smoothable manifolds of dimension four) whether all manifolds actually admit cell decompositions. For “infinite-dimensional” spaces such as loop spaces, one cannot reasonably expect a cell decomposition, but Milnor [Mil59] showed for instance that ΩX is homotopy equivalent to a CW-complex with countably-many cells whenever X is. Similarly, combining a result of Palais [Pal66, Theorem 14] with some general properties of CW-complexes (e.g. [Hat02, Prop. A.11]), one finds that most naturally occurring infinite-dimensional manifolds—such as spaces of maps from one smooth manifold to another, or of sections of a smooth fiber bundle—have the homotopy types of CW-complexes.

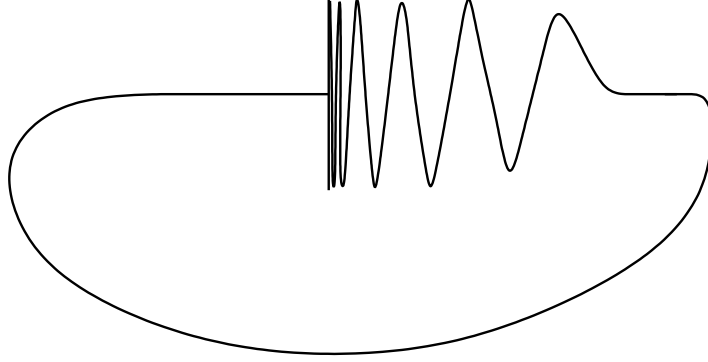


FIGURE 50. The Warsaw circle: a space that is weakly contractible but not contractible.

69.2. Dependence of homotopy groups on base points. Since S^n is well pointed, the results of §65.4 have immediate applications to the absolute homotopy groups $\pi_n(X) = [S^n, X]_+$, and we can repackage them as follows:

THEOREM 69.5. *For any space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, every homotopy class of paths $x \xrightarrow{\gamma} y$ in X determines bijections*

$$\gamma_{\#} : \pi_n(X, x) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(X, y), \quad n \geq 0,$$

which are also group isomorphisms for $n \geq 1$, and are characterized by the condition that for two elements $[f] \in \pi_n(X, x)$ and $[g] \in \pi_n(X, y)$ represented by maps $f, g : S^n \rightarrow X$, $\gamma_{\#}[f] = [g]$ if and only if there exists a free homotopy

$$f \xrightarrow{H} g \quad \text{such that} \quad H(*, \cdot) = \gamma.$$

Moreover, given a space $X \in \mathbf{Top}_$ with a fixed base point, this construction defines a right action of $\pi_1(X)$ on $\pi_n(X)$,*

$$\pi_n(X) \times \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(X) : ([f], [\gamma]) \mapsto [f] \cdot [\gamma] := \gamma_{\#}[f]$$

such that the map $\pi_n(X) \rightarrow [S^n, X]_{\circ}$ defined by forgetting base points descends to an injection

$$\pi_n(X) / \pi_1(X) \hookrightarrow [S^n, X]_{\circ},$$

which is also bijective if X is path-connected.

PROOF. The only detail not covered by the results of §65.4 is that for $n \geq 1$, $\gamma_{\#} : \pi_n(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, y)$ is not just a bijection but also respects the group structure. This follows from a more general result about maps of the form $\gamma_{\#} : [Q, X]_x \rightarrow [Q, X]_y$ when Q is a well-pointed space that is also a cogroup object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$; see Exercise 69.2. $\square$

For a relative analogue of Theorem 69.5, see Exercise 69.3.

69.3. Higher connectedness. For path-connected unpointed spaces $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, Theorem 69.5 justifies abbreviating $\pi_n(X, x)$ for any choice of base point $x \in X$ simply as $\pi_n(X)$, as is already familiar in the case $n = 1$. The condition “ $\pi_n(X) = 0$ ” thus makes sense in this context and is interpreted to mean that $\pi_n(X, x)$ is trivial for every choice of base point $x \in X$. For $n = 0$, we can drop the hypothesis that X is path-connected, and interpret “0” as a synonym for the one-point set, so that “ $\pi_0(X) = 0$ ” becomes another way of saying that X has only one path-component.

DEFINITION 69.6. Assume $n \geq 0$ is an integer, and all spaces and maps below are in the unpointed category.

- (1) A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is an **n -equivalence** if for every choice of base point $x \in X$, writing $y := f(x) \in Y$, the induced map $f_* : \pi_k(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_k(Y, y)$ is bijective for $0 \leq k < n$ and surjective for $k = n$.
- (2) A pair of spaces (X, A) is called **n -connected** if the inclusion map $A \hookrightarrow X$ is an n -equivalence.
- (3) A space X is called **n -connected** if $\pi_k(X) = 0$ for all $k = 0, \dots, n$.

In particular, a space X is 0-connected if and only if it is path-connected, 1-connected if and only if it is simply connected, and n -connected for all $n \geq 0$ if and only if it is weakly contractible. Moreover, a map $X \rightarrow Y$ is an n -equivalence for all $n \geq 0$ if and only if it is a weak homotopy equivalence.

REMARK 69.7. If X is path-connected, then there is no need to mention base points in defining what it means for $f : X \rightarrow Y$ to be an n -equivalence, as the surjection $\pi_0(X) \rightarrow \pi_0(Y)$ forces Y to be path-connected as well. Note however that f can be an n -equivalence without either of X or Y being path-connected, and (X, A) can be n -connected while X and A each have multiple path-components; in such cases, the detail that *all* choices of base points must be allowed is important (see the next remark).

REMARK 69.8. The long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups yields the following equivalent formulation of n -connectedness for a pair of spaces: $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ is n -connected if and only if for all choices of base point $x \in A$, $\pi_k(X, A, x) = 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$ and the map $\pi_0(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_0(X, x)$ induced by the inclusion is surjective. There's a slight subtlety here due to the fact that the last three terms in the long exact sequence are not groups: for any fixed choice of base point $x \in A$, the vanishing of $\pi_1(X, A, x)$ implies that the preimage of the base point under the map $\pi_0(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_0(X, x)$ contains only the base point, but this does not imply in general that the map $\pi_0(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_0(X, x)$ is injective. (Exercise: Find a counterexample!) Inspecting the definitions of these sets, one finds however that $\pi_0(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_0(X, x)$ must indeed be injective if $\pi_1(X, A, x)$ vanishes for *all* choices of $x \in A$. There is of course nothing in the long exact sequence to guarantee the *surjectivity* of $\pi_0(A) \rightarrow \pi_0(X)$, so the latter needs to be mentioned explicitly whenever characterizing n -connected pairs in terms of the relative homotopy groups.

REMARK 69.9. A space X is n -connected if and only if the inclusion $\{x\} \hookrightarrow X$ of each point $x \in X$ is an n -equivalence. Equivalently: X is n -connected if and only if it is path-connected and the inclusion $\{x\} \hookrightarrow X$ of *some* point $x \in X$ is an n -equivalence.

Here is a useful fact you may recall from Topology I: An element $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(X)$ represented by a map $\gamma : S^1 \rightarrow X$ is trivial if and only if the map γ extends from $S^1 = \partial \mathbb{D}^2$ to a continuous map $\mathbb{D}^2 \rightarrow X$. It follows that a path-connected space X is simply connected if and only if every map $S^1 \rightarrow X$ admits an extension over $\mathbb{D}^2$. Let's generalize this statement.

DEFINITION 69.10. Given two spaces X, Y and a subspace $A \subset X$, a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is called a **homotopy rel A** (short for "relative to A ") if the restricted maps $H_t|_A : A \rightarrow Y$ are the same for all $t \in I$. Two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ that match along A are then called **homotopic rel A** if there exists a homotopy rel A between them.

PROPOSITION 69.11. For any space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ or pair of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ and each $n \geq 1$:

- (1) $\pi_n(X, x) = 0$ for every $x \in X$ if and only if every map $S^n = \partial \mathbb{D}^{n+1} \rightarrow X$ admits an extension to $\mathbb{D}^{n+1}$.

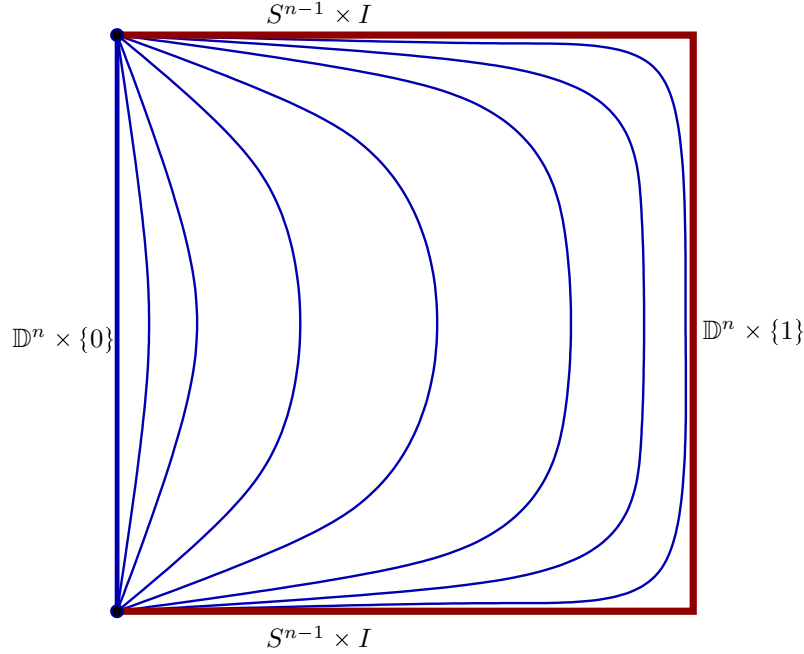


FIGURE 51. Foliating the interior of $\mathbb{D}^n \times I$ by a 1-parameter family of n -disks with identical boundary at $S^{n-1} \times \{0\}$.

- (2) $\pi_n(X, A, x) = 0$ for every $x \in A$ if and only if every map of pairs $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ is homotopic rel S^{n-1} to a map whose image is contained in A .

PROOF. The proof of the first statement is an easy exercise. For the second statement, given $f : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$, choose $x := f(*) \in A$ to make f a pointed map of pairs; the condition $\pi_n(X, A, x) = 0$ then implies that f is homotopic as a pointed map of pairs to the constant map, thus giving a homotopy $H : \mathbb{D}^n \times I \rightarrow X$ such that

$$H|_{\mathbb{D}^n \times \{0\}} = f, \quad H(S^{n-1} \times I) \subset A, \quad \text{and} \quad H|_{\{*\} \times I \cup \mathbb{D}^n \times \{1\}} \equiv x.$$

Now foliate $\mathbb{D}^n \times I$ by a 1-parameter family of n -disks with identical boundary at $S^{n-1} \times \{0\}$ as shown in Figure 51, producing a homotopy from f to

$$g := H|_{S^{n-1} \times I \cup \mathbb{D}^n \times \{1\}},$$

which we can regard as a map $\mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow X$ since $S^{n-1} \times I \cup \mathbb{D}^n \times \{1\} \cong \mathbb{D}^n$. By construction, g has image in A , and each map in the new homotopy matches f at the boundary. The proof of the converse left as an exercise. $\square$

69.4. The compression lemma. The next result gets a large portion of the credit for the fact that homotopy theory is a more tractable subject for CW-complexes than for arbitrary topological spaces. We briefly recall from last semester: a **CW-complex** is a nested union of spaces

$$X^0 \subset X^1 \subset X^2 \subset \dots \subset \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} X^n = X,$$

in which the **0-skeleton** X^0 is a discrete space and, inductively, the **n -skeleton** X^n is constructed by attaching a disjoint union of n -disks $\mathbb{D}^n$ to the $(n-1)$ -skeleton X^{n-1} along specified **attaching maps**

$$\partial\mathbb{D}^n = S^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} X^{n-1}.$$

The interior $e_\alpha^n \subset X^n$ of each n -disk attached in this way is called an **n -cell** of X , and it comes with a **characteristic map**

$$\mathbb{D}^n \xrightarrow{\Phi_\alpha} X^n \subset X$$

that matches φ_α at the boundary and is the inclusion $e_\alpha^n \hookrightarrow X^n$ on the interior. We write $\dim X = n$ if n is the largest dimension of any cells in X , in which case $X = X^n$, and $\dim X = \infty$ if there are cells of arbitrarily large dimension. When $\dim X = \infty$, we need to add a condition specifying the topology of X , namely that a subset $\mathcal{U} \subset X$ is open if and only if $\mathcal{U} \cap X^n$ is an open subset of X^n for every n , which is equivalent to the condition that $\Phi_\alpha^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset \mathbb{D}^n$ is open for the characteristic map of every cell e_α^n of every dimension n . This makes X with the obvious inclusions $\{X^n \hookrightarrow X\}_{n=0}^\infty$ into the direct limit of the direct system in **Top** formed by the skeleta X^n and their inclusions $X^n \hookrightarrow X^m$ for $n \leq m$.

Recall also that a **CW-pair** (X, A) consists of a CW-complex X together with a subcomplex A , meaning a subset $A \subset X$ that is also a CW-complex with n -skeleton $A^n = A \cap X^n$ for all $n \geq 0$, such that every cell in A is also a cell in X with the same characteristic map. For any CW-pair (X, A) , the quotient X/A is naturally also a CW-complex in which the equivalence class of A is a distinguished 0-cell, and the other cells are in bijective correspondence with the cells of X that do not lie in A . The condition “ $\dim(X/A) \leq n$ ” is thus a shorthand way of requiring all cells of X with dimension greater than n to be contained in A .

LEMMA 69.12 (compression lemma). *Assume (X, A) is a CW-pair such that $\dim(X/A) \leq n$ for some integer $n \geq 0$ or $n = \infty$, and assume (Y, B) is an n -connected pair of spaces, meaning in the case $n = \infty$ that it is k -connected for every $k \geq 0$. Then every map of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is homotopic rel A to a map with image in B .*

Before we launch into the proof, here is some useful intuition for the case $n = \infty$, which means that the inclusion $B \hookrightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence. A stronger variant of this hypothesis would be that B is a deformation retract of Y , and the result would then be obvious (and without any assumptions about (X, A)), because we could compose any given map $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ with the deformation retraction. Requiring (X, A) to be a CW-complex instead of an arbitrary pair is the price we pay for weakening the assumption that there is a deformation retraction of Y to B .

PROOF OF LEMMA 69.12. The argument uses a standard technique known as “induction over the skeleta”: one constructs maps on a CW-complex X by starting with its 0-skeleton X^0 and then extending inductively to the other skeleta $X^0 \subset X^1 \subset X^2 \subset \dots \subset X$.

We consider first the case $n = \infty$ and claim that under the stated hypotheses, there exists a sequence of maps $f =: f_{-1}, f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots : X \rightarrow Y$ such that for every k ,

- (1) $f_k(X^k) \subset B$;
- (2) f_k is homotopic rel $X^{k-1} \cup A$ to f_{k-1} .

Note that by convention, $X^{-1} := \emptyset$, so the second condition in the case $k = 0$ means a homotopy rel A . It follows from the second condition that there is a pointwise limit $g := \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g_k : X \rightarrow Y$ which matches f_k on the k -skeleton for each k , and we can construct a homotopy $f \xrightarrow{H} g$ rel A by piecing together the infinite sequence of homotopies $f_{-1} \rightsquigarrow f_0 \rightsquigarrow f_1 \rightsquigarrow \dots$ such that $H(\cdot, 1 - 1/2^k) = f_{k-1}$ for each $k \geq 1$; see Figure 52. The resulting map is continuous because the topology of a CW-complex is defined the way that it is, i.e. the restriction to each finite-dimensional skeleton is continuous.

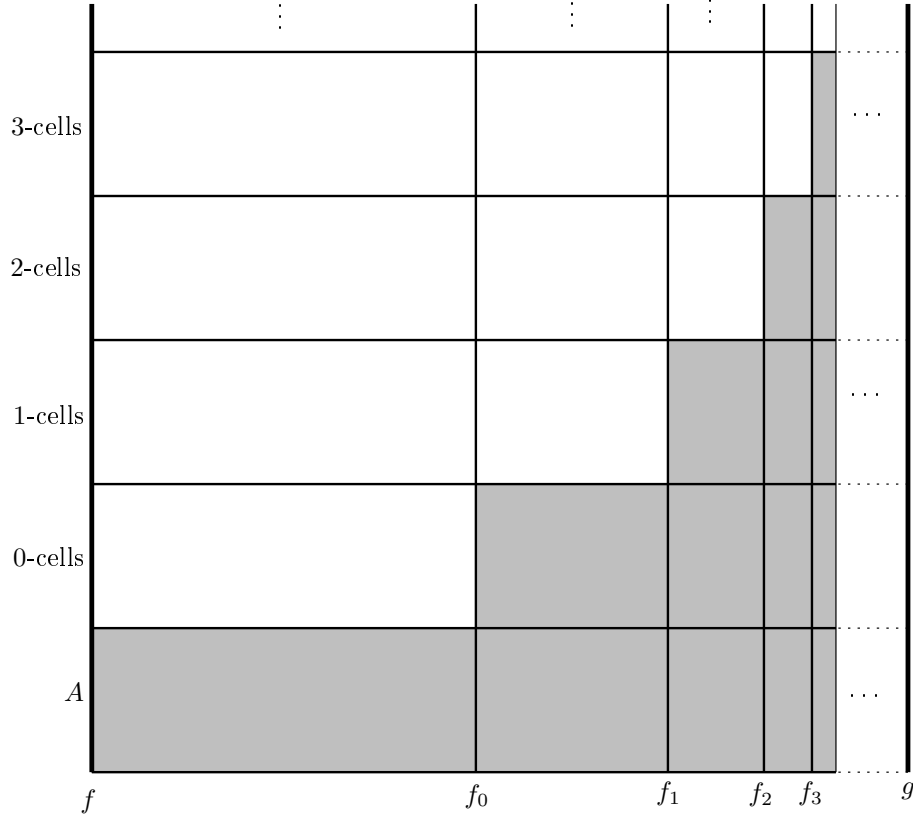


FIGURE 52. A schematic representation of the sequence of maps $f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots$ from X to Y and the homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ constructed in the proof of Lemma 69.12, with the vertical axis representing X (partitioned into A and the unions of cells of various dimensions outside of A) and the horizontal axis representing the unit interval I . The homotopy is constructed to be independent of the parameter in I on the shaded regions.

To prove the claim by induction, assuming f_{k-1} has already been constructed, first construct f_k and the homotopy $f_{k-1} \rightsquigarrow f_k$ on each k -cell $e^k \subset X \setminus A$ so that $f_k(e^k) \subset A$: this is possible for $k = 0$ because $\pi_0(A) \rightarrow \pi_0(X)$ is surjective, and for $k > 0$ it is possible due to Proposition 69.11 and the assumption $\pi_k(X, A) = 0$. Since $X^k \cup A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration (Exercise 65.1), both f_k and the homotopy $f_{k-1} \rightsquigarrow f_k$ can then be extended to the rest of X .

The difference in the case $n < \infty$ is that since X has no cells of dimension bigger than n outside of A , the sequence of maps f_k only needs to be constructed up to $k = n$, and this is possible since $\pi_k(X, A) = 0$ for every $k \leq n$. $\square$

69.5. The cofibrant theorem. The following is actually the main result of this lecture, and Whitehead's theorem will follow from it as an easy corollary. We will only need and thus will only prove one direction of the statement; for the converse, see e.g. [Whi78, Theorem IV.7.17].

THEOREM 69.13 (Cofibrant theorem). *A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence if and only if the induced map $f_* : [Q, X] \rightarrow [Q, Y]$ of free homotopy classes is bijective for every CW-complex Q .*

The direction we will need of this is from left to right; let us first use it to prove Whitehead's theorem.

PROOF OF THEOREM 69.2. As mentioned in Remark 69.4, it suffices to carry out the proof under the assumption that X and Y are honest CW-complexes. Assuming $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, the cofibrant theorem tells us that

$$[X, X] \xrightarrow{f_*} [X, Y] \quad \text{and} \quad [Y, X] \xrightarrow{f_*} [Y, Y]$$

are bijections. One then finds a homotopy inverse of f in the unique homotopy class $[g] \in [Y, X]$ such that $f_*[g] = [\text{Id}_Y]$ (cf. Exercises 58.2 and 63.2). $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 69.13, DIRECTION ($\Rightarrow$). Assume $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence. After replacing Y with the (unreduced) mapping cylinder $Z(f)$, which is (both strongly and weakly) homotopy equivalent to Y , and replacing $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with the inclusion $i_X : X \hookrightarrow Z(f)$, we can assume without loss of generality that f is the inclusion of a subspace $X \subset Y$. For any given CW-complex Q , applying the compression lemma to the map of pairs $(Q, \emptyset) \rightarrow (Y, X)$ then shows that the map $f_* : [Q, X] \rightarrow [Q, Y]$ is surjective. Injectivity amounts to the statement that if $\varphi, \psi : Q \rightarrow X$ are two maps that are homotopic as maps into Y , then they are also homotopic as maps into X , i.e. a homotopy $H : Q \times I \rightarrow Y$ can be modified without changing $H|_{Q \times \partial I}$ to produce a homotopy $Q \times I \rightarrow X$. Just apply the compression lemma to $H : (Q \times I, Q \times \partial I) \rightarrow (Y, X)$. $\square$

69.6. Uniqueness of CW-approximations. With the cofibrant theorem in hand, we can get a head start on the main result of the next lecture, which concerns “approximations” of arbitrary spaces by CW-complexes.

DEFINITION 69.14. A **CW-approximation** (X', φ) of a space X consists of a CW-complex X' and a weak homotopy equivalence $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$.

We will see in the next lecture that every space admits a CW-approximation, and this fact turns out to be a powerful tool for proving general results about homotopy groups. The following result implies that the CW-approximations of a given space are also unique up to homotopy equivalence.

PROPOSITION 69.15. *Given two spaces X, Y with CW-approximations (X', φ) and (Y', ψ) respectively and a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$, there exists a unique homotopy class of maps $f' : X' \rightarrow Y'$ such that the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X' & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & X \\ \downarrow f' & \sim & \downarrow f \\ Y' & \xrightarrow{\psi} & Y \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy.

PROOF. By the cofibrant theorem, the map $\psi_* : [X', Y'] \rightarrow [X', Y]$ is a bijection, and $[f'] := \psi_*^{-1}[f \circ \varphi]$ is therefore uniquely determined. $\square$

The uniqueness of a CW-approximation X' of X up to homotopy equivalence follows by applying Proposition 69.15 in the case where f is the identity map $X \rightarrow X$.

69.7. Exercises.

EXERCISE 69.1. Let $X \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the Warsaw circle.

- Show that for any compact, path-connected and locally path-connected space Q , every map $f : Q \rightarrow X$ has its image contained in a subset of X homotopy equivalent to a compact interval; in particular, the image of f will not enter some region of X in which the oscillations become arbitrarily wild. (This proves that $\pi_n(X) = 0$ for all $n \geq 0$.)

- (b) While part (a) shows that there are no interesting maps $S^n \rightarrow X$ for any $n \geq 0$, there is a fairly obvious map $f : X \rightarrow S^1$ that heuristically resembles a map of degree 1; more concretely, f sends the compact interval $\{0\} \times [-1, 1] \subset X$ to a base point $* \in S^1$ and maps the rest of X bijectively to $S^1 \setminus \{*\}$. Show that f is not homotopic to a constant map, thus proving that X is not contractible.

Hint: If f were nullhomotopic, then it would admit a lift to the universal cover $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$. Note that you cannot conclude this from the usual lifting theorem in covering space theory, because X is not locally path-connected—however, you can still use the fact that the covering map $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ is a fibration. Deduce a contradiction from the existence of this lift.

Remark: We will see later that there is a natural bijection between $[X, S^1]_0$ and the singular cohomology $H^1(X; \mathbb{Z})$ whenever X is a CW-complex. But the Warsaw circle clearly has $H^1(X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ (why?), thus demonstrating the failure of this correspondence in general for spaces that are not CW-complexes.

EXERCISE 69.2 (*). This exercise concerns the bijection $\gamma_{\#} : [Q, X]_x \rightarrow [Q, X]_y$ defined in §65.4 for any well-pointed space $Q \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ and any homotopy class of paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ in X .

- (a) Show that if Q is a cogroup object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, then $\gamma_{\#} : [Q, X]_x \rightarrow [Q, X]_y$ is automatically a group isomorphism.
- (b) Recall from Exercise 65.3 that the map $\gamma_{\#} : \pi_1(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, y)$ can be written explicitly in terms of concatenation of paths, as $\gamma_{\#}[\alpha] = [\gamma^{-1} \cdot \alpha \cdot \gamma]$. Can you similarly write down an explicit description of $\gamma_{\#} : \pi_n(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, y)$ for $n \geq 2$? Try to describe it with a picture.

EXERCISE 69.3. The analogue of Theorem 69.5 for relative homotopy groups relies on the knowledge that both of the inclusions $\{*\} \hookrightarrow S^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{D}^n$ are free cofibrations for each $n \geq 1$.

- (a) Show that for a pair of spaces $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, every homotopy class of paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ in A induces a bijection

$$\gamma_{\#} : \pi_n(X, A, x) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(X, A, y)$$

that respects the group structure for $n \geq 2$ and is uniquely determined by the condition that $\gamma_{\#}[f] = [g]$ for $[f] \in \pi_n(X, A, x)$ and $[g] \in \pi_n(X, A, y)$ represented by maps of pairs $f, g : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ if and only if there is a homotopy $H : \mathbb{D}^n \times I \rightarrow X$ of maps of pairs $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ from f to g satisfying $H(*, \cdot) = \gamma$.

- (b) In the setting of part (a), show that the long exact sequences of homotopy groups for the pointed pairs (X, A, x) and (X, A, y) fit into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & \pi_1(X, x) & \longrightarrow & \pi_1(X, A, x) & \longrightarrow & \pi_0(A, x) \longrightarrow \pi_0(X, x) \\ & & \cong \downarrow \gamma_{\#} & & \cong \downarrow \gamma_{\#} & & \cong \downarrow \gamma_{\#} \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & \pi_1(X, y) & \longrightarrow & \pi_1(X, A, y) & \longrightarrow & \pi_0(A, y) \longrightarrow \pi_0(X, y) \end{array}$$

In particular, all the maps in the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for a pointed pair $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$ are equivariant with respect to a natural right-action of $\pi_1(A)$.

EXERCISE 69.4 (*). Prove the first statement in Proposition 69.11, characterizing the vanishing of $\pi_n(X)$ in terms of maps $S^n \rightarrow X$ that extend over $\mathbb{D}^{n+1}$.

EXERCISE 69.5. We say that $p : E \rightarrow B$ has the homotopy lifting property (HLP) with respect to a pair of spaces (X, A) if the problem

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times \{0\} \cup A \times I & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}_0 \cup \tilde{h}} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & B \end{array}$$

is always solvable, i.e. given any homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$, along with a lift $\tilde{H}_0 : X \rightarrow E$ of $H_0 = H(\cdot, 0)$ and a lifted homotopy $\tilde{h} : A \times I \rightarrow E$ defined on the subset $A \subset X$, H admits a lift $\tilde{H} : X \times I \rightarrow E$ that matches $\tilde{H}_0$ on $X \times \{0\}$ and $\tilde{h}$ on $A \times I$. Show that the following conditions on $p : E \rightarrow B$ are all equivalent to the assumption that $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a Serre fibration:

- (i) p has the HLP with respect to the disk $\mathbb{D}^n$ for every $n \geq 0$;
- (ii) p has the HLP with respect to the one point space $\{*\}$ and the pair $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ for every $n \geq 1$;
- (iii) p has the HLP with respect to all CW-pairs (X, A) .

Hint: You can get from (i) to (ii) via a clever choice of homeomorphism of pairs. Then use induction over the skeleta to get to (iii).

EXERCISE 69.6. The following application of Serre fibrations is borrowed from a famous paper of Gromov in symplectic geometry [Gro85]. All the spaces mentioned below have obvious topologies as subsets of finite-dimensional vector spaces, and with a little bit of differential geometry, one can show that they are all smooth submanifolds. It follows in particular that they are triangulable, and are thus CW-complexes; that is the only detail from the past two sentences that you'll actually need to know.

Fix a real vector space V of even dimension $2n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and define the space of **complex structures** on V by

$$\mathcal{J}(V) := \{J : V \rightarrow V \text{ linear} \mid J^2 = -1\}.$$

We wish to compare this with the space of **linear symplectic structures** on V , defined as

$$\Omega(V) := \{\omega : V \oplus V \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ bilinear} \mid \omega(v, w) = -\omega(w, v) \text{ for all } v, w \text{ and } \omega(v, \cdot) \neq 0 \text{ for all } v \neq 0\}.$$

We say that $J \in \mathcal{J}(V)$ is **tamed** by $\omega \in \Omega(V)$ if the condition

$$\omega(v, Jv) > 0 \text{ for all } v \neq 0$$

is satisfied. We say that J is **compatible** with ω if it is tame and additionally the positive bilinear form

$$\langle v, w \rangle := \omega(v, Jw)$$

is symmetric, thus defining a real inner product on V .

The following example shows that every $J \in \mathcal{J}(V)$ is compatible with some $\omega \in \Omega(V)$: regarding $\mathbb{C}^n$ as a real $2n$ -dimensional vector space, multiplication by i defines a real-linear transformation that we can view as an element $i \in \mathcal{J}(\mathbb{C}^n)$, and with a bit of linear algebra, it is not hard to show that *all* complex structures on V are equivalent to this one via suitable choices of basis. One can then use the standard Hermitian inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on $\mathbb{C}^n$ to write down an example of a linear symplectic structure $\omega \in \Omega(\mathbb{C}^n)$ compatible with i , namely

$$\omega(v, w) := \operatorname{Re} \langle iv, w \rangle.$$

We will see in this exercise that up to homotopy, there is a natural homotopy equivalence $\mathcal{J}(V) \rightarrow \Omega(V)$ sending each J to an ω that tames it. This correspondence has important consequences

linking symplectic and complex geometry: roughly speaking, it implies that all purely homotopy-theoretic questions about symplectic structures on smooth manifolds are equivalent to questions about almost complex structures.

In order to set up the correspondence, define the intermediate spaces

$$\begin{aligned} X^\tau(V) &:= \{(\omega, J) \in \Omega(V) \times \mathcal{J}(V) \mid J \text{ is tamed by } \omega\}, \\ X(V) &:= \{(\omega, J) \in \Omega(V) \times \mathcal{J}(V) \mid J \text{ is compatible with } \omega\}. \end{aligned}$$

- (a) Convince yourself that the projection map $p_2 : X^\tau(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{J}(V) : (\omega, J) \mapsto J$ is a Serre fibration, and its fibers are contractible.

Hint: The contractibility of the fibers is the easy part—what kind of subset is the set of all $\omega \in \Omega(V)$ that tame a given $J \in \mathcal{J}(V)$? For proving that the projection is a Serre fibration, first use Exercise 69.5 to make the condition you need to establish as simple as possible. It may then be helpful to observe that tameness is an open condition, and if you've seen partitions of unity before, you may also recognize that this is a good place to use one.

- (b) Deduce that the map $p_2 : X^\tau(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{J}(V)$ is a homotopy equivalence.

Before we continue, you'll need to accept as a black box that the corresponding statements about the projection $p_2 : X(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{J}(V)$ are also true: it is a Serre fibration, and it has contractible fibers, implying that it is a homotopy equivalence. The contractibility of the fibers is quite easy to see; proving the homotopy lifting property takes a bit more work, since compatibility (unlike tameness) is not an open condition, but there are linear-algebraic tricks for dealing with this, the details of which would be too much of a digression. Those tricks also imply, in fact, that the other projection $p_1 : X(V) \rightarrow \Omega(V) : (\omega, J) \mapsto \omega$ is yet another Serre fibration with contractible fibers. Take these facts as given in the following.

- (c) Prove that the inclusion $X^\tau(V) \hookrightarrow X(V)$ and the projection $p_1 : X^\tau(V) \rightarrow \Omega(V) : (\omega, J) \mapsto \omega$ are also homotopy equivalences.
- (d) Deduce that for any given $\omega \in \Omega(V)$, the set of all $J \in \mathcal{J}(V)$ that are tamed by ω is contractible.

70. Cellular and CW-approximation

Whitehead's theorem demonstrates that the homotopy groups can be a powerful tool in the study of CW-complexes, though it may also give you the impression that their applicability is restricted, i.e. that they are not so useful for understanding more general spaces. There is some truth to this, but there is also a flip side: for certain important results about homotopy groups, proving that they hold for CW-complexes implies that they actually hold much more generally. The reason for this is that all spaces admit CW-approximations; our main task in this lecture is to construct them.

70.1. CW-pairs that are n -connected. While there is no general algorithm for computing the homotopy groups of CW-complexes, there are many special cases in which quite a lot can usefully be said. We'll get plenty of mileage out of the following result, which relies mainly on the knowledge that $\pi_k(S^n) = 0$ for $n > k$ (see Example 68.6).

THEOREM 70.1. *If (X, A) is a CW-pair and $n \geq 0$ an integer such that all k -cells of X with $k \leq n$ are contained in A , then (X, A) is n -connected.*

We'll prove this in a moment, but let's first observe a very useful consequence:

COROLLARY 70.2. *For any CW-complex X and each $n \geq 0$, the inclusion of the $(n+1)$ -skeleton into X induces an isomorphism $\pi_n(X^{n+1}) \cong \pi_n(X)$.* $\square$

REMARK 70.3. Corollary 70.2 reveals a property that the homotopy groups have in common with homology and cohomology, and it makes many computations more manageable. A word of caution, however: for a CW-complex X with finite dimension $\dim X \leq n$, it does *not* follow that $\pi_{n+1}(X) = 0$, quite unlike the situation for homology and cohomology. (Remember the computation $\pi_{2n+1}(\mathbb{CP}^n) \neq 0$, shown in Example 68.7 using the Hopf fibration.) Computing higher homotopy groups would be much easier if this were true.

PROOF OF THEOREM 70.1. The proof proceeds in three steps, with increasing levels of generality.

Step 1: One extra cell. Suppose $X = A \cup e^\ell$ has only one cell outside of A , with dimension $\ell > n$, so the $(\ell - 1)$ -skeleton of X is contained in A . For $k \leq n$, any map $f : (\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ then descends to a map $S^k \cong \mathbb{D}^k / \partial \mathbb{D}^k \rightarrow X/A \cong S^\ell$, and since $\ell > k$, it follows that f is homotopic rel some neighborhood of $\partial \mathbb{D}^k$ to a map whose image misses at least one point $y \in e^\ell$. A deformation retraction of $\mathbb{D}^\ell \setminus \{y\}$ to $\partial \mathbb{D}^\ell$ then produces a homotopy of f rel S^{k-1} to a map with image contained in A , showing via Proposition 69.11 that $\pi_k(X, A) = 0$. The surjectivity of $\pi_0(A) \rightarrow \pi_0(X)$ just means that every path-component of X contains points in A , and this is obvious.

Step 2: Finitely-many extra cells. We suppose in this step that X contains only finitely-many cells that are not in A , all with dimension greater than n . Then there is a finite sequence of cellular inclusions $A =: X_0 \hookrightarrow X_1 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow X_N := X$ such that each X_{j+1} is obtained from X_j by attaching one cell of dimension greater than n . For any choice of base point, the induced maps $\pi_k(A) \rightarrow \pi_k(X)$ now factor into compositions of maps $\pi_k(X_j) \rightarrow \pi_k(X_{j+1})$ which are bijective for $k < n$ and surjective for $k = n$ due to Step 1.

Step 3: The general case. The surjectivity of $\pi_0(A) \rightarrow \pi_0(X)$ is still obvious, because every path-component of X must contain a 0-cell, which is assumed to lie in A , thus it suffices to prove $\pi_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k = 1, \dots, n$ and all choices of base point. Equivalently, one needs to prove that every map $f : (\mathbb{D}^k, S^{k-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ is homotopic rel S^{k-1} to a map into A . Let $X' \subset X$ denote the subcomplex consisting of all cells in A plus the (since $\mathbb{D}^k$ is compact) finitely many in $X \setminus A$ that intersect $f(\mathbb{D}^k)$. The argument of Step 2 now applies to (X', A) , and proves $\pi_k(X', A) = 0$ for all choices of base point, which guarantees the existence of the desired homotopy. $\square$

70.2. The cellular approximation theorem. The simplicial approximation theorem appeared in Lecture 32 last semester: it states that every map between compact polyhedra is homotopic to a simplicial map after a sufficiently fine subdivision of the triangulation on the domain. For CW-complexes, there is no analogous notion of subdivision, but it is also not necessary, and the cellular approximation theorem is a simpler statement. Recall that a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between two CW-complexes is a **cellular map** if $f(X^n) \subset Y^n$ for every $n \geq 0$.

THEOREM 70.4 (cellular approximation). *For CW-pairs (X, A) and (Y, B) , every continuous map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ is homotopic rel A to a map $g : X \rightarrow Y$ such that for every $n \geq 0$, $g(X^n \cup A) \subset Y^n \cup B$. Moreover, if $f|_A : A \rightarrow B$ is a cellular map, then we can arrange that $g : X \rightarrow Y$ is also cellular.*

COROLLARY 70.5. *Every map of pairs between two CW-complexes is homotopic (as a map of pairs) to one that is cellular.*

PROOF. Given $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$, first apply Theorem 70.4 to $f|_A : A \rightarrow B$, regarded as a map of pairs $(A, \emptyset) \rightarrow (B, \emptyset)$, thus making this restriction a cellular map. Since CW-pairs are also NDR-pairs, $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration, so the resulting homotopy can be extended over X to define a homotopy from f to some map whose restriction to A is a cellular map $A \rightarrow B$. Applying the theorem again then modifies this outside of A to a cellular map $X \rightarrow Y$. $\square$

COROLLARY 70.6. *If two cellular maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic, then they are also cellularly homotopic, i.e. there exists a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g that is also a cellular map with respect to the natural product cell decomposition of $X \times I$.*

PROOF. Given any continuous homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g , apply the theorem to the map of pairs $H : (X \times I, X \times \partial I) \rightarrow (Y, Y)$, using the fact that for the obvious cell decomposition of I with a single 1-cell attached to two 0-cells at the end points, $X \times \partial I$ is a subcomplex of $X \times I$. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 70.4. We construct a sequence of maps $f =: f_{-1}, f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots : X \rightarrow Y$ such that for every n ,

- (1) $f_n(e^n) \subset Y^n \cup B$ for every n -cell $e^n \subset X \setminus A$, and $f_n(e^n) \subset Y^n$ if $f_{n-1}(A^{n-1}) \subset B^{n-1}$;
- (2) $f_n \sim_h f_{n-1} \text{ rel } A \cup X^{n-1}$.

To construct f_0 , one only needs to move $f(e^0)$ for each 0-cell $e^0 \subset X \setminus A$ along a path in Y to any 0-cell of Y : this gives a homotopy of $f|_{X^0 \cup A} : X^0 \cup A \rightarrow Y \text{ rel } A$ to a map $X^0 \cup A \rightarrow Y^0 \cup B$ that is cellular if $f|_A : A \rightarrow B$ is cellular, and since $X^0 \cup A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration, it can be extended to a global homotopy of $f \text{ rel } A$ to a globally-defined map $f_0 : X \rightarrow Y$. If we now assume inductively for some $n \geq 1$ that the desired sequence has been constructed up to f_{n-1} , then the condition $f_n(e^n) \subset Y^n \cup B$ for each $e^n \subset X \setminus A$ can be achieved because by Theorem 70.1, $(Y, B \cup Y^n)$ is n -connected, so using the inductive hypothesis $f_{n-1}(X^{n-1}) \subset Y^{n-1} \cup B$ and writing $\Phi : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, X^{n-1})$ for the characteristic map of e^n , the composition

$$(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\Phi} (X, X^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} (Y, Y^{n-1} \cup B) \subset (Y, Y^n \cup B)$$

is homotopic rel S^{n-1} to a map with image in $Y^n \cup B$. If additionally $f_{n-1}(A^{n-1}) \subset B^{n-1}$, then we have the stronger inductive hypothesis $f_{n-1}(X^{n-1}) \subset Y^{n-1}$, and can use the same argument with the n -connected pair (Y, Y^n) in place of $(Y, Y^n \cup B)$, producing a homotopy rel S^{n-1} to a map with image in Y^n . Doing this for all n -cells in $X \setminus A$ and extending homotopies via the homotopy extension property produces the map f_n and homotopy $f_{n-1} \sim_h f_n \text{ rel } A \cup X^{n-1}$. As in our proof of the compression lemma in the previous lecture, there is now a pointwise limit $g := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n$ that matches f_n on the n -skeleton for each n , and concatenating the infinite sequence of homotopies on successively smaller segments of the interval gives a homotopy from f to $g \text{ rel } A$. $\square$

70.3. Existence of CW-approximations. Recall that a CW-approximation (X', φ) of a space X consists of a CW-complex X' and a weak homotopy equivalence $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$. We saw in Proposition 69.15 that the CW-approximations of a given space X are unique up to homotopy equivalence, and they behave functorially in the sense that maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ determine maps $f' : X' \rightarrow Y'$ between the corresponding CW-approximations up to homotopy. It remains to prove that CW-approximations also always *exist*: together with Proposition 69.15, the following result tells us that it is possible to define a functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}$ that associates to every space a CW-approximation of that space, and this functor is unique up to natural isomorphisms.

THEOREM 70.7 (CW-approximation theorem). *Every space X admits a CW-approximation (X', φ) , and if X is n -connected for some $n \geq 0$, then its CW-approximation X' can be chosen to have only one 0-cell and no k -cells for $k = 1, \dots, n$.*

PROOF. The construction of (X', φ) from X can be carried out separately for each path-component of X , so without loss of generality, assume X is path-connected, and fix an arbitrary choice of base point; path-connectedness will imply that nothing important depends on this choice.

The space X' and map $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$ are then constructed as the colimit of a sequence

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} X_{(1)} & \hookrightarrow & X_{(2)} & \hookrightarrow & \dots & \hookrightarrow & X_{(n)} \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow \operatorname{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_{(n)} =: X' \\ & & \searrow \varphi^1 & & \searrow \varphi^2 & & \downarrow \varphi^n \\ & & & & & & X \end{array}$$

with the following properties:

- (1) Each $X_{(n)}$ is a CW-complex;
- (2) Each $X_{(n+1)}$ is obtained from $X_{(n)}$ by attaching $(n+1)$ -cells to the n -skeleton of $X_{(n)}$;
- (3) The maps φ^n induce surjections $\varphi_*^n : \pi_k(X_{(n)}) \rightarrow \pi_k(X)$ for every k , which are also injective whenever $k < n$.

The first two conditions imply that the colimit X' can be realized as a CW-complex such that each $X_{(n)}$ is a subcomplex of X' containing its n -skeleton. It follows via Theorem 70.1 that the inclusion $X_{(n+1)} \hookrightarrow X'$ is an n -equivalence, so in light of the third condition, the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_n(X_{(n+1)}) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \pi_n(X') \\ \searrow \varphi_*^{n+1} & & \swarrow \varphi_* \\ & \pi_n(X) & \end{array}$$

proves that φ is a weak homotopy equivalence.

Here is the initial step in the construction: For each $n \geq 1$, choose a set of pointed maps $\{f_\alpha : S^{k_\alpha} \rightarrow X\}_{\alpha \in J_n}$ with $k_\alpha := n$ such that the set of pointed homotopy classes $\{[f_\alpha] \in \pi_n(X) \mid \alpha \in J_n\}$ generates $\pi_n(X)$. Assuming the index sets J_m, J_n to be disjoint for $m \neq n$, write $J := \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} J_n$ and define

$$X_{(1)} := \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} S^{k_\alpha} \xrightarrow{\varphi^1} X, \quad \text{where} \quad \varphi^1 := \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} f_\alpha.$$

We should understand $X_{(1)}$ as a CW-complex with the base point as its 0-skeleton, and for each $n \geq 1$ and $\alpha \in J_n$, an n -cell attached to the 0-skeleton. Since the classes $[f_\alpha]$ for all $\alpha \in J_n$ generate $\pi_n(X)$, the map $\varphi_*^1 : \pi_n(X_{(1)}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$ is surjective for every n , and manifestly also bijective for $n = 0$.

Now the inductive step: Assume that $X_{(k)}$ and φ^k with the desired properties have already been constructed for all $k \leq n$. We now construct $X_{(n+1)}$ and φ^{n+1} by adding $(n+1)$ -cells to $X_{(n)}$ and extending φ^n so as to destroy the kernel of the map to $\pi_n(X)$. This will leave the n -skeleton unchanged, so the inclusion $X_{(n)} \hookrightarrow X_{(n+1)}$ will induce an isomorphism $\pi_k(X_{(n)}) \cong \pi_k(X_{(n+1)})$ for each $k < n$, ensuring that the map to $\pi_k(X)$ remains an isomorphism. To define $X_{(n+1)}$, choose a collection of pointed maps $\{g_\alpha : S^n \rightarrow X_{(n)}\}_{\alpha \in K}$ such that the set $\{[g_\alpha] \in \pi_n(X_{(n)}) \mid \alpha \in K\}$ generates the kernel of $\varphi_*^n : \pi_n(X_{(n)}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$. By the cellular approximation theorem, we can assume after a homotopy of each g_α that it is a cellular map. (Note: We should use a cell decomposition of S^n with one 0-cell and one n -cell such that the 0-cell is its base point, which is therefore also a subcomplex; applying the cellular approximation theorem relative to that subcomplex then forces the resulting homotopy to be pointed.) Now define

$$X_{(n+1)} := X_{(n)} \cup \left(\bigcup_{\alpha \in K} e_\alpha^{n+1} \right),$$

meaning more precisely that for each $\alpha \in K$, we attach an $(n+1)$ -cell e_α^{n+1} via the cellular attaching map $g_\alpha : S^n \rightarrow X_{(n)}^n \subset X_{(n)}$. This makes $X_{(n+1)}$ a CW-complex with $X_{(n)} \subset X_{(n+1)}$ as a subcomplex that contains its entire n -skeleton. Since each $\varphi_*^n[g_\alpha] \in \pi_n(X)$ vanishes by

assumption, $\varphi^n : X_{(n)} \rightarrow X$ can now be extended over each of the new cells e_α^{n+1} by choosing an extension of $\varphi^n \circ g_\alpha : S^n \rightarrow X$ to $\mathbb{D}^{n+1}$, giving rise to a map $\varphi^{n+1} : X_{(n+1)} \rightarrow X$ that extends φ^n . It should be clear that $\varphi_*^{n+1} : \pi_k(X_{(n+1)}) \rightarrow \pi_k(X)$ is still surjective for every k , but the presence of the extra $(n+1)$ -cells makes the maps $g_\alpha : S^n \rightarrow X_{(n)}$ nullhomotopic after composing them with the inclusion $X_{(n)} \hookrightarrow X_{(n+1)}$, and it follows that the kernel of $\varphi_*^n : \pi_n(X_{(n)}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$ is also annihilated by the map $\pi_n(X_{(n)}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X_{(n+1)})$. But the latter is also surjective since, by Theorem 70.1, $(X_{(n+1)}, X_{(n)})$ is n -connected, so this implies that $\varphi^{n+1} : \pi_n(X_{(n+1)}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$ is injective.

It remains only to observe that if X is n -connected, so $\pi_k(X) = 0$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$, then there is no need to include any cells of those dimensions in the construction described above. $\square$

REMARK 70.8. The detail about the case where X is n -connected has some fairly non-obvious consequences when combined with Whitehead's theorem, e.g. by taking CW-approximations of spaces that are already CW-complexes, one concludes that every n -connected CW-complex is homotopy equivalent to one whose n -skeleton is a single point.

It is a straightforward exercise to prove a relative version of the CW-approximation theorem, which says the following:

THEOREM 70.9. *For any pair of spaces (X, A) , there exists a CW-pair (X', A') and a map of pairs $\varphi : (X', A') \rightarrow (X, A)$ such that both of the maps $X' \rightarrow X$ and $A' \rightarrow A$ defined by φ are weak homotopy equivalences.* $\square$

70.4. Approximations of triads. Our proof of the homotopy excision theorem in the next lecture will require an extension of the CW-approximation theorem to approximate “triads” of spaces.

DEFINITION 70.10. For $k \geq 2$, a k -**ad** of spaces $(X; A_1, \dots, A_{k-1})$ consists of a space X and subsets $A_1, \dots, A_{k-1} \subset X$. It is a **pointed** k -**ad** if it is equipped with a base point $*$ $\in A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{k-1}$, thus making (X, A_j) a pointed pair for each $j = 1, \dots, k-1$. A **map of k -ads** $f : (X; A_1, \dots, A_{k-1}) \rightarrow (X'; A'_1, \dots, A'_{k-1})$ is a map $f : X \rightarrow X'$ such that $f(A_j) \subset A'_j$ for each $j = 1, \dots, k-1$. There are similarly obvious definitions for pointed maps of k -ads and homotopies of such maps, leading to categories of pointed or unpointed k -ads and associated homotopy categories. A k -ad $(X; A_1, \dots, A_{k-1})$ is called a **CW- k -ad** if X is a CW-complex and the $A_j \subset X$ for $j = 1, \dots, k-1$ are all subcomplexes. Note that a k -ad for $k = 2$ is just a pair of spaces in the usual sense; for $k = 3$ and $k = 4$, they are called **triads** and **tetrads** respectively.

The obvious generalization of Theorem 70.9 for triads does not hold in general without an additional technical assumption, and the assumption will look familiar to you from last semester, as it matches the standard hypothesis that makes Mayer-Vietoris sequences in homology work. The main trick used in the proof below will also seem familiar from that context: it is subdivision. The statement of the following preparatory result is borrowed from [May99, §10.7].

LEMMA 70.11 (weak homotopy theorem for excisive triads). *Assume $f : (X'; A', B') \rightarrow (X; A, B)$ is a map of triads such that $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$, $X' = \mathring{A}' \cup \mathring{B}'$, and the restrictions of f to maps $A' \rightarrow A$, $B' \rightarrow B$ and $A' \cap B' \rightarrow A \cap B$ are all weak homotopy equivalences. Then $f : X' \rightarrow X$ is also a weak homotopy equivalence.*

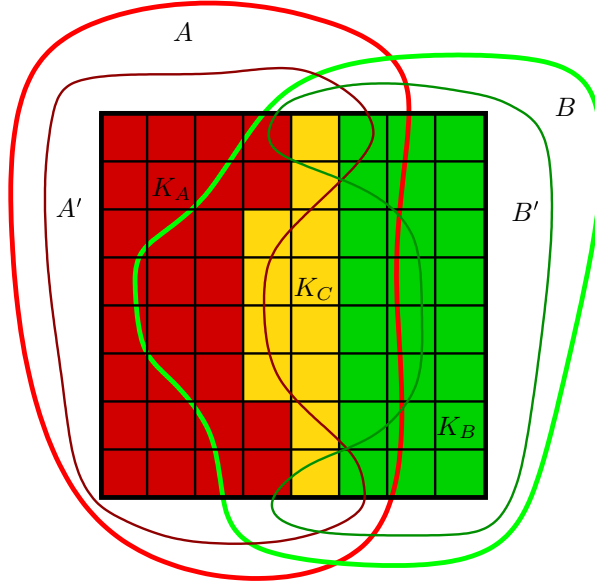


FIGURE 53. The subcomplexes $K_C = K_A \cap K_B \subset K_A, K_B \subset I^k$ in the proof of Lemma 70.11.

PROOF. We start with a standard mapping cylinder trick: the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (X'; A', B') & \xrightarrow{f} & (X; A, B) \\ & \searrow & \uparrow \text{h.e.} \\ & & (Z(f); Z(f^{-1}(A) \xrightarrow{f} A), Z(f^{-1}(B) \xrightarrow{f} B)) \end{array}$$

tells us that without loss of generality, we are free to assume f is an embedding. A quick remark about this: your first naive guess for the triad of mapping cylinders might have been

$$(Z(f); Z(A' \xrightarrow{f} A), Z(B' \xrightarrow{f} B)),$$

but one cannot guarantee in general that the interiors of the two subsets in this triad cover $Z(f)$. Replacing A' and B' with the larger sets $f^{-1}(A)$ and $f^{-1}(B)$ fixes this problem, and does so without changing the homotopy type of the triad of mapping cylinders.

With that out of the way, assume f is the inclusion of a subset $X' \subset X$ with $A' \subset A$ and $B' \subset B$. The goal is then to show that $\pi_k(X, X') = 0$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and every choice of base point in X' , or equivalently, that every map

$$(I^k, \partial I^k) \xrightarrow{\varphi} (X, X')$$

is homotopic rel ∂I^k to one whose image lies in X' . The assumption about open coverings makes possible the following: after subdividing I^k into sufficiently small subcubes and taking suitable unions of those cubes (see Figure 53), we can equip the pair $(I^k, \partial I^k)$ with a cell decomposition in which it contains subcomplexes

$$K_C = K_A \cap K_B \subset K_A, K_B \subset K_A \cup K_B = I^k$$

such that

$$\varphi(K_A) \subset A, \quad \varphi(K_B) \subset B, \quad \varphi(K_A \cap \partial I^k) \subset A', \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi(K_B \cap \partial I^k) \subset B'.$$

Having done this, we construct the desired homotopy of φ in three steps:

- (1) Homotop $\varphi|_{K_C} \text{ rel } K_C \cap \partial I^k$ to a map whose image lies in $A' \cap B'$; this is possible by the compression lemma (Lemma 69.12) since $A \cap B' \hookrightarrow A \cap B$ is a weak homotopy equivalence. The homotopy can then be extended to the rest of I^k as a homotopy rel ∂I^k , since $K_C \cup \partial I^k \hookrightarrow I^k$ is a cofibration.
- (2) Use the compression lemma again to homotop $\varphi|_{K_A} \text{ rel } K_C \cup (K_A \cap \partial I^k)$ to a map whose image lies in A' ; this is possible because $A' \hookrightarrow A$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, and the homotopy can again be extended rel ∂I^k to the rest of I^k because $K_A \cup \partial I^k \hookrightarrow I^k$ is a cofibration.
- (3) Use the compression lemma one more time to homotop $\varphi|_{K_B} \text{ rel } K_C \cup (K_B \cap \partial I^k)$ to a map whose image lies in B' , which is possible because $B' \hookrightarrow B$ is a weak homotopy equivalence. After this third homotopy, the entire image of φ lies in $A' \cup B' = X'$.

□

THEOREM 70.12 (CW-approximation for excisive triads). *Suppose $(X; A, B)$ is a triad such that the interiors of A and B form an open covering of X . Then there exists a CW-triad $(X'; A', B')$ with $X' = A' \cup B'$ and a map of triads*

$$(X'; A', B') \xrightarrow{\varphi} (X; A, B)$$

such that φ defines weak homotopy equivalences $X' \rightarrow X$, $A' \rightarrow A$, $B' \rightarrow B$ and $A' \cap B' \rightarrow A \cap B$. Moreover, if $A \cap B$ is nonempty and the pairs $(A, A \cap B)$ and $(B, A \cap B)$ are m -connected and n -connected respectively for some $m, n \geq 0$, then the construction can be arranged so that the m -skeleton of A' and the n -skeleton of B' are each contained in $A' \cap B'$.

PROOF. We may as well assume $C := A \cap B \neq \emptyset$, since the alternative is that X is the disjoint union of A and B , in which case the result follows already from Theorem 70.7. With this assumption in place, one starts by constructing a CW-approximation C' of C , and then extending it to two CW-approximations of pairs $(A', C') \rightarrow (A, C)$ and $(B', C') \rightarrow (B, C)$ in the sense of Theorem 70.9. This is a straightforward extension of our proof of the CW-approximation theorem, and if (A, C) is m -connected, then we have the freedom to begin the induction with $(m+1)$ -cells when expanding C' to A' ; n -connectedness of (B, C) has a similar implication for (B', C') . One then defines X' as the pushout $A' \cup_{C'} B'$, with $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$ as the unique map extending the previously defined weak homotopy equivalences $A' \rightarrow A$ and $B' \rightarrow B$. What is not obvious from this construction is why $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$ should be a weak homotopy equivalence, and in fact, this would not be true in general without the stated assumption that the interiors of A and B cover X . We can derive this conclusion from Lemma 70.11, but first a modification to the triad $(X'; A', B')$ is needed, because subcomplexes of CW-complexes are typically not open subsets. In many simple examples, one can get away with using the same trick here that you've often used in applying Mayer-Vietoris sequences, namely replacing A' and B' with homotopy-equivalent open neighborhoods. Unfortunately, the existence of such neighborhoods is not so obvious for an arbitrary CW-triad, but in the general case, there is a result from the theory of cofibrations that gives exactly what we need. The crucial observation is that up to homotopy equivalence, the pushout $X' = A' \cup_{C'} B'$ can be replaced by a homotopy pushout, i.e. an unreduced mapping cylinder

$$X'' := Z_o(C' \hookrightarrow A', C' \hookrightarrow B') = A' \cup_{C' \times \{0\}} (C' \times I) \cup_{C' \times \{1\}} B'.$$

This works because there is a natural map $X'' \xrightarrow{u} X'$ determined by a reinterpretation of the strictly commutative pushout diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C' & \hookrightarrow & A' \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ B' & \hookrightarrow & X' \end{array}$$

as a diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}$ with the trivial homotopy between the two composed inclusions. In straightforward terms, u is the obvious quotient projection

$$X'' = A' \cup_{C' \times \{0\}} (C' \times I) \cup_{C' \times \{1\}} B' \xrightarrow{u} A' \cup_{C'} B' = X'$$

that collapses the cylinder $C' \times I$ to C' . Maps from homotopy pushouts to pushouts defined in this way are not always homotopy equivalences, but this one is, due to the fact that $C' \hookrightarrow A'$ is a cofibration (see Exercise 64.5). With this understood, X'' is covered by the interiors of $A'' := u^{-1}(A')$ and $B'' := u^{-1}(B')$, and u defines homotopy equivalences

$$X'' \rightarrow X', \quad A'' \rightarrow A', \quad B'' \rightarrow B', \quad A'' \cap B'' \rightarrow A \cap B.$$

Lemma 70.11 now implies that the composition of $u : X'' \rightarrow X'$ with $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, and therefore so is φ . $\square$

70.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 70.1 (*). Prove Theorem 70.9, constructing a CW-approximation $(X', A') \xrightarrow{\varphi} (X, A)$ of a pair of spaces. What can you say in this situation about the induced maps $\pi_k(X', A') \rightarrow \pi_k(X, A)$?

71. Homotopy excision and its applications

71.1. The statement. Here is a question to motivate the next two lectures: What has stopped us so far from computing $\pi_n(S^n)$ by induction on n , the same way that one computes $H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$? Most of the ingredients for such an argument are in place: we know the case $n = 1$, we have homotopy invariance, and we have long exact sequences of pairs in which $\pi_k(CX)$ will vanish for any cone CX . What's still missing is excision.

QUESTION 71.1. *Given $B \subset A \subset X$, when does the inclusion $(X \setminus B, A \setminus B) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$ induce an isomorphism on π_k ?*

Viewing X in Question 71.1 as the union of the two subsets $X \setminus B$ and A , one can usefully reformulate the question as follows:

QUESTION 71.2. *Given subsets $A, B \subset X$ with $X = A \cup B$ and a base point in $A \cap B$, when is the map $\pi_k(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_k(X, B)$ induced by the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$ an isomorphism?*

The standard answers to the analogous questions for homology and cohomology are that it suffices to assume $\bar{B} \subset \mathring{A}$ in Question 71.1, and $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ in Question 71.1. For the homotopy groups, these assumptions are not generally enough, but one does find affirmative answers under certain dimensional conditions. Here is the main result:

THEOREM 71.3 (Blakers-Massey homotopy excision theorem). *Suppose $(X; A, B)$ is a triad such that X is the union of the interiors of A and B , and $A \cap B$ is nonempty. Assume additionally that the pair $(A, A \cap B)$ is m -connected and the pair $(B, A \cap B)$ is n -connected for some $m, n \geq 0$, where either $m \geq 1$ or $A \cap B$ is path-connected. Then for all choices of base point in $A \cap B$, the map $\pi_k(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_k(X, B)$ induced by the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$ is bijective for $1 \leq k < m + n$ and surjective for $k = m + n$.*

Just as with Mayer-Vietoris sequences, Theorem 71.3 can also be applied in many situations where the assumption $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ does not hold, e.g. because two non-open subsets that cover X can be replaced by homotopy-equivalent open neighborhoods of those subsets. More generally, one can sometimes use the trick that was employed in the proof of Theorem 70.12, replacing the pushout $X = A \cup B$ of the maps $A \hookrightarrow A \cap B \hookrightarrow B$ with the corresponding homotopy pushout, which is homotopy equivalent to X by Exercise 64.5 whenever either $A \cap B \hookrightarrow A$ or $A \cap B \hookrightarrow B$ is a cofibration. In particular, this works when $(X; A, B)$ is a CW-triad, and we conclude:

COROLLARY 71.4. *Theorem 71.3 also holds if the assumption $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ is replaced by the assumption that $(X; A, B)$ is a CW-triad with $X = A \cup B$. $\square$*

We will prove Theorem 71.3 in the next lecture, and use the present lecture to explore some of its applications.

71.2. The Freudenthal suspension theorem. Our first application of the excision theorem has a number of important implications, including the computation of $\pi_n(S^n)$.

THEOREM 71.5 (Freudenthal suspension theorem). *For any well-pointed space X that is n -connected for some $n \geq 0$, the map*

$$\pi_k(X) = [\Sigma^k S^0, X] \xrightarrow{\Sigma} [\Sigma^{k+1} S^0, \Sigma X] = \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma X)$$

defined via the reduced suspension functor $\Sigma = \Sigma_+ : \mathbf{hTop}_ \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop}_*$ is bijective for $0 \leq k < 2n + 1$ and surjective for $k = 2n + 1$.*

REMARK 71.6. It is sometimes useful to know that the map $\Sigma : \pi_k(X) \rightarrow \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma X)$ is also a group homomorphism for all $k \geq 1$, and thus an isomorphism in situations where the suspension theorem holds. One can check this explicitly by characterizing multiplication in terms of concatenation, or one can deduce it from the more general observation that for any two pointed spaces X, Y such that X is a cogroup object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$, the map

$$[X, Y] \xrightarrow{\Sigma} [\Sigma X, \Sigma Y]$$

is a group homomorphism. Note that by Theorem 67.23, the group structure on $[\Sigma X, \Sigma Y] \cong [X, \Omega \Sigma Y]$ is the same whether one defines it via the cogroup object structure of X or the group object structure of $\Omega \Sigma Y$ (which is equivalent to the cogroup object structure of ΣX as a suspension). One way to see why Σ preserves the group structure is by expressing it in terms of the natural map

$$Y \xrightarrow{\Psi} \Omega \Sigma Y, \quad \Psi(y)(t) := [(y, t)],$$

which (see Exercise 71.3) turns Σ into

$$[X, Y] \xrightarrow{\Psi_*} [X, \Omega \Sigma Y] \cong [\Sigma X, \Sigma Y].$$

Exercise 67.1(b) implies that this map is a group homomorphism.

PROOF OF THEOREM 71.5. Well-pointedness implies thanks to Theorem 65.7 that up to homotopy equivalence, we can replace reduced suspensions and cones with their unreduced counterparts, which lend themselves better to excision arguments. We regard both the reduced and unreduced suspensions ΣX as quotients of $X \times I$ and decompose them as a union of two (reduced or unreduced) cones

$$\Sigma X = CX \cup C'X,$$

where CX is a quotient of $X \times [0, 1/2]$ and $C'X$ is a quotient of $X \times [1/2, 1]$, so $CX \cap C'X = X \times \{1/2\} = X$. The inclusions $X = X \times \{1/2\} \hookrightarrow CX \hookrightarrow \Sigma X$ and $X = X \times \{1/2\} \hookrightarrow C'X \hookrightarrow \Sigma X$ are automatically pointed maps in the reduced case, and in the unreduced case, we can place the

base points on the cones and suspensions to make this so. Denote the summit of the unreduced bottom cone by $p \in C_o X \subset \Sigma_o X$. We then have a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \pi_k(X) & \xrightarrow{\Sigma_+} & \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma_+ X) \\
 \partial_* \uparrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\
 \pi_{k+1}(C'_+ X, X) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma_+ X, C_+ X) , \\
 q_* \uparrow \cong & & q_* \uparrow \cong \\
 \pi_{k+1}(C'_o X, X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma_o X \setminus \{p\}, C_o X \setminus \{p\}) \longrightarrow \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma_o X, C_o X)
 \end{array}$$

in which all unlabeled arrows are induced by inclusions, and q denotes the quotient projections from unreduced to reduced cones/suspensions. The top vertical arrows are both bijections due to long exact sequences that contain homotopy groups of cones, while the bottom vertical and bottom left horizontal arrows are bijections because they are induced by homotopy equivalences; in the case of the two maps labelled q_* , this follows from well-pointedness, and one can use the 5-lemma to deduce bijections of relative homotopy groups from bijections of absolute ones. It remains only to investigate the map on π_k induced by the inclusion

$$(\Sigma_o X \setminus \{p\}, C_o X \setminus \{p\}) \hookrightarrow (\Sigma_o X, C_o X).$$

Viewing $\Sigma_o X$ as the union of the interiors of $A := \Sigma_o X \setminus \{p\}$ and $B := C_o X$ with intersection $A \cap B = C_o X \setminus \{p\}$, the n -connectedness of X makes $(A, A \cap B) = (\Sigma_o X \setminus \{p\}, C_o X \setminus \{p\}) \xrightarrow{h.e.} (C'_o X, X)$ an $(n+1)$ -connected pair since the inclusion $X \hookrightarrow C'_o X$ induces a surjection $\pi_m(X) \rightarrow \pi_m(C'_o X) = 0$ for all m and a bijection for $m \leq n$. Similarly, the inclusion

$$X \xrightarrow{h.e.} C_o X \setminus \{p\} \longrightarrow C_o X$$

induces surjections/bijections on π_m precisely when $C_o X \setminus \{p\} \hookrightarrow C_o X = B$ does, making the pair $(B, A \cap B)$ also $(n+1)$ -connected. The stated result then follows from Theorem 71.3. $\square$

REMARK 71.7. There are easy counterexamples to the claim that $\pi_k(X) \cong \pi_{k+1}(\Sigma X)$ without some dimensional assumption relating k and the connectedness of X , and from this one deduces that the dimensional conditions in the excision theorem cannot be dropped, in contrast to the more powerful excision property satisfied by homology and cohomology. One such counterexample is

$$0 = \pi_2(\mathbb{R}) \cong \pi_2(S^1) \not\cong \pi_3(S^2),$$

where $0 = \pi_2(\mathbb{R}) \cong \pi_2(S^1)$ comes from viewing the contractible space $\mathbb{R}$ as a covering space of S^1 (see Exercise 68.3), and $\pi_3(S^2) = \pi_3(\mathbb{CP}^1) \neq 0$ is deduced from the Hopf fibration (Example 68.7).

COROLLARY 71.8. *For any well-pointed space X and $k \geq 1$, $\Sigma^k X$ is $(k-1)$ -connected.*

PROOF. The result is obvious for $k = 1$, and the rest follows by induction on k using Freudenthal. $\square$

COROLLARY 71.9. *For any well-pointed space X and $n \geq 0$, the map*

$$\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) \xrightarrow{\Sigma} \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma^{k+1} X)$$

is an isomorphism whenever $n+k < 2(k-1)+1 = 2k-1$, i.e. for all $k > n+1$.

That last corollary is of considerable theoretical importance: it tells us that the sequence

$$\pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\Sigma} \pi_{n+1}(\Sigma X) \xrightarrow{\Sigma} \pi_{n+2}(\Sigma^2 X) \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) \longrightarrow \dots$$

eventually *stabilizes* if X is well pointed. This observation inspires the definition of the *stable homotopy groups*: for an arbitrary pointed space, they are defined by

$$\pi_n^s(X) := \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X),$$

and Corollary 71.9 implies that whenever X is well pointed, $\pi_n^s(X)$ is isomorphic to $\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X)$ for all k sufficiently large. The study of the stable homotopy groups is a major industry that we will only briefly touch upon in this course, but we'll come back to it when we discuss generalized homology theories.

71.3. Spheres. As promised, we can now compute $\pi_n(S^n)$:

THEOREM 71.10. $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

PROOF. Since S^n is $(n-1)$ -connected, Freudenthal implies that $\Sigma : \pi_n(S^n) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(S^{n+1})$ is an isomorphism for every $n \geq 2$ and surjective for $n = 1$. If $\Sigma : \pi_1(S^1) \rightarrow \pi_2(S^2)$ is not also injective, then since it is a group homomorphism (see Remark 71.6), its kernel contains a subgroup of the form $k\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z} \cong \pi_1(S^1)$ for some $k \geq 2$, and it therefore descends to a surjective homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}/k\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_k \rightarrow \pi_2(S^2)$, implying that $\pi_2(S^2)$ is finite. But we already know that $\pi_2(S^2)$ is not finite, because there exist maps $S^2 \rightarrow S^2$ of arbitrary integer-valued degree (cf. Example 68.5), so we conclude that $\Sigma : \pi_1(S^1) \rightarrow \pi_2(S^2)$ is also an isomorphism.

If you don't like that way of handling the case $n = 1$, you can also use the Hopf fibration $p : S^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1 \cong \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\} \cong S^2$, whose fibers are homeomorphic to S^1 (see Example 68.7): we then have a long exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow \pi_2(S^3) \longrightarrow \pi_2(S^2) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_1(S^1) \longrightarrow \pi_1(S^3) \longrightarrow \dots,$$

and since S^3 is 2-connected, $\partial_* : \pi_2(S^2) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is therefore an isomorphism. $\square$

The following generalization of Theorem 71.10 will play an important role in proving the Hurewicz theorem.

THEOREM 71.11. *Given a set J and an integer $n \geq 2$, consider the pointed space*

$$X := \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} S^n$$

and the inclusions $i^\alpha : S^n \hookrightarrow X$ associated to each $\alpha \in J$, which induce homomorphisms $i_^\alpha : \pi_n(S^n) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$ and therefore determine (via the universal property of the coproduct) a homomorphism*

$$\Phi := \bigoplus_{\alpha} i_*^\alpha : \bigoplus_{\alpha \in J} \pi_n(S^n) \rightarrow \pi_n(X).$$

The map Φ is an isomorphism; in particular, $\pi_n(X)$ is thus isomorphic to the free abelian group generated by J .

PROOF. Assume first that J is finite, and consider the product space $Y := \prod_{\alpha \in J} S^n$. Viewing S^n as a CW-complex with one 0-cell and one n -cell gives X a cell decomposition with one 0-cell and an n -cell associated to each $\alpha \in J$, and the product Y likewise inherits a product cell decomposition whose n -skeleton has a natural identification with the wedge sum X . Moreover, Y only has cells in dimensions that are divisible by n , so X is also its $(2n-1)$ -skeleton, and it follows via Theorem 70.1 that (Y, X) is $(2n-1)$ -connected. Since $n \geq 2$ and thus $2n-1 \geq n+1$, (Y, X) is also $(n+1)$ -connected, so that the long exact sequence of the pair (Y, X) gives an isomorphism

$$0 = \pi_{n+1}(Y, X) \longrightarrow \pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(Y) \longrightarrow \pi_n(Y, X) = 0.$$

There is an easy general formula for homotopy groups of product spaces: the projections $p^\alpha : Y \rightarrow S^n$ for each $\alpha \in J$ induce homomorphisms $p_*^\alpha : \pi_n(Y) \rightarrow \pi_n(S^n)$ and thus (by the universal property of the product) a homomorphism

$$\Psi := \prod_{\alpha} p_*^\alpha : \pi_n(Y) \rightarrow \prod_{\alpha \in J} \pi_n(S^n),$$

which is easily shown to be an isomorphism in general. But since J is finite, the latter product is the same thing as the direct sum, and one can now check that Ψ and Φ are inverses.

The case where J is infinite follows easily from the finite case due to the fact that every map from $\mathbb{D}^k$ or S^k to X can intersect at most finitely many cells, which in this case means finitely many copies of S^n in the wedge sum, beyond the base point. $\square$

71.4. Pairs and quotients. We now prove an analogue for homotopy groups of the isomorphism $H_*(X, A) \cong \tilde{H}_*(X/A)$ that holds for “good” pairs (see e.g. Lecture 36 from last semester).

THEOREM 71.12. *Assume $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a free cofibration, the pair (X, A) is m -connected and A is an n -connected space for some $m, n \geq 0$. Then for all choices of base points in A , the map*

$$q_* : \pi_k(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_k(X/A)$$

induced by the quotient projection $q : (X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, A/A)$ is bijective for $1 \leq k < m + n + 1$ and surjective for $k = m + n + 1$.

PROOF. Assuming $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a free cofibration gives us the freedom to use its unreduced homotopy cofiber $\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X) = CA \cup_A X$ is a stand-in for the actual cofiber X/A , since the natural comparison map $\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X) \rightarrow X/A$ is a homotopy equivalence (cf. Corollary 64.16). A more direct description of this homotopy equivalence is as the quotient projection

$$\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X) = CA \cup_A X \xrightarrow{q} \text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)/CA,$$

since the inclusion $X \hookrightarrow \text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)$ descends to a natural homeomorphism of X/A to the quotient at the right. Consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_k(X, A) & \longrightarrow & \pi_k(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), CA) \xrightarrow{q_*} \pi_k(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)/CA) = \pi_k(X/A) \\ & \cong \uparrow & \nearrow q_* \cong \\ & \pi_k(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)) & \end{array},$$

in which the unlabelled arrows are induced by inclusions, the up arrow is bijective due to a long exact sequence containing the homotopy groups of the contractible space CA , and the diagonal arrow labelled “ q_* ” is also bijective for the reasons stated above. The map $\pi_k(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_k(X/A)$ is consequently bijective or surjective if and only if the same holds for the map induced on π_k by the inclusion

$$(X, A) \hookrightarrow (\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), CA).$$

Viewing $\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)$ as the union of CA with an open neighborhood of X , the excision theorem applies whenever $k \leq m + n + 1$ since (X, A) is m -connected and (CA, A) is $(n + 1)$ -connected. $\square$

71.5. The absolute Hurewicz theorem. For each $n \geq 0$, the reduced cellular homology $\tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ of the n -sphere with integer coefficients has a canonical generator

$$[S^n] \in \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z},$$

represented for $n \geq 1$ by the n -cell in the simplest cell decomposition $S^n = e^0 \cup e^n$. Under the natural isomorphism between cellular and singular homology, $[S^n] \in H_n^{\text{CW}}(S^n; \mathbb{Z})$ for $n \geq 1$ matches the fundamental class of S^n with respect to a natural choice of orientation. Similarly,

the pair $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ has an obvious cell decomposition with a single n -cell e^n attached to the $(n-1)$ -skeleton S^{n-1} , and the relative homology class represented by the n -cell defines a canonical generator

$$[\mathbb{D}^n] \in H_n^{\text{CW}}(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

for each $n \geq 1$. The orientation conventions can be chosen so that the connecting homomorphism $\partial_* : H_n^{\text{CW}}(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-1}^{\text{CW}}(S^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$ in the long exact sequence of the pair $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ satisfies

$$\partial_*[\mathbb{D}^n] = [S^{n-1}]$$

for each $n \geq 2$, and we can also take this as a *definition* of the generator $[S^0] = \partial_*[\mathbb{D}^1] \in \tilde{H}_0^{\text{CW}}(S^0; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

For any pointed CW-complex X whose base point is a 0-cell, one can now define for each $n \geq 0$ the (absolute) **Hurewicz map**

$$\pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[S^n],$$

after applying the cellular approximation theorem (relative to the base point) so that $[f] \in \pi_n(X)$ is represented by a cellular map $f : S^n \rightarrow X$. Similarly, for $n \geq 1$ and a pointed CW-pair (X, A) whose base point is a 0-cell in A , one defines the **relative Hurewicz map**

$$\pi_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[\mathbb{D}^n],$$

taking $[f] \in \pi_n(X, A)$ to be represented by a cellular map of pairs $f : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$. We'll have more to say about the relative Hurewicz map in a future lecture, but we can already prove the most famous result about the absolute map.

THEOREM 71.13 (Hurewicz theorem, absolute version). *Suppose $n \geq 2$ and X is an $(n-1)$ -connected CW-complex. Then $\tilde{H}_k^{\text{CW}}(X) = 0$ for all $k < n$ and all choices of coefficient group, and the Hurewicz map $\Phi : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is a bijection.*

REMARK 71.14. The Hurewicz theorem is often stated without the assumption that X is a CW-complex, but with singular homology taking the place of cellular homology. That version of the result follows from Theorem 71.13 due to two important facts. One is the CW-approximation theorem, and the other is a special property that the singular homology and cohomology theories have: *weak* homotopy equivalences $X \rightarrow Y$ also induce isomorphisms $H_*(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(Y)$ and $H^*(Y) \xrightarrow{\cong} H^*(X)$. We will prove the latter in Lecture 73; morally, the reason for it is that singular n -simplices $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ in any space X can be interpreted as maps of n -dimensional CW-complexes to X , and are therefore subject to the compression lemma. Invariance under weak homotopy equivalence does not follow from the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms, and e.g. the example of the Warsaw circle (see Exercise 69.1) shows that it does not hold for Čech cohomology, which is nevertheless a completely valid ordinary cohomology theory.

REMARK 71.15. We excluded $n = 1$ in the statement of the Hurewicz theorem because the statement is not true in that case without modification, but you already know what is true instead, namely that for X path-connected, $\Phi : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow H_1(X)$ is surjective and descends to the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$ as an isomorphism.

You probably noticed that the Hurewicz theorem provides a sanity check for the computation of $\pi_n(S^n)$: the sphere S^n is $(n-1)$ -connected, so for each $n \geq 2$, we could apply our knowledge of homology to deduce

$$\pi_n(S^n) \cong H_n^{\text{CW}}(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H_n(S^n; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}.$$

Proving $\pi_n(S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ in this way would however have been egregiously circular, because our proof of the Hurewicz theorem will depend heavily on the computation of $\pi_n(S^n)$. The proof is essentially

a direct computation of π_n for certain cell complexes, and the crucial step is the following lemma, which is a worthwhile exercise in applying the theorems of the previous subsections:

LEMMA 71.16. *Assume X is a CW-complex whose $(n-1)$ -skeleton for some $n \geq 2$ is a single point, regarded in the following as a base point, and such that all $(n+1)$ -cells $e_\beta^{n+1} \subset X^{n+1}$ have base-point preserving attaching maps $\varphi_\beta : S^n \rightarrow X^n$. Then the map*

$$\pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$$

induced by the inclusion $X^n \hookrightarrow X$ is surjective, and its kernel is the subgroup generated by the homotopy classes of the attaching maps $[\varphi_\beta] \in \pi_n(X^n)$ for all $(n+1)$ -cells e_β^{n+1} .

PROOF. Theorem 70.1 implies that X is $(n-1)$ -connected and the pair (X^{n+1}, X^n) is n -connected; moreover, X^{n+1}/X^n is homeomorphic to a wedge sum of $(n+1)$ -spheres, so Theorems 71.11 and 71.12 give us isomorphisms

$$\pi_{n+1}(X^{n+1}, X^n) \cong \pi_{n+1}(X^{n+1}/X^n) \cong \bigoplus_{(n+1)\text{-cells}} \mathbb{Z} \cong C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

and the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for (X^{n+1}, X^n) thus contains a segment of the form

$$C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow \pi_n(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow \pi_n(X^{n+1}, X^n) = 0.$$

We leave the further details as an exercise. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 71.13. Using CW-approximation and Whitehead's theorem, we can replace X with a homotopy equivalent space that is a CW-complex consisting of a single 0-cell e^0 , some n -cells e_α^n , some $(n+1)$ -cells e_β^{n+1} with pointed attaching maps $\varphi_\beta : S^n \rightarrow X^n$, and arbitrary additional cells of dimension greater than $n+1$ whose presence does not affect the computation of either $\pi_n(X)$ or $\tilde{H}_k^{\text{CW}}(X)$ for $k \leq n$. The lack of cells of dimension $k = 1, \dots, n-1$ implies immediately that $\tilde{H}_k^{\text{CW}}(X) = 0$ for $k < n$. The n -skeleton X^n is now a wedge of n -spheres, and we used the homotopy excision theorem to compute π_n of such a space in Theorem 71.11: the answer was the free abelian group on the set of n -cells, which is simply the cellular n -chain group

$$\pi_n(X^n) \cong C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

with a precise isomorphism $\pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that sends the homotopy class of the characteristic map $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X^n, *)$ of each n -cell e_α^n to the corresponding generator of $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$. Note that since there are no $(n-1)$ -cells, all chains in $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ are cycles, and the resulting quotient projection $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) = \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ fits together with the isomorphism $\pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ described above into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_n(X^n) & \longrightarrow & \pi_n(X) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \Phi \\ C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \end{array},$$

where the map in the top row is induced by the inclusion $X^n \rightarrow X$ and Φ is the Hurewicz map. Since (X, X^n) is an n -connected pair, the map $\pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow \pi_n(X)$ in this diagram is surjective, and its kernel is described in Lemma 71.16: it is the subgroup generated by the attaching maps $[\varphi_\beta] \in \pi_n(X^n)$ of all the $(n+1)$ -cells e_β^{n+1} . The isomorphism $\pi_n(X^n) \cong C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ identifies this subgroup with the image of the cellular boundary map $\partial^{\text{CW}} : C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$, which is the kernel of the quotient projection $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$, thus implying that Φ is a bijection. $\square$

71.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 71.1 (*). Fill in the gaps in the proof of Lemma 71.16 on the computation of $\pi_n(X)$ for a CW-complex X with $X^{n-1} \cong *$.

EXERCISE 71.2. The following example illustrates another contrast between homotopy groups and homology: the homotopy groups of a finite CW-complex need not be finitely generated. Let $n \geq 2$.

- (a) Describe the universal cover of $S^1 \vee S^n$.
- (b) Show that $\pi_n(S^1 \vee S^n)$ is a free abelian group with a countably infinite number of generators.
- (c) Show however that $\pi_n(S^1 \vee S^n)$ contains an element whose orbit under the action of $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^n)$ in the sense of Theorem 69.5 generates the whole group. In fancier language: $\pi_n(S^1 \vee S^n)$ is isomorphic to the free $\mathbb{Z}[\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^n)]$ -module with one generator.

EXERCISE 71.3. Every pointed space X comes equipped with a canonical map $\Psi : X \rightarrow \Omega\Sigma X$ defined by

$$\Psi(x)(t) := [(x, t)].$$

Show that the following statement is equivalent to the Freudenthal suspension theorem: For X well-pointed and n -connected, the map $\Psi : X \rightarrow \Omega\Sigma X$ is a $(2n+1)$ -equivalence.

EXERCISE 71.4 (*). Recall that a sequence of covariant functors $\{h_n : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ or contravariant functors $\{h^n : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is called a **generalized homology** or **cohomology** theory respectively if it satisfies the homotopy, exactness, excision and additivity axioms of Eilenberg-Steenrod (see Lectures 29 and 44 from last semester). In fact, the additivity axiom will play no role in this exercise, but the other three axioms should be assumed. The **reduced** variant of a homology or cohomology theory is defined for each space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ in terms of the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$ to a one-point space, by

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) := \ker \left(h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(*) \right), \quad \text{or} \quad \tilde{h}^n(X) := \text{coker} \left(h^n(*) \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} h^n(X) \right).$$

- (a) Show that for every pointed space X , the inclusion $(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, *)$ induces isomorphisms

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(X, *) \quad \text{or} \quad h^n(X, *) \xrightarrow{\cong} \tilde{h}^n(X).$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Hint: There are very standard arguments behind this that you surely have seen before, you just might not have noticed that they do not require the dimension axiom. Some diagram chasing is required in order to show that the reduced theories fit into the same long exact sequences as their unreduced counterparts.

- (b) Show that for any cofibration $A \hookrightarrow X$, the maps

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{q_*} h_n(X/A, A/A) \cong \tilde{h}_n(X/A) \quad \text{or} \quad \tilde{h}^n(X/A) \cong h^n(X/A, A/A) \xrightarrow{q^*} h^n(X, A)$$

induced by the quotient projection $q : (X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, A/A)$ are isomorphisms for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Hint: This is analogous to a result about “good” pairs that was proved in Lecture 36 last semester, and you may be able to come up with a similar proof of it using NDR-presentations if $A \subset X$ is closed. But the assumption that A is closed is not necessary, and there is another way to approach it. Look at Theorem 71.12 for inspiration.

72. Proof of the homotopy excision theorem

I owe you a proof of Theorem 71.3. Here again is the statement:

THEOREM (Blakers-Massey homotopy excision theorem). *Suppose $(X; A, B)$ is a triad such that X is the union of the interiors of A and B , and $A \cap B$ is nonempty. Assume additionally that the pair $(A, A \cap B)$ is m -connected and the pair $(B, A \cap B)$ is n -connected for some $m, n \geq 0$, where either $m \geq 1$ or $A \cap B$ is path-connected. Then for all choices of base point in $A \cap B$, the map $\pi_k(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_k(X, B)$ induced by the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$ is bijective for $1 \leq k < m + n$ and surjective for $k = m + n$.*

72.1. CW-approximation. As mentioned in §71.1, the homotopy excision theorem implies a similar statement in which the hypothesis $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ is modified so that $(X; A, B)$ is an arbitrary CW-triad with $X = A \cup B$. Thanks to CW-approximation, the implication can also be turned around, and one can even assume stricter hypotheses on the CW-triad without loss of generality. Indeed, according to Theorem 70.12, the triad $(X; A, B)$ in the statement of Theorem 71.3 admits a CW-approximation

$$(X'; A', B') \xrightarrow{\varphi} (X; A, B),$$

meaning a CW-triad $(X'; A', B')$ and a map of triads φ such that the resulting maps $A' \rightarrow A$, $B' \rightarrow B$, $A' \cap B' \rightarrow A \cap B$ and $X' \rightarrow X$ are all weak homotopy equivalences. By the naturality of the long exact sequence of homotopy groups, it follows that φ also induces isomorphisms of relative homotopy groups $\pi_k(A', C') \rightarrow \pi_k(A, C)$ and $\pi_k(X', B') \rightarrow \pi_k(X, B)$, and the maps $\pi_k(A, C) \rightarrow \pi_k(X, B)$ will then be bijective or surjective if and only if the same holds for the corresponding maps $\pi_k(A', C') \rightarrow \pi_k(X', B')$. The connectedness assumptions on (A, C) and (B, C) then allow us to assume more stringent hypotheses on the CW-triad $(X'; A', B')$:

LEMMA 72.1. *Theorem 71.3 holds if it can be proved with the hypothesis $X = \mathring{A} \cup \mathring{B}$ replaced by the hypothesis that $(X; A, B)$ is a CW-triad with $X = A \cup B$ such that the m -skeleton of A and the n -skeleton of B are both contained in $A \cap B$. $\square$*

72.2. Homotopy groups of triads. Theorem 71.3 can be deduced from a more symmetric result that puts the subsets $A, B \subset X$ on equal footing. The statement in its most elegant form requires extending π_n to a functor on the category of pointed triads. We will give some convincing arguments below as to why the following definition is a good one, but one can at first simply view it as a straightforward extension of the definition of the relative homotopy groups $\pi_n(X, A)$. The latter requires singling out a particular boundary face $I^{n-1} = I^{n-1} \times \{0\} \subset \partial I^n$ of the n -cube for special treatment, and it can then be expressed as the set of homotopy classes of maps of triads

$$\pi_n(X, A) = [(I^n; I^{n-1}, J^{n-1}), (X; A, *)]_o,$$

where $J^{n-1} := \overline{\partial I^n \setminus I^{n-1}} \subset \partial I^n$. The definition thus makes sense only when $n \geq 1$, and it only has a group structure when $n \geq 2$. Going further, the definition of $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ requires singling out two boundary faces $I_A^{n-1}, I_B^{n-1} \subset \partial I^n$, distinguished by the last two of the n coordinates on I^n ,

$$I_A^{n-1} := I^{n-2} \times (\{0\} \times I), \quad I_B^{n-1} := I^{n-2} \times (I \times \{0\}) = I^{n-1} \times \{0\}.$$

The definition therefore only makes sense if $n \geq 2$, and it will only have a group structure for $n \geq 3$. We shall denote the closure of the complement of these two boundary faces by

$$K^{n-1} := \overline{\partial I^n \setminus (I_A^{n-1} \cup I_B^{n-1})} \subset \partial I^n,$$

and also write

$$J_A^{n-2} := I_A^{n-1} \cap K^{n-1} \subset \partial I_A^{n-1}, \quad \text{and} \quad J_B^{n-2} := I_B^{n-1} \cap K^{n-1} \subset \partial I_B^{n-1}.$$

Observe that

$$I_{AB}^{n-2} := I_A^{n-1} \cap I_B^{n-1}$$

is now a distinguished $(n-2)$ -dimensional face of both ∂I_A^{n-1} and ∂I_B^{n-1} , and we have

$$\overline{\partial I_A^{n-1} \setminus I_{AB}^{n-2}} = J_A^{n-2}, \quad \overline{\partial I_B^{n-1} \setminus I_{AB}^{n-2}} = J_B^{n-2},$$

implying

$$I_{AB}^{n-2} \cap J_A^{n-2} = \partial I_{AB}^{n-2} = I_{AB}^{n-2} \cap J_B^{n-2},$$

so that the inclusions of I_{AB}^{n-2} into ∂I_A^{n-1} and ∂I_B^{n-1} descend to homeomorphisms

$$\partial I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2} \cong I_{AB}^{n-2} / \partial I_{AB}^{n-2} \cong \partial I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}.$$

DEFINITION 72.2. For any integer $n \geq 2$ and pointed triad $(X; A, B)$ with base point $* \in A \cap B$, we define the pointed set

$$\pi_n(X; A, B) := [(I^n; I_A^{n-1}, I_B^{n-1}, K^{n-1}), (X; A, B, *)]_o,$$

i.e. $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ is the set of homotopy classes of unpointed maps of tetrads $(I^n; I_A^{n-1}, I_B^{n-1}, K^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X; A, B, *)$, with the homotopy class of the constant map to $* \in X$ serving as a base point. If $n \geq 3$, we endow $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ with a group structure whose product is defined via concatenation with respect to any of the first $n-2$ coordinates on I^n .

There are several alternative ways to characterize $\pi_n(X; A, B)$, each of which has its own advantages. To start with, we can collapse the closed subset $K^{n-1} \subset \partial I^n$ to a point and identify unpointed maps of tetrads with pointed maps of triads to write

$$\pi_n(X; A, B) = [(I^n / K^{n-1}; I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2}, I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}), (X; A, B)]_+.$$

This perspective seems much more revealing if one notices that the quotients are all homeomorphic to disks: indeed, for the same reason as illustrated in Figure 49, there are homeomorphisms of pairs

$$\begin{aligned} (I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2}, \partial I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2}) &\cong (I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2}, I_{AB}^{n-2} / \partial I_{AB}^{n-2}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^{n-1}, S^{n-2}), \\ (I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}, \partial I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}) &\cong (I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}, I_{AB}^{n-2} / \partial I_{AB}^{n-2}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^{n-1}, S^{n-2}), \end{aligned}$$

and Figure 54 illustrates how to extend this to a homeomorphism of tetrads

$$(I^n / K^{n-1}; I_A^{n-1} / J_A^{n-2}, I_B^{n-1} / J_B^{n-2}, I_{AB}^{n-2} / \partial I_{AB}^{n-2}) \cong (\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}, \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}, S^{n-2}),$$

where we are splitting the sphere $S^{n-1} = \partial \mathbb{D}^n$ into two hemispheres

$$S^{n-1} = \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1} \cup_{S^{n-2}} \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}$$

that intersect along an equator $S^{n-2} = \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1} \cap \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1} \subset S^{n-1}$. We can thus describe $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_n(X; A, B) &\cong [(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}, \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}), (X; A, B)]_+ \\ &= [(\mathbb{D}^n; \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}, \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}, S^{n-2}), (X; A, B, A \cap B)]_+. \end{aligned}$$

This characterization of $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ is valuable for geometric intuition, though less so if one wants to understand its group structure for $n \geq 3$.

For yet another perspective, note that a map $f : (I^n; I_A^{n-1}, I_B^{n-1}, K^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X; A, B, *)$ representing an element $[f] \in \pi_n(X; A, B)$ can be identified with a map of pairs

$$(I^{n-2}, \partial I^{n-2}) \xrightarrow{F} (\mathcal{F}(I^2, X), *), \quad F(t_1, \dots, t_{n-2})(s, t) := f(t_1, \dots, t_{n-2}, s, t),$$

where the base point $* \in \mathcal{F}(I^2, X)$ is the constant map $I^2 \rightarrow * \in X$, and moreover, the image of F lies in the subspace

$$(72.1) \quad \{\alpha : I^2 \rightarrow X \mid \alpha(\{0\} \times I) \subset A, \alpha(I \times \{0\}) \subset B, \alpha \equiv * \text{ on the rest of } \partial I^2\}.$$

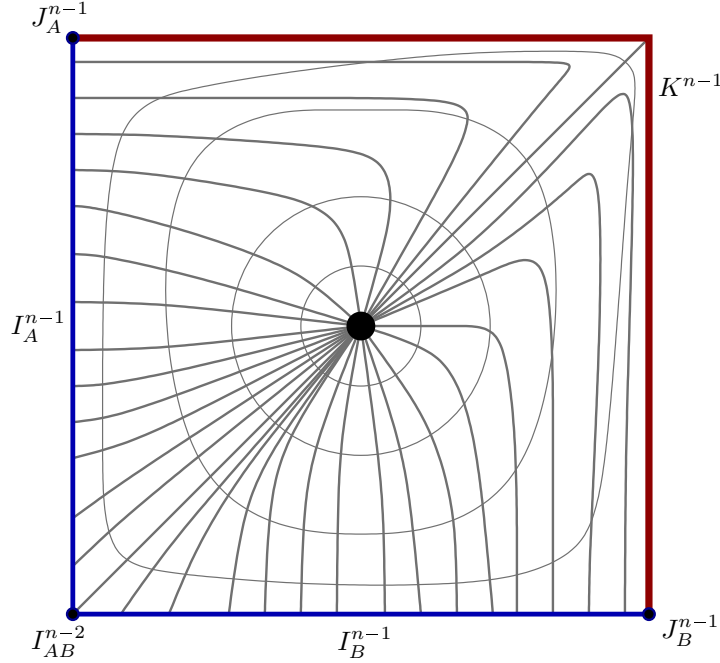


FIGURE 54. A homeomorphism $I^n/K^{n-1} \cong \mathbb{D}^n$ identifying I_A^{n-1}/J_A^{n-2} and I_B^{n-1}/J_B^{n-2} with the hemispheres $\mathbb{D}_+^{n-1}$ and $\mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}$ respectively in the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^n$, meeting along the equator $I_{AB}^{n-2}/\partial I_{AB}^{n-2} \cong S^{n-2} = \mathbb{D}_+^{n-1} \cap \mathbb{D}_-^{n-1}$.

If we identify maps $\alpha : I^2 \rightarrow X$ with paths $\gamma : I \rightarrow X^I$ in path space by writing $\gamma(s)(t) := \alpha(s, t)$, we notice that for each $s \in I$, $\gamma(s)$ is now an element of the homotopy fiber of the inclusion $B \hookrightarrow X$; moreover, it is the base point $*$ in $F(B \hookrightarrow X)$ for $s = 1$, while for $s = 0$, it is a path in A from $A \cap B$ to the base point, thus making it an element of the homotopy fiber of the inclusion $A \cap B \hookrightarrow A$. This means that γ itself is a path in $F(B \hookrightarrow X)$ from the subspace $F(A \cap B \hookrightarrow A)$ to the base point, and we therefore have a bijection

$$\pi_n(X; A, B) \cong \pi_{n-2}\left(F(F(A \cap B \hookrightarrow A) \hookrightarrow F(B \hookrightarrow X))\right),$$

which is a group isomorphism for $n \geq 3$. If you recall how the definition of the relative homotopy groups was motivated in §68.2, you may now notice that π_{n-2} of the homotopy fiber of an inclusion is the same thing as the relative π_{n-1} of the corresponding pair, so what we've just written also gives a canonical isomorphism

$$\pi_n(X; A, B) \cong \pi_{n-1}(F(B \hookrightarrow X), F(A \cap B \hookrightarrow A)).$$

This is useful because we can now fit $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ into the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups for the pair on the right hand side; the other terms in that sequence are all absolute homotopy groups of homotopy fibers of inclusions, and thus have natural identifications with straightforward relative homotopy groups. The result is a long exact sequence of the form

(72.2)

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \rightarrow \pi_4(X; A, B) &\rightarrow \pi_3(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_3(X, B) \rightarrow \pi_3(X; A, B) \\ &\rightarrow \pi_2(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_2(X, B) \rightarrow \pi_2(X; A, B) \rightarrow \pi_1(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, B), \end{aligned}$$

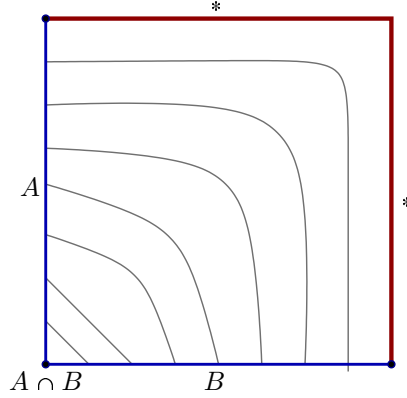


FIGURE 55. Reinterpreting maps $I^2 \rightarrow X$ that satisfy the conditions of (72.1) as paths in the path space $P(A, B)$ from $A \cap B$ to the base point.

in which the maps $\pi_n(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_n(X, B)$ are induced by the inclusion of pairs $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$. If you look again at the statement of the homotopy excision theorem, it should be clear now why this exact sequence might be useful—the theorem will be an easy consequence of the following result:

THEOREM 72.3 (Homotopy excision theorem, symmetric version). *Assume the same hypotheses as in Theorem 71.3, except that arbitrary values $m, n \geq 0$ are allowed and there are no connectivity assumptions on $A \cap B$. Then for all choices of base point in $A \cap B$,*

$$\pi_k(X; A, B) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 2 \leq k \leq m + n.$$

REMARK 72.4. The additional hypothesis in Theorem 71.3 that either $m \geq 1$ or $A \cap B$ is path-connected is needed in order to make the map $\pi_1(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, B)$ surjective, since the latter cannot be deduced from the long exact sequence above. Proving this surjectivity is a straightforward exercise that might remind you of the proofs of the simplest cases of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem (see Exercise 72.2). The rest of the theorem then follows from the symmetric version stated above via the long exact sequence.

With Theorem 72.3 as a goal, we will need to have an effective means of proving $\pi_n(X; A, B) = 0$, and to this end, it will be useful to have one more alternative characterization of $\pi_n(X, A, B)$ that puts the two subsets $A, B \subset X$ on equal footing. Consider the double mapping path space

$$P(A, B) := P(A \hookrightarrow X, B \hookrightarrow X) = \{\gamma \in X^I \mid \gamma(0) \in A \text{ and } \gamma(1) \in B\},$$

which contains an embedded copy of $A \cap B$, identified with the space of constant paths

$$A \cap B \cong \{\text{constant paths}\} \subset P(A, B).$$

The basic observation is that for reasons that should be clear if you look at Figure 55, the space of maps $I^2 \rightarrow X$ described in (72.1) is (non-canonically) homeomorphic to the space of paths through the space $P(A, B)$ that begin in the subspace $A \cap B \subset P(A, B)$ and end at the base point of $P(A, B)$, i.e. the constant path at $* \in A \cap B \subset X$. We therefore have

$$\pi_n(X; A, B) \cong \pi_{n-2}(F(A \cap B \hookrightarrow P(A, B))) \cong \pi_{n-1}(P(A, B), A \cap B).$$

Since we already know a useful criterion for the vanishing of relative homotopy groups, we can plug this into Proposition 69.11 and conclude:

PROPOSITION 72.5. *For each $n \geq 2$ and an unpointed triad $(X; A, B)$ with $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$, $\pi_n(X; A, B)$ vanishes for every choice of base point in $A \cap B$ if and only if every map of pairs*

$$(\mathbb{D}^{n-1}, S^{n-2}) \rightarrow (P(A, B), A \cap B)$$

is homotopic rel S^{n-2} to a map with image in the subset of constant paths $A \cap B \subset P(A, B)$. $\square$

72.3. The dimensional argument. The rest of this lecture will be concerned with the proof of Theorem 72.3, and thanks to Lemma 72.1, it will suffice to prove it under the modified hypothesis that $(X; A, B)$ is a CW-triad with $X = A \cup B$ such that $A^m, B^n \subset A \cap B$. The main step is the following special case, and it is the step in which we will see the importance of the dimensional assumption $k \leq m + n$ most clearly.

LEMMA 72.6. *Assume $m, n \geq 0$ and $X = e^p \cup C \cup e^q$ is a CW-complex that consists of a subcomplex C and exactly two extra cells e^p, e^q with dimensions $p > m$ and $q > n$ respectively. Then for $A := e^p \cup C$ and $B := C \cup e^q$, we have $\pi_k(X; A, B) = 0$ for $2 \leq k \leq m + n$ and all choices of base point in $C = A \cap B$.*

Observe that in the setting of Lemma 72.6, if we choose points $x \in e^p$ and $y \in e^q$ in the interiors of each of the extra cells, then there is a deformation retraction implying that the inclusion

$$(X; A, B) \hookrightarrow (X; X \setminus \{y\}, X \setminus \{x\})$$

is a pointed homotopy equivalence of triads. We are therefore free to modify the hypotheses of the lemma and assume

$$(72.3) \quad A := X \setminus \{y\}, \quad B := X \setminus \{x\}, \quad C := A \cap B = X \setminus \{x, y\}.$$

In light of Proposition 72.5, it suffices to prove under these modified assumptions that for $2 \leq k \leq m + n < p + q - 1$, every map of pairs

$$(\mathbb{D}^{k-1}, S^{k-2}) \xrightarrow{f} (P(A, B), C)$$

is homotopic rel S^{k-2} to a map with image in the set of constant paths $C \subset P(A, B)$. Our proof of this will make use of two black boxes from the smooth category, namely the fact that continuous maps between smooth manifolds can always be perturbed to smooth maps, and Sard's theorem, stating that almost every value of a smooth map is a regular value. The details of these results can be found in standard differential topology books such as [Hir94]. If you prefer to avoid the smooth category, you'll find a proof that does that in [tD08, §6.9], and while the details differ, the underlying intuition is the same: the fact that $\dim(e^p \times e^q) > k + 1$ provides enough space to move around in $e^p \times e^q$ and thus avoid certain intersections. Here is the crucial technical lemma:

LEMMA 72.7. *Under the assumptions stated above, the map $f : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow P(A, B)$ is homotopic rel S^{k-2} to a map with the property that for each $z \in \mathbb{D}^{k-1}$, the path $f(z) \in P(A, B) \subset X^I$ does not hit both x and y .*

PROOF. By adjunction, $f : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow P(A, B) \subset X^I$ is equivalent via the relation $\check{f}(z; t) := f(z)(t)$ to a map of tetrads

$$(\mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times I; \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times \{0\}, \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times \{1\}, S^{k-2} \times I) \xrightarrow{\check{f}} (X; A, B, C),$$

and up to a C^0 -small homotopy, we can assume that $\check{f}$ is smooth on some neighborhood of the subsets $\check{f}^{-1}(x)$ and $\check{f}^{-1}(y)$, where it can be regarded as a map into the smooth manifold $e^p = \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^p$ or $e^q = \mathring{\mathbb{D}}^q$ respectively. The map

$$\mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times I^2 \xrightarrow{F} X \times X : (z, s, t) \mapsto (\check{f}(z, s), \check{f}(z, t))$$

is then also smooth near $F^{-1}(x, y)$, and in light of the dimensional condition

$$\dim(\mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times I^2) = k + 1 < p + q = \dim(e^p \times e^q),$$

Sard's theorem implies that almost every point (x', y') near (x, y) is not in the image of F . Using isotopies of $\mathbb{R}^p$ and $\mathbb{R}^q$ near x and y respectively, we are free to assume after a further homotopy of f that (x, y) instead of (x', y') is a point that F misses, and f now has the desired property. $\square$

PROOF OF LEMMA 72.6. Under the modified hypotheses stated in (72.3), our task is to show that the given map $f : (\mathbb{D}^{k-1}, S^{k-2}) \rightarrow (P(A, B), C)$ is homotopic rel S^{k-2} to a map with image in C . Thanks to Lemma 72.7, we can now assume all of the paths $f(z) \in X^I$ miss at least one of x or y , and we can therefore choose a continuous function $u : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow I$ such that

$$u(z) = 0 \text{ if } f(z) \text{ hits } y, \quad u(z) = 1 \text{ if } f(z) \text{ hits } x.$$

As a map $f : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow X^I$, f is clearly homotopic rel S^{k-2} to the map $f' : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow P(A, B)$ which sends each $z \in \mathbb{D}^{k-1}$ to the constant path living at the point $f(z)(u(z))$. We claim that this is in fact a homotopy of maps $\mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow P(A, B)$ and that f' takes values in C , meaning that none of the constant paths $f'(z)$ live at x or y . Indeed, one defines the homotopy $\{f_s : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow X^I\}_{s \in I}$ such that for each $s \in I$ and $z \in \mathbb{D}^{k-1}$, $f_s(z)$ is a reparametrization of $f(z)$ over subintervals that shrink to zero length as $s \rightarrow 1$. Now observe:

- If $u(z) \notin \{0, 1\}$, then $f(z)$ misses both x and y , and therefore so does $f_s(z)$ for every $s \in I$.
- If $u(z) = 0$, then $f(z)$ may hit y but it misses x , and $f'(z)$ lives at the point $f(z)(0) \in A = X \setminus \{y\}$. The fact that $f(z)$ misses x guarantees also $f_s(z)(1) \in B = X \setminus \{x\}$ for every s , and that $f'(z)$ is also contained in $C = X \setminus \{x, y\}$.
- If $u(z) = 1$, one reaches a similar conclusion with the roles of x and y reversed.

$\square$

72.4. Induction on the number of added cells. Assume now that $(X; A, B)$ is a general CW-triad with $X = A \cup B$ and $C := A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ such that $A^m, B^n \subset C$. A map $f : \mathbb{D}^{k-1} \rightarrow P(A, B) \subset X^I$ is equivalent via adjunction to a map $\mathbb{D}^{k-1} \times I \rightarrow X$, whose image must be contained in a finite subcomplex of X , and it will therefore suffice to consider the special case in which X contains only finitely many cells outside of C . The reduction of that case to the even more special case considered in Lemma 72.6 is an essentially formal argument based on exact sequences.

We need one bit of general theory that has gone unmentioned so far: suppose (X, A, B) is a **pointed triple** of spaces, meaning $B \subset A \subset X$, equipped with a base point in B . There is then a straightforward extension of the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups to an exact sequence of the triple,

$$\begin{aligned} \dots \longrightarrow \pi_3(X, B) \longrightarrow \pi_3(X, A) \longrightarrow \pi_2(A, B) \longrightarrow \pi_2(X, B) \longrightarrow \pi_2(X, A) \\ \longrightarrow \pi_1(A, B) \longrightarrow \pi_1(X, B) \longrightarrow \pi_1(X, A), \end{aligned}$$

where the maps in the sequence are induced by the obvious inclusions of pointed pairs, plus connecting homomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \pi_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & \pi_{n-1}(A) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n-1}(A, B) \\ & & \searrow & \nearrow & \\ & & & & \end{array}$$

determined by the connecting homomorphisms $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(A)$ from the long exact sequence of (X, A) and the inclusion of pairs $(A, *) \hookrightarrow (A, B)$. The exactness of this sequence can be deduced via a diagram chase in the same manner that one establishes long exact sequences of triples in

axiomatic homology, e.g. using a “braid” diagram as in (36.2). Alternatively, it is not hard to verify exactness directly from the definitions of the maps in the sequence.

We claim: Theorem 72.3 holds in general if it can be shown to hold under the assumption that $A \setminus C$ contains only one cell. This is proved by induction on the number of cells in $A \setminus C$, so suppose for some $\ell \geq 2$ that the claim has already been established for cases where $A \setminus C$ contains fewer than ℓ cells. For the inductive step, we consider an inclusion of CW-triads

$$(X; A, B) \hookrightarrow (X'; A', B) \hookrightarrow (X'; A', X)$$

where $A \setminus C$ is assumed to contain $\ell - 1$ cells, $A' = A \cup e^p$ contains one extra cell of dimension $p > m$, and $X' = X \cup e^p = A' \cup B$, so

$$A' \cap B = A \cap B = C, \quad \text{and} \quad A' \cap X = A.$$

Since A' has only one cell outside of A and A has $\ell - 1$ cells outside of C , the inductive hypothesis implies that the theorem holds for the triads $(X'; A', X)$ and $(X; A, B)$. In light of the inclusion of pointed triples $(A', A, C) \hookrightarrow (X', X, B)$, we have a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \dots & \rightarrow & \pi_{k+1}(A', A) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(A, C) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(A', C) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(A', A) & \rightarrow & \pi_{k-1}(A, C) & \rightarrow & \dots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ \dots & \rightarrow & \pi_{k+1}(X', X) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(X, B) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(X', B) & \rightarrow & \pi_k(X', X) & \rightarrow & \pi_{k-1}(X, B) & \rightarrow & \dots \end{array},$$

whose rows are long exact sequences of triples. Translating information between pairs and triads via the exact sequence (72.2), one finds that for most values of k in the relevant range, the inductive hypothesis makes four out of the five vertical maps in this diagram bijective, implying via the five-lemma that the same is true of the map $\pi_k(A', C) \rightarrow \pi_k(X', B)$. Some care must be taken with the following cases:

- For $k = m + n$, the inductive hypothesis gives no information about the map from $\pi_{m+n+1}(A', A)$ to $\pi_{m+n+1}(X', X)$ on the left hand side, and it tells us that $\pi_{m+n}(A, C) \rightarrow \pi_{m+n}(X, B)$ and $\pi_{m+n}(A', A) \rightarrow \pi_{m+n}(X', X)$ are surjective, but not necessarily injective. Here the five-lemma in its standard form is not applicable, but a similar diagram chase shows that the map $\pi_{m+n}(A', C) \rightarrow \pi_{m+n}(X', B)$ is also surjective; together with the fact that $\pi_{m+n-1}(A', C) \rightarrow \pi_{m+n-1}(X', B)$ is an isomorphism, this suffices for the desired purpose of showing $\pi_{m+n}(X'; A', B) = 0$.
- For $k = 1$, the terms $\pi_0(A, C)$ and $\pi_0(X, B)$ on the right hand side are not defined, and the inductive hypothesis tells us that the maps $\pi_1(A, C) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, B)$ and $\pi_1(A', A) \rightarrow \pi_1(X', X)$ are injective, but not necessarily surjective, so again the five-lemma in its standard form is not applicable. Additionally, one has the complication that relative π_1 terms are not naturally groups, but only pointed sets. One finds however that the usual diagram chase underlying the five-lemma implies that the map $\pi_1(A', C) \rightarrow \pi_1(X', B)$ has trivial kernel, and one can then exploit the freedom to choose the base point arbitrarily to deduce from this that it is actually injective. Together with the fact that $\pi_2(A', C) \rightarrow \pi_2(X', B)$ is an isomorphism, this suffices for showing that $\pi_2(X'; A', B) = 0$.

Finally, we claim that Theorem 72.3 also holds if it can be shown to hold under the assumption that *each* of $A \setminus C$ and $B \setminus C$ has only one cell, i.e. the hypothesis of Lemma 72.6. We are now free to assume $A \setminus C$ has only one cell, and can argue by induction on the number of cells in $B \setminus C$. For the inductive step, we consider an inclusion of CW-triads

$$(X; A; B) \hookrightarrow (X'; A, B') \hookrightarrow (X'; X, B')$$

where $B' = B \cup e^q$ contains one extra cell of dimension $q > n$ and $X' = X \cup e^q = A \cup B'$, so

$$A \cap B' = A \cap B = C, \quad \text{and} \quad X \cap B' = B.$$

The inductive hypothesis implies that the theorem holds for the triads $(X'; X, B')$ and $(X; A, B)$, and a repeat of the argument of the previous paragraph using the five-lemma then shows that it also holds for $(X'; A, B')$.

The proof of Theorem 71.3 is now complete.

72.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 72.1. Find explicit descriptions of all of the maps in the long exact sequence (72.2) of homotopy groups for a triad.

EXERCISE 72.2 (*). Fill in the gaps between the proofs Theorems 71.3 and 72.3, i.e. show that under the hypotheses given in Theorem 71.3, the map $\pi_1(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, B)$ is surjective for all choices of base points.

73. The Hurewicz theorem

The most basic version of the Hurewicz theorem was proved already in §71.5, but there is more to be said on this subject, including most especially the relative version of the theorem. While the discussion in §71.5 was framed entirely in terms of cellular homology, we will take this opportunity to refresh our memory on axiomatic homology theories, including *generalized* homology, which will play a significant role in further developments.

73.1. Generalized and reduced homology. Recall that in axiomatic terms, a **homology theory** h_* with values in the category $R\text{-Mod}$ of modules over a fixed commutative ring R is a collection of covariant functors $\{h_n : \text{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ equipped with natural transformations

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A) := h_{n-1}(A, \emptyset)$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ that satisfy the set of four axioms listed below. For a cohomology theory h^* , one instead has contravariant functors h^n and natural transformations

$$h^n(A, \emptyset) =: h^n(A) \xrightarrow{\partial^*} h^{n+1}(X, A)$$

satisfying obvious analogues of the axioms—I will concentrate on the covariant case, and usually only mention the contravariant case when there is something non-obvious about it. The following three axioms (or their contravariant versions) are always assumed:

- (HTP) **homotopy**: The functors h_n descend to the homotopy category as functors $\text{hTop}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.
- (LES) **exactness**: For each $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ and the natural inclusion maps $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j : X = (X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, A)$, the sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow h_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} h_n(X) \xrightarrow{j_*} h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} h_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow \dots$$

is exact.

- (EXC) **excision**: If $X = A \cup B$ and there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ that equals 0 on $X \setminus B$ and 1 on $X \setminus A$, then the homomorphisms $h_n(A, A \cap B) \rightarrow h_n(X, B)$ induced by the inclusion $(A, A \cap B) \hookrightarrow (X, B)$ are isomorphisms.

Note: This formulation of the excision axiom is slightly nonstandard, as one would usually only require the weaker hypothesis that X is covered by the interiors of A and B . On the other hand, the stronger hypothesis is equivalent to the weaker one in every application of excision you're ever likely to think about, e.g. whenever X is metrizable, or in any other situation where Urysohn's lemma holds. It will be convenient to have the stronger hypothesis when we talk about homotopy-theoretic constructions of cohomology theories.

The three axioms above suffice for proving a large portion of the important results about homology theories, especially if one is willing to restrict to finite cell complexes. Dealing with noncompact spaces requires a fourth axiom that accommodates infinite disjoint unions:

- (ADD) **additivity**: For any collection of spaces $\{X_\alpha \in \mathbf{Top}\}_{\alpha \in J}$ and their natural inclusions $i^\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the induced maps

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha} i_*^\alpha : \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_n(X_\alpha) \longrightarrow h_n\left(\coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha\right)$$

are isomorphisms. For a cohomology theory, one instead requires the induced maps

$$\prod_{\alpha} (i^\alpha)^* : h^n\left(\coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha\right) \longrightarrow \prod_{\alpha} h^n(X_\alpha)$$

to be isomorphisms.

The homology/cohomology groups $h_n(*)$ or $h^n(*)$ of a one-point space $*$ are called the **coefficient groups** of the theory.

We call h_* or h^* an **ordinary** (or sometimes also “classical”) homology/cohomology theory if it additionally satisfies a fifth axiom:

- (DIM) **dimension**: $h_n(*) = 0$ (or $h^n(*) = 0$) for all $n \neq 0$.

The term **generalized** homology/cohomology is often used when one wants to make clear that the dimension axiom is *not* being assumed. In the rest of this course, we will not normally assume the dimension axiom unless it is explicitly needed, though of course it is satisfied by the standard examples that you have seen before, namely singular homology and cohomology. An interesting example of a homology theory that is not ordinary is bordism, whose coefficient groups $h_n(*)$ give the answers to nontrivial questions about the classification of closed n -manifolds up to the bordism equivalence relation, e.g. in oriented bordism theory, $h_4(*)$ is nontrivial due to the existence of closed oriented 4-manifolds that are not boundaries of any compact oriented 5-manifolds. One can use Poincaré duality and the Euler characteristic to show that $\mathbb{CP}^2$ is such a manifold (see Corollary 53.6 in last semester's Lecture 53).

REMARK 73.1. For finite disjoint unions, one can derive the additivity axiom from the exactness and excision axioms. This is why the additivity axiom did not appear in the foundational book by Eilenberg and Steenrod [ES52]. It was added later by Milnor [Mil62] in order to extend the computation of homology for CW-complexes from compact to infinite complexes.

REMARK 73.2. Combining the additivity and exactness axioms with the 5-lemma produces a variant of the additivity axiom for disjoint unions of pairs $\coprod_{\alpha} (X_\alpha, A_\alpha) := (\coprod_{\alpha} X_\alpha, \coprod_{\alpha} A_\alpha)$.

The **reduced** groups associated to a homology or cohomology theory are defined via the unique map $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$ to the one-point space as

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) := \ker\left(h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(*)\right) \subset h_n(X), \quad \tilde{h}^n(X) := \operatorname{coker}\left(h^n(*) \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} h^n(X)\right) = h^n(X)/\operatorname{im}(\epsilon^*),$$

and for pairs (X, A) with $A \neq \emptyset$, $\tilde{h}_n(X, A) := h_n(X, A)$ or $\tilde{h}^n(X, A) := h^n(X, A)$. The proof of the following is a straightforward diagram-chasing exercise:

PROPOSITION 73.3. *Reduced homology or cohomology groups have the following two properties:*

- (1) *The homomorphisms induced by continuous maps $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ restrict to maps $\tilde{h}_n(X) \xrightarrow{f_*} \tilde{h}_n(Y)$, or in the case of cohomology, descend to maps $\tilde{h}^n(Y) \xrightarrow{f^*} \tilde{h}^n(X)$. This makes the reduced theories into functors on $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ (which automatically descend to functors on $\mathbf{hTop}^{\text{rel}}$ and are therefore invariants of homotopy type).*
- (2) *The connecting homomorphisms $\partial_* : h_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_{n-1}(A)$ always have image in $\tilde{h}_{n-1}(A)$, or in the case of cohomology, the maps $\partial^* : h^n(A) \rightarrow h^{n+1}(X, A)$ descend to well-defined maps $\tilde{h}^n(A) \rightarrow h^{n+1}(X, A)$. It follows that the long exact sequences of pairs (X, A) also define exact sequences of the corresponding reduced groups.*

□

Since any choice of map $i : * \hookrightarrow X$ defines a right-inverse of $\epsilon : X \rightarrow *$, one obtains splittings of the short exact sequences

$$0 \rightarrow \tilde{h}_n(X) \hookrightarrow h_n(X) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_*} h_n(*) \rightarrow 0, \quad 0 \rightarrow h^n(*) \xrightarrow{\epsilon^*} h^n(X) \xrightarrow{\text{pr}} \tilde{h}^n(X) \rightarrow 0,$$

making each unreduced group (non-naturally) isomorphic to the direct sum of its reduced counterpart with the corresponding coefficient group. Note that since $h_n(*)$ can be nontrivial for any n , one does *not* generally conclude from this that the reduced and unreduced theories match outside of degree 0, unless the dimension axiom holds. It is useful however to observe that $\tilde{h}_n(*)$ vanishes for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by construction, and therefore so does $\tilde{h}_n(X)$ whenever X is a contractible space. It follows via the reduced long exact sequence of the pair $(X, *)$ that the inclusion $(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow (X, *)$ induces a natural isomorphism

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) \cong h_n(X, *) \quad \text{for any pointed space } X.$$

The analogous remarks about reduced cohomology are equally valid. The standard argument for relating $\tilde{H}_k(X)$ and $\tilde{H}_{k+1}(\Sigma_o X)$ in singular homology works the same in any generalized homology or cohomology theory, giving a homological analogue of the Freudenthal suspension theorem:

PROPOSITION 73.4. *For all spaces X and all generalized homology or cohomology theories, there are natural isomorphisms $\tilde{h}_n(X) \cong \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma_o X)$ or $\tilde{h}^n(X) \cong \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma_o X)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. □*

The next result can be proved by adapting the argument behind Theorem 71.12 (see Exercise 71.4), and it justifies thinking of cofibrations as a variant of the “good pairs” used in [Hat02], but with better philosophical motivations:

THEOREM 73.5. *For any free cofibration $A \hookrightarrow X$, the quotient projection $(X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, A/A) = (X/A, *)$ induces natural isomorphisms*

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(X/A, *) \cong \tilde{h}_n(X/A)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and similarly for cohomology theories. □

COROLLARY 73.6 (pointed additivity theorem). *For any collection of well-pointed spaces $\{(X_\alpha, x_\alpha) \in \mathbf{Top}_*\}_{\alpha \in J}$ with inclusion maps $i^\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigvee_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the induced homomorphisms*

$$\bigoplus_\alpha i_*^\alpha : \bigoplus_\alpha \tilde{h}_n(X_\alpha) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_n\left(\bigvee_\alpha X_\alpha\right)$$

are isomorphisms.

PROOF. Well-pointedness implies that the inclusion $\coprod_{\alpha} \{x_{\alpha}\} \hookrightarrow \coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$ is a free cofibration, so combining Theorem 73.5 with the relative version of the additivity axiom (Remark 73.2) gives a sequence of natural isomorphisms

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha} \tilde{h}_n(X_{\alpha}) \cong \bigoplus_{\alpha} h_n(X_{\alpha}, \{x_{\alpha}\}) \cong h_n\left(\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}, \coprod_{\alpha} \{x_{\alpha}\}\right) \cong \tilde{h}_n\left(\coprod_{\alpha} X_{\alpha} / \coprod_{\alpha} \{x_{\alpha}\}\right),$$

and the quotient at the right is precisely the wedge sum $\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}$. $\square$

REMARK 73.7. Using the 5-lemma, the pointed additivity property also generalizes to arbitrary wedge sums $\bigvee_{\alpha} (X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}) := (\bigvee_{\alpha} X_{\alpha}, \bigvee_{\alpha} A_{\alpha})$ of **well-pointed pairs** $(X_{\alpha}, A_{\alpha}) \in \mathbf{Top}_{*}^{\text{rel}}$, i.e. pairs with base points such that both of the inclusions $* \hookrightarrow A_{\alpha}$ and $* \hookrightarrow X_{\alpha}$ are free cofibrations.

73.2. The Hurewicz map is a homomorphism. The absolute and relative Hurewicz maps

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_n(X) &\xrightarrow{\Phi} \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[S^n], \\ \pi_n(X, A) &\xrightarrow{\Phi} H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) : [f] \mapsto f_*[\mathbb{D}^n] \end{aligned}$$

were defined in §71.5 for a pointed CW-complex X or CW-pair (X, A) in which the base point is a 0-cell. One can similarly define them for arbitrary pointed spaces or pairs using any ordinary homology theory h_* with coefficient group $h_0(*) = \mathbb{Z}$,

$$(73.1) \quad \pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \tilde{h}_n(X), \quad \pi_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\Phi} h_n(X, A),$$

since the axiomatic computation of homology for CW-complexes gives natural isomorphisms

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) \cong \tilde{H}_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}), \quad h_n(X, A) \cong H_n^{\text{CW}}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}),$$

thus determining canonical generators $[S^n] \in \tilde{h}_n(S^n)$ and $[\mathbb{D}^n] \in h_n(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$. One detail that is not obvious from this definition is that Φ is a group homomorphism.

To see why, let's generalize the setting a bit: Suppose h_* is an arbitrary generalized homology theory, and $(Q, B) \in \mathbf{Top}_{*}^{\text{rel}}$ is a well-pointed pair that is also a cogroup object in $\mathbf{hTop}_{*}^{\text{rel}}$, so that for any other pointed pair $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}_{*}^{\text{rel}}$, the set

$$[(Q, B), (X, A)]_+$$

of pointed homotopy classes of maps of pairs $(Q, B) \rightarrow (X, A)$ has a natural group structure.

EXAMPLE 73.8. For $n \geq 1$ and $A = \{*\} \subset X$, choosing

$$(Q, B) := (S^n, *) := (I^n / \partial I^n, \partial I^n / \partial I^n)$$

makes $[(Q, B), (X, A)]_+$ the group $\pi_n(X)$. The cogroup object structure of $(S^n, *)$ comes from the natural identification of $I^n / \partial I^n$ with the reduced suspension $\Sigma^n S^0$.

EXAMPLE 73.9. For $n \geq 2$, identify the cube I^{n-1} with $I^{n-1} \times \{0\}$ in the boundary of I^n , write $J^{n-1} := \overline{\partial I^n \setminus I^{n-1}}$ and define

$$(Q, B) := (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) := (I^n / J^{n-1}, I^{n-1} / \partial I^{n-1}),$$

with the collapsed boundary of I^{n-1} understood as the base point $* \in S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{D}^n$. As we've previously observed (see e.g. Figure 49), this pair really is homeomorphic to the standard presentation of $(\mathbb{D}^n, \partial \mathbb{D}^n)$, though not canonically so; the lack of a *canonical* homeomorphism between S^n or $\mathbb{D}^n$ and the corresponding quotients of I^n means that we are abusing notation by writing these quotients in this way, but for present purposes, it is a very convenient abuse of notation. The group $[(Q, B), (X, A)]_+$ is then $\pi_n(X, A)$. Our usual definition of the group structure on $\pi_n(X, A)$

does not refer to a cogroup object structure on $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$, but one can equivalently define this group structure in terms of a cogroup morphism

$$(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\mu} (\mathbb{D}^n \vee \mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1} \vee S^{n-1}),$$

defined as a quotient projection after identifying the wedge sum with a quotient of $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^n)$ in which the subset $\{1/2\} \times I^{n-1} \subset I^n$ is also collapsed to a point.

THEOREM 73.10. *For any homology theory h_* and any chosen class $c \in h_n(Q, B)$, the map*

$$[(Q, B), (X, A)]_+ \xrightarrow{\Phi} h_n(X, A) : [f] \mapsto f_*c$$

is a group homomorphism.

REMARK 73.11. This theorem does *not* say that $h_n(Q, B) \rightarrow h_n(X, A) : c \mapsto f_*c$ is a group homomorphism, which is obvious.

PROOF OF THEOREM 73.10. The product on $[(Q, B), (X, A)]_+$ is defined in terms of a co-product morphism $\mu : (Q, B) \rightarrow (Q \vee Q, B \vee B)$ by

$$[f] \otimes [g] = [(f \vee g) \circ \mu] \in [(Q, B), (X, A)]_+$$

for any two pointed maps of pairs $f, g : (Q, B) \rightarrow (X, A)$. One convenient feature of the category $\mathbf{Top}_*^{\text{rel}}$ is that its terminal objects are also initial objects, namely the one-point pairs $(*, *)$, so the only possible choice for the identity morphism in the cogroup structure is $\epsilon : (Q, B) \rightarrow (*, *)$. The identity axiom for the cogroup structure then means that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & (Q \vee *, B \vee *) = (Q, B) & & \\ & \nearrow \text{Id} & \uparrow \text{Id} \vee \epsilon =: p^1 & & \\ (Q, B) & \xrightarrow{\mu} & (Q \vee Q, B \vee B) & & \\ & \searrow \text{Id} & \downarrow \epsilon \vee \text{Id} =: p^2 & & \\ & & (* \vee Q, * \vee B) = (Q, B) & & \end{array}$$

commutes up to pointed homotopy of maps of pairs. This implies the commutativity of the triangle at the left in the following diagram,

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} h_n(Q, B) & \xrightarrow{\mu_*} & h_n(Q \vee Q, B \vee B) & \xrightarrow{(f \vee g)_*} & h_n(X, A) \\ & \searrow \Delta & \cong \downarrow (p_*^1, p_*^2) & \nearrow f_* \oplus g_* & \\ & & h_n(Q, B) \oplus h_n(Q, B) & & \end{array},$$

in which $\Delta(c) := (c, c)$ is the diagonal map, and the vertical map (p_*^1, p_*^2) is the inverse of the isomorphism $i_*^1 \oplus i_*^2$ that appears in the relative version of the pointed additivity property (Corollary 73.6). Feeding in $c \in h_n(Q, B)$ at the left and following the top row of the diagram produces $\Phi([f] \otimes [g])$, while following instead the diagonal arrows from left to right produces $(f_* \oplus g_*)(c, c) = f_*c + g_*c = \Phi([f]) + \Phi([g])$. $\square$

COROLLARY 73.12. *The absolute and relative Hurewicz maps (73.1) are group homomorphisms for any ordinary homology theory h_* with coefficients $h_0(*) = \mathbb{Z}$.* $\square$

In axiomatic homology, we can now restate the absolute Hurewicz theorem (Theorem 71.13) as follows:

THEOREM 73.13. *Suppose $n \geq 2$, h_* is an ordinary homology theory with coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$, and X is an $(n-1)$ -connected space with the homotopy type of a CW-complex. Then $\tilde{h}_k(X) = 0$ for all $k < n$, and the Hurewicz homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow h_n(X)$ is a group isomorphism.* $\square$

73.3. The relative Hurewicz theorem. The absolute Hurewicz theorem requires the assumption $n \geq 2$ for a fairly obvious reason: one cannot expect the Hurewicz homomorphism $\Phi : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow h_1(X)$ to be a group isomorphism for path-connected spaces in general, because $h_1(X)$ is always an *abelian* group, while $\pi_1(X)$ is not. There is a similar issue with the relative Hurewicz map when $n = 2$: $h_2(X, A)$ is always abelian, but $\pi_2(X, A)$ is not. As we will see, there are good reasons why, even for $n \geq 3$, the Hurewicz map $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$ should not be expected to be an isomorphism. Something nice happens, however, in the special case where $A \subset X$ is simply connected, and one sees a hint of it in the long exact sequence

$$\dots \longrightarrow \pi_2(X) \longrightarrow \pi_2(X, A) \longrightarrow \pi_1(A) = 0.$$

This sequence makes $\pi_2(X, A)$ the image of a surjective homomorphism from the abelian group $\pi_2(X)$, and therefore also abelian, in contrast to the general situation. It turns out that the assumption $\pi_1(A) = 0$ is good enough to make the obvious analogue of Theorem 73.13 hold also in the relative case, and in fact, it can be derived easily from the absolute case:

THEOREM 73.14. *Suppose $n \geq 2$, h_* is an ordinary homology theory with coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$, $A \neq \emptyset$ is a simply connected space, and (X, A) is an $(n-1)$ -connected pair of spaces with the homotopy type of a CW-pair. Then $h_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k < n$, and the Hurewicz map $\Phi : \pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$ is an isomorphism.*

REMARK 73.15. In light of the natural isomorphism $h_*(X, \{*\}) \cong \tilde{h}_*(X)$, Theorem 73.14 implies the absolute version (Theorem 73.13) by taking $A \subset X$ to be a single point.

PROOF OF THEOREM 73.14. Assume without loss of generality that (X, A) is a CW-pair. Since (X, A) is $(n-1)$ -connected and A is 1-connected, Theorem 71.12 implies that the quotient projection $(X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, *)$ is an $(n+1)$ -equivalence, so in particular, the induced map $\pi_k(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_k(X/A)$ is an isomorphism for every $k \leq n$. The corresponding maps $h_k(X, A) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_k(X/A)$ are likewise isomorphisms by Theorem 73.5, since $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration. Applying the absolute Hurewicz theorem to X/A , the result now follows from the naturality of the Hurewicz maps with respect to the quotient projection:

$$(73.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \pi_k(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \pi_k(X/A) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \cong \\ h_k(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_k(X/A) \end{array} .$$

□

While we do not plan to make use of it in what follows, let us briefly discuss what happens if (X, A) is n -connected for $n \geq 2$ and $A \subset X$ is path-connected but not simply connected. The proof above fails in this case, because $(X, A) \rightarrow (X/A, *)$ is only an n -equivalence, so the map $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_n(X/A)$ is surjective but may not be injective. The diagram (73.2) then implies that the Hurewicz map $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A)$ is surjective and has the same kernel as $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow \pi_n(X/A)$. It is easy to see in fact that this kernel is sometimes nontrivial: in particular, it contains $[f] - [g]$ for any two maps of pairs $f, g : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, A)$ that are *freely* but not necessarily pointed homotopic. By a mild extension of the discussion of free vs. pointed homotopy classes in §65.4, one can define a natural action of $\pi_1(A)$ on $\pi_n(X, A)$ that gives rise to a bijection

$$\pi_n(X, A) / \pi_1(A) \cong [(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}), (X, A)]_{\circ}.$$

It follows that the kernel of the Hurewicz map $\pi_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A)$ contains the normal subgroup generated by all elements of the form $[f] - \gamma_{\#}[f]$ for $[f] \in \pi_n(X, A)$ and $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(A)$, and one can

show (but we will not do so here) that the kernel is in fact precisely that subgroup. The Hurewicz map thus descends to an isomorphism

$$\pi'_n(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A),$$

where $\pi'_n(X, A)$ denotes the quotient by the aforementioned subgroup: intuitively, this is the “largest” quotient of $\pi_n(X, A)$ in which freely homotopic maps of pairs are considered equivalent. We summarize:

THEOREM 73.16 (General Hurewicz theorem). *Suppose $n \geq 2$, h_* is an ordinary homology theory with coefficient group $\mathbb{Z}$, $A \neq \emptyset$ is a path-connected space, and (X, A) is an $(n - 1)$ -connected pair of spaces with the homotopy type of a CW-pair. Then $h_k(X, A) = 0$ for all $k < n$, and the Hurewicz map in degree n descends to an isomorphism $\Phi : \pi'_n(X, A) \rightarrow h_n(X, A)$.*

We refer to [Hat02, Theorem 4.37] for a complete proof. It is based in large part on Exercise 73.3, which leads to an explicit computation of $\pi_n(X, A)$ for CW-pairs (X, A) in which A is path-connected and contains the $(n - 1)$ -skeleton of X .

REMARK 73.17. A minor modification to the statement of Theorem 73.16 puts the absolute case $n = 1$ into this framework as well: the largest quotient $\pi'_1(X)$ of $\pi_1(X)$ in which freely homotopic loops are considered equivalent is the abelianization of $\pi_1(X)$.

73.4. The homology Whitehead theorem. In combination with Whitehead’s theorem, the relative Hurewicz theorem has a corollary that serves as a very popular tool in geometric topology, e.g. it appeared as “Ingredient 6” in our sketch of the construction of exotic 7-spheres in Lecture 58.

THEOREM 73.18 (Homology Whitehead theorem). *Assume X, Y are simply connected spaces that are homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes. Then a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence if and only if the induced maps $f_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ are isomorphisms for all $n \geq 0$.*

PROOF. By replacing Y with the mapping cylinder $Z(f)$, we can assume without loss of generality that $X \subset Y$ and f is the inclusion map, so f is a weak homotopy equivalence (and therefore also a homotopy equivalence by Whitehead’s theorem) if and only if $\pi_n(Y, X)$ vanishes for every $n \geq 1$. Assuming $f_* : H_n(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_n(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism for every n , the long exact sequence in homology gives $H_n(Y, X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for every n , and (Y, X) is automatically 1-connected since X and Y are simply connected. We proceed by induction: if (Y, X) is $(n - 1)$ -connected for some $n \geq 2$, then Hurewicz implies $\pi_n(Y, X) \cong H_n(Y, X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, thus it is also n -connected. $\square$

REMARK 73.19. The homology Whitehead theorem admits various generalizations that relax the condition that X and Y are simply connected, though this condition must be handled with care, and the result is certainly false without some such assumption (cf. Exercise 73.2). One way to generalize is by assuming X and Y are **simple** spaces, which means that their fundamental groups are allowed to be nontrivial but they act trivially on the higher homotopy groups, the idea being that the quotient groups $\pi'_n(Y, X)$ appearing in the general Hurewicz theorem should then reduce to the usual $\pi_n(Y, X)$. The details of this generalization are not so straightforward, however, because the simplicity of X and Y for $X \subset Y$ does not immediately imply that $\pi_1(X)$ also acts trivially on $\pi_n(Y, X)$. A proof of this version of the theorem is sketched e.g. in [Fra13, Prop. 6.6], but it uses a certain amount of technology that we haven’t covered, such as Postnikov towers. In any case, the simply connected case is by far the most popular version of this theorem for applications, and if one really wants to remove assumptions on $\pi_1(X)$ and $\pi_1(Y)$, then the most natural language for it is homology with local coefficients.

73.5. Singular homology as a weak homotopy type invariant. As mentioned already in Remark 71.14, all versions of the Hurewicz theorem remain valid for *singular* homology $H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ without the need to assume that anything is a CW-complex, i.e. one can allow (X, A) to be an arbitrary pair of spaces satisfying the required connectivity assumption. Half of the reason why this works is the fact that all spaces and all pairs of spaces admit CW-approximations, whose homotopy groups are the same. The other half of the reason is that the singular homology of a CW-approximation is *also* the same as that of any space or pair that it approximates—this fact is much less obvious, and it is a special property of singular homology that does not follow from the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms. In fact, a homology theory will turn out to have this property whenever it satisfies the conclusion of the following lemma:

LEMMA 73.20. *For any pair of spaces (X, A) and any class $c \in H_*(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ in relative singular homology with integer coefficients, there exists a CW-pair (X', A') , a map of pairs $f : (X', A') \rightarrow (X, A)$ and a class $c' \in H_*(X', A'; \mathbb{Z})$ such that $f_*c' = c$.*

REMARK 73.21. The CW-pair (X', A') constructed in the proof below is also compact, and if the class c has degree k , then $\dim X' \leq k$; moreover, the lemma also holds for singular homology with arbitrary coefficients. We left these details out of the statement since they are not needed for the application to Theorem 73.22 below.

PROOF. Suppose $[c] \in H_k(X, A)$ is a class represented by a relative k -cycle $c = \sum_{i \in S} a_i \sigma_i \in C_k(X, A)$, where we assume the coefficients a_i are all nonzero, and $\{\sigma_i : \Delta^k \rightarrow X\}_{i \in S}$ is a finite collection of distinct singular k -simplices. The assumption that c is a relative k -cycle means

$$\partial c = \sum_{i \in S} a_i \partial \sigma_i =: \sum_{j \in T} b_j \tau_j \in C_{k-1}(A),$$

where we assume $\{\tau_j : \Delta^{k-1} \rightarrow A\}_{j \in T}$ is a finite collection of singular $(k-1)$ -simplices, and the coefficients b_j are all nonzero. Denote by Δ_i^k a copy of the standard k -simplex associated to each $i \in S$, and define

$$X' := \coprod_{i \in S} \Delta_i^k / \sim,$$

where the equivalence relation identifies boundary faces $\partial_{(m)} \Delta_i^k$ and $\partial_{(n)} \Delta_j^k$ via the natural homeomorphisms to Δ^{k-1} whenever the singular $(k-1)$ -simplices $\sigma_i|_{\partial_{(m)} \Delta_i^k}$ and $\sigma_j|_{\partial_{(n)} \Delta_j^k}$ are identical. This makes X' a compact k -dimensional CW-complex whose k -cells are in bijective correspondence with the set S , and the maps $\sigma_i : \Delta^k \rightarrow X$ glue together continuously to define a map $\varphi : X' \rightarrow X$. Define the $(k-1)$ -dimensional subcomplex $A' \subset X'$ to be the union of all the boundary faces $\partial_{(m)} \Delta_i^k$ such that $\sigma_i|_{\partial_{(m)} \Delta_i^k}$ is identical to one of the $\tau_j : \Delta^{k-1} \rightarrow A$. The map φ thus sends A' to A , and there is an obvious relative k -cycle $c' \in C_k(X', A')$ such that $\varphi_*c' = c$. $\square$

THEOREM 73.22. *For any map of pairs $f : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ such that the maps $X \xrightarrow{f} Y$ and $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ are weak homotopy equivalences, the induced homomorphisms on relative singular homology and cohomology*

$$H_*(X, A; G) \xrightarrow{f_*} H_*(Y, B; G), \quad H^*(Y, B; G) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^*(X, A; G)$$

with arbitrary coefficients are isomorphisms.

PROOF. By the universal coefficient theorems and the five-lemma, the general case follows from the result for homology with integer coefficients $G := \mathbb{Z}$. By another application of the five-lemma, using the naturality of long exact sequences of pairs, it suffices to prove the result for *absolute* homology: we thus assume $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence and aim to

prove that the induced map $f_* : H_k(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_k(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is an isomorphism for every k . One more simplification: the usual mapping cylinder trick allows us to assume without loss of generality that $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is the inclusion of a subspace $X \subset Y$, so the assumption that it is a weak homotopy equivalence means that (Y, X) is an n -connected pair for every $n \geq 0$. By the long exact sequence in homology, it will now suffice to prove that $H_k(Y, X; \mathbb{Z})$ vanishes for every $k \geq 0$.

Given a class $c \in H_*(Y, X; \mathbb{Z})$, Lemma 73.20 allows us to write $c = \varphi_* c'$ for some class $c' \in H_*(Y', X'; \mathbb{Z})$ in a CW-pair (Y', X') and some map of pairs $\varphi : (Y', X') \rightarrow (Y, X)$. Since the inclusion $X \hookrightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, the compression lemma (Lemma 69.12) implies that up to a homotopy of maps of pairs, $\varphi(Y') \subset X$. The map $\varphi_* : H_*(Y', X'; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(Y, X; \mathbb{Z})$ thus factors as a composition

$$H_*(Y', X'; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(X, X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(Y, X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

and this composition vanishes since $H_*(X, X; \mathbb{Z}) = 0$. $\square$

73.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 73.1. For h_* a generalized homology theory with coefficient groups $G_n := h_n(*)$, compute $h_*(S^n)$.

Remark: As you might suspect, the computation of any generalized homology theory on a CW-complex X is determined by its coefficient groups G_n , as with ordinary homology, though the full story is more complicated due to the possibility of $h_k(S^n)$ and $h_k(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ being nontrivial in arbitrary degrees. In a nutshell, the collection of all the cellular homologies $H_*^{\text{CW}}(X; G_n)$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ determine $h_*(X)$ via the Atiyah-Hirzebruch spectral sequence.

EXERCISE 73.2. A space is called **acyclic** if its reduced singular homology (with integer coefficients) vanishes. This is certainly true for contractible spaces, though acyclic spaces are not always contractible, e.g. [Hat02, Example 2.38] describes a compact 2-dimensional cell complex that has a nontrivial fundamental group but vanishing cellular homology. Assume in the following that X and Y are homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes.

- (a) Show that if X is acyclic, then it is contractible if and only if it is simply connected.
- (b) Show that the mapping cone of the unique map from X to a one-point space is contractible if and only if X is acyclic.

Remark: We showed in Exercise 60.3 that every homotopy equivalence has a contractible mapping cone. In light of the present exercise, the existence of acyclic but non-contractible spaces shows that the converse is false.

- (c) Show that if X and Y are both simply connected, then every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with a contractible mapping cone is a homotopy equivalence.

EXERCISE 73.3. Assume (X, A) is a CW-pair, with A assumed path-connected but not simply connected, and assume also that all cells in $X \setminus A$ have dimension at least $n \geq 3$. The following is one step in a proof of the general Hurewicz theorem for pairs, based on the same ideas as our proof in the absolute case. Show that $\pi_n(X^n \cup A, A)$ can be identified with the free abelian group on the set of n -cells in the universal cover of X (with its natural cell decomposition) whose projections are not in A . Can you also explicitly describe the action of $\pi_1(A)$ on $\pi_n(X^n \cup A, A)$ from this perspective?

Comment: Up to minor details, this is Lemma 4.38 in [Hat02], though I highly recommend trying to work it out yourself before reading what Hatcher says. The case $n = 2$ is more complicated, for reasons that you will notice when you try to answer the following question: does the universal cover of A naturally live inside the universal cover of X ?

74. Eilenberg-MacLane spaces

We turn our attention in this lecture from homology to cohomology, but from a homotopy-theoretic point of view. An **Eilenberg-MacLane space** is a CW-complex X that has a nontrivial homotopy group $\pi_n(X)$ for at most one value of $n \geq 0$. We will see that it is not difficult to construct spaces with this property, though they are typically infinite-dimensional and thus somewhat difficult to visualize. The benefit of doing so is that they are “universal” with respect to cohomology: an Eilenberg-MacLane space X with $\pi_n(X) \cong G$ comes with a distinguished cohomology class $\iota_n \in H_{CW}^n(X; G)$ such that for all other CW-complexes Y , every class $\alpha \in H_{CW}^n(Y; G)$ arises as a pullback $\alpha = f^* \iota_n$ for some map $f : Y \rightarrow X$, which is unique up to homotopy. This way of understanding cohomology gives us new information about the homotopy sets $[Y, X]$, and also serves as a potent paradigm for defining new (generalized) cohomology theories.

74.1. Existence. Let’s first fix some notation.

DEFINITION 74.1. Fix an integer $n \geq 0$ and a pointed set G , which is assumed also to be a group if $n \geq 1$ and abelian if $n \geq 2$. A space X is called a $K(G, n)$ if it is a pointed CW-complex that is equipped with the additional data of an isomorphism (or pointed set map in the case $n = 0$)

$$\pi_n(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} G,$$

and also satisfies the condition

$$\pi_k(X) = 0 \quad \text{for all} \quad k \neq n.$$

In the case $n = 0$ (which is the least interesting), we should add the condition that every path-component of X is weakly contractible, i.e. that $\pi_k(X) = 0$ holds for all $k > 0$ and all choices of base point. We will call X a **weak** $K(G, n)$ if it is not assumed to be a CW-complex but satisfies the rest of the stated conditions.

REMARK 74.2. The notation $K(G, n)$ does not refer to a specific space, but we will nonetheless abuse notation and write

$$X = K(G, n)$$

as an abbreviation for the words “ X is a $K(G, n)$.” Note that in saying this, we are not just requiring the *existence* of an isomorphism $\pi_n(X) \cong G$, but also saying that such an isomorphism has been fixed as *additional data* associated to X ; this data will be important in applications, and we shall use it implicitly by abusing notation to pretend that $\pi_n(X)$ and G are the same object. We will similarly write

$$X = K^w(G, n)$$

as an abbreviation for “ X is a weak $K(G, n)$.”

REMARK 74.3. One finds minor differences in conventions in different books: not everyone requires a $K(G, n)$ to be a CW-complex, though most of the interesting applications add this assumption. The term “weak $K(G, n)$ ” is especially nonstandard (I made it up), but we will find it useful. We will see that while the symbol $K(G, n)$ does not refer to a specific space, it does no harm for most purposes to pretend that it does, because $K(G, n)$ ’s are uniquely determined up to homotopy equivalence by G and n .

THEOREM 74.4. Assume $n \geq 0$ is an integer and G is a pointed set which is also a group if $n \geq 1$ and abelian if $n \geq 2$. Then $K(G, n)$ ’s exist.

PROOF. For $n = 0$, just take $K(G, 0)$ to be G with the discrete topology. For $n \geq 1$, G is assumed to be a group, and we start by choosing any generating subset $J \subset G$. The wedge sum $X^n := \bigvee_{\alpha \in J} S^n$ is then an n -dimensional CW-complex with $\pi_n(X^n)$ isomorphic to the free group

on the set J if $n = 1$, or the free *abelian* group on J if $n \geq 2$. For $n = 1$, this follows from the Seifert-van Kampen theorem, and the $n \geq 2$ cases follow from Theorem 71.11, a consequence of the homotopy excision theorem. Since J generates G , the free (or free abelian) group on J comes with a surjective homomorphism $\rho : \pi_n(X^n) \rightarrow G$, and the next step is to attach enough $(n+1)$ -cells to kill the kernel of that homomorphism, producing an $(n+1)$ -dimensional CW-complex X^{n+1} , which is still $(n-1)$ -connected and comes with a group isomorphism $\rho : \pi_n(X^{n+1}) \rightarrow G$. Next, attach enough $(n+2)$ -cells to kill π_{n+1} completely; this does not change π_k for $k \leq n$, and produces an $(n+2)$ -dimensional CW-complex that satisfies all of the previous conditions plus $\pi_{n+1}(X^{n+2}) = 0$. Now continue inductively by attaching higher-dimensional cells to kill all the groups π_k for $k > n$. $\square$

EXAMPLE 74.5. Since S^1 has a contractible universal cover, its higher homotopy groups all vanish and it is therefore a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 1)$. This is one of the rare cases of an Eilenberg-MacLane space that is not infinite dimensional.

EXAMPLE 74.6. It is instructive to think through the inductive procedure described in the proof above for constructing a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 2)$. Since $\mathbb{Z}$ requires only one generator, one can start with $X^2 := S^2$, having one 0-cell and one 2-cell. Now $\pi_2(S^2)$ is already the correct group, so there is no need to attach any 3-cells, but $\pi_3(S^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is generated by the Hopf fibration $p : S^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1 \cong S^2$, as can be deduced from the homotopy exact sequence of that fibration and the knowledge that the identity map $S^3 \rightarrow S^3$ generates $\pi_3(S^3) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. We can thus attach a single 4-cell along the map $p : S^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$ in order to kill $\pi_3(S^2)$, producing $X^4 := S^2 \cup e^4$. You have probably seen an example before of a CW-complex with three cells having dimensions 0, 2 and 4: the most popular such example is $\mathbb{CP}^2$, and I will ask you to take it on faith for a moment that that is indeed what X^4 is. If you believe this, then the Hopf fibration $p : S^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^2$ with fibers S^1 shows that $\pi_4(\mathbb{CP}^2)$ is trivial, so we do not need any 5-cells, but the same fibration also proves $\pi_5(\mathbb{CP}^2) \cong \pi_5(S^5) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, so one must next attach a 6-cell to kill $\pi_5(\mathbb{CP}^2)$, producing a 6-dimensional CW-complex X^6 with one cell in each even dimension. Maybe you can now guess where this is leading. . .

THEOREM 74.7. *The space $\mathbb{CP}^\infty = e^0 \cup e^2 \cup e^4 \cup \dots = \text{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{CP}^n$ is a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 2)$.*

PROOF. Start with the corresponding infinite-dimensional colimit of spheres, i.e. the colimit of the sequence

$$S^0 \hookrightarrow S^1 \hookrightarrow S^2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow \text{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} S^n =: S^\infty,$$

where each S^n is the unit sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ and its inclusion into S^{n+1} is defined via the inclusion $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times \{0\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+2}$. Each sphere thus appears inside the next one as an “equator”, and it is easy to give every S^n a cell decomposition with two cells in each dimension so that these inclusions become cellular maps. We observe that since S^∞ has the same $(n+1)$ -skeleton as S^{n+1} for any given $n \geq 0$, we have

$$\pi_n(S^\infty) \cong \pi_n(S^{n+1}) = 0,$$

i.e. S^∞ is weakly contractible, and by Whitehead’s theorem therefore also contractible (though we will not need to know this below). Restricting attention to the odd dimensions, one also has Hopf fibrations $p : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ which are compatible with a similar sequence of inclusions

$$\mathbb{CP}^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{CP}^2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow \text{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{CP}^n =: \mathbb{CP}^\infty,$$

in which each $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is a quotient of $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ and the inclusion into $\mathbb{CP}^{n+1}$ is determined by $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} = \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \times \{0\} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}^{n+2}$. Concretely, the sequence of Hopf fibrations for different values of n fit together

into a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S^3 & \hookrightarrow & S^5 & \hookrightarrow & \dots & \longrightarrow & S^{2n+1} \hookrightarrow \dots \\ \downarrow p & & \downarrow p & & & & \downarrow p \\ \mathbb{CP}^1 & \hookrightarrow & \mathbb{CP}^2 & \hookrightarrow & \dots & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{CP}^n \hookrightarrow \dots \end{array},$$

and by restriction to finite-dimensional subcomplexes, this uniquely determines a map

$$p : S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$$

whose fibers are also homeomorphic to S^1 . The latter follows immediately from the fact that it is true in finite dimensions, because every point in $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ belongs to $\mathbb{CP}^n \subset \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ for some n sufficiently large, and the preimage of that subset under $p : S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ is precisely $S^{2n+1} \subset S^\infty$. It is similarly easy to show that $p : S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ is a Serre fibration: to establish the homotopy lifting property with respect to disks $\mathbb{D}^k$, one can use the knowledge that every map $\mathbb{D}^k \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ has image contained in a finite subcomplex, which in this case means $\mathbb{CP}^n$ for some $n < \infty$, and the condition then follows from the fact that $p : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ is a fibration. The statement that $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ is a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 2)$ now follows from the exact sequence

$$0 = \pi_n(S^\infty) \xrightarrow{p_*} \pi_n(\mathbb{CP}^\infty) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \pi_{n-1}(S^1) \longrightarrow \pi_{n-1}(S^\infty) = 0.$$

□

74.2. Cohomology and homotopy sets. The next result gives a foretaste of the larger subject of obstruction theory, in which specific cohomology classes can be used to characterize whether certain maps exist or whether two given maps are homotopic. The symbol $K^w(G, n)$ is used in this statement to mean *any* space that is a weak $K(G, n)$.

THEOREM 74.8. *For any CW-complex X , any integer $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group G , there exists a natural bijection*

$$[X, K^w(G, n)]_\circ \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G),$$

characterized for $n \geq 1$ by the property that for any map $f : X \rightarrow K^w(G, n)$ sending $X^{n-1} \subset X$ to the base point of $K^w(G, n)$, the homotopy class $[f]$ corresponds to the cohomology class represented by a cocycle

$$\varphi_f : C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow G$$

defined on each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, X^{n-1})$ by

$$\varphi_f(e_\alpha^n) := [f \circ \Phi_\alpha] \in \pi_n(K^w(G, n)) \cong G.$$

*This bijection is natural in the sense that for maps $\psi : X \rightarrow Y$ between CW-complexes X and Y ,*¹⁰⁶
the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [Y, K^w(G, n)]_\circ & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(Y; G) \\ \downarrow \psi^* & & \downarrow \psi^* \\ [X, K^w(G, n)]_\circ & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) \end{array}$$

commutes.

¹⁰⁶Here we are implicitly using the cellular approximation theorem to say that arbitrary continuous maps between CW-complexes induce homomorphisms on cellular homology.

Note that the description of the cocycle $\varphi_f \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ in the statement above depends on having a fixed choice of isomorphism $\pi_n(K^w(G, n)) \cong G$, which is a piece of extra data associated to any weak $K(G, n)$.

Before proving the theorem, we observe one immediate consequence. Any $K(G, n)$ is both a *weak* $K(G, n)$ and a CW-complex, so it can play both roles in Theorem 74.8, giving rise to a natural bijection

$$[K(G, n), K(G, n)]_0 \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(K(G, n); G).$$

The homotopy class of the identity map $K(G, n) \rightarrow K(G, n)$ thus determines a distinguished cohomology class

$$\iota_n \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(K(G, n); G),$$

and one then derives from the naturality property in Theorem 74.8 an alternative formula for the bijection in question, namely

$$[X, K(G, n)]_0 \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) : [f] \mapsto f^* \iota_n.$$

The message is that *all* cohomology classes of CW-complexes in a given degree n with given coefficients G can be derived from a single distinguished cohomology class of a $K(G, n)$!

PROOF OF THEOREM 74.8. Let us abbreviate

$$Y := K^w(G, n).$$

The case $n = 0$ is an easy exercise, because Y is then a disjoint union of weakly contractible spaces, one for each element of G . We assume in the following that $n \geq 1$, and explicitly construct the bijection

$$[X, Y] \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) : [f] \mapsto [\varphi_f],$$

where the brackets on the left hand side are assumed to denote *unpointed* homotopy sets.

Step 1: Observe that every map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is homotopic to a map that is constant on X^{n-1} . This follows mainly from the compression lemma: since Y is $(n-1)$ -connected, the pair $(Y, \{*\})$ is likewise $(n-1)$ -connected, and on the $(n-1)$ -dimensional CW-complex X^{n-1} , $f|_{X^{n-1}}$ is therefore homotopic to a map with image in $\{*\} \subset Y$. The homotopy can be extended to the rest of X since $X^{n-1} \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration.

Step 2: We claim that two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic if and only if their restrictions to X^n are homotopic as maps $X^n \rightarrow Y$. The proof is by induction on the skeleta: assuming f_+ and f_- are homotopic on X^k for some $k \geq n$, it will suffice to show that they are also homotopic on X^{k+1} . Using the fact that $X^k \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration, we can first adjust f_- by a global homotopy so that $f_+ = f_-$ on X^k . Now for any $(k+1)$ -cell $e_\alpha^{k+1} \subset X^{k+1}$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^{k+1}, S^k) \rightarrow (X^{k+1}, X^k)$, the maps $f_\pm \circ \Phi_\alpha$ match on S^k , so we can define a map $g : S^{k+1} \rightarrow Y$ by decomposing S^{k+1} into two disks $\mathbb{D}_+^{k+1} \cup \mathbb{D}_-^{k+1}$ with common boundary $S^k = \mathbb{D}_+^{k+1} \cap \mathbb{D}_-^{k+1} = \partial \mathbb{D}_\pm^{k+1} \subset S^{k+1}$ and setting

$$g := (f_+ \circ \Phi_\alpha) \cup (f_- \circ \Phi_\alpha) : \mathbb{D}_+^{k+1} \cup_{S^k} \mathbb{D}_-^{k+1} = S^{k+1} \rightarrow Y.$$

Since $\pi_{k+1}(Y) = 0$, g can be extended to a map $\mathbb{D}^{k+2} \rightarrow Y$, and this extension gives rise to a homotopy $f_+ \circ \Phi_\alpha \rightsquigarrow f_- \circ \Phi_\alpha$ rel S^k . Doing this for all $(k+1)$ -cells produces a homotopy rel X^k from $f_+|_{X^{k+1}}$ to $f_-|_{X^{k+1}}$.

Step 3: We associate an **obstruction cocycle**

$$\varphi_f \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) = \text{Hom}(C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) = \{\text{functions } \{n\text{-cells of } X\} \rightarrow G\}$$

to each map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with $f|_{X^{n-1}} \equiv *$. For each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \in X$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X^n, X^{n-1})$, the map $f \circ \Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n \rightarrow Y$ sends S^{n-1} to the base point, so it

represents a class in $\pi_n(Y) \cong G$, and we can set

$$\varphi_f(e_\alpha^n) := [f \circ \Phi_\alpha] \in \pi_n(Y) \cong G.$$

The first claim about φ_f is that it is a cellular cocycle, i.e. $\delta\varphi_f = 0$. For simplicity, let's assume for the moment that $n \geq 2$, as we can then also characterize φ_f as follows. Since $f|_{X^{n-1}}$ is constant, it descends to a pointed map from the $(n-1)$ -connected quotient space X/X^{n-1} to Y , and since X^n/X^{n-1} is a wedge of n -spheres containing one for each n -cell, we can identify $\pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1})$ with $C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and define

$$C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1}) \xrightarrow{\varphi_f := f_*} \pi_n(Y) = G.$$

Observe that $f_* : \pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1}) \rightarrow \pi_n(Y)$ also factors through the map from $\pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1})$ to $\pi_n(X/X^{n-1})$ induced by inclusion, and we can now appeal to a fact that was also used in our proof of the Hurewicz theorem: the kernel of that map is precisely the image of the cellular boundary map $\partial^{\text{CW}} : C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$. Indeed, we have a diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \pi_{n+1}(X^{n+1}/X^{n-1}, X^n/X^{n-1}) & \xrightarrow{\hat{\partial}_*} & \pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1}) & \longrightarrow & \pi_n(X^{n+1}/X^{n-1}) \\ \downarrow \cong & & \cong \uparrow & & \downarrow \cong \\ \pi_{n+1}(X^{n+1}/X^n) & & C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) & & \pi_n(X/X^{n-1}) \\ \cong \uparrow & \nearrow \partial^{\text{CW}} & & \searrow \varphi_f & \downarrow f_* \\ C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) & & & & \pi_n(Y) = G \end{array},$$

where the top row comes from the long exact sequence of a pair, and all unlabelled maps are induced by obvious inclusions or quotient projections. The vertical map in the upper right is bijective because $(X/X^{n-1}, X^{n+1}/X^{n-1})$ is an $(n+1)$ -connected pair, while the one in the upper left is bijective due to Theorem 71.12, because the pair $(X^{n+1}/X^{n-1}, X^n/X^{n-1})$ is n -connected, X^n/X^{n-1} is $(n-1)$ -connected, and $n+1 < n + (n-1) + 1 = 2n$. The isomorphisms with cellular chain groups can be described explicitly in terms of the canonical isomorphisms $\pi_n(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \cong \pi_n(\mathbb{D}^{n+1}, S^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and the maps $\Phi_\alpha : \mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^n/X^{n-1}$ and $\Phi_\beta : \mathbb{D}^{n+1}/S^n \rightarrow X^{n+1}/X^n$ induced by characteristic maps of n -cells e_α^n and $(n+1)$ -cells e_β^{n+1} respectively: these give us

$$\begin{aligned} \bigoplus_\alpha (\Phi_\alpha)_* : \bigoplus_{e_\alpha^n \subset X^n} \pi_n(\mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1}) &\cong C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_n(X^n/X^{n-1}), \\ \bigoplus_\beta (\Phi_\beta)_* : \bigoplus_{e_\beta^{n+1} \subset X^{n+1}} \pi_{n+1}(\mathbb{D}^{n+1}/S^n) &\cong C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_{n+1}(X^{n+1}/X^n). \end{aligned}$$

The fact that the map $C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ in the diagram is ∂^{CW} can then be deduced by computing its matrix elements with respect to each choice of generators e_β^{n+1} and e_α^n : composing the connecting homomorphism ∂_* with a characteristic map Φ_β produces a class represented by the corresponding attaching map $\varphi_\beta : S^n \rightarrow X^n$, whose coefficient for the generator e_α^n is then computed as the degree of its composition with the quotient projection $X^n \rightarrow X^n \setminus (X^n \setminus e_\alpha^n) \cong \mathbb{D}^n/S^{n-1}$, i.e. the incidence number of e_β^{n+1} and e_α^n . With this understood, the main message of the diagram is that

$$\varphi_f \circ \partial^{\text{CW}} = 0,$$

or in other words, $\delta\varphi_f = 0 \in C_{n+1}^{\text{CW}}(X; G)$, so φ_f is a cocycle.

Some modifications to this discussion are needed when $n = 1$: one issue is that the groups in the top row and $\pi_n(X/X^{n-1})$ can no longer be assumed abelian, but as luck would have it, the fact that $\pi_1(Y) \cong G$ is assumed abelian guarantees that $f_* : \pi_n(X/X^{n+1}) \rightarrow G$ descends to

the abelianization, allowing us to replace all of the nonabelian groups with their abelianizations and still have a well-defined diagram. The other issue is that the quotient projection inducing the vertical map in the upper left corner is only a 2-equivalence when $n = 1$, so that the map induced on π_2 may not be bijective, but it is still surjective. This is enough to reach the same conclusion: $\varphi_f \circ \partial^{\text{CW}}$ still vanishes, and φ_f is therefore a cocycle.

Step 4: We claim that two maps $f, g : X \rightarrow Y$ sending X^{n-1} to the base point are freely homotopic if and only if the cocycles φ_f and φ_g represent the same class in $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$. Indeed, if there is a homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g , then the same argument as in the first step allows us to assume without loss of generality that H is constant on $(X \times I)^{n-1} = X^{n-1} \times \partial I \cup X^{n-2} \times I$. It follows that for each $(n-1)$ -cell $e_\beta^{n-1} \subset X$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\beta : (\mathbb{D}^{n-1}, S^{n-2}) \rightarrow (X^{n-1}, X^{n-2})$, the composition

$$(\mathbb{D}^{n-1} \times I, \partial(\mathbb{D}^{n-1} \times I)) \xrightarrow{\Phi_\beta \times \text{Id}} (X^{n-1} \times I, X^{n-1} \times \partial I \cup X^{n-2} \times I) \xrightarrow{H} (Y, *)$$

represents a class

$$\psi_H(e_\beta^{n-1}) := [H \circ (\Phi_\beta \times \text{Id})] \in \pi_n(Y) \cong G,$$

thus defining a cochain $\psi_H \in C_{\text{CW}}^{n-1}(X; G)$. For each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$, the map $H \circ (\Phi_\alpha \times \text{Id}) : \mathbb{D}^n \times I \rightarrow Y$ then implies a relation between elements of $\pi_n(Y) = G$ obtained by restricting this map to the various parts of $\partial(\mathbb{D}^n \times I)$, namely

$$\varphi_f(e_\alpha^n) - \varphi_g(e_\alpha^n) = \pm \psi_H(\partial e_\alpha^n),$$

thus $\varphi_f - \varphi_g = \pm \delta \psi_H$.

Conversely, for any given cochain $\psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^{n-1}(X; G)$, one can define a homotopy $H : X^{n-1} \times I \rightarrow Y$ from f to g over the $(n-1)$ -skeleton such that H is constant on $X^{n-2} \times I$ and $[H \circ (\Phi_\beta \times \text{Id})] = \psi(e_\beta^{n-1})$ for each $e_\beta^{n-1} \subset X$; this is trivial since f and g are constant on the $(n-1)$ -skeleton. The nontrivial part is to determine whether this homotopy can be extended to the n -skeleton of X : that is possible if and only if the resulting maps $\partial(\mathbb{D}^n \times I) \rightarrow Y$ associated to each $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ represent the trivial element of $\pi_n(Y) \cong G$, and this is equivalent to the condition $\varphi_f - \varphi_g = \pm \delta \psi$. Having extended the homotopy to the n -skeleton, it then extends globally due to step 2.

Step 5: We've now constructed a well-defined map $[X, Y] \rightarrow H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) : [f] \mapsto [\varphi_f]$, which is injective by step 4, and it remains to show that it is surjective. This follows from similar arguments: We claim in fact that given any cocycle $\varphi \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$, one can construct a map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with $f|_{X^{n-1}} \equiv *$ whose obstruction cocycle φ_f is φ . Indeed, first extend the constant map $X^{n-1} \rightarrow Y$ to each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ so that $[f \circ \Phi_\alpha] = \varphi(e_\alpha^n) \in \pi_n(Y) \cong G$. The condition $\delta \varphi(e_\beta^{n+1}) = \pm \varphi(\partial^{\text{CW}} e_\beta^{n+1}) = 0$ for each $(n+1)$ -cell $e_\beta^{n+1} \subset X$ then implies that f can also be extended to the $(n+1)$ -skeleton, because for the attaching map $\varphi_\beta : S^n \rightarrow X^n$ of e_β^{n+1} , $f \circ \varphi_\beta : S^n \rightarrow Y$ is nullhomotopic. Once this is done, f can be extended to all higher-dimensional skeleta because $\pi_k(Y) = 0$ for $k > n$. $\square$

EXAMPLE 74.9. The two explicit examples of Eilenberg-MacLane spaces we've seen so far now give natural bijections

$$H^1(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong [X, S^1]_\circ, \quad H^2(X; \mathbb{Z}) \cong [X, \mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^\infty]_\circ$$

for every CW-complex X , and we observe that whenever X is compact, a map $X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^\infty$ is actually just a map $X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\mathbb{P}^n$ for some $n \gg 0$ sufficiently large. For any weak $K(G, n)$, we also have

$$[X, \Omega K^w(G, n)] \cong H_{\text{CW}}^{n-1}(X; G),$$

because by adjunction,

$$\pi_k(\Omega K^w(G, n)) = [\Sigma_+^k S^0, \Omega K^w(G, n)]_+ = [\Sigma_+^{k+1} S^0, K^w(G, n)]_+ = \pi_{k+1}(K^w(G, n)),$$

proving that $\Omega K^w(G, n)$ is always a weak $K(G, n-1)$.

REMARK 74.10. The fact that $\Omega K(G, n)$ is not a CW-complex in any natural way was actually our main motivation to introduce the notion of *weak* $K(G, n)$'s. Milnor [Mil59] showed that loop spaces of CW-complexes are in fact at least *homotopy equivalent* to CW-complexes, but we will not need to use this knowledge.

74.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 74.1. Show that if X is a $K(G, 1)$ for some group G , then for each $n \geq 2$, π_n of its n -skeleton is a free abelian group.

Hint: Replace X with its universal cover, which also has a cell decomposition and has the same higher homotopy groups as X .

EXERCISE 74.2. Show that every closed and connected surface Σ with infinite fundamental group has a contractible universal cover, and is therefore a $K(G, 1)$ for $G := \pi_1(\Sigma)$. Spaces X with $\pi_n(X) = 0$ for every $n > 1$ are also called **aspherical**.

Remark: If you remember the classification of surfaces, you may notice that this result applies to every closed and connected surface with only two exceptions, namely S^2 and $\mathbb{RP}^2$.

EXERCISE 74.3. Show that for any CW-complex X of finite dimension $n \geq 1$, there is a natural bijection between the set of unpointed homotopy classes $[X, S^n]$ and $H^n(X; \mathbb{Z})$. Taking for granted that smooth manifolds are triangulable, deduce from this the **Hopf degree theorem**: For every closed, connected and oriented smooth n -manifold M , two maps $f, g : M \rightarrow S^n$ are homotopic if and only if $\deg(f) = \deg(g) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Hint: S^n is not always a $K(\mathbb{Z}, n)$, but it has enough in common with a $K(\mathbb{Z}, n)$ for present purposes.

Remark: For a completely different proof of the Hopf degree theorem, working within the smooth category, see [Mil97].¹⁰⁷

EXERCISE 74.4 (*). Prove the following relative version of Theorem 74.8: For any CW-pair (X, A) , any integer $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group G , there exists a natural bijection

$$[(X, A), (K^w(G, n), *)]_o \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{CW}^n(X, A; G) : [f] \mapsto [\varphi_f],$$

where for $n \geq 1$, $\varphi_f : C_n^{CW}(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow G$ is a relative cocycle defined in the same way as in Theorem 74.8, assuming that $f : X \rightarrow K^w(G, n)$ satisfies $f|_{X^{n-1} \cup A} \equiv *$. Conclude that for any *pointed* CW-complex X , there is a natural bijection

$$[X, K^w(G, n)]_+ \cong \tilde{H}_{CW}^n(X; G).$$

EXERCISE 74.5. In this exercise, X is a CW-complex with a 0-cell as a base point, and G is a group, which need not generally be abelian.

- Suppose $f : X \rightarrow K^w(G, 1)$ is a map that sends the 0-skeleton of X to the base point of $K^w(G, 1)$, and $\gamma : (I, \partial I) \rightarrow (K^w(G, 1), *)$ is a pointed loop whose homotopy class lies in the center of $G = \pi_1(K^w(G, 1))$. Show that there exists a free homotopy $H : X \times I \rightarrow K^w(G, 1)$ of f to itself such that for every 0-cell $x \in X$, $H(x, \cdot)$ is the path γ .
- Show that if G is abelian, then the action of $\pi_1(K^w(G, 1)) = G$ on $[X, K^w(G, 1)]_+$ is trivial; in particular, the natural map $[X, K^w(G, 1)]_+ \rightarrow [X, K^w(G, 1)]_o$ defined by forgetting base points is a bijection. (Note that this also follows from Exercise 74.4 since $\tilde{H}_{CW}^1(X; G) \cong H_{CW}^1(X; G)$; this exercise is meant as a sanity check.)

Hint: You can prove this by induction on the skeleta of X , but you might notice that

¹⁰⁷It is a law of nature that I will find an excuse to recommend that book at some point in every sufficiently advanced class that I teach... I suppose Functional Analysis may have been an exception.

the initial step in the induction is the tricky part. That's what part (a) is meant to help with.

75. (Co)homology on the pointed category

The relationship between homotopy sets and cohomology furnished by Eilenberg-MacLane spaces suggests a new paradigm for defining cohomology theories. Following this idea to its logical conclusion leads to the notion of *spectra*, which are important objects of study in modern homotopy theory. The general concept of a spectrum will be examined in the next lecture, but in this one, we will see a first example, and then adapt the axioms of homology for pointed spaces in order to prepare for further examples of interest.

75.1. The Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum. There are a few loose ends to tie up involving the bijection

$$[X, K^w(G, n)]_o \cong H_{CW}^n(X; G)$$

explained in the previous lecture. Its naturality implies in some sense that any structure present on one side of the correspondence should give rise to a corresponding structure on the other side. We saw one example of this already: the fact that $[K(G, n), K(G, n)]$ contains the identity map as a distinguished element means that there is a distinguished cohomology class $\iota_n \in H_{CW}^n(K(G, n); G)$, which turns out to play the role of a “universal” class for the cohomology of CW-complexes in degree n with coefficient group G . The correspondence can also go the other way: algebraic structures that are defined on cellular cohomology correspond to structures defined on the $K(G, n)$'s “up to homotopy”.

For example: Suppose $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups. For any CW-complex X , this determines a natural chain map $\text{Hom}(C_*^{CW}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G) \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} \text{Hom}(C_*^{CW}(X; \mathbb{Z}), H)$ and therefore a natural transformation

$$H_{CW}^n(\cdot; G) \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} H_{CW}^n(\cdot; H),$$

where both sides are regarded as contravariant functors $\mathbf{hCW} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$. Here, we are denoting by $\mathbf{hCW}$ the homotopy category of CW-complexes, meaning that its objects are CW-complexes and its morphisms are homotopy classes of continuous maps.¹⁰⁸ Under the natural bijections, Φ therefore also defines a natural transformation

$$[\cdot, K^w(G, n)] \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} [\cdot, K^w(H, n)]$$

of contravariant functors $\mathbf{hCW} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$. Since any $K(G, n)$ is also an object of $\mathbf{hCW}$, we then have in particular an induced map

$$[K(G, n), K(G, n)] \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)],$$

and assuming all the $K(G, n)$'s on both sides to be the same space, we obtain from this a distinguished (unpointed) homotopy class of maps $\varphi : K(G, n) \rightarrow K^w(H, n)$, defined by

$$[\varphi] := \Phi_*[\text{Id}] \in [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)]_o.$$

Recall that the bijection $[K(G, n), K(G, n)] \cong H_{CW}^n(K(G, n); G)$ identifies $[\text{Id}]$ with the distinguished cohomology class $\iota_n \in H_{CW}^n(K(G, n); G)$, thus the homotopy class $[\varphi] \in [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)]$

¹⁰⁸It would be reasonable to say that morphisms in $\mathbf{hCW}$ are homotopy classes of *cellular* maps, but thanks to the cellular approximation theorem, this distinction does not matter.

corresponds to the cohomology class $\Phi_* \iota_n \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(K(G, n); H)$. Now consider an arbitrary CW-complex X and map $f : X \rightarrow K(G, n)$, whose homotopy class $[f] \in [X, K(G, n)]$ corresponds to the cohomology class $f^* \iota_n \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$. Naturality implies that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)] & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(K(G, n); H) \\ \downarrow f^* & & \downarrow f^* \\ [X, K^w(H, n)] & \xrightarrow{\cong} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; H) \end{array}$$

commutes, and since $f^*(\Phi_* \iota_n) = \Phi_*(f^* \iota_n)$, we deduce that $\Phi_*(f^* \iota_n) \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; H)$ is the cohomology class corresponding to the homotopy class $f^*[\varphi] = [\varphi \circ f] = \varphi_*[f] \in [X, K^w(H, n)]$. In other words, the diagram

$$(75.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} [X, K(G, n)]_{\circ} & \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} & [X, K^w(H, n)]_{\circ} \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) & \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; H) \end{array}$$

commutes for every CW-complex X . Plugging in the special case $X = K(G, n)$ reveals that this diagram also characterizes $[\varphi] \in [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)]$ uniquely. We have been abusing notation in this entire discussion by pretending that $K(G, n)$ and $K^w(H, n)$ are specific spaces; here is a more precise statement of what we have just proved:

THEOREM 75.1. *Suppose Y is a $K(G, n)$ and Z is a weak $K(H, n)$ for two abelian groups G, H and an integer $n \geq 0$. Then every group homomorphism $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ determines a unique homotopy class of unpointed maps $\varphi : Y \rightarrow Z$ such that for all CW-complexes X , the diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} [X, Y] & \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} & [X, Z] \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) & \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} & H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; H) \end{array}$$

commutes. □

There is a variant of this story in the pointed category. Recall that by Exercise 74.4, for pointed CW-complexes X , the same recipe gives a natural bijection

$$[X, K^w(G, n)]_+ \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, \{*\}; G) \cong \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G).$$

For $n \geq 1$, there is no difference at all between this and the unpointed version, since $\tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) = H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ and, by Exercise 74.5, the action of $\pi_1(K^w(G, n))$ on $[X, K^w(G, n)]_+$ is trivial, implying that the natural map $[X, K^w(G, n)]_+ \rightarrow [X, K^w(G, n)]_{\circ}$ defined by forgetting the base point is a bijection. For $n = 0$, there is a difference, but it is trivial to understand because $K^w(G, n)$ is a discrete space without loss of generality. In any case, since group homomorphisms $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ also induce natural transformations $\Phi_* : \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(\cdot; G) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(\cdot; H)$, the pointed version of Theorem 75.1 gives a unique pointed homotopy class $[\varphi] \in [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)]_+$ induced by Φ such that for every pointed CW-complex X , the diagram

$$(75.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} [X, K(G, n)]_+ & \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} & [X, K^w(H, n)]_+ \\ \downarrow \cong & & \downarrow \cong \\ \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G) & \xrightarrow{\Phi_*} & \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X; H) \end{array}$$

commutes. Again, there is only a difference between this and the diagram (75.1) in the case $n = 0$, which is relatively trivial: without loss generality, one can take $K(G, 0) = G$ and $K^w(H, 0) = H$, and $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ itself can then be interpreted as a pointed map $\varphi : K(G, 0) \rightarrow K^w(H, 0)$ whose homotopy class fits into both (75.1) and (75.2).

LEMMA 75.2. *Assume $n \geq 1$, G is an abelian group, and X is an $(n - 1)$ -connected CW-complex. Then the natural map*

$$[X, K^w(G, n)]_+ \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_n(X), G)$$

sending a pointed homotopy class $[f]$ to the induced homomorphism $f_ : \pi_n(X) \rightarrow \pi_n(K^w(G, n)) \cong G$ is a bijection.*

PROOF. See Exercise 75.1. □

Applying Lemma 75.2 when X itself is an Eilenberg-MacLane space, it follows that for each $n \geq 1$, a map $\varphi : K(G, n) \rightarrow K^w(H, n)$ is uniquely determined up to homotopy by the induced homomorphism

$$G \cong \pi_n(K(G, n)) \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} \pi_n(K^w(H, n)) \cong H.$$

According to Exercise 75.1(b), for the map $\varphi : K(G, n) \rightarrow K^w(H, n)$ induced by a group homomorphism $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$, $\varphi_* : \pi_n(K(G, n)) \rightarrow \pi_n(K^w(H, n))$ is precisely Φ . One can also say this for $n = 0$, and the proof in that case is elementary. Since there are no other nontrivial homotopy groups to worry about, we deduce:

PROPOSITION 75.3. *The map $\varphi : K(G, n) \rightarrow K^w(H, n)$ determined up to homotopy by a group homomorphism $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ and the diagram (75.1) or (75.2) is a weak homotopy equivalence whenever Φ is an isomorphism.* □

Applying Whitehead's theorem, we have:

COROLLARY 75.4. *There is a natural pointed homotopy equivalence between any two spaces that are both $K(G, n)$'s for some $n \geq 0$ and abelian group G .* □

COROLLARY 75.5. *For every $n \geq 0$, one can define functors $\text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{hTop}$ and $\text{Ab} \rightarrow \text{hTop}_*$ that associate to each abelian group G a $K(G, n)$ and to each group homomorphism $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ the (unpointed or pointed) homotopy class of the map $\varphi : K(G, n) \rightarrow K(H, n)$ characterized by the diagram (75.1) or (75.2). These functors are not unique (since constructions of $K(G, n)$'s are not unique), but they are each canonical up to natural isomorphism.* □

Using $\Phi = \text{Id}$ and the fact that $\Omega K(G, n + 1)$ is a weak $K(G, n)$, we also have:

COROLLARY 75.6. *For any $K(G, n)$ and $K(G, n + 1)$, there is a natural weak homotopy equivalence*

$$K(G, n) \xrightarrow{\hat{e}} \Omega K(G, n + 1)$$

defined up to pointed homotopy. □

REMARK 75.7. According to [Mil59], $\Omega K(G, n + 1)$ is also homotopy equivalent to a CW-complex, so by Whitehead's theorem, $\hat{e}$ is actually a homotopy equivalence. This knowledge however is seldom actually useful.

Given an abelian group G , the pointed spaces $K(G, n)$ along with maps

$$\Sigma K(G, n) \xrightarrow{e} K(G, n + 1)$$

adjoint to the weak homotopy equivalences $\hat{e} : K(G, n) \rightarrow \Omega K(G, n + 1)$ in Corollary 75.6 are known as the **Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum**. We will discuss in the next lecture the general concept of a spectrum, and how spectra give rise to generalized cohomology and homology theories.

Here is a trivial observation: Every abelian group G admits a unique group object structure (m, e, i) in the category $\mathbf{Ab}$, and the group structure that it induces on G matches the native group structure of G . Indeed, a group object structure in $\mathbf{Ab}$ means that we have group homomorphisms

$$G \times G \xrightarrow{m} G, \quad 0 \xrightarrow{e} G, \quad G \xrightarrow{i} G,$$

where $0 \in \mathbf{Ab}$ denotes the trivial group, which is conveniently both an initial and a terminal object in $\mathbf{Ab}$, so that there is only one possible choice of identity morphism $e : 0 \rightarrow G$. The identity axiom for a group object structure then means $m(g, 0) = m(0, g) = g$ for every $g \in G$, and since m is a homomorphism, it follows that

$$m(g, h) = m((g, 0) + (0, h)) = g + h$$

for every $g, h \in G$; the uniqueness of inverses now implies via the inverse axiom that $i : G \rightarrow G$ can only be the map $g \mapsto -g$. Note that it's important here to assume G is *abelian*, as the inverse map $i : G \rightarrow G$ would otherwise not be a morphism in the correct category.

Another (almost) trivial observation: The functors from $\mathbf{Ab}$ to $\mathbf{hTop}$ or $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ in Corollary 75.5 preserve finite products, since $K(G, n) \times K(H, n)$ is clearly a $K(G \times H, n)$, and for the terminal object $0 \in \mathbf{Ab}$, one can take $K(0, n)$ to be $\{*\}$, which is a terminal object in both $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$. We can therefore feed the group object structure of G into such a functor and conclude:

COROLLARY 75.8. *For every $n \geq 0$ and abelian group G , every $K(G, n)$ has natural group object structures in $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ such that the bijections $[X, K(G, n)]_0 \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ and $[X, K(G, n)]_+ \cong \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ become group isomorphisms.*

PROOF. One sees as follows that the group object structure of $K(G, n)$ determines the same group structure on $[X, K(G, n)]$ as $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$. If we forget the group structure of $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ and just regard it as a set, then our natural bijection identifies the covariant functor $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \cdot) : \mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ with a composition $\mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{hTop} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ of two covariant functors

$$G \xrightarrow{K(\cdot, n)} K(G, n) \xrightarrow{[X, \cdot]} [X, K(G, n)],$$

both of which preserve finite products, so feeding the group object structure of G into this composition produces the same result as feeding it into $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \cdot) : \mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$. But $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \cdot)$ is actually a functor $\mathbf{Ab} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$, implying that this procedure makes $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ into a group object in $\mathbf{Ab}$ rather than just $\mathbf{Set}$. According to the trivial observation above, there is only one such structure, and it reproduces the native group structure of $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$. $\square$

REMARK 75.9. One can extend this line of thought quite a bit further and deduce e.g. that whenever G is a module over a commutative ring R , $K(G, n)$ naturally becomes an *R -module object* in $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ (figure out for yourself what the definition of that notion is). The existence of the cup product on cellular cohomology with coefficients in a ring R likewise corresponds to homotopy classes of maps $K(R, m) \wedge K(R, n) \rightarrow K(R, m + n)$ that can be used to give a purely homotopy-theoretic characterization of the cup product.

75.2. Pointed homology theories. Our next goal will be to exhibit other interesting examples of spectra, thus giving rise to new homology and cohomology theories defined via homotopy theory. Since many things in homotopy theory work somewhat more elegantly when base points are included in the picture, it is worth pausing first to adapt the usual axioms of (co)homology for pointed spaces. The model you should have in mind for pointed homology is the *reduced* homology $h_*(X)$ of an unpointed space, since it is naturally isomorphic to the relative homology $h_*(X, \{*\})$ for any choice of base point $* \in X$.

A (generalized) **pointed homology** theory $\tilde{h}_*$ valued in the category of R -modules is a collection of covariant functors $\{\tilde{h}_n : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ equipped with natural **suspension isomorphisms**

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) \xrightarrow{\sigma_*} \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma_+ X)$$

for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and each well-pointed space $X \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, that satisfy the following set of axioms. (For cohomology, one speaks of contravariant functors $\tilde{h}^n : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$, and I will again comment on this variation below only when there is something non-obvious to say.)

- (HTP_{*}) **homotopy**: The functors $\tilde{h}_n$ descend to the pointed homotopy category as functors $\mathbf{hTop}_* \rightarrow R\text{-Mod}$.
- (COF_{*}) **cofibration** (or **exactness**): For every pointed cofibration $A \hookrightarrow X$ of well-pointed spaces and every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the sequence

$$\tilde{h}_n(A) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_n(X) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_n(X/A)$$

induced by the inclusion $A \hookrightarrow X$ and quotient projection $X \rightarrow X/A$ is exact.

- (ADD_{*}) **additivity**: For any collection of well-pointed spaces $\{X_\alpha \in \mathbf{Top}_*\}$ and their natural inclusions $i^\alpha : X_\alpha \hookrightarrow \bigvee_{\beta \in J} X_\beta$, the induced maps

$$\bigoplus_\alpha i_*^\alpha : \bigoplus_\alpha \tilde{h}_n(X_\alpha) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_n\left(\bigvee_\alpha X_\alpha\right)$$

are isomorphisms, or for a cohomology theory, the maps

$$\prod_\alpha (i^\alpha)^* : \tilde{h}^n\left(\bigvee_\alpha X_\alpha\right) \longrightarrow \prod_\alpha \tilde{h}^n(X_\alpha)$$

are isomorphisms.

REMARK 75.10. The notational resemblance to reduced (co-)homology is not accidental, and pointed theories are also sometimes called *reduced* theories, though the context is a bit different, as the reduced homologies in Lecture 73 were functors on $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ rather than $\mathbf{Top}_*$. A precise relationship between the two concepts denoted by $\tilde{h}_*$ can be derived from Theorem 75.12 below.

REMARK 75.11. The definition above allows $\tilde{h}_*$ to be defined for all pointed spaces, but only really assumes that it has good properties when the spaces are well-pointed. There are versions of this definition in which well-pointedness doesn't appear, but we will see below why it is important if one wants to have a nice relationship between pointed and unpointed theories. It is also often sensible to speak of (co-)homology theories defined on smaller subcategories of $\mathbf{Top}_*$ such as the category $\mathbf{CW}_*$ of pointed CW-complexes (which are all well-pointed), or to assume $\tilde{h}_*$ is defined on all pointed spaces but only required to have good properties (notably the axioms (COF_{*}) and (ADD_{*}) and the existence of suspension isomorphisms) on CW-complexes.

We state the following theorem for homology, but there is an obvious variant for cohomology as well.

THEOREM 75.12. *Any pointed homology theory $\tilde{h}_*$ determines an unpointed homology theory by defining*

$$h_n(X, A) := \tilde{h}_n\left(\text{cone}_\circ(A \hookrightarrow X)\right) = \tilde{h}_n\left(\text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+)\right)$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, with connecting homomorphisms given by

$$\tilde{h}_n(\text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+)) \xrightarrow{q_*} \tilde{h}_n(\Sigma_+ A_+) \xrightarrow{\sigma_*^{-1}} \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A_+) = \tilde{h}_{n-1}(\text{cone}_\circ(\emptyset \hookrightarrow A)),$$

$\xrightarrow{\quad \hat{c}_* \quad}$

where $q : \text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+) \rightarrow \text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+)/X_+ = \Sigma_+ A_+$ is the quotient projection.

Conversely, any unpointed homology theory h_* determines a pointed homology theory by defining

$$\tilde{h}_n(X, *) := h_n(X, \{*\})$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $(X, *) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$, with suspension isomorphisms defined for well-pointed $(X, *) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ in terms of the usual isomorphisms $\tilde{h}_n(X) \cong \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma_o X)$ for (unpointed) reduced homology, i.e.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & \sigma_* & & & & \\ & \swarrow & & \searrow & & & \\ h_n(X, \{*\}) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_n(X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma_+ X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_{n+1}(\Sigma_+ X, \{*\}) \\ & & \partial_* \uparrow \cong & & q_* \uparrow \cong & & \\ & & h_{n+1}(C_o X', X) & \xrightarrow{\cong} & h_{n+1}(\Sigma_o X, C_o X) & \xleftarrow{\cong} & \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma_o X) \end{array}$$

Some clarifying remarks are in order before we prove the theorem.

REMARK 75.13. In the diagram defining σ_* , the connecting homomorphism ∂_* and maps induced by inclusions are isomorphisms due to the usual axioms of unpointed homology, and the quotient projection $q : \Sigma_o X \rightarrow \Sigma_+ X$ from unreduced to reduced suspension induces an isomorphism so long as $(X, *)$ is well-pointed. For spaces that are not well pointed, the diagram still defines a map σ_* , but there is no guarantee that it is an isomorphism.

REMARK 75.14. We have seen the functor $\mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_* : X \mapsto X_+ := X \amalg *$ before, and you will easily convince yourself that the unreduced mapping cone of $A \hookrightarrow X$ and the reduced mapping cone of $A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+$ are naturally pointed homeomorphic; the base point of $\text{cone}_o(A \hookrightarrow X)$ is taken to be the summit of the cone since A and X are not equipped with base points of their own. You might be a bit surprised to see $\text{cone}_o(\emptyset \hookrightarrow A)$ identified with A_+ , but this becomes clear if you think of the mapping cone as a double mapping cylinder for maps $\emptyset \hookrightarrow A$ and $\emptyset \rightarrow *$.¹⁰⁹ The succinct expression for the absolute unpointed homology derived from a pointed homology theory thus becomes

$$h_n(X) = \tilde{h}_n(X_+).$$

REMARK 75.15. The pointed spaces $\text{cone}_o(A \hookrightarrow X)$ and $\Sigma_+ A_+$ that appear in the definition of an unpointed homology theory derived from a pointed one are *always* well-pointed, for all $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$. This follows essentially from the fact that the inclusions of X , Y and $X \amalg Y$ into the unreduced double mapping cylinder of two maps $Z \rightarrow X$ and $Z \rightarrow Y$ is always a free cofibration. Analogously to the natural identification of $\text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+)$ with $\text{cone}_o(A \hookrightarrow X)$, the reduced suspension $\Sigma_+ A_+$ is closely related to the unreduced suspension of A , but is not exactly the same thing: it is the quotient of $\Sigma_o A$ in which the summits of both cones are identified, and therefore serve as a natural base point (which $\Sigma_o A$ on its own does not have).

REMARK 75.16. Up to minor details (and natural isomorphisms), the correspondences $\tilde{h}_* \mapsto h_*$ and $h_* \mapsto \tilde{h}_*$ described in the theorem are inverse to each other. For instance, suppose $\tilde{h}_*$ is given,

¹⁰⁹By the same token, the cone of the empty set is a one point space, not the empty set; in this way, $C_o : \mathbf{Top} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_*$ becomes a well-defined functor without needing to make an exception for the empty set. A similar but more jarring example is that the quotient $X/\emptyset$ is defined to be X_+ , thus producing a well-defined functor $\mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Top}_* : (X, A) \mapsto X/A$. This makes sense if you think of X/A in general as the pushout of the maps $A \hookrightarrow X$ and $A \rightarrow *$, but we are still forced to accept a “quotient projection” $X \hookrightarrow X_+$ that is not surjective.

and we define another homology theory for pointed spaces $(X, x) \in \mathbf{Top}_*$ by $\hat{h}_n(X, x) := h_n(X, \{x\})$, where h_* has been defined from $\tilde{h}_*$ via the stated prescription, thus

$$\hat{h}_n(X, x) = \tilde{h}_n(\text{cone}_o(\{x\} \hookrightarrow X)) = \tilde{h}_n(\text{cone}_+(\{x, *\} \hookrightarrow X_+)).$$

Inclusions of a single point $\{x\} \hookrightarrow X$ have the appealing property that their mapping cones are the same as their mapping cylinders, so there is an obvious homotopy equivalence $\text{cone}_o(\{x\} \hookrightarrow X) = Z_o(\{x\} \hookrightarrow X) \rightarrow X$. Unfortunately, this is an *unpointed* homotopy equivalence (its obvious homotopy inverse $X \hookrightarrow \text{cone}_o(\{x\} \hookrightarrow X)$ is not a pointed map), which is not quite good enough for the pointed homology theory $\tilde{h}$. But we can get more mileage out of describing $\hat{h}_n(X, x)$ in terms of the reduced cone: the latter is the homotopy pushout in the following diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \{x, *\} & \hookrightarrow & X_+ \\ \downarrow & \sim & \downarrow \\ * & \longrightarrow & \text{cone}_+(\{x, *\} \hookrightarrow X_+) \end{array},$$

while the strict pushout in $\mathbf{Top}_*$ for the same two maps is a quotient of the coproduct $X_+ \vee \{*\} = X_+$ that identifies the two points $x, * \in X_+$, i.e. it is X , with $x \in X$ as the base point:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \{x, *\} & \hookrightarrow & X_+ \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ * & \longrightarrow & (X, x) \end{array}.$$

Viewing the latter as a diagram in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ with the trivial homotopy then determines a pointed map $q : \text{cone}_+(\{x, *\} \hookrightarrow X_+) \rightarrow X$, i.e. the quotient map that collapses the cylindrical part of the double mapping cylinder, and we know from Exercise 64.5 that q is a pointed homotopy equivalence if $\{x, *\} \hookrightarrow X_+$ is a pointed cofibration. The latter is true whenever $\{x\} \hookrightarrow X$ is a *free* cofibration, meaning (X, x) is well pointed, so if we are willing to restrict our attention to well-pointed spaces, then the pointed homotopy axiom now gives a natural isomorphism $\tilde{h}_n(X, x) \cong \hat{h}_n(X, x)$.

REMARK 75.17. One can similarly (and more easily) see that going from an unpointed homology theory h_* to a pointed theory $\tilde{h}_*$ and then back produces an unpointed theory

$$\tilde{h}_n(X, A) := \tilde{h}_n(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), *) := h_n(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), \{*\})$$

that is naturally isomorphic to the original h_* . Indeed, the axioms of an unpointed homology theory make the following maps induced by inclusions into isomorphisms:

$$h_n(X, A) \xrightarrow{\cong} h_n(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), CA) \xleftarrow{\cong} h_n(\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X), *).$$

Here, the map on the left is a standard application of the homotopy and excision axioms, while the one on the right is an isomorphism due to the usual combination of homotopy invariance, exactness and the 5-lemma.

REMARK 75.18. Defining $h_n(X, A)$ as the pointed homology of a homotopy cofiber $\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X)$ is dual to the way we defined relative homotopy groups $\pi_n(X, A)$, namely as absolute homotopy groups of the homotopy fiber $F(A \hookrightarrow X)$. This is a hint that the role played by the Puppe fiber sequence in the background of the homotopy groups will be played in the homology/cohomology context by the Puppe *cofiber* sequence.

PROOF OF THEOREM 75.12. The pointed theory $\tilde{h}_n(X, *) := h_n(X, \{*\})$ derived from an unpointed theory h_* is naturally isomorphic to the latter's *reduced* variant, and the axioms for $\tilde{h}_*$ thus follow easily from the properties of reduced homology that we discussed in Lecture 73. The

most interesting is perhaps the cofibration axiom, which follows directly from the exactness axiom of h_* due to the natural isomorphisms $\tilde{h}_n(X/A) \cong h_n(X, A)$ that hold whenever $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a cofibration.

If instead we start with a pointed theory $\tilde{h}_*$ and then define h_n by the stated prescription, the homotopy axiom is easily verified because homotopies of maps of pairs $(X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ induce pointed homotopies of maps $\text{cone}(A \hookrightarrow X) \rightarrow \text{cone}(B \hookrightarrow Y)$. The additivity axiom is, similarly, an almost immediate consequence of its pointed variant. The interesting part is proving excision and exactness. Lemma 75.19 below explains why there was surprisingly no need to mention excision in the list of pointed axioms: defining $h_n(X, A)$ in terms of mapping cones makes excision an automatic consequence of the pointed homotopy axiom.

The exactness axiom follows in turn from a combination of the cofibration and pointed homotopy axioms with the Puppe cofiber sequence. Indeed, for any given pair $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, it suffices to prove that the top row of the following diagram is exact at each of its interior terms:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 h_n(A) & \longrightarrow & h_n(X) & \longrightarrow & h_n(X, A) & \xrightarrow{\partial_*} & h_{n-1}(A) \longrightarrow h_{n-1}(X) \\
 \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel & & \parallel \\
 \tilde{h}_n(A_+) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{h}_n(X_+) & \longrightarrow & \tilde{h}_n(\text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+)) & & \tilde{h}_{n-1}(A_+) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_{n-1}(X_+) \\
 & & & & \searrow q_* & & \cong \downarrow \sigma_* \quad \quad \quad \cong \downarrow \sigma_* \\
 & & & & & & \tilde{h}_n(\Sigma_+ A_+) \longrightarrow \tilde{h}_n(\Sigma_+ X_+)
 \end{array}$$

All pointed spaces appearing in this diagram are well pointed, all unlabelled maps are induced by obvious inclusions, and the diagram commutes due to the naturality of the suspension isomorphisms σ_* and the way that these isomorphisms determine the definition of ∂_* . The crucial observation is now that if we follow the bottom terms in the diagram from left to right but remove the functor $\tilde{h}_n$, what we're looking at is the first five terms of the Puppe cofiber sequence for the pointed inclusion $A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+$:

$$A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+ \rightarrow \text{cone}_+(A_+ \hookrightarrow X_+) \rightarrow \Sigma_+ A_+ \hookrightarrow \Sigma_+ X_+ \rightarrow \dots$$

In particular, any consecutive three-term subsequence has the homotopy type of a pointed cofibration, so the exactness of the top row now follows directly from the pointed homotopy and cofibration axioms. $\square$

The next lemma was needed in the proof above to establish the excision axiom for the unpointed theory determined by a pointed homology theory. This is the moment to recall that our statement of the excision axiom in Lecture 73 for a triad $(X; A, B)$ with $X = A \cup B$ explicitly assumed the existence of a function $u : X \rightarrow I$ separating $X \setminus B$ from $X \setminus A$, which is a slightly stronger hypothesis than in standard versions of the axiom, though equivalent in all cases of practical interest. The inclusion of that hypothesis was specifically motivated by this lemma.

LEMMA 75.19. *Suppose $X = A \cup B$ and there exists a continuous function $u : X \rightarrow I$ that equals 0 on $X \setminus A$ and 1 on $X \setminus B$. Then the inclusion*

$$\text{cone}(A \cap B \hookrightarrow A) \hookrightarrow \text{cone}(B \hookrightarrow X)$$

is a pointed homotopy equivalence.

PROOF. Write points in $\text{cone}(B \hookrightarrow X)$ as equivalence classes $[x, t]$ of tuples $(x, t) \in X \times I$, where we assume $x \in B$ for $t < 1$ and $[x, 0] = [y, 0]$ for all $x, y \in B$. The formula

$$g([x, t]) := [x, u(x)t]$$

then gives a well-defined pointed map $\text{cone}(B \hookrightarrow X) \rightarrow \text{cone}(A \cap B \hookrightarrow A)$ since it sends $[x, t]$ to the summit of the cone whenever $x \notin A$ and fixes $[x, 1]$ for every $x \in X \setminus B = A \setminus (A \cap B)$. Using a linear homotopy of $u : X \rightarrow I$ to the constant function with value 1, one similarly constructs families of pointed maps showing that g is a pointed homotopy inverse of the inclusion. $\square$

75.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 75.1 (*). Prove each of the following:

- (a) Lemma 75.2, on the natural bijection $[X, K^w(G, n)]_+ \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\pi_n(X), G)$ when X is an $(n-1)$ -connected CW-complex with $n \geq 1$.
Hint: Factor it through $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ and $\text{Hom}(H_n^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}), G)$, using the universal coefficient theorem and the Hurewicz theorem.
- (b) For any group homomorphism $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ and the induced pointed homotopy class $\varphi \in [K(G, n), K^w(H, n)]_+$, the homomorphism $\varphi_* : \pi_n(K(G, n)) \rightarrow \pi_n(K^w(H, n))$ is Φ .
Hint: Use (75.2) with $X := S^n$.

EXERCISE 75.2 (*). Work out the proof of the cohomological variant of Theorem 75.12, in particular the detail involving exactness of the unpointed theory. Since cohomology and homology are “dual” to each other, you may be intuitively expecting the Puppe fiber sequence to replace the cofiber sequence, but that intuition is wrong; the cofiber sequence is again what you need.

76. Stable homotopy groups and spectra

76.1. Stable homotopy as a homology theory. The stable homotopy groups $\pi_n^s(X)$ of a pointed space X were introduced briefly in §71.2: they are defined by

$$\pi_n^s(X) := \text{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X),$$

where the reduced suspension functor

$$\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) = [\Sigma^{n+k} S^0, \Sigma^k X] \xrightarrow{\Sigma} [\Sigma^{n+k+1} S^0, \Sigma^{k+1} X] = \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma^{k+1} X)$$

makes the sequence $\{\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X)\}_{k=2}^{\infty}$ into a direct system of abelian groups. (That all the groups are abelian is immediately clear if we start the sequence with $k=2$, but of course, one could start it with any other finite value of k without changing the colimit.) We deduce from Corollary 71.9, a consequence of the Freudenthal suspension theorem, that $\pi_n^s(X)$ is isomorphic to $\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X)$ for all k sufficiently large whenever X is well pointed.

The stable homotopy groups can be interpreted as follows. Elements of the ordinary homotopy groups $\pi_n(X)$ are represented by pointed maps of spheres to X , and are considered equivalent if they are homotopic. The stable homotopy groups weaken this equivalence relation, and allow two non-homotopic maps of spheres to X to be called equivalent if they become homotopic after sufficiently many “stabilizations,” meaning applications of the suspension functor.

REMARK 76.1. Since finitely-many terms in the direct system can be discarded without changing the colimit, $\pi_n^s(X)$ can be defined for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, including $n < 0$. If X is well pointed, however, then one deduces from the Freudenthal suspension theorem that $\pi_n^s(X) = 0$ for $n < 0$.

Each π_n^s is naturally a functor $\text{Top}_* \rightarrow \text{Ab}$, because pointed maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$ give rise to sequences of maps

$$\pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) \xrightarrow{(\Sigma^k f)_*} \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k Y)$$

that determine a map $f_* : \pi_n^s(X) \rightarrow \pi_n^s(Y)$ between the corresponding colimits. There are also natural homomorphisms

$$\sigma_* : \pi_n^s(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}^s(\Sigma X)$$

determined by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \dots & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) & \xrightarrow{\Sigma} & \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma^{k+1} X) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \pi_n^s(X) \\
 & & \downarrow \Sigma & & \downarrow \Sigma & & \downarrow \sigma_* \\
 \dots & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma^{k+1} X) & \xrightarrow{\Sigma} & \pi_{n+k+2}(\Sigma^{k+2} X) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \pi_{n+1}^s(\Sigma X)
 \end{array}$$

Since the direct systems on both rows are the same up to a shift, their colimits are necessarily isomorphic; $\pi_n^s(X)$ and $\pi_{n+1}^s(\Sigma X)$ are just two different names for that colimit, and σ_* is an explicit isomorphism between them. If X is well pointed, then one also sees explicitly from Freudenthal that σ_* is invertible, because then the vertical maps are all isomorphisms for sufficiently large k .

THEOREM 76.2. *The stable homotopy groups $\pi_n^s : \mathbf{Top}_* \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ with the suspension isomorphisms $\sigma_* : \pi_n^s(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}^s(\Sigma X)$ described above satisfy the axioms of a pointed homology theory.*

REMARK 76.3. The theorem seems to give hope that $\pi_n^s(X)$ could be computed for any CW-complex X , and in principle, such a computation will follow from the Atiyah-Hirzebruch spectral sequence if one can first compute all coefficient groups of the theory and then compute the cellular homology with respect to these coefficient groups. The unpointed homology theory determined by π_*^s according to the previous lecture has absolute homology groups $h_n(X) := \pi_n^s(X_+)$ for $X \in \mathbf{Top}$, so its coefficient group in degree $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is

$$h_n(*) \cong \pi_n^s(S^0) = \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k S^0) \cong \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(S^k),$$

which is isomorphic to $\pi_{n+k}(S^k)$ for any k sufficiently large. We know that these groups are sometimes nontrivial for $n > 0$, thus h_* does not satisfy the dimension axiom, i.e. it is a *generalized* rather than an *ordinary* homology theory. The bad news (or interesting news, depending on your point of view) is that the groups $\pi_n^s(S^0)$ are not known in general, and their computation is considered to be one of the great open problems of algebraic topology.

PROOF OF THEOREM 76.2. The axiom (HTP_{*}) is obvious from the definition. For the axiom (COF_{*}), we need to show that whenever $A \hookrightarrow X$ is a pointed cofibration of well-pointed spaces, the induced maps $\pi_n^s(A) \rightarrow \pi_n^s(X) \rightarrow \pi_n^s(X/A)$ form an exact sequence. This is a consequence of the long exact sequence of relative homotopy groups: indeed, since X and A are well pointed, we know from Corollary 71.8 that $\Sigma^k X$ and $\Sigma^k A$ are $(k-1)$ -connected, hence the pair $(\Sigma^k X, \Sigma^k A)$ is also at least $(k-1)$ -connected, so by Theorem 71.12, the vertical map (induced by a quotient projection) in the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k A) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X, \Sigma^k A) \\
 & & & \searrow & \downarrow \\
 & & & & \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k X / \Sigma^k A) \cong \pi_{n+k}(\Sigma^k(X/A))
 \end{array}$$

is an isomorphism whenever $n+k < 2(k-1)+1$, meaning $k \geq n+2$. The result then follows because exactness of sequences is preserved under direct limits. For the axiom (ADD_{*}), one can start with the following lemma: If there is a collection $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ of well-pointed spaces such that the natural map

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha} \pi_n^s(X_\alpha) \longrightarrow \pi_n^s\left(\bigvee_{\alpha \in J} X_\alpha\right)$$

fails to be an isomorphism, then it also fails for some such collection in which J is finite. This is true for roughly the same reason why it sufficed to prove Theorem 71.11 for finite wedge sums: every compact subset of $\bigvee_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ intersects at most finitely many of the spaces X_α beyond their base points, and this applies in particular to the images of maps $S^{n+k} \rightarrow \bigvee_{\alpha} X_\alpha$ or homotopies

between such maps. But recall that for finite collections, additivity in an unpointed homology theory follows already from the other axioms, namely excision and exactness. Knowing this, one also deduces finite additivity in the pointed theory from the fact that it is satisfied in the unpointed theory. $\square$

REMARK 76.4. If the argument for additivity in the proof above strikes you as a bit cheap, I'll remind you that there is some serious machinery behind it: we're using the fact (proved in the previous lecture) that the unpointed homology theory determined by a pointed theory satisfies the exactness axiom, and the main result behind that was the Puppe cofiber sequence.

76.2. Cohomology and homology of spectra. Informally, a spectrum is a sequence of pointed spaces $\{E_n\}$ that can be used in the same manner as the Eilenberg-MacLane spaces to define a pointed cohomology theory, i.e. by setting $\tilde{h}^n(X) := [X, E_n]_+$ for a reasonable class of pointed spaces X , e.g. the pointed CW-complexes. Since cohomology theories need to come with suspension isomorphisms $\sigma_* : \tilde{h}^n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma X)$, the structure of a spectrum also needs to provide us with maps $[X, E_n] \rightarrow [\Sigma X, E_{n+1}] \cong [X, \Omega E_{n+1}]$ for each n , and it is natural to ask that these arise from pointed maps $E_n \rightarrow \Omega E_{n+1}$, or equivalently (by adjunction), $\Sigma E_n \rightarrow E_{n+1}$. We saw in the previous lecture the example of the Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum $\{K(G, n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$, which comes equipped with homotopy classes of pointed maps $e : \Sigma K(G, n) \rightarrow K(G, n+1)$ such that the adjoint maps $\hat{e} : K(G, n) \rightarrow \Omega K(G, n+1)$ are weak homotopy equivalences.

DEFINITION 76.5. A **spectrum** E consists of a sequence of pointed spaces $\{E_n \in \mathbf{Top}_*\}$ that are defined for sufficiently large integers n and equipped with pointed maps $e : \Sigma E_n \rightarrow E_{n+1}$. It is called an **Ω -spectrum** if the spaces E_n are defined for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and are pointed CW-complexes, and the maps $\hat{e} : E_n \rightarrow \Omega E_{n+1}$ adjoint to $e : \Sigma E_n \rightarrow E_{n+1}$ are weak homotopy equivalences for all n .

REMARK 76.6. There is a major lack of consensus in the literature about the details of the definition given above. Many sources place stronger conditions on a spectrum and call the notions defined above *prespectra* to indicate the lack of stronger conditions. Some also would require all the spaces in a spectrum to be CW-complexes, which I have decided to require for Ω -spectra (because the condition seems more obviously useful in that context) but not for spectra, although the condition would hold for most of the examples we discuss. For Ω -spectra, some sources also drop the word “weak” in front of “homotopy equivalence”; actually, we could also do this without changing anything, since we are assuming the E_n are CW-complexes, and [Mil59] then tells us that the ΩE_{n+1} are also homotopy equivalent to CW-complexes. But that knowledge makes no practical difference in the main applications, so we're leaving in the word “weak”.

REMARK 76.7. It is conventional to assume that the structure maps $e : \Sigma E_n \rightarrow E_{n+1}$ in a spectrum are actual maps rather than just homotopy classes of maps, though for our purposes, having them defined only up to homotopy would be just as good. They can be defined canonically as maps in some of the examples below, while in others, only their homotopy classes are canonical, so that realizing them as maps requires some arbitrary choices.

EXAMPLE 76.8. As we have defined it so far, the **Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum** $K(G, \cdot)$ associated to an abelian group G consists of choices of a sequence of Eilenberg-MacLane spaces $\{K(G, n)\}_{n \geq 0}$ together with maps $e : \Sigma K(G, n) \rightarrow K(G, n+1)$ whose adjoints live in the canonical homotopy class of maps $\hat{e} : K(G, n) \rightarrow \Omega K(G, n+1)$ arising from the fact that $\Omega K(G, n+1)$ is a weak $K(G, n)$. These adjoints are weak homotopy equivalences, which makes $K(G, \cdot)$ almost but not quite an Ω -spectrum by our definition; what's missing is only a definition of $K(G, n)$ for $n < 0$. This gap is easy to fill: we extend the spectrum $K(G, \cdot)$ to $n < 0$ by formally defining $K(G, n) := *$, and since the unique pointed maps $\Sigma(*) \rightarrow *$ are adjoint to weak homotopy equivalences $* \rightarrow \Omega(*)$,

this makes $K(G, \cdot)$ an Ω -spectrum. (Note that the based loop space of any discrete space is another one-point space!)

EXAMPLE 76.9. The **suspension spectrum** $\Sigma^\bullet X$ of any pointed space X can be defined as the sequence of spaces $\{\Sigma^n X\}_{n \geq 0}$ together with the identity maps $\Sigma \Sigma^n X \rightarrow \Sigma^{n+1} X$. An important special case is the **sphere spectrum** $\Sigma^\bullet S^0$, whose spaces are all spheres $\Sigma^n S^0 \cong S^n$. Ignoring the fact that we have no obviously natural definition of $\Sigma^n X$ for $n < 0$, suspension spectra typically also do not satisfy the more important condition for being an Ω -spectrum: for a given pointed CW-complex X , it is a straightforward exercise to show that the map $\Sigma^n \rightarrow \Omega \Sigma^{n+1} X$ adjoint to the identity map is a weak homotopy equivalence for all n if and only if the Freudenthal suspension theorem holds for X *without dimensional restrictions*. This is clearly false for the sphere spectrum, since e.g. $\pi_2(S^1) \not\cong \pi_3(S^2)$. On the other hand, Freudenthal does imply (via Exercise 71.3) that for well-pointed X , the suspension spectrum $\Sigma^\bullet X$ is at least *asymptotically* an Ω -spectrum as $n \rightarrow \infty$, in the sense that $\hat{e}: \Sigma^n X \rightarrow \Omega \Sigma^{n+1} X$ is a $(2n-1)$ -equivalence.

EXAMPLE 76.10. A special case of the following operation turns the sphere spectrum into an arbitrary suspension spectrum. The **smash product** of a spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$ with a pointed space X defines a new spectrum $E \wedge X$ with spaces $\{E_n \wedge X\}$ and maps

$$\Sigma(E_n \wedge X) \longrightarrow (\Sigma E_n) \wedge X \xrightarrow{e \wedge \text{Id}} E_{n+1} \wedge X,$$

$\searrow \quad \quad \quad \nearrow$
 e

where the first map in this composition is the canonical bijection $\Sigma(E_n \wedge X) = S^1 \wedge (E_n \wedge X) \rightarrow (S^1 \wedge E_n) \wedge X = (\Sigma E_n) \wedge X$, which is continuous because S^1 is friendly (cf. Exercise 61.5(d)). By this definition, $\Sigma^\bullet S^0 \wedge X = \Sigma^\bullet X$.

In the following statement, I will be intentionally vague about the meaning of the word “natural”; it has one, but defining it would require a proper definition of the category of spectra, which involves some subtle issues and we have no pressing need to get into them here.

PROPOSITION 76.11. *There is a natural operation that converts any spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$ into an Ω -spectrum $E' = \{E'_n\}$.*

PROOF. Let us pretend at first that we had not required the spaces in an Ω -spectrum to be CW-complexes, and just focus on constructing spaces E'_n with weak homotopy equivalences $E'_n \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$. The idea is to define E'_n for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ as the direct limit of the sequence

$$E_n \xrightarrow{\hat{e}} \Omega E_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\Omega \hat{e}} \Omega^2 E_{n+2} \xrightarrow{\Omega^2 \hat{e}} \dots \longrightarrow \text{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega^k E_{n+k} =: E'_n,$$

with the understanding that if E_n is only defined for n larger than some threshold $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$, then we are free to begin the sequence with the term $\Omega^k E_{n+k}$ for any $k \geq n_0 - n$. A map $E'_n \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$ is then determined by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & \Omega^k E_{n+k} & \xrightarrow{\Omega^k \hat{e}} & \Omega^{k+1} E_{n+k+1} & \xrightarrow{\quad} & \dots \longrightarrow E'_n \\ & & \downarrow \Omega^k \hat{e} & & \downarrow \Omega^{k+1} \hat{e} & & \downarrow \cong \\ \dots & \longrightarrow & \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k}) & \xrightarrow{\Omega^{k+1} \hat{e}} & \Omega(\Omega^{k+1} E_{(n+1)+(k+1)}) & \longrightarrow & \dots \longrightarrow \text{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k}) \\ & & & & \searrow \Omega \psi_{k+1, n+1} & & \downarrow \\ & & & & \Omega \psi_{k, n+1} & \nearrow & \Omega E'_{n+1} \end{array}$$

in which $\psi_{k,n} : \Omega^k E_{n+k} \rightarrow E'_n$ for each k, n denotes the natural map to the colimit, and the map $\operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k}) \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$ comes from using the maps $\Omega\psi_{k,n+1}$ to view $\Omega E'_{n+1}$ as a target of the direct system in the second row. The first two rows are in fact the same direct system up to a shift, and therefore have isomorphic colimits, making the induced map $E'_n \rightarrow \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k})$ a pointed homeomorphism. It would be tempting to claim that the other vertical map $\operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k}) \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$ is also a homeomorphism due to some general principle, e.g. that the functor Ω preserves colimits and $\Omega E'_{n+1}$ is therefore also a colimit of the second row—that sounds nice, but it is false, because right-adjoint functors such as Ω generally preserve limits, not colimits. The good news is that direct systems (over directed sets!) in the category $\mathbf{Top}_*$ have one or two extra properties that are useful for this situation, telling us that the passage to the colimit is sufficiently compatible with the functor Ω for our purposes: Exercise 76.1 implies that the map $\operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Omega(\Omega^k E_{(n+1)+k}) \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$ is at least a weak homotopy equivalence. We have therefore constructed weak homotopy equivalences $E'_n \rightarrow \Omega E'_{n+1}$, whose adjoint maps $\Sigma E'_n \rightarrow E'_{n+1}$ we take to be the structure maps of our new spectrum. There is clearly no reason to expect that the spaces E'_n constructed in this way are CW-complexes, but we can now get the desired Ω -spectrum by replacing them with CW-approximations (Exercise 76.1). $\square$

The next result was our main motivation for insisting in the definition of an Ω -spectrum that the spaces E_n should be CW-complexes.

PROPOSITION 76.12. *For any Ω -spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$, the spaces E_n admit unique group object structures in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ such that for every CW-complex X , the composition*

$$(76.1) \quad [X, E_n]_+ \xrightarrow{\Sigma} [\Sigma X, \Sigma E_n]_+ \xrightarrow{e_*} [\Sigma X, E_{n+1}]_+$$

is a group isomorphism. Moreover, the resulting group objects in $\mathbf{hTop}_$ are all abelian.*

PROOF. Since the E_n are CW-complexes, it will suffice to make them group objects in the subcategory $\mathbf{hCW}_* \subset \mathbf{hTop}_*$, i.e. the homotopy category of pointed CW-complexes, which has the same morphisms as $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ but only CW-complexes as objects. For any CW-complex X and each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the composition in (76.1) is equivalent via adjunction to the map

$$[X, E_n]_+ \xrightarrow{\hat{e}_*} [X, \Omega E_{n+1}]_+,$$

which is a bijection due to the cofibrant theorem since $\hat{e}$ is a weak homotopy equivalence. (See Remark 76.13 on why there is no problem with applying the cofibrant theorem to *pointed* homotopy sets in this way.) If we use the natural group object structure of the loop space ΩE_{n+1} to make $[X, \Omega E_{n+1}]_+$ into a group, it follows that there is a unique group structure on $[X, E_n]$ making this bijection a group isomorphism, and the maps $[Y, E_n] \rightarrow [X, E_n]$ induced by pointed maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are then also group homomorphisms. Proposition 67.13 then produces on E_n a unique group object structure in $\mathbf{hCW}_*$ (and therefore also $\mathbf{hTop}_*$) that reproduces this group structure on $[X, E_n]$ for every pointed CW-complex X . Defining this for every n , we then observe that the groups $[X, \Omega E_{n+1}] = [\Sigma X, E_{n+1}]$ are always abelian due to Theorem 67.23, because they inherit the same group structure from the cogroup object ΣX and the group object E_{n+1} . It follows that $[X, E_n]$ is also abelian for every pointed CW-complex X , and E_n is therefore an abelian group object. $\square$

REMARK 76.13. Minor detail: The homotopy sets in the proof of Proposition 76.12 are pointed, while the cofibrant theorem as proved in §69.5 gave a bijection between *unpointed* homotopy sets. In fact, an easy modification of the same proof shows that if the weak homotopy equivalence is also a pointed map, then it also induces a bijection between pointed homotopy sets. This only requires applying the compression lemma in a slightly more careful way so that it produces pointed homotopies, which is possible because the base point of the CW-complex X is a subcomplex.

REMARK 76.14. In the previous lecture, we equipped the Eilenberg-MacLane spaces $K(G, n)$ with the unique group object structures (in both $\mathbf{hTop}$ and $\mathbf{hTop}_*$) for which the natural bijection $[X, K(G, n)]_\circ \rightarrow H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ becomes a group isomorphism for every CW-complex X . Since $K(G, \cdot)$ is an Ω -spectrum, you should now be wondering whether that group object structure is the same as the one coming out of the construction above. This must be true if and only if it makes the bijective map $[X, K(G, n)]_+ \rightarrow [\Sigma X, K(G, n+1)]_+$ defined in (76.1) into a group isomorphism for every pointed CW-complex X . According to Exercise 74.4, that bijective map is equivalent to a map $\tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{\text{CW}}^{n+1}(\Sigma X)$, so there is an obvious candidate for what that isomorphism might be. I will leave it as an exercise to prove that that's what it is.

Next, we follow the example set by the Eilenberg-MacLane spaces and turn any Ω -spectrum into a cohomology theory on the category of CW-complexes. The reason to restrict to CW-complexes is the suspension maps, because if we are only assuming that the maps $\hat{e}: E_n \rightarrow \Omega E_{n+1}$ are weak homotopy equivalences, then the easy extension of the cofibrant theorem to pointed homotopy sets will make $\sigma_*: \tilde{h}^n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma X)$ a bijection whenever X is a CW-complex, but it would not tell us this for spaces that are not CW-complexes. It follows that the corresponding unpointed cohomology theory h^* will satisfy the unpointed axioms when restricted to CW-pairs, which is enough to do all the things that we usually do with axiomatic cohomology, e.g. computing it on all CW-complexes in terms of cellular cohomology and the coefficient groups $h^n(*)$.

THEOREM 76.15. For any Ω -spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$,

$$\tilde{h}^n(X) := [X, E_n]_+$$

with suspension maps σ_* defined by

$$\tilde{h}^n(X) = [X, E_n]_+ \xrightarrow{\hat{e}_*} [X, \Omega E_{n+1}]_+ = [\Sigma X, E_{n+1}]_+ = \tilde{h}^{n+1}(\Sigma X)$$

defines a pointed cohomology theory on the subcategory $\text{CW}_* \subset \text{Top}_*$ of pointed CW-complexes.

PROOF. Actually, it's obvious that the axioms of a pointed cohomology theory are satisfied. The most interesting one is (COF_*) , which is now just a restatement of the basic property of strict cofibration sequences, i.e. that they contravariantly induce exact sequences of homotopy sets. $\square$

EXAMPLE 76.16. The Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum $K(G, \cdot)$ gives rise to a pointed cohomology theory $\tilde{h}^n(X) = [X, K(G, n)]_+$ for CW-complexes X , and therefore also an unpointed theory given by $h^n(X) := \tilde{h}^n(X_+) = [X_+, K(G, n)]_+ \cong [X, K(G, n)]_\circ$, so its coefficient groups are

$$h^n(*) = \tilde{h}^n(S^0) = [S^0, K(G, n)]_+ = \pi_0(K(G, n)) \cong \begin{cases} G & \text{for } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{for } n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

This computation shows that h^* satisfies the dimension axiom, and is therefore naturally isomorphic on CW-pairs (X, A) to the cellular cohomology $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; G)$. If we hadn't already given a direct proof that $[X, K(G, n)]_\circ$ and $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ are naturally isomorphic, we could have derived one in this way from the axiomatic framework: we would have instead had to give a more direct proof of the existence of natural weak homotopy equivalences $K(G, n) \rightarrow \Omega K(G, n+1)$, showing that $K(G, \cdot)$ is an Ω -spectrum. This is the approach taken in [Hat02, tD08].

REMARK 76.17. It is interesting to note that according to the *Brown representability theorem*, all pointed cohomology theories on CW-complexes arise from Ω -spectra as in the construction above. There is a proof of this theorem in [Hat02, §4.E].

DEFINITION 76.18. The **homotopy groups of a spectrum** $E = \{E_n\}$ are defined for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$\pi_n(E) := \text{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(E_k),$$

i.e. the direct limit of the sequence of (mostly) abelian groups defined by

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \dots & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k}(E_k) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k+1}(E_{k+1}) & \longrightarrow & \pi_{n+k+2}(E_{k+2}) \longrightarrow \dots \\ & & \searrow \Sigma & & \uparrow e_* & \searrow \Sigma & \uparrow e_* \\ & & & & \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma E_k) & & \pi_{n+k+2}(\Sigma E_{k+1}) \end{array}$$

For example, plugging in the suspension spectrum $\Sigma^\bullet X = \Sigma^\bullet S^0 \wedge X$ of a space X reproduces the stable homotopy groups of X . Since the stable homotopy groups define a homology theory, this hints at a more general way to construct homology theories out of spectra:

THEOREM 76.19. *Any spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$ determines a pointed homology theory $\tilde{h}_*$ defined by*

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) := \pi_n(E \wedge X),$$

with suspension isomorphisms $\sigma_ : \tilde{h}_n(X) \rightarrow \tilde{h}_{n+1}(\Sigma X)$ determined by the sequence of maps $\pi_{n+k}(E_k \wedge X) \rightarrow \pi_{n+k+1}(E_k \wedge \Sigma X)$ defined as the compositions*

$$\pi_{n+k}(E_k \wedge X) \xrightarrow{\Sigma} \pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma(E_k \wedge X)) \longrightarrow \pi_{n+k+1}(E_k \wedge \Sigma X),$$

in which the second homomorphism is induced by the canonical bijection $\Sigma(E_k \wedge X) = (E_k \wedge X) \wedge S^1 \rightarrow E_k \wedge (X \wedge S^1) = E_k \wedge (\Sigma X)$ (which is continuous by Exercise 61.5(d)).

As a corollary, here is a somewhat exotic-looking formula for the singular homology of any CW-complex X with coefficients in an abelian group G :

$$H_n(X; G) \cong \pi_n(K(G, \cdot) \wedge X_+) = \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(K(G, k) \wedge X_+).$$

Here are some brief remarks on the proof of Theorem 76.19. We proved the special case $E = \Sigma^\bullet S^0$ when we talked about the stable homotopy groups, and I would feel dishonest claiming that the general case is a completely straightforward extension of this, but indeed, most of the essential ideas appeared there. This is one point where there are some clear advantages to working in the compactly-generated category, though I would be surprised if it is truly necessary. For instance, in the proof that the suspension maps σ_* are isomorphisms, one needs to consider in particular whether the map $\pi_{n+k+1}(\Sigma(E_k \wedge X)) \rightarrow \pi_{n+k+1}(E_k \wedge \Sigma X)$ induced by the canonical bijection $(E_k \wedge X) \wedge S^1 \rightarrow E_k \wedge (X \wedge S^1)$ is an isomorphism, which is obvious in the compactly-generated category, because product topologies are adjusted in a way that makes the smash product associative without restrictions. Outside of the compactly-generated category, it would be good enough to know that the map $(E_k \wedge X) \wedge S^1 \rightarrow E_k \wedge (X \wedge S^1)$ is at least a homotopy equivalence if X and E_k are well pointed, and this is apparently true, though I do not know where to find a complete proof.¹¹⁰

REMARK 76.20. The point of expressing $H_n(X; G)$ as a homotopy group of a spectrum is not that this makes it easier to compute, but rather that the same perspective can lend us insight into the computation of *other* (generalized) homology theories. In particular, the coefficient groups of bordism theory are computed by expressing them as homotopy groups.

¹¹⁰A hint appears in the comments at

<https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/3353411/associativity-of-smash-product-up-to-homotopy-equivalence>.

76.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 76.1. The following clarifies two details in the prescription for constructing an Ω -spectrum $E' = \{E'_n\}$ out of an arbitrary spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$.

- (a) Suppose $\{X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ is a direct system in the category $\mathbf{Top}_*$ over a directed set $(J, <)$, with pointed maps $\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\beta$ defined for every $\alpha < \beta$ in J , and let $\varphi_\alpha : X_\alpha \rightarrow X_\infty := \operatorname{colim}\{X_\alpha\}$ denote the natural maps to the direct limit. The maps $\Omega\varphi_{\beta\alpha} : \Omega X_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega X_\beta$ then similarly define a direct system $\{\Omega X_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$, while the maps $\Omega\varphi_\alpha : \Omega X_\alpha \rightarrow \Omega X_\infty$ make ΩX_∞ a target of this system, so that by the universal property, there is a uniquely-determined pointed map

$$\operatorname{colim}\{\Omega X_\alpha\} \xrightarrow{u} \Omega X_\infty.$$

Show that u is a weak homotopy equivalence.

Hint: All colimits are coequalizers of coproducts, so X_∞ and $\operatorname{colim}\{\Omega X_\alpha\}$ are quotients of wedge sums, and any given map of a sphere (or homotopy of such maps) into such a space will then touch only finitely-many summands beyond the base point. Use adjunction to get rid of Ω , so that you only need to think about maps of spheres to X_α for some $\alpha \in J$.

- (b) Show that for every spectrum $E = \{E_n\}$ with structure maps $e : \Sigma E_n \rightarrow E_{n+1}$, there exists a spectrum $E' = \{E'_n\}$ with structure maps $e' : \Sigma E'_n \rightarrow E'_{n+1}$ together with weak homotopy equivalences $\varphi_n : E'_n \rightarrow E_n$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Sigma E'_n & \xrightarrow{\Sigma\varphi_n} & \Sigma E_n \\ \downarrow e' & \sim & \downarrow e \\ E'_{n+1} & \xrightarrow{\varphi_{n+1}} & E_{n+1} \end{array}$$

commutes up to homotopy and the spaces E'_n are all pointed CW-complexes. Deduce that E' is then an Ω -spectrum if the adjoint maps $\hat{e} : E_n \rightarrow \Omega E_{n+1}$ are weak homotopy equivalences.

77. Fiber bundles

77.1. Basic notions. We now begin the study of fiber bundles, a special class of fibrations that arise especially often in differential geometry. Our main goal over the next four lectures is to develop the essentials of the theory of characteristic classes of vector bundles and principal fiber bundles over CW-complexes.

DEFINITION 77.1. A map $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a **fiber bundle** (with **base** B , **total space** E and **fibers** $E_x := p^{-1}(x)$) if every point $x \in B$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ on which there is a **local trivialization**, meaning a homeomorphism $\Phi : E|_{\mathcal{U}} := p^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times F$ fitting into the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E|_{\mathcal{U}} & \xrightarrow[\cong]{\Phi} & \mathcal{U} \times F \\ & \searrow p & \swarrow \operatorname{pr}_1 \\ & \mathcal{U} & \end{array},$$

where F can be any space and pr_1 denotes the projection map to the first factor. In particular, the local trivialization Φ maps the fiber E_y over each point $y \in \mathcal{U}$ homeomorphically to $\{y\} \times F$. The fiber bundle is said to be (globally) **trivial** if it admits such a trivialization with $\mathcal{U} := B$; similarly, the projection $B \times F \rightarrow B$ is often called the **trivial bundle** with fiber F .

In the definition above, F does not absolutely need to be the same space for all local trivializations, though if B is at least connected, then it follows from the definition that all the fibers will at least be homeomorphic. This means that for fiber bundles over connected bases, there is no loss of generality if we always use a fixed space F as the so-called **standard fiber** for all local trivializations; we will typically do this.

DEFINITION 77.2. A **section** of a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a map $s : B \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ s = \text{Id}_B$, i.e. the value $s(x)$ at each point $x \in B$ lives in the fiber E_x . We denote the space of sections by

$$\Gamma(E) := \{\text{sections of } p : E \rightarrow B\}.$$

Since $E|_{\mathcal{U}} \xrightarrow{p} \mathcal{U}$ is also naturally a fiber bundle for any subset $\mathcal{U} \subset B$, we can also speak of *sections of E over $\mathcal{U}$* , and write $\Gamma(E|_{\mathcal{U}})$ for the set of these. It is sometimes useful to put a topology on $\Gamma(E)$, and the appropriate choice of topology typically depends on the context. We will not need this, but we will want to talk about **homotopy classes of sections**, which are defined in an obvious way: $s_0, s_1 \in \Gamma(E)$ are homotopic if there is a homotopy $s : B \times I \rightarrow E$ from s_0 to s_1 such that $s_t : B \rightarrow E$ is a section for every $t \in I$. We will see in examples below that it is often a nontrivial question whether any globally-defined section exists, though they always exist locally: on any region $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ for which there exists a local trivialization $E|_{\mathcal{U}} \cong \mathcal{U} \times F$, one can write down a section just by choosing a map $\mathcal{U} \rightarrow F$, e.g. a constant map.

It is easy to check that the pullback of a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ via a map $f : B' \rightarrow B$ is also a fiber bundle: in particular, if we define the fiber product

$$f^*E := B' \times_p E \xrightarrow{p'} B' : (b, x) \mapsto b,$$

then a local trivialization $\Phi = (p, \phi) : E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times F$ of $p : E \rightarrow B$ over an open set $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ gives rise to a local trivialization

$$f^*\Phi : (f^*E)|_{f^{-1}(\mathcal{U})} \rightarrow f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \times F$$

of $p' : f^*E \rightarrow B'$ over the open subset $f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}) \subset B'$, defined by $(f^*\Phi)(b, x) := (b, \phi(x))$. We sometimes call $p' : f^*E \rightarrow B'$ the **induced fiber bundle** determined by $p : E \rightarrow B$ and the map $f : B' \rightarrow B$. A section $s \in \Gamma(f^*E)$ of the induced bundle associates to each $x \in B'$ a value in the fiber of E over $f(x)$, and is thus also called a **section of E along f** .

77.2. Preview of obstruction theory. With the notions of a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ and its sections in place, we can state the fundamental questions that are considered in the subject known as *obstruction theory*:

- (1) Do there exist any (global) sections $s \in \Gamma(E)$?
- (2) How can we measure whether two sections $s_0, s_1 \in \Gamma(E)$ are homotopic?

These questions will be examined in some generality in the next lecture. Let me first describe a real-world example in which one might want to answer them.

Suppose M is a smooth manifold of even dimension $2n$. Its tangent bundle $TM = \bigcup_{x \in M} T_x M \rightarrow M$ is then an example of a fiber bundle, whose fibers are the tangent spaces, real $2n$ -dimensional vector spaces. Various natural constructions that one can perform on vector spaces can also be used to create new fiber bundles out of TM . One such construction is to define

$$\mathcal{J}(TM) := \bigcup_{x \in M} \mathcal{J}(T_x M), \quad \text{where } \mathcal{J}(T_x M) := \left\{ \text{linear maps } T_x M \xrightarrow{J} T_x M \mid J^2 = -\mathbb{1} \right\},$$

a fiber bundle over M whose fiber $\mathcal{J}(T_x M)$ at each point $x \in M$ is the space of *complex structures* on the tangent space $T_x M$, i.e. choosing an element $J \in \mathcal{J}(T_x M)$ is equivalent to endowing the real $2n$ -dimensional vector space $T_x M$ with a complex n -dimensional vector space structure in

which J defines scalar multiplication by i . The sections of $\mathcal{J}(TM)$ are then known as **almost complex structures** on M . An almost complex structure exists naturally if M is a complex n -dimensional manifold, i.e. if it is covered by local $\mathbb{C}^n$ -valued charts whose transition maps are holomorphic: the tangent spaces are then naturally complex vector spaces, so that multiplication by i defines a section $J \in \Gamma(\mathcal{J}(TM))$. One of the fundamental questions to ask in complex geometry is which real $2n$ -dimensional smooth manifolds admit (not just *almost*) **complex structures**, meaning that they can arise as n -dimensional complex manifolds. It is a famously open question, for instance, whether S^6 admits a complex structure.¹¹¹ We see that the existence of a section $J \in \Gamma(\mathcal{J}(TM))$ is a clearly necessary condition for this. It is very far from being a sufficient condition: getting from an almost complex structure to a complex manifold structure is much harder, and is a fundamentally differential-geometric rather than topological problem, but the *almost* complex question must always be answered first, and it does have a well-understood answer using methods of algebraic topology. (Spoiler: S^6 has one, of course.)

One further remark on this: If two almost complex structures $J_0, J_1 \in \Gamma(\mathcal{J}(TM))$ are homotopic, then the homotopy theorem that we will discuss at the end of this lecture implies that the complex vector bundles (TM, J_0) and (TM, J_1) are isomorphic (see Exercise 77.1), which is a clearly necessary (but also not sufficient) condition for two complex manifolds (M, J_0) and (M, J_1) to be holomorphically diffeomorphic. The existence of a homotopy of sections from J_0 to J_1 is also something that can be clarified completely using algebro-topological methods.

77.3. Structure groups. The fiber bundles in Definition 77.1 do not have quite enough structure to be useful in most applications, but typical examples naturally have more structure, and the following discussion of G -bundles and structure groups provides a very general framework for encoding such structure. Several of the definitions could be simplified considerably if we only wanted to consider *effective* group actions, but that would exclude some important and interesting examples.

In the following, assume G is a topological group with identity element denoted by $e \in G$, and F is a topological space on which G acts continuously from the left. Some of the terminology used below is not completely standardized, but the definitions would get longer if I didn't use it.

DEFINITION 77.3. A **bundle atlas** with **standard fiber** F on the fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a collection of local trivializations

$$\Phi = \left\{ E|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha} \xrightarrow{\Phi_\alpha} \mathcal{U}_\alpha \times F \right\}_{\alpha \in J}$$

such that the sets $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset B\}_{\alpha \in J}$ form an open covering of B .

A **system of G -valued transition functions** on B consists of an open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset B\}_{\alpha \in J}$ and a collection of maps

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \xrightarrow{g_{\beta\alpha}} G \right\}_{(\alpha, \beta) \in J \times J}$$

that satisfy the following two conditions:

- (i) $g_{\alpha\alpha} = e$ on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha$ for each $\alpha \in J$;
- (ii) $g_{\alpha\beta}g_{\beta\gamma} = g_{\alpha\gamma}$ on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \cap \mathcal{U}_\gamma$ for each $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in J$.

The relations (i) and (ii) together in the definition above imply that the values of the functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$ and $g_{\alpha\beta}$ are inverse to each other at every point, and the second condition can thus be rewritten as

$$g_{\alpha\beta}g_{\beta\gamma}g_{\gamma\alpha} = e \quad \text{on } \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \cap \mathcal{U}_\gamma.$$

¹¹¹There are papers on the arXiv claiming both positive and negative answers to that question, some of them by quite famous people; see

<https://mathoverflow.net/questions/1973/is-there-a-complex-structure-on-the-6-sphere>.

In this form, it is popularly known as the **cocycle condition**, for reasons that might be apparent to you if you've seen Čech or sheaf cohomology before, and probably not if you haven't. Suffice it to say that in certain situations (which will not immediately concern us), this condition can be interpreted as saying that the collection of functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$ defines a 1-cocycle in some cochain complex.

DEFINITION 77.4. If a bundle atlas Φ and system of transition functions $\mathcal{T}$ with the same underlying open cover $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset B\}_{\alpha \in J}$ are given, we will say that $\mathcal{T}$ defines **transition data** for Φ if for every $(\alpha, \beta) \in J \times J$, the so-called **transition map** $(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F$ defined via the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & E|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta} & \\ \Phi_\alpha \swarrow & & \searrow \Phi_\beta \\ (\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F & \xrightarrow{\cong} & (\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F \end{array}$$

takes the form $(x, p) \mapsto (x, g_{\beta\alpha}(x)p)$.

Notice that if the action $G \times F \rightarrow F$ is effective, then the local trivializations in Definition 77.4 uniquely determine the functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$; the existence of such functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$ then imposes a nontrivial condition on the local trivializations, since it will typically not be true that every map $(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta) \times F$ arising from such a diagram can be expressed in terms of the G -action on F . But if that condition holds and the uniquely-determined functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$ exist, then the cocycle condition is automatically satisfied, and we now have a straightforward way to define what a G -structure on a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ should be: it is a maximal bundle atlas with the property that the (uniquely-determined!) transition maps are all expressible as above in terms of the G -action on F . This definition does not require any explicit statement of the cocycle condition, and it makes sense in the effective case because the transition functions are uniquely determined: in particular, *any* bundle atlas with G -valued transition data then determines a unique one that is maximal. In the non-effective case, the transition data is no longer uniquely determined by the bundle atlas, and we therefore need the more cumbersome definitions below, whose purpose is mainly to clarify what it means for two bundle atlases together with choices of G -valued transition data on a fiber bundle to be equivalent. We will comment in §77.4 on what would be lost if we did not explicitly require the cocycle condition in this situation (cf. Theorem 77.18).

DEFINITION 77.5. A **morphism** $\mathcal{T}^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^2$ between two systems of G -valued transition functions $\mathcal{T}^i = \left\{ g_{\beta\alpha}^{(i)} : \mathcal{U}_\alpha^i \times \mathcal{U}_\beta^i \rightarrow G \right\}_{(\alpha, \beta) \in J^i \times J^i}$ for $i = 1, 2$ consists of a collection of functions

$$\left\{ \mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2 \xrightarrow{h_{\beta\alpha}} G \right\}_{(\alpha, \beta) \in J^1 \times J^2}$$

that satisfy the relations

- (iii) $h_{\alpha\beta} g_{\beta\gamma}^{(1)} = h_{\alpha\gamma}$ on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha^2 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\gamma^1$ for each $\alpha \in J^2$ and $\beta, \gamma \in J^1$;
- (iv) $g_{\alpha\beta}^{(2)} h_{\beta\gamma} = h_{\alpha\gamma}$ on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha^2 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2 \cap \mathcal{U}_\gamma^1$ for each $\alpha, \beta \in J^2$ and $\gamma \in J^1$.

One can interpret Definition 77.5 as follows. Suppose G acts effectively on F , and $\mathcal{T}^1$ and $\mathcal{T}^2$ are the (uniquely-determined) transition data corresponding to two bundle atlases Φ^1 and Φ^2 respectively. The union of Φ^1 and Φ^2 then defines a new bundle atlas which may or may not admit G -valued transition data; if it does, then the resulting functions $h_{\beta\alpha}$ determined by transition maps $\Phi_\beta^2 \circ (\Phi_\alpha^1)^{-1}$ for $\alpha \in J^1$ and $\beta \in J^2$ automatically satisfy the two relations in the definition—they are a consequence of the cocycle condition for the enlarged system of transition functions—thus giving rise to a morphism $\mathcal{T}^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^2$. In the non-effective case, the functions $h_{\beta\alpha}$

in this situation are not uniquely determined by the two bundle atlases, so it becomes necessary to impose conditions (iii) and (iv) explicitly.

DEFINITION 77.6. A G -**bundle atlas** for the fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ consists of the data $\mathcal{A} = (\Phi, \mathcal{T}, \rho)$, where Φ is a bundle atlas, $\mathcal{T}$ is a system of G -valued transition functions with the same underlying open cover of B , and ρ is a continuous left action of G on the standard fiber F of the bundle atlas, such that $\mathcal{T}$ and this action define transition data for Φ .

Assume $p^i : E^i \rightarrow B$ for $i = 1, 2$ are fiber bundles with the same base B , and they have G -bundle atlases $\mathcal{A}^i = (\Phi^i, \mathcal{T}^i, \rho)$ with the same standard fiber F and G -action ρ . A G -**bundle isomorphism** $(E^1, \mathcal{A}^1) \rightarrow (E^2, \mathcal{A}^2)$ then consists of a homeomorphism $\Psi : E^1 \rightarrow E^2$ and a morphism $\{h_{\beta\alpha}\} : \mathcal{T}^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^2$ such that for every $\alpha \in J^1$ and $\beta \in J^2$, the map $(\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2) \times F \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2) \times F$ determined by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E^1|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2} & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & E^2|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2} \\ \cong \downarrow \Phi_\alpha^1 & & \cong \downarrow \Phi_\beta^2 \\ (\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2) \times F & \longrightarrow & (\mathcal{U}_\alpha^1 \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta^2) \times F \end{array}$$

takes the form $(x, p) \mapsto h_{\beta\alpha}(x)p$.

A G -**bundle** (or **fiber bundle with structure group** G) is a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ equipped with an equivalence class of G -bundle atlases, where two G -bundle atlases $\mathcal{A}^1, \mathcal{A}^2$ are considered equivalent if there exists a G -bundle isomorphism $(E, \mathcal{A}^1) \rightarrow (E, \mathcal{A}^2)$ whose underlying homeomorphism $E \rightarrow E$ is the identity map.

I recommend taking a moment to convince yourself of the following two facts: First, G -bundle isomorphisms deserve to be called “isomorphisms,” i.e. they can be composed and inverted in a natural way. Second, if the action $G \times F \rightarrow F$ is effective, then a G -bundle with standard fiber F has a maximal G -bundle atlas that contains all G -bundle atlases in the correct equivalence class.

Now we’ll look at some examples. The general principle is that any structures on F that are preserved by the G -action get inherited by all the fibers of the bundle.

EXAMPLE 77.7. Let $\mathbb{K}$ denote either $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$. Taking standard fiber $F := \mathbb{K}^n$ and structure group $G := \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{K})$ with its usual linear action on $\mathbb{K}^n$ makes all the fibers E_x of a G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ into n -dimensional vector spaces over $\mathbb{K}$, and $p : E \rightarrow B$ is in this case called a (real or complex) **vector bundle of rank** n . One can specialize this example further:

- (1) Taking G to be one of the subgroups $\mathrm{O}(n) \subset \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ or $\mathrm{U}(n) \subset \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ means that the fibers E_x are equipped with inner products that vary continuously with x . Such a structure on a vector bundle is often called a **bundle metric**; in the case where E is the (real) tangent bundle of a smooth manifold M , it is a **Riemannian metric** on M .
- (2) In the case $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$, taking G to be the subgroup $\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R}) \subset \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ of matrices with positive determinant means that the fibers E_x are *oriented* real vector spaces, with orientations that vary continuously with x .
- (3) Here is the most popular non-effective example: Recall from Exercise 68.6 that $\pi_1(\mathrm{SO}(n)) = \mathbb{Z}_2$ for all $n \geq 3$. The universal cover of $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ is a group called $\mathrm{Spin}(n)$ that comes with a degree 2 covering map $\mathrm{Spin}(n) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(n)$.¹¹² If $E \rightarrow B$ is a real vector bundle of rank

¹¹²There is also a natural definition of $\mathrm{Spin}(2)$ that comes with a degree 2 covering map to $\mathrm{SO}(2)$; the difference is just that it is not the universal cover in that case, and in fact is isomorphic to $\mathrm{SO}(2) \cong S^1$. In spite of this isomorphism, it is not true that an $\mathrm{SO}(2)$ -structure on a bundle can always be lifted to a $\mathrm{Spin}(2)$ -structure, because not all maps to S^1 can be lifted to its double cover.

n with an $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ -structure, meaning it carries both a bundle metric and an orientation, then it may or may not also admit a **spin structure**, meaning a system of transition functions valued in $\mathrm{Spin}(n)$ that lift the given $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ -valued transition functions while still satisfying the cocycle condition. Spin structures were originally motivated by quantum mechanics, but they now play an important role in differential topology due to invariants of smooth manifolds that are based on gauge-theoretic PDEs determined by a spin structure.

EXAMPLE 77.8. Under suitable assumptions on the standard fiber F (e.g. compact and Hausdorff is good enough), *any* fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ with fibers homeomorphic to F can be regarded as a G -bundle with $G := \mathrm{Homeo}(F)$ acting on F in the obvious way. The reason this isn't true for arbitrary spaces F is that some conditions are required in order for $\mathrm{Homeo}(F)$ with the compact-open topology to be a topological group, and for its obvious action on F to be continuous. This is yet another problem that simply goes away if one decides to work in the compactly-generated category, accepting the subtle differences in standard definitions that come with that decision. But in practice, most interesting fiber bundles have strictly more structure than this, e.g. with structure groups that are finite-dimensional Lie groups, and are thus much nicer to work with than $\mathrm{Homeo}(F)$.

EXAMPLE 77.9. There are interesting examples in which the standard fiber F can be identified with the group G , acting on itself by left multiplication. The extra structure this imparts upon the fibers E_x is then a right G -action that is free and transitive; it can be written in any choice of local trivialization $\Phi_\alpha : E|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_\alpha \times G$ as the right action

$$(\mathcal{U}_\alpha \times G) \times G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_\alpha \times G : (x, g)h := (x, gh)$$

defined on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \times G$, and this formula determines a global action $E \times G \rightarrow E$ that is independent of choices of local trivializations because the action of G on itself by right multiplication commutes with its action by left multiplication. This type of G -bundle is called a **principal fiber bundle** (often abbreviated PFB), or **principal G -bundle**.

EXAMPLE 77.10. For any vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank n over $\mathbb{K}$, there is an associated principal $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{K})$ -bundle $FE \rightarrow B$ called the **frame bundle** of E , whose fiber $F(E_x)$ over each point $x \in B$ is the set of bases of the vector space E_x with its obvious topology. Equivalently, the space $F(E_x)$ of **frames** for E_x can be identified with the space of linear isomorphisms $\phi : \mathbb{K}^n \rightarrow E_x$, which has an obvious right $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{K})$ -action

$$\phi g := \phi \circ g$$

defined via composition of linear transformations.

REMARK 77.11. Example 77.10 shows clearly that global sections of a fiber bundle do not always exist. Taking E for instance to be the tangent bundle of S^2 , a global section of the associated frame bundle $F(TS^2)$ would mean a pair of vector fields on S^2 that form a basis of the tangent space at every point. This would be a strong contradiction to the theorem that you cannot “comb the hair on a sphere”.

We will see in Proposition 77.17 that for principal bundles that arise in nature, proving that they are fiber bundles (i.e. that they admit local trivializations) is often quite easy. This will apply in particular to the next two examples.

EXAMPLE 77.12. The Hopf fibrations $S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ are all principal S^1 -bundles, where S^1 can be interpreted as a synonym for $\mathrm{U}(1)$ with its natural right action on $S^{2n+1} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ by scalar multiplication.

EXAMPLE 77.13. The fibration $\mathrm{SO}(n) \rightarrow S^{n-1} : A \mapsto Ae_1$ in Exercise 68.6 is a principal $\mathrm{SO}(n-1)$ -bundle if we identify $\mathrm{SO}(n-1)$ with the subgroup

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \mid \mathbf{A} \in \mathrm{SO}(n-1) \right\} \subset \mathrm{SO}(n),$$

acting on the total space $\mathrm{SO}(n)$ by right multiplication. Similarly, the fibration $\mathrm{U}(n) \rightarrow S^{2n-1}$ also appearing in that exercise is a principal $\mathrm{U}(n-1)$ -bundle.

REMARK 77.14. For many fibrations that are useful in computations, the easiest way to prove that they are fibrations is by proving that they are principal fiber bundles. We'll discuss in §77.5 why that implies the homotopy lifting property.

EXAMPLE 77.15. For any spaces B and F , one can define a **trivial G -bundle** $E := B \times F \xrightarrow{\mathrm{pr}_1} B$ by writing down the obvious bundle atlas with only one local (but actually global) trivialization, together with the obvious system of G -valued transition functions consisting only of the constant function $g_{\alpha\alpha}(x) := e \in G$ for all $x \in B$.

EXAMPLE 77.16. For any G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ with transition functions $\{g_{\beta\alpha} : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow G\}$, the pullback $f^*E \rightarrow B'$ via a map $f : B' \rightarrow B$ is also naturally a G -bundle, with transition functions

$$\{g_{\beta\alpha} \circ f : f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\alpha) \cap f^{-1}(\mathcal{U}_\beta) \rightarrow G\}.$$

77.4. The importance of principal bundles. Principal bundles, introduced in Example 77.9 above, have a special role to play in the general theory of fiber bundles. They are also easy to recognize: if one has a right G -action that is free and transitive on each fiber, then the following proposition reduces the construction of local trivializations to the existence of local sections, which is often obvious.

PROPOSITION 77.17. *For any principle G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ and open subset $\mathcal{U} \subset B$, there is a natural bijection between the set $\Gamma(E|_{\mathcal{U}})$ of sections of E over $\mathcal{U}$ and the set of G -bundle isomorphisms between $E|_{\mathcal{U}}$ and the trivial principal G -bundle $\mathcal{U} \times G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$.*

QUICK PROOF. To turn a section $s : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow E$ into a trivialization $\Phi : E|_{\mathcal{U}} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \times G$, one can exploit the free and transitive right G -action on the fibers and define

$$\Phi^{-1}(x, g) := s(x)g.$$

□

It follows from Proposition 77.17 that a principle bundle is trivial if and only if it admits a global section, so one should not expect principal bundles to admit global sections in typical cases. By contrast, vector bundles always have a distinguished global section, the zero-section, a symptom of the fact that the fibers of a vector bundle are contractible spaces, and thus topologically uninteresting. The existence of a global section tells us nothing about whether a vector bundle is trivial, and in fact, it is trivial if and only if its associated frame bundle—a principal bundle with the same structure group—is trivial.

THEOREM 77.18. *Given a continuous group action $G \times F \rightarrow F$ and a space B , there is a natural bijection between the following sets of equivalence classes:*

- G -bundles over B with standard fiber F , up to G -bundle isomorphism;
- Systems $\mathcal{T}$ of G -valued transition functions on B , up to morphism $\mathcal{T}^1 \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^2$.

I sometimes refer to elements in the second set described in Theorem 77.18 as **abstract G -bundles**, as they contain much of the data that defines a fiber bundle, but without any well-defined total space or fibers. An abstract G -bundle thus encodes *many* possible fiber bundles that can have different fibers but the same structure group and transition functions.

PROOF SKETCH FOR THEOREM 77.18. The details are straightforward once one has seen the recipe for constructing a G -bundle $E \rightarrow B$ with standard fiber F out of a given system of G -valued transition functions $\{g_{\beta\alpha} : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow G\}_{(\alpha,\beta) \in J \times J}$. We define

$$E := \coprod_{\alpha \in J} (\mathcal{U}_\alpha \times F) / \sim,$$

with the equivalence relation defined by

$$\mathcal{U}_\alpha \times F \ni (x, p) \sim (x, g_{\beta\alpha}(x)p) \in \mathcal{U}_\beta \times F$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in J$, $x \in \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ and $p \in F$. The fact that this really is an equivalence relation is due to the cocycle condition. $\square$

THEOREM 77.19. *Every G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ with standard fiber F can be recovered (up to G -bundle isomorphism) from a corresponding principal G -bundle $P \rightarrow B$ via the following prescription. We define $P \rightarrow B$ as the principal bundle constructed via Theorem 77.18 out of the left-action of G on itself and the same system of G -valued transition functions that E has. The original bundle E is then isomorphic to the so-called **associated bundle** $P \times_G F \rightarrow B$ defined by*

$$P \times_G F := (P \times F) / G, \quad \text{where} \quad g(\phi, p) := (\phi g^{-1}, gp),$$

with the obvious projection $P \times_G F \rightarrow B$ determined by the principal bundle $P \rightarrow B$.

PROOF SKETCH. Thanks to Theorem 77.18, one just needs to check that the associated bundle $P \times_G F$ can be presented as a G -bundle with standard fiber F and the same system of G -valued transition functions as the principal bundle P . $\square$

REMARK 77.20. Theorems 77.18 and 77.19 are where we really would lose something important if we had not explicitly assumed the cocycle condition in the setting of non-effective actions. If $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a G -bundle with G acting non-effectively on its standard fiber F , then for a given G -bundle atlas and associated transition data, one can modify some of the transition functions $g_{\beta\alpha} : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow G$ so that the cocycle condition is no longer satisfied, but Theorem 77.18 will then fail: one can no longer reconstruct the bundle simply from the functions $g_{\beta\alpha}$ and the G -action on F .

The message of Theorem 77.19 is that a large number of the questions one would like to answer about general fiber bundles can be answered by focusing on the special case of principal bundles, which contain the fundamental genetic code of all interesting fiber bundles. Principal bundles give us the option of avoiding most discussions of local trivializations and transition functions, as these can be recovered fully from the data encoded in a free and transitive right G -action. For this reason, one finds many books that express definitions of fundamental notions such as *reduction of the structure group* and *spin structures* purely in terms of the global properties of principal bundles. For example, an alternative formulation of the definition I gave above for a G -bundle would first define a *principal G -bundle* to be a fiber bundle that is equipped with a fiber-preserving right G -action which is free and transitive on every fiber, and then say that an arbitrary fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a *G -bundle* if it is equipped with a fiber-preserving homeomorphism to the associated bundle $P \times_G F \rightarrow B$ for some principal G -bundle $P \rightarrow B$ and some left action of G on a space F . I tend to think that definitions in this form look rather mysterious and unrevealing, but they are also useful in practice.

77.5. The homotopy theorem for fiber bundles. The homotopy theorem for fibrations was derived in Lecture 63 from the basic properties of the transport functor: it states that for any fibration $p : E \rightarrow B$ and two homotopic maps $f, g : B' \rightarrow B$, the induced fibrations $f^*E \rightarrow B'$ and $g^*E \rightarrow B'$ are homotopy equivalent over B' . A similar result is true and plays an important role in the theory of fiber bundles. We will state it here specifically for fiber bundles with a fixed structure group G , but it holds also for arbitrary fiber bundles—the structure group is often important in applications, but plays no role in the proof.

THEOREM 77.21. *For any G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ whose base B is a paracompact space, and any two homotopic maps $f, g : B' \rightarrow B$, there is a G -bundle isomorphism $f^*E \cong g^*E$.*

We make a few remarks and state some corollaries before proving the theorem. Paracompactness is a technical condition that arises whenever one needs to piece together local constructions into a global construction using a partition of unity. All metrizable spaces are paracompact, and I have never yet encountered a good reason to worry about spaces that aren't paracompact.

COROLLARY 77.22. *A fiber bundle over a paracompact base is a fibration.*

PROOF. The usual homotopy lifting property

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X \times \{0\} & \xrightarrow{\tilde{H}_0} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow \tilde{H} & \downarrow p \\ X \times I & \xrightarrow{H} & B \end{array}$$

has the following interpretation: Every section $\tilde{H}_0$ of the pullback bundle $H^*E \rightarrow X \times I$ restricted to $X \times \{0\}$ can be extended as a section to the rest of $X \times I$. This statement is obvious if H is a trivial homotopy of the form $H(x, t) = H_0(x)$, because the fibers $(H^*E)_{(x,t)} = E_{H(x,t)} = E_{H_0(x)}$ then depend on x but not t , so one can define $\tilde{H}$ by $\tilde{H}(x, t) := \tilde{H}_0(x)$. But any map $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ is homotopic rel $X \times \{0\}$ to such a trivial homotopy—just retract each of the paths $t \mapsto H(x, t)$ back to its starting point—so by the homotopy theorem, solving the problem in the case of a trivial homotopy also solves it in general. $\square$

COROLLARY 77.23. *Any G -bundle $E \rightarrow B$ over a contractible paracompact space B is isomorphic to a trivial G -bundle $B \times F \rightarrow B$.* $\square$

PROOF SKETCH FOR THEOREM 77.21. I will summarize an argument that is written up in full detail in [Cut21, Week 4: Fibrations III], with some additional background material in [Cut21, Week 4: Partitions of Unity]. It involves some subtleties that I will mostly suppress, but they are subtleties of *point-set* topology rather than algebraic topology. We shall ignore the G -bundle structure and speak only of general fiber bundles, but it should be clear that if a G -bundle structure is present, then the construction respects it.

Note first that if $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fiber bundle and $H : X \times I \rightarrow B$ is a homotopy, then the pullback bundles H_0^*E and H_1^*E are just the restrictions of the bundle $H^*E \rightarrow X \times I$ to the subsets $X \times \{0\}$ and $X \times \{1\}$, thus it will suffice to prove that two such restrictions of a bundle over a space of the form $X \times I$ are isomorphic. There is a slight subtlety here involving the hypotheses: the theorem assumes B is paracompact, but the domain $X \times I$ of an arbitrary homotopy $X \times I \rightarrow B$ need not be. One can deal with this using the notion of *numerably trivial* maps, which I'd rather not define here, but suffice it to say that every fiber bundle over a paracompact space is numerably trivial, every pullback of a numerably trivial fiber bundle is also numerably trivial, and this property will allow us to treat the pullback as if its base were paracompact. (The details behind this are nicely

explained in [Cut21, Week 4: Fibrations III].) I'm therefore going to pretend in the following that there is never any need to worry about bases that are not paracompact.

With that understood, the result follows from a more technical statement: Given a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B \times I$ with B paracompact, there exists an isomorphism of fiber bundles

$$E \cong \psi^* E \quad \text{where} \quad B \times I \xrightarrow{\psi} B \times I : (x, t) \mapsto (x, 1).$$

More precisely, this means that there is a map $\Psi : E \rightarrow E$ sending each fiber $E_{(x,t)}$ homeomorphically to $(\psi^* E)_{(x,t)} = E_{\psi(x,t)} = E_{(x,1)}$, so it fits into the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & E \\ \downarrow p & & \downarrow p \\ B \times I & \xrightarrow{\psi} & B \times I \end{array} \quad .$$

One sometimes says in this situation that $\Psi : E \rightarrow E$ is a **bundle map** and that it **covers** the map $\psi : B \times I \rightarrow B \times I$. Restricting the bundle $p : E \rightarrow B \times I$ to $B \times \{0\}$, one obtains from Ψ an isomorphism of fiber bundles between the restrictions of E to $B \times \{0\}$ and $B \times \{1\}$, exactly what is needed for the homotopy theorem. The proof of the technical statement can be summarized as follows.

Step 1: Paracompactness implies that one can find a countable open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_n \subset B\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ that is also **locally finite**, meaning that every point $x \in B$ has a neighborhood that intersects at most finitely-many of the sets $\mathcal{U}_n$, and moreover, it is possible to choose the sets $\mathcal{U}_n$ small enough so that E is trivializable over each of the sets $\mathcal{U}_n \times I$, giving local trivializations

$$E|_{\mathcal{U}_n \times I} \cong (\mathcal{U}_n \times I) \times F$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. That last detail is one of the subtle parts, because E of course admits local trivializations over all sufficiently small subsets of $B \times I$, but $\mathcal{U}_n \times I$ cannot be considered “small” so long as the entire interval I is involved. What one actually needs to do is choose neighborhoods of the form $\mathcal{U}_n \times (t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon) \subset B \times I$ on which E can be trivialized, exploit the compactness of I to establish a lower bound on the sizes $\epsilon > 0$ of subintervals for which this works, and then piece together finitely many trivializations on such subsets to form a trivialization on $\mathcal{U}_n \times I$. Let's assume this has been done. The other piece of auxiliary data that can now be chosen thanks to paracompactness is a collection of functions

$$\{\rho_n : B \rightarrow [0, \infty)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$$

such that each ρ_n has its support contained in $\mathcal{U}_n$ and

$$\max_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \rho_n > 0.$$

Note that this maximum is well defined, and is in fact a continuous function on B , because by local finiteness, every point in B has a neighborhood on which only finitely-many of the functions ρ_n are nonzero. The sum $\sum_n \rho_n$ is a well-defined continuous function for the same reason, and if we were doing any of several things in differential geometry for which this kind of data is useful, we would now rescale the functions to assume $\sum_n \rho_n \equiv 1$ and call this collection a **partition of unity**. In the present context, we will do something slightly different, but similar, and rescale them so that

$$\max_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \rho_n \equiv 1,$$

thus all of the ρ_n are now bounded above by 1, and at any given point, at least one of them equals 1.

Step 2: For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define $\psi_n : B \times I \rightarrow B \times I$ by

$$\psi_n(x, t) := (x, \max\{t, \rho_n(x)\}),$$

so ψ_n is the identity map outside of $\mathcal{U}_n \times I$. Then use the chosen local trivialization $E|_{\mathcal{U}_n \times I} \cong (\mathcal{U}_n \times I) \times F$ to define a bundle map $\Psi_n : E \rightarrow E$ covering ψ_n like so: we define it over $\mathcal{U}_n \times I$ as $\psi_n \times \text{Id} : (\mathcal{U}_n \times I) \times F \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}_n \times I) \times F$ after identifying E on this region with the trivial bundle $(\mathcal{U}_n \times I) \times F$, and then extend it to the rest of $B \times I$ as the identity map.

Step 3: Thanks to local finiteness, the compositions

$$\psi_n \circ \psi_{n-1} \circ \dots \circ \psi_1 : B \times I \rightarrow B \times I$$

have a well-defined and continuous limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$, since every point has a neighborhood on which at most finitely many of the maps appearing in any of these compositions are not the identity map. Moreover, since at least one of the functions ρ_n equals 1 at each point, the limit of these compositions is just $\psi(x, t) = (x, 1)$. We then obtain a bundle isomorphism Ψ covering ψ as a similar limit,

$$\Psi := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\Psi_n \circ \Psi_{n-1} \circ \dots \circ \Psi_1).$$

□

77.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 77.1. Deduce from the homotopy theorem for fiber bundles that for any smooth $2n$ -dimensional manifold M , if $J_0, J_1 \in \Gamma(\mathcal{J}(TM))$ are two complex structures that are homotopic as sections of the fiber bundle $\mathcal{J}(TM) \rightarrow M$, then (TM, J_0) and (TM, J_1) are isomorphic as complex vector bundles, i.e. as $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ -bundles with standard fiber $\mathbb{C}^n$ and the obvious linear action of the structure group.

EXERCISE 77.2. As indicated in Theorem 77.19, every fiber bundle with structure group G determines (up to isomorphism) a unique *principal* G -bundle that has the same system of G -valued transition functions. We discussed one concrete example of this correspondence in §77.3: for a vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank n over the field $\mathbb{K} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$, the corresponding principal $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{K})$ -bundle is its frame bundle $FE \rightarrow B$, whose fibers are sets of bases for the fibers of E . See if you can give similar concrete descriptions of the principal bundles determined by the following:

- (a) A real vector bundle of rank n equipped with a bundle metric, whose structure group is therefore $\text{O}(n)$;
- (b) A real vector bundle of rank n with structure group $\text{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ acting linearly on the standard fiber.

Remark: Examples like these in which the fiber is a vector space and the group action is linear and effective can always be understood as geometrically meaningful subsets of the frame bundle $FE \rightarrow B$. A more abstract perspective is needed only when the action is not effective, e.g. for vector bundles equipped with a spin structure.

78. Obstruction theory

In this lecture we develop methods to answer two natural questions about the sections of a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$, namely when global sections exist, and how to recognize when two of them are homotopic. The answer to these questions can be expressed in terms of distinguished cohomology classes in B , but we must first generalize our notion of cohomology to allow for “twisted” coefficients.

78.1. Local systems. Roughly speaking, the coefficients in the cohomology that is needed for obstruction theory will no longer be a fixed abelian group, but instead a *bundle* over B whose fibers are discrete abelian groups.

DEFINITION 78.1. A **local system of abelian groups** $\{G_x\}_{x \in B}$ over a space B is a fiber bundle $p : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow B$ with fibers $p^{-1}(x) = G_x$ such that the standard fiber is a discrete abelian group on which the structure group of the bundle acts by group isomorphisms.

Equivalently, a local system is a covering map $\mathcal{G} \rightarrow B$ whose fibers G_x are equipped with (abelian) group structures that vary continuously with x . The precise meaning of the words “vary continuously with x ” is best expressed in terms of local trivializations: every point $x \in B$ in the base of a local system $\mathcal{G} \rightarrow B$ has a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ on which $\mathcal{G}|_{\mathcal{U}}$ can be identified with $\mathcal{U} \times G$ for some fixed abelian group G carrying the discrete topology.

EXAMPLE 78.2. For any topological n -manifold M , the orientation bundle $\{H_n(M, M \setminus \{x\}; \mathbb{Z})\}_{x \in M}$ is a local system over M whose fibers are the local homology groups, all isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$. This is why we called it a “bundle” in Topology 2 (cf. Lecture 51 from last semester).

EXAMPLE 78.3. In studying obstruction problems, we will need to consider local systems of the form $\{\pi_n(E_x)\}_{x \in B}$ whose fibers are homotopy groups of the fibers of a given fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$. This requires an extra condition: we assume the fibers $E_x \cong F$ of the given bundle are **simple**, meaning that they are path-connected and have $\pi_1(F)$ acting *trivially* on $\pi_n(F)$ for all n . Recall that the natural action of $\pi_1(F)$ on itself is by conjugation, so simplicity implies among other things that $\pi_1(F)$ is abelian; more importantly, it implies that the natural map $\pi_n(F) \rightarrow [S^n, F]_{\circ}$ defined by forgetting base points is a bijection for all n . We will comment below on why, for most interesting applications of obstruction theory, it is not too restrictive to require that the fibers are simple.

PROPOSITION 78.4. *Assume $p : E \rightarrow B$ is a fiber bundle with fibers $E_x \cong F$ that are simple, and also that the base B has the usual properties required in covering space theory.¹¹³ Then the union of the groups $\{\pi_n(E_x)\}_{x \in B}$ can be given a natural topology that makes it a local system of abelian groups over B .*

PROOF. For any point $x \in B$, choose a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset B$ such that there is a unique homotopy class of paths γ in $\mathcal{U}$ from x to any other point $y \in \mathcal{U}$. Such a path γ determines a homotopy $H : S^n \times I \rightarrow B$ of constant maps $H(x, t) := \gamma(t)$, and feeding this into the transport functor of $p : E \rightarrow B$ then gives a bijection

$$\pi_n(E_x) \cong [S^n, E_x]_{\circ} \xrightarrow{H\#} [S^n, E_y]_{\circ} \cong \pi_n(E_y),$$

which depends only on $y \in \mathcal{U}$ and not the path γ . (One should check that the resulting bijection $\pi_n(E_x) \cong \pi_n(E_y)$ respects the group structure; I leave this as an exercise.) The resulting map

$$\mathcal{U} \times \pi_n(E_x) \rightarrow \bigcup_{y \in \mathcal{U}} \pi_n(E_y)$$

can be regarded as the inverse of a local trivialization. $\square$

EXAMPLE 78.5. A **trivial local system** over B is simply a product space $B \times G$, where G is an abelian group and carries the discrete topology. In this example, the fibers are the subsets $\{x\} \times G$, which are all copies of the same group, with the extra parameter $x \in B$ tacked on just for bookkeeping.

The next result comes as close as possible to identifying every local system over a sufficiently reasonable space with a trivial local system.

PROPOSITION 78.6. *Assume $\{G_x\}_{x \in B}$ is a local system of abelian groups over a path-connected space B with universal cover $f : \tilde{B} \rightarrow B$. Then any choice of base points $* \in B$ and $* \in \tilde{B}$ making f a pointed map determines an isomorphism of the local system $\{G_x\}$ with*

$$(\tilde{B} \times G) / \pi_1(B),$$

¹¹³That is, we want B to be path-connected and locally path-connected, and such that every point in B has a simply-connected neighborhood. Those are the conditions required in order to construct a universal cover of B .

where $G := G_*$ is the fiber of $\{G_x\}$ over the base point $* \in B$, and $\pi_1(B)$ acts on $\tilde{B}$ in the usual way by deck transformations and on G by group isomorphisms. We regard $(\tilde{B} \times G)/\pi_1(B)$ as a local system over B whose fiber at a point $x \in B$ is $(f^{-1}(x) \times G)/\pi_1(B)$, a discrete group that is isomorphic to G since $\pi_1(B)$ acts freely and transitively on the discrete set $f^{-1}(x)$.

PROOF. This follows mostly from standard covering space theory arguments. We can identify the universal cover $\tilde{B}$ with the set of homotopy classes of paths in B from $*$ to other points, so that the base point $* \in \tilde{B}$ is identified with the constant path at $* \in B$. The left action of $\pi_1(B)$ on $\tilde{B}$ by deck transformations is then given by concatenation,

$$[\gamma] \cdot [\alpha] := [\gamma \cdot \alpha] \quad \text{for} \quad [\gamma] \in \pi_1(B), [\alpha] \in \tilde{B}.$$

By the path lifting property, every homotopy class of paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ in B determines a bijection

$$P_\gamma : G_x \xrightarrow{\cong} G_y$$

such that whenever α and β are paths that can be concatenated,

$$P_{\alpha \cdot \beta} = P_\beta \circ P_\alpha.$$

It follows that the formula $g \cdot [\gamma] := P_\gamma(g)$ defines a right action of $\pi_1(B)$ on $G := G_*$, which we can turn into a left action by defining $[\gamma] \cdot g := P_{\gamma^{-1}}(g)$. One easily checks that the map

$$\tilde{B} \times G \xrightarrow{F} \bigcup_{x \in B} G_x : ([\alpha], g) \mapsto P_\alpha(g)$$

is now invariant under the obvious left action of $\pi_1(B)$ on its domain, and the map it descends to on the quotient

$$(\tilde{B} \times G) / \pi_1(B) \rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in B} G_x$$

is a homeomorphism. What's been said so far is valid for arbitrary covering spaces, but the special feature of $\{G_x\}_{x \in B}$ being a local system is that the group structures of its fibers vary continuously, and the bijections $P_\gamma : G_x \rightarrow G_y$ induced by paths $x \rightsquigarrow y$ are therefore group isomorphisms, implying that the $\pi_1(B)$ -action on G respects its group structure. $\square$

For typical applications in obstruction theory, the following fact is very convenient:

PROPOSITION 78.7. *Every path-connected topological group G is simple.*

PROOF. We choose the base point of G to be the identity element $e \in G$. Given $[\gamma] \in \pi_1(G)$ and $[f] \in \pi_n(G)$, we can use the group structure to define a free homotopy from f to itself along γ by $H(x, t) := f(x)\gamma(t)$. If you recall how the action of π_1 on π_n is defined in general via the transport functor, the existence of this free homotopy implies $[\gamma] \cdot [f] = [f]$. $\square$

REMARK 78.8. I tried very hard to convince you in the previous lecture that many problems involving fiber bundles can be solved by considering only the special case of principal bundles. The fiber of a principal bundle is a topological group, and therefore always simple according to this result. It is not quite true that this is the *only* type of bundle one really has to worry about in obstruction-theoretic problems, but Exercise 78.1 below tells us that for a reasonable class of subgroups $H \subset G$, the quotient G/H will also be a simple space. This really does cover all examples that I can immediately think of good reasons to care about.

78.2. Obstruction classes. The general obstruction problem can be stated as follows: Given a pair of spaces (X, A) and a fiber bundle $p : E \rightarrow X$, we consider the lifting/extension problem

$$(78.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{s_A} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow s & \downarrow p \\ X & \xlongequal{\quad} & X \end{array}$$

The diagram translates into the question, “Given a section s_A of $E|_A$, can s_A be extended to a global section s of E ?” The questions of whether a global section exists and whether two given sections are homotopic can both be regarded as special cases of this problem. (For the homotopy problem in particular, see Exercise 78.3.)

ASSUMPTIONS 78.9. *Throughout this section, the standing assumptions are that (X, A) is a CW-pair, and $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a fiber bundle whose fibers $E_x \cong F$ are simple.*

REMARK 78.10. The hypotheses in the setup can be relaxed a bit, e.g. it is possible to attack this problem when $p : E \rightarrow X$ is only a fibration and not a fiber bundle, but that would make some details trickier, and I am not aware of an interesting application that would require that level of generality.

With Assumptions 78.9 in place, we can try to solve the lifting/extension problem (78.1) inductively over the skeleta of X , meaning that for each $n \geq 0$ in succession, we assume an extension of s_A to $A \cup X^{n-1}$ has already been found and try to extend it further to $A \cup X^n$:

$$(78.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} A \cup X^{n-1} & \xrightarrow{s_{n-1}} & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow s_n & \downarrow p \\ A \cup X^n & \xrightarrow{\quad} & X \end{array}$$

Notice that extending a given section of $E|_A$ to $A \cup X^0$ is trivial, as the values of s_0 on 0-cells outside of A can be chosen arbitrarily. The case $n = 1$ is nearly as easy: since the fibers E_x are assumed simple and therefore path-connected, extending a section from $A \cup X^0$ to $A \cup X^1$ just requires choosing for each 1-cell $e_\alpha^1 \subset X \setminus A$ a continuous path in the fibers to interpolate between the values of the section at the two end points of e_α^1 . In the following, we assume $n \geq 2$.

An important observation pertinent to the problem (78.2) is that for each n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X \setminus A$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, X^{n-1})$, the contractibility of $\mathbb{D}^n$ implies via the homotopy theorem that there exists a trivialization

$$\Phi_\alpha^* E \cong \mathbb{D}^n \times F.$$

The trivialization identifies sections over this region with maps to the fixed space F , so under that identification, exploiting the assumption that F is simple, we can define

$$\theta^n(e_\alpha^n) := [S^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\Phi_\alpha} X^{n-1} \xrightarrow{s_{n-1}} F] \in [S^{n-1}, F]_\circ \cong \pi_{n-1}(F).$$

We’d like to interpret θ^n defined in this way as a cochain in $C_{CW}^n(X; \pi_{n-1}(F))$. Note that even in the case $n = 2$, $\pi_1(F)$ is a valid choice of coefficient group for cohomology, because simplicity implies that it is abelian.

But there is a problem: The homotopy class of $s_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\alpha|_{S^{n-1}}$ as a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow F$ may depend on the choice of trivialization.

This dependence can be eliminated by working in the universal cover $f : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$, with its induced cell decomposition, instead of directly in X . Set

$$\tilde{A} := f^{-1}(A),$$

choose base points $* \in X$ and $* \in f^{-1}(*) \subset \tilde{X}$, let F denote the specific fiber E_* over the base point, and denote the pullback of E to the universal cover by $\tilde{E} := f^*E \rightarrow \tilde{X}$. For any $\tilde{x} \in \tilde{X}$, we can choose a path $\tilde{\gamma} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ from $*$ to $\tilde{x}$, let $\gamma := f \circ \tilde{\gamma}$ denote the projected path in X from $*$ to $x := f(\tilde{x})$, and trivialize E along γ , meaning we choose a trivialization of the pullback bundle $\gamma^*E \rightarrow I$, which is possible since I is contractible. This determines a homeomorphism $F = E_* \rightarrow E_x$, and since $\tilde{\gamma}$ is unique up to homotopy, the properties of the transport functor imply that the homotopy class of the homeomorphism $F \rightarrow E_x$ depends only on the point $\tilde{x} \in f^{-1}(x)$, not on any other choices. For every lift $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n \subset \tilde{X} \setminus \tilde{A}$ of a given n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X \setminus A$, we can now let $x_\alpha \in e_\alpha^n$ denote the center of the cell, with lift $\tilde{x}_\alpha \in \tilde{e}_\alpha^n$, and use this procedure to fix a homeomorphism $F \cong \tilde{E}_{\tilde{x}_\alpha} = E_{x_\alpha}$. Appealing again to the homotopy theorem, and the fact that $\mathbb{D}^n$ is contractible, we can then use a deformation retraction of $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n$ to its center to trivialize $\tilde{E}$ along $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n$, producing a bundle isomorphism $\Phi_\alpha^*E \cong \mathbb{D}^n \times E_{x_\alpha}$. The chosen homeomorphism then identifies the latter with $\mathbb{D}^n \times F$, and up to homotopy, the trivialization obtained in this way is independent of choices, except that in general we may have different trivializations corresponding to different choices of lift to $\tilde{X}$ for the same n -cell $e_\alpha^n \subset X \setminus A$. We thus have a well-defined cochain

$$\theta^n \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \pi_{n-1}(F)), \quad \theta^n(\tilde{e}_\alpha^n) := [s_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\alpha|_{S^{n-1}}] \in \pi_{n-1}(F),$$

with the understanding that the trivializations described above are used in order to view $s_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\alpha|_{S^{n-1}}$ as a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow F$. Note that the same definition of θ^n also makes sense for n -cells in $\tilde{A}$, but it vanishes automatically on these cells because an extension of s_{n-1} over these cells exists. In general, $\theta^n(\tilde{e}_\alpha^n) = 0$ if and only if the section s_{n-1} can be extended over the particular n -cell e_α^n . The proof of the following is an exercise:

LEMMA 78.11. *The cochain $\theta^n : C_n^{\text{CW}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(F)$ is equivariant with respect to the natural action of $\pi_1(X)$ on both sides, where the action on $C_n^{\text{CW}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \mathbb{Z})$ is determined by the action of $\pi_1(X)$ on $\tilde{X}$ by deck transformations, and the action on $\pi_{n-1}(F)$ is the same one that appears in the isomorphism of local systems $\{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\}_{x \in X} \cong (\tilde{X} \times \pi_{n-1}(F))/\pi_1(X)$. $\square$*

DEFINITION 78.12. Given a CW-pair (X, A) with universal cover $f : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ and $\tilde{A} := f^{-1}(A)$, and a local system $\{G_x\} \cong (\tilde{X} \times G)/\pi_1(X)$ of abelian groups over X , the **cellular cohomology** $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; \{G_x\})$ of (X, A) with **local coefficients** in $\{G_x\}_{x \in X}$ can be defined as the homology of the subcomplex

$$C_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; \{G_x\}) := \text{Hom}_{\pi_1(X)}(C_n^{\text{CW}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \mathbb{Z}), G) \subset \text{Hom}(C_n^{\text{CW}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \mathbb{Z}), G),$$

meaning we consider only cochains $\varphi : C_n^{\text{CW}}(\tilde{X}, \tilde{A}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow G$ that are $\pi_1(X)$ -equivariant.

Implicit in the definition above is the following exercise: The cellular boundary operator commutes with the $\pi_1(X)$ -action, thus the group of equivariant cochains really is a subcomplex.

REMARK 78.13. $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; \{G_x\})$ is naturally isomorphic to a corresponding version of singular cohomology with local coefficients, which can be defined in multiple equivalent ways. One version of the definition is phrased in terms of $\pi_1(X)$ -equivariant singular cochains on the universal cover, closely analogous to the definition above. In another version, one avoids using the universal cover but instead generalizes the notion of a singular cochain on X as follows: instead of taking values in a fixed coefficient group G , an n -cochain φ associates to each singular simplex $\sigma : \Delta^n \rightarrow X$ a *lift* of σ that sends Δ^n to $\bigcup_{x \in X} G_x$, i.e. a section of the bundle of coefficient groups along σ . There is also an equivalent formulation of $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; \{G_x\})$ that avoids using the universal cover, but it looks somewhat less elegant: one has to fix a point x_α in each cell e_α^n and require the value $\varphi(e_\alpha^n)$ of a cochain φ to live in the fiber G_{x_α} . This makes the coboundary operator rather tricky to write down. In a very large number of important applications, however, one doesn't really need

to know all this, because fortunate topological circumstances conspire to make sure that the local systems we need to worry about are trivial, which makes $H_{\text{CW}}^*(X, A; \{G_x\})$ the same thing as the usual cellular cohomology with coefficients in a fixed abelian group.

We can now state the main result of obstruction theory.

THEOREM 78.14. *The **obstruction cochain** $\theta^n \in C_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\})$ defined via the prescription above is a cocycle, and thus represents a so-called **obstruction class***

$$[\theta^n] \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\}).$$

Moreover, the cocycle θ^n is determined by the homotopy class of the given section s_{n-1} of $E|_{A \cup X^{n-1}}$, which can be extended to $A \cup X^n$ if and only if $\theta^n = 0$. There is a natural bijection between the set of all n -cocycles cohomologous to θ^n in the complex $C_{\text{CW}}^(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\})$ and the set of all homotopy classes of sections of $E|_{A \cup X^{n-1}}$ that match s_{n-1} on $A \cup X^{n-2}$.*

In particular, it follows that

$$[\theta^n] = 0 \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\})$$

if and only if s_{n-1} can be modified on X^{n-1} (but without changing it on $A \cup X^{n-2}$) to produce a section that extends to $A \cup X^n$.

PROOF SKETCH. The proof has much in common with that of Theorem 74.8 on the correspondence $[X, K(G, n)] \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$, so we'll just give a quick summary of the main ideas.

For every $(n+1)$ -cell e_β^{n+1} , $\theta^n(\partial e_\beta^{n+1})$ vanishes due to roughly the same cancellation phenomenon that causes the cellular boundary map to satisfy $\partial^2 = 0$. This is the reason why θ^n is a cocycle. It is also clear from the definition that θ^n depends only on the homotopy class of $s_{n-1} \in \Gamma(E|_{A \cup X^{n-1}})$, and that the latter extends to $A \cup X^n$ if and only if $\theta^n = 0$. Let me just emphasize that here we are talking about the vanishing of the *cochain* θ^n , rather than the cohomology class $[\theta^n]$ that it represents. The geometric meaning of the condition $[\theta^n] = 0$ is subtler than the meaning of $\theta^n = 0$, and is addressed by the final sentence in the statement of the theorem.

If s'_{n-1} is another section on $A \cup X^{n-1}$ that matches s_{n-1} on $A \cup X^{n-2}$, we can use it to define a cochain $\psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^{n-1}(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(F)\})$ whose value on each lifted $(n-1)$ -cell $\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1} \subset \tilde{X} \setminus \tilde{A}$ is the homotopy class of a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow F$ obtained by gluing together the disk maps $s_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\gamma : \mathbb{D}^{n-1} \rightarrow F$ and $s'_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\gamma : \mathbb{D}^{n-1} \rightarrow F$ along their matching boundaries, as usual with the understanding that a trivialization determined by a path from the base point to $\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1}$ in $\tilde{X}$ is used in order to regard s'_{n-1} and s_{n-1} in this region as F -valued maps. (Once again, the definition of $\psi(\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1})$ also makes sense for $\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1} \subset \tilde{A}$, but it vanishes automatically because s_{n-1} and s'_{n-1} are assumed to match on A .) For each lifted n -cell $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n$, the difference between the values on $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n$ of the two obstruction cocycles defined via s_{n-1} and s'_{n-1} is then $\pm\psi(\partial\tilde{e}_\alpha^n)$. Conversely, given any $\psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^{n-1}(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(F)\})$, s_{n-1} can be modified in the interior of each $(n-1)$ -cell e_γ^{n-1} by performing a connected sum of each of the lifts $\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1}$ with a sphere S^{n-1} and extending s_{n-1} over this sphere as a map $S^{n-1} \rightarrow F$ representing $\psi(\tilde{e}_\gamma^{n-1}) \in \pi_{n-1}(F)$. Doing this produces a new section s'_{n-1} with a new obstruction cocycle that differs from θ^n by $\pm\delta\psi$. $\square$

The next result is proved via a standard induction over the skeleta argument, again using the fact that a fiber bundle over an individual cell is always trivial.

THEOREM 78.15. *If the fiber F is $(n-2)$ -connected,¹¹⁴ then every section s_A of $E|_A$ can be extended to $A \cup X^{n-1}$, and any two such extensions are homotopic rel A on $A \cup X^{n-2}$. $\square$*

¹¹⁴In the case $n = 1$, we understand this to be a vacuous condition, so the statement is always true.

COROLLARY 78.16. *In the setting of Theorem 78.15, the obstruction class $[\theta^n]$ belonging to $H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\})$ can always be defined and is independent of the choice of extension of s_A to a section s_{n-1} on $A \cup X^{n-1}$, i.e. it depends only on the homotopy class of the original (unextended) section $s_A \in \Gamma(E|_A)$ and the topology of the bundle $E \rightarrow X$. $\square$*

DEFINITION 78.17. The class $[\theta^n] \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x)\})$ in the setting of Theorem 78.15 and Corollary 78.16 is called the **primary obstruction class** for the problem of extending a given section s_A from A to X . The extension to $A \cup X^n$ is possible if and only if this cohomology class vanishes.

REMARK 78.18. If the primary obstruction class $[\theta^n]$ vanishes, then sections can be extended from A to $A \cup X^n$, but there may be *secondary* obstructions $[\theta^{n+1}] \in H_{\text{CW}}^{n+1}(X, A; \{\pi_n(E_x)\})$, $[\theta^{n+2}] \in H_{\text{CW}}^{n+2}(X, A; \{\pi_{n+1}(E_x)\})$ and so forth to finding further extensions over higher-dimensional skeleta, and the definitions of the secondary obstruction classes will typically depend on the choices of extensions to the previous skeleta. The good news is that there are many interesting applications in which these secondary obstructions vanish automatically, so that only the primary obstruction really needs to be understood.

78.3. Exercises.

EXERCISE 78.1 (*). Assume G is a topological group and $H \subset G$ a subgroup. We consider the set of left cosets $G/H = \{gH \mid g \in G\}$ as a topological space with the quotient topology. Notice that the right action $G \times H \rightarrow G$ of H on G by multiplication preserves the fibers of the quotient projection $p : G \rightarrow G/H$, and moreover, it acts freely and transitively on each fiber. It would be tempting to conclude immediately that $p : G \rightarrow G/H$ is a principal H -bundle, but part (a) below is a warning against being too hasty.

- (a) Suppose G is the abelian Lie group $\mathbb{T}^2 := \mathbb{R}^2/\mathbb{Z}^2$, and $H \subset \mathbb{T}^2$ is the image of a homomorphism $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2$ of the form $t \mapsto [(pt, qt)]$ for some $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$. Show that if p/q is irrational, then the quotient map $p : G \rightarrow G/H$ is not a fiber bundle.

Hint: Fiber bundles always locally admit sections.

Remark: Here is an example of a topological subgroup that I would be even less enthusiastic to deal with in this context: $\text{Diff}(M) \subset \text{Homeo}(M)$ for a compact smooth manifold M . Standard perturbation results imply that this subgroup is dense, which is very useful for some purposes, but not if you are hoping for a quotient space with nice properties.

- (b) Find an additional assumption about G and H that will allow you to conclude that the quotient map $p : G \rightarrow G/H$ is a principal H -bundle.

Remark: This is not exactly the answer I have in mind, but basic results in the theory of Lie groups imply that the necessary condition will hold whenever G is a Lie group and the subgroup $H \subset G$ is a topologically closed subset. The example in part (a) lacks the latter property.

- (c) Under the assumption that $p : G \rightarrow G/H$ is a fiber bundle, and the additional assumption that the inclusion $H \hookrightarrow G$ induces a bijective map $\pi_0(H) \rightarrow \pi_0(G)$, show that the space G/H is simple.
- (d) Just for fun, show that every path-connected space that is also a group object in $\mathbf{hTop}_*$ is also simple.

Comment: In fact, one doesn't need associativity or inverses for this, so it works for arbitrary H -spaces.

EXERCISE 78.2 (*). I want to explain why we should care about obstruction problems in fiber bundles with fiber of the form G/H for a topological group G and subgroup $H \subset G$. The

following definition gives a general framework for many situations in which one would like to endow a manifold with some extra geometric structure, but there might be topological reasons for that structure not to exist.

Recall that a G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ comes with an equivalence class of G -bundle atlases $\mathcal{A} = (\Phi, \mathcal{T}, \rho)$, which include a covering Φ by local trivializations and a related system $\mathcal{T}$ of G -valued transition data. We say that the structure group G of this bundle can be **reduced** to H if the equivalence class contains a G -bundle atlas that is also an H -bundle atlas, meaning that its transition functions all take their values in the subgroup $H \subset G$. If this exists, then the resulting equivalence class of H -bundle atlases makes $p : E \rightarrow B$ into an H -bundle, and the equivalence class is called a **reduction** of the structure group to H . It is possible for a G -bundle to admit multiple distinct reductions, since the given equivalence class of G -bundle atlases may contain multiple H -bundle atlases that are not equivalent as H -bundle atlases, i.e. because the collection of G -valued functions $\{h_{\beta\alpha}\}$ needed for defining a morphism $\mathcal{T}^0 \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^1$ between two systems of H -valued transition functions cannot be made to take values in H . In case all this sounds too abstract, here are some concrete examples:

- Choosing an orientation of a real vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank n reduces its structure group from $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ to $\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$. If B is connected and E is orientable, then there are exactly two inequivalent choices of such a reduction. Not all real vector bundles are orientable, so such reductions do not always exist.
- Choosing a bundle metric on a real vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank n reduces its structure group from $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ to $\mathrm{O}(n)$. Adding an orientation then reduces the structure group further from $\mathrm{O}(n)$ to $\mathrm{SO}(n) = \mathrm{O}(n) \cap \mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$.
- Using the obvious identification $\mathbb{C}^n = \mathbb{R}^{2n}$, we can regard $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ as the subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(2n, \mathbb{R})$ consisting of real-linear maps that commute with multiplication by i (represented in this situation by a particular real $2n$ -by- $2n$ matrix). For a real vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank $2n$, reducing its structure group from $\mathrm{GL}(2n, \mathbb{R})$ to $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ means choosing a complex structure, so that E becomes a complex vector bundle of rank n . Note that complex-linear maps $\mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ always correspond to real-linear maps $\mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ that are orientation-preserving, thus $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C}) \subset \mathrm{GL}_+(2n, \mathbb{R})$, and every reduction to $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ therefore automatically also defines a reduction to $\mathrm{GL}_+(2n, \mathbb{R})$. This is just a fancy way of saying that every complex vector bundle is also a real vector bundle with a canonical orientation determined by its complex structure.

Assume in the following that G is an arbitrary topological group with subgroup $H \subset G$.

- (a) Given a G -bundle $p : E \rightarrow B$ with standard fiber F and G -bundle atlas $\mathcal{A} = (\Phi, \mathcal{T}, \rho)$, let $E^{G/H} \rightarrow B$ denote a G -bundle carrying the same G -valued transition data $\mathcal{T}$ but with the standard fiber F and G -action $\rho : G \times F \rightarrow F$ replaced by G/H and the obvious G -action $G \times G/H \rightarrow G/H$ defined by multiplication in G .¹¹⁵ Show that if the structure group of $p : E \rightarrow B$ can be reduced to H , then $E^{G/H} \rightarrow B$ admits a global section.

Hint: There is some freedom in the choice of bundle atlas to use here. For the right choice, the statement becomes almost obvious.

Remark: Applying this to the tangent bundle $TM \rightarrow M$ of a smooth $2n$ -manifold with structure group $G := \mathrm{GL}(2n, \mathbb{R})$ and subgroup $H := \mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, one can show that the associated bundle with fiber $\mathrm{GL}(2n, \mathbb{R})/\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ is naturally isomorphic to the bundle $\mathcal{J}(TM)$ of complex structures mentioned in §77.2.

¹¹⁵Such a bundle can be constructed explicitly using Theorem 77.18. An alternative description of $E^{G/H}$ would be as the associated bundle $P \times_G (G/H)$ determined by the action $G \times G/H \rightarrow G/H$ and the (up to isomorphism) canonical principal G -bundle $P \rightarrow B$ such that $P \times_G F$ is isomorphic to E .

- (b) Show that if the conclusion of Exercise 78.1(b) holds for the subgroup $H \subset G$, then the converse of the statement in part (a) also holds: The structure group of $p : E \rightarrow B$ can be reduced to H whenever there exists a global section of the associated bundle $E^{G/H} \rightarrow B$. *Hint: Locally, sections of $E^{G/H}$ look like maps $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow G/H$ defined on open subsets $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset B$, but Exercise 78.1(b) will allow you to represent these as maps $s_\alpha : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \rightarrow G$. How are different representatives s_α, s_β of this form related on $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$?*

- (c) Prove that if the inclusion $H \hookrightarrow G$ is a homotopy equivalence and the conclusion of Exercise 78.1(b) holds, then every G -bundle over a CW-complex admits a reduction of its structure group to H .

Example: By polar decomposition, $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ admits a deformation retraction to $\mathrm{O}(n)$, and similarly, $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ admits a deformation retraction to $\mathrm{U}(n)$. This result thus implies the fact that every vector bundle over a CW-complex admits a bundle metric. (In differential geometry, one typically constructs bundle metrics more directly using partitions of unity.) Another example is important in symplectic geometry: One can show that the linear symplectic group $\mathrm{Sp}(2n)$ also contains $\mathrm{U}(n)$ as a homotopy equivalent closed subgroup, implying that symplectic vector bundles over CW-complexes can always be endowed with compatible complex structures (cf. Exercise 69.6).

- (d) Show that every fiber bundle over a CW-complex with a weakly contractible structure group is trivial.

EXERCISE 78.3 (*). Assume $p : E \rightarrow X$ is a fiber bundle and (X, A) is a pair of spaces. Given two sections $s_0, s_1 \in \Gamma(E)$ and a homotopy $\{h(\cdot, t) \in \Gamma(E|_A)\}_{t \in I}$ of sections over A from s_0 to s_1 , the problem of extending h to a global homotopy $\{H(\cdot, t) \in \Gamma(E)\}_{t \in I}$ of sections from $H_0 := s_0$ to $H_1 := s_1$ is summarized by the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X \times \partial I \cup A \times I & \xrightarrow{s_0 \cup s_1 \cup h} & \mathrm{pr}_1^* E & \longrightarrow & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow H & \downarrow & & \downarrow p \\ X \times I & \xlongequal{\quad} & X \times I & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{pr}_1} & X \end{array}$$

where $\mathrm{pr}_1 : X \times I \rightarrow X$ denotes the obvious projection, the portion of the diagram on the right is a pullback square, and the portion on the left is a special case of the general obstruction problem we discussed in lecture, viewing homotopies of sections of E as sections of the pullback bundle $\mathrm{pr}_1^* E \rightarrow X \times I$. If (X, A) is a CW-pair, then we can write the inductive version of this diagram as

$$(78.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccccc} X \times \partial I \cup ((A \cup X^{n-1}) \times I) & \xrightarrow{h_{n-1}} & \mathrm{pr}_1^* E & \longrightarrow & E \\ \downarrow & \nearrow h_n & \downarrow & & \downarrow p \\ X \times \partial I \cup ((A \cup X^n) \times I) & \xrightarrow{\quad} & X \times I & \xrightarrow{\mathrm{pr}_1} & X \end{array}$$

for each $n \geq 0$, where by definition $X^{-1} := \emptyset$, and the problem is easily seen to be solvable for $n = 0$ if we assume the fibers $E_x \cong F$ are path-connected. Under the additional assumption that F is simple, the theorem from lecture characterizes the solvability of this problem for each $n \geq 1$ in terms of a relative cohomology class with local coefficients, but that characterization can be simplified somewhat in the situation at hand.

- (a) Show that for each $n \geq 1$, there is a cohomology class

$$d^n(s_0, s_1; h) \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^n(X, A; \{\pi_n(E_x)\})$$

that vanishes if and only if the problem (78.3) is solvable.

- (b) Show that if the fiber F is $(n-1)$ -connected, then the obstruction class $d^n(s_0, s_1; h)$ is determined by the homotopy classes of s_0 and s_1 and the given (unextended) homotopy

- h over A , and is independent of all other choices. It is in this case called the **primary obstruction** to the problem of extending the homotopy between s_0 and s_1 from A to X .
- (c) Reinterpret the bijections $[X, K^w(G, n)] \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; G)$ and $[X, S^n] \cong H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ (the latter for n -dimensional CW-complexes X according to Exercise 74.3) in the language of obstruction theory. What exactly does the cohomology class corresponding to a map $X \rightarrow K(G, n)$ or $X \rightarrow S^n$ obstruct?

79. Characteristic classes and classifying spaces

79.1. Characteristic classes in general. Since a fiber bundle can always be pulled back along maps from other spaces to its base, it is natural to look for algebraic invariants of fiber bundles in a setting that also has a natural pullback operation. The most familiar invariant we've seen with this property is cohomology. As invariants of bundles, characteristic classes play an important role in detecting the properties of *smooth* structures on manifolds, due to the fact that smooth manifolds have well-defined tangent bundles, which topological manifolds generally do not.

DEFINITION 79.1. Assume h^* is an ordinary cohomology theory defined on a class of spaces $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathbf{Top}$, and G is a topological group. A **characteristic class** for G -bundles over $\mathcal{C}$ assigns to every space $X \in \mathcal{C}$ a function

$$\{G\text{-bundles over } X\} / \text{isomorphism} \xrightarrow{c} h^*(X)$$

that satisfies the following **naturality** property: for any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between two spaces $X, Y \in \mathcal{C}$ and any G -bundle $E \rightarrow Y$,

$$c(f^*E) = f^*c(E) \in h^*(X).$$

Some remarks on this definition are in order before we continue.

First, we did not specify in the definition what kinds of fibers the G -bundles can have, and that is because it doesn't matter. Theorems 77.18 and 77.19 imply that if there is a G -bundle isomorphism $E^1 \rightarrow E^2$ between two G -bundles with standard fiber F , then there is also a G -bundle isomorphism between any bundles obtained from E^1 and E^2 by keeping the same systems of G -valued transition data but replacing F with a different standard fiber F' that is acted upon by G . For example, if P^1 and P^2 are principal G -bundles (thus with standard fiber G), then a principal G -bundle isomorphism $\Psi : P^1 \rightarrow P^2$ is simply a fiber-preserving homeomorphism that is equivariant with respect to the right G -actions on P^1 and P^2 , and for any other space F with a left G -action, Ψ determines a G -bundle isomorphism

$$P^1 \times_G F \rightarrow P^2 \times_G F : [\phi, p] \mapsto [\Phi(\phi), p]$$

between the corresponding associated G -bundles with standard fiber F . The standard characteristic classes (Chern, Stiefel-Whitney, Pontryagin and Euler) are all conventionally regarded as invariants of *vector* bundles with specific structure groups G , but it is sometimes more convenient to define them as invariants of *principal* G -bundles $P \rightarrow X$ and then let this determine the corresponding definition on all associated bundles via the rule

$$c(P \times_G F) := c(P).$$

So for instance, if $G = \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ and $E \rightarrow X$ is a real vector bundle, this amounts to defining $c(E) := c(FE)$ via the frame bundle $FE \rightarrow X$, which is a principal G -bundle.

The second remark is that we will only attempt to define characteristic classes on bundles over CW-complexes, and will thus define them directly in cellular cohomology instead of working with a cohomology theory h^* defined on more general spaces. It should be mentioned that there also exist explicit (and quite elegant) constructions of certain characteristic classes in Čech cohomology,

which make sense for bundles over arbitrary spaces, but naturality implies via the results in §79.4 below that they must match the classes that we construct in cellular cohomology. There are also characteristic classes that are defined in de Rham cohomology and thus make sense only in the smooth category—this subject is known as *Chern-Weil* theory, and defining characteristic classes in this way reveals a deep interplay between topology and curvature on smooth bundles with connections.

79.2. The Euler class as an obstruction class. The following question gives some motivation for the definition of the Euler class: Given a real vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of rank n , does E admit a section $s \in \Gamma(E)$ that is *nowhere zero*?

We remark that there are many applications in which this is precisely the kind of question one wants to answer, i.e. whether there exist solutions to some equation of the form $s(x) = 0$. There are also nonlinear PDEs of geometric interest (especially in symplectic topology and gauge theory) that can be phrased as infinite-dimensional versions of this question, and the answer often depends on the underlying topology of the setting.

Obstruction theory can attack this question in the following manner. The problem is to construct a global section $s \in \Gamma(\dot{E})$ of the fiber bundle

$$\dot{E} := E \setminus X \rightarrow X,$$

where we are identifying the base X with the image of the zero-section $X \rightarrow E$, thus the fibers of $\dot{E}$ are $\dot{E}_x = E_x \setminus \{0\}$. This is a fiber bundle with structure group $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ acting linearly on the standard fiber $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$, which has the homotopy type of S^{n-1} . Assume X is a CW-complex, and for simplicity also assume $n \geq 2$. The fiber $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is then $(n-2)$ -connected and simple, so by the usual induction over skeleta, $\dot{E}$ admits a section s_{n-1} over X^{n-1} , and all such sections are homotopic over X^{n-2} . By the results of the previous lecture, the extendability of s_{n-1} over the n -skeleton is determined by a primary obstruction class

$$[\theta_E^n] \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^n(X; \{\pi_{n-1}(E_x \setminus \{0\})\}_{x \in X}).$$

Let us briefly review the definition. Choose a base point $*$ in $\tilde{X} \xrightarrow{f} X$ in the universal cover of X , and use a local trivialization to identify the fiber of $\dot{E}$ over that base point with $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$. Paths in $\tilde{X}$ from the base point to lifts $\tilde{e}_\alpha^n \subset \tilde{X}$ of the n -cells $e_\alpha^n \subset X$ then determine (up to homotopy) trivializations of $\dot{E}$ along the corresponding attaching map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (X, X^{n-1})$, and we use such trivializations to identify s_{n-1} over the boundary of e_α^n with a function valued in $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ in order to define the cellular n -cochain $\theta_E^n : C_n^{\mathrm{CW}}(\tilde{X}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$ by

$$\theta_E^n(\tilde{e}_\alpha^n) := [s_{n-1} \circ \Phi_\alpha|_{S^{n-1}}] \in [S^{n-1}, \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}] \cong \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}).$$

The way that the trivializations have been chosen makes this cochain equivariant with respect to the action of $\pi_1(X)$ via deck transformations on $\tilde{X}$, so that θ_E^n actually belongs to the subcomplex defining the cohomology of X with coefficients in the local system $\{\pi_{n-1}(E_x \setminus \{0\})\}_{x \in X}$.

Things will now become much easier if we add an assumption: suppose namely that the vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ is *oriented*, i.e. all its fibers are equipped with orientations, so the structure group has been reduced to $\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$. Choose the identification of the fiber of $\dot{E}$ over the base point with $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ to be orientation preserving. This assumption removes local coefficients from the picture, because the action of $\pi_1(X)$ on $\pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$ is now determined by orientation-preserving linear transformations—these are all homotopic (as linear isomorphisms) to the identity, so the $\pi_1(X)$ -action on $\pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$ is trivial. This makes $\{\pi_{n-1}(E_x \setminus \{0\})\}_{x \in X}$ into a trivial local system, and the cohomology with coefficients in this local system is therefore actually just cohomology with coefficients in the group $\pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

DEFINITION 79.2. The **Euler class** of an oriented vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of rank $n \geq 2$ over a CW-complex is the primary obstruction class

$$e(E) := [\theta_E^n] \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})) = H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

described above. In the case $n = 1$, we define $e(E) := 0 \in H_{\text{CW}}^1(X; \mathbb{Z})$.

An oriented vector bundle of rank n has structure group $\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$, whose linear action on the standard fiber $\mathbb{R}^n$ is effective, thus an orientation-preserving linear bundle isomorphism between two oriented vector bundles of rank n is equivalent to a $\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$ -bundle isomorphism. It follows that the Euler class can also be interpreted for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ as a characteristic class for $\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$ -bundles with arbitrary standard fiber, e.g. for a principal $\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$ -bundle $P \rightarrow X$, one would define $e(P) := e(P \times_{\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})} \mathbb{R}^n)$. This makes the Euler class of every oriented vector bundle the same as the Euler class of its oriented frame bundle (cf. Exercise 77.2).

REMARK 79.3. There's an awkward detail about Definition 79.2 that you might not have noticed. The obstruction class $[\theta_E^n]$ seems to depend in essential ways on the cell decomposition of X , thus giving a definition of the Euler class $e(E) \in H_{\text{CW}}^n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ that might depend on more data than just the isomorphism class of the oriented vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$. In fact, $e(E)$ does not depend on the cell decomposition of X , and one can deduce this from the naturality property, proved in Theorem 79.4 below. Indeed, if X' denotes a second copy of X with a different cell decomposition, then for any cellular map $f : X \rightarrow X'$ homotopic to the identity, we have $f^* \theta_E^n = \theta_{f^*E}^n$, so that $f^* : H^n(X'; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^n(X; \mathbb{Z})$ maps $e(E)$ to $e(f^*E)$. Since $f^* = \mathbb{1}$ and $f^*E \cong E$, this proves that the natural isomorphism between two versions of cellular cohomology defined with respect to two different cell decompositions identifies one version of $e(E)$ with the other.

THEOREM 79.4. *The Euler class for oriented vector bundles has the following properties:*

- (1) $e(E) = 0$ if and only if the bundle $E \rightarrow X$ admits a section that is nowhere zero on the n -skeleton X^n .
- (2) $e(\bar{E}) = -e(E)$, where $\bar{E}$ denotes the same vector bundle with reversed orientation.
- (3) (Naturality) For any oriented vector bundle $E \rightarrow Y$ and any map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ between CW-complexes, $e(f^*E) = f^*e(E)$.
- (4) (Whitney sum formula) For any two oriented vector bundles $E^1, E^2 \rightarrow X$,

$$e(E^1 \oplus E^2) = e(E^1) \cup e(E^2),$$

where $E^1 \oplus E^2 \rightarrow X$ is the vector bundle whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the direct sum $E_x^1 \oplus E_x^2$ with the orientation induced by the orientations of E_x^1 and E_x^2 .

- (5) For $X := M$ a closed oriented smooth manifold of dimension $n + k$ and $E \rightarrow M$ a smooth oriented vector bundle of rank n , the Poincaré dual of $e(E) \in H^n(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is the homology class represented by the smooth oriented submanifold $s^{-1}(0) \subset M$ for any section $s \in \Gamma(E)$ that is transverse to the zero-section.¹¹⁶

$$\text{PD}(e(E)) = [s^{-1}(0)] \in H_k(M; \mathbb{Z}).$$

In the case $\dim M = n = \text{rank}(E)$, this means

$$\langle e(E), [M] \rangle = \#s^{-1}(0),$$

where the right hand side counts the isolated zeroes of $s \in \Gamma(E)$ with signs according to whether its linearization at these points preserves or reverses orientation. More generally, the latter formula holds for any section with isolated zeroes if (in the non-transverse case) each zero is assigned a suitable integer-valued weight, defined analogously to the local

¹¹⁶By the implicit function theorem, $s \in \Gamma(E)$ being transverse to the zero-section implies that $s^{-1}(0)$ is a submanifold, and it inherits a natural orientation from the orientations of M and E .

degree for maps between oriented manifolds of the same dimension (cf. Lecture 38 from last semester).

- (6) (Poincaré-Hopf theorem) For any closed oriented smooth manifold M with tangent bundle $TM \rightarrow M$,

$$\langle e(TM), [M] \rangle = \chi(M).$$

PROOF. For an oriented bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of rank $n := 1$, $e(E)$ vanishes by definition, so property (1) just states that such bundles always admit sections that are nowhere zero on the 1-skeleton, and this is easily shown to be true. (In fact, exercise: Oriented vector bundles of rank 1 over CW-complexes always admit globally nonvanishing sections, and are therefore trivial.) For bundles of rank $n \geq 2$, given the way that we defined $e(E)$ as an obstruction class, (1) is immediate from the main results of the previous lecture. Here it should be noted that we are not claiming anything about the possibility of constructing nowhere-zero sections of E on $X \setminus X^n$. This is in general a nontrivial question, whose answer depends on secondary obstruction classes, though there are plenty of interesting situations (e.g. when $\dim X = n$) where those obstructions automatically vanish.

The sign in (2) arises from the fact that if we reverse the orientation of E , then we need to choose a different identification of the fiber of $\dot{E}$ over the base point with $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$.

For the naturality property, the map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ can be assumed cellular without loss of generality, and any section s_{n-1} of $E \rightarrow Y$ over Y^{n-1} then determines a section $s_{n-1} \circ f$ of $f^*E \rightarrow X$ over X^{n-1} . Using these specific sections in the definitions of the cocycles θ_E^n and $\theta_{f^*E}^n$ representing $e(E)$ and $e(f^*E)$ respectively then gives the relation

$$\theta_{f^*E}^n(e_\alpha^n) = \theta_E^n(f_*e_\alpha^n)$$

for all n -cells $e_\alpha^n \subset X$.

The proof of the Whitney sum formula is contained in Exercise 79.1.

For (5), the relation to Poincaré duality, we discuss the case $\dim M = n = \text{rank}(E)$ and leave the rest to Exercise 79.2. Since M is a smooth manifold, it admits a triangulation, and given a section $s \in \Gamma(E)$ with isolated zeroes, we can choose that triangulation so that every n -simplex contains at most one zero of s , and only in its interior. Using the triangulation as a cell decomposition of M , we then have $\theta^n(e_\alpha^n) = 0$ for every n -simplex $e_\alpha^n \subset M$ on which s has no zero, and for n -simplices with a zero in the interior, $\theta^n(e_\alpha^n) \in \pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$ is represented by the restriction of s to the boundary of the n -simplex, expressed as a map $\partial\Delta^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ after choosing an oriented trivialization of E over the simplex. Under the canonical identification of $\pi_{n-1}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\})$ with $\mathbb{Z}$, that is also precisely how the contribution of each individual zero to the signed and weighted count of zeroes $\#s^{-1}(0)$ is defined. The evaluation $\langle e(TM), [M] \rangle$ is the sum of all these contributions, since the fundamental class $[M]$ is represented by a sum of the n -simplices in the triangulation.

Finally, the Poincaré-Hopf theorem: it suffices to construct a vector field $X \in \Gamma(TM)$ for which the signed count of zeroes of X is $\chi(M)$. We claim: For any given triangulation of M , regarded as a cell decomposition, there exists a vector field X that has exactly one zero in each k -cell for $k = 0, \dots, n$, and the sign it contributes to the signed count of zeroes is $(-1)^k$; consequently, the signed count of zeroes is $\chi(M)$. The construction of this vector field is best described with a picture that I cannot reproduce here: suffice it to say that it vanishes on every vertex of the triangulation, is tangent to every simplex, and flows inward toward a unique zero in the interior of each simplex. The sign $(-1)^k$ arises from the observation that at the unique zero in the interior of any given k -simplex, the linearization of the vector field has k negative eigenvalues with eigenvectors tangent to the k -cell, and $n - k$ positive eigenvalues with eigenvectors transverse to it; the sign of its determinant is therefore $(-1)^k$. $\square$

79.3. Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes of line bundles. The Euler class gives rise to a cheap definition of a characteristic class for complex *line* bundles, meaning complex vector bundles of rank 1, or equivalently, fiber bundles with structure group $\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{C})$. The idea is simply to exploit the fact that under the obvious identification of $x + iy \in \mathbb{C}$ with $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, multiplication on $\mathbb{C}^n$ by any nonzero complex scalar becomes an *orientation-preserving* real-linear map $\mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2n}$, thus identifying $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ with a subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}_+(2n, \mathbb{R})$. As a consequence, every complex vector bundle of rank n is also naturally an *oriented* real vector bundle of rank $2n$.

DEFINITION 79.5. For complex line bundles $L \rightarrow X$ over CW-complexes, we define the **first Chern class** by

$$c_1(L) := e(L) \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^2(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where on the right hand side, L is regarded as a *real* vector bundle of rank 2 with the natural orientation determined by the complex structure.

Since the Euler class satisfies the naturality property of characteristic classes, the first Chern class automatically does as well. As you might expect, the *first* Chern class is only one in an infinite sequence of Chern classes, and they can also be defined for complex vector bundles of arbitrary rank, a subject that we will come back to in the next lecture. We will see for instance that for complex vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ of arbitrary rank $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the same trick gives a valid formula for the n th Chern class,

$$c_n(E) = e(E) \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^{2n}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

though this will not be the most convenient way to define it. The case $n = 1$ is special in any case due to the formula stated in the following theorem, revealing a useful property of c_1 that cannot be expressed merely in terms of Euler classes of oriented real vector bundles. A word of caution is in order: this formula is valid specifically for bundles of rank 1, and when we define c_1 for complex bundles of arbitrary rank in the next lecture, the correct formula for c_1 of a tensor product will be more complicated.

THEOREM 79.6. *A complex line bundle $L \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex is trivial if and only if $c_1(L) = 0$. Moreover, for any two complex line bundles $L, L' \rightarrow X$ over the same CW-complex,*

$$c_1(L \otimes L') = c_1(L) + c_1(L'),$$

where $L \otimes L' \rightarrow X$ is the complex line bundle whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the complex tensor product $L_x \otimes L'_x$.

PROOF. In general, a complex line bundle $L \rightarrow X$ is trivial if and only if it admits a global nowhere-vanishing section $s \in \Gamma(L)$, because the map

$$X \times \mathbb{C} \rightarrow L : (x, z) \mapsto zs(x)$$

is then the inverse of a global trivialization. (The analogous trick also works for real line bundles.) Triviality thus implies that the obstruction to nowhere-vanishing sections vanishes, hence $c_1(L) = 0$. Conversely, the vanishing of the obstruction $c_1(L) = e(L) = [\theta_L^2] \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^2(X; \mathbb{Z})$ means that there exists a nowhere-vanishing section $s_2 \in \Gamma(L|_{X^2})$ on the 2-skeleton. Since the standard fiber of $\dot{L} := L \setminus X$ is $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\} \underset{\text{h.e.}}{\simeq} S^1$, which has vanishing π_n for all $n \geq 2$, induction over the skeleta then extends s_2 to a nowhere-vanishing section on all the higher-dimensional cells as well, proving that $L \rightarrow X$ is trivial.

For the tensor product formula, we need to prove $e(L \otimes L') = e(L) + e(L')$, where it should be stressed that the tensor product is complex, but the bundles on both sides are then interpreted as oriented real bundles of rank 2. Using our definition of the Euler class as a primary obstruction,

we first choose nowhere-zero sections s, s' of L and L' respectively over the 1-skeleton of X , and observe that the tensor product then inherits a nowhere-zero section

$$\sigma := s \otimes s' \in \Gamma((L \otimes L')|_{X^1}).$$

Along the boundary of any given 2-cell $e_\alpha^2 \subset X$, any trivializations of L and L' determine a trivialization of $L \otimes L'$, so that s, s', σ all become identified with complex-valued functions having nonzero values related by $\sigma = ss'$. Plugging this information into the definition of the obstruction cochains for all three bundles, the relation

$$\theta_{L \otimes L'}^2(e_\alpha^2) = \theta_L^2(e_\alpha^2) + \theta_{L'}^2(e_\alpha^2) \in \pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}) = \mathbb{Z}$$

follows because $\mathbb{C}^* := \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ is a topological group, and the definition of multiplication in its fundamental group $\pi_1(\mathbb{C}^*)$ can therefore also be expressed in terms of the multiplication in $\mathbb{C}^*$ itself, namely as $[\gamma][\gamma'] := [\gamma\gamma']$ for two loops $\gamma, \gamma' : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*$, i.e. instead of concatenating them, we are multiplying their values pointwise. $\square$

For real line bundles $L \rightarrow X$, we defined $e(L)$ to be $0 \in H_{\text{CW}}^1(X; \mathbb{Z})$, which was the only reasonable thing to do: the definition of the Euler class requires an orientation, and oriented real line bundles are always trivial. Let us now drop the assumption that L has an orientation, and ask the same question that motivated the definition of the Euler class: Does $L \rightarrow X$ admit a section that is nowhere zero?

Approaching this question in the same way as in §79.2, we define a fiber bundle

$$\dot{L} \rightarrow X$$

with standard fiber $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, whose sections are precisely the sections of L that never vanish. It is trivial to define a section of $\dot{L}$ over the 0-skeleton $X^0 \subset X$, but since $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is not path-connected, it is not obvious whether such a section can always be extended over the 1-skeleton. One reason to assume $n \geq 2$ in §79.2 was that $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ is then path-connected and simple, thus fitting cleanly into the framework we developed for obstruction theory in the previous lecture. That is unfortunately not true in the case $n = 1$, but nonetheless, it is not difficult to write down an obstruction cochain

$$\theta_L^1 \in C_{\text{CW}}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

that depends on a given section $s_0 \in \Gamma(\dot{L}|_{X^0})$ and vanishes if and only if s_0 can be extended to X^1 . For each 1-cell $e_\alpha^1 \subset X$ with characteristic map $\Phi_\alpha : (\mathbb{D}^1, S^0) \rightarrow (X, X^0)$, the bundle $\Phi_\alpha^* \dot{L}$ is trivializable and thus homeomorphic to $\mathbb{D}^1 \times (\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\})$, so its total space has two path-components, and s_0 can be extended over e_α^1 if and only if its values at the two boundary points $\partial \mathbb{D}^1 = S^0$ lie in the same component of $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$. The answer to this question is independent of the choice of trivialization, so we get a well-defined cochain $\theta_L^1 : C_1^{\text{CW}}(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$ by setting

$$\theta_L^1(e_\alpha^1) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s_0 \text{ extends over } e_\alpha^1, \\ 1 & \text{if not.} \end{cases}$$

One easily checks that $\theta_L^1(\partial e_\beta^2) = 0$ for all 2-cells $e_\beta^2 \subset X$, thus θ_L^1 is a cocycle. It depends on the given section s_0 over the 0-skeleton, but if a different section s'_0 is given, one can now define a 0-cochain $\psi \in C_{\text{CW}}^0(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ by

$$\psi(e_\alpha^0) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s_0 \text{ and } s'_0 \text{ map } e_\alpha^0 \text{ to the same component of the fiber,} \\ 1 & \text{if not.} \end{cases}$$

The difference between our cocycle θ_L^1 and the new one defined using s'_0 instead of s_0 is then $\pm \delta \psi$, thus the cohomology class

$$(79.1) \quad w_1(L) := [\theta_L^1] \in H_{\text{CW}}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

is independent of the choice of section s_0 on X^0 . We call this the **first Stiefel-Whitney class** of the real line bundle $L \rightarrow X$.

As with the Euler class, one can use cellular approximation to prove that w_1 under this definition satisfies naturality, and deduce from this as in Remark 79.3 that it does not depend on the cell decomposition of X . In particular, w_1 is a well-defined characteristic class for real line bundles over CW-complexes, or equivalently, fiber bundles with structure group $\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{R})$. The proof of the following is closely analogous to Theorem 79.6; the extendability of sections from X^1 to the rest of X follows from the fact that both path-components of $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ have trivial homotopy groups in all dimensions.

THEOREM 79.7. *The first Stiefel-Whitney class $w_1(L) \in H_{\mathrm{CW}}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ of a real line bundle $L \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex vanishes if and only if the bundle is trivial. Moreover, for two real line bundles $L, L' \rightarrow X$, it satisfies the formula*

$$w_1(L \otimes L') = w_1(L) + w_1(L').$$

□

We will extend w_1 to higher-rank bundles and define the full sequence of Stiefel-Whitney classes $w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots$ in the next lecture.

79.4. Classifying spaces. In the big picture, there is a deep reason why characteristic classes of G -bundles must always exist.

DEFINITION 79.8. A principal G -bundle $EG \rightarrow BG$ is called a **universal G -bundle**, and its base BG is called a **classifying space** for the group G , if for all CW-complexes X , the map

$$[X, BG] \rightarrow \{\text{principal } G\text{-bundles over } X\} / \text{isomorphism},$$

sending the unpointed homotopy class of a map $f : X \rightarrow BG$ to the isomorphism class of the pullback bundle $f^*EG \rightarrow X$, is a bijection.

The existence of classifying spaces BG for arbitrary topological groups G is a result due to Milnor [Mil56b], and we will not prove it in full generality, but we will construct BG in the next lecture for a wide enough range of groups to understand the standard characteristic classes.

REMARK 79.9. If $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a universal principal G -bundle, then for any space F with a left G -action, the associated bundle

$$EG \times_G F \rightarrow BG$$

serves as a universal G -bundle with fiber F , meaning that every G -bundle $E \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex X with F as its standard fiber is isomorphic to $f^*(EG \times_G F)$ for a uniquely determined homotopy class $[f] \in [X, BG]$. We will make use of this in particular as a way to classify vector bundles.

The following is an immediate consequence of the naturality property of characteristic classes:

PROPOSITION 79.10. *If $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a universal principal G -bundle, then each characteristic class of G -bundles over CW-complexes is determined by a single class $c(EG)$ in the cohomology of BG .* □

With one caveat to be mentioned in the next remark, Proposition 79.10 is the way to prove that different versions of the same characteristic class constructed in different cohomology theories match on CW-complexes, and for this reason, quite a lot of attention in the theory of characteristic classes gets devoted to computing the cohomologies of the classifying spaces BG .

REMARK 79.11. As mentioned in §79.1, Chern-Weil theory produces smooth versions of the Chern, Euler and Pontryagin classes that are defined for smooth bundles over smooth manifolds and live in de Rham cohomology. One minor headache, however, is that one cannot directly use the Proposition 79.10 for proving that these classes match their counterparts in cellular cohomology: the trouble is that while smooth manifolds are always CW-complexes, the relevant classifying spaces BG are *never* smooth manifolds—they are typically infinite-dimensional CW-complexes. In practice, one can get around this issue by using finite-dimensional *approximations* to BG , which are smooth manifolds: this is possible because classifying spaces can typically be described as colimits of sequences of smooth manifolds with increasingly large dimensions (we will see two examples at the end of this lecture). These manifolds “approximate” classifying spaces in the same sense that S^n approximates a $K(\mathbb{Z}, n)$ in Exercise 74.3, i.e. they do the same job if one restricts attention to CW-complexes up to a certain dimension.

Let us discuss the existence and uniqueness of classifying spaces and universal bundles. We did not include this detail in the definition above, but in practice, all the classifying spaces we deal with will be CW-complexes, and assuming this makes one or two things easier. One deduces for instance from the defining property of universal bundles that the classifying space BG , while not necessarily a unique space, is unique up to homotopy equivalence if it is assumed to be a CW-complex:

THEOREM 79.12. *Assume $\Phi : H \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism of topological groups which have universal bundles $EH \rightarrow BH$ and $EG \rightarrow BG$, where the classifying space BH is a CW-complex, and define a right H -action on EG in terms of Φ and the right G -action, namely by*

$$\phi h := \phi \Phi(h) \quad \text{for} \quad \phi \in EG, h \in H.$$

Then there is a unique unpointed homotopy class of continuous maps

$$B\Phi \in [BH, BG]$$

such that there exists an H -equivariant map $EH \rightarrow EG$ making the diagram

$$(79.2) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} EH & \longrightarrow & EG \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ BH & \xrightarrow{B\Phi} & BG \end{array}$$

commute. Moreover, given two continuous group homomorphisms $K \xrightarrow{\Psi} H \xrightarrow{\Phi} G$ and classifying spaces BK, BH, BG that are CW-complexes, the induced homotopy classes satisfy

$$B(\Phi \circ \Psi) = B\Phi \circ B\Psi.$$

Applying the theorem to the identity homomorphism $G \rightarrow G$ gives:

COROLLARY 79.13. *If $EG \rightarrow BG$ and $E'G \rightarrow B'G$ are two universal principal G -bundles with classifying spaces $BG, B'G$ that are CW-complexes, then there exists a homotopy equivalence $BG \rightarrow B'G$ that is uniquely determined up to homotopy by the existence of a commutative diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E'G & \longrightarrow & EG \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ B'G & \xrightarrow{B\Phi} & BG \end{array},$$

in which the top arrow is a G -equivariant homeomorphism. □

PROOF SKETCH FOR THEOREM 79.12. Using Φ to define a left H -action on G , one obtains an associated H -bundle

$$EH \times_H G \rightarrow BH$$

with standard fiber G . The obvious right G -action $[\phi, g]g' := [\phi, gg']$ is then free and transitive on each fiber, and thus makes $EH \times_H G$ into a principal G -bundle over BH . Since BH is assumed to be a CW-complex, there is then a unique homotopy class of maps $B\Phi : BH \rightarrow BG$ fitting into a diagram of the form

$$(79.3) \quad \begin{array}{ccc} EH \times_H G & \longrightarrow & EG \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ BH & \xrightarrow{B\Phi} & BG \end{array},$$

where the top arrow defines a principal G -bundle isomorphism from $EH \times_H G$ to $(B\Phi)^*EG$, so in particular, it is G -equivariant, and therefore also H -equivariant. The top arrow in the diagram (79.2) is then obtained by composing the map $EH \times_H G \rightarrow EG$ with the fiber-preserving H -equivariant map

$$EH \rightarrow EH \times_G G : \phi \mapsto [\phi, e].$$

It is not difficult to show in fact that every H -equivariant map as in the top arrow of (79.2) is the composition of this particular map $EH \rightarrow EH \times_G G$ with a G -equivariant map $EH \times_G G \rightarrow EG$ as in the diagram (79.3), and this is why $B\Phi \in [BH, BG]$ is uniquely determined by the diagram (79.2).

It is an easy exercise to prove the formula $B(\Phi \circ \Psi) = B\Phi \circ B\Psi$ by combining two diagrams of the form (79.2). $\square$

With uniqueness out of the way, we tackle the question of existence.

THEOREM 79.14. *If $EG \rightarrow BG$ is a principal G -bundle whose total space EG is weakly contractible, then it is a universal G -bundle.*

PROOF. Assuming $P \rightarrow X$ is an arbitrary principal G -bundle over a CW-complex X , we need to find a map $f : X \rightarrow BG$ such that $P \cong f^*EG$, and show moreover that this map is unique up to homotopy. Equivalently, we are looking for a G -equivariant map $P \rightarrow EG$; since G acts freely and transitively on the fibers of both P and EG , any such map will send each fiber $P_x \cong G$ of P homeomorphically (and G -equivariantly) to some fiber $(EG)_{f(x)} \cong G$ of EG , thus determining a map $f : X \rightarrow BG$ along with a principal G -bundle isomorphism $P \rightarrow f^*EG$. The problem is therefore to show that there is a unique homotopy class of G -equivariant maps $P \rightarrow EG$. In fact, G -equivariant maps $\Psi : P \rightarrow EG$ are equivalent to global sections of the associated G -bundle

$$P \times_G EG := (P \times EG)/G \longrightarrow X,$$

where G acts on the product diagonally.¹¹⁷ The fiber of $P \times_G EG$ at a point $x \in X$ is $(P_x \times EG)/G$, and we can associate to any equivariant map $\Psi : P \rightarrow EG$ a section $s \in \Gamma(P \times_G EG)$ defined at each point $x \in X$ by

$$s(x) := [\phi, \Psi(\phi)] \in (P_x \times EG)/G \quad \text{for any} \quad \phi \in P_x,$$

¹¹⁷In our usual construction of associated bundles $P \times_G F = (P \times F)/G$, G acts on P from the right and on F from the left, so that the equivalence relation on $P \times F$ can be expressed as $(\phi g, p) \sim (\phi, gp)$ for all $(\phi, p) \in P \times F$ and $g \in G$. In the present situation, EG comes with a right action instead of a left action, but we can choose to view it as a left action by defining $gp := pg^{-1}$ for $g \in G$ and $p \in EG$. The resulting equivalence relation on $P \times EG$ is thus $(\phi g, pg) = (\phi, p)$.

where the definition is independent of the choice of $\phi \in P_x$ since all possible choices are related by the G -action and Ψ is G -equivariant. Conversely, any section s determines an equivariant map Ψ in the same manner. Finally, we observe that the fibers of $P \times_G EG \rightarrow X$ are homeomorphic to EG , whose homotopy groups are all assumed to vanish, so the usual induction over the skeleta of X proves that this fiber bundle admits a global section, and moreover, all such sections are homotopic. $\square$

EXAMPLE 79.15. Let $G := \mathbb{Z}_2$, or equivalently the orthogonal group $O(1) \subset GL(1, \mathbb{R})$. A principal $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -bundle is just a covering map of degree 2. The infinite-dimensional CW-complex S^∞ is contractible (see Lecture 74), and is naturally a double cover of $\mathbb{RP}^\infty$, so we can set

$$E\mathbb{Z}_2 := S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty =: B\mathbb{Z}_2.$$

It follows that for any CW-complex X , the double covers of X up to isomorphism are in bijective correspondence with the homotopy classes of maps $X \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$.

If you know that classifying spaces always exist, then you can now deduce from Exercise 79.3 (and we will see it more explicitly in the next lecture) that $\mathbb{RP}^\infty$ is also $BGL(1, \mathbb{R})$. It follows that real line bundles $\ell \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex X are also in bijective correspondence with homotopy classes of maps $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$, and there is a distinguished cohomology class in $H_{CW}^1(\mathbb{RP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ whose pullback via f is the first Stiefel-Whitney class of the corresponding line bundle. It is not difficult to guess which class that is: it has to be nontrivial, since there exist nontrivial line bundles $\ell \rightarrow X$ which therefore have $w_1(\ell) \neq 0$, so we conclude that the “universal” class of which all first Stiefel-Whitney classes of line bundles are pullbacks is the unique nontrivial class in $H_{CW}^1(\mathbb{RP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

EXAMPLE 79.16. Let $G := S^1 = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$, or equivalently the unitary group $U(1) \subset GL(1, \mathbb{C})$. The Hopf fibrations $p : S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ are all principal S^1 -bundles, and taking the colimit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (this was also discussed in Lecture 74) gives a Serre fibration

$$ES^1 = EU(1) := S^\infty \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{CP}^\infty =: BU(1) = BS^1,$$

which is in fact also a principal S^1 -bundle. To see this, we note that in light of the obvious fiber-preserving S^1 -action that is free and transitive on the fibers, one only has to show that local sections of $p : S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, as these can be combined with the S^1 -action to define local trivializations (see Proposition 77.17). Local sections of $p : S^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ can be constructed by taking colimits of local sections of the finite-dimensional Hopf bundles $S^{2n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The unitary group $U(1)$ is the natural structure group for a complex line bundle equipped with a Hermitian bundle metric, so $BU(1) = \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ means that Hermitian line bundles over a CW-complex X are classified via the homotopy classes of maps $X \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, and every characteristic class for such bundles is a pullback of some class in $H_{CW}^*(\mathbb{CP}^\infty)$. In fact, we will see in the next lecture (or you might first deduce from Exercise 79.3) that the bundle metric is superfluous in this discussion, and $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ is also the classifying space of $GL(1, \mathbb{C})$, so this discussion applies in particular to the first Chern classes of complex line bundles.

In [Mil56b], Milnor explained a general construction associating to every topological group G a weakly contractible principal G -bundle $EG \rightarrow BG$, resulting in a classifying space BG that is a CW-complex. Combined with Theorems 79.12 and 79.14, this makes it possible to construct a functor

$$\text{Grp}(\text{Top}) \rightarrow \text{hTop} : G \mapsto BG$$

associating to every topological group its classifying space, and to prove that this functor is unique up to natural isomorphism. In practice, the standard characteristic classes only require us to understand the classifying spaces of a small collection of specific groups, starting with the examples

$B\mathbb{Z}_2$ and BS^1 described above. We will sketch straightforward constructions of these in the next lecture.

79.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 79.1 (*). We have not yet gotten around to giving formal definitions of the direct sum and tensor product operations on vector bundles, so let's do that, and then prove the Whitney sum formula for the Euler class.

- (a) Given vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ and $F \rightarrow Y$ with structure groups G and H respectively, construct a vector bundle $E \boxplus F \rightarrow X \times Y$ whose fiber at each point $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ is the direct sum of vector spaces $E_x \oplus F_y$, and whose structure group is $G \times H$.

Remark: $E \boxplus F$ is sometimes called the **external direct sum** (or external Whitney sum) of the bundles E and F . The ordinary Whitney sum of two bundles $E, F \rightarrow B$ over the same base can be obtained from the external sum as a pullback:

$$E \oplus F = \Delta^*(E \boxplus F), \quad \text{where} \quad B \xrightarrow{\Delta} B \times B : x \mapsto (x, x),$$

thus its fibers are $(E \oplus F)_x = E_x \oplus F_x$, and $E \oplus F$ also inherits structure group $G \times H$ if E and F have structure groups G and H respectively.

- (b) Given two vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow B$ over the same field $\mathbb{K} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$, construct a vector bundle $E \otimes F \rightarrow B$ whose fiber at each point $x \in B$ is the tensor product of vector spaces $E_x \otimes F_x$. In the case where E and F both have rank 1, write down a formula for local transition functions of $E \otimes F$ determined by transition functions of E and F . (Such a formula was used implicitly in our proof of Theorem 79.6.)
- (c) The following is a preparatory lemma toward proving the Whitney sum formula: Suppose $f : (\mathbb{D}^m, S^{m-1}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{D}^m, S^{m-1})$ and $g : (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1})$ are maps of pairs $(m, n \geq 1)$ whose restrictions to the boundary are maps of spheres with degrees $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ respectively. Regarding $\partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n)$ as a sphere of dimension $m + n - 1$, show that the product map

$$(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n, \partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n)) \xrightarrow{f \times g} (\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n, \partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n))$$

restricts to the boundary as a map of degree $k\ell$.

Hint: I can think of a few possible approaches to this, but the simplest is perhaps to compute the degree of the induced map

$$S^{m+n} \cong (\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n) / \partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n) \longrightarrow (\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n) / \partial(\mathbb{D}^m \times \mathbb{D}^n) \cong S^{m+n}$$

as a sum of local degrees.

- (d) For two oriented real vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ and $F \rightarrow Y$ of ranks $m, n \geq 2$ respectively over CW-complexes, prove the formula

$$e(E \boxplus F) = e(E) \times e(F) \in H_{\text{CW}}^{m+n}(X \times Y; \mathbb{Z}),$$

and deduce from this the Whitney sum formula

$$e(E \oplus F) = e(E) \cup e(F)$$

for two oriented bundles over the same base.

Hint: Our definition of the Euler class requires you to start by choosing nowhere-zero sections $s \in \Gamma(E|_{X^{m-1}})$ and $t \in \Gamma(F|_{Y^{n-1}})$. They can both be extended over the rest of X and Y respectively—you cannot assume that the extensions are nowhere zero, but you do obtain from this a nowhere-zero section $F(x, y) := (s(x), t(y))$ of $E \boxplus F$ over the $(m + n - 1)$ -skeleton of $X \times Y$. Use the (easy) definition of the cross product on cellular cochains.

- (e) Prove that the two formulas in part (d) are also valid when E and F are each allowed to have rank 1. What content do the formulas have in this case?

EXERCISE 79.2. You should probably not stress too much over the details of this, but I want to sketch one way of proving the formula

$$\text{PD}(e(E)) = [s^{-1}(0)] \in H_{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$$

for a smooth oriented vector bundle $E \rightarrow M$ of rank k over a smooth closed and oriented n -manifold, where $s \in \Gamma(E)$ is assumed to be any smooth section that is transverse to the zero-section. One thing you might vaguely recall in the historical background of Poincaré duality is the notion of a *dual cell decomposition*: any oriented triangulation of M determines a dual cell decomposition, which is not typically a triangulation, but has k -cells in bijective correspondence with the $(n-k)$ -simplices of the triangulation. More specifically, a k -cell in the dual decomposition can only intersect an m -simplex of the original triangulation if $k+m \geq n$, and it intersects a unique $(n-k)$ -simplex of the triangulation at a single point lying in the interior of both (see Lecture 53 from last semester, especially Figure 44). This correspondence between $(n-k)$ -simplices and k -cells gives rise to an explicit isomorphism of chain complexes

$$(79.4) \quad C_{\text{CW}}^*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{\cong} C_{n-*}^\Delta(M; \mathbb{Z}),$$

in which the original triangulation is used on the right hand side and the dual cell decomposition on the left, and this isomorphism descends to cohomology/homology as the Poincaré duality map $H_{\text{CW}}^*(M; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_{n-*}(M; \mathbb{Z})$.

In the situation at hand, transversality and the implicit function theorem make the zero-set $s^{-1}(0) \subset M$ a closed oriented submanifold of dimension $n-k$, and we can choose an oriented triangulation of M that contains in its $(n-k)$ -skeleton an oriented triangulation of the submanifold $s^{-1}(0)$. Every point in $s^{-1}(0)$ thus belongs to a p -simplex of the triangulation for some $p \leq n-k$, and therefore also lies in a q -cell of the dual decomposition for some $q \geq n-p \geq k$, implying that s is nowhere zero on the $(k-1)$ -skeleton of the dual decomposition. Moreover, the homology class $[s^{-1}(0)] \in H_{n-k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ is represented in the oriented simplicial homology of the triangulation by a sum of the $(n-k)$ -simplices that triangulate $s^{-1}(0)$, which corresponds under (79.4) to a sum of all the dual k -cells that intersect $s^{-1}(0)$. Think about this picture long enough to feel intuitively convinced that the preimage under (79.4) of this particular simplicial $(n-k)$ -cycle is a cellular k -cocycle representing $e(E)$.

Remark: More modern (and less handwavy) proofs of the formula $\text{PD}(e(E)) = [s^{-1}(0)]$ typically express $e(E)$ in terms of the Thom class $\tau \in H^k(E, E \setminus M; \mathbb{Z})$, which gives an equivalent way of defining it—the Thom class also plays a key role in the intersection-theoretic interpretation of Poincaré duality.

EXERCISE 79.3. Assume G is a topological group and $H \subset G$ is a subgroup such that the inclusion $H \hookrightarrow G$ is a weak homotopy equivalence and the quotient projection $G \rightarrow G/H$ is a fiber bundle (cf. Exercise 78.1). We saw in Exercise 78.2 that in this situation, every G -bundle over a CW-complex X admits a reduction of its structure group to H . Show that every principal G -bundle $P^G \rightarrow X$ must then contain an H -invariant subset $P^H \subset P^G$ that is a principal H -bundle over X , and that the inclusion

$$P^H \hookrightarrow P^G$$

is a weak homotopy equivalence. Deduce from this that any classifying space BG for G is also a classifying space for H .

Hint: The bundles can be trivialized along any map $(\mathbb{D}^n, S^{n-1}) \rightarrow (P^G, P^H)$.

80. Chern, Stiefel-Whitney and Pontryagin

In this lecture we expand the list of characteristic classes to include all of the Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes for vector bundles of arbitrary rank, and then also define the Pontryagin classes, which played an important role in the existence proof for exotic spheres sketched in Lecture 58.

CONVENTION. All bases of bundles in this lecture are CW-complexes, and there is therefore no need to specify what cohomology theory is being used, beyond its coefficient group. We will drop the subscript “CW” and denote the cohomology groups that arise the same as in singular homology, e.g. $H^*(X; G)$.

80.1. Grassmann and Stiefel manifolds. Let us construct some more examples of classifying spaces.

For $n \geq k \geq 0$ we define the **Grassmann manifold**

$$\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) := \{k\text{-dimensional subspaces } V \subset \mathbb{R}^n\},$$

which has a **tautological vector bundle**

$$E^{k,n,\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n), \quad E_V^{k,n,\mathbb{R}} := V;$$

more formally, $E^{k,n,\mathbb{R}} := \{(V, v) \in \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \times \mathbb{R}^n \mid v \in V\}$, which makes $E^{k,n,\mathbb{R}}$ a linear subbundle of the trivial vector bundle $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Its frame bundle is a principal $\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R})$ -bundle $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ called the **Stiefel manifold**, and can be described explicitly as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) &:= \{\text{linearly-independent } k\text{-tuples of vectors in } \mathbb{R}^n\} \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \\ &\quad (v_1, \dots, v_k) \mapsto \mathrm{Span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 80.1. $\mathrm{Gr}_1(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}) = \mathbb{RP}^n$, and $\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}) = \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$.

LEMMA 80.2. For any fixed $m, k \geq 0$, $\pi_m(\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)) = 0$ for all n sufficiently large.

PROOF. It is clearly true for $k = 1$ since $\mathrm{St}_1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is homotopy equivalent to S^{n-1} . One can then prove the rest inductively because for each $k \geq 2$, there is a fiber bundle

$$\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathrm{St}_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n) : (v_1, \dots, v_k) \mapsto (v_1, \dots, v_{k-1})$$

with fibers homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbb{R}^{k-1} \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} (\mathbb{R}^{k-1})^\perp \setminus \{0\} \cong \mathbb{R}^{n-k+1} \setminus \{0\} \underset{h.e.}{\simeq} S^{n-k}$. Whenever $n - k > m$, the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for this fibration gives an isomorphism

$$\pi_m(\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_m(\mathrm{St}_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n)).$$

□

EXAMPLE 80.3. Taking the colimit of the bundles $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives a universal principal $\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R})$ -bundle

$$E \mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R}) := \mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty) =: B \mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R}).$$

The associated bundle with fiber $\mathbb{R}^k$ is then called the **universal k -plane bundle**

$$E^{k,\infty,\mathbb{R}} \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty),$$

and has the property that every real k -plane bundle (i.e. vector bundle of rank k) over a CW-complex X is isomorphic to $f^* E^{k,\infty,\mathbb{R}}$ for a unique homotopy class of maps $f : X \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$.

Specifying this to $k = 1$, we have

$$B \mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{RP}^\infty,$$

which matches $B\mathbb{Z}_2$, observed in Example 79.15. This is not a coincidence; see Exercise 79.3.

EXAMPLE 80.4. The entire discussion above also works if $\mathbb{R}$ is everywhere replaced by $\mathbb{C}$, thus giving a universal principal $\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{C})$ -bundle

$$E\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{C}) := \mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty) =: B\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{C})$$

and a universal complex k -plane bundle

$$E^{k, \infty, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty),$$

of which all complex vector bundles of rank k over CW-complexes are pullbacks. Since $\mathrm{Gr}_1(\mathbb{C}^{n+1}) = \mathbb{CP}^n$, taking $k = 1$ gives

$$B\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{C}) = BS^1 = \mathbb{CP}^\infty.$$

EXAMPLE 80.5. $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ has a double cover $\mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^n)$ whose elements are *oriented* k -dimensional subspaces, and since linearly-independent ordered k -tuples determine orientations, we have principal $\mathrm{GL}_+(k, \mathbb{R})$ -bundles $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^n)$, which in the colimit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ give

$$E\mathrm{GL}_+(k, \mathbb{R}) := \mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty) =: B\mathrm{GL}_+(k, \mathbb{R}).$$

EXAMPLE 80.6. Restricting to *orthogonal* k -tuples defines submanifolds of $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{C}^n)$ that are naturally principal bundles over $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ or $\mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{C}^n)$ with structure group $\mathrm{O}(k)$ or $\mathrm{U}(k)$ respectively, and the orthogonal version of $\mathrm{St}_k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is also a principal $\mathrm{SO}(k)$ -bundle over $\mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^n)$. The same arguments as above show that these Stiefel manifolds become weakly contractible in the colimit as $n \rightarrow \infty$, thus

$$\begin{aligned} B\mathrm{O}(k) &= B\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R}) = \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{R}^\infty), \\ B\mathrm{SO}(k) &= B\mathrm{GL}_+(k, \mathbb{R}) = \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty), \\ B\mathrm{U}(k) &= B\mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{C}) = \mathrm{Gr}_k(\mathbb{C}^\infty). \end{aligned}$$

The fact that the inclusions $\mathrm{O}(k) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{R})$, $\mathrm{SO}(k) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}_+(k, \mathbb{R})$ and $\mathrm{U}(k) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{GL}(k, \mathbb{C})$ produce classifying spaces that coincide should not seem surprising: it follows from Exercise 79.3, since by polar decomposition, all three inclusions are homotopy equivalences.

Having identified the classifying spaces $B\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{RP}^\infty$ and $B\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, whose tautological line bundles $E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{R}} \rightarrow \mathbb{RP}^\infty$ and $E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ play the role of universal vector bundles, the first Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes for arbitrary line bundles over CW-complexes are now completely determined by two specific cohomology classes,

$$w_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{R}}) \in H^1(\mathbb{RP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}_2) \quad \text{and} \quad c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}}) \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}).$$

PROPOSITION 80.7. *The class $w_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{R}})$ is the unique nonzero element in $H^1(\mathbb{RP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and $c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}}) \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ is uniquely determined by the condition*

$$\langle c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}}), [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = -1,$$

where $[\mathbb{CP}^1] \in H_2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ denotes the generator represented by the unique 2-cell in the usual cell decomposition of $\mathbb{CP}^\infty = e^0 \cup e^2 \cup e^4 \cup \dots$.

PROOF. If $w_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{R}})$ were zero, it would follow via naturality that all first Stiefel-Whitney classes of line bundles over CW-complexes vanish, implying in light of Theorem 79.7 that those bundles are always trivial, which is not true. For the complex analogue, we note that since the cohomology of $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ in degree 2 is simply that of its 2-skeleton $\mathbb{CP}^1 \subset \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, it suffices to prove that for the tautological line bundle $E^{1, 2, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$, $\langle c_1(E^{1, 2, \mathbb{C}}), [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = -1$. This follows from Theorem 79.4(5), because $E^{1, 2, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$ admits a section for which the signed count of zeroes is -1 ; see Exercise 80.1. $\square$

THEOREM 80.8. *Two complex line bundles L, L' over the same CW-complex X are isomorphic if and only if $c_1(L) = c_1(L')$. The same also holds for real line bundles, with c_1 replaced by w_1 .*

We shall prove only the complex case of Theorem 80.8, because the real case follows by closely analogous arguments. In fact, there is some pedagogical value in giving two proofs of the complex case: the first is relatively down-to-earth, while the second is based on a combination of big classification results.

FIRST PROOF OF THEOREM 80.8, COMPLEX CASE. A complex vector bundle isomorphism $\Phi : L \rightarrow L'$ between line bundles is the same thing as a nowhere-zero section of the complex line bundle $\text{Hom}(L, L')$ whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the vector space of complex-linear maps $L_x \rightarrow L'_x$. Such a section will exist if and only if $\text{Hom}(L, L')$ is a trivial bundle, which, according to Theorem 79.6, holds if and only if $c_1(\text{Hom}(L, L')) = 0$. To compute $c_1(\text{Hom}(L, L'))$, we observe that there is a natural vector bundle isomorphism

$$\text{Hom}(L, L') \cong L^* \otimes L',$$

where L^* denotes the dual bundle of L , whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the space of complex-linear maps $L_x \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Moreover, there is an obvious bundle isomorphism of $L^* \otimes L$ to the trivial complex line bundle, defined on each fiber as the map $L_x^* \otimes L_x \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : \lambda \otimes v \mapsto \lambda(v)$. The trivial bundle has vanishing first Chern class, so using the tensor product formula in Theorem 79.6, we obtain the relation

$$c_1(L^*) + c_1(L) = 0,$$

and then conclude

$$c_1(\text{Hom}(L, L')) = c_1(L^* \otimes L') = c_1(L^*) + c_1(L') = -c_1(L) + c_1(L').$$

The latter vanishes if and only if $c_1(L) = c_1(L')$. □

SECOND PROOF OF THEOREM 80.8, COMPLEX CASE. Since $B\text{GL}(1, \mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, the two line bundles $L, L' \rightarrow X$ are both pullbacks of the tautological line bundle $E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ via maps $f, g : X \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, and they are isomorphic if and only if $f \sim_h g$. As it happens, $\mathbb{CP}^\infty$ is also a $K(\mathbb{Z}, 2)$, so we have a bijection $[X, \mathbb{CP}^\infty] \cong H^2(X; \mathbb{Z})$, which can be written explicitly as the map

$$[X, \mathbb{CP}^\infty] \rightarrow H^2(X; \mathbb{Z}) : [h] \mapsto h^* \iota_2$$

for a distinguished class $\iota_2 \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z})$ that corresponds to the homotopy class of the identity map $\mathbb{CP}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$. All other classes in $H^2(\mathbb{CP}^\infty; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ are necessarily pullbacks of ι_2 via maps $\mathbb{CP}^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, and it must therefore be primitive, implying $\iota_2 = \pm c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}})$, thus

$$L \cong L' \iff f \sim_h g \iff c_1(L) = f^* c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}}) = \pm f^* \iota_2 = \pm g^* \iota_2 = g^* c_1(E^{1, \infty, \mathbb{C}}) = c_1(L').$$

□

80.2. The Leray-Hirsch theorem. Before we can define the higher Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes, we need a tool for computing the cohomologies of certain fiber bundles. We will consider cohomology with coefficients in a commutative ring R with unit, so that the cohomology groups are naturally R -modules, and the cup product defines R -module homomorphisms

$$H^k(X; R) \otimes H^\ell(X; R) \xrightarrow{\cup} H^{k+\ell}(X; R),$$

with the symbol “ $\otimes$ ” understood to mean the tensor product of R -modules. In the cases of interest, R will always be either $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2$, so that R -modules are either abelian groups or vector spaces over $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

Suppose $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is a fiber bundle over a CW-complex X , with a standard fiber F that is a compact CW-complex. Decomposing X into its constituent cells $e_\alpha^n \subset X$, on which the bundle can be trivialized, one can assemble $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ out of local pieces that look like product bundles

$$\mathbb{D}^n \times F \xrightarrow{\text{pr}_1} \mathbb{D}^n, \quad n \geq 0.$$

Let us therefore assume to start with that $E = \mathbb{D}^n \times F$, $X = \mathbb{D}^n$ and $\pi = \text{pr}_1$. The cross product gives a homomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded R -modules

$$H^*(X; R) \otimes H^*(F; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H^*(X \times F; R),$$

which can also be expressed in terms of the cup product as

$$(80.1) \quad \varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto \varphi \times \psi = \pi^* \varphi \cup \text{pr}_2^* \psi.$$

Under some extra conditions, the Künneth formula will tell us that this is an R -module isomorphism; note that the Künneth formula is usually stated for homology rather than cohomology, because the chain complexes need to be free, and singular cochain groups are *not* free due to the fact that duals of direct sums are generally direct products instead of direct sums. However, if we use cellular cohomology and assume both chain complexes are finitely generated R -modules (e.g. because X and F are both compact), then the cochain groups are also finitely-generated free R -modules, and the cellular cross product of cochains

$$C_{\text{CW}}^*(X; R) \otimes C_{\text{CW}}^*(F; R) \xrightarrow{\times} C_{\text{CW}}^*(X \times F; R)$$

becomes (obviously) an isomorphism. Adding the extra assumption that the cohomology $H^*(F; R)$ is a free R -module, the Tor terms then vanish in the algebraic Künneth formula, implying that (80.1) is an isomorphism. The Leray-Hirsch theorem extends this conclusion to more general fiber bundles $\pi : E \rightarrow X$, but one needs a different way of writing (80.1), since there is generally no second projection map $\text{pr}_2 : E \rightarrow F$. Some useful inspiration comes from the observation that in the setting of the product bundle, writing $i_x : E_x \hookrightarrow E$ for the inclusion of the fiber over each point $x \in X$, the composition

$$E_x \xrightarrow{i_x} E \xrightarrow{\text{pr}_2} F$$

$\cong$

is a homeomorphism, implying that the composition

$$H^*(F; R) \xrightarrow{\text{pr}_2^*} H^*(E; R) \xrightarrow{i_x^*} H^*(E_x; R)$$

$\cong$

is an isomorphism. It follows in particular that pr_2^* maps the finitely-generated free R -module $H^*(F; R)$ isomorphically onto a finitely-generated free submodule

$$V := \text{im}(\text{pr}_2^*) \subset H^*(E; R),$$

on which i_x^* restricts to an isomorphism

$$H^*(E; R) \supset V \xrightarrow[i_x^*]{\cong} H^*(E_x; R) \quad \text{for every } x \in X.$$

In terms of V , the cross product map (80.1) is now equivalent to

$$H^*(X; R) \otimes V \rightarrow H^*(E; R) : \varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto \pi^* \varphi \cup \psi.$$

The right approach for the general case is to add the hypothesis that such a submodule V is given, and one obtains:

THEOREM 80.9 (Leray-Hirsch). *Assume R is a commutative ring with unit, $\pi : E \rightarrow X$ is a fiber bundle over a CW-complex X , and $V \subset H^*(E; R)$ is a finitely-generated free submodule over R such that for every $x \in X$, the map $H^*(E; R) \rightarrow H^*(E_x; R)$ induced by the inclusion $E_x \hookrightarrow E$ restricts to an isomorphism*

$$H^*(E; R) \supset V \xrightarrow{\cong} H^*(E_x; R).$$

Then the map

$$H^*(X; R) \otimes V \rightarrow H^*(E; R) : \varphi \otimes \psi \mapsto \pi^* \varphi \cup \psi$$

is also an R -module isomorphism.

To put the conclusion of Theorem 80.9 a bit differently, any finite set of classes in $H^*(E; R)$ that pull back to a basis of every $H^*(E_x; R)$ as a module over R also form a basis of $H^*(E; R)$ as a module over $H^*(X; R)$.

REMARK 80.10. When a fiber bundle $E \rightarrow X$ satisfies the Leray-Hirsch theorem, one obtains an isomorphism

$$H^*(E; R) \cong H^*(X; R) \otimes H^*(E_x; R)$$

for every $x \in X$, just as in the nicest cases of the Künneth formula for products. One should be aware, however, that there exist fiber bundles for which no such isomorphism exists, because the hypothesis requiring a finitely-generated free submodule $V \subset H^*(E; R)$ isomorphic to each $H^*(E_x; R)$ is not satisfied. See Exercise 80.6.

REMARK 80.11. The cohomological version of the Künneth formula described above is true (but harder to prove) under somewhat weaker assumptions that do not require F to be a compact cell complex, and for that reason, I stated the Leray-Hirsch theorem here without such an assumption, though that assumption would hold in any case for the applications we need. Since singular cohomology is an invariant of weak homotopy type, one can also use CW-approximation to remove the assumption that X is a CW-complex.

At this point in the semester, some proofs of important theorems must be omitted due to lack of time, and this is one of them; complete proofs of the Leray-Hirsch theorem can be found in [Hat02, §4.D] or [tD08, §17.8]. Here is a very quick summary: the proof is by induction over the skeleta of X , using a relative version of the cohomological Künneth formula to extend the validity of the result from the $(n-1)$ -skeleton to each n -cell.

80.3. Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes. The next theorem serves as an axiomatic characterization of the Chern classes c_k for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, while simultaneously extending the definition of c_1 to bundles of higher rank.

THEOREM 80.12. *For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist unique characteristic classes $c_k(E) \in H^{2k}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ for complex vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ of arbitrary rank over CW-complexes, such that the following conditions hold:*

- (1) $c_1(E)$ matches Definition 79.5 in the case $\text{rank}(E) = 1$;
- (2) $c_k(E) = 0$ whenever $k > \text{rank}(E)$;
- (3) *The total Chern class*

$$c(E) := 1 + c_1(E) + c_2(E) + \dots \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$$

satisfies the Whitney sum formula

$$c(E \oplus F) = c(E) \cup c(F)$$

for every pair of complex vector bundles E, F over the same base.

REMARK 80.13. The second condition in Theorem 80.12 ensures that the sum in the definition of the total Chern class $c(E) \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ is always finite.

Extracting from the Whitney sum formula every term that lives specifically in degree 2, we obtain:

COROLLARY 80.14. *The first Chern class is additive with respect to direct sums of vector bundles,*

$$c_1(E \oplus F) = c_1(E) + c_1(F).$$

□

PROOF OF THEOREM 80.12. The uniqueness of the Chern classes would be clear by induction on the rank if every vector bundle E of rank $n \geq 2$ contained a linear subbundle $F \subset E$ of strictly lower rank; one could then form a quotient vector bundle E/F with fibers E_x/F_x , and choose a bundle metric (which can always be done according to Exercise 78.2) in order to identify E/F with the orthogonal complement of F in E , giving rise to a splitting

$$E \cong F \oplus (E/F).$$

Unfortunately, not every vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ can be split in this way, but the following shows that it always has useful pullbacks that can. We consider the **projectivization** of E , a fiber bundle

$$\mathbb{P}(E) \xrightarrow{\pi} X$$

whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the space $\mathbb{P}(E_x) \cong \mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$ of complex 1-dimensional subspaces of E_x . For each $x \in X$ and $\ell \in \mathbb{P}(E_x)$, the pullback vector bundle $\pi^*E \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(E)$ has fiber $(\pi^*E)_\ell = E_x$ containing $\ell \subset E_x$ as a distinguished 1-dimensional subspace, thus defining a complex line bundle $L \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(E)$ that is also a linear subbundle of π^*E , and thus gives rise to a splitting

$$\pi^*E \cong L \oplus (\pi^*E/L).$$

Inductively, if the Chern classes have already been defined on bundles up to rank $n-1$, then this splitting determines $c(\pi^*E)$ uniquely, and we claim that in fact $c(E)$ is also uniquely determined by $c(\pi^*E)$.

Indeed, the fibers $\mathbb{P}(E_x) \cong \mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$ of $\pi : \mathbb{P}(E) \rightarrow X$ are compact cell complexes, and the restriction of the line bundle $L \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(E)$ to $\mathbb{P}(E_x)$ for each $x \in X$ is equivalent to the tautological line bundle $E^{1,n,\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$. Writing $i_x : \mathbb{P}(E_x) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{P}(E)$ for the inclusion, the naturality of the first Chern class on line bundles implies $i_x^*c_1(L) = c_1(i_x^*L)$, and since i_x^*L is isomorphic to the pullback of the tautological line bundle $E^{1,\infty,\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$ via the inclusion $\mathbb{P}(E_x) \cong \mathbb{CP}^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{CP}^\infty$, Proposition 80.7 implies that $c_1(i_x^*L)$ generates $H^2(\mathbb{P}(E_x); \mathbb{Z}) \cong H^2(\mathbb{CP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Using the computation of the cohomology ring of $\mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$, we deduce that the classes

$$1, c_1(L), c_1(L)^2, \dots, c_1(L)^{n-1} \in H^*(\mathbb{P}(E); \mathbb{Z}),$$

defined via the cup product, pull back to each fiber $\mathbb{P}(E_x) \cong \mathbb{CP}^{n-1}$ as a basis for the free abelian group $H^*(\mathbb{P}(E_x); \mathbb{Z})$. The Leray-Hirsch theorem thus implies that

$$\underbrace{H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \oplus \dots \oplus H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})}_n \rightarrow H^*(\mathbb{P}(E); \mathbb{Z}) : (\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_{n-1}) \mapsto \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \pi^* \varphi_k \cup c_1(L)^k$$

is an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded abelian groups. In particular, it follows that $\pi^* : H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^*(\mathbb{P}(E); \mathbb{Z})$ is injective, so $c(E)$ is determined by $\pi^*c(E) = c(\pi^*E)$, which completes the proof of uniqueness for the Chern classes.

To show that classes $c_k(E)$ with the required properties actually exist independently of choices, one can apply the Leray-Hirsch theorem to the specific class $c_1(L)^n \in H^{2n}(\mathbb{P}(E); \mathbb{Z})$: the theorem

makes this class uniquely representable as a sum for $k = 0, \dots, n-1$ of cup products of the classes $c_1(L)^k \in H^{2k}(\mathbb{P}(E); \mathbb{Z})$ with pullbacks of specific classes in $H^{2(n-k)}(X; \mathbb{Z})$. It turns out that we get the right result by defining $c_{n-k}(E)$ to be (up to a sign) the coefficients in that expression, i.e. we write $c_0(E) := 1 \in H^0(X; \mathbb{Z})$ and define $c_k(E) \in H^{2k}(X; \mathbb{Z})$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$ as the unique classes for which the relation

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \pi^* c_{n-k}(E) \cup c_1(L)^k = 0$$

holds. The rest of the proof is to verify that naturality and the formula $c(E \oplus F) = c(E) \cup c(F)$ now hold in general; we leave this as an exercise. $\square$

If I had to name one specific reason why Theorem 80.12 is true, it would be the computation of $H^*(\mathbb{CP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z})$: the Chern classes have the structure that they have mainly because that one particular cohomology ring has the structure that it has. Now, you may recall that the ring $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ happens to have a closely analogous structure, just with a generator in degree 1 instead of degree 2, and $\mathbb{Z}_2$ appearing everywhere in place of $\mathbb{Z}$. Perhaps you can now guess what comes next: we can do the same thing with real vector bundles and real projectivizations to define a sequence of Stiefel-Whitney classes, with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients. Here, the Leray-Hirsch theorem is applicable with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_2$, because $w_1(E^{1,n,\mathbb{R}}) \in H^1(\mathbb{RP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ and its powers from 0 to $n-1$ form a basis of $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ as a vector space over $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

THEOREM 80.15. *For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist unique characteristic classes $w_k(E) \in H^k(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ for real vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ of arbitrary rank over CW-complexes, such that the following conditions hold:*

- (1) $w_1(E)$ matches (79.1) in the case $\text{rank}(E) = 1$;
- (2) $w_k(E) = 0$ whenever $k > \text{rank}(E)$;
- (3) **The total Stiefel-Whitney class**

$$w(E) := 1 + w_1(E) + w_2(E) + \dots \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

satisfies the **Whitney sum formula**

$$w(E \oplus F) = w(E) \cup w(F)$$

for every pair of real vector bundles E, F over the same base.

$\square$

80.4. The splitting principle. The projectivization trick in the proof of Theorem 80.12 reveals a general fact about vector bundles that is extremely useful both for computations and for establishing basic properties of the Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes.

LEMMA 80.16 (splitting principle). *Given any (real or complex) vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of rank $n \geq 1$ over a CW-complex X , there exists another CW-complex Y and a map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ with the following properties:*

- (1) *The pullback bundle $f^*E \rightarrow Y$ is isomorphic to a direct sum of n line bundles over Y ;*
- (2) *The induced homomorphism*

$$H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^*(Y; \mathbb{Z}_2) \quad \text{in the real case,}$$

$$H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \xrightarrow{f^*} H^*(Y; \mathbb{Z}) \quad \text{in the complex case}$$

is injective.

PROOF. Apply the projectivization trick $n-1$ times, deducing injectivity each time from the Leray-Hirsch theorem. $\square$

The splitting principle makes it possible to pretend for most purposes involving Chern or Stiefel-Whitney classes that all vector bundles are direct sums of line bundles. Here is a first illustration; several others will appear in Exercise 80.3.

PROPOSITION 80.17. *For a complex vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ and its dual bundle $E^* \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex X ,*

$$c_k(E^*) = (-1)^k c_k(E) \quad \text{for each } k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

PROOF. The formula is true in the case $\text{rank}(E) = 1$ since $c_1(E)$ is then the only nonvanishing Chern class and $E^* \otimes E$ is a trivial line bundle, so that the tensor product formula in Theorem 79.6 gives $c_1(E^*) + c_1(E) = 0$. For a bundle E of arbitrary rank $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can use the splitting principle to choose a map $f : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $f^* : H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^*(Y; \mathbb{Z})$ is injective and $f^*E \cong L_1 \oplus \dots \oplus L_n$ for line bundles $L_j \rightarrow Y$. The dual bundle then satisfies $f^*E^* \cong L_1^* \oplus \dots \oplus L_n^*$, and combining the rank 1 case with the Whitney sum formula gives

$$\begin{aligned} f^*c(E) &= c(L_1 \oplus \dots \oplus L_n) = c(L_1) \cup \dots \cup c(L_n) = (1 + c_1(L_1)) \cup \dots \cup (1 + c_1(L_n)), \\ f^*c(E^*) &= c(L_1^* \oplus \dots \oplus L_n^*) = c(L_1^*) \cup \dots \cup c(L_n^*) = (1 - c_1(L_1)) \cup \dots \cup (1 - c_1(L_n)). \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the degree $2k$ parts of both expressions gives $f^*c_k(E^*) = (-1)^k f^*c_k(E)$, and since f^* is injective, the result follows. $\square$

80.5. Pontryagin classes. One more sequence of characteristic classes for real vector bundles needs to be introduced, and its definition is built on top of the Chern classes.

DEFINITION 80.18. The **complexification** of a real n -dimensional vector space V is the complex n -dimensional vector space $V^{\mathbb{C}}$ defined as the real $2n$ -dimensional vector space $V^{\mathbb{C}} := V \oplus V$ endowed with the unique complex structure such that scalar multiplication by i satisfies

$$i(v, 0) := (0, v), \quad i(0, v) := (-v, 0) \quad \text{for all } v \in V.$$

Equivalently, one can define $V^{\mathbb{C}}$ as the real tensor product $V \otimes \mathbb{C}$ (regarding $\mathbb{C}$ as a real 2-dimensional vector space), and define its complex structure by $i(v \otimes z) := v \otimes (iz)$.

Complexification defines a covariant functor $\mathbb{R}\text{-Vect} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\text{-Vect}$, and therefore also determines an operation turning any real vector bundle $E \rightarrow B$ of rank n into a complex vector bundle

$$E^{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow B$$

of rank n , whose fibers $E_x^{\mathbb{C}}$ are the complexifications of the fibers E_x for $x \in B$.

DEFINITION 80.19. For a real vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, the k th **Pontryagin class** of E is

$$p_k(E) := (-1)^k c_{2k}(E^{\mathbb{C}}) \in H^{4k}(X; \mathbb{Z}).$$

Putting all Pontryagin classes together in a series produces the **total Pontryagin class**

$$p(E) := 1 + p_1(E) + p_2(E) + \dots \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

which is always a finite sum since only finitely many of the Chern classes can be nonzero.

REMARK 80.20. The sign in the definition $p_k(E) = (-1)^k c_{2k}(E^{\mathbb{C}})$ is a prevalent convention but not quite universal, e.g. the classic book [MS74] uses it, but [BT82] does not, though Bott and Tu are very good about including remarks to point out what differs as a result of not including the sign. Its main benefit is that it prevents some other annoying signs from appearing in certain computations.

REMARK 80.21. When we defined Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes, the procedure in both cases was to give a direct definition of the first class on line bundles, and then impose the Whitney sum formula as an axiom that determines the rest. Our definition of the Pontryagin classes does not follow this scheme, so one should not expect that they have completely analogous properties: we see below for instance that the Pontryagin classes of a line bundle are always trivial, and the Whitney sum formula is only conditionally satisfied. The main properties of Pontryagin classes are deduced directly from the properties we have already established for the Chern classes, and this is also the way that many computations of $p_k(E)$ are carried out.

You may be wondering why Definition 80.19 skips over the odd Chern classes and uses only the even ones. Here is the main reason:

PROPOSITION 80.22. *The classes $c_{2k+1}(E^{\mathbb{C}}) \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$ are 2-torsion for all real vector bundles E .*

PROOF. All real vector bundles E are isomorphic to their dual bundles E^* , because any choice of bundle metric gives rise to an explicit isomorphism $E \rightarrow E^* : v \mapsto \langle v, \cdot \rangle$. Complex vector bundles do not typically have this property, but since complexification is functorial, it follows that all complexifications of real vector bundles do, and Proposition 80.17 thus implies $c_{2k+1}(E^{\mathbb{C}}) = -c_{2k+1}(E^{\mathbb{C}})$. $\square$

As 2-torsion elements, the odd Chern classes of a complexified bundle $E^{\mathbb{C}}$ carry less useful information about E than the even Chern classes. In particular, they disappear completely if one works in $H^*(X; \mathbb{Q})$ instead of $H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$, which is often advisable in applications, for reasons mentioned in Remark 80.26 below.

REMARK 80.23. We will not need to use this, but it is possible in fact to express $c_{2k+1}(E^{\mathbb{C}})$ in terms of Stiefel-Whitney classes of E , so these classes give nothing new—see e.g. [Hat, §3.2].

THEOREM 80.24. *The Pontryagin classes have the following properties:*

- (1) $p_k(E) = 0$ whenever $2k > \text{rank}(E)$.
- (2) *The Whitney sum formula holds modulo 2-torsion elements:*

$$p(E \oplus F) = p(E) \cup p(F) \quad \text{mod 2-torsion in } H^*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z}),$$

meaning more precisely that the formula $2p(E \oplus F) = 2p(E) \cup p(F)$ is always true. For the images of the Pontryagin classes under the natural transformation $H^(\cdot; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^*(\cdot; \mathbb{Q})$ induced by the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, it follows that the usual version of the formula also holds,*

$$p(E \oplus F) = p(E) \cup p(F) \quad \text{in } H^*(\cdot; \mathbb{Q}).$$

PROOF. Both statements follow directly from the analogous properties of Chern classes. In particular, the Whitney sum formula (mod 2) follows from $c(E^{\mathbb{C}} \oplus F^{\mathbb{C}}) = c(E^{\mathbb{C}}) \cup c(F^{\mathbb{C}})$ if one pays careful attention to the signs and uses the fact that all terms containing odd Chern classes are 2-torsion. $\square$

REMARK 80.25. It follows from the first property in Theorem 80.24 that all Pontryagin classes of a real line bundle are trivial. This is sensible, since we already know that real line bundles are completely classified by the first Stiefel-Whitney class.

REMARK 80.26. The Whitney sum formula is a good reason to work with rational instead of integer coefficients in applications of the Pontryagin classes, though we will also see cases in which the sum formula holds over $\mathbb{Z}$ for other reasons.

REMARK 80.27. A word of caution: The splitting principle (Lemma 80.16) is a good tool for understanding Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes of higher-rank bundles, but it does not generally work for Pontryagin classes. Indeed, if it did, then one would conclude from the fact that Pontryagin classes vanish on line bundles and the Whitney sum formula that all Pontryagin classes are 2-torsion, but this is not true. The reason it doesn't work is that in the real case of Lemma 80.16, the Leray-Hirsch theorem is applicable with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients due to the straightforward structure of the cohomology ring $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^{n-1}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, but it is not applicable with $\mathbb{Z}$ or $\mathbb{Q}$ coefficients.

The splitting principle *does* frequently get applied in computations of Pontryagin classes: one applies it namely for computing the underlying Chern classes, which determine the Pontryagin classes.

80.6. Exercises.

EXERCISE 80.1 (*). Let $L := E^{1,2;\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$ denote the tautological line bundle, which is naturally a subbundle of the trivial bundle $\mathbb{CP}^1 \times \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$ since elements of $\mathbb{CP}^1$ are subspaces of $\mathbb{C}^2$; explicitly,

$$L = \{(\ell, v) \in \mathbb{CP}^1 \times \mathbb{C}^2 \mid v \in \ell\}.$$

The goal of this exercise is to prove the formula

$$\langle c_1(L), [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = -1.$$

As a complex 1-manifold, $\mathbb{CP}^1$ can be covered by coordinate charts that are related holomorphically: the standard construction denotes elements of $\mathbb{CP}^1$ by $[z_0 : z_1]$ (the equivalence class of $(z_0, z_1) \in \mathbb{C}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ in its quotient by the action of $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$), and covers $\mathbb{CP}^1$ with two open subsets

$$\mathcal{U}_0 := \{[z_0 : z_1] \in \mathbb{CP}^1 \mid z_0 \neq 0\}, \quad \mathcal{U}_1 := \{[z_0 : z_1] \in \mathbb{CP}^1 \mid z_1 \neq 0\}$$

on which the maps

$$\mathcal{U}_0 \xrightarrow{\varphi_0} \mathbb{C} : [z_0 : z_1] \mapsto z_1/z_0, \quad \mathcal{U}_1 \xrightarrow{\varphi_1} \mathbb{C} : [z_0 : z_1] \mapsto z_0/z_1,$$

are homeomorphisms. On the same two open subsets, define local trivializations $L|_{\mathcal{U}_0} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_0 \times \mathbb{C}$ and $L|_{\mathcal{U}_1} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_1 \times \mathbb{C}$ that are related by a holomorphic transition function $g_{10} : \mathcal{U}_0 \cap \mathcal{U}_1 \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^*$. (This shows that $L \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$ is not only a *complex* but also a *holomorphic* vector bundle, a notion that only makes sense when the base is a complex manifold.) Then write down an explicit section $s \in \Gamma(L)$ that equals zero at exactly one point, and show that this point contributes -1 to the signed count of zeroes. The sign should be consistent with the convention that for complex-valued functions $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, regarded as sections of a trivial line bundle over $\mathbb{C}$, the zero at 0 of the section $f(z) = z^k$ for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$ contributes k , while $f(z) = \bar{z}^k$ contributes $-k$. (In general, the recipe is to examine the map $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ obtained by normalizing the function along a small circle surrounding the isolated zero—one then measures which multiple of the canonical generator of $\pi_1(S^1)$ this map represents. For sections of an oriented real vector bundle over an oriented manifold, the contribution of each isolated zero is independent of choices of local chart and trivialization, so long as both respect the fixed orientations.)

EXERCISE 80.2 (*). For an integer $k \geq 0$, let ϵ^k denote the (real or complex) trivial vector bundle of rank k over any given base. A vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ is said to be **stably trivial** if $E \oplus \epsilon^k \cong \epsilon^n$ for some $k, n \geq 0$, and two vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ (not necessarily of the same rank) are called **stably isomorphic** if $E \oplus \epsilon^k \cong F \oplus \epsilon^\ell$ for some $k, \ell \geq 0$. You will easily convince yourself that this defines an equivalence relation.

- (a) Show that the Chern and Stiefel-Whitney classes depend only on the stable isomorphism classes of a complex or real vector bundle respectively, and they vanish whenever the bundle is stably trivial.

- (b) Deduce from the stable invariance of the Chern classes that the same holds for the Pontryagin classes as well.
- (c) Find some examples of real vector bundles (e.g. tangent bundles of familiar manifolds) that are nontrivial but stably trivial.
- (d) Show that the Euler class is *not* invariant under stable isomorphism of oriented vector bundles.
- (e) Show that every (real or complex) vector bundle E over a compact CW-complex X has a **stable inverse**, meaning a vector bundle E^{-1} with the property that $E \oplus E^{-1}$ is stably trivial, and moreover, E^{-1} is unique up to stable isomorphism.
Hint: Since X is compact, a map from X to any classifying space BG takes values in a finite-dimensional subcomplex. Can you solve the problem for the universal vector bundle over that subcomplex?
- (f) How are the Chern classes of a complex vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ and its stable inverse E^{-1} related? Compute them for the stable inverse of the tautological line bundle $E^{1,n+1,\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$.

EXERCISE 80.3 (*). Use the splitting principle to prove the following:

- (a) The formula $c_1(L \otimes L') = c_1(L) + c_1(L')$ for two complex line bundles $L, L' \rightarrow X$ generalizes to bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ of arbitrary ranks as

$$c_1(E \otimes F) = \text{rank}(F) c_1(E) + \text{rank}(E) c_1(F).$$

- (b) For a complex n -plane bundle E ,

$$c_n(E) = e(E) \in H^{2n}(X; \mathbb{Z}),$$

where on the right hand side, E is regarded as an oriented real $2n$ -plane bundle.

The following definition is needed for the rest of the exercise. The **determinant line bundle** $\det(E) \rightarrow X$ of a complex vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of any rank n can be defined by taking any atlas of local trivializations with $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ -valued transition data for E , and keeping the same transition data but replacing the fiber $\mathbb{C}^n$ by $\mathbb{C}$, with $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ acting linearly on $\mathbb{C}$ via the group homomorphism

$$\det : \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^* := \text{GL}(1, \mathbb{C}).$$

Here are two other equivalent definitions of $\det(E) \rightarrow X$ that are more obviously independent of choices: for the first, use the frame bundle $FE \rightarrow X$ to identify E isomorphically with the associated bundle $FE \times_{\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})} \mathbb{C}^n$, then set $\det(E) = FE \times_{\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})} \mathbb{C}$ using the $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ -action on $\mathbb{C}$ mentioned above. One gets an even more intrinsic definition by describing the fibers $\det(E_x) \cong \mathbb{C}$ of $\det(E) \rightarrow X$ as the top exterior powers $\Lambda^n(E_x)$ of the fibers of E . You can prove to yourself as a preliminary exercise that these three descriptions all define the same thing.

- (c) Show that for any two complex vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$, $\det(E \oplus F) \cong \det(E) \otimes \det(F)$.
- (d) Use the splitting principle to show that every complex vector bundle has the same first Chern class as its determinant line bundle.
- (e) Prove the real analogue of the result in part (d), involving the first Stiefel-Whitney class.

EXERCISE 80.4. For two complex vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ of the same rank $n \geq 1$ over a CW-complex, prove that the restrictions of E and F to the 2-skeleton are isomorphic if and only if $c_1(E) = c_1(F)$.

Remark: Recall that a compact connected surface Σ with $\partial\Sigma \neq \emptyset$ always admits a deformation retraction to its 1-skeleton, so it follows that all complex vector bundles over Σ are trivial, and so are complex vector bundles over S^1 . We also conclude that for Σ a closed, connected and orientable surface, the isomorphism classes of complex vector bundles $E \rightarrow \Sigma$ are in bijective correspondence

with the integers via $c_1(E) \in H^2(\Sigma; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Hint: Bundle isomorphisms $E \rightarrow F$ are the same thing as sections of a certain fiber bundle $\Theta \rightarrow X$ whose fiber at each point $x \in X$ is the space of invertible linear maps $E_x \rightarrow F_x$, thus its standard fiber can be taken to be $\mathrm{GL}(n, \mathbb{C})$, which admits a deformation retraction to $\mathrm{U}(n)$ by polar decomposition. You learned some things about $\pi_1(\mathrm{U}(n))$ in Exercise 68.6 that will be useful here. Another useful observation is that a section of $\mathrm{Hom}(E, F)$ induces a section of $\mathrm{Hom}(\det(E), \det(F))$ (see Exercise 80.3), which is nonzero at precisely the points where the given linear map $E_x \rightarrow F_x$ is invertible. Use this to show that bundle isomorphisms $E \rightarrow F$ always exist over the 1-skeleton, and then to determine when such isomorphisms can be extended over 2-cells.

EXERCISE 80.5. Prove the following properties of the first Stiefel-Whitney class on real vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ over CW-complexes:

- (a) $w_1(E) = 0$ if and only if E is orientable.

Hint: Use the real version of the determinant line bundle $\det(E) \rightarrow X$ introduced in Exercise 80.3.

- (b) Two real vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ of the same rank are isomorphic over the 1-skeleton if and only if $w_1(E) = w_1(F)$.

EXERCISE 80.6. The Leray-Hirsch theorem gives an isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ -graded abelian groups $H^*(E; \mathbb{Z}) \cong H^*(B; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H^*(F; \mathbb{Z})$ for fiber bundles $E \rightarrow B$ with standard fiber F if there exists a finitely-generated free subgroup of $H^*(E; \mathbb{Z})$ pulling back isomorphically to every fiber. Find an example of a fiber bundle in which the latter condition does not hold, and $H^*(E; \mathbb{Z})$ is not isomorphic to $H^*(B; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes H^*(F; \mathbb{Z})$.

EXERCISE 80.7 (*). Since $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is naturally an n -dimensional complex manifold, its tangent bundle $T\mathbb{CP}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ is a complex vector bundle of rank n . Let's compute its total Chern class. We shall make use of a black box that is explained in the appendix to this lecture (§80.7): writing $\ell := E^{1, n+1, \mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ for the tautological line bundle, the tangent bundle $T\mathbb{CP}^n$ is stably isomorphic to the rank $n+1$ bundle $(\ell^*)^{\oplus(n+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$, so according to Exercise 80.2, it has the same Chern classes as the latter. Let

$$x \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$$

denote the generator with $\langle x, [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = 1$, so that according to Proposition 80.7, $c_1(\ell) = -x$. Deduce from this the formula

$$\begin{aligned} c(T\mathbb{CP}^n) &= (1+x)^{n+1} \\ &= 1 + (n+1)x + \binom{n+1}{2}x^2 + \dots + \binom{n+1}{2}x^{n-1} + (n+1)x^n \in H^*(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z}) \end{aligned}$$

In particular, this characterizes $c_1(T\mathbb{CP}^n) \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ and $c_2(T\mathbb{CP}^n) \in H^4(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ by the relations

$$\langle c_1(T\mathbb{CP}^n), [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = n+1, \quad \langle c_2(T\mathbb{CP}^n), [\mathbb{CP}^2] \rangle = \binom{n+1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1),$$

the latter being valid only if $n \geq 2$, since $c_2(T\mathbb{CP}^1) = 0$.

EXERCISE 80.8 (*). We now extend the computation from Exercise 80.7 to a computation of the total Pontryagin class $p(T\mathbb{CP}^n)$, with $T\mathbb{CP}^n$ regarded as a real vector bundle of rank $2n$.

- (a) Any complex n -dimensional vector space V can be regarded as a real $2n$ -dimensional vector space by forgetting its complex structure, and this real vector space also has a complexification $V^{\mathbb{C}} := V \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C}$, which is a complex $2n$ -dimensional vector space on which scalar multiplication by $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ can be written as $\lambda(v \otimes z) := v \otimes (\lambda z)$. Choosing a

Hermitian inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on V , assumed to be complex-antilinear in the first variable and complex-linear in the second, show that the map

$$V^{\mathbb{C}} = V \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C} \rightarrow V \oplus V^* : v \otimes z \mapsto (zv, z\langle v, \cdot \rangle)$$

is then an isomorphism of complex vector spaces. Deduce from this that for any complex vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex, forgetting its complex structure and then defining the complexification $E^{\mathbb{C}}$ gives a complex vector bundle isomorphic to $E \oplus E^*$.

(b) Deduce from part (a) and Exercise 80.7 the formula

$$p(T\mathbb{CP}^n) = (1 + x^2)^{n+1} = 1 + (n+1)x^2 + \binom{n+1}{2}x^4 + \dots,$$

where $x \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ again denotes the generator with $\langle x, [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = 1$. In particular, this characterizes $p_1(T\mathbb{CP}^n) \in H^4(\mathbb{CP}^n; \mathbb{Z})$ if $n \geq 2$ by the relation

$$\langle p_1(T\mathbb{CP}^n), [\mathbb{CP}^2] \rangle = n + 1.$$

EXERCISE 80.9. There are also constructions of certain characteristic classes in specific cohomology theories that do not require any cell decomposition. Here is a way to construct w_1 in Čech cohomology. For simplicity, assume the base X of our bundle $E \rightarrow X$ admits a so-called *good* open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha \subset X\}_{\alpha \in J}$, meaning that any nonempty finite intersection of sets in this covering is contractible.¹¹⁸ For a given abelian group G , the Čech n -cochain group $\check{C}^n(X; G)$ with coefficients in G determined by this open covering consists of G -valued functions $\varphi \in \check{C}^n(X; G)$ defined on the set of $(n+1)$ -tuples in J for which the corresponding sets in the open covering intersect nontrivially, that is,

$$\varphi(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_n) \in G \quad \text{is defined whenever} \quad \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_0} \cap \dots \cap \mathcal{U}_{\alpha_n} \neq \emptyset.$$

A coboundary operator $\delta : \check{C}^n(X; G) \rightarrow \check{C}^{n+1}(X; G)$ on this complex is defined by

$$\delta\varphi(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{n+1}) := (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \varphi(\alpha_0, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_k, \dots, \alpha_{n+1}),$$

where the hat on $\hat{\alpha}_k$ means that that particular term is omitted. Algebraically, $\check{C}^*(X; G)$ is the (ordered) simplicial cochain complex of the so-called *nerve* (see Lecture 45 from last semester) of the open covering $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$, and under some conditions that we will not get into here, one can show that the resulting cohomology $\check{H}^*(X; G)$ is independent of the choice of open covering.

Now for a real n -plane bundle $E \rightarrow X$, suppose that our good covering $\{\mathcal{U}_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ comes with local trivializations $\Phi_\alpha : E|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_\alpha \times \mathbb{R}^n$ and a corresponding system of transition functions $g_{\beta\alpha} : \mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta \rightarrow \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$. We define from this data a Čech 1-cocycle $\varphi_E \in \check{C}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ by

$$\varphi_E(\alpha, \beta) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \det g_{\alpha\beta} > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } \det g_{\alpha\beta} < 0, \end{cases}$$

with the understanding that the signs of these determinants are constant on each $\mathcal{U}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{U}_\beta$ since using a good covering guarantees that this intersection is connected. The cocycle condition $g_{\alpha\beta}g_{\beta\gamma}g_{\gamma\alpha} = e$ now lives up to its name: together with $g_{\alpha\alpha} = e$, it implies the relations

$$\varphi_E(\alpha, \beta) + \varphi_E(\beta, \alpha) = 0, \quad \text{and thus} \quad \delta\varphi_E(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \varphi_E(\beta, \gamma) - \varphi_E(\alpha, \gamma) + \varphi_E(\alpha, \beta) = 0.$$

¹¹⁸The existence of a good covering is a nontrivial condition, and it is also not strictly necessary, but it simplifies matters by avoiding the need for direct limits in our discussion of Čech cohomology. One can use convexity to show, for instance, that smooth manifolds always admit good coverings.

- (a) Show that changing the local trivializations $\Phi_\alpha : E|_{\mathcal{U}_\alpha} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}_\alpha \times \mathbb{R}^n$ and consequently the transition functions $\{g_{\beta\alpha}\}$ alters the definition of the cocycle $\varphi_E \in \check{C}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ by something that is a coboundary in the Čech cochain complex. It follows that its cohomology class

$$w_1(E) := [\varphi_E] \in \check{H}^1(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$$

is independent of choices, and we take this to be the definition of the first Stiefel-Whitney class in Čech cohomology.

- (b) Show that the structure group of the bundle $E \rightarrow X$ can be reduced to $\mathrm{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$ if and only if the cocycle φ_E is a coboundary. This is the Čech version of the proof that $w_1(E)$ vanishes if and only if E is orientable.
- (c) Show that under the natural isomorphism $\check{H}^*(X; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong H_{\mathrm{CW}}^*(X; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ for any CW-complex X , the two definitions we have for $w_1(E)$ match.

Hint: You really just need to know three things, namely (1) naturality, (2) how to compute w_1 on a direct sum of line bundles, and (3) that the definitions match on the universal line bundle over $\mathbb{RP}^\infty$.

Remark: There is also a construction of w_2 in Čech cohomology, which gives a rather transparent proof that an oriented vector bundle E can be endowed with a spin structure if and only if $w_2(E) = 0$.

80.7. Appendix: The stable isomorphism class of $T(\mathbb{CP}^n)$. It was mentioned in Exercise 80.7 that there is a stable isomorphism of complex vector bundles

$$T(\mathbb{CP}^n) \cong \underbrace{\ell^* \oplus \dots \oplus \ell^*}_{n+1} \quad (\text{stably}),$$

where $\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$ is the tautological line bundle. The following explains one way to see the stable isomorphism. As in Exercise 80.2, we denote by ϵ^k the trivial complex vector bundle of rank k .

The manifold $\mathbb{CP}^n$ is defined as the quotient of the manifold $\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ by the smooth (and free and proper) action of the Lie group $\mathbb{C}^* = \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ by scalar multiplication. In differential geometry, there is a useful general theorem about quotients of manifolds M by free and proper smooth actions of a Lie group G : it tells us firstly that at each point $x \in M$, the orbit $G \cdot x \subset M$ is a smooth submanifold, and secondly, that the quotient M/G has a natural smooth manifold structure for which the tangent space $T_{[x]}(M/G)$ is naturally isomorphic to the obvious quotient of tangent spaces

$$T_{[x]}(M/G) \cong T_x M / T_x(G \cdot x).$$

Applying this to $\mathbb{CP}^n$, we observe that for any point $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ representing a point $[z] \in \mathbb{CP}^n$, the tangent space $T_z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$ is canonically isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$, while the tangent space at z to its $\mathbb{C}^*$ -orbit is precisely the 1-dimensional subspace $[z] \in \mathbb{CP}^n$, which we can equivalently choose to call the fiber $\ell_{[z]} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ at $[z] \in \mathbb{CP}^n$ of the tautological line bundle $\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^n$. We therefore have a natural isomorphism

$$T_{[z]}\mathbb{CP}^n \cong T_z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \ell_{[z]} = \mathbb{C}^{n+1} / \ell_{[z]},$$

in which the right hand side can be identified with the fiber at $[z] \in \mathbb{CP}^n$ of the quotient vector bundle ϵ^{n+1}/ℓ . The only catch is that this identification of $T_{[z]}\mathbb{CP}^n$ with $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}/\ell_{[z]}$ depends on the choice of point $z \in \ell_{[z]} \setminus \{0\}$ representing the equivalence class $[z]$. Indeed, any other representative of the same equivalence class can be written as $\lambda z \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^*$, and for any tangent vector $X \in T_z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$ representing an equivalence class $[X] \in T_z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})/\ell_{[z]} = T_{[z]}\mathbb{CP}^n$,

multiplying $X \in \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ by λ gives an equivalence class of tangent vectors at λz ,

$$[\lambda X] \in T_{\lambda z}(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \ell_{[\lambda z]} = T_{[z]} \mathbb{CP}^n,$$

which necessarily corresponds to the same tangent vector in $T_{[z]} \mathbb{CP}^n$ as $[X]$. What this really means is that there is a natural complex vector bundle isomorphism

$$\mathrm{Hom}(\ell, \epsilon^{n+1}/\ell) \xrightarrow{\cong} T(\mathbb{CP}^n),$$

defined at each point $[z] \in \mathbb{CP}^n$ by associating to each complex-linear map $\Phi : \ell_{[z]} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{n+1}/\ell_{[z]}$ the tangent vector in $T_{[z]} \mathbb{CP}^n$ corresponding to the equivalence class

$$[\Phi(z)] \in T_z(\mathbb{C}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) / \ell_{[z]}$$

for any chosen representative $z \neq 0 \in \ell_{[z]}$ of $[z]$. The result is independent of the choice of representative, because all other choices are of the form λz for $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^*$, and Φ is complex linear.

That was the tricky part: the rest only requires minimal cleverness. We recall that since ℓ is a line bundle, its tensor product with its dual ℓ^* is trivial, and the direct sum of ϵ^{n+1}/ℓ with ℓ is likewise a trivial bundle ϵ^{n+1} . Thanks to the isomorphism $T(\mathbb{CP}^n) \cong \mathrm{Hom}(\ell, \epsilon^{n+1}/\ell) \cong \ell^* \otimes (\epsilon^{n+1}/\ell)$, we can then write

$$\epsilon^1 \oplus T(\mathbb{CP}^n) \cong (\ell^* \otimes \ell) \oplus (\ell^* \otimes (\epsilon^{n+1}/\ell)) \cong \ell^* \otimes (\ell \oplus (\epsilon^{n+1}/\ell)) \cong \ell^* \otimes \epsilon^{n+1} \cong (\ell^*)^{\oplus(n+1)}.$$

That is the stable isomorphism that was claimed.

81. Bordism theory

For the final topic in this course, we introduce a new generalized homology theory, the bordism groups, and sketch some computations of their coefficient groups, which contain fundamental information about the classification of smooth manifolds. In the next lecture, we will also explain the path from these computations to the Hirzebruch signature formula, which was used at the climax of the proof sketched in Lecture 58 that S^7 admits exotic smooth structures.

81.1. Unoriented bordism groups. Like any homology theory, bordism theory comes in both absolute and relative versions. We begin with the absolute bordism groups.

DEFINITION 81.1. For an integer $n \geq 0$, the n th **unoriented bordism group**

$$\Omega_n^O(X)$$

of a space $X \in \mathbf{Top}$ consists of equivalence classes $[(M, f)]$ of **singular n -manifolds** (M, f) in X , meaning continuous maps $f : M \rightarrow X$ defined on arbitrary closed smooth n -manifolds M . The equivalence relation $(M, f) \sim (N, g)$ is called the **bordism relation**:¹¹⁹ we say that (M, f) and (N, g) are **bordant** if there exists a continuous map $F : W \rightarrow X$ defined on a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W , along with a diffeomorphism $M \sqcup N \cong \partial W$ that identifies $F|_{\partial W}$ with $f \sqcup g$. We make $\Omega_n^O(X)$ into an abelian group by defining the operation

$$[(M, f)] + [(N, g)] := [(M \sqcup N, f \sqcup g)],$$

and define its identity element $0 \in \Omega_n^O(X)$ via the unique map $\emptyset \rightarrow X$,

$$0 := [(\emptyset, \cdot)].$$

¹¹⁹In the older literature, it was more often (and sometimes still is) called the *cobordism* relation. At some point people seem to have decided that since bordism defines a homology theory and not a cohomology theory, it doesn't deserve a "co" after all.

Regarding the group structure of $\Omega_n^O(X)$: It's important to be aware that in the definition of a singular n -manifold (M, f) , we do not require M to be either connected or nonempty, and the empty set $\emptyset$ can be regarded as a smooth n -manifold for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. (Look at the definition of an n -manifold; you will see that this is true.¹²⁰) Using $\emptyset$ as an identity element means that a singular n -manifold (M, f) represents the trivial bordism class if and only if M is diffeomorphic to the boundary of some compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W such that f extends to a map $W \rightarrow X$. The next proposition shows that inverses always exist, thus $\Omega_n^O(X)$ really is a group.

PROPOSITION 81.2. *Every nontrivial element $[(M, f)] \in \Omega_n^O(X)$ has order 2, i.e. it is its own inverse.*

PROOF. This is one of two conclusions that we can draw from the existence of the trivial homotopy $F : M \times I \rightarrow X : (x, t) \mapsto f(x)$, since $\partial(M \times I)$ is the disjoint union of $M \amalg M$ with $\emptyset$.¹²¹ $\square$

REMARK 81.3. I am leaving it as an exercise to verify that the bordism relation is also symmetric and transitive. The latter is the more interesting detail, as it requires gluing two bordisms together along diffeomorphic boundary components, which can always be done with the aid of smooth collar neighborhoods of the boundary.

REMARK 81.4. It is a legitimate question why we are requiring the domain of a singular n -manifold to be a *smooth* manifold, rather than just a topological manifold, since nothing in the discussion so far seems to depend at all on its smooth structure. The best answer I can give is that smooth manifolds have tangent bundles, which brings the theory of characteristic classes of vector bundles into the picture as a useful tool for computations. It is easy to define bordism groups with topological manifolds as domains, but harder to compute them, and understanding the smooth case is an essential prerequisite before the continuous case can be approached.¹²²

We continue now with the relative bordism groups.

DEFINITION 81.5. For $(X, A) \in \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}}$, the relative bordism group $\Omega_n^O(X, A)$ modifies the definition of $\Omega_n^O(X)$ so that representatives (M, f) of elements of $\Omega_n^O(X, A)$ are maps of pairs $f : (M, \partial M) \rightarrow (X, A)$ defined on compact n -manifolds M that are allowed to have nonempty boundary. The bordism relation $(M, f) \sim (N, g)$ then becomes the existence of a map of pairs $F : (W, \partial_0 W) \rightarrow (X, A)$, whose domain is a smooth compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W with boundary

$$\partial W = \partial_+ W \cup \partial_0 W \cup \partial_- W$$

such that there is a diffeomorphism $M \amalg N \cong \partial_+ W \amalg \partial_- W$ identifying the restriction of F to this portion of ∂W with $f \amalg g$. Here, the subsets $\partial_+ W, \partial_- W, \partial_0 W \subset \partial W$ are assumed to be compact domains that intersect each other only along smooth closed $(n-1)$ -dimensional submanifolds $\Sigma_+ := \partial(\partial_+ W) \cong \partial M$ and $\Sigma_- := \partial(\partial_- W) \cong \partial N$,

$$\partial_{\pm} W \cap \partial_0 W = \Sigma_{\pm}, \quad \text{thus} \quad \partial(\partial_0 W) = \Sigma_+ \amalg \Sigma_- \quad \text{and} \quad \partial_+ W \cap \partial_- W = \emptyset.$$

REMARK 81.6. There is an equivalent formulation of Definition 81.5 that I find more natural, but it takes a bit more effort to state precisely because one must first define the notion of a smooth manifold with *boundary and corners*. Leaving that detail to your imagination, I would then describe

¹²⁰In fact, $\emptyset$ is even an n -manifold for $n < 0$, and there are many results I care deeply about whose proofs depend on the fact that it is the *only* one.

¹²¹The slightly more obvious conclusion comes from writing $\partial(M \times I) = M \amalg M$ without mentioning the empty set: this is the reason why $(M, f) \sim (M, f)$, i.e. the bordism relation is reflexive.

¹²²For more on this, see http://www.map.mpin-bonn.mpg.de/B-Bordism#Piecewise_linear_and_topological_bordism, but I provide this link with the caveat that I personally understand a relatively small proportion of what it says.

W in the relative bordism relation as a manifold with boundary and corners whose boundary ∂W is the union of three “smooth faces” that intersect along two corners $\Sigma_+ = \partial_+ W \cap \partial_0 W$ and $\Sigma_- = \partial_- W \cap \partial_0 W$. This is in fact the picture you end up with if you try to imagine the relation between two homologous relative cycles in singular homology in terms of triangulated manifolds—corners arise quite naturally in that context, because the standard n -simplex has corners for any $n \geq 2$. A smooth manifold with boundary and corners is topologically still a manifold with boundary, though its smooth structure does detect the distinction between having corners or not. On the other hand, one can always “smooth the corners” to produce a smooth manifold with boundary (and no corners) that is canonical up to diffeomorphism, and this is why one obtains the same relative bordism relation regardless of whether the definition mentions corners or not.

There is an obvious way to define a connecting homomorphism

$$\Omega_n^O(X, A) \xrightarrow{\partial_*} \Omega_{n-1}^O(A) : [(M, f)] \mapsto [(\partial M, f|_{\partial M})],$$

and a similarly obvious way to associate to any map of pairs $\varphi : (X, A) \rightarrow (Y, B)$ an induced homomorphism $\varphi_* : \Omega_n^O(X, A) \rightarrow \Omega_n^O(Y, B)$, making $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ into a functor and ∂_* into a natural transformation.

THEOREM 81.7. *The functors $\Omega_n^O : \mathbf{Top}^{\text{rel}} \rightarrow \mathbf{Ab}$ and connecting homomorphisms ∂_* define a (generalized) homology theory, and there is also a natural transformation*

$$\Omega_n^O(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}_2) : [(M, f)] \mapsto f_*[M],$$

where $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ on the right hand side is the relative fundamental class of M . $\square$

I’m leaving the proof of Theorem 81.7 as an exercise, because it is substantially easier than proving the corresponding theorem about singular homology: most of the axioms are already almost obvious, and there is no need to bother with subdivision. Similarly, a *fundamental class* of a closed n -manifold M in the bordism group $\Omega_n^O(M)$ can be defined with no effort at all: it is simply the bordism class of the identity map $M \rightarrow M$. Bordism theory only starts to become difficult when you want to compute it.

Since finite products of closed smooth manifolds are again closed smooth manifolds, there is an easy bordism-theoretic analogue of the homological cross product, defining maps

$$(81.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \Omega_k^O(X) \otimes \Omega_\ell^O(Y) &\xrightarrow{\times} \Omega_{k+\ell}^O(X \times Y) \\ [(M, f)] \otimes [(N, g)] &\mapsto [(M, f)] \times [(N, g)] := [(M \times N, f \times g)] \end{aligned}$$

for every $k, \ell \geq 0$. The natural transformation $\Omega_*^O(\cdot) \rightarrow H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ relates this product to the homological cross product, since fundamental classes of closed manifolds satisfy $[M \times N] = [M] \times [N]$.

81.2. Oriented bordism groups. There are many ways to enhance the definition of $\Omega_n^O(X)$ by endowing the domain manifolds that define bordism classes with extra structure. The simplest enhancement is to require orientations.

DEFINITION 81.8. The n th **oriented bordism group** $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is defined via the following modifications to Definition 81.1. The manifolds M, N, W are all equipped with orientations, ∂W is equipped with the induced boundary orientation, and the diffeomorphism $M \amalg N \cong \partial W$ required for the bordism relation reverses the orientation of either M or N , e.g. we could write

$$M \amalg (-N) \cong \partial W$$

to indicate that the boundary orientation of ∂W matches the orientation of M but is opposite to the orientation of N .

The group structure of $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ is again defined via disjoint unions, the same as with $\Omega_n^{\text{O}}(X)$, but elements no longer necessarily have order 2; instead, inverses are obtained by reversing orientations,

$$-[(M, f)] = [(-M, f)],$$

which works because the boundary orientation of $\partial(M \times I)$ reverses the orientation of one of its components. The oriented bordism relation is then symmetric because the orientation of W can always be reversed, which reverses the orientation of its boundary. I leave it as an exercise to write down the definition of $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X, A)$ for a pair $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$. The result is another generalized homology theory, with natural transformations

$$\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}) : [(M, f)] \mapsto f_*[M]$$

defined via the integral fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M, \partial M; \mathbb{Z})$. Since finite products of oriented manifolds inherit natural orientations, the product (81.1) has a straightforward analogue in oriented bordism theory,

$$\Omega_k^{\text{SO}}(X) \otimes \Omega_\ell^{\text{SO}}(Y) \xrightarrow{\times} \Omega_{k+\ell}^{\text{SO}}(X \times Y),$$

and it corresponds under the natural transformation $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}}(\cdot) \rightarrow H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$ to the cross product of $H_*(\cdot; \mathbb{Z})$.

REMARK 81.9. The superscripts in the notation $\Omega_n^{\text{O}}(X)$ and $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X)$ are abbreviations for the sequences of Lie groups $\text{O}(1) \hookrightarrow \text{O}(2) \hookrightarrow \text{O}(3) \hookrightarrow \dots$ and $\text{SO}(1) \hookrightarrow \text{SO}(2) \hookrightarrow \text{SO}(3) \hookrightarrow \dots$ respectively, since these are the structure groups of the tangent bundle of any smooth manifold (oriented in the second case) endowed with the auxiliary structure of a bundle metric. Choosing a bundle metric is not actually necessary, and the choice makes no difference topologically; it would perhaps be more natural to avoid mentioning bundle metrics and settle for structure groups $\text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$ or $\text{GL}_+(n, \mathbb{R})$, but it is a standard convention to use notation referring to orthogonal groups instead. More generally, one can associate a version of bordism theory to any sequence of Lie groups $G_1 \rightarrow G_2 \rightarrow G_3 \rightarrow \dots$ that satisfy certain conditions and have natural G_n -actions on $\mathbb{R}^n$; such sequences correspond to various so-called *stable tangential structures* that can be imposed on the tangent bundles of the domain manifolds, or more accurately, on their stable isomorphism classes. A specific case worth mentioning is the sequence of unitary groups $\text{U}(1) \hookrightarrow \text{U}(2) \hookrightarrow \text{U}(3) \hookrightarrow \dots$, which leads to *complex bordism* theory, in which one only considers smooth manifolds M admitting *stable complex structures*, meaning that the stabilized bundle $TM \oplus \epsilon^k$ carries a complex structure for some $k \geq 0$. For more on tangential structures, see [Fre12] or [Sto68].

81.3. The coefficient groups. In keeping with the principle that a homology theory is essentially computable if and only if its coefficient groups are, we will focus mainly on the groups

$$\Omega_n^{\text{O}} := \Omega_n^{\text{O}}(*), \quad \text{and} \quad \Omega_n^{\text{SO}} := \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(*).$$

Elements $[M]$ of these groups are represented by smooth closed n -manifolds M , with $[M] = [N]$ if and only if the disjoint union of M and N is diffeomorphic to the boundary of a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W ; in the case of Ω_n^{SO} , M, N, W are all required to be oriented and $M \amalg (-N) \cong \partial W$.

REMARK 81.10. If desired, it is possible to describe elements of Ω_n^{O} or Ω_n^{SO} using only manifolds that are *connected* and *nonempty*. This is because $S^n = \partial \mathbb{D}^{n+1}$, thus $[S^n] = 0$ in both Ω_n^{O} and Ω_n^{SO} , and moreover, the disjoint union $M \amalg N$ of two closed n -manifolds is bordant to the connected sum $M \# N$. The compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W needed for this can be constructed by attaching an $(n+1)$ -dimensional **1-handle** $\mathbb{D}^1 \times \mathbb{D}^n \cong I \times \mathbb{D}^n$ to a pair of disjoint n -disks in $(M \amalg N) \times \{1\} \subset \partial((M \amalg N) \times I)$.

The cross product endows $\Omega_*^O := \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} \Omega_n^O$ and $\Omega_*^{SO} := \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} \Omega_n^{SO}$ with natural ring structures, defined by

$$[M] \times [N] := [M \times N].$$

This product is *graded* commutative since, for oriented manifolds, $N \times M$ carries the opposite orientation of $M \times N$ whenever both are odd-dimensional. In the unoriented theory this makes no difference, and “graded commutative” means the same thing as commutative since all nontrivial elements have order 2.

The groups Ω_n^O and Ω_n^{SO} are much more interesting than the coefficient groups of singular homology, as they contain nontrivial information about the classification of smooth manifolds, and their computation is therefore of fundamental importance in differential topology. Here are some things we can say based on well-known classification results in low dimensions:

- (0) $\Omega_0^O \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $\Omega_0^{SO} \cong \mathbb{Z}$, with a canonical generator furnished in both cases by a one point space. Compact oriented 0-manifolds are finite discrete sets with a sign ± 1 attached to each point; an explicit isomorphism $\Omega_0^{SO} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is then obtained via a signed count of the points in such a set, which is well defined because the oriented boundary of the interval I consists of one positive point and one negative point.
- (1) $\Omega_1^O = \Omega_1^{SO} = 0$, because all closed 1-manifolds are finite disjoint unions of copies of S^1 , and $S^1 = \partial \mathbb{D}^2$.
- (2) $\Omega_2^{SO} = 0$ due to the classification of surfaces: The closed oriented surface Σ_g of genus g is the boundary of a compact region in $\mathbb{R}^3$ for each $g \geq 0$. In the unoriented case, we can immediately say that the Klein bottle $K^2 \cong \mathbb{RP}^2 \# \mathbb{RP}^2$ is nullbordant, since every element in Ω_2^O is 2-torsion, hence $[K^2] = [\mathbb{RP}^2] + [\mathbb{RP}^2] = 0$, with an explicit filling W of $K^2 \cong \partial W$ obtained e.g. by attaching a 1-handle $\mathbb{D}^1 \times \mathbb{D}^2$ to one side of $(\mathbb{RP}^2 \amalg \mathbb{RP}^2) \times I$ and attaching $\mathbb{RP}^2 \times I$ to the other side (cf. Remark 81.10). Appealing again to the classification of surfaces, this implies that Ω_2^O cannot be larger than $\mathbb{Z}_2$. On the other hand, the theorem below says that $[\mathbb{RP}^2] \neq 0 \in \Omega_2^O$, hence $\Omega_2^O \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.
- (3) Here is a result that is substantially deeper than the others above: $\Omega_3^{SO} = 0$ due to a theorem of Rokhlin [Roh51], showing that every oriented closed 3-manifold is the boundary of a compact oriented 4-manifold. The same is also true without orientations, thus $\Omega_3^O = 0$.

THEOREM 81.11. $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not diffeomorphic to the boundary of any compact 3-manifold.

This theorem implies the computation $\Omega_2^O \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ mentioned above. A proof using characteristic classes will be given below, but here is a quick sketch of a different proof: If W is a compact 3-manifold with $\partial W \cong \mathbb{RP}^2$, then gluing two copies of W together along their boundary produces a closed 3-manifold Y , whose Euler characteristic must be 0 as a consequence of Poincaré duality (with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients). But one can also compute $\chi(Y) = 2\chi(W) - \chi(\mathbb{RP}^2) = 2\chi(W) - 1$, thus $\chi(Y)$ cannot be even.

REMARK 81.12. The argument sketched above for proving that $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not a boundary also works for $\mathbb{CP}^2$, using coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}$ instead of $\mathbb{Z}_2$.

DEFINITION 81.13. The **Stiefel-Whitney numbers** of a closed smooth n -manifold M are numbers of the form

$$\langle w_{k_1}(M) \cup \dots \cup w_{k_j}(M), [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}_2$$

for $k_1, \dots, k_j \in \mathbb{N}$ with $k_1 + \dots + k_j = n$, where $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is the unoriented fundamental class, and we abbreviate

$$w_k(M) := w_k(TM).$$

THEOREM 81.14. *If M is the boundary of a compact $(n + 1)$ -manifold W , then all Stiefel-Whitney numbers of M vanish.*

PROOF. Choose any vector field on W near $M = \partial W$ that points transversely outward at the boundary. This vector field spans a rank 1 subbundle of $TW|_M$ that is complimentary to TM , thus producing a bundle isomorphism

$$TW|_M \cong \epsilon^1 \oplus TM,$$

where ϵ^1 denotes the trivial line bundle over M . This makes $TW|_M$ and TM stably isomorphic (cf. Exercise 80.2), and they therefore have the same Stiefel-Whitney classes. Writing $i : M \hookrightarrow W$ for the inclusion, we now have $w_k(TM) = i^*w_k(TW)$ for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \langle w_{k_1}(TM) \cup \dots \cup w_{k_j}(TM), [M] \rangle &= \langle i^*(w_{k_1}(TW) \cup \dots \cup w_{k_j}(TW)), [M] \rangle \\ &= \langle w_{k_1}(TW) \cup \dots \cup w_{k_j}(TW), i_*[M] \rangle = 0, \end{aligned}$$

since $i_*[M] = 0 \in H_{n+1}(W; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. $\square$

PROOF OF THEOREM 81.11. Since $\mathbb{RP}^2$ is not orientable, Exercise 80.5 implies $w_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) \neq 0 \in H^1(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and the ring structure of $H^*(\mathbb{RP}^2; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ then gives us a nonvanishing Stiefel-Whitney number:

$$\langle w_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) \cup w_1(\mathbb{RP}^2), [\mathbb{RP}^2] \rangle \neq 0.$$

$\square$

Here is a brief survey of some harder results about bordism groups that are known. We will sketch a proof of the last one in the next lecture, but will not attempt to prove any of the others.

- (4) $\Omega_4^{\text{SO}} \cong \mathbb{Z}$, with $[\mathbb{CP}^2]$ as a generator. It follows in particular that every closed oriented 4-manifold is either the boundary of a compact oriented 5-manifold or becomes such a boundary after taking its disjoint union (or connected sum) with finitely many copies of either $\mathbb{CP}^2$ or $\overline{\mathbb{CP}^2}$, the latter being the standard notation for $\mathbb{CP}^2$ with reversed orientation.
- (5) $\Omega_5^{\text{SO}} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, with the nontrivial element represented by a particular fiber bundle over S^1 with fibers $\mathbb{CP}^2$, called the *Dold manifold*. This is the lowest dimension in which oriented bordism groups have torsion.
- (6) Ω_6^{SO} and Ω_7^{SO} are both trivial, so closed oriented manifolds of dimensions 6 or 7 are always oriented boundaries. On the other hand, $\Omega_8^{\text{SO}} \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$, with a basis given by $[\mathbb{CP}^4]$ and $[\mathbb{CP}^2 \times \mathbb{CP}^2]$.
- (7) Thom proved several important results in [Tho54], such as:
 - (a) The converse of Theorem 81.14 is also true, and in fact two closed manifolds of the same dimension whose Stiefel-Whitney numbers all match are always bordant.
 - (b) There is a graded ring isomorphism

$$\Omega_*^{\text{O}} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[x_2, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_8, x_9, \dots],$$

where the generators x_k have degree k , and there is exactly one such generator for each $k \notin \{2^m - 1 \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

- (c) The natural transformation $\Omega_n^{\text{O}}(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is surjective for every $(X, A) \in \text{Top}^{\text{rel}}$ and $n \geq 0$. In other words, all singular homology classes with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients really can be represented via the fundamental classes of compact manifolds.
- (d) The natural transformation $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X, A) \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ is *not* generally surjective, but its rational version

$$\Omega_n^{\text{SO}}(X, A) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Q})$$

- is. In other words, every singular homology class $c \in H_n(X, A; \mathbb{Z})$ has a positive multiple that can be represented by the fundamental class of a compact manifold.
- (e) There exists a graded ring isomorphism

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}[x_4, x_8, x_{12}, \dots],$$

where the generators x_{4n} can all be represented by complex projective spaces $\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$.

The goal of the next lecture will be to sketch a proof of the computation of $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ and use it to prove the Hirzebruch signature formula.

81.4. Stable classifying maps. Recall from Exercise 80.2 that two vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow B$ are called **stably isomorphic** if they become isomorphic after taking their direct sums with trivial bundles, written

$$E \oplus \epsilon^k \cong F \oplus \epsilon^\ell,$$

where ϵ^n denotes the trivial vector bundle of rank n . We saw in the proof of Theorem 81.14 that stable isomorphisms have a way of arising naturally in bordism theory, and conveniently, the Stiefel-Whitney, Chern and Pontryagin classes are all invariant under stable isomorphism. We would now like to understand stable isomorphism classes of vector bundles in terms of classifying spaces.

We saw in the previous lecture that the homotopy equivalent groups $O(n)$ and $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ have the same classifying space, namely

$$BO(n) = BGL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \text{Gr}_n(\mathbb{R}^\infty).$$

The sequence of inclusions

$$O(1) \xhookrightarrow{i} O(2) \xhookrightarrow{i} O(3) \hookrightarrow \dots, \quad i(\mathbf{A}) := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix}$$

induces (according to Theorem 79.12) a sequence of maps between the corresponding classifying spaces, whose direct limit we will call BO :

$$BO(1) \xrightarrow{Bi} BO(2) \xrightarrow{Bi} BO(3) \longrightarrow \dots \longrightarrow \text{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} BO(n) =: BO.$$

REMARK 81.15. We could equally well have started with a similar sequence of inclusions $GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \hookrightarrow GL(n+1, \mathbb{R})$ and obtained from it the same colimit of classifying spaces; the only real reason to call it BO instead of $BGL(\cdot, \mathbb{R})$ is convention. On an intuitive level, calling the classifying spaces $BO(n)$ rather than $BGL(n, \mathbb{R})$ means that the vector bundles we are classifying carry bundle metrics as extra structure. We will not need to make any such choice of extra structure, though Exercise 78.2 guarantees that it is always possible to do so, and for certain purposes it is also convenient—but the fact that $BO(n) = BGL(n, \mathbb{R})$ gives a huge hint that important topological results that are proved using that extra structure will typically not depend on it.

The proof of the following is a straightforward exercise:

LEMMA 81.16. *The pullback of the universal bundle $E^{n+1, \infty, \mathbb{R}}$ via the map $Bi : BO(n) \rightarrow BO(n+1)$ is naturally isomorphic to $\epsilon^1 \oplus E^{n, \infty, \mathbb{R}}$. $\square$*

Recall that any real vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ of rank n over a CW-complex is isomorphic to $\kappa_E^* E^{n, \infty, \mathbb{R}}$ for a unique homotopy class of maps $\kappa_E : X \rightarrow BO(n)$, called the **classifying map** of E . Composing this map with the natural map of $BO(n)$ to the colimit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ defines the so-called **stable classifying map**

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \xrightarrow{\kappa_E^s} & & \\ X & \xrightarrow{\kappa_E} & BO(n) & \longrightarrow & BO. \end{array}$$

The next theorem says that BO is a classifying space for real vector bundles over compact CW-complexes up to stable isomorphism.

THEOREM 81.17. *For any compact CW-complex X , two real vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ of arbitrary ranks are stably isomorphic if and only if their stable classifying maps $\kappa_E^s, \kappa_F^s : X \rightarrow BO$ are homotopic.*

PROOF SKETCH. The classifying spaces $BO(n)$ and their colimit BO are all CW-complexes, and the point of assuming X to be compact is that the image of any homotopy of stable classifying maps $X \times I \rightarrow BO$ is then contained in a finite subcomplex, implying that it factors through a homotopy of maps $X \times I \rightarrow BO(n)$ for sufficiently large n . With this understood, the result can be deduced from Lemma 81.16. $\square$

REMARK 81.18. Direct sums $E \oplus F$ define a natural commutative addition operation on the set $[X, BO]$ of stable isomorphism classes of vector bundles over a compact CW-complex X , and Exercise 80.2 tells us that this even makes $[X, BO]$ into a group, with the stable isomorphism class of a trivial bundle (corresponding to a constant classifying map $X \rightarrow BO$) as identity element. One can deduce from this that BO is naturally a group object in $\mathbf{hTop}$, and the resulting multiplication map $BO \times BO \rightarrow BO$ up to homotopy can then be combined with the homological cross product $H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2) \otimes H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2) \xrightarrow{\times} H_*(BO \times BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ to make $H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ into a ring.

This is a good moment to mention yet another important result due to Thom:

THEOREM 81.19. *There is a well-defined and injective graded ring homomorphism¹²³*

$$(81.2) \quad \Omega_*^O \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2) : [M] \mapsto (\kappa_{TM}^s)_*[M].$$

We will not prove Theorem 81.19, but the idea can be summarized as follows. The deep part of the statement is that the homomorphism Φ is injective, but it is relatively easy to explain why the map is well defined and respects the ring structures. The latter is almost immediately clear, because the fundamental class of a disjoint union $M \sqcup N$ can be understood as a sum of fundamental classes of its components, and the stable classifying map of $T(M \sqcup N)$ is similarly a disjoint union of the stable classifying maps of TM and TN . The ring structure is also preserved, mainly because $T(M \times N)$ is naturally the direct sum of two subbundles TM and TN pulled back along the projections of $M \times N$ to M and N , so that the stable classifying maps are then related in a way that corresponds to the definition of the ring structure on $H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$. One then only has to show that $(\kappa_{TM}^s)_*[M] = 0 \in H_n(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ whenever M is diffeomorphic to the boundary of a compact $(n+1)$ -manifold W . This is true for roughly the same reasons that the Stiefel-Whitney numbers of M vanish: the bundles TM and $TW|_M$ are stably isomorphic, and the relevant consequence of this in the present context is that the stable classifying maps κ_{TM}^s and $\kappa_{TW|_M}^s$ are homotopic. Without loss of generality, we can then assume these two maps are equal, so that $\kappa_{TW}^s : W \rightarrow BO$ is an extension of $\kappa_{TM}^s : M \rightarrow BO$ to W . This implies that $[(M, \kappa_{TM}^s)]$ is the trivial bordism class in $\Omega_n^O(BO)$, and since $(\kappa_{TM}^s)_*[M]$ is the image of this class under the natural transformation $\Omega_n^O(BO) \rightarrow H_n(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$, it follows that $(\kappa_{TM}^s)_*[M] = 0$.

The proof that Φ is also injective requires knowing more about the actual computation of Ω_*^O , and we'll discuss some aspects of the oriented analogue of this in the next lecture.

REMARK 81.20. We now have the following explanation for the converse of Theorem 81.14. One can use cell decompositions to compute $H^*(BO(n); \mathbb{Z}_2)$ explicitly, and the result is quite simple:

¹²³I must apologize for the fact that the symbol $[M]$ means two quite different things on the left and right sides of (81.2). On the left side, it is the unoriented bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_n^O$ represented by a closed smooth n -manifold M , while on the right, it is the fundamental class $[M] \in H_n(M; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ of M in singular homology.

it is the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}_2[w_1, \dots, w_n]$ generated by the Stiefel-Whitney classes $w_k(E^{n, \infty, \mathbb{R}}) \in H^k(BO(n); \mathbb{Z}_2)$ of the universal n -plane bundle (see e.g. [Hat, Theorem 3.9]). This implies, on the one hand, that all possible characteristic classes of real vector bundles living in cohomology with $\mathbb{Z}_2$ coefficients are expressible in terms of the Stiefel-Whitney classes. It also gives us a criterion to judge when the homology class $(\kappa_{TM}^s)_*[M] \in H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is trivial, namely by evaluating products of Stiefel-Whitney classes of universal bundles on it, which is equivalent to evaluating products of Stiefel-Whitney classes of TM on $[M]$. Since $\Phi : \Omega_*^O \rightarrow H_*(BO; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is injective, it follows that any closed manifold whose Stiefel-Whitney numbers all vanish must represent the trivial element of Ω_*^O .

81.5. Exercises.

EXERCISE 81.1 (*). Prove Lemma 81.16, on the pullback of the universal bundle $E^{n+1, \infty, \mathbb{R}} \rightarrow BO(n+1)$ via the map $BO(n) \rightarrow BO(n+1)$ induced by the inclusion $O(n) \hookrightarrow O(n+1)$.

82. Oriented bordism and the signature formula

The Hirzebruch signature formula is a deep result about closed and oriented smooth manifolds of any dimension divisible by four: it equates the signature of the intersection form of such a manifold to a rational number determined by the Pontryagin classes of its tangent bundle. The formula implies that this rational number must be an integer, resulting in strict numerical constraints on the possible Pontryagin numbers of closed smooth manifolds, one of which played a starring role in the original proof that S^7 admits exotic smooth structures (see Lecture 58). We will explain in this lecture how to derive the Hirzebruch formula from a computation of the rational oriented bordism ring.

82.1. Stable classifying maps for oriented bundles. The discussion of §81.4 can be adapted in a straightforward way for *oriented* vector bundles. The relevant classifying spaces in this setting are

$$BSO(n) = BGL_+(n, \mathbb{R}) = \mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty),$$

where $\mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$ is the space of oriented n -dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^\infty$, a double cover of $\mathrm{Gr}_n(\mathbb{R}^\infty)$. Every oriented n -plane bundle $E \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex admits a fiberwise orientation-preserving bundle isomorphism to the pullback of the **universal oriented n -plane bundle**

$$E^{n,+} \rightarrow BSO(n)$$

via a **classifying map**

$$X \xrightarrow{\kappa_E} BSO(n),$$

whose homotopy class in $[X, BSO(n)]$ is uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of E with its orientation. The inclusions $SO(n) \hookrightarrow SO(n+1)$ induce maps $BSO(n) \rightarrow BSO(n+1)$, and the **stable classifying map** κ_E^s of the oriented bundle $E \rightarrow X$ is then the composition of its classifying map κ_E with the natural map of $BSO(n)$ to the colimit as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\kappa_E^s} \\ X \xrightarrow{\kappa_E} BSO(n) \longrightarrow BSO := \mathrm{colim}_{n \rightarrow \infty} BSO(n). \end{array}$$

For X compact, we obtain a bijection as in Theorem 81.17 between $[X, BSO]$ and the set of stable isomorphism classes of oriented vector bundles over X . To clarify: two oriented bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ are stably isomorphic (as oriented bundles) if for some $k, \ell \geq 0$, there is an orientation-preserving bundle isomorphism $\epsilon^k \oplus E \cong \epsilon^\ell \oplus F$, where trivial bundles ϵ^k are endowed with the canonical orientation determined by the standard Euclidean basis on each fiber. Here we need to

be consistent about the order of the summands in expressions such as $\epsilon^k \oplus E$, since the induced orientation of the direct sum may depend on it.

PROPOSITION 82.1. *Stable isomorphism classes of oriented tangent bundles determine a well-defined ring homomorphism*

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_*(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) : [M] \mapsto (\kappa_{TM}^s)_* [M],$$

where the symbol $[M]$ means a bordism class on the left hand side and a fundamental class on the right hand side.

PROOF SKETCH. The definition of the natural ring structure on $H_*(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Z})$ and the proof of the proposition both follow by essentially the same reasoning as in the unoriented case, discussed in §81.4. Other than the fact that we now have a fundamental class with $\mathbb{Z}$ coefficients since M is oriented, the only truly new feature is that when $M = \partial W$ for a compact oriented $(n+1)$ -manifold and M carries the *boundary orientation*, the stable isomorphism $TW|_M \cong \epsilon^1 \oplus TM$ therefore also respects orientations, which is why we can consider classifying maps valued in $B\text{SO}$ instead of just $B\text{O}$. $\square$

Note that in contrast to Theorem 81.19, the statement of Proposition 82.1 does not claim that the map $\Phi : \Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow H_*(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Z})$ is injective, but only that it is well defined and respects the ring structure. We will come back to this topic in §82.3, and sketch a proof that after replacing integer with rational coefficients, the map becomes an isomorphism. The following remarks should make it obvious why that might be a useful thing to know.

It was mentioned in Remark 81.20 that the cohomology ring $H^*(B\text{O}; \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is freely generated by the Stiefel-Whitney classes of the universal vector bundles $E^{n, \infty, \mathbb{R}} \rightarrow B\text{O}(n)$ for large n . There is a corresponding fact about $H^*(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$ that can similarly be proved via computations in cellular cohomology, using explicit cell decompositions of Grassmann manifolds (see e.g. [Hat, Theorem 3.16(b)]). Namely, the ring $H^*(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$ is naturally isomorphic to the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Q}[p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots]$ generated by the rational Pontryagin classes

$$p_k := p_k(E^{n, +}) \in H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Q}) \cong H^{4k}(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$$

for sufficiently large n . A few details about this statement should be clarified: first, by “rational Pontryagin classes,” we mean the images of $p_k(E^{n, +}) \in H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Z})$ under the natural transformation $H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Q})$ induced by the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Second, given k , there is an isomorphism $H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Q}) \cong H^{4k}(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$ for all n sufficiently large: indeed, using homotopy exact sequences of fiber bundles, one can deduce that for any fixed k , the map $B\text{SO}(n) \rightarrow B\text{SO}(n+1)$ is k -connected for all n sufficiently large, and the Hurewicz theorem then gives isomorphisms $H_k(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Q}) \cong H_k(B\text{SO}(n+1); \mathbb{Q}) \cong \dots \cong H_k(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$, which dualize to isomorphisms on cohomology. This shows that all cohomology classes of $B\text{SO}$ can be described as cohomology classes of $B\text{SO}(n)$ for n large. Moreover, the invariance of rational Pontryagin classes under stable isomorphism implies that the class in $H^{4k}(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$ corresponding to $p_k(E^{n, +}) \in H^{4k}(B\text{SO}(n); \mathbb{Q})$ is independent of n , so long as n is sufficiently large.

The aforementioned fact about the cohomology of $B\text{SO}$ implies:

PROPOSITION 82.2. *For a closed oriented n -manifold M , the image of $[M] \in \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}$ under the composition*

$$\Omega_n^{\text{SO}} \xrightarrow{\Phi} H_n(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H_n(B\text{SO}; \mathbb{Q}),$$

where the second map is induced by the inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$, vanishes if and only if all the Pontryagin numbers

$$\langle p_{k_1}(M) \cup \dots \cup p_{k_j}(M), [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad 4(k_1 + \dots + k_j) = n$$

of M vanish. $\square$

PROPOSITION 82.3. $H_*(BSO; \mathbb{Q})$ has a basis consisting of all images under the natural transformation $H_*(BSO; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(BSO; \mathbb{Q})$ of classes of the form $\Phi([M])$, for M ranging over the set of all finite products of even-dimensional complex projective spaces.

PROOF SKETCH. It should be clear that this set of homology classes has a natural bijective correspondence with the cohomology basis formed by all finite products of Pontryagin classes of oriented universal bundles. That it forms a basis of $H_*(BSO; \mathbb{Q})$ can thus be deduced from computations of Pontryagin classes of products of projective spaces, starting with Exercise 80.8. $\square$

82.2. The stable normal bundle of a smooth manifold. We will take as a black box the following basic result from differential topology:

THEOREM 82.4. *Given a smooth closed n -manifold M , for any $k > 0$ sufficiently large, there exists a unique smooth isotopy class of embeddings $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$.* $\square$

Theorem 82.4 is sometimes called Whitney's embedding theorem, though it is the easier of two theorems that go by that name—the other one gives precise information about the possible value of k , which we do not need. The idea is simply that if one has enough dimensions to move around in, then by clever applications of Sard's theorem, any smooth map $M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ admits a small perturbation that is both injective and has injective derivatives at all points (meaning it is also an immersion). Applying this to an arbitrary homotopy between two embeddings similarly turns the homotopy into a family of embeddings.

The **normal bundle** of a smooth embedding $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{k+n}$ is defined to be the quotient vector bundle

$$\nu^k M := T\mathbb{R}^{n+k}|_M / TM = \epsilon^{n+k} / TM \rightarrow M.$$

Equivalently, if one fixes the standard inner product on $\mathbb{R}^{n+k}$, then taking the orthogonal complements of the tangent spaces $T_x M \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ at every point $x \in M$ defines a complementary subbundle

$$TM^\perp \subset \epsilon^{n+k} \quad \text{such that} \quad TM \oplus TM^\perp = \epsilon^{n+k},$$

which is naturally isomorphic to $\nu^k M$.

Isotopies of embeddings give rise to isomorphic normal bundles, so the only arbitrary choice involved in using Theorem 82.4 to define the normal bundle $\nu^k M$ of a closed manifold M up to isomorphism is the (sufficiently large) number k . Moreover, the dependence on k is quite mild: if we increment k by composing a given embedding $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ with the embedding $\mathbb{R}^{n+k} = \{0\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+k} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k+1}$, we obtain $\nu^{k+1} M \cong \epsilon \oplus \nu^k M$. It follows that M has a well-defined **stable normal bundle**, meaning the stable isomorphism class of $\nu^k M$, which depends only on M and not on its embedding into a Euclidean space of any particular dimension. If M is oriented, then $\nu^k M$ inherits an orientation, and the stable normal bundle is a stable isomorphism class of oriented vector bundles. It therefore has a stable classifying map, which we shall denote by

$$M \xrightarrow{\kappa_M^\nu} BSO.$$

Thanks to Theorem 82.4, the homotopy class $[\kappa_M^\nu] \in [M, BSO]$ depends only on the smooth structure of M , and not on any choice of embedding into Euclidean space.

LEMMA 82.5. *There exists a homeomorphism $i : BSO \rightarrow BSO$ such that for any closed smooth manifold M , κ_M^ν is homotopic to $i \circ \kappa_M^s$.*

PROOF. If M is a closed n -manifold, any smooth embedding $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ determines maps

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_T^{n,k} : M &\rightarrow \text{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) : x \mapsto T_x M \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+k}, \\ \kappa_\nu^{n,k} : M &\rightarrow \text{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) : x \mapsto (T_x M)^\perp \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+k} \end{aligned}$$

whose compositions with the natural maps

$$\mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty) = B\mathrm{SO}(n), \quad \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) \rightarrow \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty) = B\mathrm{SO}(k)$$

are the classifying maps $\kappa_{TM} : M \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}(n)$ and $\kappa_{\nu^k M} : M \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}(k)$ of TM and $\nu^k M$ respectively. We have $\kappa_{\nu^k M} = i^{n,k} \circ \kappa_T^{n,k}$, where

$$\mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) \xrightarrow{i^{n,k}} \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k})$$

is the map sending each oriented n -dimensional subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ to its orthogonal complement $V^\perp$, with the unique orientation such that $V \oplus V^\perp$ carries the standard orientation of $\mathbb{R}^{n+k}$. One then deduces from the universal property that there is a unique map $i : B\mathrm{SO} \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) & \longrightarrow & \mathrm{Gr}_n^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty) = B\mathrm{SO}(n) & \longrightarrow & B\mathrm{SO} \\ \downarrow i^{n,k} & & & & \downarrow i \\ \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^{n+k}) & \longrightarrow & \mathrm{Gr}_k^+(\mathbb{R}^\infty) = B\mathrm{SO}(k) & \longrightarrow & B\mathrm{SO} \end{array}$$

commutes for every $k, n \geq 0$, where the horizontal arrows on the right hand side are the natural maps to the colimits as $n, k \rightarrow \infty$. Moreover, since $(V^\perp)^\perp = V$ for every subspace $V \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$, $i : B\mathrm{SO} \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}$ is an involution, i.e. it is its own inverse; in particular, it is a homeomorphism. $\square$

82.3. The Pontryagin-Thom construction. Recall from Lecture 76 that every spectrum $\{E_n\}$ gives rise to a generalized homology theory h_* on CW-complexes, for which the corresponding *pointed* homology theory $\tilde{h}_*$ can be expressed as

$$\tilde{h}_n(X) := \pi_n(E \wedge X) := \mathrm{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(E_n \wedge X),$$

so in particular, the coefficient groups are given by

$$h_n(*) = \tilde{h}_n(S^0) = \mathrm{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(E_n).$$

The specific example we've already seen is that *ordinary* homology theories—those for which the dimension axiom holds, such as singular homology—arise in this way from the Eilenberg-MacLane spectrum $K(G, \cdot)$, with coefficient group $G = h_0(*)$. We shall now construct a spectrum for which the corresponding homology theory is oriented bordism.

Given a closed oriented smooth manifold M , choose an embedding $M \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ as provided by Theorem 82.4, in which we reserve the right to make $k > 0$ larger as needed. According to the tubular neighborhood theorem, a neighborhood of M in $\mathbb{R}^{n+k}$ can be identified diffeomorphically with the total space of the normal bundle $\nu^k M$. Let

$$S^{n+k} := \mathbb{R}^{n+k} \cup \{\infty\}$$

denote the one-point compactification of $\mathbb{R}^{n+k}$, and define the **Thom space** of the universal oriented k -plane bundle likewise as its one-point compactification

$$M\mathrm{SO}(k) := \mathrm{Th}(E^{k,+}) := E^{k,+} \cup \{\infty\}.$$

You may recall Thom spaces from Lecture 54 last semester: every vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ has a Thom space $\mathrm{Th}(E)$, defined as the one-point compactification of its total space, or equivalently, the quotient space $\mathbb{D}E/SE$, where $\mathbb{D}E \subset E$ denotes the unit disk bundle determined by a choice of bundle metric, and the sphere bundle $SE = \partial(\mathbb{D}E)$ is its boundary.

As an oriented vector bundle, $\nu^k M$ has a classifying map $\kappa_{\nu^k M} : M \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}(k)$, whose composition with the natural map to the colimit as $k \rightarrow \infty$ is the stable classifying map $\kappa_M^\nu : M \rightarrow$

$B\mathrm{SO}$. The isomorphism $\nu^k M \cong \kappa_{\nu^k M}^* E^{k,+}$ thus gives rise to a pullback square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \nu^k M & \xrightarrow{f_M^k} & E^{k,+} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ M & \xrightarrow{\kappa_{\nu^k M}} & B\mathrm{SO}(k) \end{array},$$

in which the map $f_M^k : \nu^k M \rightarrow E^{k,+}$ is fiberwise linear, so it extends to a continuous map between Thom spaces

$$\mathrm{Th}(\nu^k M) \xrightarrow{f_M^k} \mathrm{Th}(E^{k,+}) = M\mathrm{SO}(k)$$

that sends ∞ to ∞ . Identifying $\nu^k M$ with a neighborhood of M in $\mathbb{R}^{n+k} \subset S^{n+k}$ then gives a homeomorphism

$$S^{n+k} / (S^{n+k} \setminus \nu^k M) \cong \mathrm{Th}(\nu^k M),$$

so that we can compose the map $f_M^k : \mathrm{Th}(\nu^k M) \rightarrow \mathrm{Th}(E^{k,+})$ with the quotient projection $S^{n+k} \rightarrow S^{n+k} / (S^{n+k} \setminus \nu^k M)$, producing a map

$$S^{n+k} \xrightarrow{f_M^k} M\mathrm{SO}(k)$$

that extends $f_M^k : \nu^k M \rightarrow E^{k,+}$ by sending the rest of S^{n+k} to the point at infinity in the Thom space of $E^{k,+}$.

Now observe: The total space of the stabilized universal bundle $\epsilon^1 \oplus E^{k,+}$ is topologically $\mathbb{R} \times E^{k,+}$, and adding a point at infinity to it is equivalent to taking the reduced suspension of $M\mathrm{SO}(k)$. The top horizontal map in the pullback square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \epsilon^1 \oplus E^{k,+} & \longrightarrow & E^{k+1,+} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ B\mathrm{SO}(k) & \longrightarrow & B\mathrm{SO}(k+1) \end{array}$$

thus extends to a natural map

$$\Sigma(M\mathrm{SO}(k)) \xrightarrow{e} M\mathrm{SO}(k+1),$$

and the relation between the maps $f_M^k : S^{n+k} \rightarrow M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ for different values of k is then $f_M^{k+1} = e \circ \Sigma f_M^k$. The collection of spaces

$$M\mathrm{SO} := \{M\mathrm{SO}(k)\}_{k \geq 0}$$

together with the maps e described above is called a **Thom spectrum**.

THEOREM 82.6 (Pontryagin-Thom). *For each $n \geq 0$, there is a natural isomorphism*

$$\Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}} \rightarrow \pi_n(M\mathrm{SO}) = \operatorname{colim}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \pi_{n+k}(M\mathrm{SO}(k))$$

sending each bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}}$ of closed oriented n -manifolds M to the stable homotopy class of the map $f_M^k : S^{n+k} \rightarrow M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ described above.

REMARK 82.7. There is a corresponding theorem for the unoriented bordism groups, with the oriented Thom spectrum $M\mathrm{SO}$ replaced by a similar construction formed out of Thom spaces of unoriented universal bundles. In fact, the Pontryagin-Thom construction can be carried out for bordism theories with arbitrary stable tangential structures (see Remark 81.9).

I will not give a detailed proof of Theorem 82.6 here, but there is some intuition behind it that is not so hard to understand. Here I shall repeat the advice I often give, that you should spend your weekend reading [Mil97], which gives a beautiful explanation of one of the simpler variants of the Pontryagin-Thom construction, computing homotopy sets $[S^{n+k}, S^k]$ in terms of *framed cobordism* classes of smooth n -dimensional submanifolds $M \subset S^{n+k}$. Once you've understood that simplified case, you should be able to guess how the proof of Theorem 82.6 goes. The inverse of the map $[M] \mapsto [f_M^k]$ can be described as follows. Suppose a map $f : S^{n+k} \rightarrow M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ is given, for some large $k > 0$. The Thom space $M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ contains a copy of the classifying space $B\mathrm{SO}(k) \subset E^{k,+} \subset M\mathrm{SO}(k)$, embedded as the zero-section of the universal bundle. The classifying space is an infinite-dimensional CW-complex, but its finite-dimensional skeleta are also smooth manifolds, and since S^{n+k} is compact, the image of f only intersects $B\mathrm{SO}(k)$ in one of its finite-dimensional skeleta. The restriction of the universal bundle to this skeleton is likewise a *smooth* vector bundle, of rank k , so as far as the map $f : S^{n+k} \rightarrow M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ is concerned, we are free to pretend that $M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ is a finite-dimensional smooth and oriented manifold containing $B\mathrm{SO}(k)$ as a smooth oriented submanifold of codimension k . This makes it possible to apply standard perturbation results from differential topology: after a homotopy of f , we can now assume it intersects $B\mathrm{SO}(k)$ transversely, so that by the implicit function theorem, the preimage

$$M := f^{-1}(B\mathrm{SO}(k)) \subset S^{n+k}$$

becomes a smooth oriented submanifold of codimension k , and thus dimension n . It turns out that the resulting bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}}$ is a preimage of $[f] \in \pi_n(M\mathrm{SO})$ under the map described in Theorem 82.6. To see that $[M] \in \Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}}$ depends only on the stable homotopy class of f , suppose $H : S^{n+k} \times I \rightarrow M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ is a homotopy between f and some other map g , possibly after increasing the value of k and stabilizing both maps. Since $S^{n+k} \times I$ is also compact, we can use the same trick again to make H intersect $B\mathrm{SO}(k) \subset M\mathrm{SO}(k)$ transversely, so that

$$W := H^{-1}(B\mathrm{SO}(k)) \subset S^{n+k} \times I$$

becomes a compact oriented smooth manifold of codimension k , meaning in this case that $\dim W = n + 1$, and its oriented boundary is the disjoint union of $f^{-1}(B\mathrm{SO}(k))$ and $g^{-1}(B\mathrm{SO}(k))$ after reversing the orientation of one of them. In other words, W is an oriented bordism, proving that $[f^{-1}(B\mathrm{SO}(k))] \in \Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}}$ is independent of choices.

For our purposes in this lecture, the main application of Theorem 82.6 is the following:

THEOREM 82.8. *Combining the ring homomorphism $\Phi : \Omega_*^{\mathrm{SO}} \rightarrow H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z})$ of Proposition 82.1 with the natural injection $H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$ appearing in the universal coefficient theorem, the composition*

$$\Omega_*^{\mathrm{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{\Phi \otimes 1} H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Q} \longrightarrow H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Q})$$

is a ring isomorphism.

PROOF SKETCH. By Lemma 82.5, we are free to replace Φ with the analogous map

$$\Omega_*^{\mathrm{SO}} \xrightarrow{\Phi^\nu} H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) : [M] \mapsto (\kappa_M^\nu)_*[M]$$

defined in terms of the stable normal bundle of M , as this differs from Φ only by composition with a map $H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow H_*(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Z})$ induced by a homeomorphism $i : B\mathrm{SO} \rightarrow B\mathrm{SO}$. One then checks that after this modification, the composition in question can also be decomposed into a chain of maps

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_n^{\mathrm{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q} &\rightarrow \pi_{n+k}(M\mathrm{SO}(k)) \otimes \mathbb{Q} && (\text{for } k \gg 0) \\ &\rightarrow H_{n+k}(M\mathrm{SO}(k); \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow H_n(B\mathrm{SO}(k); \mathbb{Q}) \cong H_n(B\mathrm{SO}; \mathbb{Q}), \end{aligned}$$

all of which are isomorphisms for the following reasons:

- $\Omega_n^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q} \cong \pi_{n+k}(M\text{SO}(k)) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ follows from the Pontryagin-Thom theorem, after showing that $\pi_{n+k}(M\text{SO}(k))$ for $k \gg 0$ is isomorphic to the colimit as $k \rightarrow \infty$.
- The passage from π_{n+k} to H_{n+k} comes from a rational version of the Hurewicz theorem, which holds for a certain range of dimensions due to computations showing that homotopy groups of spheres in certain dimensions are always finite (see e.g. [tD08, §20.8]).
- $H_{n+k}(M\text{SO}(k); \mathbb{Q}) \cong H_n(B\text{SO}(k); \mathbb{Q})$ is a version of the Thom isomorphism theorem, which follows relatively easily from a cell decomposition of $M\text{SO}(k)$ in which every n -cell of $B\text{SO}(k)$ must be multiplied by a k -cell (due to the fibers of the k -plane bundle $E^{k,+} \rightarrow B\text{SO}(k)$) to produce an $(n+k)$ -cell of $M\text{SO}(k)$.

□

In light of Propositions 82.2 and 82.3, we obtain:

COROLLARY 82.9. *A closed oriented manifold M satisfies $k[M] = 0 \in \Omega_*^{\text{SO}}$ for some $k \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if all of its Pontryagin numbers vanish. Moreover, $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ is the polynomial ring over $\mathbb{Q}$ generated by the oriented bordism classes of all even-dimensional complex projective spaces.* □

82.4. Signature as a bordism invariant. Recall that for a closed oriented topological manifold M of dimension $4n$, the **intersection form** is defined by

$$Q_M : H^{2n}(M; \mathbb{R}) \times H^{2n}(M; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad Q_M(\alpha, \beta) := \langle \alpha \cup \beta, [M] \rangle.$$

This is a symmetric bilinear form on the real vector space $H^{2n}(M; \mathbb{R})$, or equivalently a quadratic form, and it is nonsingular as a consequence of Poincaré duality. For a quadratic form Q on a real vector space V , the signature of Q is

$$\sigma(Q) := m_+ - m_- \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where $m_{\pm}$ are the dimensions of maximal subspaces of V on which Q is positive/negative-definite respectively. Equivalently, if one chooses an inner product on V in order to express Q as the symmetric bilinear map $Q(v, w) = \langle v, Aw \rangle$ defined via a symmetric linear transformation $A : V \rightarrow V$, then the signature is the number of positive eigenvalues of A minus the number of negative eigenvalues, each counted with multiplicity. In the examples below, we describe quadratic forms as symmetric matrices with respect to a choice of basis.

DEFINITION 82.10. The **signature** $\sigma(M) \in \mathbb{Z}$ of a closed oriented manifold M of dimension $4n$ is defined as the signature of its intersection form.

CONVENTION. For closed oriented manifolds M with dimension not divisible by 4, we define $\sigma(M) := 0$. This convention will be justified by Theorem 82.14 below. Note that when $\dim M = 2k$ for k odd, the bilinear form Q_M on $H^k(M; \mathbb{R})$ can be defined as above, but it is antisymmetric rather than symmetric, making it a different kind of object algebraically.

EXAMPLE 82.11. $H_2(S^2 \times S^2)$ has two generators, represented by submanifolds $S^2 \times \{\text{const}\}$ and $\{\text{const}\} \times S^2$, which have a single positive transverse intersection with each other, but also have self-intersection 0 since e.g. there are two submanifolds of the form $S^2 \times \{\text{const}\}$ that do not intersect each other. Identifying the intersection form via Poincaré duality with the homological intersection product (see last semester's Lecture 55), $Q_{S^2 \times S^2}$ is thus represented by the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, which has one positive and one negative eigenvalue, so $\sigma(S^2 \times S^2) = 0$.

EXAMPLE 82.12. For each $n \geq 1$, $H^{2n}(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}; \mathbb{R})$ is 1-dimensional with a positive-definite intersection form, so $\sigma(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = 1$.

EXAMPLE 82.13. Reversing the orientation of $\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$ does not change its cohomology ring but does change its fundamental class by a sign, thus $\sigma(\overline{\mathbb{CP}}^{2n}) = -1$.

THEOREM 82.14. *The signature defines a ring homomorphism*

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} : [M] \mapsto \sigma(M).$$

PROOF. The most interesting detail is why $\sigma(M)$ depends only on the oriented bordism class of M , so that the map $\sigma : \Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is well defined. If you're willing to take that on faith for a moment, then it is not difficult to see why σ is also a ring homomorphism.

First, it respects the abelian group structure because the intersection form of a disjoint union $M \amalg N$ is the direct sum of the intersection forms of M and N , thus $\sigma(M \amalg N) = \sigma(M) + \sigma(N)$.

Second, it respects the multiplicative structure mainly because of the Künneth formula, which tells us that for a closed oriented $4m$ -manifold M and $4n$ -manifold N , the map

$$\bigoplus_{k+\ell=2(m+n)} H^k(M; \mathbb{R}) \otimes H^\ell(N; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H^{2(m+n)}(M \times N; \mathbb{R}) : \alpha \otimes \beta \mapsto \pi_M^* \alpha \cup \pi_N^* \beta$$

is an isomorphism; here π_M, π_N are the obvious projections of $M \times N$ to M and N . Note that since M and N are both compact cell complexes and we are using field coefficients, this is one of the situations in which the Künneth formula works just as well for cohomology as homology (cf. §80.2). The consequence of this isomorphism for the intersection form is a direct sum decomposition

$$Q_{M \times N} \cong (Q_M \otimes Q_N) \oplus Q',$$

in which $(Q_M \otimes Q_N)$ is the quadratic form on $H^{2m}(M; \mathbb{R}) \otimes H^{2n}(N; \mathbb{R})$ defined by

$$(Q_M \otimes Q_N)(\alpha_M \otimes \alpha_N, \beta_M \otimes \beta_N) = Q_M(\alpha_M, \beta_M) Q_N(\alpha_N, \beta_N),$$

and Q' is the restriction of $Q_{M \times N}$ to the subspace made up of tensor products of cohomologies of degrees other than $2m$ on M and $2n$ on N . One can check that Q' is always representable as a block matrix with blocks of zeroes along the diagonal, and deduce from this that its signature is 0, while the signature of $Q_M \otimes Q_N$ is the product of the signatures of Q_M and Q_N , hence $\sigma(M \times N) = \sigma(M)\sigma(N)$.

An addendum on the multiplicative structure: If the dimension of $M \times N$ is divisible by 4 but the dimensions of M and N are not, then the summand Q' in the decomposition sketched above becomes the entirety of $Q_{M \times N}$, thus proving that $\sigma(M \times N) = 0$. This is why we can get away with the convention of defining $\sigma(M) = 0$ whenever $\dim M \notin 4\mathbb{Z}$.

Finally, to show that the map is well defined on bordism classes, it now suffices to show that $\sigma(\partial W) = 0$ for any compact oriented $(4n+1)$ -manifold W . The key observation here is that the inclusion $i : \partial W \hookrightarrow W$ determines distinguished subspaces of $H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$ and $H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$ by

$$V := \ker \left(H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_{2n}(W; \mathbb{R}) \right) \subset H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}),$$

$$V^\perp := \text{im} \left(H^{2n}(W; \mathbb{R}) \xrightarrow{i^*} H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \right) \subset H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}),$$

where the notation for $V^\perp$ is motivated by its obvious identification with the annihilator of V under the natural isomorphism $H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{R}}(H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}), \mathbb{R})$. The fact that $[\partial W]$ is in the kernel of $i_* : H_{4n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_{4n}(W; \mathbb{R})$ then implies that $Q_{\partial W}|_{V^\perp} = 0$, and for similar reasons, the homological intersection product of ∂W vanishes on V . One can deduce the latter either from formal considerations involving the way that Poincaré duality relates the long exact sequences in homology and cohomology of the pair $(W, \partial W)$, or alternatively, from the following more geometric argument. There is an intersection product that pairs relative classes $A \in H_{2n+1}(W, \partial W; \mathbb{R})$ and absolute classes $B \in H_{2n}(W; \mathbb{R})$, which corresponds under Poincaré duality to the relative cup

product $H^{2n}(W; \mathbb{R}) \otimes H^{2n+1}(W, \partial W; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H^{4n+1}(W, \partial W; \mathbb{R})$. If B lies in the image of the map $i_* : H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_{2n}(W; \mathbb{R})$, then representing it with a closed $2n$ -dimensional submanifold lying in ∂W reveals that the intersection product $A \cdot B$ matches the intersection product in ∂W of $\partial_* A \in H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$ and the class that B represents in $H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$. By the long exact sequence in homology, $\partial_* A$ can be any class in the kernel of the map $i_* : H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_{2n}(W; \mathbb{R})$, and if B is also assumed to lie in that kernel, then $A \cdot B$ obviously vanishes. One can deduce from all this that V is precisely the image of $V^\perp$ under the Poincaré duality isomorphism $H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow H_{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$, thus the dimensions of V and $V^\perp$ are both identical and complementary, implying $\dim V^\perp = \frac{1}{2} \dim H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$. Since the intersection form $Q_{\partial W}$ is nonsingular, this is in fact the largest possible dimension that a subspace on which $Q_{\partial W}$ vanishes could have. It implies that $Q_{\partial W}$ can be written in block matrix form as $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & A \\ A^T & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, and one can show by induction on the dimension of $H^{2n}(\partial W; \mathbb{R})$ that quadratic forms admitting such a representation always have signature 0. $\square$

Since $\sigma(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = 1$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we now have:

COROLLARY 82.15. *All finite products of even-dimensional complex projective spaces represent primitive elements in Ω_*^{SO} .* $\square$

Combining Theorem 82.14 with Corollary 82.9, we now obtain:

COROLLARY 82.16. *If $\Psi : \Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is a ring homomorphism satisfying $\Psi([\mathbb{CP}^{2n}]) = 1$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then it also satisfies $\Psi([M]) = \sigma(M)$ for every closed oriented smooth manifold M .* $\square$

82.5. The Hirzebruch signature formula. Thanks to Corollary 82.16, the way toward the Hirzebruch formula should now be clear: If we can produce from the Pontryagin classes of a closed oriented manifold M a ring homomorphism $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ that equals 1 on every even-dimensional complex projective space, then it will necessarily be the same as the signature.

There is an algebraic prescription for this, which goes by the name of *genera*. We'll go into more detail on this in the next section, but in brief, one can produce from any formal power series of the form

$$f(z) = 1 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots, \quad a_j \in \mathbb{Q}$$

a unique sequence of polynomials

$$K_n \in \mathbb{Q}[p_1, \dots, p_n], \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

with the following properties:

- (1) The coefficient of p_1^n in K_n is a_n ;
- (2) For real vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ over CW-complexes, feeding the first n Pontryagin classes of E into K_n produces a characteristic class of degree $4n$,

$$K_n(p_1(E), \dots, p_n(E)) \in H^{4n}(X; \mathbb{Q}),$$

so in particular, the “total K -class”

$$K(E) := 1 + K_1(p_1(E)) + K_2(p_1(E), p_2(E)) + K_3(p_1(E), p_2(E), p_3(E)) + \dots \in H^*(X; \mathbb{Q})$$

is always a finite sum;

- (3) The total K -classes of any two vector bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ satisfy the Whitney sum formula

$$K(E \oplus F) = K(E) \cup K(F).$$

Note that while the statement above is expressed in terms of characteristic classes, it is actually a purely algebraic result: the Whitney sum formula is equivalent to a sequence of algebraic relations that the polynomials K_n need to satisfy, and one can derive from this a recursive algorithm in which the leading terms in $K_n(p_1, \dots, p_n) = a_n p_1^n + \dots$ determine the rest of the coefficients for every n .

With this in place, one then defines the **K -genus** of any closed oriented smooth $4n$ -manifold M by

$$K(M) := \langle K_n(p_1(M), \dots, p_n(M)), [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Since $K(M)$ is a Pontryagin number and the rational Pontryagin classes are stable isomorphism invariants, the same argument as in Theorem 81.14 implies that $K(M)$ depends only on the bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_n^{\text{SO}}$. One can then deduce from naturality and the Whitney sum formula for the K -classes that the K -genus also satisfies

$$K(M \amalg N) = K(M) + K(N), \quad \text{and} \quad K(M \times N) = K(M)K(N),$$

thus it defines a ring homomorphism

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} : [M] \mapsto K(M).$$

Hirzebruch found a specific power series

$$f(z) := \frac{\sqrt{z}}{\tanh \sqrt{z}} = 1 + \frac{1}{3}z - \frac{1}{45}z^2 + \dots,$$

for which the value taken by the resulting ring homomorphism $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ on every even-dimensional complex projective space is 1. The corresponding polynomials are denoted by $L_n \in \mathbb{Q}[p_1, \dots, p_n]$, and the numerical invariant

$$L(M) := \langle L_n(p_1(M), \dots, p_n(M)), [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Q}$$

for smooth oriented closed manifolds of dimension $4n$ is called the **L -genus**. The polynomials L_n can be computed explicitly from the power series, and we'll get into the details of this in §82.7 below, but will just mention for now that the cases $n = 1, 2$ take the form

$$L_1(p_1) = \frac{1}{3}p_1, \quad L_2(p_1, p_2) = \frac{1}{45}(7p_2 - p_1^2).$$

Putting everything together, one then obtains:

THEOREM 82.17 (Hirzebruch signature formula). *For every closed oriented smooth manifold M of dimension $4n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$\sigma(M) = \langle L_n(p_1(M), \dots, p_n(M)), [M] \rangle.$$

□

One powerful aspect of the signature theorem is that the definition of the L -genus provides no hint that its values should be integers, but they must be, since the signature is. In Lecture 58, we sketched an argument that uses this fact to prove that certain smooth manifolds homeomorphic to S^7 cannot also be diffeomorphic to S^7 , because if they were, then there would exist a closed smooth 8-manifold M with $\sigma(M) = 8$ and $p_1(M) = 0$, implying

$$\langle L_2(p_1(M), p_2(M)), [M] \rangle = \frac{7}{45} \langle p_2(M), [M] \rangle = 8,$$

which is numerically impossible.

REMARK 82.18. A student once asked me whether there is any intuitive way to understand why the fact that $45 \cdot 8$ isn't divisible by 7 should be relevant to the existence of exotic spheres. I would say that the particular numbers arising here are happy accidents, but one can point to a couple of big ideas that make it seem nearly *inevitable* for such an argument to work. The first is the Pontryagin-Thom construction, which identifies the seemingly exotic bordism ring $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ with something much more familiar, the homology of a single CW-complex $B\text{SO}$, thus providing a manageable list of generators for $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ that are spaces we understand very well. The second big idea is the algebraic recipe for producing ring homomorphisms $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ out of polynomial

functions of characteristic classes; we'll have more to say about this in §82.6 below. Once the generators of $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ are understood, it is not difficult to show that there is a unique power series $f \in \mathbb{Q}[[z]]$ generating a sequence of polynomials that produce exactly the result one wants, namely a ring homomorphism $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ that equals 1 on $[\mathbb{CP}^{2n}]$ for every n , and therefore must equal the signature in general. In theory, it could have turned out that these polynomials all have integer coefficients, which would have been very unlucky—the signature formula would then still have nontrivial content, but it would not provide such an obvious criterion to rule out certain combinations of classes in $H^{4k}(M; \mathbb{Z})$ arising as the Pontryagin classes of a smooth manifold M . On the other hand, the algebraic construction naturally gives rational coefficients for the polynomials—there is no evident reason why they should turn out to be integers, and in the absence of such a reason, it seems nearly impossible for the signature formula not to give us something nontrivial and useful, independently of the precise numbers that turn out to deliver the final step in the proof.

82.6. Multiplicative sequences and genera. We now get into the details about the “algebraic prescription” that leads to the L -genus appearing in the Hirzebruch signature formula. The idea in the background can be expressed in considerably more generality: suppose in particular that we have a sequence of characteristic classes

$$q_k \in H^{mk}(X; R), \quad k \in \mathbb{N}$$

defined for a given class of vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ that is closed under the direct sum operation, where $m \geq 1$ is a fixed integer and R is a commutative ring with unit. We will assume that the “total q -class”

$$q(E) := 1 + q_1(E) + q_2(E) + q_3(E) + \dots$$

satisfies the Whitney sum formula

$$q(E \oplus F) = q(E) \cup q(F)$$

for all pairs of bundles on which these classes are defined. The Stiefel-Whitney, Chern and Pontryagin classes are all examples of this setup if one chooses the correct class of vector bundles and the correct coefficients, e.g. the Chern classes require the bundles to be complex, and the Pontryagin classes require coefficients in $R := \mathbb{Q}$ if we want the Whitney sum formula to hold without restriction. We do *not* need to assume that only finitely-many of the classes $q_k(E)$ are nonzero for any given bundle E , so the total q -class may be a formal series rather than a finite sum, but since only finitely-many of its terms have degrees satisfying any given upper bound, the Whitney sum formula still gives well-defined relations between the q -classes of E , F and $E \oplus F$, which can be written in the form

$$q_n(E \oplus F) = \sum_{k+\ell=n} q_k(E) \cup q_\ell(F)$$

if we allow the summation to range over integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ and adopt the convention

$$q_0(E) := 1 \in H^0(X; R) \quad \text{for all } E \rightarrow X.$$

The idea now is to produce new characteristic classes as the homogeneous terms in formal sums of the form

$$K(E) = 1 + K_1(q_1(E)) + K_2(q_1(E), q_2(E)) + K_3(q_1(E), q_2(E), q_3(E)) + \dots,$$

where for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $K_n \in R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a polynomial in n variables with coefficients in R , having the correct form so that plugging in the cohomology classes $q_1(E), \dots, q_n(E)$ and interpreting products as cup products produces a cohomology class of degree mn , the same degree as $q_n(E)$. This is a purely algebraic condition on the polynomials K_n , e.g. it means that K_1, K_2, K_3 must have the form

$$K_1(x_1) = ax_1, \quad K_2(x_1, x_2) = bx_1^2 + cx_2, \quad K_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) = dx_1^3 + ex_1x_2 + fx_3$$

for some coefficients $a, b, c, d, e, f \in R$. Once again, the formal sum $K(E)$ is not required to be finite, but for each individual $n \geq 1$, one obtains in this way a characteristic class $K_n(E) := K_n(q_1(E), \dots, q_n(E))$ living in $H^{mn}(X; R)$, defined on the same class of vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ for which the classes q_n are defined. Here is the important part: we would also like to choose the polynomials K_n such that the formula

$$(82.1) \quad K(E \oplus F) = K(E) \cup K(F)$$

is satisfied for all pairs of bundles $E, F \rightarrow X$ on which the q -classes are defined. This too can be interpreted as a purely algebraic condition: given that the total q -class satisfies the Whitney sum formula, (82.1) will be satisfied whenever the polynomials $K_n \in R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ satisfy a particular sequence of algebraic relations, the first two of which are

$$\begin{aligned} K_1(x_1 + y_1) &= K_1(x_1) + K_1(y_1), \\ K_2(x_1 + y_1, x_2 + x_1y_1 + y_2) &= K_2(x_1, x_2) + K_1(x_1)K_1(y_1) + K_2(y_1, y_2), \end{aligned}$$

and for arbitrary $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the n th relation in the sequence can be written as

$$(82.2) \quad K_n\left(x_1 + y_1, \dots, \sum_{k+\ell=n} x_k y_\ell\right) = \sum_{k+\ell=n} K_k(x_1, \dots, x_k) K_\ell(y_1, \dots, y_\ell),$$

where the summations range over integers $k, \ell \geq 0$ and we write $x_0 = y_0 = K_0 := 1$. Any sequence of polynomials $K_n \in R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ defined for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and satisfying these relations is called a **multiplicative sequence**, and it gives rise to a sequence of characteristic classes satisfying (82.1).

We can already see that there exists at least one multiplicative sequence: taking $K_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) := x_n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ makes $K(E)$ just another way of writing the total q -class, which satisfies (82.1) by assumption, and the relations (82.2) are satisfied trivially. We will see below that there are many more multiplicative sequences beyond this one.

Since $K(E)$ cannot contain any information that isn't already in the q -classes, one may naturally wonder what is to be gained from rewriting them in this way. The answer is that under some reasonable assumptions, every multiplicative sequence defines a ring homomorphism on a corresponding bordism theory.

To see how this works, let's assume for concreteness that the q -classes are the Pontryagin classes $p_k \in H^{4k}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ with rational coefficients, so every multiplicative sequence $K_n \in \mathbb{Q}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ then gives rise to a sequence of characteristic classes $K_n(E) \in H^{4n}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ defined for all real vector bundles $E \rightarrow X$ over CW-complexes, and expressed as polynomial functions of the Pontryagin classes of E . Note that unlike the Pontryagin classes themselves, it is possible (depending on the choice of polynomials) for infinitely-many of the classes $K_n(E)$ to be nonzero on any given bundle, if its base is infinite-dimensional. However, we will specifically consider tangent bundles of closed oriented manifolds M , because these have fundamental classes $[M] \in H_*(M; \mathbb{Q})$ on which $K(TM)$ can be evaluated to produce a numerical invariant, called the **K -genus** of M :

$$K(M) := \langle K(TM), [M] \rangle \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

The convention in this definition is that for a formal series $x := x_0 + x_1 + x_2 + \dots$ of cohomology classes $x_k \in H^k(X)$, evaluation $\langle x, c \rangle$ on a homogeneous homology class $c \in H_k(X)$ means $\langle x_k, c \rangle$. Concretely, the K -genus of a manifold M of dimension $4n$ is thus given by

$$K(M) = \langle K_n(p_1(M), \dots, p_n(M)), [M] \rangle,$$

and $K(M)$ is defined to vanish whenever $\dim M \notin 4\mathbb{Z}$, since $K(TM)$ then has no terms of degree equal to $\dim M$.

THEOREM 82.19. *For any multiplicative sequence $\{K_n\}$ with rational coefficients, the K -genus defines a ring homomorphism*

$$\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q} : [M] \mapsto K(M).$$

PROOF. The K -genus for manifolds M of any given dimension is a specific Pontryagin number of M , and thus vanishes whenever M is the boundary of a compact oriented manifold. The relation $K(M \amalg N) = K(M) + K(N)$ follows from naturality, since the pullback of $T(M \amalg N)$ via the inclusion of each of its components is the tangent bundle of that component. From these two facts, we see that $K(M)$ depends in general only on the bordism class $[M] \in \Omega_*^{\text{SO}}$, and defines a group homomorphism. The interesting part is the ring structure: given two closed oriented manifolds M and N , the fundamental class $[M \times N]$ is the homological cross product $[M] \times [N]$, while the tangent bundle $T(M \times N)$ has fibers $T_{(x,y)}(M \times N) = T_x M \oplus T_y N$ and is thus the direct sum

$$T(M \times N) = \pi_M^* TM \oplus \pi_N^* TN,$$

with π_M, π_N denoting the projections of $M \times N$ to its factors. Using the multiplicative relation and naturality, we therefore have

$$\begin{aligned} K(M \times N) &= \langle K(T(M \times N)), [M \times N] \rangle = \langle K(\pi_M^* TM \oplus \pi_N^* TN), [M] \times [N] \rangle \\ &= \langle \pi_M^* K(TM) \cup \pi_N^* K(TN), [M] \times [N] \rangle \\ &= \langle K(TM) \times K(TN), [M] \times [N] \rangle \\ &= \langle K(TM), [M] \rangle \cdot \langle K(TN), [N] \rangle = K(M)K(N), \end{aligned}$$

where it should be noted that no annoying signs appear in the last step because the K -classes have nontrivial terms only in even degrees. $\square$

If the goal is to find a ring homomorphism $\Omega_*^{\text{SO}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ that matches the signature, then the to-do list should now be clear: we need to find a multiplicative sequence $\{K_n\}$ with rational coefficients for which the K -genus of $\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$ is 1 for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. You will notice that the one concrete example of a multiplicative sequence that we've already seen does *not* do the trick: taking $K_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_n$ for every n , the K -genus of $\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$ becomes its top-dimensional Pontryagin number (see Exercise 80.8),

$$\langle p_n(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}), [\mathbb{CP}^{2n}] \rangle = \binom{2n+1}{n},$$

which is interesting and nontrivial, but it is not 1. This motivates the search for other multiplicative sequences, and the following algebraic result provides them.

THEOREM 82.20. *For any commutative ring R and any formal power series $f \in R[[z]]$ of the form $f(z) = 1 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots$ with coefficients $a_j \in R$, there exists a unique multiplicative sequence $\{K_n \in R[x_1, \dots, x_n]\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the coefficient of x_1^n in K_n is a_n .*

Another useful way to characterize the relationship in Theorem 82.20 between the power series $f(z) = 1 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots$ and the polynomials K_n is as follows: the characteristic classes $K_n(p_1(E), \dots, p_n(E)) \in H^{4n}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ determined by f have the property that for any bundle $E \rightarrow X$ whose rational Pontryagin classes $p_k(E) \in H^{4k}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ vanish for all $k \geq 2$, $K(E)$ is given by evaluating the power series on $p_1(E)$:

$$(82.3) \quad K(E) = f(p_1(E)) = 1 + a_1 p_1(E) + a_2 p_1(E)^2 + a_3 p_1(E)^3 + \dots$$

From this perspective, it should not be surprising that the polynomials K_n are all uniquely determined by f , and e.g. whenever E is a complex bundle (regarded as a real bundle for the purposes of Pontryagin classes), one can use the splitting principle for complex bundles to derive from this a more general formula expressing $K(E)$ purely in terms of f . As should be clear from the statement,

however, Theorem 82.20 is a purely algebraic result that requires no knowledge of characteristic classes, neither in the statement nor in the proof.

I will say only a few things about the proof: first, if you try deriving formulas for the first few elements in a multiplicative sequence K_n with prescribed initial terms $K_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = a_n x_1^n + \dots$, you will already develop some intuition that the theorem must be true. The full proof is a bit tedious, but not fundamentally difficult: the main thing it relies on is a standard result about the elementary symmetric polynomials, namely that every symmetric polynomial in n variables can be expressed uniquely as a polynomial function of elementary symmetric polynomials. A readable complete proof may be found in [MS74, Lemma 19.1].

82.7. The L -genus. So how does one produce a multiplicative sequence of polynomials $L_n \in \mathbb{Q}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ such that feeding them with Pontryagin classes produces a genus L with $L(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = 1$ for all n ?

According to Theorem 82.20, every multiplicative sequence can be encoded by a power series $f(z) = 1 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots$, in this case with rational coefficients since we are working with Pontryagin classes, so we can try to compute $L(\mathbb{CP}^{2n})$ from this power series. In fact, this is not difficult: since the Pontryagin classes are invariant under stable isomorphism, the same will be true of the L -classes, and we are therefore free to replace $T\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$ with $(\ell^*)^{\oplus(2n+1)}$, where ℓ^* is the dual of the tautological complex line bundle $\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^{2n}$. Viewed as a real bundle of rank 2, ℓ^* has a complexification isomorphic to $\ell \oplus \ell^*$ and thus has total Pontryagin class

$$p(\ell^*) = 1 + x^2,$$

with $x \in H^2(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}; \mathbb{Z})$ as usual denoting the generator with $\langle x, [\mathbb{CP}^1] \rangle = 1$. In particular, $p_1(\ell^*) = x^2 \in H^4(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}; \mathbb{Z})$ and $p_k(\ell^*) = 0$ for all $k \geq 2$, which puts us in the situation of (82.3), and we can therefore write

$$L(\ell^*) = f(p_1(\ell^*)) = f(x^2) = 1 + a_1 x^2 + a_2 x^4 + \dots$$

Using the multiplicative property, the result for $T(\mathbb{CP}^{2n})$ is

$$L(T\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = L((\ell^*)^{\oplus(2n+1)}) = [f(x^2)]^{2n+1},$$

which is another power series in x^2 with rational coefficients. Evaluating it on $[\mathbb{CP}^{2n}] \in H_{4n}(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}; \mathbb{Q})$ picks out the x^{2n} term in this series, and since $\langle x^{2n}, [\mathbb{CP}^{2n}] \rangle = 1$, the L -genus of $\mathbb{CP}^{2n}$ will then be characterized by

$$L(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = b_n,$$

where

$$[f(z^2)]^{2n+1} = (1 + a_1 z^2 + a_2 z^4 + \dots)^{2n+1} = 1 + b_1 z^2 + b_2 z^4 + \dots + b_n z^{2n} + \dots$$

PROPOSITION 82.21. *There is a unique power series $f \in \mathbb{Q}[[z]]$ for which the corresponding genus $L(\mathbb{CP}^{2n}) = b_n$ computed above is 1 for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$.*

It is not difficult to prove this proposition by an elementary recursive algorithm, and anyone with enough perseverance (or a computer) can calculate the coefficients in the series as far as their patience will allow. I personally have just enough patience to tell you that it begins with

$$(82.4) \quad f(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{3}z - \frac{1}{45}z^2 + \dots,$$

which is something that Wikipedia also could have told you. This is already enough information to compute what is truly important for our purposes: the polynomials $L_1(x_1)$ and $L_2(x_1, x_2)$,

the second of which plays a starring role in the proof that exotic 7-spheres exist. Knowing the coefficient of the linear term in f , Theorem 82.20 implies that L_1 can only be

$$L_1(x_1) = \frac{1}{3}x_1.$$

The second polynomial must then be of the form $L_2(x_1, x_2) = -\frac{1}{45}x_1^2 + bx_2$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Q}$, and one deduces from the $n = 2$ case of the multiplicative relation (82.2) that $b = \frac{7}{45}$, giving

$$L_2(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{45}(7x_2 - x_1^2).$$

These two polynomials give the formulas we've seen for the L -genera of closed oriented manifolds of dimensions 4 and 8 respectively, namely

$$L(M^4) = \frac{1}{3}\langle p_1(M), [M] \rangle, \quad L(M^8) = \frac{1}{45}\langle 7p_2(M) - p_1(M)^2, [M] \rangle.$$

The Hirzebruch signature theorem for dimensions 4 and 8 thus tells us that these rational numbers must always actually be integers, because they are equal to $\sigma(M)$.

I should point out: the L -classes $L_n(p_1(E), \dots, p_n(E)) \in H^{4n}(X; \mathbb{Q})$ are well-defined characteristic classes for every real vector bundle $E \rightarrow X$ over a CW-complex, and they live generally in $H^*(X; \mathbb{Q})$, not in $H^*(X; \mathbb{Z})$. It is a special feature of tangent bundles $E = TM$ of closed oriented $4n$ -manifolds that the L -class in degree $4n$ can be lifted to $H^{4n}(M; \mathbb{Z})$, despite having rational coefficients in its definition.

One last thing: for the topological applications we have discussed, we had no need to worry about whether the formal power series $f(z) = 1 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \dots$ converges, but for the particular power series giving rise to the L polynomials, it turns out that it does converge on a neighborhood of $0 \in \mathbb{C}$ to a holomorphic function that can be written in closed form, and that function is

$$f(z) = \frac{\sqrt{z}}{\tanh \sqrt{z}}.$$

(Yes, that's a holomorphic function near $0 \in \mathbb{C}$: the presence of two square roots instead of just one makes it single-valued, and the apparent singularity at the origin is removable. Some routine computations with familiar power series will convince you that its Taylor series looks like (82.4).) The standard trick to see that this is the right function is based on Cauchy integration in the complex plane. Recall that for any meromorphic function on a punctured neighborhood of $0 \in \mathbb{C}$, the coefficient of $1/z$ can be extracted via the integral

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \left(\frac{b_n}{z^n} + \frac{b_{n-1}}{z^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{b_1}{z} + a_0 + a_1z + a_2z^2 + \dots \right) dz = b_1,$$

where the symbol $\oint$ means integration along a small counterclockwise circle in $\mathbb{C}$ surrounding the origin. This follows from Cauchy's theorem, because all terms in the series other than b_1/z are derivatives of holomorphic functions on the punctured plane, but the antiderivative of $1/z$ is multivalued, producing $\oint \frac{dz}{z} = 2\pi i$. For the holomorphic function $f(z) = \frac{\sqrt{z}}{\tanh \sqrt{z}}$ and each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we are looking for the coefficient of z^{2n} in the function

$$[f(z^2)]^{2n+1} = \left(\frac{z}{\tanh z} \right)^{2n+1},$$

or to put it a bit more simply, the coefficient of z^n in $[f(z^2)]^{n+1}$ for each $n \geq 2$ even. This coefficient is the integral

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{1}{z^{n+1}} \left(\frac{z}{\tanh z} \right)^{n+1} dz &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{dz}{(\tanh z)^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{d\zeta}{\zeta^{n+1}(1-\zeta^2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint \frac{1}{\zeta^{n+1}} (1 + \zeta^2 + \zeta^4 + \dots) d\zeta, \end{aligned}$$

where we've used the substitution $\zeta := \tanh z$, which is a diffeomorphism on a neighborhood of $0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and thus does not meaningfully change the path of integration. This last integral extracts the coefficient of $\frac{1}{\zeta}$ in the meromorphic function $\frac{1}{\zeta^{n+1}}(1 + \zeta^2 + \zeta^4 + \dots)$, which is 1 if n is even, and 0 otherwise.

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