

Introduction to Algebraic Topology

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Introduction

In calculus, you have studied \mathbb{R}^n , $n \in \mathbb{N}$, as well as functions $f : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^\ell$, $k, \ell \in \mathbb{N}$. You have studied notions such as neighbourhood of a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, as well as convergence and continuity of a function f at a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$. For this study, you have used the Euclidean metric.

For instance if $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we say that f is continuous at $x \in \mathbb{R}$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ such that if $|x - x_0| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$.

We used the metric $d : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with $(x, y) \mapsto |x - y|$. In general the Euclidean metric $d : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$.

In topology, we study notions such as neighbourhood of a point $x \in X$, convergence, continuity for a general set X . For this study a metric is not necessary. What we will use is open sets in X .

In algebraic topology, we use abstract algebra to study topological properties.

1 Topology

1.1. Topological spaces and continuous functions

1.1.1. Topological spaces

Consider a set X and $\mathcal{P}(X) := \{U \mid U \subseteq X\}$.

Definition 1.1 A *topology* on X is a collection $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that

1. $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$.
2. If $U_i \in \mathcal{T} \forall i \in I$, then $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$.
3. If $U_i \in \mathcal{T}, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, then $\bigcap_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$.

(X, \mathcal{T}) is called a *topological space* (sometimes we will only write X).

$U \subseteq X$ is called *open*, if $U \in \mathcal{T}$.

$U \subseteq X$ is called *closed*, if $X \setminus U \in \mathcal{T}$.

Example 1.2

1. X some set.
 - $\mathcal{T}_d = \{U \mid U \subseteq X\}$ *discrete topology*.
 - $\mathcal{T}_t = \{\emptyset, X\}$ *trivial topology*.
2. $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$. Then the three collections
 - $\{\emptyset, X\}$
 - $\{\emptyset, \{x_1\}, \{x_1, x_2\}, X\}$
 - $\{\emptyset, \{x_2\}, \{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, x_3\}, X\}$are topologies on X .
3. X is a set. Then the collections
 - $\mathcal{T}_f = \{U \subseteq X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is finite or } X \setminus U = X\}$ *finite topology*.
 - $\mathcal{T}_c = \{U \subseteq X \mid X \setminus U \text{ is countable or } X \setminus U = X\}$ *countable topology*.are topologies on X . [Homework]

Definition 1.3 Suppose that \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are topologies on X . If $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$, then \mathcal{T}' is called *finer* than \mathcal{T} . If $\mathcal{T}' \not\supseteq \mathcal{T}$, then \mathcal{T}' is called *strictly finer* than \mathcal{T} . If $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$ or $\mathcal{T} \supseteq \mathcal{T}'$, then \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' are *comparable*.

Definition 1.4 Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a topological space and $A \subseteq X$. The *interior* of A is

$$\text{int}A := \bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{T}, U \subseteq A} U.$$

The *closure* of A is

$$\bar{A} := \bigcap_{X \setminus U \in \mathcal{T}, A \subseteq U} U.$$

Basis for a topology

Definition 1.5 A *basis* \mathcal{B} for a topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is a collection \mathcal{B} of open subsets X (i.e. $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$), such that $\forall U \in \mathcal{T} \exists \{B_i\}_{i \in I}, B_i \in \mathcal{B}, \forall i \in I$, with $U = \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i$.

Remark 1.6 A basis is not unique.

Properties: \mathcal{B} basis for (X, \mathcal{T}) then \mathcal{B} has the following properties

1. $\forall x \in X \exists B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$.
 PROOF $X \in \mathcal{T}$ and \mathcal{B} is a basis $\implies X = \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i, B_i \in \mathcal{B}, i \in I$. So $x \in B_j$ for some $j \in I$.
2. If $x \in B_1 \cap B_2, B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B}$ then $\exists B_3 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $x \in B_3 \subseteq B_1 \cap B_2$.
 PROOF $B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathcal{T} \implies B_1, B_2 \in \mathcal{T} \implies B_1 \cap B_2 \in \mathcal{T} \implies B_1 \cap B_2 = \bigcup_{i \in I} B_i, \dots$

Conversely: If a collection \mathcal{B} of subsets of X satisfies properties 1. and 2. then there is a unique topology \mathcal{T} for which \mathcal{B} is a basis.

\mathcal{T} is called the topology generated by \mathcal{B} and it consists of all unions of elements of \mathcal{B} .

PROOF We prove that \mathcal{T} is a topology

1. $X \in \mathcal{T}$?
 Property 1 \implies if $x \in X$ then $\exists B_x \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B_x \subseteq X$. Therefore $X = \bigcup_{x \in X} B_x$, i.e. $X \in \mathcal{T}$.
 $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$?
 \emptyset is the empty union of elements in \mathcal{B} , so $\emptyset \in \mathcal{T}$.
2. If $U_i \in \mathcal{T} \forall i \in I$, does $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$?
 $U_i \in \mathcal{T} \implies U_i = \bigcup_{j \in I} B_{ij}$. So $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} \bigcup_{j \in J} B_{ij} \in \mathcal{T}$.
3. If $U_i \in \mathcal{T}$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, is $\bigcap_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$?
 We will show that if $U_1, U_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ then $U_1 \cap U_2 \in \mathcal{T}$.
 $U_1 = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda, U_2 = \bigcup_{k \in K} B_k$. Consider $x \in U_1 \cap U_2$. Then $x \in B_{\lambda_x}$ and $x \in B_{k_x}$, for some $\lambda_x \in \Lambda$ and $k_x \in K$. Thus $x \in B_{\lambda_x} \cap B_{k_x} \implies$ [by property 2.] $\exists B_x \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B_x \subseteq B_{\lambda_x} \cap B_{k_x} \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2$.
 Therefore $U_1 \cap U_2 = \bigcup_{x \in U_1 \cap U_2} B_x \in \mathcal{T}$. ■

Example 1.10

1. $X = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a < b\}$. \mathcal{B} satisfies properties 1. and 2. therefore it generates a topology on \mathbb{R} . This is the *standard topology* on \mathbb{R} .
2. $X = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}, a < b\}$
 \mathcal{B} satisfies properties 1. and 2.
 Claim [Homework]: The topology \mathcal{T} generated by \mathcal{B} is in fact the standard topology on \mathbb{R} .

Lemma 1.11 Let $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'$ be bases for the topologies \mathcal{T} and \mathcal{T}' on X . Then the following statements are equivalent:

1. $\mathcal{T}' \supseteq \mathcal{T}$.
2. $\forall x \in X, \forall B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$ there is $B' \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B' \subseteq B$.

PROOF

1. \Rightarrow 2.

Consider $x \in X$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ with $x \in B$. $B \in \mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}' \implies B \in \mathcal{T}' \implies B = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B'_\lambda, B'_\lambda \in \mathcal{B}'$.

So $x \in B$, therefore $x \in B'_\lambda$, for some $\lambda_x \in \Lambda$. i.e. we have $B'_{\lambda_x} \in \mathcal{B}'$, such that $x \in B'_{\lambda_x} \subseteq B$.

2. \Rightarrow 1.

Consider $U \in \mathcal{T}$ and $x \in U$. Then $x \in U = \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} B_\lambda, B_\lambda \in \mathcal{B}$. That is $x \in B_{\lambda_x}$, for some $\lambda_x \in \Lambda$. 2. implies that there exists $B'_{\lambda_x} \in \mathcal{B}'$ such that $x \in B'_{\lambda_x} \subseteq B_{\lambda_x}$.

Then $U \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in U} B'_{\lambda_x} \subseteq U \implies U = \bigcup_{x \in U} B'_{\lambda_x} \implies U \in \mathcal{T}'$. Therefore $\mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}'$. ■

Product topology

Let $(X, \mathcal{T}_X), (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ be two topological spaces. The *product topology* is the topology with basis the collection $\mathcal{B} = \{U \times V \mid U \in \mathcal{T}_X, V \in \mathcal{T}_Y\}$.

Metric topology

X is a set.

Definition 1.13 A *metric* on this set is a function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with

1. $d(x, y) \geq 0$, and $d(x, y) = 0$ iff $x = y$.
2. $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z) \forall x, y, z \in X$.
3. $d(x, y) = d(y, x), \forall x, y \in X$.

We call the set $B_d(x, \varepsilon) = \{y \in X \mid d(y, x) < \varepsilon\}$ the ε -ball centered at x .

$\{B_d(x, \varepsilon)\}_{x \in X, \varepsilon > 0}$ is a basis for a topology on X , the *metric topology*.

Example 1.14 \mathbb{R} with the standard topology ($\mathcal{T}_{\text{stand}}$).

Consider $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^2$.

Claim: The product topology on \mathbb{R}^2 and the metric topology are the same.

For this, one has to show

- $\mathcal{T}_{\text{pr}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{m}}$
By lemma 1.11 one has to show $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \forall B_{\text{pr}} \in \mathcal{B}_{\text{pr}}, x \in B_{\text{pr}}, \exists B_{\text{m}} \in \mathcal{B}_{\text{m}}$ such that $x \in B_{\text{m}} \subseteq B_{\text{pr}}$.
- $\mathcal{T}_{\text{m}} \subseteq \mathcal{T}_{\text{pr}}$
- ...

Subspace topology

Definition 1.15 (X, \mathcal{T}) is a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. The collection $\mathcal{T}_Y := \{U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathcal{T}\}$ is a topology on Y , called the *subspace topology*.

Example 1.16 $Y = [0, 1] \cup \{2\} \subseteq X = \mathbb{R}$ with the standard topology.

Then the sets

- (a, b) , with $a, b \in [0, 1]$,
- $[0, b)$, with $b \in [0, 1]$,
- $(a, 1]$, with $a \in [0, 1]$,
- $\{2\}$,
- $[0, 1]$

are open sets in the subspace Y .

1.1.2. Continuous functions

Definition 1.17 Let $(X, \mathcal{T}_X), (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ be topological spaces and $f : X \rightarrow Y$. f is called *continuous* if $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{T}_X \forall V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$.

Claim $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (with standard topology). The ε - δ definition of continuity is equivalent to the definition above.

PROOF

“ \Leftarrow ” Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous with the definition above.

Consider $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then $V = (f(x_0) - \varepsilon, f(x_0) + \varepsilon) \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{stand}}$, so $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{T}_{\text{stand}}$ by our definition.

Now $x_0 \in f^{-1}(V)$, so there exists $(a, b) \in \mathcal{B}_{\text{stand}}$ with $x_0 \in (a, b) \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$.

Take $\delta = \min\{x_0 - a, b - x_0\}$. Clearly $\delta > 0$. Then $|x - x_0| < \delta \implies x \in (a, b) \subseteq f^{-1}(V) \implies f(x) \in V$

$\implies f(x) \in (f(x) - \varepsilon, f(x) + \varepsilon) \implies |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon. \quad \blacksquare$

Theorem 1.19 Let X, Y be topological spaces and $f : X \rightarrow Y$. The following are equivalent

1. f is continuous.
2. for every closed subset of Y the inverse image of it is a closed subset of X .

PROOF

1. \Rightarrow 2.

Let B be closed in Y , then $X \setminus f^{-1}(B) = f^{-1}(Y \setminus B)$ which is open in X , i.e. $f^{-1}(B)$ is closed in X .

2. \Rightarrow 1.

...

Lemma 1.21 (the pasting lemma)

Let X, Y be topological spaces and A, B closed subsets of X with $X = A \cup B$. Let $f : A \rightarrow Y, g : B \rightarrow Y$ be continuous with $f(x) = g(x) \forall x \in A \cap B$. Then $h : X \rightarrow Y$ with

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in A \\ g(x) & x \in B \end{cases}$$

is continuous.

PROOF Let C be a closed subset of Y . Then $h^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(C) \cup g^{-1}(C)$ where $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in A and $g^{-1}(C)$ is closed in B .

(a) $f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in $A \implies f^{-1}(C) = A \cap G$, where G closed in X .

(b) $g^{-1}(C)$ is closed in $B \implies g^{-1}(C) = B \cap H$, where H closed in X .

(a) $\implies f^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X ,

(b) $\implies g^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X .

$\implies h^{-1}(C) = f^{-1}(C) \cup g^{-1}(C)$ is closed in X . ■

Definition 1.23 Let X, Y be topological spaces. $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called a *homeomorphism* if f is bijective, and f, f^{-1} are continuous.

Bijjective correspondence not only between X and Y but also between the collection of open sets in X and the collection of open sets Y .

Thus any property of X that is expressed in terms of its open subsets yields via f the corresponding properties for Y . Such a property is called a *topological property*.

Quotient topology

Example 1.24 Torus

Definition 1.25 Let X, Y be topological spaces, $p : X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective map. The map p is called a *quotient map* if a subset U of Y is open in Y , if and only if $p^{-1}(U)$ is open in X .

Definition 1.26 Let X be a topological space, Y be some set and $p : X \rightarrow Y$ a surjective map. The *quotient topology* on Y induced by p is defined as follows:
A subset $U \subseteq Y$ is open if and only if $p^{-1}(U) \subseteq X$ is open.

The fact that this is a topology follows from $p^{-1}(\emptyset) = \emptyset, p^{-1}(Y) = X, p^{-1}(\cup_{a \in J} U_a) = \cup_{a \in J} p^{-1}(U_a), p^{-1}(\cap_{i=1}^n U_i) = \cap_{i=1}^n p^{-1}(U_i)$.

Remark 1.27 The quotient topology on Y is the finest topology that makes p continuous.

Example 1.28

1. $X = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid 0 \leq x \leq 2\pi, 0 \leq y \leq 1\} = [0, 2\pi] \times [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$. $Y = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1\}$.

$f : X \rightarrow Y$, with $(x, y) \mapsto (\cos x, \sin x, y)$.

f is surjective. Using f we can define the quotient topology in Y .

2. $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} x_1 & x > 0 \\ x_2 & x < 0 \\ x_3 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

The quotient topology on $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ induced by p is $\{\emptyset, \{x_1\}, \{x_2\}, \{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}\}$

1.2. Conectedness & Compactness

In calculus you have studies functions $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and you have proved three theorems for continuous functions $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

1. Intermediate Value Theorem (IVT),
2. Maximus Value Theorem (MVT),
3. Uniform Continuity Theorem (UCT).

These theorems rely on the continuity of f and some topological properties of $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$. In particular IVT relies on the connectedness of $[a, b]$. MVT and VCT rely on the compactness of $[a, b]$.

1.2.1. Connected spaces

Definition 1.29 Consider (X, \mathcal{T}) topological space. A *separation* of X is a pair U, V where $U, V \in \mathcal{T}, U, V \neq \emptyset, U \cap V = \emptyset$, and $X = U \cup V$. X is called *connected* if there is no separation of X .

Remark 1.30 Connectedness is a topological property.

Example 1.31

1. $\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{T}_{\text{stand}}, \mathbb{Q} = ((-\infty, a) \cap \mathbb{Q}) \cup ((a, \infty) \cap \mathbb{Q}), a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.
2. $\mathbb{R}, [a, b], [a, b), (a, b], (a, b)$ are connected.

Claim: X is connected iff the only subsets of X that are both open and closed are \emptyset and X .

PROOF

“ \Rightarrow ” Suppose, that $A \subseteq X$, $A \neq \emptyset$, $A \neq X$, and $A \in \mathcal{T}_X$, $X \setminus A \in \mathcal{T}_X$. Then $X = A \cup (X \setminus A) \implies A, X \setminus A$ is separation of X , contradiction.

“ \Leftarrow ” If U, V is a separation of X . Then $U \in \mathcal{T}_X$, $X \setminus U = V \in \mathcal{T}_X$, $U, X \setminus U \neq \emptyset$, $U \cap (X \setminus U) = \emptyset$. $V \in \mathcal{T}_X$, $X \setminus V \in \mathcal{T}_X$, $V \neq \emptyset$, $V \neq X$, contradiction.

Therefore X is connected. ■

Lemma 1.33 If C, D are a separation of X and Y is a connected subspace of X , then $Y \subseteq C$ or $Y \subseteq D$.

PROOF $C \cap Y, D \cap Y$ are open subsets of Y . In addition $(C \cap Y) \cap (D \cap Y) = \emptyset$. If $C \cap Y$ and $D \cap Y$ were both nonempty, then they would form a separation of Y . But Y is connected. So $C \cap D = \emptyset$, or $D \cap Y = \emptyset$.

$\implies Y \subseteq C$ or $Y \subseteq D$. ■

Theorem 1.35 Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ be connected subspaces of X and $p \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$. Then $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ is connected subspace of X .

PROOF Assume that $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ is not connected, and $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = C \cup D$, C, D a separation of $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$. Then $p \in C \cup D$ and WLOG we can assume that $p \in C$. A_i is a connected subspace.

\implies [Lemma] $A_i \subseteq C$ or $A_i \subseteq D$ for any $i \in I$. $p \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$.

$\implies p \in A_i \forall i \in I$.

$\implies A_i \subseteq C \forall i \in I$.

$\implies \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \subseteq C$.

$\implies D = \emptyset$. Contradiction. ■

Theorem 1.37 Let A be a connected subspace of X and $A \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A}$. Then B is also connected.

PROOF Assume that C, D is a separation of B . By Lemma $A \subseteq C$ or $A \subseteq D$. WLOG $A \subseteq C$.

$A \subseteq C \implies \overline{A} \subseteq \overline{C}$.

$D \subseteq B \subseteq \overline{A} \subseteq \overline{C} \implies D \subseteq \overline{C}$.

Claim: $D \cap \overline{C} = \emptyset$.

Proof: The closure of C in B is $\overline{C} \cap B$, where \overline{C} is the closure of C in X . $C = \overline{C} \cap B = \overline{C} \cap (C \cup D) = (\overline{C} \cap C) \cup (\overline{C} \cap D) = C \cup (\overline{C} \cap D)$.

$\implies \overline{C} \cap D = \emptyset$.

We have that $D \subseteq \overline{C}$ and we showed that $D \cap \overline{C} = \emptyset$. Therefore $D = \emptyset$, contradiction. There is no separation of B , i.e. B is connected. ■

Theorem 1.39 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous function between topological spaces X and Y . If X is connected, then $f(X)$ is connected.

PROOF Consider $\tilde{f} : X \rightarrow f(X), x \mapsto f(x)$. Then \tilde{f} is continuous. Indeed, if U open in $f(X)$, then $U = f(X) \cap V$ for some V open in Y . $\tilde{f}^{-1}(U) = \tilde{f}^{-1}(f(X) \cap V) = \tilde{f}^{-1}(f(X)) \cap \tilde{f}^{-1}(V) = X \cap f^{-1}(V) = f^{-1}(V)$ open in X .
 Suppose that $f(X) = C \cup D, C, D$ separation of $f(X)$. Then $\tilde{f}^{-1}(C), \tilde{f}^{-1}(D)$ are open subsets of X , disjoint and nonempty and $X = \tilde{f}^{-1}(C) \cup \tilde{f}^{-1}(D)$. Contradiction (X connected). ■

Theorem 1.41 *A finite (cartesian) product of connected spaces (in the product topology) is connected.*

PROOF We start by proving that if X and Y are connected, then $X \times Y$ is connected. Consider $a \times b$ in $X \times Y, X \times b, X \times Y$. $X \times b$ is connected. Similarly $x \times Y$ is connected for any $x \in X$. As a result, $T_x = (X \times b) \cup (x \times Y)$ is also connected (by previous theorem, since $x \times b \in (X \times b) \cap (x \times Y)$).
 Therefore, $\cup_{x \in X} T_x$ is connected, as the union of connected subspaces, T_x with common point $a \times b$. Now $X \times Y = \cup_{x \in X} T_x$, therefore $X \times Y$ is connected.
 By induction, the general proof follows. ■

Theorem 1.43 (IVT)
Let $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function and X be a connected space. If $a, b \in X$ and $r \in (f(a), f(b))$, then $\exists c \in X$ with $f(c) = r$.

PROOF $A = f(X) \cap (-\infty, r), B = f(X) \cap (r, \infty)$. A, B are open in $f(X), A \cap B = \emptyset, A \neq \emptyset, B \neq \emptyset$ (as $f(a) \in A, f(b) \in B$).
 If $r \notin f(X)$, then $f(X) = A \cup B$, i.e. A, B is a separation of $f(X)$. However $f(X)$ is connected, because X is connected and f is continuous. I.e. such a separation cannot exist. I.e. $r \in f(X)$, that is, $\exists c \in X$ such that $f(c) = r$. ■

Remark 1.45 One can prove an even more generalised form of IVT, where instead of \mathbb{R} one considers any ordered set.

Definition 1.46 Let X be a topological space and $x, y \in X$. A *path* in X from x to y is a continuous map $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ with $f(a) = x$ and $f(b) = y$. X is called *path connected*, if every pair of points in X can be joined by a path in x .

Claim: If X is path connected, then X is connected.
 PROOF Suppose $X = C \cup D, C, D$ a separation of X . Consider $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$ a path. $f([a, b])$ is connected, so $f([a, b]) \subseteq C$ or $f([a, b]) \subseteq D$. This implies that there is no path in X joining a point in C to a point in D . $\implies X$ not path connected, contradiction. ■

Example 1.48 (Topologist's sine curve \overline{S})
 Consider $S = \{(x, \sin \frac{1}{x}) \mid 0 < x \leq 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$.
 $f : (0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, x \mapsto (x, \sin \frac{1}{x})$. f is continuous, $(0, 1]$ is connected, therefore $S = f((0, 1])$ is connected.
 $\overline{S} = S \cup \{0 \times [-1, 1]\}$. S is connected $\implies \overline{S}$ is connected.

Claim: \overline{S} is not path connected.
 Proof: Suppose $f : [a, c] \rightarrow \overline{S}$ continuous with $f(a) = (0, 0)$, and $f(c) \in S$. $f^{-1}(0 \times [-1, 1])$ is closed in $[a, c]$ therefore it has a largest element b . Then $f(b) \in 0 \times [-1, 1]$

and $f((b, c]) \in S$. Let $f(t) = (x(t), y(t))$, $t \in [a, c]$. Then $x(a) = 0$, $x(t) > 0$ and $y(t) = \sin \frac{1}{x(t)}$ for $t > b$. Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, choose u_n with $0 < u_n < x(b + \frac{1}{n})$ such that $\sin \frac{1}{u_n} = (\pm 1)^n$. By the IVT there exists $t_n \in (b, b + \frac{1}{n})$ with $x(t_n) = u_n$. Then $t_n \rightarrow b$ but $y(t_n)$ does not converge. Contradicting the continuity of f .

Remarks on yesterday's example

- If $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $S \subseteq X$, then $\overline{S} = \{\text{limits of convergent sequences of points in } S\}$. More generally, this is true if X is first countable, e.g. X is a metric space.
- If $f : [a, c] \rightarrow \overline{S}$ continuous. Of $t \in [a, c] \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, with $t_n \rightarrow b$, $b \in [a, c]$, then $f(t_n) \rightarrow f(b)$.
In general, continuous implies sequentially continuous.

Definition 1.49 Given a topological space X , define an equivalence relation \sim on X , by setting $x \sim y$ ($x, y \in X$) if there exists a connected subspace of X with $x, y \in Y$. The equivalence classes are called the **connected component** of X .
Define another equivalence relation \sim by setting $x \sim y$ ($x, y \in X$) if there is a path in X from x to y . The equivalence classes are called **path components** of X .

1.2.2. Compactness

Definition 1.50 A topological space X is called **compact** if for any open covering $\{U_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ of X , i.e. U_λ open $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda$ and $X = \cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} U_\lambda$, there exist finitely many $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \Lambda$ such that $X = \cup_{i=1}^n U_{\lambda_i}$.

Compactness is a topological property.

Example 1.51

1. \mathbb{R} is not compact, $\mathbb{R} = \cup_{r \in \mathbb{R}} (r - \frac{1}{2}, r + \frac{1}{2})$, or $\mathbb{R} = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (n, n + 2)$.
2. $(a, b]$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ is not compact. $(a, b] = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (a + \frac{1}{n}, b]$.
3. Subspaces of X with finitely many points are obviously compact.
4. $X = \{0\} \cup \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is compact. Consider $\{U_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ an open covering of X and consider $\lambda_0 \in \Lambda$ with $0 \in U_{\lambda_0}$. Then there exists N_{λ_0} such that $\frac{1}{n} \in U_{\lambda_0} \forall n \geq N_{\lambda_0}$.
For each $n \in \{1, \dots, N_{\lambda_0} - 1\}$ choose U_{λ_n} containing it. Then $\cup_{i=0}^{N_{\lambda_0}} U_{\lambda_i} = X$.

Order topology

Definition 1.52 A relation C on a set X is an **order relation** if it has the following properties:

1. If $x, y \in X$, $x \neq y$ then xCY or yCx .
2. For no $x \in X$ does xCx hold.
3. If xCy, yCz then xCz , $x, y, z \in X$.

Example 1.53 $X = \mathbb{R}, C = <$.

If X is a set with an order relation $<$ and $a, b \in X, a < b$.

$$\begin{aligned} (a, b) &= \{x \in X \mid a < x < b\}, \\ (a, b] &= \{x \in X \mid a < x \leq b\}, \\ [a, b) &= \{x \in X \mid a \leq x < b\}, \\ [a, b] &= \{x \in X \mid a \leq x \leq b\}. \end{aligned}$$

Definition 1.54 X is a set with an order relation and more than two elements. Let \mathcal{B} be the collection of all sets of the following types:

- $(a, b), a, b \in X,$
- $(a, b_0], a \in X, b_0$ the largest element (if any) in $X,$
- $[a_0, b), b \in X, a_0$ the smallest element (if any) in $X,$

\mathcal{B} is a basis for a topology, and we call the topology generated by \mathcal{B} the *order topology*.

Example 1.55 \mathbb{R}^2 with the dictionary order, i.e. $a \times b < c \times d$ if $a < c$ or $a = c$ and $b < d$. $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ has no largest or smallest element. [Graph .. open sets ...]

An ordered set X has the *least upper bound property*, if every subset of X that is bounded above has a least upper bound.

Theorem 1.56 *Let X an ordered set with the least upper bound property. Then any closed interval $[a, b]$ in X is compact.*

[Without proof]

Corollary 1.57 In \mathbb{R} ($\mathcal{T}_{\text{stand}} = \mathcal{T}_{\text{ordered}}$), $[a, b]$ is compact for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 1.58 *A closed subspace Y of a compact space X is compact.*

PROOF Consider $\{U_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ an open covering of Y . Then $U_\lambda = Y \cap U'_\lambda$ for some U'_λ open in $X, \forall \lambda \in \Lambda$. Denote $U' = \{U'_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. Now $U'' = U' \cup \{X \setminus Y\}$ is an open covering of X . X is compact, so a finite subcollection of U'' covers X . If this contains $X \setminus Y$, discard it. If not I leave the subcollection unchanged. What we obtain is a finite subcollection of U' , say $\{U'_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ with $Y \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n U'_{\lambda_i}$. This implies, that $\{U_{\lambda_i}\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ is a finite subcovering of Y . ■

Theorem 1.60 *X compact topological spaces. Y topological space and $f : X \rightarrow Y$ continuous. Then $f(X)$ is compact.*

PROOF Let $U = \{U_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ be an open covering of $f(X)$. Then $\forall \lambda \in \Lambda U_\lambda = U'_\lambda \cap f(X)$ for some U'_λ open in Y . Denote $U' = \{U'_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$. $\{f^{-1}(U'_\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ is an open covering of X . X is compact, hence it has a finite subcovering $\{f^{-1}(U'_{\lambda_i})\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$. Then $\{U_{\lambda_i}\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ is a finite covering of X . ■

Theorem 1.62 *The product of finitely many compact spaces is compact.*

[Proof omitted]

Theorem 1.63 *(Extreme value theorem)*

X is a compact topological space and Y is an ordered set in the order topology. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous then $\exists c, d \in X$ with $f(c) \leq f(x) \leq f(d) \forall x \in X$.

PROOF X is compact and f is continuous, so $f(X)$ is compact. Define $(-\infty, y) := \{a \in Y \mid a < y\}$ and note that if Y has no smallest element, then $(-\infty, y) = \bigcup_{a < y} (a, y)$ and if Y has a smallest element a_0 , then $(-\infty, y) = [a_0, y)$.

$(-\infty, y)$ is an open set in Y .

If $f(X)$ has no largest element, then $\{(-\infty, y) \cap f(X)\}_{y \in f(X)}$ is open covering of $f(X)$. Since $f(X)$ is compact, there exist $y_i, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, such that $\{(-\infty, y_i) \cap f(X)\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ covers $f(X)$. If $y_j = \max\{y_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$, then $y_j \in f(X)$, but $y_j \notin \{(-\infty, y_i) \cap f(X)\}, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, contradiction, since $\{(-\infty, y_i) \cap f(X)\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ is an open covering of $f(X)$.

Similarly we can prove, that $f(X)$ has a smallest element. ■

Hausdorff spaces

Terminology: X topological space, $x \in X, U$ open set in X with $x \in U$, then U is called a *open neighbourhood* of x .

Definition 1.65 A topological space X is called **Hausdorff** if for every pair $x_1, x_2 \in X$ with $x_1 \neq x_2$ there exist open neighbourhoods U_1, U_2 of x_1, x_2 respectively with $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$.

Facts:

- Every ordered set with the order topology is a Hausdorff space.
- If X, Y are Hausdorff spaces, then $X \times Y$ is Hausdorff.
- A subspace of a Hausdorff space is Hausdorff.
- Every finite point set in a Hausdorff space is closed.

Theorem 1.66 *Every compact subspace of a Hausdorff space is closed.*

PROOF X Hausdorff space, $Y \subseteq X$ compact $\implies Y$ is closed.

We will prove, that $X \setminus Y$ is open.

Consider $x \in X \setminus Y$. $\forall y \in Y$ chose U_y, V_y open in X with $x \in U_y, y \in V_y$ and $U_y \cap V_y = \emptyset$ (this can be done, because X is Hausdorff). Then $\{U_y \cap V_y\}_{y \in Y}$ is an open covering of Y . Y is compact, so $\exists \{U_{y_i} \cap V_{y_i}\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}$ a finite subcovery of Y . Note that $Y \subseteq V_{y_1} \cup \dots \cup V_{y_n} =: V$. $U_x := U_{y_1} \cap \dots \cap U_{y_n}$. Then $U_x \cap V = \emptyset$. Indeed, if $z \in U_x \cap V$, then $z \in U_{y_i} \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $z \in V_{y_j}$ for some $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ but $V_{y_i} \cap U_{y_j} = \emptyset$. So $U_x \cap V = \emptyset$. We have constructed U_x open in X with $x \in U_x$ and $U_x \cap Y \subseteq U_x \cap V = \emptyset$, i.e. $U_x \subseteq X \setminus Y$.

So $X \setminus Y = \bigcup_{x \in X \setminus Y} U_x$ and $X \setminus Y$ is open. ■

Remark 1.68 (X, \mathcal{T}) topological space, $x \in X$. Some authors (e.g. Munkres) define: A neighbourhood of x is a set $U \in \mathcal{T}$ such that $x \in U$. Other authors (e.g. Janich) define: A neighbourhood of x is a set $U \subseteq X$ such that $\exists V \in \mathcal{T}$ with $x \in V \subseteq U$.

Theorem 1.69 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous bijective function. If X is compact, and Y is Hausdorff, then f is a homeomorphism.

PROOF We have to prove that f^{-1} is continuous. Equivalently that if U is open in X , then $(f^{-1})^{-1}(U)$ is open in Y . Equivalently, that if U is closed in X , then $f(U)$ is closed in Y .

Indeed, U is closed in X and X compact, so $f(U) \subset Y$ is compact. Y is Hausdorff, therefore $f(U)$ is closed in Y . ■

Local connectedness and local path connectedness

Definition 1.71 X is called *locally (path) connected* at $x \in X$ if for every open neighbourhood U of x there is a (path) connected open neighbourhood V of x with $V \subseteq U$. If X is locally (path) connected at every $x \in X$, then X is called *locally (path) connected*.

2 Algebraic topology

Determining whether two spaces are homeomorphic and studying continuous functions between topological spaces are two of the central problems in topology.

To show that X, Y are homeomorphic, we need to construct $f : X \rightarrow Y$ bijective, continuous, with f^{-1} continuous.

To show that X, Y are not homeomorphic, we can for instance show that X has a topological property (e.g. connectedness or compactness) but Y does not have this property. Any continuous map between topological spaces induces a homeomorphism between their fundamental groups.

$x_0 \in X \rightsquigarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ fundamental group. We will show that if $X \simeq Y$ then their fundamental group is isomorphic.

2.1. Fundamental group

2.1.1. Path homotopy

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

Definition 2.1 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y, f' : X \rightarrow Y$ be continuous maps. f, f' are called **homotopic** if there exists a continuous map $F : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ with $F(x, 0) = f(x) \forall x \in X$ and $F(x, 1) = f'(x) \forall x \in X$.
 F is called a **homotopy** between f and f' .
If f, f' are homotopic, we write $f \simeq f'$.
If f is homotopic to a constant map then f is called **nullhomotopic**.

We focus on the special case $X = [a, b]$.

Then if $f : [a, b] \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function, f is called a **path**. $f(a)$ is called the **initial point**, and $f(b)$ the **final point**.

WLOG we can assume, that the domain of f is $[0, 1]$.

Definition 2.2 Let $f : I \rightarrow X, f' : I \rightarrow X$ two paths in X . f, f' are called **path homotopic** if $f(0) = f'(0), f(1) = f'(1)$ and there exists continuous map $F : I \times I \rightarrow X$, with $F(x, 0) = f(x) \forall x \in I$ and $F(x, 1) = f'(x) \forall x \in I$ and $F(0, t) = f(0) \forall t \in I, F(1, t) = f(1) \forall t \in I$.
If f, f' are path homotopic, we write $f \simeq_p f'$.

Claim: \simeq and \simeq_p are equivalence relations.

PROOF We prove this for \simeq_p .

1. $f \simeq_p f$:
 $F(x, t) := f(x)$.

2. $f \simeq_p f' \implies f' \simeq_p f$:

If F is a path homotopy from f to f' , then $G(x, t) := F(x, 1 - t)$ is a path homotopy from f' to f .

3. $f \simeq_p f', f' \simeq_p f'' \implies f \simeq_p f''$:

If F is a path homotopy from f to f' and F' is a path homotopy from f' to f'' , then

$$G(x, t) := \begin{cases} F(x, 2t) & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ F'(x, 2t - 1) & t \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases}$$

is a path homotopy from f to f'' . $G(x, 1/2) = F(x, 1) = F'(x, 0) = f'(x)$. i.e. G is well defined. Is G continuous?

G is continuous in $I \times [0, 1/2]$ and G is continuous in $[1/2, 1] \implies$ [pasting lemma (lemma 1.21)] G is continuous.

$$G(0, t) = \begin{cases} F(0, 2t) & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ F'(0, 2t - 1) & t \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases} = \begin{cases} f(0) = f'(0) \\ f'(0) = f''(0) \end{cases}$$

$$G(1, t) = f(1),$$

$$G(x, 0) = f(x) \quad \forall x \in I \text{ (since } G(x, 0) = F(x, 0) = f(x) \text{ } \forall x \in I.$$

$$G(x, 1) = f''(x) \quad \forall x \in I \text{ (since } G(x, 1) = F'(x, 1) = f''(x) \text{ } \forall x \in I. \quad \blacksquare$$

If f is a path, we denote its homotopy class by $[f]$.

Example 2.4

1. Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, paths with $f(0) = g(0)$ and $f(1) = g(1)$. Then $F : I \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ with $(x, t) \mapsto (1 - t)f(x) + tg(x)$ is a path homotopy between f and g .

F is called a linear homotopy.

2. $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, s \mapsto (\cos(\pi s), \sin(\pi s)), g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2, t \mapsto (\cos(\pi t), 3 \sin(\pi t))$.
 $f(0) = (1, 0) = g(0)$, and $f(1) = (-1, 0) = g(1)$.

f, g are path homotopic. Indeed, consider the linear homotopy F described in 1.

3. $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ with $s \mapsto (\cos(\pi s), \sin(\pi s))$, and $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ with $t \mapsto (\cos(\pi t), \sin(\pi t))$.

Are f, g path homotopic? Yes. Prove using the linear homotopy.

4. $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$, with $s \mapsto (\cos(\pi s), \sin(\pi s))$, and $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ with $t \mapsto (\cos(\pi t), -3 \sin(\pi t))$.

The linear homotopy is not a path homotopy between f and g .

Inf fact, there exists no path homotopy between f and g .

We define the following operation:

Definition 2.5 Let $f : I \rightarrow X$ path in X with $f(0) = x_0, f(1) = x_1, x_0, x_1 \in X$.
 $g : I \rightarrow X$ path in X with $g(0) = x_1, g(1) = x_2, x_2 \in X$.
 We define the **product** $f \cdot g$ of f, g as the path h with

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

Remark 2.6 h is well defined, since $f(1) = g(0) = h(1/2)$.

h is continuous by the pasting lemma (lemma 1.21).

The product $f \cdot g$ induces a well defined product on path homotopy equivalence classes defined by $[f] \cdot [g] = [f \cdot g]$.

Indeed, if f, f' paths in X with $[f] = [f']$, and g, g' paths in X with $[g] = [g']$. Consider path homotopies F, G between f and f', g and g' respectively. Then

$$H(s, t) := \begin{cases} F(2s, t) & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ G(2s - 1, t) & s \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases}$$

is a path homotopy between $f \cdot g$ and $f' \cdot g'$ (homework).

Therefore $[f \cdot g] = [f' \cdot g']$, i.e. $[f] \cdot [g] = [f'] \cdot [g']$ and the induced product is well-defined.

Reparametrisation

Define a *reparametrisation* of a path f to be a composition $f \circ \varphi$, where $\varphi : I \rightarrow I$ continuous map, such that $\varphi(0) = 0$, and $\varphi(1) = 1$.

Reparametrising a path preserves its homotopy class (i.e. $[f \circ \varphi] = [f]$). Indeed, consider the path homotopy $f \circ \varphi_t$ where $\varphi_t(s) := (1 - t)\varphi(s) + ts$.

$$\varphi_0(s) = \varphi(s) \rightsquigarrow f \circ \varphi_0 = f \circ \varphi, \varphi_1(s) = s \rightsquigarrow f \circ \varphi_1 = f.$$

Note that $(1 - t)\varphi(s) + ts$ lies between $\varphi(s)$ and s , hence $(1 - t)\varphi(s) + ts$ lies in I , so $f \circ \varphi_t$ is defined.

2.2. The fundamental group

We restrict our attention to paths $f : I \rightarrow X$ with $f(0) = f(1)$. Call $x_0 := f(0) = f(1)$. Such paths are called *loops* in X at the *basepoint* x_0 . The set $\{[f] \mid f : I \rightarrow X, f(0) = f(1) = x_0\}$ is denoted by $\pi_1(X, x_0)$.

If $[f], [g] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$, then f, g are loops in X at the basepoint x_0 , so $f \cdot g$ is defined.

The induced multiplication $[f] \cdot [g] = [f \cdot g]$ is well-defined.

Proposition 2.7 $(\pi_1(X, x_0), \cdot)$ is a group.

PROOF

1. associativity: $[f] \cdot ([g] \cdot [h]) = ([f] \cdot [g]) \cdot [h]$, $[f], [g], [h] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$.

$$\iff [f] \cdot [g \cdot h] = [f \cdot g] \cdot [h]$$

$$\iff [f \cdot (g \cdot h)] = [(f \cdot g) \cdot h].$$

Claim: $f \cdot (g \cdot h)$ is a reparametrisation of $(f \cdot g) \cdot h$ by the piecewise linear function φ : where

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}t & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ t - \frac{1}{4} & t \in [1/2, 3/4] \\ 2t - 1 & t \in [3/4, 1] \end{cases}$$

Proof:

$$(f \cdot (g \cdot h))(t) = \begin{cases} f(2t) & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ (g \cdot h)(2t - 1) & t \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases} = \begin{cases} f(2t) & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ g(4t - 2) & t \in [1/2, 3/4] \\ h(4t - 3) & t \in [3/4, 1] \end{cases}$$

Analogously

$$((f \cdot g) \cdot h)(s) = \begin{cases} (f \cdot g)(2s) & s \in [0, 1/2] \\ h(2s - 1) & s \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases} = \begin{cases} f(4s) & s \in [0, 1/4] \\ g(4s - 1) & s \in [1/4, 1/2] \\ h(2s - 1) & s \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases}$$

So if one easily checks, that $((f \cdot g) \cdot h)(\varphi(t)) = (f \cdot (g \cdot h))(t)$.

2. Identity: Consider $c : I \rightarrow X$ with $c(s) = x_0 \forall s \in I$. Then $f \cdot c$ is a reparametrisation of f via φ :

$$\varphi(t) = \begin{cases} 2t & t \in [0, 1/2] \\ 1 & t \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases}$$

I.e. $f \cdot c = f \circ \varphi$.
 $[f] = [f \circ \varphi] = [f \cdot c]$.
 $[f] = [f] \cdot [c]$.

3. inverse: Consider $[f] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ and $\bar{f}(s) = f(1-s)$.
 Claim: $f \cdot \bar{f} \simeq c \simeq \bar{f} \cdot f$.

Proof: Consider the homotopy

$$H(s, t) = \begin{cases} f(2s) & s \in [0, (1-t)/2] \\ f(1-t) & [(1-t)/2, (1+t)/2] \\ f(2-2s) & [(1+t)/2, 1] \end{cases}$$

$H(0, t) = f(0) = x_0$,
 $H(1, t) = f(0) = x_0$.

$H(s, 0) = \begin{cases} f(2s) & s \in [0, 1/2] \\ f(2-2s) & s \in [1/2, 1] \end{cases} = f \cdot \bar{f}$
 $H(s, 1) = x_0$.

H is a homotopy between $f \cdot \bar{f}$ and c i.e. $[f \cdot \bar{f}] = [c]$,
 i.e. $[f] \cdot [\bar{f}] = [c]$.

Analogously $[\bar{f}] \cdot [f] = [c]$.

$\implies [\bar{f}]$ is the inverse of $[f]$. ■

Definition 2.9 $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ is called the *fundamental group* of X at x_0 .

Example 2.10 Consider $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ convex. $x_0 \in X$.

$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{[f] \mid f : I \rightarrow X \text{ path, } f(0) = f(1) = x_0\}$.

If f_0, f_1 are two paths in X at the basepoint x_0 , then $f_t(s) = (1-t)f_0(s) + tf_1(s)$ is a linear homotopy between f_0 and f_1 .

Let $x_0, x_1 \in X$, $\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_1)$.

Proposition 2.11 If x_0, x_1 are in the same path component of X , then $\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_1)$ are isomorphic.

PROOF $x_0, x_1 \in X$. Consider $h : I \rightarrow X$ a path with $h(0) = x_0, h(1) = x_1$ and $\bar{h} : I \rightarrow X, \bar{h}(s) = h(1-s)$.

Define $\widehat{h} : M_1(X, x_1) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ where $[f] \mapsto [h \cdot f \cdot \bar{h}]$.

- \widehat{h} is well-defined: If $[f] = [g] \in \pi_1(X, x_1)$ and f_t is a homotopy between f and g then $h \cdot f_t \cdot \bar{h}$ is a homotopy between $h \cdot f \cdot \bar{h}$ and $h \cdot g \cdot \bar{h}$ i.e. $[h \cdot f \cdot \bar{h}] = [h \cdot g \cdot \bar{h}]$.
- \widehat{h} is a homomorphism: $\widehat{h}([f] \cdot [g]) \widehat{h}([f \cdot g]) = [h \cdot f \cdot g \cdot \bar{h}] = [h \cdot f \cdot \bar{h} \cdot h \cdot g \cdot \bar{h}] = [h \cdot f \cdot \bar{h}] [h \cdot g \cdot \bar{h}] = \widehat{h}([f]) \widehat{h}([g])$.

- \widehat{h} is bijective: $\widehat{h} = (\widehat{h})^{-1}$.
 $(\widehat{h\widehat{h}})[f] = \widehat{h}(\widehat{h}([f])) = \widehat{h}([\bar{h}fh]) = \dots = [f]$. ■

Definition 2.13 X is *simply connected* if it is path connected and $\pi_1(X)$ is trivial.

Proposition 2.14 X is simply connected iff there is a unique homotopy class of paths connecting any two points in X .

PROOF Path connectedness is the existence of paths connecting every pair of points in X . So we only need to check uniqueness.

“ \Rightarrow ” Suppose $\pi_1(X) = 0$. Let $x_0, x_1 \in X$. If f, g are two paths from x_0 to x_1 , then $f \simeq f\bar{g}g \simeq g \implies [f] = [g]$.

“ \Leftarrow ” If there is a unique homotopy class of paths connecting any two points, then there is a unique homotopy class of paths connecting a point to itself. $\implies \pi_1(X) = 0$. ■

Induced homomorphisms

X, Y topological spaces, $x_0 \in X, y_0 \in Y$ and $h : X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous map with $h(x_0) = y_0$. We will denote this by $h : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$.

If $f : I \rightarrow X$ is a loop in X , based at x_0 , then $h \circ f$ is a loop in Y based at y_0 .

Definition 2.16 Let $h : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ continuous. Define $h_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ where $[f] \mapsto [h \circ f]$. h_* is called the *homomorphism induced by h* relative to x_0 .

Remark 2.17 h_* is well-defined.

If f, g loops in X based at x_0 with $[f] = [g]$. Consider H a homotopy from f to g . Then $h \circ H$ is a homotopy from $h \circ f$ to $h \circ g$.

I.e. $[h \circ f] = [h \circ g] \iff h_*([f]) = h_*([g])$.

Remark 2.18 h_* is a group homomorphism.

Just calculate and compare the following two expressions:

$$\begin{aligned} h_*([f] \cdot [g]) &= h_*([f \cdot g]) = [h \circ (f \cdot g)] \\ h_*([f]) \cdot h_*([g]) &= [h \circ f] \cdot [h \circ g] = [(h \circ f) \cdot (h \circ g)]. \end{aligned}$$

Remark 2.19 h_* depends on the basepoint x_0 . So strictly speaking we should have written $(h_{x_0})_*$.

Properties of induced homomorphisms

1. If $h : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0), g : (Y, y_0) \rightarrow (Z, z_0)$ continuous, then $(g \circ h)_* = g_* \circ h_*$.
2. If $1_X : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$, then $(1_X)_* = 1_{\pi_1(X, x_0)}$.

Proposition 2.20 If $H : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ a homeomorphism, then $h_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ is a group isomorphism.

PROOF Consider $h^{-1}(Y, y_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ and $(h^{-1})_* : \pi_1(Y, y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$
 $(h^{-1})_* \circ h_* = (h^{-1} \circ h)_* = 1_* = 1.$
 $h_* \circ (h^{-1})_* = (h \circ h^{-1})_* = 1_* = 1.$ ■

π_1 gives a covariant functor from the category with objects topological spaces with basepoint and morphism basepoint preserving continuous maps to the category with objects groups and morphisms group homomorphisms.

A category \mathcal{D} consists of

1. a collection of objects $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$,
2. sets of morphisms $\text{Mor}(X, Y)$ for each $X, Y \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$ with a distinguished identity morphism 1_X in $\text{Mor}(X, X)$,
3. a composition of morphisms $\circ : \text{Mor}(X, Y) \times \text{Mor}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \text{Mor}(X, Z)$ for each triple $X, Y, Z \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$ with the properties $f \circ 1 = 1 \circ f = f$ and $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h)$.

Example 2.22

1. $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{D}) = \{G \mid G \text{ group}\}.$
 $\text{Mor}(G, H) = \{f : G \rightarrow H \mid f \text{ group homomorphism}\}.$
2. $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{D}) = \{(X, x_0) \mid X \text{ topological space, } x_0 \text{ basepoint}\}.$
 $\text{Mor}((X, x_0), (Y, y_0)) = \{f : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0) \mid f \text{ continuous}\}.$

A **covariant functor** F from a category \mathcal{C} to a category \mathcal{D} assigns to each $X \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ an $F(X) \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$ to each $f \in \text{Mor}(X, Y)$ a $F(f)$ such that $F(1_X) = 1_{F(X)}$ and $F(f \circ g) = F(f) \circ F(g)$.

Example 2.23 π_1 is a covariant functor from category \mathcal{C}_2 in example 2 to the category \mathcal{C}_1 in example 1.

$$(X, x_0) \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C}_2) \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \pi_1(X, x_0) \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C}_1).$$

$$f \in \text{Mor}((X, x_0), (Y, y_0)) \xrightarrow{\pi_1} f_* \in \text{Mor}(\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(Y, y_0))$$

$$(1_{(X, x_0)})_* = 1_{\pi_1(X, x_0)}.$$

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

2.3. Covering spaces

- useful for computing π_1 ,
- algebraic features of π_1 can be translated into geometric features of the spaces.

Definition 2.24 Consider $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ a continuous and surjective map. If there exists an open cover $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ of X such that $\forall a \in A \ p^{-1}(U_a) = \cup_{b \in B_a} V_a^b$, where $V_a^b \cap V_a^{b'} = \emptyset$ for any $b, b' \in B_a, b \neq b'$. $p : V_a^b \rightarrow U_a$ is a homeomorphism $\forall b \in B_a$ and V_a^b open in $\tilde{X} \ \forall b \in B_a$, then p is called a **covering map**. \tilde{X} is called a **covering space** of X .

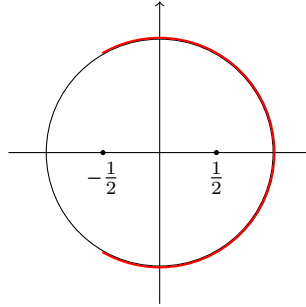
Example 2.25

1. $S^1 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$. $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ where $s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s)$.

p is a covering map, p is continuous (calculus), and p is surjective.

$$U_1 := \{(x, y) \in S^1 \mid x > -\sqrt{2}/2\}$$

$$U_2 := \{(x, y) \in S^1 \mid x < \sqrt{2}/2\}.$$



$\{U_1, U_2\}$ is an open cover of S^1

$$p^{-1}(U_1) = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} V_n, \text{ where } V_n := (n - 3/8, n + 3/8).$$

V_n is open in $\mathbb{R} \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$V_n \cap V_m = \emptyset$, for any $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq m$.

$p : V_n \rightarrow U_1$ is a homeomorphism $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We can make the analogous construction for U_2 . So p is a covering map.

Remark 2.26 You can prove that p is a covering by using any open cover of S^1 by two open subsets of S^1 ($\neq S^1$).

2. $S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 1$.

$p_n : S^1 \rightarrow S^1, z \mapsto z^n$. p_n is a covering map (problem sheet 5).

$f : X \rightarrow Y$ is called an **embedding** if $f : X \rightarrow f(X)$ is a homeomorphism.

Consider the solid torus $S^1 \times D^2$ where $D^2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$, and its boundary $\partial(S^1 \times D^2) = S^1 \times S^1$.

Consider $f : S^1 \rightarrow \partial(S^1 \times D^2)$ an embedding such that $f(S^1)$ wraps around the first S^1 three times.

Lastly consider the projection $\pi : S^1 \times D^2 \rightarrow S^1 \times \{(0, 0)\}$ and restrict it to $f(S^1)$.

3. $f : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow S^1$, where $s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s)$ is not a covering map.

Consider an open cover $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ of S^1 . Then $\exists U \in \{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ with $x \in U$. $p^{-1}(U) = V_0 \cup (\cup_{b \in B_a} V_a^b)$.

$p : V_0 \rightarrow U$ is not a homeomorphism.

Theorem 2.27 If $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering map, $X_0 \subseteq X$, and $\tilde{X}_0 = p^{-1}(X_0)$, then $p_0 : \tilde{X}_0 \rightarrow X_0$ obtained by restricting p to \tilde{X}_0 is a covering map.

PROOF p_0 is continuous (restricting the domain or the range of a continuous function gives a continuous function). p_0 is surjective.

Consider an open cover $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ of X with the properties in the definition of covering map.

Then $\forall a \in A \ p^{-1}(U_a) = \cup_{b \in B_a} V_a^b$.

If $x_0 \in X_0$, then there exists $a \in A$ with $x_0 \in U_a$. Now $U_a \cap X_0$ is an open set in X_0 .

$$p_0^{-1}(U_a \cap X_0) = p_0^{-1}(U_a) \cap p_0^{-1}(X_0) = p^{-1}(U_a) \cap \tilde{X}_0 = (\cup_{b \in B_a} V_a^b) \cap \tilde{X}_0 = \cup_{b \in B_a} (V_a^b \cap \tilde{X}_0).$$

We have

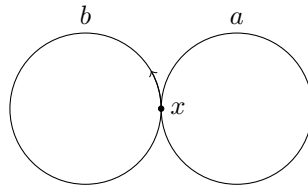
- $V_a^b \cap \tilde{X}_0$ open in \tilde{X}_0 ,
- $(V_a^b \cap \tilde{X}_0) \cap (V_a^{b'} \cap \tilde{X}_0) = \emptyset$ for any $b, b' \in B_a, b \neq b'$.
- $p_0 : V_a^b \cap \tilde{X}_0 \rightarrow U_a \cap X_0$ is a homeomorphism.

$\{U_a \cap X_0\}_{a \in A}$ is an open cover of X_0 with the desired properties $\implies p_0 : \tilde{X}_0 \rightarrow X_0$ is a covering map. ■

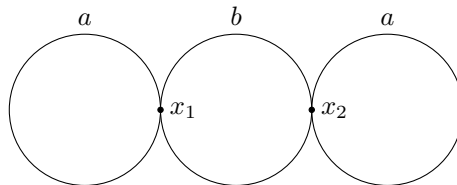
Theorem 2.29 *If $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X, p' : \tilde{X}' \rightarrow X'$ are covering maps, then $p \times p' : \tilde{X} \times \tilde{X}' \rightarrow X \times X'$ is a covering map.*

Example 2.30

1. Consider $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$, where $s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s)$.
The map $p \times p : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1 \times S^1$ is a covering map.
2. $X_0 = (S^1 \times p(0)) \cup (p(0) \times S^1)$.
 $\tilde{X}_0 = (p \times p)^{-1}(X_0) = (\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}) \cup (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{R})$.
 $(p \times p)_0 : \tilde{X}_0 \rightarrow X_0$ is a covering map (by theorem).
Two circles S^1 with a one common point is called wedge of two circles (notation $S^1 \vee S^1$).
3. Other covering spaces of $S^1 \vee S^1$.



Consider \tilde{X} as in the following picture



Then $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow S^1 \vee S^1$, where $x_1 \mapsto x$ and $x_2 \mapsto x$. p maps each edge of \tilde{X} to the edge of X with the same label by a map that is a homeomorphism and preserves the orientation.

4. Consider $p \times 1_{\mathbb{R}_+} : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{R}_+$ (where $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1 : s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s)$) and $f : \mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$, where $(x, t) \mapsto t \cdot x$.

f is a homeomorphism.

$f \circ (p \times 1_{\mathbb{R}_+}) : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ is a covering map.

PROOF $p \times p'$ is continuous (problem sheet 3). $p \times p'$ is surjective (if $(x, x') \in X \times X'$, then $x \in X$ and $x' \in X' \implies [p, p']$ is surjective) $\exists \tilde{x} \in \tilde{X}, \tilde{x}' \in \tilde{X}'$, such that $p(\tilde{x}) = x$ and $p'(\tilde{x}') = x'$. $\implies \exists (\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') \in \tilde{X} \times \tilde{X}'$ such that $(p \times p')(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}') = (x, x')$.

Consider $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}, \{U'_c\}_{c \in C}$ open covers of X and X' as in the definition of covering maps.

If $(x, x') \in X \times X'$ then $x \in X$ and $x' \in X'$ i.e. $\exists U \in \{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ with $x \in U$ and $\exists U' \in \{U'_c\}_{c \in C}$ with $x' \in U'$.

$p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{b \in B} V_b, V_b$ open $V_b \cap V_{b'} = \emptyset$ for $b \neq b'$ and $p : V_b \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall b \in B$. $(p')^{-1}(U') = \cup_{d \in D} V'_d, V'_d$ open, $V'_d \cap V'_{d'} = \emptyset$ for $d \neq d'$ and $p' : V'_d \rightarrow U'$ homeomorphism $\forall d \in D$.

$(x, x') \in U \times U', U \times U'$ is open in $X \times X'$,

$(p \times p')^{-1}(U \times U') = \cup_{b \in B} (V_b \times V'_d)$, where $V_b \times V'_d$ open in $X \times X', V_b \times V'_d$ disjoint,

$p \times p' : V_b \times V'_d \rightarrow U \times U'$ is a homeomorphism.

I.e. $\{U_a \times U'_c\}_{\substack{a \in A \\ c \in C}}$ is the open cover of $X \times X'$. That shows that $p \times p'$ is a covering map. ■

2.4. Lifting properties

We will discuss two properties of covering spaces.

Definition 2.32 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a map. If $f : Y \rightarrow X$ is continuous a *lifting* of f is a map $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ such that $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$.

Example 2.33 $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1, s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s), f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^1$ the path $f(s) = (\cos \pi s, \sin \pi s)$.

Then $\tilde{f} : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \tilde{f}(s) = \frac{s}{2}$ is a lifting of f .

Proposition 2.34 (path lifting property)

Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. If $f : I \rightarrow X$ is a path with $f(0) = x_0$, then $\exists!$ lifting of f to a path $\tilde{f} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$.

PROOF

1. Consider the open cover $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ of X (as in the definition of covering map). Let $t \in (0, 1)$, and $f(t) \in X \implies f(t) \in U_a$ for some $a \in A$. $f : I \rightarrow X$ is continuous $\implies \exists (a_t, b_t) \subseteq (0, 1)$ with $t \in (a_t, b_t)$ and $f([a_t, b_t]) \subseteq U_a$.

Analogously for $t = 0 \exists [0, b_0] \subseteq [0, 1]$ with $f([0, b_0]) \subseteq U_a$, and for $t = 1 \exists (a_0, 1] \subseteq [0, 1]$ with $f([a_0, 1]) \subseteq U_a$.

I is compact, and $\{(a_t, b_t)\}_{t \in (0, 1)}$ together with $[0, b_0]$ and $(b_1, 1]$ is an open cover of I . We can choose a finite subcover, say $[0, b_0), (a_0, 1], (a_1, b_1), \dots, (a_m, b_m)$.

Consider $\{a_i, b_i\}_{i \in \{0, \dots, m\}}$ and order its elements. (Possibly) rename the elements as follows: $0 < t_1 \leq \dots \leq t_{2m+2} < 1$. this gives a subdivision $0 = s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_n = 1$ of I with the property, that $\forall i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} f([s_i, s_{i+1}]) \subseteq U_a$ for some $a \in A$.

2. Define $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{X}_0$. Suppose that \tilde{f} is defined in $[0, s_i]$. Define \tilde{f} in $[s_i, s_{i+1}]$ as follows: $f([s_i, s_{i+1}]) \subseteq U$ for some U in $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$.

Let $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{b \in B} V_b$. Now $(p \circ \tilde{f})(s_i) = f(s_i) \in U$.

$\implies \tilde{f}(s_i) \in p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{b \in B} V_b$

$\implies \tilde{f}(s_i) \in V_0$ for some $V_0 \in \{V_b\}_{b \in B}$.

Define $\tilde{f}(s) = (p|_{V_0})^{-1}(f(s))$, $s \in [s_i, s_{i+1}]$.

\tilde{f} is continuous in $[s_i, s_{i+1}]$, since $p|_{V_0}$ is a homeomorphism. Thus we have defined $\tilde{f}: [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ continuous with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$.

3. Suppose $\tilde{\tilde{f}}$ is another lifting of f with $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(0) = x_0$. Then $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(0) = \tilde{f}(0) = x_0$.

Suppose that $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(s) = \tilde{f}(s)$ in $[0, s_i]$. $p \circ \tilde{\tilde{f}}([s_i, s_{i+1}]) = f([s_i, s_{i+1}]) \subseteq U_a$ for some $a \in A$.

$\implies \tilde{\tilde{f}}([s_i, s_{i+1}]) \subseteq p^{-1}(U_a) = \cup_{b \in B} V_b$.

$\tilde{\tilde{f}}([s_i, s_{i+1}])$ is connected and $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(s_i) = \tilde{f}(s_i) \in V_0$.

$\implies \tilde{\tilde{f}}([s_i, s_{i+1}]) \subseteq V_0$.

For $s \in S$, $p \circ \tilde{\tilde{f}}(s) = f(s)$

$\implies \tilde{\tilde{f}}(s) \in p^{-1}(f(s))$.

Also $\tilde{\tilde{f}} \in V_0$. So $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(s) = (p|_{V_0})^{-1}(f(s)) = \tilde{f}(s)$.

I.e. $\tilde{\tilde{f}}(s) = \tilde{f}(s)$. ■

Proposition 2.36 Let $p: \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. Let $F: I \times I \rightarrow X$ be continuous with $F(0, 0) = x_0$. Then $\exists!$ lifting of F to a continuous map $\tilde{F}: I \times I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{F}(0, 0) = \tilde{x}_0$. If F is a path homotopy then \tilde{F} is a path homotopy.

PROOF Consider $\{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ an open cover of X with the properties as in the definition of covering map.

1. Define $\tilde{F}((0, 0)) = \tilde{x}_0$.

Extend \tilde{F} to $I \times \{0\}$ and $\{0\} \times I$ using the proposition from last time. Extend \tilde{F} to $I \times I$, as follows: Choose subdivision $s_0 < s_1 < \dots < s_m, t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n$ of I with the property that for each such rectangle $I_i \times J_j = [s_{i-1}, s_i] \times [t_{j-1}, t_j]$, $F(I_i \times J_j) \subseteq U_a$ for some $a \in A$. Define \tilde{F} first in $I_1 \times I_j$, then $I_2 \times J_1, \dots, I_m \times J_1$, then $I_1 \times J_2, I_2 \times J_2$ and so on.

Consider $I_{i_0} \times J_{j_0}$ and suppose that \tilde{F} is defined on the union A of the rectangles $I_i \times J_j$ with $j < j_0$ or $j = j_0$ and $i < i_0$.

Consider $C = A \cap (I_{i_0} \times J_{j_0})$. Choose $U \in \{U_a\}_{a \in A}$ with $F(I_{i_0} \times J_{j_0}) \subseteq U$. $p^{-1}(U) \cup_{b \in B} V_b$, \tilde{F} is defined in C , C is connected. So, $\tilde{F}(C)$ is connected, i.e. $\exists V_0$ such that $\tilde{F}(C) \subseteq V_0$.

If $p_0 = p|_{V_0}: V_0 \rightarrow U$, then $p_0 \circ \tilde{F}(x) = p \circ \tilde{F}(x) = F(x) \implies F(x) = (p_0^{-1})(F(x))$.

Define $\tilde{F}(x) = p_0^{-1}(F(x)) \forall x \in I_{i_0} \times J_{j_0}$.

\tilde{F} is continuous, according to the pasting lemma.

2. Check that at every step, there is a unique way to define \tilde{F} .

3. If F is a path homotopy, then $F(\{0\} \times I) = x_0$. Also, $\tilde{F}(\{0\} \times I) \subseteq p^{-1}(\{x_0\})$. $p^{-1}(\{x_0\})$ has the discrete topology as a subspace of \tilde{X} . Anlose $\tilde{F}(\{0\} \times I)$ is connected. Thus $\tilde{F}(\{0\} \times I) = \{\tilde{x}_0\}$.

Similarly $\tilde{F}(\{1\} \times I)$ is a set with one point.

Thus, \tilde{F} is a path homotopy. ■

Proposition 2.38 (Homotopy lifting property)

$p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. Consider f, g the paths in X from x_0 to x_1 and \tilde{f}, \tilde{g} their liftings to paths in \tilde{X} with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{g}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. If $f \simeq g$, then $\tilde{f} \simeq \tilde{g}$.

PROOF Consider F the path homotopy between f and g . Then $F((0, 0)) = x_0$. Let $\tilde{F} : I \times I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ the lifting of F to \tilde{X} with $\tilde{F}((0, 0)) = \tilde{x}_0$. Then $\tilde{F}(\{0\} \times I) = \{\tilde{x}_0\}$ and $\tilde{F}(\{1\} \times I) = \{\tilde{x}_1\}$.

$\tilde{F}|_{I \times \{0\}}$ is a path in \tilde{X} starting at \tilde{x}_0 that is a lifting of $F|_{I \times \{0\}}$. I.e. $\tilde{F}|_{I \times \{0\}} = \tilde{f}$ (uniqueness of path liftings).

$\tilde{F}|_{I \times \{1\}} = \tilde{g}$.

So $\tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{g}(1) = \tilde{x}_1$ and $\tilde{F} : I \times I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ is a path homotopy from \tilde{f} to \tilde{g} . ■

Definition 2.40 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. Given a loop f in X based x_0 , let \tilde{f} be the lifting of f in \tilde{X} with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \pi_1(X, x_0) &\rightarrow p^{-1}(\{x_0\}), \\ [f] &\mapsto \tilde{f}(1). \end{aligned}$$

ϕ is called the *lifting correspondence* derived from the map p

Claim: ϕ is well-defined.

PROOF If $[f] = [f']$, then f, f' are path homotopic. We can lift this homotopy to a path homotopy between \tilde{f} and $\tilde{f}' \implies \tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{f}'(1)$.

Theorem 2.42

1. If $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. If \tilde{X} is path connected, then ϕ is surjective.
2. If \tilde{X} is simply connected, then ϕ is bijective.

PROOF

1. Let $\tilde{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(\{x_0\})$. Then since \tilde{X} is path connected, there is a path $\tilde{f} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$ and $\tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{x}_1$. Then $f = p \circ \tilde{f}$ is a loop in X based at x_0 , since $f(0) = p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$, $f(1) = p(\tilde{x}_1) = x_0$ and $\phi([f]) = \tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{x}_1$.

2. We only need to check that ϕ is injective. Indeed consider $[f], [g] \in \pi_1(X, x_0)$ with $\phi([f]) = \phi([g])$. Then $\tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{g}(1)$, where \tilde{f}, \tilde{g} are the liftings of f, g with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{g}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Since \tilde{X} is simply connected, we have that $[\tilde{f}] = [\tilde{g}]$, i.e. there is a path homotopy \tilde{F} between \tilde{f} and \tilde{g} . Then $F = p \circ \tilde{F}$ is a path homotopy between f and g , i.e $[f] = [g]$. ■

2.5. The fundamental group of the circle and applications

Remark 2.44 S^1 is path connected, so we will write $\pi_1(S^1)$.

Theorem 2.45

$$(\pi_1(S^1), \cdot) \simeq (\mathbb{Z}, +).$$

PROOF Let $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$, $p(t) = (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$. Denote $p(0) = (1, 0) = x_0$. Then $p^{-1}(\{x_0\}) = \mathbb{Z}$. Consider $\phi : \pi_1(S^1) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$, where $[f] \mapsto \tilde{f}(1)$.

By exercise 1 of sheet 3 \mathbb{R} is simply connected. By the second point of the theorem ϕ is bijective.

It remains to show that ϕ is a group homomorphism,

$$\text{i.e. } \phi([f] \cdot [g]) = \phi([f]) + \phi([g]).$$

$$\iff \phi([f \cdot g]) = \phi([f]) + \phi([g])$$

$$\iff \tilde{f \cdot g}(1) = \tilde{f}(1) + \tilde{g}(1),$$

where \tilde{f} is the lift of f with $\tilde{f}(0) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and \tilde{g} the lift of g with $\tilde{g}(0) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\tilde{f \cdot g}$ the lift of $f \cdot g$ where $\tilde{f \cdot g}(0) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let $\tilde{g}' : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the path $\tilde{g}'(s) = \tilde{g}(s) + \tilde{f}(1)$. Then $(p \circ \tilde{g}')(s) = p(\tilde{g}(s) + \tilde{f}(1)) = (p \circ \tilde{g})(s) = g(s)$.

$\implies \tilde{g}'$ is a lifting of g with $\tilde{g}'(0) = \tilde{f}(1)$.

Furthermore, $p((\tilde{f \cdot g}')(s)) = (f \cdot g)(s) \implies \tilde{f \cdot g}'$ is a lifting of $f \cdot g$ with $\tilde{f \cdot g}'(0) = 0$.

$$(\tilde{f \cdot g}')(+)= \tilde{f}(1) + \tilde{g}(1)$$

$$\implies \tilde{f \cdot g}(1) = \tilde{f}(1) + \tilde{g}(1). \quad \blacksquare$$

Retractions

Definition 2.47 A *retraction* of a X onto $A \subset X$ is a continuous map $r : X \rightarrow A$ with $r(a) = a \forall a \in A$.

If such a map exists A is called a *retract* of X .

Claim: If A is a retract of X and $i : A \hookrightarrow X$ is the inclusion map, then i_* is injective.

PROOF $r \circ i : A \rightarrow A$. $r \circ i = 1_A$

$$\implies (r \circ i)_* = (1_A)_*$$

$$\implies r_* \circ i_* = 1_{\pi_1(A, x_0)}$$

$\implies i_*$ is injective. \blacksquare

Proposition 2.49 There is no retraction of D^2 onto S^1 .

PROOF If S^1 was a retract of D^2 and $i : S^1 \rightarrow D^2$ the inclusion. Then $i_* : \pi_1(S^1) \rightarrow \pi_1(D^2)$ would be injective. But $\pi_1(S^1) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_1(D^2)$ is trivial as a convex subset of \mathbb{R}^2 . \blacksquare

Lemma 2.51 Let $h : S^1 \rightarrow X$ be a continuous map. The following are equivalent:

1. h is nullhomotopic.
2. There exists a continuous map $\bar{h} : D^2 \rightarrow X$ with $\bar{h}|_{S^1} = h$.
3. h_* is trivial.

PROOF

1. “1. \Rightarrow 2.”: Consider the homotopy $H : S^1 \times I \rightarrow X$ between h and the constant map c . Let $q : S^1 \times I \rightarrow D^2$ with $(x, t) \mapsto t \cdot x$.
 q is continuous, q is open and surjective.
- 2.
- 3.

Vorlesung von Di 17. März fehlt noch

Remark 2.53 Ha the corollary: If $S^2 = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$, A_i closed $\forall i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, then $\exists x \in S^2, i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ such that $\{x, -x\} \subseteq A_i$.

Inscribe a sphere in the tetrahedron. Project each face of the tetrahedron radially onto the sphere. Then one obtains four closed sets $A_i, i \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ with $S^2 = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup A_4$, but none of the A_i contains a pair of antipodal points.

2.5.1. The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

(Any non-constant polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has a root in \mathbb{C}).

- proof in algebra,
- proof in complex analysis (corollary of Liouville’s theorem),
- proof in topology.

Theorem 2.54 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)
 If $a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{C}[x], n > 0$, then $\exists x_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ with $a_n x_0^n + \dots + a_1 x_0 + a_0 = 0$.

PROOF Let $a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $n > 0$.

1. We can assume $a_n = 1$ ($a_n(x^n + \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}x^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{a_n})$).
 We can assume $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |a_i| < 1$. Indeed choose $c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and set $x = cy$ This gives $c^n y^n + \dots + a_1 cy + a_0 = c^n (y^n + \frac{a_{n-1}}{c} y^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{c^n})$. Choose c large enough such that $|\frac{a_{n-1}}{c}| + \dots + |\frac{a_0}{c^n}| < 1$. Now if y_0 is a root of $y^n + \frac{a_{n-1}}{c} y^{n-1} + \dots + \frac{a_0}{c^n}$, then cy_0 is a root of $x^n + \dots + a_0$.
2. Consider $f : S^1 \rightarrow S^1, z \mapsto z^n$ and $p : I \rightarrow S^1, s \mapsto (\cos 2\pi s, \sin 2\pi s) = e^{2\pi i s}$. Then $f_* : \pi_1(S^1, (1, 0)) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^1, (1, 0))$. $f_*([p]) = [f \circ p]$, where $f \circ p(s) = (\cos 2\pi n s, \sin 2\pi n s)$.
 This shows that f_* is injective. Also if $\iota : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ (inclusion), then ι_* is injective, since S^1 is a retract of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$.
 I.e. $\iota_* \circ f_* = (\iota \circ f)_*$ is injective, which implies (Lemma ??) that $\iota \circ f$ is not nullhomotopic (a).
3. Suppose, that our polynomial has no root in D^2 . Consider $\bar{h} : D^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$, $z \mapsto z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0$. By lemma ?? $\bar{h}|_{S^1}$ is nullhomotopic (b). Furthermore: $F : S^1 \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$ where $(z, t) \mapsto z^n + t(a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z + a_0)$. This is a homotopy between $\bar{h}|_{S^1}$ and $\iota \circ f$ (c).

$$|F(z, t)| = |z^n + t(a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0)| \geq |z^n| - |t||a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_0| \geq 1 - |t| \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} |a_i| > 0.$$

(a),(b),(c) contradiction, i.e. our polynomial has a root in D^2 .

Exercise: Any root of such a polynomial $z^n + \dots + a_0$ with $\sum |a_i| < 1$ is in D^2 .

2.5.2. Deformation retracts and homotopy type

Covering spaces \rightsquigarrow fundamental group computation (e.g. $\pi_1(S^1)$).

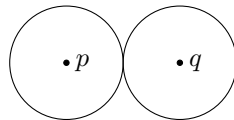
Definition 2.56 Let $A \subseteq X$, A is called a *deformation retract* of X , if there is a continuous map $H : X \times I \rightarrow X$ with $H(x, 0) = x \forall x, H(x, 1) \in A \forall x \in X, H(a, t) = a \forall a \in A, \forall t \in I$. The homotopy H is called a *deformation retraction* of X onto A .

Remark 2.57

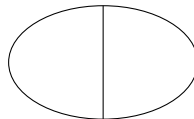
1. $r : X \rightarrow A, r(x) = H(x, 1)$ is a retraction of X onto A .
2. H is a homotopy between 1_X and $\iota \circ r$, where $\iota : A \hookrightarrow X$ inclusion map.

Example 2.58

1. $\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid (x, y) \neq (0, 0), z = 0\} =: A$ is a deformation retract of $\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid (x, y) \neq (0, 0)\} =: X$.
 $H : X \times I \rightarrow X, H(x, y, z, t) := (x, y, (1-t)z)$.
 - H is continuous,
 - $H(x, y, z, 0) = (x, y, z) \forall (x, y, z) \in X$,
 - $H(x, y, z, 1) = (x, y, 0) \in A \forall (x, y, z) \in X$,
 - if $(x, y, z) \in A$, then $z = 0$ and thus $H(x, y, z, t) = (x, y, 0) \in A$.
2. Let $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^2, p \neq q$. Then $S^1 \vee S^1$ is a deformation retract of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\}$.



3. $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^2, p \neq q, \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\}$ deformation retracts onto the theta space:



(Homeomorph to $S^1 \cup (0 \times [-1, 1])$).

4. Möbius band



Theorem 2.59 Let A be a deformation retract of X , $x_0 \in A$, and $\iota : (A, x_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ the inclusion map. Then $\iota_* : (A, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF Let $r : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (A, x_0)$, $r(x) = H(x, 1)$ Then $r \circ \iota : (A, x_0) \rightarrow (A, x_0)$ is the id map 1_A and $(r \circ \iota)_* = (1_A)_* \implies r_* \circ \iota_* = 1_{\pi_1(A, x_0)}$.

Furthermore $\iota_* \circ r_* = (\iota \circ r)_*$. $\iota \circ r : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (X, x_0)$ and there is a homotopy H between 1_X and $\iota \circ r$. $H(x_0, t) = x_0 \forall t \in I$.

If $f : I \rightarrow X$ loop, $f(0) = f(1) = x_0$, then $H \circ (f \times 1_I) : I \times I \rightarrow X$ is a path homotopy between $1_X \circ f$ and $(\iota \circ r) \circ f$. (path homotopy: $H \circ (f \times 1_I)(0, t) = H(x_0, t) = x_0 \forall t \in I$, $H \circ (f \times 1_I)(1, t) = H(x_0, t) = x_0 \forall t \in I$).

So $[1_X \circ f] = [(\iota \circ r) \circ f] \implies (1_*(f)) = (\iota \circ r)_*(f)$.

$\implies 1_{\pi_1(X, x_0)} = (\iota \circ r)_* \implies \iota_* r_* = 1_{\pi_1(X, x_0)}$. ■

Corollary 2.61 If $\iota : S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ the inclusion map, $x_0 \in S^n$, then $\iota_* : \pi_1(S^n, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\})$ is isomorphism.

PROOF Define $H : (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}) \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$, $H(x, t) := (1-t)x + t \frac{x}{\|x\|}$.

- H is continuous,
- $H(x, 0) = x \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\} =: X$,
- $H(x, 1) = \frac{x}{\|x\|} \in S^n =: A$.
- If $x \in S^n$, then $H(x, t) = (1-t)x + tx = x \forall t \in I$.

H is a deformation retraction of $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus \{0\}$ onto S^n . Now use theorem. ■

Example 2.63 We can look at example 2.58 again:

1. $\pi_1(X) \stackrel{\text{Thm}}{\simeq} \pi_1(A) \stackrel{\text{Cor}}{\simeq} \pi_1(S^1) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.
- 2.,3. “figure eight” space is deformation retraction of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\} \xrightarrow{\text{Thm}} \pi_1(A_1) \simeq \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\})$,
 “theta” space is deformation retraction of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\} \xrightarrow{\text{Thm}} \pi_1(A_2) \simeq \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\})$.
 $\implies \pi_1(A_1) \simeq \pi_1(A_2)$.

Comment: “figure eight” and “theta” space have isomorphic fundamental group, but none is a deformation retract of the other (exercise).

Definition 2.64 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ be a continuous map. If there exists a continuous map $g : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g \circ f : X \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to $1_X : X \rightarrow X$ and $f \circ g : Y \rightarrow Y$ is homotopic to $1_Y : Y \rightarrow Y$, then f is called a **homotopy equivalence**. g is called **homotopy inverse** of f . X, Y are called **homotopy equivalent**. If X, Y are homotopy equivalent, we say that X, Y have the same **homotopy type**.

Check: Homotopy equivalence is an equivalence relation.

Remark 2.65 Homotopy equivalence is more general than deformation retraction.

- Suppose that $H : X \times I \rightarrow X$ is a deformation retraction of X onto A . Let $\iota : A \rightarrow X$ the inclusion map and $r : X \rightarrow A$, $r(x) = H(x, 1)$. Then $r \circ \iota : A \rightarrow A$ is the id map 1_A , and H is a homotopy between $\iota \circ r$ and 1_X .

Lemma 2.66 Let $h, k : X \rightarrow Y$ homotopic continuous maps with $h(x_0) = y_0, k(x_0) = y_1$. If $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is the homotopy between h and k and if $a(t) = H(x_0, t)$, then $k_* = \widehat{a} \circ h_*$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi_1(X, x_0) & \xrightarrow{h_*} & \pi_1(Y, y_0) \\ & \searrow k_* & \downarrow \widehat{a} \\ & & \pi_1(Y_1, y_1) \end{array}$$

PROOF ...der Beweis ist noch sehr fehlerhaft, noch fehlerhafter als gewohnt :P ...

Let $f : I \rightarrow X$ a loop based at x_0 .

We want to show that $k_*([f]) = \widehat{a} \circ h_*([f])$

$$\iff [k \circ f] = \widehat{a}([h \circ f])$$

$$\iff [k \circ f] = [\widehat{a}][h \circ f][a]$$

$$\iff [a][k \circ f] = [h \circ f][a]$$

$$\iff [a(k \circ f)] = [(h \circ f)a].$$

$h(x) = H(x, 0) \forall x \in X$, so $h(f(s)) = H(f(s), 0) = (H \circ f_0)(s)$ where $f_0 : I \rightarrow X \times I$, $f_0(s) = (f(s), 0)$. I.e. $h \circ f = H \circ f_0$.

$k(x) = H(x, 1) \forall x \in X$, so $k(f(s)) = H(f(s), 1) = (H \circ f_1)(s)$ where $f_1 : I \rightarrow X \times I$, $f_1(s) = (f(s), 1)$. I.e. $k \circ f = H \circ f_1$.

Consider $c : I \rightarrow X \times I$, $c(t) = (x_0, t)$. Then $H(c(t)) = a(t)$.

$F : I \times I \rightarrow X \times I$, $F(s, t) := (f(s), t)$.

$G_0 \gamma_1$ is homotopic to $\gamma_0 B_1$, call G the path homotopy between them.

Then $F \circ G : I \times I \rightarrow X \times I$, continuous, $(F \circ G)(s, 0) = F(G(s, 0)) = \begin{cases} F(\beta_0(s), 0), & s \in [0, \frac{1}{2}] \\ F(1, \gamma_1(s)) & s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \end{cases} =$

$$\begin{cases} (f \circ \beta_0(s), 0) & s \in [0, \frac{1}{2}] \\ (f(1), \gamma_1(s)) & s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \end{cases} = \begin{cases} f_0(s) & s \in [0, \frac{1}{2}] \\ (x_0, s) & s \in [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \end{cases}.$$

$(F \circ G)(s, 1) = \dots = (c \cdot f_1)(s)$, $(F \circ G)(0, t) = F((0, 0)) = (x_0, 0)$, $(F \circ G)(1, t) = F((1, 1)) = (x_0, 1)$

$\implies (F \circ G)$ is a path homotopy from $c \cdot f_1$ to $c \cdot f_1$.

Lastly, $H \circ (F \circ G)$ is a path homotopy from $H(f_0 \cdot c) = H(f_0) \cdot H(c) = (h \circ f) \cdot a$ to $H(c \cdot f_1) = H(c) \cdot H(f_1) = a \cdot (k \circ f)$ ■

Corollary 2.68 Let $h, k : (X, x_0) \rightarrow (Y, y_0)$ homotopic continuous maps. If $H : X \times I \rightarrow Y$ is the homotopy between h and k and $H(x_0, t) = y_0 \forall t \in [0, 1]$, then $k_* = h_*$.

Theorem 2.69 Let $f : X \rightarrow Y$ homotopy equivalence with $f(x_0) = y_0$. Then $f_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0)$ is an isomorphism.

PROOF Let $g : Y \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy inverse of f , and let $g(y_0) = x_1$ and $f(x_1) = y_1$.

$$(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, y_0) \xrightarrow{g} (X, x_1) \xrightarrow{f} (Y, y_1)$$

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) \xrightarrow{(f_{x_0})_*} \pi_1(Y, y_0) \xrightarrow{g_*} \pi_1(X, x_1) \xrightarrow{(f_{x_1})_*} \pi_1(Y, y_1)$$

$g \circ f_{x_0}$ is homotopy to $1_X \implies$ [Lemma] there is a path $a : I \rightarrow X$, such that $(g \circ f_{x_0})_* = \widehat{a} \circ (1_X)_* = \widehat{a}$.

$\widehat{\alpha}$ is a group isomorphism, so $g_* \circ f_*$ is a group isomorphism.

$\implies g_*$ is surjective (1).

Similarly $(f_{x_1} \circ g)_*$ is a group isomorphism.

$\iff (f_{x_1})_* \circ g_*$ is a group isomorphism.

$\implies g_*$ is injective (2).

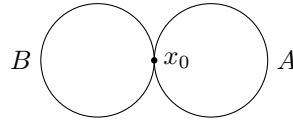
(1),(2) $\leadsto g_*$ is a group isomorphism, $\leadsto (f_{x_0})_* = (g_*)^{-1} \circ \widehat{\alpha}$ is a group isomorphism.

Theorem 2.71 X, Y have the same homotopy type iff X, Y are homeomorphic to deformation retracts of a space Z .

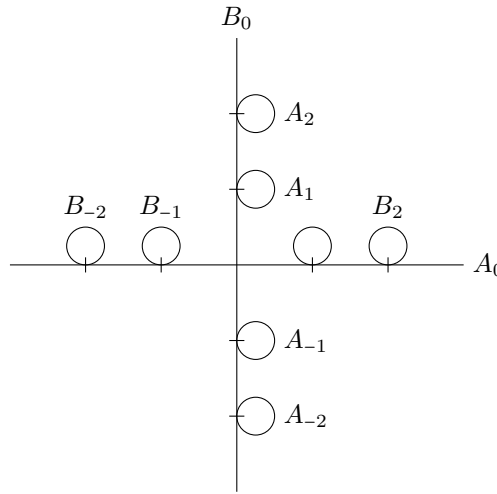
[Proof: hard, we omit it]

Theorem 2.72 $\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1)$ is not abelian.

PROOF $X := S^1 \vee S^1$.



Consider the following covering space



$p : \widetilde{X} \rightarrow X$, p maps each A_i homeomorphically onto $A \forall i \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. and B_i homeomorphically to $B \forall i \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. p maps all tangency points to X_0 . p wraps A_0 around A , B_0 around B .

p is a covering map (check). Consider $\widetilde{f} : I \rightarrow \widetilde{X}, f(s) = (s, 0)$. $\widetilde{g} : I \rightarrow \widetilde{X}, g(s) = (0, s)$ and $f = p \circ \widetilde{f}, g = p \circ \widetilde{g}$.

Also consider $\widetilde{f \cdot g}$ and $\widetilde{g \cdot f}$ and lift these two paths to paths $\widetilde{f \cdot g}, \widetilde{g \cdot f}$ in \widetilde{X} both starting at $(0, 0)$. $\widetilde{f \cdot g}$ is a path in \widetilde{X} that goes from $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 0)$ along x -axis and then once around B_1 . $\widetilde{g \cdot f}$ is a path in \widetilde{X} that goes from $(0, 0)$ to $(0, 1)$ along the y -axis and then once around A_1 .

$\widetilde{f \cdot g}(1) \neq \widetilde{g \cdot f}(1)$. So $f \cdot g$ and $g \cdot f$ are not path-homotopic. $[f \cdot g] \neq [g \cdot f]$ i.e. $[f] \cdot [g] \neq [g] \cdot [f]$

$\implies \pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1)$ is not abelian. ■

Theorem 2.74 $\pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \simeq \pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0)$.

PROOF Consider the projections $p : X \times Y \rightarrow X, x \times y \mapsto x$ and $q : X \times Y \rightarrow Y, x \times y \mapsto y$, and $p_* : \pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ and $q_* : \pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0)$. Define $\Phi : \pi_1(X \times Y, x_0 \times y_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0), [f] \mapsto (p_*([f]), q_*([f]))$.

Claim: Φ is a group homomorphism.

Proof: $\Phi([f][g]) = \Phi([fg]) = (p_*([fg]), q_*([fg])) = ([p \circ (fg)], [g \circ (fg)]) = ([p \circ f][p \circ g], [g \circ f][q \circ g])$.

$\Phi([f])\Phi([g]) = ([p \circ f], [q \circ f])([p \circ g], [q \circ g]) = ([p \circ f][p \circ g], [g \circ f][q \circ g])$.

Claim: Φ is surjective.

Proof: Consider $g : I \rightarrow X$ Loop based at x_0 , and $h : I \rightarrow Y$ loop based at y_0 . Define $f : I \rightarrow X \times Y, f(s) = (g(s), h(s))$. Then f is a loop based at (x_0, y_0) and $\Phi([f]) = (p_*([f]), q_*([f])) = ([g], [h])$.

Claim: Φ is injective.

Proof: Suppose that $f : I \rightarrow X \times Y$ is a loop based at (x_0, y_0) with $\Phi([f])$ is the identity element in $\pi_1(X, x_0) \times \pi_1(Y, y_0)$. Then $p \circ f$ is path homotopic to c_{x_0} via a path homotopy G and $q \circ f$ is path homotopic to c_{y_0} via a path homotopy H . Define $F : I \times I \rightarrow X \times Y$ by $F(s, t) := (G(s, t), H(s, t))$. F is a path homotopy from f to $c_{(x_0, y_0)}$. $\implies [f]$ trivial. ■

Corollary 2.76 Consider the torus $T \simeq S^1 \times S^1. \implies \pi_1(T) \simeq \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 2.77

1. Let $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ an indexed collection of sets. The *disjoint union* of these sets is $\sqcup_{i \in I} X_i = \cup_{i \in I} X_i \times \{i\}$.
2. Suppose that X_i is a topological space $\forall i \in I$. The *disjoint union topology* on $\sqcup_{i \in I} X_i$ is the finest topology, such that all of the following maps are continuous: $\varphi_i : X_i \rightarrow \sqcup_{i \in I} X_i, x \mapsto x \times \{i\}$.
Explicitly, U is open in $\sqcup_{i \in I} X_i$ iff $\varphi_i^{-1}(U)$ is open $\forall i \in I$.
3. Let X, Y be topological spaces, $A \subseteq X$, and $f : A \rightarrow Y$ continuous. The *adjunction space* $X \sqcup_f Y$ (adjunction of X to Y along f (along A)) is the quotient space

$$X \sqcup_f Y / \sim,$$

where $a \sim f(a) \forall a \in A$. f is called the *attaching map*.

Remark 2.78 If $X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$ for any $i, j \in I, i \neq j$, then $\sqcup_{i \in I} X_i \simeq \cup_{i \in I} X_i$.

Example 2.79 $X_1, X_2 \subset \{R, T, S^2\}, X_1 \sqcup X_2$.

Definition 2.80 The *wedge sum* of X and Y is

$$X \vee Y := X \sqcup Y / x_0 \sim y_0,$$

for $x_0 \in X, y_0 \in Y$.

If X_i are topological spaces, $x_i \in X_i, i \in I$, then

$$\bigvee_{i \in I} X_i = \sqcup_{i \in I} X_i / \{x_i \sim x_j, i, j \in I\}.$$

Definition 2.81 Let X, Y n -manifolds. Consider U, V , open discs D^2 in X, Y respectively, and $f : \partial U \rightarrow \partial V$ a homeomorphism. The **connected sum** of X and Y is

$$X \# Y := (X \setminus U) \sqcup (Y \setminus V) / \sim,$$

where $x \sim y$ if $x \in \partial U, y \in \partial V$ and $f(x) = y$.

Remark 2.82 Although this construction involves the choice of the discs U, V the resulting space is unique up to homeomorphism.

Claim: $Y := S^1 \vee S^1$ is a retract of $X := T \# T$.

PROOF (hier bräuchte es ne Graphik...)

Consider $f : X \rightarrow Y$, where f maps the dotted circle to y , and f restricted to $S^1 \vee S^1 \subseteq X$ is a homeomorphism h , and $f|_1 : 1$ everywhere else. Further consider r , where r retracts Y onto $S^1 \vee S^1$ by mapping each cross-sectional circle to the point where it intersects $S^1 \vee S^1$. Use h^{-1} to map $S^1 \vee S^1$ in Y to $S^1 \vee S^1$ in X .

\leadsto retraction of $T \# T$ onto $S^1 \vee S^1$. ■

Corollary 2.84 $\pi_1(T \# T)$ is not abelian.

PROOF If $\iota : S^1 \vee S^1 \rightarrow T \# T$ the inclusion map, then ι_* is injective (follows from claim).

$$\iota_* : \pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1) \rightarrow \pi_1(T \# T).$$

So $\pi_1(T \# T)$ is not abelian. ■

Corollary 2.86 $T, T \# T$ are not homotopy equivalent.

PROOF obvious.

Lemma 2.88 If $P = (0, \dots, 0, 1) \in S^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$, then $S^n \setminus \{P\}$ is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^n .

PROOF Define $f : S^n \setminus \{P\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ (stereographic projection), where $(x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \mapsto \frac{1}{1-x_{n+1}}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

f is obviously continuous and furthermore $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow S^n \setminus \{P\}$ where $(y_1, \dots, y_n) \mapsto (\frac{2}{1+\|y\|^2}y_1, \dots, \frac{2}{1+\|y\|^2}y_n, 1 - \frac{2}{1+\|y\|^2})$ is continuous and $f \circ g = 1_{\mathbb{R}^n}$ and $g \circ f = \text{id}_{S^n \setminus \{P\}}$. ■

Proposition 2.90 $\pi_1(S^n) = 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$.

PROOF Consider $f : I \rightarrow S^n$ a loop based at $x_0 \in S^n$. Let $x \in S^n \setminus \{x_0\}$ and B a small open ball in $S^n \setminus \{x_0\}$ with $x \in B$.

Then $f^{-1}(B) \subseteq (0, 1)$ and $f^{-1}(B)$ is open., So $f^{-1}(B) = \cup_{i \in I} (a_i, b_i)$.

$f^{-1}(\{x\})$ is a closed subset of the compact space I , i.e. $f^{-1}(\{x\})$ is compact.

$f^{-1}(\{x\}) \subseteq f^{-1}(B) = \cup_{i \in I} (a_i, b_i), \implies \exists (a_1, b_1), \dots, (a_n, b_n)$ such that $f^{-1}(\{x\}) \subseteq (a_1, b_1) \cup \dots \cup (a_n, b_n)$.

Consider $f_i = f|_{[a_i, b_i]}$. Then $f_i([a_i, b_i]) \subseteq B$ and $f_i([a_i, b_i]) = f(\overline{[a_i, b_i]}) \subseteq \overline{f([a_i, b_i])} \subseteq \overline{B}$.

$f(a_i), f(b_i) \in \partial B$.

Since $n \geq 2$, choose $g_i : I \rightarrow \partial B$ path, such that $g_i(0) = f(a_i)$ and $g_i(1) = f(b_i)$.

Furthermore, \overline{B} is convex, so $\pi_1(\overline{B}) = 0. \implies f_i \simeq g_i$.

Repeating this process for all intervals $[a_i, b_i]$, $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, we obtain a loop $g : I \rightarrow S^n$, homotopic to f , and with the property that $g(I) \subseteq S^n \setminus \{x\}$, $[f] = [g]$.

The lemma implies that $[g] = [c_{x_0}]$, so $[f] = [c_{x_0}]$ and $\pi_1(S^n, x_0) = 0$. ■

Corollary 2.92 \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^n are not homeomorphic for any $n \neq 2$.

PROOF Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a homeomorphism ($n \neq 2$). Then

- $n = 1$: $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\} \simeq \mathbb{R} \setminus \{f(0)\}$, but $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ is path connected, but $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{f(0)\}$ is not.
- Recall $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{P\}) \simeq \pi_1(S^1) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$, $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{f(p)\}) \simeq \pi_1(S^{n-1}) = 0$ for $n \geq 3$.
 $f|_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{P\}} : \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{P\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{f(P)\}$ homeomorphism, contradiction. ■

Recall:

space	π_1	using
$X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ convex, $x_0 \in X$	0	definition
S^1	\mathbb{Z}	covering spaces
$\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$	\mathbb{Z}	deformation retracts
$\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{z\text{-axis}\}$	\mathbb{Z}	deformation retracts
$S^1 \vee S^1$	$\pi_1(S^1 \vee S^1) \simeq \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\})$	deformation retracts
θ -space	$\pi_1(\theta) \simeq \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\})$	deformation retracts
Möbius-band M	\mathbb{Z}	deformation retracts
$S^1 \vee S^1$	not abelian	covering spaces
$T \# T$	not abelian	retraction
$S^n, n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$	0	
T	$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$	

2.6. Seifert von Kampen Theorem

2.6.1. Direct sums of abelian groups

Definition 2.94 Let G be an abelian group and $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of subgroups of G . We say that the groups G_a **generates** G if every element x of G can be written as a finite sum of elements of the groups G_a .
 Since G is abelian, we can always write this sum in the form $X = X_{a_1} + \dots + X_{a_n}$, $X_a \in G_a$, $a_i \neq a_j$, if $i \neq j$.
 In this case we often write $x = \sum_{a \in A} X_a$.
 If the groups G_a generate G , then G is called the **sum** of G_a and we write $G = \sum_{a \in A} G_a$ or $G = G_1 + \dots + G_n$.
 If G_a generates G and $\forall x \in G \exists ! A$ -tuple $(x_a)_{a \in A}$ with $x_a = 0$, for all but finitely many a in A , and $G = \sum_{a \in A} X_a$ then G is called the **direct sum** of G_a , and we write $G = \oplus_{a \in A} G_a$, or $G = G_1 \oplus \dots \oplus G_n$.

Example 2.95

1. $\mathbb{R}^2, G_1 = \{(x, 0) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}, G_2 = \{(0, y) \mid y \in \mathbb{R}\}, \mathbb{R}^2 = G_1 \oplus G_2$.
2. \mathbb{R}^∞ : the set of all sequences of real numbers that are eventually zero. \mathbb{R}^∞ is a group under coordinate addition. $G_n = \{(0, \dots, 0, x_n, 0, \dots \mid x_n \in \mathbb{R}\}$ are subgroups of $\mathbb{R}^\infty \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{R}^\infty = \oplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} G_n$.

Lemma 2.96 (Extension condition)

Let G be an abelian group and $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of subgroups. If $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} G_a$, then G satisfies the following condition:

- (*) If H is any abelian group and $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ is a family of homomorphisms, then there exists a homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$, such that $h|_{G_a} = h_a \forall a \in A$.

Furthermore, this is unique. Conversely if G_a generate G and (*) holds, then $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} G_a$.

PROOF Suppose that $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} G_a$. Consider H abelian group, and $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ family of homomorphisms. Define $h : G \rightarrow H$ in the following way: If $x \in G$, then $x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{a_i}$ and $h(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_{a_i}(x_{a_i})$. h is well-defined, because there is a unique way of writing x as $\sum_{i=1}^n x_{a_i}$. h is a homomorphism and $h|_{G_a} = h_a$.

Suppose that $h' : G \rightarrow H$ with $h'|_{G_a} = h_a, \forall a \in A$. Then $h'(x) = h'(\sum_{i=1}^n x_{a_i}) = \sum_{i=1}^n h'(x_{a_i}) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_{a_i}(x_{a_i}) = h(x)$.

Converse: Suppose that $x = \sum_{a \in A} x_a = \sum_{a \in A} y_a$ for some $x \in G$. Choose $b \in A$ and let $H = G_b$. Define $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ by $h_a = 1_{G_b}$ if $a = b$, and h_a trivial if $a \neq b$. Let $h : G \rightarrow H$ be the extension of the homomorphisms h_a . Then $h(x) = \sum_{a \in A} h(x_a) = \sum_{a \in A} h_a(x_a) = X_b, h(x) = \sum_{a \in A} h(y_a) = \sum_{a \in A} h_a(y_a) = Y_b$.
 $\implies X_b = Y_b, b \in A,$
 $\implies X_a = Y_a \forall a \in A.$ ■

Corollary 2.98 Let $G = G_1 \oplus G_2$ and $G_1 = \bigoplus_{a \in A} H_a$, and $G_2 = \bigoplus_{b \in B} H_b$, where the index sets A, B are disjoint. Then $G = \bigoplus_{\gamma \in A \cup B} H_\gamma$.

[Proof: Problem Set 7, Exercise 4.a)]

Corollary 2.99 If $G = G_1 \oplus G_2$, then $G/G_2 \simeq G_1$.

[Proof: Problem Set 7, Exercise 4.b)]

Given a family of abelian groups $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$, find a group G that contains subgroups $G'_a \simeq G_a \forall a \in A$ and $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} G'_a$.

Definition 2.100 Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of abelian groups, G be an abelian group, and $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$ a family of monomorphisms such that $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$. Then G is called the **external direct sum** of the groups G_a , relative to monomorphisms i_a .

Notation: \leq : Subgroup.

Theorem 2.101 If $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ is family of abelian groups, then there exists an abelian group G , and a family of monomorphisms $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$, such that $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$.

PROOF Consider the product $\prod_{a \in A} G_a$ (with coordinate wise addition), which is an abelian group. Let $G = \{(x_a)_{a \in A} \mid x_a = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many indices in } A\} \leq \prod G_a$. Given $\beta \in A$, define $i_\beta : G_\beta \rightarrow G$, by letting $i_\beta(x)$ the tuple with x as its β -th coordinate and 0 in every other coordinate. i_β is a monomorphism (follows from the definition), and if $x \in G$, then x has finitely many non zero coordinates, i.e. $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, \dots)$ and $x = i_1(x_1) + \dots + i_n(x_n)$. Furthermore, this expression is unique. ■

Lemma 2.103 (extension condition)

Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of abelian groups, G be an abelian group, $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$ family of homomorphisms. If i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$, and $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$, then the following condition holds:

- (*) Given any abelian group H and any family of homomorphisms, $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$, then there exists a homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$, with $h \circ i_a = h_a \forall a \in A$.

Furthermore h is unique.

Conversely if $i_a(G_a)$ generate G and (*) holds, then i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$, and $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$.

[Proof: Problem Set 7, Exercise 4.c]

Theorem 2.104 (Uniqueness of direct sums)

Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of abelian groups, G, G' be abelian groups, $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$, $i'_a : G_a \rightarrow G'$ families of monomorphisms, such that $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$ and $G' = \bigoplus_{a \in A} i'_a(G_a)$. Then $\exists! \varphi : G \rightarrow G'$ isomorphism, such that $\varphi \circ i_a = i'_a \forall a \in A$.

PROOF

- Lemma 2.103 ($H = G'$) $\implies \exists! \varphi : G \rightarrow G'$, such that $\varphi \circ i_a = i'_a \forall a \in A$.
- Lemma 2.103 ($H = G$) $\implies \exists! \psi : G' \rightarrow G$, such that $\psi \circ i'_a = i_a \forall a \in A$.

Now (Lemma 2.103) $\psi \circ \varphi : G \rightarrow G$ satisfies $(\psi \circ \varphi) \circ i_a = i_a \forall a \in A$.

$\implies \psi \circ \varphi = 1_G$, analogously $\varphi \circ \psi = 1_{G'}$. ■

2.7. Free abelian groups

Definition 2.106 Let G be an abelian group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of elements in G . Let $G_a = \langle x_a \rangle$, i.e. the subgroup generated by x_a . If G_a generate G , we also say that x_a generate G .

If $G_a = \langle x_a \rangle$ is infinite cyclic $\forall a \in A$, and $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} \langle x_a \rangle$, then G is called a **free abelian group** with basis $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$.

Lemma 2.107 (extension condition)

Let G be an abelian group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of elements of G that generates G . Then G is a free abelian group with basis $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ iff for any abelian group H and any family $\{y_a\}_{a \in A}$ of elements in H , there is a homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$, such that $h(x_a) = y_a \forall a \in A$. In such a case h is unique.

PROOF

“ \implies ” Given H , $\{y_a\}_{a \in A}$ define homomorphisms $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$, with $h_a(x_a) = y_a$. (G_a is cyclic, so the condition $h(x_a) = y_a$ determines uniquely a homomorphism $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$). By lemma 2.96 $\exists h : G \rightarrow H$ homomorphism, with $h|_{G_a} = h_a \forall a \in A$. Furthermore h is unique.

“ \impliedby ” Suppose that for some $\beta \in A$, $\{x_\beta\}$ is finite. Then for $H = \mathbb{Z}$ and $y_a = 1 \forall a \in A$, there is no homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$ with $h(x_a) = 1 \forall a \in A$.

By lemma 2.96, we get that $G = \bigoplus_{a \in A} G_a$, i.e. G is a free abelian group with basis $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$. ■

Remark 2.109 Let G be free abelian with basis $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. $G = \langle x_1 \rangle \oplus \dots \oplus \langle x_n \rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition 2.110 If G is free abelian with basis $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, then n is uniquely determined by G .

PROOF $G \simeq \mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z} \geq 2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus 2\mathbb{Z}$,

$$\mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z} / 2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus 2\mathbb{Z} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2.$$

$$|\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2| = 2^n. \quad \blacksquare$$

Definition 2.112 If G is a free abelian group with basis $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, then n is called the *rank* of G .

2.8. Free products of groups

Definition 2.113 Let G be a group and $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of subgroups of G . We say that G_a **generate** G , if $\forall x \in G \exists (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ with x_i element of some $G_a \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, and $x = x_1 \dots x_n$.
Such a sequence is called a *word of length n* in the groups G_a that represents x .

If $x_i, x_{i+1} \in G_a$ for some $a \in A$, we group them together to obtain the word

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_n)$$

of length $n - 1$. If $x_i = 1$, we delete x_i from our sequence.

Repeating these reduction operations, we obtain (y_1, \dots, y_m) representing x , such that no group G_a contains y_i and y_{i+1} and, $y_i \neq 1 \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$. We call (y_1, \dots, y_m) a *reduced word*.

Convention: \emptyset is a reduced word representing $1 \in G$.

Definition 2.114 Let G be a group and $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of subgroup that generates G and $G_a \cap G_b = \{1\} \forall a, b \in A, a \neq b$. If $\forall x \in G$ there is only one reduced word in the group $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$, that represents that element, then G is called the *free product* of the groups $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$.
 $G = *_{a \in A} G_a$, or $G = G_1 * \dots * G_n$.

Example 2.115 $G_1 = \{1, x_1\}, G_2 = \{1, x_2\}$. $x \in G = G_1 * G_2$. Elements of G are for example $x_1, x_2, x_1 x_2, x_2 x_1, x_1 x_2 x_1, x_2 x_1 x_2, \dots$

Example 2.116 $G = \{\varphi : \{0, 1, 2\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\} \mid \varphi \text{ bijection}\}$. $\varphi_1 : \{0, 1, 2\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}$,
 $\varphi_1(2) = 2, \varphi_1(1) = 0, \varphi_1(0) = 1$
 $\varphi_2 : \{0, 1, 2\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2\}, \varphi_2(0) = 0, \varphi_2(1) = 2, \varphi_2(2) = 1$.

$$|\langle \varphi_1 \rangle| = 2, |\langle \varphi_2 \rangle| = 2,$$

$\langle \varphi_1 \rangle, \langle \varphi_2 \rangle$ generate G , but $B \neq \langle \varphi_1 \rangle * \langle \varphi_2 \rangle$.

Indeed the reduced words $(\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_1)$ and $(\varphi_2, \varphi_1, \varphi_2)$ represent the same element in G .

Claim: Suppose that G_a generate G . $G_a \cap G_b = \{1\} \forall a, b \in A$ with $a \neq b$. If the representation of 1 by the empty word is unique then $G = \ast_{a \in A} G_a$.

PROOF Let $x \in G$ and suppose that $(x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_m)$ are two reduced words representing x , where $x_i \in G_{a_i}, y_i \in G_{b_j}, a_i \in A, i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, b_j \in A, j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$.
 $x_1 \dots x_n = x = y_1 \dots y_m \implies x_1 \dots x_n y_m^{-1} \dots y_1^{-1}$.

$\implies a_n = b_m$ (i.e. $x_n, y_m \in G_{a_n} = G_{b_m}$).

We obtain $(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n y_m^{-1}, y_{m-1}^{-1}, \dots, y_1^{-1})$.

Now we must have $x_n y_m^{-1} = 1 \implies x_n = y_m$.

Continue this process, to conclude that $n = m$ and $x_i = y_i, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. ■

Lemma 2.118 (extension condition / universal mapping property) Let G be a group, $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of subgroups. If $G = \ast_{a \in A} G_a$, then it satisfies the following extension condition: Given any group H and any family of homomorphisms $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ there exists a homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$, such that $h|_{G_a} = h_a$. In addition h is a unique.

PROOF Define $h : G \rightarrow H$ as follows:

- $h(1) = 1$,
- If $x \in G, x \neq 1$, let (x_1, \dots, x_n) be the (unique) reduced word representing x . Set $h(x) = h_{a_1}(x_1) \dots h_{a_n}(x_n)$, where a_i is the index for which $x_i \in G_{a_i}$.

Then

- h is well-defined,
- $h|_{G_a} = h_a \forall a \in A$,
- h is a group homomorphism (problem sheet 8).

In fact, uniqueness of h follows from the fact that h must satisfy $h(x) = h(x_1, \dots, x_n) = h(x_1) \dots h(x_n) = h_{a_1}(x_1) \dots h_{a_n}(x_n)$. ■

External free product

Definition 2.120 Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of groups. Suppose that G is a group and $\{i_a : G_a \rightarrow G\}_{a \in A}$ a family of monomorphisms with $G = \ast_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$, then G is called the *external free product* of the groups G_a relative to the monomorphisms i_a .

Does such a group G exist?

Theorem 2.121 Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of groups. There exists a group G and a family of monomorphisms $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$, such that $G = \ast_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$.

Lemma 2.122 (extension condition)

$\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ family of groups, G group. $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$ family of homomorphisms. If i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$ and $G = \ast_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$, then the following extension condition holds: Given any group H and a family of homomorphisms $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H, \exists : G \rightarrow H$ homomorphism such that $h \circ i_a = h_a \forall a \in A$. In addition h is unique.

[Proof omitted]

Theorem 2.123 (uniqueness of free product)

Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of groups, G, G' be groups, $\{i_a : G_a \rightarrow G\}_{a \in A}, \{i'_a : G_a \rightarrow G'\}_{a \in A}$ families of monomorphism such that $\{i_a(G_a)\}_{a \in A}, \{i'_a(G_a)\}_{a \in A}$ generate G, G' respectively.

If G, G' satisfy the extension condition, then $\exists!$ isomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$ such that $\varphi \circ i_a = i'_a \forall a \in A$.

[Proof: analogous to the proof of uniqueness of direct sums (problem sheet 8)]

Lemma 2.124 Let $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of groups, G be a group and $i_a : G_a \rightarrow G$ be a family of homomorphisms. If $i_a(G_a)$ generate G , and the extension condition holds, then i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$, and $G = *_{a \in A} G_a$.

PROOF Consider $b \in A$. Set $H = G_b, h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ the identity homomorphism 1_{G_b} if $a = b$, and $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H$ the trivial homomorphism, if $a \neq b$.

Let $h : G \rightarrow H$ be the homomorphism given by the extension condition.

Then $h \circ i_b = h_b \implies h \circ i_b = 1_{G_b} \implies i_b$ is 1:1.

I.e. i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$.

Existence theorem \implies there exists a group G' and $\{i'_a : G_a \rightarrow G'\}_{a \in A}$ a family of monomorphisms such that $G' = *_{a \in A} i'_a(G_a)$. G, G' both satisfy the extension condition and are generated by $\{i_a(G_a)\}_{a \in A}$, respectively $\{i'_a(G_a)\}_{a \in A}$.

Uniqueness theorem \implies there is an isomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$ with $\varphi \circ i_a = i'_a$. $G' = *_{a \in A} i'_a(G_a)$.

$\implies G = *_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$. ■

Corollary 2.126 If $G = G_1 * G_2$, $G_1 = *_{a \in A} H_a, G_2 = *_{b \in B} H_b, A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $G = *_{\gamma \in A \cup B} H_\gamma$.

N normal subgroup of G : $N \trianglelefteq G$.

Theorem 2.127 Let $G = G_1 * G_2, N_i \trianglelefteq G_i, i \in \{1, 2\}$. If N is the smallest normal subgroup of G that contains N_1 , and $N = \dots$, then

$$G/N \simeq (G_1/N_1) * (G_2/N_2).$$

PROOF Consider the inclusion homomorphism $i : G_1 \rightarrow G_1 * G_2, i' : G_2 \rightarrow G_1 * G_2$, and the projection homomorphism $p : G_1 * G_2 \rightarrow G_1 * G_2/N, g \mapsto gN$.

Let $n_1 \in N_1$. Then $(p \circ i)(n_1) = n_1N = N$. This implies that $N_1 \leq \ker(p \circ i)$ and $p \circ i$ induces $(p \circ i)' : G_1/N_1 \rightarrow G_1 * G_2/N$.

Analogously, $(p \circ i')' : G_2/N_2 \rightarrow G_1 * G_2/N$.

We will apply lemma 2.124 for the homomorphisms i_1, i_2 .

- Check that the extension condition holds.

Let $h_1 : G_1/N_1 \rightarrow H, h_2 : G_2/N_2 \rightarrow H$ arbitrary homomorphisms and $p_1 : G_1 \rightarrow G_1/N_1, p_2 : G_2 \rightarrow G_2/N_2$ the projection homomorphism. Then $h_1 \circ p_1 : G_1 \rightarrow H, h_2 \circ p_2 : G_2 \rightarrow H$ homomorphisms. The extension condition for $G_1 * G_2$ implies that $\exists h : G_1 * G_2 \rightarrow H$, with $h_{G_i} = h_i \circ p_i, i \in \{1, 2\}$. If $n_i \in N_i, i \in \{1, 2\}$, then $h(n_i) = 1_H$. I.e. $N_i \leq \ker h \forall i \in \{1, 2\}$.

$\implies N \leq \ker h$.

This implies that $h : G_1 * G_2 \rightarrow H$ induces a homomorphism $h' : G_1 * G_2/N \rightarrow H$

with $h' \circ i_1 = h_1$, and $h' \circ i_2 = h_2$.

$$(h' \circ i_1)(g_1 N_1) = h' \circ (p \circ i)'(g_1 N_1) = h'((p \circ i)(g_1)) = h'(p(i(g_1))) = h'(p(g_1)) = h'(g_1 N) = h(g_1) = (h_1 \circ p_1)(g_1) = h_1(g_1 N_1).$$

- Check that $i_1(G_1/N_1), i_2(G_2/N_2)$ generate $G_1 * G_2/N$.
 $i_1(G_1/N_1) = (p \circ i)'(G_1/N_1) = (p \circ i)(G_1) = p(G_1) = G_1/N$, and similarly
 $i_2(G_2/N_2) = G_2/N$.
 (Lemma 2.124) $\implies i_1, i_2$ are monomorphisms and $(G_1 * G_2)/N = i_1(G_1/N_1) * i_2(G_2/N_2)$.

Corollary 2.129 If N is the smallest normal subgroup of $G_1 * G_2$ that contains G_1 , then $G_1 * G_2 / N \simeq G_2$.

PROOF $N_1 = G_1, N_2 = \{1_{G_2}\}$. ■

G group, $\{G_a\}_{a \in A}$ family of groups, $\{i_a : G_a \rightarrow G\}_{a \in A}$ family of homomorphisms. Then the following statements are equivalent:

1. (i_a is a monomorphism $\forall a \in A$ and) $G = *_{a \in A} i_a(G_a)$.
2. Given any group H and any family of homomorphisms $h_a : G_a \rightarrow H, \exists!$ homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$ with $h \circ i_a = h_a, \forall a \in A$.

2.8.1. Free groups

Definition 2.131 Let G be a group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of G with $\langle x_a \rangle$ infinite cyclic $\forall a \in A$. If $G = *_{a \in A} \langle x_a \rangle$, then G is called a **free group** and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ is called a system of free generators.

In this case, if $x \in G \setminus \{1\}$, then x can be written uniquely as $x = (x_{a_i})^{n_1} \cdot (x_{a_k})^{n_k}$ where $a_i \neq a_{i+1}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k-1\}$ and $n_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$.

Free groups are characterized by the following:

Lemma 2.132 (extension condition)

Let G be a group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family of elements in G . If G is a free group with $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ system of free generators, then G satisfies

- (*) Given any group H and any family $\{y_a\}_{a \in A}$ of elements of H there exists a homomorphism $h : G \rightarrow H$ with $h(x_a) = y_a \forall a \in A$.

In addition h is unique. Conversely, if $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ generates G , and (*) holds, then G is a free group with system of free generators $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$.

PROOF Lemma 2.118.

For the converse, consider $b \in A$. Then there exists a homomorphism $h_b : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ with $h_b(x_b) = 1$, and $h_b(x_a) = 0 \forall a \in A, a \neq b$. ($H = \mathbb{Z}, \{y_a\}_{a \in A} = \{0, 1\}$). This implies, that $\langle x_b \rangle$ is infinite cyclic. Therefore $\langle x_a \rangle$ infinite cyclic $\forall a \in A$.

Then lemma 2.124. ■

Theorem 2.134 Let $G = G_1 * G_2, G_1, G_2$ are free groups with $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}, \{x_a\}_{a \in B}$ respective free systems of generators with $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then G is a free group with $\{x_a\}_{a \in A \cup B}$ free system of generators.

Definition 2.135 Let $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ be an arbitrary indexed family and G_a be the set of all symbols $x_a^n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Define $x_a^n \cdot x_a^m = x_a^{n+m}$. This makes our set G_a a group. The external free product of the groups G_a is called the **free group** on the elements x_a .

Notation: We will identify the elements x_a^n of G_a with their images $i_a(x_a^n)$ in G .

Relation between free groups and free abelian groups.

Theorem 2.136 If G is a free group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ is a system of free generators, then $G / [G, G]$ is the free abelian group with basis the $\{[x_a]\}_{a \in A}$ (where $[x_a]$ is the coset $x_a[G, G]$).

PROOF We will show, that 1. $\{[x_a]\}_{a \in A}$ generate $G / [G, G]$ and 2. if H is an abelian group and $\{y_a\}_{a \in A}$ is a family of elements in H , then there is a homomorphism $h' : G / [G, G] \rightarrow H$, with $h'([x_a]) = y_a \forall a \in A$. Lemma 2.107 will then directly imply the proof.

1. $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ generate $G \rightsquigarrow \{[x_a]\}_{a \in A}$ generate $G / [G, G]$.
2. Consider an abelian group H and $\{y_a\}_{a \in A}$ a family of elements in H . G free $\implies \exists h : G \rightarrow H$ homomorphism with $h(x_a) = y_a \forall a \in A$.

H abelian $\implies [G, G] \leq \ker h$. \implies there exists an induced morphism $h' : G / [G, G] \rightarrow H$ with $h'([x_a]) = y_a \forall a \in A$.

Corollary 2.138 If G is a free group with n free generators, then an system of free generators of G has n elements.

PROOF $G / [G, G]$ free abelian group with basis $\{[x_i]\}_{i=1, \dots, n}$. ■

Definition 2.140 If G is a free group, then

$$\text{rank}(G) := \text{rank}(G / [G, G]).$$

Properties:

G free abelian group	G free group
$H \leq G \rightarrow H$, is free abelian	$H \leq G \rightsquigarrow H$ is free.
$\text{rank}(G) = n$, and $H \leq G \implies \text{rank}(H) \leq n$.	Consider the free group G and two elements $\{x_1, x_2\}$, $[G, G] \leq G$ is freely generated by $[x_1^n, x_2^n], m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. In fact a free group with rank greater than 1 has subgroups of all countable orders.

Groups up to isomorphism:

G free abelian, then the isomorphism type is determined by the cardinality of the basis.
 G free, then the isomorphism type is determined by the cardinality of systems of generators.

G finitely generated abelian group, then $G \simeq H \oplus T$, where H is free-abelian and T is torsion subgroup, so the isomorphism type is defined by the rank of H and elementary divisors.

Group representation Let G be a group and $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ be a family that generates G . Consider the free group F on $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$. Define an epimorphism $h : F \rightarrow G$, $x_a \mapsto x_a$. $G \simeq F / \ker h$.

$N := \ker h$. N is called the **relation subgroup**. If $n \in N$, then n is called a relation on F . $N \trianglelefteq F$ and we can specify N by specifying a family $\{r_b\}_{b \in B}$ of elements in F such that N is the smallest normal subgroup containing $\{r_b\}_{b \in B}$. (Exercise 4, problem sheet 8). Such a family $\{r_b\}_{b \in B}$ is called a complete set of relations.

Definition 2.141 If G is a group, a **presentation** of G is family of generators $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ of generators for G together with a complete set of relations $\{r_b\}_{b \in B}$ for G . If both $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ and $\{r_b\}_{b \in B}$ are finite, then G is called **finitely presented**. If $\{x_a\}_{a \in A}$ is finite, then G is called **finitely generated**.

A presentation determines G uniquely up to isomorphism. Given two different presentations, it is hard to decide whether they determine isomorphic groups (Unsolvability of the isomorphism problem for groups).

Example 2.142

1. G cyclic group of order n . Let $x \in G$ be generator. $\langle x \mid x^n \rangle$.
2. D_{2n} dihedral group. $\langle r, s \mid r^n, s^2, (rs)^2 \rangle$.
3. $G := \langle a, b \mid a^3b^{-2} \rangle$, $G' := \langle x, y \mid xyxy^{-1}x^{-1}y^{-1} \rangle$. Is $G \simeq G'$?
 $F = \langle a, b \rangle$, $F' = \langle x, y \rangle$. Define $h : F \rightarrow G'$ group homomorphism with $h(a) = xy$ and $h(b) = xyx$.

$$h(a^3b^{-2}) = (h(a))^3(h(b))^{-2} = xyxyxyx^{-1}y^{-1}x^{-1}y^{-1}x^{-1} = xyxyxyx^{-1}y^{-1}x^{-1}x^{-1}y^{-1}x^{-1}y^{-1}x^{-1} = 1_G.$$

If N is the smallest normal subgroup containing a^3b^{-2} then (exercise 4, problem sheet 8) $N = \langle ga^3b^{-2}g^{-1}, g \in F \rangle$.

Then $N \leq \ker h$.

$h' : F / N \rightarrow G'$, i.e. $h' : G \rightarrow G'$.

Define $g : F' \rightarrow G$ group homomorphism, with $g(x) := a^{-1}b$, and $g(y) := b^{-1}a^2$.

Do the same as above, then, g induces a homomorphism $g' : G' \rightarrow G$.

Check that $h' \circ g = 1_{G'} : G' \rightarrow G'$ and $g' \circ h' = 1_G : G \rightarrow G$.

2.8.2. The Seifert-van Kampen theorem

Let X be a topological space, $x_0 \in X$, and $X = \cup_{\alpha \in A} A_\alpha$, where A_α open path-connected subset of X with $x_0 \in A_\alpha \forall \alpha \in A$. Then we can consider the homomorphism $j_\alpha : \pi_1(A_\alpha) \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$ induced by the inclusion $A_\alpha \hookrightarrow X$ (for brevity we write $\pi_1(A_\alpha)$ instead of $\pi_1(A_\alpha, x_0)$ and we write $\pi_1(X)$ instead of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$). These homomorphisms extend to a homomorphism $\Phi : *_{\alpha \in A} \pi_1(A_\alpha) \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$ (extension condition for free product).

The Seifert-van Kampen theorem tells us, that Φ is “very often” surjective, but in general not injective.

Consider $i_{\alpha\beta} : \pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta) \rightarrow \pi_1(A_\alpha)$ the homomorphism induced by $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \hookrightarrow A_\alpha$. Then $j_\alpha \circ i_{\alpha\beta} = j_\beta \circ i_{\beta\alpha}$. Let $\omega \in \pi_1(A_\alpha \cap A_\beta)$. Then $\Phi(i_{\alpha\beta}(\omega) \cdot (i_{\beta\alpha}(\omega))^{-1}) =$

$$\Phi(i_{\alpha\beta}(\omega))(\Phi(i_{\beta\alpha}(\omega)))^{-1} = (j_\alpha \circ i_{\alpha\beta})(w) \cdot (j_\beta \circ i_{\beta\alpha}(w))^{-1} = 1_{\pi_1(X)}. \text{ I.e. } i_{\alpha\beta}(\omega) \cdot i_{\beta\alpha}^{-1} \in \ker \Phi.$$

Theorem 2.143 (Seifert-van Kampen)

If $X = \cup_{\alpha \in A} A_\alpha$. A_α open and path connected with $x_0 \in A_\alpha$, $\forall \alpha \in A$, and $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$ is path connected for any pair $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ in A , then Φ is surjective. If furthermore $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma$ is path-connected, for any triple $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ in A , then $\ker \Phi = N$, where N is the smallest normal subgroup containing all the elements of the form $i_{\alpha\beta}(\omega)i_{\beta\alpha}^{-1}$, so Φ induces an isomorphism $*_\alpha \pi_1(A_\alpha) / N \simeq \pi_1(X)$.

PROOF

- surjectivity of $\Phi : *_\alpha \pi_1(A_\alpha) \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$.

Let f be a loop in $\pi_1(X)$ based at x_0 . f is continuous and A_α is open $\forall \alpha \in A$, so $\forall s \in I$ there is an open interval $V_s \subset I$ with $s \in V_s$ and $f(\overline{V_s}) \subseteq A_\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in A$. We have $I = \cup_{s \in I} V_s$ and I is compact, so it is covered by finitely many of the V_s . Then endpoints of these intervals define a partition $0 = s_0 < s_1 < s_2 < \dots < s_m = 1$ of I such that for each i there is some subset A_α with $f([s_{i-1}, s_i]) \subseteq A_\alpha$.

Denote the A_α containing $f([s_{i-1}, s_i])$ by A_i and the path $f|_{[s_{i-1}, s_i]} = f_i$. Then $f = f_1 \cdot \dots \cdot f_m$, f_i path in A_i .

Now $A_i \cap A_{i+1}$ is path-connected, so we can choose a path g_i in $A_i \cap A_{i+1}$ from x_0 to $f(s_i)$.

Consider the loop $(f_1 \cdot \overline{g_1}) \cdot (g_1 \cdot f_2 \cdot \overline{g_2}) \cdot \dots \cdot (g_{m-1} \cdot f_m)$, which is homotopic to f .

This is a composition of loops based at x_0 each lying in a single A_i . Hence $[f] = [f_1 \cdot \overline{g_1}] \cdot [g_1 \cdot f_2 \cdot \overline{g_2}] \cdot \dots \cdot [g_{m-1} \cdot f_m] \in \text{im } \Phi$.

Notation: A factorization of $[f] \in \pi_1(X)$ is a fromal product $[f_1] \cdot \dots \cdot [f_k]$, where each f_i is a loop in some A_α based at x_0 , and f is homotopic to $f_1 \cdot \dots \cdot f_k$.

A factorization of $[f]$ is a word in $*_{\alpha \in A} \pi_1(A_\alpha)$, possibly unreduced, with $\Phi([f_1] \cdot \dots \cdot [f_k]) = [f]$.

Two factorizations of $[f]$ are equivalent, if they are related by a sequence of the following two kinds of moves or their inverses: 1. Combine adjacent terms $[f_i] \cdot [f_{i+1}]$ into $[f_i \cdot f_{i+1}]$ if $[f_i], [f_{i+1}]$ lie in the same $\pi_1(A_\alpha)$, and 2. regard the term $[f_i] \in \pi_1(A_\alpha)$ as lying in $\pi_1(A_\beta)$, if f_i is a loop in $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$.

Let $Q := *_\alpha \pi_1(A_\alpha) / N$. The first mmove, doesn't change the element of $*_{\alpha \in A} \pi_1(A_\alpha)$ defined by the factorization. The second move doesn't change the image of this element in Q .

- $\ker \Phi$.

Recall that $N \leq \ker \Phi$. If I show that any two factorizations of f are equivalent, this will imply that $\Phi' : Q \rightarrow \pi_1(X)$ is injective, hence $\ker \Phi = N$.

Let $[f_1] \cdot \dots \cdot [f_k]$ and $[f'_1] \cdot \dots \cdot [f'_\ell]$ be two factorizations of $[f]$ and let $F : I \times I \rightarrow X$ a homotopy from $f_1 \cdot \dots \cdot f_k$ to $f'_1 \cdot \dots \cdot f'_\ell$. Then there exists partions $0 = s_0 < \dots < s_m = 1$ and $0 = t_0 < \dots < t_n = 1$, such that each rectangle $R_{ij} = [s_{i-1}, s_i] \times [t_{j-1}, t_j]$ is mapped by f into a single A_α , which we label by A_{ij} . These partitions are obtained by

- covering $I \times I$ with finitely many rectangles $[a, b] \times [c, d]$ each mapped into a single A_α ,
- partitioning $I \times I$ by the union of all horizontal and vertical lines containing edges of the rectangle above.

We can also assume that the s -partition subdivides the partitions given by the products $f_1 \cdots f_k, f'_1 \cdots f'_\ell$. We may also perturb the vertical sides of the rectangles R_{ij} , so that each point in $I \times I$ lies in at most three R_{ij} 's. Relabel the new rectangles R_{mn} ordering them as in the picture

R_9	R_{10}	R_{11}	R_{12}
R_5	R_6	R_7	R_8
R_1	R_2	R_3	R_4

Consider $\gamma_r, r \in \{0, 1, \dots, mn\}$, the path in $I \times I$ from the left edge $\{0\} \times I$ to right edge $\{1\} \times I$ that separates R_1, \dots, R_r from R_{r+1}, \dots, R_{mn} . We will call the corners of the rectangles vertices. For each vertex v with $F(v) \neq x_0$ let g_v be a path from x_0 to $F(v)$ in the intersection of the two or three A_{ij} 's corresponding to the rectangles containing v . Insert into $F|_{\gamma_r}$ the appropriate paths $\bar{g}_v \cdot g_v$ at successive vertices (same idea as in the first part of the proof). This gives us a factorization of $[F|_{\gamma_r}]$ by regarding the loop corresponding to a horizontal or vertical segment between two adjacent vertices as lying in the A_{ij} for either of the rectangles containing the segment.

Diifferent choices of A_{ij} give equivalent factorizations. Also the factorizations associated to successive paths γ_r, γ_{r+1} are equivalent, because pushing γ_r to γ_{r+1} across R_{r+1} changes $F|_{\gamma_r}$ to $F|_{\gamma_{r+1}}$ by the homotopy within A_{ij} corresponding to R_{r+1} .

We can arrange that the factorization associated to γ_0 is equivalent to $[f_1] \cdots [f_k]$ and by choosing g_v for each vertex v along $I \times \{0\} \subseteq I \times I$, to lie not just in the the two A_{ij} 's corresponding to the rectangles containing v , but also to lie in the A_α for the f_i containing v in its domain.

Similarly, the factorization associated to γ_{mn} is equivalent to $[f'_1] \cdots [f'_\ell]$. This gives us that $[f_1] \cdots [f_k], [f'_1] \cdots [f'_\ell]$ are equivalent. ■

Corollary 2.145 Let $X = U \cup V, U, V$ open, $U, V, U \cap V$ path connected. Let $x_0 \in U \cap V$. Then Φ induces an isomorphism $\pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V) / N$, where N is the normal subgroup generated by all elements $i_1(\omega) \cdot i_2(\omega)^{-1}$, where $i_1 : \pi_1(U \cap V) \rightarrow \pi_1(U), i_2 : \pi_1(U \cap V) \rightarrow \pi_1(V)$ morphisms induced by the inclusion and $\omega \in \pi_1(U \cap V)$.

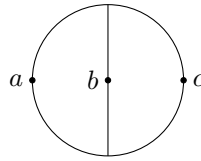
[Proof: Immediate from Seifert-van Kampen theorem].

Corollary 2.146 Consider the assumption of corollary 2.145. If in addition $U \cap V$ is simply connected, then Φ induces an isomorphism $\pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V)$.

[Proof: Immediate from corollary 2.145].

Example 2.147

1. Let X be a theta space. Recall $\pi_1(X)$ is not abelian. $(S^1 \vee S^1)$ and theta space are deformation retracts of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{p, q\}$ therefore $\pi(S^1 \vee S^1) \simeq \pi_1(X)$.

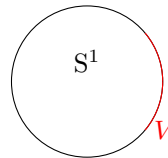


$U := X \setminus \{c\}, V := X \setminus \{a\}$. U, V are open and path connected. $U \cap V = X \setminus \{a, c\}$ is path connected, in addition $U \cap V$ is contractible.
 $\implies \pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V) \simeq \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$. By corollary 2.146 $\pi_1(X) \simeq \pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V)$.
 U, V have the homotopy type of $S^1 \implies \pi_1(U) \simeq \mathbb{Z}, \pi_1(V) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.
 $\implies \pi_1(X) \simeq \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$.

- Let X be the wedge of two circles, i.e. $X = S^1 \vee S^1$. $U := X \setminus \{a\}, V := X \setminus \{c\}$.
 $\pi_1(X) \simeq \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$.

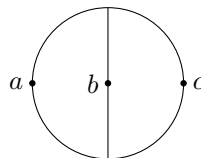
Remark 2.148

- Necessity of path connectedness of $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta$.
 Consider



And U analogously by reflection on the vertical through the center. Then U, V open, path connected, but $U \cap V$ is not path connected the morphism induced by Φ is not surjective, $\pi_1(U) * \pi_1(V) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^1)$.

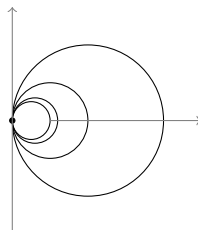
- Necessity of path-connectedness of $A_\alpha \cap A_\beta \cap A_\gamma$.
 Consider the theta space



$A_a := X \setminus \{a\}, A_b := X \setminus \{b\}, A_c := X \setminus \{c\}$, then $A_a \cap A_b \cap A_c = X \setminus \{a, b, c\}$ not path connected, $\pi_1(X) \simeq \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$.

Example 2.149 (The shrinking wedge of circles)

Consider C_n the circle with center $(1/n, 0)$ and radius $1/n$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . Let $X = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} C_n$ with the subspace topology.



Consider the retractions $r_n : X \rightarrow C_n$ collapsing all C_i 's except C_n to $(0, 0)$. Each r_n induces a surjection $(r_n)_* : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \pi_1(C_n)$ (basepoint $(0, 0)$). The product of these surjections (i.e. $\rho[f] = (r_1[f], r_2[f], \dots)$) gives a homomorphism $\rho : \pi_1(X) \rightarrow \prod_{\infty} \mathbb{Z}$ (=direct product of countably infinite many copies of \mathbb{Z}).

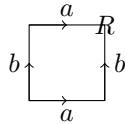
Claim: ρ is surjective ($\implies \pi_1(X)$ is uncountable).

Proof: For any sequence of integers $(K_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ we can construct a loop $f : I \rightarrow X$ based at $(0, 0)$ and going K_n times around the circle C_n in time $[1 - 1/n, 1 - 1/(n + 1)]$. f is indeed continuous:

- $\forall t \in [0, 1), f$ is continuous at $t \checkmark$.
- f is continuous at $1 \in I \iff (\forall \text{ neighbourhoods } V \text{ of } f(1) = (0, 0) \exists \text{ neighbourhood } U \text{ of } 1 \text{ such that } f(U) \subseteq V)$.
 V contains all but finitely many of the circles C_n , and this proves continuity of f at 1.

2.9. CW complexes (cell complexes)

We have seen, that the torus T can be constructed from



The interior of the rectangle can be thought of as an open disc or a 2-cel attached to the union of two circles a, b .

The union of the two circles can be thought of as obtained from their point of intersection P by attachin to it two open arcs, 1-cells.

In general construct a space X by the following procedure:

1. Start with a discrete set X^0 , whose points are regarded as 0-cells.
2. Inductively construct the n -skeleton X^n from the $(n - 1)$ -skeleton X^{n-1} via continuous maps $\varphi_\alpha : S^{n-1} \rightarrow X^{n-1}$.

$$X^n = X^{n-1} \coprod_{\alpha} \overline{e_\alpha^n} / \sim,$$

where \sim the equivalence relation generated by $x \sim \varphi_\alpha(x), x \in \partial e_\alpha^n$.

3. Either stop this inductive process after finitely many steps, setting $X = X^n$, or continue indefinitely, setting $X = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X^n$. In latter case, X is given the weak topology, i.e. $A \subset X$ is open, iff $A \cap X^n$ is open in $X^n \forall n$.

A space constructed in this way is called a CW-complex, where C stands for closure-finiteness: the closure of each cell intersects only finitely many other cells, W stands for weak-topology.

Example 2.150 S^2 .

Suppose we attach a collection e_α^2 of 2-cells to a path connected space X

$$Y := X \coprod_{\alpha} \overline{e_\alpha^2} / \sim,$$

where $x \sim \varphi_\alpha(x)$ for $x \in \partial e_\alpha^2$.

If s_0 is a base-point of S^1 , then φ_α determines a loop in X based at $\varphi_\alpha(s_0)$.

Proposition 2.151 If $i : X \rightarrow Y$ is the inclusion map, then $i_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, x_0)$ is surjective and $\ker i_* = N$, i.e. $\pi_1(Y, x_0) \cong \pi_1(X, x_0) / N$.

X path-connected space, Y space constructed from X by attaching a family of 2-cells e_α^2 via maps $\varphi_\alpha : S^1 \rightarrow X$. If s_0 is a basepoint of S^1 , then φ_α determines a loop in X based at $\varphi_\alpha(s_0)$. Let $x_0 \in X$ a basepoint and let $\gamma_\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ a path with $\gamma(0) = x_0$ and $\gamma(1) = \varphi_\alpha(s_0)$.

Then $\gamma_\alpha : \varphi_\alpha \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$ is a loop in X based at x_0 , $\gamma_\alpha \varphi_\alpha \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$ is nullhomotopic in $Y \forall \alpha$.

Let N be the normal subgroup of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ generated by all elements $\gamma_\alpha \varphi_\alpha \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$.

If $i_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, x_0)$ is the homomorphism induced by $i : X \rightarrow Y$, then $N \leq \ker i_*$.

Proposition 2.152 If $i : X \rightarrow Y$ is the inclusion map, then $i_* : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(Y, x_0)$ is surjective, and $\ker i_* = N$.

PROOF Consider the space Z obtained from Y by attaching rectangular strips $S_\alpha = I \times I$ with $I \times \{0\}$ is attached along γ_α , $I \times \{1\}$ is not attached to anything, $\{0\} \times I$ are identified for all α , $\{1\} \times I$ is attached along an arc in e_α^2 .

Z deformation retracts onto Y .

$A := Z \setminus \{y_\alpha\}_\alpha$, where y_α is a point in e_α^2 not in the arc along which S_α is attached.

$B := Z \setminus X$.

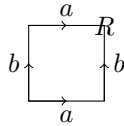
We apply the Seifert-van Kampen theorem for $Z = A \cup B$. $A = Z \setminus \{y_\alpha\}_\alpha$ deformation retracts onto X . B is contractible. A, B satisfy te conditions of the Seifert-van Kampen theorem.

$\implies \pi_1(Y) \cong \pi_1(Z) \cong \pi_1(A) / N$, where N is the normal subgroup generated by the image of $\pi_1(A \cap B) \rightarrow \pi_1(A)$.

Consider the cover $A_\alpha = A \cap B \setminus \cup_{\beta \neq \alpha} e_\beta^2$.

A_α deformation retracts onto a circle in $e_\alpha^2 \setminus \{y_\alpha\}$, so $\pi_1(A_\alpha) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_1(A_\alpha)$ is generated by a loop homotopic to $\gamma_\alpha \varphi_\alpha \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$. So $\pi_1(A \cap B)$ is generated by loops homotopic to $\gamma_\alpha \varphi_\alpha \overline{\gamma_\alpha}$ for all α . ■

Example 2.154 T has a cell-structure with one 0-cell, two 1-cells and one 2-cell. Let $X = X^1$ be the 1-skeleton of T , $X^1 = S^1 \vee S^1$ and attach to X^1 one 2-cell e_1^2 via $\varphi_1 : S^1 \rightarrow X$ with $\varphi_1(S^1) = a \cdot b \cdot \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}$, to produce $Y = T$.



It follows from the proof, that $\pi_1(T) \cong \pi_1(X^1) / N$, where N is the normal subgroup of $\pi_1(X^1)$ generated by φ_1 .

Now $\pi_1(X^1) \cong \mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$, with generators $[a], [b]$, so $\pi_1(T) = \langle [a], [b] \mid [a][b][a]^{-1}[b]^{-1} \rangle$. $\alpha := [a], \beta := [b]$. Let $F = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ be the free group on two generators α, β and N be the smallest normal subgroup containing $[\alpha, \beta]$. Then $N \leq [F, F]$. Furthermore F / N is abelian, then $[F, F] \leq N$. $\implies N = [F, F]$, and $\langle \alpha, \beta \mid [\alpha, \beta] \rangle = F / N = F / [F, F] = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$.

2.10. Surfaces (two-dimensional manifolds)

2.10.1. Fundamental group of surfaces

$T_n := \underbrace{T \# \dots \# T}_n$ n -fold Torus.

Example 2.155 $T \# T$ has CW-cell structure one 0-cell, four 1-cells, one 2-cell.

Example 2.156 $T \# T \# T$

Example 2.157 n -fold torus: $4n$ -gon with labelling $(a_1 b_1 \bar{a}_1 \bar{b}_1)(a_2 b_2 \bar{a}_2 \bar{b}_2) \dots (a_n b_n \bar{a}_n \bar{b}_n)$

Proposition 2.158

$$\pi_1(T_n) \simeq \langle \alpha_1, \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_n \mid [\alpha_1, \beta_1][\alpha_2, \beta_2] \dots [\alpha_n, \beta_n] \rangle.$$

PROOF Completely analogous to the case $n = 1$, i.e. T . T_n has a cell structure with one 0-cell, $2n$ 1-cells and one 2-cell. The attaching map $\varphi_1 : S^1 \rightarrow (T_n)^1$ of the 2-cell e_1^2 determines a loop in T_n with $[\varphi_1] = [a_1][b_1][a_1]^{-1}[b_1]^{-1} \dots [a_n][b_n][a_n]^{-1}[b_n]^{-1}$. ■

The real projective plane $\mathbb{R}P^2$ Notation: $P := \mathbb{R}P^2$.

$$\mathbb{R}P^2 := \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\} / \sim,$$

where $x \sim y \iff \exists \lambda \neq 0$ with $x = \lambda y$.

We can also look at it as

$$S^2 / \sim$$

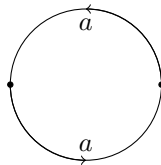
where $p, q \in S^2, p \sim q \iff p = -q$.

$\mathbb{R}P^2$ can also be described as the quotient of D^2 with antipodal points of ∂D^2 identified.

As $U = \{(x, y, z) \in S^2 \mid z \geq 0\} \simeq D^2$.

Proposition 2.160 $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}P^2) \simeq \langle \alpha \mid \alpha^2 \rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2$.

PROOF Method 1: Using the cell structure of $\mathbb{R}P^2$ given by the picture



Method 2: $p : S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^2$ is a covering map, since $\pi_1(S^2) = 0, \phi : \pi_1(\mathbb{R}P^2, x) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x)$ $x \in \mathbb{R}P^2$ is bijective.

Consider $P_n := P \# \dots \# P$.

$P_2 = P \# P$. has cell structure



Proposition 2.162 $\pi_1(P_n) \simeq \langle \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \mid \alpha_1^2 \dots \alpha_n^2 \rangle$.

PROOF Using cell-structure of P_n . ■

Remark 2.164

1. For every group G , there exists a CW-complex X_G with $\pi_1(X_G) \simeq G$: Consider $\langle g_\alpha | r_\beta \rangle$ a representation of G and take $V_\alpha S_\alpha^1$. Then attach 2-cells e_β^2 along the loops specified by the relations r_β .
2. $\mathbb{R}P^2 = P$
 - P cannot be embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 (i.e. there does not exist a map $f : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, such that $f : P \rightarrow f(P)$ is a homeomorphism).
 - P can be immersed in \mathbb{R}^3 (i.e. there exists a differentiable map $f : P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ with $D_p f : T_p P \rightarrow T_{f(p)} \mathbb{R}^3$ is injective $\forall p \in P$).

Question: Can we deduce, that T_n, T_m are not homotopy equivalent, if $n \neq m$?

Answer: Yes, for T and T_2 . In general not yet. (It is not a trivial matter to compare two group presentations).

We turn to study $\pi_1 / [\pi_1, \pi_1]$.

2.10.2. Homology of surfaces

Let X be a path connected space, $x_0, x_1 \in X$, $a : I \rightarrow X$ path from $a(0) = x_0$ to $a(1) = x_1$. Then we can construct an isomorphism

$$\hat{a} : \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_1),$$

where $[f] \mapsto [\bar{a}][f][a]$ and

$$\hat{a}_{ab} : \pi_1(X, x_0) / [\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)] \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_1) / [\pi_1(X, x_1), \pi_1(X, x_1)].$$

If $b : I \rightarrow X$ is a path in X with $b(0) = x_0$ and $b(1) = x_1$ and $g = \bar{a}b$, then

$$\hat{g}_{ab} : \pi_1(X, x_0) / [\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)] \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_1) / [\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)],$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} [f][\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)] &\mapsto [\bar{g}][f][g][\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)] \\ &= [f][\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)]. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\hat{g}_{ab} = 1_{\pi_1(X, x_0) / [\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)]}.$$

That is, the isomorphism \hat{a}_{ab} is independent of the choice of path a .

Definition 2.165 If X is a path connected space and $x_0 \in X$, let

$$H_1(X) := \pi_1(X, x_0) / [\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)].$$

$H_1(X)$ is called the *first homology group* of X .

[We omit the basepoint, since there is in fact a unique isomorphism between the corresponding groups of different basepoints].

One can define homology groups $H_n(x) \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Lemma 2.166 Let F be a group and $N \trianglelefteq F$. Then

$$F \triangleleft N \triangleleft [F \triangleleft N, F \triangleleft N] \simeq F \triangleleft [F, F] \triangleleft \{n[F, F] \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

[Proof omitted].

Let F be a free group with free generators $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$. Let $x \in F$ and N be the smallest normal subgroup containing x . Finally, let $G = F \triangleleft N$. $F \triangleleft [F, F]$ is free abelian group with basis $\alpha_1[F, F], \dots, \alpha_n[F, F]$. $N \triangleleft [F, F]$ is the subgroup generated by $x[F, F]$.

The lemma implies that $G \triangleleft [G, G]$ is isomorphic to the quotient of a free abelian group with basis $\{\alpha_1[F, F], \dots, \alpha_n[F, F]\}$ by the subgroup $\langle x[F, F] \rangle$.

Theorem 2.167 $H_0(T_n)$ is a free abelian group of rank $2n \simeq \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}}_{2n}$.

PROOF $\pi_1(T_n) = \langle \alpha_1, \beta_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_n \mid [\alpha_1, \beta_1] \cdots [\alpha_n, \beta_n] \rangle$.
 $H_1(T_n) = \pi_1(T_n) \triangleleft [\pi_1(T_n), \pi_1(T_n)]$ is the quotient of a free abelian group of rank $2n$ by the group generated by

$$[\alpha_1, \beta_1] \cdots [\alpha_n, \beta_n][\pi_1(T_n), \pi_1(T_n)] = 1_{\pi_1(T_n) / [\pi_1(T_n), \pi_1(T_n)]}.$$

I.e. $H_1(T_n) \simeq \mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. ■

Theorem 2.169 $H_1(P_n)$ has a torsion subgroup $T(P_n)$ of order 2 and $H_1(P_n) \triangleleft T(P_n)$ is a free abelian group of order $n - 1$.

PROOF $\pi_1(P_n) = \langle \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \mid \alpha_1^2 \dots \alpha_n^2 \rangle$. $H_1(P_n) = \pi_1(P_n) \triangleleft [\pi_1(P_n), \pi_1(P_n)]$ is the quotient of a free abelian group of rank n (basis $\{\overline{\alpha_1}, \dots, \overline{\alpha_n}\}$) by the subgroup generated by $\alpha_1^2 \dots \alpha_n^2 [\pi_1(P_n), \pi_1(P_n)]$. Since we compute in an abelian group we can use additive notation and write $2\alpha_1 + \dots + 2\alpha_n + [\dots]$. Change the basis $\{\overline{\alpha_1}, \dots, \overline{\alpha_n}\}$ to the basis $\{\overline{\alpha_1}, \dots, \overline{\alpha_{n-1}}, \overline{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n}\}$. This shows that $H_1(P_n)$ is isomorphic to the quotient of the free abelian group with basis $\{\overline{\alpha_1}, \dots, \overline{\alpha_{n-1}}, \overline{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n}\}$ by the subgroup $\langle 2(\overline{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n}) \rangle$. So $H_1(P_n) = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}}_{n-1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. ■

Theorem 2.171 The surfaces $S^2, T, T_2, \dots, P, P_2, \dots$ are topologically distinct (i.e. any two of these have different homotopy type).

[Proof: Follows immediately from the previous theorems].

2.10.3. Classification of surfaces

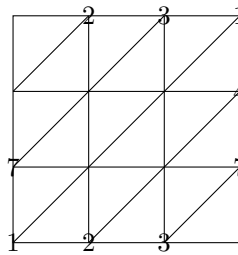
Theorem 2.172 (Classification of closed connected surfaces)
 Let S be a closed surface (i.e. compact without boundary). Then S is either homeomorphic to S^2 , or to T_n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, or to P_m for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Ideas of the proof:

Triangulation of a closed surface

Definition 2.173 A *triangulation* of a closed surface S is a finite family of closed subsets $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ that cover S together with homeomorphisms $\varphi_i : T'_i \rightarrow T_i$ where each T'_i is a triangle in \mathbb{R}^2 . The subsets T_i are called *triangles*. The subsets of T_i that are images of vertices and edges are called *vertices*, respectively *edges*. We require that if T_i, T_j are distinct, $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, then $T_i \cap T_j = \emptyset$, or $T_i \cap T_j$ is vertex or $T_i \cap T_j$ is a common edge.

Example 2.174 Torus:



Theorem 2.175 (T. Radó, 1925)
Any closed surface admits a triangulation.

[Proof: Using the Jordan curve theorem].

Cutting and pasting polygonal regions in \mathbb{R}^2

Theorem 2.176 If S is a closed surface, then S is homeomorphic to a space obtained from a polygonal region in \mathbb{R}^2 by gluing its edges together in pairs.

Theorem 2.177 If X is the quotient space obtained from a polygonal region in \mathbb{R}^2 by gluing its edges together, then X is homeomorphic either to S^2 or to T_n , for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ or to P_m for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

2.11. Knot theory

First attempt to define the notion of a knot A knot is a simple closed curve in \mathbb{R}^3 (i.e. $\exists \gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ continuous and injective, further, as S^1 is compact and \mathbb{R}^3 Hausdorff, we have f is closed) $\iff \gamma : S^1 \rightarrow \gamma(S^1)$ is a homeomorphism $\iff \gamma$ is an embedding of S^1 in \mathbb{R}^3 .

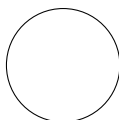
Problem: “wild” knots are allowed in this definition.

Definition 2.178 A *link* L of m components is a subset of \mathbb{R}^3 consisting of m disjoint, piecewise linear, simple closed curves. A link of one component is a *knot* K .

Each of the curves is a union of finitely many line segments attached end to end.

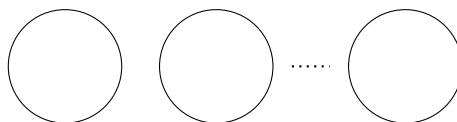
Example 2.179

1. The unknot U :

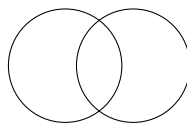


(U is the only knot bounding a disc embedded in \mathbb{R}^3).

2. The trivial knot of m components:



3. Hopf Link



4. Trefoil knot
5. Borromean rings

Definition 2.180 Two links L_1, L_2 in \mathbb{R}^3 (respectively in $S^3 = \mathbb{R}^3 \cup \{\infty\}$) are called *equivalent* if there is an orientation preserving piecewise linear homeomorphism $h : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ (respectively $h : S^3 \rightarrow S^3$) with $h(L_1) = L_2$.

Question: Given two links L_1, L_2 how can we decide if they are equivalent.

- If L_1, L_2 are equivalent, then try to deform one into the other.
- If L_1 and L_2 are not equivalent, use invariants to distinguish them.

If L_1, L_2 are equivalent, then $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus L_1$ and $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus L_2$ are homeomorphic. The homeomorphism type of $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus L$ is such an invariant.

How strong an invariant is it?

Theorem 2.181 (Gordon-Luecke, 1989)
The knots K_1, K_2 are equivalent $\iff S^3 \setminus K_1$ and $S^3 \setminus K_2$ are homeomorphic.

[Proof: Very difficult; omitted].

Note: The theorem says, that the homeomorphism type of $S^3 \setminus K$ is a complete invariant.

Remark 2.182 The theorem does not hold for links (with more than one component).

Determining the homeomorphism type of $S^3 \setminus L$ is not so simple. We turn to study $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus L)$.

That is $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus L) \neq \pi_1(S^3 \setminus L_2) \implies S^3 \setminus L_1 \neq S^3 \setminus L_2 \implies L_1$ and L_2 are not equivalent.

Definition 2.183 If L is a link in S^3 , then $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus L)$ is called the *group of the link L* . It is sometimes denoted by $\pi_1(L)$.

Remark 2.184 The inclusion $\mathbb{R}^3 \hookrightarrow S^3$ induces an inclusion $i : \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus L \hookrightarrow S^3 \setminus L$ with $i_* : \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus L) \rightarrow \pi_1(S^3 \setminus L)$ an isomorphism. So it is therefore equivalent to consider $L \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ or $L \subset S^3$.

Torus knots Consider $T \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ (rotat $C_1 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid y = 0, (x - 1)^2 + z^2 = \frac{1}{9}\}$ about the z -axis). We want to study knots on T .

T can be thought of as the quotient space of $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ with opposite edges identified or as the quotient space obtained from \mathbb{R}^2 by identifying two points $(x, y), (x', y')$ if $x - x' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $y - y' \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Let $q : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow T$ be the identification map described and $L = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |y| = \frac{m}{n}x, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 < m < n, (m, n) = 1\}$. Take $T_{(m,n)} := q(L) \subseteq T$.

This is a simple closed curve on T that wraps m times around a line through the hole in the torus and n -times around a circle inside T . $T_{(m,n)}$ is called an (m, n) -torus knot.

$T_{(m,n)}$ can be given by the following parametrisation:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= (2 + \cos(n\varphi/m)) \cos \varphi, \\ y &= (2 + \cos(n\varphi/m)) \sin \varphi, \\ z &= \sin(n\varphi/m), \end{aligned}$$

with $\varphi \in [0, 2mn]$. This lies on the torus given by $(r - 2)^2 + z^2 = 1$ in cylindrical coordinates.

Remark 2.185

1. $T_{(1,n)}$ is equivalent to U the unknot.
2. $T_{(m,n)}, T_{(n,m)}$ are equivalent.
3. $(m, n) \neq 1$: $T_{(m,n)}$ torus link.

We want to compute $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$, where K is the unknot U , or K is a torus knot.

Decomposition of S^3 $A := \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in S^3 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq x_3^2 + x_4^2\}$ and $B := \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in S^3 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 \geq x_3^2 + x_4^2\}$.

Then A, B are closed subsets of S^3 and $S^3 = A \cup B$. Further $A \cap B = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in S^3 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = x_3^2 + x_4^2\}$.

So $A \cap B$ is the cartesian products of the circle $\{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1/2\}$ with the circle $\{(x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1/2\}$, that is $A \cap B$ is a torus.

Now let $D^2 = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq 1/2\}$ and $S^1 = \{(x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_3^2 + x_4^2 = 1/2\}$, and define $f : D^2 \times S^1 \rightarrow A$ by

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \mapsto (x_1, x_2, \sqrt{2}x_3\sqrt{1 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2)}, \sqrt{2}x_4\sqrt{1 - (x_1^2 + x_2^2)}).$$

f is obviously continuous and injective. One can easily verify, that it is also surjective. Further (as $D^2 \times S^1$ compact, A Hausdorff) f homeomorphism. Analogously, we can prove that B is homeomorphic to $D^2 \times S^1$.

$$S^3 = A \cup B.$$

We can now compute:

1. $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus U)$:

Take U to be the core circle of the A torus, i.e. $U = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in A \mid x_1 = x_2 = 0\}$. The boundary $A \cap B$ of A is a deformation retract of $A \setminus U$. So B is a deformation retract of $S^3 \setminus U = (A \cup B) \setminus U$.

$$\implies \pi_1(S^3 \setminus U) \simeq \pi_1(B) \simeq \mathbb{Z}.$$

2. $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$ where K is an (m, n) torus knot $T_{(m,n)}$:

Consider K as a subset of $A \cap B$ in S^3 . $S^3 \setminus K = (A \setminus K) \cup (B \setminus K)$. $(A \setminus K)$, $(B \setminus K)$, $(A \setminus K) \cap (B \setminus K)$ path connected. However $(A \setminus K)$, $(B \setminus K)$, $(A \setminus K) \cap (B \setminus K)$ are not open subsets so we need to modify them in order to apply the Seifert-van Kampen theorem.

Choose $\varepsilon > 0$, such that there exists a tubular neighbourhood N of K in S^3 with radius ε . $S^3 \setminus N$ is a deformation retract of $S^3 \setminus K$. Then consider $\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ open neighbourhoods A', B' of A and B respectively.

A', B' are homeomorphic to the product of S^1 with an open disk. And $A' \cap B'$ is homeomorphic to $(A \cap B) \times (-\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon, \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon)$. Lastly A, B are deformation retracts of A' and B' respectively.

We can apply the Seifert-van Kampen theorem for $S^3 \setminus N = (A' \setminus N) \cup (B' \setminus N)$ to compute $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus N) \simeq \pi_1(S^3 \setminus K)$.

- $A' \setminus N$ deformation retracts onto the core circle of the torus A i.e. $\pi_1(A' \setminus N) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$, $B' \setminus N$ deformation retracts onto the wire circle of B , i.e. $\pi_1(B' \setminus N) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.
- $(A' \setminus N) \cap (B' \setminus N) = (A' \cap B') \setminus N$ has the homotopy type of $(A \cap B) \setminus K$. So $\pi_1((A' \setminus N) \cap (B' \setminus N)) \simeq \pi_1((A \cap B) \setminus K) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.
- $\pi_1(A' \cap B' \setminus N) = \langle \gamma \rangle \rightarrow \pi_1(A' \setminus N) = \langle \alpha \rangle$, $\pi_1(A' \cap B' \setminus N) = \langle \gamma \rangle \rightarrow \pi_1(B' \setminus N) = \langle \beta \rangle$.
 $i_1(\gamma) = \alpha^m, i_2(\gamma) = \beta^n$.
- Applying the Seifert-van Kampen theorem gives

Proposition 2.186 $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus T_{(m,n)}) = \langle \alpha, \beta \mid \alpha^m \beta^{-n} \rangle$.

[Proof: Follows from the above analysis].

Proposition 2.187 If the knots $T_{(m,n)}, T_{(m',n')}$ are equivalent, then $m = m'$ and $n = n'$. Furthermore $T_{(m,n)}$ and U are not equivalent.

PROOF (Schreier, 1923)

Consider the element $\alpha^m = b^n =: z \in \pi_1(S^3 \setminus T_{(m,n)} =: G$, and the subgroup N of G generated by z . $z \in Z(G)$, i.e. $zg = gz \forall g \in G$. So $N \leq Z(G)$.

Then $N \trianglelefteq G$ and we can consider the quotient G / N . G / N has the following presentation: $\langle \alpha N, \beta N \mid (\alpha N)^m, (\beta N)^n \rangle$. Thus $G / N \simeq \mathbb{Z}_m * \mathbb{Z}_n$, which in turn implies that $Z(G / N) = \{1_{G/N}\}$.

Since $Z(G) / N \leq Z(G / N)$, it follows that $N = Z(G)$, so $G / Z(G) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_m * \mathbb{Z}_n$.

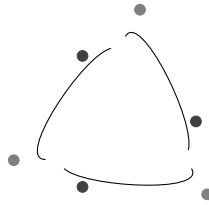
Now if $T_{(m,n)}, T_{(m',n')}$ are equivalent, $\pi_1(T_{(m,n)}) \simeq \pi_1(T_{(m',n')})$.

$G / Z(G) \simeq G' / Z(G') \implies \mathbb{Z}_m * \mathbb{Z}_n \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{m'} * \mathbb{Z}_{n'}$.

$\implies m = m'$ and $n = n'$.

Lastly $\pi_1(U) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$, that is $\pi_1(U) / Z(\pi_1(U)) \simeq \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \neq \mathbb{Z}_m * \mathbb{Z}_n$ for any $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(m, n) = 1$ ■

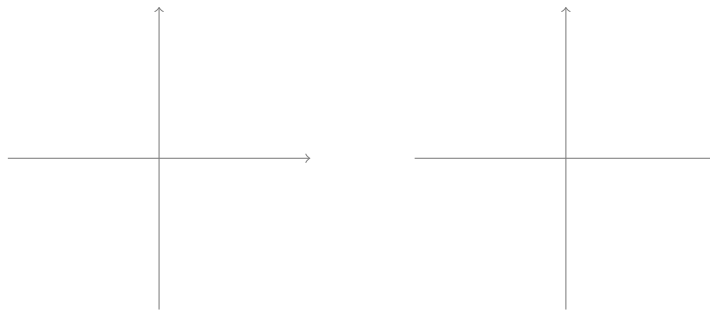
Wirtinger presentation Procedure for writing a presentation of the group of a knot K starting from a diagram for $K \subset \mathbb{R}^3$.



Label the arcs by a_1, \dots, a_n , so that each a_i is connected to a_{i-1} and $a_{i+1} \pmod n$. Assume that the arcs are oriented compatibly with their labelling.

Draw an arrow x_i passing under each a_i in a right-left direction. Each x_i represents a loop in $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$ as follows. Suppose that the black board is the xy -plane P . Consider as basepoint $*$ the point $(0, 0, 1)$. The loop consists of a segment from $*$ to the tail of x_i , then the arrow, then a segment from the head of x_i to $*$.

At each crossing, there is a certain relation:



In total there are n relations.

Theorem 2.189 $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_m \mid r_1, \dots, r_n \rangle$.

Example 2.190 Trefoil

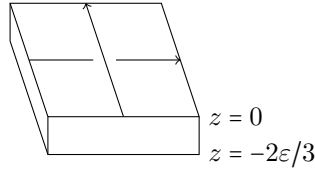
$$\pi_1(\text{trefoil}) = \langle x_1, x_2, x_3 \mid x_3x_1 = x_2x_3, x_2x_3 = x_1x_2, x_1x_2 = x_3x_1 \rangle = \langle x_1, x_2 \mid x_1x_2x_1 = x_2x_1x_2 \rangle.$$

Remark 2.191 In example 3 of group presentations we proved that $\langle x_1, x_2 \mid x_1 x_2 x_1 = x_2 x_1 x_2 \rangle = \langle \alpha, \beta \mid \alpha^3 = \beta^2 \rangle$.

PROOF (of theorem 2.189)

We will write f instead of $[f]$.

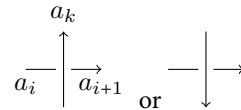
We will apply the Seifert-van Kampen theorem for $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K$. Assume that K lies on the xy -plane except where it goes down by distance $\varepsilon > 0$, at each crossing. Set the basepoint at $(0, 0, 1)$.



Let $A = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid z > -2\varepsilon/3\} - K$. Then $A \simeq_{\text{homeo}}$ open 3-dim Ball $\setminus \{n$ unknotted arcs with endpoints on the boundary of the ball $\}$.

So $\pi_1(A) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$.

For each crossin



let Y_ℓ be an open rectangular box around it at level $-2\varepsilon < z < -\varepsilon/3$, and set $B_\ell = (Y_\ell \setminus K) \cup \{ \text{open neighbourhood of an arc from a point on } \partial Y_\ell \text{ to } * \}$.

Then $B_\ell \simeq_{\text{homeo}}$ open 3-dim ball $\setminus \{ \text{one unknotted arc with endpoints on the boundary} \}$.

So $\pi_1(B_\ell) = \langle y_\ell \rangle$.

Finally $C = \text{open neighbourhood of } (\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus A \setminus \cup_{\ell=1}^n B_\ell) \cup (\text{open neighbourhood of an arc to } *)$.

$$\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K = A \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n \cup C.$$

$\pi_1(A \cup B_1) = ?$.

$A \cap B_1 = ?$.

$i_1 : \pi_1(A \cap B_1) \rightarrow \pi_1(A), c_1 \mapsto x_k x_i x_k^{-1}, b_1 \mapsto x_{i+1}$,

$i_2 : \pi_1(A \cap B_1) \rightarrow \pi_1(B_1), c_1 \mapsto y_1, b_1 \mapsto y_1$.

So we have $i_1(c_1)(i_2(c_1))^{-1} = x_k x_i x_k^{-1} y_1^{-1}, i_1(b_1)(i_2(b_1))^{-1} = x_{i+1} y_1^{-1}$.

So $\pi_1(A \cup B_1) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n, y_1 \mid x_{i+1} y_1^{-1}, x_k x_i x_k^{-1} y_1^{-1} \rangle = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid x_k x_i x_k^{-1} x_{i+1}^{-1} \rangle$.

Repeat this process for each B_i to get $\pi_1(A \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid r_1, \dots, r_n \rangle$.

Since C and $C \cap (A \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n)$ are simply connected, applying the Seifert-van Kampen theorem we get that $\pi_1(K) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid r_1, \dots, r_n \rangle$.

Study $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus K) (\simeq \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K))$ to show that any one of the r_i can be omitted.

Let $A' = A \cup \{\infty\}$. $C' = C \cup B_n \cup \{\infty\}$. Then $\pi_1(A') \simeq \pi_1(A)$ and $\pi_1(A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1}) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid r_1, \dots, r_{n-1} \rangle$.

$S^3 \setminus K = A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1} \cup C'$.

Now we can compute that $\pi_1(C') = \langle y_n \rangle$ and also that $\pi_1(C' \cap (A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1})) = \langle b_n \rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned}\pi_1(C' \cap (A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1})) &\rightarrow \pi_1(C'), b_n \mapsto y_n. \\ \pi_1(C' \cap (A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1})) &\rightarrow \pi_1(A' \cup B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_{n-1}), b_n \mapsto x_{i+1}.\end{aligned}$$

Applying the Seifert-van Kampen theorem we obtain that $\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid r_1, \dots, r_{n-1} \rangle \pi_1(S^3 \setminus K) = \pi_1(\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus K)$. ■

Remark 2.193 The above reasoning applies also to compute $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus L)$ where L is a link and $\pi_1(S^3 \setminus L) = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \mid r_1, \dots, r_m \rangle$.

Example 2.194

- 1.
- 2.

Theorem 2.195 *The group of a knot is not a complete knot invariant.*

2.12. Classification of covering spaces

$p: \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0, p_*: \pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$.

We will study $H := p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) \leq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ to deduce several statements about covering maps.

Lemma 2.196 Let $p: \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. Then

1. $p_*: \pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is a monomorphism.
2. The lifting correspondance $\phi: \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0)$ where $[f] \mapsto \tilde{f}(1)$ induces an injective map $\Phi: \pi_1(X, x_0) / H \rightarrow p^{-1}(x_0)$, where by $\pi_1(X, x_0) / H$ we denote all the right cosets of H in $\pi_1(X, x_0)$. If \tilde{X} is path connected, then Φ is bijective.
3. If $f: I \rightarrow X$ is a loop based at x_0 , then $[f] \in H$ iff f lifts to a loop in \tilde{X} based at \tilde{x}_0 .

PROOF

1. Immediate, it follows from homotopy lifting property.
2. If $f: I \rightarrow X, g: I \rightarrow X$ are loops based at x_0 , then let $\tilde{f}: I \rightarrow \tilde{X}, \tilde{g}: I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ be their lifts with $\tilde{f}(0) = \tilde{g}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. If $[f] \in H[g]$, then $[f] = [g]$, where $h \in H := p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$ i.e. $h = p \circ \tilde{h}$ for some loop $\tilde{h}: I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ based at \tilde{x}_0 . Now $\tilde{h} \cdot \tilde{g}$ is defined and it is a lift of $h \cdot g$. Since $[f] = [h \cdot g], \tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{h} \cdot \tilde{g}(1)$.
 $\implies \tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{g}(1)$.
 $\implies \phi([f]) = \phi([g])$. That shows Φ is well-defined.
 Check that Φ is injective: If $\phi([f]) = \phi([g])$, then $\tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{g}(1)$ and we can define $\tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g}$ loop based at \tilde{x}_0 . Therefore $[(\tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g}) \cdot \tilde{g}] = [\tilde{f}]$. If \tilde{F} is a path homotopy between $(\tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g})$ and \tilde{f} , then $F := p \circ \tilde{F}$ is a path homotopy between $p((\tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g}) \cdot \tilde{g})$ and $p(\tilde{f})$. That is $[(p(\tilde{f} \cdot \tilde{g})) \cdot g] = [f]$.
 $\implies [f] \in H[g]$.
 $\implies \Phi$ is injective.
 If \tilde{X} is path connected, then ϕ is surjective. So Φ is also surjective.

3. Φ is injective, hence $\phi([f]) = \phi([g]) \iff [f] \in H[g]$. For g the constant loop based at x_0 this gives $[f] \in H \iff \phi([f]) = \tilde{x}_0 \iff \tilde{f}(1) = \tilde{x}_0$. ■

Lemma 2.198 Let X be path connected and locally path connected. If \tilde{X}_a is path component of \tilde{X} , then $p|_{\tilde{X}_a} : \tilde{X}_a \rightarrow X$ is a covering map.

PROOF \tilde{X} is locally homeomorphic to X , so \tilde{X} is also locally path connected. \tilde{X}_a is a path component of \tilde{X} , so \tilde{X}_a is open. Covering maps are open maps, so $p(\tilde{X}_a)$ is open. Claim: $p(\tilde{X}_a)$ is closed.

Proof: Let $x \in p(\tilde{X}_a)$ and U be a path connected open neighbourhood of x such that $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\alpha} V_{\alpha}$, where V_{α} pairwise disjoint open, $p|_{V_{\alpha}} : V_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall \alpha$. Since U contains a point of $p(\tilde{X}_a)$, $V_{\alpha} \cap \tilde{X}_a \neq \emptyset$ for some α . Now V_{α} is path connected, hence $V_{\alpha} \subseteq \tilde{X}_a$. Then $p(V_{\alpha}) = U \subseteq p(\tilde{X}_a)$, i.e. $x \in p(\tilde{X}_a)$. So $p(\tilde{X}_a) = \overline{p(\tilde{X}_a)}$. $p(\tilde{X}_a) \subseteq X$ is both open and closed $\implies p(\tilde{X}_a) = X$
 $\implies p|_{\tilde{X}_a}$ is surjective.

Now let $x \in X$ and chose an open neighbourhood U of x as before. If $V_{\alpha} \cap \tilde{X}_a \neq \emptyset$, then $V_{\alpha} \subseteq \tilde{X}_a$. Therefore $(p|_{\tilde{X}_a})^{-1}(U)$ is the union of those V_{α} 's that intersect \tilde{X}_a . Each of these is open with $p|_{V_{\alpha}} : V_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ is a homeomorphism. ■

$p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ covering map. We restrict to spaces X that are locally path connected. Then \tilde{X} is also locally path connected. We can also assume that X is path connected. Lastly we assume, that \tilde{X} is also path connected. So, we can determine all covering spaces of a locally path connected space X by determining all path connected covering spaces of path components of X .

From now on, whenever we write $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering map, we imply that X, \tilde{X} are locally path connected, and path connected.

Lemma 2.200 (lifting lemma) Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$, and $f : Y \rightarrow X$ continuous. With Y path connected and locally path connected. $f(y_0) = x_0$. Then f can be lifted to a continuous map $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f}(y_0) = \tilde{x}_0$ iff $f_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$. Also if such a lift exists, it is unique.

PROOF

“ \implies ” If \tilde{f} exists, then $f_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) = (p \circ \tilde{f})_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) = p_*(\tilde{f}_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0))) \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$.

“ \impliedby ” Given $y_1 \in Y$, choose a path $\alpha : I \rightarrow Y$ with $\alpha(0) = y_0, \alpha(1) = y_1$. Lift $f \circ \alpha : I \rightarrow X$ to $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Define $\tilde{f} : Y \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ by $\tilde{f}(y_1) = \tilde{f} \circ \alpha(1)$.

- \tilde{f} is well-defined:

Let $\beta : I \rightarrow Y$ be a path with $\beta(0) = y_0$ and $\beta(1) = y_1$. Lift $f \circ \beta : I \rightarrow X$ to a path $\tilde{f} \circ \beta : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f} \circ \beta(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Then $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha \cdot \tilde{f} \circ \beta$ is a lift of the loop $f \circ (\alpha \cdot \beta)$. By assumption $f_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0)) \subseteq p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$. So $[f \circ (\alpha \cdot \beta)] \in p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$. Lemma 2.196 implies that its lift $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha \cdot \tilde{f} \circ \beta$ is a loop based at \tilde{x}_0 . So $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha(1) = \tilde{f} \circ \beta(1)$.

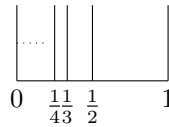
- \tilde{f} is continuous:

Let $y_1 \in Y$ and N an open neighbourhood of $\tilde{f}(y_1)$. We have to show that there is an open neighbourhood W of y_1 with $\tilde{f}(W) \subseteq N$. Start by choosing a path connected open neighbourhood U of $f(y_1)$ such that $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\alpha} V_{\alpha}$, V_{α} disjoint open sets. $p|_{V_{\alpha}} : V_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall \alpha$. f is

continuous at y_1 and Y is locally path connected, so there is a path connected open neighbourhood W of y_1 with $f(W) \subseteq U$. We will show that $\tilde{f}(W) \subseteq V_0$, where V_0 is the subset containing $f(y_0)$. Let $y \in W$, and choose a path $b : I \rightarrow W$ with $b(0) = y_1$ and $b(1) = y$. since f is well-defined $\tilde{f}(y)$ can be obtained by taking the path $\alpha\beta$ from y_0 to y , lifting $f \circ (\alpha\beta)$ to a path $\tilde{f} \circ (\alpha\beta) : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f} \circ (\alpha\beta)(0) = \tilde{x}_0$ and setting $\tilde{f}(y) = \tilde{f} \circ (\alpha\beta)(1)$. Now $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha$ is a lift of $f \circ \alpha$ with $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Since $f \circ \beta(I) \subseteq U$, the path $(p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta$ is a lift of $f \circ \beta$ with $((p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta)(0) = \tilde{f}(y_1)$. Then $(\tilde{f} \circ \alpha)((p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta)$ is a lift of $f \circ (\alpha\beta)$ with $(\tilde{f} \circ \alpha)((p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta)(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. But $(\tilde{f} \circ \alpha)((p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta)(1) = ((p|_{V_0})^{-1} \circ f \circ \beta)(1) \in V_0$, hence $\tilde{f}(W) \subseteq V_0$.

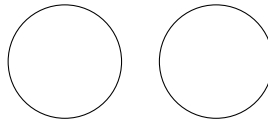
Let $y_1 \in Y$ and $\alpha : U \rightarrow Y$, with $\alpha(0) = y_0$, and $\alpha(1) = y_1$. Consider the path $f \circ \alpha : I \rightarrow X$ and lift it to a path $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Then $\tilde{y}_1 = \tilde{f}(\alpha(1))$ and $\tilde{f}(\alpha(1)) = \tilde{f} \circ \alpha(1)$ since $\tilde{f} \circ \alpha$ is a lift of $f \circ \alpha$ with $\tilde{f}(\alpha(0)) = \tilde{f}(y_0) = x_0$. So we see that if such an \tilde{f} exists, it is unique. ■

Example 2.202 Space that is path connected, but not locally path connected.



And consider a point $(0, y)$, where $y > 0$.

Example 2.203 Space that is locally path connected, but not path connected.



Equivalent covering spaces

Definition 2.204 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X, p' : \tilde{X}' \rightarrow X$ be covering maps, p, p' are called *equivalent* if there exists a homeomorphism $h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ with $p = p' \circ h$. h is called *equivalence* between the covering spaces.

Theorem 2.205 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X, p' : \tilde{X}' \rightarrow X$ be covering maps with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = p'(\tilde{x}'_0) = x_0$. There is an equivalence $h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ with $h(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}'_0 \iff p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0))$. If such an h exists, then it is unique.

PROOF

$$\begin{aligned} \text{"}\implies\text{" } h \text{ homeomorphism} &\implies h_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = \pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0). \\ &\implies p'_*(h_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))) = p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0)). \\ &\implies p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0)). \end{aligned}$$

- “ \Leftarrow ”
- p' covering map, p continuous, \tilde{X} path connected and locally path connected
 $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0))$.
 $\implies \exists! h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ with $p' \circ h = p$ and $h(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}'_0$.
 - p covering map, p' continuous, \tilde{X}' path connected and locally path connected
 $p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0)) = p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$.
 $\implies \exists! k : \tilde{X}' \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ continuous with $p \circ k = p'$ and $k(\tilde{x}'_0) = \tilde{x}_0$.
 - $k \circ h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ is a lift of p since $p \circ k \circ h = p' \circ h = p$ with $k \circ h(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}_0$.
 $1_{\tilde{X}} : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ is another such lifting, so by uniqueness of lifts $k \circ h = 1_{\tilde{X}}$.
 - Analogously, we can prove that $h \circ k = 1_{\tilde{X}'}$. ■

What about equivalences $h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ that do not necessarily satisfy $h(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}'_0$?

Lemma 2.207 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map and $\tilde{x}_0, \tilde{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$ and $H_i := p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_i))$, $i \in \{0, 1\}$.

1. If $\gamma : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ is a path with $\gamma(0) = \tilde{x}_0$ and $\gamma(1) = \tilde{x}_1$, and $\alpha := p \circ \gamma$, then $[\alpha]H_1[\alpha]^{-1} = H_0$.
2. Conversely given \tilde{x}'_0 and a subgroup $H \leq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ conjugate to H_0 , there exists a basepoint $\tilde{x}_1 \in p^{-1}(x_0)$ with $H_1 = H$.

PROOF

1. “ \subseteq ” If $[h] \in H_1$, then $[h] = p_*([\tilde{h}])$ for some $\tilde{h} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ loop based at \tilde{x}_1 . Let $\tilde{k} = (\gamma \cdot \tilde{h}) \cdot \bar{\gamma}$. Then $p_*([\tilde{k}]) = p_*([\gamma \cdot \tilde{h} \cdot \bar{\gamma}]) = [\alpha \cdot h \cdot \bar{\alpha}] = [\alpha][h][\alpha]^{-1}$. That is $[\alpha][h][\alpha]^{-1} = p_*([\tilde{k}]) \in p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = H_0$.
 “ \supseteq ” Apply the above for $\bar{\gamma}$ and $\bar{\alpha} = p \circ \bar{\gamma}$. We that that $[\bar{\alpha}]H_0[\bar{\alpha}]^{-1} \subseteq H_1$. $\implies H_0 \subseteq [\alpha]H_1[\alpha]^{-1}$.
2. Let $\tilde{x}_0 \in \tilde{X}$ and $H \leq \pi_1(X, x_0)$ conjugate to H_0 . Then $H_0 = [\alpha]H[\alpha]^{-1}$ for some $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ based at x_0 . Then let γ be the lift of α to \tilde{X} with $\gamma(0) = \tilde{x}_0$. Let $\gamma(1) = \tilde{x}_1$. Then by 1. $\implies H_0 = [\alpha]H_1[\alpha]^{-1}$. ■

Theorem 2.209 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$, $p' : \tilde{X}' \rightarrow X$ be covering maps with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = p'(\tilde{x}'_0) = x_0$. p, p' are equivalent $\iff H_0 := p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0))$ and $H'_0 := p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_0))$ are conjugate.

PROOF

- “ \implies ” If $h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ is an equivalence, let $\tilde{x}'_1 = h(\tilde{x}_0)$ and $H'_1 = p'_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}', \tilde{x}'_1))$. By the previous theorem $H_0 = H'_1$. And by the lemma H'_0, H'_1 are conjugate. $\implies H_0, H'_0$ are conjugate.
- “ \Leftarrow ” If H_0, H'_0 are conjugate, then according to the lemma there exists $\tilde{x}'_1 \in \tilde{X}'$ with $H'_1 = H_0$. Then by previous theorem there is an equivalence $h : \tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X}'$ with $h(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}'_1$. ■

Example 2.211 $X = S^1$, $x_0 \in S^1$, $\pi_1(S^1, x_0) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.

Subgroups of \mathbb{Z} : $n\mathbb{Z}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Covering spaces of S^1 : $p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow S^1$ where $t \mapsto (\cos 2\pi t, \sin 2\pi t)$.

$p_*(\pi_1(\mathbb{R}))$ is trivial. That is this covering space of S^1 corresponds to the trivial subgroup

of $\pi_1(S^1)$.

An other covering map we saw was $p_n : S^1 \rightarrow S^1, z \mapsto z^n$. Then $(p_n)_*(\pi_1(S^1)) = n\mathbb{Z}$.

Question: Is there an a covering map $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow S^1$, that is not equivalent to any of the above.

No, as $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X})) \leq \pi_1(S^1)$.

The universal covering space

Definition 2.212 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map. If \tilde{X} is simply connected, then \tilde{X} is called a *universal covering space* of X .

Remark 2.213 $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}))$ trivial \implies any two universal covering spaces of X are equivalent. We can therefore speak of the universal covering space of X .

Lemma 2.214 Let p, q, r be continuous maps with $p = r \circ q$. If p, r are covering maps, then q is also a covering map.

PROOF Let $x_0 \in X, z_0 \in p(x_0), y_0 = q(x_0)$.

Claim 1: q is surjective.

Let $y \in Y$. Choose a path $\tilde{\alpha} : I \rightarrow Y$ with $\tilde{\alpha}(0) = y_0$ and $\tilde{\alpha}(1) = y$. Then $\alpha = r \circ \tilde{\alpha}$ is a path in Z with $\alpha(0) = r(\tilde{\alpha}(0)) = r(y_0) = r(q(x_0)) = p(x_0) = z_0$. Let $\tilde{\alpha}$ be the lift of α to a path in \tilde{X} with $\tilde{\alpha}(0) = x_0$. Then $q \circ \tilde{\alpha}$ is a lift of α to Y with $q \circ \tilde{\alpha}(0) = y_0$. By uniqueness of path liftings $q \circ \tilde{\alpha} = \tilde{\alpha}$. So $q \circ \tilde{\alpha}(1) = \tilde{\alpha}(1) = y \implies y = q(\tilde{\alpha}(1))$. $\implies q$ is surjective.

Claim 2: Given $y \in Y$, there exists an open neighbourhood V of y with $q^{-1}(V) = \cup_{\gamma} W_{\gamma}$, where W_{γ} pairwise disjoint open sets with $q|_{W_{\gamma}} : W_{\gamma} \rightarrow V$ homeomorphism $\forall \gamma$. So, let $y \in Y$. Set $z := r(y)$. Since p, r are covering maps we can find an open path-connected neighbourhood of z such that $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$, U_{α} disjoint open with $p|_{U_{\alpha}} : U_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall \alpha$. $r^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\beta} V_{\beta}$, V_{β} open, $r|_{V_{\beta}} : V_{\beta} \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall \beta$.

Call V the member of the family V_{β} that contains the point y . $q(U_{\alpha}) \subseteq r^{-1}(U) \forall \alpha$ and U_{α} is connected, hence $q(U_{\alpha}) \subseteq V_{\beta}$ for some β . Also $q^{-1}(V) \subseteq \cup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$. Indeed let $x \in q^{-1}(V)$ then $q(x) \in V \implies r(q(x)) \in r(V) = U \implies p(x) \in U \implies x \in p^{-1}(U) \implies x \in \cup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$.

Therefore $q^{-1}(V)$ is the union of those U_{α} 's with $q(U_{\alpha}) \subseteq V$.

In fact, $q|_{U_{\alpha}} : U_{\alpha} \rightarrow V$ is a homeomorphism for each such α .

Since $p|_{U_{\alpha}}, r|_V$ are homeomorphisms and $q|_{U_{\alpha}} = (r|_V)^{-1} \cdot p|_{U_{\alpha}}$.

Call this family of U_{α} 's W_{γ} . ■

Theorem 2.216 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map, and \tilde{X} simply connected. If $r : Y \rightarrow X$ is a covering map. Then there exists a covering map $q : \tilde{X} \rightarrow Y$ with $r \circ q = p$.

PROOF Let $x_0 \in X$. Choose $\tilde{x}_0 \in \tilde{X}$ and $y_0 \in Y$ with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0, r(y_0) = x_0$. $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) \subseteq r_*(\pi_1(Y, y_0))$. So we can apply the lifting lemma for the covering map $r : Y \rightarrow X$. That is $\exists! q : \tilde{X} \rightarrow Y$ continuous with $q(\tilde{x}_0) = y_0$ and $r \circ q = p$. p, r are covering maps $\implies q$ is covering map. ■

Remark 2.218 This theorem justifies the use of the term the universal covering space.

Question: Does every space X have a universal covering space?

Answer: No.

Lemma 2.219 Let $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ be a covering map with $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$ and \tilde{X} is simply connected. Then x_0 has an open neighbourhood U such that the map i_* induced by the inclusion $i : (U, x_0) \hookrightarrow (X, x_0)$ is trivial.

PROOF Let U be an open neighbourhood of x_0 with $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha}$, U_{α} pairwise disjoint open sets, $p|_{U_{\alpha}} : U_{\alpha} \rightarrow U$ homeomorphism $\forall \alpha$. Let U_0 be the U_{α} , that contains \tilde{x}_0 . Consider $f : I \rightarrow U$ a loop based at x_0 . And let $\tilde{f} := (p|_{U_0})^{-1}(f)$ be the lift of f in \tilde{X} . \tilde{f} is a loop based at \tilde{x}_0 . $\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)$ trivial $\implies \exists$ a path homotopy \tilde{F} between \tilde{f} and the constant loop at \tilde{x}_0 . Then $F = p \circ \tilde{F}$ is a path homotopy in X between $p \circ \tilde{f} = f$ and the constant path at $p(\tilde{x}_0) = x_0$. That is, i_* is trivial. ■

Example 2.221 $X = \cup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} C_n$ (Hawaiian earrings). Let $r_n : X \rightarrow C_n$ mapping every C_i with $i \neq n$ to $(0, 0)$ with $r_n|_{C_n} = 1_{C_n}$.

Let U be an open neighbourhood of $x_0 \in X$. Choose n large enough such $C_n \subseteq U$.

$j : C_n \hookrightarrow X, k : C_n \hookrightarrow U, i : U \hookrightarrow X$.

$r_n \circ j = 1_{C_n} \implies (r_n)_* \circ j_* = 1_{\pi_1(C_n, x_0)} \implies j_*$ is injective.

Now $j_* = i_* \circ k_*$, hence $i_* \circ k_* : \pi_1(C_n, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_0)$ is injective. I.e. i_* is not trivial.

Lemma \implies The shrinking of circles has no universal covering space.

Existence of covering spaces

Definition 2.222 X is called *semilocally simply connected* if $\forall x \in X \exists$ open neighbourhood U of x with $i_* : \pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$, induced by the inclusion $i : (U, x) \hookrightarrow (X, x)$, is trivial.

Remark 2.223

1. If U is an open neighbourhood of x with $i_* : \pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ trivial and V is an open neighbourhood of x with $V \subseteq U$, then obviously $j_* : \pi_1(V, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial.
2. If X is locally simply connected, i.e. $\forall x \in X$ and \forall open neighbourhoods U of x there exists a simply connected open neighbourhood V of x with $V \subseteq U$, then X is semilocally simply connected.

Semilocal simply connectedness is in fact a necessary and sufficient condition for the correspondance

“(Covering maps of X) $\xrightarrow{1:1}$ conjugacy classes of subgroups of $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ ”

to be surjective.

Theorem 2.224 Let X be path connected, locally path and semilocally simply connected. Let $x_0 \in X$ and $H \leq \pi_1(X, x_0)$. Then $\exists p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ covering map with $p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, \tilde{x}_0)) = H$.

Corollary 2.225 X has a universal covering space iff X is path connected, locally path connected and semilocally simply connected.

PROOF (of the theorem)

We do this in seven steps:

Step 1 Construction of \tilde{X} :

Define $P := \{\gamma : I \rightarrow Y \text{ path with } \gamma(0) = x_0\}$. For $\alpha, \beta \in P$ define $\alpha \sim \beta$ if $\alpha(1) = \beta(1)$ and $\alpha\bar{\beta} \in H$. Now define $\tilde{X} := P / \sim = \{\gamma^{\#} \mid \gamma : I \rightarrow X \text{ path with } \gamma(0) = x_0\}$, and define $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ by $p(\gamma^{\#}) = \gamma(1)$.

Note:

- p is surjective, since X is path connected.

We will define a topology on \tilde{X} so that $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a covering map.

Remark 2.227 If $[\alpha] = [\beta]$, then $\alpha^\# = \beta^\#$. Further, if $\alpha^\# = \beta^\#$ and $\delta : I \rightarrow X$ with $\delta(0) = \alpha(1)$, then $(\alpha\delta)^\# = (\beta\delta)^\#$

Step 2 Let $\alpha \in P$ and U a path connected neighbourhood of $\alpha(1)$. Define $B(U, \alpha) := \{(\alpha\delta)^\# \mid \delta : I \rightarrow U \text{ path with } \delta(0) = \alpha(1)\}$. Then $\alpha^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$.

Claim: The sets $B(U, \alpha)$ form a basis for a topology on \tilde{X} .

Proof: We first prove that if $\beta^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$, then $\alpha^\# \in B(U, \beta)$ and $B(U, \alpha) = B(U, \beta)$.

For this consider $\beta^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$. Then $\beta^\# = (\alpha\delta)^\#$, for some $\delta : I \rightarrow U$ with $\delta(0) = \alpha(1)$ and $(\beta\bar{\delta})^\# = (\alpha\delta\bar{\delta})^\# = \alpha^\#$. So $\alpha^\# = (\beta\bar{\delta})^\# \in B(U, \beta)$. Not let $(\beta\gamma)^\# \in B(U, \beta)$. Then $(\beta\gamma)^\# = ((\alpha\delta)\gamma)^\# = (\alpha(\delta\gamma))^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$. That is $B(U, \beta) \subseteq B(U, \alpha)$, and by analogous argument $B(U, \alpha) = B(U, \beta)$.

Now we can prove that the sets $B(U, \alpha)$ form a basis for a topology on \tilde{X} . Indeed:

- Let $\alpha^\# \in \tilde{X}$. Then choose a path connected open neighbourhood U of $\alpha(1)$. Then $\alpha^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$.
- Let $\alpha^\# \in B(U, \alpha_1) \cap B(U, \alpha_2)$. Choose a path connected open neighbourhood V of $\alpha(1)$ with $V \subseteq U_1 \cap U_2$. Then $B(V, \alpha) \subseteq B(U_1, \alpha) \cap B(U_2, \alpha) = B(U_1, \alpha_1) \cap B(U_2, \alpha_2)$.

Therefore the sets $B(U, \alpha)$ form a basis for a topology on \tilde{X} .

Step 3 p is open and continuous:

p is open: We will prove that $p(B(U, \alpha)) = U$, which implies p is open.

“ \supseteq ” Let $x \in U$ and choose a path $\delta : I \rightarrow U$ with $\delta(0) = x$, $\delta(1) = x$. Then $(\alpha\delta)^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$ and $p((\alpha\delta)^\#) = (\alpha\delta)(1) = \delta(1) = x$. I.e. $x \in p(B(U, \alpha))$, i.e. $U \subseteq p(B(U, \alpha))$.

“ \subseteq ” $p(B(U, \alpha)) \subseteq U$ (follows from the definition of p and $B(U, \alpha)$).

p is continuous: Let $\alpha^\# \in \tilde{X}$ and W an open neighbourhood of $p(\alpha^\#)$. Choose a path connected open neighbourhood U of $p(\alpha^\#) = \alpha(1)$ with $U \subseteq W$. Then $B(U, \alpha)$ is an open neighbourhood of $\alpha^\#$ in \tilde{X} with $p(B(U, \alpha)) = U \subseteq W$.

Step 4 $\forall x \in X \exists$ an open neighbourhood U of x with $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_\alpha V_\alpha$ where V_α pairwise disjoint open sets, and $p|_{V_\alpha} : V_\alpha \rightarrow U$ homomorphism.

Let $x \in X$. Choose a path connected open neighbourhood U of X such that $i_* : \pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial.

Claim 1: $p^{-1}(U) = \cup_{\alpha: I \rightarrow X, \alpha(0)=x_0, \alpha(1)=x} B(U, \alpha)$.

Proof:

“ \supseteq ” $p(B(U, \alpha)) = U \implies B(U, \alpha) \subseteq p^{-1}(U) \implies \cup_{\alpha: I \rightarrow X, \dots} B(U, \alpha) \subseteq p^{-1}(U)$.

“ \subseteq ” Let $\beta^\# \in p^{-1}(U)$. Then $p(\beta^\#) \in U$, i.e. $\beta(1) \in U$. Choose a path $\delta \in U$ from x to $\beta(1)$ and let $\alpha = \beta\bar{\delta}$. Then $[\beta] = [\alpha\delta] \implies \beta^\# = (\alpha\delta)^\# \in B(U, \alpha)$. I.e. $p^{-1}(U) \subseteq \cup_{\alpha: I \rightarrow X, \dots} B(U, \alpha)$.

Claim 2: Distinct sets $B(U, \alpha)$ are disjoint.

Proof: Suppose $\beta^\# \in B(U, \alpha) \cap B(U, \alpha_2)$. Then $B(U, \alpha_1) = B(U, \beta) = B(U, \alpha_2)$.

Claim 3: $p|_{B(U, \alpha)} : B(U, \alpha) \rightarrow U$ is bijective.

Proof: We have shown that $p(B(U, \alpha)) = U$, i.e. p is surjective. To check injectivity suppose $p((\alpha\delta_1)^\#) = p((\alpha\delta_2)^\#)$. $\delta_i : I \rightarrow U$, $\delta_i(0) = \alpha(1)$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Then

$(\alpha\delta_1)(1) = (\alpha\delta_2)(1) \implies \delta_1(1) = \delta_2(1)$. So we can define $\delta_1\bar{\delta}_2 : I \rightarrow U$ (loop based at $\delta_1(0) = \delta_2(0) = \bar{\delta}_2(1) = x$). Since $i_* : \pi_1(U, x) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x)$ is trivial, there is a path homotopy in X between $\delta_1\bar{\delta}_2$ and the constant loop at x . $[\alpha\delta_1] = [\alpha\delta_2]$. Now $p|_{B(U, \alpha)}$ is bijective, continuous and open. $\implies p|_{B(U, \alpha)}$ homeomorphism.

Step 5 Lifting a path in X to a path in \tilde{X} .

Let e_0 be the equivalence class in \tilde{X} of the constant path at x_0 . Then $p(e_0) = x_0$. Let $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ path with $\alpha(0) = x_0$. We want to compute its lift to a path $\tilde{\alpha} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ with $\tilde{\alpha}(0) = e_0$ and show that $\tilde{\alpha}(1) = \alpha^\#$. Given $c \in [0, 1]$, let $\alpha_c : I \rightarrow X$ the path defined by $\alpha_c(t) := \alpha(ct)$, $t \in I$. Define $\tilde{\alpha} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ by $\tilde{\alpha}(c) = (\alpha_c)^\#$. Then $p(\tilde{\alpha}(c)) = (p(\alpha_c))^\# = \alpha_c(1) = \alpha(c)$. $\implies p \circ \tilde{\alpha} = \alpha$ and $\tilde{\alpha}(0) = (\alpha_0)^\# = e_0$, $\tilde{\alpha}(1) = (\alpha_1)^\# = \alpha^\#$.

Claim: $\tilde{\alpha}$ is continuous.

Proof: omitted.

Step 6 $p : \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is covering map.

p is surjective (step 1), p satisfies the covering condition (step 4). X is path and locally path connected by assumption, \tilde{X} is path connected (step 5). (\tilde{X} is locally path connected as X is).

Step 7 $H = p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, e_0))$:

Let $\alpha : I \rightarrow X$ be a loop based at x_0 and $\tilde{\alpha} : I \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ its lift with $\tilde{\alpha}(0) = e_0$. Then $[\alpha] \in p_*(\pi_1(\tilde{X}, e_0)) \iff \tilde{\alpha}(1) = \tilde{\alpha}(0) = e_0 \iff \alpha^\# = e_0 \iff \alpha \sim \text{constant path at } x_0 \iff [\alpha\bar{c}_{x_0}] \in H \iff [\alpha] \in H$. ■

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