# Algebraic Topology 

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#### Abstract

Lecture notes for the course Algebraic Topology lectured in the academic year 2018-2019.




Topology and Breakfast.

## The Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem

Even the simplest problems in topology - for instance, whether two topological spaces $X$ and $Y$ are homeomorphic - are oftentimes very hard to answer. In order to show $X$ and $Y$ are homeomorphic, it suffices to find a single homeomorphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$. But in order to show that they are not homeomorphic, one needs to prove no such homeomorphism can exist. And how on earth are you meant to do that? Even if you can't find one, how do you know that tomorrow some really smart mathematician isn't going to magically come up with one? This is where algebraic topology comes in. The idea is to associate algebraic invariants of a topological space. Here "invariants" means that two homeomorphic spaces should have the same invariants. Thus to show two spaces are not homeomorphic, it suffices to show they have different invariants.

So, to summarise the entire course:

- Topology is hard.
- Algebra is easy.
- Algebraic topology converts topological problems into algebraic problems.
- Profit.

We illustrate this philosophy with an example. Let $B^{n} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ denote the closed n-dimensional unit ball

$$
B^{n}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}| | x \mid \leq 1\right\} .
$$

The boundary of $B^{n}$ is the $(n-1)$-dimensional unit sphere $S^{n-1}$ :

$$
S^{n-1}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}| | x \mid=1\right\}
$$

The following famous theorem is due to Brouwer.
Theorem 1.1 (The Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem). For all $n \geq 1$, every continuous map $f: B^{n} \rightarrow B^{n}$ has a fixed point.

In the case $n=1$, this theorem has a simple proof using connectivity:
Proof of Theorem 1.1 in the case $n=1$. Suppose $f(-1)=a$ and $f(1)=b$. If $a=-1$ or $b=1$ we are done, so assume that $a>-1$ and $b<1$. Consider the graph of $f$ :

$$
\operatorname{Gr}(f):=\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in[-1,1]\} .
$$

A fixed point of $f$ is the same thing as a point of intersection between $\operatorname{Gr}(f)$ and the diagonal

$$
\Delta:=\{(x, x) \mid x \in[-1,1]\} .
$$

Since $f$ is continuous, $\operatorname{Gr}(f)$ is connected ${ }^{1}$. Let

$$
A:=\{(x, f(x)) \mid f(x)>x\}, \quad B:=\{(x, f(x)) \mid f(x)<x\} .
$$

Then $(-1, a) \in A$ and $(1, b) \in B$, so in particular $A$ and $B$ are both non-empty. If $\operatorname{Gr}(f) \cap \Delta=\emptyset$ then $\operatorname{Gr}(f)=A \cup B$. Since $f$ is continuous, $A$ and $B$ are open ${ }^{2}$ in $\operatorname{Gr}(f)$. This contradicts the fact that $\operatorname{Gr}(f)$ is connected.

Interestingly, it is not known how to extend this simple argument to deal with the case $n>1$. Nevertheless there are several different complicated arguments. For instance, there is an analytical argument that goes as follows: first approximate $f$ by a sequence of differentiable functions $g_{k}$ with the property that $f$ has a fixed point if and only if all the $g_{k}$ do for large $k$. Then prove directly that any differentiable function must have a fixed point.

The "cutest" proof uses methods from algebraic topology. Later on in the course we will construct a homology functor $H_{n}$ for each $n \geq 0$, which associates to any topological space $X$ an abelian group $H_{n}(X)$, and to any continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a homomorphism

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y) .
$$

The induced maps $H_{n}(f)$ have the property that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(g \circ f)=H_{n}(g) \circ H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Z), \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(\operatorname{id}_{X}\right)=\operatorname{id}_{H_{n}(X)}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X) . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover the homology functor $H_{n}$ vanishes on the ball $B^{n+1}$ but not on the sphere $S^{n}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right)=0, \quad H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0, \quad \forall n \geq 1 . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The construction of $H_{n}$ and the verification of (1.1), (1.2) and (1.3) will take some time. Nevertheless, armed with these only these properties, it is easy to prove Theorem 1.1 in all dimensions.

Definition 1.2. Suppose $X$ is a subspace of a topological space $Y$. We say that $X$ is a retract of $Y$ if there exists a continuous map $r: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $r(x)=x$ for all $x \in X$. Equivalently, denoting by $\imath: X \hookrightarrow Y$ the inclusion, this means that the following diagram commutes:


[^0]Lemma 1.3. For all $n \geq 1, S^{n}$ is not a retract of $B^{n+1}$.
Proof. Suppose for contradiction that there exists a retraction $r: B^{n+1} \rightarrow S^{n}$, so that the following diagram commutes:


Equation (1.1) means that we can "apply the homology functor $H_{n}$ " to this commutative diagram to obtain another one:


Note this diagram is a commutative diagram of group homomorphisms between abelian groups, rather than a commutative diagram of continuous maps between topological spaces. Since $H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right)=0$ by (1.3) the map $H_{n}(r): H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right) \rightarrow$ $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$ is the zero map. But since $H_{n}(\mathrm{id})=$ id by (1.2) and $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$, this is a contradiction.

Remark 1.4. In fact, Lemma 1.3 is also true for $n=0$. The 0 -dimensional sphere is just $\{-1,1\}$, which is disconnected. Since $[-1,1]$ is connected and the image of a connected subset under a continuous map is connected, it follows there does not exist any continuous surjective map $r: B^{1} \rightarrow S^{0}$ (and thus in particular there does not exist a retraction.)

We now show how Theorem 1.1 follows from Lemma 1.3.
Proof of Theorem 1.1. Take $n \geq 0$. Suppose $f: B^{n+1} \rightarrow B^{n+1}$ has no fixed points. Then for every point $x \in B^{n+1}$, there is a unique line that starts at $f(x)$, goes through $x$, and then hits a point on the boundary $S^{n}$ of $B^{n+1}$. Let us denote by $r: B^{n+1} \rightarrow S^{n}$ the map that sends $x$ to the point on $S^{n}$ that this line hits. See Figure 1.1. Since $f$ is continuous, the map $r$ is also continuous ${ }^{3}$. If $x \in S^{n}$ then clearly $r(x)=x$. Thus $r$ is a retraction. This contradicts ${ }^{4}$ Lemma 1.3.

Let us now formalise the notion of a "homology functor", by introducing elements of a field of mathematics called category theory. In this course, we will only ever use category theory as a convenient "language" to phrase theorems from algebraic topology in-we will never actually use any genuine theorems in category theory.

[^1]

Figure 1.1: The retract $r$.

Remark 1.5. A word of warning: category theory is often (lovingly) referred to as abstract nonsense. But fear not: nothing we will do will ever be that abstract!

Definition 1.6. A category $C$ consists of three ingredients. The first is a class obj $(C)$ of objects. Secondly, for each ordered pair of objects $(A, B)$ there is a set $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ of morphisms from $A$ to $B$. Sometimes instead of $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ we write $f: A \rightarrow B$ or $A \xrightarrow{f} B$. Finally, there is a rule, called composition, which associates to every ordered triple $(A, B, C)$ of objects a map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \times \operatorname{Hom}(B, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, C)
$$

written

$$
(f, g) \mapsto g \circ f
$$

which satisfies the following three axioms:

1. The Hom sets are pairwise disjoint; that is, each $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ has a unique domain $A$ and a unique target $B$.
2. Composition is associative whenever defined, i.e. given

$$
A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \xrightarrow{h} D
$$

one has

$$
(h \circ g) \circ f=h \circ(g \circ f) .
$$

3. For each $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ there is a unique morphism $\operatorname{id}_{A} \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, A)$ called the identity which has the property that $f \circ \operatorname{id}_{A}=f$ and $\operatorname{id}_{B} \circ f=f$ for every $f: A \rightarrow B$.

Remark 1.7. Note that we said that obj(C) was a class and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ was a set. There is (an important, but technical) difference between a class and a set. If you've ever taken a class on logic/set theory, you'll know that not every "collection" of objects is formally a set. For instance, the collection of all sets is itself not a set! A class is a more general concept (the collection of all sets is a class). Nevertheless, as far as this course is concerned, the distinction is irrelevant, and you are free to ignore this remark!

Here are four examples of categories:
Example 1.8. The category Sets of sets. The objects of Sets are all the sets, and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ is just the set of all functions from $A$ to $B$, and composition is just the usual composition of functions.

Example 1.9. The category Top of topological spaces. The objects of Top are all the topological spaces, and $\operatorname{Hom}(X, Y)$ is just the set $C(X, Y)$ of all continuous functions from $X$ to $Y$, and composition is just the usual composition of functions.

Example 1.10. The category Groups of groups. The objects of Groups are just groups, and $\operatorname{Hom}(G, H)$ is just the set $\operatorname{Hom}(G, H)$ of all homomorphisms from $G$ to $H$, and composition is just the usual composition of homomorphisms.

Example 1.11. The category Ab of abelian groups. The objects of $A b$ are just abelian groups, and $\operatorname{Hom}(G, H)$ is again just the set $\operatorname{Hom}(G, H)$ of all homomorphisms from $G$ to $H$, and composition is just the usual composition of homomorphisms.

Remark 1.12. The fact that we require the morphism sets to be pairwise disjoint has several pedantic consequences. For example, suppose $A \subsetneq B$ are two sets. Then the inclusion $\imath: A \hookrightarrow B$ and the identity map $\mathrm{id}_{A}: A \rightarrow A$ are different morphisms, since they have different targets. One should be aware that we only allow the composition $g \circ f$ when the range of $f$ is exactly the same as the domain of $g$. Suppose $X, Y, Y^{\prime}$ and $Z$ are topological spaces with $Y \subsetneq Y^{\prime}$. From the point of view of analysis, say, if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y^{\prime} \rightarrow Z$ are continuous functions then the composition $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ is clearly a well-defined continuous function. But from the point of view of category theory, the composition $g \circ f$ does not exist! Rather, one must first take the inclusion $\imath: Y \hookrightarrow Y^{\prime}$ and then consider the composition $g \circ \imath \circ f$, which is a well-defined element of the morphism space $C(X, Z)$.

A functor is a map from one category to another:
Definition 1.13. Suppose C and D are two categories. A functor $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ associates to each $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ an object $T(A) \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{D})$, and to each morphism $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ in C a morphism $T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(B)$ in D which satisfies the following two axioms:

1. If $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ in C then $T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(C)$ in D and

$$
T(g \circ f)=T(g) \circ T(f) .
$$

2. $T\left(\mathrm{id}_{A}\right)=\mathrm{id}_{T(A)}$ for every $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

The easiest example of a functor is a forgetful functor:
Example 1.14. The forgetful functor Top $\rightarrow$ Sets simply "forgets" the topological structure. Thus it assigns to each topological space its underlying set, and to each continuous function it assigns the same function, considered now simply as a map between two sets (i.e. it "forgets" the function is continuous).

We can now make sense of the homology functor mentioned earlier.
Theorem 1.15. For each $n \geq 0$ there exists a functor $H_{n}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Ab called a homology functor with the property that for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right)=0, \quad H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0
$$

I say "a" homology functor since $H_{n}$ is not (quite) unique (we will construct several different ones eventually). In fact, before constructing homology functors we will first construct an "easier" functor called the fundamental group. This will (almost ${ }^{5}$ ) be a functor

$$
\pi_{1}: \text { Top } \rightarrow \text { Groups, }
$$

and its construction will take us up to the end of Lecture 4.

[^2]
## The notion of homotopy

In this lecture we introduce the notion of "deforming" one function (or one space) into another, which mathematically is known as homotopy. Throughout this course, we denote by

$$
I:=[0,1], \quad \partial I=\{0,1\}
$$

Definition 2.1. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces and $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ are two continuous functions. A homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$ is a continuous function

$$
F: X \times I \rightarrow Y
$$

such that

$$
F(x, 0)=f_{0}(x), \quad F(x, 1)=f_{1}(x)
$$

We write $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ to indicate $F$ is a homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$, and we write $f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ to indicate there exists such an $F$.

Given a homotopy $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$, setting $f_{t}(x):=F(x, t)$, we obtain a family $f_{t}$ of continuous functions which deforms $f_{0}$ at time $t=0$ into $f_{1}$ at time $t=1$. Since $F$ is continuous on $X \times I$, the family $f_{t}$ depends continuously on $t$.

The following lemma will be used time and time again. We will refer to it as "the gluing lemma".

Lemma 2.2 (The gluing lemma). Let $X$ be a topological space. Assume $X$ can be written as a finite union

$$
X=\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} X_{i}
$$

where each $X_{i}$ is a closed subspace of $X$. Assume we are given a topological space $Y$ and continuous functions

$$
f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y
$$

with the property that

$$
\left.f_{i}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}=\left.f_{j}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}, \quad \forall i, j \text { such that } X_{i} \cap X_{j} \neq \emptyset
$$

Then there exists a unique continuous function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.f\right|_{X_{i}}=f_{i}, \quad \forall i=1, \ldots, N \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We need only check that the function $f$ defined as in (2.1) is continuous (it is clearly unique). Suppose $C \subseteq Y$ is a closed set. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{-1}(C) & =\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} X_{i}\right) \cap f^{-1}(C) \\
& =\bigcup_{i=1}^{N}\left(X_{i} \cap f^{-1}(C)\right) \\
& =\bigcup_{i=1}^{N}\left(X_{i} \cap f_{i}^{-1}(C)\right) \\
& =\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} f_{i}^{-1}(C) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since each $f_{i}$ is continuous, this is the finite union of closed sets and hence is closed. Since $C$ was arbitrary, $f$ is continuous.

On Problem Sheet A you will enjoy proving the following minor variation of Lemma 2.2.

Lemma 2.3 (Another gluing lemma). Let $X$ be a topological space. Assume $X$ can be written as an arbitrary union

$$
X=\bigcup_{i} X_{i},
$$

where each $X_{i}$ is an open subspace of $X$. Assume we given a topological space $Y$ and continuous functions

$$
f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y,
$$

with the property that

$$
\left.f_{i}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}=f_{j} \mid X_{i} \cap X_{j}, \quad \forall i, j \text { such that } X_{i} \cap X_{j} \neq \emptyset .
$$

Then there exists a unique continuous function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\left.f\right|_{X_{i}}=f_{i}, \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Our first application of the gluing lemma is to show that homotopy is an equivalence relation on the space of continuous maps.

Proposition 2.4. Let $X$ and $Y$ denote two topological spaces. Then homotopy is an equivalence relation on the space $C(X, Y)$ of all continuous maps from $X$ to $Y$.

Proof. We check the three properties:

- Reflexivity: if $f \in C(X, Y)$ define $F(x, t):=f(x)$. Then clearly $F: f \simeq f$.
- Symmetry: if $F: f \simeq g$ then define $G(x, t):=F(x, 1-t)$. Then $G: g \simeq f$.
- Transitivity: if $F: f \simeq g$ and $G: g \simeq h$, define

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

Since $F$ and $G$ agree on their overlap $X \times\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\} \subset X \times I$ the gluing lemma implies that $H$ is continuous. Since $H(x, 0)=f$ and $H(x, 1)=h$, this shows that $f \simeq h$.
This completes the proof.
Definition 2.5. We denote by $[f]$ the equivalence class of $f$ under homotopy, and we denote by $[X, Y]$ the space of equivalence classes.

We now show that composition of equivalence classes makes sense.
Proposition 2.6. Suppose $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g_{0}, g_{1}: Y \rightarrow Z$ are continuous functions with $f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ and $g_{0} \simeq g_{1}$. Then $g_{0} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{1}$, that is

$$
\left[f_{0}\right]=\left[f_{1}\right] \text { and }\left[g_{0}\right]=\left[g_{1}\right] \quad \Rightarrow \quad\left[g_{0} \circ f_{0}\right]=\left[g_{1} \circ f_{1}\right] .
$$

Proof. Suppose $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ and $G: g_{0} \simeq g_{1}$. Define

$$
H: X \times I \rightarrow Z, \quad H(x, t)=G\left(f_{0}(x), t\right) .
$$

Then $H$ is continuous and since

$$
H(x, 0)=G\left(f_{0}(x), 0\right)=g_{0}\left(f_{0}(x)\right)
$$

and

$$
H(x, 1)=G\left(f_{0}(x), 1\right)=g_{1}\left(f_{0}(x)\right),
$$

this shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{0} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{0} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, consider

$$
K: X \times I \rightarrow Z, \quad K(x, t)=g_{1}(F(x, t)) .
$$

Then $K$ is continuous, and since

$$
K(x, 0)=g_{1}(F(x, 0))=g_{1}\left(f_{0}(x)\right)
$$

and

$$
K(x, 1)=g_{1}(F(x, 1))=g_{1}\left(f_{1}(x)\right),
$$

this shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{1} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{1} . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (2.2) and (2.3) and using transitivity, we see that $g_{0} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{1}$ as required.

Now for this lecture's serving of abstract nonsense. Let us explain how to take quotients of categories.

Definition 2.7. Suppose $C$ is a category. A congruence on $C$ is an equivalence relation $\sim$ on the union

$$
\bigcup_{(A, B) \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C}) \times \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})} \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)
$$

such that:

1. If $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ and $f \sim g$ then $g \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$.
2. If $f_{0}: A \rightarrow B$ and $g_{0}: B \rightarrow C$ and $f_{0} \sim f_{1}$ and $g_{0} \sim g_{1}$ then $g_{0} \circ f_{0} \sim g_{1} \circ f_{1}$.

A congruence allows us to form the quotient category:
Proposition 2.8. Suppose C is a category and $\sim$ is a congruence on C. Denote by $[f]$ the equivalence class of a morphism under $\sim$. Then there is a well-defined quotient category $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ given as follows: the objects of $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ are simply obj( C ) again, and

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}^{\prime}}(A, B)=\{[f] \mid f \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)\},
$$

and composition in $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ is given by

$$
[g] \circ[f]:=[g \circ f] .
$$

Proof. Property (1) of Definition 2.7 shows that the morphism sets of $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ are welldefined sets that are pairwise disjoint. Property (2) of Definition 2.7 shows that the composition in $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ is well-defined. It is clear that this composition is associative, and $\left[\mathrm{id}_{A}\right]$ is the identity morphism in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}^{\prime}}(A, A)$. This completes the proof.

It will not surprise you to learn we have just constructed a congruence.
Example 2.9. The homotopy category hTop is the category whose objects are topological spaces, with morphism spaces $[X, Y]$ the equivalence class of continuous maps under homotopy. This is the quotient category of Top under the congruence obtained via homotopy.

Definition 2.10. Let C be a category. An isomorphism in C is a morphism $f \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$ for which there exists another morphism $g \in \operatorname{Hom}(B, A)$ such that $g \circ f=$ $\operatorname{id}_{A}$ and $f \circ g=\operatorname{id}_{B}$.

Thus in Sets, isomorphisms are just bijections. In Groups, isomorphisms are group isomorphisms, and in Top, isomorphisms are homeomorphims. Let us unravel what an isomorphism in hTop is.

Definition 2.11. A continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between two topological spaces is called a homotopy equivalence if there exists a continuous map $g: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f \simeq \operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $f \circ g \simeq \operatorname{id}_{Y}$.

Thus an isomorphism in hTop is a morphism $[f]$, where $f$ is a homotopy equivalence.

Definition 2.12. We say that two spaces $X$ and $Y$ have the same homotopy type if there exists a homotopy equivalence from $f: X \rightarrow Y$.

Clearly homeomorphic spaces have the same homotopy type, but it is not necessarily the case that spaces with the same homotopy type are homeomorphic. We shall see an example of this next lecture. Let us now look at the "opposite" notion to a homotopy equivalence.

Definition 2.13. A continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be nullhomotopic if there exists a constant map $c: X \rightarrow Y$ (i.e. map such that there exists $q \in Y$ such that $c(x)=q$ for all $x \in X)$ such that $f \simeq c$.

When $X=S^{n}$, there is an easy criterion for deciding whether a map is nullhomotopic. Before stating the result, we need one more definition.

Definition 2.14. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces and $X^{\prime}$ is a subset of $X$. We say that two continuous map $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.f_{0}\right|_{X^{\prime}}=\left.f_{1}\right|_{X^{\prime}}$ are homotopic relative to $X^{\prime}$ or homotopic rel $X^{\prime}$ for short if there exists a homotopy $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ such that

$$
F(x, t)=f_{0}(x)=f_{1}(x), \quad \forall x \in X^{\prime}, \forall t \in I .
$$

If such an $F$ exists we write $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ rel $X^{\prime}$.
This generalises Definition 2.1, since taking $X^{\prime}=\emptyset$ recovers our original notion of homotopy. For fixed $X$ being homotopic rel $X^{\prime}$ is an equivalence relation - you will prove a more general version statement on Problem Sheet B (a special case of this is given in Proposition 3.13 next lecture.) By a slight abuse of notation if $X^{\prime}$ is a single point $\{p\}$ we will write "rel $p$ " instead of "rel $\{p\}$ ".

Proposition 2.15. Let $Y$ be a topological space and $n \geq 0$. The following are equivalent for a continuous map $f: S^{n} \rightarrow Y$ :

1. $f$ is nullhomotopic.
2. There exists a continuous map $g: B^{n+1} \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.g\right|_{S^{n}}=f$.
3. If $p \in S^{n}$ and $c: S^{n} \rightarrow Y$ is the constant map $c(x)=f(p)$ then $f$ is homotopic to $c$ rel $p$.

Proof. We first show (1) implies (2). Suppose $f$ is nullhomotopic, i.e. there exists $F: f \simeq c$, where $c$ is the constant map $c(x)=q$. Define $g: B^{n+1} \rightarrow Y$ by

$$
g(x):= \begin{cases}q, & 0 \leq|x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ F\left(\frac{x}{|x|}, 2-2|x|\right), & \frac{1}{2} \leq|x| \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

This makes sense: if $x \neq 0$ then $\frac{x}{|x|}$ belongs to $S^{n}$, and if $\frac{1}{2} \leq|x| \leq 1$ then $2-2|x| \in I$. If $|x|=\frac{1}{2}$ then

$$
F\left(\frac{x}{|x|}, 1\right)=c\left(\frac{x}{|x|}\right)=q .
$$

The gluing lemma shows that $g$ is continuous. Moreover $g$ does extend $f$ since if $x \in S^{n}$ then $|x|=1$ and hence $g(x)=F(x, 0)=f(x)$.

To show (2) implies (3), suppose $g: B^{n+1} \rightarrow Y$ extends $f$. Define $F: S^{n} \times I \rightarrow Y$ by

$$
F(x, t)=g((1-t) x+t p)
$$

This makes sense as $(1-t) x+t p$ belongs to $B^{n+1}$. $F$ is clearly continuous, and $F(x, 0)=g(x)=f(x)$ (since $g$ extends $f$ ) and $F(x, 1)=g(p)=f(p)=c(x)$. Thus $F: f \simeq c$. Moreover $F(p, t)=g(p)=f(p)$ for all $t \in I$, and hence $F: f \simeq c$ rel $p$. Finally, it is obvious that (3) implies (1).

Definition 2.16. A space $X$ is said to be contractible if the identity map $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ is nullhomotopic.

Corollary 2.17. For all $n \geq 0$, the sphere $S^{n}$ is not contractible.
This proof uses Lemma 1.3, which we have not yet properly proved (we haven't constructed the homology functor yet!). You will be relieved to note that we will not use the proof of Corollary 2.17 in the construction of the homology functor.

Proof. Take $Y=S^{n}$ and $f=\mathrm{id}_{S^{n}}$. Then by Proposition 2.15, if $f$ is nullhomotopic then there exists a continuous map $g: B^{n+1} \rightarrow S^{n}$ which extends $f$. The map $g$ is then a retraction, and this contradicts Lemma 1.3.

## LECTURE 3

## Paths and the fundamental groupoid

In this lecture we define a rather pathetic functor, called $\pi_{0}$. We then define the fundamental groupoid. In the next lecture we will use the fundamental groupoid to define a much more interesting functor, the fundamental group $\pi_{1}$.

Definition 3.1. A path $u$ in a topological space $X$ is a continuous map $u: I \rightarrow X$. If $u(0)=x$ and $u(1)=y$ we say $u$ is a path from $x$ to $y$. If $x=y$ then we say that $u$ is a loop.

We will always use the letters $u, v$ and $w$ to denote paths (in contrast to $f, g$ and $h$ for arbitrary continuous maps). Moreover we will parametrise a path with the letter $s$, so $u$ is the map $s \mapsto u(s)$, thus keeping the letter $t$ for a homotopy parameter. This will hopefully help to keep the notation clear. Paths gives us a new notion of connectivity.

Definition 3.2. A topological space $X$ is path connected if for all $x, y \in X$ there exists a path from $x$ to $y$.

Hopefully you are all easily able to prove the following result ${ }^{1}$.
Lemma 3.3. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces. Then:

1. If $X$ is path connected then $X$ is connected (but the converse is not necessarily true).
2. If $X$ and $Y$ are path connected then so is $X \times Y$.
3. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous and $X$ is path connected then so is $f(X)$.

Here we prove the following equally easy result:
Proposition 3.4. If $X$ is a topological space then the binary relation $\sim$ on $X$ defined by " $x \sim y$ if there exists a path from $x$ to $y$ " is an equivalence relation.

Proof. A constant path based at $x$ shows that $x \sim x$ for all $x \in X$. If $u$ is a path from $x$ to $y$ then the path $\bar{u}(s):=u(1-s)$ is a path from $y$ to $x$, and hence $x \sim y$ implies $y \sim x$. Finally if $u$ is a path from $x$ to $y$ and $v$ is a path from $y$ to $z$ then

$$
w(s):= \begin{cases}u(2 s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2}  \tag{3.1}\\ v(2 s-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

is a well-defined path from $x$ to $z$ (the gluing lemma shows that $w$ is continuous.) Thus $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$ implies $x \sim z$.

[^3]Definition 3.5. The equivalence classes of $X$ under the equivalence relation $\sim$ are called the path components of $X$.

We now construct the functor $\pi_{0}$.
Definition 3.6. Given a topological space $X$, let $\pi_{0}(X)$ denote the set of path components of $X$. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map, define $\pi_{0}(f): \pi_{0}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{0}(Y)$ to be the map that send a path component $X^{\prime}$ of $X$ to the unique path component of $Y$ containing $f\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ (this is well-defined due to Lemma 3.3.)

We then have:
Proposition 3.7. $\pi_{0}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Sets is a functor. Moreover if $f \simeq g$ then $\pi_{0}(f)=$ $\pi_{0}(g)$.

Proof. The fact that $\pi_{0}$ is a functor is easy to check (i.e. that $\pi_{0}$ preserves identities and composition). Let us check that homotopic maps have the same image under $\pi_{0}$. Suppose $F: f \simeq g$. If $X^{\prime}$ is a path component of $X$ then $X^{\prime} \times I$ is path connected and hence so is $F\left(X^{\prime} \times I\right)$ (here we are using Proposition 3.3 twice). Since

$$
f\left(X^{\prime}\right)=F\left(X^{\prime} \times\{0\}\right) \subseteq F\left(X^{\prime} \times I\right)
$$

and

$$
g\left(X^{\prime}\right)=F\left(X^{\prime} \times\{1\}\right) \subseteq F\left(X^{\prime} \times I\right),
$$

we see that the unique path component of $Y$ containing $F\left(X^{\prime} \times I\right)$ contains both $f\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ and $g\left(X^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $\pi_{0}(f)=\pi_{0}(g)$.

Corollary 3.8. If $X$ and $Y$ have the same homotopy type then they have the same number of path components.

Corollary 3.8 can be proved directly, but let us give an "abstract" proof using Problem A. 2 and Problem A. 3 from Problem Sheet A.

Proof. By the last part of Proposition 3.7 and Problem A.3, we may regard $\pi_{0}$ as a functor hTop $\rightarrow$ Sets. If $X$ and $Y$ have the same homotopy type then there exists a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $[f]$ is an isomorphism in h Top. Then by Problem A.2, $\pi_{0}([f])$ is an isomorphism in Sets. An isomorphism in Sets is a bijection; thus $\pi_{0}(X)$ and $\pi_{0}(Y)$ have the same cardinality.

Corollary 3.8 is about as interesting as it gets when it comes to the functor $\pi_{0}$. This is because $\pi_{0}$ has the misfortune of taking values in Sets, and there is not much one can with a set other than count it (i.e. the only obstruction to two sets being isomorphic is that they should have the same cardinality) Next lecture we will introduce another functor $\pi_{1}$ which takes values in Groups. As groups have many obstructions to being isomorphic, this functor will be considerably more interesting.

The basic idea behind $\pi_{1}$ is that one can "multiply" paths if one ends where the other begins, via (3.1). Let us formalise this as a definition.

Definition 3.9. Let $u$ and $v$ be paths in $X$ with $u(1)=v(0)$. Then we define

$$
(u * v)(s):= \begin{cases}u(2 s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ v(2 s-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Remark 3.10. Note that the ordering here is the opposite to composition: $u * v$ means "first do $u$, then do $v$ ", meanwhile $g \circ f$ means "first do $f$, then do $g$ ".

Our aim is to construct a group whose elements are certain homotopy classes of paths in $X$ with binary operation given by multiplying paths as above. However by Problem B. 1 on Problem Sheet B, if $X$ is path connected then since $I$ is contractible, all paths $u: I \rightarrow X$ are homotopic, and thus if we tried to construct a group from homotopy classes of paths this group would have precisely one element (and so would be just as uninteresting as $\pi_{0}(X)!$ ) To recify this problem we use relative homotopy classes.

Definition 3.11. We define the path class of a path $u: I \rightarrow X$ to be the equivalence class [ $u$ ] of $u$, where the equivalence relation is being homotopic relative to $\partial I=$ $\{0,1\}$.

Remark 3.12. There is a potential for confusion here, in that we are using the same notation [.] to denote both the homotopy class and the relative homotopy class. However, it should always be clear from the context which is intended. In particular, for paths we will only ever talk about their path class, not their homotopy class, and thus the notation $[u]$ always means the path class.

The next result is similar to Proposition 2.6.
Proposition 3.13. Suppose $u_{0}, u_{1}: I \rightarrow X$ and $v_{0}, v_{1}: I \rightarrow X$ are paths with

$$
u_{0}(1)=u_{1}(1)=v_{0}(0)=v_{1}(0) .
$$

Assume that

$$
\left[u_{0}\right]=\left[u_{1}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad\left[v_{0}\right]=\left[v_{1}\right] .
$$

Then

$$
\left[u_{0} * v_{0}\right]=\left[u_{1} * v_{1}\right] .
$$

Proof. If $U: u_{0} \simeq u_{1}$ rel $\partial I$ and $V: v_{0} \simeq v_{1}$ rel $\partial I$ then the map $W: I \times I \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
W(s, t):= \begin{cases}U(2 s, t), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ V(2 s-1, t), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

is a continuous map (the gluing lemma applies because functions agree on $\left\{\frac{1}{2}\right\} \times I$ ) which determines a homotopy from $u_{0} * v_{0}$ to $u_{1} * v_{1}$ rel $\partial I$.

If $u$ is a path from $x$ to $y$, then running backwards along $u$ gives a path from $y$ to $x$. Let us fix some notation for this:

Definition 3.14. Given a path $u: I \rightarrow X$, we denote by $\bar{u}: I \rightarrow X$ the path $u$ parametrised backwards:

$$
\bar{u}(s)=u(1-s) .
$$

Next, let us given a name to the constant path:
Definition 3.15. Given a point $p \in X$, we denote by $e_{p}$ the constant path $e_{p}(s)=p$. By a slight abuse of notation we denote by $[p]$ the path class $\left[e_{p}\right]$.

We now use this data to define a category. We will phrase this is as "definition" and then prove afterwards that it really is well-defined.

Definition 3.16. Let $X$ be a topological space. We define the fundamental groupoid of $X$ to be the category $\Pi(X)$ where:

- $\operatorname{obj}(\Pi(X))=X$, that is, the objects of $\Pi(X)$ are the points in $X$ themselves,
- $\operatorname{Hom}(x, y)$ is the set of path classes of paths from $x$ to $y$ :

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(x, y):=\{[u] \mid u \text { is a path from } x \text { to } y\},
$$

- and finally the composition

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(x, y) \times \operatorname{Hom}(y, z) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(x, z)
$$

is given by

$$
([u],[v]) \mapsto[u * v]
$$

(note by assumption this concatenation makes sense as $u(1)=y=v(0)$ ).
Let us prove this really does form a category.
Proposition 3.17. Let $X$ be a topological space. Then $\Pi(X)$ is a well-defined category. The identity element of $\operatorname{Hom}(p, p)$ is $[p]$.

Proof. From Definition 1.6, there are three things we need to verify:

1. the Hom sets are pairwise disjoint,
2. that composition is associative when defined,
3. that there exists an identity element in each Hom set.

Here (1) is obvious. Let us first prove (3). We claim that $[p]$ (i.e. the path class of $e_{p}$ ) is the identity element in $\operatorname{Hom}(p, p)$. For this we must prove that for any path $u$ with $u(0)=p$ we have $e_{p} * u \simeq u \operatorname{rel} \partial I$, and similarly for any path $v$ with $v(1)=p$ we have $v * e_{p} \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$. We will prove the first statement only, as the second is similar. Consider Figure 3.1. The shaded triangle is the set $\{(s, t) \mid 2 s \leq 1-t\}$. For fixed $t$, consider the horizontal line $L_{t}$ that runs from the start of the shaded region to the right-hand edge (the point $(1, t)$ ). The function

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



Figure 3.1: Proving $e_{p} * u \simeq u$ rel $\partial I$.
maps $L_{t}$ onto $[0,1]$. Now consider the map $U: I \times I \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
U(s, t):= \begin{cases}p, & 2 s \leq 1-t \\ u\left(l_{t}(s)\right), & 2 s \geq 1-t\end{cases}
$$

The gluing lemma shows that $U$ is continuous, and by construction $U: e_{p} * u \simeq u$ rel $\partial I$.

Now let us prove associativity. Suppose $u, v$ and $w$ are three paths with $u(1)=$ $v(0)$ and $v(1)=w(0)$. This is a similar but slightly trickier argument, and we will not write out the formulae precisely. Consider Figure 3.2. Draw two slanted lines, one


Figure 3.2: Proving $(u * v) * w \simeq u *(v * w)$ rel $\partial I$.
that starts at $(1 / 4,1)$ and runs to $(1 / 2,0)$, and one that starts at $(1 / 2,1)$ and runs to $(3 / 4,0)$. Now let $L_{t}, M_{t}$ and $N_{t}$ denote the three horizontal lines as marked that come from intersecting the horizontal line with $t$ fixed. Then let $l_{t}, m_{t}$ and $n_{t}$ denote reparametrisations that map $L_{t}, M_{t}$ and $N_{t}$ onto $[0,1]$ respectively. The desired homotopy is $U$ is obtained by setting $U(t, s)=u\left(l_{t}(s)\right)$ on the left-hand region, setting $U(s, t)=v\left(m_{t}(s)\right)$ on the middle region and finally setting $U(t, s)=w\left(n_{t}(s)\right)$ on the right-hand region. The gluing lemma shows that $U$ is continuous, and by construction we have $U:(u * v) * w \simeq u *(v * w)$ rel $\partial I$. This completes the proof.

In fact, the category $\Pi(X)$ has an additional special property:

Proposition 3.18. Every morphism in $\Pi(X)$ is an isomorphism. More precisely, for any path $u$ from $x$ to $y$, one has

$$
[u] *[\bar{u}]=[x], \quad[\bar{u}] *[u]=[y] .
$$

Proof. We must show $u * \bar{u} \simeq e_{x}$ rel $\partial I$ and $\bar{u} * u \simeq e_{y}$ rel $\partial I$. Again, I will prove only the first statement. Moreover this time round, I will give the formulae but not the picture ${ }^{2}$. To this end consider the function $U: I \times I \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
U(s, t):= \begin{cases}u(2 s(1-t)), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ u(2(1-s)(1-t)), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

The gluing lemma shows that $U$ is continuous, and one checks that $U: u * \bar{u} \simeq e_{x}$ rel $\partial I$. This completes the proof.

Categories with this property have a special name.
Definition 3.19. Let C be a category. We say that C is a groupoid category if:

- C is a small category ${ }^{3}$, which by definition means that $\operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ is a set and not just a class, cf. Remark 1.7.
- Every morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ in C is an isomorphism.

Thus Proposition 3.18 can alternatively be rephrased as: the fundamental groupoid is a groupoid cateogory.

[^4]
## LECTURE 4

## The fundamental group

In this lecture we define our first genuinely exciting functor, $\pi_{1}$. The idea is simply to restrict to loops.

Definition 4.1. Let $X$ be a topological space and fix a point $p \in X$, which we call the basepoint. The fundamental group of $X$ with basepoint $p$ is

$$
\pi_{1}(X, p):=\operatorname{Hom}_{\Pi(X)}(p, p)=\{[u] \mid u \text { is a loop in } X \text { based at } p\}
$$

An immediate corollary of Proposition 3.17 is the following result.
Corollary 4.2. For any topological space $X$ and any $p \in X$, the set $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is a group with multiplication given by

$$
[u] *[v]:=[u * v]
$$

and identity element $[p]$. The inverse of an element $[u]$ is given by $[\bar{u}]$ :

$$
[u]^{-1}=[\bar{u}] .
$$

Since the fundamental group $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ involves a choice of basepoint $p$, in order to make $\pi_{1}$ into a proper functor we need to work with a slightly different category. Before introducing this, let us explain how a smaller category can sit inside a larger one.

Definition 4.3. Suppose $C$ and $D$ are two categories. We say that $C$ is a subcategory of D if:

1. $\operatorname{obj}(C) \subseteq \operatorname{obj}(D)$,
2. $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(A, B) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(A, B)$ for all $A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, where we denote Hom sets in $C$ by $\operatorname{Hom}_{C}(\square, \square)$,
3. if $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(A, B)$ and $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(B, C)$ then the composite $g \circ f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(A, C)$ is equal to the composite $g \circ f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(A, C)$,
4. if $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ then $\operatorname{id}_{C} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(C, C)$ is equal to $\operatorname{id}_{C} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(C, C)$.

If for every pair $A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ one always has $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(A, B)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(A, B)$ then we say that $C$ is a full subcategory of $D$.

As an example, the category $A b$ is a full subcategory of Groups.

Example 4.4. The category $\mathrm{Top}^{2}$ has as objects all pairs $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ where $X$ is a topological space and $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is a subspace. A morphism $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is a pair $\left(f, f^{\prime}\right)$ of continuous maps $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $f^{\prime}: X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ such that the following diagram commutes, where the horizontal maps are inclusions:


The composition law is the usual one. Slightly less pedantically, we can think of a morphism in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\left(X, X^{\prime}\right),\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)\right)$ simply as a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ with the property that $f\left(X^{\prime}\right) \subseteq Y^{\prime}$.

We can regard Top as a subcategory of Top ${ }^{2}$ if we identify a space $X$ with the pair ( $X, \emptyset$ ). For us, it is also useful to consider the case where both $X^{\prime}$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are a single point in $X$ and $Y$ respectively. This gets its own name.

Example 4.5. The category $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ of pointed topological spaces has as objects all ordered pairs $(X, p)$ where $X$ is a topological space and $p$ is a point in $X$, referred to as the basepoint. Given two objects $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$, the morphism space is simply the set of continuous maps $f: X \rightarrow Y$ which send the basepoint $p$ in $X$ to the basepoint $q \in Y$ :

$$
\operatorname{Hom}((X, p),(Y, q)):=\{f \in C(X, Y) \mid f(p)=q\}
$$

We call such a map a pointed map.
We will write $f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ as shorthand to indicate that $f$ is a continuous map from $X$ to $Y$ satisfying $f(p)=q$ (and hence a morphism in Top ${ }_{*}$.) Note that $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ is again a subcategory of $\mathrm{Top}^{2}$. Let us now show that $\pi_{1}$ is a functor from $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ to Groups.

Definition 4.6. Suppose $f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ is a pointed map. Define

$$
\pi_{1}(f): \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, q), \quad[u] \mapsto[f \circ u]
$$

This is well-defined: firstly $f \circ u: I \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous path that starts and ends at $q$, and hence $\left[f \circ u\right.$ ] is indeed an element of $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$. Moreover if $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$ then $f \circ u \simeq f \circ v$ rel $\partial I$ by Problem B. 2 on Problem Sheet B.
Proposition 4.7. $\pi_{1}:$ Top $_{*} \rightarrow$ Groups is a functor. Moreover if $f, g:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ are continuous maps with $f \simeq g$ rel $p$ then $\pi_{1}(f)=\pi_{1}(g)$.
Proof. Suppose $f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ is a pointed map. To show that $\pi_{1}(f)$ is a homomorphism, observe that if $u$ and $v$ are closed paths based at $p \in X$ then

$$
f \circ(u * v)=(f \circ u) *(f \circ v)
$$

(this is an actual pointwise equality, not just homotopy!). The fact that $\pi_{1}$ preserves composition and identities in Top $_{*}$ is clear. Finally, if $f \simeq g$ rel $p$ then by Problem B. 2 on Problem Sheet B again, one obtains $f \circ u \simeq g \circ u$ rel $\partial I$ for any closed curve $u$ in $X$ based at $p$. Thus $\pi_{1}(f)=\pi_{1}(g)$.

Remark 4.8. It follows from Problem B. 2 that being homotopic rel $p$ defines an equivalence relation on pointed maps $(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$, and hence a congruence on the category Top $_{*}$. The associated quotient category is denoted by $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. By analogy with the category hTop, we write $[(X, p),(Y, q)]$ for the morphism set between two objects $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$ in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. The last statement of Proposition 4.7 together with Problem A. 3 implies that $\pi_{1}$ induces a functor $\pi_{1}$ : $\mathrm{hTop}_{*} \rightarrow$ Groups.

Remark 4.9. We won't need this (so I won't spell out the relevant definitions), but the association $[u] \mapsto[f \circ u]$ makes perfect sense for arbitrary path classes, and hence given a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$, we obtain a map $\Pi(f): \Pi(X) \rightarrow \Pi(Y)$ defined by

$$
\Pi(f): \operatorname{Hom}_{\Pi(X)}(x, y) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\Pi(Y)}(f(x), f(y)), \quad[u] \mapsto[f \circ u]
$$

This makes the fundamental groupoid into a functor

$$
\Pi: \text { Top } \rightarrow \text { Groupoids, }
$$

where Groupoids is the category of groupoids ${ }^{1}$.
The next result shows that when studying fundamental groups, we may as well assume that our spaces are path connected.

Proposition 4.10. Let $X$ be a topological space, let $p \in X$, and let $X^{\prime}$ denote the path component containing $p$. Then the inclusion $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$ induces an isomorphism on $\pi_{1}$ :

$$
\pi_{1}\left(X^{\prime}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}(X, p)
$$

Proof. Suppose $[u] \in \operatorname{ker} \pi_{1}(\imath)$. This means that $\imath \circ u \simeq e_{p}$ rel $\partial I$, where as usual $e_{p}: I \rightarrow X$ is the constant path at $p$. Let $U: I \times I \rightarrow X$ denote the homotopy. Then $U(0,0)=p$. Since $U(I \times I)$ is path connected (cf. Problem B.2) we have $U(I \times I) \subseteq X^{\prime}$. Thus $u$ is nullhomotopic in $X^{\prime}$, and hence $\pi_{1}(\imath)$ is injective. To see $\pi_{1}(\imath)$ is surjective, suppose $u: I \rightarrow X$ is a closed path at $p$. Then $u(I) \subseteq X^{\prime}$. Thus we can pedantically define $u^{\prime}: I \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ by $u^{\prime}(s):=u(s)$. Then clearly $\imath \circ u^{\prime}=u$, and surjectivity follows.

Now let us investigate what happens when the basepoint is changed.
Proposition 4.11. Suppose $X$ is path connected and $p_{0}, p_{1} \in X$. Then any path $w$ from $p_{0}$ to $p_{1}$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\lambda_{w}: \pi_{1}\left(X, p_{0}\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(X, p_{1}\right)
$$

Proof. Define $\lambda_{w}: \pi_{1}\left(X, p_{0}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(X, p_{1}\right)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{w}:[v] \mapsto[\bar{w} * v * w] \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(note that the multiplication takes places in the fundamental groupoid $\Pi(X)$.) From Proposition 3.18 one sees that $\lambda_{w}$ is an isomorphism; the inverse is given by $\lambda_{\bar{w}}$.

[^5]Remark 4.12. Thus provided we work with path connected spaces only, we can write simply $\pi_{1}(X)$ to denote $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ for any $p \in X$. However should be aware that there is no canonical isomorphism between $\pi_{1}\left(X, p_{0}\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(X, p_{1}\right)$. Thus $\pi_{1}(X)$ is really a family of isomorphic groups. Moreover, as you will see in Problem Sheet C (cf. Problem C.5), sometimes simply knowing two groups are isomorphic is not enough - one really needs an explicit isomorphism.

We now discuss a subtle (and often tedious) point. To define the fundamental group we were forced to pick a basepoint, and thus the natural category to work with is $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$. But "most" homotopic maps that crop up "in nature" are not pointed maps (i.e. given two homotopic maps, it is typically too much to hope for that they just so happen to preserve the basepoint.) Thus we need to investigate how the fundamental group behaves under a free ${ }^{2}$ homotopy.

Proposition 4.13. Suppose $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ are continuous maps and $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ is a free homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$. Choose $p \in X$ and let $w$ denote the path in $Y$ given by $w(t)=F(p, t)$. Then there is a commutative diagram:

where $\lambda_{w}$ is the isomorphism given in (4.1).
Proof. Take $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$. Consider the homotopy ${ }^{3} V: I \times I \rightarrow Y$ given by

$$
V(s, t):= \begin{cases}F(u(2(1-t) s), 2 s t), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ F(u(1+2 t(s-1)), t+(1-t)(2 s-1)), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Then

$$
V(s, 0)= \begin{cases}F(u(2 s), 0), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ F(u(1), 2 s-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Since $F(u(2 s), 0)=f_{0}(u(2 s))$ and $F(u(1), 2 s-1)=w(2 s-1)$, we have

$$
V(s, 0)=\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) * w(s) .
$$

Similarly

$$
V(s, 1)= \begin{cases}F(u(0), 2 s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ F(u(2 s-1), 1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Since $F(u(0), 2 s)=w(2 s)$ and $F(u(2 s-1), 1)=f_{1}(u(2 s-1))$, we have

$$
V(s, 1)=w *\left(f_{1} \circ u\right)(s) .
$$

[^6]The gluing lemma shows that $V$ is continuous, and

$$
V(0, t)=F(u(0), 0)=f_{0}(p)
$$

and

$$
V(1, t)=F(u(1), 1)=f_{1}(p)
$$

Thus $V$ is a homotopy from $\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) * w$ to $w *\left(f_{1} \circ u\right)$ relative to $\partial I$. Thus in the fundamental groupoid $\Pi(Y)$, we have

$$
\left[f_{0} \circ u\right] *[w]=[w] *\left[f_{1} \circ u\right]
$$

or alternatively

$$
\left[f_{1} \circ u\right]=\left[\bar{w} *\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) * w\right]
$$

which implies that

$$
\pi_{1}\left(f_{1}\right)[u]=\lambda_{w} \circ \pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)[u]
$$

as maps $\pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(Y, f_{1}(p)\right)$.
Corollary 4.14. Suppose $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ are continuous maps and $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ is a free homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$. Suppose $p \in X$ has the property that $f_{0}(p)=f_{1}(p)$. Set $q:=f_{0}(p)$. Then $\pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(f_{1}\right)$ are conjugate group homomorphisms, that is, there exists $[w] \in \pi_{1}(Y, q)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\pi_{1}\left(f_{1}\right)[u]=[w]^{-1} * \pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)[u] *[w], \quad \forall[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, if $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$ is abelian then $\pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)=\pi_{1}\left(f_{1}\right)$.
Proof. Using the notation of Proposition 4.13, the path $w$ is now a closed path in $Y$, and hence $[w] \in \pi_{1}(Y, q)$. Thus the path class $\left[\bar{w} *\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) * w\right]$, which can always be factored in the fundamental groupoid of $Y$ can now be factored in $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$ :

$$
\left[\bar{w} *\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) * w\right]=[\bar{w}] *\left[f_{0} \circ u\right] *[w]=[w]^{-1} *\left[f_{0} \circ u\right] *[w]
$$

Thus (4.2) follows. Finally, the last statement is immediate, since if $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$ is abelian then we can write

$$
[w]^{-1} * \pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)[u] *[w]=[w]^{-1} *[w] * \pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)[u]=\pi_{1}\left(f_{0}\right)[u]
$$

We now show that for path connected spaces $X$ and $Y$, having the same homotopy type is enough to ensure that the fundamental groups $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ and $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$ coincide for any $p \in X$ and $q \in Y$. This will follow from the following result.

Proposition 4.15. Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence. Then for any $p \in X$ the induced map $\pi_{1}(f): \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, f(p))$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Choose a continuous map $g: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f \simeq \operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $f \circ g \simeq \operatorname{id}_{Y}$. If $F: g \circ f \simeq \operatorname{id}_{X}$ is a free homotopy, let $w(s):=F(p, s)$, so that $w$ is a path from $g(f(p))$ to $p$. By Proposition 4.13, the lower triangle of the following diagram commutes:


The top triangle also commutes because $\pi_{1}$ is a functor. Since $\lambda_{w}$ is an isomorphism, $\pi_{1}(g \circ f)$ is also an isomorphism. Thus $\pi_{1}(f)$ is injective and $\pi_{1}(g)$ is surjective. A similar diagram starting from $f \circ g \simeq \operatorname{id}_{Y}$ shows that $\pi_{1}(g)$ is injective and $\pi_{1}(f)$ is surjective.

An immediate corollary of this result (together with the fact that a space consisting of one point obviously has a trivial fundamental group) we have:

Corollary 4.16. Suppose $X$ has the same homotopy type as a path connected space $Y$. Then for all $p \in X$ and $q \in Y$ one has $\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong \pi_{1}(Y, q)$. If $X$ is a contractible space then $\pi_{1}(X, p)=\{1\}$ for all $p \in X$.

We conclude by giving the property of having a trivial fundamental group a name:
Definition 4.17. A topological space $X$ is called simply connected if it is path connected and has $\pi_{1}(X, p)=\{1\}$ for some (and hence all) $p \in X$.

## The fundamental group of the circle and pushouts

We have yet to give an example of a path-connected space that is not simply connected! If it turned out that every such space had trivial fundamental group then as a mathematical tool the fundamental group would be as useful as a dead cat. Luckily this is not the case: many spaces are not simply connected. In this lecture we will perform our very first computation: the fundamental group of the circle $S^{1}$. At the end of the lecture we flip back into "abstract nonsense" mode and define the notion of a pushout in a category. We will need this next lecture when we prove the Seifert-van Kampen Theorem.

In this lecture it is convenient to regard $S^{1}$ as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$, i.e

$$
S^{1}=\{z \in \mathbb{C}| | z \mid=1\} .
$$

This is of course consistent with our previous definition under the identification of $\mathbb{C}$ with $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

Definition 5.1. Define exp: $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^{1}$ by

$$
\exp (s):=e^{2 \pi i s}
$$

We will always take 1 as the basepoint in $S^{1}$. We will use the fact that $S^{1}$ is itself a group: Given two points $z=e^{2 \pi i s}$ and $w=e^{2 \pi i t}$ in $S^{1}$, their product is $z \cdot w=e^{2 \pi i(s+t)}$, and the inverse of $z$ is just $e^{-2 \pi i s}$. We say $z$ and $w$ are antipodal if $z \cdot w^{-1}=-1$.

Proposition 5.2. Let $n \geq 0$ and let $X$ be a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and let $p \in X$. Suppose $f:(X, p) \rightarrow\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$ is a continuous map, and let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there exists a unique continuous map $\tilde{f}:(X, p) \rightarrow(\mathbb{R}, m)$ such that $\exp \circ \tilde{f}=f$ :


Remark 5.3. We call $\tilde{f}$ a lift of $f$. Note that the requirement that $m$ be an integer is forced: if $\tilde{f}(p)=s$ then asking that $\exp (s)=f(p)=1$ implies that $s$ is an integer.

Proof. Since $X$ is a compact metric space, $f$ is uniformly continuous, and hence there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that if $|x-y|<\varepsilon$ then $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ are not antipodal points. Since $X$ is bounded there exists an integer $N$ such that $|x-y|<N \varepsilon$ for all $x, y \in X$. Now for each $x \in X$, subdivide the line segment with endpoints $p$ and $x$ (which is contained in $X$ by convexity) into $N$ intervals of equal length. Call the endpoints of these endpoints $p=l_{0}(x), l_{1}(x), \ldots, l_{N}(x)=x$. The functions $l_{i}: X \rightarrow X$ are continuous ${ }^{1}$ and for each $0 \leq i \leq N-1$, the points $f\left(l_{i}(x)\right)$ and $f\left(l_{i+1}(x)\right)$ are not antipodal. This means that for each $0 \leq i \leq N-1$, the map

$$
g_{i}: X \rightarrow S^{1} \backslash\{-1\}, \quad g_{i}(x)=f\left(l_{i}(x)\right)^{-1} \cdot f\left(l_{i+1}(x)\right)
$$

is continuous (here we are using multiplication in $S^{1}$ as above). Note that $g_{i}(p)=1$ for all $i$. Moreover since $l_{N}(x)=x$ for all $x$,

$$
\begin{align*}
f(x) & =f(p) \cdot f(p)^{-1} \cdot f\left(l_{1}(x)\right) \cdot f\left(l_{1}(x)\right)^{-1} \cdots f\left(l_{N-1}(x)\right)^{-1} \cdot f\left(l_{N}(x)\right) \\
& =\underbrace{f(p)}_{=1} \cdot g_{0}(x) \cdot g_{1}(x) \cdots g_{N-1}(x) \tag{5.1}
\end{align*}
$$

If we restrict the map exp to $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ then it is a homeomorphsim onto $S^{1} \backslash\{-1\}$; let us denote its inverse by $\Lambda$ (actually $\Lambda=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \log$.) Then $\Lambda(1)=0$. Since $g_{i}(x) \neq-1$ for all $x$, the function $\Lambda \circ g_{i}$ is defined and continuous. Now consider the function $\tilde{f}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$
\tilde{f}(x):=m+\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \Lambda\left(g_{i}(x)\right)
$$

Then $\tilde{f}$ is continuous, with $\tilde{f}(p)=m$ and from (5.1) one has

$$
\exp \circ \tilde{f}=f
$$

It remains to prove $\tilde{f}$ is unique. Suppose $\tilde{g}$ was another such map with $\exp \circ \tilde{g}=f$ and $\tilde{g}(p)=m$. Define $\tilde{h}(x)=\tilde{f}(x)-\tilde{g}(x)$. Then $\tilde{h}$ is continuous and $\exp \circ \tilde{h}$ is identically equal to 1 . Since $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^{1}$ is a homomorphism (thinking of both $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{Z}$ as groups) with kernel equal to $\mathbb{Z}$, the function $\tilde{h}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integer-valued. Since $X$ is connected (as $X$ is convex), $\tilde{h}$ must be constant. Since $\tilde{h}(p)=\tilde{f}(p)-\tilde{g}(p)=m-m=$ 0 , the constant must be zero. Thus $\tilde{f}=\tilde{g}$ and the proof is complete.

Corollary 5.4. Let $u: I \rightarrow S^{1}$ be a loop with $u(0)=u(1)=1$. Then there exists a unique lift $\tilde{u}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}($ i.e. $\exp \circ \tilde{u}=u)$ with $\tilde{u}(0)=0$. Moreover if $v:(I, \partial I) \rightarrow\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$ is another path with $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$ then if $\tilde{v}$ is the unique lift of $v$ with $\tilde{v}(0)=0$ then $\tilde{u} \simeq \tilde{v}$ rel $\partial I$. In particular, $\tilde{u}(1)=\tilde{v}(1)$.

Proof. The first statement follows from Proposition 5.2 since $I$ is a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}$. To prove the second statement, suppose $U: u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$. Since $I \times I$ is a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, Proposition 5.2 provides us with a unique map $\tilde{U}: I \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\exp \circ \tilde{U}=U$ with $\tilde{U}(0,0)=0$. We claim that

$$
\tilde{U}: \tilde{u} \simeq \tilde{v} \quad \text { rel } \partial I
$$

[^7]For this first note that if $\tilde{u}_{1}(s):=\tilde{U}(s, 0)$ then $\tilde{u}_{1}$ is a lift of $u$ with $\tilde{u}_{1}(0)=0$; thus by the uniqueness part of Proposition 5.2 , we must have $\tilde{u}_{1}=\tilde{u}$. Similarly $\tilde{U}(s, 1)=\tilde{v}(s)$. This shows that $\tilde{U}: \tilde{u} \simeq \tilde{v}$, and it remains to show that this homotopy is a homotopy relative to $\partial I$.

For this consider $\tilde{w}(t):=\tilde{U}(0, t)$. Then $\exp (\tilde{w}(t))=\exp (\tilde{U}(0, t))=U(0, t)=1$, and hence arguing as above we see that $\tilde{w}(t)=0$ for all $t$. Now consider $\tilde{w}_{1}(t):=$ $\tilde{U}(1, t)$. Then $\exp \circ \tilde{w}_{1}=1$, and thus by uniqueness $\tilde{w}_{1}$ is a constant function. The constant is equal to $\tilde{U}(1,0)=\tilde{u}(1)$ (and also to $\tilde{U}(1,1)=\tilde{v}(1)$.) This completes the proof.

Definition 5.5. Given a loop $u:(I, \partial I) \rightarrow\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$, we define the degree of $u$ to be the integer $\operatorname{deg}(u)=\tilde{u}(1)$, where $\tilde{u}$ is the unique lift of $u$ with $\tilde{u}(0)=0$.

The last statement of Corollary 5.4 tells us that deg induces a well defined map

$$
\operatorname{deg}: \pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad \operatorname{deg}([u]):=\operatorname{deg}(u)
$$

where $u$ is any representative of $[u]$.
We can now prove the main result of this lecture.
Theorem 5.6. The function deg: $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is an isomorphism. In particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{deg}([u] *[v])=\operatorname{deg}([u])+\operatorname{deg}([v]) . \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Firstly, deg is surjective since the loop $s \mapsto \exp (m s)$ has degree $m$ (note this is the function $z \mapsto z^{m}$ if we think of $u$ as a map from $S^{1} \subset \mathbb{C}$ to itself). Secondly, if $\operatorname{deg}(u)=0$ then $\tilde{u}$ is a loop in $\mathbb{R}$ based at 0 . Now $\pi_{1}(\mathbb{R}, 0)=\{1\}$ by the last statement of Corollary 4.16. Since $\pi_{1}(\exp ): \pi_{1}(\mathbb{R}, 0) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$ is a homomorphism and

$$
[u]=\pi_{1}(\exp )[\tilde{u}],
$$

we thus have $[u]=1$ in $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$.
To complete the proof we will show that deg is a homomorphism from $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$ to $\mathbb{Z}$, that is, that (5.2) holds. Then from the above its kernel is trivial, whence it follows that deg is injective, and hence an isomorphism. So suppose $u$ and $v$ are loops in $S^{1}$ based at 1 of degree $m$ and $n$ respectively. To compute $\operatorname{deg}(u * v)$, we must find a path $\tilde{w}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\exp \circ \tilde{w}=u * v$. Let $\tilde{u}$ be the unique lift of $u$ with $\tilde{u}(0)=0$, and similarly for $\tilde{v}$. Then consider the path $\tilde{v}^{\prime}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\tilde{v}^{\prime}(s)=m+\tilde{v}(s)$. Then $\tilde{v}^{\prime}$ is a path from $m$ to $m+n$. Then $\tilde{w}:=\tilde{u} * \tilde{v}^{\prime}$ is a path in $\mathbb{R}$ with $\tilde{w}(0)=0$ and $\tilde{w}(1)=m+n$. Note that

$$
\exp (\tilde{w}(s))= \begin{cases}\exp (\tilde{u}(2 s)) & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ \exp \left(\tilde{v}^{\prime}(2 s-1)\right), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Since $\exp \circ \tilde{u}=u$ and since

$$
\exp \left(\tilde{v}^{\prime}(s)\right)=\exp (m+\tilde{v}(s))=e^{2 \pi i m} \exp (\tilde{v}(s))=v(s)
$$

it follows that $\tilde{w}$ is a lift of $u * v$. Since $\tilde{w}(1)=m+n$, we thus have

$$
m+n=\operatorname{deg}(u * v)=\operatorname{deg}(u)+\operatorname{deg}(v)
$$

as required. This completes the proof.

As promised, we conclude this lecture with some more abstract nonsense that we will need next time.

Definition 5.7. Suppose C is a category and $A, B_{1}, B_{2}$ are three objects in C , and $f_{1}: A \rightarrow B_{1}$ and $f_{2}: A \rightarrow B_{2}$ are two morphisms. A diagram in C is a picture ${ }^{2}$ of the form:

$$
\begin{gather*}
A \xrightarrow{f_{1}} B_{1} \\
f_{2} \\
B_{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

A solution to the diagram $(\delta)$ is an object $C$ together with two morphisms $g_{1}: B_{1} \rightarrow$ $C$ and $g_{2}: B_{2} \rightarrow C$ such that the following diagram commutes:


A pushout ${ }^{3}$ of the diagram $(\delta)$ is a solution $\left(C, g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ which satisfies the following universal property: if ( $D, h_{1}, h_{2}$ ) is any other solution to $(\delta)$ then there is a unique morphism $k: C \rightarrow D$ such that the following diagram commutes:


A pushout may or may not exist (it depends on the category C), but if it does then it is unique up to isomorphism.

Lemma 5.8. If a pushout exists then it is unique up to isomorphism.
Proof. Suppose $\left(C, g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ and $\left(C^{\prime}, g_{1}^{\prime}, g_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ are two pushouts. Then applying diagram

[^8]$(\Delta)$ with $D=C^{\prime}$ gives a morphism $k: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ such that $k \circ g_{1}=g_{1}^{\prime}$ and $k \circ g_{2}=g_{2}^{\prime}$ :


Reversing the roles of $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ gives another morphism $k^{\prime}: C^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ such that $k^{\prime} \circ g_{1}^{\prime}=g_{1}$ and $k^{\prime} \circ g_{2}^{\prime}=g_{2}$. To complete the proof we claim that $k^{\prime} \circ k=\mathrm{id}_{C}$ and $k \circ k^{\prime}=\mathrm{id}_{C^{\prime}}$. For this, first note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime} \circ k \circ g_{1}=k^{\prime} \circ g_{1}^{\prime}=g_{1}, \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and similarly

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime} \circ k \circ g_{2}=k^{\prime} \circ g_{2}^{\prime}=g_{2} . \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now take $D=C$ : then the universal property means there is a unique map $l: C \rightarrow C$ such that the following commutes:


By (5.3) and (5.4) taking $l=k^{\prime} \circ k$ makes this diagram commute: hence by uniqueness this must be the map $l$ :

$$
l=k^{\prime} \circ k .
$$

But of course there is another map that also works: take $l=\mathrm{id}_{C}$ ! By uniqueness, it thus follows that

$$
k^{\prime} \circ k=\mathrm{id}_{C} .
$$

Now, repeating this but with $C^{\prime}$ in both the two bottom right slots shows that $k \circ k^{\prime}=\mathrm{id}_{C^{\prime}}$. The proof is complete.

Remark 5.9. Morally (we shall see many other examples of this throughout the course), whenever something is defined via a universal property ${ }^{4}$ then uniqueness comes "for free". However, one still always needs to prove existence.

[^9]
## LECTURE 6

## The Seifert-van Kampen Theorem

In this lecture we prove our first genuinely difficult result, called the Seifert-van Kampen Theorem. Roughly speaking, the Seifert-van Kampen Theorem allows us to "decompose" a topological space into smaller pieces, and compute the fundamental group of the full space in terms of the fundamental groups of the smaller pieces.

Let us begin by proving that in the category Groups, a pushout always exists.
Definition 6.1. Let $G$ and $H$ be groups (not necessarily abelian). A word of length $n$ in $G$ and $H$ is an expression of the form

$$
s_{1} s_{2} \cdots s_{n}
$$

where each $s_{i}$ belongs to either $G$ or $H$. A word can be reduced in two different ways:

1. If any $s_{i}$ is equal to the identity element $1_{G}$ or $1_{H}$, remove it.
2. If two consecutive elements $s_{i}$ and $s_{i+1}$ both belong to $G$ (or both belong to $H$ ), then replace them by their product $s_{i} \cdot s_{i+1}$ as a single element of $G$ (or $H)$. This produces a word of length $n-1$.
After performing these operations as many times as possible, the word is necessarily an alternating product

$$
g_{1} h_{1} g_{2} h_{2} \cdots g_{m} h_{m}
$$

where $g_{i} \in G$ and $h_{i} \in H$, and only $g_{1}$ or $h_{m}$ is allowed to be the identity element. Such a word is then called a reduced word. The free product of $G$ and $H$, written $G * H$, is the group whose elements are reduced words, and the product is given by concatenating followed by reduction.

In Problem Sheet C, you will show that the free product can also be characterised by a universal property.

Proposition 6.2. The pushout exists for the diagram ( $\delta$ ) in Groups. Indeed, suppose we are given groups $G, H_{1}, H_{2}$ and group homomorphisms $\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}$ as in diagram ( $\delta$ ):


Let $N$ denote the normal subgroup of the free product $H_{1} * H_{2}$ generated by all elements of the form $\phi_{1}\left(g^{-1}\right) \cdot \phi_{2}(g)$ for $g \in G$. Then the quotient group $K:=$ $\left(H_{1} * H_{2}\right) / N$ is a pushout.

[^10]Proof. Define $\psi_{i}: H_{i} \rightarrow K$ by $\psi_{i}\left(h_{i}\right)=h_{i} \cdot N$. We claim that $\left(K, \psi_{1}, \psi_{2}\right)$ is a solution, i.e. the following commutes:


For this, we must show that for all $g \in G$, as cosets in $K$, one has

$$
\phi_{1}(g) \cdot N=\phi_{2}(g) \cdot N,
$$

or equivalently that

$$
\phi_{1}(g)^{-1} \cdot \phi_{2}(g) \cdot N=N .
$$

Since $\phi_{1}$ is a homomorphism,

$$
\phi_{1}(g)^{-1}=\phi_{1}\left(g^{-1}\right) .
$$

Since $\phi_{1}\left(g^{-1}\right) \cdot \phi_{2}(g) \in N$ for all $g \in G$, the claim follows. Now suppose $\left(F, \theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right)$ is another solution. The definition of the free product provides a unique homomorphism ${ }^{1}$

$$
\mu: H_{1} * H_{2} \rightarrow F
$$

such that $\left.\mu\right|_{H_{i}}=\theta_{i}$. Since $\theta_{2} \circ \phi_{2}=\theta_{1} \circ \phi_{1}$, it follows that $N \leq \operatorname{ker} \mu$, and hence $\mu$ induces a unique homomorphism $\bar{\mu}: K \rightarrow F$ such that the diagram ( $\Delta$ ) commutes:


Thus $K$ is a pushout, as claimed.
Definition 6.3. We call the group $K$ the free product with amalgamation of $\phi_{1}: G \rightarrow H_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}: G \rightarrow H_{2}$ and write $K=H_{1} *_{G} H_{2}$. This notation is a little imprecise, since $K$ depends on the homomorphisms $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$.

Corollary 6.4. If $H_{2}=\{1\}$ is the trivial group then the free product with amalgamation is given by $H_{1} / N$, where $N$ is the normal subgroup generated by $\phi_{1}(G)$.

With these group-theoretic preliminaries out of the way, we can finally state the main result of today's lecture.

[^11]Theorem 6.5 (The Seifert-van Kampen Theorem). Let $X=X_{1} \cup X_{2}$ with $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ open subsets. Assume $X_{1}, X_{2}$ and $X_{0}:=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ are all non-empty and path connected. Let

$$
\imath_{i}: X_{0} \hookrightarrow X_{i}, \quad \jmath_{i}: X_{i} \hookrightarrow X
$$

denote inclusions for $i=1,2$. Let $p \in X_{0}$. Then the fundamental group $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is the free product with amalgamation of the group homomorphisms $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{1}\right): \pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right): \pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right):$

$$
\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong \pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right) *_{\pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right)} \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) .
$$

Before giving the proof, let us note three useful special cases of Theorem 6.5.
Corollary 6.6. Under the assumptions of Theorem 6.5, one has:

1. If $X_{2}$ is simply connected then

$$
\pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{1}\right): \pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p)
$$

is a surjection with kernel the normal subgroup generated by $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{1}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right)\right)$.
2. If $X_{0}$ is simply connected then $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is the free product of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$.
3. If $X_{2}$ and $X_{0}$ are simply connected then

$$
\pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{1}\right): \pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p)
$$

is an isomorphism.
We will need the following piece of point-set topology in the course of the proof of Theorem 6.5.

Lemma 6.7 (The Lebesgue Number Lemma ${ }^{2}$ ). Let $(X, d)$ be a compact metric space. Suppose $\mathcal{U}$ is an open cover of $X$. Then there exists $\delta>0$, called a Lebesgue number for $\mathcal{U}$ such that every subset $A$ of $X$ with diameter less than $\delta$ is contained in some element of $\mathcal{U}$.

Proof of Theorem 6.5. Consider the diagram:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right) \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{1}\right)} \pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right) \\
& \pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right) \mid \\
& \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We will show that $\left(\pi_{1}(X, p), \pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{1}\right), \pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{2}\right)\right)$ is a pushout. Since we already know that a pushout is unique by Lemma 5.8, and since in Groups the pushout is given by the

[^12]free product with amalgamation by Proposition 6.2, it thus follows that $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ must be this product:
$$
\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong \pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right) *_{\pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right)} \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)
$$

It is clear that $\left(\pi_{1}(X, p), \pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{1}\right), \pi_{1}\left(\jmath_{2}\right)\right)$ is a solution, i.e. that the following commutes:


So suppose $\left(G, \phi_{1}, \phi_{2}\right)$ is another solution:


We will construct a unique homomorphism $\psi: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow G$ such that the following diagram commutes.


Suppose $u$ is a loop in $X$ at $p$. Since $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are open, we can find a finite set of points $p=x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}=p$ along $u$ with the property that each $x_{i}$ lies in $X_{0}$ and each segment of $u$ from $x_{i-1}$ to $x_{i}$ lies in either $X_{1}$ or $X_{2}$. Let $v_{i}: I \rightarrow X$ denote the path obtained by reparametrising the segment of $u_{i}$ from $x_{i-1}$ to $x_{i}$. Explicitly, if $s_{i-1}<s_{i}$ are such that $u\left(s_{i-1}\right)=x_{i-1}$ and $u\left(s_{i}\right)=x_{i}$, then

$$
v_{i}(s)=u\left((1-s) s_{i-1}+s s_{i}\right) .
$$

Now, for each $i$, select a path $w_{i}$ in $X_{0}$ from $p$ to $x_{i}$ (take $w_{0}$ and $w_{n}$ to be the constant path $e_{p}$.) Then by concatenating we obtain loops

$$
w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}
$$

which lies entirely in either $X_{1}$ or $X_{2}$. See Figure 6.1. Each loop therefore defines an


Figure 6.1: Breaking $u$ into smaller pieces.
element either of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ or $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$. Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}\right), \quad \text { rel } \partial I \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now define our desired map $\psi$ by

$$
\psi[u]:=\phi_{*}\left[w_{0} * v_{1} * \bar{w}_{1}\right] \cdot \phi_{*}\left[w_{1} * v_{2} * \bar{w}_{2}\right] \cdots \phi_{*}\left[w_{n-1} * v_{n} * \bar{w}_{n}\right]
$$

where $\phi_{*}$ means either $\phi_{1}$ or $\phi_{2}$ depending on whether [ $w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}$ ] belongs to $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ or $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$. Note that there is a potential ambiguity if $w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}$ lies in both $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$, because we could choose either $\phi_{1}$ or $\phi_{2}$. But in this case [ $\left.w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}\right]$ lies in $\pi_{1}\left(X_{0}, p\right)$, and commutativity of the diagram (6.1) shows that we get the same result.

This defines the map $\psi$, but there are still many things we need to check before the proof is complete:

1. Is the definition of $\psi$ independent of the points $x_{i}$ and the paths $w_{i}$ ?
2. Does $\psi$ make sense on $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ ? That is, if $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ are two homotopic loops rel $p$ do we get the same answer if we use $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ in the definition of $\psi$ ?
3. Is $\psi$ a homomorphism?
4. Does the diagram (6.2) commute?
5. Is $\psi$ unique with respect to these properties?

Let's pretend for a second that we've already proved (1) and (2). The last three properties are then easy: (3) and (4) follow by construction, and uniqueness comes from the fact that if a loop $v$ is entirely contained in $X_{1}$ then requiring (6.2) to commutes means we are forced to define $\psi[v]=\phi_{1}[v]$ (and similarly for $X_{2}$ ), and thus (6.3) means that if we want $\psi$ to be a group homomorphism we have no choice but to define it as we have done.

So now let's get on with proving the first two parts, starting with (1). Consider a point $x_{i}$, and suppose $w_{i}^{\prime}$ is another path from $p$ to $x_{i}$. See Figure 6.2. Then we have


Figure 6.2: $w_{i}$ and $w_{i}^{\prime}$.
$\phi_{*}\left[w_{i} * v_{i+1} * \bar{w}_{i+1}\right]=\phi_{*}\left[w_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime} * w_{i}^{\prime} * v_{i+1} * \bar{w}_{i+1}\right]=\phi_{*}\left[w_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime}\right] \cdot \phi_{*}\left[w_{i}^{\prime} * v_{i+1} * \bar{w}_{i+1}\right]$.
On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] & =\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime} * w_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] \\
& =\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime}\right] \cdot \phi_{*}\left[w_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] \\
& =\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime}\right] \cdot\left(\phi_{*}\left[w_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime}\right]\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\bar{w}_{i} * w_{i}^{\prime}$ is a loop based in $X_{0}$ and since the diagram (6.1) commutes, the value of $\phi_{*}$ on this loop will be the same whether $\phi_{*}$ is $\phi_{1}$ or $\phi_{2}$. Thus

$$
\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] \cdot \phi_{*}\left[w_{i} * v_{i+1} * \bar{w}_{i+1}\right]=\phi_{*}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}^{\prime}\right] \cdot \phi_{*}\left[w_{i}^{\prime} * v_{i+1} * \bar{w}_{i+1}\right]
$$

This means that the product won't change when $w_{i}^{\prime}$ is used instead of $w_{i}$. Repeating this argument at each point $x_{i}$ shows that $\psi[u]$ does not depend on the choice of the paths $w_{i}$.

Now we show independence of the points $x_{i}$. Suppose another point $y \in X_{0}$ is added along $v_{i}$ separating the path $v_{i}$ into two new paths $v_{i}^{\prime}$ and $v_{i-1}^{\prime}$. See Figure 6.3. Let $w^{\prime}$ denote a path from $p$ to $y$ in $X_{0}$. Suppose for definiteness that the loop $w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}$ is contained in $X_{1}$. Then the same is true of the two new loops $w_{i-1} * v_{i-1}^{\prime} * \bar{w}^{\prime}$ and $w^{\prime} * v_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{i}$, and we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{1}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i-1}^{\prime} * \bar{w}^{\prime}\right] \cdot \phi_{1}\left[w^{\prime} * v_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] & =\phi_{1}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i-1}^{\prime} * \bar{w}^{\prime} * w^{\prime} * v_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] \\
& =\phi_{1}\left[w_{i-1} * v_{i} * \bar{w}_{i}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that adding an additional point to the set of $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ does not change the value of $\psi[u]$. More generally, the same is true if we add a finite number of points, that is, refining the $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ leads to the same result. Now suppose we are given two different sets $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ and $\left\{y_{i}\right\}$ of points. Their union is a common refinement of both the $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ and the $\left\{y_{i}\right\}$, and we have just shown that the value of $\psi[u]$ doesn't change


Figure 6.3: The new point $y$.
when refining the set of points. Thus the value of $\psi[u]$ is the same if we use either the $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ or the $\left\{y_{i}\right\}$. This proves (1).

Now let us move onto the proof of (2). Suppose $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ are two homotopic loops and $U: u \simeq u^{\prime}$ is a homotopy rel $\partial I$. We subdivide the square $I \times I$ into lots of little squares in such a way that each smaller square is mapped by $U$ into either $X_{1}$ or $X_{2}$. Such a decomposition exists by Lemma 6.7, where we take the open cover of $I \times I$ given by the connected components of $U^{-1}\left(X_{1}\right)$ and $U^{-1}\left(X_{2}\right)$. See Figure 6.4. Proceeding one small rectangle at a time, this deforms $u$ into $u^{\prime}$ through a finite


Figure 6.4: Subdividing $I \times I$.
sequence of paths such that each step involves a homotopy in which the only change occurs within either $X_{1}$ or $X_{2}$. For such a restricted deformation, the points $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ may be chosen so that the value of $\psi$ is unchanged. This proves (2), and thus completes the proof.

## LECTURE 7

## Singular homology

In this lecture we finally get started on defining the homology functors $H_{n}$ referred to in Lecture 1. Let us begin with some preliminaries on free abelian groups.

Definition 7.1. Let $B$ be a subset of an abelian group $F$. We say $F$ is free abelian with basis $B$ if the subgroup generated by $b$ is infinite cyclic for each $b \in B$ and $F=\bigoplus_{b \in B}\langle b\rangle$ as a direct sum.

Thus a free abelian group is a (possibly uncountable) direct sum of copies of $\mathbb{Z}$. A typical element $x \in F$ has a unique expression

$$
x=\sum_{b \in B} m_{b} b, \quad m_{b} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

where almost all (meaning all but a finite number) of the $m_{b}$ are zero. The following trivial lemma will be crucial in all that follows.

Lemma 7.2. Let $F$ be a free abelian group with basis $B$. If $A$ is an abelian group and $\phi: B \rightarrow A$ is a function then there exists a unique group homomorphism $\tilde{\phi}: F \rightarrow A$ such that

$$
\tilde{\phi}(b)=\phi(b), \quad \forall b \in B,
$$

that is, the following diagram commutes:


Moreover any abelian group $A$ is isomorphic to a quotient group of the form $F / R$, where $F$ is a free abelian group.

Proof. Define $\tilde{\phi}$ by

$$
\tilde{\phi}\left(\sum_{b \in B} m_{b} b\right):=\sum_{b \in B} m_{b} \phi(b) .
$$

Then $\tilde{\phi}$ is well-defined since any element of $F$ has a unique expression of this form, and it is obviously a homomorphism. Moreover $\tilde{\phi}$ is unique since any two homomorphisms that agree on a set of generators (in this case $B$ ) must coincide. The last statement is on Problem Sheet D.

We refer to the extension $\phi \mapsto \tilde{\phi}$ given in Lemma 7.2 as extending by linearity. By an abuse of notation, we will typically continue to write $\phi$ for the extension, rather than $\tilde{\phi}$.

Lemma 7.3. Given any set $B$, there exists a free abelian group having $B$ as basis.
Proof. If $B=\emptyset$, take $F=0$. Otherwise, for each $b \in B$, let $\mathbb{Z}_{b}$ be a group whose elements are all symbols $m b$ with $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and addition defined by $m b+n b=(m+n) b$. Then $\mathbb{Z}_{b}$ is infinite cyclic with generator $b$. Now set

$$
F:=\bigoplus_{b \in B} \mathbb{Z}_{b}
$$

This is a free abelian group with basis given by the set $\left\{e_{b} \mid b \in B\right\}$, where $e_{b}$ has a zero in each entry apart from the $b$ th entry, where it is a 1 . Identifying $e_{b}$ with $b$, we see that $F$ has basis $B$.

Definition 7.4. The rank of a free abelian group $F$ is the cardinality of any basis of $B$ of $F$.

This is well-defined thanks to Problem D.1. Moreover two free abelian groups are isomorphic if and only if they have the same rank.

Remark 7.5. One can extend the notion of rank to any abelian group: if $G$ is an arbitrary abelian group then we say $G$ has (possibly infinite) rank $r$ if there exists a free abelian subgroup $F$ of $G$ such that $F$ has rank $r$ and $G / F$ is torsion. Such subgroups $F$ always exist (this is also part of Problem D.1). However it is not obvious that this definition is well-defined. Indeed, $F$ is not unique, and it is by no means clear that the rank of $F$ only depends on $G$. At the very end of the course we will develop one way of proving this.

## Now let us define the notion of a simplex.

Definition 7.6. An ordered tuple $\left(z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)$ of points in $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ is said to be affinely independent if the set $\left\{z_{1}-z_{0}, z_{2}-z_{0}, \ldots, z_{n}-z_{0}\right\}$ is linearly independent (thus necessarily $n \leq m$ ). Given an affinely independent tuple ( $z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}$ ) of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{m}$, we denote by $\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ the $n$-simplex spanned by $\left(z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right)$, namely the set

$$
\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{m} \mid x=\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} z_{i}, \text { where } 0 \leq s_{i} \leq 1, \sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i}=1\right\}
$$

We call the points $z_{i}$ the vertices of the $n$-simplex $\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$. The expression $x=\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} z_{i}$ of any point $x \in\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ is unique ${ }^{1}$. We call the $(n+1)$ tuple $\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}\right)$ the barycentric coordinates of $x$. The barycentre of the $n$-simplex $\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ is the unique point where all the $s_{i}$ are equal, namely

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n+1}\left(z_{0}+z_{1}+\cdots+z_{n}\right) . \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^13]Definition 7.7. Let $\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ be an $n$-simplex. The face opposite to $z_{i}$ is the $(n-1)$-simplex ${ }^{2}\left[z_{0}, \ldots \hat{z}_{i}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$. Here the circumflex ${ }^{\text {^ }}$ means ${ }^{3}$ "delete". Equivalently

$$
\left[z_{0}, \ldots \hat{z}_{i}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]:=\left\{x \in\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right] \mid s_{i}=0 .\right\} .
$$

An $n$-simplex thus has $n+1$ faces. The boundary of an $n$-simplex is the union of its faces.

Definition 7.8. The standard $n$-simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ is the $n$-simplex $\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]$, where $e_{i}$ is the vector coordinates are all zero, apart from the $i+1$ st position, which is 1 . We denote the standard $n$-simplex by $\Delta^{n}$.

So much for a simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. What about in an arbitrary topological space $X$ ?
Definition 7.9. Let $X$ be a topological space. A singular $n$-simplex in $X$ is a continuous map $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$.

Since $\Delta^{0}$ is a point, a 0 -simplex in $X$ is simply a point in $X$. Since $\Delta^{1}$ is a closed interval, a 1 -simplex is ${ }^{4}$ the same thing as a path in $X$. The adjective "singular" is added to emphasis that the image $\sigma\left(\Delta^{n}\right)$ does not need to "look" anything like $\Delta^{n}$, i.e. we do not require $\sigma$ to be a homeomorphism. In particular, there is nothing stopping $\sigma$ being a constant map.

Definition 7.10. Let $X$ be a topological space and $n \geq 0$. Let $C_{n}(X)$ denote the free abelian group with basis the singular $n$-simplices in $X$ (cf. Lemma 7.3.) We call an element of $C_{n}(X)$ a singular $n$-chain. It is convenient for notational reasons to also define $C_{-1}(X)=0$.

Note that (as a group), $C_{n}(X)$ is typically huge: if $X$ is an uncountable set then $C_{n}(X)$ is itself uncountable for all $n \geq 0$. We will shortly replace $C_{n}(X)$ with a (usually smaller) abelian group $H_{n}(X)$. First, let us explain how to obtain a singular ( $n-1$ )-simplex from a singular $n$-simplex.

Definition 7.11. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $n$-simplex in $X$. If we restrict $\sigma$ to one of the faces of $\Delta^{n}$, we get a continuous map from an $n-1$-simplex into $X$.

Actually this definition is cheating a little bit; whilst any face of $\Delta^{n}$ is an $(n-1)$ simplex, it is not the standard ( $n-1$ )-simplex, since the domain is wrong. Thus strictly speaking, the restriction of a $n$-simplex $\sigma$ in $X$ to a face is not actually a singular ( $n-1$ )-simplex in $X$, since it is not a continuous map from $\Delta^{n-1}$ into $X$. There are two ways round this tedious pedantry:

1. Ignore it. After all, it's clear what we mean.
2. Fix it by making the notation more complicated.
[^14]We shall go ${ }^{5}$ for option (2). To this end, let us define the $i$ th face map

$$
\varepsilon_{i}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n
$$

that maps the standard ( $n-1$ )-simplex $\Delta^{n-1}$ homeomorphically onto the $i$ th face of $\Delta^{n}$. Explicitly,

$$
\varepsilon_{0}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(0, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)
$$

for $i=0$, and for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$,

$$
\varepsilon_{i}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i-1}, 0, s_{i}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)
$$

and finally

$$
\varepsilon_{n}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 0\right)
$$

Where necessary we will write $\varepsilon_{i}^{n}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ (this is needed for instance in (7.2) below).

We can now "improve" Definition 7.11:
Definition 7.12. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $n$-simplex in $X$ and let $0 \leq i \leq n$. The composition $\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow X$ is then a singular ( $n-1$ )-simplex in $X$, which we call the restriction of $\sigma$ to the $i$ th face.

We can now define the boundary of a singular $n$-simplex.
Definition 7.13. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $n$-simplex in $X$. The boundary of $\sigma$ is the alternating sum of the restriction of $\sigma$ to the faces:

$$
\partial \sigma:=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} .
$$

Thus the boundary of $\sigma$ is not a singular ( $n-1$ )-simplex, but rather a formal sum of singular $(n-1)$-simplices, and hence (by definition) a singular ( $n-1$ )-chain: $\partial \sigma \in C_{n-1}(X)$. We define the boundary of a singular 0 -simplex to be zero.

Remark 7.14. If we omit the face maps (which we will occasionally do, cf. in Proposition 8.5 next lecture), the formula is slightly more intuitive (albeit formally incorrect):

$$
\partial \sigma=\left.\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma\right|_{\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]} .
$$

Applying Lemma 7.2 we obtain a well defined map on the free abelian group $C_{n}(X)$.

[^15]
## Definition 7.15. The singular boundary operator

$$
\partial: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)
$$

is the unique homomorphism extending the operator from Definition 7.13. Occasionally for clarity we will write $\partial_{n}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$.

Thus for each $n \geq 0$ we have constructed a sequence of free abelian groups and homomorphisms. We illustrate this pictorially as

$$
\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}(X) \longrightarrow C_{1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{0}(X) \longrightarrow 0 .
$$

Anticipating the category Comp of chain complexes that we will introduce in Lecture 10, we will bundle all the groups $C_{n}(X)$ together and write $\left(C_{\bullet}(X), \partial\right)$ to denote all the groups and maps at once.
Proposition 7.16. $\partial^{2}=0$, that is, for any $n \geq 0$ the composition

$$
C_{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}(X)
$$

is always zero.
Proof. Since $C_{n+1}(X)$ is generated by all the $(n+1)$-simplices, by Lemma 7.2 it suffices to show that if $\sigma: \Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $(n+1)$-simplex then $\partial^{2} \sigma=0$. As you can probably guess, the point it that since the boundary operator was defined via an alternating sum, when you apply it twice things cancel. Indeed, if $k<j$ then one has the following face relation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{j}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n}=\varepsilon_{k}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j-1}^{n}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n+1} . \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

To prove (7.2), it suffices to observe that both sides give the same answer when fed a vertex $e_{i}$ for $i=0,1, \ldots, n-1$. Now we compute:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial^{2} \sigma & =\partial\left(\sum_{j=0}^{n+1}(-1)^{j} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n+1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n+1}(-1)^{j+k} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n} \\
& =\underbrace{\sum_{j \leq k}(-1)^{j+k} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n}}_{(*)}+\underbrace{\sum_{k<j}(-1)^{j+k} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n}}_{(\dagger)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We claim that the two terms (*) and ( $\dagger$ ) cancel. Indeed, to see this first apply (7.2) to $(* *)$ and change variables by setting $l=k$ and $m=j-1$ to obtain:
$\sum_{k<j}(-1)^{j+k} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n}=\sum_{k<j}(-1)^{j+k} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{k}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j-1}^{n}=\sum_{l \leq m}(-1)^{l+m+1} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{l}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{m}^{n}$.
The last expression is the same as $(*)$, only every term appears with the opposite sign. This completes the proof.

Definition 7.17. A singular $n$-cycle in $X$ is a singular $n$-chain that lies in the kernel of $\partial$. We denote by $Z_{n}(X)$ the set of all singular $n$-cycles. A singular $n$ boundary in $X$ is a singular $n$-chain that lies in the image of $\partial$. We denote by $B_{n}(X)$ the set of all singular $n$-boundaries ${ }^{6}$. Both $Z_{n}(X)$ and $B_{n}(X)$ are subgroups of $C_{n}(X)$. Moreover since $\partial^{2}=0$, we have

$$
B_{n}(X) \subseteq Z_{n}(X) \subseteq C_{n}(X)
$$

We can therefore form the quotient group. This will be the eponymous singular homology.

Definition 7.18. We define the $n$-singular homology group of $X$, written $H_{n}(X)$, to be the quotient group

$$
H_{n}(X)=Z_{n}(X) / B_{n}(X)
$$

Thus $H_{n}(X)$ is an abelian (not free abelian!) group for each $n$. Given a singular $n$-cycle $c$, we denote ${ }^{7}$ by $\langle c\rangle$ the coset $c+B_{n}(X) \in H_{n}(X)$ and call $\langle c\rangle$ the homology class determined by $c$.

We will conclude this lecture by showing that $H_{n}$ is a functor. This means that we need to associate to each continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a homomorphism $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$.

Definition 7.19. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map and $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $n$-simplex in $X$ then $f \circ \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow Y$ is a singular $n$-simplex in $Y$. We therefore obtain an induced map $f_{\#}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n}(Y)$ by extending this by linearity (Lemma 7.2:

$$
f_{\#}\left(\sum m_{\sigma} \sigma\right):=\sum m_{\sigma} f \circ \sigma
$$

We can think of $f_{\#}$ as defining being a map $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X)$. You will not be surprised to learn that the operation $X \mapsto C \bullet(X)$ and $f \mapsto f_{\#}$ defines a functor ${ }^{8}$. We will study this in Lecture 10 (it's a functor Top $\rightarrow$ Comp.) For now though, let us prove that $f_{\#}$ descends to the quotient to define a map on $H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$. This is the content of the following proposition.

Proposition 7.20. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, then the following diagrams commutes for every $n$ :


[^16]Proof. It suffice to evaluate both $f_{\#} \circ \partial$ and $\partial \circ f_{\#}$ on a singular $n$-simplex $\sigma$ in $X$. Now

$$
f_{\#} \circ \partial \sigma=f_{\#}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} f \circ \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} .
$$

Similarly

$$
\partial \circ f_{\#} \sigma=\partial(f \circ \sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} f \circ \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} .
$$

Corollary 7.21. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous then both $f_{\#}\left(Z_{n}(X)\right) \subseteq Z_{n}(Y)$ and $f_{\#}\left(B_{n}(X)\right) \subseteq B_{n}(Y)$. Thus $f_{\#}$ induces a map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$.

Proof. If $\partial c=0$ then $\partial\left(f_{\#} c\right)=f_{\#}(\partial c)=0$, so that $f_{\#} c \in Z_{n}(Y)$. Similarly if $b=\partial c$ then $f_{\#} b=f_{\#}(\partial c)=\partial\left(f_{\#} c\right)$, so that $f_{\#} b \in B_{n}(Y)$.

Thus $f_{\#}$ induces a map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$, given by

$$
H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle:=\left\langle f_{\#} c\right\rangle .
$$

Corollary 7.22. For each $n \geq 0, H_{n}: \mathrm{Top} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor.
Proof. We need only check that $H_{n}(g \circ f)=H_{n}(g) \circ H_{n}(f)$ and that $H_{n}\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}\right)=$ $\mathrm{id}_{H_{n}(X)}$. Both of these are immediate from the definitions.

Corollary 7.23. If $X$ and $Y$ are homeomorphic then $H_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(Y)$ for all $n \geq 0$.
Proof. Immediate from Problem A.2.
Thinking back to Lecture 1, we have now constructed the singular homology functors from Theorem 1.15. In order for our proof of the Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem 1.1 to be complete, we need to verify that $H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right)=0$ and $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$. We will prove that $H_{n}\left(B^{n+1}\right)=0$ next lecture; the fact that $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$ will take much longer (Lecture 15).

## LECTURE 8

## The homotopy axiom

In this lecture we prove that if $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic maps then the induced maps $H_{n}(f)$ and $H_{n}(g)$ coincide for every $n \geq 0$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
[f]=[g] \quad \Rightarrow \quad H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(g) \quad \forall n \geq 0 \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

we will prove this in Theorem 8.9 below. By Problem A.2, this means that $H_{n}$ may be regarded as a functor $H_{n}: \mathrm{hTop} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$. This should be compared to $\pi_{1}$ : we initially defined $\pi_{1}$ as a functor $\mathrm{Top}_{*} \rightarrow$ Groups and then later showed that $\pi_{1}$ induces a functor from $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ to Groups. The property (8.1) is usually called the homotopy axiom. This terminology will be explained at the end of the course when we cover the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms.

We begin by stating two elementary properties of singular homology, both of which appear on Problem Sheet D.

Proposition 8.1 (The dimension axiom). Let $X$ be a one-point space $\{*\}$. Then $H_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n>0$.

Just as with the homotopy axiom (8.1), the meaning of the name "dimension axiom" in Proposition 8.1 will get explained later. For the next result, let us recall that if $\left\{G_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a collection of groups, an element of $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$ is a tuple $\left(g_{\lambda}\right)$ where all but finitely many of the $g_{\lambda}$ are equal to the identity.

Proposition 8.2. Let $X$ be a topological space. Let $\left\{X_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote the path components of $X$. Then for every $n \geq 0$ one has

$$
H_{n}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

Thus, just as with the fundamental group, for computational purposes we may always assume our spaces are path connected. In general, it is very hard to compute $H_{n}(X)$ for $n>0$, but it is always possible to compute $H_{0}(X)$.

Proposition 8.3. If $X$ is a non-empty path connected space then $H_{0}(X)=\mathbb{Z} . A$ generator is given by $\langle x\rangle$ for any point $x \in X$, and if $x, y \in X$ then $\langle x\rangle=\langle y\rangle$. Moreover, if $\langle c\rangle$ is any generator then $\langle c\rangle=\langle x\rangle$ for some (and hence every) $x \in X$.

Proof. We identify a 0 -singular simplex in $X$ with a point in $X$. Since $\partial: C_{0}(X) \rightarrow 0$ is the zero map, every point in $X$ is a 0 -cycle: $Z_{0}(X)=C_{0}(X)$. Thus each point
$x \in X$ determines a class $\langle x\rangle \in H_{0}(X)$. Let us now identify $B_{0}(X)$. A typical element of $c \in C_{0}(X)$ is of the form

$$
c=\sum_{x \in X} m_{x} x, \quad m_{x} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

where all but finitely many of the $m_{x}$ are equal to zero. We claim that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{0}(X)=\left\{\sum m_{x} x \mid \sum m_{x}=0\right\} . \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Firstly, suppose $c=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} x_{i}$ satisfies $\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}=0$. We wish to build a singular 1chain $a$ such that $\partial a=c$. For this, choose a point $p \in X$ and for each $i=1, \ldots, n$, let $u_{i}: I \rightarrow X$ denote a path starting at $p$ and ending at $x_{i}$. After identifying $I=[0,1]$ with $\Delta^{1}=\left[e_{0}, e_{1}\right]$, we may regard each $u_{i}$ as a singular 1-simplex $\sigma_{i}: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ such that $\sigma_{i}\left(e_{0}\right)=p$ and $\sigma_{i}\left(e_{1}\right)=x_{i}$. Note that

$$
\partial \sigma_{i}=\sigma_{i}\left(e_{1}\right)-\sigma_{i}\left(e_{0}\right)=x_{i}-p \in C_{0}(X)
$$

Now set $a:=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \sigma_{i}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial a & =\partial\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \sigma_{i}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \partial \sigma_{i} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} x_{i}-\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}\right) p \\
& =c-0=c .
\end{aligned}
$$

Conversely, suppose $d \in B_{0}(X)$. Then there exists $b \in C_{1}(X)$ such that $\partial b=d$. Write $b=\sum_{j=1}^{k} l_{j} \tau_{j}$, where $\tau_{j}: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ and $l_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$
d=\sum_{j=1}^{k} l_{j}\left(\tau_{j}\left(e_{1}\right)-\tau_{j}\left(e_{0}\right)\right) .
$$

Thus in the expansion of $d$, each coefficient $l_{j}$ appears twice and with the opposite sign. Thus the sum of the coefficients of $d$ is zero. This proves (8.2).

Thus by (8.2), the map

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi: Z_{0}(X)=C_{0}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad \phi\left(\sum_{x \in X} m_{x} x\right):=\sum_{x \in X} m_{x} \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a surjection whose kernel is precisely $B_{0}(X)$. Thus $H_{0}(X) \cong \operatorname{im} \phi=\mathbb{Z}$.
Now suppose $x, y \in X$. A path from $x$ to $y$ determines a singular 1 -simplex $\sigma$ with $\partial \sigma=y-x$. Thus $\langle x\rangle=\langle y\rangle \in H_{0}(X)$. Finally suppose $a=\sum_{i} m_{i} x_{i}$ is a 0 -cycle such that $\langle a\rangle$ is a generator of $H_{0}(X)$. Then we must have $\phi(a)= \pm 1$. Replacing $a$ with $-a$ if necessary, we may assume that $\phi(a)=1$. Thus $\sum_{i} m_{i}=1$. Then for any point $x \in X$, we have $a=x+(a-x)$. Since $a-x \in B_{0}(X)$ by (8.2) we therefore have $\langle x\rangle=\langle a\rangle$. This completes the proof.

An immediate corollary of Proposition 8.3 is:
Corollary 8.4. Let $X$ and $Y$ be path connected spaces and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ continuous. Then $H_{0}(f): H_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(Y)$ maps a generator of $H_{0}(X)$ to a generator of $H_{0}(Y)$.

The main step in the proof of the homotopy axiom is the following innocuous looking statement.

Proposition 8.5. Let $X$ be a topological space and define inclusions $\imath, \jmath$ : $X \hookrightarrow X \times I$ by

$$
\imath(x):=(x, 0), \quad \jmath(x):=(x, 1) .
$$

Then

$$
H_{n}(\imath)=H_{n}(\jmath), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

Remark 8.6. There is a very cute three line proof which uses an abstract result in homological algebra called the Acyclic Models Theorem. We will prove this right at the end of the course, and we will then come back to Proposition 8.5 and give a second proof. Therefore don't worry if you find the proof of Proposition 8.5 below horrible; we will eventually see a nicer one.

In order to prove Proposition 8.5 we introduce the idea of a chain homotopy.
Lemma 8.7. Let $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous maps. Assume for each ${ }^{1} n \geq-1$ there is a homomorphism

$$
P: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y)
$$

with

$$
f_{\#}-g_{\#}=\partial P+P \partial .
$$

Then $H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(g)$ for all $n \geq 0$.
The maps $P_{n}$ look like this:


Beware though, this diagram is not commutative! Just as with the $\partial$ maps, sometimes for clarity we will include the subscript and write $P_{n}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y)$. In Lecture 10 we will define an abstract version of the operators $P$, which will then be called chain homotopies.
Proof. Take $c \in Z_{n}(X)$. Then

$$
\left(f_{\#}-g_{\#}\right) c=(\partial P+P \partial) c=\partial P c \in B_{n}(Y) .
$$

Thus $H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle=H_{n}(g)\langle c\rangle$.

[^17]Let us now prove Proposition 8.5. The first step is the following lemma.
Lemma 8.8. $\Delta^{n} \times I$ is the union of $n+1$ copies of $\Delta^{n+1}$.
Proof. For $i=-1,0,1, \ldots, n-1$, let $g_{i}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow I$ denote the map

$$
g_{i}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)=\sum_{j>i} s_{j} .
$$

Note $g_{i}$ is indeed a map to $I$, as $x=\sum s_{i} e_{i}$ implies $\sum s_{i}=1$. Let $G_{i} \subset \Delta^{n} \times I$ denote the graph of $g_{i}$. Then $G_{i}$ is homeomorphic to $\Delta^{n}$ via the projection $\Delta^{n} \times I \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ onto the first factor. Let us now label the vertices at the "bottom" (i.e. $\Delta^{n} \times\{0\}$ ) of $\Delta^{n} \times I$ by $e_{0}^{\prime}, e_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime}$ and those at the "top" by $e_{0}^{\prime \prime}, e_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $G_{i}$ is the $n$-simplex

$$
G_{i}=\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i+1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]
$$

Since $G_{i}$ lies below $G_{i-1}$ as $g_{i} \leq g_{i-1}$, it follows that the region between $G_{i}$ and $G_{i-1}$ is the $(n+1)$-simplex $\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]$; this is indeed an $(n+1)$-simplex as $e_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ is not in $G_{i}$ and hence not in the $n$-simplex $\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i+1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]$. Since $0=g_{n} \leq g_{n-1} \leq \cdots \leq g_{0} \leq g_{-1}=1$, we see that $\Delta^{n} \times I$ is the union of the regions between the $G_{i}$, and hence the union of $n+1$ different $(n+1)$-simplices $\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]$, each intersecting the next in an $n$-simplex face.

We now prove Proposition 8.5.
Proof of Proposition 8.5. We will break with our convention here since otherwise the notation becomes too messy. If $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $n$-simplex, then we denote by

$$
\left.\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]}
$$

the singular $(n+1)$-simplex obtained from the previous lemma by restricting $\sigma \times$ $\mathrm{id}_{I}: \Delta^{n} \times I \rightarrow X \times I$ to the ( $n+1$ )-simplex $\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]$. Of course, we should really precompose with an appropriate face map $\Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]$ in order to make $\sigma \times\left.\operatorname{id}_{I}\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]}$ into a genuine singular $(n+1)$-simplex, however this is too cumbersome (the notation is already bad enough as it is!)

With this in mind, we define a homomorphism

$$
P: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X \times I)
$$

by requiring that

$$
P \sigma=\left.\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i}\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]}
$$

and then extending by linearity (cf. Lemma 7.2.)
Now let us look at $\partial P \sigma$, remembering that the ^ notation over a vertex means "delete" (see also Remark 7.14):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial P \sigma= & \left.\sum_{j \leq i}(-1)^{i+j}\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{j}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]} \\
& +\left.\sum_{i \leq j}(-1)^{i+j+1}\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{j}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]}
\end{aligned}
$$

The terms with $i=j$ all cancel ${ }^{2}$ apart from the first and last ones:

$$
\left.\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left.\hat{e}_{0}^{\prime}, e_{0}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]} \quad \text { and } \quad-\left.\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left[e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime}, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]},
$$

which are precisely $\jmath_{\#} \sigma$ and $-\imath_{\#} \sigma$ respectively. Meanwhile the terms with $i \neq j$ are precisely $-P \partial \sigma$, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
P \partial \sigma= & \left.\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} P \sigma\right|_{\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]} \\
= & \left.\sum_{j<i}(-1)^{i+j-1}\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left.e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{j}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]} \\
& +\left.\sum_{i<j}(-1)^{i+j}\left(\sigma \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)\right|_{\left.e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{i}^{\prime}, e_{i}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, e_{j}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots e_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right]} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Putting this altogether we obtain

$$
\partial P \sigma=\jmath \# \sigma-\imath \# \sigma-P \partial \sigma .
$$

The same is true for any chain $c \in C_{n}(X)$ by Lemma 7.2, and hence Lemma 8.7 completes the proof.

We can now prove (8.1).
Theorem 8.9 (The homotopy axiom). Let $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ be two homotopic maps. Then $H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(g)$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus for each $n \geq 0, H_{n}: \mathrm{hTop} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor.

Proof. Let $F: f \simeq g$ be a homotopy. Then using the maps $\imath$ and $\jmath$ from Proposition 8.5, we have

$$
f=F \circ \imath, \quad g=F \circ \jmath .
$$

Thus as $H_{n}$ is a functor, we have

$$
H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(F \circ \imath)=H_{n}(F) \circ H_{n}(\imath)=H_{n}(F) \circ H_{n}(\jmath)=H_{n}(g) .
$$

In the same way as Corollary 7.23 , we obtain the following result.
Corollary 8.10. If $X$ and $Y$ have the same homotopy type then $H_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(Y)$ for all $n \geq 0$, where the isomorphism is induced by any homotopy equivalence.

Proof. Immediate from Problem A.2.
We also have:
Corollary 8.11. If $X$ is contractible then $H_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n>0$.
Proof. Immediate from the previous corollary and the dimension axiom (Proposition 8.1.)

[^18]
## LECTURE 9

## The Hurewicz Theorem

In this lecture we investigate the relationship between $H_{1}(X)$ and $\pi_{1}(X, p)$. It should come as no surprise that there is one, since $\Delta^{1}$ is homeomorphic to an interval, but at the same time they cannot be identical, since $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is not necessarily abelian (cf. Problem C. 2 and Problem C.3), meanwhile by definition $H_{1}(X)$ always is.

We begin by defining a function $h: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow H_{1}(X)$ called the Hurewicz map. We will then prove that $h$ is a surjective homomorphism and identify its kernel.

Remark 9.1. We have already implicitly used the fact that $\Delta^{1}$ and $I$ are homeomorphic, and thus a singular 1 -simplex is the same thing as a path. However in this lecture it is important to keep track of whether we are working with a singular 1 -simplex or a path. To this end, let $\theta: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow I$ denote the homeomorphism that sends

$$
\Delta^{1} \ni \sum_{i=0}^{1} s_{i} e_{i} \mapsto s_{1} \in I
$$

We will use the following slightly imprecise convention: if $u: I \rightarrow X$ is a path, then $u^{\prime}:=u \circ \theta: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ is a singular 1-simplex. Explicitly,

$$
u^{\prime}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}\right)=u\left(s_{1}\right) .
$$

With this convention, if $u$ and $v$ are two paths such that $u(1)=v(0)$ then the concatenated path $u * v$ becomes:

$$
(u * v)^{\prime}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}\right)= \begin{cases}u^{\prime}\left(2 s_{0}-1,2 s_{1}\right), & 0 \leq s_{1} \leq \frac{1}{2}  \tag{9.1}\\ v^{\prime}\left(2 s_{0}, 2 s_{1}-1\right), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s_{1} \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Conversely if $\sigma: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ is a singular 1-simplex then $\sigma^{\prime}:=\sigma \circ \theta^{-1}: I \rightarrow X$ is a path. Explicitly

$$
\sigma^{\prime}(s)=\sigma(1-s, s) .
$$

The imprecise bit is that the ' denotes either composition with $\theta$ or $\theta^{-1}$ depending on whether we start with a path or a simplex). Since we always use $u, v, w$ for paths and $\sigma, \tau$ for simplices, this should not be too confusing.

Proposition 9.2. Let $p \in X$. There is a well defined function $h: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow H_{1}(X)$ given by

$$
[u] \mapsto\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle,
$$

where $u$ is a loop in $X$ based at $p$.

Where necessary, we will write $h_{p}$ instead of $h$ to indicate the dependence on $p$.
Proof. Clearly $u^{\prime}=u \circ \theta$ is a singular 1 -simplex in $X$, and thus in particular belongs to $C_{1}(X)$. In fact, $u^{\prime} \in Z_{1}(X)$, since

$$
\partial u^{\prime}=u\left(\theta\left(e_{1}\right)\right)-u\left(\theta\left(e_{0}\right)\right)=u(1)-u(0)=0 .
$$

Thus $\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a well defined element in $H_{1}(X)$. Now recall the map $\omega: I \rightarrow S^{1}$ from the solution to Problem B. 5 given by $\omega(s)=e^{2 \pi i s}$. From $u$ we obtain the map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ given by $\hat{u}=u \circ \omega^{-1}$. The map $\hat{u}$ then induces a map $H_{1}(\hat{u}): H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{1}(X)$. Then using the fact that $H_{1}$ is a functor, we have

$$
\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle=\langle\hat{u} \circ \omega \circ \theta\rangle=H_{1}(\hat{u})\langle\omega \circ \theta\rangle,
$$

as elements of $H_{1}(X)$. Here we view $\omega \circ \theta: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ as a singular 1-simplex in $S^{1}$. Now if $v$ is another closed path in $X$ based at $p$ with $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$ then by the solution to Problem B. 5 the corresponding maps $\hat{u}$ and $\hat{v}$ are homotopic rel 1. Thus by the homotopy axiom of singular homology, $H_{1}(\hat{u})=H_{1}(\hat{v})$. Thus

$$
\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle=H_{1}(\hat{u})\langle\omega \circ \theta\rangle=H_{1}(\hat{v})\langle\omega \circ \theta\rangle=\left\langle v^{\prime}\right\rangle,
$$

which shows that the class $\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle$ only depends on $[u]$. This completes the proof.
Now let us prove that $h$ is a homomorphism of groups. Let us emphasise (we have already been doing this, but you may not have noticed) that we are using additive notation for homology classes (this makes sense because the homology groups are always abelian).

Proposition 9.3. The Hurewicz map $h: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow H_{1}(X)$ is a group homomorphism: for all $[u],[v] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$, we have

$$
h([u])+h([v])=h([u * v]) .
$$

Proof. Let $u$ and $v$ be loops in $X$ based at $p$. Define a continuous map $\sigma: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$ as indicated by Figure 9.1. Specifically, we define $\sigma$ to be $u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}$, and $(u * v)^{\prime}$ on the boundary of $\partial \Delta^{2}$ as the picture suggests:

$$
\sigma(1-s, s, 0):=u(s), \quad \sigma(0,1-s, s):=v(s), \quad \sigma(1-s, 0, s):=(u * v)(s) .
$$

For fixed $s$, we then define $\sigma$ on the interior of $\Delta^{2}$ to be constant on the line segments from $a=a(s)$ to $b=b(s)$ and from $c=c(s)$ to $d=d(s)$. Here $a(s)=(1-s, s, 0)$, $b(s)=\left(\frac{1}{2}(2-s), 0, \frac{s}{2}\right), c(s)=(0,1-s, s)$ and $d(s)=\left(\frac{1}{2}(1-s), 0, \frac{1}{2}(1+s)\right)$. The gluing lemma shows that $\sigma$ is continuous, and hence is a singular 2-simplex in $X$. An explicit formula for $\sigma$ using (9.1) is

$$
\sigma\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}\right):=(u * v)^{\prime}\left(s_{0}+\frac{s_{1}}{2}, \frac{s_{1}}{2}+s_{2}\right) .
$$

Now observe that

$$
\partial \sigma=\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{0}-\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{1}+\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{2}=v^{\prime}-(u * v)^{\prime}+u^{\prime} .
$$

Thus in $H_{1}(X)$, we have

$$
\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle+\left\langle v^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle(u * v)^{\prime}\right\rangle,
$$

or equivalently

$$
h([u])+h([v])=h([u * v]),
$$

which shows that $h$ is a homomorphism as desired.


Figure 9.1: Proving $h$ is a homomorphism.

We now present the following simple corollary of Proposition 2.15 , which we will need when examining the kernel of $h$.

Proposition 9.4. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$ be a singular 2-simplex. Abbreviate $\sigma_{i}:=\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i}$ for $i=0,1,2$, so that $\sigma_{i}$ is a singular 1 -simplex in $X$. See Figure 9.2. Then the path $\sigma_{0}^{\prime} * \bar{\sigma}_{1}^{\prime} * \sigma_{2}^{\prime}$ is nullhomotopic rel $\partial I$.


Figure 9.2: $\sigma: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$

Proof. By Problem D.2, the map $\sigma$ induces a map $g: B^{2} \rightarrow X$, given by $g(x)=$ $\sigma\left(h^{-1}(x)\right)$, where $h: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow B^{2}$ is the homeomorphism mapping $\left(\Delta^{2}, \partial \Delta^{2}\right) \rightarrow$ $\left(B^{2}, S^{1}\right)$. Let $f:=\left.g\right|_{S^{1}}$, then $f$ is a reparametrisation of the loop $\sigma_{0}^{\prime} * \bar{\sigma}_{1}^{\prime} * \sigma_{2}^{\prime}$. By Proposition 2.15, $f$ is nullhomotopic rel 1 in $S^{1}$. Thus $\sigma_{0}^{\prime} * \bar{\sigma}_{1}^{\prime} * \sigma_{2}^{\prime}$ is nullhomotopic rel $\partial I$.

We will also need the following (trivial) piece of algebra. The lemma is basically a fancy way of saying "if something looks like it should cancel, then it does". The important thing in the following lemma is that the second group $A$ is abelian.

Lemma 9.5 (Substitution Principle). Let $F$ be a free abelian group with basis $B$. Let $b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}$ be a list (possibly with repetitions) of elements of $B$, and assume $m_{0}, m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}$ are integers such that

$$
m_{0} b_{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} b_{i}
$$

Let $A$ be an abelian group, and suppose $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ are elements of $A$ such that

$$
b_{i}=b_{j} \quad \Rightarrow \quad a_{i}=a_{j} .
$$

Then in $A$, one also has

$$
m_{0} a_{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} a_{i}
$$

Proof. Define a function $\varphi: B \rightarrow A$ by setting $\varphi\left(b_{i}\right)=a_{i}$ for $i=0,1, \ldots, k$ and $\varphi(b)=0$ for all other elements of $B$. This is well defined by assumption. Then by Lemma 7.2, there exists a unique group homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}: F \rightarrow A$ extending $\varphi$. Then

$$
0=\tilde{\varphi}\left(m_{0} b_{0}-\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} b_{i}\right)=m_{0} a_{0}-\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} a_{i}
$$

Now let us recall a standard piece of group theory.
Definition 9.6. Let $G$ be any group (not necessarily abelian). Given $g, h \in G$, we define their commutator to be the element

$$
[g, h]:=g h g^{-1} h^{-1} .
$$

We define the commutator subgroup of $G$ to be the subgroup $[G, G]$ of $G$ generated by all the commutators. This is a normal abelian subgroup of $G$, and $[G, G]=\{1\}$ (where 1 is the identity element of $G$ ) if and only if $G$ is abelian. If $N$ is a normal subgroup of $G$, then $G / N$ is abelian if and only if $[G, G] \leq N$. We define the abelianisation of $G$ to be the quotient group $G^{\mathrm{ab}}=G /[G, G]$. As you will see on Problem E. 1 on Problem Sheet E, the abelianisation $G^{\text {ab }}$ together with the group homomorphism (the projection) $p: G \rightarrow G^{\text {ab }}$ can be characterised by a universal property: namely that if $A$ is any abelian group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow A$ is any group homomorphism, there exists a unique homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}$ such that the following commutes:


We are now ready to state and prove the main result of today's lecture. As stated, this result is actually due to Poincaré, not Hurewicz, but there is a more general theorem ${ }^{1}$ that extends this which is due to Hurewicz, and hence this result is commonly called the "Hurewicz Theorem".

[^19]Theorem 9.7 (Hurewicz Theorem). Let $X$ be a path connected topological space. Then the induced homomorphism $h: \pi_{1}(X, p)^{\mathrm{ab}} \rightarrow H_{1}(X)$ is a group isomorphism.

Proof. Since $X$ is path connected, choose a path $w_{x}: I \rightarrow X$ such that $w_{x}(0)=p$ and $w_{x}(1)=x$ for each $x \in X$. Let us insist that $w_{p}$ is the constant path $e_{p}$.

We will first show that $h$ is surjective. Suppose

$$
c=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} \sigma_{i} \in Z_{1}(X) .
$$

Since $c$ is a cycle, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\partial c=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left(\sigma_{i}\left(e_{1}\right)-\sigma_{i}\left(e_{0}\right)\right), \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

which we view as an equation among the basis elements (i.e. points in $X$ ) of the free abelian group $C_{0}(X)$. Set

$$
y_{i}:=\sigma_{i}\left(e_{1}\right), \quad z_{i}:=\sigma_{i}\left(e_{0}\right) .
$$

See Figure 9.3. We can apply the substitution principle to the list


Figure 9.3: Proving $h$ is surjective.

$$
y_{1}, z_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}, z_{k}
$$

in the free abelian group $C_{0}(X)$ and compare it to the list

$$
w_{y_{1}}^{\prime}, w_{z_{1}}^{\prime}, \ldots, w_{y_{k}}^{\prime}, w_{z_{k}}^{\prime},
$$

in $C_{1}(X)$. Then (9.2) tells us ${ }^{2}$ that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left(w_{y_{i}}^{\prime}-w_{z_{i}}^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

[^20]in $C_{1}(X)$. Thus
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
c=c-0=c-\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left(w_{y_{i}}^{\prime}-w_{z_{i}}^{\prime}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left(w_{z_{i}}^{\prime}+\sigma_{i}-w_{y_{i}}^{\prime}\right) . \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

But now by assumption $w_{z_{i}} * \sigma_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{y_{i}}$ is a loop in $X$ based at $p$, and hence we can feed it to $h$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
h\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left[w_{z_{i}} * \sigma_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{y_{i}}\right]^{m_{i}}\right) & \stackrel{(\stackrel{*}{=}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i} h\left[w_{z_{i}} * \sigma_{i}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{y_{i}}\right] \\
& \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left\langle w_{z_{i}}^{\prime}+\sigma_{i}+\bar{w}_{y_{i}}^{\prime}\right\rangle \\
& \stackrel{(\ddagger)}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}\left\langle w_{z_{i}}^{\prime}+\sigma_{i}-w_{y_{i}}^{\prime}\right\rangle \\
& \stackrel{(\varrho)}{=}\langle c\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

where (*) used Proposition 9.3, ( $\dagger$ ) used Problem E.4, ( $\ddagger$ ) used Problem E. 3 and finally ( $($ ) used (9.3). This shows that $h$ is surjective.

We now build an inverse $\tilde{\eta}: H_{1}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p)^{\text {ab }}$ to the induced map $\tilde{h}$, which will prove that $\tilde{h}$ is an isomorphism. Suppose $\sigma: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ is a 1 -simplex. We associate to $\sigma$ the class in $\pi_{1}(X, p)^{\text {ab }}$ represented by the loop $w_{\sigma\left(e_{0}\right)} * \sigma^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{\sigma\left(e_{1}\right)}$. Extend this by linearity to define a map

$$
\eta: C_{1}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p)^{\mathrm{ab}}
$$

We claim that $\eta$ vanishes on $B_{1}(X)$. For this let $\tau: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$ be a singular 2-simplex. We compute $\eta(\partial \tau)$. As in Proposition 9.4, let $\tau_{i}:=\tau \circ \varepsilon_{i}$ for $i=0,1,2$. See Figure 9.4. Then


Figure 9.4: Showing $\eta(\partial \tau)=1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta(\partial \tau) & =\eta\left(\tau_{0}\right) * \eta\left(\tau_{1}\right)^{-1} * \eta\left(\tau_{2}\right) \\
& =\left[w_{\tau_{0}\left(e_{0}\right)} * \tau_{0}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{\tau_{0}\left(e_{1}\right)}\right] *\left[w_{\tau_{1}\left(e_{0}\right)} * \tau_{1}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{\tau_{1}\left(e_{1}\right)}\right]^{-1} *\left[w_{\tau_{2}\left(e_{0}\right)} * \tau_{2}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{\tau_{2}\left(e_{1}\right)}\right] \\
& =\left[w_{\tau_{0}\left(e_{0}\right)} * \tau_{0}^{\prime} * \bar{\tau}_{1}^{\prime} * \tau_{2}^{\prime} * \bar{w}_{\tau_{2}\left(e_{1}\right)}\right] \\
& \stackrel{(*)}{=}\left[w_{\tau_{0}\left(e_{0}\right)} * \bar{w}_{\tau_{2}\left(e_{1}\right)}\right] \\
& =1
\end{aligned}
$$

where (*) used Proposition 9.4. Thus $\left.\eta\right|_{Z_{1}(X)}$ factors to define a map $\tilde{\eta}: H_{1}(X) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{1}(X, p)^{\mathrm{ab}}$. By construction $\tilde{\eta} \circ \tilde{h}=$ id. This completes the proof.

## LECTURE 10

## Chain complexes

In this lecture we introduce a new category, Comp, and a new subject: homological algebra.

Definition 10.1. A chain complex is a sequence of abelian groups and homomorphisms

$$
\ldots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ which satisfies

$$
\partial^{2}=0, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

We refer ${ }^{1}$ to the entire complex as $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ or sometimes just $C_{\bullet}$. The maps $\partial$ are called the boundary operators of the chain complex.

Of course, we have already met one key example:
Example 10.2 . Let $X$ be a topological space. Then the singular chains $\left(C_{\bullet}(X), \partial\right)$ is a chain complex. Note that in this example the abelian groups are all zero for negative subscripts; this however is not part of the definition in general.

Definition 10.3. The fact that $\partial^{2}=0$ means that if we define

$$
Z_{n}=Z_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{ker} \partial: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}
$$

and

$$
B_{n}=B_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{im} \partial: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}
$$

then

$$
B_{n} \subseteq Z_{n} .
$$

By analogy with the singular chain complex, we call elements of $Z_{n} n$-cycles and elements of $B_{n} n$-boundaries. We define the $n$th homology group of the chain complex $C_{\bullet}$ to be the quotient group

$$
H_{n}=H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right):=Z_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) / B_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) .
$$

We will continue to the use the notation $\langle c\rangle$ to denote the class of an element $c \in Z_{n}$ in $H_{n}$.

Now let us introduce another key notion.

[^21]Definition 10.4. A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ of two homomorphisms of abelian groups is said to be exact at $B$ if

$$
\operatorname{im} f=\operatorname{ker} g
$$

More generally, a sequence

$$
\ldots A_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} A_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} A_{n-1} \ldots, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

is said to be exact if it is exact at every $A_{n}$.
Example 10.5. Using the notion of exactness we can rephrase other definitions from basic algebra. Suppose $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups.

- $f$ is injective if and only if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ is exact.
- $f$ is surjective if and only if $A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact.
- $f$ is an isomorphism if and only if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact.
- Slightly less obviously, if $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \xrightarrow{h} D$ is exact then $f$ is surjective if and only if $h$ is injective.

Definition 10.6. A short exact sequence of abelian groups is an exact sequence of the form

$$
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0 .
$$

In this case, $A \cong \operatorname{im} f$ and coker $f:=B / \operatorname{im} f \cong C$ via $b+\operatorname{im} f \mapsto g(b)$.
In contrast, a long exact sequence is one that has (potentially) infinitely many terms.
DEFINITION 10.7. A chain complex $C$ is said to be acyclic if $C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}$ is exact at $C_{n}$ for all $n$.

We then have trivially:
Proposition 10.8. A chain complex $C$ is acyclic if and only if $H_{n}(C)=0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let us now make the chain complexes into a category.
Definition 10.9. Suppose $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and ( $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}$ ) are two chain complexes. A chain $\operatorname{map} f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a sequence of group homomorphisms $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ such that the following diagram commutes for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \ldots \longrightarrow C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& f_{n+1} \downarrow \quad \downarrow_{n} \quad \downarrow_{n-1} \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow C_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow[\partial^{\prime}]{\longrightarrow} C_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow[\partial^{\prime}]{\longrightarrow} C_{n-1}^{\prime} \longrightarrow
\end{aligned}
$$

Usually we will just write $f$ for the maps $f_{n}$ (to minimise the number of subscripts involved), which simplifies the formula to

$$
\partial^{\prime} \circ f=f \circ \partial
$$

Composition of two chain maps is defined as one would guess: if $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $g: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ are two chain maps then $g \circ f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$ is the chain map given by $(g \circ f)_{n}=g_{n} f_{n}$. This is indeed a valid chain map, i.e. $\partial^{\prime \prime}(g \circ f)_{n}=(g \circ f)_{n-1} \circ \partial$, as the following diagram commutes:


Example 10.10. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map between two topological spaces then $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(Y)$ is a chain map.

Definition 10.11. The category Comp has objects the chain complexes $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$, morphisms the chain maps $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$, and composition as specified above.

The singular chain complex can now be interpreted as a functor.
Proposition 10.12. There is a functor Top $\rightarrow$ Comp that associates to a topological space $X$ its singular chain complex $C \cdot(X)$ and to a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ the associated map $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(Y)$.
Proof. This follows from the results of Lecture 7.
The reason for insisting that $\partial^{\prime} f=f \partial$ in the definition of a chain map is that it means a chain map induces a map on the respective homologies:

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)
$$

given by

$$
H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle:=\left\langle f_{n} c\right\rangle .
$$

This is well defined as by assumption

$$
f_{n}\left(Z_{n}\right) \subseteq Z_{n}^{\prime}, \quad f_{n}\left(B_{n}\right) \subseteq B_{n}^{\prime}
$$

This means that we can interpret $H_{n}$ as a functor.
Proposition 10.13. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists a functor $H_{n}$ : Comp $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ called the $n$th homology functor that sends $C_{\bullet}$ to $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$ and to a chain map $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ the associated map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$.

The proof is immediate. This means we can now see the construction of the singular homology as a two-stage process. The first is topological: this is assignment $X \mapsto C_{\bullet}(X)$. The second is purely algebraic: this is the assignment $C_{\bullet}(X) \mapsto$ $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}(X)\right)=H_{n}(X)$.
Proposition 10.14. The functor $H_{n}:$ Comp $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is an additive functor ${ }^{2}$, that is $H_{n}(f+g)=H_{n}(f)+H_{n}(g)$.

[^22]Now let me bombard you with more definitions. They are all straightforward.
Definition 10.15. A subcomplex $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ of chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ is a chain complex such that $C_{n} \subseteq C_{n}^{\prime}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and such that $\partial_{n}=\left.\partial_{n}^{\prime}\right|_{C_{n}}$. Denoting by $i_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ the inclusion, the second condition is equivalent to saying that $i: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain map.
Definition 10.16. If ( $C_{\bullet}, \partial$ ) is a subcomplex of $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$, one can form the quotient complex $(\bar{C}, \bar{\partial})$ where

$$
\bar{C}_{n}=C_{n}^{\prime} / C_{n}
$$

and $\bar{\partial}$ is the induced map.
Definition 10.17. Suppose $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ is a chain map between two complexes. Then $(\operatorname{ker} f)_{\bullet}$ is a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}$ and $(\operatorname{im} f)_{\bullet}$ is a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$; the boundary operator of $(\operatorname{ker} f)$. is simply

$$
\left.\partial_{n}\right|_{\operatorname{ker} f_{n}}: \operatorname{ker} f_{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} f_{n-1}
$$

and similarly the boundary operator of $(\operatorname{im} f)$ 。 is the restriction

$$
\left.\partial_{n}^{\prime}\right|_{\operatorname{im} f_{n}}: \operatorname{im} f_{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f_{n-1} .
$$

Note these only form subcomplexes because $f$ is a chain map! The cokernel of $f$ is the chain complex $(\operatorname{coker} f)$ • given by

$$
\operatorname{coker} f_{n}=C_{n}^{\prime} / \operatorname{im} f_{n},
$$

which is itself a quotient complex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ since $(\operatorname{im} f)$ • is a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$.
This allows us to talk about a sequence of complexes being exact.
Definition 10.18. Suppose we are given complexes $\left(C_{\bullet}^{m}, \partial^{m}\right)$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and chain maps $f^{m}: C_{\bullet}^{m} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{m-1}$. Pictorially, this means we have the following commutating mess:


We say that sequence $\left(C_{\bullet}^{m}, f^{m}\right)$ is exact if (as complexes) $\left(\operatorname{ker} f^{m}\right) \bullet=\left(\operatorname{im} f^{m+1}\right) \bullet$ for every $m$.

Definition 10.19. A short exact sequence of chain complexes is an exact sequence of chain complexes of the form

$$
0 \rightarrow A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} B \bullet \xrightarrow{g} C \bullet \rightarrow 0,
$$

where 0 denotes the chain complex all of whose entries are zero. By Problem E. 5 on Problem Sheet E, the rows of short exact sequences of chain complexes are short exact sequences of abelian groups.

Definition 10.20. Let $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be two subcomplexes of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}$. The intersection of $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is the subcomplex $C_{\bullet} \cap C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ whose $n$th term is $C_{n} \cap C_{n}^{\prime}$, and similarly the sum of $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is the subcomplex $C_{\bullet}+C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ whose $n$th term is $C_{n}+C_{n}^{\prime}$.

One can also form direct sums: if $\left\{\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}, \partial^{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a family of complexes indexed by a set $\Lambda$, then their direct sum is the complex $\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}^{\lambda}$ equipped with the boundary operator $\sum_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda}$.

Now we define the abstract analogue of Lemma 8.7.
Definition 10.21. Let $f, g:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be two chain maps. We say that $f$ and $g$ are chain homotopic, written $f \simeq g$ if there exists a sequence of homomorphisms

$$
P: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

such that

$$
\partial^{\prime} P+P \partial=f_{n}-g_{n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

The sequence $P=\left(P_{n}\right)$ is called a chain homotopy, and we write $P: f \simeq g$.
Definition 10.22 . We say that $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain equivalence if there exists $g: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}$ such that $g \circ f \simeq \mathrm{id}_{C}$. and $f \circ g \simeq \mathrm{id}_{C^{\prime}}$.

Remark 10.23. The relation of being chain homotopic is a congruence on Comp, and this can be used to define a category hComp.

The next result shows that the homology functor descends to hComp.
Proposition 10.24. Let $f, g:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be two chain maps with $f \simeq g$. Then for all $n$,

$$
H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(g): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

In particular, if $f$ is a chain equivalence then $H_{n}(f)$ is an isomorphism for each $n$.
The proof is identical to Lemma 8.7, but let us repeat it anyway.
Proof. Take $c \in Z_{n}$. Then

$$
\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right) c=\left(\partial^{\prime} P+P \partial\right) c=\partial^{\prime} P c \in B_{n}^{\prime} .
$$

Thus $H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle=H_{n}(g)\langle c\rangle$.
A special case of a chain homotopy is where one map is the identity and the other is the zero map. This gets its own name.

Definition 10.25. A contracting homotopy $Q$ of a chain complex $C_{\bullet}$ is a sequence of maps $Q_{n}$ : $C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}$ such that

$$
\partial Q+Q \partial=\operatorname{id}_{C_{n}}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

Corollary 10.26. If a chain complex $C$. has a contracting homotopy then it is acyclic.

Proof. By Proposition 10.24, we see that for all $n, H_{n}\left(\mathrm{id}_{C_{\bullet}}\right)=H_{n}(0)=0$. Since $H_{n}$ is a functor, this implies that $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=0$.

Remark 10.27. The converse to Corollary 10.26 is false. An example is given by taking

$$
C_{n}:= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}_{2}, & n=0 \\ \mathbb{Z}, & n=1,2 \\ 0, & n \neq 0,1,2\end{cases}
$$

and defining $\partial: C_{2} \rightarrow C_{1}$ to be $k \mapsto 2 k$ and $\partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0}$ by $k \mapsto k \bmod 2$. This complex is acyclic but there does not exist a contracting homotopy. Indeed, if such a $Q$ existed, then $Q_{0}: C_{0} \rightarrow C_{1}$ would define a right inverse to $\partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0}$. However any group homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is trivial.

In fact, if $C_{\bullet}$ is a complex all of whose groups $C_{n}$ are free abelian groups (such a chain complex is called a free chain complex), then the converse to Corollary 10.26 does hold: a free chain complex is acyclic if and only if it has a contracting homotopy. This is proved in Proposition 27.1 below. Similarly there is a partial converse to Proposition 10.24: if $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain map between two free chain complexes such that $H_{n}(f)$ is an isomorphism for all $n$, then $f$ is a chain equivalence. This is proved in Proposition 27.5 below.

## LECTURE 11

## The Snake Lemma and its friends

In this lecture we start by proving the so-called Snake Lemma. The reason for the name is the fact that the wiggly arrow in (11.1) below looks like a snake ${ }^{1}$.

Proposition 11.1 (The Snake Lemma). Suppose we are given a commutative diagram of abelian groups where the rows are exact:


Then there is a well defined homomorphism

$$
\delta: \text { ker } h \rightarrow \text { coker } f
$$

such that there is an exact sequence

$$
\operatorname{ker} f \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} g \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} h \stackrel{\delta}{\rightarrow} \operatorname{coker} f \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} g \rightarrow \operatorname{coker} h .
$$

Explicitly,

$$
\delta(c)=\left(i^{\prime}\right)^{-1} g j^{-1}(c)+\operatorname{im} f
$$

where $\left(i^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(\cdot)$ and $j^{-1}(\cdot)$ denote any choice of preimage (the composition is independent of the choices).

Proof. The proof is very easy, but I will be kind and go through it in great detail. We will prove the result in three stages.

[^23]1. We first enlarge our given diagram to include the kernels and cokernels:


The maps $k, l$ on the top row and the maps $p, q$ are just the induced maps. That is,

$$
k:=\left.i\right|_{\operatorname{ker} f}
$$

and

$$
p\left(a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f\right):=i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} g,
$$

as cosets, and similarly for $l$ and $q$. We prove that both the top row and the bottom row are exact. Firstly, if $a \in \operatorname{ker} f$ then $g i(a)=i^{\prime} f(a)=0$, so that $k(a):=i(a)$ belongs to ker $g$. Moreover $l k(a)=j i(a)=0$ and hence im $k \subseteq \operatorname{ker} l$. Conversely if $l(b)=0$ then $j(b)=0$ and hence $b=i(a)$ for some $a$ as $A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{j} C$ is exact. Moreover $i^{\prime} f(a)=g i(a)=g(b)=0$ as $b \in \operatorname{ker} g$. Since $i^{\prime}$ is injective, it follows $f(a)=0$ and thus $a \in \operatorname{ker}(f)$ with so that $k(a)=b$. Thus $\operatorname{ker} l \subseteq \operatorname{im} k$ and we have exactness at ker $g$.

Let us now prove exactness at coker $g$. The composition $q p$ is obviously zero since $j^{\prime} i^{\prime}=0$ by exactness at $B^{\prime}$ :

$$
q p\left(a^{\prime}\right)=j^{\prime} i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} h=0+\operatorname{im} h=0 \in \operatorname{coker} h .
$$

Thus $\operatorname{im} p \subseteq \operatorname{ker} q$. Conversely suppose $q\left(b^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} g\right)=0$. This means that $j^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{im} h$, so there exists $c \in C$ such that $h(c)=j^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)$. Since $j$ is surjective, there exists $b \in B$ such that $j(b)=c$. Now observe $j^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}-g(b)\right)=j^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)-j^{\prime} g(b)=h(c)-h j(b)=$ $h(c)-h(c)=0$. Thus $b^{\prime}-g(b) \in \operatorname{im} i^{\prime}$ by exactness at $B^{\prime}$. If $a^{\prime}$ is such that $i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=b^{\prime}-g(b)$ then

$$
p\left(a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f\right)=i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} g=b^{\prime}-g(b)+\operatorname{im} g=b^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} g .
$$

Thus $\operatorname{ker} q \subseteq \operatorname{im} p$, which proves exactness at coker $g$.
2. Our aim now is to define a map $\delta$ such that the following sequence is exact:


Let's start with an element $c \in \operatorname{ker} h$. Since $j$ is surjective, choose $b$ such that $j(b)=c$. Observe $g(b) \in \operatorname{ker} j^{\prime}$ since $j^{\prime} g(b)=h j(b)=h(c)=0$. By exactness at $B^{\prime}$, this implies that $g(b) \in \operatorname{im} i^{\prime}$. Thus there exists $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ such that $i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=g(b)$. In fact, since $i^{\prime}$ is injective, $a^{\prime}$ is unique. We define $\delta(c) \in \operatorname{coker} f$ as the coset $a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f$.

We made a choice here: $j$ is surjective, not necessarily an isomorphism, and hence we could have chosen a different element, say $b_{1}$, such that $j\left(b_{1}\right)=c$. This would give rise to a different element $a_{1}^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$ such that $i^{\prime}\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)=g\left(b_{1}\right)$. Nevertheless, we claim that the cosets $a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f$ and $a_{1}^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f$ coincide. This means we need to find $a \in A$ such that $f(a)=a^{\prime}-a_{1}^{\prime}$. But this is easy: since $j(b)=j\left(b_{1}\right)$ we have $b-b_{1} \in \operatorname{ker} j$, and hence by exactness at $B$ there exists $a \in A$ such that $i(a)=b-b_{1}$. Then by commutativity, $i^{\prime} f(a)=g i(a)=g\left(b-b_{1}\right)=g(b)-g\left(b_{1}\right)$. Since $i^{\prime}$ is injective, it follows that $f(a)=a^{\prime}-a_{1}^{\prime}$ as required.

Thus $\delta(c)=\left(i^{\prime}\right)^{-1} g j^{-1}(c)+\operatorname{im} f$ is well defined. It is clear that $\delta$ is a homomorphism, i.e. that $\delta\left(c+c_{1}\right)=\delta(c)+\delta\left(c_{1}\right)$, since $i^{\prime}, g$ and $j$ are all homomorphisms.
3. Finally, let us check exactness at the two new places: $\operatorname{ker} h$ and coker $f$. It is clear that $\operatorname{im} l \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \delta$. Indeed, if $c=l(b)$ for some $b$ then we can choose this $b$ in the definition of $\delta$. Then $g(b)=0$ and hence the unique preimage under $i^{\prime}$ is $a^{\prime}=0$. Then $\delta(c)=0+\operatorname{im} f=0 \in \operatorname{coker} f$.

Now suppose that $\delta(c)=0$. This means that the element $a^{\prime}$ we found belongs to the image of $f$, say $a^{\prime}=f(a)$. The $g i(a)=i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=g(b)$. Thus $b-i(a) \in \operatorname{ker} g$. Moreover $j(b-i(a))=j(b)-j i(a)=c$ by exactness. This means that $l(b-i(a))=c$ and thus $c \in \operatorname{im} l$. This proves exactness at ker $h$.

Now we check exactness at coker $f$. Again, one direction is immediate: $p \delta(c)$ is just the coset $i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{im} g$ in coker $g$. But since $i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=g(b)$, this coset is zero, and hence $\operatorname{im} \delta \subseteq \operatorname{ker} p$. Conversely, suppose $p\left(a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f\right)=0$. This means that $i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{im} g$, so there exists $b \in B$ such that $g(b)=i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$. Set $c=j(b)$. Then $h(c)=h j(b)=j^{\prime} g(b)=j^{\prime} i^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=0$ by exactness at $B^{\prime}$. Then by construction, $\delta(c)=a^{\prime}+\operatorname{im} f$. Thus $\operatorname{ker} p \subseteq \operatorname{im} \delta$. This finally completes the proof.

Remark 11.2. This proof may look complicated, but in fact there was nothing to it: at every stage we just "did the only thing possible". This type of proof is rather relaxing, and it is usually referred to as diagram chasing. The best way to get used to the "yoga" of diagram chasing is to try some examples yourself. Thus you will no doubt be thrilled to discover that the next two results are left as exercises for you to solve on Problem Sheet F.

This first one is slightly less imaginatively named than the Snake Lemma.
Proposition 11.3 (The Five Lemma). Suppose we have a commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


Then:

1. If $g$ and $k$ are injective and $f$ is surjective, $h$ is injective.
2. If $g$ and $k$ are surjective and $l$ is injective, $h$ is surjective.
3. If $f, g, k, l$ are all isomorphisms then so is $h$.

This is Problem F.1. The next one has no imagination whatsoever in its name ...
Proposition 11.4 (The Barratt-Whitehead Lemma). Suppose we have the following commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


Assume each map $h_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism. Then there is a long exact sequence:

$$
\cdots \rightarrow A_{n} \xrightarrow{\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)} B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}} B_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \ldots,
$$

where $\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right): A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $a \mapsto\left(i_{n}(a), f_{n}(a)\right)$ and $g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}: B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow$ $B_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $\left(b, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$.

This is Problem F.2. Let us now use the Snake Lemma to prove the following foundational result in homological algebra.
Theorem 11.5 (The long exact sequence in homology). Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 \tag{11.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a short exact sequence of chain complexes. Then there is a sequence $\delta_{n}: H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$ of homomorphisms such that there is a long exact sequence:

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(f)} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(g)} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

We call $\delta=\left(\delta_{n}\right)$ the connecting homomorphism of the short exact sequence (11.2). Explicitly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{n}\langle c\rangle=\left\langle f_{n-1}^{-1} \partial^{\prime} g_{n}^{-1} c\right\rangle, \quad \forall c \in Z_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime}\right), \tag{11.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\partial^{\prime}$ is the boundary operator of $C^{\prime}$.
Proof. Write $Z_{n}=\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}\right), B_{n}=\operatorname{im}\left(\partial: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}\right)$ and $H_{n}=$ $Z_{n} / B_{n}$, and similarly for the other complexes. Then the following diagram satisfies the requirements of the Snake Lemma, where the written maps are the induced ones:


Adding in the kernels and cokernels of the vertical maps, we obtain (where now all the maps are omitted for clarity):


The Snake Lemma thus provides us with a map $\delta_{n}: H_{n}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow H_{n-1}$, which is the map we are looking for.

We now prove that the long exact sequence is natural. It won't be until the end of the course that I explain the precise definition of the word "natural". For now, just think of "natural" meaning that whenever you draw a diagram that "ought" to commute, then it does.

Proposition 11.6 (Naturality of the connecting homomorphism). Suppose we are given a commutative diagram of chain complexes with exact rows:


Then there is a commutative diagram of abelian groups with exact rows:


Proof. We've already proved most things. That the rows are exact is the content of Theorem 11.5. The first two squares commute because $H_{n}$ is a functor. Thus we need only check that the right-hand square commutes. So for this, suppose $c \in Z_{n}(C)$ is a cycle representing a homology class $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$. Since $g$ is surjective (as a chain
map), the map $g_{n}: B_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ is surjective (cf. Problem E.5). Thus there exists $b \in B_{n}$ with $g_{n} b=c$. Then

$$
H_{n-1}(i) \delta_{n}\langle c\rangle=H_{n-1}(i) \delta_{n}\left\langle g_{n} b\right\rangle .
$$

Let $\partial$ denote the boundary operator of $B_{\bullet}$ and $\partial^{\prime}$ the boundary operator of $B_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ (these are the only two boundary operators we will need in the following). Now we note that from (11.3),

$$
H_{n-1}(i) \delta_{n}\left\langle g_{n} b\right\rangle=H_{n-1}(i)\left\langle f_{n-1}^{-1} \partial b\right\rangle=\left\langle i_{n-1} f_{n-1}^{-1} \partial b\right\rangle .
$$

Now using $j_{n-1} \circ f_{n-1}=f_{n-1}^{\prime} \circ i_{n-1}$ we have

$$
\left\langle i_{n-1} f_{n-1}^{-1} \partial b\right\rangle=\left\langle\left(f_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} j_{n-1} \partial b\right\rangle .
$$

Since $j$ is a chain map, $\left\langle\left(f_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} j_{n-1} \partial b\right\rangle=\left\langle\left(f_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \partial^{\prime} j_{n} b\right\rangle$. Now using (11.3) for $\delta_{n}^{\prime}$, we see that:

$$
\left\langle\left(f_{n-1}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \partial^{\prime} j_{n} b\right\rangle=\delta_{n}^{\prime}\left\langle g_{n}^{\prime} j_{n} b\right\rangle .
$$

Now use $g_{n}^{\prime} \circ j_{n}=k_{n} \circ g_{n}$ to obtain

$$
\delta_{n}^{\prime}\left\langle g_{n}^{\prime} j_{n} b\right\rangle=\delta_{n}^{\prime}\left\langle k_{n} g_{n} b\right\rangle
$$

Then as $\left\langle k_{n} g_{n} b\right\rangle=H_{n}(k)\left\langle g_{n} b\right\rangle=H_{n}(k)\langle c\rangle$ we finally have

$$
H_{n-1}(i) \delta_{n}\langle c\rangle=\delta_{n}^{\prime} H_{n}(k)\langle c\rangle,
$$

which proves the last square commutes.

## LECTURE 12

## Relative homology and reduced homology

In this lecture we extend $H_{n}$ to a functor $\mathrm{Top}^{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$. To begin with, we need the following piece of pedantry.

Lemma 12.1. Let $X^{\prime}$ be a subspace of $X$ with inclusion $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$. Then for every $n \geq 0$, the map $\imath_{\#}: C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{n}(X)$ is an injection.

Proof. Let $c=\sum m_{i} \sigma_{i} \in C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$. We may assume all the $\sigma_{i}$ are distinct. By definition, $\imath_{\#} c=\sum m_{i} \imath \circ \sigma_{i}$. Since $\imath \circ \sigma_{i}$ differs only from $\sigma_{i}$ only by having its target enlarged, it follows that the $\imath \circ \sigma_{i}$ are all distinct. Now if $c \in \operatorname{ker} \imath_{\#}$ then we have

$$
0=\sum m_{i} \imath \circ \sigma_{i}
$$

Since $C_{n}(X)$ is free abelian with basis all the singular $n$-simplices in $X$, it follows that all the $m_{i}$ are zero, and hence $c=0$.

This means that we can unambiguously think of $C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ as a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}(X)$ (i.e. by identifying $C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ with $\left.\left(\operatorname{im} \imath_{\#}\right) \bullet.\right)$ We shall do this without further comment. Thus we have a short exact sequence of complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

Definition 12.2. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a subspace. We define the relative homology groups $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ of the pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ to be the homology of the complex $C \bullet(X) / C \bullet\left(X^{\prime}\right)$.

The next result is immediate from Theorem 11.5 and Proposition 11.6. Like the dimension axiom (Proposition 8.1) and the homotopy axiom (Theorem 8.9), we call this result an "axiom" since it will turn out to be one of the four axioms of a homology theory.

Proposition 12.3 (The exact sequence axiom). Let $X^{\prime}$ be a subspace of $X$. Then there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Moreover if $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is a map of pairs then there is a commutative diagram:

where the vertical maps are all induced by $f$.
Definition 12.4. This construction also allows us to see homology as a functor $H_{n}: \mathrm{Top}^{2} \rightarrow$ Ab. Firstly we define the chain complex functor $\mathrm{Top}^{2} \rightarrow$ Comp that sends $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ to $C \bullet(X) / C \bullet\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ and sends a map $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ to the induced map

$$
f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) / C \bullet\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C \bullet(Y) / C \bullet\left(Y^{\prime}\right)
$$

(this works as $f_{\#}\left(C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right) \subseteq C_{n}\left(Y^{\prime}\right)$.) Then we apply the usual homology functor $H_{n}:$ Comp $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$.

Remark 12.5. Taking $X^{\prime}=\emptyset$ recovers our original groups:

$$
H_{n}(X, \emptyset)=H_{n}(X), \quad \forall n \geq 0 .
$$

Let us now give a slightly more useful way of defining $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$.
Definition 12.6. Define the group of relative $n$-cycles mod $X^{\prime}$ to be

$$
Z_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right):=\left\{c \in C_{n}(X) \mid \partial c \in C_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right\},
$$

and the group of relative $n$-boundaries $\bmod X^{\prime}$ to be

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) & :=\left\{c \in C_{n}(X) \mid c-c^{\prime} \in B_{n}(X) \text { for some } c^{\prime} \in C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right\} \\
& =B_{n}(X)+C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $B_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \subseteq Z_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$.
We have:
Proposition 12.7. For all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong Z_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) / B_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proof. By definition, the boundary operator $\bar{\partial}$ of the quotient complex $C_{\bullet}(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is given by

$$
\bar{\partial}: c+C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \mapsto \partial c+C_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right), \quad c \in C_{n}(X), \quad n \geq 0 .
$$

Thus

$$
\operatorname{ker} \bar{\partial}=\left\{c+C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \mid \partial c \in C_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right\}=Z_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) / C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{im} \bar{\partial}=\left\{c+C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \mid c \in B_{n}(X)\right\}=B_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) / C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)
$$

The claim thus follows from the third isomorphism for groups ${ }^{1}$.
The following result shows that the relative homology groups often vanish in dimension zero, unlike the "absolute" ones which never do.

Proposition 12.8. Suppose $X$ is path connected and $X^{\prime}$ is a non-empty subspace. Then $H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=0$.

Proof. Fix $p \in X^{\prime}$. Suppose $c=\sum m_{x} x \in Z_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Choose a path ${ }^{2} \sigma_{x}: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ such that $\sigma_{x}\left(e_{0}\right)=p$ and $\sigma_{x}\left(e_{1}\right)=x$. Then $a=\sum m_{x} \sigma_{x} \in C_{1}(X)$ and

$$
\partial a=c-\left(\sum m_{x}\right) p
$$

Since $c^{\prime}:=\left(\sum m_{x}\right) p \in C_{0}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$, we thus have $c-c^{\prime} \in B_{0}(X)$, so that $c \in B_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=0$.

Next, we have the following result.
Proposition 12.9. Let $\left\{X_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote the path components of $X$, and let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ denote a subspace. For each $n \geq 0$, one has

$$
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proof. Immediate from Problem D. 4 and Problem E.6.
Let us record a special case of this statement, since it will be useful in Lecture 22 when we discuss the axioms.

Corollary 12.10 (The additivity axiom). Let $\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right), \lambda \in \Lambda$ be a family of pairs of spaces. Denote by

$$
\imath_{\lambda}:\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(\bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}, \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)
$$

the inclusion. Then for all $n \geq 0$, the map

$$
\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(\imath_{\lambda}\right): \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(\bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}, \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)
$$

is an isomorphism.

[^24]Corollary 12.11. Let $\left\{X_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote the path components of $X$, and let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ denote a subspace. The group $H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is free abelian, with

$$
\operatorname{rank} H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=\#\left\{\lambda \in \Lambda \mid X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime}=\emptyset\right\}
$$

Proof. If $X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime} \neq \emptyset$ then $H_{0}\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime}\right)=0$ by Proposition 12.8, since $X_{\lambda}$ is path connected for each $\lambda$ by definition. If $X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime}=\emptyset$ then $H_{0}\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda} \cap X^{\prime}\right)=$ $H_{0}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ by Proposition 8.3.

Now let us specialise to the case where $X^{\prime}$ is a single point $\{p\}$ for some $p \in X$.
Corollary 12.12. If $(X, p)$ is a pointed space then $H_{0}(X, p)$ is a free abelian group of (possibly infinite) rank $r$, where $X$ has $r+1$ path components.

Meanwhile for $n \geq 1$, taking a single point doesn't change the homology:
Proposition 12.13. Let $(X, p)$ be a pointed space. Then for all $n \geq 1$,

$$
H_{n}(X, p) \cong H_{n}(X) .
$$

Proof. By Proposition 12.3 there is an exact sequence

$$
\ldots H_{n}(p) \rightarrow H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X, p) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}(p) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

If $n \geq 2$ then $H_{n}(p)=0$ and $H_{n-1}(p)=0$ by the dimension axiom, and thus we immediately see $H_{n}(X, p) \cong H_{n}(X)$. The case $n=1$ is slightly more tricky; it can be deduced directly from the long exact sequence by studying what the actual maps do at the tail end:

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{1}(X) \rightarrow H_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow H_{0}(p) \rightarrow H_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(X, p) \rightarrow 0
$$

Namely, by the fourth item of Example 10.5, the map $H_{1}(X) \rightarrow H_{1}(X, p)$ is surjective if and only if the map $H_{0}(p) \rightarrow H_{0}(X)$ is injective. Since $H_{0}(p)=\mathbb{Z}$ and $H_{0}(X)$ is free abelian, either $H_{0}(p) \rightarrow H_{0}(X)$ is the zero map or it is injective. By exactness, if it was the zero map then $H_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(X, p)$ would have to be injective. Thus to complete the proof we need only exhibit an element in the kernel of the map $H_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(X, p)$. Such an element is provided by $\langle p\rangle$ (cf. the proof of Proposition 8.3.)

This means that for $n \geq 1$ we can regard $H_{n}$ as a functor on $\operatorname{Top}_{*}$. Let us now introduce another algebraic concept.

Definition 12.14. Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of abelian groups. We say that the sequence splits if there exists a map $h: C \rightarrow B$ such that $g h=\operatorname{id}_{C}$. We call $h$ a splitting map.

The splitting map $h$ is not unique. On Problem Sheet F you will prove that an equivalent definition is asking that $f$ admits a left inverse:

Proposition 12.15. Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of abelian groups. Then the sequence splits if and only if there exists a map $k: B \rightarrow A$ such that $k f=\operatorname{id}_{A}$.

Here we show that if a sequence splits the middle term is a direct sum.
Proposition 12.16. Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a split short exact sequence of abelian group. Then $B \cong A \oplus C$.

Proof. Let $h: C \rightarrow B$ be such that $g h=\operatorname{id}_{C}$. We show that $B=\operatorname{im} f \oplus \operatorname{im} h$. If $b \in B$ then $g(b) \in C$ and $b-h g(b) \in \operatorname{ker} g$ because $g(b)-g h(g b)=0$ as $g h=\mathrm{id}_{C}$. Thus by exactness, there exists $a \in A$ with $f(a)=b-h g(b)$. Thus $B=\operatorname{im} f+\operatorname{imh}$. It remains to show that $\operatorname{im} f \cap \operatorname{im} h=\{0\}$. If $f(a)=x=h(c)$ then $g(x)=g f(a)=0$ and also $g(x)=g h(c)=c$, thus $x=h(c)=0$.

Remark 12.17. It is important to realise that the isomorphism $B \cong A \oplus C$ depends on the choice of the splitting map $h$. More formally ${ }^{3}$, this means that the splitting is not natural. Moreover the converse to Proposition 12.16 is not true, as you will show on Problem Sheet F.

The next idea is more important than it looks at first glance.
Definition 12.18. Let $X$ be a non-empty topological space and let $\{*\}$ be a topological space with one point. Let $j: X \rightarrow\{*\}$ be the unique continuous map that sends every point in $X$ to $*$. For any map $i:\{*\} \rightarrow X$ we have $j \circ i=\operatorname{id}_{\{*\}}$. Thus the induced map $H_{n}(j): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(*)$ is always surjective. We define $\tilde{H}_{0}(X):=\operatorname{ker} H_{0}(j)$ and call it the zeroth reduced homology group. This gives us a short exact sequence:

$$
0 \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(X) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(j)} H_{0}(*) \rightarrow 0
$$

Since this sequence splits (via $H_{0}(i)$ ), we have

$$
H_{0}(X) \cong \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \oplus \mathbb{Z}
$$

but this splitting is not natural, since it depends on the choice of map $i$.
REmark 12.19. Under the identification $H_{0}(*) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ given by

$$
m\langle *\rangle \mapsto m, \quad m \in \mathbb{Z},
$$

the map $H_{0}(j): H_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}(*)$ can be identified with the map $\phi$ from (8.3). Indeed, if $c=\sum m_{x} x \in Z_{0}(X)$ represents a homology class $\langle c\rangle \in H_{0}(X)$, then

$$
H_{0}(j)\langle c\rangle=\sum m_{x} j(x)=\left(\sum m_{x}\right)\langle *\rangle \in H_{0}(*),
$$

and hence the map $H_{0}(j)$ sends $\sum m_{x} x \mapsto \sum m_{x}$, which is exactly how $\phi$ was defined in (8.3).

[^25]We now extend $\tilde{H}_{n}$ to all $n$ by simply setting $\tilde{H}_{n}(X):=H_{n}(X)$ for $n \geq 1$, and call $\tilde{H}_{\bullet}(X)$ the reduced homology groups of $X$. We then have:

Corollary 12.20. If $X$ is a non-empty contractible space then $\tilde{H}_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

On Problem Sheet F you will show that the long exact sequence for pairs works for reduced homology too:

Proposition 12.21. Let $\emptyset \neq X^{\prime} \subseteq X$. There is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

which ends with $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Corollary 12.22. If $p \in X$ then $\tilde{H}_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(X, p)$ for all $n \geq 0$.
Remark 12.23. In Corollary 12.22 we can be slightly more explicit. Let us take our one point space $\{*\}$ to be $\{p\}$ itself. Then there is an "obvious" choice of map $p \rightarrow X$, namely the inclusion. This will be important later.

Remark 12.24. Remark 12.19 allows us to see the reduced homology groups as the homology groups of a chain complex. Let $X$ be a non-empty topological space and define a chain complex $\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}(X), \tilde{\partial}\right)$ by setting:

$$
\tilde{C}_{n}(X):= \begin{cases}C_{n}(X), & n \geq 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}, & n=-1 \\ 0, & n \leq-2\end{cases}
$$

and for $n \geq 1$, define $\tilde{\partial}: \tilde{C}_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$ to be the normal boundary operator, and for $n=0$, set

$$
\tilde{\partial}: \tilde{C}_{0}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}=\tilde{C}_{-1}(X), \quad \tilde{\partial}\left(\sum_{x} m_{x} x\right) \mapsto \sum_{x} m_{x}
$$

Then by Remark 12.19, one has

$$
H_{n}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}(X), \tilde{\partial}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}(X), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

This will be important next lecture in Corollary 13.3.
Our first "real" use of the reduced homology groups will come in Lecture 15 when we finally compute the homology of $S^{n}$ (it will turn out it is more convenient to compute $\tilde{H}_{\bullet}\left(S^{n}\right)$ using induction.) In Lecture 19, we will prove that if a pair ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) is sufficiently "nice" then

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}\right) \tag{12.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X / X^{\prime}$ is the quotient space obtained by collapsing $X^{\prime}$ to a point (Corollary 12.22 is a special case of (12.1).)

We conclude this lecture by defining the homotopy version of $\mathrm{Top}^{2}$.

Definition 12.25. If $f, g:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ are maps of pairs then we say $f \simeq g \bmod$ $X^{\prime}$ if there exists a continuous map $F:\left(X \times I, X^{\prime} \times I\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ with $F(x, 0)=f(x)$ and $F(x, 1)=g(x)$ for all $x \in X$.

This notion is not the same as saying $f \simeq g$ rel $X^{\prime}$, since the definition does not require $\left.f\right|_{X^{\prime}}=\left.g\right|_{X^{\prime}}$ and that $F\left(x^{\prime}, t\right)$ is independent of $t$ for all $x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime}$. This relation defines a congruence on $\mathrm{Top}^{2}$ and thus yields a new category, $\mathrm{hTop}{ }^{2}$. Moreover $H_{n}$ induces a functor $H_{n}: \mathrm{hTop}^{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ thanks to the following result.

Theorem 12.26 (The homotopy axiom for pairs). If $f, g:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ are maps of pairs such that $f \simeq g \bmod X^{\prime}$ then for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{n}(f)=H_{n}(g): H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) .
$$

The proof is analogous to the proof of the homotopy axiom (Theorem 8.9) and I won't bore you with it again.

## LECTURE 13

## Barycentric subdivision

In this lecture we give a systematic way of chopping up a singular simplex into a bunch of smaller ones. This process, known as barycentric subdivision, is interesting in its own right (we will use it to give another proof that a convex space has zero reduced homology), but for us the main application will be in the proof of excision that we will carry out next lecture.
Definition 13.1. Let $D$ be a bounded convex subset of some Euclidean space. Fix a point $p \in D$, and suppose $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D$ is a singular $n$-simplex. We define the cone over $\sigma$ with vertex $p$ to be the singular $(n+1)$-simplex $Q(p, \sigma): \Delta^{n+1} \rightarrow D$ defined by

$$
Q(p, \sigma)\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n+1}\right):= \begin{cases}p & s_{0}=1 \\ s_{0} p+\left(1-s_{0}\right) \sigma\left(\frac{s_{1}}{1-s_{0}}, \ldots, \frac{s_{n+1}}{1-s_{0}}\right), & s_{0} \neq 1\end{cases}
$$

This is well defined because if $s_{0} \neq 1$ then $\frac{1}{1-s_{0}} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} s_{i}=1$, and it is easy to check that $Q(p, \sigma)$ is continuous and takes values in $D$ by convexity.

We extend this by linearity to a map $C_{n}(D) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(D)$, which we write as $c \mapsto Q(p, c)$.
Proposition 13.2. If $c=\sum m_{i} \sigma_{i} \in C_{n}(D)$ then

$$
\partial Q(p, c)= \begin{cases}c-Q(p, \partial c), & \text { if } n>0 \\ c-\left(\sum m_{i}\right) p, & \text { if } n=0\end{cases}
$$

Proof. If $n \geq 1$ and $i=0$ then

$$
Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{0}^{n+1}\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)=Q(p, \sigma)\left(0, s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)=\sigma\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)
$$

and if $1 \leq i \leq n+1$ then

$$
Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)=Q(p, \sigma)\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{i-1}, 0, s_{i}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)
$$

If $s_{0}=1$ then this reduces to

$$
Q(p, \sigma)(1,0, \ldots, 0)=p
$$

meanwhile if $s_{0} \neq 1$ then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) & =s_{0} p+\left(1-s_{0}\right) \sigma\left(\frac{s_{1}}{1-s_{0}}, \ldots, \frac{s_{i-1}}{1-s_{0}}, 0, \frac{s_{i}}{1-s_{0}}, \ldots, \frac{s_{n}}{1-s_{0}}\right) \\
& =s_{0} p+\left(1-s_{0}\right) \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i-1}^{n}\left(\frac{s_{1}}{1-s_{0}}, \ldots, \frac{s_{n}}{1-s_{0}}\right) \\
& =Q\left(p, \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i-1}^{n}\right)\left(s_{0}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

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Thus we see that for $n \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{0}^{n+1}=\sigma \tag{13.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for $i \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}=Q\left(p, \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i-1}^{n}\right) . \tag{13.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now taking alternating sums, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial Q(p, \sigma) & =\sum_{i=0}^{n+1}(-1)^{i} Q(p, \sigma) \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1} \\
& \stackrel{(+)}{=} \sigma+\sum_{i=1}^{n+1}(-1)^{i} Q\left(p, \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i-1}^{n}\right) \\
& =\sigma-\sum_{j=0}^{n}(-1)^{j} Q\left(p, \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n}\right) \\
& =\sigma-Q\left(p, \sum_{j=0}^{n}(-1)^{j} \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{j}^{n}\right) \\
& =\sigma-Q(p, \partial \sigma),
\end{aligned}
$$

where ( $*$ ) used (13.1) and (13.2). This proves the result in the case $n \geq 1$. For $n=0$, it suffices to observe that if $x$ is a point in $X$ then $Q(p, x)$ is a 1 -simplex $\sigma$ with $\sigma\left(e_{0}\right)=p$ and $\sigma\left(e_{1}\right)=x$. Thus $\partial \sigma=\sigma\left(e_{1}\right)-\sigma\left(e_{0}\right)=x-p$.

This gives us another direct proof of the fact that the reduced homology groups of $D$ vanish. (Of course, since $D$ is contractible this already follows from Corollary 12.22.)

Corollary 13.3. Let $D$ be a bounded convex subset of some Euclidean space. Then the reduced homology groups vanish: $\tilde{H}_{n}(D)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof. The operator $c \mapsto Q(p, c)$ is a contracting homotopy for the chain complex $\tilde{C}_{\bullet}(D)$ defined in Remark 12.24. Thus by Corollary 10.26 we see that $\tilde{H}_{n}(D)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Remark 13.4. Note that this proof did not use the homotopy axiom. We will use this fact in Lecture 23 when giving an alternative proof of the homotopy axiom using the Acyclic Models Theorem (if Corollary 13.3 used the homotopy axiom then our argument would be circular).

We now introduce the concept of an affine simplex.
Definition 13.5. Let $D$ be convex. A singular $n$-simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D$ is said to be affine if

$$
\sigma\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} e_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} \sigma\left(e_{i}\right), \quad \forall\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \in \Delta^{n} .
$$

If $\sigma$ is affine then $\partial \sigma$ is also affine, and thus the space of affine singular $n$-simplices defines a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}(D)$. We write this as $C_{\bullet}^{\text {affine }}(D)$. Note also that if $\sigma$ is affine then so is $Q(p, \sigma)$ for any $p \in D$.

Let us denote by $b_{n}:=\frac{1}{n+1}\left(e_{0}+e_{1}+\cdots+e_{n}\right)$ the barycentre (cf. (7.1) of the standard simplex $\Delta^{n}$. We now define the barycentric subdivision operator. We will first define it for affine simplices in convex subsets, and then extend it to arbitrary simplices and spaces.

Definition 13.6. Let $D$ be convex. Define the convex barycentric subdivision

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\text {cv }}: C_{n}^{\text {affine }}(D) \rightarrow C_{n}^{\text {affine }}(D)
$$

inductively for an affine singular $n$-simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D$ by

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma):= \begin{cases}\sigma & n=0 \\ Q\left(\sigma\left(b_{n}\right), \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)\right), & n \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

and then extending by linearity. See Figure 13.1 for a picture in the case $n=2$.


Figure 13.1: The barycentric subdivision of $\Delta^{2}$.
If $X$ is an arbitrary topological space then this definition doesn't make sense, since we cannot apply the cone construction. Nevertheless, there is an easy way to extend this. In the following, in order to minimise notational confusion, let us denote by $\ell_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ the identity map, thought of as a singular $n$-simplex in $\Delta^{n}$.

Definition 13.7. Let $X$ be an arbitrary topological space. Define the barycentric subdivision $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n}(X)$ by setting

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma):=\sigma_{\#}\left(\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right),
$$

and then extending by linearity.
This makes sense. The simplex $\ell_{n}$ is certainly affine, and hence $\mathrm{Sd}_{n}^{\text {cv }}\left(\ell_{n}\right)$ is welldefined and belongs to $C_{n}^{\text {affine }}\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subset C_{n}\left(\Delta^{n}\right)$. Since $\sigma_{\#}$ is a map $C_{n}\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \rightarrow C_{n}(X)$, we see that $\sigma_{\#}\left(\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\text {cv }}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right)$ does indeed belong to $C_{n}(X)$.

Lemma 13.8. If $D$ is a convex bounded subset of some Euclidean space then Definition 13.7 agrees with Definition 13.6 for all affine simplices:

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)=\mathrm{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma), \quad \forall \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D \text { affine. }
$$

The proof of Lemma 13.8 is on Problem Sheet G. Moreover on Problem Sheet G you are asked to write out explicit formulae for $\mathrm{Sd}_{n}$ for $n=0,1,2$.
Proposition 13.9. The barycentric subdivision is a chain map. Moreover if $f: X \rightarrow$ $Y$ is continuous then the following diagram commutes for all $n \geq 0$ :


REMARK 13.10. The fact that the diagram (13.3) commutes means that $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}$ is a natural chain map, anticipating terminology will we introduce later on in the course.

Proof. We begin by showing that (13.3) commutes:

$$
f_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)=f_{\#} \sigma_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)=(f \circ \sigma)_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(f \circ \sigma)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n}\left(f_{\#} \sigma\right)
$$

Assume now that $X$ is a bounded convex subset of some Euclidean space. Let us prove by induction on $n$ that $\mathrm{Sd}_{n}$ is a chain map. By Lemma 13.8, it suffices to show that $\mathrm{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}$ is a chain map. The case $n=0$ is obvious. For the inductive step we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma) & =\partial Q\left(\sigma\left(b_{n}\right), \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)\right) \\
& \stackrel{(*)}{=} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)-Q\left(\sigma\left(b_{n}\right), \partial \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)-Q(\sigma\left(b_{n}\right), \operatorname{Sd}_{n-2}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\underbrace{\partial^{2} \sigma}_{=0})) \\
& =\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $(*)$ used Proposition 13.2 and $(\dagger)$ used the inductive hypothesis ${ }^{1}$. We now prove the general case where $X$ is not necessarily convex. If $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial \mathrm{Sd}_{n}(\sigma) & =\partial \sigma_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\ddagger)}{=} \sigma_{\#} \partial \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\oplus)}{=} \sigma_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\boldsymbol{\&})}{=} \sigma_{\#} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\varrho)}{=} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}\left(\sigma_{\#} \partial\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\ddagger)}{=} \operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}\left(\partial \sigma_{\#}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}(\partial \sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

where:

[^26]1. ( $\ddagger$ ) used that $\sigma_{\#}$ is a chain map (both times),
2. ( $\boldsymbol{\oplus}$ ) used that we already know that convex barycentric subdivision is a chain map,
3. (\&) used the fact that for the affine simplex $\partial \ell_{n}$ in the convex set $\Delta^{n}$ one has $\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right)$,
4. ( $($ ) used naturality (13.3),
5. and the last line used the fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma_{\#}\left(\ell_{n}\right)=\sigma . \tag{13.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This completes the proof.
Now that we know that barycentric subdivision is a chain map, we get an induced map on homology. What could this map be? The answer is about as boring as it can be (it shows we have accomplished nothing!), but this will be crucial in the proof of excision next lecture.

Theorem 13.11. For each $n \geq 0$, the induced map

$$
H_{n}(\mathrm{Sd}): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X)
$$

is the identity.
Remark 13.12. Just as with Proposition 8.5, the fact that barycentric subdivision induces the identity on homology is also an immediate consequence of the Acyclic Models Theorem that we will prove later on in the course. However for completeness we will give an independent proof here.

Proof. It suffices by Proposition 10.24 to construct a chain homotopy between Sd and the identity. In other words, we need to build map $P_{n}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial P_{n}+P_{n-1} \partial=\mathrm{id}-\operatorname{Sd}_{n} . \tag{13.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We prove the result in two steps.

1. We begin in the convex case with affine simplices. Assume $D$ is a bounded convex subset of some Euclidean space. We define inductively: ${ }^{2}$

$$
P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma):= \begin{cases}0 & n=0 \\ Q\left(\sigma\left(b_{n}\right), \sigma-\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)-P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)\right), & n \geq 1\end{cases}
$$

Then $P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma) \in C_{n+1}^{\text {affine }}(D)$ by induction. Let us verify inductively that (13.5) holds. Since $\operatorname{Sd}_{0}^{\text {cv }}(\sigma)=\sigma$ for an (affine) 0 -simplex, both sides of (13.5) are zero for $n=0$. Now suppose $n>0$ and that (13.5) holds for $n-1$, that is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}+P_{n-2}^{\mathrm{cv}} \partial=\mathrm{id}-\mathrm{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}} \tag{13.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^27]Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D$ be an affine singular $n$-simplex. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial\left(\sigma-\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)-P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma)\right) & \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} \partial \sigma-\partial \mathrm{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)-\left(\mathrm{id}-\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}-P_{n-2}^{\mathrm{cv}} \partial\right) \partial \sigma \\
& \stackrel{(\ddagger)}{=}-\partial \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)+\operatorname{Sd}_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma) \\
& =0,
\end{aligned}
$$

where this time $(\dagger)$ used (13.6) and $(\ddagger)$ used that $\mathrm{Sd}^{\mathrm{cv}}$ is a chain map and $\partial^{2}=0$. Thus from Proposition 13.2 we have that

$$
\partial P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)=\sigma-\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)-P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\partial \sigma),
$$

and hence (13.5) holds.
2. Now we prove the general case. The strategy is the same as the definition of Sd and the proof of Proposition 13.9. Using that $\ell_{n}$ is an affine $n$-simplex, given a singular $n$-simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$, we define

$$
P_{n} \sigma:=\sigma_{\#}\left(P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right) \in C_{n+1}(X) .
$$

Just as with Lemma 13.8, if $X$ was already convex and $\sigma$ was affine, we have $P_{n}(\sigma)=$ $P_{n}^{\text {cv }}(\sigma)$. We claim that this map $P_{n}$ is "natural", that is, if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is any continuous map, then the following commutes:


Indeed,

$$
f_{\#} P_{n} \sigma=f_{\#} \sigma_{\#}\left(P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right)=(f \circ \sigma)_{\#}\left(P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right)=P_{n}(f \circ \sigma)=P_{n}\left(f_{\#} \sigma\right) .
$$

Then using (13.7) and arguing as in the proof of Proposition 13.9, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial P_{n}(\sigma)=\sigma_{\#}\left(\partial P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right) \tag{13.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n-1}(\partial \sigma)=\sigma_{\#}\left(P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right)\right) \tag{13.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and thus adding (13.8) and (13.9) together and using the fact that we already know that (13.5) holds for $P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}$, we see that
$\partial P_{n}(\sigma)+P_{n-1} \partial \sigma=\sigma_{\#}\left(\partial P_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)+P_{n-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\partial \ell_{n}\right)\right)=\sigma_{\#}\left(\ell_{n}-\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\ell_{n}\right)\right)=\sigma-\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)$,
where we used (13.4) again in the last equality.

## LECTURE 14

## Excision and the homology of spheres

In this lecture we state and prove the excision axiom. This is the last of the four major axioms needed to define a homology theory. Thus by the end of this lecture we will have proved (using terminology we will introduce in Lecture 22) that singular homology is a homology theory. We use this to prove the Mayer-Vietoris sequence and to compute the homology of spheres.

Given a set $U \subseteq X$ of a topological space, we denote by $U^{\circ}$ the interior of $U$.
Definition 14.1. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $\mathfrak{U}$ be a family of subsets of $X$ such that

$$
X=\bigcup_{U \in \mathfrak{U}} U^{\circ}
$$

We say a singular $n$-simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ is $\mathfrak{U}$-small if there exists $U \in \mathfrak{U}$ such that $\sigma\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subseteq U$. We denote by $C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$ the subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}(X)$ generated by $\mathfrak{U}$-small simplices (it is clear this is a subcomplex.) We denote by $H_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$ the homology of this chain complex.

There is an obvious chain map $i: C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X)$ given by inclusion. The main technical result we prove today is that this chain map induces an isomorphism on homology.

THEOREM 14.2. The inclusion of chain complexes $i: C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X)$ induces an isomorphism $H_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X)$ for all $n \geq 0$.

We will need a few preliminary results. The next two pertain to genuine simplices (not singular simplices!).

Proposition 14.3. Let $S=\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ denote an $n$-simplex in some Euclidean space. Then if $x, y \in S$ one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
|x-y| \leq \sup _{i}\left|z_{i}-y\right| \tag{14.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{diam} S=\max _{i, j}\left|z_{i}-z_{j}\right| \tag{14.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover if $b$ is the barycentre of $S$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|b-z_{i}\right| \leq \frac{n}{n+1} \operatorname{diam} S \tag{14.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $x, y \in S$, and write $x=\sum_{i} s_{i} z_{i}$ with $\sum_{i} s_{i}=1$. Then

$$
|x-y|=\left|\sum_{i} s_{i} z_{i}-y\right| \leq \sum_{i} s_{i}\left|z_{i}-y\right| \leq \max _{i}\left|z_{i}-y\right|
$$

This proves (14.1), and (14.2) is an immediate consequence of this. Now since $b=$ $\frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i} z_{i}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|b-z_{j}\right| & =\left|\left(\sum_{i} \frac{1}{n+1} z_{i}\right)-z_{j}\right| \\
& \stackrel{(*)}{=}\left|\sum_{i} \frac{1}{n+1}\left(z_{i}-z_{j}\right)\right| \\
& \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i}\left|z_{i}-z_{j}\right| \\
& \leq \frac{n}{n+1} \max _{i, j}\left|z_{i}-z_{j}\right| \\
& =\frac{n}{n+1} \operatorname{diam} S
\end{aligned}
$$

where ( $*$ ) used the fact that $\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{1}{n+1}=1$. This proves (14.3).
We can regard any genuine simplex $\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ as a singular $n$-simplex by choosing $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ to be an affine map sending $e_{i}$ to $z_{i}$ (cf. Problem D.4). Thus if $S_{i}$ are genuine $n$-simplices in some convex subset $D$ and $m_{i}$ are non-zero integers, we can regard $\sum_{i} m_{i} S_{i}$ as belonging to $C_{n}(D)$ (actually, to $C_{n}^{\text {affine }}(D)$.) We define the mesh of such a sum to the maximum diameter of the $S_{i}$.

In particular, if $S$ is an $n$-simplex then $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\text {cv }}(S)$ is an element of $C_{n}(D)$, and we have:

Corollary 14.4. For any $n$-simplex $S$,

$$
\operatorname{mesh} \operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(S) \leq \frac{n}{n+1} \operatorname{diam} S
$$

This allows us to prove the following result, which tells us that we can make any singular simplex into a sum of $\mathfrak{U}$-small simplices by barycentrically subdividing enough times.
Proposition 14.5. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $\mathfrak{U}$ be a family of subsets of $X$ whose interiors cover $X$. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $n$-simplex. There exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that every simplex in the $n$-chain $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{k}(\sigma)$ is $\mathfrak{U}$-small.

Proof. Let $\delta>0$ be a Lebesgue number (cf. Lemma 6.7) for the open covering $\left\{\sigma^{-1}\left(U^{\circ}\right) \mid U \in \mathfrak{U}\right\}$ of $\Delta^{n}$. Choose $k \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough so that

$$
\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{k}<\frac{\delta}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

The claim now follows from Corollary 14.4 and induction.

With these preliminaries out of the way, we can now prove Theorem 14.2.
Proof of Theorem 14.2. Let $n \geq 0$. We first prove $H_{n}(i): H_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X)$ is injective. Suppose $c \in Z_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$ belongs to the kernel of $H_{n}(i)$. This means there exists $a \in C_{n+1}(X)$ such that $\partial a=i_{\#} c=c$. By applying Proposition 14.5 to each of the finitely many simplices in $a$, we see there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\operatorname{Sd}_{n+1}^{k}(a) \in C_{n+1}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$. Recall Theorem 13.11 gives us a chain homotopy $P$ from Sd to the identity: $\partial P+P \partial=\mathrm{Sd}-\mathrm{id}$. By induction, for any positive integer $k$ we have

$$
\partial P \mathrm{Sd}^{k-1}+P \mathrm{Sd}^{k-1} \partial=\mathrm{Sd}^{k}-\mathrm{Sd}^{k-1}
$$

Thus if we set

$$
P^{(k)}:=P \circ\left(\mathrm{id}+\mathrm{Sd}+\cdots+\mathrm{Sd}^{k-1}\right)
$$

then we have

$$
\partial P^{(k)}+P^{(k)} \partial=\mathrm{Sd}^{k}-\mathrm{id} .
$$

Thus

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n+1}^{k}(a)-a=\partial P_{n+1}^{(k)}(a)+P_{n}^{(k)}(\partial a)=\partial P_{n+1}^{(k)}(a)+P_{n}^{(k)}(c),
$$

and hence as $\partial^{2}=0$ we have

$$
c=\partial a=\partial\left(\operatorname{Sd}_{n+1}^{k}(a)-P_{n}^{(k)}(c)\right) .
$$

Since $c \in C_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$ we have $P_{n}^{(k)}(c) \in C_{n+1}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$ as well; this can be seen from the naturality equation (13.7). Thus as $\operatorname{Sd}_{n+1}^{k}(a)$ also belongs to $C_{n+1}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$, we see that $c \in B_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$. Hence $H_{n}(i)$ is injective.

Now we prove $H_{n}(i)$ is surjective. Suppose $d \in Z_{n}(X)$. Then using Proposition 14.5 for $k$ large enough we have $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{k}(d) \in C_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$. With $P^{(k)}$ as before we have

$$
\mathrm{Sd}_{n}^{k}(d)-d=\partial P_{n}^{(k)}(d)+P_{n-1}^{(k)}(\partial d)=\partial P_{n}^{(k)}(d) .
$$

Since $\mathrm{Sd}^{k}$ is a chain map, $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{k}(d)$ is also a cycle. The previous equation thus shows that $d$ is homologous to a cycle in $C_{n}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)$. This shows that $H_{n}(i)$ is surjective, and hence completes the proof.

Now let $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ be a pair of spaces. Write

$$
\mathfrak{U} \cap X^{\prime}:=\left\{U \cap X^{\prime} \mid U \in \mathfrak{U}\right\}
$$

and define the chain complex

$$
C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right):=C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X) / C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}} X^{\prime}\left(X^{\prime}\right)
$$

We denote its homology groups by $H_{n}^{\mathfrak{i} \cap X^{\prime}}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. This gives us a commutative diagram of chain complexes with exact rows:


Each row has its own long exact sequence, giving the following commutating diagram:


All the vertical maps apart from the one marked $j$ are isomorphisms, thanks to Theorem 14.2. But now by the Five Lemma (Proposition 11.3), we see that $j$ is also an isomorphism. This proves:

Proposition 14.6. The inclusion of chain complexes $C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ induces an isomorphism in homology:

$$
H_{n}^{\mathfrak{L} \cap X^{\prime}}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0 .
$$

We now state two forms of excision.
Theorem 14.7 (The excision axiom). Assume that $X^{\prime \prime} \subset X^{\prime} \subset X$ are subspaces with $\overline{X^{\prime \prime}} \subset\left(X^{\prime}\right)^{\circ}$. Then the inclusion $\left(X \backslash X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime} \backslash X^{\prime \prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ induces an isomorphism in homology:

$$
H_{n}\left(X \backslash X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime} \backslash X^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

Theorem 14.8 (The excision axiom, second form). Assume that $X_{1}, X_{2}$ are subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Then the inclusion $\left(X_{1}, X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X_{2}\right)$ induces an isomorphism in homology:

$$
H_{n}\left(X_{1}, X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X, X_{2}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0 .
$$

On Problem Sheet G you will show that the two results Theorem 14.7 and Theorem 14.8 are equivalent. Here we will prove the second one.

Proof of Theorem 14.8. We take as our covering $\mathfrak{U}=\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}\right\}$. The hypotheses of Theorem 14.2 are satisfied. By definition we have

$$
C_{\bullet}^{\mathfrak{U}}(X)=C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right),
$$

and hence if we look at long exact sequence in homology associated to the short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)\right) \xrightarrow{f} C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) /\left(C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

every third map

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}(X)\right)
$$

is an isomorphism ${ }^{1}$ by Theorem 14.2. Now we consider the short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow \frac{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)} \stackrel{g}{\rightarrow} \frac{C_{\bullet}(X)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)} \rightarrow \frac{C_{\bullet}(X)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

The corresponding long exact sequence has every third term zero, so that $H_{n}(g)$ is an isomorphism for every $n$. Next observe there is an isomorphism of chain complexes:

$$
h: \frac{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right)} \cong \frac{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)} .
$$

This is just the fact that

$$
C \bullet\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right)=C \bullet\left(X_{1}\right) \cap C \bullet\left(X_{2}\right),
$$

together with the second isomorphism theorem for chain complexes, which is Problem G.6. We thus have a commuting triangle of chain complexes:


The induced maps $H_{n}(h)$ and $H_{n}(g)$ are both isomorphisms, and hence the horizontal map also induces an isomorphism in homology:

$$
H_{n}\left(\frac{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1}\right)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right)}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(\frac{C_{\bullet}(X)}{C_{\bullet}\left(X_{2}\right)}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

This is exactly the statement of the theorem.
We now prove the "homology" version of the Seifert-van Kampen Theorem 6.5, which is a simple consequence of excision.

Theorem 14.9 (Mayer-Vietoris). Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be subspaces of $X$ such that $X=$ $X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Set $X_{0}:=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ and let

$$
\imath_{i}: X_{0} \hookrightarrow X_{i}, \quad \jmath_{i}: X_{i} \hookrightarrow X
$$

denote inclusions for $i=1,2$. Then there is a long exact sequence
$\ldots H_{n}\left(X_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{\left(H_{n}\left(\imath_{1}\right), H_{n}\left(\imath_{2}\right)\right)} H_{n}\left(X_{1}\right) \oplus H_{n}\left(X_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(\jmath_{1}\right)-H_{n}\left(\jmath_{2}\right)} H_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{D} H_{n-1}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \ldots$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& { }^{1} \text { If one has a long exact sequence } \\
& \qquad \cdots \rightarrow A_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} B_{n} \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} B_{n-1} \rightarrow \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

where every third map $f_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n}$ is an isomorphism, then $C_{n}=0$ for all $n$ by exactness.

Proof. The following diagram of pairs of spaces commutes, where all the maps are inclusions ${ }^{2}$ :


By Problem F. 4 we obtain a commutative diagram with exact rows:


Now Theorem 14.8 tells us that the map $H_{n}(h)$ is an isomorphism for all $n$. This means that we can apply the Barratt-Whitehead Lemma (Proposition 11.4) to obtain the desired long exact sequence.

Provided $X_{0}$ is non-empty, the Mayer-Vietoris Theorem continuous to hold for reduced homology as well.

Corollary 14.10. Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Set $X_{0}:=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ and assume $X_{0} \neq \emptyset$. Then there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X_{1}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

where the maps are the same as in Theorem 14.9. The sequence ends with

$$
\ldots \tilde{H}_{0}\left(X_{1}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{0}\left(X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. Fix $p \in X_{0}$ and proceed as before, starting with the commutative diagram


This gives the desired long exact sequence, albeit with $H_{n}(X, p)$ in place of $\tilde{H}_{n}(X)$, etc. However Corollary 12.22 then completes the proof.

We can now finally compute the homology of the sphere. We will state the result for reduced homology, because this is a neater statement and the proof is shorter.

Theorem 14.11. For all $n \geq 0$, one has

$$
\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}, & k=n \\ 0, & k \neq n\end{cases}
$$

[^28]Proof. We induct on $n$. For $n=0$ this follows from the definition of reduced homology, the dimension axiom (Proposition 8.1), and Proposition 8.3), since $S^{0}=\{-1,1\}$ is a space consisting of two points. For the inductive step, we apply Corollary 14.10. Suppose $n \geq 1$, and let $p$ and $q$ denote the "north pole" and "south pole" of $S^{n}$ respectively. Set $X_{1}=S^{n} \backslash\{p\}$ and $X_{2}:=S^{n} \backslash\{q\}$. Then $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are contractible and $X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ is homotopy equivalent to the "equator" $S^{n-1}$. Using Corollary 12.20, the Mayer-Vietoris sequence gives us for all $i \geq 0$ an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

The result follows by induction.
Just as with the Seifert-van Kampen Theorem 6.5, the Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence allows us to compute the homology of a number of standard spaces. We will return to this in Lecture 18, when we discuss the idea of attaching cells.

Remark 14.12. In particular, $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)=\mathbb{Z} \neq 0$. Thus we have finally proved Lemma 1.3 from Lecture 1, and thus we have also finally proved the Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem 1.1.

## LECTURE 15

## The degree

In this lecture we define the degree of a continuous map from a sphere to itself. Recall in Lecture 5 we defined the degree of a loop $u:(I, \partial I) \rightarrow\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$. From Problem B. 5 , we have $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \cong\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),\left(S^{1}, 1\right)\right]$, and hence our earlier definition can be thought of as a map $\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),\left(S^{1}, 1\right)\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. In this lecture we will work with homology, and thus it is convenient to ditch the basepoints. This means we need a stronger version of Problem B.5.

Proposition 15.1. Let $X$ be path connected and let $\zeta: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow\left[S^{1}, X\right]$ be the function that sends a path class $[u]$ to the free homotopy class of the map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
\hat{u}\left(e^{2 \pi i s}\right):=u(s), \quad s \in I
$$

This function is surjective. Moreover if $\zeta([u])=\zeta([v])$ then there exists $[w] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ such that $[u]=[w] *[v] *[w]^{-1}$. In particular, if $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian then $\zeta$ is an isomorphism, and hence $\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong\left[S^{1}, X\right]$.

The proof of Proposition 15.1 is on Problem Sheet $H$ as a test to see whether you've already forgotten all the homotopy theory we did...

Taking $X=S^{1}$, and using that $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)=\mathbb{Z}$ is abelian, this shows that our earlier definition of the degree (Definition 5.5) can be thought of as a map $\left[S^{1}, S^{1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. We now use take advantage of the fact that $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)=\mathbb{Z}$ to extend this to higherdimensional spheres using homology.

We will use the following simple observation: any group homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{Z}$ is necessarily multiplication by an integer, that is, $\varphi(n)=m n$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Indeed, if $m=\varphi(1)$ then

$$
\varphi(n)=\varphi(\underbrace{1+\cdots+1}_{n \text { times }})=\underbrace{\varphi(1)+\cdots+\varphi(1)}_{n \text { times }}=n \cdot \varphi(1)=n m
$$

Definition 15.2. Let $n \geq 1$ and let $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be continuous. Then $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$ is a group homomorphism, and hence is multiplication by an integer. This integer is called the degree of $f$ and denoted by $\operatorname{deg}(f)$. Thus

$$
H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle=\operatorname{deg}(f)\langle c\rangle, \quad \forall\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)
$$

The homotopy axiom (Theorem 8.9) implies that $\operatorname{deg}:\left[S^{n}, S^{n}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a well defined function, since if $f \simeq g$ are homotopic maps from $S^{n}$ to itself then $H_{n}(f)=$ $H_{n}(g)$ and thus in particular $\operatorname{deg}(f)=\operatorname{deg}(g)$.

Let us check that for $S^{1}$, this definition agrees with the old one. For clarity, since there are now (supposedly) three different definitions of "degree" in play, let us temporarily give them all different names. Firstly we have

$$
\mathrm{deg}^{\text {loop }}: \pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z},
$$

the one from Theorem 5.6. Secondly, we have

$$
\operatorname{deg}^{\text {old }}:\left[S^{1}, S^{1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

the one obtained from deg ${ }^{\text {loop }}$ using Proposition 15.1, and finally the function

$$
\operatorname{deg}^{\mathrm{new}}:\left[S^{1}, S^{1}\right] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

given from Definition 15.2. Of course deg ${ }^{\text {loop }}$ and deg ${ }^{\text {old }}$ are the same map, but in the proof of the next proposition it is convenient to keep the notation distinct.

Proposition 15.3. Let $f: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ be continuous. Then the homomorphism $\pi_{1}(f)$ is given by mulitplication by $\operatorname{deg}^{\text {old }}(f)$.

Proof. Let $u_{k}(s):=e^{2 \pi i k s}$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then from the proof of Theorem 5.6, $\operatorname{deg}^{\text {loop }}\left[u_{k}\right]=$ $k$, and thus $\left[u_{1}\right]$ is a generator of $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$. Consider now first the special case where $f=g_{m}$ for $g_{m}(z):=z^{m}$. Since $g_{m} \circ u_{1}=u_{m}$ we see that $\pi_{1}\left(g_{m}\right)\left[u_{1}\right]=\left[u_{m}\right]$. Thus $\pi_{1}\left(g_{m}\right)$ is given by multiplication by $m$ under the identification $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ given by deg ${ }^{\text {loop }}$.

For the general case, suppose $f: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ has $\operatorname{deg}^{\text {old }}(f)=m$. Then $f \simeq g_{m}$ since $\mathrm{deg}^{\text {old }}$ is an isomorphism by Theorem 5.6 and Proposition 15.1. Since $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is abelian, Corollary 4.14 shows that $\pi_{1}(f)=\pi_{1}\left(g_{m}\right)$. This completes the proof.

We now prove that actually deg ${ }^{\text {old }}=\operatorname{deg}^{\text {new }}$.
Proposition 15.4. If $f: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ is continuous then $\operatorname{deg}^{\text {old }}(f)=\operatorname{deg}^{\text {new }}(f)$
Proof. By Problem E.2, there is a commutative diagram

where $h: \pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \rightarrow H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is the Hurewicz map. Since $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)=\mathbb{Z}$ is abelian, the map $h$ is an isomorphism, and deg ${ }^{\text {loop }}$ furnishes an explicit isomorphism $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \cong$ $H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Now the result follows from Proposition 15.3.

With this out the way, we will go back to just calling all three of the maps deg.
Proposition 15.5. Let $n \geq 1$ and let $f, g: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ denote continuous maps. Then:

1. $\operatorname{deg}(g \circ f)=\operatorname{deg}(g) \operatorname{deg}(f)$,
2. $\operatorname{deg}\left(\mathrm{id}_{S^{n}}\right)=1$,
3. if $f$ is a constant map then $\operatorname{deg}(f)=0$,
4. if $f \simeq g$ then $\operatorname{deg}(f)=\operatorname{deg}(g)$,
5. if $f$ is a homotopy equivalence then $\operatorname{deg}(f)= \pm 1$.

Proof. All properties follow from the fact that $H_{n}$ is a functor. Property (3) follows from the fact that a constant map $f$ can be factored as a composition $S^{n} \rightarrow\{*\} \rightarrow S^{n}$ where $\{*\}$ is a one-point space.

We now prove a far less obvious result.
Proposition 15.6. Let $n \geq 1$ and let $A \in \mathrm{O}(n+1)$ denote an orthogonal linear transformation. Set $f:=\left.A\right|_{S^{n}}$. Then $\operatorname{deg}(f)=\operatorname{det}(A)$.

Proof. The group $\mathrm{O}(n+1)$ has two connected components, distinguished by det: $\mathrm{O}(n+$ 1) $\rightarrow\{+1,-1\}$. By homotopy invariance it suffices to check the result for one such $A$ in each component. Since the identity matrix $I_{n+1}$ induces $f=\mathrm{id}_{S^{n}}$, which has degree 1 , it suffices to check the result for a single map $A$ with $\operatorname{det}(A)=-1$. We take $A$ to be reflection in a hyperplane $H \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Divide $S^{n}$ into two hemispheres that are preserved by $A$. Then the map $f$ induces a reflection $f^{\prime}$ in the corresponding hyperplane $H^{\prime}$ in the equatorial $S^{n-1}$. Now applying the Mayer-Vietoris sequence and using naturality, we obtain the following commutative diagram:


Here the maps $D$ are the connecting maps from the Mayer-Vietoris sequence. These maps are isomorphisms, moreover they are the same isomorphism. Thus we see that

$$
\operatorname{deg}(f)=\operatorname{deg}\left(f^{\prime}\right)
$$

and hence by induction it suffices to prove the result for $n=1$. For this we write $S^{1}$ as the union of two open intervals $A$ and $B$ which contract onto the two given hemispheres preserved by our reflection. Then $A \cap B$ is homotopy equivalent to $S^{0}=\{p, q\}$. Applying Mayer-Vietoris again, we see that $H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is isomorphic to the kernel of the map $j$ :

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(S^{0}\right) \xrightarrow{j} H_{0}(A) \oplus H_{0}(B) .
$$

We take $\langle p\rangle$ and $\langle q\rangle$ as generators of $H_{0}\left(S^{0}\right)$. Both $\langle p\rangle$ and $\langle q\rangle$ generate $H_{0}(A)$ and $H_{0}(B)$ (cf. the last part of Proposition 8.3), and thus the map $j$ here

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{j} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}
$$

is given by $(u, v) \mapsto(u+v, u+v)$. In particular, the kernel of $j$ is generated by $\langle p\rangle-\langle q\rangle$. Since the reflection $f$ interchanges $p$ and $q$, this shows that $\operatorname{deg}(f)=-1$ as claimed.

Corollary 15.7. Let $n \geq 1$. The antipodal map $a: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ given by $a(x)=-x$ has degree $(-1)^{n+1}$.

Proof. The antipodal map is the composition of the $n+1$ reflections in the coordinates axes of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. These all have degree -1 by Proposition 15.6 , and degree is multiplicative by part (1) of Proposition 15.5.

This immediately gives a proof of the following famous result.
Theorem 15.8 (The Hairy Ball Theorem). There exists a nowhere vanishing vector field on $S^{n}$ if and only if $n$ is odd.

A vector field can be identified with a continuous map $v: S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ such that $\langle x, v(x)\rangle=0$, where $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is the Euclidean inner product on $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Rather more visually, suppose we attach a "hair-vector" $v(x)$ at every point $x \in S^{n}$. If we could successfully "comb" the sphere so that every hair was tangential to $S^{n}$, we'd have successfully created a vector field on $S^{n}$. Thus the theorem tells us that if we try this on $S^{2 m}$, either there will be a point $x$ where the sphere is bald $(v(x)=0)$, or no matter how hard we try to comb, there will always be a tuft.

Proof. If $n=2 m-1$ then define $v: \mathbb{R}^{2 m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 m}$ by

$$
v\left(x_{1}, y_{1}, \ldots x_{m}, y_{m}\right)=\left(-y_{1}, x_{1}, \ldots,-y_{m}, x_{m}\right)
$$

The restriction of $v$ to $S^{n}$ is then a nowhere vanishing vector field. Conversely, suppose $v$ is a nowhere vanishing vector field. Let $w: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be defined by

$$
w(x)=\frac{v(x)}{|v(x)|}
$$

Now define

$$
W: S^{n} \times I \rightarrow S^{n}, \quad W(x, t):=(\cos \pi t) x+(\sin \pi t) w(x)
$$

(this does indeed take values in $S^{n}$ since $\langle x, v(x)\rangle=0$ for all $x$.) Then $W(x, 0)=x$ and $W(x, 1)=a(x)$, where $a$ is the antipodal map. Thus the degree of the antipodal map is the same as the degree of the identity by part (4) of Proposition 15.5, and thus by Corollary 15.7, we see that $n$ must be odd.

Taking the earth to be $S^{2}$ and our vector field to be the wind, the theorem can also be interpreted as saying: There is always somewhere on planet where there is no wind.

Lemma 15.9. Let $n \geq 1$. Suppose $f, g: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ are continuous maps such that $f(x) \neq g(x)$ for all $x \in S^{n}$. Then $f \simeq a \circ g$. In particular, if $f$ has no fixed points then $f$ is homotopic to the antipodal map.
Proof. If $f(x) \neq g(x)$ for all $x$ then

$$
F(x, t):=\frac{(1-t) f(x)-\operatorname{tg}(x)}{|(1-t) f(x)-\operatorname{tg}(x)|}
$$

is a well-defined homotopy from $f$ to $a \circ g$ (since the denominator can never be zero.)

We can use this lemma to obtain surprising information on what groups $G$ can act freely on $S^{2 n}$. First note that $S^{2 n-1}$ can be realised as the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}^{n}$, and thus carries a free action of $S^{1}$; namely $z \mapsto e^{i \theta} z$. Inside $S^{1}$ we then also have free actions of the $m$ th roots of unity on $S^{2 n-1}$, and thus $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$ acts on $S^{2 n-1}$ for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$. The same however is not true for $S^{2 n}$.

Corollary 15.10. If $G$ acts freely on $S^{2 n}$ then $G$ is either the trivial group or $G=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

Proof. If $G$ acts freely on $S^{2 n}$ then each non-trivial element $g \in G$ has no fixed points. Thus each $g$ has degree -1 by Lemma 15.9 and Corollary 15.7. Thus the map deg: $G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2}=\{+1,-1\}$ is an injective group homomorphism.

We conclude this lecture with a much deeper result.
Definition 15.11. A continuous map $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ is called an odd map if $f(-x)=$ $-f(x)$ for all $x \in S^{n}$. Equivalently, $f \circ a=a \circ f$, where $a$ is the antipodal map.

Theorem 15.12. An odd map has odd degree.
As you will see on Problem Sheet H, Theorem 15.12 implies two classical theorems, the Borsuk-Ulam Theorem and the Lusternik-Schnirelmann Theorem. There are several ways to prove Theorem 15.12. We will give a proof that (mostly) uses only material that we have covered so far. Alternative approaches use the Smith Exact Sequence and homology with $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$-coefficients, or the ring structure of the cohomology $H^{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right)$. These are topics we will cover in Algebraic Topology II next semester.

Let us start with some notation. Let $B_{ \pm}^{n}$ denote the upper and lower hemispheres of $S^{n}$, so that $B_{+}^{n} \cap B_{-}^{n}$ is the equatorial $S^{n-1}$. This process can be iterated, so we can see $S^{i}$ sitting inside $S^{n}$ for all $0 \leq i \leq n$. We will need the following result in our proof of Theorem 15.12, which we can't properly prove just yet.

Proposition 15.13. Let $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be an odd map. Then there exists an odd map $f^{\prime}: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ such that $f^{\prime}\left(S^{i}\right) \subseteq S^{i}$ for each $i=0, \ldots, n$ and a homotopy $F: f \simeq f^{\prime}$ with the property that $f_{t}:=F(\cdot, t)$ is an odd map for each $t \in I$.

Sketch proof. Let p: $S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ denote the projection map (see Example 18.8 in Lecture 18). Since $f$ is odd, there is an induced map $h: \mathbb{R} P^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ such that $h \circ p=p \circ f$. Using the cellular structure of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ and the Cellular Approximation Theorem (for the former, see Example 18.8 again, for the latter see Algebraic Topology II), there exists a homotopy $H: h \simeq h^{\prime}$ such that $h^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{i}\right) \subseteq \mathbb{R} P^{i}$ for each $i=0,1, \ldots, n$. Now using the homotopy lifiting property (also in Algebraic Topology II), we can lift $H$ to a homotopy $F: S^{n} \times I \rightarrow S^{n}$. This means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H(p(x), t))=p(F(x, t)), \quad \forall(x, t) \in S^{n} \times I \tag{15.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(compare this to Proposition 5.2), and such that $F(\cdot, 0)$ is our original map $f$. The map $f_{t}:=F(\cdot, t)$ is odd for each $t$ by (15.1), and $f^{\prime}:=f_{1}$ has the property that $f^{\prime}\left(S^{i}\right) \subseteq S^{i}$ for each $i=0,1, \ldots, n$.

Proposition 15.13 implies that we can prove Theorem 15.12 via the following result. In the statement, it is convenient to formally define the degree of a map $f: S^{0} \rightarrow S^{0}$ to be the the integer such that the induced map in reduced homology $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(S^{0}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}\left(S^{0}\right)$ is multiplication by this number.

Proposition 15.14. Let $n \geq 1$ and let $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ denote an odd map such that $f\left(S^{i}\right) \subseteq S^{i}$ for each $i=0,1, \ldots, n$. Then $\operatorname{deg}(f)$ has the same parity as $\operatorname{deg}\left(\left.f\right|_{S^{n-1}}\right)$.

Indeed, Theorem 15.12 immediately follows from this, since the only odd maps $S^{0} \rightarrow S^{0}$ are the identity and the antipodal map itself, and these both have odd degree. Indeed, if $S^{0}=\{p, q\}$ then $\langle p-q\rangle$ is a generator of $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(S^{0}\right)$. The identity map induces $\langle p-q\rangle \mapsto\langle p-q\rangle$, and the antipodal map induces $\langle p-q\rangle \mapsto-\langle p-q\rangle$. Hence the degree is +1 or -1 , and thus in particular is odd. (This also shows that Corollary 15.7 also formally holds in the case $n=0$.)

Proof of Proposition 15.14. Consider the following commuting hexagon (!):


We use reduced homology at the top and bottom only so the proof still works for $n=1$. Here the maps $\delta_{ \pm}$and $\delta$ come from the long exact sequence for reduced homology (Proposition 12.21), and all the other maps are induced by inclusions. Moreover ${ }^{1}$ :

1. All the groups apart from the middle one are isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$.
2. The maps $k_{ \pm}, l_{ \pm}$and $\delta_{ \pm}$are all isomorphisms.
3. Exactness holds at $H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ for all three diagonals: $\operatorname{im} i_{-}=\operatorname{ker} j_{-}$and $\operatorname{im} i_{+}=\operatorname{ker} j_{+}$and $\operatorname{im} h=\operatorname{ker} \delta$.
The notation in this proof is rather involved, so to simplify things, we will denote homology classes just by letters $c$ etc. (i.e. no angle brackets). The map $f$ induces maps

$$
H_{n}(f): \tilde{H}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right), \quad H_{n-1}\left(\left.f\right|_{S^{n-1}}\right): \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right)
$$

[^29]and also (by assumption) a map $H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$. We will denote them all by $\varphi$. Similarly we will denote by $\alpha$ all the maps on homology induced by the antipodal map. This should not cause confusion.

Fix a generator $c \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right)$. This uniquely defines generators $c_{ \pm} \in H_{n}\left(B_{\mp}^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ via the equation $\delta_{ \pm}\left(c_{ \pm}\right)=c$. Moreover if $b_{ \pm}:=k_{ \pm}\left(c_{ \pm}\right)$then $b_{ \pm}$are generators of $H_{n}\left(S^{n}, B_{ \pm}^{n}\right)$, and there exist $a_{ \pm} \in \tilde{H}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$ such that $l_{ \pm}\left(a_{ \pm}\right)=b_{ \pm}$. Now set $u_{ \pm}:=i_{\mp}\left(c_{ \pm}\right)$. Some diagram chasing tells us that $\left\{u_{+}, u_{-}\right\}$is a basis of $H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ (see Problem H.2), and thus in particular

$$
H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}
$$

Let $d:=\operatorname{deg}(f)$ and $d^{\prime}:=\operatorname{deg}\left(\left.f\right|_{S^{n-1}}\right)$. Then by definition,

$$
\varphi a_{+}=d a_{+}, \quad \varphi c=d^{\prime} c .
$$

Since $\left\{u_{+}, u_{-}\right\}$is a basis of $H_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$, there exist integers $p, q$ such that $\varphi\left(u_{+}\right)=$ $p u_{+}+q u_{-}$. To complete the proof, we will show that

$$
d=p-q, \quad d^{\prime}=p+q
$$

Thus $d^{\prime}-d=2 q$ which is even. For this note that since $\delta\left(u_{ \pm}\right)=c$ by commutativity,

$$
\varphi(c)=\varphi\left(\delta\left(u_{+}\right)\right)=\delta\left(\varphi\left(u_{+}\right)\right)=\delta\left(p u_{+}+q u_{-}\right)=(p+q) c,
$$

where we used naturality (the commuting diagram part of Proposition 12.3) for $\varphi \circ \delta=\delta \circ \varphi$. Thus $d^{\prime}=p+q$ as claimed.

Now consider $\alpha$. By naturality $\delta_{-} \circ \alpha=\alpha \circ \delta_{+}$, and Corollary 15.7 we have $\alpha(c)=(-1)^{n} c$. Thus also $\alpha\left(c_{+}\right)=(-1)^{n} c_{-}$and $\alpha\left(u_{-}\right)=(-1)^{n} u_{+}$. Next, since $f$ is odd, $\varphi \circ \alpha=\alpha \circ \varphi$. Putting this together we see that

$$
\varphi\left(u_{-}\right)=(-1)^{n} \varphi\left(\alpha\left(u_{+}\right)\right)=(-1)^{n} \alpha\left(\varphi\left(u_{+}\right)\right)=(-1)^{n} \alpha\left(p u_{+}+q u_{-}\right)=p u_{-}+q u_{+}
$$

Next, since im $h=\operatorname{ker} \delta$, the image of $h$ is generated by $u_{+}-u_{-}$. Thus $h\left(a_{+}\right)=r\left(u_{+}-\right.$ $u_{-}$) with $r= \pm 1$. In fact, we claim $r=+1$. For this we use that $j_{+}\left(u_{+}\right)=l_{+}\left(a_{+}\right)$ by definition, and hence

$$
j_{+}\left(u_{+}\right)=l_{+}\left(a_{+}\right)=j_{+}\left(h\left(a_{+}\right)\right)=r j_{+}\left(u_{+}-u_{-}\right)=r j_{+}\left(u_{+}\right),
$$

since $u_{-} \in \operatorname{im} i_{+}=\operatorname{ker} j_{+}$. Now we observe that by definition of $d$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(u_{+}-u_{-}\right) & =d h\left(a_{+}\right) \\
& =\varphi\left(h\left(a_{+}\right)\right) \\
& =\varphi\left(u_{+}-u_{-}\right) \\
& =\left(p u_{+}+q u_{-}\right)-\left(p u_{-}+q u_{+}\right) \\
& =(p-q)\left(u_{+}-u_{-}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $d=p-q$. This completes the proof.

## LECTURE 16

## Colimits and filtered colimits

Let us now make good on the promise we made in Lecture 5 and formalise the notion of a pushout.

Definition 16.1. Let $J$ be a small category ${ }^{1}$. Let $C$ be another category. A diagram of shape J in C is simply a functor $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$. We call J an index category.

This is easiest to parse with an example.
ExAmple 16.2. Let $J$ be a category with exactly three objects, $\{\varnothing, \boldsymbol{\uparrow}, \diamond\}$, and assume that there is unique morphism $\boldsymbol{\phi} \rightarrow \diamond$ and a unique morphism $\boldsymbol{\varphi} \rightarrow \diamond$, and that the only other morphisms are the identity morphisms (whose existence is forced). We write this pictorially as


A functor $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is the same thing as a triple of objects $\left(A, B_{1}, B_{2}\right)$ in obj(C) together with a choice of two morphisms $f_{1}: A \rightarrow B_{1}$ and $f_{2}: A \rightarrow B_{2}$.


This thus recovers what we called a "diagram" in C in Definition 5.7.
We now generalise the notion of a "solution" to a diagram. To help keep the various objects distinct, we will usually use the letters $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ to indicate objects of our indexing category J.

Definition 16.3. Let J be an index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be a diagram in C. A solution ${ }^{2}$ for $T$ is an object $C$ of $C$ together with a family of morphisms $c_{\alpha}: T(\alpha) \rightarrow C$ in $C$ for each object $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$ such that if $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is any morphism in J then the following commutes:


[^30]We write $\left(C,\left\{c_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ to indicate the solution.
Example 16.4. Let us stick with the setup from Example 16.2. In this case a solution is simply an object $D$ of C together with three morphisms $g=c_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}: A \rightarrow D$, $g_{1}=c_{\circlearrowleft}: B_{1} \rightarrow D$ and $g_{2}=c_{\diamond}: B_{2} \rightarrow D$ such that the following commutes:


In fact, we don't need to specify the morphism $g$, since the commutativity requirement means that $g=g_{1} \circ f_{1}=g_{2} \circ f_{2}$. So a solution is simply an object $D$ of C together with two morphisms $g_{1}: B_{1} \rightarrow D$ and $g_{2}: B_{2} \rightarrow D$ such that the following commutes:


This recovers the notion of solution as given in Definition 5.7.
Now let us appropriately generalise the pushout construction.
Definition 16.5. Let J be an index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be a diagram in C . A colimit is a solution $\left(L,\left\{l_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ that satisfies the following universal property: if $\left(C,\left\{c_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ is any other solution then there exists a unique morphism $u: L \rightarrow C$ such that the following diagram commutes for every morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in J :


Example 16.6. Going back to Example 16.2, a colimit is simply a pushout in the sense of Definition 5.7: a solution $\left(L, l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ such that for any other solution $\left(D, g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ there is a unique map $u: L \rightarrow D$ such that the following commutes:


By now you should be completely happy with proving that colimits are unique if they exist. But since I'm exceedingly generous, I will do it for you.

Lemma 16.7. Let J be an index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be a diagram in C . If a colimit exists then it is unique up to isomorphism.

Proof. If $\left(L,\left\{l_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ and $\left(L^{\prime},\left\{l_{\alpha}^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ are two limits then we get unique morphisms $u: L \rightarrow$ $L^{\prime}$ and $u^{\prime}: L^{\prime} \rightarrow L$ such that the following both commute for every morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in J :


Then the composition $u^{\prime} \circ u: L \rightarrow L$ and $u \circ u^{\prime}: L \rightarrow L$ both make the following diagrams commute:


But since $\operatorname{id}_{L}$ and $\operatorname{id}_{L^{\prime}}$ also make these two diagrams commute respectively, we see by uniqueness that $u^{\prime} \circ u=\mathrm{id}_{L}$ and $u \circ u^{\prime}=\mathrm{id}_{L^{\prime}}$. This completes the proof.

We usually write colim $T$ to indicate the colimit. This notation is somewhat imprecise (as it should really include the maps $l_{\alpha}$ ), but we do it anyway.

Here is another example:
Example 16.8. Take J to have exactly two objects and no morphisms (apart from the identity morphisms).

Let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Sets or $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Groups. This type of colimit is called a coproduct. In the category Sets, it is simply the disjoint union $T(\boldsymbol{\oplus}) \sqcup T(\Omega)$. In the category of groups it is the free product $T(\boldsymbol{\oplus}) * T(\Omega)$ (cf. Problem C.1.) In general, the coproduct (in an arbitrary category) C of two objects $A$ and $B$ is denoted by $A \sqcup B$ (if it exists).

One can also use colimits to get the category theory analogue of an equivalence relation.

Example 16.9. Let J have two objects and two morphisms:


A colimit for this J is called a coequaliser in C. On Problem Sheet $H$ you get to investigate what coequalisers are in Sets, Groups and Top.
Remark 16.10. Suppose J is an index category and $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is a functor. Suppose $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is another functor. Then $(S \circ T): \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is a diagram in D . Assume that both the colimits colim $T$ and colim ( $S \circ T$ ) exist (as objects of C and D respectively). Then we claim there is a natural morphism

$$
u: \operatorname{colim}(S \circ T) \rightarrow S(\operatorname{colim} T) .
$$

Indeed, if $l_{\alpha}: T(\alpha) \rightarrow$ colim $T$ are the maps from $T$ being a colimit, then applying $S$ we get maps $S\left(l_{\alpha}\right): S T(\alpha) \rightarrow S(\operatorname{colim} T)$. Moreover if $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is a morphism in J then the following commutes:


This shows that $\left(S(\operatorname{colim} T),\left\{S\left(l_{\alpha}\right)\right\}\right)$ form a solution to the diagram $S \circ T$. Thus by the universal property of the colimit, we get a unique morphism

$$
u: \operatorname{colim}(S \circ T) \rightarrow S(\operatorname{colim} T)
$$

as claimed
Let us now discuss a refinement of the idea of a colimit.
Definition 16.11. Let $J$ be a small category with $\operatorname{obj}(J) \neq \emptyset$. We say that $J$ is filtered if the following two properties hold:

1. If $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$ then there exists $\gamma \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$ such that $\operatorname{Hom}(\alpha, \gamma) \neq \emptyset$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(\beta, \gamma) \neq \emptyset$.

2. If $i, j: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ are any two morphisms then there exists an object $\gamma$ of J and a morphism $k: \beta \rightarrow \gamma$ such that $k \circ i=k \circ j$.


Example 16.12 . Let $(\Lambda, \preceq)$ be a directed set. This means that $\preceq$ is a binary relation on $\Lambda$ which is reflexive and transitive, which has the additional property that for all $\alpha, \beta \in \Lambda$ there exists $\gamma \in \Lambda$ such that $\alpha \preceq \gamma$ and $\beta \preceq \gamma$. From ( $\Lambda, \preceq$ ) we can form a filtered category $\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq)$ as follows:

- Take $\operatorname{obj}(J)=\Lambda$.
- Set $\operatorname{Hom}(\alpha, \beta)=\emptyset$ if $\alpha \npreceq \beta$, and if $\alpha \preceq \beta$ let $\operatorname{Hom}(\alpha, \beta)$ consist of a single element $i_{\alpha, \beta}$.
- If $\alpha \preceq \beta \preceq \gamma$ then define $i_{\beta, \gamma} \circ i_{\alpha, \beta}:=i_{\alpha, \gamma}$.

Definition 16.13. Let $C$ be a category. A filtered diagram in $C$ is a functor $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ where J is a filtered index category. A filtered colimit in C is a colimit of a filtered diagram $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$. In this case we bung an arrow underneath and write


In fact, in this course we will basically only ever need one type of filtered colimit (we will need the general case in Algebraic Topology II).

Example 16.14. A sequential colimit is a filtered colimit on the directed set $(\mathbb{N}, \leq)$. Let us spell out what this means explicitly, since this is the most important type of filtered colimit. Let C be a category, and assume we are given a sequence

$$
f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},
$$

of morphisms in C. This data is equivalent to a filtered diagram $T: \mathrm{J}(\mathbb{N}, \leq) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ : namely define $T(n):=C_{n}$ and for $n \leq m$ define

$$
T\left(i_{n, m}\right):=f_{m-1, m} \circ f_{m-2, m-1} \circ \cdots \circ f_{n, n+1}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{m} .
$$

 instead) together with a family of morphisms $l_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{colim}_{i} C_{i}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
l_{n+1} \circ f_{n}=l_{n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

This satisfies the universal property that if $\left(D,\left\{d_{n}\right\}\right)$ is object of C and a family of morphisms $d_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
d_{n+1} \circ f_{n}=d_{n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N},
$$

then there exists a unique morphism $u:{\underset{\sim}{\operatorname{colim}_{n}} C_{n} \rightarrow D \text { such that the following }}^{\prime}$ diagram commutes:


$$
\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \text {. }
$$

Remark 16.15. For the rest of this lecture I will work with a general filtered colimit. If you find the formalism confusing, I strongly urge you to rewrite everything out in the special case of a sequential colimit.

Let us now prove that filtered colimits exist in all our favourite categories. Actually this all works for arbitrary colimits (rather than filtered colimits) but the construction is rather messier. We begin with Sets.

Example 16.16. Let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Sets be a filtered diagram. Let us construct the filtered colimit. First, form the disjoint union

$$
Z:=\bigsqcup_{\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})} T(\alpha) .
$$

We now define an equivalence relation $\sim$ on $Z$ by declaring that $a \in T(\alpha) \sim b \in T(\beta)$ if and only if there exists $i: \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ and $j: \beta \rightarrow \gamma$ such that $T(i) a=T(j) b$ :

$$
a \sim b \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad T(i) a=T(j) b .
$$

It is somewhat tedious to check that $\sim$ really is an equivalence relation on $Z$, and I will leave this you. Given this though, it is easy to see that $X:=Z / \sim$ satisfies the universal property, where the maps $l_{\alpha}: T(\alpha) \rightarrow X$ are induced from the inclusions $T(\alpha) \rightarrow Z$.

Now let us check they exist in Top.
Example 16.17. Colimits always exist in Top. Suppose $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Top is a diagram. Let $F:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Sets denote the "forgetful" functor (cf. Example 1.14.) Then $F \circ T$ is a diagram in Sets. We just constructed the filtered colimit in Set. Let us call this set $X$. In fact, $X$ will also work for the filtered colimit in Top, once we give it a topology.

For this, note that the construction in the previous example provides us with functions $l_{\alpha}: F(T(\alpha)) \rightarrow X$ (here $F(T(\alpha))$ is just the underlying set of the topological space $T(\alpha)$.) Let us now endow $X$ with a topology by declaring that the functions $l_{\alpha}$ are continuous. Explicitly, this means that a set $U \subseteq X$ is open if and only if $l_{\alpha}^{-1}(U)$ is open in $T(\alpha)$ for each $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$. Then the functions $l_{\alpha}: T(\alpha) \rightarrow X$ are now well-defined morphisms in Top (i.e. continuous functions), and it is easy to see that $\left(X,\left\{l_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ verifies the universal property. Thus $X=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\text { colim } T \text {. Note that this }}$ is an example where the natural map from Remark 16.10 is an isomorphism

$$
F(\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T)=\underset{ }{\operatorname{colim}}(F \circ T)
$$

(as they are both the set $X$.)
Remark 16.18. Without additional hypotheses on the types of topological spaces we are working with, the colimit can be rather badly behaved. Indeed, sometimes the topology one gets on $\xrightarrow{\text { colim } T}$ can be "wrong". We will discuss this more in later lectures. Next semester, we will introduce homotopy colimits which are much better behaved in Top.

Now we check that filtered colimits exist in Ab.

Example 16.19. Let J be a filtered index category and $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ be a filtered diagram. This time, we consider the forgetful functor $F: A b \rightarrow$ Sets. Our strategy is the same as before. We will endow the set $X=\underline{\operatorname{colim}}(F \circ T)$ from Example 16.16 with the structure of an abelian group. Given $a \in T(\alpha)$ and $b \in T(\beta)$, choose an object $\gamma$ such that there exist morphisms $i: \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ and $j: \beta \rightarrow \gamma$. Then define

$$
[a]+[b]:=[T(i) a+T(j) b] .
$$

It is again slightly tedious to check this operation is well-defined ${ }^{3}$, and I will lazily leave this to you. Once this is done though, the functions $l_{\alpha}: T(\alpha) \rightarrow X$ are welldefined morphisms in Ab (i.e. group homomorphisms), and it is easy to see that ( $X,\left\{l_{\alpha}\right\}$ ) verifies the universal property. Thus $X=\underline{\longrightarrow}$ colim $T$, and once again we have

$$
F(\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T)=\underset{ }{\operatorname{colim}}(F \circ T) .
$$

Remark 16.20. Suppose $T: J \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a filtered diagram and $[a] \in \underset{ }{\operatorname{colim} T}$ where $a \in T(\alpha)$. Then $[a]=0 \in \underset{ }{\operatorname{colim}} T$ if and only if there exists a morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in $J$ such that $T(i) a=0 \in T(\beta)$. Here "if" is immediate from the definition, but "only if" requires a little bit of thought (which I invite you to do!)

In particular, if we restrict to sequential colimits, say $C=\underline{\operatorname{colim}}_{n} C_{n}$ where each $C_{n}$ is an abelian group, then an element $c \in C_{k}$ represents the zero element in $C$ if and only if there exists a finite $m \geq k$ such that $c$ is mapped onto the zero element in $C_{m}$.

Filtered colimits always exist in Comp, too.
Example 16.21. The same thing works Comp. Let J be a filtered index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Comp be a filtered diagram. Thus for each $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$ we get a chain complex $\left(T(\alpha)_{\bullet}, \partial^{\alpha}\right)$, and for each morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$, we get a chain map $T(i)_{\bullet}: T(\alpha) \bullet T(\beta)$.

For each fixed $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we get a functor $T_{n}: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ given by $T_{n}(\alpha)=T(\alpha)_{n}$. Since we already know filtered colimits exist in Ab, this gives us abelian groups colim $T_{n}$ for each $n$. Denote by $l_{n}^{\alpha}: T(\alpha)_{n} \rightarrow \underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T_{n}$ the map associated to this colimit. The boundary operators $\partial^{\alpha}$ induce maps


These operators square to zero, and hence we get a chain complex $\left(\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$. This is the filtered colimit of $T$.

We conclude this lecture by proving the following rather abstract result, which roughly speaking says that the homology functor commutes with taking filtered colimits. This result only works for filtered colimits (rather than arbitrary colimits.)

[^31]If $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Comp is a filtered diagram, for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ the composition $H_{n} \circ T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Ab is a filtered diagram of abelian groups. In order to make the notation a little bit less horrendous, let us abbreviate $C_{\bullet}^{\alpha}:=T(\alpha)$. for $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$. Thus $H_{n} \circ T$ is the diagram where

$$
\alpha \mapsto H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\alpha}\right), \quad \alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})
$$

and

$$
i \in \operatorname{Hom}(\alpha, \beta) \quad \mapsto \quad H_{n}(T(i)): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\alpha}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\beta}\right) .
$$

We denote by $\underset{\underline{\text { colim }}}{ }\left(H_{n} \circ T\right)$ the associated filtered colimit.
Theorem 16.22. Let J be a filtered index category and $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Comp a filtered diagram. Then for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, one has

$$
\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}}\left(H_{n} \circ T\right)=H_{n}(\underline{\text { colim}} T) .
$$

Proof. We will prove that the natural map

$$
\begin{equation*}
u: \underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}}\left(H_{n} \circ T\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T) . \tag{16.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

from Remark 16.10 is an isomorphism. Suppose $z \in \underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T$ is a cycle. Choose a representative $a \in C_{n}^{\alpha}$ for some $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$. We don't necessarily know that $a$ is a cycle in $C_{n}^{\alpha}$, but since $z$ is a cycle, $a$ must become a cycle "eventually". In other words, there exists $\beta \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$ and a morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ such that $\partial^{\beta}(T(i) a)=0$ in $C_{n-1}^{\beta}$. Thus $T(i) a$ defines an element in $\langle T(i) a\rangle \in H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\boldsymbol{\beta}}\right)$. This element represents an element $x \in \underset{ }{\operatorname{colim}}\left(H_{n} \circ T\right)$, and by construction, $u(x)=\langle z\rangle$. This shows that (16.1) is surjective.

Now let us prove that the map (16.1) is injective. Suppose an element $x$ in $\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}}\left(H_{n} \circ T\right)$ goes to zero under the map $u$. Choose a representative $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\alpha}\right)$ of $x$. Let $c \in C_{n}^{\alpha}$ represent $\langle c\rangle$. Then $c$ also represents an element $z$ of colim $T$. By assumption $z$ is a boundary $\partial y$; let us now choose a representative $b \in C_{n+1}^{\beta}$ of $y$. Now since J is filtered, we can choose an object $\gamma \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$ and morphisms $i: \alpha \rightarrow \gamma$ and $j: \beta \rightarrow \gamma$. Then $T(i) c \in C_{n}^{\gamma}$ and $T(j) b \in C_{n+1}^{\gamma}$, and $\partial^{\gamma}(T(j) b)=T(i) c$. This means that $H_{n}(T(i))\langle c\rangle=\langle T(i) c\rangle=0 \in H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\gamma}\right)$, and thus $\langle c\rangle$ represents the zero element in $\xrightarrow{\text { colim }}\left(H_{n} \circ T\right)$.

## LECTURE 17

## The Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem

We begin this lecture with a bit more abstract nonsense. We then use this to prove the famouse Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem.

Our first result shows that under favourable assumptions, the singular chain complex functor also commutes with colimits. Before proving this, let us talk a little bit about the different separation axioms a topological space can have.
Definition 17.1. Let $X$ be a topological space. We say that:

- $X$ is a $T_{1}$ space if the points are closed in $X$.
- $X$ is a weakly Hausdorff space if for every continuous map $f: K \rightarrow X$ from a compact Hausdorff space, $f(K)$ is closed in $X$.

On Problem Sheet I you will show:
Lemma 17.2. One has

$$
\{\text { Hausdorff spaces }\} \subsetneq\{\text { weakly Hausdorff spaces }\} \subsetneq\left\{T_{1} \text { spaces }\right\} .
$$

Remark 17.3. In algebraic topology, the weakly Hausdorff assumption is typically the most useful one to make. In fact, most of modern algebraic topology implicitly always works with the subcategory of Top of compactly generated spaces. A compactly generated space is (by definition) a weakly Hausdorff $k$-space (we will define $k$-spaces in Algebraic Topology II). This category is much more "convenient" than Top itself: it is large enough that only truly pathological topological spaces (that no self-respecting algebraic topologist would ever care about) fail to lie in it, and behaves nicely under various categorical operations. However most of this goes beyond the scope of the course, and so we will typically just use either the $T_{1}$ axiom or the Hausdorff axiom.

Let us consider sequential colimits of embeddings in Top. Thus suppose we are given a family

$$
i_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},
$$

of continuous maps such that each $i_{n}$ is an embedding (this means that $i_{n}$ is a homeomorphism onto its image.) Replacing $X_{n}$ with the homeomorphic space $i_{n}\left(X_{n}\right)$, we may assume that $X_{n} \subseteq X_{n+1}$ and that $i_{n}$ is the inclusion. Then the sequential colimit $X:=\underset{\sim}{\operatorname{colim}_{n}} X_{n}$ is simply the union:

$$
X=\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_{n},
$$

topologised so that a set $C \subseteq X$ is closed if and only if $C \cap X_{n}$ is closed for each $n$. However the topology on $X$ might be "wrong". Indeed, for each $n$ the colimit gives us a map $l_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X$. One would hope that these maps would also be embeddings (i.e. homeomorphisms onto their images), but in general this is not true. In particular, $X_{n}$ does not have to be closed in $X$.

If however we assume $i_{n}$ is a closed embedding (i.e. $i_{n}\left(X_{n}\right)$ is a closed subspace of $X_{n+1}$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) then the map $l_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X$ is itself a closed inclusion ${ }^{1}$, and hence also an embedding. In particular, $X_{n}$ is closed in $X$. If each $X_{n}$ is $T_{1}$ then so is $X$ by definition of the colimit topology.

We now prove the following key result.
Proposition 17.4. Suppose we are given a family $i_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n+1}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ of closed inclusions. Assume in addition that for each $n$ the space $X_{n}$ is $T_{1}$. Then

$$
\underset{n}{\operatorname{colim}} C \bullet\left(X_{n}\right)=C \bullet\left(\underset{n}{\operatorname{colim}} X_{n}\right) .
$$

Proof. The main step in the proof is the following claim.
Lemma 17.5. Let $f: K \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map from a compact space $K$. Then $f(K)$ is contained in one of the $X_{n}$.

Proof. Assume for contradiction the claim is false. Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we may select a point $x_{n} \in K$ such that $f\left(x_{n}\right) \notin X_{n}$. Let $S_{m}:=\left\{f\left(x_{n}\right) \mid n \geq m\right\}$. Then $S_{m+1} \subset S_{m}$ for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\bigcap_{m} S_{m}=\emptyset$. Moreover $S_{m}$ meets $X_{n}$ in a finite set for each $n$, and thus since each $X_{n}$ is $T_{1}$, it follows that $S_{m} \cap X_{n}$ is a closed set in $X_{n}$ for each $n$. Thus by definition of the colimit topology on $X, S_{m}$ is closed in $X$ for each $m$. This means that if we set $Y_{m}:=X \backslash S_{m}$ then $Y_{m}$ is open in $X$ for each $m$ and $\bigcup_{m} Y_{m}=X$. In particular, the $Y_{m}$ 's form a cover of $f(K)$. But no finite subcover of them can cover $f(K)$, since any finite subcover is contained in the largest, and by construction $f(K)$ is not a subset of any of the $Y_{m}$. Thus $f(K)$ is not compact in $X$, which contradicts $K$ being compact and $f$ continuous.

Going back to the proof of Proposition 17.4, it suffices now to observe that any singular simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow X$ is contained in some $X_{n}$ by Lemma 17.5. The result now follows immediately from the definition of the colimit in Comp.

The following corollary gives a topological version of Theorem 16.22. In the statement and proof, let us temporarily write $H_{k}^{\text {sing }}$ for the singular homology functor, which is the composition $H_{k}^{\text {sing }}=H_{k} \circ C_{\bullet}$ where $C_{\bullet}$ is the singular chain complex functor and $H_{k}$ : Comp $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is the usual homology functor.

Corollary 17.6. Suppose we are given a family $i_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n+1}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ of closed inclusions. Assume in addition that for each $n$ the space $X_{n}$ is $T_{1}$. Then for each $k \geq 0$, the singular homology groups satisfy

$$
H_{k}^{\text {sing }}\left(\underset{n}{(\operatorname{colim}} X_{n}\right)=\underset{n}{\text { colim }} H_{k}^{\text {sing }}\left(X_{n}\right) .
$$

[^32]Proof. By Proposition 17.4, $C_{\bullet}\left({\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}}}_{n} X_{n}\right)={\underset{\bullet}{\text { colim }}}_{n} C_{\bullet}\left(X_{n}\right)$ (as chain complexes).
 by definition the sequential colimit $\underline{\mathrm{colim}}_{n} H_{k}^{\text {sing }}\left(X_{n}\right)$.

Remark 17.7. The fundamental group of $X$ is defined by looking at continuous maps $u: S^{1} \rightarrow X$. Since $S^{1}$ is also a compact Hausdorff space, exactly the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 17.4 shows that under these hypotheses, one also has

$$
\pi_{1}(X, p)=\underset{n}{\operatorname{colim}} \pi_{1}\left(X_{n}, p\right), \quad \forall p \in X_{1}
$$

(note that the right-hand side is a colimit in the category Groups.)
Remark 17.8. In fact, in this lecture we will use an easier version of Proposition 17.4 and Corollary 17.6. Namely, both statements are still true if we assume instead that each $X_{n} \subset X$ is an open set. In fact, this argument is much easier (and does not require any separation axioms). Indeed, if each $X_{n}$ is open and $f: K \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map from any compact space, then $\left\{X_{n}\right\}$ is an open cover of the compact set $f(K)$, and hence there is a finite subcover. Thus $f(K)$ is contained in a single $X_{n}$, and so the analogue of Lemma 17.5 holds.

Next lecture when we discuss cell complexes we will need the harder version we proved above.

We now move towards proving the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem. The first step is the following two results, both of which concern the reduced homology groups of a sphere with a set removed.

Proposition 17.9. Let $X \subset S^{n}$ be a subset homeomorphic to $I^{m}:=[0,1]^{m}$ for $0 \leq m \leq n$. Then

$$
\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right)=0, \quad \forall k \geq 0 .
$$

Proof. We argue by induction on $m$. If $m=0$ then $X$ is a point and $S^{n} \backslash X \cong \mathbb{R}^{n}$, which has zero reduced homology by Corollary 12.20. Now assume the result is true for $m-1$. Let $f: X \rightarrow I^{m}$ be our given homeomorphism. Split the $m$-cube $I^{m}$ into its upper and lower halves:

$$
I^{+}=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \left\lvert\, x_{1} \geq \frac{1}{2}\right.\right\}, \quad I^{-}:=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \left\lvert\, x_{1} \leq \frac{1}{2}\right.\right\} .
$$

Then $I^{+} \cap I^{-}$is homeomorphic to $I^{m-1}$. Let $X^{ \pm}:=f^{-1}\left(I^{ \pm}\right)$and let $Y:=X^{+} \cap X^{-}$ so that $Y \cong I^{m-1}$. The set $S^{n} \backslash Y$ may be written as the union of two sets ( $S^{n} \backslash$ $\left.X^{+}\right) \cup\left(S^{n} \backslash X^{-}\right)$which satisfy the requirements of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence. Fix $k \geq 0$. We get an exact sequence

$$
\ldots \tilde{H}_{k+1}\left(S^{n} \backslash Y\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right) \rightarrow\left(\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X^{+}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X^{-}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash Y\right) \rightarrow \ldots\right.
$$

By the inductive hypotheses the end terms are both zero. Thus we have an isomorphism

$$
\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right) \xrightarrow{\left(H_{k}\left(\imath^{+}\right), H_{k}\left(\imath^{-}\right)\right)}\left(\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X^{+}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X^{-}\right)\right.
$$

Suppose now we have a non-zero homology class $\langle c\rangle \in \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right)$. Then at least one of $H_{k}\left(\imath^{+}\right)\langle c\rangle$ and $H_{k}\left(\imath^{-}\right)\langle c\rangle$ are non-zero, where $\imath^{ \pm}: S^{n} \backslash X \hookrightarrow S^{n} \backslash X^{ \pm}$are inclusions. Assume without loss of generality that $H_{k}\left(\imath^{+}\right)\langle c\rangle \neq 0$. Now we repeat the process, splitting $X^{+}$into two pieces whose intersection is homeomorphic to $I^{m-1}$. In this manner a sequence of closed subsets of $S^{n}$ may be constructed:

$$
X=X_{1} \supseteq X_{2} \supseteq X_{3} \supseteq \cdots
$$

having that the property that the inclusion $S^{n} \backslash X \hookrightarrow S^{n} \backslash X_{j}$ induces a homomorphism in homology that takes our non-zero homology class to a non-zero element $\left\langle c_{j}\right\rangle \in \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X_{j}\right)$. Set $Z:=\bigcap_{j} X_{j}$. Since $S^{n} \backslash X_{j} \subset S^{n} \backslash Z$ is open for each $j$, the hypotheses of Remark 17.8 are satisfied ${ }^{2}$, and thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash Z\right)=\underset{j}{\operatorname{colim}} \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X_{j}\right) . \tag{17.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover since the map $\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X_{j}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X_{j+1}\right)$ sends $\left\langle c_{j}\right\rangle$ to $\left\langle c_{j+1}\right\rangle$, by definition of the filtered colimit we end up with a non-zero element in $\left\langle c_{\infty}\right\rangle \in \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash\right.$ Z) (cf. Remark 16.20.)

Now we play the joker: being an infinite intersection of shrinking $m$-cubes, $Z$ is homeomorphic to $I^{m-1}$ ! Thus by the inductive hypothesis, $\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash Z\right)=0$. This contradicts the existence of a non-zero class $\langle c\rangle \in \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right)$, and thus we see that $\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash X\right)=0$ as required. Since $k \geq 0$ was arbitrary, we are done.

We now use this to prove the following corollary.
Corollary 17.10. Let $S \subset S^{n}$ be a subset which is homeomorphic to $S^{m}$ for some $0 \leq m \leq n-1$. Then

$$
\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash S\right)= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}, & k=n-m-1 \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Once again we induct on $m$. For $m=0, S$ is two points, and $S^{n} \backslash S \simeq S^{n-1}$. Since $S^{n-1}$ has the desired homology, the case $m=0$ follows. Now assume the result is true for $m-1$. Write $S=B^{+} \cup B^{-}$where $B^{ \pm}$are homeomorphic to closed hemispheres in $S^{m}$ and $R:=B^{+} \cap B^{-}$is homeomorphic to $S^{m-1}$. Now the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for reduced homology (Corollary 14.10) applied to $S^{n} \backslash R=$ $\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{+}\right) \cup\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{-}\right)$has the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\tilde{H}_{k+1}\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{+}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{k+1}\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{-}\right)\right) & \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k+1}\left(S^{n} \backslash R\right) \\
& \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash S\right) \rightarrow\left(\tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{+}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash B^{-}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The end terms are zero by Proposition 17.9. Thus we obtain an isomorphism $\tilde{H}_{k+1}\left(S^{n} \backslash R\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash S\right)$, which allows us to complete the inductive step.

[^33]We can now prove the following famous result.
Theorem 17.11 (The Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem). Suppose $f: S^{n-1} \rightarrow$ $S^{n}$ is an embedding. Then $S^{n} \backslash f\left(S^{n-1}\right)$ has two components, and $f\left(S^{n-1}\right)$ is boundary of each component.

Proof. Let $S=f\left(S^{n-1}\right)$. Then by Corollary 17.10, $H_{0}\left(S^{n} \backslash S\right)=\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ and $H_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash\right.$ $S)=0$ for $k>0$. Thus by Corollary 12.12, $S^{n} \backslash S$ has two path components. Since $S$ is closed, $S^{n} \backslash S$ is open, and hence in particular locally pathwise connected. Thus the path components agree with the connected components.

Let $X$ and $Y$ be the two components of $S^{n} \backslash S$. Since $X \cup S$ is closed, the boundary of $\partial X:=\bar{X} \backslash X^{\circ}$ is contained in $S$. We claim that also $S \subseteq \partial X$, whence $S=\partial X$. Let $p \in S$ and let $U$ be a neighbourhood of $p$ in $S^{n}$. Since $S$ is an embedded copy of $S^{n-1}$, there is a subset $C$ of $U \cap S$ with $p \in C$ and $S \backslash C$ homeomorphic to $B^{n-1}$. See Figure 17.1.


Figure 17.1: Proving the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem.
Now by Proposition 17.9 and the dimension axiom, we see that $S^{n} \backslash(S \backslash C)$ has one path component. Suppose $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. Then there is a path $u$ from $x$ to $y$ with image in $S^{n} \backslash(S \backslash C)$. Since $X$ and $Y$ are distinct path components of $S^{n} \backslash S$, the path $u$ must intersect $C$, and hence $C$ contains points belonging to both $\bar{X}$ and $\bar{Y}$. Thus $p \in \partial X$. Since $p$ was an arbitrary point of $S$, we have $S \subseteq \partial X$ and so also $S=\partial X$. Similarly $S=\partial Y$. The proof is complete.

On Problem Sheet I, you get to prove the following equally famous result, also due to Brouwer.

Theorem 17.12 (Invariance of Domain Theorem). Suppose $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ are two subsets of $S^{n}$ and $f: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism. If $U$ is open then so is $U^{\prime}$.

The theorem is of course obvious if "open" is replaced by "closed". Likewise the theorem is also clear if $f=\left.g\right|_{U}$, where $g: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ is a homeomorphism of the entire sphere $S^{n}$ and $U^{\prime}=g(U)$. However the theorem is not true for arbitrary spaces. For
example, take $U=(1 / 2,1]$ and $U^{\prime}=(0,1 / 2]$. Then $f: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$ given by $x-\frac{1}{2}$ is a homeomorphism and $U$ is open in $I$. But $U^{\prime}$ is not. The proof of Theorem 17.12 is a simple application of the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem 17.11, and the meaning of the name "invariance of domain" is explained by the following corollary (also on Problem Sheet I.)

Corollary 17.13. If $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ contains a subspace homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ then $m \leq n$.

## LECTURE 18

## Attaching spaces and cell complexes

In this lecture we introduce a nice class of topological spaces called cell complexes ${ }^{1}$. We begin by investigating pushouts in Top.

Definition 18.1. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces, and let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a closed subspace. Let $f: X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y$ be continuous. We define the adjunction space $X \cup_{f} Y$ to be obtained by taking the disjoint union $X \sqcup Y$ and then identifying $x$ with $f(x)$ for all $x \in X^{\prime}$. Slightly more formally, $X \cup_{f} Y$ is the space $(X \sqcup Y) / \sim$, where $\sim$ is the smallest equivalence relation (cf. the definition from the solution to Problem H.5) on $X \sqcup Y$ such that $x \sim f(x)$ for $x \in X^{\prime}$.

The canonical inclusions $X \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ and $Y \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ induce maps $g: X \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ and $j: Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$. The next piece of point-set topology is on Problem Sheet I.

Lemma 18.2. The diagram

is a pushout in Top. Moreover

1. The map $j$ is a closed embedding,
2. The restriction of $g$ to $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ is an open embedding.
3. If $X$ and $Y$ are $T_{1}$ spaces then so is $X \cup_{f} Y$.
4. The quotient map $X \sqcup Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed if and only if $f$ is closed.
5. If $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff and $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is compact then $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff.
6. If $X$ is compact and $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff then $X \mapsto g(X)$ is a quotient map.

Informally, one should think of $X \cup_{f} Y$ as being obtained from $Y$ by attaching $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ to it. We call $f$ the attaching map and $g$ the characteristic map of the adjunction space.

Example 18.3. Suppose $Y=\{*\}$ is a space with one point. Then there is only one map $f: X^{\prime} \rightarrow\{*\}\left(\right.$ for $\left.X^{\prime} \neq \emptyset\right)$, and one has $X \cup_{f}\{*\} \cong X / X^{\prime}$.

The following lemma is a partial converse to Lemma 18.2.

[^34]Lemma 18.4. Suppose we are given a commutative diagram of continuous maps:


Assume that ${ }^{2}$

1. $i$ and $j$ are closed embeddings,
2. $g$ induces a bijection $X \backslash X^{\prime} \rightarrow Z \backslash j(Y)$,
3. $g(X)$ is closed,
4. $X \rightarrow g(X)$ is a quotient map.

Then $(Z, j, g)$ is a pushout of $X \stackrel{i}{\leftarrow} X^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} Y$.
Proof. We verify the universal property. Suppose we are given a topological space $W$ and continuous maps $h: X \rightarrow W$ and $k: Y \rightarrow W$ such that $h \circ i=k \circ f$. We need to build a unique continuous map $u: Z \rightarrow W$ such that the following commutes:


It is clear that $Z$ is a set-theoretic pushout, so we get a unique map $u: Z \rightarrow W$ of sets that makes the diagram commute. It remains to show that $u$ is continuous. Since $j$ is a closed embedding, $\left.u\right|_{j(Y)}$ is continuous. Since $g$ is a quotient map, $\left.u\right|_{g(X)}$ is continuous. Since $g(X)$ and $j(Y)$ are closed sets that cover $Z, u$ is continuous.

Definition 18.5. We denote $B^{n} \backslash S^{n-1}$ by $E^{n}$, so that $E^{n}$ is the open unit ball ${ }^{3}$. We call $E^{n}$ the standard $n$-cell. If $X$ is a topological space, a set $E \subseteq X$ which is homeomorphic to $E^{n}$ is called an $n$-cell in $\mathbf{X}$. If $f: S^{n-1} \rightarrow Y$ is continuous, the space $B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ is said to be obtained from $Y$ by attaching an $n$-cell.

Proposition 18.6. Let $Z$ be a Hausdorff space and $Y$ a closed subset. Suppose there exists a continuous map $g: B^{n} \rightarrow Z$ which induces a homeomorphism $E^{n} \rightarrow Z \backslash Y$. Then $Z$ is obtained from $Y$ by attaching an $n$-cell.

[^35]Proof. It suffices to show that $g\left(S^{n-1}\right) \subseteq Y$. Then if we set $f:=\left.g\right|_{S^{n-1}}$ the hypotheses of Lemma 18.4 are satisfied. Then $Z$ is a pushout, and hence $Z \cong B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ by uniqueness of the pushout. So suppose there exists $x \in S^{n-1}$ with $g(x) \in Z \backslash Y$. Since $\left.g\right|_{E^{n}}: E^{n} \rightarrow Z \backslash Y$ is bijective, there exists a unique $y \in E^{n}$ with $g(x)=g(y)$. Let $U \subset B^{n}$ and $V \subset E^{n}$ be disjoint open neighbourhoods with $x \in U$ and $y \in V$. Then $g(V) \subset Z \backslash Y$ is open in $Z$, since $\left.g\right|_{E^{n}}: E^{n} \rightarrow Z \backslash Y$ is a homeomorphism. But now using continuity of $g$, there exists an open neighbourhood $U^{\prime} \subset U$ of $x$ such that $g\left(U^{\prime}\right) \subset g(V)$. This contradicts $\left.g\right|_{E^{n}}$ being injective.

You will no doubt be surprised just how many of the "standard" spaces can be obtained by attaching cells. Let's see some examples, starting with a dumb one.

Example 18.7. For all $n \geq 1, S^{n}$ is obtained by attaching an $n$-cell to a point. Indeed, this is simply Example 18.3 together with the observation that $B^{n} / S^{n-1} \cong$ $S^{n}$, a fact that we have already used several times.

Example 18.8. Recall

$$
\mathbb{R} P^{n}=\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \backslash\{0\} / \sim,
$$

where $x \sim y$ if $x=t y$ for some $t \neq 0$. Restricting to vectors of length 1 , we also see that

$$
\mathbb{R} P^{n}=S^{n} /(x \sim-x),
$$

that is, the sphere with antipodal points identified. But this is the same thing as taking the upper hemisphere and identifying antipodal points on the equator. Since the equator is just the sphere of dimension one less, we see that $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ is obtained from $\mathbb{R} P^{n-1}$ by attaching an $n$-cell. Explicitly, if $p: S^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n-1}$ is the quotient map then

$$
\mathbb{R} P^{n}=B^{n} \cup_{p} \mathbb{R} P^{n-1}
$$

This implies that we can write $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ as a disjoint union

$$
\mathbb{R} P^{n}=E_{0} \cup E_{1} \cup \cdots \cup E_{n},
$$

where each $E_{i}$ denotes an $i$-cell.
Example 18.9. We can play a similar game with complex projective space $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$. This is the space of lines in $\mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ that go through the origin. Alternatively, $\mathbb{C} P^{n}=$ $S^{2 n+1} / \sim$, where two points $\left(z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n+1}\right) \sim\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n+1}\right)$ in $S^{2 n+1} \subset \mathbb{C}^{n+1}$ are equivalent if and only if there exists $\lambda \in S^{1}$ such that $w_{i}=\lambda z_{i}$ for each $i=1, \ldots, n+1$. It follows that $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$ is obtained from $\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}$ by attaching a $2 n$-cell, and hence we can write $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$ as a disjoint union

$$
\mathbb{C} P^{n}=E_{0} \cup E_{2} \cup \cdots \cup E_{2 n},
$$

where each $E_{2 i}$ denotes a $2 i$-cell.
Our next example requires a definition first.

Definition 18.10. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces, and let $p \in X$ and $q \in Y$. Define the wedge of the pointed spaces $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$ to be

$$
X \vee Y:=(X \times\{q\}) \cup(\{p\} \times Y) \subseteq X \times Y
$$

This is again a pointed space, where the basepoint is $(p, q)$. This is actually the coproduct (cf. Example 16.8) in the category Top ${ }_{*}$.

On Problem Sheet I you get to prove the following result.
Proposition 18.11. For any $m, n \geq 0$, the space $S^{m} \times S^{n}$ can be obtained from $S^{m} \vee S^{n}$ by attaching a $(m+n)$-cell.

Note that one cannot use Corollary 17.6 to compute the homology groups of $X \cup_{f} Y$, since a pushout is not a filtered colimit. Nevertheless, when we are attaching cells (i.e. $X$ is a ball), we can use the Mayer-Vietoris sequence to compute the homology. Before stating the result, let us introduce a strengthening of the notion of a retract from Lecture 1 .

Definition 18.12. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a subspace. Let $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$ be the inclusion. We say that $X^{\prime}$ is a deformation retract of $X$ if there exists a retract $r: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ (as defined in Definition 1.2) such that $r \circ \imath=\operatorname{id}_{X^{\prime}}$ and $\imath \circ r \simeq \mathrm{id}_{X}$. Equivalently, this means there exists a continuous function $H: X \times I \rightarrow X$ such that $H(x, 0)=x$ for all $x \in X, H(x, 1) \in X^{\prime}$ for all $x \in X$, and $H\left(x^{\prime}, 1\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime}$ (in this formulation, the retract $r$ is given by $H(\cdot, 1)$.)

If $X^{\prime}$ is a deformation retract of $X$ then the retract $r$ is a homotopy equivalence, and hence $X^{\prime}$ and $X$ have the same homotopy type. Next lecture we will introduce an even stronger version ${ }^{4}$ called (rather unimaginatively) a strong deformation retract.

Proposition 18.13. Let $Y$ be a Hausdorff topological space. Let $n \geq 1$, and suppose $f: S^{n-1} \rightarrow Y$ is continuous. Then if $j: Y \rightarrow B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ denotes the inclusion, there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H_{k}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{k}(f)} H_{k}(Y) \xrightarrow{H_{k}(j)} H_{k}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \rightarrow H_{k-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

which ends with

$$
\ldots H_{0}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus H_{0}(Y) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. Write $B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ as $U \cup V$, where $U$ is the ball of radius $1 / 2$ inside $B^{n}$ and $V$ is $\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \backslash 0 \in B^{n}$. Then $U \cap V$ is homotopy equivalent to $S^{n-1}$ and $U$ is contractible. We claim that $V$ has $Y$ as a deformation retract. For this, let $g: B^{n} \rightarrow B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ denote the characteristic map of the adjunction space, and define $H: V \times I \rightarrow V$ by

$$
H(x, t):= \begin{cases}x, & \text { if } x \in Y,  \tag{18.1}\\ g((1-t) z+t z /|z|), & \text { if } x=g(z) \in g\left(E^{n} \backslash 0\right) .\end{cases}
$$

[^36]$H$ is well-defined and continuous ${ }^{5}$. Denote by $h: U \cap V \hookrightarrow V$ the inclusion. The Mayer-Vietoris sequence then gives us a long exact sequence
$$
\cdots \rightarrow H_{k}(U \cap V) \xrightarrow{H_{k}(h)} H_{k}(U) \oplus H_{k}(V) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \rightarrow H_{k-1}(U \cap V) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

For $k>0$ we have $H_{k}(U)=0$, and for $k=0$ we have $H_{k}(U)=\mathbb{Z}$ as $U$ is path connected. After replacing $U \cap V$ with $S^{n-1}$ and $V$ with $Y$, we are almost done. It remains to see that for $k>0$ we can identify $H_{k}(h): H_{k}(U \cap V) \rightarrow H_{k}(V)$ with $H_{k}(f): H_{k}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}(Y)$. For this we consider the commutative diagram:


The unlabelled vertical maps all induce isomorphisms on homology, since the respective subspaces are deformation retracts. The top horizontal map, which is the restriction of $g$, also induces an isomorphism, since $\left.g\right|_{U \backslash\{0\}}$ is a homeomorphism. Thus for any $k \geq 0$ we get a commutative diagram in homology where the vertical maps are isomorphisms:


Thus the map $H_{k}(h)$ can be identified with the map $H_{k}(f)$. This completes the proof.

If $n \geq 2$ we can say a little more:
Corollary 18.14. Let $Y$ be a Hausdorff topological space. Let $n \geq 2$, and suppose $f: S^{n-1} \rightarrow Y$ is continuous. Then if $k \neq n-1, n$, one has

$$
H_{k}(Y) \cong H_{k}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right),
$$

and there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow H_{n}(Y) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(j)} H_{n}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(S^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n-1}(f)} H_{n-1}(Y) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right)$.
If $n \geq 3$ then the last map $H_{n-1}(Y) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right)$ is a surjection.
Proof. This is immediate from Proposition 18.13 and our computation of the homology of $S^{n-1}$ in Theorem 14.11.

[^37]We can also attach several cells at the same time.
Definition 18.15. Let $Y$ be topological space. We say that a topological space $Z$ is obtained from $Y$ by attaching $n$-cells if there exists a pushout


Here the index $\lambda \in \Lambda$ just enumerates different copies of the same space. The map $j: Y \rightarrow Z$ is again a closed embedding, and $g$ induces a homeomorphism $\bigsqcup_{\lambda} E_{\lambda}^{n} \rightarrow$ $Z \backslash Y$. We set $f_{\lambda}:=\left.f\right|_{S_{\lambda}^{n-1}}$ and similarly $g_{\lambda}:=\left.g\right|_{B_{\lambda}^{n}}$. We call $g_{\lambda}$ the characteristic map of the $n$-cell $g\left(E_{\lambda}^{n}\right)$ and we call $f_{\lambda}$ its attaching map. Note that the definition still makes sense if our indexing set $\Lambda$ is empty; then of course $Y=Z$.

We can now define the titular cell complexes.
Definition 18.16. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be topological spaces such that $X^{\prime}$ is closed in $X$. A cellular decomposition of the pair ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) consists of a sequence of subspaces:

$$
X^{\prime}=X^{-1} \subseteq X^{0} \subseteq X^{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X
$$

such that:

1. $X$ is the colimit of the $\left(X^{n}\right)$ in Top. In other words, $X$ carries the colimit topology: a set $C \subseteq X$ is closed if and only if $C \cap X^{n}$ is closed for each $n \geq-1$.
2. For each $n \geq 0, X^{n}$ is obtained from $X^{n-1}$ by attaching $n$-cells ${ }^{6}$.

We call the pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ a relative cell complex. If $X^{\prime}=\emptyset$ then $X$ is called a cell complex and we just write $X$ instead of $(X, \emptyset)$. The space $X^{n}$ is called the $n$-skeleton of ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ), and we call the decomposition ( $X^{n}$ ) for $n \geq-1$ the skeleton filtration of ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ). We say ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) is finite (resp. countable) if $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ consists of a finite (resp. countable) number of cells. If $X=X^{n}$ for some $n$ then the mininal such $n$ is called the dimension of $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Note that if $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is a relative cell complex then so is ( $X, X^{n}$ ) and ( $X^{n}, X^{\prime}$ ) for any $n \geq-1$.

A subcomplex of a cell complex $X$ is a subspace $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ with the property that for any cell $E$ of $X$, if $X^{\prime} \cap E \neq \emptyset$ then $\bar{E} \subseteq X^{\prime}$. In this case ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) is a relative cell complex, and $X^{\prime}$ itself is a cell complex whose cellular decomposition is inherited from $X$.

Proposition 18.17. Let $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ be a relative cell complex.

1. The inclusion $X^{n} \subset X^{n+1}$ is a closed embedding for all $n \geq-1$.
2. If $X^{\prime}$ is a $T_{1}$ space then so is $X$, and a compact subset of $X$ only meets finitely many cells of $X$. Thus if $X^{\prime}$ is $T_{1}$ then

$$
H_{k}(X)=\underset{n}{\operatorname{colim}_{\longrightarrow}} H_{k}\left(X^{n}\right), \quad \forall k \geq 0 .
$$

[^38]3. If $X^{\prime}$ is Hausdorff ${ }^{7}$ then so is $X$.
4. If $X^{\prime}$ is Hausdorff then $X$ also carries the colimit topology with respect to the family which consists of $X^{\prime}$ and the closures of all the cells.

In particular, taking $X^{\prime}=\emptyset$ we see that these properties always hold for a cell complex $X$.

Proof. The first three points follow from Lemma 18.2, the proof of Lemma 17.5 and Corollary 17.6. Let us prove that (4). Suppose $C \subseteq X$ has the property that $C \cap X^{\prime}$ is closed and $C \cap \bar{E}$ is closed for each cell $E$. We prove inductively that $C \cap X^{n}$ is closed for each $n$. This is true for $n=-1$ by assumption. The space $X^{n}$ is a quotient of

$$
Y^{n}:=X^{n-1} \sqcup\left(\bigsqcup_{\Lambda_{n}} B_{\lambda}^{n}\right)
$$

where $\Lambda_{n}$ is the (possibly empty, possibly uncountable) set indexing the $n$-cells of $X$. Each characteristic map $g_{\lambda}: B_{\lambda}^{n} \rightarrow \bar{E}_{\lambda}$ is a quotient map since $X$ is Hausdorff (cf. part (6) of Lemma 18.2.) By assumption $X^{n} \cap C$ has a closed preimage in $Y^{n}$. Then by part (4) of Lemma 18.2 , we see that $X^{n} \cap C$ is closed in $X^{n}$.

We conclude this lecture by explaining why cell complexes are so important. Let $X$ be a topological space and $p \in X$. In Algebraic Topology II, we will define the higher homotopy groups $\pi_{n}(X, p)$ for all $n \geq 0$ (we already did $n=0$ in Lecture 3 and the fundamental group $n=1$ in Lecture 4.) For $n \geq 2, \pi_{n}$ is a functor $\mathrm{hTop}_{*} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$.

Definition 18.18. A continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called a weak homotopy equivalence if the induced map $\pi_{n}(f): \pi_{n}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{n}(Y, f(p))$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$ and all $p \in X$.

For now this definition won't mean much to you (since we haven't defined $\pi_{n}$ yet!) In general a weak homotopy equivalence is strictly weaker than an actual homotopy equivalence ${ }^{8}$. However a weak homotopy equivalence is still strong enough for all homology groups to coincide. Indeed, one of the axioms of a homology theory is that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence then $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$ is an isomorphism for each $n \geq 0$; more on this in Lecture 22. We will discuss the following theorem at the end of Algebraic Topology II (Theorem 46.15).

Theorem 18.19. Let $Y$ be any (!) topological space. Then there is a cell complex $X$ and a weak homotopy equivalence $f: X \rightarrow Y$.

Theorem 18.19 implies that as far as homology is concerned, all spaces are cell complexes. If this isn't sufficient motivation to study cell complexes, I don't know what is!

[^39]
## LECTURE 19

## The Relative Homeomorphism Theorem

In this lecture we first complete the proof of a claim from Lecture 12: that if $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is a sufficiently "nice" pair then

$$
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

We will then prove that if $X$ is a cell complex and $X^{\prime}$ is a subcomplex then the pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is always nice in this sense. Let us begin by specifying exactly what we mean by "nice".

Definition 19.1. Let $X$ be a topological space and $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a subspace. Denote by $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$ the inclusion. We say that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $X$ if there exists a continuous map $r: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $r \circ \imath=\mathrm{id}_{X^{\prime}}$ and $\imath \circ r \simeq \mathrm{id}_{X}$ rel $X^{\prime}$. Thus a strong deformation retract is a deformation retract where the homotopy from $\imath \circ r$ to $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ can be chosen to be a homotopy which is relative to $X^{\prime}$. Equivalently, this means there exists a continuous function $H: X \times I \rightarrow X$ such that $H(x, 0)=x$ for all $x \in X, H(x, 1) \in X^{\prime}$ for all $x \in X$, and $H\left(x^{\prime}, t\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime}$ and $t \in I$.

This really is a stronger condition, as you will see on Problem Sheet J.
Theorem 19.2. Let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ be a closed subspace with the property that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$. Let $\rho: X \rightarrow X / X^{\prime}$ denote the quotient map, and denote by $*$ the point in $X / X^{\prime}$ corresponding to $X^{\prime} / X^{\prime}$. Then for all $n \geq 0$, the map

$$
H_{n}(\rho): H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}, *\right)
$$

is an isomorphism.
Here is an example where the theorem is applicable.
Example 19.3. Let $Y$ be a Hausdorff space and $f: S^{n-1} \rightarrow Y$ a continuous map. Let $j: Y \rightarrow B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ denote the map induced from the inclusion $Y \hookrightarrow B^{n} \sqcup Y$, so that $j$ is a closed embedding (Lemma 18.2). Then $Y \cong j(Y) \subset B^{n} \cup_{f} Y$ satisfies the requirements of Theorem 19.2. Indeed, from the proof of Proposition 18.13, if $V:=\left(B^{n} \cup_{f} Y\right) \backslash 0 \in B^{n}$, then $V$ is an open neighbourhood of $Y$ and (18.1) shows that $Y$ is a strong deformation retract of $V$.

Proof of Theorem 19.2. Let $U$ be as specified in the theorem, and denote by $\jmath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow$ $U$ the inclusion. Then we have a commutative diagram, where the horizontal maps come from the long exact sequence for pairs:


Since $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$, the left-hand $H_{n}(\jmath)$ and the righthand $H_{n-1}(\jmath)$ are isomorphisms. Since $H_{n}(\mathrm{id})$ is certainly an isomorphism, the Five Lemma (Proposition 11.3) tells us that the middle $H_{n}(\jmath)$ is also an isomorphism. Next, since $\{*\}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U / X^{\prime}$ in $X / X^{\prime}$ (see Problem J.2), the same argument shows that the induced map $\bar{\jmath}: * \hookrightarrow U / X^{\prime}$ induces an isomorphism

$$
H_{n}(\bar{\jmath}): H_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}, *\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}, U / X^{\prime}\right)
$$

for all $n \geq 0$. Now consider the following diagram:


The right-hand side $H_{n}(\rho)$ is an isomorphism since $\rho$ is a homeomorphism away from $X^{\prime}$. The two maps labelled "excision" are isomorphisms, and we just proved the two diagonal maps on the left-hand side are isomorphisms. Thus the left-hand $H_{n}(\rho)$ is also an isomorphism, which is what we wanted to prove.

Using Corollary 12.22, we immediately obtain the claim (12.1) made in Lecture 12:

Corollary 19.4. Let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ be a closed subspace with the property that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$. Then

$$
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

Here is another application. An arbitrary wedge sum is defined again as a coproduct ${ }^{1}$.

[^40]Corollary 19.5. Suppose $\left(X_{\lambda}, x_{\lambda}\right), \lambda \in \Lambda$ is a collection of pointed spaces. Assume that each $x_{\lambda}$ is closed in $X_{\lambda}$ and has a neighbourhood $U_{\lambda} \subseteq X_{\lambda}$ for which $x_{\lambda}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U_{\lambda}$. Consider the wedge sum $\bigvee_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}$ along the points $x_{\lambda}$ (cf. Definition 18.10). Then the inclusions $X_{\lambda} \hookrightarrow \bigvee_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}$ induce an isomorphism

$$
\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(\bigvee_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}\right)
$$

Proof. By assumption $\left(\bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}, \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left\{x_{\lambda}\right\}\right)$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 19.2. The claim them following from the definition of the wedge product and Corollary 12.22 .

Definition 19.6. Suppose $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is a map of pairs. We say that $f$ is a relative homeomorphism if $f$ restricts to define a homeomorphism $\left.f\right|_{X \backslash X^{\prime}}: X \backslash$ $X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y \backslash Y^{\prime}$.

With this terminology, the quotient map $\rho: X \rightarrow X / X^{\prime}$ from Theorem 19.2 can also be thought of as a relative homeomorphism $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(X / X^{\prime}, *\right)$. We now prove a variant of Theorem 19.2.

Theorem 19.7 (The Relative Homeomorphism Theorem). Let $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ be a relative homeomorphism. Assume that $X$ is compact and that $Y$ is compact Hausdorff, and that $X^{\prime}$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are closed in $X$ and $Y$ respectively. Assume further that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$, and a neighbourhood $V$ of $Y^{\prime}$ in $Y$ such that $Y^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $V$. Then

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { is an isomorphism for all } n \geq 0
$$

Proof. Denote by $\rho: X \rightarrow X / X^{\prime}$ and $\rho^{\prime}: Y \rightarrow Y / Y^{\prime}$ the quotient maps. Then there is a well-defined continuous bijective map $f^{\prime}: X / X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y / Y^{\prime}$ such that the following diagram commutes:


Since $X / X^{\prime}$ is compact and $Y / Y^{\prime}$ is Hausdorff ${ }^{2}$, the map $f^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism ${ }^{3}$. Passing to homology, for any $n \geq 0$ we obtain a commutative diagram:

$$
\begin{gathered}
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(f)} H_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) \\
H_{n}(\rho) \downarrow \\
H_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}, *\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}\left(f^{\prime}\right)}{ }^{H_{n}(\rho)^{\prime}} \\
H_{n}\left(Y / Y^{\prime}, *^{\prime}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

[^41]where we denoted by $*$ the point in $X / X^{\prime}$ corresponding to $X^{\prime} / X^{\prime}$ and by $*^{\prime}$ the point in $Y / Y^{\prime}$ corresponding to $Y^{\prime} / Y^{\prime}$. By Theorem 19.2 the two maps $H_{n}(\rho)$ and $H_{n}\left(\rho^{\prime}\right)$ are isomorphisms, and $H_{n}\left(f^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism as $f^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism. Thus so is the map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$.

We now prove that Theorem 19.2 is always applicable to a pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ where $X$ is a cell complex and $X^{\prime}$ is a subcomplex. The first step is the following technical statement.

Proposition 19.8. Let $X$ be a cell complex and $X^{\prime}$ be a subcomplex. For each cell $E_{\lambda}$ in $X$ which is not in $X^{\prime}$, choose a single point $x_{\lambda} \in E_{\lambda}$. Let

$$
Y^{n}:=\left\{x_{\lambda} \mid E_{\lambda} \text { is an } n \text {-cell in } X \text { which is not in } X^{\prime}\right\} .
$$

Regard ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) as a relative cell complex with skeleton filtration $X^{\prime}=X^{-1} \subset X^{0} \subset$ $X^{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X$. Then for every $n \geq 1, X^{n-1}$ is a strong deformation retract of $X^{n} \backslash Y^{n}$.

Proof. We use the same idea as in (18.1) last lecture. Namely, without loss of generality we may assume that for each $n$-cell not in $X^{\prime}$, the corresponding characteristic map $g_{\lambda}: B_{\lambda}^{n} \rightarrow X^{n}$ satisfies $g_{\lambda}(0)=x_{\lambda}$. Then we define $H: X^{n} \backslash Y^{n} \times I \rightarrow X^{n} \backslash Y^{n}$ by

$$
H(x, t):= \begin{cases}x, & \text { if } x \in X^{n-1},  \tag{19.1}\\ g_{\lambda}((1-t) z+t z /|z|), & \text { if } x=g_{\lambda}(z) \text { for } z \in E^{n} \backslash\{0\} .\end{cases}
$$

We need only check that $H$ is continuous. Since $X^{n}$ has the colimit topology from $X^{\prime}$ and the cells in $X$ not belonging to $X^{\prime}$ (cf. the last part of Proposition 18.17), $X^{n} \backslash Y^{n}$ has the colimit topology determined by the cells in $X^{\prime}$ and the punctured cells $E_{\lambda} \backslash\left\{x_{\lambda}\right\}$ for the cells in $X$ that are not in $X^{\prime}$. It then follows that $X^{n} \backslash Y^{n} \times I$ has the colimit topology associated to the sets of the form $E^{\prime} \times\{0\}, E^{\prime} \times\{1\}$ and $E^{\prime} \times(0,1)$, where $E^{\prime}$ is either a cell in $X^{\prime}$ or a punctured cell $E_{\lambda} \backslash\left\{x_{\lambda}\right\}$. The restriction of $H$ to any of these subsets is continuous (this is proved in the same way that we proved the map $H$ from (18.1) was continuous), and hence $H$ is continuous by definition of the colimit topology.

We now prove the desired result.
Theorem 19.9. Let $X$ be a cell complex and $X^{\prime}$ be a subcomplex. Then there exists an open set $U$ in $X$ containing $X^{\prime}$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$.

Proof. Using the notation from the previous proposition, let $r_{n}: X^{n} \backslash Y^{n} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ denote a strong deformation retract for $n \geq 1$. Set $U_{0}=X^{\prime}$ and set $U_{n}:=r_{n}^{-1}\left(U_{n-1}\right)$ for $n \geq 1$. Then each $U_{n}$ is open in $X^{n} \backslash Y^{n}$ and thus $U:=\bigcup_{n} U_{n}$ is an open set ${ }^{4}$ in $X$ containing $X^{\prime}$. Since the composition of two strong deformation retracts is itself a strong deformation retract, we see that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U_{n}$

[^42]for each $n \geq 1$. This means that there exist continuous maps $F_{n}: U_{n} \times I \rightarrow U_{n}$ such that
$$
F_{n}(x, 0)=x, \quad F_{n}(x, 1)=r_{1} r_{2} \cdots r_{n}(x) \in X^{\prime}, \quad \forall x \in U_{n}
$$
and such that $F_{k}\left(x^{\prime}, t\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime}$ and $t \in I$. Moreover by induction we may even require that $\left.F_{n+1}\right|_{U_{n} \times I}=F_{n}$. This means that we can define $F: U \times I \rightarrow U$ by setting $F=F_{n}$ on $U_{n}$. Then $F$ is continuous by definition of the colimit topology, and $F$ exhibits $X^{\prime}$ as a strong deformation retract of $X$.

Theorem 19.9 implies that for cell complexes, we can use subcomplexes instead of open sets for excision and the Mayer-Vietoris sequence.

Corollary 19.10. Suppose $X$ is a cell complex and $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ are subcomplexes such that $X=X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime}$. Then the inclusion $\left(X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ induces isomorphisms on homology $H_{n}\left(X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof. We may assume $X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime} \neq \emptyset$, otherwise the result trivially follows from Proposition 8.2. Then the quotient spaces $X^{\prime \prime} / X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}$ and $X / X^{\prime}$ are homeomorphic (they both can be identified with the cells in $X^{\prime \prime}$ that are not in $X^{\prime}$ ). Then by Theorem 19.2 and Theorem 19.9, we obtain for any $n \geq 0$

$$
H_{n}\left(X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime \prime} / X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X / X^{\prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)
$$

Corollary 19.11. Suppose $X$ is a cell complex and $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ are subcomplexes such that $X=X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime}$. Then the there is an exact sequence

$$
\ldots H_{n}\left(X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \oplus H_{n}\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Proof. The Mayer-Vietoris sequence is a formal consequence of excision and the Baratt-Whitehead Lemma (Proposition 11.4). In other words, the proof of Theorem 14.9 goes through without any changes.

## LECTURE 20

## Cellular homology

In this lecture we introduce a new homology theory which is tailored specifically for cell complexes. Cellular homology is much more efficient than singular homology for computational purposes, as the cellular chain complex is much smaller. Indeed, a basis for the $n$th cellular chain group is given by the $n$-cells of the cell complex. For many spaces, the chain groups are then finitely generated abelian group. The resulting homology is the same as singular homology.

The key result that gets the construction of the cellular chain complex going is the following proposition.

Proposition 20.1. Let $X$ be a cell complex with skeleton filtration $\emptyset=X^{-1} \subset$ $X^{0} \subseteq X^{1} \subseteq X^{2} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq X$. Then for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{k}\left(X^{n}, X^{n-1}\right)=0, \quad k \neq n
$$

Meanwhile $H_{n}\left(X^{n}, X^{n-1}\right)$ is free abelian with a basis in one-to-one correspondence with the n-cells of $X$.

Proof. Suppose that $n$-cells of $X$ are given by maps $g_{\lambda}:\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(X^{n}, X^{n-1}\right)$, where $\lambda$ ranges over an index set $\Lambda_{n}$. Since $X^{n-1}$ is a subcomplex of $X^{n}$ for all $n \geq 1$, by Theorem 19.9 and Theorem 19.2 we see that

$$
H_{k}\left(X^{n}, X^{n-1}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{k}\left(X^{n} / X^{n-1}\right), \quad \forall k \geq 0
$$

But $X^{n} / X^{n-1}$ is a wedge sum of spheres, one for each of the $n$-cells of $X$. The claim then follows from Corollary 19.5.

We now step away from cell complexes for a moment and abstract the conclusion of Proposition 20.1 into a definition.

Definition 20.2. Let $X$ be a topological space. A cell-like filtration $\mathcal{F}$ of $X$ is an expanding sequence of $T_{1}$ closed subspaces $\emptyset=F^{-1} \subseteq F^{0} \subseteq F^{1} \subseteq F^{2} \subseteq \cdots$ such that $X=\bigcup_{n \geq 0} F^{n}$ carries the colimit topology, and with the property that

$$
H_{k}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)=0, \quad \forall k \neq n
$$

Thus Proposition 20.1 tells us that the skeleton filtration associated to a cell complex is a cell-like filtration. However the notion of a cell-like filtration is much more general, since $F^{n}$ does not have to be obtained from $F^{n-1}$ by adjoining cells, and the topological space $X$ does not have to be Hausdorff. In this course we will have no need for the extra level of generality afforded by cell-like filtrations; nevertheless
it makes ${ }^{1}$ the proof of Theorem 20.5 below more transparent to work with cell-like filtrations, since it shows exactly what properties we need.

Our goal is to construct a new homology theory $H_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F})$ associated to a topological space with a cell-like filtration. In the special case where the space is a cell complex and the filtration is the skeleton filtration, this will be called the cellular homology of the cell complex. Let us first prove the following statement.

Proposition 20.3. Let $X$ be a topological space with cell-like filtration $\mathcal{F}=\left(F^{n}\right)$. Then $H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right)=0$ for $k>n$ and the inclusion $F^{n} \hookrightarrow X$ induces an isomorphism $H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}(X)$ for $k<n$.

Proof. We examine the long exact sequence of the pair ( $F^{n}, F^{n-1}$ ). It contains the chain

$$
H_{k+1}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(F^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) .
$$

For $k \neq n, n-1$ the outer two groups are zero by assumption, and hence $H_{k}\left(F^{n-1}\right) \cong$ $H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right)$ for $k \neq n, n-1$. In particular, if $k>n$ then

$$
H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right) \cong H_{k}\left(F^{n-1}\right) \cong \cdots \cong H_{k}\left(F^{0}\right)=H_{k}\left(F^{0}, F^{-1}\right)=0,
$$

The same argument shows that the maps $H_{k}\left(F^{k+1}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(F^{k+2}\right) \rightarrow H_{k}\left(F^{k+3}\right) \rightarrow \ldots$ are all isomorphisms. Thus

$$
\underset{n \geq k+1}{\operatorname{colim}} H_{k}\left(F^{n}\right)=H_{k}\left(F^{k+1}\right)
$$

But by Corollary 17.6, the colimit on the left-hand side is just the homology $H_{k}(X)$. This completes the proof.

We now define our new chain complex.
Definition 20.4. Let $X$ be a topological space with cell-like filtration $\mathcal{F}$. We define a chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F}), \partial^{\mathcal{F}}\right)$ as follows. Firstly, set $C_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})=0$ for $n<0$. Given $n \geq 0$, define $C_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})$ to be the abelian group

$$
C_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}):=H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) .
$$

Let

$$
j_{n}:\left(F^{n}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)
$$

denote the inclusion, and abbreviate by

$$
\eta_{n}=H_{n}\left(j_{n}\right): H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) .
$$

For $n \geq 1$ we define ${ }^{2}$ the boundary operator $\partial^{\mathcal{F}}: C_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X, \mathcal{F})$ as the composition

$$
H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n}} H_{n-1}\left(F^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\eta_{n-1}} H_{n-1}\left(F^{n-1}, F^{n-2}\right),
$$

[^43]where $\delta_{n}$ is the connecting homomorphism for the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$. This does indeed define a chain complex as for $n \geq 1$ the composition $\partial^{\mathcal{F}} \circ \partial^{\mathcal{F}}: C_{n+1}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X, \mathcal{F})$ is given by
$H_{n+1}\left(F^{n+1}, F^{n}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\eta_{n}} H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n}} H_{n-1}\left(F^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(F^{n-1}, F^{n-2}\right)$
and this is zero since the composition in the middle
$$
H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\eta_{n}} H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta_{n}} H_{n-1}\left(F^{n-1}\right)
$$
is zero as these are two adjacent maps in the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$. We denote the associated homology by $H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}):=H_{n}\left(C \bullet(X, \mathcal{F}), \partial^{\mathcal{F}}\right)$.

Here is main result of today's lecture.
Theorem 20.5. Let $X$ be a topological space with cell-like filtration $\mathcal{F}=\left(F^{n}\right)$. Then for every $n \geq 0$, one has

$$
H_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})
$$

Proof. Let us break with out longstanding convention and temporarily give the boundary operator $\partial^{\mathcal{F}}$ a subscript (otherwise the chain of equations below makes no sense.) We have the following commuting diagram, where the row is part of the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$, the left-hand column is part of the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n+1}, F^{n}\right)$, and the right-hand column is part of the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n-1}, F^{n-2}\right)$. The left-most and the top-right zero entries follow from the Proposition 20.3, and the bottom zero entry is from the definition of a cell-like filtration.


Using this diagram, we now argue as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}(X) & \cong H_{n}\left(F^{n+1}\right) & & \text { by Proposition } 20.3, \\
& \cong H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) / \operatorname{im} \delta_{n+1} & & \text { by exactness of first column, } \\
& \cong \operatorname{im} \eta_{n} / \operatorname{im} \eta_{n} \delta_{n+1} & & \text { as } \eta_{n} \text { is an injection }, \\
& \cong \operatorname{ker} \delta_{n} / \operatorname{im} \eta_{n} \delta_{n+1} & & \text { by exactness of the row, } \\
& \cong \operatorname{ker} \delta_{n} / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^{\mathcal{F}} & & \text { by commutativity of the top triangle, } \\
& \cong \operatorname{ker} \eta_{n-1} \delta_{n} / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^{\mathcal{F}} & & \text { as } \eta_{n-1} \text { is an injection, } \\
& \cong \operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}^{\mathcal{F}} / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^{\mathcal{F}} & & \text { by commutativity of the bottom triangle, } \\
& =H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) & & \text { by the definition of homology. }
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof.
REMARK 20.6. The isomorphism $H_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})$ can be written down explicitly. This is the subject of Problem J. 5 on Problem Sheet J.

Now, with this detour out of the way, let us go back to cell complexes. If $X$ is a cell complex with skeleton filtration $\mathcal{F}=\left(X^{n}\right)$ then we will use the notation $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X), \partial^{\text {cell }}\right)$ instead of $\left(C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F}), \partial^{\mathcal{F}}\right)$ for the chain complex associated to the skeleton filtration, and by $H_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ the homology. We call $C_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ the cellular chain complex and we call $H_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ the cellular homology of the cell complex $X$.

Using Proposition 20.1, we have

$$
C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X)=H_{n}\left(X^{n}, X^{n-1}\right),
$$

and thus we see that the cellular chain group is free abelian with generators in a one-to-one correspondence with the $n$-cells of $X$.

Remark 20.7. The chain complex $C_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ depends on not only the space $X$ but also the choice of cellular decomposition. The same topological space can have different cellular decompositions. For example, $S^{3}$ has a cellular decomposition with one 0-cell and one 3 -cell (cf Example 18.7), but it also has a more complicated one (cf. Problem K.2.) However Theorem 20.5 implies that the homology $H_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ does not depend on the choice of cellular decomposition (since it agree with the singular homology.)

The following result applies to nearly all of the spaces we will ever meet in this course.

Corollary 20.8. Let $X$ be a compact cell complex of dimension $n$. Then

1. If $X$ has $N_{k}$ cells of dimension $k$ then $H_{k}(X)$ has rank at most $N_{k}$. In particular, $H_{k}(X)$ is finitely generated for all $k$.
2. $H_{k}(X)=0$ for all $k>n$.
3. $H_{n}(X)$ is free abelian.

Proof. Since $X$ is compact, it is necessarily a finite cell complex. The first two statements are clear for the cellular homology groups $H_{k}^{\text {cell }}(X)$, and hence also for the singular homology groups $H_{k}(X)$ by Theorem 20.5. The last statement follows as $H_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X)=\operatorname{ker} \partial^{\text {cell }}: C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ is a subgroup of $C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X)$, and a subgroup of a free abelian group is necessarily free abelian.

Here is another immediate corollary.
Corollary 20.9. Let $X$ be a cell complex. Suppose $X$ has $N$ cells in dimension $n$, and no cells in dimension $n-1$ and $n+1$. Then $H_{n}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{N}$.

Proof. We necessarily have $C_{n+1}^{\text {cell }}(X)=C_{n-1}^{\text {cell }}=0$, and thus $H_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X) \cong C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X)$.

Corollary 20.9 gives us a new (and much quicker) way to compute the homology of $S^{n}$ for $n \geq 2$, of $S^{m} \times S^{n}$ for $m, n \geq 2$, and for $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. Note however we still cannot compute the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$.

To rectify this, we need to have a way of computing the boundary operator $\partial^{\text {cell }}$. We conclude this lecture by giving an explicit formula for $\partial^{\text {cell }}$.

So let $X$ be a cell complex as before, and fix $n \geq 2$. To help keep the notation transparent, in the following we will use the letter $\lambda$ to index the $n$-cells of $X$ and the letter $\nu$ to index the $(n-1)$-cells. Given an $n$-cell $E_{\lambda}$, we denote by $e_{\lambda}$ the corresponding generator in $C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X)$, and similarly $e_{\nu} \in C_{n-1}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ is the generator corresponding to an $(n-1)$-cell.

The idea behind the cellular boundary formula is that we can get an $(n-1)$ sphere from both an $n$-cell and an $(n-1)$-cell. Indeed, if $g_{\lambda}: B^{n} \rightarrow X^{n}$ is an $n$-cell then $f_{\lambda}:=g_{\lambda}: S_{\lambda}^{n-1}:=\partial B_{\lambda}^{n} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ is a map from an $(n-1)$-cell. Meanwhile if $g_{\nu}: B_{\nu}^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$ is an $(n-1)$-cell, then if we collapse $f_{\nu}\left(\partial B_{\nu}^{n-1}\right)$ to a point, the quotient space

$$
S_{\nu}^{n-1}:=g_{\nu}\left(B_{\nu}^{n-1}\right) / f_{\nu}\left(\partial B_{\nu}^{n-1}\right)
$$

is also an $(n-1)$-sphere ${ }^{3}$.
Let us denote by

$$
\rho: X^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1} / X^{n-2}
$$

the quotient map, and denote by

$$
q_{\nu}: X^{n-1} / X^{n-2} \rightarrow S_{\nu}^{n-1}
$$

the quotient map that collapses all the other $(n-1)$-spheres in $X^{n-1} / X^{n-2}$ to a point.

Definition 20.10. Suppose $e_{\lambda}$ is an $n$-cell and $e_{\nu}$ is an ( $n-1$ )-cell. We define a map

$$
h_{\lambda, \nu}: S_{\lambda}^{n-1} \rightarrow S_{\nu}^{n-1}
$$

to be the composition:

$$
S_{\lambda}^{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{\lambda}} X^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\rho} X^{n-1} / X^{n-2} \xrightarrow{q_{\nu}} S_{\nu}^{n-1} .
$$

We then define the integer

$$
\left[e_{\lambda}: e_{\nu}\right]:=\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{\lambda, \nu}\right),
$$

where we are using Definition 15.2. If $* \in X^{n-1} / X^{n-2}$ denotes the point corresponding to $X^{n-2}$, then since $g_{\lambda}\left(B_{\lambda}^{n}\right)$ intersects at most finitely many cells (part (2) of Proposition 18.17), for fixed $e_{\lambda}$, the map $h_{\lambda, \nu}$ is not the constant map $S_{\lambda}^{n-1} \rightarrow *$ for at most finitely many $e_{\nu}$.

[^44]ThEOREM 20.11 (The cellular boundary formula). The boundary operator $\partial^{\text {cell }}: C_{n}^{\text {cell }}(X) \rightarrow$ $C_{n-1}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ is given explicitly by the formula

$$
\partial^{\text {cell }} e_{\lambda}=\sum_{\nu}\left[e_{\lambda}: e_{\nu}\right] \cdot e_{\nu}
$$

Note the right-hand side is a well-defined element of $C_{n-1}^{\text {cell }}(X)$ since $h_{\lambda, \nu}$ is nonconstant (and hence has non-zero degree) for at most finitely many $e_{\nu}$.

Proof. Let $j:\left(X^{n-1}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}\right)$ denote the inclusion. Consider the following diagram, where the two maps labelled $\delta, \delta^{\prime}$ are the connecting homomorphisms coming from the long exact sequence in reduced homology:


The left-hand square commutes by naturality of the long-exact sequence in reduced homology, the right-hand square commutes by definition of $h_{\lambda, \nu}$ and the fact that $\tilde{H}_{n-1}$ is a functor. The left-hand triangle commutes by definition of $\partial$, and the righthand triangle commutes from the proof of Theorem 19.2. The map labelled $\cong$ is an isomorphism from Theorem 19.2 as well. Let $\langle c\rangle$ be the generator of $H_{n}\left(B_{\lambda}^{n}, S_{\lambda}^{n-1}\right) \cong$ $\mathbb{Z}$ such that $e_{\lambda}=H_{n}\left(g_{\lambda}\right)\langle c\rangle$. Then by commutativity,

$$
\partial e_{\lambda}=H_{n-1}(j) \circ H_{n-1}\left(f_{\lambda}\right) \circ \delta^{\prime}\langle c\rangle .
$$

In terms of the basis of $H_{n-1}\left(X^{n-1}, X^{n-2}\right)$ given by $(n-1)$-cells, the map $H_{n-1}\left(q_{\nu}\right)$ is the projection of $\tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{n-1} / X^{n-2}\right)$ onto the $\mathbb{Z}$-summand corresponding to $e_{\nu}$. Thus commutativity of the right-hand square tells us that if $\partial e_{\lambda}=\sum_{\nu} m_{\lambda, \nu} e_{\nu}$ for $m_{\lambda, \nu} \in \mathbb{Z}$ then

$$
m_{\lambda, \nu}=\operatorname{deg}\left(h_{\lambda, \nu}\right)
$$

This completes the proof.
We will shortly use this to calculate the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$. First, however, we need another formula for computing the degree of a map from the sphere to itself. Suppose

$$
f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Z, z), \quad g:(Y, q) \rightarrow(Z, z)
$$

are two pointed continuous maps. Then there is a well defined pointed continuous map

$$
f \vee g: X \vee Y \rightarrow Z \vee Z
$$

defined by

$$
(f \vee g)(x, y):= \begin{cases}(f(x), z), & y=q \\ (z, g(y)), & x=p\end{cases}
$$

Now consider the continuous maps

$$
\text { Pinch: } S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n} \vee S^{n}, \quad \text { Fold: } S^{n} \vee S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}
$$

that "pinch" and "fold" the sphere as in Figure 20.1. Explicitly, Pinch collapses the equator $S^{n-1}$ to a single point, and, denoting by $p$ the basepoint in $S^{n}$, the map Fold does the following:

$$
\operatorname{Fold}(x, y):= \begin{cases}x, & y=p \\ y, & x=p\end{cases}
$$



Figure 20.1: Pinching and folding.

Lemma 20.12. Let $f, g: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be continuous maps. Let $h: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ denote the composition

$$
h=\text { Fold } \circ(f \vee g) \circ \text { Pinch. }
$$

Then

$$
\operatorname{deg}(h)=\operatorname{deg}(f)+\operatorname{deg}(g) .
$$

Proof. We use the isomorphism $H_{n}\left(S^{n} \vee S^{n}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \oplus \tilde{H}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$ from Corollary 19.5. Let $\langle c\rangle,\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle$ denote elements of $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$. Then one readily checks that

$$
H_{n}(\operatorname{Pinch})\langle c\rangle=(\langle c\rangle,\langle c\rangle),
$$

and

$$
H_{n}(f \vee g)\left(\langle c\rangle,\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)=\left(H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle, H_{n}(g)\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle\right),
$$

and finally

$$
H_{n}(\text { Fold })\left(\langle c\rangle,\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)=\langle c\rangle+\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle .
$$

The claim follows.
Here is the promised calculation of the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$.
Corollary 20.13. The homology of the real projective space is given by

$$
H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}, & \text { if } k=0 \text { or } k=n \text { and } n \text { is odd, } \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2}, & \text { for odd } 0<k<n, \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. The composition we need to look at is

$$
S^{n-1} \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{f} \mathbb{R} P^{n-1} \xrightarrow{q} \mathbb{R} P^{n-1} / \mathbb{R} P^{n-2}=S^{n-1} .
$$

The map $q \circ f$ is a homeomorphism when restricted to each component of $S^{n-1} \backslash S^{n-2}$, and these two homeomorphisms are obtained from each other by precomposing with the antipodal map $a: S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$. This has degree $(-1)^{n}$ by Corollary 15.7. Thus by Lemma 20.12

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{deg}(q \circ f) & =\operatorname{deg}(\text { Fold } \circ(\operatorname{id} \vee a) \circ \text { Pinch }) \\
& =\operatorname{deg}(\operatorname{id})+\operatorname{deg}(a) \\
& =1+(-1)^{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the cellular chain complex for $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ is given by

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \cdots \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0, & \text { if } n \text { is even, } \\
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \cdots \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0, & \text { if } n \text { is odd. }
\end{array}
$$

The result now follows from the fact that $H_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right)=H_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right)$.
A more involved application of the cellular boundary formula is on Problem Sheet K.

## LECTURE 21

## Natural transformations and the Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms

We begin this lecture by finally define "naturality" properly.
Definition 21.1. Let C and D be two categories, and let $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ be two functors. A natural transformation $\Phi: S \rightarrow T$ is a family of morphisms $\Phi(C): S(C) \rightarrow$ $T(C)$ for each $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ such that for any morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$ in C the following diagram commutes:


If each morphism $\Phi(C)$ is an isomorphism then we say that $\Phi$ is a natural isomorphism.

If $\Psi: R \rightarrow S$ and $\Phi: S \rightarrow T$ are two natural transformations then there it is easy to check that there is a well-defined natural transformation

$$
\Phi \circ \Psi: R \rightarrow T, \quad(\Phi \circ \Psi)(C):=\Phi(C) \circ \Psi(C) .
$$

Given any functor $T$, there is a well-defined natural transformation $\mathrm{id}_{T}: T \rightarrow T$ given by $\mathrm{id}_{T}(C)=\mathrm{id}_{T(C)}$ for each object $C \in \mathrm{C}$. The following easy lemma is on Problem Sheet K
Lemma 21.2. Let C and D be two categories and $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ two functors. Suppose $\Phi: S \rightarrow T$ is a natural transformation. Then $\Phi$ is a natural isomorphism if and only if there is a natural transformation $\Psi: T \rightarrow S$ such that $\Psi \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}_{S}$ and $\Phi \circ \Psi=\mathrm{id}_{T}$.

By now you can probably guess what's coming next. Natural transformations "look" like morphisms between functors, and that means time for a new category. Let us suggestively write

$$
\operatorname{Nat}(S, T):=\{\text { natural transformations } \Phi: S \rightarrow T\}
$$

We would like to define a new category called the functor category whose objects are all the functors from one category to another, and whose morphisms are the natural transformations between the functors. Unfortunately we run into a settheoretic bug! Recall that in the definition of a category in Lecture 1, we required the Hom-sets to be actual sets. However sadly $\operatorname{Nat}(S, T)$ need not be a set. Worse, it does not even have to be a class. The following result is not hard to prove, but isn't particularly relevant to our purposes, so I'll just state it.

Proposition 21.3. Let C be a small category (i.e. obj $(C)$ is a set). Then for any category D and any two functors $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}, \operatorname{Nat}(S, T)$ is a set.

This means that we can formally only define the functor category when the domain category is small.

Definition 21.4. Let C be a small category, and let D be an arbitrary category. The functor category Fun ( $C, D$ ) is the category with:

- obj(Fun(C, D)) the class of all functors $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$.
- $\operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Fun }(\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D})}(S, T)=\operatorname{Nat}(S, T)$,
- composition is given by composition of natural transformations.

This is well-defined due to the preceding proposition.
Let us give a concrete example of formulating a (non-trivial) result you probably all already know in the language of natural isomorphisms.

Theorem 21.5. A finite-dimensional vector space is naturally isomorphic to its double dual.

What exactly does this mean? For simplicity, lets work with real vector spaces. If $V$ is a real vector space then $V^{*}:=\operatorname{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$ denotes the set of all linear functionals $V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. More categorically, if Vect is the category of all vector spaces, then we can think of $V \mapsto V^{*}=\operatorname{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$ as a functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, \mathbb{R})$ : Vect $\rightarrow$ Vect (since $\mathbb{R}$ is itself a real vector space.) Actually this is not quite true: this functor reverses the direction of morphisms (compare Problem K.5.) Indeed, a morphism in Vect is a linear transformation $A: V \rightarrow W$ between two vector spaces. $A$ induces a map $A^{*}$ between the dual spaces, but it goes the "wrong" way round: $A^{*}: W^{*} \rightarrow V^{*}$. Explicitly, if $\lambda \in W^{*}$ (so $\lambda: W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a linear functional) then $A^{*} \lambda \in V^{*}$ is defined by

$$
A^{*} \lambda(v):=\lambda(A v), \quad \forall v \in V .
$$

Next semester we will study the idea of functors going the "wrong way round" in detail when we study cohomology. For now though, let us side-step this issue by applying the functor twice. So let $T$ : Vect $\rightarrow$ Vect denote the functor

$$
T(V):=\operatorname{Hom}(\operatorname{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R}), \mathbb{R})
$$

One usually denotes $T(V)$ by $V^{* *}$ and calls it the double dual. If $A: V \rightarrow W$ is a linear map then $T(A): T(V) \rightarrow T(W)$ is the linear map usually written as $A^{* *}: V^{* *} \rightarrow W^{* *}$ and defined by

$$
A^{* *}(\varphi)(\lambda)=\varphi\left(A^{*} \lambda\right) \quad \varphi \in V^{* *}, \lambda \in W^{*} .
$$

As you probably remember from linear algebra, there is a map $\mathrm{ev}_{V}: V \mapsto V^{* *}$ called evaluation that simply evaluates a linear functional at a vector:

$$
\operatorname{ev}_{V}(v)(\mu):=\mu(v), \quad \mu \in V^{*}
$$

We claim that ev is a natural transformation from the identity functor on Vect to $T$. This comes down to showing that the following diagram commutes for any pair of vector spaces $V, W$ and any linear map $A: V \rightarrow W$ :


This is trivial: take $\lambda \in W^{*}$ and observe:

$$
A^{* *} \operatorname{ev}_{V}(v)(\lambda)=\operatorname{ev}_{V}(v)\left(A^{*} \lambda\right)=A^{*} \lambda(v)=\lambda(A v)=\operatorname{ev}_{A v}(\lambda)
$$

The map ev ${ }_{V}$ is easily seen to be an injection $V \rightarrow V^{* *}$ but in general if $V$ is infinitedimensional then $\operatorname{dim} V^{*}>\operatorname{dim} V$ and hence $\mathrm{ev}_{V}$ is not an isomorphism. But if $V$ is finite-dimensional then hopefully you all know how to prove that $\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} V^{*}$ and thus in this case $\mathrm{ev}_{V}: V \rightarrow V^{* *}$ is an isomorphism. Hence by definition ev is a natural isomorphism when restricted to the subcategory FiniteVect of finitedimensional vector spaces, and this is precisely the statement of Theorem 21.5.

Here are a few more examples of things that we have already proved are natural transformations.

Proposition 21.6. Let $C_{\bullet}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Comp denote the singular chain functor, and given $n \geq 0$ let $C_{n}: \mathrm{Top} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ denote the singular chain functor restricted to a single $C_{n}$. Then:

1. The boundary operator in singular homology is a natural transformation $C_{n} \rightarrow$ $C_{n-1}$.
2. The barycentric subdivision operator $\mathrm{Sd}: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}$ is a natural transformation.

Proof. The first statement is just Proposition 7.20 in fancy language. The second is is just (13.9).

Recall for any topological space $X$ and any $p \in X$, one has $\tilde{H}_{1}(X) \cong H_{1}(X, p)$, cf. Corollary 12.22.

Proposition 21.7. Regard $\pi_{1}$ and $\tilde{H}_{1}$ as functors Top $_{*} \rightarrow$ Groups (i.e. forget that $\tilde{H}_{1}(X)$ is abelian). Then the Hurewicz map defines a natural transformation $\pi_{1} \rightarrow$ $\tilde{H}_{1}$.

Proof. This is Problem E.2.
Proposition 21.8. Define a functor $R$ : Top $^{2} \rightarrow$ Top $^{2}$ by $R\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=\left(X^{\prime}, \emptyset\right)$. Then the connecting homomorphism $\delta$ of the long exact sequence of a pair defines a natural transformation $\delta: H_{n} \rightarrow H_{n-1} \circ R$.

Proof. This is just the fact that the right-hand square commutes in the diagram of Proposition 12.3.

With the definition of natural transformations out of the way, we can finally introduce the famous Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for a homology theory. Let $R$ : $\mathrm{Top}^{2} \rightarrow$ Top ${ }^{2}$ be as in the previous proposition.

Definition 21.9 (The Eilenberg-Steenrod Axioms). A homology theory is a sequence $\mathcal{H}_{n}: \operatorname{Top}^{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ of functors for $n \geq 0$ and a sequence $\delta=\delta_{n}: \mathcal{H}_{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1} \circ R$ of natural transformations for $n \geq 1$ satisfying the following four axioms:

- The homotopy axiom: If $f, g:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ are homotopic mod $X^{\prime}$ (as in Definition 12.25) then $\mathcal{H}_{n}(f)=\mathcal{H}_{n}(g)$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus $\mathcal{H}_{n}$ factors to define functors $\mathrm{hTop}^{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ for each $n \geq 0$.
- The exact sequence axiom: For every pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ with inclusions $\imath:\left(X^{\prime}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow$ $(X, \emptyset)$ and $\jmath:(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$, there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{H}_{n}(2)} \mathcal{H}_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{H}_{n}(\jmath)} \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

where we abbreviate $\mathcal{H}_{n}(X)=\mathcal{H}_{n}(X, \emptyset)$ etc.

- The excision axiom: For every pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ and every subset $U \subseteq X$ with $\bar{U} \subset\left(X^{\prime}\right)^{\circ}$, the inclusion $\left(X \backslash U, X^{\prime} \backslash U\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X \backslash U, X^{\prime} \backslash U\right) \cong \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

- The dimension axiom: If $\{*\}$ is a one-point space then $\mathcal{H}_{n}(*)=0$ for all $n>0$ and $\mathcal{H}_{0}(*)=\mathbb{Z}$.
There are additionally two "optional" axioms:
- The additivity axiom: Let $\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right), \lambda \in \Lambda$ be a family of pairs of spaces. Denote by

$$
\imath_{\lambda}:\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(\bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}, \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)
$$

the inclusion. Then for all $n \geq 0$, the map

$$
\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(\imath_{\lambda}\right): \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}, X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(\bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}, \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} X_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

is an isomorphism.

- The weak equivalence axiom: If $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is a weak equivalence (cf. Definition 18.18) then $\mathcal{H}_{n}(f): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$.

Some remarks:

1. The last two axioms are less important, and are both sometimes omitted from the treatment of axiomatic homology theory. The additivity axiom is implied by the excision axiom whenever $\Lambda$ is a finite set (see Problem K.6), and thus is only of interest for infinite disjoint unions.
2. The weak equivalence axiom is used only to ensure that a homology theory is uniquely determined by what it does to cell complexes, cf. Theorem 18.19. We will ignore this axiom for the time being, since we haven't defined the higher homotopy groups. In particular, we currently have no way of proving that singular homology is a homology theory (!) if we insist on this axiom, since we cannot verify that singular homology satisfies the weak equivalence axiom. We will discuss this in more detail at the end of Algebraic Topology II (Theorem 46.9.)
3. As currently defined, cellular homology is also not a homology theory, since we have only defined cellular homology for cell complexes. Nevertheless, it can be made into a homology theory by arguing as follows. Let us denote by Cell the category of cell complexes, and denote by $I:$ Cell $\rightarrow$ Top the inclusion functor. A more precise version of Theorem 18.19 (this is stated as Theorem 46.15) tell us that there is a functor $\Gamma$ : Top $\rightarrow$ Cell that assigns to any space $X$ a cell complex $\Gamma(X)$, together with a natural transformation $\Phi: I \circ \Gamma \rightarrow \mathrm{id}_{\text {Top }}$ such that $\Phi(X): \Gamma(X) \rightarrow X$ is a weak equivalence. The functor $\Gamma$ is called a cellular approximation functor. Extending this to pairs of spaces, one then defines $H_{n}^{\text {cell }}: \mathrm{Top}^{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ by first applying $\Gamma: H_{n}^{\text {cell }} \circ \Gamma$. The resulting sequence of homology functors is a genuine homology theory.
4. Many of the properties of singular homology continue to hold for an arbitrary homology theory. For instance, if $X$ is contractible then by the homotopy axiom and the dimension axiom one sees $\mathcal{H}_{n}(X)=0$ for $n>0$ and $\mathcal{H}_{n}(X)=\mathbb{Z}$ for $n=0$. A more involved fact is that the Relative Homeomorphism Theorem 19.7 continues to hold; more on this later.
5. The exact sequence axiom implies the long exact sequence of a triple: if $X^{\prime \prime} \subseteq$ $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ are subspaces then there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta^{\prime}} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots,
$$

where the undecorated maps are induced by inclusion and the map $\delta^{\prime}$ is the composition

$$
\mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

Indeed, this follows from the solution of Problem F.4, since the solution given there (using the commutative braid of Problem F.3) used nothing other than the exact sequence axiom.
6. Both of the homology theories (singular and cellular) that we have constructed have arisen from first defining a functor Top $^{2} \rightarrow$ Comp and then composing this with the functor $H_{n}$ : Comp $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ that takes the homology of the chain complex. However this is not part of the axioms, and any proof we gave for singular/cellular homology that used this are therefore not valid for an arbitrary homology theory. This is the reason we proved Problem F. 4 using the commutative braid (as remarked at the end of the solution to Problem F.4, there is a much quicker proof that is valid only for homology theories that are the homology of a chain complex.)
7. The only axiom that guarantees non-triviality of $\mathcal{H}_{n}$ is the dimension axiom, which at least tells us that the zeroth homology of a point is non-zero. Without this axiom, a perfectly valid theory would be $\mathcal{H}_{n} \equiv 0$. Nevertheless, there are many examples of things that one would like to be a "homology theory" that do not satisfy the dimension axiom. Two examples are topological K-theory and symplectic homology ${ }^{1}$. Thus a generalised homology theory is a sequence $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ that satisfies all the axioms apart from the dimension axiom.
Now let us define what it means for two homology theories to be the same.
Definition 21.10. Let $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ and $\left.\mathcal{K}_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ be two homology theories. A natural transformation $\Phi_{\bullet}:\left(\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, \delta\right) \rightarrow\left(\mathcal{K}_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ is a sequence of natural transformations $\Phi_{n}: \mathcal{H}_{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}$ for $n \geq 0$ such that the following diagram commutes for all $n \geq 1$ and all pairs $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \\
& \Phi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \downarrow \quad \downarrow^{\Phi_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)} \\
& \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \longrightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\Phi_{n}$ is a natural isomorphism for each $n$ then we say that the two homology theories $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ and $\left.\mathcal{K}_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ are naturally isomorphic.

It is now easy to formulate the big theorem.
Theorem 21.11 (Existence and uniqueness of a homology theory). Singular homology is a homology theory. Moreover if $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ is any homology theory then $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ is naturally isomorphic to singular homology.

We can't really come close to proving this as currently stated. Indeed, as remarked above, we cannot even show existence, since we don't know that singular homology satisfies the weak equivalence axiom. If we drop the weak equivalence axiom then we have already shown that singular homology satisfies the other axioms. However the main tool needed to construct a natural isomorphism between singular homology and an arbitrary homology theory is the higher dimensional analogue of the Hurewicz Theorem 9.7. We will discuss Theorem 21.11 right at the end of Algebraic Topology II (cf. Theorem 46.17.)

Nevertheless, the techniques we have developed thus far in the course allow us to prove the following weaker version.
Theorem 21.12 (Baby Uniqueness Theorem). Suppose ( $\left.\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ and $\mathcal{K}_{\bullet}, \varepsilon$ ) satisfy the first four axioms (homotopy, exact sequence, excision and dimension) and suppose $\left.\Phi_{\bullet}:\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right)$ is a sequence of natural transformations such that $\Phi_{0}(*): \mathcal{H}_{0}(*) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{K}_{0}(*)$ is an isomorphism, where $*$ is a one-point space. Then

$$
\Phi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)
$$

is an isomorphism for all pairs ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ) consisting of a finite cell complex $X$ and a subcomplex $X^{\prime}$.

[^45]In other words, if we already have a natural transformation between two homology theories, it suffices to check it's an isomorphism on a one-point space to conclude it's an isomorphism on any finite cell complex. Of course, by assumption one always has $\mathcal{H}_{0}(*) \cong \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathcal{K}_{0}(*)$, but the hypotheses of the theorem are asserting much more: that there exists a natural transformation between the two homology theories that realises this isomorphism. This theorem is not too hard to prove, and we will do so next lecture.

## LECTURE 22

## Free chain complexes

In this lecture we first prove Theorem 21.12. Our proof will use the Relative Homeomorphism Theorem 19.7, which is valid for an arbitrary homology theory. Let us begin by stating this precisely.

Theorem 22.1 (The Relative Homeomorphism Theorem Reborn). Let ( $\left.\mathcal{H}_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, \delta\right)$ denote a homology theory satisfying the first four axioms. Let $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ be a relative homeomorphism. Assume that $X$ is compact and that $Y$ is compact Hausdorff, and that $X^{\prime}$ and $Y^{\prime}$ are closed in $X$ and $Y$ respectively. Assume further that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$, and a neighbourhood $V$ of $Y^{\prime}$ in $Y$ such that $Y^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $V$. Then

$$
\mathcal{H}_{n}(f): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { is an isomorphism for all } n \geq 0
$$

Proof. Go through the proof of the Relative Homeomorphism Theorem 19.7 and check we only used the axioms.

We now prove Theorem 21.12.
Proof. We prove the theorem in three steps. In this proof, all vertical maps are induced by $\Phi$, and we won't label them on the diagrams. The moral of the proof is: use the Five Lemma five times.

1. We first prove the result for $X=S^{0}$ and $X^{\prime}=\emptyset$. We think of $S^{0}$ as the union of two points $p$ and $q$, and consider the following diagram:


The two horizontal maps are excision isomorphisms, and the left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism by hypothesis for $n=0$ and by the dimension axiom for $n>0$. Thus the right-hand vertical map is also an isomorphism. We now consider the diagram:


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The rows are exact by the exact sequence axiom. All the vertical maps apart from the middle one are isomorphisms. Thus the middle one is too by the Five Lemma (Proposition 11.3).
2. We now prove the result for an arbitrary sphere $S^{k}$. Let us inductively assume that $\Phi_{n}\left(S^{k-1}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(S^{k-1}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(S^{k-1}\right)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$. Since $B^{k}$ is contractible, by the homotopy axiom, the dimension axiom and the hypotheses, the $\operatorname{map} \Phi_{n}\left(B^{k}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(B^{k}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(B^{k}\right)$ is an isomorphism. Then we apply the Five Lemma again to the following diagram:


Again, the rows are exact and all vertical maps apart from the middle one are isomorphisms. Thus the middle one is too. Now consider the following diagram:


The horizontal maps come from a relative homeomorphism $\left(B^{k}, S^{k-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(S^{k}, p\right)$, and is thus an isomorphism by the Relative Homeomorphism Theorem. We have just shown that the left-hand map is an isomorphism, and hence the right-hand vertical map is too. Now we apply the Five Lemma again to this diagram:

3. We now prove the theorem for a pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ by induction on the number of cells of $X$. We have already done the case where $X$ has one cell, so let us assume that $\Phi_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$ and for any cell complex $Y$ with at most $N-1$ cells. Let $X$ be a cell complex with $N$ cells and $X^{\prime}$ a subcomplex. If $\operatorname{dim} X=k$, pick a specific $k$-cell of $X$ and let $Z$ denote the complement of this cell. Then $Z$ has $N-1$ cells, and there is a relative homeomorphism

$$
f:\left(B^{k}, S^{k-1}\right) \rightarrow(X, Z)
$$

We now consider the diagram:


The horizontal maps are isomorphisms and the left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$, and thus the same is true of the right-hand vertical map. Next, apply the Five Lemma to this diagram:


Thus $\Phi_{n}(X): \mathcal{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}(X)$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$. Similarly $\Phi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{K}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism for every $n \geq 0$. Finally, we apply the Five Lemma a fifth time to the diagram:


Thus $\Phi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right): \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is also an isomorphism. This completes the proof.

REMARK 22.2. If we knew our homology theories arose from taking the homology of a chain complex, one could now invoke Theorem 16.22 to deduce the same result for any cell complex (rather than just finite ones). In general, the excision axiom and the additivity axiom allows one to prove (roughly speaking) that a homology theory does indeed commute with filtered colimits, but this is a somewhat involved argument.

We now embark upon some more homological algebra. Our journey will culminate at the end of the next lecture with the famous Acyclic Models Theorem, which will allow us to give new and simpler proofs of various statements from the course (eg. the proof that singular homology satisfies the homotopy axiom). We begin with the following lemma, whose proof is similar to the last part of Problem F.6.

Lemma 22.3. Let $F$ be a free abelian group. Suppose $g: B \rightarrow C$ is a surjective homomorphism of abelian groups and $h: F \rightarrow C$ is a homomorphism. Then there exists a homomorphism $f: F \rightarrow B$ such that $g f=h$.


Proof. Let $X$ be a basis of $F$. For each $x \in X$, choose $b_{x} \in B$ such that $g\left(b_{x}\right)=h(x)$. By Lemma 7.2 there exists a unique homomorphism $f: F \rightarrow B$ with the property that $f(x)=b_{x}$ for all $x \in X$. Then both $g f$ and $h$ agree on $X$, and hence $g f=h$ as desired.

This result implies the following statement.
Proposition 22.4. Suppose we have a commutative diagram of abelian groups where the bottom row is exact, that the top row satisfies $j i=0$, and that $A$ is free abelian.


Then there exists a homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ making the first square commute:


Proof. We claim that $\operatorname{im} g i \subseteq \operatorname{im} i^{\prime}$. Indeed, by exactness im $i^{\prime}=\operatorname{ker} j^{\prime}$, and thus it suffices to show that $j^{\prime} g i=0$. But $j^{\prime} g i=h j i$ by commutativity. Since $j i=0$ by assumption, the claim follows. This means we have a diagram:


Now apply Lemma 22.3 to obtain the desired homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$.
Proposition 22.4 has a rather surprising consequence, which we now explain. Suppose $C_{\bullet}$ and $D_{\bullet}$ are two chain complexes. A chain map $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ induces maps $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$ for each $n \geq 0$. But when can we go the other way?

Namely, suppose we start with a homomorphism $h: H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$. We are interested in obtaining criterion for the existence of a chain map $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{0}(f)=h . \tag{22.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us say that $f$ is a chain map over $h$ if (22.1) holds. Here are two more definitions.
Definition 22.5. A chain complex $C \bullet$ is called free if each group $C_{n}$ is a free abelian group.

Definition 22.6. A chain complex $C_{\bullet}$ is non-negative if $C_{n}=0$ for all $n<0$. Thus the singular chain complex is always non-negative. A non-negative chain complex $C$ • is acyclic in positive degrees if $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=0$ for all $n>0$.

The next result is sometimes called the Comparison Theorem in homological algebra ${ }^{1}$.

[^46]Theorem 22.7. Suppose $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and ( $D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}$ ) are two non-negative chain complexes. Assume that $C_{\bullet}$ is free and that $D_{\bullet}$ is acyclic in positive degrees. Then given any homomorphism $h: H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$, there always exists a chain map $f: C \bullet \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ over $h$. Moreover if $f$ and $g$ are two chain maps over $h$ then $f$ and $g$ are chain homotopic.

Remark 22.8. In particular, if $C_{\bullet}$ is free and $D_{\bullet}$ is acyclic in positive degrees, then a chain map $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ is determined up to chain homotopy by the map $H_{0}(f)$.

Proof. Since $C_{n}=0$ for all $n<0, H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$ is the cokernel of $\partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0}$, and similarly for $H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$. Denote by $\varepsilon: C_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$ and $\varepsilon^{\prime}: D_{0} \rightarrow H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$ the two quotient maps. Note that the extended complex

$$
\cdots \rightarrow D_{2} \xrightarrow{\partial^{\prime}} D_{1} \xrightarrow{\partial^{\prime}} D_{0} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon^{\prime}} H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

is an acyclic complex (its homology is zero in every degree.) Our goal is to find maps $f_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n}$ such that the entire diagram below commutes:


We argue by induction on $n \geq 0$. For the case $n=0$, we use Lemma 22.3 with the diagram


For the inductive step, we apply Proposition 22.4 to the diagram


Now suppose we are given two such chain maps $f$ and $g$ over $h$. We wish to construct maps $P_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n+1}$ for $n \geq-1$ such that

$$
\partial^{\prime} P_{n}+P_{n-1} \partial=f_{n}-g_{n}
$$

Define $P_{-1}=0$. Now consider the diagram:


Proposition 22.4 applies to give us the desired map $P_{0}: C_{0} \rightarrow D_{1}$. Abbreviate $k_{n}=$ $f_{n}-g_{n}-P_{n-1} \partial$. For the inductive step we use the diagram


This diagram commutes, since

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial^{\prime} k_{n} & =\partial^{\prime}\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right)-\left(\partial^{\prime} P_{n-1}\right) \partial \\
& =\partial^{\prime}\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right)-\left(f_{n-1}-g_{n-1}-P_{n-2} \partial\right) \partial \\
& =\partial^{\prime}\left(f_{n}-g_{n}\right)-\left(f_{n-1}-g_{n-1}\right) \partial \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

as $\partial^{2}=0$ and $f-g$ is a chain map. Thus we can apply Proposition 22.4 again to get a map $P_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n+1}$. This completes the proof.

Corollary 22.9. Suppose $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and $\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ are two non-negative chain complexes. Assume that $C \bullet$ and $D_{\bullet}$ are both free and acyclic in positive degrees. Assume we are given an isomorphism $h: H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)$. Then every chain map $f$ over $h$ is a chain equivalence.

Proof. We apply Theorem 22.7 twice to obtain chain maps $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ over $h$ and $g: D \bullet \rightarrow C \bullet$ over $h^{-1}$. Then $g \circ f: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ is a chain map over $h^{-1} \circ h=\operatorname{id}_{H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)}$. But another obvious chain map over $\operatorname{id}_{H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)}$ is $\mathrm{id}_{C_{\bullet}}$. By the last statement of Theorem 22.7, $g \circ f$ is chain homotopic to $\operatorname{id}_{C}$. Similarly $f \circ g$ is chain homotopic to $\mathrm{id}_{D}$. Thus $f$ is a chain equivalence as desired.

## LECTURE 23

## The Acyclic Models Theorem

In this final lecture we state and prove the Acyclic Models Theorem. The main ideas were all contained in Theorem 22.7 and Corollary 22.9 from the last lecture. The formalism below will seem somewhat complicated, but all we are really doing is carrying out the constructions above in a more general setting.

Definition 23.1. Let $C$ be a category. A family of models for $C$ is simply an indexed subset $\mathcal{M}=\left\{M_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\} \subseteq \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

Definition 23.2. Let $C$ be a category with family of models $\mathcal{M}=\left\{M_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$. Suppose $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor. A $T$-model set $\mathcal{X}$ is a choice of element $x_{\lambda} \in$ $T\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$ for each $\lambda$ :

$$
\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{\lambda} \in T\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\} .
$$

Definition 23.3. Let $C$ be a category with a family of models $\mathcal{M}=\left\{M_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$. Suppose $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor. We say that $T$ is free with basis in $\mathcal{M}$ if:

1. $T(C)$ is a free abelian group for every $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$,
2. There is a $T$-model set $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{\lambda} \in T\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ such that for every object in C the set

$$
\left\{T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right) \mid f \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(M_{\lambda}, C\right), \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}
$$

is a basis for $T(C)$.
We call $\mathcal{X}$ a model basis for $T$.
Example 23.4. Fix $n \geq 0$. Consider a family of models for Top consisting of just one model $\mathcal{M}=\left\{\Delta^{n}\right\}$. Consider now the functor $C_{n}$ : Top $\rightarrow$ Ab that assigns a topological space $X$ the free abelian group of singular $n$-chains $C_{n}(X)$. We claim that $C_{n}$ is free with basis in $\left\{\Delta^{n}\right\}$. The first condition is by definition, so we need only verify the second. For this, recall (see Lecture 13) we denote by $\ell_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ the identity map, thought of as a singular $n$-simplex in $\Delta^{n}$. Then the set $\left\{\ell_{n}\right\}$ is a $C_{n}$-model set. We claim that $\left\{\ell_{n}\right\}$ is a model basis. Indeed, if $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ is any singular $n$-simplex then (thinking of $\sigma$ as a continuous map from $\Delta^{n}$ to $X$ ), we have

$$
C_{n}(\sigma)\left(\ell_{n}\right)=\sigma_{n}^{\#} \ell_{n}=\sigma
$$

(see (13.4)). Since $C_{n}(X)$ has basis the singular $n$-simplices in $X$, we have that

$$
\left\{C_{n}(\sigma)\left(\ell_{n}\right) \mid \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X \text { continuous }\right\}
$$

is a basis for $C_{n}(X)$.

Proposition 23.5. Let C be a category with family of models $\mathcal{M}=\left\{M_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$. Suppose $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ are functors, and assume $T$ is free with basis in $\mathcal{M}$. Let

$$
\left\{x_{\lambda} \in T\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}
$$

denote a model basis for $T$. Choose elements $y_{\lambda} \in S\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$ for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$, and set

$$
\mathcal{Y}:=\left\{y_{\lambda} \in S\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}
$$

Then there exists a unique natural transformation $\Phi: T \rightarrow S$ such that

$$
\Phi\left(M_{\lambda}\right)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=y_{\lambda}, \quad \forall \lambda \in \Lambda .
$$

The following picture might help you remember the statement:


Proof. Let us first check that $\Phi$ is unique if it exists. For fixed $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and a fixed object $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, we obtain a commutative diagram for every morphism $f: M_{\lambda} \rightarrow$ $C$ :


Thus if $x_{\lambda} \in \mathcal{X}$ we have by the hypothesis on $\Phi$ that

$$
\Phi(C) \circ T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=S(f) \circ \Phi\left(M_{\lambda}\right)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=S(f)\left(y_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

Since the family $\left\{T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right\}$ forms a basis of (and hence generates) $T(C)$, it follows that each homomorphism $\Phi(C)$ is uniquely determined. Since $C$ was an arbitrary object, it follows that $\Phi$ is unique. Now let us construct $\Phi$. Again, fix an object $C$ of $C$. We first define $\Phi(C)$ on basis elements $\left\{T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right\}$ by declaring that $\Phi(C)\left(T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right):=S(f)\left(y_{\lambda}\right)$. Then since $T(C)$ is free abelian, by Lemma 7.2 there is a unique homomorphism $\Phi(C): T(C) \rightarrow S(C)$ that extends this map. It remains to show that $\Phi$ is a natural transformation. For this, take a morphism $g: A \rightarrow B$ in C. We need to prove the following diagram commutes:


Since $T(A)$ is free abelian, it suffices to evaluate both sides on a typical basis element $T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)$ for some $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and $f: M_{\lambda} \rightarrow A$. Then

$$
S(g) \circ \Phi(A)\left(T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right)=S(g) S(f) y_{\lambda}=S(g \circ f)\left(y_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

But also going the other way round:

$$
\Phi(B) \circ T(g)\left(T(f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)\right)=\Phi(B) \circ T(g \circ f)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=S(g \circ f)\left(y_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

Thus $\Phi$ is indeed a natural transformation, and this completes the proof.
We now prove a generalisation of Proposition 22.4 to this setting.
Proposition 23.6. Let C be a category with family of models $\mathcal{M}$. Suppose we are given six functors

$$
T_{i}, S_{i}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}, \quad i=1,2,3 .
$$

together with six natural transformations as pictured below:


Assume that:

1. Assume that for every object $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ the composition $\Phi_{2}(C) \circ \Phi_{1}(C): T_{1}(C) \rightarrow$ $T_{3}(C)$ is the zero homomorphism.
2. The bottom row is exact on $\mathcal{M}$, in the sense that for every model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ one has $\operatorname{im} \Psi_{1}(M)=\operatorname{ker} \Psi_{2}(M)$.
3. The diagram commutes for every object $C$ of C .
4. $T_{1}$ is free with basis in $\mathcal{M}$.

Then there exists a natural transformation $\Upsilon: T_{1} \rightarrow S_{1}$ such that the first square commutes for every object of C .


The trickiest thing in Proposition 23.6 is the statement. It is easiest to see this as a direct generalisation of Proposition 22.4 where we use functors instead of maps. Indeed, if C had exactly one object and only the identity morphism, then Proposition 23.6 would reduce to Proposition 22.4. But in general Proposition 23.6 is much stronger: the important bit is that we only require the bottom row to be exact on $\mathcal{M}$. If you think back to Example 23.4, this can often be a massive simplification if $\mathcal{M}$ is very small compared to obj(C).

Proof. Let $\mathcal{X}=\left\{x_{\lambda} \in T_{1}\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote a model basis for $T_{1}$. Then for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$ we have a commutative diagram in Ab that satisfies the hypotheses of Proposition 22.4:


Thus by Proposition 22.4 we obtain a homomorphism $T_{1}\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow S_{1}\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$ :


Set $y_{\lambda} \in S_{1}\left(M_{\lambda}\right)$ denote the image of $x_{\lambda}$ under this map. By Proposition 23.5 we obtain a natural transformation $\Upsilon: T_{1} \rightarrow S_{1}$ such that $\Upsilon\left(M_{\lambda}\right)\left(x_{\lambda}\right)=y_{\lambda}$ for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$. It remains to check that the desired diagram commutes. For this consider

$$
z_{\lambda}:=\Psi_{1}\left(M_{\lambda}\right)\left(y_{\lambda}\right), \quad \mathcal{Z}:=\left\{z_{\lambda} \in S_{2}\left(M_{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\} .
$$

Then both $\Theta_{1} \circ \Phi_{1}$ and $\Psi_{1} \circ \Upsilon$ are natural transformations $T_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ that send $x_{\lambda}$ to $z_{\lambda}$. The uniqueness part of Proposition 23.5 then implies that $\Theta_{1} \circ \Phi_{1}=\Psi_{1} \circ \Upsilon$. This completes the proof.

The main result of today's lecture is basically the "models" version of Theorem 22.7. This means we need to study functors with values in Comp. So suppose $T_{\bullet}:$ C $\rightarrow$ Comp is a functor. Thus for each $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ we obtain a chain complex $T_{\bullet}(C)$. Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $T_{n}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ denote the functor given by $C \mapsto T_{n}(C)$. As with the case of a single chain complex, we say that $T_{\bullet}$ is non-negative if $T_{n}(C)=0$ for all $n<0$, and we say an object $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ is $T$-acyclic in positive degrees if $H_{n}\left(T_{\bullet}(C)\right)=0$ for all $n>0$.

A natural transformation $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ between two functors $T_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}:$ C $\rightarrow$ Comp is usually called a natural chain map. There is an analogous notion of a natural chain homotopy.

Definition 23.7. Suppose $T_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Comp are two functors and $\Phi, \Psi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ are two natural chain maps (i.e. natural transformations). A natural chain homotopy between $\Phi$ and $\Psi$ is a sequence of natural transformations $\Upsilon_{n}: T_{n} \rightarrow S_{n+1}$ such that

$$
\partial^{\prime} \Upsilon_{n}+\Upsilon_{n-1} \partial=\Phi_{n}-\Psi_{n}
$$

for every $n$. Here $\partial$ is the boundary operator of $T_{\bullet}$ and $\partial^{\prime}$ is the boundary operator of $S_{\text {. }}$ Explicitly, this means for every object $C$ of C , if we denote by $\partial_{C}$ the boundary operator of $T_{\bullet}(C)$ and $\partial_{C}^{\prime}$ the boundary operator of $S_{\bullet}(C)$, we have

$$
\partial_{C}^{\prime} \Upsilon_{n}(C)+\Upsilon_{n-1}(C) \partial_{C}=\Phi_{n}(C)-\Psi_{n}(C)
$$

as homomorphisms $T_{n}(C) \rightarrow S_{n}(C)$.
Similarly, a natural chain equivalence $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ is a natural chain map with the property that there exists another natural chain map $\Psi: S_{\bullet} \rightarrow T_{\bullet}$ such that $\Psi \circ \Phi$ is naturally chain homotopic to $\mathrm{id}_{T_{\bullet}}$ and $\Phi \circ \Psi$ is naturally chain homotopic to $\mathrm{id}_{S_{\bullet}}$.

Now we introduce the functor-valued version of (22.1). Suppose $T_{\bullet}, S_{\bullet}: C \rightarrow$ Comp are two functors. Then $H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet}$ and $H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$ are two functors $\mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$, given by
$C \mapsto H_{0}\left(T_{\bullet}(C)\right)$ and $C \mapsto H_{0}\left(S_{\bullet}(C)\right)$ respectively. Suppose we are given a natural transformation

$$
\Theta: H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet} .
$$

We can then ask the question: when does there exist a natural chain map $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ such that $H_{0}(\Phi)=\Theta$ ? (This is of course a direct generalisation of asking when (22.1) held last lecture). The Acyclic Models Theorem gives an answer.

Theorem 23.8 (The Acyclic Models Theorem). Let C be a category with models $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that $S_{\bullet}, T_{\bullet}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Comp are non-negative functors. Assume that for all $n \geq 0, T_{n}$ is free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that each model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is $S_{\bullet}-$ acyclic in positive degrees. If $\Theta: H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$ is a natural transformation then there exists a natural chain map $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ over $\Theta$. Moreover any two such natural chain maps are naturally chain homotopic.

Corollary 23.9. Assume instead that for all $n \geq 0$, both $S_{n}$ and $T_{n}$ are free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$, and that each model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is both $S_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees and $T_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees. Then if $\Theta: H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$ is a natural equivalence then every natural chain map $\Phi$ over $\Theta$ is a natural chain equivalence.

Again, by far the hardest part of this theorem is understanding the statement! The proof is basically identical to the proof of Theorem 22.7 and Corollary 22.9.

Proof of Theorem 23.8 and Corollary 23.9. We prove both the two results in three steps.

1. As in the proof of Theorem 22.7, our goal is to construct natural transformations $\Phi_{n}: T_{n} \rightarrow S_{n}$ such that the following diagram commutes.


For $n=0$, we have the following picture:


The bottom row is exact because $H_{0}\left(S_{\bullet}(C)\right)$ is the cokernel of $S_{1}(C) \rightarrow S_{0}(C)$. Thus Proposition 23.6 gives us a natural transformation $\Phi_{0}: T_{0} \rightarrow S_{0}$ such that the diagram commutes:


Now we inductively define $\Phi_{n}: T_{n} \rightarrow S_{n}$ for $n \geq 1$. Indeed, if we have constructed $\Phi_{n}$ then we have a diagram


By assumption the bottom row is exact for every model $M$, and thus as $T_{n+1}$ is free, Proposition 23.6 applies to give us the desired $\Phi_{n+1}: T_{n+1} \rightarrow S_{n+1}$.
2. Now suppose we have two such maps $\Phi, \Psi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$. We need to find natural transformations $\Upsilon_{n}: T_{n} \rightarrow S_{n+1}$ for all $n \geq-1$ such that

$$
\partial^{\prime} \Upsilon_{n}+\Upsilon_{n-1} \partial=\Phi_{n}-\Psi_{n} .
$$

We define $\Upsilon_{-1}=0$ and proceed inductively. Let $\Xi_{n}:=\Phi_{n}-\Psi_{n}$. Then we have a diagram:


Again, Proposition 23.6 applies to give us the desired map $\Upsilon_{0}: T_{0} \rightarrow S_{1}$. For the inductive step we use the diagram

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{n} \xrightarrow{\text { id }} & T_{n} \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \left|\Xi_{n}-\Upsilon_{n-1} \circ \partial\right| 0 \\
& { }^{2} \longrightarrow \\
S_{n+1} \xrightarrow[\partial^{\prime}]{ } & S_{n} \longrightarrow S_{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

We need to show this diagram commutes to apply Proposition 23.6. But by induction:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial^{\prime}\left(\Xi_{n}-\Upsilon_{n-1} \partial\right) & =\partial^{\prime} \Xi_{n}-\left(\partial \Upsilon_{n-1}\right) \partial \\
& =\partial^{\prime} \Xi_{n}-\left(\Xi_{n-1}-\Upsilon_{n-2} \partial\right) \partial \\
& =\partial^{\prime} \Xi_{n}-\Xi_{n-1} \partial \\
& =0
\end{aligned}
$$

as $\partial^{2}=0$ and $\Xi_{\bullet}$ is a chain map.
3. Finally we prove Corollary 23.9. In this case $\Theta$ is a natural isomorphism, and hence there exists a natural transformation $\Pi: H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet}$ such that $\Pi \circ \Theta=\operatorname{id}_{H_{0} \circ T}$ and $\Theta \circ \Pi=\operatorname{id}_{H_{0} \circ S}$. We then have two natural chain maps $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S \bullet$ and $\Psi: S_{\bullet} \rightarrow T_{\bullet}$ over from $\Theta$ and $\Pi$ respectively. This gives us two natural chain maps over $\Pi \circ \Theta$ : the identity $\mathrm{id}_{T_{\bullet}}: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow T_{\bullet}$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow T_{\bullet}$. By what we have already proved, these two natural chain maps are naturally chain homotopic. Similarly $\Phi \circ \Psi: S_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ is naturally chain homotopic to $\operatorname{id}_{S_{\bullet}}: S_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$. Thus $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$ is natural chain equivalence. This completes the proof.

With all this heavy lifting out of the way, let us now reap the benefits. Recall Proposition 8.5:

Proposition 23.10. Let $X$ be a topological space and define inclusions $\imath, \jmath: X \hookrightarrow$ $X \times I$ by

$$
\imath(x):=(x, 0), \quad \jmath(x):=(x, 1) .
$$

Then

$$
H_{n}(\imath)=H_{n}(\jmath), \quad \forall n \geq 0
$$

We can now give a cute easy proof.
Proof. We give Top models $\mathcal{M}=\left\{\Delta^{n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$. Then by Example 23.4, for all $n \geq 0$ the singular chain functor $C_{\bullet}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Comp has the property that $C_{n}$ is free with basis in $\mathcal{M}_{n}:=\left\{\Delta^{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{M}$. Define another functor $S_{\bullet}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Comp by $S_{\bullet}(X)=C_{\bullet}(X \times I)$. Since $\Delta^{n} \times I$ is convex, by Corollary 13.3 , every model $\Delta^{n}$ is $S_{\bullet}-$ acyclic in positive degrees (note this argument is not circular, see Remark 13.4.) Now the Acyclic Models Theorem tells us that in order to deduce that $\imath_{\#}, \jmath_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow$ $C_{\bullet}(X \times I)$ are naturally chain homotopic (and hence in particular induce the same map on homology, cf. Proposition 10.24) it suffices to show that $H_{0}(\imath)=H_{0}(\jmath)$. But this is trivial.

Here is an even simpler application of the Acyclic Models Theorem.
Proposition 23.11. Let $\Phi, \Psi: C \bullet \rightarrow C$ • denote natural transformations from the singular chain functor to itself. Assume that $\Phi_{0}=\Psi_{0}$. Then there is a natural chain homotopy from $\Phi$ to $\Psi$.

Proof. Apply the Acyclic Models Theorem with $S_{\bullet}=T_{\bullet}$ both equal to the singular chain functor, and with models $\left\{\Delta^{n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$ as above and with $\Theta=H_{0}(\Phi)=$ $H_{0}(\Psi)$.

We conclude with a much nicer proof of Theorem 13.11:
Theorem 23.12. Let $X$ be a topological space and consider the barycentric division operator $\mathrm{Sd}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X)$. Then Sd is naturally chain homotopic to the identity (and hence induces an isomorphism on homology).

Proof. Immediate from Proposition 23.11 because Sd is a natural (this is (13.3)) and $\mathrm{Sd}_{0}$ is the identity.

This is the end of Algebraic Topology I. See you next semester!
Proposition 23.13. Let C be a category with models $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that $S_{\bullet}, T_{\bullet}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Comp are non-negative functors. Assume that for all $n \geq 0, T_{n}$ is free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that each model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is $S_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees. Assume that $\Phi_{0}: S_{0} \rightarrow T_{0}$ is a natural transformation.

## LECTURE 24

## Tensor products and a taste of Tor

Welcome to Algebraic Topology II! We have lots to get through this semester, so rather than a long and fancy introduction, this time we'll get straight on to our first topic: universal coefficients.

Unfortunately before the exciting topology can start, we need a rather lengthy algebraic prelude on tensor products and the Tor functor, which will take all of today's lecture.

Definition 24.1. Let $A$ and $B$ be two abelian groups. Their tensor product is the abelian group $A \otimes B$, which has:

- Generators: all ordered pairs $(a, b)$ where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.
- Relations if $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and $b, b^{\prime} \in B$ then

$$
\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)=(a, b)+\left(a^{\prime}, b\right), \quad \text { and } \quad\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)=(a, b)+\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)
$$

More formally, $A \otimes B$ is the quotient $F / N$ where $F$ is the free abelian group with basis $A \times B$ and $N$ is the subgroup of $F$ generated by all the relations. We denote the coset $(a, b)+N$ by $a \otimes b$.

Thus a typical element $x$ of $A \otimes B$ can be written as a sum

$$
x=\sum_{i} m_{i} a_{i} \otimes b_{i}, \quad a_{i} \in A, b_{i} \in B, m_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Actually one can always dispense with the $m_{i}$, since for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \in A, b \in B$, as element of $A \otimes B$ one has

$$
m(a \otimes b)=(m a) \otimes b=a \otimes(m b)
$$

as can be easily seen from the relations.
This definition of $A \otimes B$ is rather concrete, but it is presumably not clear to most of you what the point is. We now show that the tensor product can also be specified via a universal property.

Definition 24.2. Let $A, B, C$ be abelian groups. A bilinear function $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow$ $C$ is a function such that for all $a, a^{\prime} \in A$ and all $b, b^{\prime} \in B$,

$$
\varphi\left(a+a^{\prime}, b\right)=\varphi(a, b)+\varphi\left(a^{\prime}, b\right), \quad \text { and } \quad \varphi\left(a, b+b^{\prime}\right)=\varphi(a, b)+\varphi\left(a, b^{\prime}\right)
$$

As an example, the natural map $u: A \times B \rightarrow A \otimes B$ that sends $(a, b) \mapsto a \otimes b$ is bilinear.

Definition 24.3. Suppose we are given three abelian groups $A, B, T$ and a bilinear map $\eta: A \times B \rightarrow T$. Consider the following universal property: Then we require that if $C$ is any abelian group and $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow C$ is a bilinear map, then there exists a unique homomorphism $f: T \rightarrow C$ such that the following diagram commutes:


As with all universal properties ${ }^{1}$, if such a pair $(T, \eta)$ exist, they are unique up to isomorphism. Let us verify that $(A \otimes B, u)$ does indeed solve this universal property.
Lemma 24.4. The tensor product $A \otimes B$ together with the bilinear map $u: A \times B \rightarrow$ $A \otimes B, u(a, b)=a \otimes b$, satisfies the universal property from Definition 24.3.
Proof. Let $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow C$ be a bilinear function. Recall $A \otimes B=F / N$, where $F$ is free abelian with basis $A \times B$. We first extend $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow C$ by linearity to a map $\tilde{\varphi}: F \rightarrow C$ (cf. Lemma 7.2). The relations that generate $N$ are such that $N \subset \operatorname{ker} \tilde{\varphi}$, and hence $\tilde{\varphi}$ factors to define a homomorphism $f: F / N \rightarrow C$ such that $(a, b)+N \mapsto \tilde{\varphi}(a, b)=\varphi(a, b)$, that is, $f(a \otimes b)=\varphi(a, b)$. Moreover the map $f$ is unique, since the set of all the $a \otimes b$ generate $A \otimes B$.

Being able to use universal properties makes the next result very transparent.
Proposition 24.5. Let $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $g: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ be two homomorphisms. Then there is a unique homomorphism $A \otimes B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}$, denoted by $f \otimes g$, with the property that

$$
(f \otimes g)(a \otimes b)=f a \otimes g b, \quad \forall a \in A, b \in B
$$

Moreover if $f^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$ and $g^{\prime}: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime}$ are two other homomorphisms then $\left(f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}\right) \circ(f \otimes g)=\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right) \otimes\left(g^{\prime} \circ g\right)$.
Proof. The function $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}$ defined by $\varphi(a, b):=f a \otimes g b$ is bilinear. Thus by Lemma 24.4 there is a unique homomorphism $A \otimes B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes B^{\prime}$ which maps $a \otimes b \mapsto \varphi(a, b)=f a \otimes g b$. This is our desired homomorphism $f \otimes g$. This proves the first part. For the second part, we define a bilinear map $\varphi: A \times B \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \otimes B^{\prime \prime}$ by

$$
\left.\varphi(a, b)=\left(f^{\prime}(f a)\right) \otimes g^{\prime}(g b)\right) .
$$

Then observe that both $\left(f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}\right) \circ(f \otimes g)$ and $\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right) \otimes\left(g^{\prime} \circ g\right)$ fit on the dashed line to make the following diagram commute:


Thus by the uniqueness part of Lemma 24.4, we must have $\left(f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}\right) \circ(f \otimes g)=$ $\left(f^{\prime} \circ f\right) \otimes\left(g^{\prime} \circ g\right)$. This completes the proof.

[^47]This means we can view the tensor product as a functor.
Corollary 24.6. Let $A$ be an abelian group. There is a functor $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ such that $T(B)=A \otimes B$ and if $f: B \rightarrow C$ then $T(f)=\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f: A \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes C$.

Proof. Let $f: B \rightarrow C$ and $g: C \rightarrow D$. By the second part of Proposition 24.5, we have

$$
\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g\right) \circ\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)=\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes(g \circ f),
$$

which shows that $T$ preserves compositions. The fact that $\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes \mathrm{id}_{B}=\mathrm{id}_{A \otimes B}$ is obvious.

We normally denote the functor $T$ by $A \otimes \square$. Similarly, given a fixed abelian group $B$, there is a functor $\square \otimes B: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ that sends $A \mapsto A \otimes B$, and sends morphisms $f: A \rightarrow C$ to $f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}: A \otimes B \rightarrow C \otimes B$.

We briefly mentioned additive functors last semester. Let me remind you of the definition.

Definition 24.7. A functor $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is said to be additive if $T(f+g)=$ $T(f)+T(g)$ for any two morphisms $f, g: A \rightarrow B$.

An additive functor has the nice property that $T(0)=0$, where 0 denotes either the zero group or the zero homomorphism.

The next result summarises some more properties of the tensor product. The proofs of parts (1)-(4) are all trivial. The proofs of (5) and (6) are slightly harder, and they are relegated to Problem Sheet L.

Proposition 24.8.

1. There is an isomorphism $A \otimes B \cong B \otimes A$ taking $a \otimes b$ to $b \otimes a$. The functors $A \otimes \square$ and $\square \otimes A$ are isomorphic.
2. The functors $A \otimes \square$ and $\square \otimes A$ are additive.
3. If $f: B \rightarrow B$ is multiplication by an integer $m, f b=m b$ for all $b \in B$, then $\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f: A \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes B$ is also multiplication for $m$ (and similarly for $f \otimes$ $\mathrm{id}_{A}: B \otimes A \rightarrow B \otimes A$.)
4. For any abelian group $A$, the map $\mathbb{Z} \otimes A \rightarrow A$ given by $m \otimes a \mapsto m a$ is an isomorphism. Denoting this map by $\Phi(A)$, the resulting family $\Phi$ defines a natural equivalence $\mathbb{Z} \otimes \square \rightarrow \operatorname{id}_{\mathrm{Ab}}$ in Ab .
5. If $A$ is an abelian group and $\left\{B_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a (possibly uncountable) family of abelian groups then there is an isomorphism

$$
A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right)
$$

6. If $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are free abelian groups then so is $F \otimes F^{\prime}$.

Now for an algebraic definition.

Definition 24.9. Let $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ be an additive functor. We say that $T$ is exact if given any exact sequence

$$
A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C,
$$

the corresponding sequence

$$
T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(C)
$$

is also exact. We say that $T$ is left exact if given any exact sequence of the form

$$
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C,
$$

the corresponding sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(C)
$$

is also exact (That is, a left exact functor $T$ preserves an exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ if the first map $f$ is injective). Similarly we say that $T$ is right exact if if given any exact sequence of the form

$$
A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0,
$$

the corresponding sequence

$$
T(A) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(C) \rightarrow 0
$$

is also exact. (That is, a right exact functor $T$ preserves an exact sequence $A \xrightarrow{f}$ $B \xrightarrow{g} C$ if the second map $g$ is surjective).

Thus an exact functor is both left exact and right exact.
Proposition 24.10. The functors $A \otimes \square$ and $\square \otimes A$ are both right exact.
Proof. We will prove $A \otimes \square$ is right exact. The proof for $\square \otimes A$ is almost identical. Suppose $B \xrightarrow{f} C \xrightarrow{g} D \rightarrow 0$ is exact. We must show that

$$
A \otimes B \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes f} A \otimes C \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g} A \otimes D \rightarrow 0
$$

is also exact. There are three things to check:

1. $\operatorname{im}\left(\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g\right)$.
2. $\operatorname{ker}\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g\right) \subseteq \operatorname{im}^{\left(\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)}$.
3. $\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g$ is surjective.

The proof of (1) is easy:

$$
\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g\right) \circ\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)=\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g f\right)=\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes 0\right)=0,
$$

where we used the second statement of Proposition 24.5 and the fact that $A \otimes \square$ i additive.

The proof of (2) is rather trickier. For this, let us denote by $E:=\operatorname{im}_{\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)}$. Then the map id ${ }_{A} \otimes g: A \otimes C \rightarrow A \otimes D$ induces a map $h:(A \otimes C) / E \rightarrow A \otimes D$ given by

$$
a \otimes c+E \mapsto a \otimes g c
$$

(this is well defined by part (1)). By definition, one has $\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes g=h \circ p$, where $p: A \otimes C \rightarrow(A \otimes C) / E$ is the quotient map. We will prove that $h$ is an isomorphism. Then

$$
\operatorname{im}^{2}\left(\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)=E=\operatorname{ker} p=\operatorname{ker}(h \circ p)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes g\right) .
$$

We will use the universal property of the tensor product to find an inverse to $h$. Given $d \in D$, since $g$ is surjective there exists $c \in C$ such that $g c=d$. If $c^{\prime}$ is another such element of $C$ such that $g c^{\prime}=d$ then $c-c^{\prime} \in \operatorname{ker} g=\operatorname{im} f$, and thus there exists $b \in B$ such that $f b=c-c^{\prime}$. Thus for any $a \in A$,

$$
a \otimes c-a \otimes c^{\prime}=a \otimes\left(c-c^{\prime}\right)=\left(\operatorname{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)(a \otimes b) \in \operatorname{im}^{\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes f\right)}=E .
$$

This means that there is a well defined map $\varphi: A \times D \rightarrow(A \otimes C) / E$ given by

$$
\varphi(a, d)=a \otimes c+E,
$$

where $c$ is any element of $C$ such that $g c=d$. The function $\varphi$ is obviously bilinear, and hence by the universal property there exists a homomorphism $j: A \otimes D \rightarrow(A \otimes C) / E$ such that $j(a \otimes d)=a \otimes c+E$ (where as before, $c$ is any element of $C$ such that $g c=d$.) Then by definition, $j \circ h=\operatorname{id}_{(A \otimes C) / E}$ and $h \circ j=\operatorname{id}_{A \otimes D}$. This proves (2).

Finally, if $\sum a_{i} \otimes d_{i}$ is an element of $A \otimes D$, since $g$ is surjective we can choose $c_{i} \in C$ such that $g c_{i}=d_{i}$. Then

$$
\left(\mathrm{id}_{A} \otimes g\right)\left(\sum a_{i} \otimes c_{i}\right)=\sum a_{i} \otimes d_{i}
$$

which proves (3).
Now let us define free resolutions.
Definition 24.11. Suppose $A$ is an abelian group. A free resolution of $A$ is an exact sequence of the form

$$
\cdots \rightarrow F_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} F_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{1}} F_{0} \xrightarrow{f_{0}} A \rightarrow 0,
$$

where each $F_{i}$ is a free abelian group. A short free resolution ${ }^{2}$ of $A$ is a free resolution where each $F_{i}$ for $i \geq 2$ is the zero group, that is, a sequence of the form

$$
0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0
$$

where $K$ and $F$ are both free.
Let us show that short resolutions always exist.

[^48]Proposition 24.12. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Then there exists a short free resolution of $A$.

Proof. Let $F$ be the free abelian group with basis the elements of $A$. There is a surjective homomorphism $F \rightarrow A$ obtained by extending by linearity (Lemma 7.2) the map that sends each basis element to itself. Let $K$ denote the kernel of this map. Then $K$ is a subgroup of a free abelian group, and hence is also a free abelian group ${ }^{3}$, and by construction, $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is exact.

We now define the Tor functor.
DEFINITION 24.13. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Let $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{f} F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be a short free resolution of $A$. Given any other abelian group $B$, we define

$$
\operatorname{Tor}(A, B):=\operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right)
$$

Thus $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$ measures the failure of $\square \otimes B$ to be left exact on the sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$.

You should all immediately be asking: is this well defined? That is, does the value of $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$ depend on the choice of short free resolution? The answer (luckily!) is no. We will prove this next lecture using the Comparison Theorem (Proposition 22.7) from last semester.

[^49]
## LECTURE 25

## The Universal Coefficients Theorem

This lecture we'll begin by showing how to make Tor into a functor. This requires a few preliminaries.

Definition 25.1. Suppose $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ is a chain complex and $A$ is an abelian group. Let us denote by $C \bullet \otimes A$ the chain complex whose $n$th group is $C_{n} \otimes A$, and whose boundary operator is $\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$. The fact that this is a chain complex (i.e. that $\left(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right) \circ\left(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right)=0$ ) follows from additivity of $\square \otimes A$ (part (2) of Proposition 24.8). In this way we can view $\square \otimes A$ also as a functor Comp $\rightarrow$ Comp.

Lemma 25.2. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be two chain complexes, and let $A$ be an abelian group.

1. Suppose $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain map. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Then $f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}: C \bullet \otimes A \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes A$ is also a chain map.
2. Suppose $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $g: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are two chain maps which are chain homotopic. Then the chain maps $f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$ and $g \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$ are also chain homotopic.

Proof. For the first statement, note that

$$
\left(f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right) \circ\left(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right)=(f \circ \partial) \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}=\left(\partial^{\prime} \circ f\right) \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}=\left(\partial^{\prime} \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right) \circ\left(f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right)
$$

For the second, if $P$ is a chain homotopy from $f$ to $g$, that is, $\partial^{\prime} P+P \partial=f-g$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\partial^{\prime} \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right) \circ\left(P \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right)+\left(P \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right) \circ\left(\partial \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right) & =\partial^{\prime} P \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}+P \partial \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A} \\
& =\left(\partial^{\prime} P+P \partial\right) \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A} \\
& =(f-g) \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A} \\
& =f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}-g \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}
\end{aligned}
$$

so that $P \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$ is a chain homotopy between $f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$ and $g \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}$.
Now let us rephrase the definition of Tor in rather fancier language. Suppose $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{f} F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is a short free resolution. Let us define a (rather stupid) chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ by setting:

$$
C_{n}:= \begin{cases}F, & n=0  \tag{25.1}\\ K, & n=1 \\ 0, & n \neq 0,1\end{cases}
$$

and defining the boundary map $\partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0}$ to be $f: K \rightarrow F$. Then this chain complex has the property that

$$
H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=F / \operatorname{im} f \cong A .
$$

Note this chain complex is both free and acyclic in positive degrees. Now let us tensor this chain complex with $B$, forming a new complex $\left(C \bullet B, \partial \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right)$ (this complex is not free if $B$ is not free.) This new complex has the property that

$$
H_{1}(C \bullet B)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}: C_{1} \otimes B \rightarrow C_{0} \otimes B\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right)=\operatorname{Tor}(A, B) .
$$

Fix an abelian group $B$. We will show that $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, B): A b \rightarrow A b$ is a functor. We have already defined $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, B)$ on objects (i.e. abelian groups), so it remains to explain what it does to morphisms. Thus suppose $h: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism. We wish to define a homomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Tor}(h, B): \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) .
$$

Let $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow K^{\prime} \rightarrow F^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$ be two short free resolutions of $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ respectively, and denote by $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ the corresponding chain complexes, as described in (25.1), so that

$$
H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=A, \quad H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)=A^{\prime}
$$

We can therefore think of $h: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ as a map $H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$. Now we invoke Theorem 22.7, which tells us there exists a chain map $g: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ with $H_{0}(g)=h$.

Tensoring with $B$, we get a chain map $g \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}:: C_{\bullet} \otimes B \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes B$ by the first part of Lemma 25.2. Now pass to the first homology group to get a map

$$
H_{1}\left(g \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right): H_{1}(C \bullet \otimes B) \rightarrow H_{1}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes B\right)
$$

Since $H_{1}(C \bullet B)=\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$ and $H_{1}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes B\right)=\operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$, we can think of this a map

$$
\operatorname{Tor}(h, B):=H_{1}\left(g \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right): \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)
$$

We still haven't addressed the question as to why Tor is well defined (i.e. that it doesn't depend on the choice of short free resolution.) This is proved in the same way as the argument above: we start with two short free resolutions $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow K^{\prime} \rightarrow F^{\prime} \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ of the same group $A$. Denote as before the two chain complexes by $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$. Now take $h$ to be the identity.

Invoking Theorem 22.7 again, we obtain a chain map $g: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ with $H_{0}(g)=$ $\mathrm{id}_{A}$. Moreover, by Corollary 22.9, this chain map $g$ is a chain equivalence. By the second part of Lemma 25.2, the tensored map $g \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}$ is also a chain equivalence. Thus in particular $H_{1}\left(g \otimes \mathrm{id}_{A}\right)$ is an isomorphism, which implies that

$$
H_{1}(C \bullet \otimes B) \cong H_{1}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes B\right) .
$$

Thus $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$ is indeed independent of the choice of short free resolution.
We have therefore proved:

Proposition 25.3. For each fixed abelian group $B$, $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, B): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor.
Remark 25.4. In a similar vein, we can also fix the first variable of Tor: if $A$ is any abelian group then $\operatorname{Tor}(A, \square): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor, and the value of $\operatorname{Tor}(A, \square)$ on $B$ is isomorphic to the value of $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, B)$ on $A$ (this is not so easy to prove though!) I will leave if to you as an exercise to guess how to define the induced map $\operatorname{Tor}(A, h): \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)$ for a given homomorphism $h: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$.

The next result is on Problem Sheet L.
Lemma 25.5. Suppose $B$ is a torsion-free abelian group. Then$\square B$ and $B \otimes$are exact functors.

The following theorem summarises the main properties of Tor.
Theorem 25.6 (Properties of Tor).

1. If either $A$ or $B$ are torsion-free abelian groups then $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=0$.
2. If ${ }^{1} T(A)$ denotes the torsion subgroup of $A$ then for any abelian group $B$ one has $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=\operatorname{Tor}(T(A), B)$.
3. If $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence, then there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow A \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes B^{\prime} \rightarrow A \otimes B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$.
Similarly if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence, then there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow A \otimes B \rightarrow A^{\prime} \otimes B \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \otimes B \rightarrow 0$.
4. For any two abelian groups $A, B$, $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{Tor}(B, A)$.
5. If $B$ is an abelian group and $\left\{A_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a (possibly uncountable) family of abelian groups then there is an isomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Tor}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}, B\right) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \operatorname{Tor}\left(A_{\lambda}, B\right)
$$

and similarly

$$
\operatorname{Tor}\left(B, \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \operatorname{Tor}\left(B, A_{\lambda}\right)
$$

6. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and any abelian group $B$,

$$
\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, B\right) \cong\{b \in B \mid m b=0\} .
$$

[^50]Proof. If $A$ is free then we can choose a silly short free resolution: $0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow$ $A \rightarrow 0$. Then clearly $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=0$ for any abelian group $B$. If $B$ is torsion-free then by Lemma 25.5, for any short free resolution $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A$ of $A$, the sequence $0 \rightarrow K \otimes B \rightarrow F \otimes B \rightarrow A \otimes B \rightarrow 0$ is exact, so that $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=0$ in this case too. This proves part (1) in the case where $A$ is free and the case where $B$ is torsion-free. We have not yet done the case where $A$ is merely torsion-free; we will do this after proving part (4).

Let us skip part (2) for now and prove the first statement of part (3). Suppose $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact. Let $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be a short free resolution of $A$. Let $C$ • denote the chain complex as defined in (25.1), so that $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=H_{1}(C \bullet B)$ and similarly for the other two. Then since $K$ and $F$ are free, by Lemma 25.5 again, the following diagram has exact rows:


This means that

$$
0 \rightarrow C \bullet \otimes B \rightarrow C \bullet \otimes B^{\prime} \rightarrow C \bullet \otimes B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short exact sequence of chain complexes. The desired sequence (25.2) is then simply the last six terms of the long exact sequence in homology (Theorem 11.5) associated to this short exact sequence. This proves the first statement of part (3). We will prove the second statement of part (3) after we have proved part (4).

Suppose $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is a short free resolution of $A$. Then for any abelian group $B$, since $K$ and $F$ are free, from part (1) we know that $\operatorname{Tor}(B, K)=$ $\operatorname{Tor}(B, F)=0$. We then apply (25.2) to the exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ to obtain an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(B, A) \rightarrow B \otimes K \rightarrow B \otimes F \rightarrow B \otimes A \rightarrow 0 .
$$

By definition of $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$, the bottom row of the next diagram is exact:


The vertical arrows are isomorphisms by natural commutativity of the tensor product (part (1) of Proposition 24.8). Since the squares commute and the two rows are exact there is a map $\operatorname{Tor}(B, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$, which then by the Five Lemma (Proposition $11.3)$ is an isomorphism. This proves part (4).

Now we can go back and finish the proof of part (1): if $A$ is torsion-free then for any abelian group $B$, using part (4) we have $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)=\operatorname{Tor}(B, A)=0$, since we have already shown that $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, A)$ vanishes on torsion-free groups.

We can also now prove part (2). Note that for any abelian group $A$, if $T(A)$ denotes the torsion subgroup then $A / T(A)$ is torsion-free. Thus by part (1) (which we
have now completely proved) we have $\operatorname{Tor}(A / T(A), B)=0$ for any abelian group $B$. We now apply part (3) to the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A / T(A) \rightarrow 0$. The first three terms of (25.2) become

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(T(A), B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

This proves part (2). The second sequence (25.3) in part (3) also easily follows from (25.2), given part (4).

The proof of part (5) is easy: if $0 \rightarrow K_{\lambda} \rightarrow F_{\lambda} \rightarrow A_{\lambda} \rightarrow 0$ is a short free resolution of $A_{\lambda}$ then

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} K_{\lambda} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} F_{\lambda} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda} \rightarrow 0
$$

is a short free resolution of $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}$. This proves the first statement of part (5), and the second statement then follows by applying part (4).

Finally, the proof of part (6) is also easy. For this we use the short free resolution $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{m} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m} \rightarrow 0$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$. The desired result then follows by applying part (3) of Proposition 24.8. This finally finishes the proof of the theorem.

Remark 25.7. Theorem 25.6 allows one to compute the value of Tor in some easy situations. For instance, $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d}$, where $d$ is the greatest common divisor of $m$ and $n$.

Finally some topology:
Definition 25.8. Let $X$ be a topological spaces and let $A$ be an abelian group. Let $C_{\bullet}(X)$ denote the singular chain complex, and set $C_{\bullet}(X ; A):=C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes A$. Thus a typical $n$-chain in $C_{n}(X ; A)$ has the form $\sum a_{i} \otimes \sigma_{i}$, where $a_{i} \in A$ and $\sigma_{i}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $n$-simplex in $X$. We define the $n$th singular homology of $X$ with coefficients in $A$ to be the group

$$
H_{n}(X ; A):=H_{n}(C \bullet(X ; A)) .
$$

In the same way, if $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is a subspace we define the chain complex ${ }^{2} C_{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right)$ and the relative homology with coefficients in $A$.

It follows from part (4) of Proposition 24.8 that taking $A=\mathbb{Z}$ recovers the normal singular homology groups:

$$
H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}\right)=H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)
$$

Remark 25.9. Let $A$ be an abelian group. We define a homology theory ( $\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta$ ) with coefficients in $A$ in exactly the same way as we defined a (normal) homology theory in Definition 21.9, apart from the dimension axiom is replaced by:

- If $\{*\}$ is a one-point space then $\mathcal{H}_{n}(*)=0$ for all $n>0$ and $\mathcal{H}_{0}(*)=A$.

Singular homology with coefficients in $A$ is then an example of a homology theory with coefficients in $A$.

[^51]We will see shortly why homology with coefficients is useful. For instance, taking $A=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is often particularly pleasant, as this allows one to ignore all $\pm$ signs that crop up in formulae. On Problem Sheet L you will see that taking $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ coefficients gives one an easier way to prove Theorem 15.12, that an odd map has an odd degree.

Another useful choice is $A=\mathbb{R}$; this gives homology with real coefficients. This theory is particularly useful in differential geometry (when $X$ is a manifold). Since $\mathbb{R}$ is torsion-free, we will see shortly that one always has

$$
H_{n}(X ; \mathbb{R})=H_{n}(X) \otimes \mathbb{R}
$$

Here is the main theorem of today's lecture:
Theorem 25.10 (The Universal Coefficients Theorem). Let $X$ be a topological space and let $A$ be an abelian group. Then for every $n \geq 0$ there is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow H_{n}(X) \otimes A \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(X), A\right) \rightarrow 0, \tag{25.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega$ is the map $\langle c\rangle \otimes a \mapsto\langle c \otimes a\rangle$. Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}(X ; A) \cong H_{n}(X) \otimes A \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(X), A\right) . \tag{25.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 25.11. The splitting of the sequence (25.4) is not natural, and hence the isomorphism (25.5) is also not natural (cf. Remark 12.17.)

In fact we will prove a more general statement:
Theorem 25.12 (The Universal Coefficients Theorem II). Let ( $C_{\bullet}, \partial$ ) denote a free chain complex and let $A$ denote an abelian group. Then for every $n \geq 0$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

where $\omega$ is the map $\langle c\rangle \otimes a \mapsto\langle c \otimes a\rangle$. Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes A\right) \cong H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) .
$$

We will need the following lemma, whose proof is again on Problem Sheet L. It tells us that split exact sequences are always preserved by additive functors.

Lemma 25.13. If $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is an additive functor and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is any split exact sequence, then $0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow T(B) \rightarrow T(C) \rightarrow 0$ is also a split exact sequence.

Proof of Theorem 25.12. The proof is even more tedious and long-winded than the proof of Theorem 25.6, and we will break the proof up into four steps.

1. Let $B_{n} \subseteq Z_{n} \subseteq C_{n}$ denote the boundaries and cycles respectively. Let us also denote by $i: Z_{n} \hookrightarrow C_{n}$ the inclusion. Then we have an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow Z_{n} \xrightarrow{i} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial} B_{n-1} \rightarrow 0 \tag{25.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $B_{n-1}$ is a subgroup of the free abelian group $C_{n-1}, B_{n-1}$ is itself free, and hence by part (3) of Problem F.6, the exact sequence (25.6) splits. To keep the notation simple, for the rest of the proof we write id for $\mathrm{id}_{A}$. Now tensor with $A$ to obtain another split exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow Z_{n} \otimes A \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{n} \otimes A \xrightarrow{\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}} B_{n-1} \otimes A \rightarrow 0, \tag{25.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we are using Lemma 25.13. Next, we can view $Z_{\bullet}$ as a subcomplex of $C \bullet$ where all the boundary operators are zero. Define a chain complex $B_{\bullet}^{+}$to be the chain complex whose $n$th group $B_{n}^{+}:=B_{n-1}$ and again with all the boundary operators zero. We can then think of $\partial$ as defining a chain map $C_{\bullet} \rightarrow B_{\bullet}^{+}$. Thus we can assemble the short exact sequences (25.7) into a short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow Z \bullet \otimes A \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathrm{id}} C \bullet \otimes A \xrightarrow{\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}} B_{\bullet}^{+} \otimes A \rightarrow 0 .
$$

2. Now consider the long exact sequence in homology associated to this short exact sequence. Since $Z_{\bullet}$ and $B_{\bullet}^{+}$have zero boundary operators, we have

$$
H_{n}(Z \bullet \otimes A)=Z_{n} \otimes A, \quad H_{n}\left(B_{\bullet}^{+} \otimes A\right)=B_{n-1} \otimes A
$$

and hence if $\delta$ is the connecting homomorphism of the long exact sequence, we can write it as:

$$
\ldots B_{n} \otimes A \xrightarrow{\delta} Z_{n} \otimes A \rightarrow H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow B_{n-1} \otimes A \xrightarrow{\delta} Z_{n-1} \otimes A \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Thus for every $n$ there is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow Z_{n} \otimes A / \operatorname{im} \delta \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker} \delta \rightarrow 0 \tag{25.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega$ is the map induced by $H_{n}(i \otimes \mathrm{id})$ :

$$
\omega: z \otimes a+\operatorname{im} \delta \mapsto H_{n}(i \otimes \mathrm{id})(z \otimes a)=\langle z \otimes a\rangle
$$

(recall $i$ is just an inclusion.) Let us identify the connecting homomorphism $\delta$. From Theorem 11.5, we have for a generator $b \otimes a \in B_{n-1} \otimes A$ that

$$
\delta(b \otimes a)=(i \otimes \mathrm{id})^{-1}(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id})(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id})^{-1}(b \otimes a),
$$

which is just $b \otimes a$ again, only now regarded as an element of $Z_{n-1} \otimes A$. Thus if $j: B_{\bullet} \hookrightarrow Z$ • is the inclusion, then $\delta=j \otimes \mathrm{id}$. This means we can rewrite (25.8) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow\left(Z_{n} \otimes A\right) / \operatorname{im}(j \otimes \mathrm{id}) \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(j \otimes \mathrm{id}) \rightarrow 0 \tag{25.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. The definition of homology gives exact sequences

$$
0 \rightarrow B_{n-1} \xrightarrow{j} Z_{n-1} \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

In fact, this is a short free resolution, since (as we have already observed), both $B_{n-1}$ and $Z_{n-1}$ are free. Thus $\operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right)=\operatorname{ker}(j \otimes \mathrm{id})$. Next, apply (25.3) to this
short exact sequence, and use the fact that $\operatorname{Tor}\left(Z_{n-1}, A\right)=0$ as $Z_{n-1}$ is free to obtain exact sequences

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) \rightarrow B_{n-1} \otimes A \xrightarrow{j \otimes \mathrm{id}} Z_{n-1} \otimes A \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A \rightarrow 0 .
$$

This tells us that (replacing $n-1$ with $n$ ) that

$$
\left(Z_{n} \otimes A\right) / \operatorname{im}(j \otimes \mathrm{id})=\operatorname{coker}(j \otimes \mathrm{id})=H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A
$$

Thus we can rewrite (25.9) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(C \bullet), A\right) \rightarrow 0, \tag{25.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is what we were trying to prove.
4. It remains to show that (25.10) splits. For this, let $r: C_{n} \rightarrow Z_{n}$ denote a splitting of (25.6) (such an $r$ exists by part (1) of Problem F.6). Then the composition

$$
\operatorname{ker}(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}) \subseteq C \bullet \otimes A \xrightarrow{r \otimes \mathrm{id}} Z_{n} \otimes A \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A
$$

maps $\operatorname{im}(\partial \otimes \mathrm{id})$ to zero and hence induces a map $\rho: H_{n}(C \bullet \otimes A) \rightarrow H_{n}(C \bullet) \otimes A$ with $\rho \circ \omega$ the identity on $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes A$. This finally completes the proof.

## LECTURE 26

## The Algebraic Künneth Theorem

In the next two lectures we will show how to compute the homology of a product $X \times Y$ in terms of the homology of $X$ and the homology of $Y$. The answer is not as simple as one might naively guess (it involves Tor terms!). This lecture we prove a purely algebraic statement about the homology of the tensor product of two free chain complexes; next lecture we will apply this to the singular chain complex.

We first generalise Definition 25.1 and tensor two entire chain complexes together (rather than just a chain complex and a single group).

Definition 26.1. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be two non-negative chain complexes. The tensor product chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \Delta\right)$ is the chain complex whose $n$th group is

$$
\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)_{n}:=\bigoplus_{i+j=n} C_{i} \otimes C_{j}^{\prime},
$$

and the boundary operator $\Delta$ is defined by

$$
\Delta\left(c_{i} \otimes c_{j}^{\prime}\right):=\partial c_{i} \otimes c_{j}^{\prime}+(-1)^{i} c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}, \quad c_{i} \in C_{i}, c_{j} \in C_{j}^{\prime}
$$

Note $C \bullet C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is also non-negative.
The $(-1)^{i}$ in the second term is included to ensure that $\Delta \circ \Delta=0$. Indeed, if $c_{i} \in C_{i}$ and $c_{j} \in C_{j}^{\prime}$, then since $\partial c_{i} \in C_{i-1}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \circ \Delta\left(c_{i} \otimes c_{j}\right) & =\Delta\left(\partial c_{i} \otimes c_{j}^{\prime}+(-1)^{i} c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\partial^{2} c_{i} \otimes c_{j}^{\prime}+(-1)^{i-1} \partial c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}+(-1)^{i} \partial c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}+(-1)^{2 i} c_{i} \otimes\left(\partial^{\prime}\right)^{2} c_{j}^{\prime} \\
& =0+(-1)^{i}\left(\partial c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}-\partial c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} c_{j}^{\prime}\right) \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 26.2. Let $C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, D_{\bullet}, D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be four non-negative chain complexes. Let $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ and $g: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be two chain maps. We define a chain map

$$
f \otimes g: C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}^{\prime}
$$

given by

$$
(f \otimes g)_{n}=\sum_{i+j=n} f_{i} \otimes g_{j}
$$

The verification that this is indeed a chain map is trivial, and I will leave it to you. The following result is slightly trickier, and is on Problem Sheet M.

Lemma 26.3. Let $C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, D_{\bullet}, D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be four non-negative chain complexes. Assume we are given four chain maps

$$
f, f^{\prime}: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}, \quad g, g^{\prime}: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}^{\prime},
$$

and assume that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic and $g$ and $g^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic. Then $f \otimes g$ is chain homotopic to $f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}$.

An immediate corollary is then:
Corollary 26.4. Let $C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, D_{\bullet}, D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be four non-negative chain complexes. If $C_{\bullet}$ is chain equivalent to $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ and $D_{\bullet}$ is chain equivalent to $D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ then $C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}$ is chain equivalent to $C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$.

We now aim to prove the Algebraic Künneth Theorem, which tells us how to compute the homology of a tensor product complex $C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}$ under the additional assumption that both $C_{\bullet}$ and $D_{\bullet}$ are free. The reason for the "algebraic" is that next lecture we will prove a "topological" version of the same result.

Theorem 26.5 (The Algebraic Künneth Theorem). Let ( $C_{\bullet}, \partial$ ) and ( $D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}$ ) be two non-negative free chain complexes. Then for every $n \geq 0$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes H_{j}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{k}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), H_{l}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

where $\omega$ is the map $\left\langle c_{i}\right\rangle \otimes\left\langle d_{j}\right\rangle \mapsto\left\langle c_{i} \otimes d_{j}\right\rangle$. Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \cong\left(\bigoplus_{i+j=n} H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes H_{j}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)\right) \oplus\left(\bigoplus_{k+l=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{k}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), H_{l}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)\right)\right)
$$

The proof of Theorem 26.5 requires two preliminary results.
Proposition 26.6. Let $E_{\bullet}$ be a non-negative chain complex where every boundary operator is the zero map. Let $\left(D_{\mathbf{\bullet}}, \partial\right)$ be any non-negative chain complex. For $i \geq 0$, let $D_{\bullet}^{i}$ denote the chain complex whose $n$th group is $D_{n}^{i}:=D_{n-i}$ and with boundary operator $\partial: D_{n}^{i} \rightarrow D_{n-1}^{i}$ equal to $\partial: D_{n-i} \rightarrow D_{n-i-1}$. Then

$$
H_{n}\left(E_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} H_{n}\left(E_{i} \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}\right)
$$

(here the chain complex $E_{i} \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}$ is just the chain complex $D_{\bullet}^{i}$ tensored with the abelian group $E_{i}$, as in Definition 25.1.)

Proof. Since $E_{\bullet}$ has zero boundary operators, the boundary operator $\Delta$ of $E_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}$ is given in degree $n$ by

$$
\Delta\left(e_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right)=(-1)^{i} e_{i} \otimes \partial d_{n-i}=(-1)^{i}\left(\operatorname{id}_{E_{i}} \otimes \partial\right)\left(e_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right),
$$

where $e_{i} \in E_{i}, d_{n-i} \in D_{n-i}$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}\left(E_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) & =\bigoplus_{i \geq 0} \frac{\operatorname{ker}\left(\left.\operatorname{id}_{E_{i}} \otimes \partial\right|_{D_{n-i}}\right)}{\operatorname{im}\left(\left.\operatorname{id}_{E_{i}} \otimes \partial\right|_{D_{n+1-i}}\right)} \\
& =\bigoplus_{i \geq 0} H_{n}\left(E_{i} \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

LEmmA 26.7. Let $0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of non-negative chain complexes. Let $D_{\bullet}$ be a non-negative free chain complex. Then

$$
0 \rightarrow C \bullet \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

is another short exact sequence of chain complexes.
The proof of Lemma 26.7 is relegated to Problem Sheet M.
Proof of the Künneth Theorem 26.5. The proof is broken into three steps. The third step uses the Universal Coefficients Theorem 25.12.

1. Let $H_{\bullet}$ denote the chain complex whose $n$th group is $H_{n}=H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$, and with all its boundary operators zero. In this first step, we will set up notation and then define a homomorphism $\varphi: H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(H_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right)$. In the second step we will prove that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism. This allows us to reduce the problem of computing $H_{n}\left(C \bullet D_{\bullet}\right)$ to that of $H_{n}\left(H_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right)$, and for this Proposition 26.6 is applicable.

We will use the same notation as in the proof of the Universal Coefficients Theorem 25.12: let $B_{n} \subseteq Z_{n} \subseteq C_{n}$ denote the boundaries and cycles of $C_{n}$, and let $B_{\bullet}^{+}$and
 with zero boundary operators. Let $i: Z_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ and $j: B_{n} \rightarrow Z_{n}$ denote inclusions, and finally let $p: Z_{n} \rightarrow H_{n}$ denote the projection $c \mapsto\langle c\rangle$. Thus we have two short exact sequences of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow Z_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{i} C_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\partial} B_{\bullet}^{+} \rightarrow 0
$$

and

$$
0 \rightarrow B \bullet \xrightarrow{j} Z_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{p} H_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0,
$$

where in the first sequence we think of the boundary operator $\partial$ as a chain map $C_{\bullet} \rightarrow B_{\bullet}^{+}$. Since each term of $D_{\bullet}$ is free abelian, by Lemma 26.7, these sequences remain exact when we tensor with $D_{\bullet}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow Z_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{i \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}} B_{\bullet}^{+} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0 \tag{26.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow B_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{j \otimes \mathrm{id}} Z_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{p \otimes \mathrm{id}} H_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0 \tag{26.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $r: C_{n} \rightarrow Z_{n}$ denote a splitting of $0 \rightarrow Z_{n} \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow B_{n-1} \rightarrow 0$ (such an $r$ exists as $B_{n-1}$ is free abelian, as discussed at the end of the proof of Theorem 25.12 last lecture.) Define $\mu: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{\bullet}$ by $\mu=p \circ r$, that is,

$$
\mu c=\langle r c\rangle .
$$

We claim that $\mu: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{\bullet}$ is a chain map. Indeed, if $c \in C_{n+1}$ then $\mu \circ \partial c=$ $\langle r \partial c\rangle=\langle\partial c\rangle=0$, since $\partial c \in B_{n} \subseteq Z_{n}$ and $\left.r\right|_{Z_{n}}=\mathrm{id}_{Z_{n}}$. Since $H_{\bullet}$ has zero boundary operators, this shows that $\mu$ is indeed a chain map.

We then define

$$
\varphi: H_{n}\left(C \bullet \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(H_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right), \quad \varphi:=H_{n}(\mu \otimes \mathrm{id})
$$

2. In the second step, we will show that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism. For this we take the long exact sequences in homology associated to the short exact sequences of chain complexes (26.1) and (26.2), and then "stick them together" as follows:


Here $\delta$ and $\delta^{\prime}$ are the two connecting homomorphisms. The vertical maps are all isomorphisms: the second and fifth are just the identity maps, and the first and fourth come from the fact that by definition of $B_{\bullet}^{+}$, one has

$$
H_{n+1}\left(B_{\bullet}^{+} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(B_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right)
$$

You can probably all now guess how we're going to prove that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism (the Five Lemma). The only problem is in the "stick them together" above: one cannot just bung two exact sequences together and hope that the resulting diagram commutes! So we need to check this by hand.

In the following we denote by $\Delta$ the boundary operators in all the tensored complexes. Let us show the last square commutes. Let $b_{i}^{+} \otimes d_{n-i} \in B_{i}^{+} \otimes D_{n-i}$ be a non-zero cycle in $B_{i}^{+} \otimes D_{n-i}=B_{i-1} \otimes D_{n-i}$. Then since $B_{\bullet}^{+}$has zero boundary operators, we have

$$
0=\Delta\left(b_{i}^{+} \otimes d_{n-i}\right)=(-1)^{i} b_{i}^{+} \otimes \partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}
$$

Since $B_{i}^{+} \otimes D_{n-i-1}$ is free abelian by Problem L.2, it follows that $\partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}=0$, and hence $d_{n-i}$ is a cycle in $D_{n-i}$. Now choose $c_{i} \in C_{i}$ such that $\partial c_{i}=b_{i}^{+}$. By definition of the connecting homomorphism $\delta$, we have

$$
\delta\left\langle b_{i}^{+} \otimes d_{n-i}\right\rangle=\left\langle\Delta\left(c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right)\right\rangle .
$$

However

$$
\Delta\left(c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right)=\partial c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}+(-1)^{i} c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}=b_{i}^{+} \otimes d_{n-i}
$$

since $\partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}=0$. This shows that the last square commutes on a set of generators for $H_{n}\left(B_{\bullet}^{+} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right)$. Exactly the same argument (with $n$ replaced by $n+1$ ) shows the first square commutes, and the proof of the second square is similarly routine.

The third square is a little trickier. If $c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}$ is a cycle in $C_{i} \otimes D_{n-i}$ then

$$
\Delta\left(c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right)=\partial c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}+(-1)^{i} c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}=0
$$

Applying $r \otimes \mathrm{id}$ to this equation we obtain:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\partial c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}=-(-1)^{i} r c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}, \tag{26.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $r\left(\partial c_{i}\right)=\partial c_{i}$. The connecting homomorphism $\delta^{\prime}$ is given by $(j \otimes \mathrm{id})^{-1} \circ \Delta \circ(p \otimes$ id) $)^{-1}$ (cf. (11.3)). Thus going anti-clockwise round the third square sends $\left\langle c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right\rangle$ to $(-1)^{i}\left\langle r c_{i} \otimes \partial^{\prime} d_{n-i}\right\rangle$. Meanwhile going clockwise sends $\left\langle c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right\rangle$ to $\left\langle\partial c_{i} \otimes d_{n-i}\right\rangle$. Thus (26.3) tells us that the third square does not commute, but it does however commute up to a sign.

Luckily, as I invite you to check, the proof of the Five Lemma (Proposition 11.3) goes through without change if one only assumes that the squares commute up to a sign, and so we can still conclude that $\varphi$ is an isomorphism.
3. We now complete the proof. Using what we just proved together with Proposition 26.6, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(H_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} H_{n}\left(H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}\right), \tag{26.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $H_{\bullet}$ has zero boundary operators. By the Universal Coefficients Theorem 25.12, there are split exact sequences for all $n$ and $i$ :

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes H_{n}\left(D_{\bullet}^{i}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}\left(H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), H_{n-1}\left(D_{\bullet}^{i}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

which we can rewrite as

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes H_{n-i}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} H_{n}\left(H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes D_{\bullet}^{i}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), H_{n-i-1}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

Now take the direct sum of this last sentence over all $i \geq 0$ and use the fact that the first term vanishes for $i>n$ and the last term term vanishes for $i>n-1$ to obtain a split exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H_{i}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes H_{j}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{\omega} \bigoplus_{q \geq 0} H_{n}\left(H_{q}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \otimes D_{\bullet}^{q}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{k}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), H_{l}\left(D_{\bullet}\right)\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Finally, combining this with (26.4) completes the proof.

## LECTURE 27

## The Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem

In this lecture we state and prove the Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem which allows us to apply the Algebraic Künneth Theorem 26.5 from last lecture to the singular homology of a product of two spaces.

We begin however with a digression about chain equivalences ${ }^{1}$ that we will need in the course of the proof of the Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem. Our first result is a partial converse to Corollary 10.26.

Proposition 27.1. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ be a free chain complex. Then $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ is acyclic if and only if it has a contracting chain homotopy.

Proof. Sufficiency was proved in Corollary 10.26. For the converse, assume that $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=0$ for all $n$. Since $B_{n}=Z_{n}$, we have the following short exact sequence for every $n$ :

$$
0 \rightarrow Z_{n} \xrightarrow{i_{n}} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\partial} Z_{n-1} \rightarrow 0
$$

Since $Z_{n-1}$ is free abelian, this sequence splits, so let $r: Z_{n-1} \rightarrow C_{n}$ be such that $\partial \circ r_{n}=$ id. Observe that $\mathrm{id}_{C_{n}}-r_{n-1} \partial$ has image in $Z_{n}$. Indeed, if $c \in C_{n}$ then

$$
\partial\left(c-\partial r_{n-1} c\right)=\partial c-\partial r_{n-1} \partial c=\partial c-\partial c=0
$$

Now define

$$
Q_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}, \quad Q_{n}=r_{n}\left(\mathrm{id}-r_{n-1} \partial\right)
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial Q_{n}+Q_{n-1} \partial & =\partial r_{n}\left(\mathrm{id}-r_{n-1} \partial\right)+r_{n-1}\left(\mathrm{id}-r_{n-2} \partial\right) \partial \\
& =\mathrm{id}-r_{n-1} \partial+r_{n-1} \partial-0 \\
& =\mathrm{id}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 27.2. Let $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map. Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, define an abelian group

$$
\operatorname{Cone}_{n}(f):=C_{n-1} \oplus D_{n}
$$

Define a map $\partial^{f}:$ Cone $_{n}(f) \rightarrow$ Cone $_{n-1}(f)$ by

$$
\partial^{f}(c, d)=\left(-\partial c, f c+\partial^{\prime} d\right)
$$

[^52]In matrix form,

$$
\partial^{f}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial & 0 \\
f & \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

From this it is clear that $\partial^{f} \circ \partial^{f}=0$, since

$$
\partial^{f} \circ \partial^{f}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial & 0 \\
f & \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial & 0 \\
f & \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial^{2} & 0 \\
-f \partial+\partial^{\prime} f & \left(\partial^{\prime}\right)^{2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We call this the mapping cone of $f$.
Observe that if both $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and $\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ are free chain complexes then so is (Cone•(f), $\partial^{f}$ ).

Here is an easy result about mapping cones.
Proposition 27.3. Let $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map between two free chain complexes. Assume that (Cone•( $f$ ), $\partial^{f}$ ) is acyclic. Then $f$ is a chain equivalence.

Proof. Since (Cone• $\left.(f), \partial^{f}\right)$ is free and acyclic, by Proposition 27.1 it has a contracting homotopy $Q$. Let us suggestively write $Q$ in the form:

$$
Q=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
p & g \\
r & -p^{\prime}
\end{array}\right),
$$

so that

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial & 0 \\
f & \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
p & g \\
r & -p^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)+\left(\begin{array}{cc}
p & g \\
r & -p^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial & 0 \\
f & \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\text { id } & 0 \\
0 & \text { id }
\end{array}\right)
$$

This gives us four equations:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\partial p-p \partial+g f & -\partial g+g \partial^{\prime} \\
\text { mess } & f g-\partial^{\prime} p^{\prime}-p^{\prime} \partial^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\text { id } & 0 \\
0 & \text { id }
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then $g: D \bullet \rightarrow C$ • satisfies $-\partial g+g \partial^{\prime}=0$ and hence is a chain map. Moreover we obtain $p \partial+\partial p=g f-\mathrm{id}$ and $p^{\prime} \partial^{\prime}+\partial^{\prime} p^{\prime}=f g-\mathrm{id}$, which shows that $f$ is a chain equivalence.

Our next result fits the mapping cone into a long exact sequence.
Proposition 27.4. Let $f:\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be a chain map. Then there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H_{n+1}\left(\operatorname{Cone}_{\bullet}(f)\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(f)} H_{n}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(\text { Cone }_{\bullet}(f)\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Proof. Let $C_{\bullet}^{+}$denote the same chain complex as $C_{\bullet}$ but the groups shifted by one: $C_{n}^{+}:=C_{n-1}$ and the boundary operator $\partial^{+}:=-\partial$. Then there is a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{i} \text { Cone }(f) \xrightarrow{p} C_{\bullet}^{+} \rightarrow 0,
$$

where $i: d \mapsto(0, d)$ and $p:(c, d) \mapsto c$. This gives us a long exact sequence in homology:

$$
\ldots H_{n+1}\left(\operatorname{Cone}_{\bullet}(f)\right) \rightarrow H_{n+1}\left(C_{\bullet}^{+}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(\text { Cone } \bullet(f)) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

It is clear that $H_{n+1}\left(C_{\bullet}^{+}\right)=H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$, and it remains to see that under this identification the connecting homomorphism $\delta$ is just $H_{n}(f)$. For this we recall that for a cycle $c \in C_{n}$, one has $\partial^{f}(c, 0)=(-\partial c, f c)=(0, f c)=i(f c)$, and hence from the definition of $\delta$ (cf. (11.3))

$$
\delta:\langle c\rangle \mapsto\left\langle i^{-1} \partial^{f} p^{-1}(c)\right\rangle=\langle f c\rangle=H_{n}(f)\langle c\rangle
$$

This completes the proof.
We can now use the mapping cone construction to obtain a partial converse to Proposition 10.24.

Proposition 27.5. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ and $\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ be two free chain complexes. Let $f: C \bullet \rightarrow D \bullet$ denote a chain map. Then $f$ is a chain equivalence if and only if $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(D_{\bullet}, \partial^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Necessity was proved in Proposition 10.24. For sufficiency, we use the exact sequence from Proposition 27.4. Since $H_{n}(f)$ is an isomorphisms, we must have $H_{n}\left(\right.$ Cone $\left._{\bullet}(f)\right)=0$ for all $n$. Thus Cone• $(f)$ is acyclic, and hence by Proposition 27.3 we see that $f$ is a chain equivalence as desired.

The next result allows us to use the Künneth Theorem to compute the homology of the product of two spaces. This is our first example of a theorem which can be proved directly using a rather lengthy and horrible argument, but has a nice short proof using the Acyclic Models Theorem 23.8.

Theorem 27.6 (Eilenberg-Zilber). For topological spaces $X$ and $Y$, there exists a natural chain equivalence

$$
\Omega: C_{\bullet}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)
$$

which is unique up to chain homotopy. Thus for all $n \geq 0$, we have

$$
H_{n}(X \times Y) \cong H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)\right)
$$

We will call any such map $\Omega$ an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism. It is not unique, but it is unique up to chain homotopy. In Lecture 31 we will write down an explicit formula for one such $\Omega$. Before starting the proof of Theorem 27.6, we need one more lemma.

Lemma 27.7. Define a map

$$
\theta: C_{0}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{0}(X) \otimes C_{0}(Y)
$$

by setting $\theta(x, y):=x \otimes y$. Then $\theta$ induces a natural (in $X$ and $Y$ ) isomorphism

$$
H_{0}(X \times Y) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)\right)
$$

Proof. Naturality is clear: if $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ then

$$
\theta(f, g)_{\#}(x, y)=\theta(f(x), g(y))=f(x) \otimes g(y)=\left(f_{\#} \otimes g_{\#}\right)(x \otimes y)=\left(f_{\#} \otimes g_{\#}\right) \theta(x, y) .
$$

To show that there is a well-defined map in homology, we need only show that $\theta$ maps a boundary to a boundary. Let us denote the boundary operator in $C_{\bullet}(X)$ by $\partial_{X}$, the boundary operator in $C_{\bullet}(Y)$ by $\partial_{Y}$, the boundary operator in $C_{\bullet}(X \times Y)$ by $\partial_{X \times Y}$, and finally the boundary operator in $C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$ by $\Delta$, so that

$$
\Delta\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right)=\partial_{X} c \otimes c^{\prime}+(-1)^{n} c \otimes \partial_{Y} c^{\prime}, \quad \forall c \otimes c^{\prime} \in C_{n}(X) \otimes C_{m}(Y) .
$$

Now suppose $\sigma: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X \times Y$ is a singular 1-simplex in $X \times Y$. Let $\sigma(0)=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and $\sigma(1)=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$. Then $\partial_{X \times Y} \sigma=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)-\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. The path components of $X \times Y$ are of the form $X^{\prime} \times Y^{\prime}$ where $X^{\prime}$ is a path component of $X$ and $Y^{\prime}$ is a path component of $Y$, and thus there exist singular 1-simplices $\tau: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ and $\rho: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\tau(0)=x_{0}, \quad \tau(1)=x_{1}, \quad \rho(0)=y_{0}, \quad \rho(1)=y_{1} .
$$

Consider now the singular 1-chain $c:=\tau \otimes y_{1}+x_{0} \otimes \rho$ in $C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C \bullet(Y)$. We compute:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta c= & \partial_{X} \tau \otimes y_{1}+(-1)^{1} \tau \otimes \partial_{Y} y_{1} \\
& +\partial_{X} x_{0} \otimes \rho+(-1)^{0} x_{0} \otimes \partial_{Y} \rho \\
= & x_{1} \otimes y_{1}-x_{0} \otimes y_{1}+0+0+x_{0} \otimes y_{1}-x_{0} \otimes y_{0} \\
= & x_{1} \otimes y_{1}-x_{0} \otimes y_{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus

$$
\theta\left(\partial_{X \times Y} \sigma\right)=x_{1} \otimes y_{1}-x_{0} \otimes y_{0}=\Delta c .
$$

Thus $\theta$ maps boundaries to boundaries and hence induces a homomorphism $H_{0}(X \times$ $Y) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)\right)$. It is clear this map is an isomorphism, since the map $x \otimes y \mapsto(x, y)$ induces a homomorphism $H_{0}(C \bullet(X) \otimes C \bullet(Y)) \rightarrow H_{0}(X \times Y)$ which inverts it.

Now let us prove the theorem.
Proof of the Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem 27.6. We will apply the Acyclic Models Theorem from Lecture 23. Let Top $\times$ Top denote the category with objects all ordered pairs ( $X, Y$ ) of topological spaces and morphisms all ordered pairs of continuous maps. (Note: we do not require $Y$ to be a subspace of $X$; this is not the same as the category Top ${ }^{2}$.)

Now we define a family of models $\mathcal{M}$ for Top $\times$ Top. Let

$$
\mathcal{M}:=\left\{\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{j}\right) \mid i, j \geq 0\right\} .
$$

We define two functors

$$
S_{\bullet}, T_{\bullet}: \text { Top } \times \text { Top } \rightarrow \text { Comp }
$$

by

$$
S_{\bullet}(X, Y):=C_{\bullet}(X \times Y), \quad T_{\bullet}(X, Y):=C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y) .
$$

We claim that for all $n \geq 0$, both $S_{n}$ and $T_{n}$ are free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$, and moreover that every model $\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{j}\right)$ is both $S_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees and $T_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees.

Let's start with $S_{\bullet}$. Let $d_{i}: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{i} \times \Delta^{i}$ denote the diagonal map $x \mapsto(x, x)$. Thus $d_{i} \in C_{i}\left(\Delta^{i} \times \Delta^{i}\right)=S_{i}\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right)$. We claim that $\mathcal{X}_{i}:=\left\{d_{i}\right\}$ is an $S_{i}$-model basis. Indeed, if $(X, Y)$ is any object in Top $\times$ Top and if $\sigma: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow X \times Y$ is any singular $i$-simplex in $S_{i}(X, Y)=C_{i}(X \times Y)$ then we can write $\sigma=\left(\sigma_{X} \times \sigma_{Y}\right) \circ d_{i}$, where $\sigma_{X}=p_{X} \circ \sigma$ and $\sigma_{Y}=p_{Y} \circ \sigma$, and $p_{X}: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $p_{Y}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ are projections. Conversely, given any pair of singular $i$-simplices $\tau: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow X$ and $\tau^{\prime}: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow Y$, the composition $\left(\tau \times \tau^{\prime}\right) \circ d_{i}$ is a singular $i$-simplex in $X \times Y$. Thus $\left\{d_{i}\right\}$ is indeed a model basis for $S_{i}$.

Next, since $\Delta^{i} \times \Delta^{j}$ is convex, it follows that any model $\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{j}\right) \in \mathcal{M}$ is $S_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees. (This is Corollary 13.3.)

Now let us move onto $T_{\bullet}$. By Problem L. 2 (and its solution), for any $(X, Y) \in$ Top $\times$ Top, $C_{i}(X) \otimes C_{j}(Y)$ is free abelian with basis

$$
\left\{\sigma \otimes \tau \mid \sigma: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow X, \tau: \Delta^{j} \rightarrow Y\right\}
$$

By Example 23.4, the functor $C_{i}$ is free with model basis $\left\{\ell_{i}\right\}$, with $\ell_{i}: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{i}$ the identity map (thought of as a singular $i$-simplex in $\Delta^{i}$ ). It follows that $T_{n}$ is free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$ : a $T_{n}$-model basis is

$$
\left\{\ell_{i} \otimes \ell_{j} \mid i+j=n\right\} .
$$

The proof that each model is $T_{\bullet}$-acyclic in positive degrees is much harder, and this is the reason we first carried out the digression above. By Corollary 13.3 again, combined with Proposition 27.5 above, we see that $C \bullet\left(\Delta^{i}\right)$ is chain equivalent to the chain complex

$$
\ldots 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \underset{\text { in degree } 0}{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Thus by Corollary 26.4, $T_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{j}\right)=C_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{i}\right) \otimes C_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{j}\right)$ is chain equivalent to the chain complex

$$
\cdots 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \underset{\text { in degree } 0}{\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Thus in particular $H_{n}\left(T_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{i}, \Delta^{j}\right)\right)=0$ for all $n>0$. (One can also prove this used the Algebraic Künneth Theorem 26.5 from the last lecture.)

We have now verified that the hypotheses of the Acyclic Models Theorem and its corollary (Corollary 23.9) are satisfied. To complete the proof we need only define a natural equivalence $\Theta: H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet}$. But this was precisely the content of Lemma 27.7-we can take $\Theta$ to be the map induced by $\theta$. Thus we can apply Corollary 23.9 to obtain a natural chain equivalence $\Omega: S_{\bullet} \rightarrow T_{\bullet}$, which is unique up to chain homotopy and which satisfies $H_{0}(\Omega)=\Theta$. This completes the proof.

Remark 27.8. An Eilenberg-Zilber morphism $\Omega: C_{\bullet}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$ is necesarily given by $\Omega_{0}(x, y)=x \otimes y$ in degree 0 . This is a seemingly stronger statement than Theorem 27.6, where told us merely that the induced map $H_{0}(\Omega)$ is the same as the map induced by $\theta$ from Lemma 27.7.

However, this follows immediately from the naturality of $\Omega$. To see this, observe that if $\{*\}$ is a space with one point then $\Omega: C_{\bullet}(\{*\} \times\{*\}) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(\{*\}) \otimes C_{\bullet}(\{*\})$ is the map $* \mapsto * \otimes *$ in degree zero (there is no choice about that!) Now suppose $X$ and $Y$ are arbitrary topological spaces, and let $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ be an arbitrary point. Consider maps $p:\{*\} \rightarrow X$ and $q:\{*\} \rightarrow Y$ such that $p(*)=x$ and $q(*)=y$. Then since $\Omega$ is natural,

$$
\Omega_{0}(x, y)=\Omega_{0}\left(p_{\#}, q_{\#}\right)(*, *)=\left(p_{\#}, q_{\#}\right) \Omega_{0}(*, *)=\left(p_{\#}, q_{\#}\right)(* \otimes *)=x \otimes y .
$$

Putting the pieces together, we obtain our desired result, which is usually known as the Künneth Formula (in contrast to the Algebraic Künneth Theorem proved last lecture.)

Corollary 27.9 (The Künneth Formula). Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces. Then for every $n \geq 0$ there is a split exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H_{i}(X) \otimes H_{j}(Y) \rightarrow H_{n}(X \times Y) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{k}(X), H_{l}(Y)\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

Thus

$$
H_{n}(X \times Y) \cong\left(\bigoplus_{i+j=n} H_{i}(X) \otimes H_{j}(Y)\right) \oplus\left(\bigoplus_{k+l=n-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{k}(X), H_{l}(Y)\right)\right)
$$

This gives us (yet another) way to compute the homology of $S^{n} \times S^{m}$ (recall we already saw two ways to do this in Problem I. 6 and the discussion just after Corollary 20.9). We obtain immediately:

Example 27.10. Let $m, n \geq 1$. If $m \neq n$ then

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{m} \times S^{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}, & i=0, m, n, m+n \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

If $m=n$ then

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{m} \times S^{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}, & i=0,2 m \\ \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}, & i=m \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

However now we can also compute more complicated spaces, such as $\mathbb{R} P^{m} \times \mathbb{R} P^{n}$. A collection of examples for you to try is on Problem Sheet M.

## LECTURE 28

## Cochain complexes and cohomology

The last four lectures have all centred on how the homology functor interacts with the tensor product functor $\square \otimes A$. We now repeat this theme, only instead of the functor $\square \otimes A$ we use the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$.

To begin with though, consider the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ (i.e. with the $\square$ in the second position instead.) This is defined as one might expect: to an abelian group $B$ it associates the abelian group $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$, and if $f: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism between two abelian groups then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, f): \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right)
$$

is defined by sending $g: A \rightarrow B$ to $f \circ g: A \rightarrow B^{\prime}$. It is routine to see that this is an additive well-defined functor.

However, when we try this with the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$, we come across a problem. In this case if $f: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism then there is a natural induced map that sends a homomorphism $g: B^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ to $g \circ f: B \rightarrow A$. Denoting this homomorphism by $\operatorname{Hom}(f, A)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(f, A): \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(B, A)
$$

But this goes the "wrong" way round! This means that $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ is not a functor (at least as we have defined functors so far). Luckily, this can be easily rectified, by taking a slightly more liberal-minded approach to the definition of a functor.
Definition 28.1. Let C be a category. The opposite category is the category Cop with

$$
\operatorname{obj}\left(\mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}}\right):=\operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C}),
$$

and morphism sets given by,

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}^{\text {op }}}(A, B):=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(B, A), \quad A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C}) .
$$

The composition $\circ^{\circ \mathrm{p}}$ in $\mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$ is defined by

$$
f \circ \circ^{\mathrm{op}} g:=g \circ f,
$$

where $\circ$ is the composition in C. This makes sense, i.e. it defines a map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{Cop}}(A, B) \times \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Cop}}(B, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{Cop}}(A, C)
$$

One easily checks that $\mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$ is a well-defined category; the identity element in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}^{\text {op }}}(A, A)$ is just the identity element in $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(A, A)$, and associativity of $\circ^{\text {op }}$ follows from associativity of o .

We can use the notion of the opposite category to extend the definition of a functor.

Definition 28.2. Let C and D be categories. A contravariant functor $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is simply a functor $\mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$. Let us spell out exactly what this means: A contravariant functor associates to each $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ an object $T(A) \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{D})$, and to each morphism $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ in C a morphism $T(B) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(A)$ in D which satisfies the following two axioms:

1. If $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ in $C$ then $T(C) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(A)$ in D and

$$
T(g \circ f)=T(f) \circ T(g) .
$$

2. $T\left(\mathrm{id}_{A}\right)=\mathrm{id}_{T(A)}$ for every $A \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

In other words, a contravariant functor is defined in exactly the same way as a normal functor, apart from the fact that it reverses the directions of the arrows.

Remark 28.3. Contravariant functors are not really anything new, since they are just (normal) functors from the opposite category. In particular, up to remembering to reverse directions of arrows, all the abstract results we have proved about functors between categories continue to hold for contravariant functors too. As an easy test of the definitions, I invite you to explore what a natural transformation between two contravariant functors looks like.

Example 28.4. With this new terminology, if $A$ is an abelian group then $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow$ Ab is a contravariant functor.

The type of functor we have studied up to now (i.e. with the arrows pointing the right way round) is sometimes called a covariant functor. When no confusion is possible, we will normally refer to both covariant and contravariant functors simply as "functors".

Remark 28.5. If $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is a contravariant functor from a given category to itself, then $T \circ T$ is a covariant functor (as reversing the arrows twice means they go in the right direction again). Thus $\operatorname{Hom}(\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A), A): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor. Taking $A=\mathbb{R}$ and restricting to real vector spaces, this is the functor that assigns to a vector space its double dual, cf. Theorem 21.5.

Let us see what happens when we apply the contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ to a chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$. Applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ to $\partial: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ we get maps

$$
d:=\operatorname{Hom}(\partial, A): \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n-1}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}, A\right),
$$

defined by

$$
d \gamma(c)=\gamma(\partial c), \quad \gamma \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n-1}, A\right), c \in C_{n}
$$

and hence we get a sequence

$$
\cdots \longleftarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n+1}, A\right) \stackrel{d}{\longleftarrow} \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}, A\right) \stackrel{d}{\longleftarrow} \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n-1}, A\right) \longleftarrow \cdots
$$

This doesn't immediately give us a chain complex, since the arrows are going the wrong way. But this is easily fixed. Let us define

$$
\tilde{C}_{-n}:=\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}, A\right)
$$

Lemma 28.6. ( $\left.\tilde{C}_{\bullet}, d\right)$ is a chain complex.
Proof. We need only check that $d \circ d=0$. But this is obvious: if $\gamma \in \tilde{C}_{-n}=$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}, A\right)$ and $d \gamma=\delta$ then for any $c \in C_{n+2}$ we have

$$
d \delta(c)=\delta(\partial c)=\gamma\left(\partial^{2} c\right)=0
$$

Thus $d \delta$ is zero ${ }^{1}$ in $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n+2}, A\right)=\tilde{C}_{-n-2}$.

## Nevertheless, negative indices are annoying.

So we introduce a notational "trick". Set:

$$
C^{n}:=\tilde{C}_{-n}
$$

Then $d$ is a map $C^{n} \rightarrow C^{n+1}$. This gives us the notion of a cochain complex.
Definition 28.7. A cochain complex is a sequence of abelian groups and homomorphisms

$$
\ldots \longrightarrow C^{n-1} \xrightarrow{d} C^{n} \xrightarrow{d} C^{n+1} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ which satisfies

$$
d^{2}=0, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

We refer to the entire complex as $\left(C^{\bullet}, d\right)$ or sometimes just $C^{\bullet}$. The maps $d$ are called the differentials ${ }^{2}$ of the cochain complex.
Definition 28.8. The fact that $d^{2}=0$ means that if we define

$$
Z^{n}=Z^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{ker} d: C^{n} \rightarrow C^{n+1}
$$

and

$$
B^{n}=B^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)=\operatorname{im} d: C^{n-1} \rightarrow C^{n}
$$

then

$$
B^{n} \subseteq Z^{n}
$$

We call elements of $Z_{n} n$-cocycles and elements of $B^{n} n$-coboundaries. We define the $n$th cohomology group of the cochain complex $C^{\bullet}$ to be the quotient group

$$
H^{n}=H^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right):=Z^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right) / B^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)
$$

If ${ }^{3} \gamma \in Z^{n}$ then we will continue to the use the notation $\langle\gamma\rangle$ to denote the class in $H^{n}$.

[^53]It is important to realise that (like with contravariant functors) we are not really doing anything new here: if $\left(C^{\bullet}, d\right)$ is a cochain complex then setting $\tilde{C}_{-n}:=C^{n}$ gives us a chain complex, and the homology in degree $-n$ is the same as the cohomology in degree $n$ :

$$
H_{-n}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right)=H^{n}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)
$$

For this reason, we will not introduce the category of cochain complexes, since it is just the same as the category of chain complexes, modulo our trick of replacing $n$ by $-n$. More importantly, this means that all the basic homological algebra results we already proved for chain complexes continue to hold for cochain complexes, without needing to reprove them. For instance, Theorem 11.5 still holds, which we will need at the end of the lecture ${ }^{4}$.

As far as this course is concerned, the most important example of a cochain complex is the following:

Definition 28.9. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $A$ be an abelian group. The singular cochain complex of $X$ with coefficients in $A$ is the cochain complex $C^{\bullet}(X ; A)$ where $C^{n}(X ; A):=\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}(X), A\right)$. We denote by $Z^{n}(X)$ and $B^{n}(X)$ the cocycles and coboundaries of this complex.

The singular cohomology of $X$ with coefficients in $A$ is the cohomology of this complex. Taking $A=\mathbb{Z}$, we obtain the singular cohomology $H^{\bullet}(X)$ of $X$.

Proposition 28.10. Singular cohomology with coefficients in A defines a contravariant functor $\mathrm{Top} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$.

Proof. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map, then we can define

$$
f^{\#}: C^{n}(Y ; A) \rightarrow C^{n}(X ; A), \quad f^{\#}(\gamma)(\sigma):=\gamma\left(f_{\#}(\sigma)\right)=\gamma(f \circ \sigma),
$$

for $\gamma: C_{n}(Y) \rightarrow A$ and $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ a singular $n$-simplex in $X$. If $\gamma \in Z^{n}(Y)$ then we claim that $f^{\#} \gamma \in Z^{n}(X)$. Indeed,

$$
d\left(f^{\#} \gamma\right)(\sigma)=\left(f^{\#} \gamma\right)(\partial \sigma)=\gamma\left(f^{\#} \partial \sigma\right) \stackrel{(*)}{=} \gamma\left(\partial f_{\#} \sigma\right)=(d \gamma)\left(f^{\#} \sigma\right)=0
$$

where ( $*$ ) used the fact that we already know that $f_{\#}$ is a chain map $C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(Y)$ (Proposition 7.20). Similarly if $\gamma \in B^{n}(Y)$ then $f^{\#} \gamma \in B^{n}(X)$. Thus $f^{\#}$ induces a map $H^{n}(f): H^{n}(Y ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A)$. One easily sees that $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{id}_{X}\right)=\operatorname{id}_{H^{n}(X)}$ and that if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ then

$$
H^{n}(g \circ f)=H^{n}(f) \circ H^{n}(g): H^{n}(Z ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A) .
$$

Let us now investigate the analogue of Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms for cohomology.

[^54]Proposition 28.11 (The dimension axion for cohomology). Let $X$ be a one-point space. Then for any abelian group $A$,

$$
H^{n}(X ; A)= \begin{cases}A, & n=0 \\ 0, & n \geq 0\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Recall from the proof of the dimension axiom for homology (see the solution to Problem D.3) that if $X$ is a one-point space then $C_{n}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for all $n \geq 0$, and that $\partial: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$ is an isomorphism when $n$ is even and positive, and zero if $n$ is odd. Dualising, it follows immediately that $H^{n}(X ; A)=0$ for all $n \geq 1$.

So let us look at $H^{0}(X ; A)$. We have

$$
C_{1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial=0} C_{0}(X) \xrightarrow{0} 0 .
$$

Thus applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ we get

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{0}(X), A\right) \xrightarrow{d=0} \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{1}(X), A\right)
$$

and hence
$H^{0}(X ; A)=\operatorname{ker}\left(d: \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{0}(X), A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{1}(X), A\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{0}(X), A\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, A)\right.$.
But $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A$, since a homomorphism $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A$ is uniquely determined by $\varphi(1) \in A$.

THEOREM 28.12. If $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic then they induce the same homomorphism $H^{n}(Y ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A)$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof. Recall from Lecture 8 that the main step in the proof of the homotopy axiom was to show that the following claim: If $X$ is a topological space and we define inclusions $\imath, \jmath: X \hookrightarrow X \times I$ by

$$
\imath(x):=(x, 0), \quad \jmath(x):=(x, 1) .
$$

Then there exists a chain homotopy $P: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X \times I)$ such that

$$
\partial P+P \partial=\jmath_{\#}-\imath_{\#}
$$

(this was Proposition 8.5.) Applying the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ to $P$, we get a map $Q:=\operatorname{Hom}(P, A)$. One checks that $Q$ satisfies.

$$
d Q+Q d=\jmath^{\#}-\imath^{\#}
$$

This allows us to finish the proof in exactly the same way as we did in Theorem 8.9: Let $F: X \times I \rightarrow Y$ be a homotopy from $f$ to $g$. Then

$$
f=F \circ \imath, \quad g=F \circ \jmath
$$

Thus as $H^{n}$ is a contravariant functor, we have

$$
H^{n}(f)=H^{n}(F \circ \imath)=H^{n}(\imath) \circ H^{n}(F)=H_{n}(\jmath) \circ H^{n}(F)=H_{n}(g)
$$

Now let us define relative cohomology and prove the analogue of the long exact sequence axiom. First, let us note the following result, whose proof is on Problem Sheet N.

Proposition 28.13. Let $A$ be an abelian group. The contravariant functor Hom( $\square, A$ ) is left exact ${ }^{5}$. That is, if $B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact then

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime \prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(f, A)} \operatorname{Hom}(B, A)
$$

is exact.
In fact, we will need the following result, whose proof is an immediate consequence of Lemma 25.13 (cf. the solution to Problem L.4.)

Lemma 28.14. If $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is an additive contravariant functor and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow$ $B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is any split exact sequence, then $0 \rightarrow T(C) \rightarrow T(B) \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow 0$ is also a split exact sequence.

We then use:
Proposition 28.15. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ and let $A$ be an abelian group. Then for every $n \geq 0$ there is a short exact sequence of abelian groups:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}(X) / C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right), A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}(X), A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right), A\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

Thus there is also a short exact sequence of complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C \bullet(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right), A\right) \rightarrow C^{\bullet}(X ; A) \rightarrow C^{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Proof. The group $C_{n}(X) / C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is a free abelian group: a basis is given by all cosets of the form $\sigma+C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ where $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ has $\operatorname{im} \sigma \nsubseteq X^{\prime}$. Thus by Problem F.6, the sequence $0 \rightarrow C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n}(X) / C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$ is a split exact sequence. By Lemma 28.14, the sequence is still split exact after applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$, and then by Problem E. 5 the sequence of complexes is also exact.

Definition 28.16. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a subspace, and let $A$ be an abelian group. We define the relative cohomology groups with coefficients in $A$, written $H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right)$ of the pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ to be the cohomology of the complex $C^{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right)=$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right), A\right)$.

It now follows directly from Theorem 11.5 that there is a long exact sequence in cohomology.
Theorem 28.17 (The exact sequence axiom for cohomology). Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ and let $A$ be an abelian group. Then there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(X^{\prime} ; A\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right) \ldots
$$

Moreover the connecting homomorphisms $\delta: H^{n}\left(X^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow H^{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right)$ are natural.

[^55]The homotopy axiom extends to relative cohomology. The remaining axiom is excision. For this we will just state the result. The proof is an easy adaption of the proof of excision for homology (Theorem 14.8.)

Theorem 28.18 (The excision axiom for cohomology). Assume that $X_{1}, X_{2}$ are subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Then the inclusion $\imath:\left(X_{1}, X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X_{2}\right)$ induces an isomorphism in cohomology:

$$
H^{n}(\imath): H^{n}\left(X, X_{2} ; A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(X_{1}, X_{1} \cap X_{2} ; A\right) \quad \forall n \geq 0 .
$$

I will leave it up to you to formulate the precise axioms for a cohomology theory with coefficients in $A$, and check that we have now verified that singular cohomology with coefficients in $A$ satisfies these axioms (modulo that, as with singular homology, we can't actually verify the weak equivalence axiom yet, as explained in item (2) of the remarks after Definition 21.9)

It is also easy to see that the analogue of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence (Theorem 14.9) continues to hold for cohomology; I will leave it up to you to formulate the precise statement.

## LECTURE 29

## Cohomological Universal Coefficients Theorems

In this lecture we prove three "Universal Coefficients" theorems for cohomology. The first relates cohomology and homology. This requires us to define a "cohomological" version of Tor, which (rather unhelpfully) is called Ext. The definition is essentially the same as Tor, we just replace $\square \otimes B$ with $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$.

Definition 29.1. Let $A$ be an abelian group, and let $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{f} F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ be a short free resolution of $A$. Let $B$ be any abelian group. We apply the contravariant functor $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ and obtain an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(F, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(f, B)} \operatorname{Hom}(K, B)
$$

We define

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(A, B):=\operatorname{coker} \operatorname{Hom}(f, B)=\operatorname{Hom}(K, B) / \operatorname{im} \operatorname{Hom}(f, B)
$$

Thus $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$ measures the failure for $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ to be right exact on $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow$ $F \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$. In a similar as with Tor, we can view $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$ as a (co)homology group. For this, as in (25.1), we first view the short free resolution as defining a chain complex $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ by setting:

$$
C_{n}:= \begin{cases}F, & n=0 \\ K, & n=1 \\ 0, & n \neq 0,1\end{cases}
$$

and defining the boundary map $\partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0}$ to be $f: K \rightarrow F$. Then this chain complex has the property that

$$
H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=F / \operatorname{im} f \cong A
$$

Instead of applying $\square \otimes A$ as we did in Lecture 25 , this time we apply $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ to obtain a cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, B\right)$. This cochain complex has the property that

$$
H^{1}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, B\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)
$$

Before stating a result giving the main properties of Ext, we first need a definition,
Definition 29.2. An abelian group $D$ is said to be divisible if for every $b \in D$ and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $a \in D$ such that $n a=b$.

[^56]Thus $\mathbb{Z}$ is not divisible, but $\mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ are.
Theorem 29.3 (Properties of Ext). For a fixed abelian group $A, \operatorname{Ext}(A, \square)$ is a covariant functor from Ab to itself, and $\operatorname{Ext}(\square, A)$ is a contravariant functor. Morevoer:

1. If $F$ is free group then $\operatorname{Ext}(F, B)=0$ for any abelian group $B$. If $D$ is a divisible group then $\operatorname{Ext}(B, D)=0$ for any abelian group $B$.
2. If $A$ is a finitely generated group with torsion subgroup $T(A)$ then $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong$ $T(A)$.
3. If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of abelian groups then for any abelian group $B$ there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0$,
Meanwhile if $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of abelian groups, then for any abelian group $A$ there is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow 0 \tag{29.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

4. If $B$ is an abelian group and $\left\{A_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a (possibly uncountable) family of abelian groups then there is an isomorphism ${ }^{1}$

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}, B\right) \cong \prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \operatorname{Ext}\left(A_{\lambda}, B\right) .
$$

and similarly

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(B, \prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}\right) \cong \prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \operatorname{Ext}\left(B, A_{\lambda}\right)
$$

5. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and any abelian group $B$,

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, B\right) \cong B / m B
$$

Remark 29.4. Warning: The analogue of part (4) of Theorem 25.6 is false for Ext: in general $\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$ is not the same as $\operatorname{Ext}(B, A)!$ For example, $\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}, \mathbb{Z}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{m}$ and $\operatorname{Ext}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right)=0$.

I won't prove Theorem 29.3. The statements about $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \square)$ are analogous to the corresponding proofs in Theorem 25.6, modulo replacing tensor products with Hom everywhere. For instance, the fact that $\operatorname{Ext}(F, B)=0$ for any free $F$ starts from the short free resolution $0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow F \rightarrow F \rightarrow 0$, and the proof of (29.2) come from the long exact sequence in cohomology associated to a short exact sequence of cochain complexes, just as in the proof of (25.2) in Theorem 25.6. The corresponding statements about $\operatorname{Ext}(\square, A)$-that $\operatorname{Ext}(\square, D) \equiv 0$ whenever $D$ is divisible, and the

[^57]exact sequence (29.1) -are a little different though. For this one replaces short free resolutions with "short divisible resolutions", and I will leave this for you to investigate on Problem Sheet N.

Instead, let us move onto establishing a link between homology and cohomology. Let $C$ • be a chain complex, and let $A$ be an abelian group. We define a map

$$
\zeta: H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right)
$$

by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta\langle\gamma\rangle\langle c\rangle:=\gamma(c) . \tag{29.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

To check this is well-defined, we need to show that if $\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}$ are two cocycles with $\langle\gamma\rangle=\left\langle\gamma^{\prime}\right\rangle$ in $H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)\right)$ and $c, c^{\prime}$ are two cycles with $\langle c\rangle=\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle$ in $H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$ then

$$
\gamma(c)=\gamma^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Indeed, we can write $\gamma^{\prime}=\gamma+d \delta$ and $c^{\prime}=c+\partial a$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right) & =(\gamma+d \delta)(c+\partial a) \\
& =\gamma(c)+d \delta(c)+\gamma(\partial a)+d \delta(\partial a) \\
& =\gamma(c)+\delta(\partial c)+d \gamma(a)+\delta\left(\partial^{2} a\right) \\
& =\gamma(c),
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\partial c=0$ as $c$ is a cycle, and $d \gamma=0$ as $\gamma$ is a cocycle, and of course $\partial^{2} a=0$.
Theorem 29.5 (The Dual Universal Coefficients Theorem I). Let $X$ be a topological space and let $A$ be an abelian group. Then for every $n \geq 0$ there is an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}(X), A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A) \xrightarrow{\zeta} \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}(X), A\right) \rightarrow 0, \tag{29.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\zeta$ is the map from (29.3). Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{n}(X ; A) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}(X), A\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}(X), A\right) \tag{29.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 29.6. The splitting of the sequence (29.4) is natural in $A$ but not in $X$, and hence the same is true of the isomorphism (29.5).

Just as with the Universal Coefficients Theorem 25.10, this is an immediate corollary of a more general result about an arbitrary free chain complex.

Theorem 29.7 (The Dual Universal Coefficients Theorem II). Let ( $C_{\bullet}, \partial$ ) denote a free chain complex and let $A$ denote an abelian group. Then for every $n \geq 0$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)\right) \xrightarrow{\zeta} \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

where $\zeta$ is the map from (29.3). Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) \oplus \operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), A\right) .
$$

The splitting is natural in $A$ but not in $C \bullet$.

We won't prove Theorem 29.7, however the interested reader can simply regurgitate the proof of Theorem 25.12, but replace all instances of tensor products with Hom instead, reversing arrows where appropriate, and use the properties of Ext (Theorem 29.3) instead of properties of Tor (Theorem 25.6).

Definition 29.8. A topological space $X$ is said to be of finite type if each homology group $H_{n}(X)$ is finitely generated.

The following corollary is perhaps the most useful application of Theorem 29.5.
Corollary 29.9. Let $X$ be a topological space of finite type. Let $T_{n}(X)=T\left(H_{n}(X)\right)$ denote the torsion subgroup of $H_{n}(X)$. Then for all $n \geq 0$

$$
H^{n}(X) \cong H_{n}(X) / T_{n}(X) \oplus T_{n-1}(X)
$$

Proof. If $A$ is any finitely generated group then $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong A / T(A)$ by Problem N.2. Thus for $X$ of finite type $\operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}(X), \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong H_{n}(X) / T_{n}(X)$. Next, by part (2) of Theorem 29.3,

$$
\operatorname{Ext}\left(H_{n-1}(X), \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong T_{n-1}(X)
$$

The claim follows from (29.5).
We could now extend Theorem 29.5 to a Künneth-type result. Indeed, if $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are chain complexes, then there is a natural way to make $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)$ into a cochain complex. However, for our purposes this is not so useful, since there is no analogue of the Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem 27.6 in this setting. Instead, we will first prove a purely cohomological version of the Universal Coefficient Theorem for a topological space of finite type, and then use that to deduce a Künneth-type result.

We need two auxiliary results.
Proposition 29.10. Let $X$ be a topological space of finite type. There exists a non-negative free chain complex $E_{\bullet}$ such that every group $E_{n}$ is finitely generated, and such that $E_{\bullet}$ is chain equivalent to the singular chain complex $C_{\bullet}(X)$.

Remark 29.11. The assumption that $X$ has finite type tells us that $H_{n}(X)$ is finitely generated for each $n$. But $C_{n}(X)$ is never finitely generated (unless $X$ is a finite set), and thus Proposition 29.10 is non trivial.

Proof of Proposition 29.10. Let $p: Z_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X)$ denote the map $c \mapsto\langle c\rangle$. Since $H_{n}(X)$ is finitely generated, there exists a finitely generated subgroup $F_{n} \subseteq Z_{n}(X)$ such that $\left.p\right|_{F_{n}}: F_{n} \rightarrow H_{n}(X)$ is surjective. Note $F_{n}$ is free. Let $F_{n}^{\prime}:=\left.\operatorname{ker} p\right|_{F_{n}}$. Now set

$$
E_{n}:=F_{n} \oplus F_{n-1}^{\prime} .
$$

Then $E_{n}$ is finitely generated and free. Define $\varepsilon: E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1}$ by $\varepsilon\left(c, c^{\prime}\right):=\left(c^{\prime}, 0\right)$. Then clearly $\varepsilon \circ \varepsilon=0$, and thus ( $E_{\bullet}, \varepsilon$ ) is a free finitely generated chain complex. Moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}\left(E_{\bullet}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{ker}\left(\varepsilon: E_{n} \rightarrow E_{n-1}\right)}{\operatorname{im}\left(\varepsilon: E_{n+1} \rightarrow E_{n}\right)}=F_{n} / F_{n}^{\prime}=H_{n}(X) \tag{29.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let us build a chain map $f:\left(E_{\bullet}, \varepsilon\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{\bullet}(X), \partial\right)$. Since $F_{n}^{\prime}$ is free abelian, by Lemma 22.3 there exists a homomorphism $g: F_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{n+1}(X)$ such that $\partial g\left(c^{\prime}\right)=c^{\prime}$ for all $c^{\prime} \in F_{n}^{\prime}$. Define

$$
f: E_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}(X), \quad f\left(c, c^{\prime}\right):=c+g\left(c^{\prime}\right)
$$

Then

$$
\partial f\left(c, c^{\prime}\right)=\partial\left(c+g\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right)=\partial c+c^{\prime}=c^{\prime}
$$

since $c \in F_{n} \subseteq Z_{n}(X)$, so $\partial c=0$. Moreover

$$
f \varepsilon\left(c, c^{\prime}\right)=f\left(c^{\prime}, 0\right)=c^{\prime}
$$

Thus $f \circ \varepsilon=\partial \circ f$, and hence $f$ is a chain map. Moreover using (29.6), the induced map in homology is given by

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(E_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}(X), \quad\langle c, 0\rangle \mapsto\langle c\rangle
$$

which is obviously an isomorphism. Since both $E_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}(X)$ are free, we can invoke Proposition 27.5 to conclude that $f$ is a chain equivalence. This completes the proof.

Proposition 29.12. If $E_{\bullet}$ is a free chain complex such that each group $E_{n}$ is finitely generated, then for any abelian group $A$, there is an isomorphism of cochain complexes

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \otimes A \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, A\right)
$$

Proof. Define

$$
h: \operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{n}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \otimes A \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{n}, A\right)
$$

by

$$
h(\gamma \otimes a)(c)=\gamma(c) \cdot a, \quad \gamma \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{n}, \mathbb{Z}\right), a \in A, c \in E_{n}
$$

note this makes sense as $\gamma(c) \in \mathbb{Z}$, and thus we can multiple $a$ by $\gamma(c)$ in $A$. Then $h$ is clearly a chain map. To prove that $h$ is an isomorphism, we argue by induction on the rank of $E_{n}$. If the rank is 1 , then $E_{n} \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and this follows from $\mathbb{Z} \otimes A \cong A$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}, A)=A$. For the inductive step, we note that both $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ and $\square \otimes A$ commute with finite direct sums:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(B \oplus B^{\prime}, A\right)=\operatorname{Hom}(B, A) \oplus \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right)
$$

and

$$
\left(B \oplus B^{\prime}\right) \otimes A \cong(B \otimes A) \oplus\left(B^{\prime} \oplus A\right)
$$

see part (5) of Proposition 24.8.
REmARK 29.13. Note that if $C_{\bullet}$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are chain equivalent complexes, then for any abelian group $A$ the chain complexes $C_{\bullet} \otimes A$ and $C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes A$ are chain equivalent, and similarly the cochain complexes $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, A\right)$ are also chain equivalent. The tensor products statement is a special case of Lemma 25.2, and the Hom statement is clear: if $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain equivalence then so $\operatorname{Hom}(f, A): \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, A\right)$.

Here is the promised "purely cohomological" version of the Universal Coefficients Theorem.

Theorem 29.14 (The Universal Coefficients Theorem for Cohomology). If $X$ is a topological space of finite type, then for any abelian group $A$ and any $n \geq 0$, there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{n}(X) \otimes A \xrightarrow{h} H^{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H^{n+1}(X), A\right) \rightarrow 0,
$$

where $h$ is the map $\langle\gamma\rangle \otimes a \mapsto\langle\gamma \cdot a\rangle$, and (as in Proposition 29.12), $\gamma \cdot a \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{n}(X), A\right)$ is defined by

$$
(\gamma \cdot a)(\sigma):=\gamma(\sigma) \cdot a \in A, \quad \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X
$$

Moreover this sequence splits, and hence

$$
H^{n}(X ; A) \cong H^{n}(X) \otimes A \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H^{n+1}(X), A\right)
$$

Proof. By Proposition 29.10, there is a free chain complex $E_{\text {• }}$ such that each $E_{n}$ is finitely generated, and such that $H_{n}(X) \cong H_{n}\left(E_{\bullet}\right)$ for all $n$. Now set $E^{\bullet}:=$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Then $E^{\bullet}$ is a free cochain complex. But since cochain complexes are really just chain complexes in disguise (only with the indices flipped), we can apply the Universal Coefficient Theorem 25.12 directly ${ }^{2}$ to $E^{\bullet \bullet}$ to obtain split short exact sequences

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{n}\left(E^{\bullet}\right) \otimes A \rightarrow H^{n}\left(E^{\bullet} \otimes A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Tor}\left(H^{n+1}\left(E^{\bullet}\right), A\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

But using Remark 29.13, $H^{n}\left(E^{\bullet}\right)=H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(E \bullet, \mathbb{Z}))=H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X), \mathbb{Z}))=$ $H^{n}(X)$. Moreover by Proposition 29.12, one has:

$$
E^{\bullet} \otimes A=\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, \mathbb{Z}\right) \otimes A \underset{\text { isomorphic }}{\cong} \operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, A\right) \underset{\text { chain equivalent }}{\simeq} \operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X), A)
$$

Thus by Proposition 10.24 , we have $H^{n}\left(E^{\bullet} \otimes A\right) \cong H^{n}(X ; A)$. The result follows.
We conclude this lecture by using Theorem 29.14 to prove a Künneth-type result for cohomology. To state the result, let us introduce the following notation: given topological spaces $X$ and $Y$, and $\gamma \in C^{i}(X), \delta \in C^{j}(Y)$, define $\gamma \otimes \delta \in \operatorname{Hom}(C \cdot(X) \otimes$ $C \bullet(Y), \mathbb{Z})$ by

$$
(\gamma \otimes \delta)(\sigma \otimes \tau):= \begin{cases}\gamma(\sigma) \delta(\tau), & \text { if } \sigma \in C_{i}(X), \tau \in C_{j}(Y) \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Now let $\Omega: C_{\bullet}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$ be an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism (cf. Theorem 27.6.) Then there is an induced map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\Omega, \mathbb{Z}): \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y), \mathbb{Z}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X \times Y), \mathbb{Z}\right)=C^{\bullet}(X \times Y)
$$

[^58]and hence a map
$$
H^{n}(\operatorname{Hom}(\Omega, \mathbb{Z})): H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y), \mathbb{Z}\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(X \times Y)
$$

Thus there is a well-defined map

$$
\eta: H^{i}(X) \otimes H^{j}(Y) \mapsto H^{i+j}(X \times Y)
$$

given by

$$
\eta:\langle\gamma\rangle \otimes\langle\delta\rangle \mapsto H^{i+j}(\operatorname{Hom}(\Omega, \mathbb{Z}))\langle\gamma \otimes \delta\rangle
$$

REMARK 29.15. If you are worried about why

$$
\langle\gamma\rangle \otimes\langle\delta\rangle \mapsto\langle\gamma \otimes \delta\rangle
$$

makes sense at the level of cohomology classes, see Lemma 31.11 in Lecture 31.
Theorem 29.16 (The Künneth Formula for Cohomology). Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces of finite type. Then for every $n \geq 0$, there is a split short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H^{i}(X) \otimes H^{j}(Y) \xrightarrow{\eta} H^{n}(X \times Y) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n+1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H^{k}(X), H^{l}(Y)\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

Proof. By Proposition 29.10, there exist finitely generated free chain complexes $E_{\bullet}$ and $E_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ which are chain equivalent to $C_{\bullet}(X)$ and $C_{\bullet}(Y)$. Then $E_{\bullet} \otimes E_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is chain equivalent to $C \bullet(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$ by Corollary 26.4, and we have a commutative diagram where the vertical maps are isomorphisms:


Thus it suffices to prove the statement with the bottom row, rather than top row. But since $E_{\bullet}$ and $E_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ are finitely generated in each degree, it follows that the chain complexes $\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$ are free. Thus we can apply Künneth Theorem 26.5 to conclude.

## LECTURE 30

## The cup product and the cohomology ring

Up to now, we have always worked with coefficients $A$ where $A$ is some abelian group. The aim of this lecture is to show that if we take $A$ to be a commutative ring $R$, then the singular cohomology with coefficients in $R$ is also a ring. To begin with, let us check we all understand the definition of a ring.

Definition 30.1. A ring $R$ is an abelian group (where we use + to denote addition in the group structure), together with an additional operation ".", called multiplication, which is associative:

$$
(r \cdot s) \cdot t=r \cdot(s \cdot t), \quad \forall r, s, t \in R,
$$

and which has multiplicative identity, that is, an element $1 \in R$ such that

$$
r \cdot 1=r=1 \cdot r, \quad \forall r \in R .
$$

Moreover, multiplication should be distributive over addition:

$$
r \cdot(a+b)=(r \cdot a)+(r \cdot b), \quad(a+b) \cdot r=a \cdot r+b \cdot r, \quad \forall a, b, r \in R .
$$

Most of the time we will just write $r s$ instead of $r \cdot s$. If 0 denotes the zero element for the group structure, then we do not take $0 \neq 1$ as part of the definition. Nevertheless it takes merely a moment of thought to note that if $0=1$ then $R=\{0\}$, in which case we call $R$ the zero ring.

Definition 30.2. A ring homomorphism $f: R \rightarrow S$ between two rings is a homorphism between $R$ and $S$ as abelian groups which also preserves the multiplicative structure:

$$
f(r s)=f(r) f(s), \quad f\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S} .
$$

The category Rings of rings has objects the rings, and morphisms the ring homomorphisms, and composition the usual composition of homomorphisms.

There is a forgetful functor Rings $\rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$. A ring $R$ is commutative if $r s=s r$ for all $r, s \in R$. Commutative rings form a full subcategory ComRings of Rings.

Definition 30.3. A subset $S$ of a ring $R$ is a subring if it can be regarded as a ring with the addition and the multiplication restricted from $R$ to $S$. Thus $S$ is a subring if $1_{R} \in S$ and for any $r, s \in S$, all of $r s, r+s, r-s$ belong to $S$.

Subrings are the ring-theoretic analogue of subgroups. The analogue of a normal subgroup is an ideal ${ }^{1}$ :

Definition 30.4. A nonempty subset $I$ of a ring $R$ is then said to be a left ideal in $R$ if, for any $s, t \in I$ and $r \in R$, all of $s+t, r s$ are in $I$. Equivalently, an additive subgroup $I$ is a left ideal if $R \cdot I \subseteq I$. Similarly an additive subgroup $I$ is a right ideal if $I \cdot R \subseteq I$. If $I$ is both a left ideal and a right ideal, then $I$ is said to be a two-sided ideal.

Thus every ideal in a commutative ring is a two-sided ideal. An ideal $I \subset R$ is said to be proper if $I \neq R$.

Definition 30.5. If $R$ is a ring and $I$ is a two-sided ideal, then there is a well-defined equivalence relation on $R$ given by $r \sim s$ if $r-s \in I$. The quotient ring $R / I$ has as an elements the cosets $r+I$, with addition given by $(r+I)+(s+I):=(r+s)+I$ and multiplication by $(r+I)(s+I)=r s+I$. The natural quotient map $R \rightarrow R / I$ is then a surjective ring homomorphism.

Definition 30.6. A graded ring $R$ is a ring $R$ with additive subgroups $R^{n}$, for $n \geq 0$, such that $R=\bigoplus_{n} R^{n}$, and such that $R^{n} \cdot R^{m} \subseteq R^{n+m}$. A graded ring homomorphism $f: R \rightarrow S$ between graded rings is a ring homomorphism with the property that $f\left(R^{n}\right) \subseteq S^{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$. This forms the category GradedRings of graded rings.

There is a forgetful functor GradedRings $\rightarrow$ Rings. Conversely, if $R$ is any ring, then $R$ can be made into a graded ring by setting $R^{0}=R$ and $R^{n}=0$ for $n \geq 1$.

Definition 30.7. A graded ring $R$ is said to be graded commutative

$$
r \cdot s=(-1)^{n m} s \cdot r, \quad \forall r \in R^{n}, s \in R^{m} .
$$

This gives rise to a full subcategory ComGradedRings of GradedRings.
An element $x$ in a graded ring is said to be homogeneous if $x \in R^{n}$ for some $n$. In this case one says that $x$ has degree $n$. The zero element 0 therefore has degree $n$ for any (and every) $n$, and the identity element 1 is always ${ }^{2}$ homogeneous of degree zero. We use the convention that the degree of an element is not defined if the element is not homogeneous. An ideal $I$ is said to be homogeneous if it is generated by homogeneous elements.

Example 30.8. Let $R$ be a commutative ring, and let $Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{k}$ denote formal variables. The polynomial ring $R\left[Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{k}\right]$ has elements all formal sums

$$
x=\sum r_{i_{1} i_{2} \cdots i_{k}} \cdot Q_{1}^{i_{1}} Q_{2}^{i_{2}} \cdots Q_{k}^{i_{k}}, \quad r_{i_{1} i_{2} \cdots i_{k}} \in R, \quad i_{j} \geq 0,1 \leq j \leq k .
$$

Then $R\left[Q_{1}, \ldots, Q_{n}\right]$ is a graded ring, where

$$
R^{n}:=\left\{\sum r_{i_{1} i_{2} \cdots i_{k}} \cdot Q_{1}^{i_{1}} Q_{2}^{i_{2}} \cdots Q_{k}^{i_{k}} \mid \sum_{j=1}^{k} i_{j}=n\right\}
$$

[^59]Thus $R^{n}$ is generated by all monomials of total degree ${ }^{3} n$.
The following lemma is a trivial piece of algebra, whose proof I leave to you. We will need it in the proof of Theorem 30.20 at the end of the lecture.

Lemma 30.9. If $I$ is a homogeneous two-sided ideal in a graded ring, then the quotient ring $R / I$ is again a graded ring. Indeed,

$$
R / I=\bigoplus_{n \geq 0}\left(R^{n}+I\right) / I
$$

Definition 30.10. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $R$ be a ring. The total cohomology of $X$ with coefficients in $R$ is given by

$$
H^{\star}(X ; R):=\bigoplus_{n \geq 0} H^{n}(X ; R)
$$

This is well-defined, since a ring is in particular an abelian group. I use the notation $H^{\star}$ instead of $H^{\bullet}$ to indicate we are taking the direct sum of all the cohomology groups (as opposed to considering the cohomology groups as a complex). Similarly we denote by $C^{\star}(X ; R):=\bigoplus_{n} C^{n}(X ; R)$ (as a direct sum, not a chain complex).

Our aim is to make $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ into a graded ring when $R$ is commutative. We shall do this by first making $C^{\star}(X ; R)$ into a graded ring, and then showing that the ring structure descends to cohomology. For this, let us first recall the face maps from Lecture 7:

$$
\varepsilon_{i}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, n
$$

that maps the standard $(n-1)$-simplex $\Delta^{n-1}$ homeomorphically onto the $i$ th face of $\Delta^{n}$. Explicitly,

$$
\varepsilon_{0}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(0, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)
$$

for $i=0$, and for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$,

$$
\varepsilon_{i}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i-1}, 0, s_{i}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)
$$

and finally

$$
\varepsilon_{n}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 0\right)
$$

Where necessary we will write $\varepsilon_{i}^{n}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$.
Definition 30.11. If $0 \leq i \leq n$, we define the $i$ th front face to be the map $F_{i}^{n}: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ by

$$
F_{i}^{n}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i}\right)=\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)
$$

and we define the $i$ th back face $B_{n}^{i}: \Delta^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ by

$$
B_{i}^{n}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i}\right)=\left(0, \ldots, 0, s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{i}\right) .
$$

[^60]As with the face maps, where possible we will just write $F_{i}$ and $B_{i}$. Note that $F_{n}^{n}=B_{n}^{n}=\mathrm{id}_{\Delta^{n}}$, meanwhile $F_{0}^{n}$ has image $e_{0}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)$ and $B_{0}^{n}$ has image $e_{n}=(0, \ldots, 0,1)$. The next lemma tells us how these maps compose with each other.
Lemma 30.12.

1. One has $\varepsilon_{0}^{n+1}=B_{n}^{n+1}$ and $\varepsilon_{n+1}^{n+1}=F_{n}^{n+1}$.
2. One has:

$$
B_{m+p}^{n} \circ B_{p}^{m+p}=B_{p}^{n}, \quad F_{m+p}^{n} \circ F_{p}^{m+p}=F_{p}^{n},
$$

and

$$
B_{m+p}^{n+m+p} \circ F_{m}^{m+p}=F_{n+m}^{n+m+p} \circ B_{m}^{n+m} .
$$

3. One has

$$
\varepsilon_{i}^{n+1} \circ F_{m}^{n}= \begin{cases}F_{m+1}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{m+1}, & \text { if } i \leq m \\ F_{m}^{n+1}, & \text { if } i \geq m+1\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\varepsilon_{i}^{n+1} \circ B_{m}^{n}= \begin{cases}B_{m}^{n+1}, & \text { if } i \leq n-m \\ B_{m+1}^{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i+m-n}^{m+1}, & \text { if } i \geq n-m+1\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Evaluate both sides on a typical element of the desired simplex.
We now come to the key definition of this lecture.
Definition 30.13. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $R$ be a ring. If $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$, we define $\alpha \smile \beta \in C^{n+m}(X ; R)$, the cup product of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ by requiring that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\alpha \smile \beta)(\sigma)=\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right), \quad \forall \sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X \tag{30.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(since $C_{n+m}(X)$ is free abelian with basis the singular $(n+m)$-simplices $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow$ $X$, equation (30.1) does indeed uniquely determine an element of $C^{n+m}(X ; R)$. The expression makes sense: if $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$ then $\sigma \circ F_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ and $\sigma \circ B_{m}: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow X$, so that $\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right)$ and $\beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)$ are well-defined elements of $R$ which can then be multiplied to give another element of $R$.
Remark 30.14. Cup products are usually only defined for $R$ a commutative ring. The reason for this will become apparent next lecture, when we show that if the coefficient ring is commutative, then the (graded) cohomology ring is graded commutative, see Remark 30.21 below. Nevertheless, everything we do in this lecture works fine for any (possibly non-commutative) ring, so for now we won't impose commutativity on $R$.

The cup products extends by linearity to define a function

$$
C^{\star}(X ; R) \times C^{\star}(X ; R) \rightarrow C^{\star}(X ; R)
$$

by

$$
\left(\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}\right) \smile\left(\sum_{j} \beta_{j}\right):=\sum_{i, j} \alpha_{i} \smile \beta_{j} .
$$

Let us first check this gives us a ring structure.

Proposition 30.15. For any topological space $X$ and any ring $R, C^{\star}(X ; R)$ is a graded ring under the cup product.

Proof. Suppose $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\beta, \gamma \in C^{m}(X ; R)$. We claim that $\alpha \smile(\beta+\gamma)=$ $\alpha \smile \beta+\alpha \smile \gamma$. For this, take $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\alpha \smile(\beta+\gamma))(\sigma) & =\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot(\beta+\gamma)\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)+\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \gamma\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =\alpha \smile \beta(\sigma)+\alpha \smile \gamma(\sigma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

A similar computation shows that $(\alpha+\beta) \smile \gamma=\alpha \smile \gamma+\beta \smile \gamma$. To check associativity, suppose $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R), \beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$, and $\gamma \in C^{p}(X ; R)$. Then if $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m+p} \rightarrow X$, one has

$$
((\alpha \smile \beta) \smile \gamma)(\sigma)=\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+m} \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+m} \circ B_{m}\right) \cdot \gamma\left(\sigma \circ B_{p}\right)
$$

and similarly

$$
(\alpha \smile(\beta \smile \gamma))(\sigma)=\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+p} \circ F_{m}\right) \cdot \gamma\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+p} \circ B_{p}\right)
$$

By part (2) of Lemma 30.12, the right-hand side of both of these equations is equal to

$$
\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+m} \circ B_{m}\right) \cdot \gamma\left(\sigma \circ B_{p}\right)
$$

Finally, define a cochain $\nu \in C^{0}(X ; R)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu(x)=1_{R}, \quad \forall x \in X \tag{30.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and then extending by linearity (recall we identify singular 0-simplices in $X$ with points in $X)$. It is clear that $\nu \smile \alpha=\alpha=\alpha \smile \nu$ for any $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and any $n \geq 0$. Thus $C^{\star}(X ; R)$ is indeed a graded ring.

REmARK 30.16. The distributive laws give bilinearity of the cup product as a map

$$
C^{\star}(X ; R) \times C^{\star}(X ; R) \rightarrow C^{\star}(X ; R)
$$

and hence we may regard cup product as a map on the tensor product

$$
\smile: C^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes C^{\star}(X ; R) \rightarrow C^{\star}(X ; R)
$$

Now let us investigate the functorial properties of $\smile$.
Proposition 30.17. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$. Then

$$
f^{\#}(\alpha \smile \beta)=f^{\#} \alpha \smile f^{\#} \beta
$$

and moreover $f^{\#} \nu_{Y}=\nu_{X}$, where the units $\nu_{X}, \nu_{Y}$ are as defined in (30.2)

Proof. Take $\alpha \in C^{n}(Y ; R)$ and $\beta \in C^{m}(Y ; R)$ and $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$. Then by definition

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\#}(\alpha \smile \beta)(\sigma) & =(\alpha \smile \beta)\left(f_{\#} \sigma\right) \\
& =(\alpha \smile \beta)(f \circ \sigma) \\
& =\alpha\left(f \circ \sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(f \circ \sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(f_{\#}\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right)\right) \cdot \beta\left(f_{\#}\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)\right) \\
& =f^{\#} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot f^{\#} \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =\left(f^{\#} \alpha \smile f^{\#} \beta\right)(\sigma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, if $x \in X$ then $f^{\#} \nu_{Y}(x)=\nu_{Y}(f(x))=1_{R}$. Since this holds for all $x \in X$, we must have $f^{\#} \nu_{Y}=\nu_{X}$.

We thus have:
Corollary 30.18. For a given ring $R$, there is a contravariant functor

$$
C^{\star}(\square ; R): \text { Top } \rightarrow \text { GradedRings. }
$$

Unfortunately, the ring structure on $C^{\star}(X ; R)$ is not very useful, as it is too "large", and almost impossible to compute. This ring structure does not restrict the homotopy axiom, and it is not graded commutative. However, as we will now see, the total cohomology $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ also inherits a ring structure, and this structure is much nicer.

Proposition 30.19. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $R$ be a ring. If $\alpha \in$ $C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(\alpha \smile \beta)=d \alpha \smile \beta+(-1)^{n} \alpha \smile d \beta . \tag{30.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Set $p:=n+m+1$, so that both sides of (30.3) have degree $p$. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{p} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $p$-simplex. Let us start with the right-hand side of equation (30.3). We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(d \alpha \smile \beta+(-1)^{n} \alpha \smile d \beta\right)(\sigma)= & d \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+1}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& +(-1)^{n}\left(\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot d \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+1}\right)\right) \\
= & \alpha\left(\partial\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+1}\right)\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& +(-1)^{n}\left(\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\partial\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+1}\right)\right)\right) \\
= & \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n+1}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i}\right)\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& +(-1)^{n}\left(\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{j=0}^{m+1}(-1)^{j} \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j}\right)\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now by part (1) of Lemma 30.12, one has $\sigma \circ F_{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{n+1}=\sigma \circ F_{n+1} \circ F_{n}=\sigma \circ F_{n}$ and similarly $\sigma \circ B_{m+1} \circ \varepsilon_{0}=\sigma \circ B_{m+1} \circ B_{m}=\sigma \circ B_{m}$. Thus the last term of the
first sum cancels with the first term of the second sum, and thus the right-hand side is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)+(-1)^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m+1}(-1)^{j} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j}\right) \tag{30.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, starting with the left-hand side of (30.3), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(\alpha \smile \beta)(\sigma)= & (\alpha \smile \beta)(\partial \sigma) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{p}(-1)^{i}(\alpha \smile \beta)\left(\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i}\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& +\sum_{i=n+1}^{p}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{i} \circ B_{m}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $p-m=n+1$, part (3) of Lemma 30.12 tells us that this sum is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)+\sum_{i=n+1}^{p}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m+1} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}\right) \tag{30.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first sum in (30.5) is already the same as the first sum in (30.4). The second sum is too, if we set $j=i-n$. This completes the proof.

We can now prove the main result of today's lecture.
Theorem 30.20. For any ring $R$, there is a contravariant functor

$$
H^{\star}(\square ; R): \text { hTop } \rightarrow \text { GradedRings. }
$$

Proof. Let $Z^{\star}=\bigoplus Z^{n}(X ; R)$ and define $B^{\star}(X ; R)$ similarly. If $\alpha \in Z^{n}$ and $\beta \in Z^{m}$ then $d \alpha=d \beta=0$ and hence $d(\alpha \smile \beta)=d \alpha \smile \beta+(-1)^{n} \alpha \smile d \beta=0$. Thus $\alpha \smile \beta \in Z^{n+m}$, and hence $Z^{\star}$ is a homogeneous subring of $C^{\star}(X ; R)$.

Next, if $\alpha \in Z^{n}$ and $\beta \in B^{m}$ then $d \alpha=0$ and $\beta=d \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in C^{m-1}(X ; R)$. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha \smile \beta & =\alpha \smile d \gamma \\
& = \pm((d(\alpha \smile \gamma)-d \alpha \smile \gamma) \\
& = \pm d(\alpha \smile \gamma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\alpha \smile \beta \in B^{n+m}$. Similarly $\beta \smile \alpha \in B^{n+m}$, and hence $B^{\star}$ is a two-sided homogeneous ideal in $Z^{\star}$. By Lemma 30.9, it follows that $H^{\star}(X ; R)=Z^{\star} / B^{\star}$ is a graded ring, with

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle:=\langle\alpha \smile \beta\rangle .
$$

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ then if we denote by $H^{\star}(f): H^{\star}(Y ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}(X ; R)$ the map $H^{\star}(f)=$ $\sum_{n \geq 0} H^{n}(f)$ then since $H^{n}(f)\langle\alpha\rangle=\left\langle f^{\#} \alpha\right\rangle$, it follows Proposition 30.17 that

$$
H^{\star}(f)(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle)=H^{\star}(f)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{\star}(f)\langle\beta\rangle,
$$

and thus $H^{\star}(f)$ is a graded ring homomorphism. Moreover the homotopy axiom for cohomology (Theorem 28.12) shows that if $f \simeq g$ then (as graded ring homomorphisms) $H^{\star}(f)=H^{\star}(g)$. It follows easily that $H^{\star}$ is a contravariant functor as claimed.

Remark 30.21. We will prove next lecture that if $R$ is commutative then $H^{\star}(\square ; R)$ is actually a functor

$$
H^{\star}(\square ; R): \text { hTop } \rightarrow \text { ComGradedRings. }
$$

This is not as easy as it looks (we will prove it via an application of the Acyclic Models Theorem again!)

Remark 30.22. As in Remark 30.16, we can view the cup product as being a multiplication

$$
H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}(X ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}(X ; R)
$$

This will also be important next lecture.

## LECTURE 31

## Diagonal approximations and the cross product

The goal of today's lecture is to prove that the cohomology ring is graded commutative whenever the coefficient ring is commutative.

Theorem 31.1. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and let $X$ be a topological space. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle=(-1)^{m n}\langle\beta\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle, \quad \forall\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{n}(X ; R),\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{m}(X ; R) . \tag{31.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus when $R$ is commutative, the functor $H^{\star}(\square ; R)$ takes values in ComGradedRings:

$$
H^{\star}(\square ; R): \text { hTop } \rightarrow \text { ComGradedRings. }
$$

This will take us some time. We begin with a general definition, which we have already met in a different guise before.

Definition 31.2. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ be a non-negative chain complex. An augmentation of $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ is a surjective homomorphism

$$
\zeta: C_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}
$$

such that the composition $\zeta \circ \partial: C_{1} \rightarrow C_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is identically zero. We call $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial, \zeta\right)$ an augmented chain complex.

A chain complex that admits an augmentation necessarily has a non-zero homology group $H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)$. Indeed, let $\tilde{\mathbb{Z}}_{\bullet}$ denote the chain complex with all groups zero, apart from the zeroth group, which is $\mathbb{Z}$ :

$$
\cdots 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \underset{\text { in degree } 0}{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \ldots
$$

We can regard an augmentation as a surjective chain map $\zeta: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{Z}}_{\bullet}$. Thus we get an induced map in homology $H_{0}(\zeta): H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}=H_{0}\left(\tilde{\mathbb{Z}}_{\bullet}\right)$, which is again surjective.

An augmentation allows one to form the reduced chain complex $\tilde{C}_{\bullet}$, where $\tilde{C}_{n}=C_{n}$ for $n \geq 1$, and $\tilde{C}_{0}=\operatorname{ker} \zeta$.

Lemma 31.3. The homology groups of the reduced complex satisfy

$$
H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \cong \begin{cases}H_{n}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right), & n \geq 1 \\ H_{0}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right) \oplus \mathbb{Z}, & n=0 \\ 0, & n \leq-1\end{cases}
$$

Proof. We have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow \tilde{C}_{0} \rightarrow C_{0} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$. Since $\mathbb{Z}$ is free this sequence splits, and hence $C_{0} \cong \tilde{C}_{0} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. It follows that $Z_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=Z_{n}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right)$ for $n \neq 0$, $Z_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \cong Z_{0}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right) \oplus \mathbb{Z}$, and $B_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right)=B_{n}\left(\tilde{C}_{\bullet}\right)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We have already met one example of an augmented chain complex many times.
Example 31.4. Let $X$ be a non-empty topological space, and let $\zeta_{X}: C_{0}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be the map defined by

$$
\zeta_{X}(x)=1, \quad \forall x \in X
$$

and then extended by linearity. Then $\left(C_{\bullet}(X), \zeta_{X}\right)$ is an augmented chain complex, and the homology of the reduced complex is the reduced homology of $X$, cf. Remark 12.24.

If $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial, \zeta\right)$ and $\left(C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime}, \zeta^{\prime}\right)$ are two augmented chain complexes, we say that a chain map $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is augmentation-preserving if there is a commutative diagram:


Equivalently, this means

$$
H_{0}\left(\zeta^{\prime}\right) \circ H_{0}(f)=H_{0}(\zeta): H_{0}\left(C_{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} .
$$

Augmented chain complexes define a category AugComp. Let us now present a version of the Acyclic Models Theorem for augmented complexes. We will denote a functor

$$
\widehat{T}_{\bullet}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \text { AugComp }
$$

as a pair $\widehat{T}_{\bullet}=\left(T_{\bullet}, \zeta_{T}\right)$, where $T_{\bullet}: C \rightarrow$ Comp is a non-negative complex valued functor, and $\zeta_{T}(C): T_{0}(C) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is an augmentation of the complex $T_{\bullet}(C)$ for each $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$. We say an object $C$ is totally $\widehat{T}_{\bullet}$-acyclic if $H_{n}\left(\tilde{T}_{\bullet}(C)\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$, where $\tilde{T}_{\bullet}(C)$ is the reduced complex associated to the augmentation $\zeta_{T}(C)$. Equivalently, $H_{n}\left(T_{\bullet}(C)\right)=0$ for all $n \neq 0$, and $H_{0}\left(T_{\bullet}(C)\right)=\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 31.5 (The Augmented Acyclic Models Theorem). Let C be a category with models $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}, \widehat{T}_{\bullet}: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ AugComp are two functors. Assume that for all $n \geq 0, T_{n}$ is free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$. Assume that each model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is totally $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}$-acyclic. Then there exists a natural augmentation preserving chain map $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$. Moreover any two such natural augmentation-preserving chain maps are naturally chain homotopic.

The difference between Theorem 31.5 and the non-augmented one (Theorem 23.8) is that this time we do not need to start with a natural transformation $\Theta: H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow$ $H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$. (The price to pay for this is, of course, that this version only works for augmented complexes.)

Corollary 31.6. If instead we assume that for all $n \geq 0$, both $S_{n}$ and $T_{n}$ are free with basis contained in $\mathcal{M}$, and that each model $M \in \mathcal{M}$ is both totally $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}$-acyclic and totally $\widehat{T}_{\bullet}$ acyclic, then every augmentation preserving natural chain map is a natural chain equivalence.

Proof. Go back to the proof of the standard Acyclic Models Theorem 23.8, and replace every instance of $T_{0} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0$ and $S_{0} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0$ with the augmentations, so $\mathbb{Z}$ plays the role of $H_{0}$ and the identity map $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ plays the role of $\Theta: H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet} \rightarrow H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$. Explicitly, this means that our goal is to construct natural transformations $\Phi_{n}: T_{n} \rightarrow S_{n}$ such that the following diagram commutes.


But now an inspection of the proof of Theorem 23.8 show that it goes through word for word in this new setting. Indeed, the only properties we used of $H_{0} \circ T_{\bullet}$ and $H_{0} \circ S_{\bullet}$ was that $S_{1}(M) \rightarrow S_{0}(M) \xrightarrow{\zeta_{S}(M)} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$ should be exact for every model $M$, which follows from the fact that every model is totally $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}$-acyclic.

Thus the standard Acyclic Models Theorem provides us with such a $\Phi: T_{\bullet} \rightarrow S_{\bullet}$, which moreover is unique up to natural chain homotopy. Finally, the fact that the initial square commutes:

tells us that $\Phi$ is augmentation-preserving. This completes the proof.
Remark 31.7. We can use Corollary 31.6 to give a quicker proof of the EilenbergZilber Theorem 27.6. Indeed, we consider augmentations

$$
\zeta_{X, Y}: C_{0}(X \times Y) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad \zeta_{X, Y}(x, y)=1, \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\zeta_{X, Y}^{\prime}: C_{0}(X) \otimes C_{0}(Y) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad \zeta_{X, Y}^{\prime}(x \otimes y)=1, \quad \forall(x, y) \in X \times Y \tag{31.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then by assumption, an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism $\Omega: C_{\bullet}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$ commutes with these augmentations. This means that the extra work we did constructing the $\Theta$ in the proof of Theorem 27.6 (the content of this was Lemma 27.7) was unnecessary ${ }^{1}$.

What relevance does this have to the problem at hand? Here is another definition.

[^61]Definition 31.8. A diagonal approximation $D$ is a natural chain map $C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow$ $C \bullet(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X)$ that satisfies

$$
D_{0}(x)=x \otimes x, \quad \forall x \in X,
$$

The reason for the name is the following: if $\Omega: C_{\bullet}(X \times X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X)$ is an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism and $\delta: X \rightarrow X \times X$ is the diagonal map $\delta(x)=(x, x)$, then

$$
\Omega \circ \delta_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X)
$$

is a diagonal approximation. Moreover, an application of the Augmented Acyclic Models Theorem shows that this is the only diagonal approximation (up to chain homotopy).

Theorem 31.9. Any two diagonal approximations are naturally chain homotopic, and hence in particular induce the same homomorphisms in (co)homology.

Proof. Firstly note that a diagonal approximation $D$ could equivalently be defined as natural chain map $C_{\bullet}(X) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X)$ that preserves the augmentations $\zeta_{X}$ from Example 31.4 and $\zeta_{X, X}^{\prime}$ from (31.2). Indeed, it is clear that a diagonal approximation preserves these augmentations, and conversely by naturality any such $D$ must satisfy $D_{0}(x)=x \otimes x$ in degree zero (argue as in Remark 27.8.)

Now let $\mathcal{M}=\left\{\Delta^{n} \mid n \geq 0\right\}$ denote our standard family of models in Top. We view the singular chain functor as a functor $C \bullet: T o p \rightarrow$ AugComp, where we are using the standard augmentation from Example 31.4. Then $C_{\bullet}$ is free with basis in $\mathcal{M}$ (cf. Example 23.4)

Next, consider the functor $S_{\bullet}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ Comp given by $S_{\bullet}(X)=C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X)$. We can regard $S_{\bullet}$ as a functor $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}:$ Top $\rightarrow$ AugComp using the augmentation $\zeta_{X, X}^{\prime}$ from (31.2). Moreover by arguing as at the end of the proof of the Eilenberg-Zilber Theorem 27.6 , we see that each model in $\mathcal{M}$ is totally $\widehat{S}_{\bullet}$-acyclic.

The result now follows from Theorem 31.5.
It is still probably rather opaque to you why a diagonal approximation is (a) interesting and (b) of any use whatsoever in proving Theorem 31.1. For, this, note that if $D$ is a diagonal approximation then applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, R)$ we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(D, R): \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(X), R\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}(X), R\right),
$$

which suddenly "almost" looks like a multiplication on cohomology. Roughly speaking, we will show that cup product is the unique multiplication on cohomology arising from a diagonal approximation. This uniqueness statement will then quickly imply our initial statement about graded commutativity, Theorem 31.1.

Let us mimic the construction we did in the proof of the Künneth Theorem for Cohomology (Theorem 29.16).

Definition 31.10. Let $R$ be a ring. Suppose $A_{\bullet}$ and $B_{\bullet}$ are two non-negative chain complexes, and let $A^{\bullet}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{\bullet}, R\right)$ and $B^{\bullet}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(B_{\bullet}, R\right)$ denote the dual cochain complexes. Let $C^{\bullet}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(A_{\bullet} \otimes B_{\bullet}, R\right)$ denote the dual cochain complex to $A_{\bullet} \otimes B_{\bullet}$.

Given $n, m \geq 0$, define $\mu: A^{n} \times B^{m} \rightarrow C^{n+m}$ by setting

$$
\mu(\alpha, \beta)\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n+m} a_{i} \otimes b_{n+m-i}\right):=\alpha\left(a_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(b_{m}\right) .
$$

The map $\mu$ is clearly bilinear, and hence can be thought of as a map $A^{n} \otimes B^{m} \rightarrow$ $C^{n+m}$. We claim that $\mu$ is also well-defined on the level of cohomology. For this, let us make the following computation. Take any element $\sum_{i=0}^{n+m+1} a_{i} \otimes b_{n+m+1-i}$ in $C^{n+m+1}$ and evaluate:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(d \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta))\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n+m+1} a_{i} \otimes b_{n+m+1-i}\right) & =\mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n+m+1}\left(\partial a_{i} \otimes b_{n+m+1-i}+(-1)^{i} a_{i} \otimes \partial b_{n+m+1-i}\right)\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\partial a_{n+1}\right) \cdot \beta\left(b_{m}\right)+(-1)^{n} \alpha\left(a_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\partial b_{m+1}\right) \\
& =(d \alpha)\left(a_{n+1}\right) \cdot \beta\left(b_{m}\right)+(-1)^{n} \alpha\left(a_{n}\right) \cdot(d \beta)\left(b_{m+1}\right) \\
& =\left(\mu(d \alpha \otimes \beta)+(-1)^{n} \mu(\alpha \otimes d \beta)\right)\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n+m+1} a_{i} \otimes b_{n+m+1-i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we have shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)=\mu(d \alpha \otimes \beta)+(-1)^{n} \mu(\alpha \otimes d \beta) \tag{31.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This equation tells us that $\mu$ is well-defined on the level of cohomology. Indeed, suppose $d \alpha=d \beta=0$. Then $d \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)=0$, and moreover in this case for any $\alpha^{\prime}$ and $\beta^{\prime}$ one has that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu\left(\left(\alpha+d \alpha^{\prime}\right) \otimes\left(\beta+d \beta^{\prime}\right)\right)-\mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)= & \mu\left(d \alpha^{\prime} \otimes \beta\right)+\mu\left(\alpha \otimes d \beta^{\prime}\right)+\underbrace{\mu\left(d \alpha^{\prime} \otimes d \beta^{\prime}\right)}_{=0} \\
= & \mu\left(d \alpha^{\prime} \otimes \beta\right)+(-1)^{n} \mu(\alpha^{\prime} \otimes \underbrace{d \beta}_{=0}) \\
& +(-1)^{n}((-1)^{n} \mu\left(\alpha \otimes d \beta^{\prime}\right)+\mu(\underbrace{d \alpha}_{=0} \otimes \beta^{\prime})) \\
= & d \mu\left(\alpha^{\prime} \otimes \beta\right)+(-1)^{n} d \mu\left(\alpha \otimes \beta^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we conclude:
Lemma 31.11. The map

$$
H^{n}\left(A^{\bullet}\right) \otimes H^{m}\left(B^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow H^{n+m}\left(C^{\bullet}\right), \quad\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto\langle\mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)\rangle
$$

is well-defined.
We will slightly abuse notation and refer to this map also as $\mu$ (rather than $\left.H^{n+m}(\mu)\right)$ so as to keep the formulae to come not too cumbersome.

We return to the situation at hand.

Definition 31.12. The cross product is the operation

$$
\times_{\Omega}:=\operatorname{Hom}(\Omega, R) \circ \mu: C^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes C^{\star}(Y ; R) \rightarrow C^{\star}(X \times Y ; R) .
$$

We write this as

$$
\alpha \otimes \beta \mapsto \alpha \times_{\Omega} \beta .
$$

By Lemma 31.11 (together with the fact that $\Omega$ is a chain map), the cross product induces a map on cohomology:

$$
\times: H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}(Y ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}(X \times Y ; R), \quad\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto\left\langle\alpha \times_{\Omega} \beta\right\rangle .
$$

In cohomology we drop the subscript $\Omega$ on $\times_{\Omega}$, since the Eilenberg-Zilber morphism is unique up to chain homotopy, and hence different choices of $\Omega$ give rise to the same map on cohomology. Nevertheless, on the cochain level we do need to keep the subscript $\Omega$, since this does depend on the choice of $\Omega$.

Remark 31.13. In the case $R=\mathbb{Z}$, the induced map in cohomology agrees with the map $\eta$ in the Künneth Theorem for Cohomology (Theorem 29.16).

Next lecture, we will explicitly construct a "special" choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphism, which we call the Alexander-Whitney choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphism and denote it by $\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$. This particular choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphism gives rise to the cup product, as the next result shows.

Proposition 31.14. For $\Omega=\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$, the composite
$C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \otimes C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \xrightarrow{\mu} \operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X) \otimes C \bullet(X), R) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}, R\right)} C^{\bullet}(X \times X ; R) \xrightarrow{\delta^{\#}} C^{\bullet}(X ; R)$
is precisely the cup product. Thus if $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta^{\#}\left(\alpha \times_{\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}} \beta\right)=\alpha \smile \beta . \tag{31.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will prove Proposition 31.14 next lecture, after we have constructed $\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$. There is one more ingredient needed for Theorem 31.1, whose proof is on Problem Sheet O.

Lemma 31.15. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ be a non-negative chain complex. Then the function

$$
\text { twist : } C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}
$$

given by

$$
\operatorname{twist}\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{n m} c^{\prime} \otimes c, \quad c \in C_{n}, c^{\prime} \in C_{m}
$$

is a natural chain equivalence.
Let us finally add commutativity of $R$ as a hypothesis:
Lemma 31.16. If $R$ is commutative then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\text { twist }, R) \circ \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)=(-1)^{n m} \mu(\beta \otimes \alpha), \quad \forall \alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R), \beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)
$$

Proof. Suppose $\sigma \in C_{i}(X)$ and $\tau \in C_{j}(X)$. Both sides clearly vanish on $\tau \otimes \sigma$ unless $i=n$ and $j=m$. In this case we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}(\text { twist } R) \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)(\tau \otimes \sigma) & =\mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left((-1)^{n m}(\sigma \otimes \tau)\right) \\
& =(-1)^{n m} \alpha(\sigma) \cdot \beta(\tau) \\
& \stackrel{(\star)}{=}(-1)^{n m} \beta(\tau) \cdot \alpha(\sigma) \\
& =(-1)^{n m} \mu(\beta \otimes \alpha)(\tau \otimes \sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $(\star)$ used commutativity of $R$. Thus both sides agree on a basis of $\operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X) \otimes$ $C \bullet(X), R)$, and we conclude

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\text { twist, } R) \mu(\alpha \otimes \beta)=(-1)^{n m} \mu(\beta \otimes \alpha)
$$

as desired.
We now have all the ingredients to prove Theorem 31.1 (modulo the construction of $\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$ and the proof of Proposition 31.14 , which we will do next lecture).

Proof of Theorem 31.1. We have already remarked that a diagonal approximation is given by $\Omega \circ \delta_{\#}$. It is then clear from the definition that twist $\circ \Omega \circ \delta_{\#}$ is another diagonal approximation. Thus by Theorem 31.9, the two chain maps are naturally chain equivalent.

Thus if we apply $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, R)$, we see that the for any choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphism $\Omega$ the two compositions
$C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \otimes C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \xrightarrow{\mu} \operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X) \otimes C \bullet(X), R) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(\Omega, R)} C^{\bullet}(X \times X ; R) \xrightarrow{\delta^{\#}} C^{\bullet}(X ; R)$
and

induce the same map in cohomology. Taking $\Omega=\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$ and applying Proposition 31.14 , we see that the first composition induces

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle
$$

in cohomology, whereas using both Proposition 31.14 and Lemma 31.15 shows that for $\Omega=\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$ the second composition induces

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto(-1)^{n m}\langle\beta\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle, \quad \forall\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{n}(X ; R),\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{m}(X ; R)
$$

in cohomology. This completes the proof of Theorem 31.1.

## LECTURE 32

## The Alexander-Whitney Formula

We begin this lecture by writing down an explicit formula for an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism, which we call the Alexander-Whitney choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphism, using the front and back face maps from the Lecture 30. In the following, given a map $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X \times Y$, we denote by $\pi^{\prime}: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $\pi^{\prime \prime}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ the two projections, and set $\sigma^{\prime}=\pi^{\prime} \circ \sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime \prime}=\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ \sigma$, so that $\sigma=\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

Theorem 32.1 (Alexander-Whitney Formula). The following formula defines an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism:

$$
\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(\sigma):=\sum_{i+j=n}\left(\sigma^{\prime} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(\sigma^{\prime \prime} \circ B_{j}\right),
$$

for $\sigma=\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right): \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X \times Y$.
Note that this makes sense: if $\sigma$ is a singular zero-simplex in $X \times Y$, then $\sigma=(x, y)$ for some $(x, y) \in X \times Y$, and $\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(x, y)=x \otimes y$ as it should do.

Proof. We will prove the result in three steps. Throughout this proof we will write $\Omega$ instead of $\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$, since we only consider one Eilenberg-Zilber morphism.

1. As explained above in Remark 31.7, all we need to do is show that this formula defines a natural chain map. Then the Augmented Acyclic Models Theorem will immediately tell us it is a natural chain equivalence $C_{\bullet}(X \times Y) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y)$, and hence an Eilenberg-Zilber morphism.

Next, proving naturality is easy: if $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ then

$$
\Omega \circ(f, g)_{\#}(\sigma)=\sum_{i+j=n}\left(f \circ \sigma^{\prime} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(g \circ \sigma^{\prime \prime} \circ B_{j}\right)=\left(f_{\#} \otimes g_{\#}\right) \circ \Omega(\sigma) .
$$

We can then use naturality to reduce the problem to proving $\Omega$ is a chain map for $X=Y=\Delta^{n}$. This is a similar argument to how we proved that barycentric subdivision was a chain map in Lecture 13. Indeed, suppose we already know that $\Omega: C_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{n} \times \Delta^{n}\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \otimes C_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{n}\right)$ is a chain map. Let us denote by $\delta: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow$ $\Delta^{n} \times \Delta^{n}$ the diagonal. We can also regard as a singular $n$-simplex in $\Delta^{n} \times \Delta^{n}$. For notational clarity, we will write $\delta_{n}$ (instead of just $\delta$ ) to indicate the singular $n$-simplex, so that $\delta_{n} \in C_{n}\left(\Delta^{n} \times \Delta^{n}\right)$. Now if $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X \times Y$ is any singular $n$-simplex, we can write

$$
\sigma=\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ \delta
$$

or alternatively

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma=\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)_{\#}\left(\delta_{n}\right) \tag{32.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the following we add subscripts to each operator to show what they are defined on: thus $\Delta_{X, Y}$ denote the boundary operator ${ }^{1}$ in $C_{\bullet}(X) \otimes C_{\bullet}(Y), \partial_{X \times Y}$ the boundary operator on $C_{\bullet}(X \times Y), \Omega_{X, Y}$ is the map defined on $X \times Y$, etc. Assume we prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}} \circ \Omega_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right)=\Omega_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}} \circ \partial_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right) \tag{32.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then we have the following horrendous looking computation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta_{X, Y} \circ \Omega_{X, Y}(\sigma) & =\Delta_{X, Y} \circ \Omega_{X, Y} \circ\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)_{\#}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { by }(32.1), \\
& =\Delta_{X, Y} \circ\left(\sigma_{\#}^{\prime} \otimes \sigma_{\#}^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ \Omega_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { by naturality, } \\
& =\left(\sigma_{\#}^{\prime} \otimes \sigma_{\#}^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ \Delta_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}} \circ \Omega_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { since }\left(\sigma_{\#}^{\prime} \otimes \sigma_{\#}^{\prime \prime}\right) \text { is a chain map, } \\
& =\left(\sigma_{\#}^{\prime} \otimes \sigma_{\#}^{\prime \prime}\right) \circ \Omega_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}} \circ \partial_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { by }(32.2), \\
& =\Omega_{X, Y} \circ\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right)_{\#}^{\circ} \circ \partial_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { by naturality, } \\
& =\Omega_{X, Y} \circ \partial_{X, Y} \circ\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \not{ }_{\#}\left(\delta_{n}\right), & & \text { since }\left(\sigma^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime \prime}\right) \neq \text { is a chain map, } \\
& =\Omega_{X, Y} \circ \partial_{X, Y}(\sigma), & & \text { by }(32.1),
\end{aligned}
$$

which-provided we can verify (32.2)—shows the chain map property:

$$
\Delta_{X, Y} \circ \Omega_{X, Y}=\Omega_{X, Y} \circ \partial_{X, Y}
$$

2. We now verify that (32.2). This is a messy, but straightforward. Since everything now happens on the standard $n$-simplex, we will ditch the subscripts. Note that $\delta_{n}$ is an affine singular $n$-simplex in the sense of Definition 13.5. We will use the notation ${ }^{2}\left[e_{k_{0}}, \ldots, e_{k_{i}}\right]$ for the affine singular $i$-simplex $\Delta^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ that sends $e_{k}$ to $e_{k_{i}}$ for $k=0, \ldots, i$. Thus $F_{i}=\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right]$ and $B_{n-i}=\left[e_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]$. Then, recalling we use a circumflex " to mean "delete" (cf. Definition 7.7), we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \circ \Omega\left(\delta_{n}\right)= & \Delta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{n}\left(\partial\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]+(-1)^{i}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes \partial\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j \leq i}(-1)^{j}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
& +\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-i}(-1)^{i} \cdot(-1)^{k}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i+k}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
= & \sum_{j<i}(-1)^{j}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
& +\sum_{j>i}(-1)^{j}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right],
\end{aligned}
$$

[^62]where in the last equation we observed that the the terms $j=i$ in the first sum, which are:
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n}(-1)^{i}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]
$$
cancelled with the term $j=i$ in the second sum, which are:
$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(-1)^{i}\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i+1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]
$$
3. Going the other way, we have
$$
\Omega \circ \Delta\left(\delta_{n}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left(\left(\partial \delta_{n}\right)^{\prime} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(\left(\partial \delta_{n}\right)^{\prime \prime} \circ B_{n-i-1}\right)
$$

But $\left(\partial \delta_{n}\right)^{\prime}=\pi_{\#}^{\prime} \circ \partial \delta_{n}$, where $\pi^{\prime}: \Delta^{n} \times \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ is projection onto the first factor. Since $\pi_{\#}$ is a chain map, $\pi_{\#}^{\prime} \circ \partial \delta_{n}=\partial \pi_{\#}^{\prime} \delta_{n}=\partial \ell_{n}$, where ${ }^{3} \ell_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ is the identity map (regarded as a singular $n$-simplex in $\Delta^{n}$ ). Similarly $\left(\partial \delta_{n}\right)^{\prime \prime}=\partial \ell_{n}$. Now by definition

$$
\partial \ell_{n}=\sum_{j=0}^{n}(-1)^{j} \varepsilon_{j}
$$

where $\varepsilon_{j}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ is the $j$ th face. Thus

$$
\Omega \circ \Delta\left(\delta_{n}\right)=\sum_{j} \sum_{i}(-1)^{j}\left(\varepsilon_{j}^{\prime} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(\varepsilon_{j}^{\prime \prime} \circ B_{n-1-i}\right)
$$

Clearly $\varepsilon_{j}^{\prime}=\varepsilon_{j}^{\prime \prime}=\varepsilon_{j}$, and hence we can write this as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Omega \circ \Delta\left(\delta_{n}\right) & =\sum_{i} \sum_{j}(-1)^{j}\left(\varepsilon_{j} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(\varepsilon_{j} \circ B_{n-i-1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i>j}(-1)^{j}\left(F_{i+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j}\right) \otimes B_{n-i}+\sum_{i<j}(-1)^{j} F_{i} \otimes\left(B_{n-i} \circ \varepsilon_{j-i-1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used part (3) of Lemma 30.12. But unravelling our notation, we have

$$
\left(F_{i+1} \circ \varepsilon_{j}\right) \otimes B_{n-i}=\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]
$$

and

$$
F_{i} \otimes\left(B_{n-i} \circ \varepsilon_{j-i-1}\right)=\left[e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i}\right] \otimes\left[e_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]
$$

so that these two terms agree with the formula at the end of Step 2. This completes the proof.

Let us now prove Proposition 31.14 from Lecture 31, which we restate here:

[^63]Proposition 32.2. For $\Omega=\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}$, the composite
$C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \otimes C^{\bullet}(X ; R) \xrightarrow{\mu} \operatorname{Hom}(C \bullet(X) \otimes C \bullet(X), R) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}, R\right)} C^{\bullet}(X \times X ; R) \xrightarrow{\delta^{\#}} C^{\bullet}(X ; R)$ is precisely the cup product. Thus if $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$ then

$$
\delta^{\#}\left(\alpha \times_{\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}} \beta\right)=\alpha \smile \beta .
$$

Proof. Take $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R), \beta \in C^{m}(X ; R)$, and let $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$ be a singular $(n+m)$-simplex. Then

$$
\delta^{\#} \circ \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}, R\right)(\alpha \otimes \beta)(\sigma)=(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}} \circ \delta_{\#}(\sigma)\right)=(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(\delta \circ \sigma)\right)
$$

Now using the Alexander-Whitney Formula,

$$
\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(\delta \circ \sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n+m}\left((\delta \sigma)^{\prime} \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left((\delta \sigma)^{\prime \prime} \circ B_{n+m-i}\right) .
$$

But both $\pi^{\prime} \circ \delta$ and $\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ \delta$ are the identity on $X$, so this becomes

$$
\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(\delta \circ \sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n+m}\left(\sigma \circ F_{i}\right) \otimes\left(\sigma \circ B_{n+m-i}\right)
$$

Since $\alpha \otimes \beta$ vanishes off $C_{n}(X) \otimes C_{m}(X)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left(\Omega_{\mathrm{AW}}(\delta \circ \sigma)\right) & =(\alpha \otimes \beta)\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \otimes\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =(\alpha \smile \beta)(\sigma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 32.3. Eilenberg-Zilber morphisms are associative. This means that for any triple of spaces $X, Y, Z$, the following diagram commutes up to natural chain homotopy:


This follows from the uniqueness part of Augmented Acyclic Models Theorem. From this one can deduce that the cross product is always associative on the level of cohomology (although this already follows from the fact that the cup product is associative.)

If we take the Alexander-Whitney choice of Eilenberg-Zilber morphisms, then a stronger statement is true: the diagram genuinely commutes (i.e. not just up to natural chain homotopy). This follows directly from the formula defining the Alexander-Whitney choice of the Eilenberg-Zilber morphism, as I invite you to check.

Remark 32.4. Eilenberg-Zilber morphisms are also commutative. This means that for any pair of spaces $X$ and $Y$ the following diagram commutes up to natural chain homotopy:


Here $t_{X, Y}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y \times X$ is the map $(x, y) \mapsto(y, x)$, and twist ${ }_{X, Y}$ is the natural chain equivalence from Lemma 31.15. This can again be proved via an application of the Augmented Acyclic Models Theorem.

However there is an important difference compared to the associativity diagram in the previous remark: Even if one chooses the Alexander-Whitney choice of EilenbergZilber morphism, this diagram does not have to commute on the cochain level ${ }^{4}$. This can again be verified directly from the formula defining the Alexander-Whitney choice of the Eilenberg-Zilber morphism.

The aim of the rest of this lecture is to show that the cross product is a homomorphism of graded rings. We begin with the following trivial result, whose proof I will leave as an exercise.

Lemma 32.5. Let $R$ and $S$ be rings. Then $R \otimes S$ also carries a ring structure, where the multiplication is defined by

$$
(r \otimes s) \cdot\left(r^{\prime} \otimes s^{\prime}\right):=r r^{\prime} \otimes s s^{\prime}, \quad r, r^{\prime} \in R,, s^{\prime} \in S
$$

If instead $R$ and $S$ are graded rings, then $R \otimes S$ can be given the structure of a graded ring, where

$$
(R \otimes S)^{n}:=\sum_{i+j=n} R^{i} \otimes S^{j},
$$

and the multiplication is defined by

$$
(r \otimes s) \cdot\left(r^{\prime} \otimes s^{\prime}\right):=(-1)^{m n} r r^{\prime} \otimes s s^{\prime}, \quad r \in R, r^{\prime} \in R^{n}, s \in S^{m}, s^{\prime} \in S
$$

Remark 32.6. The operation $(R, S) \mapsto R \otimes S$ is the coproduct (cf. Definition 16.8) in the category of commutative rings.

Remark 32.7. If $R$ and $S$ are graded rings, then in fact we should use different notation to denote the two tensor products: $R \otimes_{\text {ungraded }} S$ and $R \otimes_{\text {graded }} S$. Indeed, these two rings are not the same. For example, if $R=\mathbb{Z}[P]$ and $S=\mathbb{Z}[Q]$ then $R \otimes_{\text {ungraded }} S \cong \mathbb{Z}[P, Q]$ (i.e. polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}$ with two commuating variables $P$ and $Q$ ), but $R \otimes_{\text {graded }} S$ consists of all polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}$ in two variables $P$ and $Q$ for which $P Q=-Q P$, as you can easily check. From now on, if $R$ and $S$ are graded we always implicitly take $R \otimes S$ to mean $R \otimes_{\text {graded }} S$.

[^64]Theorem 32.8. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Then the cross product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes_{\text {graded }} H^{\star}(Y ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}(X \times Y ; R)$ is a homomorphism of graded rings.

Proof. Take cocycles $\alpha \in Z^{n}(X ; R), \alpha^{\prime} \in Z^{m}(X ; R), \beta \in Z^{p}(Y ; R)$ and $\beta^{\prime} \in$ $Z^{q}(Y ; R)$. To simplify the notation we write $a:=\langle\alpha\rangle, b=\langle\beta\rangle$ and define $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ similarly. We want to prove that:

$$
(a \times b) \smile_{X \times Y}\left(a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{m p}\left(a \smile_{X} a^{\prime}\right) \times\left(b \smile_{Y} b^{\prime}\right),
$$

where we added subscripts to the cup products to indicate ring the multiplication was occurring.

Consider the following commutative diagram, where $\delta_{X}: X \rightarrow X \times X$ is the diagonal map (and similarly for $\delta_{Y}$ and $\delta_{X \times Y}$ ), and $t_{X, Y}$ was defined in Remark 32.4.


We then compute:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(a \times b) \smile_{X \times Y}\left(a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} H^{\star}\left(\delta_{X \times Y}\right)\left(a \times b \times a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}\right) \\
&=H^{\star}\left(\delta_{X}, \delta_{Y}\right) \circ H^{\star}\left(\operatorname{id}_{X} \times t_{X, Y} \times \operatorname{id}_{Y}\right)\left(a \times b \times a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\varrho)}{=} H^{\star}\left(\delta_{X}, \delta_{Y}\right) \circ\left(a \times H^{\star}\left(\operatorname{twist}_{X, Y}\right)\left(b \times a^{\prime}\right) \times b^{\prime}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\stackrel{\oplus}{\prime})}{=}(-1)^{m p} H^{\star}\left(\delta_{X}, \delta_{Y}\right)\left(a \times a^{\prime} \times b \times b^{\prime}\right) \\
& \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=}(-1)^{m p} H^{\star}\left(\delta_{X}\right)\left(a \times a^{\prime}\right) \times H^{\star}\left(\delta_{Y}\right)\left(b \times b^{\prime}\right) \\
&=(-1)^{m p}\left(a \smile_{X} a^{\prime}\right) \times\left(b \smile_{Y} b^{\prime}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where both equations labelled ( $\dagger$ ) used associativity of the cross product (Remark 32.4), ( $(\mathbf{Q})$ used commutativity of the cross product (Remark 32.4), and ( $\boldsymbol{\uparrow}$ ) used Lemma 31.15.

Corollary 32.9. Let $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces of finite type, and assume that $H_{n}(Y)$ is free abelian for all $n \geq 0$. Then the cross product $H^{\star}(X) \otimes_{\text {graded }} H^{\star}(Y) \rightarrow$ $H^{\star}(X \times Y)$ is a isomorphism of graded rings.

Proof. We have already noted in Remark 31.13 that for $R=\mathbb{Z}$, the cross product is the map $\eta$ from the Künneth Formula in Cohomology (Theorem 29.16):

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H^{i}(X) \otimes H^{j}(Y) \xrightarrow{\eta=\times} H^{n}(X \times Y) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n+1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(H^{k}(X), H^{l}(Y)\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

The assumption that $H_{n}(Y)$ is free abelian means that $H^{n}(Y)$ is also free abelian (Corollary 29.9), and hence each Tor group is zero on the right-hand side by part (1) of Theorem 25.6.

Remark 32.10. Using Theorem 32.8, one can give an easier definition of the cross product that starts from the cup product. Namely, if $\pi^{\prime}: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $\pi^{\prime \prime}: X \times$ $Y \rightarrow Y$ are the two projections, then for $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{\star}(X ; R)$ and $\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{\star}(Y ; R)$, set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle\alpha\rangle \times\langle\beta\rangle:=H^{\star}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{\star}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime}\right)\langle\beta\rangle, \tag{32.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the cup product on the right-hand side takes place in the ring $H^{\star}(X \times Y ; R)$. To see this, we first claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\star}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime}\right)\langle\beta\rangle=\left\langle\nu_{X}\right\rangle \times\langle\beta\rangle \tag{32.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\nu_{X} \in C^{0}(X ; R)$ is the unit (cf. (30.2)). To prove (32.4), first note that since $\nu_{X} \in H^{0}(X ; R)$ is the image of $\nu_{x} \in H^{0}(x ; R)$ under the projection $X \rightarrow\{x\}$, it suffices to consider the case where $X$ is a point. The case when $X$ is a point is left as an exercise. Anyway, with (32.4) in hand, (32.3) follows from Theorem 32.8.

## LECTURE 33

## Fibre bundles

In this lecture we define fibre bundles. Next lecture we will state and prove the Leray-Hirsch Theorem, which gives conditions on when the cohomology of a fibre bundle looks like the cohomology of a trivial (product) bundle.

Definition 33.1. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map between two topological spaces $E$ and $X$, and let $F$ be a non-empty topological space. We say that $p: E \rightarrow X$ (or sometimes just " $p$ ") is a fibre bundle over $X$ with fibre $F$ if for every $x \in X$, there exists a neighbourhood $U \subset X$ of $x$ and a homeomorphism $h: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times F$ such that the following diagram commutes:

where $\pi^{\prime}: U \times F \rightarrow U$ denotes the projection onto the first factor. It is often convenient to denote by $E_{x}:=p^{-1}(x)$. Thus $E_{x} \cong F$ for all $x \in X$. We call $X$ the base space and $E$ is called the total space. One calls $h$ a local trivialisation of the fibre bundle $p$. We often write $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ to indicate that $p$ is a fibration with fibre $F$.

One can alternatively define fibre bundles via open covers: a map $p: E \rightarrow X$ is a fibre bundle with fibre $F$ if and only if there exists an open covering $\left\{U_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ such that for each $\lambda \in \Lambda$ there is a homeomorphism $h_{\lambda}: p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow U_{\lambda} \times F$ such that $\pi^{\prime} \circ h_{\lambda}=\left.p\right|_{p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right)}$. We call $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ a trivialising cover of $X$.

A fibre bundle $p: E \rightarrow X$ is necessarily an open map (since projections of products are open maps), and thus $X$ carries the quotient topology determined by $p$.

Example 33.2. It $F$ and $X$ are any two topological spaces then $\pi^{\prime}: X \times F \rightarrow X$ is obviously a fibre bundle (where $\pi^{\prime}$ denotes the first projection). We call $X \times F$ a trivial bundle. Similarly if $E$ is any fibre bundle such that $E \cong X \times F$ (that is, the homeomorphism $h$ from Definition 33.1 can be chosen to be defined on the entire space $E$ ) then we say that $E$ is a trivial bundle. Thus for instance $F \times X \rightarrow X$ is also a trivial bundle.

Trivial bundles may seem pointless, but they are more common than one would think. We shall see next lecture that any fibre bundle over a contractible cell complex is automatically a trivial bundle.

Example 33.3. The map $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^{1}$ by

$$
\exp (s):=e^{2 \pi i s}
$$

from Definition 5.1 is a fibre bundle over $S^{1}$ with fibre $\mathbb{Z}$.
Generalising this, we have the following definition, which you may have seen previously in your point-set topology class.

Definition 33.4. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibre bundle such that $F$ carries the discrete topology. Then we call $p$ a covering space.

Remark 33.5. In fact, covering spaces can be defined slightly more generally. Let us a say a surjective continuous map $p: Z \rightarrow X$ is a covering space if for every $x \in X$, there exists an open neighbourhood $U \subset X$ of $x$ such that $p^{-1}(U)$ is a union of disjoint open sets in $Z$, each of which is mapped homeomorphically onto $U$ by $p$. With this definition, a covering space is not necessarily a fibre bundle, since if $X$ is not path-connected then the sets $p^{-1}(x)$ and $p^{-1}(y)$ need not be homeomorphic if $x$ and $y$ belong to different path components. However if $p: Z \rightarrow X$ is a covering space and $X^{\prime}$ is any path component of $X$, then setting $E:=p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ one has that $\left.p\right|_{E}: E \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ is a fibre bundle.

Here are some other examples of fibre bundles.
Definition 33.6. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle. We say that $p$ is a (real) vector bundle if the following two additional conditions hold:

1. Each fibre $E_{x}$ carries the structure of an $n$-dimensional real vector space.
2. There is an trivialising cover $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ of $X$ such that the corresponding local trivialisations $h_{\lambda}: p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow U_{\lambda} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ have the property that $\left.h_{\lambda}\right|_{E_{x}}: E_{x} \rightarrow$ $\{x\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a vector space isomorphism ${ }^{1}$ for each $x \in U_{\lambda}$.
As an example (for those of you familiar with differential geometry), the tangent bundle of any smooth manifold is a real vector bundle. The notion of a complex vector bundle can be defined analogously. Starting from vector bundles, one can define topological $K$-theory, which is a generalised cohomology theory (cf. Remark 7 after Definition 21.9), but that's a different course...

Continuing our list of examples, we now consider a famous class of fibre bundles over a sphere. Let us temporarily denote by $\mathbb{F}$ either the real numbers $\mathbb{R}$, or the complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$, or the quaternions $\mathbb{H}$. For $m=1,2$ or 4 , we can view the sphere $S^{m(n+1)-1}$ as a subset of $\mathbb{F}^{n+1}$ :

$$
S^{m(n+1)-1}=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \mid x_{i} \in \mathbb{F} \text { and } \sum_{i=0}^{n}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

We set $\mathbb{F} P^{n}=\left(\mathbb{F}^{n+1} \backslash\{0\}\right) / \sim$, where
$\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \sim\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exists \mu \in \mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}$ such that $x_{i}=\mu y_{i}, \forall i=0, \ldots, n$.

[^65]There is a continuous function $p: S^{m(n+1)-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} P^{n}$ that sends a tuple $\left(x_{i}\right)$ to its equivalence class (for $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{C}$ this agrees with our normal definition, cf Example 18.8 and Example 18.9.) On Problem Sheet O, you will prove:
Proposition 33.7. For $\mathbb{F}=\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$, or $\mathbb{H}$ and $m=1,2$ or 4 respectively,

$$
S^{m-1} \rightarrow S^{m(n+1)-1} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{F} P^{n}
$$

is a fibre bundle.
We call these fibre bundles Hopf fibrations.
Definition 33.8. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous surjective map (not necessarily a fibre bundle). Let $U \subset X$ be open. A local section $s: U \rightarrow E$ is a continuous function such that $p \circ s=\iota$, where $\iota: U \hookrightarrow X$ is the inclusion. If $x \in X$ has a neighbourhood $U$ and a local section $s$ of $p$ on $U$, we say that $s$ is a local section at $x$.

If $p: E \rightarrow X$ is a fibre bundle then for any $x \in X$, a local section exists. Indeed, if $U \subset X$ is an open set containing $x$ and $h: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times F$ is a local trivialisation, then if $z \in F$ is any point,

$$
U \xrightarrow{\iota_{z}} U \times F \xrightarrow{h^{-1}} p^{-1}(U)
$$

is a local section defined on $U$, where $i_{z}(x):=(x, z)$.
Definition 33.9. Let $G$ be a topological group (i.e. a topological space with a group structure, such that the multiplication and inverse maps are continuous). Let $H \subseteq G$ be a closed subgroup, and consider the quotient space ${ }^{2} G / H$ (whose elements are the left cosets $g H$ for $g \in H$ ), equipped with the quotient topology $p: G \rightarrow G / H$. We call $G / H$ a homogeneous space.

There is a left action of $G$ on $G / H$ given by $g \cdot\left(g^{\prime} H\right):=\left(g g^{\prime}\right) H$, and the map $p$ is equivariant in the sense that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p\left(g g^{\prime}\right)=g \cdot p\left(g^{\prime}\right), \quad \forall g, g^{\prime} \in G \tag{33.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We denote by $e \in G / H$ the coset $H$.
Lemma 33.10. Suppose $p: G \rightarrow G / H$ is a homogeneous space. If $p$ has local section $s$ at $e$, then $p$ has a local section at every point of $G / H$.
Proof. Let $U \subseteq G / H$ be an open set containing $e$ and $s: U \rightarrow G$ a local section on $U$. Given $x:=g H \in G / H$, the set $g \cdot U$ is open in $G / H$ and contains $x$, and the function $s^{\prime}: g \cdot U \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$
s^{\prime}\left(g g^{\prime} H\right):=g s\left(g^{\prime} H\right), \quad g^{\prime} H \in U
$$

is a continuous map and by (33.1) one has

$$
p \circ s\left(g g^{\prime} H\right)=p\left(g s\left(g^{\prime} H\right)\right)=g p\left(s\left(g^{\prime} H\right)\right)=g g^{\prime} H
$$

[^66]We can use this as a way to construct fibre bundles.
Proposition 33.11. Let $G$ be a topological group at let $K \subseteq H \subseteq G$ be closed subgroups. Let $p: G \rightarrow G / H$ and $p^{\prime}: G / K \rightarrow G / H$ denote the two quotient maps. Assume that $p: G \rightarrow G / H$ has a local section at $e$. Then

$$
H / K \rightarrow G / K \xrightarrow{p^{\prime}} G / H
$$

is a fibre bundle.
Proof. Let $x \in G / H$. By Lemma 33.10, there exists an open set $U \subseteq G / H$ containing $x$ and a local section $s: U \rightarrow G$ of $p$. Define

$$
f: U \times H / K \rightarrow G / K, \quad f(g H, h K):=s(g H) h K .
$$

for $g \in G, h \in H$ and $g H \in U$. Then $p^{\prime} f(g H, h K)=g H$ and so $f(g H, h K) \in$ $\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(U)$. Now define

$$
\eta:\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times H / K, \quad \eta(g K):=\left(g H, s(g H)^{-1} g K\right) .
$$

Both $f$ and $\eta$ are continuous, and one easily checks they invert each other. Thus in particular $\eta$ is a homeomorphism. Since $x$ was arbitrary, this completes the proof.

On Problem Sheet O there are several applications of Proposition 33.11 for you to investigate.

Let us now make fibre bundles into a category.
Definition 33.12. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ and $F^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\prime} \xrightarrow{p^{\prime}} X^{\prime}$ be fibre bundles. A morphism from $p$ to $p^{\prime}$ is a pair $(f, \varphi)$ of continuous maps, where $f: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ and $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ are such that the following diagram commutes:


Thus $\varphi$ maps fibres of $p$ to fibres of $p^{\prime}$, i.e. for any $x \in X, \varphi$ induces a map $F \cong p^{-1}(x) \rightarrow F^{\prime} \cong\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(f(x))$.

It is easy to check this defines the category Bun of fibre bundles. If we fix a topological space $X$ then there is a full subcateogory Bun $_{X}$ of fibre bundles over $X$ whose objects are bundles over $X$ and whose morphisms are pairs ( $\mathrm{id}_{X}, \varphi$ ).

The following definition is arguably more important (as far as algebraic topology is concerned). We will only briefly cover it here - the study of fibrations will be taken up again in Lecture 45.

Definition 33.13. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map between two topological spaces. Let $W$ be a topological space. We say that $p$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to $W$ if for any homotopy $f_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ (for $t \in[0,1]$ ) and
any continuous map $g_{0}: W \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ g_{0}=f_{0}$, there exists a homotopy $g_{t}: W \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ g_{t}=f_{t}$ :


The homotopy $g_{t}$ is called a covering homotopy of $f_{t}$.
Example 33.14. It follows from Proposition 5.2 that exp: $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^{1}$ has the covering homotopy property with respect to any compact convex subset of $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Indeed, if $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is compact convex, then so is $X \times I$. Now given $f_{t}: X \rightarrow S^{1}$ and $g_{0}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\exp \circ g_{0}=f_{0}$, Proposition 5.2 gives the existence of a unique continuous map $g: X \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $\exp \circ g(x, t)=f_{t}(x)$. Setting $g_{t}(x):=g(x, t)$ gives the desired homotopy.

Definition 33.15. If $p: E \rightarrow X$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any topological space $W$, then $p$ is called a fibration. If $p$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cell complex $W$ then $p$ is called a weak fibration.

Definition 33.16. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $\left\{U_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ be an open cover of $X$. We say that $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ is locally finite if for any $x \in X$ there exists an open neighbourhood $V$ such that

$$
\left\{\lambda \in \Lambda \mid U_{\lambda} \cap V \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

is finite. We say that a topological space $X$ is paracompact if every open cover admits a locally finite refinement.

Any cell complex is paracompact. The next important theorem relates (weak) fibrations to fibre bundles. We will prove (half of) it when we study fibrations in Lecture 45.
Theorem 33.17. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle. Then $p$ is a weak fibration. If $X$ is paracompact then $p$ is a fibration.

Remark 33.18. A fibre bundle with discrete fibre (i.e. a covering space) satisfies a stronger version of the homotopy lifting property: given $f_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ and a lift $g_{0}$ of $f_{0}$, there exists a unique lift $g_{t}$ of $f_{t}$. This uniqueness is the main difference between the theory of covering spaces and the general theory of fibre bundles.

We need a bit more algebra before we can get state the main result on the cohomology of fibre bundles (the Leray-Hirsch Theorem), which will take us the rest of the lecture.

Definition 33.19. Let $R$ be a ring. A left $R$-module $M$ is an additive abelian group having a scalar multiplication $R \times M \rightarrow M$, denoted by $(r, m) \mapsto r m$ such that for all $x, y \in M$ and $r, s \in R$, one has:

1. $r(x+y)=r x+r y$.
2. $(r+s) x=r x+s x$.
3. $r s(x)=r(s x)$.
4. $1_{R} x=x$.

If $M$ and $N$ are left $R$-modules, a $R$-module homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$ is a function such that for all $r \in R$ and $x, y \in M$, one has:

1. $f(x+y)=f(x)+f(y)$,
2. $f(r x)=r f(x)$.

In this way modules over $R$ form a category ${ }_{R}$ Mod.
Example 33.20. If $R=\mathbb{Z}$ then ${ }_{\mathbb{Z}}$ Mod is just the familiar category Ab .
There is an analogous notion of a free module.
Definition 33.21. Let $R$ be a ring and let $M$ be a left $R$-module. A set $B \subset$ $M$ is called a generating set if every element of $M$ can be written as a finite sum of elements of $B$ multiplied by elements of $R$. A subset $B$ is called linearly independent if for any given distinct elements $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{n}$ of $B$, the only solution to

$$
r_{1} b_{1}+r_{2} b_{2}+\cdots+r_{n} b_{n}=0_{M}
$$

is $r_{1}=r_{2}=\cdots=r_{n}=0_{R}$. A subset $B$ of $M$ is called a basis if it is both a generating set and linearly independent. We say that $M$ is free if it admits a basis.

Example 33.22. If $R$ is a field then any $R$-vector space $V$ is a free left $R$-module.
In an analogous way one can speak of right $R$-modules:
Definition 33.23. Let $R$ be a ring. A right $R$-module $M$ is an additive abelian group having a scalar multiplication $R \times M \rightarrow M$, denoted by $(r, m) \mapsto m r$ such that for all $x, y \in M$ and $r, s \in R$, one has:

1. $(x+y) r=x r+y r$.
2. $x(r+s)=x r+x s$.
3. $x(r s)=(x r) s$.
4. $x 1_{R}=x$.

If $M$ and $N$ are right $R$-modules, a $R$-module homomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$ is a function such that for all $r \in R$ and $x, y \in M$, one has:

1. $f(x+y)=f(x)+f(y)$,
2. $f(x r)=f(x) r$.

In this way right $R$-modules form a category $\operatorname{Mod}_{R}$.

Definition 33.24. Let $R, S$ be rings. An $(R, S)$-bimodule $M$ over $R$ is a module which is simultaneously a left $R$-module and a right $S$-module and for which the two scalar multiplications satisfy

$$
r(x s)=(r x) s, \quad \forall x \in M, r \in R, s \in S
$$

Thus for an $(R, S)$-bimodule one can unambiguously write $r x s$ without parentheses.
Definition 33.25. Let $R$ be a ring, and let $M$ be a right $R$-module and let $N$ be a left $R$-module. We define the tensor product over $R$ of $M$ and $N$, written $M \otimes_{R} N$ to be the quotient of $M \otimes N$ by all relations of the form $(x r, y)=(x, r y)$ for $r \in R$, $x \in M$ and $y \in N$.

If $M$ is a right $R$-module then one can show that $M \otimes_{R} \square:{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor, and similarly $\square \otimes_{R} N: \operatorname{Mod}_{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a functor for each fixed left $R$-module $N$. If $M$ is an $(R, S)$-bimodule then $M \otimes_{S} \square$ is actually a functor $\operatorname{Mod}_{S} \rightarrow{ }_{R} \operatorname{Mod}$.

If $R=\mathbb{Z}$ then $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} N$ is just the normal tensor product $M \otimes N$. But in general $M \otimes_{R} N$ really is quotient of $M \otimes N$. For example, if $R=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ then $R \otimes_{R} R=R$ but $R \otimes R$ is a four-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Suppose now for simplicity that $R$ is commutative. Then left $R$-modules and right $R$-modules and ( $R, R$ )-bimodules are the same thing, and we just call them all " $R$-modules". From now on we will only talk about the commutative case, since we are only interested in the cohomology ring of a topological space, and as we have seen, this is most interesting when the coefficient ring is commutative, since then the cohomology ring is a commutative graded ring.

Indeed, if $R$ is a commutative ring and $X$ is a topological space, then we can view the cohomology ring $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ as an $R$-module. This means that given two topological spaces, we can take the tensor product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}(Y ; R)$, which in general is not the same as the normal tensor product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}(Y ; R)$. Nevertheless, the analogue of Theorem 32.8 holds: the cross product defines a (graded) $R$-module homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}(Y ; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{\star}(X \times Y ; R) . \tag{33.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

One can then repeat the arguments from the last lecture to show that (33.2) is a homomorphism of graded rings.

The aim of the rest of this lecture is to prove a result analogous to Corollary 32.9. Unfortunately this is quite a bit harder than the (two line) proof of Corollary 32.9 - the reason being that the proof we gave of Corollary 32.9 used the Künneth Theorem for Cohomology (Theorem 29.16), and that theorem was proved only for $R=\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 33.26. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Assume that $H^{n}(Y ; R)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$. Then the cross product (33.2) is an isomorphism of graded rings.

We will eventually give three (!) different proofs of Theorem 33.26 (two this lecture, and a third next lecture, cf. Corollary 34.13). The first method only allows
us to prove a weak version of Theorem 33.26, but it has the advantage of being closer to methods we understand.

Definition 33.27. A principal ideal domain $R$ is a non-zero commutative ring with the following two additional properties:

1. If $r, s$ are two non-zero elements of $R$ then the product $r s$ is also non-zero.
2. If $I \subset R$ is an ideal then there exists a single element $x \in I$ that generates $I$ in the sense that $I=R \cdot x$.

Principal ideal domains are a useful class of commutative rings. They share many properties with the integers: for the instance, the analgoue of the fundamental theorem for finitely generated abelian groups holds for finitely generated modules over a principal ideal domain. We however will only need one fact: if $R$ is a principal ideal domain and $M$ is a free module, then any submodule of $M$ is also free (this should be compared to the fact that any subgroup of a free abelian group is itself free.)

Proposition 33.28. Let $R$ be a principal ideal domain and let $M$ be any $R$-module. Then there exists a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow K \rightarrow F \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ where $K$ and $F$ are free $R$-modules.

Proof. Exactly the same as Proposition 24.12
For principal ideal domains the definition of Tor is almost the same:
Definition 33.29. Suppose $R$ is a commutative ring and $M$ and $N$ are $R$-modules. There is a version of Tor, which we denote by $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N)$, which is defined as

$$
\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N)=\operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes_{R} \operatorname{id}_{N}\right),
$$

where $0 \rightarrow K \xrightarrow{f} F \rightarrow M \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of $R$-modules and $K, F$ are free $R$-modules.

We won't go into the properties of $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}$, save to say that if $M$ is a free $R$-module then $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(M, N)=\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}(N, M)=0$ for any $N$.

Remark 33.30. The reason for the subscript 1 in $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}$ is because for rings that are not principal ideal domains, the definition of $\operatorname{Tor}^{R}$ is more complicated, and there end up being higher Tor-groups $\operatorname{Tor}_{n}^{R}$ for $n \geq 2$.

For principal ideal domains, the proof we gave of the Künneth Formula for Cohomology (Theorem 29.16) goes through with almost no changes. This gives us:

Theorem 33.31 (The Cohomology Künneth Formula for Principal Ideal Domains). Let $R$ be a principal ideal domain. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are any two topological spaces of finite type. Then for every $n \geq 0$, there is a split short exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} H^{i}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{j}(Y ; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{n}(X \times Y ; R) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{k+l=n+1} \operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}\left(H^{k}(X ; R), H^{l}(Y ; R)\right) \rightarrow 0$.

Remark 33.32. There is a version of the Künneth Formula for general rings, but it is much harder: the presence of higher Tor-groups means that one ends up with a spectral sequence. This is beyond the scope of this course.

Theorem 33.31 immediately allows one to prove Theorem 33.26, if we make the additional assumption that $R$ is a principal ideal domain and $X$ and $Y$ are both of finite type. Indeed, the first map in Theorem 33.31 is the cross product (cf. Remark 31.13), and thus if $H^{n}(Y ; R)$ is free for every $n$ implies that all the relevant $\operatorname{Tor}_{1}^{R}$ groups in the Künneth Formula vanishes, and thus

$$
\bigoplus_{i+j=n} H^{i}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{j}(Y ; R) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{n}(X \times Y ; R) .
$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 33.26 under the additional assumption that $R$ is a principal ideal domain and $X$ and $Y$ are both of finite type.

The assumption that $X$ and $Y$ are of finite type is harmless, but restricting to principal ideal domains can be annoying, so we will now outline a different argument that avoids this. This argument is quite nice, as it uses uniqueness of EilenbergSteenrod generalised (co)homology theories (the cohomological variant of Theorem 21.12.) In the proof, we will need the relative version of the two products. The relative cup product is slightly harder, and I will leave this for you on Problem Sheet O.

Proposition 33.33. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ be open subsets of $X$. Let $R$ be a ring. The cup product induces a relative product

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \hookrightarrow H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) . \tag{33.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover if $i:(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is an inclusion then and $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{m}(X ; R)$ and $\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{m}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{m}(i)\langle\beta\rangle=H^{n+m}(i)(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle), \tag{33.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the left-hand side is the normal cup product in $X$, and the right-hand side is the relative cup product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \hookrightarrow H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$.

The relative cross product is much easier (using the known relation between the cup and cross products, and the fact that we already $\operatorname{did}^{3}$ the relative cup product.)
Definition 33.34. If $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ and $Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$ are open subsets then for any ring $R$ there is a relative cross product

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\star} H^{\star}\left(X \times Y, X^{\prime} \times Y \cup X \times Y^{\prime} ; R\right) .
$$

This is defined in exactly the same way as Remark 32.10: if $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$ and $\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{m}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right)$, then $H^{n}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{n}\left(X \times Y, X^{\prime} \times Y ; R\right)$ and $H^{m}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime}\right)\langle\beta\rangle \in$ $H^{m}\left(X \times Y, X \times Y^{\prime} ; R\right)$, where $\pi^{\prime}$ and $\pi^{\prime \prime}$ are the two projections. We then use the relative cup product (33.3) and set

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \times\langle\beta\rangle:=H^{n}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{m}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime}\right)\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{n+m}\left(X \times Y, X^{\prime} \times Y \cup X \times Y^{\prime} ; R\right) .
$$

[^67]Proof of Theorem 33.26. We will prove the result in three steps. Let us first assume that $Y$ is a finite cell complex $Y$ (in this case the hypothesis that $H^{\bullet}(Y ; R)$ is finitely generated is automatic.)

1. In this first step, we define two generalised cohomology theories with coefficients in $R$. We set

$$
\mathcal{H}^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right):=\bigoplus_{i} H^{i}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes_{R} H^{n-i}(Y ; R)
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{K}^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=H^{n}\left(X \times Y, X^{\prime} \times Y ; R\right) .
$$

Let us check the Eilenberg-Steenrod axioms (we will construct the connecting homomorphisms when discussing the long exact sequence axiom):

1. The homotopy axiom: this is clear for both $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$ and $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$.
2. The long exact sequence axiom: This is clear for $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$, but less so for $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$. Here are the details. Begin with the long exact sequence in singular cohomology with coefficients in $R$ :

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; R) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(X^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \ldots
$$

Now fix $k \geq 0$ and tensor every term with the free $R$-module $H^{k}(Y ; R)$. The sequence remains exact, since $H^{k}(Y ; R)$ is just a direct sum of copies of $R$. Now to get the desired long exact sequence for $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$, we simply add various shifted sequences of this form together.
3. The excision axiom This is obvious for $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}:$ namely, if $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ are subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$ then $\mathcal{H}^{n}\left(X, X_{1}\right) \cong \mathcal{H}^{n}\left(X_{2}, X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right)$. For $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$ this is also clear, since $\left(X_{1} \times Y\right) \cup\left(X_{2} \times Y\right)=X \times Y$ and $\left(X_{1} \times Y\right) \cap\left(X_{2} \times Y\right)=$ $\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right) \times Y$.
4. The "dimension" axiom: Both $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$ and $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$ are generalised cohomology theories, and so do not satisfy the dimension axiom, but it is important for us later to check that they both do the same thing to a point. For this note that if $X=\{*\}$ is a one-point space then $\mathcal{H}^{n}(*)=R \otimes_{R} H^{n}(Y ; R)$ and $\mathcal{K}^{n}(*)=H^{n}(Y ; R)$.
2. We now construct a natural transformation $\Phi: \mathcal{H}^{\bullet} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$. We take $\Phi$ to be the relative cross product. I leave it up to check that the following diagram commutes:

and thus $\Phi$ is a natural transformation. Moreover $\Phi^{n}(*): \mathcal{H}^{n}(*) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}^{n}(*)$ is an isomorphism, since it is just the scalar multiplication map $R \otimes_{R} H^{n}(Y ; R) \rightarrow H^{n}(Y ; R)$. Thus by a slight generalisation ${ }^{4}$ of Theorem 21.12, we conclude that $\Phi$ is an isomorphism on any pair ( $X, X^{\prime}$ ), where $X$ is a finite cell complex and $X^{\prime}$ is a subcomplex.

[^68]3. Suppose now that $X$ and $Y$ are infinite dimensional cell complexes. The same strategy of proof works, but now we need an upgraded version of Theorem 21.12 that also works for infinite dimensional cell complexes. We will discuss more a more general version of Theorem 21.12 in Lecture 46, but in this case the only difference in the infinite dimensional case is that we need to check explicitly that both $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$ and $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$ satisfy the additivity axion from Definition 21.9. This is clear for $\mathcal{K}^{\bullet}$, but less so for $\mathcal{H}^{\bullet}$, and this is where the assumption that $H^{n}(Y ; R)$ is (free and) finitely generated in each degree is used (see (34.1) in the next lecture for more details.)
4. We now complete the proof. As mentioned in Lectures 18 and 21, one can always "approximate" an arbitrary topological space by a cell complex in such a way that the singular homology does not change. We will state this precisely in Theorem 46.15. Thus it suffices to prove the theorem when $X$ and $Y$ are cell complexes, and we already did this in the last step. This completes the proof.

## LECTURE 34

## The Leray-Hirsch Theorem

In this lecture we generalise Theorem 33.26 to fibre bundles. This is the famous LerayHirsch Theorem. We begin with the following general result about fibre bundles, which we will need in the proof.
Definition 34.1. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle and let $f: Y \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map. Let

$$
E_{f}:=\{(y, z) \in Y \times E \mid f(y)=p(z)\}
$$

The $\operatorname{map} p_{f}: E_{f} \rightarrow Y$ given by $(y, z) \mapsto y$ makes $F \rightarrow E_{f} \xrightarrow{p_{f}} Y$ a fibre bundle. It is usually called the pullback bundle. The map $\varphi: E_{f} \rightarrow E$ given by $\varphi(y, z)=z$ makes the following diagram commute:


Theorem 34.2. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle. Let $Y$ be a paracompact Hausdorff space, and let $f, g: Y \rightarrow X$ be two homotopic maps. Then the two fibre bundles $p_{f}$ and $p_{g}$ are isomorphic.
Corollary 34.3. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle over a contractible paracompact Hausdorff base space $X$. Then $p$ is a trivial fibre bundle. That is, there exists a homeomorphism $h: E \rightarrow X \times F$ such that $p=\pi^{\prime} \circ h$, where $\pi^{\prime}$ is the first projection.

The proof of Theorem 34.2 starts with the following lemma.
Lemma 34.4. Any fibre bundle $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} I$ is trivial.
Proof. Since $p$ is locally trivial, for $N$ large enough, $p$ is trivial over each interval $I_{i}:=[i / N,(i+1) / N]$. Let $h_{i}: I_{i} \times F \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(I_{i}\right)$ be a trivialisation. Now set

$$
\eta_{i}: F \rightarrow F, \quad \eta_{i}(y):=\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ h_{i}^{-1} \circ h_{i-1}(y, i / n)
$$

for $i \geq 1$ (where $\pi^{\prime \prime}$ is the second projection.) Then define

$$
\tilde{\eta}_{i}:=\eta_{i} \circ \cdots \circ \eta_{1}
$$

and $\tilde{\eta}_{0}:=\mathrm{id}_{F}$. Finally, define

$$
h: F \times I \rightarrow E, \quad h(y, t):=h_{i}\left(\tilde{\eta}_{i}(y), t\right), \quad t \in I_{i}
$$

By construction, $h$ is continuous, and is our desired trivialisation.

[^69]The same proof shows that if we are given a fibre bundle over $U \times I$, then a collection of trivialisations over $U \times I_{i}$ can be glued together to give a global trivialisation. Now let us sketch the proof of the following result.

Proposition 34.5. Let $X$ be paracompact and Hausdorff. Let $\imath_{0}$ and $\imath_{1}$ denote the two maps $X \hookrightarrow X \times I$ given by $\imath_{i}(x)=(x, i)$. Suppose $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X \times I$ is a fibre bundle, and let $p_{i}$ denote the pullback bundle over $X$ associated to $\imath_{i}$. Then $p_{0}$ and $p_{1}$ are isomorphic.

Proof (Sketch). Let $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ be locally finite cover and let $N$ be large enough so that $p$ is trivial over $U_{\lambda} \times I_{i}$, where as before $I_{i}=[i / N,(i+1) / N]$. By the paragraph above the statement of the proposition, we can construct trivialisations

$$
h_{\lambda}: U_{\lambda} \times F \times\left. I \rightarrow E\right|_{U_{\lambda} \times I}
$$

The goal now is to glue all these trivialisations together. The idea is roughly similar to the one used in Lemma 34.4 above, only now one needs to work a little harder to ensure the resulting map really is continuous. The trick is to use a partition of unity subordinate to the locally finite cover $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$. This falls somewhat out of the remit of this course, and so I will omit the details.

We can now prove Theorem 34.2. The argument is the same as the one used to prove Theorem 8.9 from Proposition 8.5.

Proof of Theorem 34.2. Let $G: f \simeq g$ be a homotopy. Then we have a fibre bundle $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p_{G}} \rightarrow Y \times I$. The fibre bundles $p_{f}$ and $p_{g}$ are the pullback bundles of $p_{G}$ under the two maps $\imath_{0}$ and $\imath_{1}$ respectively. Thus the result follows from Proposition 34.5 .

Let us now get started on the Leray-Hirsch Theorem. For this we need to introduce some notation. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ denote a fibre bundle, and let $R$ denote a ring. Given $x \in X$ we denote by $\imath_{x}: E_{x} \hookrightarrow E$ the inclusion of the fibre.

Definition 34.6. A cohomology extension of the fibre is a homomorphism $\xi: H^{\bullet}(F ; R) \rightarrow H^{\bullet}(E ; R)$ such that for every $x \in X$ and $n \geq 0$, the composition

$$
H^{n}(F ; R) \xrightarrow{\xi} H^{n}(E ; R) \xrightarrow{H^{n}\left(\imath_{x}\right)} H^{n}\left(E_{x} ; R\right)
$$

is an isomorphism.
Theorem 34.7 (The Leray-Hirsch Theorem). Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Assume that $H^{n}(F ; R)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$, and that a cohomology extension $\xi$ of the fibre exists. Then the map

$$
L: H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}(F ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}(E ; R)
$$

given by

$$
L:\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto H^{\star}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile \xi\langle\beta\rangle
$$

is an isomorphism.

Remark 34.8. The assumption that a cohomology extension exists is a necessary one. Indeed, consider the Hopf fibration $S^{1} \rightarrow S^{3} \rightarrow S^{2}$ and take $R=\mathbb{Z}$. Then $H^{n}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is finitely generated and free for all $n \geq 0$, but $H^{\star}\left(S^{2}\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is not isomorphic to $H^{\star}\left(S^{3}\right)$. Thus by the Leray-Hirsch Theorem, no cohomology extension can exist.

Remark 34.9. Theorem 34.7 is not asserting that $L$ is an isomorphism of rings, and indeed this is not always the case.

The Leray-Hirsch Theorem is only useful if a cohomology extension of the fibre exists. In the next lecture we will show that such an extension always exists when $p$ is an orientable sphere bundle.

We will need the following preliminary result for the proof of the Leray-Hirsch Theorem.

Lemma 34.10. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibration. Assume $X^{\prime} \subset X$ is a subspace which $X$ strongly deformation retracts onto, in the sense that there exists a homotopy $f_{t}: X \rightarrow X$ such that

$$
f_{0}=\operatorname{id}_{X}, \quad f_{1}(X) \subset X^{\prime}, \quad f_{t}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \subset X^{\prime}, \quad \forall t \in I .
$$

Then the inclusion $\imath: p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow E$ is a homotopy equivalence.
Proof. By the homotopy lifting property with respect to $E$, there exists a homotopy $g_{t}: E \rightarrow E$ such that $g_{0}=\operatorname{id}_{E}$ and such that $f_{t} \circ p=p \circ g_{t}$ for each $t \in[0,1]$, as the following picture indicates:


We claim that $g_{1}$ is a homotopy inverse to $\imath$. Indeed, going in one direction we have $\imath \circ g_{1}=g_{1} \simeq \operatorname{id}_{E}$. Going in the other direction, since $g_{t}\left(p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right) \subseteq p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ for all $t \in I$, we see that $\left.g_{1}\right|_{p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)} \simeq \operatorname{id}_{p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)}$ (as maps $\left.p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right)$, and thus also $g_{1} \circ \imath \simeq \operatorname{id}_{p^{-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)}$.

We now move onto the proof of Theorem 34.7. We will be completely rigorous for the case when $X$ is a finite dimensional cell complex, and then somewhat sketchier for the general case.

Proof of Theorem 34.7. We begin with more notation. Given $Y \subseteq X$, denote by $E_{Y}:=p^{-1}(Y)$. We denote by $\xi_{Y}$ the composite

$$
H^{\bullet}(F ; R) \xrightarrow{\xi} H^{\bullet}(E ; R) \xrightarrow{H^{\bullet}\left({ }_{\imath Y}\right)} H^{\bullet}\left(E_{Y} ; R\right),
$$

where $\imath_{Y}: E_{Y} \hookrightarrow E$ is the inclusion. Abbreviate by $M$ the graded free module $H^{\star}(F ; R)$. Set

$$
L_{Y}: H^{\star}(Y ; R) \otimes_{R} M \rightarrow H^{\star}\left(E_{Y} ; R\right)
$$

the map defined by

$$
L_{Y}:\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto H^{\star}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile \xi_{Y}\langle\beta\rangle
$$

Thus our goal is to show that for $Y=X$, the map $L_{X}$ is an isomorphism. We will prove the theorem in four steps.

1. We first prove the result in the special case where $X$ is paracompact and pointed contractible ${ }^{1}$. In this case, by Corollary 34.3, we may assume that $E=$ $X \times F$, and moreover by Lemma 34.10 there exists $x \in X$ such that the inclusion $\imath_{x}: E_{x} \cong F \hookrightarrow E$ is a homotopy equivalence. Thus $H^{\bullet}\left(\imath_{x}\right)$ is an isomorphism. Since $H^{\bullet}\left(\imath_{x}\right) \circ \xi$ is an isomorphism by assumption, it follows that $\xi: H^{\bullet}(F ; R) \rightarrow H^{\bullet}(E ; R)$ is also an isomorphism. We then have the following commutative diagram:


The left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism since $H^{\star}(X ; R) \cong R$ as $X$ is contractible, and so the cup product reduces to scalar multiplication map $R \otimes_{R} H^{n}(F ; R) \rightarrow$ $H^{n}(F ; R)$. Thus $L$ is an isomorphism.
2. We now prove the theorem for $X$ a finite dimensional cell complex, by inducting on their dimension. If $X$ is a point then the claim follows from Step (1). Suppose now the theorem holds for any cell complex of dimension $n-1$, including the $(n-1)$ skeleton $X^{n-1}$. Let us write $X^{n}=U \cup V$, where $U$ is obtained from $X^{n}$ by deleting a single point in each $n$-cell, and $V$ is the union of the $n$-cells. We then have a commutative diagram of Mayer-Vietoris sequences:


The left-hand column is the tensor product of the Mayer-Vietoris sequence for $(U, V)$, tensored with the free module $M$. It remains exact, since as we have seen, tensoring with a free module is an exact functor. We will prove that in Step (3) below that $L_{U}, L_{V}$ and $L_{U \cap V}$ are isomorphisms. Then the Five Lemma (Proposition 11.3) tells us that $L_{X^{n}}$ is an isomorphism, which thus completes the inductive step.

[^70]3. Let's start with $L_{U}$. We have a commutative diagram:


The left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism, since $X^{n-1}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$ (this is a special case of Proposition 19.8). By Lemma 34.10 (which is applicable due to Theorem 33.17), $E_{U}$ is homotopy equivalent to $E_{X^{n}}$, and hence the right-hand vertical map is also an isomorphism. By induction $L_{X^{n-1}}$ is an isomorphism, and hence so is $L_{U}$.

Now let's do the case of $L_{V}$. By assumption, $V=\bigsqcup E_{\lambda}^{n}$ for some $n$-cells $E_{\lambda}^{n}$ (possibly uncountably many). We obtain a commutative diagram


All the vertical maps are isomorphisms: the two top are isomorphisms due to the additivity of cohomology. The bottom left is an isomorphism due to the fact that if $Q$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module and $N_{\lambda}$ are an arbitrary collection of $R$-modules then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\prod N_{\lambda}\right) \otimes_{R} Q \cong \prod\left(N_{\lambda} \otimes_{R} Q\right) \tag{34.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It thus suffices to show that $L_{E_{\lambda}^{n}}$ is an isomorphism, but this follows from Step (1).
Finally, consider $L_{U \cap V}$. By arguing as above, this reduces to considering $L_{U \cap E_{\lambda}^{n}}$ for a given $n$-cell $E_{\lambda}^{n}$. Such a set $U \cap E_{\lambda}^{n}$ has as a strong deformation retract a sphere $S_{\lambda}^{n-1}$ :


As in Step (2), the two vertical maps are isomorphisms (using Lemma 34.10 again). But $S_{\lambda}^{n-1}$ is a cell complex of dimension $n-1$, and hence the bottom horizontal map is an isomorphism by induction.
4. We have now proved the result for all finite-dimensional cell complexes. Let us briefly outline how to prove it for an infinite-dimensional cell complex.

Let $X$ be a cell complex with skeleton filtration $\left(X^{n}\right)$. Then a cohomological version of Proposition 20.3 tells us that the inclusion $X^{n} \hookrightarrow X$ induces an isomorphism $H^{i}(X ; R) \rightarrow H^{i}\left(X^{n} ; R\right)$ for $i \leq n$. Similarly if $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ is a fibre bundle then $H^{i}(E ; R) \cong H^{i}\left(E_{X^{n}} ; R\right)$ for $i \leq n$. This isn't hard to prove, but it uses terminology we haven't introduced yet, and hence for now we will take it on faith and come back to justify it when we start homotopy theory towards the end of the course.

From this is is easy to deduce Theorem 34.7 for $X$ an infinite dimensional cell complex. Fix $n \geq 0$, and let $X^{n}$ denote the $n$-skeleton of $X$. Then we have a commutative diagram


By assumption the horizontal maps are isomorphisms in degree $i \leq n$. The righthand vertical map is an isomorphism by Step (3). Thus the left-hand map is an isomorphism in degree $i \leq n$. Since $n$ was arbitrary, the theorem is proved for infinite dimensional cell complexes.
5. Let us sketch how to extend the proof to arbitrary topological spaces $X$. Just like Theorem 33.26 last lecture, this requires us to use a cellular approximation to $X$. So assume there exists a cell complex $Y$ and a continuous map $f: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $f$ induces an isomorphism on all (co)homology groups (we will construct such a pair $(Y, f)$ at the end of the course). Let $p_{f}: E_{f} \rightarrow Y$ denote the pullback bundle from Definition 34.1. Define $\varphi: E_{f} \rightarrow E$ by $\varphi(y, z)=z$, so that the following diagram commutes:


The fact that $f$ induces an isomorphism on all cohomology groups implies that $\varphi$ does too - this is an immediate corollary of the long exact sequence of homotopy groups associated to a fibration (Corollary 45.18.) It is easy to see that the cohomology extension $\xi$ induces one in $E_{f}$, and thus $F \rightarrow E_{f} \rightarrow Y$ satisfies the hypotheses of the theorem. By Step (4), we obtain an isomorphism

$$
L: H^{\star}(Y ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}(F ; R) \rightarrow H^{\star}\left(E_{f} ; R\right)
$$

A naturality argument gives commutativity of the following diagram:


The horizontal maps are isomorphisms by the discussion above. Thus the left-hand $L$ is also an isomorphism. This completes the proof.

Remark 34.11. We proved in Theorem 16.22 that homology commutes with colimits, and we used this in Proposition 18.17 to note that the homology of a cell complex $X$ is the colimit of the homology of its skeleta $X^{n}$. Let us briefly say a few words about the corresponding situation in cohomology. (This is purely for interest-it has no relevance to the rest of this lecture!)

When working with cohomology, instead of colimits, we need to take limits ${ }^{2}$. Limits are defined analogously to how we defined colimits in Lecture 16, by appropriately reversing the arrows. I invite you to guess the correct definition (We will do this formally in Lecture 39.) This gives us a group $\lim H^{\bullet}\left(X^{n} ; R\right)$ (note the arrow is pointing to the left). One might hope that the $H^{i}(X ; R)=\lim H^{i}\left(X^{n} ; R\right)$, but unfortunately in general this isn't true. This is because limits are less well behaved than colimits, and are not exact functors from diagrams of abelian groups to diagrams of abelian groups. Consequently one needs to worry about the first derived functor of $\rightsquigarrow$ lim, denoted by $R^{1} \rightsquigarrow$. Here is a correct statement:
Proposition 34.12. Suppose we are given a family $i_{n}: X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n+1}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ of closed inclusions. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Assume in addition that for each $n$ the space $X_{n}$ is weakly Hausdorff. Let $X=\bigcup_{n} X_{n}$, endowed with the colimit topology. Then there is a natural short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow R^{1} \varlimsup_{n} \lim _{n}\left(H^{i-1}\left(X_{n} ; A\right)\right) \rightarrow H^{i}(X ; A) \rightarrow \underset{l_{n}}{\prod_{n}}\left(H^{i}\left(X^{n} ; A\right)\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Sadly we don't have time to define the derived functor $R^{1}$ lim properly, or to prove Proposition 34.12.

One can view Theorem 33.26 as a special case of the Leray-Hirsch Theorem. Let us recall the statement:

Corollary 34.13. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Assume that $H^{n}(Y ; R)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$. Then the cross product (33.2) is an isomorphism of graded rings.

Proof. We view $X \times Y \rightarrow X$ as a fibre bundle via the first projection. The second projection $X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ gives us a cohomology extension of the fibre. Theorem 34.7 is thus applicable, and the result immediately follows.

Let us now discuss a stronger "relative" version of Theorem 34.7, which will also be useful. For this we need another definition.

Definition 34.14. A fibre-bundle pair, written $\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$, consists of a continuous map $p: E \rightarrow X$ with the property that there exists an open cover $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ of $X$ and homeomorphisms of pairs

$$
h_{\lambda}:\left(U_{\lambda} \times F, U_{\lambda} \times F^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right), p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right) \cap E^{\prime}\right)
$$

such that $\left.p\right|_{p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right)} \circ h_{\lambda}=\pi^{\prime}$ for each $\lambda$, where as usual $\pi^{\prime}$ is the projection onto the first factor.

[^71]Equivalently, a fibre bundle pair $\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ consists of a fibre bundle $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ together with a subspace $E^{\prime} \subseteq E$ and a subspace $F^{\prime} \subseteq F$ such that $F^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\left.p\right|_{E^{\prime}}} X$ is itself a fibre bundle, and moreover such that local trivialisations of $\left.p\right|_{E^{\prime}}$ can be obtained by restricting local trivialisations of $p$.
Example 34.15. A disk bundle $B^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ is a fibre bundle with fibre a ball $B^{n}$. Let $E^{\prime}$ denote the union of the boundary spheres of the fibres and let $p^{\prime}=\left.p\right|_{E^{\prime}}$. Then $S^{n-1} \rightarrow E^{\prime} \xrightarrow{p^{\prime}} X$ is a sphere bundle (i.e. a fibre bundle with fibre a sphere), and moreover $\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ is a fibre bundle pair since local trivialisations of $E$ restrict to local trivialisations of $E^{\prime}$ (this is because a homeomorphism $B^{n} \rightarrow B^{n}$ restricts to define a homeomorphism $S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$.). We call $p^{\prime}$ the boundary sphere bundle of the disk bundle $p$.
Remark 34.16. Let $S^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ denote a sphere bundle. Let

$$
Z:=((E \times I) \sqcup X) / \sim
$$

where we identify $(y, 0) \in E \times I$ with $p(y)$. There is a natural map $f: Z \rightarrow X$ whose fibre over $x \in X$ is $Z_{x}=\left(E_{x} \times I\right) /\left(E_{x} \times\{0\}\right)$. This is a cone over a sphere, and hence $Z_{x} \cong B^{n+1}$. Thus $B^{n+1} \rightarrow Z \xrightarrow{f} X$ is a disk bundle. Moreover, identifying $E_{x} \cong E_{x} \times\{1\}$, we see that $\left(B^{n+1}, S^{n}\right) \rightarrow(Z, E) \xrightarrow{f} X$ is a fibre bundle pair with $\left.f\right|_{E}=p$. Thus any sphere bundle can be seen as the boundary sphere bundle of a disk bundle.

Definition 34.17. Let $\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ denote a fibre bundle pair and let $R$ denote a ring. A cohomology extension of the fibre is again a homomorphism $\xi: H^{\bullet}\left(F, F^{\prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow H^{\bullet}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)$ such that for every $x \in X$ and $n \geq 0$, the composition

$$
H^{n}\left(F, F^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\xi} H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{H^{n}\left(2_{x}\right)} H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x}^{\prime} ; R\right)
$$

is an isomorphism, where $E_{x}^{\prime}=p^{-1}(x) \cap E^{\prime}$.
Here is the Relative Leray-Hirsh Theorem. It includes the (absolute) Leray-Hirsch Theorem 34.7 as a special case (take $E^{\prime}=F^{\prime}=\emptyset$.) The proof is almost exactly the same as the absolute case, and I omit the details.

Theorem 34.18 (The Relative Leray-Hirsch Theorem). Let $\left(F, F^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Assume that $H^{n}\left(F, F^{\prime} ; R\right)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$, and that a cohomology extension $\xi$ of the fibre exists. Then the map

$$
L: H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}\left(F, F^{\prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow H^{\star}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)
$$

given by

$$
L:\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle\beta\rangle \mapsto H^{\star}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile \xi\langle\beta\rangle
$$

is an isomorphism.

## LECTURE 35

## The Thom Isomorphism Theorem

There are many important applications of the Leray-Hirsch Theorem 34.7 and its relative version Theorem 34.18. However since we only have finitely many lectures left, we will immediately simplify the picture and restrict our attention to disk bundles.

Let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair. Since

$$
H^{i}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1} ; R\right) \cong \begin{cases}R, & i=n \\ 0, & i \neq n\end{cases}
$$

we see that a cohomology extension $\xi$ of the fibre is the same thing as specifying a single class $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)$ :

$$
t:=\xi\left(r^{*}\right)
$$

where $r^{*} \in R \cong H^{n}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1} ; R\right)$ is any generator of $R$ (i.e. any element with a multiplicative inverse). If $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, then there is only one such element $r^{*}$, but for other rings there may be more (for instance, if $R=\mathbb{Z}$ then both 1 and -1 work.) The class $t$ then has the property that $H^{n}\left(\imath_{x}\right)(t)$ is a generator $H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x}^{\prime} ; R\right)$ for every $x \in X$. Such a class $t$ has a special name (which historically predates the notion of a cohomology extension of the fibre).
DEFINITION 35.1. Let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair and let $R$ be a commutative ring. A Thom class for $p$ is a cohomology class $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)$ with the property that $H^{n}\left(\imath_{x}\right)(t)$ is a generator of $H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x}^{\prime} ; R\right)$ for every $x \in X$.

We then have:
Lemma 35.2. Let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair. A Thom class exists if and only if there exists a cohomology extension of the fibre.

Proof. We have just seen that a cohomology extension of the fibre determines a Thom class. Conversely, a choice of Thom class allows us to define a cohomology extension of the fibre by sending a generator of $H^{n}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1} ; R\right)$ to $t$ and then extending by linearity (and setting $\xi$ to be zero in all other degrees.)

The next result is just a rephrasing of the Relative Leray-Hirsch Theorem 34.18 in this special case.
Theorem 35.3 (The Thom Isomorphism Theorem). Let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Suppose a Thom class $t$ exists. Then the map $L: H^{i}(X ; R) \rightarrow H^{i+n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)$ given by

$$
L:\langle\alpha\rangle \mapsto H^{i}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile t
$$

is an isomorphism for all $i \geq 0$, and $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; R\right)=0$ for $i<n$.

The Thom Isomorphism Theorem 35.3 is completely useless unless one knows that a Thom class exists. We will now prove that for $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, a Thom class always exists. Afterwards we discuss the case $R=\mathbb{Z}$, which is a bit more subtle.
Theorem 35.4. Let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle pair. Then for $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, a Thom class $t$ always exists. Moreover $t$ is unique.

In the course of the proof, we will use the following result about cell complexes. The proof is not too hard (it is a variation of the argument used in Lecture 19 to show that cell complexes and their subcomplexes are "nice" pairs). Nevertheless, the ideas are somewhat tangential to the discussion at hand, and hence we will skip it.

Lemma 35.5. Let $X$ be a path connected cell complex of dimension $n$. Then $X$ can be covered by $(n+1)$ open paracompact subsets that are contractible in $X$.
Proof of Theorem 35.4. Just as with our proof of the Leray-Hirsch Theorem 34.7 last lecture, we will prove the result first when $X$ is contractible, then for bundles where $X$ is a finite-dimensional cell complex, then when $X$ is an arbitrary cell complex, and finally the general case. This time round though we will be very sketchy in the infinite-dimensional case ${ }^{1}$. It suffices to prove the result when $X$ is path-connected.

1. Suppose $E$ is trivial (which by Corollary 34.3 is the case if $X$ is paracompact and contractible). For $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, there is a unique generator $\langle\gamma\rangle \in H^{n}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$. Consider now the map of pairs

$$
\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\imath_{x}} X \times\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \xrightarrow{\pi^{\prime \prime}}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)
$$

where $\imath_{x}(y)=(x, y)$ and $\pi^{\prime \prime}$ is the second projection. If $t:=H^{n}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime}\right)\langle\gamma\rangle$ then it is clear that $t$ is a Thom class, which moreover is unique ( $t$ is the image of $\nu_{X} \times\langle\gamma\rangle$ under Theorem 33.26, where $\nu_{X} \in H^{0}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ is the unit class (30.2).) Let us also note that by Theorem 33.26 we have that

$$
H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=\bigoplus_{k+l=i}\left(H^{k}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} H^{l}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)\right)
$$

and thus $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i<n$.
2. Now suppose $X$ is the union of two open sets $U$ and $V$ such that all three of $E_{U}=p^{-1}(U)$ and $E_{V}=p^{-1}(V)$ and $E_{U \cap V}=p^{-1}(U \cap V)$ admit a unique Thom class $t_{U}, t_{V}$ and $t_{U \cap V}$ respectively and satisfy

$$
H^{i}\left(E_{U}, E_{U}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=H^{i}\left(E_{V}, E_{V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=H^{i}\left(E_{U \cap V}, E_{U \cap V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0, \quad \text { for } i<n
$$

Consider the inclusions:


[^72]Then we have a Mayer-Vietoris sequence
$H^{i-1}\left(E_{U \cap V}, E_{U \cap V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i}\left(E_{U}, E_{U}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \oplus H^{i}\left(E_{V}, E_{V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i}\left(E_{U \cap V}, E_{U \cap V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$
For $i<n$ the first and third groups are zero, and thus so is the second group: $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i<n$. For $i=n$ the sequence is:

$$
0 \rightarrow H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(E_{U}, E_{U}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \oplus H^{n}\left(E_{V}, E_{V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{h} H^{n}\left(E_{U \cap V}, E_{U \cap V}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

Uniqueness of the Thom classes imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{n}\left(\jmath_{U}\right)\left(t_{U}\right)=H^{n}\left(\jmath_{V}\right)\left(t_{V}\right)=t_{U \cap V} . \tag{35.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The map $h$ is defined by

$$
h(\langle\alpha\rangle,\langle\beta\rangle)=H^{n}\left(\jmath_{U}\right)\langle\alpha\rangle-H^{n}\left(\jmath_{V}\right)\langle\beta\rangle,
$$

and thus by (35.1) one has $h\left(t_{U}, t_{V}\right)=0$. Thus by exactness, there is a unique element $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ such that

$$
H^{n}\left(\jmath_{U}^{\prime}\right)(t)=t_{U}, \quad H^{n}\left(\jmath_{V}^{\prime}\right)(t)=t_{V} .
$$

Since $t_{U}$ and $t_{V}$ are Thom classes for $E_{U}$ and $E_{V}$ it follows that $t$ is a Thom class for $X$.
3. It thus follows by by induction on $m$ that if $E$ can be written as the union of $m$ trivial bundles then $E$ itself has a unique Thom class, and moreover $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i<n$. Indeed, Step (1) did the case $m=1$, and if we assume that the result is true for $\leq m-1$ and that $X=U_{1} \cup \cdots \cup U_{m}$ where $\left.E\right|_{U_{i}}$ is trivial for $i=1, \ldots, m$, then we can apply the inductive hypothesis to all three of $U_{1}$ and $U_{2} \cup \cdots \cup U_{m}$ and $\left(U_{1} \cap U_{2}\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(U_{1} \cap U_{m}\right)$. Then Step (2) shows that a Thom class exists for $E$ and that $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i<n$.

This implies the theorem is true for $X$ a finite-dimensional cell complex. Indeed, by Lemma 35.5 , if $X$ has dimension $n$, then we can write $X$ as the union of $n+1$ contractible open sets, and thus Corollary 34.3 implies that we can write $E$ as the union of $n+1$ trivial bundles.
4. Now let us sketch how this extends to an infinite dimensional cell complex $X$. If $X^{k}$ is the $k$ th skeleta, then $E_{k}:=E_{X^{k}}$ admits a Thom class $t_{k}$. Now consider

$$
\left(t_{0}, t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots\right) \in \prod_{k} H^{n}\left(E_{k}, E_{k}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

This gives rise to an element $t \in \lim _{k} H^{n}\left(E_{k}, E_{k}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$. Moreover since $H^{n-1}\left(E_{k}, E_{k}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=$ 0 by the previous step, one also has $R^{1}{\varliminf_{k}}_{k} H^{n-1}\left(E_{k}, E_{k}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$, and thus from Proposition 34.12 we have $H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=\lim _{k} H^{n}\left(E_{k}, E_{k}^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$. Thus $t$ is an element of $H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$, and this is our desired Thom class.

Finally, using our by now standard (but as yet, still unjustified!) step of approximating an arbitrary space by a cell complex, the general case follows, just as in the last step of Theorem 34.7 last lecture.

Now let us consider the case $R=\mathbb{Z}$. The previous proof goes wrong in exactly one place - namely, right at the beginning. There is no longer a unique choice of generator of $H^{n}\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ (there are two possible choices). Since the argument repeatedly used uniqueness, the entire proof breaks down. This leads us to the concept of orientability.

For this, rather than disk bundles, it is slightly more convenient to talk about vector bundles. This is for two reasons: firstly, you are all already familiar with an orientation of a vector space, and secondly, this will be more helpful when we discuss topological manifolds next lecture.

Suppose $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ is a vector bundle (cf. Definition 33.6). Let

$$
E^{\times}=\bigcup_{x} E_{x} \backslash 0_{x}
$$

where $0_{x} \in E_{x}$ is the zero element of the vector space $E_{x}$. Since one also has

$$
H^{i}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0 ; R\right) \cong \begin{cases}R, & i=n \\ 0, & i \neq n\end{cases}
$$

(as $\mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash B^{n} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0$ is a homotopy equivalence), one can define a Thom class in exactly the same way.

Definition 35.6. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a vector bundle, and let $R$ be a commutative ring. A Thom class for $p$ is a cohomology class $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\times} ; R\right)$ with the property that $H^{n}\left(\imath_{x}\right)(t)$ is a generator of $H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x} \backslash 0_{x} ; R\right)$ for every $x \in X$.

Theorem 35.7 (The Thom Isomorphism Theorem—vector bundle version). Let $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a vector bundle, and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Suppose a Thom class $t$ exists. Then the map $L: H^{i}(X ; R) \rightarrow H^{i+n}\left(E, E^{\times} ; R\right)$ given by

$$
L:\langle\alpha\rangle \mapsto H^{i}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile t
$$

is an isomorphism for all $i \geq 0$, and $H^{i}\left(E, E^{\times} ; R\right)=0$ for $i<n$.
The proof of Theorem 35.7 proceeds in exactly the same way as Theorem 35.3, and we will refer to both results as the "Thom Isomorphism Theorem". Moreover the same argument as in Theorem 35.4 gives:
THEOREM 35.8. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a vector bundle. Then for $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, a Thom class $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\times} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ always exists. Moreover $t$ is unique.

Now let us discuss orientability. We begin by choosing a canonical generator of $H^{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right)$.

Definition 35.9. In Lecture 7 we defined (cf Definition 7.8) $e_{i}$ to be the standard basis vector of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ with a 1 in the $(i+1)$ st position and zeroes in all other coordinates. This convention was convenient for simplices, but is rather awkward for linear algebra. Thus we introduce more notation: let $q_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be the standard basis vector with a 1 in the $i$ th coordinate and zeros in the other coordinates.

The following lemma is an easy computation whose proof is on Problem Sheet O.
Lemma 35.10. Let $n \geq 1$. Let $\sigma_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ denote the unique affine map such that

$$
\sigma_{n}\left(e_{0}\right)=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}, \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{n}\left(e_{i}\right)=q_{i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, n
$$

Then $\sigma_{n}$ determines a generator $\left\langle\sigma_{n}\right\rangle$ of $H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
Definition 35.11. Let $R$ be an ring. Let $\gamma_{n} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right), R\right)$ denote the class determined by $\gamma_{n}\left(\left\langle\sigma_{n}\right\rangle\right)=1$. Then from the Dual Universal Coefficients Theorem 29.5, $\gamma_{n}$ determines a generator $\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle$ of $H^{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0 ; R\right) \cong R$. We call it the canonical generator.
Definition 35.12. Let $V$ be real vector space of dimension $n \geq 1$. An orientation on $V$ is an equivalence class of an ordered bases, where two bases being equivalent if the transformation matrix taking one to the other has positive determinant.

There are thus two orientations on $V$, and a choice of orientation allows us to speak of a positively oriented basis (i.e. one in the chosen equivalence class) and a negatively oriented basis. We use the convention that $\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right)$ is a positively oriented basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. If $V$ and $W$ are $n$-dimensional vector spaces equipped with orientations, then a linear isomorphism $f: V \rightarrow W$ is orientation preserving if it sends a positively oriented basis to a positively oriented basis.

Here is a cohomological version of the definition.
Definition 35.13. Fix an ordered basis $B=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$ of $V$. Define a linear map $f_{B}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ by setting $f\left(v_{i}\right)=q_{i}$. Two bases $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are equivalent in the sense of Definition 35.12 if and only if ${ }^{2}$ the maps $f_{B}$ and $f_{B^{\prime}}$ are homotopic through maps of pairs $(V, V \backslash 0) \rightarrow\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right)$. The map $f_{B}$ determines an isomorphism

$$
H^{n}\left(f_{B}\right): H^{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right) \rightarrow H^{n}(V, V \backslash 0)
$$

Set $\left\langle\gamma_{B}\right\rangle:=H^{n}\left(f_{B}\right)\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle$, where $\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle$ is the canonical generator from Definition 35.11 for $A=\mathbb{Z}$. We call $\left\langle\gamma_{B}\right\rangle$ a cohomological orientation of the vector space $V$.

It follows immediately that $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are equivalent in the sense of Definition 35.12 if and only if $\left\langle\gamma_{B}\right\rangle=\left\langle\gamma_{B^{\prime}}\right\rangle$. (If they are not equivalent, then $\left\langle\gamma_{B}\right\rangle=-\left\langle\gamma_{B^{\prime}}\right\rangle$.) Thus a choice of cohomological orientation is the same thing as the choice of a (normal) orientation.

Now let us extend this to vector bundles. Suppose $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ is a vector bundle and $h: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a vector bundle trivialisation (as in Definition 33.6). We define a cohomology class

$$
\left\langle\gamma_{U}\right\rangle:=H^{n}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ h\right)\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle \in H^{n}\left(E_{U}, E_{U}^{\times}\right),
$$

where as always, $\pi^{\prime \prime}: U \times \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is the second projection, and $E_{U}^{\times}=\bigcup_{x \in U} E_{x} \backslash 0_{x}$. Next, set $h_{x}:=\left.h\right|_{E_{x}}: E_{x} \times\{x\} \cong E_{x} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$. If we set

$$
\left\langle\gamma_{x}\right\rangle:=H^{n}\left(h_{x}\right)\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle,
$$

[^73]then we have
$$
H^{n}\left(\imath_{x}\right)\left\langle\gamma_{U}\right\rangle=\left\langle\gamma_{x}\right\rangle, \quad \forall x \in U,
$$
where $\imath_{x}: E_{x} \hookrightarrow E$ is the inclusion of the fibre. This follows from the obvious commutativity of the following diagram:


Thus via $h$ we obtain a cohomological orientation $\left\langle\gamma_{x}\right\rangle$ of each vector space $E_{x}$ for $x \in U$. We call this the cohomological orientation induced by $h$.

So far this is just notation (we have not yet imposed any conditions on the vector bundle $p$ ). But now suppose $k: p^{-1}(V) \rightarrow V \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is another vector bundle trivialisation, with $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$. This gives us a class

$$
\left\langle\gamma_{V}\right\rangle:=H^{n}\left(\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ k\right)\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle \in H^{n}\left(E_{V}, E_{V}^{\times}\right)
$$

and

$$
\left\langle\gamma_{x}^{\prime}\right\rangle:=H^{n}\left(k_{x}\right)\left\langle\gamma_{n}\right\rangle \in H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x} \backslash 0_{x}\right) .
$$

We would like these classes to be compatible in the sense that the cohomological orientation induced by $h$ should agree with the cohomological orientation induced by $k$ on $U \cap V$ :

$$
\left\langle\gamma_{x}\right\rangle=\left\langle\gamma_{x}^{\prime}\right\rangle, \quad \forall x \in U \cap V .
$$

If this is the case we say that the two trivialisations $h$ and $k$ are compatible.
DEFINITION 35.14. An orienting atlas of a vector bundle $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ consists of an open cover $\left\{U_{\lambda}\right\}$ of $X$ and vector bundle trivialisations $h_{\lambda}: p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow U_{\lambda} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $h_{\lambda}$ is compatible with $h_{\lambda^{\prime}}$ whenever $U_{\lambda} \cap U_{\lambda^{\prime}} \neq \emptyset$. If an orienting atlas exists, we say the vector bundle $p$ is orientable. An orienting atlas defines a cohomological orientation $\left\langle\gamma_{x}\right\rangle \in H^{n}\left(E_{x}, E_{x} \backslash 0_{x}\right)$ for every $x \in X$. We call such a choice an orientation of $p$. Thus if $p$ is orientable and $X$ is path-connected, there are precisely two orientations of $p$.

Not all vector bundles are orientable. Here is an example of one that isn't.
Example 35.15 . Let $E$ be the quotient space of $I \times \mathbb{R}$ where we identify

$$
(0, s) \sim(1,1-s), \quad \forall s \in \mathbb{R}
$$

The projection $I \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow I$ factors through $\sim$ to define a map $p: E \rightarrow S^{1}$. Then $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} S^{1}$ is a vector bundle called the Möbius bundle. I invite you to prove that $p$ is not orientable ${ }^{3}$.

We conclude this lecture by using orientability to give a version of Theorem 35.4 for $R=\mathbb{Z}$.

[^74]Theorem 35.16. Let $\mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be an oriented vector bundle over a path connected space $X$. Then for $R=\mathbb{Z}$, a Thom class $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\times}\right)$always exists.

Proof. As already mentioned, the only place where the proof of Theorem 35.4 goes wrong is in Step (1). But the choice of orientation rectifies this: if we are given an orienting atlas $h_{\lambda}: p^{-1}\left(U_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow U_{\lambda} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ then we can define Thom classes $t_{U_{\lambda}}:=$ $\left\langle\gamma_{U_{\lambda}}\right\rangle \in H^{n}\left(E_{U_{\lambda}}, E_{U_{\lambda}}^{\times}\right)$, and the compatibility condition plays the role that uniqueness did in the proof of Theorem 35.4.

## LECTURE 36

## Topological manifolds and presheaves

In this lecture we define topological manifolds and pre(co)sheaves.
Definition 36.1. A topological space $X$ is said to be $n$-dimensional locally Euclidean if every point $x \in X$ has an open neighbourhood $U$ which is homeomorphic to an open subset $V$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. A homeomorphism $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$ is called a chart about $x$. We call $n$ the dimension of $X$.

Since $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is not homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ (this is the Invariance of Domain Theorem, cf. Problem I.2), the dimension is well defined. It is often convenient to assume that a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow V$ at $x$ has the property that $0 \in V$ and satisfies $\varphi(x)=0$. In this case we say that $\varphi$ is centred at $x$. We can of course also assume $V=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ when needed.

Definition 36.2. A topological space $M$ is called an $n$-dimensional topological manifold if:

1. $M$ is Hausdorff.
2. $M$ is $n$-dimensional locally Euclidean.
3. $M$ is paracompact (cf. Definition 33.16.)
4. $M$ has at most countably many connected components.

REmARK 36.3. If a topological manifold $M$ is compact we will-somewhat illogicallysay that $M$ is a closed topological manifold.

The notion of boundary for a manifold is slightly confusing, because there are two different concepts which usually do not coincide: the topological boundary and the manifold boundary. In this course we will only ever use manifolds as defined above, where (by definition) the manifold boundary is always empty. (So the rest of this remark is for interest only!)

If $M \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is a topological $n$-dimensional manifold ${ }^{1}$ then $\partial^{\text {top }} M$ (the topological boundary of $M$ as a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{m}$, i.e. $\bar{M} \backslash M^{\circ}$ ) either satisfies $M \cap \partial M=\emptyset$ (when $n=m$ ) or $M=\partial^{\text {top }} M$ (when $n<m$ ). This is because the "locally Euclidean" condition is an open condition.

There is a more general notion of an $n$-dimensional topological manifold with boundary, which is a Hausdorff paracompact topological space with countably many connected components such that every point is either homeomorphic to an open

[^75]subset in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ or an open subset in a half-plane $\mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}:=\left\{\left(q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}\right) \mid q_{1} \geq 0\right\}$, where we endow $\mathbb{R}_{+}^{n}$ with the subspace topology on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

In this case one can define the interior of $M$, written int $M$ to be those points in $M$ which have neighbourhoods homeomorphic to an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The manifold boundary $\partial^{\text {man }} M$ is then $M \backslash \operatorname{int} M$.

If $M$ is an $n$-dimensional topological manifold with boundary of dimension $n$, then $\operatorname{int} M$ is a manifold (without boundary) of dimension $n$ and $\partial^{\operatorname{man}} M$ is a manifold (without boundary) of dimension $n-1$.

If $M \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is a manifold with boundary and $n=m$ then the two concepts coincide: $\partial^{\text {top }} M=\partial^{\text {man }} M$. But if $n<m$ then they do not need to: for example, the sphere $S^{2}$ with a small open disk $E$ removed is a two-dimensional manifold with boundary, and $\partial^{\operatorname{man}}\left(S^{2} \backslash E\right)$ is the topological boundary of $E$ in $S^{2}$ (which is a circle $S^{1}$ ). But if we sit $S^{2}$ inside $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ in the standard way the topological boundary of $S^{2} \backslash E$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is all of $S^{2} \backslash E$.

Remark 36.4. We won't prove (or use) the following facts, but they are good to know:

- Any closed topological manifold is homotopy equivalent to a cell complex.
- Any closed topological manifold of dimension $n \neq 4$ is homeomorphic to a cell complex.
- Any closed smooth manifold actually is a cell complex.

The following lemma gives a homological way of defining the dimension of a topological manifold.

Lemma 36.5. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $A$ be an abelian group. For any point $x \in M$, one has

$$
H_{i}(M, M \backslash x ; A) \cong \begin{cases}A, & i=n, \\ 0, & i \neq n,\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Choose a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ centred at $x$. Then for any $i \geq 0$, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{i}(M, M \backslash x ; A) & \cong H_{i}(U, U \backslash x ; A), & & \text { by excision, } \\
& \cong H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0 ; A\right), & & \text { as } \varphi \text { is a homeomorphism. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 36.6. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $A$ be an abelian group. Let

$$
\mathcal{O}(M ; A):=\bigsqcup_{x \in M} H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)
$$

and let $p: \mathcal{O}(M ; A) \rightarrow M$ denote the map that sends any element of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)$ to $x$. Then $A \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(M ; A) \xrightarrow{p} M$ is a fibre bundle, where we give $A$ the discrete topology (thus $p$ is a covering space, cf. Definition 33.4.)

The proof of Proposition 36.6 requires an auxiliary lemma, which in turns needs the following definition.

Definition 36.7. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $A$ be an abelian group. Given subsets $X \subseteq Y \subseteq M$ we denote by

$$
\rho_{X}^{Y}: H_{n}(M, M \backslash Y ; A) \rightarrow H_{n}(M, M \backslash X ; A)
$$

the homomorphism induced by the inclusion $(M, M \backslash Y) \hookrightarrow(M, M \backslash X)$.
Definition 36.8. Let us say a closed set $K \subset M$ is a convex set if there exists a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with $K \subset U$ such that $\varphi(K)$ is a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

## Lemma 36.9.

1. If $K \subset M$ is a compact convex set then $\rho_{x}^{K}$ is an isomorphism for all $x \in K$.
2. Let $x \in M$ and let $W$ be a neighbourhood of $x$. Then there exists a neighbourhood $U \subset W$ of $x$ such that for all $y \in U$, the homomorphism $\rho_{y}^{U}$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Let $K$ be a compact convex set. We may assume that there is a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with $K \subset U$ such that $\varphi(K)=D$, where $D$ is a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $0 \in D \subset B^{n}$. Consider the following commutative diagram, where we omit the coefficient group $A$ for simplicity:


All the horizontal maps are isomorphisms: the left-hand ones are because the inclusion $S^{n-1} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash D$ is a homotopy equivalence. The middle two are because $\varphi$ is a homeomorphism, and the right-hand two are excision isomorphisms.

The second statement is an immediate corollary of the first, since given any neighbourhood $W$ of a point $x$ we can always find a compact convex set $K$ such that $x \in K \subset W$. Then any neighbourhood $U \subset K$ of $x$ works.

We can now prove Proposition 36.6.
Proof of Proposition 36.6. Fix $x \in M$, and let $U$ be a neighbourhood of $x$ such that $\rho_{y}^{U}$ is an isomorphism for all $y \in U$. Define

$$
k: U \times H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A) \rightarrow p^{-1}(U)
$$

by $k(y,\langle c\rangle):=\rho_{y}^{U} \circ\left(\rho_{x}^{U}\right)^{-1}\langle c\rangle$. Define a topology on $\mathcal{O}(M ; A)$ by declaring $k$ to be a homeomorphism. We need to check that if $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ are two such maps defined on overlapping neighbourhoods $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ of $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ respectively, then the composition

$$
\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ k:\left(U \cap U^{\prime}\right) \times H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A) \rightarrow\left(U \cap U^{\prime}\right) \times H_{n}\left(M, M \backslash x^{\prime} ; A\right)
$$

is continuous. Fix $y \in U \cap U^{\prime}$ and choose a neighbourhood $V$ of $y$ such that $\rho_{z}^{V}$ is an isomorphism for all $z \in V$. Now consider the following commutative diagram, where we omit the coefficient group $A$ from the notation:

The map $\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ k$ is thus given by

$$
\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ k(z,\langle c\rangle)=\left(z, \rho_{x^{\prime}}^{U^{\prime}} \circ\left(\rho_{V}^{U^{\prime}}\right)^{-1} \circ \rho_{V}^{U} \circ\left(\rho_{x}^{U}\right)^{-1}\langle c\rangle\right) .
$$

In particular, the second component of $\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ k$ does not depend on the choice of $z \in V$, which implies that $\left(k^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ k$ is continuous.

To complete the proof, we set $h:=k^{-1}: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)$, which gives us a local trivialisation of $\mathcal{O}(M ; A)$.

Let us now put this in an nice categorical setting.
Definition 36.10. Let $X$ be an topological space. Given two open subsets $U \subseteq$ $V \subseteq X$, let $\imath_{U}^{V}: U \hookrightarrow V$ denote the inclusion. Let $\operatorname{Op}(X)$ denote the category whose objects are the open sets of $X$, and whose morphism sets $\operatorname{Hom}(U, V)$ are empty if $U \nsubseteq V$ and have precisely one element if $U \subseteq V$ :

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(U, V)= \begin{cases}\left\{e_{U}^{V}\right\}, & U \subseteq V \\ \emptyset, & U \nsubseteq V\end{cases}
$$

Definition 36.11. Let C be a category. A presheaf over $X$ with values in C is a contravariant functor $T: \mathrm{Op}(X) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$. A pre-cosheaf over $X$ with values in C is ${ }^{2}$ a covariant functor $\mathrm{Op}(X) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$.

Presheaves are more common than pre-cosheaves in mathematics; however in this course we will mainly work with pre-cosheaves. Here is the standard example of a presheaf.

Example 36.12. Let $X$ be a topological space. Given an open set $U$ of $X$, let $C(U)$ denote the set of continuous functions $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We can give $C(U)$ the structure of a commutative ring under pointwise operations. If $U \subset V$ and $\imath_{U}^{V}: U \hookrightarrow V$ is the inclusion then if $f \in C(V)$ one has $f \circ \imath_{U}^{V} \in C(U)$. Thus we have the presheaf of continuous functions

$$
C: \operatorname{Op}(X) \rightarrow \text { ComRings, } \quad U \mapsto C(U)
$$

and

$$
C\left(e_{U}^{V}\right): C(V) \rightarrow C(U), \quad f \mapsto f \circ \imath_{U}^{V} .
$$

One normally writes $\left.f\right|_{U}$ instead of $f \circ \imath_{U}^{V}$.

[^76]Remark 36.13. In fact, this is an example of a sheaf (not just a presheaf). However we won't define sheaves (or cosheaves) in this course, since we do not need them, and thus we will not discuss this.
Example 36.14. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle. Given an open subset $U \subset X$, let $\Gamma(U ; E)$ denote the space of continuous sections $s: U \rightarrow E$ of $p$, i.e. continuous maps $s: U \rightarrow E$ such that $s(x) \in E_{x}$ for all $x \in U$. If $U \subset V$ and $s \in \Gamma(V ; E)$ then $s \circ \imath_{U}^{V} \in \Gamma(U ; E)$, where again $\imath_{U}^{V}: U \hookrightarrow V$ is the inclusion. Thus we have another presheaf

$$
\Gamma: \operatorname{Op}(X) \rightarrow \text { Sets. }
$$

Here is an example of a pre-cosheaf:
Example 36.15. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $A$ be an abelian group. Consider the functor

$$
H_{n}(M, \square ; A): \mathrm{Op}(M) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}
$$

which sends an open set $U$ to the homology group $H_{n}(M, U ; A)$ and sends an inclusion $U \hookrightarrow V$ to the induced map $\rho_{M \backslash V}^{M \backslash U}: H_{n}(M, U ; A) \rightarrow H_{n}(M, V ; A)$

Now let us specialise Example 36.14 to the situation at hand.
Example 36.16. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $A$ be an abelian group. Given a closed subset $K \subset M$, let $\Gamma(K ; A)$ denote the space of continuous sections $s: K \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(M ; A)$ of $p$. Since $A$ has the discrete topology, a section is continuous if and only if its expression in a local trivialisation is locally constant. This means that if $x \in K$ and $U$ is a path-connected neighbourhood of $x$ such that $\mathcal{O}(M ; A)$ is trivial over $U$ via $h: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U \times H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)$ then the function $\pi^{\prime \prime} \circ h \circ s: U \rightarrow H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)$ should be a constant function.

Let $\Gamma_{c}(K ; A) \subset \Gamma(K ; A)$ denote those sections with compact support, i.e. for which there exists a compact set $C \subseteq K$ such that $s(x)=0$ for all $x \in K \backslash C$.

Since $A$ is a group, and not just a topological space, if $s, t: K \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(M ; A)$ are two sections, we can add them together to form a new section $s+t$. Thus $\Gamma(K ; A)$ and $\Gamma_{c}(K ; A)$ are also abelian groups.

So far, this is not quite the same as in Example 36.14 since here we have defined $\Gamma_{c}(K ; A)$ for $K$ a closed set, not an open set. To this end we consider the functor

$$
\Gamma_{c}(M \backslash \square ; A): \mathrm{Op}(M) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}
$$

and if $V \subseteq U$ then

$$
\Gamma_{c}\left(e_{V}^{U} ; A\right): \Gamma_{c}(M \backslash V ; A) \rightarrow \Gamma_{c}(M \backslash U ; A),\left.\quad s \mapsto s\right|_{M \backslash U}
$$

Note that $\Gamma_{c}(M \backslash \square ; A)$ is actually a pre-cosheaf (not a presheaf), since the operation $U \mapsto M \backslash U$ is contravariant (i.e. if $U \subset V$ then $X \backslash V \subseteq X \backslash U$.)

In conclusion, we have two pre-cosheaves $\mathrm{Op}(M) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ :

$$
H_{n}(M, \square ; A) \quad \text { and } \quad \Gamma_{c}(M \backslash \square ; A) .
$$

Our aim now is to construct a natural transformation between them. This requires the following lemma.

Lemma 36.17. Let $U \subset M$ be open. If $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}(M, U ; A)$ then $\phi_{\langle c\rangle}(y):=\rho_{y}^{M \backslash U}\langle c\rangle$ belongs to $\Gamma_{c}(M \backslash U ; A)$.

Proof. Fix $x \in M \backslash U$ and let $W$ be a small neighbourhood of $x$ with $W \subset M \backslash U$. Using a local trivialisation $h: p^{-1}(W) \rightarrow W \times H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; A)$ as in the proof of Proposition 36.6, the section $\phi_{\langle c\rangle}$ becomes $y \mapsto\left(y, \rho_{x}^{W} \circ \rho_{W}^{M \backslash U}\langle c\rangle\right)$ on $p^{-1}(W)$, which is continuous by the definition of the topology on $\mathcal{O}(M ; A)$.

It remains to show $s \in \Gamma_{c}(M \backslash U ; A)$. Choose a cycle $c=\sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes \sigma_{i} \in Z_{n}(M ; A)$ that represents $\langle c\rangle$. There exists a compact set $C \subset M$ such that each singular simplex $\sigma_{i}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow M$ in $c$ has $\sigma_{i}\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subset C($ cf. Lemma 17.5). Now suppose $y \in M \backslash C$. Then the image of $c$ under the composition

$$
C_{n}(C ; A) \rightarrow C_{n}(M ; A) \rightarrow C_{n}(M, C ; A) \rightarrow C_{n}(M, M \backslash y ; A)
$$

is zero. But this image is a representative of $\phi_{\langle c\rangle}(y)$. Thus the support of $\phi_{\langle c\rangle}$ is contained in the compact set $(M \backslash U) \cap C$.

Lemma 36.18. There is a natural transformation $\Phi: H_{n}(M, \square ; A) \rightarrow \Gamma_{c}(M \backslash \square ; A)$ given by setting

$$
\Phi(U)\langle c\rangle=\phi_{\langle c\rangle}
$$

where $\phi_{\langle c\rangle}$ was defined in Lemma 36.17.
Proof. One needs only check that for closed sets $K \subset L$ the following diagram commutes:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{n}(M, M \backslash L ; A) \xrightarrow{\rho_{K}^{L}} H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; A) \\
& \quad \Phi(L) \mid \\
& \quad \underset{c}{\downarrow}(\Phi(K) \\
& \Gamma_{c}(L ; A) \xrightarrow[\left.s \mapsto s\right|_{K}]{\downarrow} \Gamma_{c}(K ; A)
\end{aligned}
$$

This however is immediate from the definition.
What is much less obvious is that $\Phi$ is actually an natural isomorphism. We will prove the following theorem next lecture.

Theorem 36.19. Let $M$ be an n-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subset M$ be closed. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Then $\Phi(M \backslash K): H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; A) \rightarrow \Gamma_{c}(K ; A)$ is an isomorphism of abelian groups. Moreover

$$
H_{i}(M, M \backslash K ; A)=0, \quad \forall i>n
$$

Theorem 36.19 is the first of two major theorems about the homology of manifolds (the second is Poincaré Duality, which we will cover in Lecture 39. The reason is it useful is that the group $\Gamma_{c}(K ; A)$ is much easier to compute. For instance, if we take $A=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ then it follows immediately ${ }^{3}$ from Theorem 36.19 that if $M$ is a closed connected $n$-dimensional topological manifold then $H_{i}\left(M ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i>n$ and $H_{n}\left(M ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

[^77]
## LECTURE 37

## Orientability and the cap product

We begin this lecture by proving Theorem 36.19 from the last lecture. Let us recall the statement.

Theorem 37.1. Let $M$ be an n-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subset M$ be closed. Let $A$ be an abelian group. Then $\Phi(M \backslash K): H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; A) \rightarrow \Gamma_{c}(K ; A)$ is an isomorphism of abelian groups. Moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{i}(M, M \backslash K ; A)=0, \quad \forall i>n \tag{37.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

To simplify the notation during the proof we will write $\Phi(K)$ instead of $\Phi(M \backslash K)$.
Proof. The proof is quite complicated, and we will induct over the "complexity" of $K$ (the precise meaning of this will become clear during the proof.) Let ( $\triangle K$ ) be short for the statement that the theorem is true for the closed set $K$. So our goal is to prove $(\Omega K)$ for every closed set $K$. Throughout the proof we will suppress the coefficient group $A$ from all our notation, since it plays no role. We will prove the result in five steps.

1. Assume that $(\triangle K),(\Omega L)$, and $(\odot K \cap L)$ hold. We prove that $(\Omega K \cup L)$ holds. For this consider the Mayer-Vietoris sequence associated to $M \backslash(K \cap L), M \backslash K$ and $M \backslash L$. We obtain the following commutative diagram, where we are using the fact that $\Phi$ is a natural transformation.


The Five Lemma tells us that $\Phi(K \cup L)$ is an isomorphism, and the fact that $H_{i}(M, M \backslash(K \cup L))=0$ for $i>n$ follows directly from the Mayer-Vietoris sequence. Thus $(\vee K \cup L)$ holds.
2. We now prove that $(\triangle K)$ holds for any compact convex set $K$. Indeed, for such $K$ we apply the commutative diagram from the proof of part (1) of Lemma 36.9 but with $H_{i}$ instead of $H_{n}$. If $i>n$ then the left-hand groups are all zero, and hence
$H_{i}(M, M \backslash K)=0$ for $i>n$. Moreover from the same lemma we have that $\rho_{x}^{K}$ is an isomorphism for each $x \in K$. This implies that $\Phi(K)$ is an isomorphism, since a section over a connected set is determined by a single value.

Now by induction on $m \geq 1$, we see that $\left(\oslash K_{1} \cup \cdots \cup K_{m}\right)$ holds if $K_{1} \cup \cdots \cup K_{m}$ is contained in the domain of a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and each $K_{i}$ is compact convex. Indeed, we just did the case $m=1$ and Step (1) gives the inductive step.
3. Now suppose $K$ is any closed compact set contained in the domain of a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let $W \subset U$ be any neighbourhood of $K$. Then there exists a closed set $L$ which is a finite union of compact convex sets such that $K \subseteq L \subset W$. The previous step tells us $\Phi(L)$ is an isomorphism. We now take the filtered colimit over all such $L$ to obtain

$$
H_{i}(M, M \backslash K)=\underset{L}{\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}}} H_{i}(M, M \backslash L)=0, \quad \forall i>n,
$$

and for $i=n$ we get a commutative diagram:


The top horizontal map is an isomorphism by a relative version of Corollary 17.6 (we used this in the proof of Theorem 17.9.) The left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism, since each individual $\Phi(L)$ is an isomorphism.

Let us prove that the bottom horizontal map is an isomorphism. Indeed, if $s, s^{\prime}$ are two sections in $\Gamma_{c}(L)$ for some $L$ such that $\left.s\right|_{K}=\left.s^{\prime}\right|_{K}$ then since sections are locally constant, there is another such $K \subseteq L^{\prime} \subseteq L$ such that $\left.s\right|_{L^{\prime}}=\left.s^{\prime}\right|_{L^{\prime}}$, and thus $s$ and $s^{\prime}$ give the same element in the filtered colimit. This shows that bottom horizontal map is injective. To show it is surjective, we must show that any $s \in \Gamma_{c}(K)$ extends to some $L$ containing $K$. Again by locally constancy we can do this locally, so if $x \in K$ then there is an open set $U(x)$ such that $s$ extends to a section $s_{x}$ defined on $U(x) \cap K$. Since $K$ is compact we can cover $K$ by finitely many such $U(x)$. Now set

$$
U:=\left\{z \in \bigcup_{i} U\left(x_{i}\right) \mid s_{x_{i}}(z)=s_{x_{j}}(z) \text { if } z \in U\left(x_{i}\right) \cap U\left(x_{j}\right)\right\} .
$$

This is open and contains $K$, and by construction $s$ extends to $U$. Now choose any $L$ of the desired form such that $K \subseteq L \subset U$. Then $s$ extends to $L$, and hence the map is surjective.

An arbitrary compact set can be written as a finite union of compact sets contained in charts, so by induction and Step (1) again we obtain the result in the compact case
4. Now suppose $K$ is a closed set with the property that we can write $K=\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} L_{i}$ where each $L_{i}$ is compact and has a neighbourhood $U_{i}$ such that $U_{i} \cap U_{j}=\emptyset$ for $i \neq j$. We show that ( $\bigcirc K$ ) holds. Indeed, by Step (3) ( $\bigcirc L_{i}$ ) holds for all $i$. Moreover since the $L_{i}$ have disjoint open neighbourhoods, using additivity of both homology groups and sections we see that $\Phi(K)=\sum_{i} \Phi\left(L_{i}\right)$, and hence ( $\left.\varsigma K\right)$ holds too.
5. We now complete the proof for an arbitrary closed set $K$. Since $M$ is paracompact and has at most countably many connected components, we can write $M$ as a union $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} C_{i}$ where $C_{i} \subset C_{i+1}^{\circ}$ are compact sets. Set $C_{0}=\emptyset$ and set

$$
L_{i}=K \cap\left(C_{i} \backslash C_{i-1}^{\circ}\right) .
$$

Set $K^{\prime}=\bigcup_{i \text { is odd }} L_{i}$ and $K^{\prime \prime}=\bigcup_{i \text { is even }} L_{i}$. Now $K^{\prime}, K^{\prime \prime}$ and $K \cap K^{\prime \prime}$ satisfy the hypotheses ${ }^{1}$ of Step (4), and hence ( $\left.\bigcirc K^{\prime}\right)$, ( $\bigcirc K^{\prime \prime}$ ) and ( $\bigcirc K^{\prime} \cap K^{\prime \prime}$ ) hold. Since $K=K^{\prime} \cup K^{\prime \prime}$, by Step (1) we also have that ( $\wp K$ ) holds.

We now specialise our discussion of the fibre bundle $\mathcal{O}(M ; A)$ to the case where $A$ is a commutative ring, and using this to define what it means for a topological manifold to be orientable.

Definition 37.2. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Then for any $x \in M$, the group $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$ is a free $R$ module of rank 1. A generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$ (which corresponds to an element of $R$ with a multiplicative inverse) is called a local $R$-orientation of $M$ at $x$.

Definition 37.3. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Let $K \subset M$ be a closed subset. An $R$-orientation of $M$ along $K$ is a continuous section $s \in \Gamma(K ; R)$ such that $s(x)$ is a generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$ for all $x \in K$. Thus an $R$-orientation along $K$ is a continuous choice of local $R$ orientation at every point $x \in K$. We say $M$ is $R$-orientable along $K$ if an $R$-orientation along $K$ exists. For $K=M$, we simply say $M$ is $R$-orientable. If we consider $M$ equipped with such an $R$-orientation $s$ then we say than $M$ is $R$ oriented.

Remark 37.4. Note that if $K \subset L \subset M$ and $M$ is $R$-orientable along $L$ then $M$ is also $R$-orientable along $K$, since if $s \in \Gamma_{c}(L ; R)$ is an $R$-orientation of $M$ along $L$ then $\left.s\right|_{K} \in \Gamma_{c}(K ; R)$ is an $R$-orientation of $M$ along $K$.

Definition 37.5. Given a commutative ring $R$, let $U(R)$ denote elements of $R$ with a multiplicative inverse (the "units"). Then $U(R)$ becomes an abelian group under multiplication.

Definition 37.6. Let $\operatorname{Ori}(M ; R) \subset \mathcal{O}(M ; R)$ denote the subbundle whose fibre over $x \in M$ is $U(R) \subset R \cong H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$. We call $\operatorname{Ori}(M ; R)$ the $R$-orientation covering of $M$. Then $U(R) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ori}(M ; R) \rightarrow M$ is another fibre bundle with fibre $U(R)$, and $(R, U(R)) \rightarrow(\mathcal{O}(M ; R), \operatorname{Ori}(M ; R)) \rightarrow M$ is a fibre bundle pair.

Thus an $R$-orientation of $M$ along $K \subset M$ is the same thing as a section of $s: K \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Ori}(M ; R)$. For $R=\mathbb{Z}$, we drop the $R$ from the notation and the terminology. Since $U(\mathbb{Z})=\{ \pm 1\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$, Ori $(M)$ is a double covering, which we call the orientation covering.

Proposition 37.7. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. The following are equivalent:

[^78]1. $M$ is orientable.
2. $M$ is orientable along any compact subset.
3. $\operatorname{Ori}(M) \rightarrow M$ is a trivial fibre bundle.
4. $\mathcal{O}(M) \rightarrow M$ is a trivial fibre bundle.

Proof.

- $(1) \Rightarrow(2)$ is a special case.
- $(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ : We may assume $M$ is connected, since a fibre bundle is trivial if and only if it is trivial over every connected component of the base. Since $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is a double cover (i.e. the fibre is $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ ), either $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is connected or it is trivial. If $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is connected, then there exists a path in $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ between any two points of a given fibre. The image of such a path is a compact connected subset $K$ of $M$, and by assumption $\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K}$ is non-trivial, since we can connect two points of a fibre in it. But by (2) there exists a section of $\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K}$, and hence $\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K}$ is trivial. Contradiction. Thus $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is not connected, and hence it is trivial.
- $(3) \Rightarrow(4)$ : The bundle $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is trivial if and only if it has a section. If $s$ is a section of $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ then

$$
M \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(M), \quad(x, n) \mapsto n s(x)
$$

is a trivialisation of $\mathcal{O}(M)$.

- (4) $\Rightarrow(1)$ : If $\mathcal{O}(M)$ is trivial then in particular it has a section with values in the set of generators.

So far we have defined orientability in terms of the existence of sections of $\mathcal{O}(M ; R)$. Using Theorem 36.19 however we can transfer to a statement about homology classes. (This is the main point of Theorem 36.19!)

Theorem 37.8. Let $M$ be an n-dimensional topological manifold and let $R$ be a commutative ring. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a closed connected subset.

1. If $K$ is not compact then $H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)=0$.
2. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is $R$-orientable along $K$ then $H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R) \cong R$. There exists a homology class $\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)$ such that $\rho_{x}^{K}\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle$ is a generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$ for all $x \in K$.
3. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is not $R$-orientable along $K$ then one has $H_{n}(M, M \backslash$ $K ; R)=\{r \in R \mid 2 r=0\}$.

Proof. Since $K$ is connected, a section of $\Gamma(K ; R)$ is determined by its value at a single point. If this value is non-zero, then the section is non-zero everywhere. Thus there do not exist non-zero sections with compact support if $K$ is non-compact: $\Gamma_{c}(K ; R)=0$. Thus Theorem 36.19 tells us that if $K$ is connected and non-compact then $H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)=0$. (This part does not need $R$ to a ring.)

If $K$ is compact then we have a commutative diagram:


If $M$ is orientable along $K$ then we can choose $s$ such that $s(x)$ is a generator. The desired class is then given by $\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle=\Phi(K)^{-1}(s)$.

The third part is on Problem Sheet P.
In the case $R=\mathbb{Z}$, one can also obtain information about the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$. This is the content of the following result, whose proof is again on Problem Sheet P.

Proposition 37.9. Let $M$ be an n-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a closed connected subset.

1. If $K$ is non-compact then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is zero.
2. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is also zero.
3. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is not orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
Remark 37.10. Let us rewrite Remark 37.4 in terms of homology classes. Suppose $K \subset L$ are compact subsets of $M$ and $M$ is orientable along $L$ with corresponding class $\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash L ; R)$. Then the class $\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle:=\rho_{K}^{L}\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle$ has the property that $\rho_{x}^{K}\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle$ is a generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$ for all $x \in K$. Thus an $R$-orientation of $M$ is equivalent to a collection

$$
\left\{\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle \mid K \subset M \text { is compact }\right\}
$$

of homology classes $\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)$ that satisfy the following two compatibility conditions:

1. For every $x \in K$, the class $\rho_{x}^{K}\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle$ is a generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)$.
2. If $K \subset L$ then $\rho_{K}^{L}\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle=\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle$.

Let us now assume that $M$ itself is compact and connected. Then Theorem 37.8 can be improved:
Corollary 37.11. Let $M$ be a compact connected $n$-dimensional topological manifold. If $M$ is non-orientable then $H_{n}(M)=0$. If $M$ is orientable then $H_{n}(M) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and for each $x \in M$ the restriction $H_{n}(M) \rightarrow H_{n}(M, M \backslash x)$ is an isomorphism.
Definition 37.12. Let $M$ be an orientable compact connected $n$-dimensional topological manifold. A generator of $H_{n}(M)$ is called a fundamental class of $M$. As above, we use the notation $\left\langle o_{M}\right\rangle$ to denote a fundamental class. An oriented ${ }^{2}$ closed manifold is thus a manifold together with a choice of fundamental class.

[^79]Remark 37.13. Fundamental classes can be used to extend the definition of degree (cf. Definition 15.2) to orientable compact connected manifolds.

Remark 37.14. A vector space of dimension $n$ is trivially an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. As a check to make sure you have understood the definitions, convince yourself that Definition 37.3 is consistent with Definition 35.12 from the two lectures ago.

Now let us take a step back and define a new product, called the cap product. This definition works on an arbitrary topological space, although it is most useful on manifolds due to the duality theorems we will prove in two lectures time.

Definition 37.15. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ be open sets, let $R$ be a commutative ring. The cap product consists of a family of $R$-linear maps

$$
H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes H_{n+m}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow H_{m}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right), \quad\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle c\rangle \mapsto\langle\alpha\rangle \frown\langle c\rangle .
$$

As with the cup product, we will give the definition first in the absolute case (where $X^{\prime}=X^{\prime \prime}=\emptyset$ ) and then discuss the relative case. For this we begin on the chain level and define an operation

$$
\begin{equation*}
C^{n}(X ; R) \otimes C_{n+m}(X ; R) \rightarrow C_{m}(X ; R), \quad \alpha \otimes c \mapsto \alpha \frown c . \tag{37.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$, we set

$$
\alpha \frown \sigma:=\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \otimes\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)
$$

This is indeed an element of $C_{m}(X ; R)$, since $\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right)$ is an element of $R$, and $\sigma \circ B_{m}: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $m$-simplex in $X$. Now extend this by linearity to define the operation (37.2).

The following lemma is a proved in the same way as we dealt with similar statements for the cup product in Lecture 30, using the face relations from Lemma 30.12. We omit most of the details.

Lemma 37.16. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous. Let $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R), \beta \in C^{p}(X ; R), c \in C_{n+m}(X ; R)$ and $\gamma \in C^{n}(Y ; R)$. Then:

1. $\partial(\alpha \frown c)=(-1)^{n}(\alpha \frown \partial c-d \alpha \frown c)$.
2. If $p=m$ then $\beta(\alpha \frown c)=(\alpha \smile \beta)(c)$.
3. If $p \leq m$ then $(\alpha \smile \beta) \frown c=\beta \frown(\alpha \frown c)$.
4. $\nu_{X} \frown c=c$, where $\nu_{X} \in C^{0}(X ; R)$ was defined in (30.2).
5. $f_{\#}\left(f^{\#} \gamma \frown c\right)=\gamma \frown f_{\#} c$.

Proof. The proof of (1) is on Problem Sheet P.
Let us prove (2). Assume that $\sigma: \Delta^{n+m} \rightarrow X$ is a singular $n$-simplex. Then $\beta(\alpha \frown \sigma)=\alpha\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma \circ B_{m}\right)$, which is exactly the formula for $(\alpha \smile \beta)(\sigma)$.

The proof of (3) is similar and I omit this, and the proof of (4) is immediate. So let us skip to the proof of the naturality statement (5). For this we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma \frown f_{\#} \sigma & =\gamma\left(f \circ \sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \otimes\left(f \circ \sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =f^{\#} \gamma\left(\sigma \circ F_{n}\right) \otimes\left(f \circ \sigma \circ B_{m}\right) \\
& =f_{\#}\left(f^{\#} \gamma \frown \sigma\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

as required.
It follows from statement (1) of Lemma 37.16 that the cap product operation (37.2) is well defined on the level of (co)homology. This is the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 30.20: indeed, if $d \alpha=\partial c=0$ then $\partial(\alpha \frown c)=0$, and if either $\alpha$ or $c$ is a (co)boundary then $\alpha \frown c$ is a boundary.

To extend the definition to relative groups, suppose $\alpha \in C^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \subset C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $c \in C_{m+n}\left(X^{\prime} ; R\right)+C_{m+n}\left(X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$. Then $\alpha \frown c \in C_{m}\left(X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ from the definition. Thus we have an induced cap product:

$$
C^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes \frac{C_{m+n}(X ; R)}{C_{m+n}\left(X^{\prime} ; R\right)+C_{m+n}\left(X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)} \rightarrow \frac{C_{m}(X ; R)}{C_{m}\left(X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)} .
$$

Using the chain equivalence $C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime} ; R\right)+C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ (cf. the proof of Theorem 14.8), we obtain the cap product as in Definition 37.15.

Remark 37.17. An inspection of the definition of (37.2) shows that we can be a little more precise with the choice of coefficients. Indeed, suppose $M$ and $N$ are $R$-modules. Then the cap product in Definition 37.15 can actually be realised as
$H^{n}(X, A ; M) \otimes H_{n+m}(X, A \cup B ; N) \rightarrow H_{m}\left(X, B ; M \otimes_{R} N\right), \quad\langle\alpha\rangle \otimes\langle c\rangle \mapsto\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle c\rangle$.

## LECTURE 38

## Čech cohomology

We now introduce a different type of cohomology which will be useful in our study of duality. This is called Cech cohomology.

Remark 38.1. Some of you may have seen the definition of Čech cohomology beforefor example, in an Algebraic Geometry course - and it looked terribly complicated. Luckily we will give the definition only in a special case (namely: compact subsets of a Euclidean neighbourhood retract), for which one can give a much easier definition.

Definition 38.2. A topological space $X$ is called a Euclidean neighbourhood retract if there exists an embedding $i: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and a neighbourhood $U$ of $i(X)$ that retracts onto $i(X)$. By identifying $X$ with $i(X)$, we can think of a Euclidean neighbourhood retract as a subset $X$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with the property that there exists an open set $U$ containing $X$ and a continuous map $r: U \rightarrow X$ such that $\imath \circ r=\operatorname{id}_{X}$, where $\imath: X \hookrightarrow U$ is the inclusion.

Let us now begin by stating without proof two pieces of "point-set topology" about Euclidean neighbourhood retracts. They show in particular that the property of being a Euclidean neighbourhood retract is a topological invariant. The proofs are not that difficult, but we don't have time to give them here, and they don't involve any ideas relevant to the course. Nevertheless, I invite you to try them as exercises if you are bored and in the mood for some point-set topology.

The first result characterises Euclidean neighbourhood retracts.
Proposition 38.3. (Properties of Euclidean neighbourhood retracts)

1. Let $X$ be a Hausdorff space. Assume $X$ can be covered by finitely many locally compact ${ }^{1}$ open sets $X_{i}$. Assume each $X_{i}$ is a Euclidean neighbourhood retract. Then $X$ is an Euclidean neighbourhood retract.
2. A set $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a Euclidean neighbourhood retract if and only if $X$ is locally compact and locally contractible ${ }^{2}$.

The second result explains why they are useful. Again, we emphasise we are only introducing the special case we are going to use (for instance, in the next result one could replace "compact" with "locally compact".)

Proposition 38.4. (Extending homotopies in Euclidean neighbourhood retracts) Let $X$ and $Y$ be Euclidean neighbourhood retracts, and let $K \subset X$ be compact.

[^80]1. If $f: K \rightarrow Y$ is continuous then there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $K$ in $X$ and a continuous map $F: U \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.F\right|_{K}=f$.
2. If $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ are continuous maps and $h_{t}: K \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy from $\left.f\right|_{K}$ to $\left.g\right|_{K}$ then there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $K$ in $X$ and a homotopy $\tilde{h}_{t}: U \rightarrow Y$ such that $\tilde{h}_{0}=\left.f\right|_{U}, \tilde{h}_{1}=\left.g\right|_{U}$ and $\left.\tilde{h}_{t}\right|_{K}=h_{t}$ for all $t \in I$.

A corollary of these results is the following statement, which explains why they fit into the framework we are interested in.

## Corollary 38.5.

1. If $M$ is a topological manifold and $K \subset M$ is a compact set, then there exists an Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X \subset M$ such that $K \subset X$.
2. If $M$ is a closed topological manifold then $M$ is a Euclidean neighbourhood retract.
3. If $X$ is a finite cell complex then $X$ is a Euclidean neighbourhood retract.

Now let us begin the construction.
Definition 38.6. Let K denote the category ${ }^{3}$ whose objects are pairs ( $L, K$ ), where $K \subseteq L$ are compact subsets of some Euclidean neighbourhood retract, and whose morphisms are just the usual continuous maps of pairs:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{K}\left((L, K),\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left\{f:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right), f \text { continuous }\right\},
$$

with composition just the normal composition of functions. Thus K is a full subcateogory of Top ${ }^{2}$.

Suppose $(L, K) \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{K})$. Then by assumption there exists a Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$ such that $K \subset L \subset X$. Suppose we are given two pairs $U \subset V \subset X$ and $U^{\prime} \subset V^{\prime} \subset X$ of open sets, such that $K \subset U \subset U^{\prime}, L \subset V \subset V^{\prime}$. Then we have a commutative diagram of inclusions:


Now fix $k \geq 0$ and pass to singular cohomology with coefficients in $A$ :


[^81]Let $\mathrm{Op}_{(L, K)}^{2}(X)$ denote the subcategory of $\mathrm{Op}^{2}(X)$ of pairs of open sets $(V, U)$ such that $(L, K) \subset(V, U)$, and whose morphisms are again given by inclusions $(V, U) \hookrightarrow$ $\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$. Now let $\mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$ denote the opposite category (cf Definition 28.1), i.e. with the same objects but "reverse" inclusions as morphisms. Thus if $(V, U)$ and ( $V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}$ ) belong to $\mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$ then:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right),(V, U)\right)= \begin{cases}\left\{e_{V, U}^{V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}}\right\}, & U \subseteq U^{\prime}, V \subseteq V^{\prime} \\ \emptyset, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then from (38.1), we have a filtered diagram:

$$
\begin{gathered}
H^{k}: \mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab} \\
(V, U) \mapsto H^{k}(V, U ; A), \quad e_{V, U}^{V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}} \mapsto H^{k}\left(v_{V, U}^{V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}}\right): H^{k}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow H^{k}(V, U ; A),
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\imath_{V, U}^{V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}}:(V, U) \hookrightarrow\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$ is the inclusion. This is indeed a filtered diagram, i.e. a covariant functor, since we already passed to opposite category $\mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$ to filter over, which "cancels out" the contravariance of $H^{k}$.

Thus we can take the colimit (remember we already know that colimits always exist in Ab, cf. Example 16.19), which gives us our desired construction.

Definition 38.7. Let $K \subset L \subset X$ be compact subspaces of a Euclidean neighbourhood retract, and let $A$ be an abelian group. We define the Čech cohomology of ( $L, K$ ) with coefficients in $A$ to be the abelian group

$$
\check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A):=\underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} H^{k}(V, U ; A)
$$

We use the notation $\check{H}^{k}(K ; A)$ for $\check{H}^{k}(K, \emptyset ; A)$.
You may wonder why we have omitted the ambient Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$ in our notation $\check{H}^{k}(L, K)$. In fact, the Čech cohomology groups do not depend on $X$, see Remark 38.13 below.

Before going any further, we will need the following technical statement about filtered colimits.

Definition 38.8. Let ( $\Lambda, \preceq$ ) and ( $\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}$ ) be two directed sets (cf. Example 16.12). A map $f: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ is order preserving if $\lambda \preceq \mu$ implies that $f(\lambda) \preceq^{\prime} f(\mu)$. We say that $f$ is cofinal if for all $\lambda^{\prime} \in \Lambda^{\prime}$ there exists $\lambda \in \Lambda$ such that $\lambda^{\prime} \preceq^{\prime} f(\lambda)$. If $\Lambda$ is a directed subset of $\Lambda^{\prime}$ and $f$ is the inclusion $\Lambda \hookrightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ then we simply say that $\Lambda$ is cofinal in $\Lambda^{\prime}$.

Recall we denote by $\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq)$ the filtered category associated to the directed set $(\Lambda, \preceq)$. An order preserving map $f: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ induces a functor $P_{f}$ from $\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq)$ to $\mathrm{J}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}\right)$. Explicitly, on objects the functor $P_{f}$ is defined by

$$
P_{f}(\lambda):=f(\lambda), \quad \lambda \in \Lambda,
$$

On morphisms, if $\lambda \preceq \mu$ and $i_{\lambda, \mu} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{J(\Lambda, \preceq)}(\lambda, \mu)$ denotes the (unique) morphism from $\lambda$ to $\mu$ in $\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq)$ then $P_{f}$ is defined as

$$
P_{f}\left(i_{\lambda, \mu}\right):=i_{f(\lambda), f(\mu)},
$$

where $i_{f(\lambda), f(\mu)} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{J\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \underline{\Omega}^{\prime}\right)}(f(\lambda), f(\mu))$ is the unique morphism from $f(\lambda)$ to $f(\mu)$ in $J\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}\right)$.

Suppose C is a category and $T^{\prime}: \mathrm{J}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is a filtered diagram (i.e. a functor). If $f: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ is an order preserving map then $f$ induces a filtered diagram

$$
T=T^{\prime} \circ P_{f}: \mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq) \rightarrow \mathrm{C} .
$$

The following result is left as an exercise to check how much you remember of colimits from last semester.

Lemma 38.9. Suppose $f: \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{\prime}$ is a cofinal map between directed sets $(\Lambda, \preceq)$ and $\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}\right)$. Suppose C is a category and $T^{\prime}: \mathrm{J}\left(\Lambda^{\prime}, \preceq^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is a filtered diagram. Then let $T:=T^{\prime} \circ P_{f}: \mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq) \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$. Then $\underline{\text { colim }} T$ exists if and only if $\underline{\text { colim }} T^{\prime}$ exists, and if so, then

$$
\xrightarrow{\operatorname{colim}} T \cong \underset{\longrightarrow}{\operatorname{colim}} T^{\prime}
$$

Lemma 38.9 implies that if $K \subset L \subset X$ are compact subspaces and $W \subset X$ is any open subset containing $L$ then it suffices to take the filtered colimits over those neighbourhoods $(V, U) \in \mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$ with $V \subset W$. In the following, we will repeatedly use Lemma 38.9 without further comment.

Everything we have said so far did not actually use the assumption that both $K$ and $L$ were subsets of an Euclidean neighbourhood retract. In order to make $\check{H}^{k}$ into a contravariant functor, we need to associate a homomorphism $\check{H}^{k}(f): \check{H}^{k}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow$ $\check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A)$ to any morphism $f:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ in K . This is where the Euclidean neighbourhood retract assumption comes in handy.

Definition 38.10. Assume that $K \subset L \subset X$ and $K^{\prime} \subset L^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ and $f:(L, K) \rightarrow$ $\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ is a continuous map of pairs. We use part (1) of Proposition 38.4 to find an open set $W \subset X$ containing $L$ and a continuous map $F: W \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $\left.F\right|_{L}=f$. Now if $\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{U}_{X^{\prime}}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ then $\left(F^{-1}\left(V^{\prime}\right), F^{-1}\left(U^{\prime}\right)\right)$ belongs to $\mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$. Thus we can consider the composition:

$$
H^{k}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime} ; A\right) \xrightarrow{\left.H^{k}(F)\right)} H^{k}\left(F^{-1}\left(V^{\prime}\right), F^{-1}\left(U^{\prime}\right) ; A\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A),
$$

where the right-hand map is the map induced from the colimit. But now we get such a map for any pair $\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$. Since $H^{k}(F)$ commutes with (reverse) inclusions, this shows that $\check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A)$ is a solution of the filtered diagram $H^{k}: \mathcal{U}_{X^{\prime}}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$. Thus by definition of the colimit we get a map

$$
\check{H}^{k}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A) .
$$

Let us call this map $\check{H}^{k}(f)$. In order for this to be a functor, we need to know that $\tilde{H}^{k}(f)$ is independent of the choice of extension $F$. This is a nice exercise using part (2) of Proposition 38.4, and I am generously leaving it for you on Problem Sheet P.

Theorem 38.11. Čech cohomology defines contravariant functors

$$
\check{H}^{k}: \mathrm{K} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}, \quad \forall k \geq 0 .
$$

The aim of the rest of this lecture is to show that Čech cohomology with coefficients in $A$ is an Eilenberg-Steenrod cohomology theory with coefficients in $A$, at least when $(L, K)$ are themselves Euclidean neighbourhood retracts (by Proposition 38.3 this includes cell complexes.) For less well behaved spaces Čech cohomology can differ from singular homology (and hence is not a homology theory.)

The homotopy axiom follows from the same argument that is used to show that map $\check{H}^{k}(f)$ is well defined, and this is also on Problem Sheet P.

Corollary 38.12. Let $K \subset L \subset X$ and $K^{\prime} \subset L^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ be compact pairs in two Euclidean neighbourhood retracts. Suppose $f:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ is a homotopy equivalence. Then $\check{H}^{k}(f): \check{H}^{k}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K)$ is an isomorphism for all $k \geq 0$.

Proof. Since $\check{H}^{k}$ satisfies the homotopy axiom (Problem P.4), this follows from a general fact about functors (Problem A.2.)

Remark 38.13. It follows from Corollary 38.12 that the Cech cohomology groups $\check{H}^{k}(L, K)$ do not depend on the choice of ambient Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$.

We will now verify the remaining axioms.
Proposition 38.14 (Long exact sequence). If $(L, K) \in \mathrm{K}$ then there is a long exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cdots \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(K ; A) \xrightarrow{\check{\delta}} \check{H}^{k+1}(L, K ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k+1}(L ; A) \rightarrow \ldots \tag{38.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The construction of $\check{\delta}$ is similar to how we constructed $\check{H}^{k}(f)$. Let $X$ be a Euclidean neighbourhood retract containing $L$. Choose open $U \subset V \subset X$ such that $K \subset U$ and $L \subset V$. Then we have a map

$$
\delta: H^{k}(U ; A) \rightarrow H^{k+1}(V, U ; A)
$$

coming from the long exact sequence of the pair $(V, U)$ in normal singular cohomology. Composing this with the map $H^{k+1}(V, U ; A) \rightarrow \tilde{H}^{k+1}(L, K ; A)$ coming from the colimit, we then have maps

$$
H^{k}(U ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k+1}(L, K ; A)
$$

for each such pair $(V, U)$. It follows that $\check{H}^{l}(L, K ; A)$ is a solution of the filtered diagram $H^{k}: \mathcal{U}_{X}(K, \emptyset) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$. Thus by the universal property of the colimit again, this gives us an induced map $\check{\delta}: \check{H}^{k}(K ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k+1}(L, K ; A)$.

It remains to check that the sequence (38.2) is exact. This is a general fact about filtered colimits, but rather than prove the general statement let us simply check exactness in our special case.

Suppose $\check{\delta}\langle\alpha\rangle=0$. Let $(V, U)$ be as above, and suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle$ is represented by $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H^{k}(U ; A)$. Then $\delta\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H^{k+1}(V, U ; A)$ represents $\check{\delta}\langle\alpha\rangle$. Since $\check{\delta}\langle\alpha\rangle=0, \delta\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is contained in the kernel of some restriction $H^{k+1}(V, U ; A) \rightarrow H^{k+1}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime} ; A\right)$ (for some $\left.\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right) \subset(V, U)\right)$.

Fix such a pair $\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$. Let $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle \in H^{k}\left(U^{\prime} ; A\right)$ denote the restriction of $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Then $\delta\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle=0$. By exactness there exists a primitive $\left\langle\beta^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H^{k}\left(V^{\prime} ; A\right)$ that maps onto $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$ under the map $H^{k}\left(V^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow H^{k}\left(U^{\prime} ; A\right)$. This represents a class $\langle\beta\rangle \in \check{H}^{k}(L ; A)$, and this class maps onto $\langle\alpha\rangle$ under the map $\check{H}^{k}(L ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(K ; A)$. This proves one of the six conditions one needs to check exactness, and I leave the other five to you as a wholesome exercise.

Before going any further, let us build a natural transformation $\Phi: \check{H}^{\bullet} \rightarrow H^{\bullet}$ (normal singular cohomology) which commutes with the boundary operators. Indeed, if $(V, U) \in \mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K)$ then the inclusion $(L, K) \rightarrow(V, U)$ induces a map $H^{k}(V, U ; A) \rightarrow H^{k}(L, K ; A)$. Since $H^{k}$ is a contravariant functor, this shows that $H^{k}(L, K ; A)$ is a solution of the diagram $H^{k}: \mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$, and hence there is a map $\Phi(L, K): \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A) \rightarrow H^{k}(L, K ; A)$. An argument similar to those above shows that $\Phi$ is natural and commutes with the long exact sequence maps. In general $\Phi$ is not a natural isomorphism (it need not be injective or surjective), but we do have the following result:

Proposition 38.15. Suppose $(L, K) \in \mathrm{K}$ are both Euclidean neighbourhood retracts themselves. Then $\Phi(L, K): \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A) \rightarrow H^{k}(L, K ; A)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Suppose $K$ is an Euclidean neighbourhood retract. Then $\mathcal{U}_{K}(K, \emptyset)$ has a "maximal element", namely $(K, \emptyset)$ itself. (We will define this more formally in Lecture 41 and call it a terminal object, cf. Definition 41.2.) Thus $\breve{H}^{k}(K ; A)=$ $H^{k}(K ; A)$, and so $\Phi(K, \emptyset)$ is an isomorphism. Similarly if $L$ is an Euclidean neighbourhood retract we have $\breve{H}^{k}(L ; A) \cong H^{k}(L ; A)$. Finally to deduce the relative case we use the fact we already know that $\Phi$ is natural, and apply the Five Lemma.

Proposition 38.16 (Excision). Let $M, N$ be compact subsets of an Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$. Then the inclusion $(M, M \cap N) \hookrightarrow(M \cup N, N)$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\check{H}^{k}(M \cup N, N ; A) \cong \check{H}^{k}(M, M \cap N ; A), \quad \forall k \geq 0 .
$$

Proof. This follows from the corresponding isomorphism $H^{k}(U \cup V, V ; A) \cong H^{k}(U, U \cap$ $V ; A)$ in singular cohomology.

Proposition 38.17 (Mayer-Vietoris). For each pair $M, N$ of compact subsets of a Euclidean neighbourhood retract there is a long exact Mayer-Vietoris sequence:
$\ldots \check{H}^{k}(M \cup N ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(M ; A) \oplus \check{H}^{k}(N ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(M \cap N ; A) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k+1}(M \cup N ; A) \rightarrow \ldots$
Proof. The usual formal consequence of excision.

Remark 38.18. Everything we did prior to Proposition 38.16 works in the more general setting where we only assume that $L$ and $K$ are locally compact. However excision does not hold for an arbitrary pair of locally compact subsets of a Euclidean neighbourhood retract - more hypotheses are needed. Since we will only ever use Čech cohomology for compact subsets, I didn't think it worth exploring this here.

In summary, we have proved:
Theorem 38.19. Let CompENR ${ }^{2}$ denote the category of compact pairs $(L, K)$ where $K \subseteq L$ are both Euclidean neighbourhood retracts, with morphisms given by continuous maps of pairs. Then Čech cohomology is a cohomology theory in the sense of Eilenberg-Steenrod on CompENR ${ }^{2}$.

We conclude this lecture by emphasising once again: for an arbitrary pair $(L, K) \in$ K , it is not true that the Čech cohomology of $(L, K)$ agrees with the singular homology. This is only true if $K$ and $L$ are themselves Euclidean neighbourhood retracts. Note this is consistent with the cohomology version of Theorem 21.12-the natural transformation $\Phi$ induces an isomorphism on a point, and hence is an isomorphism on any pair $(L, K)$ of compact cell complexes. But compact cell complexes are Euclidean neighbourhood retracts (Proposition 38.3), so this doesn't tell us anything we don't already know.

## LECTURE 39

## The Duality Theorem

In this lecture we prove one of the truly key results in algebraic topology, which we call simply the Duality Theorem. At the end of the lecture we deduce the important special case of Poincaré Duality.

Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. Throughout this lecture we fix a commutative ring $R$, which we will omit from the notation wherever possible.

Given any pair $K \subset L$ of compact subsets of $M$, we can always find a Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$ such that $L \subset X \subset M$. This follows from Proposition 38.3. In particular, the Čech cohomology $\check{H}^{k}(L, K)$ is defined for any pair of compact subsets of $M$. Assume now that $M$ is oriented, so that for each compact subset $K \subset M$, we have a class $\left\langle o_{K}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash K)$.

Notation: In this lecture $K \subset L$ are always compact subsets of $M$ and $U$ and $V$ are open subsets $U \subset V$ with

$$
K \subset U \quad \text { and } \quad L \subset V
$$

(We are not necessarily assuming that $U \subset L$ though). We denote by

$$
\imath_{K L}^{U V}:(V \backslash K, U \backslash L) \hookrightarrow(V, U)
$$

the inclusion.
We use the relative cap product from Definition 37.15 with

$$
X:=V \backslash K, \quad X^{\prime}:=U \backslash K, \quad X^{\prime \prime}:=V \backslash L
$$

This gives us a map

$$
H^{k}(V \backslash K, U \backslash K) \otimes H_{k+m}(V \backslash K,(U \backslash K) \cup(V \backslash L)) \xrightarrow{\curvearrowright} H_{m}(V \backslash K, V \backslash L)
$$

Now consider the composition

$$
H_{k+m}(M, M \backslash L) \rightarrow H_{k+m}(M,(M \backslash L) \cup U) \stackrel{\cong}{\cong} H_{k+m}(V \backslash K,(U \backslash K) \cup(V \backslash L)),
$$

where in the second map we excised the closed set $M \backslash(V \backslash K)$ contained in the open set $(M \backslash L) \cup U$.

If $\langle c\rangle \in H_{k+m}(M, M \backslash L)$ then we denote by $\langle c\rangle_{K L}^{U V}$ the image of $\langle c\rangle$ in $H_{k+m}(V \backslash$ $K,(U \backslash K) \cup(V \backslash L))$.

In particular, for $m=n-k$ and $\langle c\rangle=\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle$ we get a map

$$
d_{K L}^{U V}: H^{k}(V \backslash K, U \backslash K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(V \backslash K, V \backslash L)
$$

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given by

$$
d_{K L}^{U V}\langle\gamma\rangle:=\langle\gamma\rangle \frown\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle_{K L}^{U V} .
$$

By excision again, this last group is isomorphic to $H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)$. Hence putting this altogether, we have a map that we denote by

$$
D_{K L}^{U V}: H^{k}(V, U) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)
$$

and makes the following diagram commute:

$$
\begin{gathered}
H^{k}(V, U) \xrightarrow{H^{k}\left(\imath_{K K}^{U V}\right)} H^{k}(V \backslash K, U \backslash K) \\
D_{n-k}^{U V} \downarrow \\
H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L) \xrightarrow[\cong]{\cong} H_{n-k}(V \backslash K, V \backslash L)
\end{gathered}
$$

Our aim is to show that $D_{K L}^{U V}$ induces a map

$$
D_{K L}: \check{H}^{k}(L, K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L) .
$$

This follows from the following naturality statement.
Lemma 39.1. Let $X \subset M$ be an Euclidean neighbourhood retract containing $V$. Suppose $U^{\prime} \subset V^{\prime}$ is another pair of open sets with $U \subset U^{\prime}$ and $V \subset V^{\prime} \subset X$. Then the inclusion $\jmath:(V, U) \hookrightarrow\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$ satisfies for every $k \geq 0$ :

$$
D_{K L}^{U^{\prime} V^{\prime}}=D_{K L}^{U V} \circ H^{k}(\jmath) .
$$

The proof of Lemma 39.1 is immediate from naturality of the cap product. It follows that the maps

$$
D_{K L}^{U V}: H^{k}(V, U) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)
$$

form a solution to the filtered diagram $H^{k}: \mathcal{U}_{X}(L, K) \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$, and hence the universal property of the colimit provides us with the desired map $D_{K L}: \check{H}^{k}(L, K) \rightarrow$ $H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)$.

In fact, the maps $D_{K L}$ are natural transformations, as the following lemma proves.
Lemma 39.2. Let $(L, K) \subset\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ (as pairs). Then for any $k \geq 0$, the following commutes:


Proof. Let $K \subset K^{\prime} \subset U$ and $L \subset L^{\prime} \subset V$ with $U \subset V$ open. Let $\jmath^{\prime}:\left(M \backslash K^{\prime}, M \backslash\right.$ $\left.L^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)$ denote the inclusion. Then it follows from the definition that

$$
H_{n-k}\left(\jmath^{\prime}\right) \circ D_{K^{\prime} L^{\prime}}^{U V}=D_{K L}^{U V} .
$$

The desired commutativity is now a formal consequence of properties of colimits. I invite you to fill in the details.

Here then is the main result of today's lecture. It is one of the most important theorems in all of algebraic topology.

Theorem 39.3 (The Duality Theorem). Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional oriented topological manifold. Then for every pair $K \subset L$ of compact subsets of $M$, the duality homomorphism

$$
D_{K L}: \check{H}^{k}(L, K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M \backslash K, M \backslash L)
$$

is an isomorphism.
The proof will take us some time. The key technical result needed is the following commutativity statement.

Proposition 39.4. For each pair $K \subset L$ of compact sets the following diagram commutes up to a sign:


Remark 39.5. The fact that the diagram in Proposition 39.4 only commutes up to a sign is due to our convention on defining the cap product. It is possible (and indeed, a lot of the literature does this) to set things up so that the diagram genuinely commutes. This makes the formulae defining the cap product harder to remember (and harder to lecture!) though, so I didn't elect to do this.

In order to prove Proposition 39.4 we need the following general statement about cap products.

Proposition 39.6. Let $X$ be an arbitrary topological space. Assume $X=X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime}$ with $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ open. Let $Y^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ and $Y^{\prime \prime} \subset X^{\prime \prime}$ be open sets, and put $Y:=Y^{\prime} \cup Y^{\prime \prime}$. Fix a homology class

$$
\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}(X, Y)
$$

and let $\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle$ be the element that $\langle c\rangle$ maps to under the following composition:

$$
H_{n}(X, Y) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, Y^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime} \cup\left(X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)
$$

where the $\cong$ is an excision isomorphism. Similarly let $\left\langle c^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$ be the element that $\langle c\rangle$ maps to under the following composition:

$$
H_{n}(X, Y) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup Y^{\prime \prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X^{\prime \prime},\left(X^{\prime} \cap X^{\prime \prime}\right) \cup Y^{\prime \prime}\right)
$$

Then the following hexagon commutes up to a sign:


Proof. As the picture suggests ${ }^{1}$, the proof of this is a rather tedious application of the Hexagon Lemma (Problem H.2). I omit the details.

Let us now get started on the proof of Proposition 39.4.
Proof of Proposition 39.4. By passing to the colimit is suffices to show that the following diagram commutes up to a sign:


We apply Proposition 39.6 with:

$$
X^{\prime}=U, \quad X^{\prime \prime}=V \backslash K, \quad Y^{\prime}=\emptyset, \quad Y^{\prime \prime}=V \backslash L
$$

Then $H_{n}(X, Y)=H_{n}(V, V \backslash K) \cong H_{n}(M, M \backslash L)$, and we take in Proposition 39.6 our class $\langle c\rangle$ to be $\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle$. Then using the notation from the statement of Proposition 39.6, the two classes $\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle c^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$ become $\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle_{\emptyset K}^{\emptyset U}$ and $\left\langle o_{L}\right\rangle_{K L}^{U V}$ respectively. We squidge the hexagon from Proposition 39.6 to form the middle rectangle in the next diagram. The top and bottom rectangles commute by naturality of the connecting homomorphisms in homology and cohomology:


[^82]The outside square is exactly (39.1) (after reflecting and rotating). This completes the proof.

Proposition 39.4 allows us to form the following commutative (up to a sign) diagrams:

The top row is the long exact sequence of the pair $(L, K)$ in Čech cohomology (Proposition 38.14). The bottom row is the long exact sequence of the triple ( $M, M \backslash K, M \backslash$ $L)$ (Problem F.4). The fact that the diagram commutes (up to a sign) uses Lemma 39.2 and Proposition 39.4. An application of the Five Lemma therefore tells us that it suffices to prove the Duality Theorem 39.3 in the absolute case, that is, that $D_{K}: \check{H}^{k}(K) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M, M \backslash K)$ is always an isomorphism.

We also need to investigate how Mayer-Vietoris sequences behave. This is the content of the following claim:

Proposition 39.7. Suppose $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ are two compact sebsets. Then the MayerVietoris sequence in Čech cohomology and the normal Mayer-Vietoris sequence for their complements commutes up to a sign:


One can prove this directly, but it is also a formal consequence of Lemma 39.2 and Proposition 39.4. Indeed, the connecting map in the Mayer-Vietoris sequence is defined from induced maps from inclusions and ordinary (co)boundary operators in long exact sequences-see the proof of Proposition 14.9 and the Barratt-Whitehead Lemma (Proposition 11.4) if you are sceptical.

We are ready to prove the Duality Theorem. We will use an argument similar to the one used in the proof of Theorem 36.19. Let us first formalise this in the following "meta" theorem.

Theorem 39.8. Let ( $(K)$ be a statement about a compact set $K$ in a fixed manifold M. Assume that:

1. $(\bigcirc K)$ is true for any convex compact set (cf. Definition 36.8).
2. If $(\bigcirc K),(\bigcirc L)$ and $(\bigcirc K \cap L)$ holds then so does $(\bigcirc K \cup L)$.
3. If $K_{1} \supset K_{2} \supset \cdots K:=\bigcap_{i} K_{i}$ and $\left(\bigcirc K_{i}\right)$ holds for every $i$, then $(\bigcirc K)$ also holds.

Then ( $\triangle K$ ) is true for any compact set $K$ in $M$.
Proof. Since the intersection of convex sets is convex, using induction on properties (1) and (2) tell us that ( $\left.\odot K_{1} \cup \cdots \cup K_{m}\right)$ is true for any finite union of convex sets contained in the same chart domain.

Next, if $K$ is any compact set in a chart domain then $K$ is the intersection of a sequence $K_{1} \supset K_{2} \supset \cdots$ where each $K_{i}$ is a finite union of compact convex sets. Thus by property (3) in this case ( $\bigcirc K$ ) holds.

Finally, any compact set $K$ is a finite union of compact sets in chart domains. Thus by induction we see that ( $\varsigma K$ ) is true in this case too.

Now let us prove the Duality Theorem.
Proof of the Duality Theorem 39.3. We will apply Theorem 39.8 where $(\bigcirc K)$ is the statement: $D_{K}$ is an isomorphism. Thus we need only verify the three properties in the hypotheses of Theorem 39.8.

The proof of (2) is immediate from the Mayer-Vietoris sequence (Proposition 39.7) and the Five Lemma.

Now let us prove (1) in increasingly more general cases. If $K$ is empty then all groups are zero. Now suppose $K=\{x\}$ is a single point. If $\left\langle o_{x}\right\rangle$ is our given generator of $H_{n}(M, M \backslash x)$ then $\square \mapsto \square \frown\left\langle o_{x}\right\rangle$ takes the generator $\nu \in H^{0}(x)=\check{H}^{0}(x)$ into $\left\langle o_{x}\right\rangle$ again (this is part (4) of Lemma 37.16). Thus $D_{x}$ is an isomorphism for $k=0$. But for $k>0$, both $\check{H}^{k}(x)$ and $H_{n-k}(M, M \backslash x)$ are zero (cf. Lemma 36.5.)

Now suppose $K$ is an arbitrary convex set in $M$. Let $x \in K$. By naturality of the duality morphism (Lemma 39.2), the following commutes:


We claim that the two vertical maps are isomorphisms. The right-hand vertical map is an isomorphism by part (1) of Lemma 36.9. To show that $\check{H}^{k}(K) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(x)$ is an isomorphism, choose a chart $\varphi: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ centred at $x$ with $K \subset U$. The set
$C:=\varphi(K)$ is a compact convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and thus is an Euclidean neighbourhood retract (this follows from Proposition 38.3). Thus we have isomorphisms

$$
\check{H}^{k}(K) \cong \check{H}^{k}(C) \cong H^{k}(C) \cong H^{k}(x) \cong \check{H}^{k}(x) .
$$

Thus $D_{K}$ is indeed an isomorphism, and we have proved that hypothesis (1) holds.
To complete the proof we must show that if $K_{1} \supset K_{2} \supset \cdots=\bigcap_{i} K_{i}$ then the maps

$$
\underset{i}{\operatorname{colim}_{\longrightarrow}} \check{H}^{k}\left(K_{i}\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(K), \quad \text { and } \quad \underset{i}{\operatorname{colim}_{\longrightarrow}} H_{n-k}\left(M, M \backslash K_{i}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M, M \backslash K)
$$

are both isomorphisms. The first isomorphism is an easy consequence of the definition; let us show surjectivity only. If $\langle c\rangle \in \check{H}^{k}(K)$ is represented by $\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H^{k}(U)$ for some open $\underset{\sim}{U} \supset K$ then there exists $i$ such that $K_{i} \subset U$ whence $\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle$ represents an element in $\breve{H}^{k}\left(K_{i}\right)$. Finally for singular homology, the fact that the second colimit is an isomorphism follows as singular homology commutes with colimits-we used this exact statement in (17.1), see also Remark 17.8.

Finally, let us conclude this lecture by stating two special cases of the Duality Theorem.

Corollary 39.9 (Poincaré Duality). Let $M$ be an oriented $n$-dimensional closed topological manifold with fundamental class $\left\langle o_{M}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(M)$. Then

$$
H^{k}(M) \rightarrow H_{n-k}(M), \quad\langle c\rangle \mapsto\langle c\rangle \frown\left\langle o_{M}\right\rangle
$$

is an isomorphism.
This is immediate from the Duality Theorem, since in this case $\check{H}^{k}(M)=H^{k}(M)$ (see part (2) of Corollary 38.5). Take $L=M$ and $K=\emptyset$, and observe that the duality morphism is simply $\square \mapsto \square \cap\left\langle o_{M}\right\rangle$.

On Problem Sheet P, you are asked to prove Alexander Duality, which is another famous duality result that can be seen a special case of the Duality Theorem 39.3.

## LECTURE 40

## Adjoint functors

We now move onto the final section of the course. We will go back to homotopy theory and define the higher homotopy groups $\pi_{n}(X, x)$ for a pointed topological space ( $X, x$ ).

First, however, we will spend two lectures on more abstract nonsense. In this lecture we discuss duality in categories. Recall in Lecture 16 we defined the notion of a colimit. We first briefly define the dual version of a colimit, which (unsurprisingly) is called a "limit". In Definition 16.3 we introduced a "solution" to a diagram in a category. As mentioned in a footnote there, our definition of a solution is often called a co-cone. This is because there is a dual notion, called a "cone", which is defined in exactly the same way only with the arrows reversed. As with covariant and contravariant functors (which we typically refer to just as "functors"), in general we will simply call both co-cones and cones simply "solutions". Here is the formal definition of a cone.

Definition 40.1. Let C be a category. Let J be an index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be a diagram in C. A cone for $T$ is an object $K$ of $C$ together with a family of morphisms $k_{\alpha}: K \rightarrow T(\alpha)$ in $\mathbf{C}$ for each object $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$ such that if $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is any morphism in J then the following commutes:


We write $\left(K,\left\{k_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ to indicate the solution.
Definition 40.2. Let J be an index category and let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be a diagram in C . A limit is a cone $\left(L,\left\{l_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ that satisfies the following universal property: if ( $K,\left\{k_{\alpha}\right\}$ ) is any other cone then there exists a unique morphism $u: K \rightarrow L$ such that the following diagram commutes for every morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in J :


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We write $L=\lim T$. If $L$ exists, it is unique up to isomorphism.
Just as with colimits, some limits have special names. The simplest is the product. Example 40.3. Take J to have exactly two objects and no morphisms (apart from the identity morphisms).


A product in C is the limit of a diagram $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$. For example, in Sets the product of $X$ and $Y$ is just the normal cartesian product $X \times Y$. In general, the product (in an arbitrary category) C of two objects $A$ and $B$ is denoted by $A \sqcap B$ (if it exists).

On Problem Sheet Q you will show that commutativity and associativity holds for (co)products in the following sense:

Lemma 40.4. Let C be a category and $A, B, C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$. Then:

1. If the products $A \sqcap B$ and $B \sqcap A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcap B \cong B \sqcap A
$$

2. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B$ and $B \sqcup A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcup B \cong B \sqcup A .
$$

3. If the products $A \sqcap B, B \sqcap C,(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C$ and $A \sqcap(B \sqcap C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C \cong A \sqcap(B \sqcap C) .
$$

4. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B, B \sqcup C,(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C$ and $A \sqcup(B \sqcup C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C \cong A \sqcup(B \sqcup C) .
$$

Warning: It does not follow without a further diagrammatic assumption that the generalised associative law holds from the associative law involving three terms!

Remark 40.5. In Ab the product and the coproduct (cf. Example 16.8) coincide. In Groups they do not: the product is the direct product and the coproduct is the free product.

The dual notion to a pushout is called a pullback.
Example 40.6. Let J be a category with exactly three objects, $\{\bigcirc, \boldsymbol{\wedge}, \diamond\}$, and assume that there is unique morphism $\circlearrowleft \rightarrow \boldsymbol{巾}$ and a unique morphism $\diamond \rightarrow \boldsymbol{巾}$, and that the only other morphisms are the identity morphisms (whose existence is forced). We write this pictorially as


A functor $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is the same thing as a triple of objects $\left(A, B_{1}, B_{2}\right)$ in obj(C) together with a choice of two morphisms $f_{1}: A \rightarrow B_{1}$ and $f_{2}: A \rightarrow B_{2}$.


A cone corresponds to an object $D$ of C together with two morphisms $g_{1}: D \rightarrow B_{1}$ and $g_{2}: D \rightarrow B_{2}$ such that the following commutes:


A limit of $T$ is a cone $\left(L, l_{1}, l_{2}\right)$ such that for any other cone $\left(D, g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ there is a unique map $u: D \rightarrow L$ such that the following commutes:


We call $L$ a pullback. In the category of sets, if $f: X \rightarrow Z$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ then the pullback of $f$ and $g$ is the set

$$
X \times_{Z} Y=\{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid f(x)=g(y)\} .
$$

I invite you to check what pullbacks are in other familiar categories.
Now let us move onto a filtered limit. These are defined in the same way as filtered colimits (i.e. one starts with a filtered category), but since the arrows point the other way one needs to use contravariant functors.

Definition 40.7. Let J be a filtered index category (cf. Definition 16.11). A filtered limit is a limit of contravariant functor $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ (or equivalently, a limit of covariant functor defined on the opposite category.) We use the notation $\varliminf_{¿} T$ to indicate a limit is filtered.

As with filtered colimits, the easiest way to manufacture examples is to begin with a directed set $(\Lambda, \preceq)$, form the corresponding index category $\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, \preceq)$, and then take the opposite category. Forming the opposite category essentially amounts to replacing $\preceq$ with $\succeq$. Let us illustrate this with the simplest possible directed set.

Example 40.8. A sequential limit is a filtered limit on ( $\mathbb{N}, \geq$ ). Explicitly, let C be a category, and assume we are given a sequence

$$
f_{n}: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N},
$$

of morphisms in C. The filtered limit of $T$ is an object $\varliminf_{\mathrm{im}} T$ (which we will usually write as $\varliminf_{\curvearrowleft} \varlimsup_{n} C_{n}$ instead) together with a family of morphisms $l_{n}$ : $\varliminf_{\ddagger} C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
l_{n}=f_{n} \circ l_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

This satisfies the universal property that if $\left(D,\left\{d_{n}\right\}\right)$ is object of $C$ and a family of morphisms $d_{n}: D \rightarrow C_{n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$
d_{n}=f_{n} \circ d_{n+1}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N},
$$

then there exists a unique morphism $u: D \rightarrow \varliminf_{n} C_{n}$ such that the following diagram commutes:


Remark 40.9. Warning: As already mentioned in Remark 34.11, the analogue of Theorem 16.22 for limits is not true!

Definition 40.10. Let C and D be two categories. The product category $\mathrm{C} \times \mathrm{D}$ is the category whose objects are ordered pairs $(C, D)$ where $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ and $D \in$ obj(D), and

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C} \times \mathrm{D}}\left((C, D),\left(C^{\prime}, D^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left\{(f, g) \mid f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(C, C^{\prime}\right) g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}\left(D, D^{\prime}\right)\right\} .
$$

The composition $(f, g){ }^{\circ} \times \times \mathrm{D}\left(f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right)$ is defined as you expect:

$$
(f, g) \circ^{\mathrm{C} \times \mathrm{D}}\left(f^{\prime}, g^{\prime}\right):=\left(f \circ \mathrm{C} f^{\prime}\right),\left(g \circ_{\mathrm{D}} g^{\prime}\right) .
$$

The identity element $\mathrm{id}_{(C, D)}$ is simply the pair $\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}, \mathrm{id}_{D}\right)$.
Remark 40.11. As the name indicates, the product category is simply the product (in the sense of Example 40.3 above) in the category Cat of small categories.

Definition 40.12. A bifunctor is a functor defined on a product category: $T$ : $\mathrm{C} \times$ $\mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}$. We will always assume bifunctors are covariant-if we wish to consider a bifunctor which is contravariant in one or both of its variables we simple replace the category with the corresponding opposite category.

Example 40.13. Let C be any category. Then there is a Hom-bifunctor

$$
\text { Hom: } \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \text { Sets }
$$

which assigns to an ordered pair $(A, B)$ of objects of C the hom-set $\operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$. This bifunctor is contravariant in the first variable and covariant in the second. Explicitly, if $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: C \rightarrow D$ are morphism in C then

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(f, g): \operatorname{Hom}(B, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, D), \quad h \mapsto g \circ h \circ f .
$$

Now let C and D be categories, and let $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ and $T: \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be covariant functors. Conisder the two bifunctors

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(S(\square), \square): \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \text { Sets, } \quad(C, D) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(S(C), D),
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\square, T(\square)): \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \text { Sets, } \quad(C, D) \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(C, T(D))
$$

In general there is no reason for these two bifunctors to be related. However, since they are both functors with the same source category ( $\mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \times \mathrm{D}$ ) and the same target category (Sets), one can ask the question as to when they are naturally isomorphic. This leads to the notion of an adjoint pair, which is one of the most important concepts in category theory.

Definition 40.14. Let C and D be categories, and let $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ and $T: \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be covariant functors. We say that $(S, T)$ is an adjoint pair if there is a natural isomorphism between the the two bifunctors

$$
\Psi: \operatorname{Hom}(S(\square), \square) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\square, T(\square)) .
$$

Explicitly, this means that for every pair of objects $(C, D)$ we are given a bijection

$$
\Psi(C, D): \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(S(C), D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(C, T(D)),
$$

which satisfies the following naturality condition: if $f: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ and $g: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ are morphisms in C and D respectively, then the following diagram should commute:


One calls $S$ the left adjoint functor and $T$ the right adjoint functor. The ordering is important: if $(S, T)$ is an adjoint pair then ( $T, S$ ) may not be.

Here is a trivial example.

Example 40.15. Let Forget: $\mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow$ Sets denote the forgetful functor. Let Free: Sets $\rightarrow$ Ab denote the free functor that sends a set $X$ to the free abelian group $F(X)$ with basis $X$. Then (Free, Forget) are an adjoint pair. The function

$$
\Psi(X, A): \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{Ab}}(F(X), A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{Sets}}(X, A)
$$

is simply given by $\left.f \mapsto f\right|_{X}$. The fact that this is a bijection is precisely the statement of Lemma 7.2: any function $f: X \rightarrow A$ specifies uniquely a homomorphism $\tilde{f}: F(X) \rightarrow A$.

This also works if we consider Forget as a functor Forget: Groups $\rightarrow$ Sets, but in this case one should define Free: Sets $\rightarrow$ Groups to be the functor that assigns to a set $X$ the free group (not the free abelian group!) with basis $X$.

Here is another more interesting example of a forgetful functor forming an adjoint pair.

Example 40.16. Let Met denote the category of metric spaces, and let CompleteMet denote the full subcategory of complete metric spaces. Then there is a forgetful functor Forget: CompleteMet $\rightarrow$ Met that forgets a metric space is complete.

Next, as you all (hopefully) remember, to any metric space ( $X, d$ ) one can construct a complete metric space $(\bar{X}, \bar{d})$, called the completion of $X$, which contains $X$ as a dense subspace. The completion satisfies the following universal property: if $Y$ is any complete metric space and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is any uniformly continuous function, then there exists a unique uniformly continuous function $\bar{f}: \bar{X} \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.\bar{f}\right|_{X}=f$. Like all universal properties, this tells us $\bar{X}$ is unique up to isomorphism in Met (that is, unique up to isometry).

Explicitly, $\bar{X}$ is constructed as follows. First, let $\widehat{X}$ denote the set of all Cauchy sequences $\left(x_{n}\right)$ in $X$. Define a pseudometric $\widehat{d}$ on $\widehat{X}$ by declaring

$$
\widehat{d}\left(\left(x_{n}\right),\left(x_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right):=\lim _{n} d\left(x_{n}, x_{n}^{\prime}\right)
$$

(this limit exists because $\mathbb{R}$ is a complete metric space!) Then let $\bar{X}$ denote the quotient of $\widehat{X}$ under the equivalence relation

$$
\left(x_{n}\right) \sim\left(x_{n}^{\prime}\right) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \widehat{d}\left(\left(x_{n}\right),\left(x_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right)=0 .
$$

Then $\widehat{d}$ factors to define a complete metric on $\bar{X}$. The embedding $X \hookrightarrow \bar{X}$ sends a point $x$ to the equivalence class of the constant sequence $x_{n} \equiv x$.

With a bit more work, one can show that the operation $X \mapsto \bar{X}$ defines a functor Complete: Met $\rightarrow$ CompleteMet, and (Complete, Forget) forms an adjoint pair.

Here is another algebraic example for you to work through on Problem Sheet Q.
Example 40.17. Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be rings (not necessarily commutative), and let $M$ be an $\left(R, R^{\prime}\right)$-bimodule. Then $\left(\square \otimes_{R} M, \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair. Similarly $\left(M \otimes_{R^{\prime}} \square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair.

An adjoint functor pair gives rise to a unit and a counit as follows.

Definition 40.18. Let C and D be categories, and let $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ and $T: \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be covariant functors. Suppose $(S, T)$ is an adjoint pair. For any $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, taking $D=S(C)$ in the definition of $\Psi(C, D)$ we obtain a natural bijection

$$
\Psi(C, S(C)): \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(S(C), S(C)) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(C, T(S(C)) .
$$

We define the unit of ( $S, T$ ) to be family of maps $\eta$ : $\mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{C}} \rightarrow T \circ S$ given by

$$
\eta(C):=\Psi(C, S(C))\left(\operatorname{id}_{S(C)}\right): C \rightarrow T(S(C))
$$

If $C$ is any object of $C$ and $D$ is any object of D , then the following unit equation holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi(C, D)(g)=T(g) \circ \eta(C), \quad \forall g: S(C) \rightarrow D . \tag{40.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This can be seen by considering the diagram (40.1) as follows:


Start with $\mathrm{id}_{S(C)}$ in the top left-hand corner. Then going clockwise yields $T(g) \circ$ $\eta(C) \circ \operatorname{id}_{C}=T(g) \circ \eta(C)$, and going anticlockwise yields $\Psi(C, D)(g)$, which gives the unit equation.

Lemma 40.19. The unit is a natural transformation $\eta: \mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{C}} \rightarrow T \circ S$.
Proof. To see that $\eta$ is a natural transformation, we need to check that if $f: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ is any morphism in C then the following diagram commutes:


The unit equation (40.2) applied with $g=S(f)$ tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi\left(C, S\left(C^{\prime}\right)\right)(S(f))=T(S(f)) \circ \eta(C) \tag{40.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now apply (40.1) again as follows:


Starting with $\operatorname{id}_{S\left(C^{\prime}\right)}$ in the top left-hand corner we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta\left(C^{\prime}\right) \circ f=\Psi\left(C, S\left(C^{\prime}\right)\right)(S(f)) \tag{40.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (40.3) and (40.4) tells us that $\eta\left(C^{\prime}\right) \circ f=T(S(f)) \circ \eta(C)$, which is what we desired.

Definition 40.20. Let C and D be categories, and let $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ and $T: \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be covariant functors. Suppose $(S, T)$ is an adjoint pair. Given any object $D$ of D , taking $C=T(D)$ we obtain a natural bijection

$$
\Psi(T(D), D): \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(S(T(D)), D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{C}}(T(D), T(D)),
$$

and this allows us to define the counit of $(S, T)$ to as the family of maps $\varepsilon: S \circ T \rightarrow$ idd given by

$$
\varepsilon(D):=\Psi(T(D), D)^{-1}\left(\mathrm{id}_{T(D)}\right): S(T(D)) \rightarrow D .
$$

If $C$ is any object of C and $D$ is any object of D , then the following counit equation holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi(C, D)^{-1}(h)=\varepsilon(D) \circ S(h), \quad \forall h: C \rightarrow T(D) . \tag{40.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the same proof as above shows that the counit is a natural transformation $S \circ T \rightarrow$ $i d_{D}$.

Remark 40.21. The unit equation (40.2) and the counit equation (40.5) uniquely determine $\Psi$. Thus to show two functors $(S, T)$ are an adjoint pair it suffices to construct the unit and the counit.

The next theorem is one of the main properties of adjoint pairs. This is probably the only (semi-)difficult theorem in category theory that we will prove in the entire course.

Theorem 40.22. Let C and D be categories, and let $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ and $T: \mathrm{D} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ be covariant functors. Suppose $(S, T)$ is an adjoint pair. Then $S$ preserves colimits and $T$ preserves limits. That is, if $P: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$ is a diagram in C such that colim $P$ exists, then colim $(S \circ P)$ exists as well and there is a natural isomorphism

$$
S(\operatorname{colim} P) \cong \operatorname{colim}(S \circ P) .
$$

Similarly if $Q: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is a diagram in D such that $\lim Q$ exists, then $\lim (T \circ Q)$ exists as well and there is a natural isomorphism

$$
T(\lim Q) \cong \lim (T \circ Q)
$$

Proof. We will only prove the colimit statement - the statement about limits is formally dual, and can be obtained by reversing arrows. We will prove the result in four steps.

1. Let $l_{\alpha}: P(\alpha) \rightarrow$ colim $P$ denote the morphisms whose existence is guaranteed by the colimit property for $P$. Assume we are given a solution $\left(D,\left\{d_{\alpha}\right\}\right)$ for the diagram $S \circ P: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$. To show that $\operatorname{colim}(S \circ P)$ exists an is equal to $S(\operatorname{colim} P)$
we need to prove the existence of a unique map $k: S(\operatorname{colim} P) \rightarrow D$ such that the following diagram commutes for each morphism $i: \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in J :


Our plan is to apply $T$ to this diagram and use the unit $\eta$ : $\operatorname{id}_{\mathrm{C}} \rightarrow T \circ S$ to replace $T S(\operatorname{colim} P)$ and $T S(P(\alpha))$ with colim $P$ and $P(\alpha)$ respectively. Indeed, naturality of the unit (Lemma 40.19) tells us gives us maps $\tilde{\eta}:=\eta(\operatorname{colim} P): \operatorname{colim} P \rightarrow$ $T S(\operatorname{colim} P)$ and maps $\eta_{\alpha}:=\eta(P(\alpha)): P(\alpha) \rightarrow T S(P(\alpha))$ such that the following diagram commutes for every $\alpha \in \operatorname{obj}(J)$ :

2. Let us start by applying $T$ to the diagram above and adjoining the original diagram on the left. This leads to the following monstrosity:


The diagram commutes because:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
T S(P(i)) \circ \eta_{\alpha}=\eta_{\beta} \circ P(i), & \text { as } \eta \text { is natural, } \\
T\left(d_{\alpha}\right)=T\left(d_{\beta}\right) \circ T S(P(i)), & \text { as } T \text { is a functor. }
\end{array}
$$

The map $h$ : colim $P \rightarrow T(D)$ exists and is unique because $\left(T(D),\left\{T\left(d_{\alpha}\right)\right\}\right)$ is a solution to the diagram $P$.
3. Let us now define

$$
\begin{equation*}
k:=\Psi(\operatorname{colim} P, D)^{-1}(h) \in \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathrm{D}}(S(\operatorname{colim} P), D) \tag{40.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We claim that this choice of $k$ makes the diagram (40.6) commute. Indeed, by (40.1) the following diagram commutes:


Thus starting with $k$ in the top left-hand corner, going clockwise we obtain $h \circ l_{\alpha}$ and going anticlockwise we obtain $\Psi(P(\alpha), D)\left(k \circ S\left(l_{\alpha}\right)\right)$. From (40.7) we have

$$
h \circ l_{\alpha}=T\left(d_{\alpha}\right) \circ \eta_{\alpha}
$$

and hence we conclude

$$
\begin{equation*}
T\left(d_{\alpha}\right) \circ \eta_{\alpha}=\Psi(P(\alpha), D)\left(k \circ S\left(l_{\alpha}\right)\right) \tag{40.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally we apply the unit equation (40.2) with $g=d_{\alpha}$ to obtain

$$
\Psi(P(\alpha), D)\left(d_{\alpha}\right)=T\left(d_{\alpha}\right) \circ \eta_{\alpha}
$$

Combining this equation with (40.9) and applying $\Psi(P(\alpha), D)^{-1}$ to both sides we obtain

$$
k \circ S\left(l_{\alpha}\right)=d_{\alpha}
$$

which is exactly what we wanted.
4. To complete the proof we need to show that $k$ is unique. This follows directly from the definition (40.8), since $h$ is unique and $\Psi(\operatorname{colim} P, D)$ is a bijection.

REmARK 40.23. There is a partial converse to Theorem 40.22, called the Freyd Adjoint Functor Theorem. We won't go into the details however, since we will not need it.

In Lecture 42 we will construct an important adjoint pair of functors on the category hTop .

## LECTURE 41

## Group and cogroup objects

In this lecture we study group objects and cogroup objects. We begin with some more generalities on products and coproducts. Our first result tells us the notation $(f, g)$ makes sense whenever the relevant (co)product exists.
Proposition 41.1. Let C be a category and let $A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

1. Suppose the product $A \sqcap B$ exists. Then for any $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, there is a natural bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(C, A) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, B) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(C, A \sqcap B)
$$

2. Suppose the coproduct $A \sqcup B$ exists. Then for any $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, there is a natural bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, C) \times \operatorname{Hom}(B, C) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(A \sqcup B, C)
$$

Proof. For $C=$ Sets, the first statement is a formal consequence of Problem Q. 3 and Theorem 40.22 (Recall we use $\times$ to denote the product in Sets.) The second statement doesn't quite fit into the this framework, since Hom $(\square, C)$ is contravariant and Theorem 40.22 only worked with covariant functors.

However in both cases the proof is trivial, and goes as follows (for an arbitrary C): Given a pair $(f, g) \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, A) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, B)$, the definition of the product as a limit gives us a unique morphism $h: C \rightarrow A \sqcap B$ such that the following diagram commutes:


The desired isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}(C, A) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, A \sqcap B)$ is then given by

$$
(f, g) \mapsto h
$$

To see this is a bijection we define an inverse by sending $h: C \rightarrow A \sqcap B$ to the ordered pair $\left(l_{A} \circ h, l_{B} \circ h\right)$. Finally, to check naturality we must show that that if $k: C \rightarrow D$ is any morphism in $C$ then the following commutes:


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This follows readily from the definitions.
From now on we suppress the isomorphism from Proposition 41.1 from our notation whenever possible. Thus for instance if $A, B, C$ are three objects in a category and the product $A \sqcap B$ exists, then for $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, A)$ and $g \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, B)$, we denote by $(f, g)$ the morphism in $\operatorname{Hom}(C, A \sqcap B)$ corresponding to the ordered pair $(f, g)$ under the isomorphism form part (1) of Proposition 41.1.

Definition 41.2. Let C be a category. An initial object in C is an object $A$ such that for every $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, the set $\operatorname{Hom}(A, C)$ contains a single morphism, which we denote by $\alpha_{C}$. A terminal object in C is an object $Z$ such that for every $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, the set $\operatorname{Hom}(C, Z)$ contains a single morphism, which we denote by $\omega_{C}$. An object is a zero object if it is both an initial object and a terminal object.

It is immediate that if an initial object exists it is unique up to isomorphism (and similarly for a terminal object). It does not have to be actually unique though: for instance, in Sets, the empty set is the (unique) initial object, and any set with one element is a terminal object. Not all categories have initial and terminal objects; the simplest example is the category of non-empty sets, which does not have an initial object.

Remark 41.3. One can think of a terminal project as the limit of an empty diagram (i.e. where the index category has no objects and no morphisms). Similarly one can think of an initial object as the colimit of an empty diagram. This has the following nice consequence: if a category C has a terminal object, and the product $A \sqcap B$ of any two objects of C exists, then by induction, one can show that any finite product $A_{1} \sqcap A_{2} \cdots \sqcap A_{n}$ exists ( $n \geq 0$.) Similarly if C has an initial object and the coproduct $A \sqcup B$ of any two objects of C exists, then any finite coproduct $A_{1} \sqcup A_{2} \cdots \sqcup A_{n}$ exists ( $n \geq 0$.)

Proposition 41.4. Let C be a category.

1. Suppose an initial object $A$ exists and assume binary ${ }^{1}$ coproducts exist in C . Then for any $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, the two "injections" $C \rightarrow A \sqcup C$ and $C \rightarrow C \sqcup A$ (i.e. the maps induced from the colimits) are isomorphisms.
2. Suppose a terminal object $Z$ exists and assume that binary products exist in C. Then for any $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, the two "projections" $C \sqcap Z \rightarrow C$ and $Z \sqcap C \rightarrow C$ (i.e. the maps induced from the limits) are isomorphisms.

Proof. This time for variety we prove the second statement only. The other is formally dual. Suppose $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, and denote by $\lambda_{1}: C \sqcap Z \rightarrow C$ and $\lambda_{1}^{\prime}: C \sqcap Z \rightarrow Z$ the maps induced from the limit (thus $\lambda_{1}^{\prime}=\omega_{C \sqcap Z}$.) We define an inverse to $\lambda_{1}$. For this let $\kappa_{1}:=\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}, \omega_{C}\right): C \rightarrow C \sqcap Z$, where $\omega_{C}$ is the unique morphism to the terminal object $Z$. Then clearly $\lambda_{1} \circ \kappa_{1}=\operatorname{id}_{C}$. Next, both $\kappa_{1} \circ \lambda_{1}$ and $\mathrm{id}_{C \sqcap Z}$ fit on

[^83]the dashed morphism in the following diagram, and hence by the universal property of a product, they are the same:


Thus $\kappa_{1}$ is an inverse to $\lambda_{1}$. The same argument shows that the other projection $\lambda_{2}: Z \sqcap C \rightarrow C$ has inverse $\kappa_{2}=\left(\omega_{C}, \mathrm{id}_{C}\right)$.

Definition 41.5. Let C be a category and $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

1. Suppose the product $C \sqcap C$ exists. We define the diagonal $\Delta_{C} \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, C \sqcap C)$ to be the map corresponding to $\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}, \mathrm{id}_{C}\right) \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, C) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, C)$ in part (1) of Proposition 41.1.
2. Suppose the coproduct $C \sqcup C$ exists. We define the codiagonal $\nabla_{C} \in \operatorname{Hom}(C \sqcup$ $C, C)$ to be the map corresponding to $\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}, \mathrm{id}_{C}\right) \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, C) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, C)$ in part (2) of Proposition 41.1.
The next two results are on Problem Sheet Q.
Lemma 41.6. Let C be a category. Suppose $A_{1}, A_{2}, B_{1}, B_{2} \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ are four objects and $f_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow B_{i}$ are morphisms for $i=1,2$.
3. If the products $A_{1} \sqcap A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcap A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the limit:

4. If the coproducts $A_{1} \sqcup A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcup f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcup A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the colimit:


Lemma 41.7. Suppose C is a category and $B, C_{1}, C_{2}, D \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

1. Assume the products $B \sqcap B$ and $C_{1} \sqcap C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $f_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, C_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Then

$$
\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)=\left(f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}\right) \circ \Delta_{B} .
$$

2. Assume the coproducts $D \sqcup D$ and $C_{1} \sqcup C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{i}, D\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Then

$$
\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)=\nabla_{D} \circ\left(g_{1} \sqcup g_{2}\right) .
$$

Warning: It is important to realise that in general the morphisms $(f, g), f \sqcap g$ and $f \sqcup g$ are all different!

Let us now give an alternative way of defining a "group".
Definition 41.8. Let C be a category that possesses a terminal object $Z$ and finite products. A group object $G \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ is an object $G$ together with multiplication morphism $m: G \sqcap G \rightarrow G$ and morphisms $\theta: G \rightarrow G$ and $e: Z \rightarrow G$ such that the following diagrams commute:

1. Associativity:

(the notation $G \sqcap G \sqcap G$ is unambiguous by part (3) of Lemma 40.4.)
2. Identity:

(here the diagonal maps are the isomorphisms from part (1) of Proposition 41.1.)

## 3. Inverse:



The terminology makes sense, as the following easy examples illustrate.
Example 41.9.

1. A group object in Sets is a group.
2. A group object in Groups (!) is an abelian group ${ }^{2}$.
3. Every abelian group is a group object in Ab.
4. A group object in Top is a topological group.
[^84]We will be primarily interested in group objects in the category $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{Top}}^{*}$. We will study these next lecture. For now, let us define the dual notion of a cogroup object.

Definition 41.10. Let $C$ be a category that possesses an initial object $A$ and finite coproducts. A cogroup object $K \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ is an object together with comultiplication morphism $\mu: K \rightarrow K \sqcup K$ and morphisms $\vartheta: K \rightarrow K$ and $o: K \rightarrow A$ such that the following diagrams commute:

1. Co-associativity:

2. Co-identity:

(here the diagonal maps are the equivalences from part (2) of Proposition 41.1.)
3. Co-inverse:


Cogroup objects are slightly less common "in nature".
Example 41.11.

1. The only cogroup object in Sets and Top is the empty set.
2. A cogroup object in Groups is a free group (this is fairly easy to prove if $G$ is finitely generated, and rather harder in general.)
3. Every abelian group is a cogroup object in $A b$.
4. The only cogroup objects in Sets* and $\operatorname{Top}_{*}$ are the singletons $\{\star\}$,

As with group objects, we will primarily be interested in cogroup objects in $\mathrm{hTop}{ }_{*}$.
Here is the main result of today's lecture. We remind the reader that we use $\times$ for the product in Sets.

THEOREM 41.12. Let C be a category with a terminal object $Z$ and finite products. An object $G \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ is a group object if and only if $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, G): \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Sets is actually a functor ${ }^{3} \operatorname{Hom}(\square, G): C \rightarrow$ Groups. If this is the case the the group multiplication $\tilde{m}(C)$ on $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{m}(C): \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, G), \quad \tilde{m}(C)(f, g):=m \circ(f, g) \tag{41.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^85]where $m$ is the multiplication on $G$ and we are using the identification of $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times$ $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ with $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G \sqcap G)$ from part (1) of Proposition 41.1.

The proof will use the following corollary of the Yoneda Lemma (Problem K.5).
Lemma 41.13. Let C be a category, and suppose $A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$. Suppose $\Phi: \operatorname{Hom}(\square, A) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, B)$ is a natural transformation. Then if $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ and $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, A)$, one has

$$
\Phi(C)(f)=\Phi(A)\left(\mathrm{id}_{A}\right) \circ f
$$

(this makes sense as $\Phi(A)\left(\mathrm{id}_{A}\right) \in \operatorname{Hom}(A, B)$.)
Proof of Theorem 41.12. We will prove the result in four steps.

1. First assume that $G$ is a group object in C. By part (1) of Proposition 41.1, we can identify $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ with $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G \sqcap G)$. If we apply $\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square)$ to each of the three diagrams in the definition of a group object, we see that $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ is a group object in Sets, and hence is a group. Now suppose $h: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism in C. We claim that $\operatorname{Hom}(h, G): \operatorname{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, G)$ is a homomorphism, where the multiplication is given by $\tilde{m}(B)$ and $\tilde{m}(A)$ respectively, defined as in (41.3). For this we compute:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}(h, G)(\tilde{m}(B)(f, g)) & =\operatorname{Hom}(h, G)(m \circ(f, g)) \\
& =m \circ(f, g) \circ h \\
& =m \circ(f \circ h, g \circ h) \\
& =m \circ(\operatorname{Hom}(h, G)(f), \operatorname{Hom}(f, G)(g)) \\
& =\tilde{m}(A)(\operatorname{Hom}(h, G)(f), \operatorname{Hom}(h, G)(g)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

2. The converse is harder. Assume that $G \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ has the property that for every $C \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$, there is a group operation $\tilde{m}(C): \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$. As before we identify $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ with $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G \sqcap G)$. With this identifcation, we claim that $\tilde{m}: \operatorname{Hom}(\square, G \sqcap G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\square, G)$ is a natural transformation. For this we must check that if $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism in C then the following commutes:


This however is immediate from the definition.
Thus by the Yoneda Lemma 41.13, for every morphism $h: C \rightarrow G \sqcap G$ in C, we have

$$
\tilde{m}(C)(h)=m \circ h,
$$

where $m \in \operatorname{Hom}(G \sqcap G, G)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
m:=\tilde{m}(G \sqcap G)\left(\operatorname{id}_{G \sqcap G}\right) . \tag{41.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. We now prove that with $m$ defined as in (41.4), the diagram for the associativity axiom holds. Since $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ is a group for every $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$-and thus in particular the multiplication $\tilde{m}(C)$ satisfies the associativity axiom-we have a commutative diagram

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)^{\tilde{m}(C) \times \mathrm{id}_{\operatorname{Hom}(C, G}} \mathrm{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \\
\operatorname{id}_{\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)} \times \tilde{m}(C) \mid \\
\operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \times \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \xrightarrow[\tilde{m}(C)]{\downarrow_{\tilde{m}(C)}} \underset{\sim}{\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)}
\end{array}
$$

Invoking part (1) of Proposition 41.1 again, we can rewrite this diagram as


Then arguing as before, we see that the going clockwise and going anticlockwise round the square gives rise to two more equal natural transformations:

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(\square, G \sqcap G \sqcap G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\square, G)
$$

Thus by the Yoneda Lemma again, if $k: C \rightarrow G \sqcap G \sqcap G$ is an element belonging to the top left-hand corner then the image of $k$ in the bottom right-hand corner is of the form $p \circ k$, where:

$$
p= \begin{cases}m \circ\left(m \sqcap \mathrm{id}_{G}\right), & \text { going clockwise } \\ m \circ\left(\operatorname{id}_{G} \sqcap m\right), & \text { going anticlockwise }\end{cases}
$$

Taking $C=G \sqcap G \sqcap G$ and $k=\operatorname{id}_{G \sqcap G \sqcap G}$ it follows that

$$
m \circ\left(m \sqcap \operatorname{id}_{G}\right)=m \circ\left(\operatorname{id}_{G} \sqcap m\right),
$$

which is what we need for the associativity diagram.
4. Let us now define the two other morphisms $\theta \in \operatorname{Hom}(G, G)$ and $e \in \operatorname{Hom}(Z, G)$ needed for $G$ to be a group object. For this, let

$$
\tilde{\theta}(C): \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)
$$

denote the inversion in the group $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$. Then set $\theta:=\tilde{\theta}(G)\left(\mathrm{id}_{G}\right)$. Next, let $e$ denote the identity element in the group $\operatorname{Hom}(Z, G)$. The proof that $\theta$ satisfies the diagram for the identity axiom and that $e$ satisfies the diagram for the inverse axiom are similar to the proof that $m$ satisfied the diagram for the associativity axiom (actually they are simpler), and we will leave them as exercises.

The dual result to Theorem 41.12 is the following statement, whose proof is dual to the one just given.

Theorem 41.14. Let C be a category with an initial object $A$ and finite coproducts. An object $K \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ is a cogroup object if and only if $\operatorname{Hom}(K, \square): \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Sets is actually a functor $\operatorname{Hom}(K, \square): \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Groups. If this is the case the the group multiplication $\tilde{m}(C)$ on $\operatorname{Hom}(K, C)$ is given by

$$
\tilde{\mu}(C): \operatorname{Hom}(K, C) \times \operatorname{Hom}(K, C) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(K, C), \quad \tilde{\mu}(C)(f, g):=(f, g) \circ \mu,
$$

where $\mu$ is the comultiplication on $G$ and we are using the identification of $\operatorname{Hom}(K, C) \times$ $\operatorname{Hom}(K, C)$ with $\operatorname{Hom}(K \sqcup K, C)$ from part (2) of Proposition 41.1.

We conclude with a remark that will be useful next lecture.
Definition 41.15. Let C be a category with a terminal object $Z$. A morphism $c: C \rightarrow D$ in $C$ is called a constant morphism if it factors through $Z$, that is, there exists a morphism $c^{\prime}: Z \rightarrow D$ such that the following commutes:


Similarly if C has an initial object $A$ a morphism $k: C \rightarrow D$ is a coconstant morphism if there exists a morphism $k^{\prime}: C \rightarrow A$ such that the following commutes:


Remark 41.16. One can recast the definition of a group object using constant morphisms. This point of view is less convenient for Theorem 41.12, but will prove more natural in the context of the group objects in $\mathrm{hTop}{ }_{*}$ that we will study next lecture.

Here are the details. Suppose $G$ is a group object in a category C. We use the notation from the proof of Proposition 41.4 for the projections $\lambda_{1}: G \sqcap Z \rightarrow G$ and $\lambda_{2}: Z \sqcap G \rightarrow G$, together with their inverses $\kappa_{1}$ and $\kappa_{2}$. Define morphisms $j_{1}, j_{2}: G \rightarrow G \sqcap G$ by

$$
j_{1}:=\left(\operatorname{id}_{G} \sqcap e\right) \circ \kappa_{1}, \quad j_{2}:=\left(e \sqcap \operatorname{id}_{G}\right) \circ \kappa_{2} .
$$

Then we can enlarge the identity axiom diagram to see that the following commutes:


Since $\lambda_{i} \circ \kappa_{i}=\mathrm{id}_{G}$, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \circ j_{1}=\operatorname{id}_{G}, \quad m \circ j_{2}=\operatorname{id}_{G} . \tag{41.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover there exists a constant map $c: G \rightarrow G$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
j_{1}=\left(\mathrm{id}_{G}, c\right), \quad j_{2}=\left(c, \mathrm{id}_{G}\right) . \tag{41.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, if we are given a category C and an object $G$, together with a morphism $m: G \sqcap G \rightarrow G$ that satisfies the diagram for the associativity axiom and a morphism $\theta: G \rightarrow G$ such that:

1. $m \circ\left(\mathrm{id}_{G}, \theta\right)=m \circ\left(\theta, \mathrm{id}_{G}\right)$ are equal constant morphisms,
2. if $j_{1}$ and $j_{2}$ are defined as in (41.6) with $c=m \circ\left(\operatorname{id}_{G}, \theta\right)$ then (41.5) holds, then $G$ is a group object. A similar discussion applies to cogroup objects.

## LECTURE 42

## Loop spaces and reduced suspensions

In this lecture we investigate group and cogroup objects in the category $\mathrm{h} \mathrm{Top}_{*}$. We begin however with an interlude on some point-set topology about function spaces. As with all other point-set topology results, we won't prove them, since the ideas involved have nothing to do with algebraic topology.

Definition 42.1. Let $X$ and $Y$ denote the topological spaces, and write $X^{Y}$ for the set of all continuous functions ${ }^{1}$ from $Y$ into $X$. Define a topology on $X^{Y}$, called the compact-open topology by declaring that a subbasis ${ }^{2}$ is all the sets of the form

$$
(K ; U):=\left\{f \in X^{Y} \mid f(K) \subset U\right\}
$$

where $K \subset Y$ is compact and $U \subset X$ is open.
If $X$ is a metric space then the compact-open topology on $X^{Y}$ (for any $Y$ ) coincides with the topology of uniform convergence on compact subsets.

Definition 42.2. Let $X$ and $Y$ be sets. Define the evaluation map

$$
\text { ev: } \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Sets }}(Y, X) \times Y \rightarrow X
$$

by

$$
\operatorname{ev}(f, y):=f(y)
$$

(here $\operatorname{Homsets}(Y, X)$ denotes the set of all functions from $Y$ to $X$ ).
The first nice property of the compact-open topology is the following:
Proposition 42.3. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces, and assume that $Y$ is locally compact and Hausdorff. Then the restriction of ev to $X^{Y} \times Y$ defines a continuous map ev: $X^{Y} \times Y \rightarrow X$.

Definition 42.4. Suppose $X, Y$ and $Z$ are sets. If $\zeta: Z \times Y \rightarrow X$ is an element of $\operatorname{Homsets}(Z \times Y, X)$, define

$$
\zeta^{\sharp}: Z \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Sets }}(Y, X), \quad \zeta^{\sharp}(z)(y):=\zeta(z, y) .
$$

Similarly if $\varphi: Z \rightarrow \operatorname{Homsets}^{(Y, X) \text {, define }}$

$$
\varphi^{b}: Z \times Y \rightarrow X, \quad \varphi^{b}(z, y):=\varphi(z)(y)
$$

[^86]It is immediate that in the category Sets, the correspondence $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$ defines a bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Sets }}(Z \times Y, X) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Sets }}\left(Z, \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Sets }}(Y, X)\right)
$$

(the inverse is given by $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^{b}$ ). This result is called the Exponential Law for sets. It is much less trivial that the same result holds for topological spaces, provided $Y$ and $Z$ are Hausdorff, $Y$ is locally compact, and we work with the compact-open topology.

Theorem 42.5 (Exponential Law). Let $X, Y$ and $Z$ be topological spaces.

1. Assume that $Y$ is locally compact and Hausdorff. Then the operation $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$ defines a bijection

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

with inverse given by $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^{b}$.
2. If instead we assume that $Z$ is Hausdorff (and no assumptions on $Y$ ) then the map $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$ is continuous in the compact-open topology.
3. If both conditions are fulfilled, i.e. if $Y$ is locally compact Hausdorff and $Z$ is Hausdorff, then the map $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$ is also an open map, and thus a homeomorphism.

For us, the most useful corollary of (part (1) of) Theorem 42.5 is the following.
Corollary 42.6. Let $X, Y$ and $Z$ be spaces, and assume that $Y$ is locally compact and Hausdorff. A function $\varphi: Z \rightarrow X^{Y}$ is continuous if and only if the composition $\mathrm{ev} \circ\left(\varphi \times \mathrm{id}_{Y}\right)$ is continuous:

$$
Z \times Y \xrightarrow{\varphi \times \mathrm{id}_{Y}} X^{Y} \times Y \xrightarrow{\text { ev }} X
$$

Indeed, denoting the composition by $\zeta$, one has $\varphi=\zeta^{\sharp}$, so the corollary follows from Theorem 42.5.

Remark 42.7. Suppose $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic, where $X$ is locally compact and Hausdorff. If we think of a homotopy $F: f \simeq g$ as a map $F: I \times X \rightarrow Y$ (instead of the more usual $X \times I \rightarrow Y$ ) then $F^{\sharp}: I \rightarrow Y^{X}$ is a path in $Y^{X}$ from $f$ to $g$. Conversely every such path determines a homotopy. Thus $[X, Y]=\pi_{0}\left(Y^{X}\right)$.

Remark 42.8. The first statement of Theorem 42.5 can be alternatively phrased as follows: if $Y$ is a locally compact Hausdorff space then $\left(\square \times Y, \square^{Y}\right)$ form an adjoint pair on Top.

Recall from Lecture 4 that an object of $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ is a pair $(X, x)$ where $X$ is a topological space and $x \in X$ is the basepoint. A morphism $[f]$ from $(X, x)$ to $(Y, y)$ is a homotopy class of pointed maps $f:(X, x) \rightarrow(Y, y)$, where the homotopies are taken relative to $x$.

Let us begin in Top $_{*}$.

Lemma 42.9. The category Top $_{*}$ has a zero object. It has finite products and coproducts.

Proof. Let $*$ be a space with one point. Then $(*, *)$ (as a pointed space) is a zero object in $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$. If $\left(X_{i}, x_{i}\right)$ are two pointed spaces then $\left(X_{1} \times X_{2},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)$ is the product and the wedge ( $\left.X_{1} \vee X_{2},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)$ (cf. Definition 18.10) is the coproduct.

Remark 42.10. The wedge $\left(X_{1} \vee X_{2},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right.$ ) is homeomorphic to the subset ( $X_{1} \times$ $\left.\left\{x_{2}\right\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{x_{1}\right\} \times X_{2}\right)$ of $\left(X_{1} \times X_{2},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)$. Thus in Top $_{*}$, the coproduct can always be embedded in the product. This is not true in general. For instance, in Groups, if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are finite groups then their product is the direct product (which is also finite), but their coproduct is the free product (which is infinite if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ both have more than one element.)

In general there is no easy way to pass from (co)limits in a category C to (co)limits in a quotient category of $C$. However in the case of $h T_{0} p_{*}$ it is easy to see that the same constructions work. Thus $(*, *)$ is a zero object, the product is the normal cartesian product and the coproduct is the wedge. Indeed, if $F_{i}: f_{i} \simeq g_{i}$ is a pointed homotopy $Y \times I \rightarrow X_{i}$ then $\left(F_{1}, F_{2}\right): Y \times I \rightarrow X_{1} \times X_{2}$ is a pointed homotopy $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right) \simeq\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$. This shows that $\left(X_{1} \times X_{2},\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right)$ also solves the universal property for a product in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$, and the other statements follow similarly. Thus:

Corollary 42.11. The category $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ has a zero object. It has finite products and coproducts.

Notation: For the rest of this lecture (and indeed, the rest of the course) we will almost exclusively be concerned with $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. However, constantly displaying the basepoint is cumbersome (for instance, it stops commutative diagrams from fitting onto the page). Thus we will often omit it from the notation, and so a pointed space ( $X, x$ ) will often (but not always) be written simply as $X$. When talking about Top ${ }_{*}$ and $\mathrm{h} \mathrm{Top}_{*}$, all maps are implicitly assumed to be pointed, even if the notation does not reflect this.

This notation applies in particular to morphism sets in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. If $X$ and $Y$ are two pointed spaces then we will write $[X, Y]_{*}$ for the set of pointed maps from $X$ to $Y$.

Definition 42.12. A pointed space $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a $H$-group if there are continuous pointed maps $m: X \times X \rightarrow X$ and $\theta: X \rightarrow X$ together with pointed homotopies

$$
m \circ\left(\operatorname{id}_{X} \times m\right) \simeq m \circ\left(m \times \operatorname{id}_{X}\right), \quad \text { rel } x_{0}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \circ j_{1} \simeq \mathrm{id}_{X} \simeq m \circ j_{2}, \quad \text { rel } x_{0}, \tag{42.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $j_{i}: X \rightarrow X \times X$ is the pointed "injection" given by $j_{1}(x):=\left(x, x_{0}\right)$ and $j_{2}(x):=\left(x_{0}, x\right)$, and finally such that

$$
m \circ\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}, \theta\right) \simeq c \simeq m \circ\left(\theta, \mathrm{id}_{X}\right), \quad \text { rel } x_{0}
$$

where $c: X \rightarrow X$ is the constant map at $x_{0}$.

For the dual definition, let us first fix notation. We identify the pointed wedge $X \vee X$ with the subspace $\left(X \times\left\{x_{0}\right\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times X\right)$ of $X \times X$, and denote by $q_{i}: X \vee X \rightarrow$ $X$ the restriction of the projection $p_{i}: X \times X \rightarrow X$ to $X \vee X \subset X \times X$. Thus $q_{1}\left(x, x_{0}\right)=x=q_{2}\left(x_{0}, x\right)$ for all $x \in X$. Recall also from the end of Lecture 20 that if

$$
f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Z, z_{0}\right), \quad g:\left(Y, y_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Z, z_{0}\right)
$$

are two pointed continuous maps, there is a well-defined pointed continuous map

$$
f \vee g: X \vee Y \rightarrow Z \vee Z
$$

defined by

$$
(f \vee g)(x, y):= \begin{cases}\left(f(x), z_{0}\right), & y=y_{0} \\ \left(z_{0}, g(y)\right), & x=x_{0}\end{cases}
$$

(Thus $\vee$ coincides with the $\sqcup$ notation used in the last lecture (41.2) for the coproduct.)

Definition 42.13. A pointed space $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a $H$-cogroup if there are continuous pointed maps $\mu: X \rightarrow X \vee X$ and $\vartheta: X \rightarrow X$ together with pointed homotopies

$$
\left(\operatorname{id}_{X} \vee \mu\right) \circ \mu \simeq\left(\mu \vee \operatorname{id}_{X}\right) \circ \mu,
$$

and

$$
q_{1} \circ \mu \simeq \operatorname{id}_{X} \simeq q_{2} \circ \mu,
$$

and finally such that

$$
\left(\operatorname{id}_{X}, \vartheta\right) \circ \mu \simeq c \simeq\left(\vartheta, \operatorname{id}_{X}\right) \circ \mu,
$$

where $c: X \rightarrow X$ is the constant map at $x_{0}$.
The next result is just rephrasing the definitions.
Proposition 42.14. The group objects in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ are the $H$-groups. The cogroup objects in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ are the $H$-cogroups.

Proof. This is immediate from Remark 41.16, since the constant map $c: X \rightarrow X$ at $x_{0}$ is the desired constant (and coconstant) morphism from ( $X, x_{0}$ ) to itself in $h$ Top $_{*}$.

Remark 42.15. There is a weaker notion of an $H$-group, which is (rather unhelpfully called) an $H$-space. This is a pointed space ( $X, x_{0}$ ) together with a continuous pointed map $m: X \times X \rightarrow X$ such that both $x \mapsto m\left(x, x_{0}\right)$ and $x \mapsto m\left(x_{0}, x\right)$ are homotopic to the identity relative to $x_{0}$. In Problem C. 5 you proved that an $H$-space has abelian fundamental group. Similarly there is a weaker notion of an $H$-cogroup, where one only insists that the comultiplication is homotopic to the identity relative to the basepoint in both variables, and this is called an $H$-cospace.

Definition 42.16. Let ( $X, x_{0}$ ) be a pointed space. The loop space of $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is the pointed space

$$
\Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right):=\left\{u \in X^{I} \mid u(0)=u(1)=x_{0}\right\},
$$

where the basepoint is the constant path at $x_{0}$.

We often write $\Omega X$ instead of $\Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ (this is somewhat naughty, as the loop space does depend on the choice of $x_{0}$ ).

Theorem 42.17. Loop space defines a functor $\Omega$ : $\mathrm{hTop}_{*} \rightarrow \mathrm{hTop}{ }_{*}$.
Proof. It suffices by Problem A. 3 to show that there is a functor $\Omega$ : Top $_{*} \rightarrow$ Top $_{*}$ that has the property that if $f \simeq g$ (via a pointed homotopy) then $\Omega(f) \simeq \Omega(g)$. If $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$, define $\Omega(f): \Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow \Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ by $u \mapsto f \circ u$. We need to check is that $\Omega(f)$ is continuous. Since $\Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a subspace of $X^{I}$, it suffices to show that $u \mapsto f \circ u$ is continuous as a map $X^{I} \rightarrow Y^{I}$ (this is not completely trivial!) For this consider the commutative diagram


Since $I$ is locally compact and Hausdorff, both maps ev are continuous. Thus going anti-clockwise is continuous around the square, and hence going clockwise is continuous. Thus $u \mapsto f \circ u$ is continuous by Corollary 42.6.

Suppose now $f, g:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ are pointed continuous maps and $F: f \simeq g$ is a homotopy rel $x_{0}$. Define $G: \Omega X \times I \rightarrow \Omega Y$ by $G(u, t):=F(u(\cdot), t)$, and define $r: X^{I} \times I \times I \rightarrow X^{I} \times I \times I$ by $r(u, t, s)=(u, s, t)$. Then $r$ is (obviously) continuous, and we have a commutative diagram


Starting in the top left-hand corner and going anticlockwise is continuous (since ev is continuous) - this is just the map $(u, t, s) \mapsto F(u(s), t))$, and hence evo $\left(G \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)$ is also continuous. Thus by Corollary 42.6 again, $G$ is continuous. Since $G: \Omega(f) \simeq \Omega(g)$, the proof is complete.

Theorem 42.18. If $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a pointed space then $\Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is an $H$-group.
Proof. As in Definition 3.9, we define $m: \Omega X \times \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X$ by

$$
m(u, v):=u * v, \quad(u * v)(s):= \begin{cases}u(2 s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ v(2 s-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

To prove that $m$ is continuous, consider the composition

$$
\Omega X \times \Omega X \times I \xrightarrow{m \times \mathrm{id}_{I}} \Omega X \times I \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ev}} X .
$$

On $\Omega X \times \Omega X \times[0,1 / 2]$, this agrees with the composition

$$
\Omega X \times \Omega X \times[0,1 / 2] \xrightarrow{\pi^{\prime} \times 2} \Omega X \times I \xrightarrow{\mathrm{ev}} X
$$

where $\pi^{\prime}: \Omega X \times \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X$ is projection on the first factor and $2:[0,1 / 2] \rightarrow I$ is the map $s \mapsto 2 s$. This composition is continuous, and hence on $\Omega X \times \Omega X \times[0,1 / 2]$ the composition evo $\left(m \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)$ is continuous. A similar argument shows that evo $\left(m \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)$ is continuous on $\Omega X \times \Omega X \times[1 / 2,1]$. Thus by Corollary 42.6 , we see that $m$ is continuous.

Now let us prove that $m$ satisfies the homotopy associativity requirement. This argument is basically the same as Proposition 3.17, we just need to be a little more careful about checking everything really is continuous. Consider first the function

$$
H: \Omega X \times \Omega X \times \Omega X \times I \times I \rightarrow X
$$

given by

$$
H(u, v, w, t, s):= \begin{cases}u\left(\frac{4 s}{t+1}\right), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{t+1}{4} \\ v(4 s-t-1), & \frac{t+1}{4} \leq s \leq \frac{t+2}{4} \\ w\left(\frac{4 s-2-t}{2-t}\right), & \frac{t+2}{4} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

By Corollary 42.6, $F:=H^{\sharp}$ is a continuous function $\Omega X \times \Omega X \times \Omega X \times I \rightarrow \Omega X$. By construction $F$ is a pointed homotopy $m \circ\left(m \times \operatorname{id}_{\Omega X}\right) \simeq m \circ\left(\operatorname{id}_{\Omega X} \circ m\right)$.

As in Definition 3.15, let $e_{0} \in \Omega X$ denote the constant path at $x_{0}$. Define $E: \Omega X \times$ $I \rightarrow \Omega X$ by $E(u, t):=u_{t}$, where

$$
u_{t}(s):= \begin{cases}u\left(\frac{2 s}{t+1}\right), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{t+1}{2} \\ x_{0}, & \frac{t+1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Then $E$ is continuous as ev $\circ\left(E \times \operatorname{id}_{I}\right)$ is, and hence $E$ is a homotopy from the $m \circ j_{1}: u \mapsto u * e_{0}$ to the identity. A similar argument shows that $m \circ j_{2}: u \mapsto e_{0} * u$ is homotopic to the identity.

Finally, define $\theta: \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X, \theta(u)=\bar{u}$, where as in Definition 3.14, $\bar{u}(s):=$ $u(1-s)$. If $K: \Omega X \times I \times I \rightarrow X$ is defined by

$$
K(u, t, s):= \begin{cases}x_{0}, & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{t}{2} \\ u(2 s-t), & \frac{t}{2} \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ u(2-2 s-t), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq \frac{2-t}{2} \\ x_{0}, & \frac{2-t}{2} \leq s \leq 1,\end{cases}
$$

then $K^{\sharp}$ is continuous (by Corollary 42.6 again), and defines a pointed nullhomotopy for $u \mapsto m(u, \theta(u))$. Similarly $u \mapsto m(\theta(u), u)$ is nullhomotopic. This completes the proof.

Corollary 42.19. For any pointed space $X$, there is a contravariant functor

$$
[\square, \Omega X]_{*}: \text { hTop }_{*} \rightarrow \text { Groups. }
$$

If $Y$ is another pointed space and $[\varphi],[\psi] \in[Y, \Omega X]_{*}$ then their product is $\tilde{m}(Y)([\varphi],[\psi]):=$ $[\varphi * \psi]$.

Proof. Proposition 42.14 and Theorem 42.18 tell us that $\Omega X$ is a group object in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. Thus Theorem 41.12 tells us that $[\square, \Omega X]_{*}$ takes values in Groups, and (41.3) gives the group multiplication.

How about $H$-cogroups? These are the so-called reduced suspensions. The suspension $S X$ of a topological space $X$ is the quotient space of $X \times I$ where we identify $X \times\{0\}$ and $X \times\{1\}$ to a point. The reduced suspension is the pointed version of this:

Definition 42.20. Let ( $X, x_{0}$ ) be a pointed space. Define the reduced suspension

$$
\Sigma X:=(X \times I) /\left((X \times \partial I) \cup\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times I\right)\right) .
$$

We think of $\Sigma X$ as a pointed space, where the basepoint is the identified subset. See Figure 42.1


Figure 42.1: The suspension $S X$ and the reduced suspension $\Sigma X$.
We will write $[x, t]$ for the equivalence class of $(x, t) \in X \times I$ in $\Sigma X$. By a slighty abuse of notation we write simply $x_{0}$ instead of $\left[x_{0}, t\right]$ for the basepoint.

Theorem 42.21. Reduced suspension defines a functor $\Sigma$ : $\mathrm{hTop}_{*} \rightarrow \mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.
Proof. Once again, by Problem A.3, it suffices to show that $\Sigma$ defines a functor on $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ that respects pointed homotopies. If $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$, define $\Sigma(f): \Sigma X \rightarrow$ $\Sigma Y$ by $\Sigma(f)[x, t]:=[f(x), t]$. The fact that $\Sigma$ respects pointed homotopies is a consequence of general fact that if $f, g:\left(W, W^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Z, Z^{\prime}\right)$ are maps of pairs that are homotopic through maps of pairs, then the induced maps $\left(W / W^{\prime}, *\right) \rightarrow\left(Z / Z^{\prime}, *\right)$ are also homotopic.

We could prove directly that $\Sigma X$ is always a $H$-cogroup, but instead we will give a pleasing argument using Theorem 40.22 and Theorem 41.16.

Theorem 42.22. ( $\Sigma, \Omega$ ) form an adjoint pair on $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.

Proof. We want to define a natural bijection

$$
\Psi(X, Y):[\Sigma X, Y]_{*} \mapsto[X, \Omega Y]_{*}
$$

Let the basepoints of $X$ and $Y$ be $x_{0}$ and $y_{0}$ respectively. We start from the observation that if we restrict the (inverse) of the bijection given by the Exponential Law (Theorem 42.5):

$$
\varphi: X \rightarrow Y^{I} \quad \mapsto \quad \varphi^{b}: X \times I \rightarrow Y
$$

to those $\varphi$ such that $\varphi\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the constant loop at $y_{0}$ and $\varphi(x)(0)=y_{0}=\varphi(x)(1)$ for all $x \in X$ then $\varphi^{b}(x, 0)=\varphi^{b}(x, 1)=y_{0}=\varphi^{b}\left(x_{0}, t\right)$. In other words, if $\varphi:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow$ $\Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ is a pointed map, then $\varphi^{b}$ factors to define a map $\left(\Sigma X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$. Thus we have bijections

$$
\tilde{\Psi}(X, Y): \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {тop }_{*}}\left(\left(\Sigma X, x_{0}\right),\left(Y, y_{0}\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {Top }_{*}}\left(\left(X, x_{0}\right), \Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)\right)
$$

given by $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$ (with inverse $\varphi \mapsto \varphi^{b}$.)
Similarly a pointed homotopy $\Sigma X \times I \rightarrow Y$ determines (and is determined by) a pointed homotopy $X \times I \rightarrow \Omega Y$. Thus $\tilde{\Psi}(X, Y)$ induces a bijection on the homotopy classes. The fact that the required diagrams commute to make $\Psi$ natural is immediate from the definitions.

Our final result needs a preliminary lemma.
Lemma 42.23. Let C be a category with a terminal object and finite products. Suppose $G, G^{\prime}$ are two group objects in $C$ with multiplications $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ respectively, and suppose $h \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(G, G^{\prime}\right)$ is a morphism with the property that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h \circ m=m^{\prime} \circ(h \sqcap h) . \tag{42.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then for any object $C$ of C, the map $\operatorname{Hom}(C, h): \operatorname{Hom}(C, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(C, G^{\prime}\right)$ is a group homomorphism (note both $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C, G^{\prime}\right)$ are groups by Theorem 41.12.)

Proof. The proof is almost the same as the proof of the easy half of Theorem 41.12. Denote by $\tilde{m}(C)$ and $\tilde{m}^{\prime}(C)$ the group multiplications on $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}\left(C, G^{\prime}\right)$ respectively (as defined in (41.3).) Then if $f, g \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}(C, h)(\tilde{m}(C)(f, g)) & =\operatorname{Hom}(C, h)(m(f, g)) \\
& =h \circ m \circ(f, g) \\
& \stackrel{(\star)}{=} m^{\prime} \circ(h \circ f, h \circ g) \\
& =\tilde{m}^{\prime}(C)(h \circ f, h \circ g) \\
& =\tilde{m}^{\prime}(C)(\operatorname{Hom}(C, h)(f), \operatorname{Hom}(C, h)(g)),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $(\star)$ used the hypothesis (42.2).
Corollary 42.24. If $X$ is a pointed space then $\Sigma X$ is a cogroup object in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.

Proof. By Theorem 41.14, we need only prove that the functor $[\Sigma X, \square]_{*}$ takes values in Groups. Let $Y$ be a pointed space. By Theorem 42.22, there is a bijection $\Psi(X, Y):[\Sigma X, Y]_{*} \mapsto[X, \Omega Y]_{*}$ given by $\zeta \mapsto \zeta^{\sharp}$. By Corollary 42.19 the set $[X, \Omega Y]_{*}$ is a group, and we can use this to define a group structure on $[\Sigma X, Y]_{*}$ by

$$
\tilde{\mu}(Y)([\zeta],[\xi]):=\Psi(X, Y)^{-1}\left[\zeta^{\sharp} * \xi^{\sharp}\right] .
$$

It remains to show that if $f: Y \rightarrow Z$ is continuous then the induced map $[\Sigma X, Y]_{*} \rightarrow$ $[\Sigma X, Z]_{*}$ is a homomorphism. For this we consider the adjoint diagram:


The map $\Omega(f): \Omega Y \rightarrow \Omega Z$ satisfies the hypothesis (42.2) in Lemma 42.23, since $\Omega(f)(u * v)=(f \circ u) *(f \circ v)$ by definition. Thus Lemma 42.23 tells us that the righthand vertical map is a homomorphism. Since the horizontal maps are isomorphisms, the left-hand vertical map is also a homomorphism. The proof is complete.

REMARK 42.25. It is sometimes useful to know an explicit formula for the comultiplication $\mu: \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma X \vee \Sigma X$ (we would have needed this in order to prove Corollary 42.24 directly). The formula is:

$$
\mu([x, t]):= \begin{cases}([x, 2 t], *), & 0 \leq t \leq 1 / 2 \\ (*,[x, 2 t-1]), & 1 / 2 \leq t \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Thus $\mu$ is "pinching" the reduced suspension. See Figure 42.2. For $X=S^{n}$ this is the same as the map we called "Pinch" at the end of Lecture 20.


Figure 42.2: The comulitplication $\mu$.

## LECTURE 43

## Higher homotopy groups

In this lecture we finally get round to defining the higher homotopy groups. Let us regard $S^{n}$ as subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ in the usual way. We choose the point $*:=$ $(1,0, \ldots, 0) \in S^{n}$ for our basepoint (although we will almost always omit this form the notation.)

Definition 43.1. Given a pointed space ( $X, x_{0}$ ) and an integer $n \geq 0$, we define the $n$th homotopy group

$$
\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right):=\left[\left(S^{n}, *\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]=\left[S^{n}, X\right]_{*} .
$$

For $n=1$, this is the none other than the fundamental group - the equivalence between this definition and our original one (Definition 4.1) was shown in Problem B.5. For $n=0$, it is clear that $\pi_{0}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is the set $\pi_{0}(X)$ from Definition 3.6, where the basepoint is chosen to be the path component of $X$ containing $x_{0}$. For $n \geq 2$ one usually calls $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ a higher homotopy group. Of course, the word "group" needs justifying:

Proposition 43.2. For every pointed space $\left(X, x_{0}\right), \pi_{0}\left(X, X_{0}\right)$ is a pointed set, and for every $n \geq 1, \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a group.

Proof. Problem Q. 7 tells us that $S^{n}$ is a cogroup object in hTop ${ }_{*}$ for all $n \geq 1$. Thus Theorem 41.14 tells us that $\left[S^{n}, \square\right]_{*}$ takes values in Groups for all $n \geq 1$.

In fact, for $n \geq 2$ the group $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is always abelian, as we will shortly prove. In the following, whenever possible we will start to omit the basepoint from our notation and just write $\pi_{n}(X)$ instead of $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. As with all our other "basepointomitting" conventions, this is somewhat imprecise. However as we will see below, if $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ lie in the same path component of $X$ then there is always an isomorphism $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{1}\right)$.

Proposition 43.3. Suppose $X$ is an $H$-cogroup and $Y$ is $H$-group. Then the two group operations on $[X, Y]_{*}$ (one coming from the comultiplication $\mu$ on $X$ and one coming from the multiplication $m$ on $Y$ ) coincide.

Proof. Let $\xi_{X}: X \vee X \hookrightarrow X \times X$ denote the inclusion, where as usual we think of $X \vee X$ as the subspace $\left(X \times\left\{x_{0}\right\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times X\right)$ of $X \times X$, and let $\xi_{Y}$ be defined similarly. Let $f, g:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be pointed maps. By Problem Q. 6 the following
diagram commutes up to homotopy:


The group multiplication determined by $m$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[f] *_{m}[g] } & :=[m \circ(f, g)] \\
& =\left[m \circ(f \times g) \circ \Delta_{X}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

(using part (1) of Problem Q.5). The group multiplication determined by $\mu$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[f] *_{\mu}[g] } & :=[(f, g) \circ \mu] \\
& =\left[\nabla_{Y} \circ(f \vee g) \circ \mu\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

(using part (2) of Problem Q.5). Thus commutativity of the diagram above (up to homotopy) tells us that

$$
[f] *_{m}[g]=[f] *_{\mu}[g]
$$

as required.
We can now prove:
Theorem 43.4. If $X$ is a pointed space and $1 \leq k<n$, one has

$$
\pi_{n}(X) \cong \pi_{n-k}\left(\Omega^{k} X\right)
$$

where $\Omega^{k}$ is the composition of $\Omega$ with itself $k$ times.
Proof. By Problem Q. 7 and Theorem 42.22 and Proposition 43.3, applied repeatedly, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{n}(X) & =\left[S^{n}, X\right]_{*} \\
& =\left[\Sigma^{n} S^{0}, X\right]_{*} \\
& =\left[\Sigma^{n-k} S^{0}, \Omega^{k} X\right]_{*} \\
& =\left[S^{n-k}, \Omega^{k} X\right]_{*} \\
& =\pi_{n-k}\left(\Omega^{k} X\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 43.5. If $n \geq 2$ then $\pi_{n}(X)$ is always abelian.
Proof. By Theorem 43.4 for $n \geq 2$ we have $\pi_{n}(X) \cong \pi_{1}\left(\Omega^{n-1} X\right)$. Since $\Omega^{n-1} X$ is an $H$-group by Theorem 42.18, it is also in particular an $H$-space (Remark 42.15). Thus by Problem C.5, $\pi_{1}\left(\Omega^{n-1} X\right)$ is abelian.

Let us now give another proof of Corollary 43.5 that does not use Problem C.5. This starts from the following statement.

The following easy piece of algebra is on Problem Sheet R.
Lemma 43.6. Let $A$ be a set, and assume $A$ is equipped with two binary operations * and $\circ$ such that:

1. $*$ and $\circ$ have a common two-sided unit,
2. $*$ and $\circ$ are mutually distributive, that is,

$$
(a * b) \circ(c * d)=(a \circ c) *(b \circ d), \quad \forall a, b, c, d \in A
$$

Then $*$ and $\circ$ coincide and each is commutative and associative.
This gives us the desired second proof of Corollary 43.5:
Second proof of Corollary 43.5. As in the proof of Theorem 43.4, we have

$$
\pi_{n}(X) \cong\left[\Sigma S^{n-2}, \Omega X\right]_{*}
$$

for $n \geq 2$. The proof of Proposition 43.3 tells us the that the hypotheses of Lemma 43.6 are satisfied. Indeed, the constant map is the desired two-sided identity, and to check mutual distributivity we observe: ${ }^{1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left([f] *_{m}[g]\right) *_{\mu}\left([h] *_{m}[k]\right) & =\left[m \circ(f \times g) \circ \Delta_{X}\right] *_{\mu}\left[m \circ(h \times k) \circ \Delta_{X}\right] \\
& =\left[\nabla_{Y} \circ\left(m \circ(f \times g) \circ \Delta_{X}\right) \vee\left(m \circ(h \times k) \circ \Delta_{X}\right) \circ \mu\right] \\
& =\left[m \circ\left(\left(m \circ(f \times g) \circ \Delta_{X}\right) \times\left(m \circ(h \times k) \circ \Delta_{X}\right)\right) \circ \Delta_{X}\right] \\
& =\left[m \circ\left(\left(\nabla_{Y} \circ(f \vee g) \circ \mu\right) \times\left(\nabla_{Y} \circ(h \vee k) \circ \mu\right)\right) \circ \Delta_{X}\right] \\
& =\left[\nabla_{Y} \circ(f \vee g) \circ \mu\right] *_{m}\left[\nabla_{Y} \circ(h \vee k) \circ \mu\right] \\
& =\left([f] *_{\mu}[g]\right) *_{m}\left([h] *_{\mu}[k]\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\pi_{n}$ is a functor $\mathrm{hTop} \boldsymbol{p}_{*} \rightarrow$ Sets for $n=0, \mathrm{hTop} *$ Groups for $n=1$, and $\mathrm{hTop}_{*} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ for $n \geq 2$. Explicitly, if $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ is a pointed map, then

$$
\pi_{n}(f): \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(Y, y_{0}\right), \quad[u] \mapsto[f \circ u] .
$$

We will see that these functors satisfy pointed versions of most of the EilenbergSteenrod axioms (the homotopy axiom is immediate from the fact that we have defined these functors on $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ ). We will prove the dimension axiom below. Next lecture we will prove the long exact sequence axiom. The excision axiom does not hold in general (in Lecture 46 we will discuss the Blakers-Massey Theorem, which gives conditions for excision to hold.)

Proposition 43.7 (The dimension axiom). If $X$ is a one point space then $\pi_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n \geq 0$.

[^87]Proof. There is only one function $S^{n} \rightarrow *$, and thus $\left[S^{n}, *\right]_{*}$ only has one element.
Let us now discuss a more straightforward approach to defining the higher homotopy groups. This approach is less conceptually satisfying than the one we gave above, but it has the advantage of giving us explicit formulae, which will be helpful in further computations. Let us denote by $I^{n}$ the unit cube $[0,1]^{n}$ and by $\partial I^{n}$ its boundary:

$$
\partial I^{n}=\left\{\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \in I^{n} \mid \text { at least one } s_{i} \text { is equal to } 0 \text { or } 1\right\} .
$$

The following result should now be straightforward for all of you.
Lemma 43.8. If $n \geq 1$ then there exists a homeomorphism $\tau: I^{n} / \partial I^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$. If $n \geq 2$ then one can build a homeomorphism $\sigma: I^{n} / \partial I^{n} \rightarrow \Sigma S^{n-1}$ from $\tau$ via

$$
\sigma:\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right] \mapsto\left[\tau\left[s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}\right], s_{n}\right] .
$$

A pointed function $u:\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ induces a pointed map $\bar{u}: I^{n} / \partial I^{n} \rightarrow$ $X$. If two such maps $u, v$ are homotopic rel $\partial I^{n}$ then there is a pointed homotopy $\bar{u} \simeq \bar{v}$. It follows that there is a bijection

$$
J:\left[\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right] \rightarrow\left[\left(\Sigma S^{n-1}, *\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]=\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right), \quad J[u]:=\left[\bar{u} \circ \sigma^{-1}\right] .
$$

This allows us to endow $\left[\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]$ with a group structure, and-more importantlyit gives us an explicit formula for the group addition:

$$
(u+v)\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right):= \begin{cases}u\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}\right), & 0 \leq s_{n} \leq 1 / 2 \\ v\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}-1\right), & 1 / 2 \leq s_{n} \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Of course, for $n=1$ this is just the usual concatenation of paths. We use the notation $u+v$ instead of $u * v$ for $n \geq 2$ to emphasise that this is an abelian group operation. The formula also gives the a third "picture proof" (Figure 43.1) that $\pi_{n}(X)$ is abelian for $n \geq 2$, where the shaded regions are places where the homotopy is constant.

We now aim to prove the aforementioned statement that if $X$ is path connected then $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{1}\right)$ for any two points $x_{0}, x_{1} \in X$. The main result of today's lecture is the following theorem. Recall $\Pi(X)$ denotes the fundamental groupoid of $X$, whose objects are the points of $x$ and whose morphisms are the path classes (cf. Proposition 3.18).

Theorem 43.9. Let $X$ be path connected. Then for all $n \geq 1$, there is a covariant functor $T: \Pi(X) \rightarrow$ Groups.

Remark 43.10. In general a functor $T: \Pi(X) \rightarrow$ Groups is said to be a local system of groups on $X$. (Similarly a functor $T: \Pi(X) \rightarrow$ Rings is a local system of rings.) Thus Theorem 43.9 says that the homotopy groups form a local system. Note also that in the case $n=1$ the theorem is immediate from the definition, since $\pi_{1}(X, x)$ is to the morphism set $\operatorname{Hom}_{\Pi(X)}(x, x)$.


Figure 43.1: Proof that $\pi_{2}$ is abelian.

The proof of Theorem 43.9 will take some time. We begin with a collection of preliminary results. In order to keep the notation transparent, for the rest of this lecture the letters $u, v$ represent elements of $\pi_{n}$ and the letters $w, z$ represent elements of $\pi_{1}$ (the reason for this distinction will shortly become clear).

Definition 43.11. Suppose $U: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow X$ is a free homotopy. Let $0=(0,0, \ldots, 0)$ denote the origin in $I^{n}$. Then $w(t):=U(0, t)$ is a path $I \rightarrow X$. We say that $U$ is a homotopy along $w$. If in addition $U(x, t)=w(t)$ for all $x \in \partial I^{n}$ then we say that $U$ is a level homotopy along $w$. Thus $U$ is a homotopy relative to $\partial I^{n}$ if and only if $U$ is a level homotopy along the constant path at $U(0,0)$.

Definition 43.12. Define a stereographic retraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
r: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow\left(I^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\partial I^{n} \times I\right) \tag{43.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as follows. Think of $I^{n} \times I$ as being embedded in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, and let $N$ denote the "north star", which for us will be the point $N=(1 / 2, \ldots, 1 / 2,2) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$. Now if $y \in I^{n} \times I$, consider the line from $N$ to $y$. This intersects $\left(I^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\partial I^{n} \times I\right)$ in a unique point, which we call $r(y)$.

For $n=2$ this is easy to picture - the right-hand side is a "box" without a lid. Think of the north star as floating above the box and illuminating the contents. Given a point $y$ in the cube, the light beam from the north star intersects the box in a unique point, and this is $r(y)$.

Let us also denote by $R$ the analogously defined stereographic retraction

$$
\begin{equation*}
R: I^{n} \times I \times I \rightarrow\left(I^{n} \times I \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\partial I^{n} \times I \times I\right), \tag{43.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we multiply both sides by another factor $I$.
To keep the notation concise, let us temporarily denote by $P\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ the space of all continuous maps $u:\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. If $w$ is a path in $X$ from $x_{0}$ to $x_{1}$ and $u$ is an element of $P\left(X, x_{0}\right)$, then we can "glue" them together to form an element of $P\left(X, x_{1}\right)$ as follows:

1. Firstly define $U^{\prime}:\left(I^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\partial I^{n} \times I\right) \rightarrow X$ by setting

$$
U^{\prime}(x, 0)=u(x), \quad x \in I^{n}
$$

and

$$
U^{\prime}(x, s)=w(s), \quad(x, s) \in \partial I^{n} \times I
$$

This does indeed define a continuous function on $I^{n} \times I \rightarrow\left(I^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(\partial I^{n} \times I\right)$ since $u \in P\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. (Here we are using the Gluing Lemma 2.2.)
2. Now set $U:=U^{\prime} \circ r: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow X$. Then $U$ is a level homotopy along $w$ with $U(\cdot, 0)=u$.
3. Finally define $t_{w}(u):=U(\cdot, 1)$. Then $t_{w}(u)$ belongs to $P\left(X, x_{1}\right)$, and we obtain a map

$$
t_{w}: P\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow P\left(X, x_{1}\right), \quad u \mapsto t_{w}(u) .
$$

Note that (by construction) $U$ is a level homotopy $u \simeq t_{w}(u)$ along $w$.
The following lemma explains why this construction is useful. It tells us that a level homotopy along a contractible loop can be changed into a relative homotopy (i.e. a level homotopy along a constant loop.)

Lemma 43.13. Suppose $w$ is a loop in $X$ based at $x_{0}$ which is nullhomotopic rel $\partial I$ (thus $[w]=0 \in \pi_{1}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$.) Suppose $U: u \simeq v$ is a level homotopy along $w$. Then $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I^{n}$.

Proof. Let $W: I \times I \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy rel $\partial I$ from $w$ to the constant loop at $x_{0}$. We glue $W$ and $U$ together to define a function

$$
V^{\prime}:\left(I^{n} \times I \times\{0\}\right) \times\left(\partial I^{n} \times I \times I\right) \rightarrow X
$$

by

$$
V^{\prime}(x, t, 0)=U(x, t), \quad(x, t) \in I^{n} \times I,
$$

and

$$
V^{\prime}(x, t, s)=W(t, s), \quad(x, t, s) \in \partial I^{n} \times I \times I
$$

The function $V^{\prime}$ is continuous because the two definitions agree on the overlap $\partial I^{n} \times$ $I \times\{0\}$, since $U$ is a level homotopy. Now set $V:=V^{\prime} \circ R$, where $R$ is the stereographic retraction from (43.2). We now build from $V$ a new homotopy $Q$ by setting:

$$
Q(x, t):= \begin{cases}V(x, 0,4 t), & 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{4} \\ V(x, 4 t-1,1), & \frac{1}{4} \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ V(x, 1,2-2 t), & \frac{1}{2} \leq t \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

Again, $Q$ is continuous by the Gluing Lemma 2.2. Since

$$
Q(x, 0)=V(x, 0,0)=U(x, 0)=u(x), \quad Q(x, 1)=V(x, 1,0)=U(x, 1)=v(x)
$$

and $Q(x, t)=x_{0}$ for all $(x, t) \in \partial I^{n} \times I$, the homotopy $Q$ shows that $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I^{n}$, which is what we wanted to prove.

Corollary 43.14. Suppose $w$ and $z$ are two paths in $X$ from $x_{0}$ to $x_{1}$ and $V: u \simeq v$ is a level homotopy along $z$. If $w \simeq z$ rel $\partial I$ then $t_{w}(u) \simeq v$ rel $\partial I^{n}$.

Proof. Let $U: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow X$ be the homotopy that defines $t_{w}(u)$ (i.e. $U=U^{\prime} \circ r$ as specified in (2) above.) Concatenate $U$ and $V$ in the normal way:

$$
(x, t) \mapsto \begin{cases}U(x, 1-2 t), & 0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ V(x, 2 t-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq t \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

This defines a homotopy $t_{w}(u) \simeq v$ which moreover is a level homotopy along $\bar{w} * z$. Since by assumption $\bar{w} * z$ is nullhomotopic, Lemma 43.13 tells us that $t_{w}(u) \simeq v$ rel $\partial I^{n}$.

We now prove Theorem 43.9.
Proof of Theorem 43.9. Define $T$ on objects by $T(x):=\pi_{n}(X, x)$. Define $T$ on morphisms by setting

$$
T[w]:=\left[t_{w}(u)\right]
$$

There are several things we need to check in order to complete the proof, and we will carry out the argument in three steps.

1. We first show that if $[w]$ is a path class in $X$ from $x_{0}$ to $x_{1}$ and $[u] \in \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ then $\left[t_{w}(u)\right]$ is a well-defined element of $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{1}\right)$. Corollary 43.14 tells us that $\left[t_{w}(u)\right]$ depends only on the path class $[w]$ of $w$. To see that $\left[t_{w}(u)\right]$ only depends on the homotopy class $[u]$ of $u$, we argue as follows. Suppose $U: u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I^{n}$, that is, $U$ is a level homotopy along the constant path $e_{0}$ based at $x_{0}$. Let $V$ be the homotopy defining $t_{w}(v)$ (thus $V$ is a level homotopy $v \simeq t_{w}(v)$ ). Concatenating $U$ and $V$ together gives a level homotopy $u \simeq t_{w}(v)$ along $e_{0} * w$. Since $e_{0} * w \simeq w$ rel $\partial I$, Corollary 43.14 tells us that $t_{w}(u) \simeq t_{w}(v)$ rel $\partial I^{n}$.
2. We now prove that $T$ does indeed take values in Groups. For this it suffices to show that if $w$ is a path from $x_{0}$ to $x_{1}$ and $u, v \in P\left(X, x_{0}\right)$, then (as elements of $P\left(X, x_{1}\right)$, one has:

$$
t_{w}(u * v) \simeq t_{w}(u) * t_{w}(v) \quad \text { rel } \partial I^{n}
$$

For this let $U: u \simeq t_{w}(u)$ and $V: v \simeq t_{w}(v)$ denote the level homotopies that define $t_{w}(u)$ and $t_{w}(v)$ respectively. Then define $Q: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow X$ by

$$
Q\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}, s\right):= \begin{cases}U\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}, s\right), & 0 \leq s_{n} \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ V\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}-1, s\right), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s_{n} \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

If $s_{n}=\frac{1}{2}$ then

$$
\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}\right)=\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 1\right) \in \partial I^{n}
$$

and

$$
\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 2 s_{n}-1\right)=\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n-1}, 0\right) \in \partial I^{n}
$$

and hence both $U$ and $V$ give the same value for all $s \in I$, namely $w(s)$. Thus $Q$ is continuous, and so $Q$ is a level homotopy $u * v \simeq t_{w}(u) * t_{w}(v)$ along $w$. By Corollary 43.14 (applied with $z:=w$ ) we obtain $t_{w}(u * v) \simeq t_{w}(u) * t_{w}(v)$ rel $\partial I^{n}$ as required.
3. Finally let us check that $T$ really is a functor. If $e_{0}$ is the constant path at $x_{0}$ then it is clear that $T\left(e_{0}\right)$ acts as the identity on $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$, so we need only check that if $w$ and $z$ are paths in $X$ with $w(1)=z(0)$ then $^{2}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
T([w * z])=T[z] \circ T[w] \tag{43.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see this, take $u \in P(X, w(0))$. Then there are level homotopies $u \simeq t_{w}(u)$ along $w$ and $t_{w}(u) \simeq t_{z}\left(t_{w}(u)\right)$ along $z$, and concatenating gives us a level homotopy $u \simeq$ $t_{z}\left(t_{w}(u)\right)$ along $u$. Applying Corollary 43.14 again, we obtain $t_{w * z}(u) \simeq t_{z}\left(t_{w}(u)\right)$ rel $\partial I^{n}$, which is what we wanted to prove.

Theorem 43.9 has several formal consequences. The first is the following version of Proposition 4.13.

Proposition 43.15. Suppose $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ are continuous maps and $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ is a free homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$. Choose $x_{0} \in X$ and let $w$ denote the path in $Y$ given by $w(t)=F\left(x_{0}, t\right)$. Then there is a commutative diagram:


Proof. If $u \in P\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ then define $U: I^{n} \times I \rightarrow Y$ by $U(x, t):=F(u(x), t)$. Then $U$ is a level homotopy along $w$ from $f_{0} \circ u$ to $f_{1} \circ u$. By Corollary 43.14 again, we have $t_{w}\left(f_{0} \circ u\right) \simeq f_{1} \circ u$ rel $\partial I^{n}$, which gives commutativity of the diagram.

By arguing as in the proof of Proposition 4.15 we then obtain:
Proposition 43.16. Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a homotopy equivalence. Then for any $x_{0} \in X$ the induced map $\pi_{n}(f): \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(Y, f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$ is an isomorphism.

And then as in Corollary 4.16 we have:
Corollary 43.17. Suppose $X$ has the same homotopy type as a path connected space $Y$. Then for all $x_{0} \in X$ and $y_{0} \in Y$ one has $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$. If $X$ is a contractible space then $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)=\{0\}$ for all $x_{0} \in X$.

We conclude this lecture by discussing the homotopy groups of spheres.
Theorem 43.18 (Homotopy groups of spheres).

1. One has $\pi_{n}\left(S^{1}\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 2$.
2. If $0<k<n$ then $\pi_{k}\left(S^{n}\right)=0$.
3. For all $n \geq 1$ one has $\pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$.
[^88]Proof (Sketch). The first statement follows from the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for fibrations that we will prove in Lecture 45 (specifically, Corollary 45.18.) Indeed, there is a fibration $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^{1}$. Since both $\mathbb{R}$ and every path connected component of $\mathbb{Z}$ is contractible, Corollary 43.17 tells us that $\pi_{n}(\mathbb{R})=\pi_{n}(\mathbb{Z})=0$ for all $n \geq 1$. Thus the long exact sequence tells us that $\pi_{n}\left(S^{1}\right)=0$ for all $n \geq 2$.

The second statement follows from the fact that if $0<k<n$ then any continuous map $f: S^{k} \rightarrow S^{n}$ is nullhomotopic relative to the basepoints. This follows from the Cellular Approximation Theorem that we will discuss in Lecture 46, see Corollary 46.14.

The fact that $\pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$ follows immediately from the fact that $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \neq 0$. Indeed, since $H_{n}$ is a functor, the latter tells us that the identity map on $S^{n}$ is not freely nullhomotopic to a constant. Thus the identity map is also not relatively homotopic to a constant, and thus $\left[\mathrm{id}_{S^{n}}\right] \neq 0 \in\left[S^{n}, S^{n}\right]_{*}$.

Remark 43.19. In fact, as we will see in Lecture 46, one actually always has

$$
\pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}, \quad \forall n \geq 1
$$

It is however an open problem to compute the homotopy groups of spheres in general- $S^{1}$ is the only sphere for which all the homotopy groups are known. In Lecture 45 we will prove give a few more "ad hoc" computations: for instance, $\pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. But the groups can be more complicated! Indeed, one has (!!)

$$
\pi_{14}\left(S^{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_{120}, \quad \text { and } \quad \pi_{15}\left(S^{4}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{84}
$$

## LECTURE 44

## The Puppe Sequence

In this lecture we prove the analogue of the long exact sequence axiom for homotopy groups. This requires us to define the relative homotopy groups $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ for $X^{\prime} \subset X$ (the standard homotopy groups correspond to $X^{\prime}$ being a single point $x_{0}$ ). The long exact sequence axiom will take the following form: if $X^{\prime} \subset X$ and $x_{0} \in X^{\prime}$ then the pointed inclusion $\left(X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ gives rise to an long exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

where we abbreviate (as usual) $\pi_{n}(X)=\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ and $\pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)=\pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right)$.
A first obstacle to this making sense is that for small $n, \pi_{n}(X)$ and $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ are not groups (just pointed sets) and thus we need to redefine what exactness actually means in this setting.

Definition 44.1. A sequence of pointed sets and pointed functions

$$
(X, x) \xrightarrow{f}(Y, y) \xrightarrow{g}(Z, z)
$$

is said to be exact in Sets* if

$$
\operatorname{im} f=\operatorname{ker} g:=g^{-1}(z)
$$

If the pointed sets are groups, and the basepoints are chosen to be the identity elements, then this recovers the standard notion of exactness. Note that here the choice of basepoint is crucial, since "ker $g$ " depends on the basepoint.

We now use Definition 44.1 to define what it means for a sequence to be exact in hTop ${ }^{*}$.

Definition 44.2. Let

$$
\cdots \rightarrow X_{n+1} \rightarrow X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

be a sequence of pointed spaces and pointed maps. We say this sequence is exact in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ if for every pointed space $Y$ the induced sequence of pointed homotopy classes:

$$
\cdots\left[Y, X_{n+1}\right]_{*} \rightarrow\left[Y, X_{n}\right]_{*} \rightarrow\left[Y, X_{n-1}\right]_{*} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is exact in Sets $_{*}$. Here the basepoint of $\left[Y, X_{n}\right]_{*}$ is the pointed homotopy class of the constant map that sends all of $Y$ to the basepoint of $X_{n}$.

Definition 44.3. Let $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a pointed map. The mapping fibre of $f$ is the pointed space

$$
M f:=\left\{(x, w) \in X \times Y^{I} \mid w(0)=y_{0}, w(1)=f(x)\right\},
$$

where the basepoint is $\varepsilon_{0}:=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}\right)$, where $e_{y_{0}}$ is the constant path at $y_{0}$.
From a categorical point of view, $M f$ is the pullback in $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ of the diagram

where $\mathrm{ev}_{1}(w):=w(1)$. We now define a collection of related maps.

1. There is an injection

$$
\ell_{1}: \Omega Y \rightarrow M f, \quad \ell_{1}(w)=\left(x_{0}, w\right) .
$$

2. There is also a projection

$$
f_{1}: M f \rightarrow X, \quad f_{1}(x, w):=x .
$$

Calling this projection " $f_{1}$ " may appear strange at first, but it will shortly seem to be convenient.
3. We can iterate the construction of $M f$ and define

$$
M f_{1}:=\left\{(x, w, z) \in M f \times X^{I} \mid z(0)=x_{0}, z(1)=f_{1}(x, w)=x\right\}
$$

This is again a pointed space, where the basepoint is $\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}\right)$. There is another injection

$$
\ell_{2}: \Omega Y \rightarrow M f_{1}, \quad \ell_{2}(w)=\left(x_{0}, w, e_{x_{0}}\right) .
$$

4. There is another projection

$$
f_{2}: M f_{1} \rightarrow M f, \quad f_{2}(x, w, z)=(x, w)
$$

5. We can then iterate a third time to form

$$
M f_{2}:=\left\{(x, w, z, \zeta) \in M f_{1} \times(M f)^{I} \mid \zeta(0)=\varepsilon_{0}, \zeta(1)=f_{2}(x, w, z)=(x, w)\right\}
$$

which is a pointed space with basepoint $\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}, \varepsilon_{0}\right)$. There is an third injection

$$
\ell_{3}: \Omega X \rightarrow M f_{2}, \quad \ell_{3}(z)=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, z, \varepsilon_{0}\right),
$$

where $\varepsilon_{0}$ is the basepoint of $M f$. (Warning: the domain of $\ell_{3}$ is different to the domain of $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ !)
6. There is another projection

$$
f_{3}: M f_{2} \rightarrow M f_{1}, \quad f_{3}(x, w, z, \zeta)=(x, w, z) .
$$

7. We now iterate a fourth time... Only joking, we could keep going indefinitely, but three iterations will suffice for the time being.
These maps fit together nicely to build the following commutative diagram in $\mathrm{h} \mathrm{Top}_{*}$.
Proposition 44.4. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a pointed map. Then the following diagram is commutative in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ :

where the map $\theta: \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega X$ appearing on the left-most vertical arrow is the inver$\operatorname{sion} \theta(z)=\bar{z}$.

Proof. I leave it up to you to check that the two squares on the right commute. The second square actually commutes in $\mathrm{Top}_{*}$ (and thus also in hTop ${ }_{*}$ ):

$$
f_{2} \circ \ell_{2}(w)=f_{2}\left(x_{0}, w, e_{x_{0}}\right)=\left(x_{0}, w\right)=\ell_{1}(w) .
$$

The left-most square only commutes up to homotopy. Indeed, if $z \in \Omega X$ then going clockwise,

$$
\ell_{2} \circ \Omega(f)(z)=\ell_{2}(f \circ z)=\left(x_{0}, f \circ z, e_{x_{0}}\right) .
$$

Going anti-clockwise,

$$
f_{3} \circ \ell_{3} \circ \theta(z)=f_{3} \circ \ell_{3}(\bar{z})=f_{3}\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, \bar{z}, \varepsilon_{0}\right)=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, \bar{z}\right) .
$$

To define a homotopy between the two, let us introduce the following notation: if $u: I \rightarrow Z$ is a path and $t \in I$, let $u_{t}: I \rightarrow Z$ denote the path $u_{t}(s)=u(s t)$, and define $\bar{u}_{t}$ to be the path ${ }^{1} \bar{u}_{t}(s):=\bar{u}(s t)=u(1-s t)$.

Now define $F: \Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right) \times I \rightarrow M f_{1}$ by

$$
F(z, t):=\left(z(1-t), f \circ z_{1-t}, \bar{z}_{t}\right) .
$$

Then $F$ is continuous and $F(z, 0)=\left(x_{0}, f \circ z, e_{x_{0}}\right)$ and $F(z, 1)=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, z\right)$, so that $\ell_{2} \circ \Omega(f) \simeq f_{3} \circ \ell_{3} \circ \theta$. Finally, $F\left(e_{x_{0}}, t\right)=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}\right)$ for all $t \in I$, and hence $F$ is a homotopy relative to the basepoint $e_{x_{0}} \in \Omega\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. This completes the proof.

Proposition 44.5. The two injections $\ell_{2}$ and $\ell_{3}$ induce isomorphisms $\left[\ell_{2}\right]$ and $\left[\ell_{3}\right]$ in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.

[^89]Proof. We define a continuous map $F: M f_{1} \times I \rightarrow M f_{1}$ such that
$F(x, w, z, 0)=(x, w, z), \quad F(x, w, z, 1) \in \ell_{2}\left(\Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)\right), \quad F\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}, t\right)=\left(x_{0}, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}\right)$.
In fact, we will construct $F$ as a concatenation $F_{1} * F_{2}$ of two other homotopies. For this, first let $F_{1}$ denote a homotopy that begins with $(x, w, z)$ and ends at $(x, w *$ $\left.e_{f(x)}, z\right)$. Next, let $F_{2}$ denote the homotopy given by

$$
F_{2}(x, w, z, t)=\left(z(1-t), w *\left(f \circ \bar{z}_{t}\right), z_{1-t}\right),
$$

where we are using the same notation as in the proof of Proposition 44.4, i.e. $z_{1-t}(s):=z(s(1-t))$. Then $F_{2}(x, w, z, 0)=\left(x_{0}, w * e_{f(x)}, z\right)$, so that the composition $F_{1} * F_{2}$ is well-defined. Moreover

$$
F_{2}(x, w, z, 1)=\left(x_{0}, w *(f \circ \bar{z}), e_{y_{0}}\right) \in \ell_{2}\left(\Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)\right) .
$$

Finally, $\left(x, e_{y_{0}}, e_{x_{0}}\right)$ really is fixed throughout the entire homotopy, since $e_{y_{0}} * e_{y_{0}}=$ $e_{y_{0}}$.

The homotopy $F$ exhibits $\ell_{2}\left(\Omega\left(Y, y_{0}\right)\right)$ as a pointed deformation retract of $M f_{1}$. Thus $\left[\ell_{2}\right]$ is an isomorphism in $\mathrm{hTop}{ }_{*}$. The proof that $\left[\ell_{3}\right]$ is an isomorphism is similar, and I will leave this as an exercise.

The next result gives us a way of proving exactness in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.
Lemma 44.6. Let $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a pointed map, and let $\mathrm{ev}_{1}: M f \rightarrow Y$ denote the map $\mathrm{ev}_{1}(x, w)=w(1)$. Then $f$ is nullhomotopic rel $x_{0}$ if and only if there exists a pointed map $k: X \rightarrow M f$ such that $f=\mathrm{ev}_{1} \circ k$ :


Proof. Assume there exists a continuous map $F: X \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $F(x, 0)=y_{0}$, $F(x, 1)=f(x)$ and $F\left(x_{0}, t\right)=y_{0}$ for all $t$. Let $F_{x}: I \rightarrow Y$ be the map $F_{x}(t)=F(x, t)$. Then define $k: X \rightarrow M f$ by

$$
k(x)=\left(x, F_{x}\right) .
$$

This $k$ has the desired properties.
Conversely, if such a pointed map $k$ exists, then writing $k(x)=\left(k_{1}(x), w_{x}\right)$, one necessarily has $w_{x_{0}}=e_{y_{0}}$, and commutativity forces $w_{x}(1)=f(x)$ for each $x$. Our desired pointed homotopy is then given by

$$
F: X \times I \rightarrow Y, \quad F(x, t)=w_{x}(t) .
$$

Lemma 44.7. Let $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a pointed map. Then the sequence

$$
M f \xrightarrow{f_{1}} X \xrightarrow{f} Y
$$

is exact in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.

Proof. Let $Z$ be any pointed space, and consider the induced maps in Sets ${ }_{*}$ :

$$
[Z, M f]_{*} \xrightarrow{\alpha}[Z, X]_{*} \xrightarrow{\beta}[Z, Y]_{*}
$$

Here $\alpha$ sends a class $[g] \in[Z, M f]_{*}$ to the class $\left[f_{1} \circ g\right] \in[Z, X]_{*}$, and $\beta$ is defined similarly. We take the basepoint in $[Z, Y]_{*}$ to be the class of the constant map $Z \rightarrow y_{0}$. Thus the kernel of $\beta$ consists of all (homotopy classes) of maps $h: Z \rightarrow X$ such that $f \circ h$ is pointedly nullhomotopic. To prove exactness, we need to show:

- $\operatorname{im} \alpha \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \beta$ : Define a map $k: M f \rightarrow M\left(f \circ f_{1}\right)$ by setting $k(x, w)=(x, w, w)$. (Here $M\left(f \circ f_{1}\right) \subset M f \times Y^{I}$ as $\left.f \circ f_{1}: M f \rightarrow Y\right)$. With ev $_{1}$ defined as in Lemma 44.6 (but as a map $M\left(f \circ f_{1}\right) \rightarrow Y$ instead), it is clear this diagram commutes:


Thus $f \circ f_{1}$ is pointedly nullhomotopic. It follows that $f \circ f_{1} \circ g$ is also pointedly nullhomotopic for every $[g] \in[Z, M f]_{*}$.

- $\operatorname{ker} \beta \subseteq \operatorname{im} \alpha$ : Suppose $[h] \in[Z, X]_{*}$ and suppose $[h] \in \operatorname{ker} \beta$. Thus there exists $F: f \circ h \simeq c$ rel $x_{0}$, where $c$ is the constant map at $y_{0}$. Define $F_{z}: I \rightarrow Y$ by $F_{z}(t)=F(z, t)$, and then define, as in the proof of Lemma 44.6, $k: Z \rightarrow M(f \circ h)$ by $k(z)=\left(z, F_{z}\right)$, so that the following commutes:


Now by definition, $M(f \circ h) \subset Z \times Y^{I}$, and the map $h \times \operatorname{id}_{Y^{I}}: Z \times Y^{I} \rightarrow Z \times Y^{I}$ restricts to define a map $\tilde{h}: M(f \circ h) \rightarrow M f$. Thus $\tilde{h} \circ k: Z \rightarrow M f$, and since $f_{1} \circ \tilde{h} \circ k=h$, we have that $[h]=\alpha[\tilde{h} \circ k]$.

Corollary 44.8. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a pointed map then the sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow M f_{2} \xrightarrow{f_{3}} M f_{1} \xrightarrow{f_{2}} M f \xrightarrow{f_{1}} X \xrightarrow{f} Y
$$

is exact in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.
Proof. Iterate Lemma 44.7.
Corollary 44.9. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a pointed map then the sequence

$$
\Omega X \xrightarrow{\Omega(f)} \Omega Y \xrightarrow{\ell_{1}} M f \xrightarrow{f_{1}} X \xrightarrow{f} Y
$$

is exact in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$.

Proof. We apply $[Z, \square]_{*}$ to the commutative diagram from Proposition 44.4 to form a new commutative square:


The bottom row is exact in Sets S $_{*}$ by Corollary 44.8. Since the vertical maps are isomorphisms by Proposition 44.5, it follows that the top row is also exact in Sets ${ }_{*}$.

The next result tells us that $\Omega$ is an exact functor on $\mathrm{hTop}{ }_{*}$.
Proposition 44.10. If $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$ is an exact sequence in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ then so is the "looped" sequence $\Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y \rightarrow \Omega Z$.

Proof. We use the fact that $(\Sigma, \Omega)$ form an adjoint pair. For every pointed space $W$, there is a commutative diagram in which the vertical maps are pointed bijections:


The top row is exact in Sets S $_{*}$ by hypothesis. Thus the bottom row is exact in Sets ${ }_{*}$ too. Since $W$ was arbitrary, it follows that $\Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y \rightarrow \Omega Z$ is exact in h Top $_{*}$.

Putting what we have done so far together gives the following theorem, which is the main result of today's lecture.

Theorem 44.11 (The Puppe Sequence). If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a pointed map then there is a long exact sequence in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ of the form

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \Omega^{n}(M f) \xrightarrow{\Omega^{n}\left(f_{1}\right)} \Omega^{n} X \xrightarrow{\Omega^{n}(f)} \Omega^{n} Y \xrightarrow{\Omega^{n-1}\left(\ell_{1}\right)} \Omega^{n-1}(M f) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

which ends with $M f \xrightarrow{f_{1}} X \xrightarrow{f} Y$.
Proof. By Corollary 44.9 the sequence

$$
\Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y \rightarrow M f \rightarrow X \rightarrow Y
$$

is exact in $\mathrm{h} \mathrm{Top}_{*}$, and by Proposition 44.10 the looped sequence

$$
\Omega^{2} X \rightarrow \Omega^{2} Y \rightarrow \Omega(M f) \rightarrow \Omega X \rightarrow \Omega Y
$$

is also exact in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. Since these sequences overlap, we may splice them together. An inductive argument completes the proof.

Remark 44.12. It will not surprise you to learn that there is a dual formulation of this result. We won't need it, so I won't go over the proofs, but let me summarise the ideas. Firstly, a sequence of pointed spaces and pointed maps

$$
\cdots \rightarrow X_{n+1} \rightarrow X_{n} \rightarrow X_{n-1} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

is said to be coexact in hTop * if for any pointed space $Z$, the reversed sequence

$$
\cdots \leftarrow\left[X_{n+1}, Z\right]_{*} \leftarrow\left[X_{n}, Z\right]_{*} \leftarrow\left[X_{n-1}, Z\right]_{*} \leftarrow \cdots
$$

is exact in Sets ${ }_{*}$. Given $f: X \rightarrow Y$, define the ${ }^{2}$ mapping cone $C f$, which is defined as the adjunction space $(X \wedge I) \cup_{f} Y$, where $X \wedge I$ is the smash product (cf. Problem Q.7). There is a natural map $C f \rightarrow \Sigma X$ (this plays the role that $\ell_{1}: \Omega Y \rightarrow M f$ did above), and one obtains the following coexact Puppe Sequence:

$$
X \xrightarrow{f} Y \rightarrow C f \rightarrow \Sigma X \rightarrow \Sigma Y \rightarrow \Sigma(C f) \rightarrow \Sigma^{2} X \rightarrow \Sigma^{2} Y \rightarrow \Sigma^{2}(C f) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

The long exact sequence for homotopy groups and the homotopy long exact sequence for fibrations are basically special cases of the Puppe Sequence. In this lecture we will discuss the former, and leave the homotopy sequence for fibrations till the next lecture.

Corollary 44.13. Let $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ be a pointed space, and let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ be a subspace containing $x_{0}$. Let $\imath:\left(X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ be the pointed inclusion. Then there is an exact sequence in Sets*:

$$
\cdots \pi_{n+1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(X) \rightarrow\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*} \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

which ends with $\left[S^{0}, M \imath\right]_{*} \rightarrow \pi_{0}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{0}(X)$.
Proof. Here we have just applied the functor $\left[S^{0}, \square\right]$ to the Puppe Sequence for the inclusion $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$, and used the definition of $\pi_{n}$, recalling that $\pi_{n+1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)=$ $\pi_{1}\left(\Omega^{n} X^{\prime}\right)$.

To transform this sequence into our desired long exact sequence, we want write the terms $\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*}$ in a more convenient form, and at the same time get a nice description of the "connecting homomorphism" $\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*} \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$. This requires us to define the relative homotopy groups.

Definition 44.14. Let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ and let $x_{0} \in X^{\prime}$. Then $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ and ( $X^{\prime}, x_{0}$ ) are pointed spaces. We refer to $\left(X, X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right)$ (or sometimes just $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ ) as a pointed pair. A pointed pair map $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$ is a pointed map that also has $f\left(X^{\prime}\right) \subset Y^{\prime}$. There is also a notion of a pointed pair homotopy, which is defined as you would guess. We write $\left[\left(X, X^{\prime}\right),\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)\right]$ * for the space of homotopy classes of pointed pair maps.

Now think of $S^{n-1} \subset B^{n}$, and choose $*:=(1,0, \ldots, 0) \in S^{n-1}$.

[^90]Definition 44.15. Given a pointed pair ( $X, X^{\prime}, x_{0}$ ) and an integer $n \geq 0$, we define the $n$th relative homotopy group

$$
\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right):=\left[\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}, *\right),\left(X, X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right)\right]_{*}=\left[\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right),\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)\right]_{*}
$$

We usually abbreviate $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}, x_{0}\right)$ just as $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$.
The name "group" is a bit of a misnomer, since (at least at the moment) there is no obvious group structure on $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ (it is just a pointed set). This will be rectified in Corollary 44.18 below. There is a well-defined map (of pointed sets)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta: \pi_{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right), \quad[u] \mapsto\left[\left.u\right|_{S^{n}}\right] . \tag{44.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 44.16. One can also describe $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ as $\left[\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right),\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)\right]_{*}$, and we will switch back and forth between the two definitions next lecture. It is clear that if $X^{\prime}$ is itself a point $x_{0}$ then $\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}, x_{0}\right)=\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)=\pi_{n}(X)$ is just the usual higher homotopy group, since:

$$
\left[\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]=\left[\left(B^{n} / S^{n-1}, *\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]=\left[\left(S^{n}, *\right),\left(X, x_{0}\right)\right]=\pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)
$$

Here is the promised identification.
Theorem 44.17. Let $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ be a pointed pair with inclusion $\imath: X^{\prime} \hookrightarrow X$. There is a bijection $\Theta:\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*} \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Moreover the following diagram commutes, where the top two maps are from Corollary 44.13, the map $\jmath$ is the inclusion $\left(X, x_{0}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ (and we identify $\pi_{n+1}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ with $\pi_{n+1}\left(X, x_{0}, x_{0}\right)$ as above) and $\delta$ was defined in (44.1).


Proof. We will prove the theorem in three steps.

1. In this step we define $\Theta$. Using adjointness of $(\Sigma, \Omega)$, we can rewrite

$$
\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*} \cong\left[S^{n}, M \imath\right]_{*}=\pi_{n}(M \imath) .
$$

Thus given a pointed map $a: S^{n} \rightarrow M$, we want to build a pointed map of pairs $A:\left(B^{n+1}, S^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Such a map $a$ is of the form

$$
a(y)=\left(x_{y}, w_{y}\right) \in X^{\prime} \times X^{I}, \quad w_{y}(0)=x_{0}, w_{y}(1)=x_{y}, \quad y \in S^{n} .
$$

An arbitrary non-zero element of $B^{n+1}$ can be written uniquely as $t \cdot y$ for some $y \in S^{n}$. We then define $A: B^{n+1} \rightarrow X$ by $A(0)=x_{0}$ and $A(t \cdot y)=w_{y}(t)$. This
is continuous as $w_{y}(0)=x_{0}$ for all $y \in S^{n}$. Moreover $A(1 \cdot y)=w_{y}(1)=x_{y} \in X^{\prime}$, and thus $A$ is a map of pairs $\left(B^{n+1}, S^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Thus our desired map $\Theta$ is $[a] \mapsto[A]$.
2. In this step we show that $\Theta$ is well-defined. Suppose $a \simeq b$, and $F: S^{n} \times M \imath \rightarrow$ $X$ is a pointed homotopy from $a$ to $b$. Thus

$$
F(y, 0)=a(y), \quad F(y, 1)=b(y), \quad \forall y \in S^{n},
$$

and if $*$ is our basepoint in $S^{n}$ then $F(*, s)=\left(x_{0}, e_{x_{0}}\right)$ for all $s \in I$. Now using exactly the same trick we can build from $F$ a homotopy from the two maps $A$ and $B$. Indeed, writing $F(y, s)=\left(x_{y, s}, w_{y, s}\right)$, our desired homotopy $H: B^{n+1} \times I \rightarrow X$ is defined by $H(t \cdot y, s)=w_{y, s}(t)$. This gives a pointed homotopy of pairs $H: A \simeq B$.
3. In this step we prove that $\Theta$ is a bijection. Suppose we are given a continuous pointed map of pairs $A:\left(B^{n+1}, S^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$. Assume for simplicity that $A(0)=x_{0}$ (note: $0 \in B^{n+1}$ is not the basepoint, since that is $* \in S^{n}$.) Given $y \in S^{n}$, let $w_{y}: I \rightarrow$ $X$ by the path $w_{y}(t)=A(t \cdot y)$. Then define $a: S^{n} \rightarrow M \imath$ by $a(y)=\left(A(y), w_{y}\right)$. This construction $A \mapsto a$ is then an inverse to $\Theta$.

Of course, this only worked because $A(0)=x_{0}$. But it is easy to see that-up to changing $A$ through pointed pair homotopies - this can always be achieved.

Finally, the claim that the diagram commutes is left as an exercise in unravelling the definitions.

Corollary 44.18. Let $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ be a pointed pair. Then $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is a group for $n \geq 2$ and an abelian group for $n \geq 3$.

Proof. As discussed in the proof of Theorem 44.17, one has $\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M \imath)\right]_{*}=\left[S^{n}, M \imath\right]_{*}=$ $\pi_{n}(M \imath)$. Thus using the bijection $\Theta$ we can define a group structure on $\pi_{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ for all $n \geq 1$. Since $\pi_{n}(M \imath)$ is abelian by Corollary 43.5 for $n \geq 2$, we see that $\pi_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is abelian for $n \geq 3$.

We conclude this lecture by ticking off another axiom:
Theorem 44.19 (The long exact sequence axiom). If $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is a pointed pair, then there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \pi_{n+1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

where all the maps are induced by inclusions apart from the connecting homomorphism $\delta$, which was defined in (44.1).

Proof. Combine Corollary 44.13 and Theorem 44.17.

## LECTURE 45

## Fibrations and weak fibrations

In this lecture we return to the study of fibrations. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map between two topological spaces, and let $W$ be a topological space. Recall from Definition 33.13 that we say that $p$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to $W$ if for any homotopy $f_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ (for $t \in[0,1]$ ) and any continuous map $g_{0}: W \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ g_{0}=f_{0}$, there exists a homotopy $g_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ such that $p \circ g_{t}=f_{t}:$


The homotopy $g_{t}$ is called a covering homotopy of $f_{t}$.
Definition 45.1. We say that $p: E \rightarrow X$ is a fibration if $p$ has the homotopy lifting property with respect to every space $W$. Given $x \in X$, we denote by $F:=p^{-1}(x)$ a fibre of $p$.

It is not in general true that any two fibres are homeomorphic (contrast this to fibre bundles). However as we will shortly see, any two fibres have the same homotopy type when the base space $X$ is path connected (and thus the notation " $F$ " is unambiguous as far as homotopy type is concerned.)

Example 45.2. Let $X$ and $F$ be any topological spaces, set $E:=X \times F$ and let $p: E \rightarrow X$ denote projection onto the first factor. Then $p$ is a fibration. Indeed, if $f_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ is any homotopy and $g_{0}: W \rightarrow E$ satisfies $p \circ g_{0}=f_{0}$ then writing $g_{0}(w)=\left(f_{0}(w), g_{0}^{\prime}(w)\right) \in X \times F$, the homotopy $g_{t}$ defined by

$$
g_{t}(w):=\left(f_{t}(w), g_{0}^{\prime}(w)\right)
$$

is a continuous map with $p \circ g_{t}=f_{t}$.
Example 45.2 tells us that any trivial fibre bundle is a fibration. We shall come back to this in the proof of Corollary 45.14. It is often convenient to regard a fibration $p: E \rightarrow X$ as a pointed map; to do so we simply pick any $x_{0} \in X$ and let $y_{0}$ denote any point in the fibre $p^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$.

Proposition 45.3. Let $p:\left(E, y_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ be a fibration with fibre $F=p^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Then $F$ and the mapping fibre $M p$ have the same homotopy type.

Proof. We have the following commutative diagram, where $p_{1}: M p \rightarrow E$ is the map $p_{1}(y, w)=y, q: M p \rightarrow X^{I}$ is the map $q(y, w)=w$, and $\operatorname{ev}_{1}: X^{I} \rightarrow X$ is the map $\operatorname{ev}_{1}(w)=w(1):$


Let $e_{0}$ denote the constant path at $x_{0}$. Then $\left(y, e_{0}\right) \in M p$ if $y \in F$ and hence we define $h: F \rightarrow M p$ by $h(y)=\left(y, e_{0}\right)$. To complete the proof we will define a homotopy inverse to $h$. Consider the continuous map

$$
f_{t}: M p \rightarrow X, \quad f_{t}(y, w):=w(1-t)
$$

(this is continuous as it is the composition of continuous maps). Since $p$ is a fibration, we can find a homotopy $g_{t}: M p \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ g_{t}=f_{t}$ and $g_{0}=p_{1}$. Since $p \circ g_{1}(y, w)=w(0)=x_{0}$, the function $g_{1}$ takes values in the fibre $F$. Thus there is a well-defined map $k: M p \rightarrow F$ given by $k(y, w)=g_{1}(y, w)$. We claim that $k$ is a homotopy inverse to $h$.

Indeed, since $g_{1}$ takes values in $F$, the function $(y, t) \mapsto g_{t}(h(y))$ is a homotopy from $\operatorname{id}_{F}$ to $k \circ h$. For the converse, we first define $j_{t}: M p \rightarrow X^{I}$ by requiring that $j_{t}(y, w)$ is the path $s \mapsto w(s(1-t))$. Then $j_{0}=q$ and $j_{1}(y, w)=e_{0}$ since every element $(y, w) \in M p$ has $w(0)=x_{0}$. Now consider the function

$$
l_{t}: M p \rightarrow M p, \quad l_{t}(y, w):=\left(g_{t}(y, w), j_{t}(y, w)\right) .
$$

To check that $l_{t}$ is well-defined, we need $p \circ g_{t}(y, w)=j_{t}(y, w)(1)$. This is true, since both sides are equal to $w(1-t)$. One has $l_{0}(y, w)=\left(g_{0}(y, w), j_{0}(y, w)\right)=(y, w)$ so that $l_{0}=\operatorname{id}_{M p}$. Finally $l_{1}(y, w)=h \circ k(y, w)$. Thus $l_{t}$ is a homotopy from $\mathrm{id}_{M p}$ to $k \circ h$. This completes the proof.

We can now use this to give a simple proof that all fibres of a fibration have the same homotopy type when the base is path connected.

Corollary 45.4. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibration over a path connected space $X$, and let $x_{0}, x_{1} \in X$. Then the two fibres $p^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$ and $p^{-1}\left(x_{1}\right)$ have the same homotopy type.

Proof. Let $M_{i} p$ denote the mapping fibre of $p$ with respect to the basepoint $x_{i}$. It suffices to show that $M_{0} p$ has the same homotopy type as $M_{1} p$. But this is easy: if $u: I \rightarrow X$ is a path from $x_{1}$ to $x_{0}$ (which exists as $X$ is path connected) then the map $M_{0} p \rightarrow M_{1} p$ given by $(y, w) \mapsto(y, u * w)$ is a homotopy equivalence (the inverse is given by $(y, w) \mapsto(y, \bar{u} * w)$.)

We can also use the Puppe Sequence (Theorem 44.11) to give a quick proof of the following long exact sequence.

Theorem 45.5 (The Homotopy Sequence of a Fibration). Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibration with fibre $F$. Then there is a long exact sequence

$$
\cdots \pi_{n}(E) \xrightarrow{\pi_{n}(p)} \pi_{n}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(F) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(E) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Proof. Proposition 45.3 tells us that $M p$ and $F$ have the same homotopy type. Thus Proposition 43.16 tells us that $\left[S^{n}, M p\right]_{*} \cong\left[S^{n}, F\right]_{*}$ for all $n \geq 0$. The result thus follows from applying $\left[S^{0}, \square\right]_{*}$ to the Puppe Sequence (Theorem 44.11) to $p$, as in Corollary 44.13, and using adjointness of $(\Sigma, \Omega)$ to obtain $\left[S^{0}, \Omega^{n}(M p)\right]_{*} \cong\left[S^{n}, M p\right]_{*} \cong$ $\left[S^{n}, F\right]_{*}=\pi_{n}(F)$.

Let us now introduce a generalisation of the fundamental groupoid that involves two spaces. We will use this to state (and sketch the proof of) a powerful result which we call the Homotopy Theorem for Fibrations.

Definition 45.6. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces. We define a category $\Pi(X, Y)$ as follows: the objects of $\Pi(X, Y)$ are the continuous maps $f: X \rightarrow Y$. A morphism from $f$ to $g$ is an equivalence class of homotopies $F: f \simeq g$, where $F$ and $G$ define the same morphism if $F$ is homotopic to $G$ relative to $X \times \partial I$, that is, if there exists $\Phi: X \times I \times I \rightarrow Y$ such that $\Phi(x, 0, t)=f(x)$ is independent of $t, \Phi(x, 1, t)=g(x)$ is independent of $t$, and $\Phi_{t}(x, s):=\Phi(x, s, t)$ is a homotopy from $\Phi_{0}=F$ and $\Phi_{1}=G$. Informally: a morphism in $\Pi(X, Y)$ is a homotopy of homotopies.

The fundamental groupoid $\Pi(X)$ is the special case $\Pi(*, X)$. I will leave it up to you as a wholesome exercise to verify that $\Pi(X, Y)$ is a groupoid category (cf. Definition 3.19), i.e. that every morphism in $\Pi(X, Y)$ is an isomorphism.

Remark 45.7. The dependence of the groupoid category on $X$ and $Y$ leads to the notion of a 2-category. However, higher category theory goes beyond the scope of this course, so I won't go into the details.

Let us go back to fibrations. Suppose $p: E \rightarrow X$ is a fibration, and $f: Z \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map. The pullback (cf. Example 40.6, compare also Definition 34.1) in Top is the topological space

$$
Q=\{(z, y) \in Z \times E \mid f(z)=p(y)\},
$$

equipped with the projection $q: Q \rightarrow Z$ given by $q(z, y)=z$. We denote by $\varphi: Q \rightarrow E$ the $\operatorname{map} \varphi(z, y)=y$, so that the following commutes:


Lemma 45.8. The map $q$ is a fibration.

Proof. Let $h_{t}: W \rightarrow Z$ be a homotopy and $g_{0}: W \rightarrow Q$ be a continuous map such that $q \circ g_{0}=h_{0}$. We want to find a homotopy $g_{t}: W \rightarrow Q$ such that $q \circ g_{t}=h_{t}$. Consider $f \circ h_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ and $\varphi \circ g_{0}: W \rightarrow E$. Then $p \circ \varphi \circ g_{0}=f \circ q \circ g_{0}=f \circ h_{0}$. Since $p$ is a fibration, there exists $k_{t}: W \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ k_{t}=f \circ h_{t}$ and $k_{0}=\varphi \circ g_{0}$. We then extend $g_{0}$ to a homotopy $g_{t}: W \rightarrow Q$ via

$$
g_{t}(w)=\left(h_{t}(w), k_{t}(w)\right) .
$$

This is a well-defined element of $Q$ by construction and satisfies $q \circ g_{t}=h_{t}$.
Now suppose $F: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ is homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$. Let $f_{t}=F(\cdot, t)$ as usual. Let $q_{0}: Q_{0} \rightarrow Z$ and $q_{1}: Q_{1} \rightarrow Z$ denote the two pullback fibrations with corresponding maps $\varphi_{0}: Q_{0} \rightarrow E$ and $\varphi_{1}: Q_{1} \rightarrow E$.


Since $p$ is a fibration, there exists a homotopy $\psi_{t}: Q_{0} \rightarrow E$ such that $\psi_{0}=\varphi_{0}$ and $p \circ \psi_{t}=f_{t} \circ q_{0}$. Since the right square is a pullback in Top, there exists a map $\theta: Q_{0} \rightarrow Q_{1}$ such that $\varphi_{1} \circ \theta=\psi_{1}$ and $q_{1} \circ \theta=q_{0}$.

Suppose now that $F^{\prime}: f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ is another homotopy from $f_{0}$ to $f_{1}$ such that $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ define the same morphism in $\Pi(Z, X)$. This means that there exists a homotopy $\Phi: Z \times I \times I \rightarrow X$ relative to $Z \times \partial I$ from $F$ to $F^{\prime}$. By applying the construction above to $F^{\prime}$, we obtain another map $\theta^{\prime}: Q_{0} \rightarrow Q_{1}$. By lifting the homotopy $\Phi \circ\left(q_{0} \times \mathrm{id}_{I} \times \mathrm{id}_{I}\right)$ one can show that there exists a homotopy $\theta_{t}: Q_{0} \rightarrow Q_{1}$ such that $q_{1} \circ \theta_{t}=q_{0}$ for all $t$.

Denote by $\mathrm{hFib}_{Z}$ the category of all fibrations over $Z$. An object of this category is a fibration $q: Q \rightarrow Z$, and a morphism $\theta$ from two objects $q_{0}: Q_{0} \rightarrow Z$ and $q_{1}: Q_{1} \rightarrow Z$ is a homotopy class $\left[\theta_{t}\right]$ of maps $Q_{0} \rightarrow Q_{1}$ such that $q_{1} \circ \theta_{t}=q_{0}$. The construction above tells us the following.

Theorem 45.9 (The Homotopy Theorem for Fibrations). Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibration. There is a functor $T_{p}: \Pi(Z, X) \rightarrow \mathrm{hFib}_{Z}$ that assigns to a continuous map $f: Z \rightarrow X$ the fibration $q: Q \rightarrow Z$ defined above, and to a morphism $\left[f_{t}\right]: f_{0} \rightarrow f_{1}$ it assigns the morphism $\left[\theta_{t}\right]$ from above.

Proof. It remains to check that $T$ is a functor. This is left as an exercise.
Since $\Pi(Z, X)$ is a groupoid category and $T_{p}$ is a functor, the class $T_{p}\left[f_{t}\right]$ is always an isomorphism. We obtain the following formal consequence.

Corollary 45.10. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a fibration and let $f: Z \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy equivalence. Then the map $\varphi: Q \rightarrow E$ from (45.1) is a homotopy equivalence.

Remark 45.11. Theorem 45.9 is a massive generalisation of Corollary 45.4, which (roughly speaking) corresponds to the case where we take $Z$ to be the unit interval.

Let us now return to less abstract material. There is a slightly weaker notion of a fibration, which is (unimaginatively) called a weak fibration. This is a map $p: E \rightarrow X$ that has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cell complex $W$. In fact, having the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cell complex is equivalent to having the homotopy lifting property with respect to all cubes $I^{n}$ for $n \geq 0$ (where $I^{0}=*$ ). This is the content of the following result.

Proposition 45.12. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ have the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cube $I^{n}$. Then $p$ is a weak fibration, that is, it has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cell complex.

The proof will use the following observation that we will repeatedly make use of throughout the rest of this lecture. There is a homeomorphism of pairs

$$
r:\left(I^{n+1}, I^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \rightarrow\left(B^{n} \times I,\left(B^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(S^{n-1} \times I\right)\right)
$$

Thus if we are given maps

$$
h: B^{n} \times I \rightarrow X, \quad k:\left(B^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(S^{n-1} \times I\right) \rightarrow E,
$$

such that the following diagram commutes:

then the homotopy lifting property for cubes implies we can find a map $l: B^{n} \times I \rightarrow E$ that fits along the dotted arrow:


Proof of Proposition 45.12. Let $W$ be a cell complex and let $W^{n}$ denote the $n$th skeleton of $W$. Assume we are given $f_{t}: W \rightarrow X$ and a lift $g_{0}$ of $f_{0}$. Since $W$ carries the colimit topology with respect to its skeleton filtration, it suffices to show that for every $n \geq 0$ there exists a homotopy $g_{t}^{n}: W^{n} \rightarrow E$ that lifts $f_{t}^{n}:=\left.f_{t}\right|_{X^{n}}$ and satisfies $g_{0}^{n}=\left.g_{0}\right|_{X^{n}}$.

We prove this by induction on $n$. The case $n=0$ is clear, since $W^{0}$ is a discrete space (a discrete collection of $I^{0} \mathrm{~s}$ ). For the inductive step, assume we have constructed $g_{t}^{n-1}$. Let $a:\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(C \cup W^{n-1}, W^{n-1}\right)$ denote the characteristic map of an $n$-cell ${ }^{1} C$. We build from $a$ a map

$$
k:\left(B^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(S^{n-1} \times I\right) \rightarrow E
$$

[^91]by setting $k=g_{0} \circ a$ on $B^{n} \times\{0\} \cong B^{n}$ and $k(x, t)=g_{t}^{n-1}(a(x))$ on $S^{n-1} \times I$ (this is well-defined because they both agree on the overlap $S^{n-1} \times\{0\}$.) This gives us the following commutative diagram:


Thus we obtain a lifting over the cell $E$ via the dotted arrow. Doing this for all the $n$-cells gives us the desired extension $g_{t}^{n}: W^{n} \rightarrow E$. The fact that $g_{t}^{n}$ is continuous is due to the fact that $g_{t}^{n}$ is continuous on each $n$-cell, together with part (4) of Proposition 18.17.

A similar argument allows us to prove the following result.
Proposition 45.13. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map. Let $\mathfrak{U}$ be a collection of subsets of $X$ such $\left\{U^{\circ} \mid U \in \mathfrak{U}\right\}$ forms an open cover of $X$. Assume that $p_{U}:=$ $\left.p\right|_{U}: p^{-1}(U) \rightarrow U$ is a weak fibration for every $U \in \mathfrak{U}$. Then $p$ is a weak fibration.

Proof. It suffices by the previous result to verify the homotopy lifting property for a cube $I^{n}$. Equivalently, it suffices to show that given $h, k$ such that the following diagram commutes, we can always find an $l$ to fit on the dotted line (this is the same observation as was used just before the proof of Proposition 45.12, only with $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ replaced with $\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right)$ ):


By the Lebesgue Number Lemma (Lemma 6.7), there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that if we chop up $I^{n}$ into $N^{n}$ smaller cubes $I_{1}, I_{2}, \ldots, I_{N^{n}}$ of equal size, and $I$ into $N$ intervals $J_{1}, \ldots, J_{N}$ of equal size, then for every $i, j, h\left(I_{i} \times J_{j}\right)$ is contained in $U^{\circ}$ for some $U \in \mathfrak{U}$.

Let $K^{m}$ denote the union of the $m$-dimensional faces of all the cubes $I_{i}$, for $m=0,1, \ldots, n$. Set $K^{-1}=\emptyset$ and $l_{-1}:=k$. By induction on $m$, we claim we can find $l_{m}$ to fit along the dotted arrow:


Indeed, it suffices to do this one cube at a time. If $L$ is an $m$-dimensional cube and $\partial L$ the union of its $(m-1)$-dimensional faces, then since $p_{U}$ is a weak fibration, for an appropriate $U$ we can find $l_{L}$ to fit along the dotted arrow:


Now the maps $l_{L}$ as $L$ ranges over the $m$-dimensional faces combine together to give us the desired $l_{m}$. Then for $m=n$ we obtain an extension of $h$ to a map on $I^{n} \times J_{1}$. Now we repeat to extend over $I^{n} \times J_{2}$, and continue. Eventually we are done.

This gives us a proof of the first half of Theorem 33.17:
Corollary 45.14. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle. Then $p$ is a weak fibration.
Proof. By Example 45.2, any fibre bundle satisfies the hypotheses of Proposition 45.13.

Remark 45.15. A harder version of Proposition 45.13 states that if $X$ is paracompact and $p_{U}$ is a fibration for every $U$ then so is $p$. Combining this result with Example 45.2 shows that every fibre bundle over a paracompact base is a fibration (this is the second half of Theorem 33.17.)

We would like to combine Theorem 45.5 and Corollary 45.14 to obtain a long exact sequence for fibre bundles. Unfortunately, since not every fibre bundle is a fibration (as the base might not be paracompact ${ }^{2}$ ), this does not follow directly. Thus we need another argument. Here is the last result of today's lecture.

Theorem 45.16 (Serre's Theorem). Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a weak fibration. Let $x_{0} \in X$ and set $F:=p^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Let $y_{0} \in F$ and let $\imath:\left(E, y_{0}\right) \hookrightarrow(E, F)$ denote the inclusion, and let $p^{\prime}:(E, F) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ be as in the picture:


Then $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right): \pi_{n}(E, F) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is a bijection for all $n \geq 1$.
REMARK 45.17. For $n \geq 2, \pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is an isomorphism since $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is a homomorphism. However for $n=1$ it is just a bijection, since $\pi_{1}(E, F)$ does not have a group structure.

[^92]Proof of Theorem 45.16. First, since $p$ is a weak fibration, by arguing by induction on $n$ and using that $I^{n+1}=I^{n} \times I$, we see that given a commutative square we can always fill in the dashed map:


That is, in order to lift a map $I^{n} \rightarrow X$ to $E$, it suffices to specify the lift of a single point.

We first prove that $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is surjective. Let $u:\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ represent an element $[u] \in \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. Define $g: I^{0} \rightarrow E$ by $g(*)=y_{0}$. Then by the diagram above, we can find $v: I^{n} \rightarrow E$ such that $p \circ v=u$ and $v(0)=y_{0}$. Since $u\left(\partial I^{n}\right)=$ $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$, we have $v\left(\partial I^{n}\right) \subset F$ and thus $v$ is a map of pairs $\left(I^{n}, \partial I^{n}\right) \rightarrow(E, F)$. Thus $[v] \in \pi_{n}(E, F)$ and $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)[v]=[u]$. This proves surjectivity.

Now suppose we are given $u:\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow(E, F)$ such that the map $\overline{p \circ u}: B^{n} / S^{n-1} \rightarrow$ $X$ induced by $p \circ u:\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is nullhomotopic. We claim that $u$ itself is nullhomotopic. There is a homotopy of pointed pairs
$U:\left(B^{n} \times I, S^{n-1} \times I\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right), \quad U(z, 0)=p \circ u(z), \quad U(z, 1)=x_{0}, \quad \forall z \in B^{n}$.
Define $k:\left(B^{n} \times\{0\}\right) \cup\left(S^{n-1} \times I\right) \rightarrow E$ by setting $k(z, t)=u(z)$. Then $k$ is welldefined and continuous and the following diagram commutes:


The argument we have used many times now gives us a map $V: B^{n} \times I \rightarrow E$ such that both triangles commute:


We can view $V$ as a homotopy of pointed pairs from $u$ to a new map $v:=V(\cdot, 1)$. The map $v: B^{n} \rightarrow F$ has image in $F$, and the existence of $V$ shows that $[u]=[v]$ is in the image of the map $\pi_{n}(F, F) \rightarrow \pi_{n}(E, F)$ induced by inclusion. But $\pi_{n}(F, F)=0$ (this is true for any space, as I invite you to verify), and hence $[u]=0$.

If $n \geq 2$ then $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is a homomorphism. We have just shown that $\operatorname{ker} \pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is trivial, and hence $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right)$ is injective, and thus bijective. For $n=1$ this argument does not work, so let us argue directly. Suppose $\left[u_{0}\right],\left[u_{1}\right] \in \pi_{1}(E, F)$ are such that $\left[p \circ u_{0}\right]=\left[p \circ u_{1}\right] \in \pi_{1}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$. The $u_{i}$ are paths $(I, \partial I) \rightarrow(E, F)$ with $u_{i}(0)=y_{0}$. If $w:=\bar{u}_{0} * u_{1}$ then $p \circ w$ is nullhomotopic, and hence so is $w$. Since $u_{1}=u_{0} * w$, it follows $\left[u_{0}\right]=\left[u_{1}\right]$ as required.

Corollary 45.18 (Homotopy Sequence of a Weak Fibration). Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a weak fibration. Choose basepoints $y_{0} \in E$ and $x_{0}=p\left(y_{0}\right) \in X$. Let $F:=p^{-1}\left(x_{0}\right)$. Then there is an exact sequence

$$
\cdots \pi_{n}(E) \xrightarrow{\pi_{n}(p)} \pi_{n}(X) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(F) \rightarrow \pi_{n-1}(E) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Proof. We consider the long exact sequence of homotopy groups for the pair $(E, F)$ (Theorem 44.17), and use Serre's Theorem to replace $\pi_{n}(E, F)$ with $\pi_{n}(X)$. The map $\pi_{n}(E) \rightarrow \pi_{n}(X)$ is then the composition $\pi_{n}\left(p^{\prime}\right) \circ \pi_{n}(\imath)$, where $p^{\prime}$ and $\imath$ are as in the statement of Serre's Theorem. Since this composition is just $\pi_{n}(p)$, the result follows.

Note that Corollary 45.18 is what we needed to finish the proof of part (1) of Theorem 43.18. Further applications to the homotopy groups of spheres are on Problem Sheet R.

## LECTURE 46

## Epilogue

In this final lecture I will discuss (without proof) several important topics that unfortunately we ran out of time to cover properly. Everything in this lecture is nonexaminable.

We begin by stating three key theorems in homotopy theory. The first is the higher dimensional analogue of Theorem 9.7. If $u:\left(S^{n}, *\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$, let $u^{\prime}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ denote the same map, precomposed with a homeomorphism of pairs $\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ $\left(S^{n}, *\right)$. This is the same notational convention we used in Remark 9.1. Arguing as in Proposition 9.2, there is a well-defined map

$$
h: \pi_{n}\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X), \quad[u] \mapsto\left\langle u^{\prime}\right\rangle
$$

Moreover as in Proposition 21.7, this is actually a natural transformation $h: \pi_{n} \rightarrow$ $\tilde{H}_{n}$. The Hurewicz Theorem we proved in Lecture 9 required us to abelianise $\pi_{1}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ in order to get an isomorphism. For the higher homotopy groups, they are already abelian, so this is unnecessary. On the other hand, the theorem is only true for $\pi_{n}$ if all the lower homotopy groups vanish.

Theorem 46.1 (The Hurewicz Theorem). Let $X$ be a topological space and let $n \geq 2$. Assume that $\pi_{i}(X)=0$ for all $i<n$. Then also $\tilde{H}_{i}(X)=0$ for $i<n$ and the Hurewicz map is an isomorphism $\pi_{n}(X) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X)$.

An immediate corollary of Theorem 46.1 and part (2) of Theorem 43.18 is:
Corollary 46.2. For any $n \geq 1, \pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
Another corollary is the following higher-dimensional version of Proposition 15.5:
Corollary 46.3. Two maps $f, g: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ are homotopic if and only if they have the same degree.

It is convenient to give the hypotheses of Theorem 46.1 a name.
Definition 46.4. A topological space $X$ is said to be $n$-connected if $\pi_{i}(X)=0$ for all $i \leq n$. Similarly a pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ is $n$-connected if $\pi_{i}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)=0$ for all $i \leq n$.

Thus a sphere is $(n-1)$-connected, and the Hurewicz Theorem in degree $n$ holds for $(n-1)$-connected spaces. We now present a partial version of the excision axiom for homotopy groups.

Theorem 46.5 (The Blakers-Massey Theorem). Let $X_{1}, X_{2}$ be subspaces of $X$ and assume that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Set $X_{0}=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$. Assume that $\left(X_{1}, X_{0}\right)$ is $(n-1)$ connected and $\left(X_{2}, X_{0}\right)$ is $(m-1)$-connected. Let $\jmath:\left(X_{1}, X_{0}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X_{2}\right)$ be the inclusion. Then $\pi_{i}(\jmath): \pi_{i}\left(X_{1}, X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{i}\left(X, X_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism for $i<m+n-2$ and a surjection for $i=m+n-2$.

Now let us return to weak homotopy equivalences, which were mentioned at the end of Lecture 18.

Definition 46.6. A continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called a weak homotopy equivalence if the induced map $\pi_{n}(f): \pi_{n}(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_{n}(Y, f(x))$ is an isomorphism for all $n \geq 0$ and all $x \in X$.

A natural question is: when is a weak homotopy equivalence a genuine homotopy equivalence.

Theorem 46.7 (Whitehead's Theorem). Let $X$ and $Y$ be path connected cell complexes. Then a weak homotopy equivalence $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a genuine homotopy equivalence.

Whitehead's Theorem is not saying that two cell complexes all of whose homotopy groups are isomorphic are necessarily homotopy equivalent: indeed, there has to be a map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ realising the given the isomorphisms. As a challenging example, I encourage you to verify that $\mathbb{R} P^{2} \times S^{3}$ and $\mathbb{R} P^{3} \times S^{2}$ have the isomorphic homotopy groups in every degree, but are not homotopy equivalent (thus by Whitehead's Theorem there is no map $\mathbb{R} P^{2} \times S^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{3} \times S^{2}$ that induces an isomorphism on each homotopy group.)

Corollary 46.8. A cell complex $X$ is contractible if and only if all its homotopy groups vanish.

Proof. If all the homotopy groups vanish then the constant map $X \rightarrow *$ is a weak homotopy equivalence.

The next result tells us that weak homotopy equivalences behave nicely with respect to singular homology.

Theorem 46.9. A weak homotopy equivalence $f: X \rightarrow Y$ induces an isomorphism

$$
H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y ; A)
$$

and

$$
H^{n}(f): H^{n}(Y ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}(X ; A)
$$

for any $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group $A$.
Remark 46.10. Theorem 46.9 tells us that singular homology satisfies the weak equivalence axiom in Definition 21.9, and hence we finally see that singular homology really is (!) a homology theory.

As a sample corollary, let us prove the following result, which was used in Problem Sheet O.

Corollary 46.11. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle and assume that the fibre $F$ is contractible. Then for all $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group $A$, the map $H^{n}(p): H^{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow H^{n}(E ; A)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. By Corollary 43.17, Corollary 45.14 and Corollary 45.18, we see that $\pi_{n}(E) \cong$ $\pi_{n}(X)$ for all $n \geq 0$, and moreover, this isomorphism is realised by the projection $p$. Thus $p$ is a weak homotopy equivalence, and thus the claim follows from Theorem 46.9 .

Now let us define a special class of maps between cell complexes.
Definition 46.12. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are cell complexes with skeleton filtrations $\left(X^{n}\right)$ and $\left(Y^{n}\right)$ respectively. A continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be cellular if $f\left(X^{n}\right) \subset Y^{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$.

In fact, every map can be made cellular.
Theorem 46.13 (The Cellular Approximation Theorem for Maps). Every continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between cell complexes ia homotopic to a cellular map. If $f$ is already cellular on a subcomplex $X^{\prime} \subset X$ then the homotopy can be chosen to be constant on $X^{\prime}$.

This allows us to finish the proof of part (2) of Theorem 43.18.
Corollary 46.14. If $k<n$ then any continuous map $f:\left(S^{k}, x\right) \rightarrow\left(S^{n}, y\right)$ is nullhomotopic rel $x$.

Proof. Give $S^{k}$ and $S^{n}$ their standard cell structure (Example 18.7) consisting of one 0 -cell (which we choose to be the two basepoints $x$ and $y$ respectively) and one $k$-cell (resp. one $n$-cell). By the Cellular Approximation Theorem we can homotope $f$ rel $x$ to a map that carries $S^{k}$ into the $k$-skeleton of $S^{n}$. But this is just $\{y\}$.

We now state a more precise version of Theorem 18.19.
Theorem 46.15 (The Cellular Approximation Theorem for Spaces). For any space $X$, there is a cell complex $\Gamma X$ and a weak homotopy equivalence $\gamma(X): \Gamma X \rightarrow X$. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map then there is a continuous map $\Gamma(f): \Gamma X \rightarrow \Gamma Y$ which is unique up to homotopy such that the following diagram commutes:


In other words: there is a cellular approximation functor $\Gamma$ : Top $\rightarrow$ Cell and a natural transformation $\gamma: I \circ \Gamma \rightarrow \mathrm{id}_{\text {Top }}$, where $I:$ Cell $\rightarrow$ Top is the inclusion functor.

Remark 46.16. Combining Theorem 46.15 and Theorem 46.9 tells us that from the point of view of (co)homology, we may always assume our spaces are cell complexes. We used this several times during the course, for instance in the proof of Step 5 of the Leray-Hirsch Theorem 34.7.

Finally, let us sketch the proof of the "adult" existence and uniqueness result for homology theories (this was stated previously as Theorem 21.11-we proved the "baby" version in Theorem 21.12.)

Theorem 46.17 (Existence and uniqueness of a homology theory). Singular homology is a homology theory. Moreover if $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ is any homology theory then ( $\left.\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ is naturally isomorphic to singular homology.

Proof (Sketch). The first statement was covered by Remark 46.10 above. Now suppose $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ is any homology theory. The aim is to show that $\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}$ agrees with cellular homology when we feed it a cell complex. Since a homology theory necessarily vanishes on a contractible space, by considering the exact sequence $S^{n-1} \rightarrow B^{n} \rightarrow$ $B^{n} / S^{n-1} \cong S^{n}$ and using induction, we see that any homology theory agrees with singular homology on a sphere $S^{n}$ :

$$
\mathcal{H}_{i}\left(S^{n}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S^{n}\right), \quad \forall i \geq 0, n \geq 0
$$

We now attempt to copy the proof of Theorem 20.5, replacing singular homology with our given homology theory $\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}$. One sees that if $X$ is a cell complex, then the corresponding reduced homology theory $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{\bullet}$ has the property that $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{n}(X)$ agrees with the $n$th homology of the the chain complex

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{n}\left(X^{n} / X^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{n-1}\left(X^{n-1} / X^{n-2}\right) \rightarrow \cdots
$$

where each term is free on the $n$-cells of $X$. Here we are using the fact that the axioms of a homology theory imply that $\mathcal{H} \bullet$ commutes with colimits to deal with the case when $X$ is infinite dimensional. This complex agrees with the cellular complex $C_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X)$, but the two boundary maps could be very different. Thus the key step is to show that the analogue of the Cellular Boundary Formula (Theorem 20.11) holds for $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{\text {. }}$. This essentially comes down to showing that any map $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ of degree $k$ induces multiplication by $k$ on $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$. By Corollary 46.3 it suffices to construct a single map $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ of degree $k$ for which $\mathcal{H}_{n}(f)$ is multiplication by $k$. For this, one considers a composition $S^{n} \rightarrow \bigvee_{i=1}^{k} S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ where we factor $S^{n}$ into the $k$-fold wedge of $S^{n}$. That this map induces multiplication by $k$ is not to hard to see: one argues as in Lemma 20.12, and uses the fact that the additivity axiom implies that $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_{\bullet}$ is additive on wedge sums.

Thus our arbitrary homology theory agrees with cellular homology (and hence also singular homology) on a cell complex. The weak equivalence axiom then shows that $\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}$ agrees with singular homology on any space. This completes the proof.

And this completes the course! Thank you everyone for coming.

## Problem Sheet A

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 1 and Lecture 2. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem A.1. Let $X$ be a topological space. Assume $X$ can be written as an arbitrary union

$$
X=\bigcup_{i} X_{i},
$$

where each $X_{i}$ is an open subspace of $X$. Assume we given a topological space $Y$ and continuous functions

$$
f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y,
$$

with the property that

$$
\left.f_{i}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}=f_{j} \mid X_{i} \cap X_{j}, \quad \forall i, j \text { such that } X_{i} \cap X_{j} \neq \emptyset .
$$

Then there exists a unique continuous function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\left.f\right|_{X_{i}}=f_{i}, \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Problem A. $2(\dagger)$. Let C and D be categories and $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ a functor. Suppose $f$ is an isomorphism in C. Prove that $T(f)$ is an isomorphism in D.

Problem A. $3(\dagger)$. Let $C$ and $D$ be categories. Suppose $\sim$ is a congruence on $C$ and $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is a functor. Assume that whenever $f \sim g$ one has $T(f)=T(g)$. Prove that $T$ induces a functor $T^{\prime}: \mathrm{C}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$, where $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ denotes the quotient category.

Problem A. $4(\dagger)$. Show that a topological space $X$ has the same homotopy type as a point if and only if $X$ is contractible.

Problem A.5. Let $X$ a topological space. Define an equivalence relation on $X \times I$ by $(x, t) \sim\left(x^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ if $t=t^{\prime}=1$. Let $C X$ denote the quotient space $(X \times I) / \sim$. We call $C X$ the cone on $X$. Prove that $C X$ is always contractible, and deduce that any topological space can be embedded inside a contractible one.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet A

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 1 and Lecture 2. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.
Problem A.1. Let $X$ be a topological space. Assume $X$ can be written as an arbitrary union

$$
X=\bigcup_{i} X_{i},
$$

where each $X_{i}$ is an open subspace of $X$. Assume we given a topological space $Y$ and continuous functions

$$
f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y,
$$

with the property that

$$
\left.f_{i}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}=\left.f_{j}\right|_{X_{i} \cap X_{j}}, \quad \forall i, j \text { such that } X_{i} \cap X_{j} \neq \emptyset .
$$

Then there exists a unique continuous function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\left.f\right|_{X_{i}}=f_{i}, \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N} .
$$

Solution. First we prove the existence. For any $x \in X$ there exists an $i$ such that $x \in X_{i}$. Set $f(x)=f_{i}(x)$. Clearly, $f$ is well-defined, since for $j \neq i$ with $x \in X_{j}$ we have by assumption that $f_{i}(x)=f_{j}(x)$. Since $x$ is arbitrary it suffices to prove continuity of $f$ at $x$. Note that $X_{i}$ is open and $f(x)=\left.f\right|_{X_{i}}(x)=f_{i}(x)$. Since $f_{i}$ is continuous at $x$ and $x \in X_{i}=\operatorname{int}\left(X_{i}\right)$ it follows that also $f$ is continuous at $x$. Now suppose that $g$ is another such map with the same properties. Then for every $x \in X$ we have $f(x)=f_{i}(x)=g(x)$. Hence $f=g$ which proves uniqueness.

Problem A. $2(\dagger)$. Let C and D be categories and $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ a functor. Suppose $f$ is an isomorphism in C. Prove that $T(f)$ is an isomorphism in D.
Solution. Let $A$ and $B$ be objects of the category $C$ such that $f$ is a morphism between them. By assumption $f: A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism in $C$, hence there exists a morphism $g: B \rightarrow A$ such that $g \circ f=\operatorname{id}_{A}$ and $f \circ g=\operatorname{id}_{B}$. Since $T$ is a functor we see that $\operatorname{id}_{T(A)}=T\left(\operatorname{id}_{A}\right)=T(g \circ f)=T(g) \circ T(f)$ and similarly $\mathrm{id}_{T(B)}=T(f) \circ T(g)$. This proves that $T(f)$ is an isomorphism in D .

Problem A. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). Let C and D be categories. Suppose $\sim$ is a congruence on $C$ and $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is a functor. Assume that whenever $f \sim g$ one has $T(f)=T(g)$. Prove that $T$ induces a functor $T^{\prime}: \mathrm{C}^{\prime} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$, where $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ denotes the quotient category.
Solution. On objects of the category C the functor $T^{\prime}$ is equal to $T$. On morphisms we define $T^{\prime}([f]):=T(f)$. This is well-defined, indeed for $[f]=[g]$ we have that $T(f)=T(g)$ by assumption. We need to show that $T^{\prime}$ satisfies the properties of a functor. Clearly $T^{\prime}([g] \circ[f])=T^{\prime}([g \circ f])=T(g \circ f)=T(g) \circ T(f)=T^{\prime}([g]) \circ T^{\prime}([f])$ since $T$ is a functor, and for any object $A \in \mathrm{C}, T^{\prime}\left(\left[\mathrm{id}_{A}\right]\right)=T\left(\mathrm{id}_{A}\right)=\mathrm{id}_{T(A)}=\mathrm{id}_{T^{\prime}(A)}$.

Problem A. 4 ( $\dagger$ ). Show that a topological space $X$ has the same homotopy type as a point if and only if $X$ is contractible.

## Solution.

$" \Rightarrow$ There exists $f: X \rightarrow\{*\}$ and $g:\{*\} \rightarrow X$ continuous such that $g \circ f \simeq \operatorname{id}_{X}$. But $g \circ f: X \rightarrow\{*\} \rightarrow X$ is necessarily a constant map. Hence $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ is homotopic to a constant map, which proves that $X$ is contractible.
$" \Leftarrow "$ Let $c: X \rightarrow X$ be the constant map sending every point $x \in X$ to a fixed point $q \in X$ and assume $\operatorname{id}_{X} \simeq c$. Define $f: X \rightarrow\{*\}$ the constant map and $g:\{*\} \rightarrow X$ the constant map sending $*$ to $q$. Clearly $g \circ f=c \simeq \mathrm{id}_{X}$ and $f \circ g=\operatorname{id}_{\{*\}}$. This shows that $X$ has the homotopy type of a point.

Problem A.5. Let $X$ a topological space. Define an equivalence relation on $X \times I$ by $(x, t) \sim\left(x^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right)$ if $t=t^{\prime}=1$. Let $C X$ denote the quotient space $(X \times I) / \sim$. We call $C X$ the cone on $X$. Prove that $C X$ is always contractible, and deduce that any topological space can be embedded inside a contractible one.

Solution. Let $c: C X \rightarrow C X$ denote the constant map sending every point to the equivalence class $[x, 1]$. (Note that $[x, 1]=\left[x^{\prime}, 1\right]$ for any two points $x$ and $x^{\prime}$ in $X$.) We define the homotopy $H: C X \times[0,1] \rightarrow C X$ by $H([x, t], s):=[x, s+(1-s) t]$. One can see that $H$ is a homotopy between $\operatorname{id}_{C X}$ and $c$, which proves that $C X$ is contractible. Moreover, every topological space $X$ can be embedded into the contractible space $C X$ via the map $i: X \rightarrow C X$ given by $x \mapsto[x, 0]$.

## Problem Sheet B

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 3 and Lecture 4. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem B. $1(\dagger)$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces. Prove that any two maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic (in fact, nullhomotopic) if either

- $Y$ is contractible or
- $X$ is contractible and $Y$ is path connected.

Problem B. $2(\dagger)$. Let $X, Y$ and $Z$ be topological spaces. Suppose $A \subset X$ and $B \subset$ $Y$. Assume we are given two continuous maps $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.f_{0}\right|_{A}=\left.f_{1}\right|_{A}$ and such that $f_{i}(A) \subset B$ for $i=0,1$, and also two continuous maps $g_{0}, g_{1}: Y \rightarrow Z$ such that $\left.g_{0}\right|_{B}=g_{1} \mid B$. Assume that $f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ rel $A$ and $g_{0} \simeq g_{1}$ rel $B$. Prove that $g_{0} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{1}$ rel $A$.

Problem B. $3(\dagger)$. If $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$ are pointed spaces, prove that

$$
\pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q)) \cong \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q) .
$$

Problem B.4. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is freely nullhomotopic, prove that for any $p \in X$ the group homomorphism $\pi_{1}(f): \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, f(p))$ is trivial ${ }^{1}$.

Problem B. $5(\dagger)$. Take $(1,0) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ as the basepoint of $S^{1}$. Prove that for any pointed topological space, there is an isomorphism of groups:

$$
\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right],
$$

where $\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right]$ denotes the morphism space in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ (cf. Remark 4.8.)

[^93]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet B

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 3 and Lecture 4. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem B. $1(\dagger)$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces. Prove that any two maps $X \rightarrow Y$ are homotopic (in fact, nullhomotopic) if either

- $Y$ is contractible or
- $X$ is contractible and $Y$ is path connected.

Solution. First suppose that $Y$ is contractible. Let $F: Y \times I \rightarrow Y$ be a homotopy between $\operatorname{id}_{Y}$ and the constant $\operatorname{map} c(y) \equiv p$ for a fixed point $p \in Y$. I.e. $F(\cdot, 0)=\operatorname{id}_{Y}$ and $F(\cdot, 1)=c$. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. We want to show that $f$ is homotopic to the constant map $\tilde{c}: X \rightarrow Y$ with $\tilde{c}(x) \equiv p$. We define the homotopy

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
H: X \times I & \rightarrow & Y \\
(x, t) & \mapsto & F(f(x), t) .
\end{array}
$$

Clearly, $H(x, 0)=F(f(x), 0)=\operatorname{id}_{Y}(f(x))=f(x)$ and $H(x, 1)=F(f(x), 1)=$ $c(f(x))=\tilde{c}(x)$. Hence, $f$ is homotopic to a constant map and hence null homotopic.

Now assume that $X$ is contractible and $Y$ is path connected. Since $X$ is contractible there exists a homotopy

$$
F: X \times I \quad \rightarrow \quad X,
$$

such that $F(\cdot, 0)=\operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $F(\cdot, 1)=c$ with $c(x) \equiv q$ for every $x \in X$ and for a fixed $q \in Y$. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. We want to show that $f$ is nullhomotopic. We define

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
H: X \times I & \rightarrow & Y \\
(x, t) & \mapsto & f(F(x, t)) .
\end{array}
$$

Then we have $H(x, 0)=f(F(x, 0))=f(x)$ and $H(x, 1)=f(F(x, 1)) \equiv f(q)$ a constant map. Note that two constant maps are homotopic if their image (a point) lies in the same path component. Indeed, let $c_{0}: X \rightarrow Y$ and $c_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ be two constant maps with $c_{i}(x) \equiv q_{i}$ for $i=1,2$. Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow Y$ be a path in $Y$ such that $\gamma(0)=q_{0}$ and $\gamma(1)=q_{1}$. Then the map $H(x, t):=\gamma(t)$ defines a homotopy between $c_{0}$ and $c_{1}$. (In fact, two constant maps are homotopic if and only if their image lies in the same path component.)

Since $Y$ is path connected any two constant maps are homotopic. Moreover, since homotopy is an equivalence relation, it follows that any two null homotopic maps are also homotopic.

Problem B. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Let $X, Y$ and $Z$ be topological spaces. Suppose $A \subset X$ and $B \subset$ $Y$. Assume we are given two continuous maps $f_{0}, f_{1}: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $\left.f_{0}\right|_{A}=\left.f_{1}\right|_{A}$ and such that $f_{i}(A) \subset B$ for $i=0,1$, and also two continuous maps $g_{0}, g_{1}: Y \rightarrow Z$ such that $\left.g_{0}\right|_{B}=g_{1} \mid B$. Assume that $f_{0} \simeq f_{1}$ rel $A$ and $g_{0} \simeq g_{1}$ rel $B$. Prove that $g_{0} \circ f_{0} \simeq g_{1} \circ f_{1}$ rel $A$.
Solution. Let $F: X \times I \rightarrow Y$ be a homotopy rel $A$ between $f_{0}$ and $f_{1}$. Let $G: Y \times$ $I \rightarrow Z$ be a homotopy rel $B$ between $g_{0}$ and $g_{1}$. Then the map

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
H: X \times I & \rightarrow & Z \\
(x, t) & \mapsto & G(F(x, t), t)
\end{array}
$$

is a homotopy between $g_{0} \circ f_{0}$ and $g_{1} \circ f_{1}$. Moreover, for a point $a \in A$ we have by assumption that $F(a, t)=f_{0}(a)=f_{1}(a) \in B$ for and for every $b \in B$ we have that $G(b, t)=g_{0}(b)=g_{1}(b)$. Hence $H(a, t)=G(F(a, t), t)=g_{0}\left(f_{0}(a)\right)=g_{1}\left(f_{1}(a)\right)$.
Problem B. $3(\dagger)$. If $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$ are pointed spaces, prove that

$$
\pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q)) \cong \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q)
$$

Solution. Define $\phi: \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q))$ as follows. Let $u$ and $v$ be representatives of the classes $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ and $[v] \in \pi_{1}(Y, q)$. Put $\phi([u],[v]):=[w]$, where

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
w: I & \rightarrow & X \times Y \\
t & \mapsto & (u(t), v(t)) .
\end{array}
$$

Now we define a map $\psi: \pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q)) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q)$. Let $p_{1}: X \times Y \rightarrow X$ and $p_{2}: X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ denote the two obvious projections. For a map $w: I \rightarrow X \times Y$ representing a class $[w] \in \pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q))$ we define $\psi([w]):=\left(\left[p_{1} \circ w\right],\left[p_{2} \circ w\right]\right) \in$ $\pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q)$. Clearly $\phi \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{\pi_{1}(X \times Y,(p, q))}$ and $\psi \circ \phi=\operatorname{id}_{\pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(Y, q)}$.
Problem B.4. If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is freely nullhomotopic, prove that for any $p \in X$ the group homomorphism $\pi_{1}(f): \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, f(p))$ is trivial ${ }^{1}$.
Solution. Here are two different proofs:

1. First consider the special case where $f$ is actually the constant map $c(x)=q$. Then the result is obvious: the induced homomorphism $\pi_{1}(c): \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{1}(Y, q)$ is trivial, since if $u$ is any loop based at $p$ then $c \circ u$ is the constant loop $e_{q}$.
Now for the general case: suppose $F: c \simeq f$ where $c$ is the constant map $c(x)=q$. Fix $p \in X$, and let $w(s):=F(p, s)$, so that $w$ is a path from $q$ to $f(p)$. Then by Proposition 4.13, we can write

$$
\pi_{1}(f)=\lambda_{w} \circ \pi_{1}(c)
$$

as maps $\pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, f(p))$. Thus for any $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$,

$$
\pi_{1}(f)[u]=\lambda_{w}\left(\pi_{1}(c)[u]\right)=\lambda_{w}[q]=[f(p)],
$$

and hence $\pi_{1}(f)$ is trivial.

[^94]2. Now for a different approach. Let $F: X \times I \rightarrow Y$ be a free homotopy between $f$ and the constant map $c(x) \equiv q$. For a class $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ the map
\[

$$
\begin{array}{r}
G: S^{1} \times I \rightarrow Y \\
(s, t) \mapsto F(u(s), t)
\end{array}
$$
\]

defines a free homotopy between $f \circ u$ and $c \circ u$. In other words, the map $f \circ u: S^{1} \rightarrow Y$ is freely nullhomotopic. Hence, by Proposition 2.15 the map $f \circ u$ extends to a map $g: D^{2} \rightarrow Y$, where $D^{2}$ is the disk with boundary $S^{1}$, so have $\left.g\right|_{S^{1}}=f \circ u$. Because $D^{2}$ is contractible, we know that there exists a homotopy relative 1

$$
K: D^{2} \times I \rightarrow D^{2}
$$

such that $K(x, 0)=\operatorname{id}_{D^{2}}, K(x, 1) \equiv 1 \forall x$ and $K(1, t)=1 \forall t$. This gives rise to a homotopy relative $f(p)$ between the loops $f \circ u$ and the constant loop $f(p)$. Indeed, define

$$
\begin{array}{clc}
H: S^{1} \times I & \rightarrow & Y \\
(s, t) & \mapsto & g\left(\left.K\right|_{S^{1}}(s, t)\right) .
\end{array}
$$

Therefor for every $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ we have $\pi_{1}(f)[u]=[f \circ u] \cong[f(p)]$, which is the identity in $\pi_{1}(Y, f(p))$.

Problem B. $5(\dagger)$. Take $(1,0) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ as the basepoint of $S^{1}$. Prove that for any pointed topological space, there is an isomorphism of groups:

$$
\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right],
$$

where $\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right]$ denotes the morphism space in $\mathrm{h} \mathrm{Top}_{*}$ (cf. Remark 4.8.)
Solution. Consider the continuous map $\omega: I \rightarrow S^{1}$ defined by $\omega(s):=\left.\exp \right|_{I}$, where exp was defined in Definition 5.1. If $u$ is a loop in $X$, then $\hat{u}:=u \circ \omega^{-1}$ is a welldefined continuous map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$. Moreover if $u$ and $v$ are loops with $u \simeq v$ rel $\partial I$ via a homotopy $u_{t}(s)$ then $\hat{u} \simeq \hat{v}$ rel 1 via the homotopy $\hat{u}_{t}(x)=u_{t} \circ \omega^{-1}(x)$. Similarly if $u_{0}, u_{1}, v_{0}, v_{1}$ are four loops such that $u_{0}(0)=v_{0}(0), u_{0} \simeq u_{1}$ rel $\partial I$ and $v_{0} \simeq v_{1}$ rel $\partial I$, then $\left(u_{0} * v_{0}\right) \circ \omega^{-1} \simeq\left(u_{1} * v_{1}\right) \circ \omega^{-1}$ rel 1 .

This means that there is a well defined function $\pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right]$ that sends $[u]$ to $\left[u \circ \omega^{-1}\right]$. This function is in fact a bijection, as the inverse is given by $[\hat{u}] \mapsto[\hat{u} \circ \omega]$. Moreover, we can use this bijection to give $\left[\left(S^{1}, 1\right),(X, p)\right]$ a group structure: given loops $u, v$ set $w=u * v$ and define

$$
[\hat{u}] *[\hat{v}]:=[\hat{w}] .
$$

With this definition the RHS has a group structure and our bijection is in fact an isomorphism of groups.

## Problem Sheet C

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 5 and Lecture 6. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem C.1. Let C be a category, and let $C_{1}, C_{2}$ be two objects in C. The coproduct of $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ is triple ( $C, f_{1}, f_{2}$ ), where $C$ is another object in C, and $f_{1}: C_{1} \rightarrow C$ and $f_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow C$ are morphisms which satisfy the following universal property: if $D$ is any other object in C and $g_{1}: C_{1} \rightarrow D$ and $g_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow D$ are any two morphisms, then there exists a unique morphism $h: C \rightarrow D$ such that the following diagram commutes:


1. Prove that if the coproduct exists then it is unique up to isomorphism.
2. Prove that the coproduct exists in Groups. Hint: Show that the free product $G * H$ is the coproduct of $G$ and $H$.

Problem C.2. Given two pointed spaces $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$, we define their wedge product $X \vee Y$ as the subset of $X \times Y$ :

$$
X \vee Y:=\{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid x=p \text { or } y=q\} .
$$

We can view $X \vee Y$ as a pointed space with basepoint $(p, q)$. Inductively, one can also define the $k$-fold wedge $\bigvee_{i=1}^{k} X_{i}$ of $k$ pointed spaces $\left(X_{i}, p_{i}\right)$. Compute the fundamental group of the $k$-fold wedge ${ }^{1}$ of the circle $S^{1}$.

Problem C. $3(\dagger)$. Consider the square $I \times I$ and identify the edges as indicated in Figure C.1. This gives us three different topological spaces: the torus $T^{2}$, the real projective plane $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ and the Klein bottle. Compute the three fundamental groups.

Problem C. $4(\star)$. Consider the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$. Given $R>0$, let $\Sigma_{R}$ denote the set

$$
\Sigma_{R}:=\{z \in \mathbb{C}| | z \mid=R\} .
$$

1. Show that $\Sigma_{R}$ has the same homotopy type as $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ for each $R>0$.
2. Let $P_{R}^{n}: \Sigma_{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ denote the restriction to $\Sigma_{R}$ of the map $z \mapsto z^{n}$. Show that $P_{R}^{n}$ is never freely nullhomotopic.

[^95]

Figure C.1: Three ways to identify edges of $I \times I$.
3. Deduce the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra: that every nonconstant complex polynomial has a complex root.

Problem C. $5(\star)$. Let $(X, p)$ be a pointed space. Assume there is a pointed continuous map $m:(X \times X,(p, p)) \rightarrow(X, p)$ with the property that the pointed maps

$$
m_{1}:(X, p) \rightarrow(X, p), \quad m_{1}(x):=m(x, p)
$$

and

$$
m_{2}:(X, p) \rightarrow(X, p), \quad m_{2}(x):=m(p, x)
$$

are both homotopic to $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ rel $p$. Prove that $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet C

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 5 and Lecture 6. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem C.1. Let C be a category, and let $C_{1}, C_{2}$ be two objects in C. The coproduct of $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ is triple ( $C, f_{1}, f_{2}$ ), where $C$ is another object in C , and $f_{1} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{1}, C\right)$ and $f_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{2}, C\right)$, which satisfies the following universal property: if $D$ is any other object in $C$ and $g_{1} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{1}, D\right)$ and $g_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{2}, D\right)$ are any two morphisms, then there exists a unique morphism $h \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, D)$ such that the following diagram commutes:


1. Prove that if the coproduct exists then it is unique up to isomorphism.
2. Prove that the coproduct exists in Groups. Hint: Show that the free product $G * H$ is the coproduct of $G$ and $H$.

## Solution.

1. Suppose $\left(C, f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ and $\left(\tilde{C}, \tilde{f}_{1}, \tilde{f}_{2}\right)$ are two coproducts. By the universal property of $\left(C, f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ there exists a unique $h: C \rightarrow \tilde{C}$ such that the following diagram commutes.


Similarly there exists a unique $\tilde{h}$ such that the next diagram also commutes.


We need to show that $h \circ \tilde{h}=\operatorname{id}_{\tilde{C}}$ and $\tilde{h} \circ h=\operatorname{id}_{C}$. Notice that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \tilde{h} \circ h \circ f_{1}=\tilde{h} \circ \tilde{f}_{1}=f_{1} \\
& \tilde{h} \circ h \circ f_{2}=\tilde{h} \circ \tilde{f}_{2}=f_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h \circ \tilde{h} \circ \tilde{f}_{1}=h \circ f_{1}=\tilde{f}_{1} \\
& h \circ \tilde{h} \circ \tilde{f}_{2}=h \circ f_{2}=\tilde{f}_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider the diagram


Again by the universal property of the coproduct $\left(C, f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ there exists a unique $\phi$ such that the above diagram commutes. The identity $\mathrm{id}_{C}$ fulfils this property and hence by the uniqueness of the map $\phi$ we have that $\phi=\mathrm{id}_{C}$. But also $\tilde{h} \circ h$ fulfils this property. Hence $\operatorname{id}_{C}=\phi=\tilde{h} \circ h$. It follows from a similar argument that $\operatorname{id}_{\tilde{C}}=h \circ \tilde{h}$.
2. Let $G * H$ denote the free product of $G$ and $H$. Let $i_{1}: G \rightarrow G * H$ and $i_{2}: H \rightarrow G * H$ be the inclusions. We show that $\left(G * H, i_{1}, i_{2}\right)$ is the coproduct of $G$ abd $H$. Given a third group $K$ and two morphisms $\phi_{1}: G \rightarrow K$ and $\phi_{2}: H \rightarrow K$. Then we define the map

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\eta: G * H & \rightarrow & K \\
g_{1} h_{1} \cdots g_{r} h_{r} & \mapsto & \phi_{1}\left(g_{1}\right) \phi_{2}\left(h_{2}\right) \cdots \phi_{1}\left(g_{r}\right) \phi_{2}\left(h_{r}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

We can see that $\eta \circ i_{1}=\phi_{1}$ and $\eta \circ i_{2}=\phi_{2}$. The uniqueness of $\eta$ follows from the fact that $\eta$ has to be a group homomorphism and thus must satisfy $\eta\left(g_{1} h_{1} \cdots g_{r} h_{r}\right)=\eta\left(g_{1}\right) \eta\left(h_{1}\right) \cdots \eta\left(g_{r}\right) \eta\left(h_{r}\right)=\phi_{1}\left(g_{1}\right) \phi_{2}\left(h_{2}\right) \cdots \phi_{1}\left(g_{r}\right) \phi_{2}\left(h_{r}\right)$.
Problem C.2. Given two pointed spaces $(X, p)$ and $(Y, q)$, we define their wedge product $X \vee Y$ as the subset of $X \times Y$ :

$$
X \vee Y:=\{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid x=p \text { or } y=q\} .
$$

We can view $X \vee Y$ as a pointed space with basepoint $(p, q)$. Inductively, one can also define the $k$-fold wedge $\bigvee_{i=1}^{k} X_{i}$ of $k$ pointed spaces $\left(X_{i}, p_{i}\right)$. Compute the fundamental group of the $k$-fold wedge ${ }^{1}$ of the circle $S^{1}$.

Solution. We use the Seifert-van Kampen theorem to compute the fundamental group. First we note that this theorem can be applied recursively and that the free product with amalgamation is associative in the sense that $(A * B) * C=A *(B * C)$ for groups $A, B$ and $C$. Hence the Seifert-van Kampen theorem can be generalised

[^96]to the case of a topological space $X=X_{1} \cup \ldots \cup X_{k}$, where the $X_{i}$ are open subsets and $X_{1} \cap \ldots \cap X_{k}$ is non-empty and path connected. We assume that the base point of the $k$-fold wedge product of $S^{1}$ is the point $(1, \ldots, 1)$. Then $\bigvee_{i=1}^{k} S^{1}$ looks like the union of $k$ copies of $S^{1}$ with one point in common. The common point is $(1, \ldots, 1)$. Let $U_{\epsilon}$ be a small neighbourhood of 1 inside the circle $S^{1}$, such that $U_{\epsilon}$ is contractible.

For $i=1, \ldots, k$ let $X_{i}$ be the set $U_{\epsilon} \vee \ldots U_{\epsilon} \vee S^{1} \vee U_{\epsilon} \vee \ldots \vee U_{\epsilon}$, where the $S^{1}$ is at the $i$ th position. The sets $X_{i}$ are open and $X_{1} \cap \ldots \cap X_{k}$ is non-empty and path connected. Moreover $X_{1} \cap \ldots \cap X_{k}=U_{\epsilon} \vee \ldots \vee U_{\epsilon}$ it is contractible and hence simply connected. We know from the lecture that $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Thus is follows from Corollary 6.6 that

$$
\pi_{1}\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{k} S^{1},(1, \ldots, 1)\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{* k}
$$

where $\mathbb{Z}^{* k}$ denotes the k -fold free product of $\mathbb{Z}$.
Problem C. $3(\dagger)$. Consider the square $I \times I$ and identify the edges as indicated in Figure C.1. This gives us three different topological spaces: the torus $T^{2}$, the real projective plane $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ and the Klein bottle. Use the Seifert-van Kampen theorem


Figure C.1: Three ways to identify edges of $I \times I$.
to compute the three fundamental groups.

## Solution.

1. We choose the first open subset $X_{1}$ of the torus to be an open ball in the interior of the square. The second open subset $X_{2}$ is chosen to be a open subset containing the complement of $X_{1}$. (See figure C.2.) The set $X_{1}$ is contractible and thus simply connected. Moreover, $X_{2}$ is homotopy equivalent to the boundary of the rectangle, where the edges are identified as indicated in the picture. Thus $X_{2}$ has the homotopy type of $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$. (See Figure C.2.) Let $a$ and $b$ denote the two generators of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}, p\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$. Cleary, $X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ has the homotopy type of $S^{1}$. Note that $\left.\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{1}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right), p\right)\right) \subset$ $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ is trivial, since $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)=1$. We need to compute the subgroup $\left.\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right), p\right)\right) \subset \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$. The map $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right)$ sends the generator of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}, p\right)$ to the loop corresponding to the word $a b a^{-1} b^{-1}$. Therefore $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is the quotient of the free product of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1}, p\right)$ and $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$ by the normal subgroup generated by elements of the form $a b a^{-1} b^{-1}=1$. This means
that $a$ and $b$ commute. By Corollary 6.6 we conclude that

$$
\left.\pi_{1}\left(T^{2}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) / \pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right), p\right)\right) \cong\langle a, b \mid a b=b a\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}
$$



Figure C.2: The torus $T^{2}$
2. As before, let $X_{1}$ be an open ball in the interior of the square and $X_{2}$ a small open neighbourhood of the complement of $X_{1}$. (See Figure C.3.) Then $X_{1}$ is again simply connected and $X_{2}$ has the homotopy type of a circle $S^{1}$. Note that $c:=a b$ is a generator for $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$. The map $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right)$ sends the generator of $\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}, p\right)$ to the loop $a b a b$ in $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right)$. Moreover $\pi_{1}\left(\imath_{1}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}, p\right)=1\right.$ since $X_{1}$ is simply connected. Therefore

$$
\left.\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) / \pi_{1}\left(i_{2}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right), p\right)\right) \cong\langle c \mid c c=1\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} .
$$



Figure C.3: The projective plane $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$
3. Let $K$ denote the Klein bottle. Let $X_{1}$ be an open ball in the interior of the square and $X_{2}$ a small open neighbourhood of the complement of $X_{1}$. (See Figure C.4.) The set $X_{1}$ is simply connected and $X_{2}$ has the homotopy type of $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$. Let $a$ and $b$ denote the edges of the square. Then $a$ and $b$ are generators for $\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}, p\right)$. The loop corresponding to the word $a b a^{-1} b$ is contractible in $X_{1}$. Therefore we have

$$
\left.\pi_{1}\left(X_{2}, p\right) / \pi_{1}\left(\imath_{2}\right)\left(\pi_{1}\left(X_{1} \cap X_{2}\right), p\right)\right) \cong\left\langle a, b \mid a b a^{-1} b=1\right\rangle
$$



Figure C.4: The Klein bottle
4.

Problem C. $4(\star)$. Consider the complex plane $\mathbb{C}$. Given $R>0$, let $\Sigma_{R}$ denote the set

$$
\Sigma_{R}:=\{z \in \mathbb{C}| | z \mid=R\} .
$$

1. Show that $\Sigma_{R}$ has the same homotopy type as $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ for each $R>0$.
2. Let $P_{R}^{n}: \Sigma_{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ denote the restriction to $\Sigma_{R}$ of the map $z \mapsto z^{n}$. Show that $P_{R}^{n}$ is never freely nullhomotopic for $n>0$.
3. Deduce the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra: that every nonconstant complex polynomial has a complex root.

## Solution.

1. We define the map

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
r_{R}: \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\} & \rightarrow & \Sigma_{R} \\
z & \mapsto & \frac{z}{|z|} R
\end{array}
$$

and the inclusion $i: \Sigma_{R} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. Then $r_{R} \circ i=\operatorname{id}_{\Sigma_{R}}$. Moreover, the map

$$
\begin{array}{clc}
H: \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\} \times I & \rightarrow & \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\} \\
(z, t) & \mapsto & z(1-t)+\frac{z}{|z|} R t
\end{array}
$$

is a homotopy between $i \circ r_{R}=H(\cdot, 1)$ and $H(\cdot, 0)=\operatorname{id}_{\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}}$.
2. Suppose by contradiction that $P_{R}^{n}: \Sigma_{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ is freely nullhomotopic. Let $F: P_{R}^{n} \simeq c$ be a homotopy to the constant map $c(z) \equiv p$. Then $P_{R}^{n}$ extends to the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
f: D_{R} & \rightarrow \\
z & \mapsto \begin{cases}p, & 0 \leq|x| \leq \frac{R}{2}, \\
F\left(\frac{z}{|z|} R, 2-\frac{2}{R}|z|\right), & \frac{R}{2} \leq|x| \leq R,\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $D_{R}$ is the disk with radius $R$ and centre 0 . The set $D_{R}$ is contractible and $f$ is continuous. For simplicity we assume w.l.o.g. that $R=1$, so that $D_{R}$ is the unit ball $B^{2}$. We have group homomorphisms

$$
\pi_{1}\left(B^{2}, 1\right) \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}(f)} \pi_{1}(\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}, 1) \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}\left(r_{1}\right)} \pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right) .
$$

But $\pi_{1}\left(B^{2}, 1\right)=\{1\}$ and $\pi_{1}\left(r_{1}\right) \circ \pi_{1}(f)$ maps the contractible loop $t \rightarrow e^{i t 2 \pi}$ in $B^{2}$ to $n$ times the generator in $\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}, 1\right)$. This is a contradiction.
3. Consider the polynomial with complex coefficients:

$$
g(z)=z^{n}+a_{n-1} z^{n-1}+\ldots a_{1} z+a_{0}
$$

First we show that $g \mid \Sigma_{R_{1}}$ is homotopic in $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ to the polyominal $P_{R}^{n} \mid \Sigma_{R}$. Choose $R>\max \left\{1, \sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left|a_{i}\right|\right\}$. Define the map

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
H: \Sigma_{R} \times I & \rightarrow & \mathbb{C} \\
(z, t) & \mapsto & z^{n}+\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(1-t) a_{i} z^{i}
\end{array}
$$

If we can show that $H(z, t)$ is never zero then the image of $H$ lies in $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ and $H$ is a homotopy between $\left.g(z)\right|_{\Sigma_{R}}$ and $P_{R}^{n}(z)$ in $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. Suppose by contradiction that there exists a $t \in I$ and a $z$ with $|z|=R$ such that $H(z, t)=0$. Then we have $z^{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(1-t) a_{i} z^{i}$. The triangle inequality gives

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

If $R>1$ we have $R \leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1}\left|a_{i}\right|$, which contradicts the choice of $R$.
Assume now that g has no complex roots. Define $G: \Sigma_{R} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ by $G(z, t)=g((1-t) z)$. (Since $g$ has no root the values of $G$ do lie in $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$. ) Visibly, $G$ is a homotopy of $\left.g\right|_{\Sigma_{R}}$ in $\mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}$ to the constant map $a_{0}$. Therefore $g$ is nullhomotopic and, by transitivity, $P_{R}^{n}$ is nullhomotopic, contradicting part (2).

Problem C. $5(\star)$. Let $(X, p)$ be a pointed space. Assume there is a pointed map $m:(X \times X,(p, p)) \rightarrow(X, p)$ with the property that the pointed maps

$$
m_{1}:(X, p) \rightarrow(X, p), \quad m_{1}(x):=m(x, p)
$$

and

$$
m_{2}:(X, p) \rightarrow(X, p), \quad m_{2}(x):=m(p, x)
$$

are both homotopic to $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ rel $p$. Prove that $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian.
Solution. In Problem B.3, we proved that $\Phi: \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X \times$ $X,(p, p))$, defined by $([u],[v]) \rightarrow[(u, v)]$, is an isomorphism, where $(u, v)$ is the path in $X \times X$ given by $s \mapsto(u(s), v(s))$. Choose $[u],[v] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$. Let $c: X \rightarrow X$ be the constant path $c(x) \equiv p$. Note that $m_{1}=m \circ\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}, c\right)$ and $m_{2}=m \circ\left(c, \mathrm{id}_{X}\right)$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[v] } & = & \pi_{1}\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}\right)[v] & \\
& = & \pi_{1}\left(m_{2}\right)[v], & \text { as } m_{2} \simeq \mathrm{id}_{X} \\
& = & \pi_{1}\left(m \circ\left(c, \mathrm{id}_{X}\right)\right)[v] & \\
& = & \pi_{1}(m)([c \circ v, v]) & \\
& = & \pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([c \circ v],[v]), & \\
& = & \pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([p],[v]), & \text { as } c \circ v=e_{p}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $[p]$ is the identity element in $\pi_{1}(X, p)$. Similarly,

$$
[u]=\pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([u],[p])
$$

Now observe that as elements of $\pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(X, p)$, one has

$$
([u],[v])=([p],[v]) \cdot([u],[p])
$$

Since $\pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi: \pi_{1}(X, p) \times \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, p)$ is a homomorphism, we have

$$
\begin{array}{rlc}
\pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([u],[v]) & = & \pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi(([p],[v]) \cdot([u],[p])) \\
& = & \pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([p],[v]) \cdot \pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([u],[p]) \\
& = & {[v][u] .}
\end{array}
$$

If instead one factors $([u],[v])=([u],[p]) \cdot([p],[v])$, the same reasoning shows that $\pi_{1}(m) \circ \Phi([u],[v])=[u][v]$. We conclude that $[v][u]=[u][v]$, hence $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian.

## Problem Sheet D

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 7 and Lecture 8. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem D. 1 ( $\dagger$ ). Some questions on (free) abelian groups:

1. Prove that every abelian group $G$ is isomorphic to a quotient group of the form $F / R$, where $F$ is a free abelian group.
2. Prove that every any two bases of a free abelian group have the same cardinality (and thus the notion of the rank of a free abelian group is well-defined).
3. Prove that two free abelian groups are isomorphic if and only if they have the same rank.
4. Prove that if $G$ is an arbitrary abelian group then there exists a free abelian subgroup $F$ of $G$ such that $G / F$ is torsion.

Problem D. $2(\dagger)$. Let $P=\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ denote an $n$-simplex, where $n \geq 1$. Construct an explicit homeomorphism $(P, \partial P) \rightarrow\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$.

Problem D. $3(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a one-point space $\{p\}$. Prove $^{1}$ that $H_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n>0$.

Problem D. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a topological space. Let $\left\{X_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote the path components of $X$. Prove that for every $n \geq 0$ one has ${ }^{2}$

$$
H_{n}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)
$$

[^97]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet D

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 7 and Lecture 8. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem D. 1 ( $\dagger$ ). Some questions on (free) abelian groups:

1. Prove that every abelian group $G$ is isomorphic to a quotient group of the form $F / R$, where $F$ is a free abelian group.
2. Prove that any two bases of a free abelian group have the same cardinality (and thus the notion of the rank of a free abelian group is well-defined).
3. Prove that two free abelian groups are isomorphic if and only if they have the same rank.
4. Prove that if $G$ is an arbitrary abelian group then there exists a free abelian subgroup $F$ of $G$ such that $G / F$ is torsion.

## Solution.

1. For an abelian group $G$ let $F(G)$ be the free abelian group generated by the set $G$. Let $B$ be a basis of $F(G)$. Since $G$ generates $F(G)$ we can assume that $B \subset G$. By Lemma 7.2 there exists a unique group homomorphsim $\phi: F(G) \rightarrow$ $G$ such that $\phi(b)=b$ for every $b \in B$. Clearly, $\left.\phi\right|_{G}=I d_{G}$ and hence $\phi$ is surjective. Let $R:=\operatorname{ker} \phi$ then $G \cong F(G) / R$.
2. Let $p$ be prime. A free abelian group is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module. Then $G / p G$ is a module over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. But $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ is a field and thus $G / p G$ is a vector space over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. A basis $B$ of $G$ induces a basis of $G / p G$ as a vector space over $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ and they have the same cardinality. (The basis of $G / p G$ is given by $\{b+p \mathbb{Z} \mid b \in B\}$.) Any two bases of a vector space have the same cardinality.
3. Here are two proofs:

Two free abelian groups $F$ and $G$ are isomorphic if and only if the vector spaces $F / p F$ and $G / p G$ are isomorphic. Hence, they are isomorphic if and only if their bases have the same cardinality.
Let $F$ and $G$ be two isomorphic free abelian groups and $\phi$ an isomorphism between them. Let $B$ be a basis of $F$. Since $\phi$ is bijective and a group homomorphism it follows that $\phi(B)$ is a basis of $G$ and $|B|=|\phi(B)|$. For the other direction, let $B$ be a basis of $F$ and $B^{\prime}$ a basis of $G$ and suppose that $|B|=\left|B^{\prime}\right|$. Let $\phi: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ be a bijection and $\psi: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ its inverse. By Lemma 7.2 there exists a unique group homomorphism $\tilde{\phi}: F \rightarrow G$ such that $\tilde{\phi}(b)=\phi(b)$ for every $b \in B$. Similarly there exists a unique $\tilde{\psi}: G \rightarrow F$ such that $\tilde{\psi}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=\psi\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ for every $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$. Since $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ generate $F$ and $G$ and $\tilde{\phi}$ and $\tilde{\psi}$ are group homomorphisms it follows that $\tilde{\phi}: F \rightarrow G$ is a group isomorphism with inverse $\tilde{\psi}: G \rightarrow F$.
4. Define a subset $A$ of $G$ to be independent if $\forall a_{i} \in A$ and $\forall z_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ if $\sum_{i} z_{i} a_{i}=0$ then necessarily $z_{i}=0 \forall i$. By Zorn's Lemma a maximal independent set exists, call it $B$. Let $F$ be the free abelian subgroup of $G$ generated by $B$. Then $G / F$ is torsion by maximality of $B$.
Here is another proof which is more constructive (i.e. it does not need Zorn's Lemma), but only ${ }^{1}$ works for finitely generated groups. Let $T:=\{g \in G \mid$ $g$ is torsion\} be the torsion subgroup. This is a normal subgroup of $G$ and $G / T$ is free. Then there exists a short exact sequence

$$
0 \longrightarrow T \xrightarrow{i} G \xrightarrow{p} G / T \longrightarrow 0 .
$$

(Short exact sequences will soon be defined in Lecture 12.) Since $G / T$ is free the sequence is split, i.e. there exists a map $s: G / T \rightarrow G$, such that $p \circ s=\operatorname{id}_{G / T}$ and $r: G \rightarrow T$ such that $r \circ i=\mathrm{id}_{T}$ (you will prove this on Problem Sheet F.) The group homomorphism $s$ is injective and $s(G / T)<G$ is a free subgroup. Moreover, $G / s(G / T) \cong T$ is torsion.
Problem D. $2(\dagger)$. Let $P=\left[z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n}\right]$ denote an $n$-simplex, where $n \geq 1$. Construct an explicit homeomorphism $(P, \partial P) \rightarrow\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$.

Solution. Let $b$ denote the barycentre of the $n$-simplex $P$. Since $P$ is convex, for a point $x \in P \backslash\{b\}$ the line spanned by $\vec{x}-\vec{b}$ intersects $\partial P$ at a unique point, which we call $s(x)$. Define

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\phi:(P, \partial P) & \rightarrow & \left(B^{n}, \partial B^{n}\right) \\
x & \mapsto & \frac{\vec{x}-\vec{b}}{|s(x)-\vec{b}|} \\
b & \mapsto & 0 .
\end{array}
$$

This is a bijective continuous map between compact Hausdorff spaces, and hence is a homeomorphism.
Problem D. $3(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a one-point space $\{*\}$. Prove ${ }^{2}$ that $H_{n}(X)=0$ for all $n>0$.
Solution. For every $n \geq 0$ the group of $n$-chains $C_{n}(X)$ has exactly one generator, namely the constant $n$-chain $\kappa_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow\{*\}$. The boundary of the constant $n$-chain $\kappa_{n}$ is precisely

$$
\partial \kappa_{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \kappa_{n} \circ \varepsilon_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \kappa_{n-1}= \begin{cases}\kappa_{n-1}, & n \text { even and } \geq 2 \\ 0, & n \text { odd and } \geq 1 \\ 0, & n=0\end{cases}
$$

(Recall that the boundary of a 0 -chain is by definition zero.) Hence, the group $Z_{n}(X)$ of singular $n$-chains is

$$
Z_{n}(X)= \begin{cases}0, & n \text { even and } \geq 0 \\ C_{n}(X)=\mathbb{Z} \cdot \kappa_{n}, & n \text { odd and } \geq 1, \\ C_{n}(X)=\mathbb{Z} \cdot \kappa_{n}, & n=0,\end{cases}
$$

[^98]and
\[

B_{n}(X)= $$
\begin{cases}0, & n \text { even and } \geq 0 \\ C_{n}(X)=\mathbb{Z} \cdot \kappa_{n}, & n \text { odd and } \geq 1\end{cases}
$$
\]

In both cases we conclude that $H_{n}(X)=Z_{n}(X) / B_{n}(X)=0$ for every $n \geq 1$. In dimension zero $Z_{0}(X)=\mathbb{Z} \cdot \kappa_{0}$ and $B_{0}(X)=0$ which shows that $H_{0}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Problem D. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a topological space. Let $\left\{X_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ denote the path components of $X$. Prove that for every $n \geq 0$ one has ${ }^{3}$

$$
H_{n}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)
$$

Solution. Since an $n$-chain is continuous and an $n$-simplex is path connected, its image must lie inside one path component. Hence $C_{n}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} C_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)$. Moreover the boundary of an $n$-chain must lie in the same path component, i.e. the boundary operator can be written as a sum of operators $\sum \partial_{\lambda}: \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} C_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow$ $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} C_{n-1}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)$. Therefore we have for every $\lambda: B_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) \subseteq Z_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right) \subseteq C_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)$, which implies

$$
H_{n}(X) \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} H_{n}\left(X_{\lambda}\right)
$$

[^99]
## Problem Sheet E

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 9 and Lecture 10. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem E. 1 ( $\dagger$ ). Let $G$ be a group. Prove that there exists at most one abelian group $A$ and a group homomorphism $p: G \rightarrow A$ satisfying the following universal property: if $A^{\prime}$ is any other abelian group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism, then $\varphi$ induces a unique homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ :


Prove that taking $A=G^{\mathrm{ab}}:=G /[G, G]$ and $p$ the quotient map solves this universal property.

Problem E.2 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove that the Hurewicz map is natural ${ }^{1}$. That is, suppose $f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ is a pointed map. Prove that the following diagram commutes:


Problem E. $3(\dagger)$. Let $u: I \rightarrow X$ be a (not necessarily closed) path. Prove that:

1. The singular 1-chain $u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$, where we are using the notation convention from Remark 9.1, and hence $\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a well defined homology class.
2. Prove that $\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0 \in H_{1}(X)$.

Problem E. 4 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $u, v, w$ are three not necessarily closed paths in $X$. Assume that $u(1)=v(0)$ and $v(1)=w(0)$ and $w(1)=u(0)$, so the concatenation $u * v * w$ is well defined and is a loop. Prove that:

1. The singular 1-chain $u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$ and hence defines a homology class $\left\langle u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right\rangle$.
2. Since $u * v * w$ is a loop, we know from Proposition 9.2 that $(u * v * w)^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$ and hence determines a homology class $\left\langle(u * v * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Prove that actually,

$$
\left\langle(u * v * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right\rangle .
$$

Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
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${ }^{1}$ The precise meaning of the word "natural" and why this exercises means $h$ is natural will be explained at the end of the course when we study natural transformations.

Problem E. $5(\dagger)$. Prove that a sequence $A \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} B \stackrel{g}{\rightarrow} C$ is exact in Comp if and only if $A_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} B_{n} \xrightarrow{g_{n}} C_{n}$ is exact in Ab for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Problem E. $6(\dagger)$. Suppose $\left\{\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}, \partial^{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a family of complexes indexed by a set $\Lambda$. Recall their direct sum is the complex $\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}$ equipped with the boundary operator $\sum_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda}$. Prove that for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{n}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)=\bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right) .
$$

## Solutions to Problem Sheet E

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 9 and Lecture 10. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem E. $1(\dagger)$. Let $G$ be a group. Prove that there exists at most one abelian group $A$ and a group homomorphism $p: G \rightarrow A$ satisfying the following universal property: if $A^{\prime}$ is any other abelian group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism, then $\varphi$ induces a unique homomorphism $\tilde{\varphi}: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ :


Prove that taking $A=G^{\mathrm{ab}}:=G /[G, G]$ and $p$ the quotient map solves this universal property.

Solution. The fact that there exists at most once such pair $(A, p)$ is the "usual" universal property argument. If $(A, p)$ and $\left(A^{\prime}, p^{\prime}\right)$ were two pairs then we would get unique homomorphisms $\varphi: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $\varphi^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi \circ p=p^{\prime}$ and $\varphi^{\prime} \circ p^{\prime}=p$. But then $\varphi^{\prime} \circ \varphi: A \rightarrow A$ satisfies $\left(\varphi^{\prime} \circ \varphi\right) \circ p=p$. By uniqueness, $\varphi^{\prime} \circ \varphi=\mathrm{id}_{A}$. Similarly $\varphi \circ \varphi^{\prime}=\operatorname{id}_{A^{\prime}}$.

Let $A=G^{\mathrm{ab}}:=G /[G, G]$ and $p: G \rightarrow G /[G, G]$ the quotient map. We want to show that $(G, p)$ fulfills the universal property. Let $A^{\prime}$ be an abelian group and $\phi: G \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ a group homomorphism. Define $\tilde{\phi}: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ by $\tilde{\phi}([a]):=\phi(a)$, where $[a] \in A$ with representative $a \in G$. This is well-defined since $\phi(g h-h g)=\phi(g) \phi(h)-$ $\phi(h) \phi(g)=0$ for every $g, h \in G$ and hence $\phi$ descends to the quotient $G /[G, G]$. It is easy to see that $\tilde{\phi} \circ p=\phi$. Uniqueness of the map $\tilde{\phi}$ also follows directly from its definition. Suppose $\tilde{\psi}$ is another such homomorphism. Then $\tilde{\psi}([g])=\phi(g)=\tilde{\phi}([g])$, which shows that $\tilde{\psi}=\tilde{\phi}$.

Problem E. $2(\dagger)$. Prove that the Hurewicz map is natural ${ }^{1}$. That is, suppose $f:(X, p) \rightarrow(Y, q)$ is a pointed map. Prove that the following diagram commutes:


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${ }^{1}$ The precise meaning of the word "natural" and why this exercises means $h$ is natural will be explained at the end of the course when we study natural transformations.

Solution. Recall that $\pi_{1}(f)([u]):=[f \circ u]$ and $H_{1}(f)\left(\left[\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right]\right):=\left[\sum_{i} a_{i} f \circ \sigma_{i}\right]$. Since all maps involved are group homomorphism is suffices to show that the diagram commutes for a generator $[u] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$. Then $h_{q} \circ \pi_{1}(f)([u])=\left\langle(f \circ u)^{\prime}\right\rangle$ and $\left.H_{1}(f) \circ h_{p}([u])=\left\langle f \circ(u)^{\prime}\right\rangle\right)$. But $(f \circ u)^{\prime}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}\right)=f \circ u\left(s_{1}\right)=f \circ u^{\prime}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}\right)$, which proves the claim.

## Problem E. $3(\dagger)$. Let $u: I \rightarrow X$ be a (not necessarily closed) path. Prove that:

1. The singular 1-chain $u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$, where we are using the notation convention from Remark 9.1, and hence $\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a well defined homology class.
2. Prove that $\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right\rangle=0 \in H_{1}(X)$.

## Solution.

1. We check $\partial\left(u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right)=u(1)-u(0)+\bar{u}(1)-\bar{u}(0)=0$, since $\bar{u}(1)=u(o)$ and $\bar{u}(0)=u(1)$.
2. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$ be the simplex defined by $\sigma\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}\right):=u\left(s_{1}\right)$. Then $\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{2}=$ $u^{\prime}, \sigma \circ \varepsilon_{0}=\bar{u}^{\prime}$ and $\sigma \circ \varepsilon_{1}=\kappa_{1}$, where $\kappa_{1}: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$ denotes the constant 1 -chain with image $u(0)$. We calculate the boundary $\partial \sigma=u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}-\kappa_{1}$. Now $\kappa_{1}$ itself is a boundary. Indeed, let $\kappa_{2}: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X$ denote the constant 2-chain with image $u(0)$. Then $\partial \kappa_{2}=\kappa_{1}$ (cf. the solution to Problem D.3.) Hence $\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle u^{\prime}+\bar{u}^{\prime}-\kappa_{1}\right\rangle=0$.

Problem E. 4 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $u, v, w$ are three not necessarily closed paths in $X$. Assume that $u(1)=v(0)$ and $v(1)=w(0)$ and $w(1)=u(0)$, so the concatenation $u * v * w$ is well defined and is a loop. Prove that:

1. The singular 1-chain $u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$ and hence defines a homology class $\left\langle u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right\rangle$.
2. Since $u * v * w$ is a loop, we know from Proposition 9.2 that $(u * v * w)^{\prime}$ belongs to $Z_{1}(X)$ and hence determines a homology class $\left\langle(u * v * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Prove that actually,

$$
\left\langle(u * v * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right\rangle .
$$

## Solution.

1. $\partial\left(u^{\prime}+v^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right)=u(1)-u(0)+v(1)-v(0)+w(1)-w(0)=0$, where the last equality follows from the fact that $u(1)=v(0)$ and $v(1)=w(0)$ and $w(1)=u(0)$.
2. Define two 2-chains $\sigma_{1}$ and $\sigma_{2}$ such that $\partial \sigma_{1}=v^{\prime}-(u * v)^{\prime}+u^{\prime}$ and $\partial \sigma_{2}=$ $w^{\prime}-((u * v) * w)^{\prime}+(u * v)^{\prime}$. They are given for example by $\sigma_{1}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}\right):=$ $(u * v)^{\prime}\left(s_{0}+\frac{s_{1}}{2}, \frac{s_{1}}{2}+s_{2}\right)$ and $\sigma_{2}\left(s_{0}, s_{1}, s_{2}\right):=((u * v) * w)^{\prime}\left(s_{0}+\frac{s_{1}}{2}, \frac{s_{1}}{2}+s_{2}\right)$. Then $\sigma_{1}+\sigma_{2} \in C_{2}(X)$ and their boundary is $\partial\left(\sigma_{1}+\sigma_{2}\right)=v^{\prime}-(u * v)^{\prime}+u^{\prime}+$ $w^{\prime}-((u * v) * w)^{\prime}+(u * v)^{\prime}=v^{\prime}+u^{\prime}+w^{\prime}-((u * v) * w)^{\prime}$. This proves that $\left\langle v^{\prime}+u^{\prime}+w^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle((u * v) * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle=\left\langle(u * v * w)^{\prime}\right\rangle$.

Problem E. $5(\dagger)$. Prove that a sequence $A \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} B \bullet \xrightarrow{g} C$ is exact in Comp if and only if $A_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} B_{n} \xrightarrow{g_{n}} C_{n}$ is exact in Ab for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Solution. Saying that $A_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{n}} B_{n} \xrightarrow{g_{n}} C_{n}$ is exact for all $n$ is saying that $\operatorname{im} f_{n}=$ $\operatorname{ker} g_{n}$ for all $n$. A priori, that claim that the two complexes $(\operatorname{im} g)$. and $(\operatorname{ker} f)$ • should agree is a stronger statement (since it also requires the boundary operators to coincide). But in this case since the boundary operator is simply given by restriction (as these are both subcomplexes of $B_{\bullet}$ ), and hence this latter condition is automatic.

Problem E. $6(\dagger)$. Suppose $\left\{\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}, \partial^{\lambda}\right) \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a family of complexes indexed by a set $\Lambda$. Recall their direct sum is the complex $\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}^{\lambda}$ equipped with the boundary operator $\sum_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda}$. Prove that for all $n \geq 0$,

$$
H_{n}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)=\bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)
$$

Solution. Fix $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. For every $\lambda$ we have $\partial_{n}^{\lambda}: C_{n}^{\lambda} \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\lambda}$ and $\partial_{n}^{\lambda}\left(C_{n}^{\lambda}\right) \subseteq C_{n-1}^{\lambda}$. This implies $\operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{n+1}^{\lambda}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{n}^{\lambda}\right) \subseteq C_{n}^{\lambda}$ and thus

$$
H_{n}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{ker} \sum_{\lambda} \partial_{n}^{\lambda}}{\operatorname{im} \sum_{\lambda} \partial_{n+1}^{\lambda}} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda} \frac{\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}^{\lambda}}{\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}^{\lambda}} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)
$$

The isomorphism can be written explicitly as follows. An element of $\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{n}^{\lambda}$ is a tuple $\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ where all but finitely many of the $c_{\lambda} \in C_{n}^{\lambda}$ are zero. The boundary operator is given by $\left(\sum_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda}\right)\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}=\left(\partial^{\lambda} c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. We define a map

$$
f: H_{n}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)
$$

by

$$
\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle \mapsto\left(\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} .
$$

The element on the right-hand side does indeed belong to $\bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)$, since as at most finitely many of the $c_{\lambda}$ are non-zero, also at most finitely many of the $\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle$ are non-zero. The map $f$ is well defined as $\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle=\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle$ if and only if $0=\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}-c_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle$. The latter if true if and only if there exists $\left(b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \in \bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{n+1}^{\lambda}$ with the property that $\left(\sum_{\lambda} \partial^{\lambda}\right)\left(b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}=\left(c_{\lambda}-c_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. Then $\partial^{\lambda} b_{\lambda}=c_{\lambda}-c_{\lambda}^{\prime}$ for each $\lambda$, and hence also $\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle=\left\langle c_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right\rangle$ for each $\lambda$.

Next, for any element $\left(\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \in \bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)$, there always exists another element $\left(\left\langle\tilde{c}_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ with the property that

$$
\left(\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}=\left(\left\langle\tilde{c}_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}
$$

and at most finitely many of the $\tilde{c}_{\lambda}$ are non-zero. Indeed, if $\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle=0$, set $\tilde{c}_{\lambda}:=0$, and if $\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle \neq 0$, set $\tilde{c}_{\lambda}:=c_{\lambda}$.

This implies that if $\left(\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \in \bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right)$ then $\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle$ does indeed belong to $H_{n}\left(\oplus_{\lambda} C_{\boldsymbol{\bullet}}^{\lambda}\right)$. Then the same argument as above shows that the map

$$
g: \bigoplus_{\lambda} H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(\bigoplus_{\lambda} C_{\bullet}^{\lambda}\right) .
$$

by

$$
\left(\left\langle c_{\lambda}\right\rangle\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mapsto\left\langle\left(c_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right\rangle
$$

is well defined.
Finally, both $f$ and $g$ are homomorphisms by construction, and it is clear they are mutually inverse. Thus in particular $f$ is an isomorphism, and the proof is complete.

## Problem Sheet F

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 11 and Lecture 12. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $*$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem F. 1 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the Five Lemma: Suppose we have a commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


Prove that

1. If $g$ and $k$ are injectice and $f$ is surjective, $h$ is injective.
2. If $g$ and $k$ are surjective and $l$ is injective, $h$ is surjective.
3. If $f, g, k, l$ are all isomorphisms then so is $h$.

Problem F. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the Barratt-Whitehead Lemma: Suppose we have the following commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


Assume each map $h_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism. Then there is a long exact sequence:

$$
\cdots \rightarrow A_{n} \xrightarrow{\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)} B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}} B_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \ldots,
$$

where $\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right): A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $a \mapsto\left(i_{n}(a), f_{n}(a)\right)$ and $g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}: B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow$ $B_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $\left(b, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$.

Problem F. $3(\star)$. Consider the following commutative braid of abelian groups:


Assume that three of the "strands" form long exact sequences:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \ldots \longrightarrow E_{n+1} \longrightarrow A_{n} \longrightarrow B_{n} \longrightarrow E_{n} \longrightarrow A_{n-1} \longrightarrow D_{n+1} \longrightarrow F_{n+1} \longrightarrow B_{n} \longrightarrow D_{n} \longrightarrow F_{n} \longrightarrow{ }^{\longrightarrow} \longrightarrow \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow A_{n} \longrightarrow C_{n} \longrightarrow F_{n} \longrightarrow A_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow \longrightarrow F_{n+1} \longrightarrow A_{n} \longrightarrow{ }^{\longrightarrow} \longrightarrow{ }^{\longrightarrow} \longrightarrow
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume in addition that

$$
\operatorname{im} i_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{n} \quad \text { or } \quad \operatorname{ker} j_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{im} i_{n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Prove that the fourth strand

$$
\ldots \longrightarrow D_{n+1} \longrightarrow E_{n+1} \longrightarrow C_{n} \xrightarrow{i_{n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{j_{n}} E_{n} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

is also a long exact sequence.
Problem F. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X^{\prime \prime} \subseteq X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be subspaces. Prove there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

We call this the long exact sequence of the triple ( $X, X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ ). Hint: Use the previous problem!

Suppose we are given two triples $\left(X, X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\left(Y, Y^{\prime}, Y^{\prime \prime}\right)$, together with a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f\left(X^{\prime}\right) \subseteq Y^{\prime}$ and $f\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right) \subseteq Y^{\prime \prime}$. Prove there is a commutative diagram with exact rows:

where all the vertical maps are induced by $f$.

Problem F. $5(\dagger)$. Let $\emptyset \neq X^{\prime} \subseteq X$. Prove there is a long exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

which ends with $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Problem F. $6(\dagger)$. Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of abelian groups.

1. Prove that the sequence splits if and only if there exists a map $k: B \rightarrow A$ such that $k f=\mathrm{id}_{A}$.
2. Give an example of such a short exact sequence where $B \cong A \oplus C$ but such that the sequence does not split.
3. Prove that if $C$ is free abelian then the sequence always splits.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet F

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 11 and Lecture 12. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $*$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.
Problem F. 1 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the Five Lemma: Suppose we have a commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


Prove that

1. If $g$ and $k$ are injective and $f$ is surjective, $h$ is injective.
2. If $g$ and $k$ are surjective and $l$ is injective, $h$ is surjective.
3. If $f, g, k, l$ are all isomorphisms then so is $h$.

Solution. 1. Let $c \in C$ such that $h(c)=0$. Then $k \circ \gamma(c)=\gamma^{\prime} \circ h(c)=0$ and thus $\gamma(c)=0$ since $k$ is injective. Then $\beta(b)=c$ for some $b \in B$ and $\beta^{\prime} \circ g(b)=h \circ \beta(b)=h(c)=0$. So $g(b) \in \operatorname{ker}\left(\beta^{\prime}\right)$ and $\alpha^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=g(b)$ for some $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$. Since $f$ is surjective $f(a)=a^{\prime}$ for some $a \in A$ and $\alpha^{\prime}(f(a))=g(b)$ by commutativity. Then $g(b-\alpha(a))=g(b)-g \circ \alpha(a)=g(b)-\alpha^{\prime} \circ f(a)=0$. Since $g$ is injective $b-\alpha(a)=0$. Hence $c=\beta(b)=\beta \circ \alpha(a)=0$ which shows that $h$ is injective.
2. Let $c^{\prime} \in C^{\prime}$. Since $k$ is surjective $k(d)=\gamma^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)$ for some $d \in D$. From exactness of the lower row $\delta^{\prime} \circ \gamma^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)=0$ and thus also $0=\delta^{\prime} \circ k(d)=l \circ \delta(d)$. Now $\delta(d)=0$ since $l$ is injective and thus $\gamma(c)=d$ for some $c \in C$ by exactness of the upper row. Then $\gamma^{\prime}\left(h(c)-c^{\prime}\right)=0$ since $\gamma^{\prime} \circ h(c)=k \circ \gamma(c)=k(d)=\gamma^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)$. So $\beta^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=c^{\prime}-h(c)$ for some $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}$ by exactness of the lower row. Since $g$ is surjective $g(b)=b^{\prime}$ for some $b \in B$ and $h \circ \beta(b)=\beta^{\prime} \circ g(b)=\beta^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=c^{\prime}-h(c)$. Now $h(\beta(b)+c)=h \circ \beta(b)+h(c)=\beta^{\prime} \circ g(b)+h(c)=c^{\prime}-h(c)+h(c)=c^{\prime}$, which proves that $h$ is surjective.
3. Follows directly from part (1) and part (2).

Problem F. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the Barratt-Whitehead Lemma: Suppose we have the following commutative diagram of abelian groups, where the two rows are exact:


[^100]Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.

Assume each map $h_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ is an isomorphism. Then there is a long exact sequence:

$$
\cdots \rightarrow A_{n} \xrightarrow{\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)} B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}} B_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}} A_{n-1} \rightarrow \ldots,
$$

where $\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right): A_{n} \rightarrow B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $a \mapsto\left(i_{n}(a), f_{n}(a)\right)$ and $g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}: B_{n} \oplus A_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow$ $B_{n}^{\prime}$ is given by $\left(b, a^{\prime}\right) \mapsto g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$.

Solution. We need to prove the exactness at every place.

1. $\operatorname{im}\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right):\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right) \circ\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)(a)=g_{n} \circ i_{n}(a)-i_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}(a)=0$ by exactness.
2. $\operatorname{ker}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)$ : Let $\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)$ such that $g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=0$. Then $0=$ $j_{n}^{\prime}\left(g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right)=j_{n}^{\prime} \circ g_{n}(b)-j_{n}^{\prime} \circ i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=j_{n}^{\prime} \circ g_{n}(b)$ since $j_{n}^{\prime} \circ i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=0$ by exactness of the lower row. Hence $0=j_{n}^{\prime} \circ g_{n}(b)=h_{n} \circ j_{n}(b)$ and since $h_{n}$ is an isomorphism $j_{n}(b)=0$. Then $i_{n}(a)=b$ for some $a \in A_{n}$ by exactness and $i_{n}^{\prime} \circ f_{n}(a)=g_{n} \circ i_{n}(a)=g_{n}(b)=i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)$. So $i_{n}^{\prime}\left(f_{n}(a)-a^{\prime}\right)=0$ and by exactness $k_{n+1}^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)=f_{n}(a)-a^{\prime}$ for some $c^{\prime} \in C_{n+1}^{\prime}$. Now $f_{n}\left(a-k_{n+1} \circ h_{n+1}^{-1}\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right)=$ $f_{n}(a)-k_{n+1}^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)=a^{\prime}$. Moreover, as $i_{n} \circ k_{n+1}=0$ by exactness we also have $i_{n}\left(a-k_{n+1} \circ h_{n+1}^{-1}\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right)=i_{n}(a)=b$. Hence $\left(i_{n}, f_{n}\right)\left(a-k_{n+1} \circ h_{n+1}^{-1}\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)$.
3. $\operatorname{im}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\right): k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)\right)=k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime} g_{n}(b)$ since $j_{n}^{\prime} i_{n}^{\prime}=$ 0 by exactness. But $k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime} g_{n}(b)=k_{n} j_{n}(b)$ by commutativity and hence by exactness $k_{n} j_{n}(b)=0$. Thus $k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(b, a^{\prime}\right)\right)=0$.
4. $\operatorname{ker}\left(k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ : Suppose $k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=0$. Then by exactness of the upper row $j_{n}(b)=h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ for some $b \in B$. Moreover $j_{n}^{\prime} g_{n}(b)=$ $h_{n} j_{n}(b)=j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ again by commutativity. Then $i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right)=g_{n}(b)-b^{\prime}$ and therefor $b^{\prime}=g_{n}(b)-i_{n}^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \operatorname{im}\left(g_{n}-i_{n}^{\prime}\right)$.
5. $\operatorname{im}\left(k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(i_{n-1}, f_{n-1}\right)$ : For this note
$\left(i_{n-1}, f_{n-1} \circ k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=\left(i_{n-1} k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right), f_{n-1} k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=\left(0, k_{n}^{\prime} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)\right)=0\right.\right.$,
where the first equality follows from exactness of the upper row and commutativity. The second equality follows from exactness of the lower row.
6. $\operatorname{ker}\left(i_{n-1}, f_{n-1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\left(k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ : Suppose $\left(i_{n-1}\left(a, f_{n-1}(a)\right)=0\right.$. Then by exactness $k_{n}(c)=a$ for some $c \in C_{n}$. By commutativity $k_{n}^{\prime} h_{n}(c)=f_{n-1}(a)=0$ and thus $j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=h_{n}(c)$ for some $b^{\prime} \in B_{n}^{\prime}$. Hence $k_{n} h_{n}^{-1} j_{n}^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime}\right)=k_{n}(c)=a$.

Problem F. 3 ( $\star$ ). Consider the following commutative braid of abelian groups:


Assume that three of the "strands" form long exact sequences:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \ldots \longrightarrow E_{n+1} \longrightarrow A_{n} \longrightarrow B_{n} \longrightarrow E_{n} \longrightarrow A_{n-1} \longrightarrow D_{n+1} \longrightarrow F_{n+1} \longrightarrow B_{n} \longrightarrow D_{n} \longrightarrow F_{n} \longrightarrow{ }^{\longrightarrow} \longrightarrow \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow F_{n+1} \longrightarrow A_{n} \longrightarrow C_{n} \longrightarrow F_{n} \longrightarrow A_{n-1} \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow \longrightarrow
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume in addition that

$$
\operatorname{im} i_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{n} \quad \text { or } \quad \operatorname{ker} j_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{im} i_{n}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

Prove that the fourth strand

$$
\ldots \longrightarrow D_{n+1} \longrightarrow E_{n+1} \longrightarrow C_{n} \xrightarrow{i_{n}} D_{n} \xrightarrow{j_{n}} E_{n} \longrightarrow \ldots
$$

is also a long exact sequence.
Solution. For simplicity in doing the chase we shall introduce some special notation for it. Elements of, for example, $A_{n}$ will be denoted by $a_{n}, a_{n}^{\prime}, \ldots$ etc. To indicate that an element $a_{n}$ goes to an an element $b_{n} \in B_{n}$ we simply write $a_{n} \rightarrow b_{n}$. To indicate that there exists an element $e_{n+1} \in E_{n+1}$, not yet defined, that goes to $a_{n} \in A_{n}$ we write $\exists e_{n+1} \rightarrow a_{n}$. The zero in $A_{n}$ is denoted by $0_{A_{n}}$ and similar for the other groups.

The point where we need the condition that $\operatorname{im} i_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{n}$ or $\operatorname{ker} j_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{im} i_{n}$ is for the exactness at $C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}$. The exactness at the other places of the sequence follow without this assumption. Let us start with the exactness at $C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}$.

1. Exactness at $C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}$ :
(a) Assume first that $\operatorname{im} i_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{n}$. Let $d_{n} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$. Then $d_{n} \rightarrow f_{n} \rightarrow 0_{A_{n-1}}$ for some $f_{n} \in F_{n}$, since $0_{E_{n}}$ and by commutativity. Hence $\exists c_{n} \rightarrow f_{n}$. Then $c_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow f_{n}$ for some $d_{n}^{\prime} \in D_{n}$ and by commutativity. Now
by assumption and since $c_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime}$ it must follow that $d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$. Then $d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{F_{n}}$ and $\exists b_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime}$ by exactness. Moreover, $b_{n} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$ by commutativity and thus $\exists a_{n} \rightarrow b_{n}$. Let $a_{n} \rightarrow c_{n}^{\prime}$, then $c_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime}$ by commutativity. Finally, we see $c_{n}^{\prime}+c_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}$ and hence $\operatorname{ker} j_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{im} i_{n}$.
(b) Now assume that ker $j_{n} \subseteq \operatorname{im} i_{n}$. Let $c_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}$. Let $d_{n} \rightarrow f_{n}$, then $c_{n} \rightarrow$ $f_{n} \rightarrow 0_{A_{n-1}}$ by exactness. Then we also have $d_{n} \rightarrow e_{n} \rightarrow 0_{A_{n-1}}$. By exactness $\exists b_{n} \rightarrow e_{n}$ and moreover $b_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow e_{n}$ by commutativity. For exactness it also follows $d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{F_{n}}$. Now $d_{n} \rightarrow e_{n}$ and $d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow e_{n}$ implies $d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$. By assumption $\exists c_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime}$. By commutativity and since $d_{n}+d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow f_{n}$ it follows $c_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow f_{n}$. Then $c_{n}-c_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime}$ and $c_{n}-c_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{F_{n}}$ by commutativity. Hence $\exists a_{n} \rightarrow c_{n}-c_{n}^{\prime}$. Let $a_{n} \rightarrow b_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime}$. By exactness $a_{n} \rightarrow b_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$, and thus by commutativity $d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$. Since $d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$ we thus have $d_{n} \rightarrow 0_{E_{n}}$.
2. Exactness at $E_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n} \rightarrow D_{n}$ :
(a) ker $\subseteq$ im: Suppose $c_{n} \rightarrow 0_{D_{n}}$. Then $0_{D_{n}} \rightarrow 0_{F_{n}}$ and hence also $c_{n} \rightarrow 0_{F_{n}}$, which implies $\exists a_{n} \rightarrow c_{n}$ by exactness. Now $a_{n} \rightarrow b_{n} \rightarrow 0_{D_{n}}$ and hence $\exists f_{n+1} \rightarrow b_{n}$. Let $f_{n+1} \rightarrow a_{n}^{\prime}$, then $a_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow b_{n}$ by commutativity and it follows $a_{n}-a_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{B_{n}}$. From exactness $\exists e_{n+1} \rightarrow a_{n}-a_{n}^{\prime}$ and since $a_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n}}$, which also follows from exactness, we have $a_{n}-a_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow c_{n}$. Then $e_{n+1} \rightarrow c_{n}$ by commutativity and thus $c_{n} \in \operatorname{im}\left(E_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}\right)$.
(b) im $\subseteq$ ker: Let $e_{n+1} \rightarrow c_{n}$. Then $e_{n+1} \rightarrow a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{B_{n}} \rightarrow 0_{D_{n}}$ by commutativity and exactness. So $a_{n} \rightarrow c_{n}$ and $a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{D_{n}}$ by commutativity which proves that $a_{n} \in \operatorname{ker}\left(E_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n}\right)$.
3. Exactness at $D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ :
(a) ker $\subseteq$ im: Suppose $e_{n} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n-1}}$, then $e_{n} \rightarrow a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n-1}}$ and $a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{B_{n}}$. It follows from exactness and commutativity that $\exists f_{n} \rightarrow a_{n}$ with $f_{n} \rightarrow 0_{B_{n}}$. Again from exactness $\exists d_{n} \rightarrow f_{n}$. Then $d_{n} \rightarrow e_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow a_{n}$ and $e_{n}^{\prime}-e_{n} \rightarrow 0_{A_{n}}$. Thus $\exists b_{n} \rightarrow e_{n}^{\prime}-e_{n}$ and $b_{n} \rightarrow d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow e_{n}^{\prime}-e_{n}$. We conclude $d_{n}-d_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow e_{n}$, which shows that $e_{n} \in \operatorname{im}\left(D_{n} \rightarrow E_{n}\right)$.
(b) im $\subseteq$ ker: Let $d_{n} \rightarrow e_{n}$ then $d_{n} \rightarrow f_{n} \rightarrow a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n-1}}$. By exactness $\exists e_{n} \rightarrow a_{n} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n-1}}$ and hence $e_{n} \rightarrow 0_{C_{n-1}}$.
Problem F. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X^{\prime \prime} \subseteq X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be subspaces. Prove there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{\delta}{\rightarrow} H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

We call this the long exact sequence of the triple $\left(X, X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Moreover if we are given two triples $\left(X, X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\left(Y, Y^{\prime}, Y^{\prime \prime}\right)$, together with a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $f\left(X^{\prime}\right) \subseteq Y^{\prime}$ and $f\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right) \subseteq Y^{\prime \prime}$, prove

where all the vertical maps are induced by $f$.
Solution. There exists a commutative braid


Three blue strand is the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(X^{\prime}, X\right)$. The green strand is the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(X^{\prime \prime}, X^{\prime}\right)$. The pink strand is the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(X^{\prime \prime}, X\right)$. The diagram commutes because homology is a functor and because of naturality of the connecting homomorphism. To apply Problem F. 3 we check that the composition

$$
H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)
$$

is zero. But this is clear since it factors through $H_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime}\right)=0$. Thus by Problem F. 3 the fourth strand is also exact.

To show naturality, i.e. that the diagram (F.1) commutes, it suffices to show that that the right-most square commutes, since the others obviously do as $H_{n}$ is a functor. Reading off from the braid, the connecting homomorphism $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow$ $H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is the composition of the maps $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$, where the first map is the connecting homomorphism of the pair $\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ and the second map is induced from the inclusion $\left(X^{\prime}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}\right)$. We already know that the connecting homomorphism $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ is a natural transformation, i.e. the diagram

commutes, where the vertical maps are induced by $f$, and hence it follows immediately that the right-most square also commutes.

Remark: It is also possible to prove this by using the short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(X) / C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

(this is a short exact sequence of chain complexes by Problem G.7). However the proof using the commutative braid is "better", since this does not use any properties of singular homology other than the long exact sequence (which is one of the axioms
of a homology theory, as we will see at the end of the course.) Meanwhile this second proof uses the fact that singular homology is the homology of a chain complex (which is not true for an arbitrary homology theory.)
Problem F. $5(\dagger)$. Let $\emptyset \neq X^{\prime} \subseteq X$. Prove there is a long exact sequence

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

which ends with $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \tilde{H}_{0}(X) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$.
Solution. Let $X^{\prime \prime}:=\{p\}$, where $p$ is a point in $X^{\prime}$. Then the claim follows immediately from Problem F. 4 and Corollary 12.22.

Problem F. $6(\dagger)$. Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is a short exact sequence of abelian groups.

1. Prove that the sequence splits if and only if there exists a map $k: B \rightarrow A$ such that $k f=\operatorname{id}_{A}$.
2. Give an example of such a short exact sequence where $B \cong A \oplus C$ but such that the sequence does not split.
3. Prove that if $C$ is free abelian then the sequence always splits.

Solution. Recall that by definition the sequence splits if and only if there exists a map $h: C \rightarrow B$ such that $g h=\operatorname{id}_{C}$.

1. (a) $\Rightarrow$ : Define $k: B \rightarrow A$ by $k(b): f^{-1}(b-h g(b))$. This is well-defined since $b-h g(b) \in \operatorname{ker}(g)=\operatorname{im}(f)$. Indeed $g(b-h g(b))=g(b)-g h g(b)=$ $g(b)-g(b)=0$, since $g h=\mathrm{id}_{C}$. Moreover, $k f(a)=f^{-1}(f(a)-h g f(a))=a$, since $g f=0$.
(b) $\Leftarrow$ : For a $c \in C$, let $b$ be any preimage of $g$. Define $h: C \rightarrow B$ by $h(c)=$ $b-f k(b)$. This map is independent of the choice of the preimage $b$. Indeed, let $b^{\prime}$ be another preimage. Then $b-b^{\prime} \in \operatorname{ker}(g)=\operatorname{im}(f)$ and hence it exists $a \in A$ such that $f(a)=b-b^{\prime}$. Then $f k\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)=f k f(a)=f(a)=b-b^{\prime}$, since $k f=\mathrm{id}_{A}$. Therefor $b-f k(b)-\left(b^{\prime}-f k\left(b^{\prime}\right)\right)=b-b^{\prime}-f k\left(b-b^{\prime}\right)=0$. We verify: $g h(c)=g(b-f k(b))=c$, since $b$ is a preimage of $c$ under $g$ and $g f=0$.
2. Let $A:=\left\langle a \mid a^{2}=1\right\rangle$ bet he cyclic group of order 2 and $B:=\left\langle b \mid b^{4}=1\right\rangle$. Consider the short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} A \rightarrow 0$, where $f(a):=2 b$ and $g(b)=a$. This sequence does not split, since $B$ is not isomorphic to the direct product $A \oplus A$. Let $M:=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} A \oplus B$. Clearly $A \oplus M \cong M \cong B \oplus M$ and we have a exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\tilde{f}} B \oplus M \xrightarrow{\tilde{g}} A \oplus M \rightarrow 0$, where $\tilde{f}(a):=(f(a), 0)$ and $\tilde{g}(b, m):=(g(b), m)$. This sequence is exact and $B \oplus M \cong A \oplus(A \oplus M)$, but it is not split.
3. Choose a basis $\mathcal{C}$ of the free abelian group $C$. For every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ choose a preimage $b \in B$ of the surjective map $g$ and define $h(c)=b$. Extend this by linearity (Lemma 7.2). Clearly $g h=\operatorname{id}_{C}$. Notice however that the map $h$ is not unique.

## Problem Sheet G

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 13 and Lecture 14. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $*$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem G.1. Give an explicit formula for $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)$ for $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ in the case $n=0,1,2$.

Problem G. $2(\dagger)$. Prove that if $D$ is a convex bounded subset of some Euclidean space then Definition 13.7 agrees with Definition 13.6:

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma), \quad \forall \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D \text { affine. }
$$

Problem G. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). Show that the two forms of the excision axiom (Theorems 14.7 and Theorem 14.8) are equivalent.

Problem G.4. Let $C_{\bullet}$ be a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$. Define a map $p_{n}: C_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime} / C_{n}$ by $c \mapsto c+C_{n}$ (the coset). Show that the $p_{n}$ 's form a chain map $p: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime} / C_{\bullet}$ with $(\operatorname{ker} p){ }_{\bullet}=C_{\bullet}$.

Problem G.5. Prove that the first isomorphism theorem holds in Comp. If $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain map, prove there is an isomorphism of chain complexes:

$$
q: C_{\bullet} /(\operatorname{ker} f) \bullet \rightarrow(\operatorname{im} f) \bullet
$$

such that the following diagram commutes:


Here $p$ is the map from Problem G.4.
Problem G. 6 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove that the second isomorphism theorem holds in Comp: if $A_{\bullet}$ and $B_{\bullet}$ are subcomplexes of a chain complex $C_{\bullet}$ then as chain complexes, one has

$$
\frac{A_{\bullet}}{A_{\bullet} \cap B_{\bullet}} \cong \frac{A_{\bullet}+B_{\bullet}}{B_{\bullet}}
$$

Problem G. 7 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove that the third isomorphism theorem holds in Comp: if $A_{\bullet} \subseteq B_{\bullet} \subseteq C_{\bullet}$ are subcomplexes, prove there is a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow B_{\bullet} / A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{i} C_{\bullet} / A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{p} C_{\bullet} / B_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $i_{n}: b_{n} \mapsto b_{n}+A_{n}$ is the inclusion and $p_{n}$ is the map $c_{n}+A_{n} \mapsto c_{n}+B_{n}$.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet G

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 13 and Lecture 14. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem G.1. Give an explicit formula for $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)$ for $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ in the case $n=0,1,2$.

Solution. Let us first give an explicit formula for the affine barycentric subdivision.
Let $D$ be a convex set and let $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}$ be elements of $D$. Let $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D$ denote the affine singular $n$-simplex defined by $\sigma\left(e_{i}\right)=v_{i}$. By a slight abuse of notation we write $\sigma=\left[v_{0}, v_{1} \ldots, v_{n}\right]$. Note however that the $v_{i}$ may not be affinely independent and hence $\left[v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right]$ may not be a genuine $n$-simplex.

1. Suppose $n=0$. Then by definition $\operatorname{Sd}_{0}^{\text {cv }}(\sigma)=\sigma$.
2. Suppose $n=1$. Let $v_{01}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{0}+v_{1}\right)$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{1}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\left[v_{0}, v_{1}\right]\right)=\left[v_{01}, v_{1}\right]-\left[v_{01}, v_{0}\right] .
$$

3. Suppose $n=2$. For $i<j$, let $v_{i j}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(v_{i}+v_{j}\right)$ and let $v_{012}=\frac{1}{3}\left(v_{0}+v_{1}+v_{2}\right)$. Then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Sd}_{2}^{\mathrm{cv}}\left(\left[v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}\right]=\right. & {\left[v_{012}, v_{12}, v_{2}\right]-\left[v_{012}, v_{12}, v_{1}\right]-\left[v_{012}, v_{02}, v_{2}\right] } \\
& +\left[v_{012}, v_{02}, v_{0}\right]+\left[v_{012}, v_{01}, v_{1}\right]-\left[v_{012}, v_{01}, v_{0}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

4. General case: Given a permutation $g$ of $\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$, let $v_{i}^{g}$ denote the barycentre of the $(n-i)$-simplex $\left[v_{g(i)}, \ldots, v_{g(n)}\right]$ :

$$
v_{i}^{g}:=b\left(\left[v_{g(i)}, \ldots, v_{g(n)}\right]\right)
$$

(where by definition the barycentre of a 0 -simplex $\left[v_{i}\right]$ is just $v_{i}$ again.) Then by induction one can show that

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)=\sum_{g \in \mathfrak{S}(n+1)} \operatorname{sgn}(g)\left[v_{0}^{g}, v_{1}^{g}, \ldots, v_{n}^{g}\right],
$$

where $\mathfrak{S}(n+1)$ denotes the group of all permutations of $\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$ and $\operatorname{sgn}(g) \in\{ \pm 1\}$ denotes the signature of the permutation.
Finally for arbitrary singular simplices $\sigma$ we just apply the above with $v_{i}=e_{i}$ and compose with $\sigma$ :

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\operatorname{Sd}_{1}(\sigma)= & \sigma \circ\left[e_{01}, e_{1}\right]-\sigma \circ\left[e_{01}, e_{0}\right], & \sigma: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X, \\
\operatorname{Sd}_{2}(\sigma)= & \sigma \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{12}, e_{2}\right]-\sigma \circ \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{12}, e_{1}\right]-\sigma \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{02}, e_{2}\right] & & \\
& +\sigma \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{02}, e_{0}\right]+\sigma \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{01}, e_{1}\right]-\sigma \circ\left[e_{012}, e_{01}, e_{0}\right], & \sigma: \Delta^{2} \rightarrow X, \\
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)= & \sum \operatorname{sgn}(g) \sigma \circ\left[e_{0}^{g}, e_{1}^{g}, \ldots, e_{n}^{g}\right], & \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X .
\end{array}
$$

Problem G. $2(\dagger)$. Prove that if $D$ is a convex bounded subset of some Euclidean space then Definition 13.7 agrees with Definition 13.6:

$$
\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma), \quad \forall \sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow D .
$$

Solution. For an affine $n$-simplex $\sigma$ let $F_{1}$ denote the set of faces of $\sigma$. Inductively we define $F_{i}$ to be the set of faces of elements in $F_{i-1}$. Notice that $F_{n+1}=\emptyset$ as $\sigma$ is a $n$-simplex. Let $B_{i}$ denote the set of barycentres of elements in $F_{i}$ and set $B:=\bigcup B_{i}$. Let $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)=\sum m_{i} \tau_{i}$ for $\tau_{i} \in C_{n}(X)$ and $m_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Clearly the faces of affine simplices are affine. From the recursive formula in Definition 13.6 it follows that the $\tau_{i}$ are in 1-1 correspondence with $n$-simplexes spanned by $n$ points in $B$ and one vertex of $\sigma$. Now the claim follows from the fact that the barycentre of an affine $n$-simplex $\sigma$ is equal to $\sigma\left(b_{n}\right)$, where $b_{n}$ is the barycentre of the standard simplex. In other words, chopping up an affine simplex $\sigma$ into smaller simplices is the same as first chopping up the standard simplex and then applying $\sigma$.

Here is an alternative argument. Using the notation from the previous question, if $\sigma=\left[v_{0}, v_{1} \ldots, v_{n}\right]$ is an affine singular $n$-simplex then since

$$
\sigma\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} e_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i} v_{i}, \quad \forall \sum_{i=0}^{n} s_{i}=1,
$$

we see that

$$
\sigma \circ\left[e_{0}^{g}, e_{1}^{g}, \ldots, e_{n}^{g}\right]=\left[v_{0}^{g}, v_{1}^{g}, \ldots, v_{n}^{g}\right], \quad \forall g \in \mathfrak{S}(n+1)
$$

and hence $\operatorname{Sd}_{n}^{\mathrm{cv}}(\sigma)=\operatorname{Sd}_{n}(\sigma)$.
Problem G. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). Show that the two forms of the excision axiom (Theorems 14.7 and Theorem 14.8) are equivalent.

Solution. Assume that Theorems 14.7 holds. With $X=X, X_{1}=X^{\prime}$ and $X_{2}=$ $X \backslash X^{\prime \prime}$ Theorem 14.8 follows, as $X_{1} \cap X_{2}=X^{\prime} \cap\left(X \backslash X^{\prime \prime}\right)=X^{\prime} \backslash X^{\prime \prime}$. Conversely, if Theorem 14.8 holds, set $X=X, X^{\prime}=X_{1}$ and $X^{\prime \prime}=X \backslash X_{2}$. Then $X \backslash X^{\prime \prime}=$ $X \backslash\left(X \backslash X_{2}\right)=X \cap X_{2}=X_{2}$ and $X^{\prime} \backslash X^{\prime \prime}=X_{1} \backslash\left(X \backslash X_{2}\right)=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$ and Theorem 14.7 follows.

Problem G.4. Let $C_{\bullet}$ be a subcomplex of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$. Define a map $p_{n}: C_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime} / C_{n}$ by $c \mapsto c+C_{n}$ (the coset). Show that the $p_{n}$ 's form a chain map $p: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime} / C_{\bullet}$ with $(\operatorname{ker} p) \quad=C_{\bullet}$.

Solution. The boundary operator of the complex $C_{\bullet}^{\prime} / C_{\bullet}$ is given by $\partial^{\prime}\left(c+C_{n}\right)=$ $\partial^{\prime}(c)+C_{n-1}$. Let $\partial$ denote the boundary operator of $C_{\bullet}$, which is just the restriction of the boundary operator $\partial^{\prime}$ of $C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$. We need to check that $p_{n}$ commutes with the boundary operators. Indeed, $p_{n-1} \circ \partial^{\prime}(c)=\partial^{\prime}(c)+C_{n-1}=\partial^{\prime}\left(c+C_{n}\right)=\partial^{\prime} \circ p_{n}$.

Problem G.5. Prove that the first isomorphism theorem holds in Comp. If $f: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ is a chain map, prove there is an isomorphism of chain complexes:

$$
q: C_{\bullet} /(\operatorname{ker} f) \bullet \rightarrow(\operatorname{im} f) \bullet
$$

such that the following diagram commutes:


Here $p$ is the map from Problem G.4.
Solution. By the first Isomorphism Theorem for groups we have an isomorphsim

$$
\begin{aligned}
q: C_{n} / \operatorname{ker} f_{n} & \rightarrow \operatorname{im} f_{n} \\
c+\operatorname{ker} f_{n} & \mapsto f(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

for every $n$. It is left to show that $q$ commutes with the boundary operators. As $f$ is a chain map we have $f(\partial(c))=\partial^{\prime}(f(c))$ and thus $q \circ \partial\left(c+\operatorname{ker} f_{n}\right)=q\left(\partial(c)+\operatorname{ker} f_{n-1}\right)=$ $f(\partial(c))=\partial^{\prime}(f(c))=\partial^{\prime} \circ q\left(c+\operatorname{ker} f_{n}\right)$. Commutativity of the diagram follows directly from the definition of $q$.

Problem G. 6 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove that the second isomorphism theorem holds in Comp: if $A_{\bullet}$ and $B_{\bullet}$ are subcomplexes of a chain complex $C \bullet$ then as chain complexes, one has

$$
\frac{A_{\bullet}}{A_{\bullet} \cap B_{\bullet}} \cong \frac{A_{\bullet}+B_{\bullet}}{B_{\bullet}}
$$

Solution. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
g: A_{n}+B_{n} & \rightarrow A_{n} / A_{n} \cap B_{n} \\
a+b & \rightarrow a+A_{n} \cap B_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This map is well-defined as $a+b=a^{\prime}+b$ if and only if $a-a^{\prime}=b^{\prime}-b \in A_{n} \cap B_{n}$. Moreover, $g$ is surjective and ker $g=B_{n}$ as $g(a+b)=a+A_{n} \cap B_{n}=0+A_{n} \cap B_{n}$ if and only if $a \in A_{n} \cap B_{n}$. It follows $a+b \in \operatorname{ker} g$ if and only if $a+b \in B_{n}$. The map $g$ is a chain map, since $\partial \circ g(a+b)=\partial\left(a+A_{n} \cap B_{n}\right)=\partial(a)+A_{n-1} \cap B_{n-1}=$ $g(\partial(a)+\partial(b))=g(\partial(a+b))$, where we used the fact that for subcomplexes $D_{\bullet} \subseteq C_{\bullet}$ we have $\partial_{D_{\bullet}}\left(D_{\bullet}\right) \subseteq D_{\bullet-1}$

Problem G. 7 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove that the third isomorphism theorem holds in Comp: if $A_{\bullet} \subseteq B_{\bullet} \subseteq C_{\bullet}$ are subcomplexes, prove there is a short exact sequence of chain complexes

$$
0 \rightarrow B_{\bullet} / A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{i} C_{\bullet} / A_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{p} C_{\bullet} / B_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $i_{n}: b_{n} \mapsto b_{n}+A_{n}$ is the inclusion and $p_{n}$ is the map $c_{n}+A_{n} \mapsto c_{n}+B_{n}$.
Solution. For every $n, p_{n} \circ i_{n}=p_{n}\left(b_{n}+A_{n}\right)=B_{n}$, hence im $i_{n} \operatorname{ker} p_{n}$. Conversely, if $c_{n}+A_{n} \in \operatorname{ker} p_{n}$ then $c_{n} \in B_{n}$ and $i_{n}\left(c_{n}+A_{n}\right)=c_{n}+A_{n}$. The maps are chain maps, because all boundary operators are given by restriction of the boundary operator of C.

## Problem Sheet H

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 15 and Lecture 16. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a $(\star)$ means I think the problem is challenging.
Problem H. $1(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be path connected and let $\zeta: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow\left[S^{1}, X\right]$ be the function that sends a path class [u] to the free homotopy class of the map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
\hat{u}\left(e^{2 \pi i s}\right):=u(s), \quad s \in I .
$$

Prove this function is surjective. Moreover if $\zeta([u])=\zeta([v])$, prove there exists $[w] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ such that $[u]=[w] *[v] *[w]^{-1}$. Thus if $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian then $\zeta$ is an isomorphism, and hence $\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong\left[S^{1}, X\right]$.
Problem H. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the Hexagon Lemma: Suppose we have a commuting hexagon of abelian groups and group homomorphisms:


Assume that $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ are isomorphisms.

1. If $\operatorname{im} i_{1} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{1}$ and $\operatorname{im} i_{2}=\operatorname{ker} j_{2}$, prove that the maps

$$
\begin{array}{lcl}
D_{2} \oplus D_{1} \rightarrow C, & (x, y) & \mapsto i_{2}(x)+i_{1}(y), \\
C \mapsto B_{1} \oplus B_{2}, & z & \mapsto\left(j_{1}(z), j_{2}(z)\right) .
\end{array}
$$

are both isomorphisms, and that in fact $\operatorname{im} i_{1}=\operatorname{ker} j_{1}$.
2. Assume that $\operatorname{im} i_{1}=\operatorname{ker} j_{1}$ and $\operatorname{im} i_{2}=\operatorname{ker} j_{2}$ and that $\operatorname{im} h \subseteq \operatorname{ker} m$. Prove that $g_{1} k_{1}^{-1} f_{1}=-g_{2} k_{2}^{-1} f_{2}$.
Problem H.3. Prove the Borsuk-Ulam Theorem: Let $f: S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is continuous, there exists a point $x \in S^{n}$ such that $f(x)=f(-x)$. Deduce that $S^{n}$ is not homeomorphic to any subspace ${ }^{1}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

[^101]Problem H.4. Prove the Lusternik-Schnirelmann Theorem: Let $n \geq 1$ and assume we can write $S^{n}=A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n+1}$ where each $A_{i}$ is either open or closed. Then at least one of the $A_{i}$ contains a pair of antipodal points.

Problem H.5. Let J be a category with two objects and two non-identity morphisms:


Let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Sets be a functor. Prove that the colimit of $T$ exists. This is type of colimit is called a coequaliser. Do the same with $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ and $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Top.

Problem H. 6 ( $*$ ). Prove that the coequaliser exists in the category of compact Hausdorff spaces.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet H

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 15 and Lecture 16. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem H. $1(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be path connected and let $\zeta: \pi_{1}(X, p) \rightarrow\left[S^{1}, X\right]$ be the function that sends a path class [u] to the free homotopy class of the map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ given by

$$
\hat{u}\left(e^{2 \pi i s}\right):=u(s), \quad s \in I .
$$

Prove this function is surjective. Moreover if $\zeta([u])=\zeta([v])$, prove there exists $[w] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$ such that $[u]=[w] *[v] *[w]^{-1}$. Thus if $\pi_{1}(X, p)$ is abelian then $\zeta$ is an isomorphism, and hence $\pi_{1}(X, p) \cong\left[S^{1}, X\right]$.

Solution. We consistently use the hat notation to go back and forth between loops $u:(I, \partial I) \rightarrow(X, p)$ and maps $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$.

First note that every map $\hat{u}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to a map $\hat{v}: S^{1} \rightarrow X$ such that $\hat{v}(1)=p$. Indeed, if $w$ is a path from $u(1)$ to $p$ then the homotopy

$$
U(s, t)= \begin{cases}w(t-3 s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{t}{3} \\ u\left(e^{2 \pi i\left(\frac{3 s-t}{3-2 t}\right)}\right), & \frac{t}{3} \leq s \leq \frac{3-t}{3}, \\ w(3 s+t-3), & \frac{3-t}{3} \leq s \leq 1,\end{cases}
$$

is such that $U(s, 0)=u\left(e^{2 \pi i s}\right)$ and $U(s, 1)$ is the product loop $\bar{w} * u * w$. Thus the homotopy $V: S^{1} \times I \rightarrow X$ given by $V\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, t\right)=U(s, t)$ starts at $\hat{u}$ and ends at a map $\hat{v}$ such that $\hat{v}(1)=w(1)=p$. This shows that $\zeta$ is surjective.

Let us now assume that $\zeta([u])=\zeta([v])$; then we have a homotopy $V: S^{1} \times I \rightarrow X$ such that $V\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, 0\right)=u(s)$ and $V\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, 1\right)=v(s)$. Thus the path $w: I \rightarrow X$ given by $w(t)=V(1, t)$ is a loop representing an element $[w] \in \pi_{1}(X, p)$. The homotopy

$$
W(s, t)= \begin{cases}U(2(1-t) s, 2 s t), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ U(1+2 t(s-1), t+(1-t)(2 s-1)), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

where $U(s, t):=V\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, t\right)$, shows that $u * w \simeq w * v$.
Conversely, if $u * w=w * v$, then there exists a homotopy $U: u \simeq w * v * \bar{w}$ rel $\partial I$. So $V\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, t\right):=U(s, t)$ is a well-defined homotopy from $\hat{u}$ to $\widehat{w * *} \bar{w}$. Moreover the homotopy

$$
Z(s, t)= \begin{cases}w(3 s+t) & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1-t}{3} \\ v\left(\frac{3 s+t-1}{1+2 t}\right) & \frac{1-t}{3} \leq \frac{2+t}{3} \\ w(3-3 s+t) & \frac{2+t}{3} \leq s \leq 1\end{cases}
$$

is such that $Z: w * v * \bar{w} \simeq v$ and $Z(0, t)=w(t)=Z(1, t)$; therefore, it defines a homotopy $Y: S^{1} \times I \rightarrow X$ via $Y\left(e^{2 \pi i s}, t\right):=Z(s, t)$ which starts at $w \widehat{w *} \bar{w}$ and
ends at $\hat{v}$. Now compose the homotopies $U$ and $Y$ to obtain one from $\hat{u}$ to $\hat{v}$. Thus $\zeta([u])=\zeta([v])$. This completes the proof.

Problem H. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Prove the hexagon lemma: Suppose we have a commuting hexagon of abelian groups and group homomorphisms:


Assume that $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ are isomorphisms.

1. If $\operatorname{im} i_{1} \subseteq \operatorname{ker} j_{1}$ and $\operatorname{im} i_{2}=\operatorname{ker} j_{2}$, prove that the maps

$$
\begin{array}{lcl}
D_{2} \oplus D_{1} \rightarrow C, & (x, y) & \mapsto i_{2}(x)+i_{1}(y), \\
C \mapsto B_{1} \oplus B_{2}, & z & \mapsto\left(j_{1}(z), j_{2}(z)\right) .
\end{array}
$$

are both isomorphisms, and that in fact $\operatorname{im} i_{1}=\operatorname{ker} j_{1}$.
2. Assume that $\operatorname{im} i_{1}=\operatorname{ker} j_{1}$ and $\operatorname{im} i_{2}=\operatorname{ker} j_{2}$ and that $\operatorname{im} h \subseteq \operatorname{ker} m$. Prove that $g_{1} k_{1}^{-1} f_{1}=-g_{2} k_{2}^{-1} f_{2}$.

## Solution.

1. As $j_{1} i_{2}=k_{1}$ is an isomorphism, $\operatorname{ker}\left(j_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{im}\left(i_{2}\right)=\{0\}$. Since $\operatorname{im}\left(i_{2}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(j_{2}\right)$ is follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ker}\left(j_{2}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker}\left(j_{1}\right)=\{0\} . \tag{H.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a $c \in C$ let $\bar{c}=i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c)+i_{2} k_{1}^{-1} j_{1}(c)$ then $j_{1}(\bar{c})=j_{1} i_{2} k_{1}^{-1} j_{1}(c)=j_{1}(c)$ and similarly $j_{2}(\bar{c})=j_{2}(c)$. Hence $c=\bar{c}$ by H.1. Therefore every $c \in C$ has a representation of the form $c=i_{1}\left(d_{1}\right)+i_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$, where $d_{1} \in D_{1}$ and $d_{2} \in D_{2}$. It is left to show the uniqueness of this representation. For any representation of the form $c=i_{1}\left(d_{1}\right)+i_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)$ we have $j_{2}(c)=j_{2} i_{1}\left(d_{1}\right)+j_{2} i_{2}\left(d_{2}\right)=k_{2}\left(d_{1}\right)$ and hence $d_{1}=k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c)$. Similarly $d_{2}=k_{1}^{-1} j_{1}(c)$ and the representation is unique. To prove the second part take $b_{1} \in B_{1}$ and $b_{2} \in B_{2}$ and set $c=i_{2} k_{1}^{-1}\left(b_{1}\right)+$ $i_{1} k_{2}^{-1}\left(b_{2}\right)$. Then $j_{1}(c)=j_{1} i_{2} k_{1}^{-1}\left(b_{1}\right)=k_{1} k_{1}^{-1}\left(b_{1}\right)=b_{1}$ and $j_{2}(c)=b_{2}$. Hence for every $\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)$ there exists a $c \in c$ such that $\left(j_{1}(c), j_{2}(c)\right)=\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)$. Uniqueness follows from H.1.
Last but not least, if $c \in \operatorname{ker}\left(j_{1}\right)$ then $i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c) \in \operatorname{ker} j_{1}$ as $j_{1} i_{1}=0$. Moreover $j_{2} i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c)=k_{2} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c)=j_{2}(c)$. Hence $i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2}(c)-c \in \operatorname{ker}\left(j_{1}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker}\left(j_{2}\right)=$ $\{0\}$ by H. 1 and $c=\in \operatorname{im}\left(i_{1}\right)$.
2. Let $a \in A$. By part 1 and commutativity of the diagram

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(a) & =i_{2} k_{1}^{-1} j_{1} h(a)+i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} j_{2} h(a) \\
& =i_{2} k_{1}^{-1} f_{1}(a)+i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} f_{2}(a) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Applying $m$ to both sides gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =m h(a) \\
& =m i_{2} k_{1}^{-1} f_{1}(a)+m i_{1} k_{2}^{-1} f_{2}(a) \\
& =g_{1} k_{1}^{-1} f_{1}(a)+g_{2} k_{2}^{-1} f_{2}(a),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last equality uses commutativity.
Problem H.3. Prove the Borsuk-Ulam Theorem: If $f: S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is continuous, there exists a point $x \in S^{n}$ such that $f(x)=f(-x)$. Deduce that $S^{n}$ is not homeomorphic to any subspace ${ }^{1}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

Solution. Assume that $f(-x) \neq f(x) \forall x$. Then the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
g: S^{n} & \rightarrow S^{n-1} \\
x & \mapsto \frac{f(x)-f(-x)}{\|f(x)-f(-x)\|}
\end{aligned}
$$

is well-defined. Moreover, we can see that $g$ is odd. Then $\left.g\right|_{S^{n-1}}: S^{n-1} \rightarrow S^{n-1}$ is also odd and hence has odd degree by Theorem 15.12. But $\left.g\right|_{S^{n-1}}$ extends to the upper hemisphere of $S^{n}$ and thus it has degree zero by Proposition 2.15. But zero is an even degree, which is a contradiction.
Problem H.4. Prove the Lusternik-Schnirelmann Theorem: Assume we can write $S^{n}=A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n+1}$ where each $A_{i}$ is either open or closed. Then at least one of the $A_{i}$ contains a pair of antipodal points.

## Solution.

1. First we consider the case that all $A_{i}$ are closed. Define the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
f: S^{n} & \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \\
x & \rightarrow\left(\operatorname{dist}\left(x, A_{1}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{dist}\left(x, A_{n}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By the Borsuk-Ulam Theorem there exists a point $x \in S^{n}$ with $f(x)=f(-x)$. If the $i$-th coordinate of $x$ is zero, then both $x$ and $-x$ are in $A_{i}$. If all coordinates are non-zero, then $x$ and $-x$ lie in $A_{n+1}$.

[^102]2. If all $A_{i}$ are open, then we find slighly smaller closed sets $B_{i} \subset A_{i}$ such that $S^{n}=A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n+1}$ and we apply the first case.
3. Suppose now that $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{m}$ are closed and $A_{m+1}, \ldots, A_{n+1}$ are open. Assume that none of the set $A_{i}$ for $i=m+1, \ldots, n+1$ contains antipodal points. For $i=1, \ldots, m$ define the open sets $C_{i, 1 / k}:=\left\{x \in S^{n} \mid \operatorname{dist}\left(x, A_{i}\right)<1 / k\right\}$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$. By the first case, there exists for every $k$ an $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ such that $C_{i, 1 / k}$ contains antipodal points. As $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{m}$ are all closed, we see that, by taking the limit for $k \rightarrow 0$, there exists an $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$ such that $A_{i}$ contains antipodal points.

Problem H.5. Let J be a category with two objects and two non-identity morphisms:


Let $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Sets be a functor. Prove that the colimit of $T$ exists. This is type of colimit is called a coequaliser. Do the same with $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ and $T: \mathrm{J} \rightarrow$ Top.

Solution. Before proving the problem, let us insert a definition:
Definition. Let $X$ be a set and suppose $R$ is an arbitrary binary relation on $X$ (i.e. $R$ is simply a subset of $X \times X$, and we think of two elements $x, y$ in $X$ being related if $(x, y) \in R$.) The equivalence relation $\sim$ generated by $R$ is by definition the smallest equivalence relation on $X$ that preserves all the relations specified by $R$. Explicitly, one defines $\sim$ by saying that $x \sim y$ if there exists a sequence $x=$ $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}=y$ such that for each $i=1, \ldots, n$, either:
(i) $x_{i}=x_{i-1}$ or
(ii) $\left(x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right) \in R$ or
(iii) $\left(x_{i}, x_{i-1}\right) \in R$.

We now prove the problem.

1. Let the two morphisms in J be $i$ and $j$, and let $A=T(\boldsymbol{\uparrow}), B=T(\bigcirc)$. Write $f=T(i)$ and $g=T(j)$, so the picture is this:


Let $\sim$ be the equivalence relation on $B$ generated by the relation $R$ on $B$ given by $R=\{(f(a), g(a)) \mid a \in A\}$. Let $q: B \rightarrow C$ denote the map that sends $b \rightarrow[b]$, where $[b]$ denotes the equivalence class. Then $q \circ f=q \circ g$ and $C$ is a solution with $c_{\circlearrowleft}=q$ and $c_{\infty}=q \circ f=q \circ g$. To check that $C$ is the colimit, assume we have another space $C^{\prime}$ and another map $q^{\prime}: B \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ such
that $q^{\prime} \circ f=q^{\prime} \circ g$. We need to find a unique map $u: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$ such that the following commutes:


Define $u([b]):=q^{\prime}(b)$, where $b$ is any element in the equivalence class [b]. In order for this to be well-defined, we need to know that if $b_{1} \sim b_{2}$ then $q^{\prime}\left(b_{1}\right)=q^{\prime}\left(b_{2}\right)$. But this is clear from the definition of $\sim$ from $R$. The map $u$ satisfies $u \circ q=q^{\prime}$ and is unqiue by construction.
2. The proof for Ab is similar. With the notation as above, first consider the special case where $g$ is the zero homomorphism. Then the coequaliser of $f$ and 0 is simply the quotient of $B$ by the subgroup $f(A)$. In the general case, the coequaliser of $f$ and $g$ is the coequaliser of $f-g$ and the zero homomorphism.
3. Finally to obtain the coequaliser in Top we simply take the coqualiser constructed in Sets and endow it with the quotient topology determined by $q$.

Problem H. 6 ( $\star$ ). Prove that the coequaliser exists in the category of compact Hausdorff spaces.

Solution. In the category of Hausdorff spaces the coequaliser of two continuous mappings $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$ is the quotient $Z$ of $Y$ by the closure $\bar{R} \subset Y \times Y$ of the equivalence relation $R$ generated by the pairs $(f(x), g(x))$ for $x \in X^{2}$. Elementary point-set topology tells us that the quotient of a compact Hausdorff space $Y$ by a closed relation is another Hausdorff space. Moreover since $Y$ is compact the quotient $Z$ is also compact (being the continuous image of a compact set). Thus $Z$ does indeed belong to the desired category (this is the most important thing to check!)

Now take another compact Hausdorff space $W$ and suppose we are given a continuous map $h: Y \rightarrow W$ such that $h \circ f=h \circ g$. The diagonal $\Delta \subset W \times W$ is closed (again recall from the fact from point-set topology that a space is Hausdorff if and only if the diagonal is closed). Thus $(h \times h)^{-1}(\Delta)$ is a closed equivalence relation on $Y$ containing all the pairs $(f(x), g(x))$ for $x \in X$. Thus in particular it contains $R$ and so $h$ factors through the quotient, giving us the desired (necessarily unique) continuous map $u: Z \rightarrow W$. Hence $Z$ is indeed the colimit.

[^103]
## Problem Sheet I

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 17 and Lecture 18. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a $(\star)$ means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem I. $1(\dagger)$. Prove the Invariance of Domain Theorem: Suppose $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ are two subsets of $S^{n}$ and $f: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism. If $U$ is open then so is $U^{\prime}$. Hint: Use the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem.

Problem I.2. Prove that if $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ contains a subspace homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ then $m \leq$ $n$.

Problem I. $3(\dagger)$. Recall the definition of a weakly Hausdorff space from Definition 17.1.

1. Prove that any weakly Hausdorff space is a $T_{1}$ space. Give an example of a $T_{1}$ space which is not weakly Hausdorff.
2. Prove that any Hausdorff space is weakly Hausdorff. Give an example of a weakly Hausdorff space which is not Hausdorff.
3. Let $X$ be a weakly Hausdorff space and let $K$ be a compact Hausdorff space. Assume $f: K \rightarrow X$ is continuous. Prove that $f(K)$ is a compact Hausdorff subspace of $X$ with respect to the subspace topology.

Problem I. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces, and let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a closed subspace. Let $f: X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y$ be continuous, and let $X \cup_{f} Y$ denote the adjunction space. The canonical inclusions $X \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ and $Y \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ induce maps $g: X \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ and $j: Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$. Prove that the diagram

is a pushout in Top. Then prove:

1. The map $j$ is a closed embedding,
2. The restriction of $g$ to $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ is an open embedding.
3. If $X$ and $Y$ are $T_{1}$ spaces then so is $X \cup_{f} Y$.
4. The quotient map $X \sqcup Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed if and only if $f$ is closed.
5. If $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff and $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is compact then $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff.
6. If $X$ is compact and $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff then $X \mapsto g(X)$ is a quotient map.

Problem I. $5(\dagger)$. Compute the homology of $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$. Why doesn't this work for $\mathbb{R} P^{n} ?^{1}$
Problem I. $6(\dagger)$. Prove that for any $m, n \geq 0$, the space $S^{m} \times S^{n}$ can be obtained from $S^{m} \vee S^{n}$ by attaching a $(m+n)$-cell. Use this to compute the homology $H_{\bullet}\left(S^{n} \times\right.$ $\left.S^{m}\right)$ for all $n, m \geq 0$.

[^104]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet I

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 17 and Lecture 18. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $*$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem I. $1(\dagger)$. Prove the Invariance of Domain Theorem: Suppose $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ are two subsets of $S^{n}$ and $f: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism. If $U$ is open then so is $U^{\prime}$. Hint: Use the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem.

Solution. Let $p \in f(U)=U^{\prime}$. Then there exists an $x \in U$ such that $f(x)=p$. Let $B_{\epsilon}(x) \subset U$ be an open ball such that $\overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)} \subset U$. Consider $S:=f\left(\partial \overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right) \subset S^{n}$ an embedded $n$ - 1 -sphere. By Theorem $17.11 S^{n} \backslash S$ has two components, say $X$ and $Y$, and $S$ is the boundary of both $X$ and $Y$. As $f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right) \cap S=\emptyset$ and $f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right)$ is connected we have w.l.o.g. that $f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right) \subset X$. Then $f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right) \subset \bar{X}=Y^{c}$, which is equivalent to saying that $Y \subset S^{n} \backslash f\left(\overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right)$. But $Y$ is a path component of $S^{n} \backslash S=S \backslash f\left(\partial \overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right)$ hence $Y=S^{n} \backslash f\left(\overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right)$ and $S^{n} \backslash \bar{X} \subset S^{n} \backslash f\left(\overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right)=Y$. This implies that $\bar{X}=f\left(\overline{B_{\epsilon}(x)}\right)$ and $X=f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right)$. Therefore $p \in f\left(B_{\epsilon}(x)\right)=X \subset U^{\prime}$, where $X$ is an open neighborhood of $p$ in $U^{\prime}$.

Problem I.2. Prove that if $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ contains a subspace homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ then $m \leq$ $n$.

Solution. Suppose there exists a homeomorphism $f: \mathbb{R}^{m} \rightarrow U$, where $U$ is open in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $m>n$. The inclusion

$$
\begin{aligned}
& i: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m} \\
& \left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is continuous and injective. Then the composition $f \circ i: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is also continuous and injective. But $\operatorname{im}(f \circ i)$ is not open in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ since the image of $i$ is contained in the hyperplane $\mathbb{R}^{n} \times 0 \subset \mathbb{R}^{m}$. The one point compactification of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is the sphere $S^{n}$ and $U:=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is an open subset of $S^{n}$. Then $f \circ i: U \rightarrow f \circ i(U)$ is a homeomorphism. But $U$ is open in $S^{n}$ and $\operatorname{im}(f \circ i) \in S^{n}$ is non-open. This contradicts the Invariance of Domain Theorem.

Problem I. $3(\dagger)$. Recall the definition of a weakly Hausdorff space from Definition 17.1.

1. Prove that any weakly Hausdorff space is a $T_{1}$ space. Give an example of a $T_{1}$ space which is not weakly Hausdorff.
2. Prove that any Hausdorff space is weakly Hausdorff. Give an example of a weakly Hausdorff space which is not Hausdorff.
3. Prove that if $X$ be a weakly Hausdorff space and $f: K \rightarrow X$ is a continuous map from a compact Hausdorff space then $f(K)$ is a compact Hausdorff subset of $X$.

## Solution.

1. For every $p \in X$ take the continuous map

$$
\begin{aligned}
f:\{*\} & \rightarrow X \\
* & \mapsto p .
\end{aligned}
$$

As $\{*\}$ is a compact Hausdorff space, $f(\{*\})=\{p\}$ is closed.
We take the real line with two copies of the origin. This is the quotient of two copies of the real line, where corresponding non-zero points on the two lines are identified. This space is certainly $T_{1}$ with respect to the quotient topology. It is however not weakly Hausdorff. To see this consider the interval $[-1,1]$ with only one origin. This is the image of an embedding of a compact Hausdorff space but it is not closed, as the second origin is not contained.
2. Let $p \in f(K)^{c}$ and define for every $q \in f(K)$ two disjoint open neighbourhoods $q \in V_{q}$ and $p \in U_{q}$. The set $V_{q}$ for all $q \in K$ form an open cover of $f(K)$. As $K$ is compact and $f$ is continuous also $f(K)$ is compact. Hence we find $q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n}$ such that $f(K) \subset V_{q_{1}} \cup \ldots \cup V_{q_{n}}$. Now $U:=U_{q_{1}} \cap \ldots \cap U_{q_{n}} \subset f(K)^{c}$ is an open neighbourhood of $p$ and disjoint form $f(K)$. Since $p \in f(K)^{c}$ was arbitrary, $f(K)^{c}$ is open and hence $f(K)$ is closed.
We define the co-countable topology on an uncountable set $S$ by defining the open sets to be the sets who's complement is countable. Let $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ be two non-empty open sets. Then the complement of $S_{1}$ is countable and $S_{2}$ is uncountable. Hence $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ must intersect, which shows that $S$ is not Hausdorff. Let $f: K \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map from a compact Hausdorff space. As $K$ is compact also $f(K)$ is compact. A compact subset $A$ of $S$ must be countable. Indeed, for every $p \in S$ take the open set defined by the complement of $p$. This defines an open cover of $A$, which has a finite subcover if and only if $A$ is finite. We conclude that $f(K)$ must be finite and thus also closed, which shows that $S$ is weakly Hausdorff.
3. It is clear that $L:=f(K)$ is compact with respect to the subspace topology. We need to show that $L$ is Hausdorff. Note that $f$ is a closed map: if $F \subseteq K$ is closed then $F$ is a compact Hausdorff space and hence $f(F)$ is closed. Now let $x \neq y \in L$. Then $f^{-1}(x)$ and $f^{-1}(y)$ are are disjoint closed subspaces of the compact Hausdorff space $K$, and hence admit disjoint open neighbourhoods $U$ and $V$ respectively. Set

$$
U^{\prime}:=\left\{z \in X \mid f^{-1}(z) \subseteq U\right\}=L \backslash f(K \backslash U)
$$

and

$$
V^{\prime}:=\left\{z \in X \mid f^{-1}(z) \subseteq V\right\}=L \backslash f(K \backslash V)
$$

Then $x \in U^{\prime}$ and $y \in V^{\prime}$. Moreover $U^{\prime} \cap V^{\prime}=\emptyset$. Since $K \backslash U$ is compact, $f(K \backslash U)$ is closed in $L$, and hence $U^{\prime}$ is open in $L$. Similarly $V^{\prime}$ is open in $L$. Thus $L$ is Hausdorff. This completes the proof.

Problem I. $4(\dagger)$. Let $X$ and $Y$ be topological spaces, and let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ be a closed subspace. Let $f: X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y$ be continuous, and let $X \cup_{f} Y$ denote the adjunction space. The canonical inclusions $X \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ and $Y \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ induce maps $g: X \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ and $j: Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$. Prove that the diagram

is a pushout in Top. Then prove:

1. The map $j$ is a closed embedding,
2. The restriction of $g$ to $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ is an open embedding.
3. If $X$ and $Y$ are $T_{1}$ spaces then so is $X \cup_{f} Y$.
4. The quotient map $X \sqcup Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed if and only if $f$ is closed.
5. If $X$ and $Y$ are Hausdorff and $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ is compact then $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff.
6. If $X$ is compact and $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff then $X \mapsto g(X)$ is a quotient map.

Solution. We already know that the set-theoretic pushout exists. Let $i_{X}: X \hookrightarrow$ $X \sqcup Y$ and $i_{Y}: Y \hookrightarrow X \sqcup Y$ denote the two inclusions and $p: X \sqcup Y \rightarrow X \cup_{f} Y$ the quotient map. Notice that $g=p \circ i_{X}$ and $j=p \circ i_{Y}$. The topology on $X \cup_{f} Y$ is the quotient topology of $X \sqcup Y / \sim$, hence $p: X \sqcup Y \rightarrow X \sqcup Y / \sim$ is continuous and hence also $g$ and $j$ are continuous. Given another pushout $C$, then there exists a unique morphism $\phi: X \cup_{f} Y \rightarrow C$ in the set-theoretic sense. But since the topology of $X \cup_{f} Y$ is the smallest topology such that the maps $g$ and $j$ are continuous, the map $\phi$ will automatically be continuous. Let $[x]$ denote the equivalence class of $x \in X \sqcup Y / \sim$.

1. Since $j$ is injective, to show that $j$ is a closed embedding it suffices to show that $j(C)$ is closed in $X \cup_{f} Y$ whenever $C$ is closed in $Y$. Since $X \cup_{f} Y$ has (by definition) the quotient topology induced by $p$, a set $B \subseteq X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed if and only if both $g^{-1}(B)$ and $j^{-1}(B)$ is closed. Since $j$ is injective, $j^{-1}(j(C))=C$, and thus it suffices to check that $g^{-1}(j(C))$ is closed. But $g^{-1}(j(C))=\imath\left(f^{-1}(C)\right)$, which is closed as $\imath$ is a closed embedding.
2. The image $\left[X \backslash X^{\prime}\right]$ of $g$ is the quotient of the set $X \backslash X^{\prime}$. The map

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[X \backslash X^{\prime}\right] } & \rightarrow X \backslash X^{\prime} \\
{[x] } & \mapsto x
\end{aligned}
$$

is a well-defined, continuous inverse of $\left.g\right|_{X \backslash X^{\prime}}$. Hence $\left.g\right|_{X \backslash X^{\prime}}$ is a homeomorphism onto its image. Moreover, if $U$ is an open neighbourhood of $x \in X \backslash X^{\prime}$ then $U$ is open in $X \sqcup Y$ as $X \backslash X^{\prime}$ open in $X$. Then we have $p^{-1}([U])=U$, since $U \in x \backslash X^{\prime}$. This is open in $X \sqcup Y$.
3. A point $q \in X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed if and only if $p^{-1}([q])$ is closed in $X \sqcup Y$. If $q \in Y$ then $p^{-1}([q])=f^{-1}(q) \sqcup q$, which is closed. If $q \in X \backslash X^{\prime}$ then $p^{-1}([q])=q$ is also closed.
4. Let $Z:=Z_{1} \sqcup Z_{2} \subset X \sqcup Y$. Then one checks that

$$
p^{-1}([Z])=Z \cup f\left(Z_{1} \cap X^{\prime}\right) \cup f^{-1}\left(f\left(Z_{1} \cap X^{\prime}\right)\right) \cup f^{-1}\left(Z_{2}\right)
$$

Thus [Z] is closed in $X \cup_{f} Y$ if and only if $f\left(Z_{1} \cap X^{\prime}\right) \cup Z_{2}$ is closed in $Y$. It follows that $p$ is closed if and only if $f$ is closed.
5. Notice that if $X^{\prime}$ is closed and $Y$ is Hausdorff then the quotient map $p: X \sqcup Y \rightarrow$ $X \cup_{f} Y$ is closed. Indeed, let $Z \subset X^{\prime}$ be closed, then $Z$ is compact since $X^{\prime}$ is compact. Hence $f(Z) \subset Y$ is a compact subset of a Hausdorff space and thus $f$ is closed. Then by the previous part the quotient map $p$ is also closed.
Now let $a, b \in X \cup_{f} Y$ be distinct points. Then $p^{-1}(a)$ and $p^{-1}(b)$ are disjoint non-empty compact subsets of $X \sqcup Y$. Since $X \sqcup Y$ is Hausdorff (as $X$ and $Y$ are), there exist disjoint open sets $U, V$ with $p^{-1}(a) \subset U$ and $p^{-1}(b) \subset V$. Since $p$ is closed, there exist ${ }^{1}$ open subsets $U^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ of $X \cup_{f} Y$ with $a \in U^{\prime}, b \in V^{\prime}$ and $p^{-1}\left(U^{\prime}\right) \subset U, p^{-1}\left(V^{\prime}\right) \subset V$. Moreover the sets $U^{\prime}$ and $V^{\prime}$ are disjoint as $U$ and $V$ were.
6. In order to show that $g: X \rightarrow g(X)$ is a quotient map we need to prove it is surjective and a set $[Z] \subset g(X)$ is closed if and only if $g^{-1}([Z])$ is closed. As $X$ is compact an $g$ continuous also $g(X)$ is compact and hence closed, since $X \cup_{f} Y$ is Hausdorff. Conversely, if $[Z] \subset g(X)$ is closed then $p^{-1}([Z])$ is closed in $X$ by the definition of the topology of $X \cup_{f} Y$. But as $Z \subset g(X)$ it follows that $g^{-1}([Z])=i_{x}^{-1} \circ p^{-1}([Z])$ is closed in $X$.

Problem I. $5(\dagger)$. Compute the homology of $\mathbb{C} P^{n}$. Why doesn't this work for $\mathbb{R} P^{n} ?^{2}$
Solution. By induction we want to show

$$
H_{i}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=\text { even, } i \leq 2 n \\ 0 & \text { else }\end{cases}
$$

Notice that $\mathbb{C} P^{0}=S^{1} / \sim$ is a point and thus

$$
H_{i}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{0}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=0 \\ 0 & i=\text { else }\end{cases}
$$

[^105]By Example 18.9 we know that $\mathbb{C} P^{n} \cong B^{2 n} \cup_{p} \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}$, where $p: S^{2 n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}$ is the quotient map. By Proposition 18.13 we have an exact sequence

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\cdots \rightarrow H_{2 n}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{2 n}\left(B^{2 n} \cup_{f} \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{2 n-1}\left(S^{2 n-1}\right) \\
\rightarrow H_{2 n-1}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{2 n-1}\left(B^{2 n} \cup_{f} \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{2 n-2}\left(S^{2 n-1}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
\end{array}
$$

But as $H_{2 n}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right)=0, H_{2 n-1}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right)=0$ and $H_{2 n-2}\left(S^{2 n-1}\right)=0$, we have an isomorphism

$$
H_{2 n}\left(B^{2 n} \cup_{p} \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right) \cong H_{2 n-1}\left(S^{2 n-1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}
$$

and

$$
H_{2 n-1}\left(B^{2 n} \cup_{p} \mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right)=0
$$

Moreover, by Corollary $18.14 H_{i}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{n-1}\right)$ for $i \leq 2 n-2$.
This argument breaks down for $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ if $n=2$.
Problem I. $6(\dagger)$. Prove that for any $n, m \geq 0$, the space $S^{m} \times S^{n}$ can be obtained from $S^{m} \vee S^{n}$ by attaching a $(m+n)$-cell. Use this to compute the homology $H_{\bullet}\left(S^{n} \times\right.$ $\left.S^{m}\right)$ for all $n, m \geq 0$.

Solution. Notice that $B^{m+n} \cong B^{m} \times B^{n}$ and $\partial\left(B^{m} \times B^{n}\right)=\partial\left(B^{m}\right) \times B^{n} \cup B^{m} \times$ $\partial\left(B^{n}\right) \cong S^{m-1} \times B^{n} \cup B^{m} \times S^{n-1}$. Let $\pi_{n}: B^{n} \rightarrow B^{n} / S^{n-1} \cong S^{n}$ denote the quotient map. Assume that $S^{m} \vee S^{n}=\left(S^{m} \times\{p\}\right) \cup\left(\{q\} \times S^{n}\right)$. Let $f: B^{m+n}=B^{m} \times B^{n} \rightarrow$ $S^{m} \times S^{n}$ be the map defined by $f(x, y)=\left(\pi_{m}(x), \pi_{n}(y)\right)$. As $\pi_{n}: E^{n} \rightarrow S^{n} \backslash\{*\}$ is a homeomorphism also $\left.f\right|_{E^{m+n}}: E^{m+n} \rightarrow S^{m} \times S^{n} \backslash S^{m} \vee S^{n}$ is a homeomorphism and we conclude by Proposition 18.6 that $S^{n} \times S^{m}$ can be obtained from $S^{n} \vee S^{m}$ by attaching a $m+n$-cell.

Let $g=\left.f\right|_{\partial B^{m+n}}: S^{m+n-1} \rightarrow S^{m} \vee S^{n}$ be the attaching map. If both $m$ and $n$ are zero then $S^{0} \times S^{0}$ is the topological space consisting of four points and we have

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{0} \times S^{0}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & i=0 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

If $m=1$ and $n=0$ then $S^{1} \times S^{0} \cong S^{1} \sqcup S^{1}$ and

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{1} \times S^{0}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & i=0,1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and likewise for $m=0, n=1$. In the case $m=n=1$, consider the long exact sequence from Proposition 18.13

$$
\begin{aligned}
\cdots \rightarrow H_{2}\left(S^{1} \vee\right. & \left.S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{2}\left(B^{2} \cup_{g} S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{1}(g)} H_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \\
& \rightarrow H_{1}\left(B^{2} \cup_{g} S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(g)} H_{0}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

The induced map $H_{1}(g)$ sends a generator of $H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)$ to the class $a+b-a-b=0$, where $a, b \in H_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right)$ are the two generators. (Notice that $S^{1} \times S^{1}$ is the torus,
which we can view as the square with opposite edges identified. (See Problem C.3). The attaching map send the generator of $H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)$ to the boundary of the square, which has class $a+b-a-b)$.) Hence $H_{1}(g)$ is zero and as $H_{2}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right)=0$ we conclude $H_{2}\left(S 1 \times S^{1}\right)=H_{2}\left(B^{2} \cup_{f} S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} . H_{0}(g): H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right)$ sends the class of a point to the class of a point and is therefor an isomorphism. Hence $H_{1}\left(B^{2} \cup_{f} S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. Thus

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{1} \times S^{1}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=0,2 \\ \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & i=1 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The remaining cases can be calculated by using Proposition 18.13 and Corollary 18.14. If $m \neq n$ we get

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{m} \times S^{n}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=0, m, n, m+n \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and if $m=n$ we have

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{m} \times S^{n}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=0, m+n \\ \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} & i=m=n \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Problem Sheet J

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 19 and Lecture 20. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem J.1. Let $X$ be the subset of the closed strip in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ between the line $x=0$ and $x=1$ consisting of the unit interval $I$ and all the line segment through the origin having slope $1 / n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. See Figure J.1. Prove that $I$ is a deformation retract of


Figure J.1: The space $X$.
$X$ but not a strong deformation retract.
Problem J. $2(\dagger)$. Let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ be a closed subspace with the property that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $X^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U$. Let $*$ the point in $X / X^{\prime}$ corresponding to $X^{\prime} / X^{\prime}$. Prove that $\{*\}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U / X^{\prime}$ in $X / X^{\prime}$.

Problem J.3. Let $X$ be a finite cell complex, and define the Euler characteristic of $X$ to be the number

$$
\chi(X)=\sum_{i \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \operatorname{rank} H_{k}(X) .
$$

Let $N_{k}$ denote the number of $k$-cells of $X$. Prove that

$$
\chi(X):=\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} N_{k} .
$$

Problem J.4. Let $X$ and $Y$ be finite cell complexes. Show that $X \times Y$ also carries the structure of a finite cell complex. Prove that $\chi(X \times Y)=\chi(X) \chi(Y)$.

Problem J.5. Let $X$ be a topological space with cell like filtration $\mathcal{F}$. Suppose $\langle\zeta\rangle \in H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})$ comes from a cycle in $\zeta \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$ (i.e. $\partial^{\mathcal{F}} \zeta=0$.) Let

$$
\imath: F^{n} \hookrightarrow X, \quad \jmath:\left(F^{n}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right),
$$

denote inclusions. Show that there exists a homology class $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right)$ such that $H_{n}(\jmath)\langle c\rangle=\zeta$. Denote by $\langle c\rangle^{\prime}:=H_{n}(\imath)\langle c\rangle$. Show that the isomorphism from Theorem 20.5 can be given explicitly by

$$
\Theta: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) \quad\langle c\rangle^{\prime} \mapsto\langle\zeta\rangle
$$

Problem J.6. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces with cell-like filtrations $\mathcal{F}=\left(F^{n}\right)$ and $\mathcal{G}=\left(G^{n}\right)$ respectively. Let us say a continuous map respects the filtrations if $f\left(F^{n}\right) \subseteq G^{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$.

1. Show that such a map $f$ gives rise to a chain map $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(Y, \mathcal{G})$, and hence also a map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, \mathcal{G})$ for all $n \geq 0$.
2. Show that there is a well-defined category Filt whose objects are pairs $(X, \mathcal{F})$ where $X$ is a topological space and $\mathcal{F}$ is a cell-like filtration and whose morphisms are those continuous maps which respect the filtration. Prove that the operation $(X, \mathcal{F}) \mapsto C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F})$ defines a functor Filt $\rightarrow$ Comp.
3. Prove that the isomorphism between singular homology and the homology of the cell-like filtration is natural in the sense that if $f:(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow(Y, \mathcal{G})$ is a continuous map respecting the filtrations then the following diagram commutes:

where horizontal maps are the isomorphisms from the previous problem, and the two vertical maps are the induced maps on homology. The right-hand one comes from part (1) above, and the left-hand one is just the normal map induced by singuar homology.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet J

This Problem Sheet is based on Lecture 19 and Lecture 20. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $*$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem J.1. Let $X$ be the subset of the closed strip in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ between the line $x=0$ and $x=1$ consisting of the unit interval $I$ and all the line segment through the origin having slope $1 / n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. See Figure J.1. Prove that $I$ is a deformation retract of


Figure J.1: The space $X$.
$X$ but not a strong deformation retract.
Solution. The space $X$ is given by $\left\{\left.\left(x, \frac{1}{n} x\right) \right\rvert\, x \in[0,1]\right\} \cup\{(x, 0) \mid x \in[0,1]\}$, where we define $I:=\{(x, 0) \mid x \in[0,1]\}$. The homotopy

$$
\begin{aligned}
H: X \times[0,1] & \rightarrow I \\
\left(\left(x, \frac{1}{n} x\right), t\right) & \rightarrow \begin{cases}\left(x(1-2 t), \frac{1}{n} x(1-2 t)\right. & 0 \leq t \leq 1 / 2 \\
(x(2 t-1), 0) & 1 / 2 \leq t \leq 1\end{cases} \\
((x, 0), t) & \rightarrow \begin{cases}(x(1-2 t), 0) & 0 \leq t \leq 1 / 2 \\
(x(2 t-1), 0) & 1 / 2 \leq t \leq 1\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

is such that $H(\cdot, 0)=\operatorname{id}_{X}, H(x, 1) \in I$ for all $x \in X$ and $H\left(x^{\prime}, 1\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $x^{\prime} \in I$ and hence defines a deformation retract of $X$ onto $I$. Suppose we could find a strong deformation retract, i.e. such that $H\left(x^{\prime}, t\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $t$ and all $x^{\prime} \in I$. Let $G$ denote the corresponding homotopy. Let $(x, 0) \in I$ with $x>0$. Every $\delta$-neighbourhood of $(x, 0)$ contains a point $\left(x, \frac{1}{n} x\right)$ for some $n$ big enough. $G$ must map $((x, 1 / n x), t)$ to the point $(0,0)$ for some $t$ but leaves $(x, 0)$ constant for every $t$. This contradicts the continuity of $G$.

Problem J. $2(\dagger)$. Let $X^{\prime} \subset X$ be a closed subspace with the property that there exists a neighbourhood $U$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $U$ is a strong deformation retract of $X$. Let $*$ the point in $X / X^{\prime}$ corresponding to $X^{\prime} / X^{\prime}$. Prove that $\{*\}$ is a strong deformation retract of $U / X^{\prime}$ in $X / X^{\prime}$.
Solution. Let $H: U \times I \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ define a strong deformation retract. In particular $H\left(x^{\prime}, t\right)=x^{\prime}$ for all $x^{\prime} \in X^{\prime}$. Hence $H$ descends to a map $G: U / X^{\prime} \times I \rightarrow X^{\prime} / X^{\prime}$ such that $G(\{*\}, t)=\{*\}$ for all $t$. This defines a strong deformation retract of $U / X^{\prime}$ to $\{*\}$.

Problem J.3. Let $X$ be a finite cell complex, and define the Euler characteristic of $X$ to be the number

$$
\chi(X)=\sum_{i \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \operatorname{rank} H_{k}(X)
$$

Let $N_{k}$ denote the number of $k$-cells of $X$. Prove that

$$
\chi(X):=\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} N_{k}
$$

Solution. Let $n$ be the dimension of $X$. By Theorem 20.5 we have $H_{\bullet}^{\text {cell }}(X) \cong$ $H_{\bullet}(X)$ and hence also their ranks coincide in all degrees. Moreover, by definition we have $H_{k}^{\text {cell }}(X)=\frac{\operatorname{ker} \partial_{k}}{\operatorname{im} \partial_{k+1}}$, where $\partial=\partial^{\text {cell }}$ denotes the differential of the cellular chain complex. The exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right) \rightarrow C_{k} \rightarrow \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

shows that $N_{k}=\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right)+\operatorname{rank}\left(\operatorname{im} \partial_{k}\right)$. Similarly the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right) \rightarrow H_{k} \rightarrow 0
$$

shows that $\operatorname{rank} H_{k}(X)=\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right)-\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k+1}\right)$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\chi(X) & =\sum_{i \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \operatorname{rank} H_{k}(X) \\
& =\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \operatorname{rank} H_{k}^{\operatorname{cell}}(X) \\
& =\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k}\left(\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right)-\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k+1}\right)\right) \\
& =\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} \operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right)+(-1)^{k+1} \operatorname{rank} \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k+1}\right) \\
& =(-1)^{n+1} \operatorname{rank} \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{n+1}\right)+\sum_{n \geq k \geq 1}(-1)^{k}\left(\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{k}\right)+\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{k}\right)\right)+\operatorname{rank} \operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{0}\right) \\
& =\sum_{k \geq 0}(-1)^{k} N_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that $\partial_{0}=0$ and hence rank ker $\left(\partial_{0}\right)=N_{0}$ and $\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}=0$.

Problem J.4. Let $X$ and $Y$ be finite cell complexes. Show that $X \times Y$ also carries the structure of a finite cell complex. Prove that $\chi(X \times Y)=\chi(X) \chi(Y)$.
Solution. Given a structure of a cell complex on $X$ with cells $E_{\alpha}^{n_{\alpha}}$ of dimension $n_{\alpha}$ and attaching maps $f_{\alpha}$. Likewise a cell structure on $Y$ with cells $E_{\beta}^{n_{\beta}}$ of dimension $n_{\beta}$ and attaching maps $f_{\beta}$. A structure of a cell complex on $X \times Y$ is given by the cells $\left(E_{\alpha} \times E_{\beta}\right)^{n_{\alpha}+n_{\beta}}$, which have attaching maps $f_{\alpha} \times f_{\beta}$ and dimension $n_{\alpha}+n_{\beta}$. Define recursively the subspace $(X \times Y)^{n}$ as the space obtained from $(X \times Y)^{n-1}$ by attaching cells of the form $\left(E_{\alpha} \times E_{\beta}\right)^{n_{\alpha}+n_{\beta}}$, where $n=n_{\alpha}+n_{\beta}$. As $X \times Y$ carries the product topology and $X$ and $Y$ carry the colimit topology of their cell decompositions, also $X \times Y$ carries the colimit topology for the cell decomposition defined above.

Problem J.5. Let $X$ be a topological space with cell like filtration $\mathcal{F}$. Suppose $\langle\zeta\rangle \in H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})$ comes from a cycle in $\zeta \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$ (i.e. $\partial^{\mathcal{F}} \zeta=0$.) Let

$$
\imath: F^{n} \hookrightarrow X, \quad \jmath:\left(F^{n}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right),
$$

denote inclusions. Show that there exists a homology class $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right)$ such that $H_{n}(\jmath)\langle c\rangle=\zeta$. Denote by $\langle c\rangle^{\prime}:=H_{n}(\imath)\langle c\rangle$. Show that the isomorphism from Theorem 20.5 can be given explicitly by

$$
\Theta: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) \quad\langle c\rangle^{\prime} \mapsto\langle\zeta\rangle .
$$

Solution. As $\zeta \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$ is a cycle $\partial^{\mathcal{F}} \zeta=\eta_{n-1} \circ \delta_{n}(\zeta)=0$. Recall that $\delta_{n}$ is the connecting homomorphism of the exact sequence of the pair ( $F^{n}, F^{n-1}$ ) and $\eta_{n-1}=H_{n-1}\left(j_{n-1}\right)$, where $j_{n-1}:\left(F^{n-1}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(F^{n-1}, F^{n-2}\right)$ is the inclusion. The map $\eta_{n-1}$ is injective, hence $\delta_{n-1}(\zeta)=0$ and thus it follows from the long exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$ that there exists a $\langle c\rangle \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right)$ with $\left.H_{n}\left(j_{n}\right)\langle c\rangle\right)=\zeta$. Consider the diagram as in the proof of Theorem 20.5:


We have isomorphisms (see the proof of Theorem 20.5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}(X) & \cong H_{n}\left(F^{n+1}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(\delta_{n+1}\right) \\
& \cong \frac{\operatorname{im}\left(\eta_{n}\right)}{\operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{n+1}\right)} \cong \frac{\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{n}\right)}{\operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{n+1}\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, $\left\langle c^{\prime}\right\rangle \in H_{n}(X)$ is mapped to the equivalence class of $[\langle c\rangle] \in H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) / \mathrm{im}\left(\delta_{n+1}\right)$. The isomorphism $H_{n}\left(F^{n}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(\delta_{n+1}\right) \cong \frac{\operatorname{im} \eta_{n}}{\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}}$ is induced by the map $\eta_{n}$. Hence $[\langle c\rangle]$ is mapped to $\langle\zeta\rangle \in \frac{\operatorname{ker} \partial_{n}}{\operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1}}=H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F})$.

Problem J.6. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are topological spaces with cell-like filtrations $\mathcal{F}=\left(F^{n}\right)$ and $\mathcal{G}=\left(G^{n}\right)$ respectively. Let us say a continuous map respects the filtrations if $f\left(F^{n}\right) \subseteq G^{n}$ for all $n \geq 0$.

1. Show that such a map $f$ gives rise to a chain map $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C \bullet(Y, \mathcal{G})$, and hence also a map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, \mathcal{G})$ for all $n \geq 0$.
2. Show that there is a well-defined category Filt whose objects are pairs $(X, \mathcal{F})$ where $X$ is a topological space and $\mathcal{F}$ is a cell-like filtration and whose morphisms are those continuous maps which respect the filtration. Prove that the operation $(X, \mathcal{F}) \mapsto C \cdot(X, \mathcal{F})$ defines a functor Filt $\rightarrow$ Comp.
3. Prove that the isomorphism between singular homology and the homology of the cell-like filtration is natural in the sense that if $f:(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow(Y, \mathcal{G})$ is a continuous map respecting the filtrations then the following diagram commutes:

where horizontal maps are the isomorphisms from the previous problem, and the two vertical maps are the induced maps on homology. The right-hand one comes from part (1) above, and the left-hand one is just the normal map induced by singular homology.

## Solution.

1. The chain map $f_{\#}: C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F}) \rightarrow C_{\bullet}(Y, \mathcal{G})$ is defined as

$$
H_{n}\left(f_{n}\right): H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(G^{n}, G^{n-1}\right)
$$

Let $\eta_{n-1}=H_{n-1}\left(j_{n-1}\right)$, where $j_{n-1}:\left(F^{n-1}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(F^{n-1}, F^{n-2}\right)$ is the inclusion. And let $\delta_{n}$ be the connecting homomorphism of the exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$. Recall that the boundary operator $\partial_{n}$ of the chain complex $C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F})$ is given by the composition of those two maps, i.e. $\partial_{n}=\eta_{n-1} \circ \delta_{n}$. It therefore suffices to show that $H_{\bullet}\left(f_{\bullet}\right)$ commutes with both $\eta$ and $\delta$. It follows from the exact sequence of the pair $\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right)$ (see Proposition 12.3) that $\delta_{n} \circ H_{n}\left(f_{n}\right)=H_{n-1}\left(f_{n-1}\right) \circ \delta_{n-1}$. As $f_{n}$ respects the filtration and $j_{n}$ is just the inclusion we must have that $f_{n-1} j_{n-1}=j_{n-1} f_{n-1}$. Thus $\eta_{n-1} \circ H_{n-1}\left(f_{n-1}\right)=$ $H_{n-1}\left(j_{n-1}\right) \circ H_{n-1}\left(f_{n-1}\right)=H\left(j_{n-1} f_{n-1}\right)=H\left(f_{n-1} j_{n-1}\right)=H_{n-1}\left(f_{n-1}\right) \circ \eta_{n-1}$, where we used the fact that $H_{\bullet}$ is a functor.
2. One easily sees that the first two axioms of a category are fulfilled. The third axiom is also fulfilled, as the identity map of the topological space $X$ is continuous and respects the filtration. It is left to show that the operation $(X, \mathcal{F}) \mapsto C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F})$ defines a functor Filt $\rightarrow$ Comp. The functor send $(X, \mathcal{F})$ to $C_{\bullet}(X, \mathcal{F})$ and a continuous map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ which respects the filtration to the chain map $H_{n}\left(f_{n}\right): H_{n}\left(F^{n}, F^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(G^{n}, G^{n-1}\right)$. As $H_{\bullet}$ is a well-defined functor the claim follows.
3. The isomorphism $\Theta$ is the compositon of the maps $\eta_{n}:=H_{n}\left(j_{n}\right)$ and $\left.H_{n}\left(i_{n}\right)^{-1}\right|_{\operatorname{im}} H_{n}\left(i_{n}\right)=$ $H_{n}\left(\left.i_{n}^{-1}\right|_{\mathrm{im} i_{n}}\right)$. As $f$ respects the filtration it commutes with $i$ and $j$. Since $H_{\bullet}$ is a functor also $H_{n}(f)$ commutes with $H_{n}\left(\left.i_{n}^{-1}\right|_{\mathrm{im} i_{n}}\right)$ and $H_{n}(j)$.

## Problem Sheet K

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 21 and 22. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem K.1. Let $p$ and $q$ be relatively prime integers. Think of $S^{3}$ as the pairs $(z, w) \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$ with $|z|^{2}+|w|^{2}=1$. Let $\zeta=e^{2 \pi i / p}$ be a primitive $p$ th root of unity, and define $f: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{3}$ by

$$
f(z, w):=\left(\zeta z, \zeta^{q} w\right)
$$

Define an equivalence relation on $S^{3}$ by saying that $(z, w) \sim\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)$ if $\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)=$ $f^{k}(z, w)$ for some integer $k$. The quotient space $S^{3} / \sim$ is called a lens space and denoted by $L(p, q)$.

1. Show that $L(p, q)$ is a compact Hausdorff space.
2. Identify $L(1,1)$ and $L(2,1)$.
3. Show that if $q \equiv q^{\prime} \bmod p$ then $L(p, q)=L\left(p, q^{\prime}\right)$.

Problem K.2. Show that the following ${ }^{1}$ defines a cellular decomposition of $S^{3}$ having $p$ cells in dimensions $0,1,2$ and 3 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E_{k}^{0}:=\left\{(z, 0) \in S^{3} \left\lvert\, \arg z=\frac{2 \pi k}{p}\right.\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{1}:=\left\{(z, 0) \in S^{3} \left\lvert\, \frac{2 \pi k}{p}<\arg z<\frac{2 \pi(k+1)}{p}\right.\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{2}:=\left\{(z, w) \in S^{3} \left\lvert\, \arg w=\frac{2 \pi k}{p}\right.\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{3}:=\left\{(z, w) \in S^{3} \left\lvert\, \frac{2 \pi k}{p}<\arg w<\frac{2 \pi(k+1)}{p}\right.\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Use the cellular boundary formula and this cell decomposition to give another computation of the homology of $S^{3}$.

Problem K.3. Show that the quotient map $S^{3} \rightarrow L(p, q)$ gives rise to a cellular decomposition of $L(p, q)$ with exactly one cell in dimension $0,1,2$ and 3 . Use this to compute the homology of $L(p, q)$. Hint: Use the decomposition of $S^{3}$ from the previous question!

Problem K. $4(\dagger)$. Let C and D be two categories and $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ two functors. Suppose $\Phi: S \rightarrow T$ is a natural transformation. Prove that $\Phi$ is a natural isomorphism if and only if there is a natural transformation $\Psi: T \rightarrow S$ such that $\Phi \circ \Psi=\mathrm{id}_{S}$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}_{T}$.

Problem K.5. Let C be a category and $C \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$. Consider the hom-functor

$$
T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \text { Sets }
$$

defined as follows:

- Objects: For $D \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, set $T(D):=\operatorname{Hom}(C, D)$.
- Morphisms: If $f: A \rightarrow B$ in C then

$$
T(f): \operatorname{Hom}(C, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, B),
$$

is defined by

$$
T(f)(h):=f \circ h .
$$

One normally writes this functor as $T=\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square)$.

1. Let $\{*\}$ be a set with one element. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(\{*\}, \square):$ Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor on Sets.
2. Let C be a category, $C \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ and $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Sets a functor. Prove the Yoneda Lemma ${ }^{2}$ : there is a bijection from $\operatorname{Nat}(\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square), S)$ to $S(C)$ given by

$$
\Phi \mapsto \Phi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right) .
$$

In particular, this shows that $\operatorname{Nat}(\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square), S)$ is always a set.
Problem K. $6(\dagger)$. Let $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ be a homology theory satisfying the first four axioms (homotopy, exact sequence, excision and dimension). Let ( $X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}$ ), $1 \leq n \leq N$ be a finite family of pairs of spaces. Denote by

$$
\imath_{n}:\left(X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(\bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}, \bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}^{\prime}\right)
$$

the inclusion. Prove that for all $k \geq 0$, the map

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(\imath_{n}\right): \bigoplus_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(\bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}, \bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

is an isomorphism.
Problem K. $7(\dagger)$. Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Set $X_{0}:=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$. Let $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ be a homology theory satisfying the first four axioms.

[^106]Prove there is a commutative braid of the form:

where all four braids are exact. Deduce that the Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence holds for $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet K

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 21 and 22. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem K.1. Let $p$ and $q$ be relatively prime integers. Think of $S^{3}$ as the pairs $(z, w) \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$ with $|z|^{2}+|w|^{2}=1$. Let $\zeta=e^{2 \pi i / p}$ be a primitive $p$ th root of unity, and define $f: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{3}$ by

$$
f(z,):=\left(\zeta z, \zeta^{q} w\right)
$$

Define an equivalence relation on $S^{3}$ by saying that $(z, w) \sim\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)$ if $\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)=$ $f^{k}(z, w)$ for some integer $k$. The quotient space $S^{3} / \sim$ is called a lens space and denoted by $L(p, q)$.

1. Show that $L(p, q)$ is a compact Hausdorff space.
2. Identify $L(1,1)$ and $L(2,1)$.
3. Show that if $q \sim q^{\prime} \bmod p$ then $L(p, q)=L\left(p, q^{\prime}\right)$.

## Solution.

1. $S^{3} / \sim$ is compact as $p: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{3} / \sim$ is continuous and $S^{3}$ is compact. Let $p: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{3} / \sim$ be the quotient map. It is open since $S^{3} / \sim$ is equipped with the quotient topology. Therefor the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
f: S^{3} \times S^{3} & \rightarrow S^{3} / \sim \times S^{3} / \sim \\
\left((z, w),\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right) & \mapsto\left(p(z, w), p\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is also open. Let $R:=\left\{\left((z, w),\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right) \mid(z, w) \sim\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. The set $S^{3} \times S^{3} \backslash R$ is open (if $(z, w) \nsim\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)$ then this identity also holds in an open neighbourhood of $\left((z, w),\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)\right)$ ). Now $S^{3} / \sim \times S^{3} / \sim \backslash \Delta=f\left(S^{3} \times S^{3} \backslash R\right)$ and this is open as $f$ is open, which shows that $S^{3} / \sim \times S^{3} / \sim$ is Hausdorff.
2. If $p=q=1$ then $\zeta=1$ and thus $L(1,1) \cong S^{3}$. If $p=2$ and $q=1$ then $(z, w) \sim\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right) \Longleftrightarrow(z, w)= \pm\left(z^{\prime}, w^{\prime}\right)$ and thus $L(2,1) \cong \mathbb{R} P^{3}$.
3. If $q \equiv q^{\prime} \bmod p$ then $\left\{\zeta^{0}, \zeta^{1}, \ldots, \zeta^{q p}\right\}=\left\{\zeta^{0}, \zeta^{1}, \ldots, \zeta^{q^{\prime} p}\right\}$ and hence $R=R^{\prime}$ which shows that $L(p, q) \cong L\left(p, q^{\prime}\right)$.

Problem K.2. Show that the following ${ }^{1}$ defines a cellular decomposition of $S^{3}$ having
$p$ cells in dimensions $0,1,2$ and 3 :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E_{k}^{0}:=\left\{(z, 0) \in S^{3} \mathrm{id} \arg z=\frac{2 \pi k}{p}\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{1}:=\left\{(z, 0) \in S^{3} \mathrm{id} \frac{2 \pi k}{p}<\arg z<\frac{2 \pi(k+1)}{p}\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{2}:=\left\{(z, w) \in S^{3} \mathrm{id} \arg w=\frac{2 \pi k}{p}\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} \\
& E_{k}^{3}:=\left\{(z, w) \in S^{3} \mathrm{id} \frac{2 \pi k}{p}<\arg w<\frac{2 \pi(k+1)}{p}\right\}_{k=0,1,2, \ldots p-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Use the cellular boundary formula and this cell decomposition to give another computation of the homology of $S^{3}$.

Solution. The space $S^{3}$ has a cell decomposition, which is given by $X^{0}:=\cup_{k=1}^{p-1} E_{k}^{0}$, $X^{1}:=\left\{(z, 0) \in S^{3}\right\}, X^{2}:=\left\{(z, w) \in S^{3} \left\lvert\, \arg (w)=\frac{2 \pi k}{p}\right., k \in\{0, \ldots, p-1\}\right\}$ and $X^{3}=S^{3} . X^{1}$ is obtained from $X^{0}$ by attaching the $p-11$-cells $E_{k}^{0}$ with the attaching maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.f^{1}\right|_{S_{k}^{0}}: S_{k}^{0} & \rightarrow X^{0} \\
0 & \mapsto E_{k}^{0} \\
1 & \mapsto E_{k+1}^{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly $X^{2}$ is obtained from $X^{1}$ by attaching the $p-1$ 2-cells with attaching maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.f^{2}\right|_{S_{k}^{1}}: S_{k}^{1} & \rightarrow X^{1} \\
e^{i \phi} & \mapsto\left(e^{i \phi}, 0\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, $X^{3}$ is obtained from $X^{2}$ by attaching $p-13$-cells with attaching maps

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left.f^{3}\right|_{S_{k}^{2}}: S_{k}^{2} & \rightarrow X^{2} \\
\left(\left(1-z^{2}\right) e^{i \phi}, z\right) & \mapsto \begin{cases}\left(\sqrt{\left(1-z^{2}\right)} e^{i \phi}, z e^{2 \pi k / p}\right) & z \geq 0 \\
\left(\sqrt{\left(1-z^{2}\right)} e^{i \phi}, z e^{2 \pi(k+1) / p}\right) & z \leq 0\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $z \in[-1,1], \phi \in[0,2 \pi)$ and $\left(\sqrt{\left(1-z^{2}\right)} e^{i \phi}, z\right)$ gives a parametrisation of the closed 3 -ball. Hence the cell decomposition has $p$ cells in dimensions $0,1,2,3$ and no other cells. The cellular chain complex thus looks (up to isomorphism) like
$\ldots \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{p} \xrightarrow{\partial_{3}} \mathbb{Z}^{p} \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}} \mathbb{Z}^{p} \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}} \mathbb{Z}^{p} \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots$

The boundary operator $\partial_{i}$ is the composition of $\delta_{i}$, which is the connecting homomorphism of the pair $\left(X^{i}, X^{i-1}\right)$, and $\eta_{i-1}=H_{i-1}\left(j_{i-1}\right)$, where $j_{i-1}:\left(X_{i-1}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow$ $\left(X_{i-1}, X_{i-2}\right)$ is the inclusion.

Now we are ready to compute the boundary operators. By repeatedly using the Cellular Boundary Formula (Theorem 20.11) we see:

1. In dimension 3 we have that $\partial_{4} \equiv 0$ and $\partial_{3}\left(E_{k}^{3}\right)=E_{k+1}^{2}-E_{k}^{2}$. Thus $H_{3}^{\text {cell }}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong$ $H_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
2. Moreover, $\partial_{2}\left(E_{k}^{2}\right)=\sum_{k=0}^{p-1} E_{k}^{1}$ for every $k$. Thus $E_{k+1}^{2}-E_{k}^{2}$ for $k=0, \ldots, p-2$ form a basis of $\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{p-1} \subset \mathbb{Z}^{p}$ and we see that $\operatorname{ker} \partial_{2}=\operatorname{im} \partial_{3}$ which shows that $H_{2}^{\text {cell }}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong H_{2}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong 0$.
3. Now, $\partial_{1}\left(E_{k}^{1}\right)=E_{k+1}^{0}-E_{k}^{0}$ and $\partial_{1}\left(E_{p-1}^{1}\right)=E_{0}^{0}-E_{p-1}^{0}$. Hence $\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{1}\right)=$ $\mathbb{Z} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} E_{k}^{0}$ and $\operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{2}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{1}\right)$. Thus $H_{1}^{\text {cell }}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong 0$.
4. As $\delta_{0} \equiv 0$ a basis of $\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{0}\right)$ is given by $\left\{E^{0}, E_{1}^{0}-E_{0}^{0}, \ldots, E_{p-1}^{0}-E_{p-2}^{0}\right\}$. But $E_{k+1}^{0}-E_{k}^{0} \in \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{1}\right)$. Thus $\operatorname{ker}\left(\partial_{0}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(\partial_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \cdot E_{0}^{0}$ and hence $H_{0}^{\text {cell }}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong$ $H_{0}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Problem K.3. Show that the quotient map $S^{3} \rightarrow L(p, q)$ gives rise to a cellular decomposition of $L(p, q)$ with exactly one cell in dimension $0,1,2$ and 3 . Use this to compute the homology of $L(p, q)$. Hint: Use the decomposition of $S^{3}$ from the previous question!

Solution. Let $p: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{3} / \sim \equiv L(p, q)$ denote the quotient map. Notice that $p\left(E_{k}^{d}\right)=p\left(E_{l}^{d}\right)$ for every $k=0,1,2,3$ and every $k, l \in\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$. Thus the cell decomposition from the previous exercise gives rise to a cell decompositon of $L(p, q)$ with one cell in dimensions $0,1,2,3$ and no other cells. Let $E^{d}:=p\left(E_{k}^{d}\right)$ denote the $d$-cell of $L(p, q)$. From the previous exercise it follows immediately that $\partial_{3} \equiv 0$, $\partial_{2}\left(E^{2}\right)=p E^{1}$, and $\partial_{1} \equiv 0$. Thus we see that

$$
H_{i}(L(p, q)) \cong H_{i}^{\text {cell }}(L(p, q)) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & i=0 \\ \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z} & i=1 \\ 0 & i=2 \\ \mathbb{Z} & i=3\end{cases}
$$

Problem K. $4(\dagger)$. Let C and D be two categories and $S, T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ two functors. Suppose $\Phi: S \rightarrow T$ is a natural transformation. Prove that $\Phi$ is a natural isomorphism if and only if there is a natural transformation $\Psi: T \rightarrow S$ such that $\Phi \circ \Psi=\mathrm{id}_{S}$ and $\Psi \circ \Phi=\mathrm{id}_{T}$.

Solution. If $\Phi$ is a natural isomorphism then for every $A, B \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ there exists $\Psi(A)$ and $\Psi(B)$ such that

where the left rectangle is commutative and $\Psi(A) \circ \Phi(A)=\mathrm{id}_{S(A)}$ and $\Psi(B) \circ \Phi(B)=$ $\mathrm{id}_{S(B)}$. As id $S_{(A)} \circ S(f)=S(f) \circ \mathrm{id}_{S(A)}$ also the right square is commutative. Similarly one shows that $\Phi(A) \circ \Psi(A)=\mathrm{id}_{T(A)}$. Hence $\Psi$ is a natural transformation. The other direction is obvious.

Problem K.5. Let $C$ be a category and $C \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$. Consider the hom-functor

$$
T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \text { Sets }
$$

defined as follows:

- Objects: For $D \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$, set $T(D):=\operatorname{Hom}(C, D)$.
- Morphisms: If $f: A \rightarrow B$ in C then

$$
T(f): \operatorname{Hom}(C, A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, B)
$$

is defined by

$$
T(f)(h):=f \circ h
$$

One normally writes this functor as $T=\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square)$.

1. Let $\{*\}$ be a set with one element. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(\{*\}, \square)$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets is naturally isomorphic to the identity functor on Sets.
2. Let C be a category, $C \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ and $S: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow$ Sets a functor. Prove the Yoneda Lemma ${ }^{2}$ : there is a bijection from $\operatorname{Nat}(\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square), S)$ to $S(C)$ given by

$$
\Phi \mapsto \Phi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)
$$

In particular, this shows that $\operatorname{Nat}(\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square), S)$ is always a set.
Solution. 1. Define the natural transformation $\operatorname{ev}_{\{*\}}: \operatorname{Hom}(\{*\}, \cdot) \rightarrow$ id by

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{ev}_{*}(X): \operatorname{Hom}(\{*\}, X) \rightarrow \operatorname{id}(X) \\
\lambda \mapsto \lambda(*) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Moreover, let $\Phi: \operatorname{id} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\{*\}, \cdot)$ be given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi: \operatorname{id}(X) & \rightarrow H o m(\{*\}, X) \\
x & \mapsto\left(\lambda_{x}: * \mapsto x\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then for every $X \in \operatorname{obj}($ Sets $)$ we $\operatorname{have}^{e^{*}}(X) \circ \Phi(X)=\mathrm{id}_{X}$ and $\Phi(X) \circ$


[^107]2. Let $J: \operatorname{Nat}(\operatorname{Hom}(C, \square), S) \rightarrow S(C): \phi \mapsto \phi(C)\left(\operatorname{id}_{C}\right)$ denote the Yoneda map. We start by proving that $J$ is surjective. Let $x \in S(C)$. For $D \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ let
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{x}(D): \operatorname{Hom}(C, D) & \rightarrow S(D) \\
\lambda & \mapsto S(\lambda)(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Then $\phi_{x}: \operatorname{Hom}(C, \square) \rightarrow S$ is a natural transformation, as for every $D, E \in$ $\operatorname{obj}(C)$ and any $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(D, E)$ the diagram

commutes. Indeed $\phi_{x}(E) \circ T(f)(\lambda)=\phi_{x}(E)(f \circ \lambda)=S(f \circ \lambda)(x)=S(f) \circ S(\lambda)(x)$ and $S(f) \circ \phi_{x}(D)(\lambda)=S(f) S(\lambda)(x)$.
To prove injectivity, suppose that $J(\phi)=\phi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)=\psi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)=J(\psi)$. For every $D \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$ and for every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, D)$ we have $\phi(D)(f)=$ $\phi(D) \circ T(f)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)=S(f) \circ \phi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)=S(f) \psi(C)\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}\right)=\psi(D) \circ T(f)\left(\mathrm{id}_{C}\right)=$ $\psi(D)(f)$. Hence $\phi(D)=\psi(D)$ for every $D \in \operatorname{obj}(C)$, which implies that $\phi=\psi$.

Problem K. $6(\dagger)$. Let $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ be a homology theory satisfying the first four axioms (homotopy, exact sequence, excision and dimension). Let $\left(X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}\right), 1 \leq n \leq N$ be a finite family of pairs of spaces. Denote by

$$
\imath_{n}:\left(X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}\right) \hookrightarrow\left(\bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n} \cdot \bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}^{\prime}\right)
$$

the inclusion. Prove that for all $k \geq 0$, the map

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(\imath_{n}\right): \bigoplus_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(X_{n}, X_{n}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{k}\left(\bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n} . \bigsqcup_{n=1}^{N} X_{n}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

is an isomorphism.
Solution. The Excision Axiom tells us that the inclusion induces an isomorphism

$$
\mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \cong \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X \sqcup Y, X^{\prime} \sqcup Y\right)
$$

for any space $Y$. By induction, we need only consider the case $N=2$. Moreover, by the usual argument involving the Five Lemma, it is sufficient to consider the absolute groups (see for instance the end of the proof of Theorem 21.12 in Lecture 22.) By functoriality of $\mathcal{H}_{n}$ and the Exact Sequence axion, the following diagram satisfies the
hypotheses of the Hexagon Lemma H.2:


Thus part (1) of the Hexagon Lemma tells us that

$$
\mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{1}\right) \oplus \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{2}\right) \cong \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{1} \sqcup X_{2}\right),
$$

which is what we wanted to show.
Problem K. $7(\dagger)$. Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be subspaces of $X$ such that $X=X_{1}^{\circ} \cup X_{2}^{\circ}$. Set $X_{0}:=X_{1} \cap X_{2}$. Let $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$ be a homology theory satisfying the first four axioms. Prove there is a commutative braid of the form:

where all four braids are exact. Deduce that the Mayer-Vietoris exact sequence holds for $\left(\mathcal{H}_{\bullet}, \delta\right)$.

Solution. Consider the long exact sequence of the pair ( $X_{1}, X_{0}$ ). It follows with excision that $H_{n}\left(X_{1}, X_{0}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(X, X_{2}\right)$ and $H_{i}\left(X_{2}, X_{0}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(X, X_{1}\right)$. Hence the long exact sequences of the pair $\left(X_{1}, X_{0}\right)$ becomes

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Similarly there is a long exact sequence

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X_{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{0}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

The pairs ( $X, X_{1}$ ) and ( $X, X_{2}$ ) give rise to long exact sequences

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X_{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{1}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

and

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(X, X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{2}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Let $i_{k}: X_{k} \hookrightarrow X$ and $i_{0 k}: X_{0} \hookrightarrow X_{k}$ be the inclusion for $k=1,2$. Similarly let $j_{k}:(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X_{k}\right)$ denote the inclusion and $\delta_{k}$ the boundary homomorphisms for $k=1,2$. (See picture.) The maps in the long exact sequences above are induced by these maps. Hence there exists a commutative braid with exact sequences as in the picture. Now we have a sequence
$\ldots \mathcal{H}_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{\delta_{1} \circ \mathcal{H}_{n}\left(j_{1}\right)} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{0}\right) \xrightarrow{\left(\mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(i_{01}\right), \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(i_{02}\right)\right)} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{1}\right) \oplus \mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(X_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{H}_{n-1}(X) \rightarrow \ldots$
where $D$ is given by $(a, b) \mapsto\left(\mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(i_{1}\right)(a)-\mathcal{H}_{n-1}\left(i_{2}\right)(b)\right)$. It follows from the definition that this sequence is exact.

## Problem Sheet L

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 24 and 25. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem L. $1(\dagger)$. Suppose $A$ is an abelian group and $\left\{B_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a (possibly uncountable) family of abelian groups. Prove there is an isomorphism

$$
A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

Problem L. $2(\dagger)$. Suppose $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are free abelian groups. Prove that $F \otimes F^{\prime}$ is also free.

Problem L. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $B$ is a torsion-free abelian group. Prove that $\square \otimes B$ and $B \otimes$are exact functors.

Problem L. 4 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is an additive functor and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow$ $C \rightarrow 0$ is a split exact sequence. Prove that $0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow T(B) \rightarrow T(C) \rightarrow 0$ is also a split exact sequence.

Problem L.5. Let $A=\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}$ and let $B=\mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}$. Compute $A \otimes B$ and $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$.

Problem L. 6 ( $\star$ ). Fix $n \geq 2$. Consider the projection map $p: S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$. Let $a: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be the antipodal map. For this problem you may assume the following fact:

Fact: If $\sigma: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ is a singular $m$-simplex, then are precisely two singular $m$-simplices $\tilde{\sigma}_{1}, \tilde{\sigma}_{2}: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow S^{n}$ that satisfy $p \circ \tilde{\sigma}_{i}=\sigma$ for $i=1,2$. Moreover $\tilde{\sigma}_{2}=a \circ \tilde{\sigma}_{1}{ }^{1}$.

Define a chain map

$$
q_{m}: C_{m}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow C_{m}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

by $\sigma \mapsto \tilde{\sigma}_{1}+\tilde{\sigma}_{2}$.

1. Show that the following is a short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow C \bullet\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{q} C \bullet\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{p_{\#}} C \bullet\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

${ }^{1}$ This follows from standard covering space theory that we will cover later on in the semester.
2. Suppose $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ is an odd map (that is, $f \circ a=a \circ f$ ). Let $h: \mathbb{R} P^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ denote the induced map (so that $p \circ f=h \circ p$ ). Show that the following diagram commutes for every $m$ :

3. Deduce that $f: H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism. Hint: Argue by induction on $m$, using the associated long exact sequence in homology from the short exact sequence of chain complexes in part (1).
4. Deduce that $f$ has odd degree.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet L

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 24 and 25. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem L. $1(\dagger)$. Suppose $A$ is an abelian group and $\left\{B_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a (possibly uncountable) family of abelian groups. Prove there is an isomorphism

$$
A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right) .
$$

Solution. Let $T$ be an abelian group and $\eta: A \times \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow T$ a bilinear map. Consider the following universal property. For an abelian group $C$ and $\varphi: A \times$ $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow C$ a bilinear map, there exists a unique homomorphism $f: T \rightarrow C$ such that the following diagram commutes:


It suffices to show that $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right)$ together with the bilinear map $\eta: A \times$ $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right):\left(a,\left(b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right) \mapsto\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ satisfies this universal property. Then Lemma 24.4 ensures that $A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right)$.

Let $C$ be an abelian group and $\varphi: A \times \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow C$ a bilinear map. Let $\bar{b}_{\lambda} \in \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda}$ be the element that has $b_{\lambda}$ as the entry for index $\lambda$ and entries zero otherwise. Define $\varphi_{\lambda}: A \times B_{\lambda} \rightarrow C$ by $\left(a, b_{\lambda}\right) \mapsto \varphi\left(a, \bar{b}_{\lambda}\right)$. This map is bilinear and thus by the universal property of $A \otimes B_{\lambda}$ there exists a unique homomorphism $f_{\lambda}: A \otimes B_{\lambda} \rightarrow C$ such that $f_{\lambda}\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)=\varphi\left(a, \bar{b}_{\lambda}\right)$. By the properties of the direct sum there exists a unique homomorphism

$$
\begin{array}{clc}
f: \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right) & \rightarrow & C \\
\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} & \mapsto & \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} f_{\lambda}\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

But $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} f_{\lambda}\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)=\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \varphi\left(a \otimes \bar{b}_{\lambda}\right)=\varphi\left(a \otimes \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \bar{b}_{\lambda}\right)=\varphi\left(a,\left(b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right)$ and thus $f \circ \eta=\varphi$. In other words $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right)$ together with the bilinear map $\eta: A \times \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right):\left(a,\left(b_{\lambda}\right)\right) \mapsto\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)$ satisfies the universal property (L.1). Using the universal property one can also show that an explicit isomorphism is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} \rightarrow \\
& a \otimes\left(b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mapsto \\
&\left(a \otimes b_{\lambda}\right)_{\lambda \in \Lambda} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem L. $2(\dagger)$. Suppose $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are free abelian groups. Prove that $F \otimes F^{\prime}$ is also free.

Solution. Let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be basis of $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ respectively. Then $F \cong \bigoplus_{b \in B}\langle b\rangle$ and $F^{\prime} \cong \bigoplus_{b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}}\left\langle b^{\prime}\right\rangle$. By the previous exercise we have

$$
F \otimes F^{\prime} \cong \bigoplus_{b \in B}\langle b\rangle \otimes \bigoplus_{b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}}\left\langle b^{\prime}\right\rangle \cong \bigoplus_{b \in B, b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}}\langle b\rangle \otimes\left\langle b^{\prime}\right\rangle \cong \bigoplus_{b \otimes b^{\prime}}\left\langle b \otimes b^{\prime}\right\rangle .
$$

This proves that $F \otimes F^{\prime}$ is free with basis $\left\{b \otimes b^{\prime} \mid b \in B, b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime}\right\}$.
Problem L. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $B$ is a torsion-free abelian group. Prove that $\square \otimes B$ and $B \otimes \square$ are exact functors.

Solution. Notice that a functor $T$ is exact if and only if for every exact sequence $0 \rightarrow C \xrightarrow{f} D \xrightarrow{g} E \rightarrow 0$ the sequence $0 \rightarrow T(C) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T(D) \xrightarrow{T(g)} T(E) \rightarrow 0$ is also exact. If $B$ is finitely generated and torsion-free then it is free and thus isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ for some $n$. Then $\mathbb{Z}^{n} \otimes G \cong G^{n}$ by Proposition 24.8 and $f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}$ becomes the map $(f, \ldots, f)$. Moreover, applying $\square \otimes B$ to a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow C \xrightarrow{f} D \xrightarrow{g} E \rightarrow 0$ yields the sequence $0 \rightarrow C^{n} \xrightarrow{(f, \ldots, f)} D^{n} \xrightarrow{(g, \ldots, g)} E^{n} \rightarrow 0$, which is also exact.

For the general case, we start with the following claim:
Claim. Let $0 \rightarrow C \xrightarrow{f} D$ be exact, and let $A$ be any abelian group. If $x \in \operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right)$ then there exists a finitely generated subgroup $A^{\prime} \subseteq A$ and an element $x^{\prime} \in C \otimes A^{\prime}$ such that $x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A^{\prime}}: C \otimes A^{\prime} \rightarrow D \otimes A^{\prime}\right)$ and such that $x=\left(\mathrm{id}_{C} \otimes i\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)$, where $i: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A$ is the inclusion.

Proof. Suppose $x=\sum_{k} c_{k} \otimes a_{k}$. Then by assumption

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} f\left(c_{k}\right) \otimes a_{k}=0 \in D \otimes A
$$

Let $F$ be the free abelian group with basis $D \times A$ and let $N$ be the subgroup of $F$ generated by all the relations that define the tensor product $D \otimes A$ (i.e. so that $D \otimes A=F / N$.) Then we have an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow F \xrightarrow{u} D \otimes A \rightarrow 0$, where $u(d, a)=d \otimes a$. Since $\sum_{k} f\left(c_{k}\right) \otimes a_{k}=0 \in D \otimes A$, there $m \geq 1$ and elements $a_{j}^{\prime} \in A$ and $d_{j} \in D$ for $j=1, \ldots, m$ such that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} f\left(c_{k}\right) \otimes a_{k}=\sum_{j=1}^{m} u\left(d_{j}, a_{j}^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Now let $A^{\prime}$ denote the subgroup of $A$ generated by the $a_{k}$ and the $a_{j}^{\prime}$. Then $A^{\prime}$ is finitely generated. Set

$$
x^{\prime}:=\sum_{k=1}^{n} c_{k} \otimes a_{k} \in C \otimes A^{\prime}
$$

Then certainly $\left(\operatorname{id}_{C} \otimes i\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=x$. Moreover $\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A^{\prime}}\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=0 \in D \otimes A^{\prime}$, since we have ensured that all the relations that make $\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{A}\right)(x)=0$ are present in $D \otimes A^{\prime}$.

Now we prove the result in the case where $B$ is torsion-free. Let $0 \rightarrow C \xrightarrow{f}$ $D \xrightarrow{g} E \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence. Consider the sequence $0 \rightarrow C \otimes B \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}_{B}}$ $D \otimes B \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}_{B}} E \otimes B \rightarrow 0$. By Proposition 24.10 it is left to show that $\operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right)=0$. Suppose $\left.x:=\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} \otimes b_{i}\right)=\in \operatorname{ker}\left(f \otimes \operatorname{id}_{B}\right)$. Let $B^{\prime}$ be the subgroup of $B$ given to us by the claim, and let $x^{\prime} \in C \otimes B^{\prime}$ be such that $\left(\operatorname{id}_{C} \otimes i\right)\left(x^{\prime}\right)=x$, where $i: B^{\prime} \rightarrow B$ is the inclusion. Then $B^{\prime}$ is torsion-free and finitely generated and thus it is free. But this forces $x^{\prime}=0$, since we already know that $\square \otimes B^{\prime}$ is exact. Thus also $x=0$, and this completes the proof.
Problem L. 4 ( $\dagger$ ). Suppose $T: \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is an additive functor and $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow$ $C \rightarrow 0$ is a split exact sequence. Prove that $0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow T(B) \rightarrow T(C) \rightarrow 0$ is also a split exact sequence.
Solution. Notice that
Claim. A sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is split exact if and only if there exist homomorphisms $k: B \rightarrow A$ and $h: C \rightarrow B$ such that

$$
\begin{array}{r}
g f=0 \\
k f=\operatorname{id}_{A} \\
g h=\mathrm{id}_{C} \\
k h=0 \\
\mathrm{id}_{B}=f k+h g
\end{array}
$$

Proof. If the sequence splits then $k$ and $h$ exist and by Proposition 12.15 the first three equalities hold. By Proposition 12.16 we also have that $B=\operatorname{im} f \oplus \operatorname{im} h$. As $g$ and $k$ are surjective this implies $B=\operatorname{im} f k \oplus \operatorname{imh} h$ and thus $\operatorname{id}_{B}=f k+h g$. Moreover, as $k f=\operatorname{id}_{A}$ this also proves that $k h=0$. For the other direction it suffices to show that ker $g \subset \operatorname{im} f$. Let $x \in B$ such that $g(x)=0$. Then $x=\operatorname{id}_{B}(x)=$ $f k(x)+h g(x)=f k(x)$ and hence $x \in \operatorname{im} f$.

As $T$ is a functor it preserves the first four equalities. If $T$ is also additive the last equality is also preserved. This proves that $T$ preserves split exact sequences.
Problem L.5. Let $A=\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}$ and let $B=\mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}$. Compute $A \otimes B$ and $\operatorname{Tor}(A, B)$.
Solution. We know from Proposition 24.8 and 25.6 and Problem L. 1 that for abelian groups $A$ and $B_{\lambda}$ the following identities hold:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \otimes \mathbb{Z} & \cong A \\
A \otimes \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda} & \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\left(A \otimes B_{\lambda}\right) \\
\operatorname{Tor}(\mathbb{Z}, A) & =0 \\
\operatorname{Tor}\left(A, \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_{\lambda}\right) & \cong \bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} \mathrm{T}\left(A, B_{\lambda \in \Lambda}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We will prove the following general fact:
Claim. $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)}$.
Proof. The homomorphism

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\phi: \mathbb{Z} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{Z}_{n} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m} \\
1 & \mapsto & 1 \otimes 1
\end{array}
$$

is surjective. The greates common divisor $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)$ can be defined as the smallest positive integer $d$ which can be written in the form $d=a x+b y$, where $x$ and $y$ are integers. If follows that kernel of $\phi$ is given by $\operatorname{gcd}(n, m) \mathbb{Z}$, which proves the claim.

Another general fact is
Claim. $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)}$
Proof. A short free resolution of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto n} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto 1} \mathbb{Z}_{n} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Applying the fuctor$\otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m}$ gives

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{m} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto n} \mathbb{Z}_{m} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto 1 \otimes 1} \mathbb{Z}_{n} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{m} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Then $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto n} \mathbb{Z}_{m}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\operatorname{gcd}(n, m)}$.
Using these properties we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \otimes B & \cong\left(\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \\
& \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5} \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \\
& \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5} \\
& \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Tor}(A, B) \cong\left(\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{2}, \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right)\right)^{2} \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6}, \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6}, \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \\
& \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5}, \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5}, \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \\
& \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6}, \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5}, \mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \\
& \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{5}
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem L. 6 ( $\star$ ). Fix $n \geq 2$. Consider the projection map $p: S^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$. Let $a: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be the antipodal map. For this problem you may assume the following fact:

Fact: If $\sigma: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ is a singular $m$-simplex, then are precisely two singular $m$-simplices $\tilde{\sigma}_{1}, \tilde{\sigma}_{2}: \Delta^{m} \rightarrow S^{n}$ that satisfy $p \circ \tilde{\sigma}_{i}=\sigma$ for $i=1,2$. Moreover

$$
\tilde{\sigma}_{2}=a \circ \tilde{\sigma}_{1}{ }^{1} .
$$

Define a chain map

$$
q_{m}: C_{m}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow C_{m}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

by $\sigma \mapsto \tilde{\sigma}_{1}+\tilde{\sigma}_{2}$.

1. Show that the following is a short exact sequence of chain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow C \bullet\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{q_{\bullet}} C \bullet\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{p_{\#}} C \bullet\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

2. Suppose $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ is an odd map (that is, $f \circ a=a \circ f$ ). Let $h: \mathbb{R} P^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ denote the induced map (so that $p \circ f=h \circ p$ ). Show that the following diagram commutes for every $m$ :

3. Deduce that $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism. Hint: Argue by induction on $m$, using the associated long exact sequence in homology from the short exact sequence of chain complexes in part (1).
4. Deduce that $f$ has odd degree.

Solution. We call the simplices $\tilde{\sigma}_{1}$ and $\tilde{\sigma}_{2}$ the lifts of $\sigma$.

1. The map $p_{\#}$ is surjective as every $\sigma: \Delta^{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ has two lifts $\tilde{\sigma_{1}}$ and $\tilde{\sigma_{2}}$. Since we work with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ the kernel of $p_{\#}$ is generated by $\tilde{\sigma_{1}}+\tilde{\sigma_{2}}$. Thus $\operatorname{ker} p_{\#}=\operatorname{im} q_{k}$. The map $q_{k}$ is injective, as the lift of a cycle will be a cycle again. (If $\delta(\tau)=\sigma$, then $\delta\left(\tilde{\tau}_{i}\right)=\tilde{\sigma}_{i}$ for $i=1,2$.) The boundaries $\partial \tilde{\sigma_{1}}$ and $\partial \tilde{\sigma_{1}}$ lift the boundary $\partial \sigma$, i.e. $p_{\#}\left(\partial \tilde{\sigma}_{i}\right)=\partial \sigma$ for $i=1,2$. If follows that $p_{\#}$ and $q$ commute with the boundary operators.
2. Notice that $p f \tilde{\sigma}_{i}=h p \tilde{\sigma}_{i}=h \sigma$, since $p f=h p$. Thus for every $k$-simplex $\sigma: \Delta^{k} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ with lifts $\tilde{\sigma}_{i} i=1,2$, the two lifts of $h \sigma$ are $f \tilde{\sigma}_{i} i=1,2$. This immediately implies that the left square in the diagram commutes. The right square commutes since $p f=h p$.
3. Since $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ it follows from the Universal Coefficient Theorem that

$$
H_{i}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}_{2}, & i=0, n \\ 0, & i \neq 0, n\end{cases}
$$

Furthermore, $\operatorname{Tor}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and thus

$$
H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}_{2}, & 0 \leq i \leq n \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

[^108]Using these facts and part two of the exercise we get a long exact sequence in homology

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \longrightarrow H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(q)} H_{n}\left(S^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(p)} H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \\
& H_{n}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \quad{ }^{H_{n}(q)} \quad{ }^{H_{n}(f)} \quad{ }^{H_{n}(p)} H_{n}(\bar{f}) \quad H_{n-1}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \\
& 0 \longrightarrow H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(q)} H_{n}\left(S^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{n}(p)} H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{i-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \downarrow_{H_{i}(\bar{f})} H_{i-1}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{i-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(q)} H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(p)} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \downarrow_{H_{1}(\bar{f})} H_{0}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \downarrow H_{0}(f) \quad \downarrow H_{n}(\bar{f}) \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(q)} H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H_{0}(p)} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0
\end{aligned}
$$

In this diagram all non-trivial homology groups are isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ (apart from $H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ which is $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.) Notice that a homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ that is either injective or surjective must be an isomorphism. Therefore by exactness of the rows the above diagram simplifies to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \longrightarrow H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n}\left(S^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{0} H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \\
& H_{n}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \quad \downarrow_{n}(f) \quad \downarrow_{n}(\bar{f}) \quad H_{n-1}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \\
& 0 \longrightarrow H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n}\left(S^{n}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{0} H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \\
& \begin{array}{r}
\ldots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{i-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots \\
\downarrow_{i}(\bar{f}) \\
\ldots \longrightarrow H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{i-1}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \\
\\
\hline \longrightarrow H_{i-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \ldots
\end{array} \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{0} H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0 \\
& \downarrow_{H_{1}(\bar{f})} H_{0}(\bar{f}) \downarrow \quad{ }^{H_{0}(f)} \downarrow H_{0}(\bar{f}) \\
& \ldots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{0} H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \longrightarrow 0
\end{aligned}
$$

The maps $H_{0}(f): H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ and $H_{0}(\bar{f}): H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ are obviously isomorphisms (as a singular 0-simplex always generates $H_{0}(X)$ for $X$ path connected, cf. Proposition 8.3.) Using the isomorphisms in the diagram above we conclude by induction on the dimension $i$ that $H_{i}(f)$ and $H_{i}(\bar{f})$ are isomorphisms for all $i$.
4. Notice that for any pair $X^{\prime} \subset X$ and a group homomorphism $\phi: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ induces a chain map $C_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow C_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A^{\prime}\right)$ by $\phi_{\#}\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} \phi\left(a_{i}\right) \sigma_{i}$. Indeed,

$$
\partial \phi_{\#}\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right)=\sum_{i} \phi\left(a_{i}\right) \partial\left(\sigma_{i}\right)=\phi_{\#} \partial\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right) .
$$

Thus it also induces a homomorphism $H_{n}(\phi): H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A^{\prime}\right)$. If $f:\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right)$, one can see that $H_{n}(\phi)$ commutes with $H_{n}(f)$ as

$$
H_{n}(f) H_{n}(\phi)\left\langle\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right\rangle=\left\langle\sum_{i} \phi\left(a_{i}\right) f \circ \sigma_{i}\right\rangle=H_{n}(\phi) H_{n}(f)\left\langle\sum_{i} a_{i} \sigma_{i}\right\rangle .
$$

Let $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be a map of degree $d$ and let $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{1 \mapsto 1} \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ be a group homomorphism. Then we have the commutative diagram


Commutativity and the fact that the map $H_{n}(f)$ across the top is multiplication by $d$ implies that also the map $H_{n}(f)$ across the bottom is multiplication by d. Hence the map $H_{n}(f): H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H_{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism if only only if $d=1 \bmod 2$, or in other words if $d$ is odd. By part (4) an odd map $f: S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ has odd degree.

## Problem Sheet M

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 26 and 27. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem M. $1(\dagger)$. Let $C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, D_{\bullet}, D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be four non-negative chain complexes, and let

$$
f, f^{\prime}: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}, \quad g, g^{\prime}: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}^{\prime}
$$

be chain maps. Assume that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic and $g$ and $g^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic. Prove that $f \otimes g$ is chain homotopic to $f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}$.

Problem M. $2(\dagger)$. Let $0 \rightarrow C \bullet \xrightarrow{f} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of non-negative chain complexes. Let $D$ • be a non-negative free chain complex. Prove that

$$
0 \rightarrow C \bullet \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

is another short exact sequence of chain complexes.
Problem M.3. Compute the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n} \times \mathbb{R} P^{m}$ for all even $m$ and $n$.
Problem M. $4(\star)$. In each of the following three examples, show that $X$ and $Y$ have the same singular homology groups but they are not homotopy equivalent.

1. $X=S^{1} \times S^{1}$ and $Y=S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}$.
2. $X=\mathbb{R} P^{3}$ and $Y=\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}$.
3. $X=S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}$ and $Y=S^{1} \times S^{2}$.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet M

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 26 and 27. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem M. $1(\dagger)$. Let $C_{\bullet}, C_{\bullet}^{\prime}, D_{\bullet}, D_{\bullet}^{\prime}$ be four non-negative chain complexes, and let

$$
f, f^{\prime}: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}, \quad g, g^{\prime}: C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}^{\prime}
$$

be chain maps. Assume that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic and $g$ and $g^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic. Prove that $f \otimes g$ is chain homotopic to $f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}$.

Solution. Suppose that $Q: C_{\bullet} \rightarrow D_{\bullet}$ is a chain homotopy from $f$ to $f^{\prime}$, that is $f-f^{\prime}=Q \partial+\partial Q$. We claim that $Q \otimes g$ is chain homotopy from $f \otimes g$ to $f^{\prime} \otimes g$. Indeed, if $c \in C_{n}$ and $d \in D_{\bullet}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
((Q \otimes g) \circ \Delta+\Delta \circ(Q \otimes g))(c \otimes d)= & (Q \otimes g)\left(\partial c \otimes d+(-1)^{n}(c \otimes \partial d)\right)+\Delta(Q c \otimes g d) \\
= & Q \partial c \otimes g d+(-1)^{n} Q c \otimes g \partial d \\
& +(\partial Q c \otimes g d)+(-1)^{n+1}(Q c \otimes \partial g d) \\
= & ((Q \partial c+\partial Q c) \otimes g d)+(-1)^{n}(Q c, g \underbrace{\partial d-\partial g d}_{=0}) \\
= & \left(\left(f-f^{\prime}\right)(c) \otimes g d\right) \\
= & (f \otimes g)(c \otimes d)-\left(f^{\prime} \otimes g\right)(c \otimes d) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly if $P$ is a chain homotopy from $g$ to $g^{\prime}$ then $f^{\prime} \otimes P$ is a chain homotopy from $f^{\prime} \otimes g$ to $f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime}$. Putting these together we have chain homotopies:

$$
f \otimes g \underset{Q \otimes g}{\simeq} f^{\prime} \otimes g \underset{f^{\prime} \otimes}{\sim} f^{\prime} \otimes g^{\prime},
$$

which completes the proof.
Problem M. $2(\dagger)$. Let $0 \rightarrow C \bullet \xrightarrow{f} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of non-negative chain complexes. Let $D_{\bullet}$ be a non-negative free chain complex. Prove that

$$
0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

is another short exact sequence of chain complexes.
Solution. As $D_{n}$ is free for every $n$ we have with Problem L. 3 that

$$
0 \rightarrow C_{i} \otimes D_{n} \xrightarrow{f_{i} \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{i}^{\prime} \otimes D_{n} \xrightarrow{g_{i} \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{i}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{n} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact for every $i$. Thus also

$$
0 \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i+j=n} C_{i} \otimes D_{j} \xrightarrow{\sum f_{i} \otimes \mathrm{id}} \bigoplus_{i+j=n} C_{i}^{\prime} \otimes D_{j} \xrightarrow{\sum g_{i} \otimes \mathrm{id}} \bigoplus_{i+j=n} C_{i}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{j} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact for every $n$. By definition $\left(C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}^{\prime}\right)_{n}=\sum_{i+j=n} C_{i} \otimes C_{j}^{\prime}$ and thus

$$
0 \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}} C_{\bullet}^{\prime \prime} \otimes D_{\bullet} \rightarrow 0
$$

is exact.
Problem M.3. Compute the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n} \times \mathbb{R} P^{m}$ for all even $m$ and $n$.
Solution. Assume that $m<n$ and that $i$ is odd. Then for any $0 \leq k \leq i$, at least one of $k$ and $i-k$ are even. Thus

$$
\bigoplus_{0 \leq k \leq i}\left(H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes H_{i-k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)\right)=H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right) \oplus H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)
$$

Thus:

$$
\bigoplus_{0 \leq k \leq i}\left(H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes H_{i-k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z}_{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}, & i<m \\ \mathbb{Z}_{2} & m<i<n \\ 0, & i>n\end{cases}
$$

Likewise the torsion groups

$$
\bigoplus_{0 \leq k \leq i-1} \operatorname{Tor}\left(\left(H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right), H_{i-k-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)\right)\right.
$$

contribute $r(n, m, i)$ many copies of $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, where $r(n, m, i)$ is the number of $0 \leq k \leq i$ such that $k$ is odd and both $k<n$ and $i-k-1<m$. Explicitly,

$$
r(n, m, i)= \begin{cases}\frac{i-1}{2}, & i<m \\ \frac{m}{2}, & m<i<n \\ \max \left\{\frac{n+m+1-i}{2}, 0\right\}, & i>n\end{cases}
$$

Putting this altogether, we obtain for $i$ odd that:

$$
H_{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} \times \mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)=\bigoplus_{s(n, m, i)} \mathbb{Z}_{2}
$$

where

$$
s(n, m, i)= \begin{cases}2+\frac{i-1}{2}, & i<m, \\ 1+\frac{m}{2}, & m<i<n, \\ \max \left\{\frac{n+m+1-i}{2}, 0\right\}, & i>n,\end{cases}
$$

A similar analysis works if $i$ is even. The case $m=n$ is easier.
Here is an alternative proof, which uses the idea of a double complex. The chain complex of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ and $\mathbb{R} P^{m}$ are both of the form

$$
\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{2} \cdots \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}
$$

Taking their tensor product yields


Some of the vertical maps become -2 , which follows from the fact that $\left.\Delta\right|_{C_{i} \otimes C_{j}}=$ $\partial \otimes \mathrm{id}+(-1)^{i} \mathrm{id} \otimes \partial . \quad\left(C \bullet\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes C_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)\right)_{k}$ is the direct sum of the groups at postion $(i, j)$ such that $i+j=k$. Consider the square


The homology groups at the top right, top left and bottom left of (M.1) are all zero. At the bottom right the homology is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Suppose $(i, j)$ is the index of the group at the bottom right of this square. The boundary operator (for notational simplicity, we will write $C_{j}$ for all the groups, etc)

$$
\left.\Delta\right|_{\left(C_{i+1} \otimes C_{j}\right) \oplus\left(C_{i} \otimes C_{j+1}\right)}:\left(C_{i+1} \otimes C_{j}\right) \oplus\left(C_{i} \otimes C_{j+1}\right) \rightarrow C_{i} \otimes C_{j}
$$

maps the element $1 \otimes 1+1 \otimes 1$ to $2 \otimes 1+1 \otimes(-2)=0$. But

$$
\left.\Delta\right|_{\left(C_{i+1} \otimes C_{j}+1\right)}:\left(C_{i+1} \otimes C_{j+1}\right) \rightarrow\left(C_{i+1} \otimes C_{j}\right) \otimes\left(C_{i} \otimes C_{j+1}\right)
$$

sends $1 \otimes 1$ to $2 \otimes 1+1 \otimes 2$. Thus $1 \otimes 1+1 \otimes 1$ is a boundary and $2(1 \otimes 1+1 \otimes 1)$ is a cycle. Hence this contributes another $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ factor to the homology group $H_{i+j+1}\left(C_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes\right.$
$C_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)$ ). We will write this $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ factor at position $(i+1, j)$. (Although strictly speaking this is not the homology at the index $(i+1, j)$. However, we only care to represented it somewhere in the diagonal corresponding to the indexes $\left(i^{\prime}, j^{\prime}\right)$ such that $i^{\prime}+j^{\prime}=i+j+1$.) The homology groups can therefor pictorially be represented as follows:

| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ |
| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 |
| $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ | $\vdots$ |  |
| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 |
| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ |
| 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | 0 | $\cdots$ | 0 | $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ | $\mathbb{Z}$ |

By Theorem 27.6 and $26.5, H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} \times \mathbb{R} P^{m}\right) \cong H_{k}\left(C_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) \otimes C_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)\right)$. Thus $H_{k}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} \times \mathbb{R} P^{m}\right)$ is the sum of the groups in the diagram at position $(n-i, j)$ with $i+j=k$.

Problem M. 4 ( $*$ ). In each of the following three examples, show that $X$ and $Y$ have the same homology groups but they are not homotopy equivalent.

1. $X=S^{1} \times S^{1}$ and $Y=S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}$.
2. $X=\mathbb{R} P^{3}$ and $Y=\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}$.
3. $X=S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}$ and $Y=S^{1} \times S^{2}$.

## Solution.

1. With the Künneth Formula we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{2}\left(S^{1} \times S^{1}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{1}\left(S^{1} \times S^{1}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \oplus H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{2} \\
& H_{0}\left(S^{1}, S^{1}\right) \cong H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{0}\left(S_{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z},
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used the fact that $\operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right), \square\right)=0$ since $H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right)$ is free. In order to compute the homology groups of $Y$, let $X_{1}$ be a small open neighbourhood
of $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$ that deformation retracts onto $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$. Likewise, let $X_{2}$ be a small open neighbourhood of $S^{2}$ that deformation retracts onto $S^{2}$. Mayer Vietoris gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{2}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}\right) \cong H_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \oplus H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{2} \\
& H_{0}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

$X$ and $Y$ are not homotopy equivalent since they have different fundamental groups. The fundamental group of $X$ has been computed in Problem C.3:

$$
\pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \times S^{1}, p\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{2}
$$

The fundamental group of $Y$ can be computed with Seifert-van-Kampen. As before, let $X_{1}$ be a small open neighbourhood of $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$ that deformation retracts onto $S^{1} \vee S^{1}$. Let $X_{2}$ be a small open neighbourhood of $S^{2}$ that deformation retracts onto $S^{2}$. Then

$$
\pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1} \vee S^{2}, p\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) * \pi_{1}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \pi_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}
$$

2. We already know the homology groups of $\mathbb{R} P^{3}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{3}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{2}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{3}\right) \cong 0 \\
& H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \\
& H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using Mayer Vietoris we can also show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{3}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{2}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{2}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right) \cong 0 \\
& H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \\
& H_{0}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z},
\end{aligned}
$$

which proves that $X$ and $Y$ have the same homology groups.
One way of seeing that $X$ and $Y$ are not homotopy equivalent is to show that they have non-isomorphic cohomology rings. The cohomology ring of $\mathbb{R} P^{3}$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[t] / t^{3}$. The cohomology ring of $Y$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[t] / t^{2} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. These facts will be proved shortly in lectures.
Another way of seeing that they are not homotopy equivalent is by showing that their universal covers are different. The universal cover of $X$ is $S^{3}$ and the universal cover of $Y$ is $S^{2} \vee S^{3}$. This will also be covered in the lecture in a few weeks.
3. Using Mayer Vietoris we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{3}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{2}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{1}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{0}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the Künneth formula yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& H_{3}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{2}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{1}\left(S^{2}\right) \oplus H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{1}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right) \cong H_{1}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{0}\left(S^{2}\right) \oplus H_{0}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H_{1}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z} \\
& H_{0}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

There are again several methods to show these spaces are not homotopy equivalent. Here is one using the universal cover.
Suppose $f: S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3} \rightarrow S^{1} \times S^{2}$ is a homotopy equivalence. Then $f$ induces an isomorphism of the homology groups in every degree. In particular $H_{3}(f): H_{3}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right) \rightarrow H_{3}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right)$ is an isomorphism. Consider the inclusion $i$ : $S^{3} \hookrightarrow S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}$. Set $g:=f \circ i$. Using for example cellular homology we see that $H_{3}(i): H_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \rightarrow H_{3}\left(S^{1} \vee S^{2} \vee S^{3}\right)$ is an isomorphism, and thus also $H_{3}(g): H_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \rightarrow H_{3}\left(S^{1} \times S^{2}\right)$ is an isomorphisms.
The universal cover of $Y$ is $p: \mathbb{R} \times S^{2} \rightarrow S^{1} \times S^{2}$. By the properties of the universal cover a map $S^{3} \rightarrow S^{1} \times S^{2}$ must factor through $p$ :

and we get the following commutative diagram:


As $H_{3}\left(\mathbb{R} \times S^{2}\right) \cong H_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong 0$ this contradicts the fact that $H_{3}(g)$ is an isomorphism. Thus the homotopy equivalence $f$ cannot exist.

## Problem Sheet N

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 28-31. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem N. $1(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be any abelian group. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ are left exact. That is, prove that if $B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact then so is

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime \prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(f, A)} \operatorname{Hom}(B, A),
$$

and if $0 \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} B^{\prime \prime}$ is exact then so is

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(A, f)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(A, g)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) .
$$

Now let $F$ be a free abelian group. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \square)$ is an exact functor.
Problem N. $2(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a finitely generated abelian group, with torsion subgroup $T(A)$. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong A / T(A)$ and that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong T(A)$.

Problem N. $3(\dagger)$. This problem explores divisible groups.

1. Prove that an abelian group $D$ is divisible if and only if the following property holds: Suppose $g: A \rightarrow B$ is an injective homomorphism of abelian groups and $h: A \rightarrow D$ is a homomorphism. Then there exists a homomorphism $f: B \rightarrow D$ such that $f g=h$ :

(Compare this to Lemma 22.3.)
2. Deduce that if $D$ is divisible then $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ is an exact functor, and hence $\operatorname{Ext}(A, D)=0$ for any abelian group $D$.
3. Prove that any abelian group $B$ is a subgroup of a divisible group $D$. Deduce that for any abelian group $B$, there exists a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \xrightarrow{f} E \rightarrow 0
$$

where both $D$ and $E$ are divisible. In analogy with short free resolutions (Definition 24.11), let us ${ }^{1}$ call such a sequence a short divisible resolution of $B$.
4. Let $A$ and $B$ be abelian groups. Let $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \xrightarrow{f} E \rightarrow 0$ denote a short divisible resolution of $B$. Prove there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

and hence that

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{coker} \operatorname{Hom}(A, f)
$$

Hint: Use (29.2) from Theorem 29.3. As remarked there, the proof of (29.2) is essentially identical to the corresponding exact sequences in Theorem 25.6, and hence we may take this as already proved. This is not true of the first exact sequence (29.1) from Theorem 29.3. (In fact, you will prove (29.1) in part (8) of this problem below.)
5. Let $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \xrightarrow{f} E \rightarrow 0$ denote a short divisible resolution of $B$. Consider a cochain complex $\left(C^{\bullet}, d\right)$ with

$$
C^{n}:= \begin{cases}D, & n=0 \\ E, & n=1 \\ 0, & n \neq 0,1\end{cases}
$$

and differential $d: C^{0} \rightarrow C^{1}$ given by $f: D \rightarrow E$. Prove that $H^{0}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)=B$. Now let $A$ denote any other abelian group, and consider the new ${ }^{2}$ cochain complex $\operatorname{Hom}\left(A, C^{\bullet}\right)$. Prove that $H^{1}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(A, C^{\bullet}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$.
6. Prove the following analogue of Proposition 22.4: if $h: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups, and $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow D^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\prime} \rightarrow$ 0 are short divisible resolutions of $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ respectively, with corresponding cochain complexes (as in the previous part) $C^{\bullet}$ and $\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet}$, then there exists a chain map $m: C^{\bullet} \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet}$ such that $H^{0}(m)=h$. Prove moreover that any two such chain maps $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic.
7. Deduce that $\operatorname{Ext}(\square, A): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a well-defined contravariant functor.
8. If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of abelian groups then for any abelian group $B$ there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Problem N.4. Let $X$ be a topological space and $R$ a commutative ring. Assume that the additive group $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ has no elements of order 2. Prove that if $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{\star}(X ; R)$ has odd degree then $\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=0$.

Problem N. $5(\star)$. Compute the cohomology ring structure of $H^{\star}\left(S^{n}\right)$ and $H^{\star}\left(T^{n}\right)$, where $T^{n}$ is the $n$-torus $\underbrace{S^{1} \times \cdots \times S^{1}}_{n \text { times }}$.

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## Solutions to Problem Sheet N

Problem N. $1(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be any abelian group. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ are left exact. That is, prove that if $B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact then so is

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime \prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(f, A)} \operatorname{Hom}(B, A), \tag{N.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and if $0 \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{f} B^{\prime} \xrightarrow{g} B^{\prime \prime}$ is exact then so is

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(A, f)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Hom}(A, g)} \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, B^{\prime \prime}\right) . \tag{N.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $F$ be a free abelian group. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \square)$ is an exact functor.
Solution. Let us prove that (N.1) is exact. There are three things to show:

1. $\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)$ is injective: If $h \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime \prime}, A\right)$ satisfies $\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)(h)=0$ then $h$ vanishes on the image of $g$. But $g$ is surjective and thus $h$ is identically zero.
2. im $\operatorname{Hom}(g, A) \subseteq \operatorname{ker} \operatorname{Hom}(f, A):$ If If $h \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime \prime}, A\right)$ then $\operatorname{Hom}(f, A) \circ \operatorname{Hom}(g, A)(h)=$ $h \circ g \circ f=0$ as $g \circ f=0$.
3. $\operatorname{ker} \operatorname{Hom}(f, A) \subseteq \operatorname{im} \operatorname{Hom}(g, A)$ : This one is harder. Suppose $k \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B^{\prime}, A\right)$ satisfes $k \circ f=0$. Define $h: B^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow A$ by $h\left(b^{\prime \prime}\right)=k\left(b^{\prime}\right)$ if $g\left(b^{\prime}\right)=b^{\prime \prime}$. This is well defined, since if $g\left(b^{\prime}\right)=g\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right)=b^{\prime \prime}$ then $b^{\prime}-b_{1}^{\prime} \in \operatorname{ker} g=\operatorname{im} f$. Thus $b^{\prime}-b_{1}^{\prime}=f(b)$ for some $b \in B$, and thus $g\left(b^{\prime}\right)-g\left(b_{1}^{\prime}\right)=g f(b)=0$. Now observe that $\operatorname{Hom}(g, A)(h)=h \circ g=k$, since $k \circ g=h$ for every $b^{\prime \prime} \in B$. Thus $k \in \operatorname{im} \operatorname{Hom}(g, A)$.
The proof that (N.2) is similar, and we omit it.
Finally, let us show that $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \square)$ is exact. By (N.2), we need only show that if if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact then $\operatorname{Hom}(F, g): \operatorname{Hom}(F, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(F, C)$ is surjective. So suppose $h: F \rightarrow C$. By Lemma 22.3, there exists $k: F \rightarrow B$ such that $g \circ k=h$ :


Thus $\operatorname{Hom}(F, g)(k)=h$. This completes the proof.
Problem N. $2(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a finitely generated abelian group, with torsion subgroup $T(A)$. Prove that $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong A / T(A)$ and that $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong T(A)$.

Solution.

1. Let $T(A) \subset A$ be the torsion subgroup of $A$. Then $A / T(A)$ is torsion free and finitely generated and thus it is free. Consider the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A / T(A) \rightarrow 0 \tag{N.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $A / T(A)$ is free this sequence splits, and hence by Lemma 28.14 the sequence remains exact after applying $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, \mathbb{Z})$.
Now observe that $\operatorname{Hom}(T(A), \mathbb{Z})=0$. Indeed, if $a \in T(A)$ then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n a=0$. If $\phi: T(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is a homomorphism, then $n \phi(a)=$ $\phi(n a)=0$ which implies $\phi(a)=0$ as $\mathbb{Z}$ is torsion free. Since $a$ was arbitrary, $\phi$ is identically zero.
Thus $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(A / T(A), \mathbb{Z})$.
But now if $F$ is any finitely generated free abelian group then $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z}) \cong$ $F$. Indeed, let $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{r}\right\}$ be a basis of $F$. Then the homomorphisms $\phi_{i} \in$ $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z})$ defined by

$$
b_{j} \mapsto \begin{cases}1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

form a basis of $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z})$ and the map $F \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z}): a_{i} \rightarrow \phi_{a_{i}}$ extends to an isomorphism of groups.
We conclude

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}(A / T(A), \mathbb{Z}) \cong A / T(A)
$$

2. Since $A / T(A)$ is free, $\operatorname{Ext}(A / T(A), \mathbb{Z})=0$. Thus from the long exact sequence from (29.1) (this sequence will be proved in the next problem!) applied to the short exact sequence (N.3) we obtain

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}(T(A), \mathbb{Z})
$$

It thus suffices to show that if $T$ is a finitely generated torsion subgroup then $\operatorname{Ext}(T, \mathbb{Z}) \cong T$. For this, let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s}$ be a minimal generating set of $T$. Note that

$$
n_{a}:=\min \{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid k a=0\}
$$

is finite for every $a \in T$. Let $F$ be the free group generated by $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s}$ and let $f: F \rightarrow F$ denote the homomorphism defined by $a \mapsto n_{a} a$ on the basis and extended linearly. A short free resolution of $T$ is given by

$$
0 \rightarrow F \stackrel{f}{\rightarrow} F \rightarrow T \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Then by definition,

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(T, \mathbb{Z})=\operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z}) / \operatorname{im} \operatorname{Hom}(f, \mathbb{Z}) \cong F / \operatorname{im} f \cong T,
$$

where the second last isomorphism follows from the fact that as we have just seen above, $\operatorname{Hom}(F, \mathbb{Z}) \cong F$ for a finitely generated free group $F$. Thus $\operatorname{Ext}(A, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \operatorname{Ext}(T(A), \mathbb{Z}) \cong T(A)$.

Problem N. 3 ( $\dagger$ ). This problem explores divisible groups.

1. Prove that an abelian group $D$ is divisible if and only if the following property holds: Suppose $g: A \rightarrow B$ is an injective homomorphism of abelian groups and $h: A \rightarrow D$ is a homomorphism. Then there exists a homomorphism $f: B \rightarrow D$ such that $f g=h$ :

(Compare this to Lemma 22.3.)
2. Deduce that if $D$ is divisible then $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, D)$ is an exact functor, and hence $\operatorname{Ext}(A, D)=0$ for any abelian group $D$.
3. Prove that any abelian group $B$ is a subgroup of a divisible group $D$. Deduce that for any abelian group $B$, there exists a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \xrightarrow{f} E \rightarrow 0
$$

where both $D$ and $E$ are divisible. In analogy with short free resolutions (Definition 24.11), let us ${ }^{1}$ call such a sequence a short divisible resolution of $B$.
4. Let $A$ and $B$ be abelian groups. Let $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \xrightarrow{f} E \rightarrow 0$ denote a short divisible resolution of $B$. Prove there is an exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

and hence that

$$
\operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \cong \operatorname{coker} \operatorname{Hom}(A, f)
$$

Hint: Use (29.2) from Theorem 29.3. As remarked there, the proof of (29.2) is essentially identical to the corresponding exact sequences in Theorem 25.6, and hence we may take this as already proved. This is not true of the first exact sequence (29.1) from Theorem 29.3. (In fact, you will prove (29.1) in part (8) of this problem below.)
5. Consider a cochain complex $\left(C^{\bullet}, d\right)$ with

$$
C^{n}:= \begin{cases}D, & n=0 \\ E, & n=1 \\ 0, & n \neq 0,1\end{cases}
$$

and differential $d: C^{0} \rightarrow C^{1}$ given by $f: D \rightarrow E$. Prove that $H^{0}\left(C^{\bullet}\right)=B$ and $H^{1}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(A, C^{\bullet}\right)\right)=\operatorname{Ext}(A, B)$.

[^110]6. Prove the following analogue of Proposition 22.4: if $h: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups, and $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow 0$ and $0 \rightarrow B^{\prime} \rightarrow D^{\prime} \rightarrow E^{\prime} \rightarrow$ 0 are short divisible resolutions of $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ respectively, with corresponding cochain complexes (as in the previous part) $C^{\bullet}$ and $\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet}$, then there exists a chain map $m: C^{\bullet} \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\bullet}$ such that $H^{0}(m)=h$. Prove moreover that any two such chain maps $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ are chain homotopic.
7. Deduce that $\operatorname{Ext}(\square, A): \mathrm{Ab} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ab}$ is a well-defined contravariant functor.
8. If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of abelian groups then for any abelian group $B$ there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}\left(A^{\prime}, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0$.

## Solution.

1. Let us begin with a lemma. Let $B$ be an abelian group and let $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ be subgroups. Suppose $C$ is another abelian group and $f: A \rightarrow C$ and $f^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow C$ are homomorphisms such that

$$
\left.f\right|_{A \cap A^{\prime}}=\left.f^{\prime}\right|_{A \cap A^{\prime}} .
$$

Then there is a unique extension $f+f^{\prime}$ of $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ to the subgroup $A+A^{\prime}$ of $B$ given by

$$
\left(f+f^{\prime}\right)\left(a+a^{\prime}\right):=f(a)+f^{\prime}\left(a^{\prime}\right) .
$$

For this consider the short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow A \cap A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{h} A \oplus A^{\prime} \xrightarrow{k} A+A^{\prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

where $h(a):=(a,-a)$ and $k\left(a, a^{\prime}\right):=a+a^{\prime}$. The assumption implies that the im $h$ lies in the kernel of $f \oplus f^{\prime}: A \oplus A^{\prime} \rightarrow B$. Thus $f \oplus f^{\prime}$ factors to give a well-defined map on the quotient $A+A^{\prime}$.
Now going to the question, if $a+E$ has infinite order in $D / E$ then the group generated by $E$ and $a$ is just $E \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot a$ and we extend by $f \oplus 0$.
First suppose $D$ is divisible. Let $g: A \rightarrow B$ is an injective homomorphism of abelian groups and $h: A \rightarrow D$ is a homomorphism. Set $A^{\prime}:=g(A)$. We can view $h$ as a homomorphism $A^{\prime} \rightarrow D$, and our goal is to extend $h$ to homomorphism defined on all of $B$. We will use Zorn's Lemma. Consider all pairs $(f, E)$ where $A^{\prime} \subseteq E \subseteq B$ is a subgroup and $f: E \rightarrow D$ is a homomorphism such that $\left.f\right|_{A^{\prime}}=h$. We introduce a partial order on these pairs by inclusions. The union of any totally ordered chain is itself, and hence by Zorn's Lemma there exists a maximal pair $(f, E)$. We claim that $E=B$. Suppose $a \in B \backslash E$.
If $a+E$ has infinite order in $B / E$ then we immediately arrive a contradiction, since then we can extend $f$ to $E \oplus \mathbb{Z} \cdot a$ by setting $f(e+n a):=f(e)$ for any $e \in E$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. This contradicts maximality of $E$.
If however $a+E$ has finite order $m$ then we use divisibility to $D$ to find $d \in D$ such that $m d=f(m a)$. We then apply the above claim with $f^{\prime}: \mathbb{Z} \cdot a \rightarrow D$
given by $f^{\prime}(a)=d$. Then the claim allows us to extend $f$ to $E+\mathbb{Z} \cdot a$ (which is bigger than $E$ ) via $f+f^{\prime}$, which again contradicts maximality of $E$. Thus we conclude that $E=B$.
For the reverse direction, fix $d \in D$ and $n \neq 0$. We consider the inclusion $n \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and the homomorphism $n \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow D$ given by $n m \mapsto m d$ :


Then if $a:=f(1)$ one has $n a=d$. Thus $D$ is divisible.
2. The first statement follows exactly as in the solution of Problem N.1. The second statement is then immediate from the definition of Ext.
3. First let us remark that any quotient of a divisible group is divisible, as follows readily from the definition. Let $F$ denote the free abelian group with basis the elements of $B$. Then there is a surjection $F \rightarrow B$, and $B \cong F / R$ for some $R \subset F$. Let $Q$ be the rational vector space on with the elements of $B$. Then $Q$ is divisible, and hence so is $D:=Q / R$. Since $B \cong F / R \subset Q / R$, we see that $B$ is a subgroup of $D$. The quotient group $D / B$ is again divisible, and thus we have a short divisible resolution $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow D / B \rightarrow 0$.
4. Let $A$ and $B$ be abelian groups. Let $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow 0$ be a short divisible resolution of $B$. Then from (29.2) from Theorem 29.3, there is an exact sequence
$0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, E) \rightarrow 0$.
Since $D$ and $E$ are divisible, this sequence actually reads

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, B) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ext}(A, B) \rightarrow 0
$$

5. This is obvious.
6. Our goal is find homomorphisms $g, g^{\prime}$ such that the following diagram commutes:


The composition $i^{\prime} \circ h: B \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ extends to a map $g: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ by divisibility of $D^{\prime}$ (cf. part (1)). The first square then commutes by construction. Next, regarding $i, i^{\prime}$ as inclusion, there is an induced diagram with exact rows:


Then by divisibility of $E^{\prime}$, the map $\bar{j}^{\prime} \circ \bar{g}$ extends to a map $g^{\prime}: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$, and by construction the second square of (N.4) commutes.
Now suppose $k, k^{\prime}$ are two other choices, i.e. so that the following commutes as well:


The desired chain homotopy is equivalent to the existence of a map $p: E^{\prime} \rightarrow D$ such that

$$
p \circ j=g-k, \quad j^{\prime} \circ p=g^{\prime}-k^{\prime} .
$$

But this is easy: the map $g-k$ vanishes on $B$, and hence induces a map $D / B \rightarrow D^{\prime}$. By divisibility this extends to a map $p: E \rightarrow D^{\prime}$, giving us the following commutative diagram:


The lower right-hand triangle commutes because $j$ is surjective.
7. This follows from the previous part in exactly the same way that we showed in Proposition 25.3 that $\operatorname{Tor}(\square, A)$ is a well-defined covariant functor.
8. Let $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow 0$ denote a short divisible resolution of $B$, and let $C^{\bullet}$ denote the corresponding cochain complex. If $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ is exact then by part (1) we have a short exact sequence of cochain complexes:

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime \prime}, C^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A^{\prime}, C^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(A, C^{\bullet}\right) \rightarrow 0
$$

The desired long exact sequence is then the long exact sequence in cohomology associated to this short exact sequence of cochain complexes.

Problem N.4. Let $X$ be a topological space and $R$ a commutative ring. Assume that the additive group $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ has no elements of order 2. Prove that if $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{\star}(X ; R)$ has odd degree then $\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=0$.

Solution. Let $d$ denote the degree of $\langle\alpha\rangle$ and suppose that $d$ is odd. Then also $d^{2}$ is odd and

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=(-1)^{d^{2}}\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=-\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle,
$$

and thus $2 \cdot\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=0$. As $H^{\star}(X ; R)$ has no elements of order 2 this implies that $\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=0$.

Problem N. $5(\star)$. Compute the cohomology ring structure of $H^{\star}\left(S^{n}\right)$ and $H^{\star}\left(T^{n}\right)$, where $T^{n}$ is the $n$-torus $\underbrace{S^{1} \times \cdots \times S^{1}}_{n \text { times }}$.

## Solution.

1. Theorem 29.5 implies that

$$
H^{k}\left(S^{n}\right) \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{k}\left(S^{n}\right), \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong \begin{cases}\mathbb{Z} & k=0, n \\ 0 & k \neq 0, n\end{cases}
$$

Moreover, the isomorphism is

$$
\left.\zeta: H^{n}\left(\operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{\bullet}, \mathbb{Z}\right)\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}\left(C_{\bullet}\right), \mathbb{Z}\right)\right)
$$

given by

$$
\zeta\langle\gamma\rangle\langle c\rangle:=\gamma(c) .
$$

Let $\sigma_{n}^{+}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be the $n$-simplex such that $\left.\sigma\right|_{\Delta^{n} \backslash \partial \Delta^{n}}$ is a homeomorphism onto the upper hemisphere $B_{+}^{n+1}$ and such that $\partial \sigma_{n}$ is mapped to the equator $S^{n-1}$. Similarly, let $\sigma_{n}^{-}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ be the $n$-simplex such that $\left.\sigma\right|_{\Delta^{n} \backslash \partial \Delta^{n}}$ is a homeomorphism onto the lower hemisphere $B_{-}^{n+1}$ and such that $\partial \sigma_{n}$ is mapped to the equator $S^{n-1}$. We may assume that $\partial \sigma_{n}^{+}=-\partial \sigma_{n}^{-}$such that $\sigma^{+}+\sigma^{-}$ is a cycle and $\left\langle\sigma^{+}+\sigma^{-}\right\rangle$is a generator of $H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$. Notice that for any $0-$ simplex $\sigma_{0}$ the class $\left\langle\sigma_{0}\right\rangle$ generates $H_{0}\left(S^{n}\right)$. Moreover, if $\tilde{\sigma_{0}}$ is another 0 -simplex then $\left\langle\sigma_{0}\right\rangle=\left\langle\tilde{\sigma_{0}}\right\rangle$. Let $\alpha: C_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a cochain such that $\langle\alpha\rangle$ generates $H^{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$. We may assume that $\zeta\langle\alpha\rangle: H_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is the isomorphism that sends $\left\langle\sigma_{n}^{+}+\sigma_{n}^{-}\right\rangle$to 1 . Let $\beta: C_{0}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ be a cochain such that $\langle\beta\rangle$ generates $H^{0}\left(S^{n}\right)$. We may assume that $\zeta\langle\beta\rangle: H_{0}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is the isomorphism that sends $\left\langle\sigma_{0}\right\rangle$ to 1 .
In order to compute $\langle\alpha \smile \beta\rangle$ it suffices to evaluate $\alpha \smile \beta$ on $\sigma_{n}^{+}+\sigma_{n}^{-}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha \smile \beta\left(\sigma_{n}^{+}+\sigma_{n}^{-}\right) & =\alpha\left(\sigma_{n}^{+} \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma_{n}^{+} \circ B_{0}\right)+\alpha\left(\sigma_{n}^{-} \circ F_{n}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma_{n}^{-} \circ B_{0}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\sigma_{n}^{+}\right) \cdot 1+\alpha\left(\sigma_{n}^{-}\right) \cdot 1 \\
& =\alpha\left(\sigma_{n}^{+}+\sigma_{n}^{-}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used the fact that $F_{n}^{n}=i d_{\Delta^{n}}$ and that $B_{0}^{n}$ has image $e_{0}=(0, \ldots, 0,1)$. Thus $\langle\alpha \smile \beta\rangle=\langle\alpha\rangle$.
The product $\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle$ must be zero by degree reasons. Indeed $\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle \in$ $H^{2 n}\left(S^{n}\right)=0$.
Finally,

$$
\beta \smile \beta\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=\beta\left(\sigma_{0} \circ F_{0}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma_{0} \circ B_{0}\right)=\beta\left(\sigma_{0}\right) \cdot \beta\left(\sigma_{0}\right)=1 \cdot 1=1
$$

The last equality follows, since for a 0 -simplex $\sigma_{i}$ we have $\sigma_{i} \circ F_{0}=\sigma_{i}=\sigma_{i} \circ B_{0}$. We conclude that $\langle\beta\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle=\langle\beta\rangle$. The cohomology ring $H^{\star}\left(S^{n}\right)$ is therefor isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}[\langle\alpha\rangle] /(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\alpha\rangle=0)$
2. The Künneth formula gives $H_{k}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i_{1}+\ldots+i_{n}=k} H_{i_{1}}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes \ldots \otimes$ $H_{i_{n}}\left(S^{1}\right)$. Moreover, since all groups $H_{k}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$ are free Theorem 29.5 gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{k}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right) & \cong \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{k}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right), \mathbb{Z}\right) \\
& \cong \bigoplus_{i_{1}+\ldots+i_{n}=k} \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{i_{1}}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes \ldots \otimes H_{i_{n}}\left(S^{1}\right), \mathbb{Z}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\sigma_{1}: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ be the 1-cycle such that $\left.\sigma_{1}\right|_{\Delta^{1} \backslash \partial \Delta^{1}}$ is a homeomorphism onto $S^{1} \backslash\{p\}$ and such that $\partial \sigma_{1}$ is mapped to the point $p$. We use a superscript to indicate the factor of the product $S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}$. A basis of $H_{1}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$ is given by $s_{1}^{j}:=\left\langle\sigma_{0}^{1}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots\left\langle\sigma_{0}^{j-1}\right\rangle \otimes\left\langle\sigma_{1}^{j}\right\rangle \otimes\left\langle\sigma_{0}^{j+1}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\left\langle\sigma_{0}^{n}\right\rangle$ for $j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Similarly, a basis of $H_{k}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$ is given by $\left\{s_{k}^{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}}:=\left\langle\sigma_{\delta_{1}}^{1}\right\rangle \otimes \ldots \otimes\right.$ $\left.\left\langle\sigma_{\delta_{n}}^{n}\right\rangle \mid i_{1}<i_{2}<\ldots<i_{k}\right\}$, where

$$
\delta_{j}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
1 & j \in\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{k}\right\} \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Let $\left\langle\alpha^{j}\right\rangle$ be the elements in $H^{1}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$ corresponding to the homomorphism

$$
H_{1}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad s_{1}^{j} \mapsto \begin{cases}1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Then the $\left\langle\alpha^{j}\right\rangle$ 's form a basis of $H^{1}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$. Moreover we see (similar as in the first part of this exercise) that $\left\langle\alpha^{j}\right\rangle \smile\left\langle\alpha^{i}\right\rangle$ vanishes if $i=j$ and if $i \neq j$ it gives a generator of $H^{2}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right)$ that corresponds to the homomorphism

$$
H_{2}\left(S^{1} \times \ldots \times S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad s_{k}^{i_{1}, i_{2}} \mapsto \begin{cases}1 & \left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)=(i, j) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The other products can be calculated in a similar way. The cohomology ring $H^{\star}\left(T^{n}\right)$ is therefore isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}\left[\left\langle\alpha^{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left\langle\alpha^{n}\right\rangle\right] /\left(\left\langle\alpha^{j}\right\rangle \smile\left\langle\alpha^{j}\right\rangle=0\right)$.

Remark: An alternative way to compute $H^{\star}\left(T^{n}\right)$ is to use induction on $n$, starting from the fact that we know the case $n=1$ from the previous part, and $T^{n}=S^{1} \times T^{n-1}$, and by Corollary 32.9, $H^{\star}\left(T^{n}\right) \cong H^{\star}\left(S^{1}\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(T^{n-1}\right)$.

## Problem Sheet O

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 32-35. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a $(\star)$ means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem O. $1(\dagger)$. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ be a non-negative chain complex. Prove that the function

$$
\text { twist: } C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}
$$

given by

$$
\operatorname{twist}\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{n m} c^{\prime} \otimes c, \quad c \in C_{n}, c^{\prime} \in C_{m}
$$

is a natural chain equivalence.
Problem O. $2(\dagger)$. Denote by $\mathbb{F}$ either the real numbers $\mathbb{R}$, or the complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$, or the quaternions $\mathbb{H}$. For $m=1,2$ or 4 , we can view the sphere $S^{m(n+1)-1}$ as a subset of $\mathbb{F}^{n+1}$ :

$$
S^{m(n+1)-1}=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \mid x_{i} \in \mathbb{F} \text { and } \sum_{i=0}^{n}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Set $\mathbb{F} P^{n}=\left(\mathbb{F}^{n+1} \backslash\{0\}\right) / \sim$, where
$\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \sim\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exists \mu \in \mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}$ such that $x_{i}=\mu y_{i}, \forall i=0, \ldots, n$.
Let $p: S^{m(n+1)-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} P^{n}$ denote the function that sends a tuple $\left(x_{i}\right)$ to its equivalence class. Prove that

$$
S^{m-1} \rightarrow S^{m(n+1)-1} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{F} P^{n}
$$

is a fibre bundle.
Problem $0.3(\dagger)$. Let $n \geq 1$. Let $\sigma_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ denote the unique affine map such that ${ }^{1}$

$$
\sigma_{n}\left(e_{0}\right)=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}, \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{n}\left(e_{i}\right)=q_{i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, n .
$$

Prove that $\sigma_{n}$ determines a generator $\left\langle\sigma_{n}\right\rangle$ of $H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
Problem O. 4 ( $\dagger$ ).

1. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ be open subsets of $X$. Let $R$ be a ring. Prove that the cup product induces a relative product

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \breve{\rightarrow} H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) .
$$

2. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}$ be an open subset of $X$. Let $R$ be a ring. Let $i:(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ denote the inclusion. Suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{n}(X ; R)$ and $\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{m}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$. Prove that

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{m}(i)\langle\beta\rangle=H^{n+m}(i)(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle),
$$

where the left-hand side is the normal cup product in $X$, and the right-hand side is the relative cup product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \longrightarrow H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$ from part (1).
Problem O. $5(\dagger)$. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ and $Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$. Assume that $Y^{\prime}$ is a closed retract of $Y$ and moreover that there exists a neighbourhood $W$ of $Y^{\prime}$ in $Y$ such that $Y^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $W$. Let $R$ be a commutative ring, and assume that $H^{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$. Prove that the relative cross product from Definition 33.34 is an isomorphism:

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{\star}\left(X \times Y,\left(X^{\prime} \times Y\right) \cup\left(X \times Y^{\prime}\right) ; R\right) .
$$

Hint: The case $Y^{\prime}=\emptyset$ was proved in Theorem 33.26.
Problem O. $6(\star)$. In this problem you may use the following result without proof ${ }^{2}$ :
Theorem. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle and assume that the fibre $F$ is contractible. Then for all $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group $A$, the map $H^{n}(p): H^{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow$ $H^{n}(E ; A)$ is an isomorphism.

We will prove this result in a few lectures time. Now let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p}$ $X$ be a fibre bundle pair with $X$ path connected. Let $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ denote the Thom class. Let $\jmath:(E, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ denote the inclusion.

1. Prove there is a unique class $\varepsilon \in H^{n}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ such that

$$
H^{n}(p)(\varepsilon)=H^{n}(\jmath)(t) .
$$

One calls $\varepsilon$ the Euler class of the bundle.
2. Prove there is a long exact sequence called the Gysin Sequence given by

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{i}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow \epsilon} H^{i+n}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H^{i+n}\left(\left.p\right|_{E^{\prime}}\right)} H^{i+n}\left(E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i+1}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Hint: Consider the long exact sequence in cohomology associated to the pair $\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ and try to fit this in to a commutative diagram involving the desired Gysin Sequence. You will need to use part (2) of Problem O.4 in order to show the diagram commutes.
3. Use the Gysin sequence to compute the cohomology ring $H^{\star}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ for all $n \geq 1$.

[^111]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet O

Problem O. $1(\dagger)$. Let $\left(C_{\bullet}, \partial\right)$ be a non-negative chain complex. Prove that the function

$$
\text { twist : } C \bullet C_{\bullet} \rightarrow C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}
$$

given by

$$
\operatorname{twist}\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{n m} c^{\prime} \otimes c, \quad c \in C_{n}, c^{\prime} \in C_{m}
$$

is a natural chain equivalence.
Solution. Let $\Delta$ denote the boundary operator on $C_{\bullet} \otimes C_{\bullet}$. Then if $c \in C_{n}$ and $c^{\prime} \in C_{m}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \circ \tau\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right)=(-1)^{n m} \Delta\left(c^{\prime} \otimes c\right) & \\
& =(-1)^{n m}\left(\partial c^{\prime} \otimes c+(-1)^{m} c^{\prime} \otimes \partial c\right) \\
& =(-1)^{n m} \partial c^{\prime} \otimes c+(-1)^{n m+m} c^{\prime} \otimes \partial c
\end{aligned}
$$

Going the other way round:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau \circ \Delta\left(c \otimes c^{\prime}\right) & =\tau\left(\partial c \otimes c^{\prime}+(-1)^{n} c \otimes \partial c^{\prime}\right) \\
& =(-1)^{(n-1) m} c^{\prime} \otimes \partial c+(-1)^{n+n(m-1)} \partial c^{\prime} \otimes c \\
& =(-1)^{n m-m} c^{\prime} \otimes \partial c+(-1)^{n m} \partial c^{\prime} \otimes c .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $(-1)^{m}=(-1)^{-m}$, it follows that $\Delta \circ \tau=\tau \circ \Delta$. It is then clear that $\tau$ is a natural isomorphism.

Problem O. $2(\dagger)$. Denote by $\mathbb{F}$ either the real numbers $\mathbb{R}$, or the complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$, or the quaternions $\mathbb{H}$. For $m=1,2$ or 4 , we can view the sphere $S^{m(n+1)-1}$ as a subset of $\mathbb{F}^{n+1}$ :

$$
S^{m(n+1)-1}=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \mid x_{i} \in \mathbb{F} \text { and } \sum_{i=0}^{n}\left|x_{i}\right|^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Set $\mathbb{F} P^{n}=\left(\mathbb{F}^{n+1} \backslash\{0\}\right) / \sim$, where
$\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \sim\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exists \mu \in \mathbb{F} \backslash\{0\}$ such that $x_{i}=\mu y_{i}, \forall i=0, \ldots, n$.
Let $p: S^{m(n+1)-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} P^{n}$ denote the function that sends a tuple $\left(x_{i}\right)$ to its equivalence class. Prove that

$$
S^{m-1} \rightarrow S^{m(n+1)-1} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{F} P^{n}
$$

is a fibre bundle.

Solution. We define an open cover $\left\{V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V\right\}$ of $\mathbb{F} P^{n}$ by setting

$$
V_{i}:=\left\{\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \in \mathbb{F} P^{n} \mid x_{i} \neq 0\right\},
$$

where $[\cdots]$ denotes the equivalence class under $p$. Then define maps $h_{i}: V_{i} \times S^{m-1} \rightarrow$ $p^{-1}\left(V_{i}\right)$ by

$$
h_{i}\left(\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right], \lambda\right):=\frac{\left|x_{i}\right| \lambda}{x_{i} \sqrt{\sum_{k}\left|x_{k}\right|^{2}}}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) .
$$

The map $k_{i}: p^{-1}\left(V_{i}\right) \rightarrow V_{i} \times S^{m-1}$ given by

$$
k_{i}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right):=\left(\left[x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right], \frac{x_{i}}{\left|x_{i}\right|}\right)
$$

is an inverse for $h_{i}$. Thus the $h_{i}$ are homeomorphisms.
Problem O. $3(\dagger)$. Let $n \geq 1$. Let $\sigma_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ denote the unique affine map such that ${ }^{1}$

$$
\sigma_{n}\left(e_{0}\right)=-\sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{i}, \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{n}\left(e_{i}\right)=q_{i}, \quad i=1, \ldots, n .
$$

Prove that $\sigma_{n}$ determines a generator $\left\langle\sigma_{n}\right\rangle$ of $H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
Solution. First note that the image $\Sigma:=\operatorname{im}(\sigma) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of $\sigma$ is an $n$-simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ satisfying $0 \in \Sigma \backslash \partial \Sigma$ and (e.g. by excision) we have an isomorphism $H_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right) \cong$ $H_{\bullet}(\Sigma, \partial \Sigma)$.
Next, note that we also have an isomorphism

$$
H_{\bullet}\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right) \xlongequal{\leftrightarrows} H_{\bullet}(\Sigma, \partial \Sigma) \cong H_{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right): \quad\langle\tau\rangle \mapsto\left\langle\sigma_{n} \circ \tau\right\rangle
$$

and therefore, in order to show that $\left\langle\sigma_{n}\right\rangle$ is a generator of $H_{n}\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}, \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash 0\right)$ it suffices to check that the identity map $\ell_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ (viewed a a singular simplex) induces a generator $\left\langle\ell_{n}\right\rangle$ of $H_{n}\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Consider the diagram

$$
\begin{gather*}
H_{n}\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\square} \cong \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(\partial \Delta^{n}\right) \\
\downarrow  \tag{O.1}\\
H_{n}\left(\Delta^{n} / \partial \Delta^{n}, *\right)
\end{gather*}
$$

The horizontal map is the boundary map from the (reduced) LES for the pair $\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right)$, which is an isomorphism by looking at the neighbouring terms in the LES. The vertical map is induced by the quotient map $\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(\Delta^{n} / \partial \Delta^{n}, *\right)$ and is an isomorphism since $\left(\Delta^{n}, \partial \Delta^{n}\right)$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 19.2.

Let $\alpha_{n}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n} / \partial \Delta^{n}$ be the quotient map. The image of $\left\langle\ell_{n}\right\rangle$ under the vertical map is $\left\langle\alpha_{n}\right\rangle \in H_{n}\left(\Delta^{n} / \partial \Delta^{n}, *\right)$, while its image under the horizontal map is the class $\left\langle\beta_{n-1}\right\rangle \in \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(\partial \Delta^{n}\right)$ with

$$
\beta_{n-1}=\partial_{n} \ell_{n}=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \varepsilon_{i}^{n} \in C_{n-1}\left(\partial \Delta^{n}\right)
$$

[^112]where $\varepsilon_{i}^{n}: \Delta^{n-1} \rightarrow \partial \Delta^{n}$ is the $i$-th face map of the simplex $\Delta^{n}$. So once we know that $\left\langle\beta_{n-1}\right\rangle$ generates $\tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(\partial \Delta^{n}\right)$, we can conclude from (O.1) that $\left\langle\alpha_{n}\right\rangle$ generates $H_{n}\left(\Delta^{n} / \partial \Delta^{n}, *\right)$.

It is clear that $\left\langle\beta_{0}\right\rangle$ generates $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(\partial \Delta^{1}\right)$, so we know that $\left\langle\alpha_{1}\right\rangle$ generates $H_{1}\left(\Delta^{1} / \partial \Delta^{1}, *\right)$, which is what the problem asks us to prove for $n=1$. We now proceed by induction; for the inductive step, consider the map $\phi: \partial \Delta^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{n-1} / \partial \Delta^{n-1}$ which collapses all except the zero-th face to a point, and the induced map $H_{n-1}(\phi): \tilde{H}_{n-1}\left(\partial \Delta^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ $H_{n-1}\left(\Delta^{n-1} / \partial \Delta^{n-1}, *\right)$. Observe that $H_{n-1}(\phi)\left\langle\beta_{n-1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\alpha_{n-1}\right\rangle$; since $\left\langle\alpha_{n-1}\right\rangle$ generates by inductive assumption, we conclude that $\left\langle\beta_{n-1}\right\rangle$ generates.
Problem O. 4 ( $\dagger$ ).

1. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ be open subsets of $X$. Let $R$ be a ring. Prove that the cup product induces a relative product

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow} H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) .
$$

2. Let $X$ be a topological space and let $X^{\prime}$ be an open subset of $X$. Let $R$ be a ring. Let $i:(X, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(X, X^{\prime}\right)$ denote the inclusion. Suppose $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{m}(X ; R)$ and $\langle\beta\rangle \in H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$. Prove that

$$
\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{n}(i)\langle\beta\rangle=H^{n+m}(i)(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile\langle\beta\rangle),
$$

where the left-hand side is the normal cup product in $X$, and the right-hand side is the relative cup product $H^{\star}(X ; R) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \hookrightarrow H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$ from part (1).

## Solution.

1. We will assume that $X$ is a cell complex (the general case can be dealt with via cellular approximation). We denote by $C^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ the subgroup of $C^{n}(X ; R)$ consisting of cochains vanishing on chains in $X^{\prime}$ and on chains in $X^{\prime \prime}$. Notice that the usual cup product induces a cup product

$$
C^{m}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \times C^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow C^{m+n}\left(X, X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) .
$$

Moreover, we denote by $C_{n}\left(X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime}\right)$ the subgroup of $C_{n}(X)$ consisting of sums of chains in $X^{\prime}$ and chains in $X^{\prime \prime}$, and by $C^{n}\left(X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ its dual. Recall from Theorem 14.2 that the inclusions $\iota_{\#}: C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime}\right) \hookrightarrow C_{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime}\right)$ form a chain homotopy equivalence and hence induces isomorphisms on homology (note that $X^{\prime}, X^{\prime \prime}$ are open). Therefore, by dualizing we get that the restrictions $\iota_{\#}: C^{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \rightarrow C^{\bullet}\left(X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ induce isomorphisms on cohomology. Moreover, we have inclusions $j: C^{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \hookrightarrow C^{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ and hence we get the following commutative diagram where the rows are short exact sequences:


This leads to the following commutative diagram on the cohomology level, where the rows are long exact sequences:


By the 5-Lemma we conclude that we have isomorphisms

$$
H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \cong H^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)
$$

and hence the cup product induces a relative cup product

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\smile} H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} \cup X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) .
$$

2. This follows from the definition of the relative cup product as in the previous part of this problem. We will treat the general case. As we have seen in the previous part, the usual cup product induces a cup product $C^{m}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes$ $C^{n}\left(X, X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow} C^{m+n}\left(X, X^{\prime}+X^{\prime \prime} ; R\right)$ and hence we get the following commutative diagram (the vertical maps are induced by the respective inclusions):


Recall from the previous part that $j$ is a quasi-isomorphism, that is, it induces an isomorphism on cohomology. Therefore we obtain the following commutative diagram on the cohomology level:

from which the result follows.
Problem O. $5(\dagger)$. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces. Let $X^{\prime} \subseteq X$ and $Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$. Assume that $Y^{\prime}$ is a closed retract of $Y$ and moreover that there exists a neighbourhood $W$ of $Y^{\prime}$ in $Y$ such that $Y^{\prime}$ is a strong deformation retract of $W$. Let $R$ be a commutative ring, and assume that $H^{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right)$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module for all $n \geq 0$. Prove that the relative cross product from Definition 33.34 is an isomorphism:

$$
H^{\star}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right) \otimes_{R} H^{\star}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right) \xrightarrow{\times} H^{\star}\left(X \times Y,\left(X^{\prime} \times Y\right) \cup\left(X \times Y^{\prime}\right) ; R\right)
$$

Hint: The case $Y^{\prime}=\emptyset$ was proved in Theorem 33.26.

Solution. We already did the case $Y^{\prime}=\emptyset$ in the proof of Theorem 33.26. Let * denote the point corresponding to $Y^{\prime}$ in the quotient space $Y / Y^{\prime}$. By Theorem 19.2, $H_{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime}\right) \cong H_{n}\left(Y / Y^{\prime}, *\right)$ for all $n \geq 0$. Using naturality of the Dual Universal Coefficients Theorem 29.5 and the Five Lemma, one sees that the same holds for cohomology with coefficients in $R$ (or indeed, any abelian group): $H^{n}\left(Y, Y^{\prime} ; R\right) \cong$ $H^{n}\left(Y / Y^{\prime}, * ; R\right)$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Consider the following commutative diagram:


The top horizontal map is an isomorphism due to the discussion above. The lower horizontal map is an isomorphism, since the two quotient spaces are homeomorphic. Thus if we prove the left-hand vertical map is an isomorphism, then the right-hand one is too. This reduces the theorem to dealing with the case where $Y^{\prime}$ is a point.

So assume $Y^{\prime}$ consists of a single point $p$. Since $p$ is a retract of $Y$, the long exact sequence of the pair $(Y, p)$ splits. Thus by Lemma 25.13, we can tensor this sequence with $H^{\bullet}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; R\right)$ and remain exact. Thus the top row of the following commutative diagram is exact, where we omit the $R$ from the notation so it fits on the page:


The bottom row is also exact, since $\left(X \times p, X^{\prime} \times p\right)$ is a retract of $\left(X \times Y, X^{\prime} \times Y\right)$. The middle and right-hand cross products are isomorphisms by Theorem 33.26, and thus by the Five Lemma the left-hand cross product is also an isomorphism.
Problem O. $6(\star)$. In this problem you may use the following result without proof ${ }^{2}$ :
Theorem. Let $F \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{p} X$ be a fibre bundle and assume that the fibre $F$ is contractible. Then for all $n \geq 0$ and any abelian group $A$, the map $H^{n}(p): H^{n}(X ; A) \rightarrow$ $H^{n}(E ; A)$ is an isomorphism.

We will prove this result in a few lectures time. Now let $\left(B^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{p}$ $X$ be a fibre bundle pair with $X$ path connected. Let $t \in H^{n}\left(E, E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ denote the Thom class. Let $\jmath:(E, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ denote the inclusion.

[^113]1. Prove there is a unique class $\varepsilon \in H^{n}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ such that

$$
H^{n}(p)(\varepsilon)=H^{n}(\jmath)(t)
$$

One calls $\varepsilon$ the Euler class of the bundle.
2. Prove there is a long exact sequence called the Gysin Sequence given by

$$
\cdots \rightarrow H^{i}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\hookrightarrow \epsilon} H^{i+n}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H^{i+n}\left(\left.p\right|_{E^{\prime}}\right)} H^{i+n}\left(E^{\prime} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i+1}\left(X ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

Hint: Consider the long exact sequence in cohomology associated to the pair $\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ and try to fit this in to a commutative diagram involving the desired Gysin Sequence. You will need to use part (2) of Problem O.4 in order to show the diagram commutes.
3. Use the Gysin sequence to compute the cohomology ring $H^{\star}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ for all $n \geq 1$.

## Solution.

1. This is immediate as $H^{n}(p)$ is an isomorphism by the Theorem.
2. Consider the following diagram. The top row is the long exact sequence in cohomology for the pair $\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$, where as above $\jmath:(E, \emptyset) \hookrightarrow\left(E, E^{\prime}\right)$ is the inclusion. The bottom row is the Gysin sequence.


The vertical maps are all isomorphisms. We need only check that the diagram commutes, and the only square for which this is not immediate is the first one. But if $\langle\alpha\rangle \in H^{i}\left(X: \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
H^{i+n}(\jmath) \circ L\langle\alpha\rangle & =H^{i+n}(\jmath)\left(H^{i}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile t\right) \\
& \stackrel{(*)}{=} H^{i}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{n}(\jmath)(t) \\
& \stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} H^{i}(p)\langle\alpha\rangle \smile H^{n}(p)\langle\varepsilon\rangle \\
& =H^{i+n}(p)(\langle\alpha\rangle \smile \varepsilon) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here (*) used part (2) of Problem O. 4 and ( $\dagger$ ) used the definition of the Euler class.
3. Note that $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ is path connected. We have a sphere bundle $S^{0} \rightarrow S^{n} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ (c.f. Problem O.2), where $p$ is the usual quotient map. Consider the mapping cylinder

$$
Z:=\left(\left(S^{n} \times I\right) \sqcup \mathbb{R} P^{n}\right) / \sim,
$$

where $(y, 1) \sim p(y)$. There is a natural map $q: Z \rightarrow \mathbb{R} P^{n}$ with fibre $Z_{x}=$ $\left(p_{x}^{-1} \times I\right) /\left(p^{-1}(x) \times 1\right) \cong B^{1}$ over $x \in \mathbb{R} P^{n}$. Identifying $p^{-1}(x) \cong p^{-1}(x) \times 1$ we have that

$$
\left(B^{1}, S^{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Z, S^{n}\right) \xrightarrow{q} \mathbb{R} P^{n}
$$

is a fibre bundle pair with $\left.q\right|_{S^{n}}=p$ (see Remark 34.16). Let $\varepsilon \in H^{1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$ be the Euler-class. Now by the Gysin sequence
$\ldots \rightarrow H^{i}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\smile \varepsilon} H^{i+1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{H^{i+1}(p)} H^{i+1}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{i+1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow \ldots$
Thus as $H^{i}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for $i \neq 0, n$, the map $\smile \varepsilon$ is an isomorphism for $0<i<n-1$, and in degree 0 it is surjective and in degree $n-1$ it is also injective. In degree 0 is always injective (this can also bee seen by analyzing the starting part of the LES), so to complete the proof that $\square \mapsto \square \smile \varepsilon$ is an isomorphism in all degrees $0 \leq i \leq n-1$, it remains to show that in degree $n-1$ it is also surjective. For this look at the tail end of the sequence:

$$
H^{n-1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\smile \varepsilon} H^{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(S^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{h} H^{n}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \rightarrow H^{n+1}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

The last group is zero as $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$ has a cell structure with no $(n+1)$-dimensional cells. Thus the map $h$ must be surjective. Since both groups are $\mathbb{Z}_{2}, h$ must be an isomorphism. Thus $\smile \varepsilon$ is surjective and hence an isomorphism.
We conclude that $H^{\bullet}\left(\mathbb{R} P^{n} ; \mathbb{Z}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}[\varepsilon] / \varepsilon^{n+1}$ with $\varepsilon$ of degree 1 .

## Problem Sheet P

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 36-39. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a $(\star)$ means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem P. $1(\dagger)$. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a compact connected subset. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and assume that $M$ is not orientable along $K$. Prove that

$$
H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)=\{r \in R \mid 2 r=0\} .
$$

Problem P. $2(\dagger)$. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a closed connected subset. Prove that:

1. If $K$ is non-compact then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is zero.
2. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is also zero.
3. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is not orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

Problem P. $3(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a topological spaces. Let $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $c \in$ $C_{n+m}(X ; R)$. Prove that

$$
\partial(\alpha \frown c)=(-1)^{n}(\alpha \frown \partial c-d \alpha \frown c) .
$$

Problem P. $4(\dagger)$. Let $f:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ be a continuous map between compact pairs $(L, K)$ and $\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ contained in some Euclidean neighbourhood retract $X$. Let $A$ be an abelian group and let $k \geq 0$. Prove that the induced map $\check{H}^{k}(f): \check{H}^{k}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A)$ from Definition 38.10 is well defined. Deduce that the Čech cohomology functor from Theorem 38.11 satisfies the homotopy axiom. Hint: Use part (2) of Proposition 38.4.

Problem P. $5(\star)$. Let $M$ be a closed connected topological manifold of dimension $n-1$, and let $f: M \rightarrow S^{n}$ be a homeomorphism onto its image. Set $K:=f(M)$. Prove Alexander Duality:

$$
\tilde{H}^{k}(M) \cong \tilde{H}_{n-k-1}\left(S^{n} \backslash K\right) .
$$

Deduce that $S^{n} \backslash K$ has two connected components. Remark: This is a far-reaching generalisation of the Jordan-Brouwer Separation Theorem 17.11.

## Solutions to Problem Sheet P

Problem P. $1(\dagger)$. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a compact connected subset. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and assume that $M$ is not orientable along $K$. Prove that

$$
H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; R)=\{r \in R \mid 2 r=0\} .
$$

Solution. Let $\operatorname{Ori}(M) \rightarrow M$ denote the projection and let

$$
G:=\{\varphi: \operatorname{Ori}(M) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ori}(M) \mid \varphi \text { is a homeomorphism, } p \circ \varphi=p\}
$$

be the automorphism-group of $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$. We will use the following two lemmas.
Claim. Let $M$ be a connected $n$ dimensional topological manifold. Then $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ is a double covering with automorphism group

$$
G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}=\left\{1, \psi \mid \psi^{2}=1\right\} .
$$

Let $\psi$ act on $R$ and $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ by multiplication by -1 . Then the associated covering

$$
\operatorname{Ori}(M) \times{ }_{G} R:=(\operatorname{Ori}(M) \times R) / G
$$

is isomorphic to $\mathcal{O}(M ; R)=\bigsqcup_{x \in M} H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes R$.
Proof. Let $\varphi \in G$, then $\varphi$ is fibre-preserving, since $p \circ \varphi=p$. As the fibres of $\operatorname{Ori}(M)$ are discrete and $\varphi$ is continuous, $\varphi$ is determined by its value at a single point. (If $\varphi$ interchanges the two points in the fibre we have $\varphi^{2}=\mathrm{id}$, otherwise $\varphi=\mathrm{id}$.) The map

$$
f: \operatorname{Ori}(M) \times R \longrightarrow \bigsqcup_{x \in M} H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes R: \quad(u, r) \mapsto u \otimes r
$$

descends to

$$
\bar{f}: \operatorname{Ori}(M) \times_{G} R \longrightarrow \bigsqcup_{x \in M} H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes R: \quad[(u, r)] \mapsto u \otimes r
$$

where $[(u, g)]$ denotes the equivalence class of $(u, g)$. Any element $u \otimes r \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash$ $x ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes R$ can be written as $v \otimes s$, where $u \in H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; \mathbb{Z})$ is a unit. Moreover $f([(u, r)])=u \otimes r$ vanishes if and only if $r=0$. Thus $\bar{f}$ is an isomorphism.

Claim. Sections in $\Gamma(K ; R)$ are in one-to-one correspondence with continuous maps

$$
\lambda:\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K} \longrightarrow R
$$

satisfying $\lambda \circ \varphi=-\lambda$.

Proof. By the previous claim, a section

$$
s: K \rightarrow \bigsqcup_{x \in K} H_{n}(M, M \backslash x ; R)
$$

corresponds to a section $s:\left.K \rightarrow\left(\operatorname{Ori}(M) \times{ }_{G} R\right)\right|_{K}$. Define

$$
\lambda:\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K} \rightarrow R: \quad u_{x} \rightarrow r_{x},
$$

where $r_{x} \in R$ is given by $s(x)=\left[\left(u_{x}, r_{x}\right)\right]$. Then $\lambda\left(-u_{x}\right)=-r_{x}$ and thus $\lambda \circ \varphi=-\lambda$. Conversely for a given $\lambda:\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K} \rightarrow R$ with $\lambda \circ \varphi=-\lambda$, define

$$
s:\left.K \rightarrow\left(\operatorname{Ori}(M) \times_{G} R\right)\right|_{K}: \quad x \mapsto\left[\left(u_{x}, \lambda\left(u_{x}\right)\right]=\left[\left(-u_{x}, \lambda\left(-u_{x}\right)\right)\right] .\right.
$$

By the second claim, a section in $\Gamma(K ; R)$ corresponds to a continuous map $\lambda$ : $\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K} \rightarrow R$ satisfying $\lambda \circ \varphi=-\lambda$. Since $M$ is non-orientable along $K$, $\left.\operatorname{Ori}(M)\right|_{K}$ is connected and therefore $\lambda$ is constant, i.e. $\lambda \equiv r$ for some $r \in R$. But $\lambda \circ \varphi=-\lambda$ implies $r=-r$, i.e. $2 r=0$.

Since $K$ is compact, Theorem 36.19 yields an isomorphism $\Phi(K): H_{n}(M, M \backslash$ $K ; R) \rightarrow \Gamma_{c}(K ; R)=\Gamma(K ; R)$ and we obtain the result.

Problem P. $2(\dagger)$. Let $M$ be an $n$-dimensional topological manifold. Let $K \subseteq M$ be a closed connected subset. Prove that:

1. If $K$ is non-compact then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is zero.
2. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is also zero.
3. If $K$ is compact and $M$ is not orientable along $K$ then the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.

Solution. Notice that the torsion subgroup $T(G)$ of an abelian group $G$ is

$$
T(G) \cong \bigoplus_{p \text { prime }} T_{p}(G)
$$

where $T_{p}(G):=\bigoplus_{p \text { prime }}\left\{g \in G \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}: p^{n} g=0\right\}$. Moreover, recall that we have $\operatorname{Tor}\left(G, \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \cong\{g \in G \mid q g=0\}$.

1. Let $q \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$. As $K$ is non-compact, Theorem 37.8 yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & \cong H_{n}\left(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong\left(H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the second identity follows from the universal coefficient theorem and the third identity follows again from Theorem 37.8. Since $q$ was arbitrary, this shows $T\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z})\right)=0$.
2. Let $q \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$. As $K$ is compact and $M$ orientable along $K$, Theorem 37.8 implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{Z}_{q} & \cong H_{n}\left(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong\left(H_{n}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong \mathbb{Z}_{q} \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the second identity follows from the universal coefficient theorem and the third identity follows again from Theorem 37.8. Therefore, $\operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash\right.$ $\left.K ; \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right)=0$ and as $q$ was arbitrary it follows that the torsion subgroup of $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z})$ is zero.
3. We know that $H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)$ is finitely generated and hence we may write

$$
T\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{Z}_{\ell_{i}}, \quad \ell_{i} \geq 2, m \geq 0
$$

Let $q \in \mathbb{N}$. Using the result from Problem P. 1 twice as well as the universal coefficient theorem, we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{r \in \mathbb{Z}_{q} \mid 2 r=0\right\} & \cong H_{n}\left(M, M \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong\left(H_{n}(M, M \backslash K) \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \oplus \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \\
& \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that

$$
\left\{r \in \mathbb{Z}_{q} \mid 2 r=0\right\}= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } q \text { is odd } \\ \left\{0, \frac{q}{2}\right\}, & \text { if } q \text { is even }\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Tor}\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K), \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \cong \operatorname{Tor}\left(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{Z}_{\ell_{i}}, \mathbb{Z}_{q}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{Z}_{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\ell_{i}, q\right)}
$$

We conclude that for even $q$ the following holds:

$$
\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{Z}_{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\ell_{i}, q\right)} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}
$$

which implies that $m=1$ and $\ell_{1}=2$. This shows the result

$$
T\left(H_{n-1}(M, M \backslash K)\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}
$$

Problem P. $3(\dagger)$. Let $X$ be a topological spaces. Let $\alpha \in C^{n}(X ; R)$ and $c \in$ $C_{n+m}(X ; R)$. Prove that

$$
\partial(\alpha \frown c)=(-1)^{n}(\alpha \frown \partial c-d \alpha \frown c) .
$$

Solution. We will make use of Lemma 30.12 throughout. In particular

$$
\varepsilon_{i}^{n+m} \circ F_{n}^{n+m-1}= \begin{cases}F_{n+1}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}, & \text { if } i \leq n \\ F_{n}^{n+m}, & \text { if } i \geq n+1,\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\varepsilon_{i}^{n+m} \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m-1}= \begin{cases}B_{m-1}^{n+m}, & \text { if } i \leq n \\ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}^{m}, & \text { if } i \geq n+1\end{cases}
$$

Using these identities we compute the following three expressions.

$$
\begin{align*}
\alpha \frown \partial c= & \sum_{i=0}^{n+m}(-1)^{i} \alpha \frown\left(c \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+m}\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{n+m}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(c \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+m} \circ F_{n}^{n+m-1}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+m} \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m-1}\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n+1}^{m+n} \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m}\right) \\
& +\sum_{i=n+1}^{n+m}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}^{m}\right)  \tag{P.1}\\
d \alpha \frown c & =d \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n+1}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(\partial\left(c \circ F_{n+1}^{n+m}\right)\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n+1}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n+1}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{n+1}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m-1}^{n+m}\right)  \tag{P.2}\\
\partial(\alpha \frown c)= & \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot \partial\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m}\right) \\
& =\alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m}(-1)^{i}\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i}^{m}\right)\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=n}^{n+m}(-1)^{i-n} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}^{m}\right) \tag{P.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Equations (P.1), (P.2) and (P.3) finally imply the result:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(-1)^{n}(\alpha \frown \partial c-d \alpha \frown c)= & (-1)^{n} \cdot(-1)^{n+2} \alpha(c \circ \underbrace{F_{n+1}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{n+1}^{n+1}}_{F_{n}^{n+m}}) \cdot(c \circ \underbrace{B_{m-1}^{n+m}}_{B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{0}^{m}}) \\
& +(-1)^{n} \sum_{i=n+1}^{n+m}(-1)^{i} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}^{m}\right) \\
= & \sum_{i=n}^{n+m}(-1)^{i-n} \alpha\left(c \circ F_{n}^{n+m}\right) \cdot\left(c \circ B_{m}^{n+m} \circ \varepsilon_{i-n}^{m}\right) \\
= & \partial(\alpha \frown c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Problem P. $4(\dagger)$. Let $f:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ be a continuous map between pairs $(L, K)$ and $\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$. Let $A$ be an abelian group and let $k \geq 0$. Prove that the induced map $\check{H}^{k}(f): \check{H}^{k}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime} ; A\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K ; A)$ from Definition 38.10 is well defined. Deduce that the Čech cohomology functor from Theorem 38.11 satisfies the homotopy axiom. Hint: Use part (2) of Proposition 38.4.

Solution. We will prove something a little more general. Let $K \subset L \subset X$ and $K \subset L^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ be compact pairs in two Euclidean neighbourhood retracts, and suppose $f, g:(L, K) \rightarrow\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ are homotopic maps. By part (1) of Proposition 38.4, we may assume that both $f$ and $g$ can be extended to $F$ and $G$ respectively on some neighbourhood of $L$.

By part (2) or Proposition 38.4, we can find another smaller neighbourhood $W$ of $K$ in $X$ and a homotopy $H_{t}: W \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ such that $\left.H_{0}\right|_{W}=\left.F\right|_{W}$ and $\left.H_{1}\right|_{W}=\left.G\right|_{W}$.

Now fix a pair $U^{\prime} \subset V^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ of open sets in $X^{\prime}$ such that $K^{\prime} \subset U^{\prime}$ and $L^{\prime} \subset V^{\prime}$. Set
$V:=\left\{x \in W \mid H_{t}(x) \in V^{\prime}, \forall t \in[0,1]\right\}, \quad U:=\left\{x \in W \mid H_{t}(x) \in U^{\prime}, \forall t \in[0,1]\right\}$.
Then $U \subset V \subset X$ are open and $K \subset U, L \subset V$, and $\left.H_{t}\right|_{V}:(V, U) \rightarrow\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$ defines a homotopy from $\left.F\right|_{V}$ to $\left.G\right|_{V}$. In particular, by the homotopy axiom in singular homology,

$$
H^{k}\left(\left.F\right|_{V}\right)=H^{k}\left(\left.G\right|_{V}\right): H^{k}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{k}(V, U) .
$$

Now consider the following commutative diagram, where the maps labelled $i$ are all induced from inclusions, and the unlabelled maps are those induced by the universal property of the colimit:


It follows that the map $H^{k}\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K)$ induced by $F$ (i.e. going clockwise round the outer square) is the same as the map induced by $G$ (i.e. going anticlockwise round the outer square). Since $\left(V^{\prime}, U^{\prime}\right)$ was an arbitrary element of $\mathcal{U}_{X^{\prime}}\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$, it follows that induced maps $\check{H}^{k}(L, K) \rightarrow \check{H}^{k}(L, K)$ are the same (cf. Definition 38.10.)

Taking $f=g$ shows that the definition of $\breve{H}^{k}(f)$ does not depend on the choice of extension $F$. Thus $\check{H}^{k}(f)$ is well-defined, and moreover if $f \simeq g$ as maps $(L, K) \rightarrow$ $\left(L^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ then we have just shown that $\check{H}^{k}(f)=\check{H}^{k}(g)$. Thus the homotopy axiom holds for Čech cohomology.

Problem P. $5(\star)$. Let $M$ be a closed connected topological manifold of dimension $n-1$, and let $f: M \rightarrow S^{n}$ be a homeomorphism onto its image. Set $K:=f(M)$.

## Prove Alexander Duality:

$$
\tilde{H}^{k}(M) \cong \tilde{H}_{n-k-1}\left(S^{n} \backslash K\right)
$$

Deduce that $S^{n} \backslash K$ has two connected components.
Solution. Let $y$ be a point not in $K$. By the Duality Theorem, using coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ (remember every manifold is $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$-orientable) we have

$$
\check{H}^{k}\left(K, x ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong H_{n-k}\left(S^{n} \backslash x, S^{n} \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

Since $H_{k}\left(S^{n} \backslash x, y ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=0$ for all $k \geq 0$, from the long exact sequence of the triple we have $H_{n-k}\left(S^{n} \backslash x, S^{n} \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong H_{n-k-1}\left(S^{n} \backslash K, y ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$. Since both $K$ and $x$ are an Euclidean neighbourhood retracts by Corollary 38.5, we have $\check{H}^{k}\left(K, x ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong$ $H^{k}\left(K, x ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)$, and thus

$$
H^{k}\left(K, x ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong H_{n-k-1}\left(S^{n} \backslash K, y ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

Finally using Corollary 12.22, we obtain

$$
\tilde{H}^{k}\left(M ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \tilde{H}_{n-k-1}\left(S^{n} \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)
$$

Since $H^{n-1}\left(M ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ by Theorem 37.8, we obtain $\tilde{H}_{0}\left(S^{n} \backslash K ; \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)=\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, which implies that $S^{n} \backslash K$ has two path connected components by Corollary 12.12. Finally, since $S^{n} \backslash K$ is open (in $S^{n}$ ), it is locally pathwise connected. Thus the path components agree with the connected components, and the result follows.

## Problem Sheet Q

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 40, 41 and 42. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem Q. $1(\dagger)$. Let C be a category and $A, B, C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$. Prove that:

1. If the products $A \sqcap B$ and $B \sqcap A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcap B \cong B \sqcap A .
$$

2. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B$ and $B \sqcup A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcup B \cong B \sqcup A .
$$

3. If the products $A \sqcap B, B \sqcap C,(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C$ and $A \sqcap(B \sqcap C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C \cong A \sqcap(B \sqcap C) .
$$

4. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B, B \sqcup C,(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C$ and $A \sqcup(B \sqcup C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C \cong A \sqcup(B \sqcup C) .
$$

Problem Q. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be rings (not necessarily commutative), and let $M$ be an $\left(R, R^{\prime}\right)$-bimodule. Prove that $\left(\square \otimes_{R} M, \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair. Prove also that $\left(M \otimes_{R^{\prime}} \square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair.

Problem Q. $3(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a set, and consider the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square):$ Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets. Construct a functor $T$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets such that $(T, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \square))$ forms an adjoint pair. Does there exist a functor $S$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets such that $(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square), S)$ forms an adjoint pair?

Problem Q. $4(\dagger)$. Let C be a category. Suppose $A_{1}, A_{2}, B_{1}, B_{2} \in \mathrm{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ are four objects and $f_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow B_{i}$ are morphisms for $i=1,2$.

1. Prove that if the products $A_{1} \sqcap A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcap A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the limit:


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2. Prove that if the coproducts $A_{1} \sqcup A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcup f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcup A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the colimit:


Problem Q. $5(\dagger)$. Suppose C is a category and $B, C_{1}, C_{2}, D \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

1. Assume the products $B \sqcap B$ and $C_{1} \sqcap C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $f_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, C_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Prove that

$$
\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)=\left(f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}\right) \circ \Delta_{B},
$$

where $\Delta_{B} \in \operatorname{Hom}(B, B \sqcap B)$ was defined part (1) of Definition 41.5.
2. Assume the coproducts $D \sqcup D$ and $C_{1} \sqcup C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{i}, D\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Prove that

$$
\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)=\nabla_{D} \circ\left(g_{1} \sqcup g_{2}\right),
$$

where $\nabla_{D} \in \operatorname{Hom}(D \sqcup D, D)$ was defined in part (2) of Definition 41.5.
Problem Q. $6(\dagger)$. Let $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ denote a pointed space. Let $\xi: X \vee X \hookrightarrow X \times X$ denote the inclusion, where as usual we think of $X \vee X$ as the subspace $\left(X \times\left\{x_{0}\right\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times X\right)$ of $X \times X$.

1. Assume $X$ is an $H$-group with multiplication $m$. Prove that the following diagram commutes up to homotopy:

2. Assume $X$ is an $H$-cogroup with comultiplication $\mu$. Prove that the following diagram commutes up to homotopy:


Problem Q. 7 ( $\star$ ). The aim of this exercise is to deduce that spheres are cogroup objects in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. Given pointed spaces $X$ and $Y$, define the smash product $X \wedge Y$ to be the pointed space ${ }^{1} X \times Y /(X \vee Y)$ (where as usual we think of $X \vee Y$ as a subspace of $X \times Y$.)

[^114]1. Prove that if $X$ is a locally compact Hausdorff space then $\Sigma X$ is homeomorphic to $X \wedge S^{1}$ (as pointed spaces).
2. Given a locally compact and Hausdorff space $X$, let $X^{\infty}=X \cup \infty$ denote the one-point compactification of $X$, which we think of as a pointed space where $\infty$ is chosen as the basepoint ${ }^{2}$. Prove that if $X$ and $Y$ are locally compact Hausdorff spaces then $X^{\infty} \wedge Y^{\infty}$ is homeomorphic to $(X \times Y)^{\infty}$.
3. Deduce that $\Sigma S^{n}$ is homeomorphic to $S^{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 0$, and thus that $S^{n}$ is a cogroup object in $h T_{*}$ for all $n \geq 1$.
[^115]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet Q

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 40, 41 and 42. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem Q. $1(\dagger)$. Let C be a category and $A, B, C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$. Prove that:

1. If the products $A \sqcap B$ and $B \sqcap A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcap B \cong B \sqcap A .
$$

2. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B$ and $B \sqcup A$ exist then they are isomorphic:

$$
A \sqcap B \cong B \sqcap A .
$$

3. If the products $A \sqcap B, B \sqcap C,(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C$ and $A \sqcap(B \sqcap C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcap B) \sqcap C \cong A \sqcap(B \sqcap C) .
$$

4. If the coproducts $A \sqcup B, B \sqcup C,(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C$ and $A \sqcup(B \sqcup C)$ all exist then:

$$
(A \sqcup B) \sqcup C \cong A \sqcup(B \sqcup C) .
$$

Solution. We prove (1) only; the other parts are analogous. The products are limits and hence satisfy the universal property of Definition 40.1. Thus there exist unique morphisms $u: A \sqcap B \rightarrow B \sqcap A$ and $v: B \sqcap A \rightarrow A \sqcap B$ such that

and

commute. The compositions $v \circ u: A \sqcap B \rightarrow A \sqcap B$ and $u \circ v: B \sqcap A \rightarrow B \sqcap A$ make the following two diagrams commute:


Since $\operatorname{id}_{A \sqcap B}$ and $\operatorname{id}_{B \sqcap A}$ also make these diagrams commute, it follows from the uniqueness property of the universal property that $\operatorname{id}_{A \sqcap B}=v \circ u$ and $\operatorname{id}_{B \sqcap A}=u \circ v$.
Problem Q. 2 ( $\dagger$ ). Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be rings (not necessarily commutative), and let $M$ be an $\left(R, R^{\prime}\right)$-bimodule. Prove that $\left(\square \otimes_{R} M, \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair. Prove also that $\left(M \otimes_{R^{\prime}} \square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair.
Solution. We need to show that there is a natural isomorphism :

$$
\Psi: \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}\left(\square \otimes_{R} M, \square\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}(M, \square)\right) .
$$

Given a right $R$-module $A$ and a left $R^{\prime}$ module $B$, define

$$
\Psi(A, B): \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}\left(A \otimes_{R} M, B\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(A, \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\prime}}(M, B)\right)
$$

by

$$
\alpha \mapsto(\Psi(A, B)(\alpha): a \mapsto \alpha(a \otimes \cdot)) .
$$

This is bijective, as the inverse is

$$
\beta \mapsto(a \otimes m \mapsto \beta(a)(m)) .
$$

If $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ and $g: B \rightarrow B^{\prime}$ are module homomorphism the diagram

commutes. Indeed, start with a morphism $\alpha$ in the top left-hand corner and go around the diagram in clockwise direction. This yields

$$
\alpha \longrightarrow\left(a^{\prime} \mapsto \alpha\left(a^{\prime} \otimes \cdot\right)\right) \longrightarrow(a \mapsto g \circ \alpha(f(a) \otimes \cdot))
$$

Going anticlockwise yields

$$
\alpha \longrightarrow(a \otimes m \mapsto g \circ \alpha(f(a) \otimes m)) \longrightarrow(a \mapsto g \circ \alpha(f(a) \otimes \cdot)) .
$$

Hence, the diagram commutes and $\Psi$ is a natural isomorphism, which proves the statement.

The proof that $\left(M \otimes_{R^{\prime}} \square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \square)\right)$ forms an adjoint pair is very similar. The natural isomorphism

$$
\Theta(A, B): \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M \otimes_{R^{\prime}} \square, \square\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\square, \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, \square)\right)
$$

is defined by

$$
\alpha \mapsto(\Theta(A, B)(\alpha): a \mapsto \alpha(\cdot \otimes a))
$$

for every left $R^{\prime}$-module $A$ and right $R$-module $B$.
Problem Q. $3(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a set, and consider the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square):$ Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets. Construct a functor $T$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets such that $(T, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ ) forms an adjoint pair. Does there exist a functor $S$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets such that $(\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square), S)$ forms an adjoint pair?

Solution. Let $T$ : Sets $\rightarrow$ Sets be the functor defined by

$$
T(C):=A \times C
$$

and

$$
T(f):=I d_{A} \times f
$$

for $C \in$ Sets and $f$ a morphism in the category of sets. We claim that there exists a natural isomorphism $\Psi: \operatorname{Hom}(A \times \square, \square) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(\square, \operatorname{Hom}(A, \square))$. Given $C, D \in \operatorname{Sets}$ define

$$
\Psi(C, D): \operatorname{Hom}(A \times C, D) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(C, \operatorname{Hom}(A, D))
$$

by

$$
\alpha \mapsto(\Psi(C, D)(\alpha): c \mapsto \alpha(\cdot, c))
$$

This is a bijection as

$$
\beta \mapsto((a, c) \mapsto \beta(c)(a))
$$

is the inverse. It is left to show that $\forall C, C^{\prime}, D, D^{\prime} \in$ Sets and $\forall f: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}, g: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}$ the diagram

commutes. Recall that

$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(I d_{A} \times f, g\right): \alpha \mapsto g \circ \alpha \circ I d_{A} \times f
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(f, \operatorname{Hom}(A, g)): \beta \mapsto g \circ \beta \circ f .
$$

Starting with $\alpha$ on the top left of the diagram and going around clockwise yields the morphism:

$$
g \circ \Psi\left(C^{\prime}, D\right)(\alpha) \circ f: c \mapsto g \circ \alpha(\cdot, f(c)),
$$

where $c \in C$. Counterclockwise yields the morphism:

$$
g \circ \alpha \circ I d_{A} \times f: c \mapsto g \circ \alpha(\cdot, f(c)) .
$$

Thus the diagram commutes and $\Psi$ is a natural isomorphism.
Let $S=\{a, b\}$ be a set with two elements. Then $S=\{a\} \sqcup\{b\}$ is the coproduct of $\{a\}$ and $\{b\}$ in the category of Sets. But $\operatorname{Hom}(A, S)$ is not the coproduct of $\operatorname{Hom}(A,\{a\})$ and $\operatorname{Hom}(A,\{b\})$. Hence, the functor $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ does not preserve colimits. Hence, $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ does not have a right-adjoint, since if it did, it would preserve colimits. (This is the content of Theorem 40.22.)

Problem Q. $4(\dagger)$. Let C be a category. Suppose $A_{1}, A_{2}, B_{1}, B_{2} \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$ are four objects and $f_{i}: A_{i} \rightarrow B_{i}$ are morphisms for $i=1,2$.

1. Prove that if the products $A_{1} \sqcap A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcap A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcap B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the colimit:

2. Prove that if the coproducts $A_{1} \sqcup A_{2}$ and $B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ exist then there is a unique morphism $f_{1} \sqcup f_{2}: A_{1} \sqcup A_{2} \rightarrow B_{1} \sqcup B_{2}$ such that the following diagram commutes for $i=1,2$, where the vertical maps are those induced from the limit:


Solution. 1. Using Definition 40.1 we obtain the following commutative diagram,
where $k_{1}, k_{2}$ are the induced maps of the limit $A_{1} \sqcup A_{2}$ :


This immediately yields the desired commutative diagrams.
Problem Q. $5(\dagger)$. Suppose C is a category and $B, C_{1}, C_{2}, D \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{C})$.

1. Assume the products $B \sqcap B$ and $C_{1} \sqcap C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $f_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, C_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Prove that

$$
\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)=\left(f_{1} \sqcap f_{2}\right) \circ \Delta_{C} .
$$

2. Assume the coproducts $D \sqcup D$ and $C_{1} \sqcup C_{2}$ exist. Suppose $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(C_{i}, D\right)$ for $i=1,2$. Prove that

$$
\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)=\nabla_{D} \circ\left(g_{1} \sqcup g_{2}\right) .
$$

## Solution.

1. By Proposition $41.1\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right) \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B, C_{1} \sqcap C_{2}\right)$ is the unique morphism such that the following diagram commutes:


Similarly, $\Delta_{B} \in \operatorname{Hom}(B, B \sqcap B)$ is the unique morphism such that

commutes. Recall also from Problem Q.4, that $f_{1} \sqcap f_{2} \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(B \sqcap B, C_{1} \sqcap C_{2}\right)$ is the unique morphism such that the diagrams

commute for $i=1,2$. Combining the commutative diagrams (Q.4) and (Q.5) we obtain the following commutative diagram:


By the uniqueness of the morphism $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ in (Q.3) we conclude that $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)=$ $f_{1} \sqcap f_{2} \circ \Delta_{B}$.

Problem Q. $6(\dagger)$. Let $\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ denote a pointed space. Let $\xi: X \vee X \hookrightarrow X \times X$ denote the inclusion, where as usual we think of $X \vee X$ as the subspace $\left(X \times\left\{x_{0}\right\}\right) \cup\left(\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times X\right)$ of $X \times X$.

1. Assume $X$ is an $H$-group with multiplication $m$. Prove that the following diagram commutes up to homotopy:

2. Assume $X$ is an $H$-cogroup with comultiplication $\mu$. Prove that the following diagram commutes up to homotopy:


Proof. Both parts follow immediately from the definition of an H -(co)group, once one realises that the inclusion $\xi: X \vee X \hookrightarrow X \times X$ agree with the maps $\left(j_{1}, j_{2}\right): X \vee X \rightarrow$ $X \times X$ and $\left(q_{1}, q_{2}\right): X \vee X \rightarrow X \times X$ (the notation is using Proposition 41.1!). For example, both $\xi$ and ( $q_{1}, q_{2}$ ) solve the dashed arrow in the following diagram:


Problem Q. $7(\star)$. The aim of this exercise is to deduce that spheres are cogroup objects in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$. Given pointed spaces $X$ and $Y$, define the smash product $X \wedge Y$ to be the pointed space ${ }^{1} X \times Y /(X \vee Y)$ (where as usual we think of $X \vee Y$ as a subspace of $X \times Y$.)

1. Prove that if $X$ is a locally compact Hausdorff space then $\Sigma X$ is homeomorphic to $X \wedge S^{1}$ (as pointed spaces).
2. Given a locally compact Hausdorff space $X$, let $X^{\infty}=X \cup \infty$ denote the onepoint compactification of $X$, which we think of as a pointed space where $\infty$ is chosen as the basepoint. Prove that if $X$ and $Y$ are locally compact Hausdorff spaces then $X^{\infty} \wedge Y^{\infty}$ is homeomorphic to $(X \times Y)^{\infty}$.
3. Deduce that $\Sigma S^{n}$ is homeomorphic to $S^{n+1}$ for all $n \geq 0$, and thus that $S^{n}$ is a cogroup object in $\mathrm{hTop}_{*}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

## Solution.

1. Since $X$ is locally compact and Hausdorff the map id ${ }_{X} \times \exp : X \times I \rightarrow X \times S^{1}$ is a quotient map. Thus the composition $p: X \times I \rightarrow X \times S^{1} \rightarrow X \wedge S^{1}$ is a quotient map. Since $(X \times I) / \operatorname{ker} p=\Sigma X$, the claim follows from the definition of the quotient topology.
2. For $Z$ a compact Hausdorff space and $Z^{\prime} \subset Z$ a closed subspace, one has $Z / Z^{\prime} \cong$ $\left(Z \backslash Z^{\prime}\right)^{\infty}$ (as pointed spaces) by properties of the one-point compactification. Since $X^{\infty} \wedge Y^{\infty}=\left(X^{\infty} \times Y^{\infty}\right) /\left(X^{\infty} \vee Y^{\infty}\right)$ is the quotient of a compact Hausdorff space by a closed subspace, it follows that $X^{\infty} \wedge Y^{\infty}$ is the one-point compactification of $\left(X^{\infty} \times Y^{\infty}\right) \backslash\left(X^{\infty} \vee Y^{\infty}\right)$. But

$$
\left(X^{\infty} \times Y^{\infty}\right)=(X \times Y) \cup\left(\{\infty\} \times Y^{\infty}\right) \cup\left(X^{\infty} \times\{\infty\}\right)
$$

and

$$
\left(X^{\infty} \vee Y^{\infty}\right)=\left(\{\infty\} \times Y^{\infty}\right) \cup\left(X^{\infty} \times\{\infty\}\right)
$$

so their difference is $X \times Y$ as required.
3. For $n=0$ this is obvious. For $n \geq 1$, since the one-point compactification of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is $S^{n}$, one has

$$
\Sigma S^{n} \cong S^{n} \wedge S^{1} \cong\left(\mathbb{R}^{n}\right)^{\infty} \wedge \mathbb{R}^{\infty} \cong\left(\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}\right)^{\infty}=\left(\mathbb{R}^{n+1}\right)^{\infty} \cong S^{n+1}
$$

[^116]
## Problem Sheet R

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 43, 44 and 45. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a ( $\star$ ) means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem R. $1(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a set, and assume $A$ is equipped with two binary operations $*$ and $\circ$ such that:

1. $*$ and $\circ$ have a common two-sided unit,

2 . $*$ and $\circ$ are mutually distributive, that is,

$$
(a * b) \circ(c * d)=(a \circ c) *(b \circ d), \quad \forall a, b, c, d \in A .
$$

Prove that $*$ and $\circ$ coincide and that each is commutative and associative.
Problem R.2.

1. Let $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a pointed continuous map. Define a space $F f$ by:

$$
F f:=\left\{(x, w) \in X \times Y^{I} \mid w(1)=f(x)\right\} .
$$

Let $p: F f \rightarrow Y$ be the map $(x, w) \mapsto w(0)$. Prove that $p$ is a fibration with fibre the mapping fibre $M f$ of $f$.
2. Assume $X$ is path connected. Let $g: X \rightarrow Y$ be any continuous (not necessarily pointed) map. Prove that one can write $g=p \circ h$ where $p$ is a fibration and $h$ is a homotopy equivalence.

Problem R.3. Consider the Hopf fibration $S^{1} \rightarrow S^{3} \rightarrow S^{2}$ from Proposition 33.7. Use the long exact sequence of homotopy groups to prove that ${ }^{1} \pi_{2}\left(S^{2}\right)=\mathbb{Z}$ and that $\pi_{n}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(S^{2}\right)$ for all $n \geq 3$. Deduce that $\pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \neq 0$. Try to visualise this.

Problem R.4. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a weak fibration with fibre $F$. Prove that $\pi_{2}(E, F)$ is abelian. If $F$ is simply connected, prove that $\pi_{1}(p): \pi_{1}(E) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X)$ is an isomorphism.

Problem R. $5(\star)$. Let $X=S^{2} \vee S^{4}$ and let $Y=\mathbb{C} P^{2}$. Prove that $X$ and $Y$ have the same homology groups. Prove however that $\pi_{4}(X) \not \not ⿻ \pi_{4}(Y)$ and hence that $X$ and $Y$ are not homotopy equivalent.

[^117]
## Solutions to Problem Sheet R

This Problem Sheet is based on Lectures 43-46. A ( $\dagger$ ) means I will use the problem in lectures; a $(\star)$ means I think the problem is challenging.

Problem R. $1(\dagger)$. Let $A$ be a set, and assume $A$ is equipped with two binary operations $*$ and $\circ$ such that:

1.     * and $\circ$ have a common two-sided unit,

2 . $*$ and $\circ$ are mutually distributive, that is,

$$
(a * b) \circ(c * d)=(a \circ c) *(b \circ d), \quad \forall a, b, c, d \in A .
$$

Prove that $*$ and o coincide and that each is commutative and associative.
Solution. Let $e$ denote the unit. Then

$$
a * b=(a \circ e) *(e \circ b)=(a * e) \circ(e * b)=a \circ b .
$$

Thus * and o coincide. Next,

$$
a * b=(e \circ a) *(b \circ e)=(e * b) \circ(a * e)=b \circ a=b * a,
$$

which proves commutativity. Finally

$$
a *(b * c)=(a \circ e) *(b \circ c)=(a * b) \circ(e * c)=(a * b) * c,
$$

which proves associativity.
Problem R. $2(\dagger)$.

1. Let $f:\left(X, x_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a pointed continuous map. Define a space $F f$ by:

$$
F f:=\left\{(x, w) \in X \times Y^{I} \mid w(1)=f(x)\right\} .
$$

Let $p: F f \rightarrow Y$ be the map $(x, w) \mapsto w(0)$. Prove that $p$ is a fibration with fibre the mapping fibre $M f$ of $f$.
2. Assume $X$ is path connected. Let $g: X \rightarrow Y$ be any continuous (not necessarily pointed) map. Prove that one can write $g=p \circ h$ where $p$ is a fibration and $h$ is a homotopy equivalence.

## Solution.

1. Let $V$ be a topological space, $h_{t}: V \rightarrow Y$ be a homotopy and $g_{0}: V \rightarrow F f$ a map such that $p \circ g_{0}=h_{0}$. We want to show that there exists a homotopy $g_{t}: V \rightarrow F f$ such that $p \circ g_{t}=h_{t}, \forall t$. Let $\tau_{t, v} \in Y^{I}$ be the path $s \mapsto \tau_{t, v}(s):=h_{t(1-s)}(v)$. Writing

$$
g_{0}: V \rightarrow F f ; \quad v \mapsto\left(x(v), \sigma_{v}=\left(t \mapsto \sigma_{v}(t)\right)\right.
$$

we define the path $I \rightarrow Y$

$$
w_{t, v}:=\sigma_{v} * \tau_{t, v}(r)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\tau_{t, v}(2 r), 0 \leq r \leq \frac{1}{2} \\
\sigma_{v}(2 r-1), \frac{1}{2} \leq r \leq 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

This is well-defined since $\tau_{t, v}(1)=h_{0}(v)=p \circ g_{0}(v)=\sigma_{v}(0)$. Let

$$
g_{t}: V \rightarrow F f ; \quad v \mapsto\left(x(v), w_{t, v}\right) .
$$

Then we have $w_{t, v}(1)=\sigma_{v}(1)=f(x(v))$ and $p \circ g_{t}(v)=w_{t, v}(0)=h_{t}(v)$.
2. Define

$$
h: X \rightarrow F g ; \quad x \mapsto\left(x, c_{g(x)}\right)
$$

where $c_{g(x)}$ is the constant path at $g(x)$ and let

$$
q: F g \rightarrow X ; \quad(x, w) \mapsto x
$$

be the projection. Then we have that $q \circ h=\operatorname{id}_{X}$ and moreover

$$
H: F g \times I \rightarrow F g ; \quad((x, w), t) \mapsto\left(x,\left.w\right|_{[t, 1]}\right)
$$

is a homotopy between $h \circ q$ and $\operatorname{id}_{F g}$. Thus $h$ is a homotopy equivalence and $p \circ h(x)=c_{g(x)}(1)=g(x)$.
Problem R.3. Consider the Hopf fibration $S^{1} \rightarrow S^{3} \rightarrow S^{2}$ from Proposition 33.7. Use the long exact sequence of homotopy groups to prove that ${ }^{1} \pi_{2}\left(S^{2}\right)=\mathbb{Z}$ and that $\pi_{n}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(S^{2}\right)$ for all $n \geq 3$. Deduce that $\pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \neq 0$. Try to visualise this.

Solution. By Theorem 45.5 and Theorem 43.18 we have a long exact sequence as follows:

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{3}\left(S^{1}\right)}_{=0} \rightarrow \pi_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{2}\left(S^{1}\right)}_{=0} \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{2}\left(S^{3}\right)}_{=0} \rightarrow \pi_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{1}\left(S^{1}\right)}_{\cong \mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{1}\left(S^{3}\right)}_{=0} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

Therefore (again by Theorem 43.18) we get (by induction) that $\pi_{n}\left(S^{3}\right) \cong \pi_{n}\left(S^{2}\right)$ for all $n \geq 3$ and $\pi_{2}\left(S^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\pi_{3}\left(S^{3}\right) \neq 0$ by Theorem 43.18, we also have $\pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right) \neq 0$.

Problem R.4. Let $p: E \rightarrow X$ be a weak fibration with fibre $F$. Prove that $\pi_{2}(E, F)$ is abelian. If $F$ is simply connected, prove that $\pi_{1}(p): \pi_{1}(E) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X)$ is an isomorphism.

[^118]Solution. By Theorem 45.16 (Serre's Theorem) we have that $\pi_{2}\left(p^{\prime}\right): \pi_{2}(E, F) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{2}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is an isomorphism. By Corollary $43.5 \pi_{2}\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ is abelian, thus $\pi_{2}(E, F)$ is abelian as well. If $F$ is simply connected, then $\pi_{0}(F)=\pi_{1}(F)=0$ and the long exact sequence of Corollary 45.18 takes the form

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{1}(F)}_{=0} \rightarrow \pi_{1}(E) \xrightarrow{\pi_{1}(p)} \pi_{1}(X) \rightarrow \underbrace{\pi_{0}(F)}_{=0} \rightarrow \ldots
$$

which proves that $\pi_{1}(p): \pi_{1}(E) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X)$ is an isomorphism.
Problem R. $5(\star)$. Let $X=S^{2} \vee S^{4}$ and let $Y=\mathbb{C} P^{2}$. Prove that $X$ and $Y$ have the same homology groups. Prove however that $\pi_{4}(X) \not \equiv \pi_{4}(Y)$ and hence that $X$ and $Y$ are not homotopy equivalent.

Solution. Let $X \subset Y$ be a subspace pf the topological space $Y$. Recall that $X$ is a retract of $Y$ is and only if $\exists$ a continuous map $r: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $\left.r\right|_{X}=f_{X}(r$ is called retraction). $S^{4}$ is a retract of $S^{2} \vee S^{4}$. Indeed, define

$$
r: S^{2} \times\left\{p_{2}\right\} \sqcup\left\{p_{1}\right\} \times S^{4} \rightarrow\left\{p_{1}\right\} \times S^{4} ; \quad(x, y) \mapsto \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } x \neq p_{1} \\ (x, y), & \text { if } x=p_{1}\end{cases}
$$

In particular

commutes and thus we get the following commutative diagram


By Theorem 43.18 we know that $\pi_{4}\left(S^{4}\right) \neq 0$ and hence $\pi_{4}\left(S^{2} \vee S^{4}\right)$ cannot vanish.
Now consider the fibre bundle $S^{1} \rightarrow S^{2 n+1} \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{C} P^{n} \cong S^{2 n+1} / \sim$ (here $n=2$ ). By Corollary $45.14 p: S^{2 n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} P^{n}$ is a weak fibration and using the long exact sequence for weak fibrations (Corollary 45.18) we get

$$
\ldots \rightarrow \pi_{4}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{4}\left(S^{5}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{4}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{2}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{3}\left(S^{1}\right) \rightarrow \ldots
$$

By Theorem 43.18 we have that $\pi_{4}\left(S^{1}\right)=\pi_{3}\left(S^{1}\right)=0$ and $\pi_{4}\left(S^{5}\right)=0$, therefore $\pi_{4}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{2}\right)=0$. Hence $\pi_{4}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{2}\right) \neq \pi_{4}\left(S^{2} \vee S^{4}\right)$ and we conclude that $\mathbb{C} P^{2}$ is not homotopy equivalent to $S^{2} \vee S^{4}$. (Note that $H_{i}\left(\mathbb{C} P^{2}\right) \cong H_{i}\left(S^{2} \vee S^{4}\right)$, $\forall i$.)


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is the image of the continuous map $B^{1} \rightarrow B^{1} \times B^{1}$ given by $x \mapsto(x, f(x))$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Consider the map $g: \operatorname{Gr}(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $g(x, f(x))=x-f(x)$. Then $A=g^{-1}((-\infty, 0))$ and $B=g^{-1}((0, \infty))$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ This is an easy exercise.
    ${ }^{4}$ If $n=0$, apply Remark 1.4 instead of Lemma 1.3.

[^2]:    ${ }^{5}$ Strictly speaking $\pi_{1}$ will be a functor from the category of pointed topological spaces, more on this later.

[^3]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ I debated putting this on Problem Sheet B but decided it was too easy ...

[^4]:    ${ }^{2}$ And thus you should draw the picture out!
    ${ }^{3}$ Nothing we ever do in this course will ever need to worry about the distinction between a set and a class, so you are free to ignore this part of the definition if you want ...

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Since a groupoid is a type of category, this is a category of categories!

[^6]:    ${ }^{2}$ I will call a homotopy $F: f \simeq g$ between two maps a free homotopy when it is important to emphasise that it is not a relative homotopy.
    ${ }^{3}$ As ever, I encourage you to draw a picture here!

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Exercise: Check they really are continuous!

[^8]:    ${ }^{2}$ In Lecture 16 we will define a more general notion of a diagram which allows for pictures of a different shapes.
    ${ }^{3}$ We will generalise this in Lecture 16 when we introduce colimits.

[^9]:    ${ }^{4}$ Before you ask: Yes, it is possible to give a formal definition of exactly what a "universal property" is, but I'm not going to do so since it requires more category theory than one should use in polite company. Instead, just think of a universal property as meaning "making a diagram commute in the most efficient manner possible".

[^10]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ If you are confused exactly how $\mu$ is defined, I invite you to look at Problem C.1.

[^12]:    ${ }^{2}$ See here for a proof.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Exercise: Why?

[^14]:    ${ }^{2}$ This is clearly an $(n-1)$-simplex as a subset of a linearly independent set is also linearly independent.
    ${ }^{3}$ This is a convention we will use throughout the course.
    ${ }^{4}$ Not quite! We will come back to this in Lecture 9.

[^15]:    ${ }^{5}$ Being pedantic is an important quality for a mathematician to have (or at least, to pretend to have when teaching others ...)

[^16]:    ${ }^{6}$ Boundary begins with a "b", hence the notation $B_{n}(X)$. Similarly cycle begins with a " c ", hence the notation ... wait a second ... Damnit, we already used $C_{n}(X)$ for the chain groups! Next best option: Zykel begins with a "z" ...
    ${ }^{7}$ We use angle brackets $\langle\cdot\rangle$ rather than square brackets [•] to distinguish between homotopy and homology classes.
    ${ }^{8}$ It would be more logical to write $C \bullet(f)$ instead of $f_{\#}$, but this is too messy.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ The map $P_{-1}: 0=C_{-1}(X) \rightarrow C_{0}(Y)$ is necessarily the zero map.

[^18]:    ${ }^{2}$ Remember we are "hiding" the face maps with this notation ...

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ We will discuss the more general version at the end of Algebraic Topology II (Theorem 46.1.

[^20]:    ${ }^{2}$ Less formally, this is simply the observation that since $c$ is a cycle, the sum of the paths $w_{y_{i}}$ and $\bar{w}_{z_{i}}$ cancel.

[^21]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ Yes, I know it is somewhat illogical to omit the subscript on the $\partial$ and not on the $C$, but in practice it makes things more convenient.

[^22]:    ${ }^{2}$ I will not give the precise definition of an additive functor, since we do not need it. It's more complicated then you think, since in order to define additive functors one first needs to define additive categories ...

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Right ... Evidently most mathematicians have never seen snakes.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Which states that if $N \leq K \leq G$ are normal subgroups then $(G / N) /(K / N) \cong G / K$, i.e. you can "cancel" the $N$.
    ${ }^{2}$ We won't bother distinguishing paths and 1-simplices in this lecture.

[^25]:    ${ }^{3}$ We will define this properly in Lecture 22 .

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ To make the case $n=1$ work, we can take $\mathrm{Sd}_{-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}$ to be the zero map.

[^27]:    ${ }^{2} P_{-1}^{\mathrm{cv}}$ is also the zero map; there is no choice about that!

[^28]:    ${ }^{2}$ We identify eg. $\imath_{1}: X_{0} \hookrightarrow X_{1}$ with the map of pairs $\left(X_{0}, \emptyset\right) \hookrightarrow\left(X_{1}, \emptyset\right)$.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ Consider it an exercise to verify all these claims!

[^30]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ This means that $\operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{J})$ is a set. It does not necessarily imply that J is actually "small" (since sets can be very large!) Nevertheless, in most our examples J is indeed rather small; for instance our running example (Example 16.2) has J having three objects and two non-identity morphisms.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is usually called a "co-cone" but I prefer the name "solution".

[^31]:    ${ }^{3}$ That is, if $a \sim a^{\prime}$ and $b \sim b^{\prime}$ then with the obvious notation we need $T(i) a+T(j) b \sim T\left(i^{\prime}\right) a^{\prime}+T\left(j^{\prime}\right) b^{\prime}$.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Exercise: Why?

[^33]:    ${ }^{2}$ Strictly speaking we are working with reduced homology here, but this makes no difference, as the reader is invited to check (alternatively, prove the case $k=0$ directly!)

[^34]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ They are often called $C W$ complexes in the literature; the "C" stands for "closure finite" and the "W" stands for "weak topology". But I think the name "cell complex" is catchier.

[^35]:    ${ }^{2}$ Condition (4) is automatic given the others if $X$ is compact and $Z$ is Hausdorff, as in the last part of Lemma 18.2.
    ${ }^{3}$ If $n=0, E^{0}$ is just a point since $S^{0}$ is two points.

[^36]:    ${ }^{4}$ Warning: There is a slight discrepancy in the terminology here. Whilst most of the literature defines a deformation retract as we have in Definition 18.12, Hatcher's textbook instead defines a deformation retract to be what we will call a "strong deformation retract" next lecture.

[^37]:    ${ }^{5}$ Continuity of $H$ is a little exercise using quotient maps.

[^38]:    ${ }^{6}$ If $X^{-1}=\emptyset$ then for $n=0$ read this to mean: $X^{0}$ is a discrete set of points.

[^39]:    ${ }^{7}$ In fact, if $X^{\prime}$ is normal then so is $X$.
    ${ }^{8}$ Although if $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a weak homotopy equivalence between two connected cell complexes then $f$ is automatically a homotopy equivalence. This result is called Whitehead's Theorem and will be one of the major results we prove next semester.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ This means that the wedge sum is topologised as a quotient of the disjoint union.

[^41]:    ${ }^{2} Y / Y^{\prime}$ is Hausdorff as $Y$ is compact and $Y^{\prime}$ is closed.
    ${ }^{3} \mathrm{~A}$ continuous bijection from a compact space to a Hausdorff space is automatically a homeomorphism.

[^42]:    ${ }^{4}$ Note $Y^{n}$ is closed in $X^{n}$ due to part (4) of Proposition 18.17.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ To me at least...
    ${ }^{2}$ For $n=0$ the boundary operator is of course the zero map.

[^44]:    ${ }^{3}$ For $n=1$, the quotient space is a point, not $S^{0}$. To avoid introducing excessive notation, we will tacitly assume $n \geq 2$ in the following, and leave the case $n=1$ as an exercise (the only difference is notation).

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ The former is the content of next semester's student seminar entitled "Vector Bundles in Algebraic Topology". The latter is my favourite (generalised) homology theory.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is actually a weaker version than the usual "Comparison Theorem" where the top complex is assumed to a complex of projectives rather than a free complex.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ To check how much you forgot over the Winter Vacation: prove that there is a most one pair $(T, f)$ satisfying the universal property from Definition 24.3.

[^48]:    ${ }^{2}$ This terminology is non-standard.

[^49]:    ${ }^{3}$ This is a non-trivial fact!

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is the reason for the name "Tor".

[^51]:    ${ }^{2}$ Pay attention to the difference between the comma and the semi-colon in $H_{n}\left(X, X^{\prime} ; A\right)$ !

[^52]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II. Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ This material originally appeared as Question 6 in the Algebraic Topology I Exam in January 2018! I am including this again here for those of you that either (a) did not take the exam, (b) took the exam but got it wrong, or (c) took the exam, got it right, but then forgot everything thirty seconds after the exam and have absolutely no recollection of it anymore...

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ This argument is implicitly using that $\operatorname{Hom}(\square, A)$ is an additive functor: $d^{2}=\operatorname{Hom}(\partial, A)^{2}=$ $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\partial^{2}, A\right)=\operatorname{Hom}(0, A)=0$; the last equality is only true due to additivity.
    ${ }^{2}$ The name "differential" is used (instead of "coboundary operator") because of differential forms in differential geometry, which gives rise to the de Rham cohomology of a manifold.
    ${ }^{3}$ I will usually use Greek letters for elements of cochain complexes, to help differentiate them from elements of chain complexes.

[^54]:    ${ }^{4}$ Warning: Not everything works in exactly the same way though! For instance, since $\square \otimes B$ is only right exact, tensoring a cochain complex is slightly different to tensoring a chain complex. We will investigate this more next lecture.

[^55]:    ${ }^{5} \mathrm{~A}$ contravariant functor $T: \mathrm{C} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is said to be left exact if (when regarded as a normal functor), $T: \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \mathrm{D}$ is left exact. The notion of right exactness for contravariant functors is defined analogously.

[^56]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ Recall that the difference between $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}$ and $\prod_{\lambda \in \Lambda} A_{\lambda}$ is that an element of the former only has finitely many non-zero elements, meanwhile an element of the latter is just an arbitrary element in the product. If $\Lambda$ is finite the two coincide.

[^58]:    ${ }^{2}$ For the reader unhappy here: set $\tilde{E}_{n}:=E^{-n}=\operatorname{Hom}\left(E_{-n}, \mathbb{Z}\right)$. Then $\tilde{E}_{\bullet}$ is a non-positive free chain complex and $H_{-n}\left(\tilde{E}_{\bullet}\right)=H^{n}\left(E^{\bullet}\right)$. To apply Theorem 25.12 , we work with $\tilde{E}_{\bullet}$, and then at the last stage switch back to $E^{\bullet}$ to get a cohomological statement.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ This analogy doesn't quite work: for instance, a proper ideal is not even a subring.
    ${ }^{2}$ Exercise: Why?

[^60]:    ${ }^{3}$ Our convention implies that only monomials get a degree; an arbitrary polynomial does not have a degree in the sense of graded rings.

[^61]:    ${ }^{1}$ Nevertheless, I thought it was mean to "remind" you of the Acyclic Models Theorem, which most of you have probably forgotten over the winter vacation by immediately starting off with a generalisation. Also, Lemma 27.7 will be helpful in the proof of Theorem 32.1 next lecture.

[^62]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here this notation is slightly awkward, since we will be using $X=Y=\Delta^{n}$, and thus we will be considering the boundary operator $\Delta_{\Delta^{n}, \Delta^{n}}$. Oh well, too late to change it now...
    ${ }^{2}$ This notation was also used in the solution to Problem G.1.

[^63]:    ${ }^{3}$ As in Lecture 13, we use the symbol $\ell_{n}$ to denote the identity map, when thought of as a singular $n$-simplex in $\Delta^{n}$.

[^64]:    ${ }^{4}$ Thank you "asdf" for correcting me here! This implies that Theorem 32.8 does not hold on the cochain level.

[^65]:    ${ }^{1}$ That is, an isomorphism in the category of vector spaces.

[^66]:    ${ }^{2}$ In general this is not a group- $H$ need not be a normal subgroup.

[^67]:    ${ }^{3}$ More precisely: we already left as an exercise.

[^68]:    ${ }^{4}$ The only differences are that we are working in cohomology, and that the map $\Phi^{n}(*): \mathcal{H}^{n}(*) \rightarrow \mathcal{K}^{n}(*)$ needs to be explicitly checked to be an isomorphism in all degrees-in the setting of Theorem 21.12 this was automatic, since we were working with actual homology theories.

[^69]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II. Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.

[^70]:    ${ }^{1}$ That is, $X$ can be contracted to a basepoint by a homotopy that fixes the basepoint. Thanks to O. Edtmair for simplfying this argument.

[^71]:    ${ }^{2}$ Yes, this is one example where the terminology is somehow "backwards". . . Don't blame me!

[^72]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the exam, I will only expect you to know how to prove this in the finite-dimensional case!

[^73]:    ${ }^{2}$ Exercise: Why?

[^74]:    ${ }^{3} H$ int: the name should give you a clue!

[^75]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ Any $n$-dimensional topological manifold can be embedded in $\mathbb{R}^{2 n+1}$. Any $n$-dimensional smooth topological manifold can be embedded in $\mathbb{R}^{2 n}$. These (difficult) results are usually known as the Whitney Embedding Theorems.

[^76]:    ${ }^{2}$ Yes, I agree this terminology seems backwards... But that's just life.

[^77]:    ${ }^{3}$ Exercise: Why? (If you can't do the exercise, fear not: we will go over this in detail next lecture.)

[^78]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here we are using the point-set topological fact that manifolds are always normal topological spaces.

[^79]:    2 "Orientable" means: a fundamental class exists. "Oriented" means: we have chosen a fundamental class.

[^80]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ A topological space $Y$ is locally compact if each point has a compact neighbourhood.
    ${ }^{2}$ A topological space $Y$ is locally contractible if each point has a local basis of contractible neighbourhoods.

[^81]:    ${ }^{3}$ I did initially try and call this category by the more "logical" name CompSubsetsENR ${ }^{2}$ but then decided that was stupid and just went with K...

[^82]:    ${ }^{1}$ Actually the picture is a little misleading, since in order to apply the Hexagon Lemma one first transforms this hexagon into a different hexagon...

[^83]:    ${ }^{1}$ That is, the coproduct of two objects exists.

[^84]:    ${ }^{2}$ This is because if we work in the category Groups, a morphism between two groups is necessarily a homomorphism. Thus if $G$ is a group object in Groups then in particular the group inversion map $\theta: G \rightarrow G$ is a homomorphism. Since $\theta(g h)=(g h)^{-1}=h^{-1} g^{-1}$, if $\theta(g h)=\theta(g) \theta(h)$ for all $g, h$ then $G$ is abelian.

[^85]:    ${ }^{3}$ This means that $\operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ is a group for each $C \in \operatorname{obj}(\mathrm{G})$, and if $f: A \rightarrow B$ is a morphism in C then $\operatorname{Hom}(f, G): \operatorname{Hom}(B, G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(A, G)$ is a group homomorphism.

[^86]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology II.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ We use this notation instead of the more common $C(Y, X)$ or $C^{0}(Y, X)$ since these are too easy to confuse with the singular (co)chain complex!
    ${ }^{2}$ This means that the compact-open topology is the smallest topology containing all sets of this form.

[^87]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thanks to Raccoon for this computation!

[^88]:    ${ }^{2}$ This equation looks contravariant at first sight, but this is just due to our convention that $w * z$ is the path that first follows $w$ and then follows $z$.

[^89]:    ${ }^{1}$ Warning: in general $\bar{u}_{t} \neq \overline{u_{t}}$, as the latter is the path $s \mapsto u(t(1-s))$.

[^90]:    ${ }^{2}$ Warning: this is not quite the same thing as the "mapping cone" from Definition 27.2, which was concerned with chain maps between chain complexes. The two concepts are related though.

[^91]:    ${ }^{1}$ I would normally call an $n$-cell $E$ and the characteristic map $g$, but alas, both of those letters are taken...

[^92]:    ${ }^{2}$ Also we didn't prove fibre bundles over paracompact spaces are fibrations!

[^93]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ Recall a group homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow H$ between two groups $G$ and $H$ is called trivial if $\phi(g)=1$ for all $g \in G$, where 1 is the identity element in $H$.

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    ${ }^{1}$ This space is often called a "bouquet of circles".

[^96]:    ${ }^{1}$ This space is often called a "bouquet of circles"!

[^97]:    Will J. Merry and Berit Singer, Algebraic Topology I.
    Last modified: Sept 01, 2018.
    ${ }^{1}$ This is called the dimension axiom.
    ${ }^{2}$ In general, if $\left\{G_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a collection of groups, an element of $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$ is a tuple ( $g_{\lambda}$ ) where all but finitely many of the $g_{\lambda}$ are equal to the identity.

[^98]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thanks to "asdf" for pointing this out! The group $(\mathbb{Q},+)$ (which is not finitely generated) is a counterexample since it has zero torsion subgroup but is not free.
    ${ }^{2}$ This is called the dimension axiom.

[^99]:    ${ }^{3}$ In general, if $\left\{G_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\right\}$ is a collection of groups, an element of $\bigoplus_{\lambda \in \Lambda} G_{\lambda}$ is a tuple $\left(g_{\lambda}\right)$ where all but finitely many of the $g_{\lambda}$ are equal to the identity.

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    ${ }^{1}$ This result has several interesting physical connotations. Taking $n=2$, this implies that a map of the earth cannot be drawn (homeomorphically) onto a page of an atlas. Alternatively, consider the function $f:$ the earth $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by $f$ (a place) $=$ (temperature at that place, pressure at that place). Then there exists a pair of points on opposite sides of the world with the same temperature and pressure.

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[^103]:    ${ }^{2}$ Here $\bar{R}$ is the smallest closed equivalence relation containing $R$. This may not be equal to the actual topological closure of $R$, as the latter may not be transitive.

[^104]:    ${ }^{1}$ We will eventually be able to compute the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$, but not until Lecture 21 .

[^105]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is a general fact about closed maps: if $h: X \rightarrow Y$ is a closed map between two topological spaces, $W \subset Y$, and $U \subset X$ is an open subset of $X$ with $h^{-1}(W) \subset U$ then there exists an open set $V \subset Y$ with $W \subset V$ and $h^{-1}(V) \subset U$. Indeed, take

    $$
    V:=Y \backslash h(X \backslash U)
    $$

    Since $U$ is open, $X \backslash U$ is closed, and hence as $h$ is closed so is $h(X \backslash U)$. Thus $V$ is open. Since $h^{-1}(W) \subset U$ we have $W \cap h(X \backslash U)=\emptyset$, and thus $W \subset V$. Moreover $h^{-1}(V)=X \backslash h^{-1}(h(X \backslash U)) \subset X \backslash(X \backslash U)=U$ as required.
    ${ }^{2}$ We will eventually be able to compute the homology of $\mathbb{R} P^{n}$, but not until Lecture 21.

[^106]:    ${ }^{2}$ This result is a generalisation of Cayley's Theorem from group theory: that every group $G$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group acting on $G$. Meta-exercise: Make this statement precise.

[^107]:    ${ }^{2}$ This result is a generalisation of Cayley's Theorem from group theory: that every group $G$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of the symmetric group acting on $G$. Meta-exercise: Make this statement precise.

[^108]:    ${ }^{1}$ This follows from standard covering space theory that we will cover later on in the semester.

[^109]:    ${ }^{2}$ This is again a cochain complex, since $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \square)$ is a covariant functor.

[^110]:    ${ }^{1}$ As with the terminology "short free resolution", this is not standard.

[^111]:    ${ }^{2}$ We will sketch the proof of this in Lecture 46, cf. Corollary 46.11. However for vector bundles this result is obvious: the map $s: X \rightarrow E$ defined by $x \mapsto 0_{x}$ satisfies $p \circ s=\operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $s \circ p \simeq \operatorname{id}_{E}$. Similarly if we start with a sphere bundle $S^{n} \rightarrow E \rightarrow X$ and then form the disk bundle $B^{n+1} \rightarrow Z \rightarrow X$ (following the method in Remark 34.16) that has the given sphere bundle as its boundary sphere bundle, then again the result is obvious, as there is a section $s: X \rightarrow Z$ that sends $x$ to the point in $Z_{x}$ corresponding to $E_{x} \times\{0\}$.

[^112]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Definition 35.9 for an explanation of this notation.

[^113]:    ${ }^{2}$ We will sketch the proof of this in Lecture 46, cf. Corollary 46.11. However for vector bundles this result is obvious: the map $s: X \rightarrow E$ defined by $x \mapsto 0_{x}$ satisfies $p \circ s=\operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $s \circ p \simeq \operatorname{id}_{E}$. Similarly if we start with a sphere bundle $S^{n} \rightarrow E \rightarrow X$ and then form the disk bundle $B^{n+1} \rightarrow Z \rightarrow X$ (following the method in Remark 34.16) that has the given sphere bundle as its boundary sphere bundle, then again the result is obvious, as there is a section $s: X \rightarrow Z$ that sends $x$ to the point in $Z_{x}$ corresponding to $E_{x} \times\{0\}$.

[^114]:    ${ }^{1}$ Warning: The smash product really does depend on the basepoint. For instance, $I \wedge I$ is homeomorphic to $I \times I$ if we choose $0 \in I$ as the basepoint in both factors, but if we choose $1 / 2$ as the basepoint then it is homeomorphic to the wedge of four copies of $I \times I$.

[^115]:    ${ }^{2}$ Since $X$ is locally compact and Hausdorff, $X^{\infty}$ is compact and Hausdorff.

[^116]:    ${ }^{1}$ Warning: The smash product really does depend on the basepoint. For instance, $I \wedge I$ is homeomorphic to $I \times I$ if we choose $0 \in I$ as the basepoint in both factors, but if we choose $1 / 2$ as the basepoint then it is homeomorphic to the wedge of four copies of $I \times I$.

[^117]:    ${ }^{1}$ No, you may not simply quote the Hurewicz Theorem 46.1!

[^118]:    ${ }^{1}$ No, you may not simply quote the Hurewicz Theorem 46.1!

