## Topology

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## Part I

## General Topology

## Chapter 1

## Topological Spaces

### 1.1 Topological Spaces

Definition 1.1. One calls topological space a set $X$ equipped with a family $\mathscr{U}$ of subsets of $X$, called the open sets of $X$, satisfying the following conditions:
(i) the subsets $\varnothing$ and $X$ of $X$ are open,
(ii) every union of open subsets of $X$ is open,
(iii) every finite intersection of open subsets of $X$ is open.

One says that $\mathscr{U}$ defines a topology on $X$.
Example. Consider a set $X$. The collection of all subsets of $X$ is a topology on $X$, and is called the discrete topology on $X$. The collection consisting of $X$ and $\varnothing$ is also a topology, and is called the trivial topology on $X$.
Example. Consider a set $X$. Let $\mathscr{U}_{f}$ be the collection of all subsets $A$ of $X$ such that $X \backslash A$ is either finite or is $X$. Then, $\mathscr{U}_{f}$ is a topology called the finite complement topology on $X$. Both $X$ and $\varnothing$ are in $\mathscr{U}_{f}$, since $X \backslash X=\varnothing$ is finite and $X \backslash \varnothing=X$. If $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a family of nonempty elements of $\mathscr{U}_{f}$, since $X \backslash \bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}=\bigcap_{i \in I}\left(X \backslash A_{i}\right)$ is finite, then $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i} \in \mathscr{U}_{f}$. In case $I$ is finite, $X \backslash \bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}=\bigcup_{i \in I}\left(X \backslash A_{i}\right)$ is consequently finite, then $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i} \in \mathscr{U}_{f}$.

Definition 1.2. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. One says that $A$ is closed if $X \backslash A$ is open.
Proposition 1.3. Let $X$ be a topological space:
(i) the subsets $\varnothing$ and $X$ of $X$ are closed,
(ii) every intersection of closed subsets of $X$ is closed,
(iii) every finite union of closed subsets of $X$ is closed.

Proof. The subsets $\varnothing$ and $X$ are evidently closed by passage to complements. Let $\mathscr{C}$ a family of closed subsets of $X$. Since $X \backslash \bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{C}} B=\bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{C}}(X \backslash B)$ and $X \backslash B$ is open, then $X \backslash \bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{C}} B$ is open and $\bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{C}} B$
is consequently closed. If the family $\mathscr{C}$ is finite, since $X \backslash \bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{C}} B=\bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{C}}(X \backslash B)$ and $\bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{C}}(X \backslash B)$ is open, then $\bigcup_{B \in \mathscr{C}} B$ is closed.

Definition 1.4. If $X$ is a set, a basis for a topology on $X$ is a collection $\mathscr{B}$ of subsets of $X$ such that
(i) for each $x \in X$, there exists an element $B \in \mathscr{B}$ containing $x$,
(ii) if $x$ belongs to the intersection of two elements $B_{1}, B_{2} \in \mathscr{B}$, then there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq B_{1} \cap B_{2}$.

If $\mathscr{B}$ satisfies both conditions, then one defines the topology generated by $\mathscr{B}$ as follows: A subset $U$ of $X$ is said to be open in $X$ if, for each $x \in U$, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq U$.

Proposition 1.5. Let $X$ be a set, and $\mathscr{B}$ a basis for a topology $\mathscr{U}$ on $X$. Then, $\mathscr{U}$ equals the collection formed by all unions of elements in $\mathscr{B}$.

Proof. As $\mathscr{U}$ is a topology, any union of elements in $\mathscr{B}$ clearly belongs to $\mathscr{U}$. Conversely, given $U \in \mathscr{U}$, for each $x \in U$, there exists $B_{x} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $x \in B_{x}$ and $B_{x} \subseteq U$ as $\mathscr{B}$ is a basis. So $\bigcup_{x \in U} B_{x} \subseteq U$, and we also have $U \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in U} B_{x}$ since $\bigcup_{x \in U} B_{x}$ contains every element of $U$.
Proposition 1.6. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a topology $\mathscr{U}$. Suppose that $\mathscr{C}$ is a collection of open sets such that, for each $U \in \mathscr{U}$ and each $x \in U$, there exists $C \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $x \in C$ and $C \subseteq U$. Then, $\mathscr{C}$ is a basis for $\mathscr{U}$.

Proof. We first prove that $\mathscr{C}$ is a basis. For the first condition, given $x \in X$, since $X \in \mathscr{U}$, then there exists $C \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $x \in C$ and $C \subseteq \mathscr{C}$. For the second condition, let $x \in C_{1} \cap C_{2}$ where $C_{1}, C_{2} \in \mathscr{C}$. Since $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are open, so is $C_{1} \cap C_{2}$, then there exists $C \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $x \in C$ and $C \subseteq C_{1} \cap C_{2}$.
We now prove that the topology $\mathscr{T}$ generated by $\mathscr{C}$ is $\mathscr{U}$. If $U \in \mathscr{U}$ and $x \in U$, there exists $C \in \mathscr{C}$ such that $x \in C$ and $C \subseteq U$, and consequently $U \in \mathscr{T}$ by definition. Conversely, if $T \in \mathscr{T}$, then $T$ equals a union of elements in $\mathscr{C}$ from Proposition 1.5. As $\mathscr{C} \subseteq \mathscr{U}$ and $\mathscr{U}$ is a topology, then $T \in \mathscr{U}$.

### 1.2 Neighborhoods

Definition 1.7. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x \in X$. A subset $V$ of $X$ is called a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$ if there exists an open subset $A$ of $X$ such that $x \in A$ and $A \subseteq V$.

Proposition 1.8. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x \in X$.
(i) If $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ are neighborhoods of $x$, then $V \cap V^{\prime}$ is a neighborhood of $x$.
(ii) If $V$ is a neighborhood of $x$, and $W$ a subset such that $V \subseteq W$, then $W$ is a neighborhood of $x$.

Proof. There exists open subsets $U, U^{\prime}$ containing $x$ such that $U \subseteq V$ and $U^{\prime} \subseteq V^{\prime}$. So, $U \cap U^{\prime}$ is an open subset of $X$ containing $x$ with the property $U \cap U^{\prime} \subseteq V \cap V^{\prime}$. If $V \subseteq W$, then $U \subseteq W$, and $W$ is obviously a neighborhood of $x$.

Proposition 1.9. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. These conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is open,
(ii) A is a neighborhood of each of its points.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : For a point $x$ of $A$, we obviously have $x \in A \subseteq A$, so $A$ is a neighborhood of $x$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : For every $x \in A$, there exists an open subset $A_{x}$ of $X$ containing $x$ such that that $A_{x} \subseteq A$. Then, the union $\bigcup_{x \in A} A_{x}$ is open, and is included in $A$. Since each point of $A$ is contained in $\bigcup_{x \in A} A_{x}$, then $A \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in A} A_{x}$. Thus $A=\bigcup_{x \in A} A_{x}$, and $A$ is consequently open.

Definition 1.10. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x \in X$. One calls fundamental system of neighborhoods of $x$ any family $\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of neighborhoods of $x$ such that every neighborhood of $x$ contains one of the $V_{i}$.

Example. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x \in X$. The set of all open subsets of $X$ containing $x$ is a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $x$.

### 1.3 Interior

Definition 1.11. Let $X$ be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$, and $x \in X$. The point $x$ is interior to $A$ if $A$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$. The set of all points interior to $A$ is called the interior of $A$ and denoted $A^{\circ}$.

Proposition 1.12. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A$ a subset of $X$. Then $A^{\circ}$ is the largest open set of $X$ contained in $A$.

Proof. Let $U$ be an open subset of $X$ contained in $A$. If $x \in U$, then $A$ is neighborhood of $x$, therefore $x \in A^{\circ}$, and consequently $U \subseteq A^{\circ}$. So, every open subset contained in $A$ is included in $A^{\circ}$.
Now, if $x \in A^{\circ}$, there exists an open subset $B$ such that $x \in B$ and $B \subseteq A$. Then $B \subseteq A^{\circ}$ by the first part of the proof, thus $A^{\circ}$ is a neighborhood of $x$. From Proposition 1.9 , we deduce that $A^{\circ}$ is open.

Proposition 1.13. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. These conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is open,
(ii) $A=A^{\circ}$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : If $A$ is open, then $A=A^{\circ}$ from Proposition 1.12 ,
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i):$ If $A=A^{\circ}$, then $A$ is open since $A^{\circ}$ is open.

Proposition 1.14. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A, B \subseteq X$. Then $(A \cap B)^{\circ}=A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ}$.
Proof. It is clear that $(A \cap B)^{\circ} \subseteq A^{\circ}$ and $(A \cap B)^{\circ} \subseteq B^{\circ}$, hence $(A \cap B)^{\circ} \subseteq A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ}$.
One has $A^{\circ} \subseteq A$ and $B^{\circ} \subseteq B$, therefore $A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ} \subseteq A \cap B$. Since $A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ}$ is open, then $A^{\circ} \cap B^{\circ} \subseteq(A \cap B)^{\circ}$ from Proposition 1.12.

Definition 1.15. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. The boundary of $A$ is the closed set $\partial A:=X \backslash\left(A^{\circ} \sqcup(X \backslash A)^{\circ}\right)$.

### 1.4 Closure

Definition 1.16. Let $X$ be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$, and $x \in X$. One says that $x$ is adherent to $A$ if every neighborhood of $x$ in $X$ intersects $A$. The set of all points adherent to $A$ is called the closure of $A$ and denoted $\bar{A}$.

Proposition 1.17. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. Then $\bar{A}=X \backslash(X \backslash A)^{\circ}$.
Proof. Take a point $x \in X$. We have $x \notin \bar{A}$ if and only if $x$ has a neighborhood disjoint from $A$ if and only if $x \in(X \backslash A)^{\circ}$.

Proposition 1.18. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A, B \subseteq X$.
(i) $\bar{A}$ is the smallest closed subset of $X$ containing $A$.
(ii) $A$ is closed if and only if $A=\bar{A}$.
(iii) $\overline{A \cup B}=\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$.

Proof. ( $i$ ) : The interior $(X \backslash A)^{\circ}$ is the largest open set contained in $X \backslash A$. Therefore its complement $\bar{A}$ is closed and contains $A$. If $B$ is a closed subset of $X$ containing $A$, then $X \backslash B \subseteq(X \backslash A)^{\circ}=X \backslash \bar{A}$, and $\bar{A} \subseteq B$.
(ii) : As $\bar{A}$ is the smallest closed subset of $X$ containing $A$, then $A$ is closed if and only if $A=\bar{A}$.
(iii) : From Proposition 1.17 , we have $\overline{A \cup B}=X \backslash(X \backslash(A \cup B))^{\circ}=X \backslash((X \backslash A) \cap(X \backslash B))^{\circ}$. Using Proposition 1.14, then $\overline{A \cup B}=X \backslash\left((X \backslash A)^{\circ} \cap(X \backslash B)^{\circ}\right)=\left(X \backslash(X \backslash A)^{\circ}\right) \cup\left(X \backslash(X \backslash B)^{\circ}\right)=\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$.

Definition 1.19. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. One says $A$ is dense if $\bar{A}=X$.
Proposition 1.20. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. These conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is dense,
(ii) $(X \backslash A)^{\circ}=\varnothing$,
(iii) every nonempty open subset of $X$ intersects $A$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Since $X \backslash(X \backslash A)^{\circ}=\bar{A}=X$, then $(X \backslash A)^{\circ}=\varnothing$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i i i)$ : Let $U$ be an open subset that does not intersect $A$. Therefore $U \subseteq(X \backslash A)^{\circ}=\varnothing$.
(iii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : Since every neighborhood of every point of $X$ intersects $A$, then $\bar{A}=X$.

### 1.5 Separated Topological Spaces

Definition 1.21. A topological space $X$ is said to be separated if any two distinct points of $X$ admit disjoint neighborhoods.

Proposition 1.22. Let $X$ be a separated topological space, and $x \in X$. Then $\{x\}$ is closed.
Proof. Take a point $y \in X \backslash\{x\}$. There exist neighborhoods $V$ and $W$ of $x$ and $y$ respectively that are disjoint. In particular, $W \subseteq X \backslash\{x\}$, hence $X \backslash\{x\}$ is neighborhood of $y$. Thus $X \backslash\{x\}$ is a neighborhood of each of its points. We deduce from Proposition 1.9 that $X \backslash\{x\}$ is open.

## Chapter 2

## Limit and Continuity

### 2.1 Limits

Definition 2.1. A filter on a set $X$ is a set $\mathscr{F}$ formed by nonempty subsets of $X$ satisfying the following conditions:
(i) if $A \in \mathscr{F}$ and $B \in \mathscr{F}$, then $A \cap B \in \mathscr{F}$,
(ii) if $A \in \mathscr{F}$ and if $A^{\prime}$ is a subset of $X$ containing $A$, then $A^{\prime} \in \mathscr{F}$.

Definition 2.2. A filter base on a set $X$ is a set $\mathscr{B}$ of nonempty subsets of $X$ such that, if $A \in \mathscr{B}$ and $B \in \mathscr{B}$, there exists $C \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $C \subseteq A \cap B$.

Example. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x_{0} \in X$. The set $\mathscr{V}$ formed by the neighborhoods of $x_{0}$ is a filter on $X$. A fundamental system of neighborhoods of $x_{0}$ is a filter base on $X$. Let $Y \subseteq X$, and assume $x_{0} \in \bar{Y}$. The set $\{Y \cap V \mid V \in \mathscr{V}\}$ is a filter on $Y$.
Example. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the set of intervals $\{(x-\varepsilon, x+\varepsilon)\}_{\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}}$ is a filter base on $\mathbb{R}$.
Definition 2.3. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a topological space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $l$ a point of $Y$. One says that $f$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$ if, for every neighborhood $V$ of $l$ in $Y$, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$.
If $X$ is a topological space, and $\mathscr{B}$ the filter formed by the neighborhoods of a point $x_{0}$ of $X$, one says that $l$ is the limit of $f$ along the neighborhood filter of $x_{0}$, and writes $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f(x)=l$.

Proposition 2.4. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, $x_{0} \in X, l \in Y,\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} a$ fundamental system of neighborhoods of $x_{0}$ in $X$, and $\left\{W_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$ a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $l$ in $Y$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f(x)=l$,
(ii) for every $j \in J$, there exists $i \in I$ such that $f\left(V_{i}\right) \subseteq W_{j}$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : For every $j \in J$, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $x_{0}$ such that $f(V) \subseteq W_{j}$. By definition, there exists $i \in I$ such that $V_{i} \subseteq V$. Therefore $f\left(V_{i}\right) \subseteq W_{j}$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i):$ Let $W$ be a neighborhood of $l$. There exists $j \in J$ such that $W_{i} \subseteq W$. Then, there exists $i \in I$ such that $f\left(V_{i}\right) \subseteq W_{j}$, and consequently $f\left(V_{i}\right) \subseteq W$.

Proposition 2.5. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a separated topological space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. If $f$ admits a limit along $\mathscr{B}$, this limit is unique.
Proof. Let $l, l^{\prime}$ be distinct limits of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$. Since $Y$ is separated, there exist disjoint neighborhoods $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ of $l$ and $l^{\prime}$ respectively in $Y$. There exist $B, B^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$ and $f\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V^{\prime}$. By definition, there exists $B^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq B \cap B^{\prime}$. Then $f\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right) \subseteq f(B) \cap f\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V \cap V^{\prime}$. Since $B^{\prime \prime}$ is nonempty, then $f\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right) \neq \varnothing$, and consequently $V \cap V^{\prime} \neq \varnothing$ which is absurd.

Proposition 2.6. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a topological space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $l \in Y$. Let $X^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}$, and $f^{\prime}$ the restriction of $f$ to $X^{\prime}$. The sets $B \cap X^{\prime}$, where $B \in \mathscr{B}$, form a filter base $\mathscr{B}^{\prime}$ on $X^{\prime}$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ tends to lalong $\mathscr{B}$,
(ii) $f^{\prime}$ tends to lalong $\mathscr{B}^{\prime}$.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $l$. There exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$. Hence $f^{\prime}\left(B \cap X^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V$. As $B \cap X^{\prime} \mathscr{B}^{\prime}$, then $f^{\prime}$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}^{\prime}$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $l$. There exists $B^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}^{\prime}$ such that $f\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V$. But $B^{\prime}$ has the form $B \cap X^{\prime}$ with $B \in \mathscr{B}$. Since $X^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}$, there exists $B^{\prime \prime} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq B \cap X^{\prime}$. Then, $f\left(B^{\prime \prime}\right) \subseteq f^{\prime}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V$, and $f$ consequently tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$.

### 2.2 Adherence Values

Definition 2.7. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a topological space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $l$ a point of $Y$. One says that $l$ is an adherence value of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$ if, for every neighborhood $V$ of $l$ and for every $B \in \mathscr{B}, f(B)$ intersects $V$.
Example. Consider the function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto\{x\}$. Then, every real number in $[0,1)$ is an adherence value of $f$ along the filter base $\{(a,+\infty)\}_{a \in \mathbb{R}_{+}}$.
Proposition 2.8. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a separated topological space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $l$ a point of $Y$. If $f$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$, then $l$ is the unique adherence value of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$.

Proof. Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $l$, and $B \in \mathscr{B}$. There exists $B^{\prime} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f\left(B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq V$. Then $B \cap B^{\prime} \neq \varnothing$, hence $f\left(B \cap B^{\prime}\right) \neq \varnothing$, and $f\left(B \cap B^{\prime}\right) \subseteq f(B) \cap V$. Therefore $f(B)$ intersects $V$, meaning that $l$ is an adherence value of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$.
Let $l^{\prime}$ be an adherence value of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$, assume $l^{\prime} \neq l$. There exist neighborhoods $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ of $l$ and $l^{\prime}$ respectively that are disjoint. There exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$. Then $f(B) \cap V^{\prime}$ contradicting the fact that $l^{\prime}$ is an adherence value.

Proposition 2.9. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a topological space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. The set formed by the adherence values of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$ is $\bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{B}} \overline{f(B)}$.
Proof. Let $l$ be an adherence value of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$, and $B \in \mathscr{B}$. Every neighborhood of $l$ intersects $f(B)$. Then $l \in \overline{f(B)}$, and $l \in \bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{B}} \overline{f(B)}$.
Let $l^{\prime} \in \bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{B}} \overline{f(B)}, V^{\prime}$ be a neighborhood of $l^{\prime}$, and take $B \in \mathscr{B}$. Since $l^{\prime} \in \overline{f(B)}$, then $f(B)$ intersects $V^{\prime}$, and $l^{\prime}$ is an adherence value of $f$.

### 2.3 Continuity

Definition 2.10. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $x_{0} \in X$. One says that $f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$ if $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f(x)=f\left(x_{0}\right)$. In other words, for every neighborhood $V$ of $f\left(x_{0}\right)$, there exists a neighborhood $U$ of $x_{0}$ such that $f(U) \subseteq V$.

Proposition 2.11. Let $X, Y, Z$ be topological spaces, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ functions, and $x_{0} \in X$. If $f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$, and $g$ at $f\left(x_{0}\right)$, then $g \circ f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$.

Proof. Let $W$ be a neighborhood of $g\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$ in $Z$. There exists a neighborhood $V$ of $f\left(x_{0}\right)$ in $Y$ such that $g(V) \subseteq W$. Moreover, there exists a neighborhood $U$ of $x_{0}$ in $X$ such that $f(U) \subseteq V$. Then, $U$ is neighborhood of $U$ such that $g \circ f(U) \subseteq g(V) \subseteq W$.

Definition 2.12. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. One says that $f$ is continuous on $X$ if $f$ is continuous at every point of $X$. The set of continuous functions from $X$ into $Y$ is denoted $\mathscr{C}(X, Y)$.

Example. Let $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and $f$ a rational function such that $f$ is defined on $A$ and $f(A)=B$. Consider the basis $\mathscr{B}_{A}=\left\{A \cap \mathbb{B}(x, r) \mid x \in A, r \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}\right\}$ resp. $\mathscr{B}_{B}=\left\{B \cap \mathbb{B}(x, r) \mid x \in B, r \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}\right\}$ for a topology on $A$ resp. $B$, where $\mathbb{B}(x, r)$ is the open $n$-ball $\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid\|x-y\|_{2}<r\right\}$. Take $x_{0} \in A$, and a neighborhood $V$ of $f\left(x_{0}\right)$. There exists an open ball $\mathbb{B}\left(x_{0}, r\right)$ such that $A \cap \mathbb{B}\left(x_{0}, r\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(V)$. So $f\left(A \cap \mathbb{B}\left(x_{0}, r\right)\right) \subseteq V$, and $f: A \rightarrow B$ is consequently continuous.

Proposition 2.13. Let $X, Y, Z$ be topological spaces, $f \in \mathscr{C}(X, Y)$, and $g \in \mathscr{C}(Y, Z)$. Then, we have $g \circ f \in \mathscr{C}(X, Z)$.

Proof. Use Proposition 2.11 for the continuity of $g \circ f$ on every point of $X$.
Proposition 2.14. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ is continuous,
(ii) $f^{-1}(B)$ is an open subset of $X$ if $B$ is an open subset of $Y$,
(iii) $f^{-1}(B)$ is a closed subset of $X$ if $B$ is a closed subset of $Y$,
(iv) for every subset $A$ of $X, f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i v):$ Let $A \subseteq X$ and $x_{0} \in \bar{A}$. Take a neighborhood $W$ of $f\left(x_{0}\right)$ in $Y$. Since $f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $x_{0}$ in $X$ such that $f(V) \subseteq W$. The fact $x_{0} \in \bar{A}$ implies $V \cap A \neq \varnothing$. As $f(V \cap A) \subseteq W \cap f(A)$, one sees that $W \cap f(A) \neq \varnothing$. Therefore $f\left(x_{0}\right) \in \overline{f(A)}$, and $f(\bar{A}) \subseteq \overline{f(A)}$.
$(i v) \Rightarrow(i i i)$ : Let $B$ be a closed subset of $Y$, and $A \in f^{-1}(B)$. Then $f(A) \subseteq B$, and $\overline{f(A)} \subseteq B$ from Proposition 1.18 (i). If $x \in \bar{A}$, then $f(x) \in \overline{f(A)}$ as $f$ is continuous. Therefore $f(x) \in B$ and so $x \in A$. Thus $A=\bar{A}$.
$($ iii $) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $B$ be an open subset of $Y$. Then $Y \backslash B$ is closed, and consequently $f^{-1}(Y \backslash B)$ is closed. But $f^{-1}(Y \backslash B)=X \backslash f^{-1}(B)$, then $f^{-1}(B)$ is open.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Let $x_{0} \in X$, and $W$ a neighborhood of $f\left(x_{0}\right)$ in $Y$. There exists an open subset $B$ of $Y$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right) \in B \subseteq W$. If $A=f^{-1}(B)$, then $A$ is open, and $A$ is a neighborhood of $x_{0}$ as $x_{0} \in A$. Since $f(A) \subseteq B \subseteq W$, then $f$ is continuous at $x_{0}$.

### 2.4 Homeomorphisms

Proposition 2.15. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a bijective function. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ and $f^{-1}$ are a continuous,
(ii) a subset $A$ of $X$ is open if and only if $f(A)$ is open in $Y$,
(iii) a subset $A$ of $X$ is closed if and only if $f(A)$ is closed in $Y$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Using Proposition 2.14, we deduce from the continuity of $f$ that if $f(A)$ is open then $A$ is open, and from the continuity of $f^{-1}$ that if $A$ is open then $f(A)$ is open. One analogously proves $(i) \Rightarrow(i i i)$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Using Proposition 2.14, "if $f(A)$ is open then $A$ is open" implies that $f$ is continuous, and "if $A$ is open then $f(A)$ is open" implies that $f^{-1}$ is continuous. One analogously gets $(i i i) \Rightarrow(i)$.

Definition 2.16. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f$ a function from $X$ into $Y$. One says that $f$ is a homeomorphism if $f$ is bijective, continuous, and $f^{-1}$ is continuous. In that case, one says that $X$ and $Y$ are homeomorphic.

Example. The $n$-dimensional sphere is the set $\mathbb{S}^{n}:=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+1}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n+1}^{2}=1\right\}$. Let $a=(0, \ldots, 0,1) \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$, and identify $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with $\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+1}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x_{n+1}=0\right\}$. We are going to define a homeomorphism from $\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}$ onto $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Take a point $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+1}\right) \in \mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}$. The line joining $a$ and $x$ is $D=\left\{\left(\lambda x_{1}, \ldots, \lambda x_{n}, 1+\lambda\left(x_{n+1}-1\right)\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$. This line touches $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ when $1+\lambda\left(x_{n+1}-1\right)=0$, that is when $\lambda=\frac{1}{1-x_{n+1}}$. Thus $D \cap \mathbb{R}^{n}$ reduces to the point $f(x)$ with coordinates

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1}^{\prime}=\frac{x_{1}}{1-x_{n+1}}, \quad x_{2}^{\prime}=\frac{x_{2}}{1-x_{n+1}}, \ldots, \quad x_{n}^{\prime}=\frac{x_{n}}{1-x_{n+1}}, \quad x_{n+1}^{\prime}=0 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have thus defined a function $f: \mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$. We now prove that, given $x^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, x_{n}^{\prime}, 0\right)$, there exists one and only one point $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n+1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}$ such that $f(x)=x^{\prime}$. The solution of Equation 2.1 yields the conditions

$$
x_{i}=x_{i}^{\prime}\left(1-x_{n+1}\right) \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{\prime 2}\left(1-x_{n+1}\right)^{2}+x_{n+1}^{2}=1
$$

After dividing out $1-x_{n+1}$, we obtain $\left(x_{1}^{\prime 2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{\prime 2}\right)\left(1-x_{n+1}\right)-1-x_{n+1}=0$, which gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{n+1}=\frac{x_{1}^{\prime 2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{\prime 2}-1}{x_{1}^{\prime 2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{\prime 2}+1} \quad \text { and } \quad x_{1}=\frac{2 x_{1}^{\prime}}{x_{1}^{\prime 2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{\prime 2}+1}, \ldots, x_{n}=\frac{2 x_{n}^{\prime}}{x_{1}^{\prime 2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{\prime 2}+1} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $f: \mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a bijection. Let $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}}=\left\{\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\} \cap \mathbb{B}(x, r) \mid x \in \mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}, r \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}\right\}$ resp. $\mathscr{B}_{\mathbb{R}^{n}}=\left\{\mathbb{R}^{n} \cap \mathbb{B}(x, r) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, r \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}\right\}$ be a basis for a topology on $\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}$ resp. $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $\mathbb{B}(x, r)$ is the open $n+1$-ball $\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid\|x-y\|_{2}<r\right\}$. We see in Equation 2.1 resp. Equation 2.2 that $f$ resp. $f^{-1}$ is a rational function, and is consequently continuous. Hence $f$ is a homeomorphism called stereographic projection of $\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{a\}$ onto $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

## Chapter 3

## Construction of Topological Spaces

### 3.1 Topological Subspaces

Proposition 3.1. Let $X$ be a topological space, $\mathscr{U}$ a topology on $X$, and $Y$ a subset of $X$. Then $\mathscr{V}=\{U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathscr{U}\}$ is a topology on $Y$.

Proof. (i) : As $\varnothing, X \in \mathscr{U}$, then $\varnothing=\varnothing \cap Y \in \mathscr{V}$ and $Y=X \cap Y \in \mathscr{V}$.
(ii) : Let $\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of subsets belonging to $\mathscr{V}$. For every $i \in I$, there exists $U_{i} \in \mathscr{U}$ such that $V_{i}=U_{i} \cap Y$. Therefore $\bigcup_{i \in I} V_{i}=\bigcup_{i \in I}\left(U_{i} \cap Y\right)=\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} U_{i}\right) \cap Y \in \mathscr{V}$.
(iii) : If $I$ is finite, then $\bigcap_{i \in I} V_{i}=\bigcap_{i \in I}\left(U_{i} \cap Y\right)=\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} U_{i}\right) \cap Y \in \mathscr{V}$.

Definition 3.2. Let $X$ be a topological space, $\mathscr{U}$ a topology on $X$, and $Y$ a subset of $X$. The set $\mathscr{V}=\{U \cap Y \mid U \in \mathscr{U}\}$ is called the topology induced on $Y$ by the given topology of $X$. Equipped with this topology, $Y$ is called a topological subspace of $X$.

Example. Consider $\mathbb{R}$ with the usual topology. As $\{n\}=\mathbb{Z} \cap\left(n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}\right)$, every point set $\{n\}$ of $\mathbb{Z}$ is therefore open. Every subset of $\mathbb{Z}$ is the union of point sets, then is open. Thus the topological subspace $\mathbb{Z}$ of $\mathbb{R}$ is discrete.

Proposition 3.3. Let $X$ be a topological space, $Y$ a subspace of $X$, and $A$ a subset of $Y$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $A$ is closed in $Y$,
(ii) A is the intersection with $Y$ of a closed subset of $X$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : The subset $Y \backslash A$ is open in $Y$. Therefore there exists an open subset $U$ of $X$ such that $Y \backslash A=U \cap Y$. Thus $A=(X \backslash U) \cap Y$, and since $X \backslash U$ is closed, we get the result.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Suppose $A=V \cap Y$ where $V$ is closed subset of $X$. Then $Y \backslash A=(X \backslash V) \cap Y$. Since $X \backslash V$ is open in $X$, then $Y \backslash A$ is open in $Y$, and $A$ is closed in $Y$.

Proposition 3.4. Let $X$ be a topological space, $Y$ a subspace of $X$, and $x \in Y$. For a subset $A$ of $Y$, the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is a neighborhood of $x$ in $Y$,
(ii) $A$ is the intersection with $Y$ of a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : There exists an open subset $B$ of $Y$ such that $x \in B \subseteq A$. Then there exists an open subset $U$ of $X$ such that $B=U \cap Y$. Letting $V=U \cup A$, we have $x \in V$, thus $V$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$. Besides, $Y \cap V=(Y \cap U) \cup(Y \cap A)=B \cup A=A$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : Suppose $A=Y \cap V$ where $V$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$. There exists an open subset $U$ of $X$ such that $x \in U \subseteq V$. Then $x \in Y \cap U \subseteq Y \subseteq V=A$, and since $Y \cap U$ is open in $Y$, thus $A$ is neighborhood of $x$ in $Y$.

Proposition 3.5. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $Y \subseteq X$. If $X$ is separated, then $Y$ is separated.
Proof. Take two distinct points $x, y$ of $Y$. There exist disjoint neighborhoods $U$ and $V$ of $x$ and $y$ respectively in $X$. We deduce from Proposition 3.4 that $U \cap Y$ and $V \cap Y$ are neighborhoods of $x$ and $y$ respectively in $Y$, and they are disjoint.

Proposition 3.6. Let $X, Y, Z$ be topological spaces such that $X \supseteq Y \supseteq Z$. Assume $\mathscr{U}$ is a topology on $X, \mathscr{V}$ the topology induced by $\mathscr{U}$ on $Y$, and $\mathscr{W}$ the topology induced by $\mathscr{V}$ on $Z$. Then $\mathscr{W}$ is the topology induced by $\mathscr{U}$ on $Z$.

Proof. Let $\mathscr{W}^{\prime}$ be the topology induced by $\mathscr{U}$ on $Z$.
For $W \in \mathscr{W}$, there exist $V \in \mathscr{V}$ such that $W=V \cap Z$, and $U \in \mathscr{U}$ such that $V=U \cap Y$. Then $W=U \cap Z$, and consequently $W \in \mathscr{W}^{\prime}$.
For $W^{\prime} \in \mathscr{W}^{\prime}$, there exists $U \in \mathscr{U}$ such that $W^{\prime}=U \cap Z$. If $V=U \cap Y$, then $V \in \mathscr{V}$ and $W^{\prime}=V \cap Z$. Therefore $W^{\prime} \in \mathscr{W}$.

Proposition 3.7. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a topological space, $Y^{\prime}$ a subspace of $Y, f: X \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ a function, and $l$ a point of $Y^{\prime}$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) f tends to lalong $\mathscr{B}$ relative to $Y^{\prime}$,
(ii) $f$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$ relative to $Y$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $l$ in $Y$. We know from Proposition 3.4 that $V \cap Y^{\prime}$ is a neighborhood of $l$ in $Y^{\prime}$. There exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V \cap Y^{\prime}$. Thus $f(B) \subseteq V$, and $f$ consequently tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$ relative to $Y$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Let $V^{\prime}$ be a neighborhood of $l^{\prime}$ in $Y^{\prime}$. From Proposition 3.4, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $l$ in $Y$ such that $V \cap Y^{\prime}=V^{\prime}$. Besides, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$. Since $f(X) \subseteq Y^{\prime}$, one has $f(B) \subseteq V \cap Y^{\prime}$ which is $V^{\prime}$. Thus $f$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$ relative to $Y$.

Corollary 3.8. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $Y^{\prime}$ a subspace of $Y$, and $f: X \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ a function. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ is continuous,
(ii) $f$, regarded as a function from $X$ into $Y$, is continuous.

Proof. For every $x_{0} \in X$, the condition $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f(x)=f\left(x_{0}\right)$ has the same meaning, according to Proposition 3.7 for the neighborhood filter of $x_{0}$, whether one considers $f$ to have values in $Y^{\prime}$ or in $Y$.

### 3.2 Products of Topological Spaces

Proposition 3.9. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ be topological spaces equipped with topologies $\mathscr{U}_{1}, \ldots, \mathscr{U}_{n}$ respectively. The set $\mathscr{U}$ formed by any union of elements in $\mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$ is a topology on $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$.

Proof. (i): We have $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n} \in \mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$ and $\varnothing=\varnothing \times X_{2} \times \cdots \times X_{n} \in \mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$.
(ii) : From its definition, any union of elements in $\mathscr{U}$ is a union of elements in $\mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$.
(iii): Take $A, B \in \mathscr{U}$. We have $A=\bigcup_{\alpha \in I} A_{\alpha}$ and $B=\bigcup_{\beta \in J} B_{\beta}$ with $A_{\alpha}, B_{\beta} \in \mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$. Then $A \cap B=\bigcup_{\substack{\alpha \in I \\ \beta \in J}} A_{\alpha} \cap B_{\beta}$. Setting $A_{\alpha}=A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n}$ and $B_{\beta}=B_{1} \times \cdots \times B_{n}$, we get

$$
A_{\alpha} \cap B_{\beta}=\left(A_{1} \cap B_{1}\right) \times \cdots \times\left(A_{n} \cap B_{n}\right) \in \mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}
$$

Definition 3.10. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ be topological spaces equipped with topologies $\mathscr{U}_{1}, \ldots, \mathscr{U}_{n}$ respectively. The topology $\mathscr{U}$ on $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ formed by any union of elements in $\mathscr{U}_{1} \times \cdots \times \mathscr{U}_{n}$ is called the product topology of the given topologies on $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$. Equipped with this topology, $X$ is called the product topological space of the topological spaces $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$.

Proposition 3.11. Let $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ be a product of topological spaces, and $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in X$. The sets of the form $V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n}$, where $V_{i}$ is a neighborhood of $x_{i}$ in $X_{i}$, constitute a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $x$ in $X$.

Proof. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, let $V_{i}$ be a neighborhood of $x_{i}$ in $X_{i}$. There exists an open subset $A_{i}$ of $X_{i}$ such that $x_{i} \in A_{i} \subseteq V_{i}$. Then $x \in A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n} \subseteq V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n}$. As $A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n}$ is open in $X$, thus $V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n}$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$.
Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$. There exists an open subset $A$ of $X$ such that $x \in A \subseteq V$. By definition of the product topology, there exists an open subset $A_{i}$ such that $x_{i} \in A_{i}$ and $A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n} \subseteq A$. Thus $A_{i}$ is a neighborhood of $x_{i}$ and $A_{1} \times \cdots \times A_{n} \subseteq V$.

Proposition 3.12. Let $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ be a product of topological spaces. If each $X_{i}$ is separated, then $X$ is separated.

Proof. Let $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ and $y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ be two distinct points of $X$. One has $x_{i} \neq y_{i}$ for at least one $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. If $x_{1} \neq y_{1}$ for example, there exist disjoint neighborhoods $U$ and $V$ of $x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ respectively in $X_{1}$. Then $U \times X_{2} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ and $V \times X_{2} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$ are disjoint neighborhoods of $x$ and $y$ respectively in $X$.

Proposition 3.13. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y=Y_{1} \times \cdots \times Y_{n}$ a product of topological spaces, and $l=\left(l_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}\right) \in Y$. Consider a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, that is, having the form $x \mapsto\left(f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{n}(x)\right)$, where $f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}$ is also a function for $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then, the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$,
(ii) $f_{i}$ tends to $l_{i}$ along $\mathscr{B}$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let us show, for example, that $f_{1}$ tends to $l_{1}$ along $\mathscr{B}$. If $V_{1}$ is a neighborhood of $l_{1}$, then $V_{1} \times Y_{2} \times \cdots \times Y_{n}$ is a neighborhood of $l$ in $Y$. Therefore, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V_{1} \times Y_{2} \times \cdots \times Y_{n}$. Thus $f_{1}(B) \subseteq V$, and $f_{1}$ consequently tends to $l_{1}$ along $\mathscr{B}$.
$($ ii $) \Rightarrow(i)$ : Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $l$ in $Y$. We know from Proposition 3.11 that there exist neighborhoods $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{n}$ of $l_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}$ respectively in $Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n}$ such that $V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n} \subseteq V$. Then, there exist $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f_{1}\left(B_{1}\right) \subseteq V_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\left(B_{n}\right) \subseteq V_{n}$. Moreover, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B \subseteq B_{1} \cap \cdots \cap B_{n}$. Then, $f(B) \subseteq f_{1}\left(B_{1}\right) \times \cdots \times f_{n}\left(B_{n}\right) \subseteq V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n} \subseteq V$, and $f$ consequently tends to $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$.

Proposition 3.14. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $Y=Y_{1} \times \cdots \times Y_{n}$ a product of topological spaces. Consider a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$, that is, having the form $x \mapsto\left(f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{n}(x)\right)$, where $f_{i}: X \rightarrow Y_{i}$ is also a function for $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ is continuous,
(ii) $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}$ are continuous.

Proof. For every $x_{0} \in X$, the conditions $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f(x)=f\left(x_{0}\right)$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow x_{0}} f_{i}(x)=f_{i}\left(x_{0}\right)$, for $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, are equivalent by Proposition 3.13 using the neighborhood filter of $x_{0}$.

### 3.3 Quotient Spaces

Proposition 3.15. Let $X$ be a topological space with topology $\mathscr{U}, \mathscr{R}$ an equivalence relation on $X$, and c the canonical mapping from $X$ onto $X / \mathscr{R}$. Then the set defined by $\mathscr{V}:=\left\{A \subseteq X / \mathscr{R} \mid c^{-1}(A) \in \mathscr{U}\right\}$ a topology on $X / \mathscr{R}$.
Proof. The set $\varnothing$ and $X / \mathscr{R}$ are open in $X / \mathscr{R}$ since $c^{-1}(\varnothing)=\varnothing$ and $c^{-1}(X / \mathscr{R})=X$. The two other conditions follow, for a set $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ included in $\mathscr{V}$, from the equations

$$
c^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}\right)=\bigcup_{i \in I} c^{-1}\left(A_{i}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad c^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}\right)=\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} c^{-1}\left(A_{i}\right) .
$$

Definition 3.16. Let $X$ be a topological space with topology $\mathscr{U}, \mathscr{R}$ an equivalence relation on $X$, and $c$ the canonical mapping from $X$ onto $X / \mathscr{R}$. The topology $\left\{A \subseteq X / \mathscr{R} \mid c^{-1}(A) \in \mathscr{U}\right\}$ on $X / \mathscr{R}$ is called the quotient topology of the topology of $X$ by $\mathscr{R}$. Equipped with this topology, $X / \mathscr{R}$ is called the quotient space of $X$ by $\mathscr{R}$.
Proposition 3.17. Let $X$ be a topological space, $\mathscr{R}$ an equivalence relation on $X, c$ the canonical mapping from $X$ onto $X / \mathscr{R}, Y$ a topological space, and $f: X / \mathscr{R} \rightarrow Y$ a function. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ is continuous on $X / \mathscr{R}$,
(ii) the function $f \circ c: X \rightarrow Y$ is continuous.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : The mapping $c$ is continuous as, if $A$ is open in $X / \mathscr{R}$, then $c^{-1}(A)$ is open in $X$. Since $f$ is also continuous, then $f \circ c$ is continuous.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i):$ Let $B$ be an open subset of $Y$. Then $c^{-1}\left(f^{-1}(B)\right)=(f \circ c)^{-1}(B)$ is open in $X$. Therefore $f^{-1}(B)$ is open in $X / \mathscr{R}$ by the definition of $c$. Thus $f$ is continuous from Proposition 2.14.

## Chapter 4

## Compact Spaces

### 4.1 Compact Spaces

Definition 4.1. Let $X$ be a set, and $A$ a subset of $X$. A family $\mathscr{F}$ of subsets included in $X$ is a covering of $A$ if $A \subseteq \bigcup_{U \in \mathscr{F}} U$.
Definition 4.2. A topological space $X$ is compact if, for any family $\mathscr{O}$ of open subsets of $X$ covering $X$, one can extract from $\mathscr{O}$ a finite subfamily that again covers $X$. By passage to complements, this definition is equivalent, for any family $\mathscr{C}$ of closed subsets of $X$ having empty intersection, to the existence of a finite subfamily of $\mathscr{C}$ having empty intersection.

Proposition 4.3. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A$ a subspace of $X$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $A$ is compact,
(ii) if a family of open subsets of $X$ covers A, one can extract from it a finite subfamily that again covers $A$.

Proof. (i) $\Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of open subsets of $X$ such that $A \subseteq \bigcup_{i \in I} U_{i}$. Every $U_{i} \cap A$ is open in $A$, and the family $\left\{U_{i} \cap A\right\}_{i \in I}$ covers $A$, so there exists a finite subset $J$ of $I$ such that $A=\bigcup_{j \in J}\left(U_{j} \cap A\right)$. The subfamily $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$ consequently covers $A$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i):$ Let $\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of open sets of $A$ covering $A$. For every $i \in I$, there exists an open subset $U_{i}$ of $X$ such that $V_{i}=U_{i} \cap A$. Then $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ covers $A$, there consequently exists a finite subset $J$ of $I$ such that $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$ covers $A$. Therefore $\bigcup_{j \in J} V_{j}=A$.

Theorem 4.4 (Borel-Lebesgue). Consider the space $\mathbb{R}$ equipped with the usual topology, and let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a \leq b$. Then the interval $[a, b]$ is compact.

Proof. Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of open subsets of $\mathbb{R}$ covering $[a, b]$, and $A$ be the set of $x \in[a, b]$ such that $[a, x]$ is covered by a finite subfamily of $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$. The set $A$ is nonempty since $a \in A$. It is contained in $[a, b]$, and therefore has a supremum $m$ in $[a, b]$. There exists $j \in I$ such that $m \in U_{j}$. Since $U_{j}$ is open in $\mathbb{R}$, there exists $\varepsilon>0$ such that $[m-\varepsilon, m+\varepsilon] \subseteq U_{j}$. As $m$ is the supremum of $A$, there exists $x \in A$ such that $m-\varepsilon \leq x \leq m$. Then $[a, x]$ is covered by a finite subfamily $\left\{U_{k}\right\}_{k \in K}$, and
with $[x, m+\varepsilon] \subseteq U_{j}$, we get $[a, m+\varepsilon]$ covered by the finite subfamily $\left\{U_{k}\right\}_{k \in K} \cup\left\{U_{j}\right\}$. One sees that $m+\varepsilon \in[a, b]$ contradicts the fact that $m$ is the supremum in $[a, b]$. Hence $m=b$, and $[a, b]$ is covered by a finite subfamily of $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$. We deduce the compactness of $[a, b]$ from Proposition 4.3.

### 4.2 Properties of Compact Spaces

Proposition 4.5. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a compact space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. Then $f$ admits at least one adherence value along $\mathscr{B}$.

Proof. Consider the family $\{\overline{f(B)}\}_{B \in \mathscr{B}}$ of closed subsets of $Y$, and let $A=\bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{A}} \overline{f(B)}$. If $A=\varnothing$, there exist $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $\overline{f\left(B_{1}\right)} \cap \cdots \cap \overline{f\left(B_{n}\right)}=\varnothing$ as $Y$ is compact. Now, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B \subseteq B_{1} \cap \cdots \cap B_{n}$, whence $f(B) \subseteq f\left(B_{1}\right) \cap \cdots \cap f\left(B_{n}\right)$, and consequently $f\left(B_{1}\right) \cap \cdots \cap f\left(B_{n}\right) \neq \varnothing$. This contradiction proves that $A \neq \varnothing$, so we get the result by using Proposition 2.9.

Proposition 4.6. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a compact space, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $A$ the set of adherence values of $f$ along $\mathscr{B}$. Take an open subset $U$ of $Y$ containing $A$. Then, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq U$.

Proof. One has $(Y \backslash U) \cap A=\varnothing$, meaning that $(Y \backslash U) \cap \bigcap_{B \in \mathscr{B}} \overline{f(B)}=\varnothing$. Since $Y$ is compact, there exist $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{n} \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $(Y \backslash U) \cap \overline{f\left(B_{1}\right)} \cap \cdots \cap \overline{f\left(B_{n}\right)}=\varnothing$. Furthermore, there exist $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $B \subseteq B_{1} \cap \cdots \cap B_{n}$. Then $(Y \backslash U) \cap \overline{f(B)}=\varnothing$, implying $\overline{f(B)} \subseteq U$.

Corollary 4.7. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a filter base $\mathscr{B}, Y$ a compact space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. If $f$ admits only one adherence value $l$ along $\mathscr{B}$, then $f$ tends tol along $\mathscr{B}$.

Proof. From Proposition 4.6, for any neighborhood $V$ of $l$, there exists $B \in \mathscr{B}$ such that $f(B) \subseteq V$.
Proposition 4.8. Let $X$ be a compact space, and $A$ a closed subspace of $X$. Then $A$ is compact.
Proof. Let $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of closed subsets of $A$ with empty intersection. We know from Proposition 3.3 that each $A_{i}$ is the intersection of $A$ with a closed subset of $X$ then is closed in $X$. Since $X$ is compact, there exists a finite subfamily $\left\{A_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$ with empty intersection.

Proposition 4.9. Let $X$ be a separated space, and $A$ a compact subspace of $X$. Then $A$ is closed in $X$.
Proof. Take $x \in X \backslash A$. For every $y \in A$, there exist open neighborhoods $U_{y}, V_{y}$ of $x, y$ respectively in $X$ that are disjoint. We have $A \subseteq \bigcup_{y \in A} V_{y}$, and since $A$ is compact, there exist $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n} \in A$ such that $A \subseteq V_{y_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup V_{y_{n}}$. The set $U_{y_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap U_{y_{n}}$ is an open neighborhood of $x$ contained in $X \backslash A$. It follows that $X \backslash A$ is neighborhood of each of its points, and is consequently open from Proposition 1.9. Therefore $A$ is closed in $X$.

Proposition 4.10. Let $X$ be a separated space.
(i) If $A, B$ are compact subsets of $X$, then $A \cup B$ is compact.
(ii) If $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a nonempty family of compact subsets of $X$, then $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is compact.

Proof. (i) : Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a covering of $A \cup B$ by open subsets of $X$. There exist finite subsets $J_{1}, J_{2}$ of $I$ such that $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J_{1}}$ covers $A$ and $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J_{2}}$ covers $B$. Then $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J_{1} \cup J_{2}}$ covers $A \cup B$, and we deduce from Proposition 4.3 that $A \cup B$ is compact.
(ii) : We know from Proposition 4.9 that each $A_{i}$ is closed in $X$. Therefore $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is closed in $X$, and consequently in each $A_{i}$. Since each $A_{i}$ is compact, then $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}$ is compact by Proposition 4.8 ,
Proposition 4.11. Let $X$ be a separated compact space. Every point of $X$ has a fundamental system of compact neighborhoods.

Proof. Take a point $x_{0}$ and an open neighborhood $A$ of $x_{0}$ in $X$. The sets $\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ and $X \backslash A$ are disjoint compact subsets of $X$. For every $x \in X \backslash A$, there exist disjoint open subsets $U_{x}, V_{x}$ of $X$ such that $x_{0} \in U_{x}$ and $x \in V_{x}$. Since $X \backslash A \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in X \backslash A} V_{x}$, there exists $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in X \backslash A$ such that $X \backslash A \subseteq V_{x_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup V_{x_{n}}$. Then, $U=U_{x_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap U_{x_{n}}$ and $V=V_{x_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup V_{x_{n}}$ are disjoint open subsets of $X$ such that $x_{0} \in U$ and $X \backslash A \subseteq V$. Hence $\bar{U}$ is a compact neighborhood of $x_{0}$. We have $U \subseteq X \backslash V$, therefore $\bar{U} \subseteq X \backslash V$ as $X \backslash V$ is closed, and consequently $\bar{U} \subseteq A$.

Proposition 4.12. Let $X$ be a compact space, $Y$ a topological space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. Then $f(X)$ is compact.

Proof. Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a family of open subsets of $Y$ covering $f(X)$. Since $f$ is continuous, then each $f^{-1}\left(U_{i}\right)$ is an open subset of $X$ from Proposition 2.14. Moreover, $X=\bigcup_{i \in I} f^{-1}\left(U_{i}\right)$, then there exists a finite subset $J$ of $I$ such that $X=\bigcup_{j \in J} f^{-1}\left(U_{j}\right)$. Hence $\left\{U_{j}\right\}_{j \in J}$ covers $f(X)$, and $f(X)$ is therefore compact.

Corollary 4.13. Let $X$ be a compact space, $Y$ a separated space, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous bijective function. Then $f$ is a homeomorphism of $X$ onto $Y$.

Proof. If $A$ is a closed subset of $X$, then $A$ is compact from Proposition 4.8, therefore $f(A)$ is compact from Proposition 4.12, and consequently closed from Proposition 4.9. We deduce from Proposition 2.14 that $f^{-1}$ is continuous.

Theorem 4.14. The product of a finite number of compact spaces is compact.
Proof. It suffices to show that if $X$ and $Y$ are compact, then $X \times Y$ is compact. Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a covering of $X \times Y$ with open subsets. For every $m=(x, y) \in X \times Y$, fix an open set $U_{m}$ such that $m \in U_{m}$. By Proposition 3.11, there exist an open neighborhood $V_{m}$ of $x$ in $X$ and an open neighborhood $W_{m}$ of $y$ in $Y$ such that $V_{m} \times W_{m} \subseteq U_{m}$.
For a fixed $x_{0} \in X,\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ is homeomorphic to $Y$. Indeed, the function $y \mapsto\left(x_{0}, y\right)$ of $Y$ onto $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ is bijective. It is continuous from $Y$ into $X \times Y$ by Proposition 3.14, therefore from $Y$ into $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ by Corollary 3.8. Its inverse function is the composite of the canonical injection of $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ into $X \times Y$, which is continuous from Corollary 3.8 once again, and of the canonical projection of $X \times Y$ onto $Y$, which is also continuous from Proposition 3.14. The set $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ is then compact.
The family of open subsets $\left\{V_{m} \times W_{m}\right\}_{m \in\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y}$ is a covering of $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$, so there consequently exist finite points $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n} \in\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y$ such that $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \times Y \subseteq\left(V_{m_{1}} \times W_{m_{1}}\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(V_{m_{n}} \times W_{m_{n}}\right)$. The intersection $A_{x_{0}}=V_{m_{1}} \cap \cdots \cap V_{m_{n}}$ is an open neighborhood of $x_{0}$. For every $(x, y) \in A_{x_{0}} \times Y$, there exists
$k \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $(x, y) \in V_{m_{k}} \times W_{m_{k}}$, hence $A_{x_{0}} \times Y$ is covered by a finite subset of $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$. Now $\left\{A_{x_{0}}\right\}_{x_{0} \in X}$ forms a covering of $X$, from which one can extract a finite covering of open subsets $\left\{A_{x_{1}}, \ldots, A_{x_{p}}\right\}$. Each $A_{x_{j}} \times Y$, with $j \in\{1, \ldots, p\}$, is covered by a finite subset of $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$, therefore $X \times Y$ is covered by a finite subset of $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$.

### 4.3 Locally Compact Spaces

Definition 4.15. A topological space $X$ is said to be locally compact if every point of $X$ admits a compact neighborhood.

Example. Consider the product topological space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $\mathbb{R}$ is equipped with the usual topology, and take $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. We know from the theorem of Borel-Lebesgue that, for every $i \in$ $\{1, \ldots, n\},\left[x_{i}-1, x_{i}+1\right]$ is a compact neighborhood of $x_{i}$ in $\mathbb{R}$. Then, by Proposition 3.11 and Theorem 4.14, $\left[x_{1}-1, x_{1}+1\right] \times \cdots \times\left[x_{n}-1, x_{n}+1\right]$ is a compact neighborhood of $x$. The topological space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is therefore locally compact.

Proposition 4.16. Let $X$ be a separated space. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $X$ is locally compact,
(ii) every point of $X$ admits a fundamental system of compact neighborhoods.

Proof. We obviously have $(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$. We only prove $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $x \in X$ and $V$ be a compact neighborhood of $x$. We know from Proposition 4.11 that $x$ admits in $V$ a fundamental system $\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of compact neighborhoods. We deduce from Proposition 3.4 that $\left\{V_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a fundamental system of compact neighborhoods of $x$ in $X$.

Proposition 4.17. Let $X$ be a locally compact space, and $Y$ a subspace of $X$.
(i) If $Y$ is closed, then $Y$ is locally compact.
(ii) If $X$ is separated and $Y$ is open, then $Y$ is locally compact.

Proof. Let $x \in Y$ and $V$ a compact neighborhood of $x$ in $X$. Then $V \cap Y$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $Y$. (i) : We know from Proposition 3.3 that $V \cap Y$ is closed in $V$, hence is compact by Proposition 4.8.
(ii) : As $Y$ is a neighborhood of $x$, we can suppose from Proposition 4.16 that $V \subseteq Y$, and then $V$ is a compact neighborhood of $x$ in $Y$.

Proposition 4.18. Let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ be locally compact spaces, and $X=X_{1} \times \cdots \times X_{n}$. Then $X$ is locally compact.

Proof. Take $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in X$. For every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, there exists a compact neighborhood $V_{i}$ of $x_{i}$ in $X_{i}$. Then $V_{1} \times \cdots \times V_{n}$ is a neighborhood of $x$ in $X$ is compact by Theorem4.14.

## Chapter 5

## Connected Spaces

### 5.1 Connected Spaces

Definition 5.1. A topological space $X$ is said to be connected if there does not exist a pair $(A, B)$ of disjoint nonempty open subsets of $X$ such that $X=A \sqcup B$. By passage to complements, this definition is equivalent to the nonexistence of a pair $(A, B)$ of disjoint nonempty closed subsets of $X$ such that $X=A \sqcup B$. It is also equivalent to the nonexistence of a subset of $X$, distinct from $X$ and $\varnothing$, that is both open and closed.

Proposition 5.2. The topological space $\mathbb{R}$ equipped with the usual topology is connected.
Proof. Let $A$ be an open and closed subset of $\mathbb{R}$, and assume $A$ and $\mathbb{R} \backslash A$ nonempty. Taking $x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash A$, one of the sets $A \cap[x,+\infty)$ and $A \cap(-\infty, x]$ is nonempty. Suppose that $B=A \cap[x,+\infty) \neq \varnothing$. Then $B$ is closed. Since it is bounded below, then it has a smallest element as its infimum $b$ is adherent to $B$. Besides, since $B=A \cap(x,+\infty)$, then $B$ is also open. Hence $B$ contains an interval $(b-\varepsilon, b+\varepsilon)$ with $\varepsilon>0$. That contradicts the fact that $b$ is the smallest element of $B$.

Definition 5.3. Let $X$ be a topological space and $Y \subseteq X$. One says that $Y$ is a connected subset of $X$ if the topological space $Y$ is connected.

Example. The subspace $\mathbb{Q}$ of $\mathbb{R}$ is not connected. Take indeed an element $x \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$ such as $\sqrt{2}$ or $\pi$. Then $\mathbb{Q}=((-\infty, x) \cap \mathbb{Q}) \sqcup((x,+\infty) \cap \mathbb{Q})$ which are two disjoint open subsets of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proposition 5.4. Let $X$ be a topological space, $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ a family of connected subsets of $X$, and $A$ the set $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$. If the $A_{i}$ intersect pairwise, then $A$ is connected.

Proof. Suppose $A$ is not connected. There exist nonempty subsets $U, V \subseteq A$ open in $A$ such that $V=A \backslash U$. For every $i \in I, U \cap A_{i}$ and $V \cap A_{i}$ are both open and complementary in $A_{i}$. Since $A_{i}$ is connected, then $U \cap A_{i}=\varnothing$ or $V \cap A_{i}=\varnothing$. Let $I_{U}$ and $I_{V}$ be the set of $i \in I$ such that $A_{i} \subseteq U$ and $A_{i} \subseteq V$ respectively. Then, $U=\bigcup_{i \in I_{U}} A_{i}$ and $V=\bigcup_{i \in I_{V}} A_{i}$. Therefore, there exist $i, j \in I, i \neq j$, such that $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ are disjoint, which is a contradiction.

Corollary 5.5. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ connected subspaces of $X$ such that $A_{i} \cap A_{i+1} \neq \varnothing$ if $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then, $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is connected.

Proof. The proof is by induction. We suppose that $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n-1}$ is connected. As $A_{n-1} \cap A_{n} \neq \varnothing$, we deduce from Proposition 5.4 that $A_{1} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}$ is connected.

Proposition 5.6. Let $X$ be a topological space, $A$ a connected subset of $X$, and $B$ a subset of $X$ such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq \bar{A}$. Then $B$ is connected.

Proof. Suppose that $B$ is the union of subsets $U, V$ that are disjoint and open in $B$. There exist open sets $U^{\prime}, V^{\prime}$ in $X$ such that $U=B \cap U^{\prime}$ and $V=B \cap V^{\prime}$. The sets $A \cap U$ and $A \cap V$ are then open and complementary in $A$. Since $A$ is connected, we have for example $A \cap U=\varnothing$, then $A \cap U^{\prime}=\varnothing$, in other words $A \subseteq X \backslash U^{\prime}$. Since $X \backslash U^{\prime}$ is closed, then $\bar{A} \subseteq X \backslash U^{\prime}$. So $B \cap U^{\prime}=\varnothing$, implying $U=\varnothing$.

Proposition 5.7. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces and $f$ a continuous function from $X$ into $Y$. If $X$ is connected, then $f(X)$ is connected.

Proof. If $f(X)$ is not connected, it has nonempty open subsets $U, V \subseteq f(X)$ that are complementary. So $f^{-1}(U), f^{-1}(V) \subseteq X$ are nonempty open subsets that are complementary, which is absurd.

Proposition 5.8. Consider $\mathbb{R}$ equipped with the usual topology, and $A \subseteq R$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) A is connected,
(ii) $A$ is an interval.

Proof. We can assume that $A$ is nonempty and not reduced to a point.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : If $A$ is open, then $A$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}$, and consequently connected by Proposition 5.2 , If $A$ is an arbitrary interval, then $A^{\circ} \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$, and consequently connected by Proposition 5.6.
$(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Suppose that $A$ is not an interval. There exist $a, b \in A$ and $x_{0} \in \mathbb{R} \backslash A$ such that $a<x_{0}<b$. Then $A$ is the union of the sets $A \cap\left(-\infty, x_{0}\right)$ and $A \cap\left(x_{0},+\infty\right)$ which are open in $A$. Since $A$ is connected, $A \cap\left(x_{0},+\infty\right)$ for example is empty. Then $x<x_{0}$ for all $x \in A$, which contradicts $b \in A$.

Proposition 5.9. Let $X$ be a connected topological space, $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a continuous function, and $a, b \in X$. Then $f$ takes on every value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$.

Proof. The set $f(X)$ is a connected subset of $\mathbb{R}$ by Proposition 5.7, hence is an interval of $\mathbb{R}$ by Proposition5.8. This interval contains $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, hence all numbers between them.

### 5.2 Connected Components

Proposition 5.10. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $x \in X$. Among the connected subspaces of $X$ containing $x$, there exists one that is larger than all the others.

Proof. The union of all the connected subsets of $X$ containing $x$ is connected by Proposition 5.4, and is obviously the largest of the connected subsets of $X$ containing $x$.

Definition 5.11. Let $X$ be a topological space and $x \in X$. The largest connected subset of $X$ containing $x$ is called the connected component of $x$ in $X$.

Example. The topological spaces $X=\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$ and $Y=\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0,1\}$ are not homeomorphic, since $X$ has the two connected components $(-\infty, 0),(0,+\infty)$, while $Y$ the has three $(-\infty, 0),(0,1),(1,+\infty)$.

Proposition 5.12. Let $X$ be a topological space.
(i) Every connected component of $X$ is closed in $X$.
(ii) Two distinct connected components are disjoint.

Proof. (i) : If $A_{x}$ is the connected component of $x$, then $\overline{A_{x}}$ is connected by Proposition5.6. But $A_{x}$ is the largest connected subset of $X$ containing $x$, hence $\overline{A_{x}}=A_{x}$.
(ii) : Let $A_{x}, A_{y}$ be connected components that are not disjoint. Then $A_{x} \cup A_{y}$ is connected by Proposition5.4. Since $x \in A_{x} \cup A_{y}$, then $A_{x} \cup A_{y} \subseteq A_{x}$, hence $A_{y} \subseteq A_{x}$. Similarly $A_{x} \subseteq A_{y}$, therefore $A_{x}=A_{y}$.

Proposition 5.13. Let $X$ be a topological space. If every point of $X$ has a connected neighborhood, the connected components of $X$ are open.

Proof. Let $C$ be a connected component of $X, x \in C$, and $V$ a connected neighborhood of $x$. Since $x \in C \cap V$, the union $C \cup V$ is then connected, and $C \cup V \subseteq C$. Hence $V \subseteq C$, and $C$ is a neighborhood of $x$. We deduce from Proposition 1.9 that $C$ is open.

### 5.3 Locally Connected Spaces

Definition 5.14. A topological space $X$ is said to be locally connected at its point $x$ if $x$ has a fundamental system of connected neighborhoods. If $X$ is locally connected at each of its points, it is said to be locally connected.

Example. The topological space $\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$ is not connected, but it is locally connected.
Proposition 5.15. Let $X$ be a topological space. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $X$ is locally connected,
(ii) for every open set $V$ of $X$, each connected component of $V$ is open in $X$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $C$ be a connected component of an open set $V$ in $X$, and $x \in C$. We can choose a connected neighborhood $U$ of $x$ such that $U \subseteq V$. Since $U$ is connected, it must lie entirely in $C$. We deduce from Proposition 1.9 that $C$ is open.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : Given $x \in X$, a neighborhood $V$ of $x$ in $X$, and open set $U$ such that $x \in U$ and $U \subseteq V$. Let $C$ be the connected component of $U$ containing $x$. Since $C$ is connected and open in $X$, then it is a connected neighborhood of $x$ contained in $V$.

### 5.4 Path Connected Spaces

Definition 5.16. Let $X$ be a topological space and $a, b \in X$. A continuous map $f$ from $[0,1]$ into $X$ such that $f(0)=a$ and $f(1)=b$ is called a path in $X$ with origin $a$ and extremity $b$. If any two points of $X$ are the origin and extremity of a path in $X, X$ is said to be path connected.

Example. The open unit $n$-ball $\mathbb{B}^{n}:=\left\{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}<1\right\}$ is path connected. Indeed, any points $x, y \in \mathbb{B}^{n}$ can be connected by the straight-line path $f:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{B}^{n}$ defined by

$$
f(t)=(1-t) x+t y
$$

Proposition 5.17. Let $X$ be an path connected topological space. Then $X$ is connected.

Proof. Take a point $x_{0} \in X$. For every $x \in X$, let $f_{x}:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ be a path with origin $x_{0}$ and extremity $x$. Since $[0,1]$ is connected by Proposition 5.8, then $f_{x}([0,1])$ is connected by Proposition 5.7. Therefore $X=\bigcup_{x \in X} f_{x}([0,1])$ is connected by Proposition 5.4, as $x_{0}$ belongs to all of the $f_{x}([0,1])$.

Proposition 5.18. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A, B \subseteq X$. If $A, B$ are path connected such that $A \cap B \neq \varnothing$, then $A \cup B$ is path connected.

Proof. Let $x \in A, y \in B$, and pick $z \in A \cap B$. Choose paths $f:[0,1] \rightarrow A, g:[0,1] \rightarrow B$ such that $f(0)=x, f(1)=z$, and $g(0)=z, g(1)=y$. We obtain a path $h:[0,1] \rightarrow A \cup B$ from $x$ to $y$ as follows:

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

Proposition 5.19. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. If $X$ is path connected, then $f(X)$ is path connected.

Proof. If $y_{1}, y_{2} \in f(X)$, there exist $x_{1}, x_{2} \in X$ such that $f\left(x_{1}\right)=y_{1}$ and $f\left(x_{2}\right)=y_{2}$. As $X$ is path connected, there exists a path $h:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ from $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$. Hence $f \circ h:[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ is a path from $y_{1}$ to $y_{2}$.

### 5.5 Locally Path-Connected Spaces

Definition 5.20. A topological space $X$ is said to be locally path connected at its point $x$ if $x$ has a fundamental system of path-connected neighborhoods. If $X$ is locally path connected at each of its points, it is said to be locally path connected.

Definition 5.21. Let $X$ be a topological space and $x \in X$. The path component of $x$ in $X$ is the set formed by the points $y \in X$ such that a path with origin $x$ and extremity $y$ in $X$ exists.

Proposition 5.22. Let $X$ be a topological space. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $X$ is locally path connected,
(ii) for every open set $V$ of $X$, each path component of $V$ is open in $X$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Let $C$ be a path component of an open set $V$ in $X$, and $x \in C$. We can choose a path-connected neighborhood $U$ of $x$ such that $U \subseteq V$. Since $U$ is path connected, it must lie entirely in $C$. We deduce from Proposition 1.9 that $C$ is open.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : Given $x \in X$, a neighborhood $V$ of $x$ in $X$, and open set $U$ such that $x \in U$ and $U \subseteq V$. Let $C$ be the path component of $U$ containing $x$. Since $C$ is path connected and open in $X$, then it is a path-connected neighborhood of $x$ contained in $V$.

## Chapter 6

## Metric Spaces

### 6.1 Metric Spaces

Definition 6.1. A metric on a set $X$ is a function $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$satisfying the following conditions:
(i) $d(x, y)=0$ if and only if $x=y$,
(ii) $d(x, y)=d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$,
(iii) $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y)+d(y, z)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$.

A set equipped with a metric is called a metric space.
Example. Let $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, y=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and set $d(x, y)=\sqrt{\left(x_{1}-y_{1}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(x_{n}-y_{n}\right)^{2}}$. It is known that $d$ is a metric on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and in this way $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ becomes a metric space.

Definition 6.2. Let $X$ be a set equipped with a metric $d$, and $Y \subseteq X$. Then $Y$ becomes a metric space with the restriction of $d$ to $Y \times Y$, and is called a metric subspace of $X$.

Definition 6.3. Let $X$ be a metric space with metric $d$, take $a \in X$, and $\rho \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$. The set $B(a, \rho):=$ $\{x \in X \mid d(a, x)<\rho\}$ is called an open ball with center $a$ and radius $\rho$. A subset $A \subseteq X$ is said to be open if, for each $x_{0} \in A$, there exists $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that $B\left(x_{0}, \varepsilon\right) \subseteq A$.

Definition 6.4. Let $X$ be a metric space, and $A \subseteq X$. One says that $A$ is closed if $X \backslash A$ is open.
Proposition 6.5. Every metric space $X$ is a topological space, and the topology of $X$ is formed by the open sets of $X$.

Proof. Let $X$ be a metric space. The subsets $\varnothing$ and $X$ of $X$ are clearly open.
Take a family $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ of open subsets of $X$. Let $A=\bigcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$, and $x_{0} \in A$. There exists $i \in I$ such that $x_{0} \in A_{i}$. Hence, there exists $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that $B\left(x_{0}, \varepsilon\right) \subseteq A_{i} \subseteq A$. Thus $A$ is open.
Suppose now that $I$ is finite. Let $C=\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}$, and $x_{0} \in C$. For every $i \in I$, there exists $\varepsilon_{i} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that $B\left(x_{0}, \varepsilon_{i}\right) \subseteq A_{i}$. If $\varepsilon \in \inf \left\{\varepsilon_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$, then $B\left(x_{0}, \varepsilon\right) \subseteq A_{i}$ for every $i \in I$. Hence $B\left(x_{0}, \varepsilon\right) \subseteq C$, and $C$ is consequently open.

Proposition 6.6. Let $X$ be a set, and $d, d^{\prime}$ metrics on $X$. Suppose there exist $c, c^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that

$$
c d(x, y) \leq d^{\prime}(x, y) \leq c^{\prime} d(x, y)
$$

for all $x, y \in X$. The open subsets of $X$ are the same for $d$ and $d^{\prime}$.
Proof. Let $A$ be a subset of $X$ that is open for $d$, and $x_{0} \in A$. There exists $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that $\{x \in$ $\left.X \mid d\left(x_{0}, x\right)<\varepsilon\right\} \subseteq A$. If $x \in X$ satisfies $d^{\prime}\left(x_{0}, x\right)<c \varepsilon$, then $d\left(x_{0}, x\right)<\varepsilon$, so $x \in A$. Hence $A$ is also open for $d^{\prime}$. On the other side, one proves that if $A$ is open for $d^{\prime}$, then $A$ is open for $d$ by interchanging the roles of $d$ and $d^{\prime}$.

### 6.2 Continuity of the Metric

Proposition 6.7. Let $X$ be a metric space. Its metric $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$is continuous.
Proof. Let $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in X \times X$, and take $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$. The set $B\left(x_{0}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \times B\left(y_{0}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)$ is a neighborhood of $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ in $X \times X$. If $(x, y) \in B\left(x_{0}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \times B\left(y_{0}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)$, then

$$
\begin{gathered}
d(x, y) \leq d\left(x, x_{0}\right)+d\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+d\left(y_{0}, y\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+d\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=d\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)+\varepsilon \\
d\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \leq d\left(x_{0}, x\right)+d(x, y)+d\left(y, y_{0}\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+d(x, y)+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=d(x, y)+\varepsilon
\end{gathered}
$$

therefore $\left|d(x, y)-d\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)\right|<\varepsilon$. So $d$ is continuous at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.
Definition 6.8. Let $X$ be a metric space, and $A$ a nonempty subset of $X$. One calls diameter of $A$ the number $\operatorname{diam}(A):=\sup \{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A\}$.

Lemma 6.9. Consider $\mathbb{R}$ with the usual topology, and let $A$ be a nonempty subset of $\mathbb{R}$. Suppose that $A$ is bounded above, and $x$ its supremum. Then $x$ is the largest element of $\bar{A}$.

Proof. Let $V$ be a neighborhood of $x$ in $\mathbb{R}$, and $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that $(x-\varepsilon, x+\varepsilon) \subseteq V$. By definition of the supremum, there exists $y \in A$ such that $x-\varepsilon<y \leq x$. Then $y \in V$, meaning that $V \cap A \neq \varnothing$, thus $x$ is adherent to $A$.
Let $x^{\prime} \in \bar{A}$ such that $x^{\prime}>x$, and set $\varepsilon=x^{\prime}-x>0$. Then $\left(x^{\prime}-\varepsilon, x^{\prime}+\varepsilon\right)$ is a neighborhood of $x^{\prime}$, therefore intersects $A$. Let $y \in\left(x^{\prime}-\varepsilon, x^{\prime}+\varepsilon\right) \cap A$. Since $y>x^{\prime}-\varepsilon=x, x$ is then not an upper bound for $A$, which is absurd. So, $x$ is the largest element of $\bar{A}$.

Proposition 6.10. Let $X$ be a metric space, and $A \subseteq X$. The sets $A$ and $\bar{A}$ have the same diameter.
Proof. Denote $d$ the metric of $X$. Let $D=\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in A\}$ and $D^{\prime}=\{d(x, y) \mid x, y \in \bar{A}\}$. We obviously have $D \subseteq D^{\prime}$. One deduce from Proposition 3.11 that every point of $\bar{A} \times \bar{A}$ is adherent to $A \times A$. So $D^{\prime}=d(\bar{A} \times \bar{A}) \subseteq d(\overline{A \times A})$, and $d(\overline{A \times A}) \subseteq d(A \times A)=\bar{D}$ by Proposition 2.14 and Proposition 6.7. Then $D^{\prime} \subseteq \bar{D}$, and consequently $\bar{D}=\bar{D}^{\prime}$. If $D$ is bounded, we then deduce from Lemma 6.9 that the diameter of $A$ and $\bar{A}$ is the largest element of $\bar{D}$. If $D$ is unbounded, then $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ have the same supremum $+\infty$.

Definition 6.11. Let $X$ be a metric space with metric $d$, and $A, B$ two nonempty subsets of $X$. The distance from $A$ to $B$ the number $d(A, B):=\inf \{d(x, y) \mid x \in A, y \in B\}$. It is clear that $d(A, B)$ and $d(B, A)$ are equal. If $z \in X$, we define $d(z, A):=\inf \{d(z, x) \mid x \in A\}$.

### 6.3 Sequences in Metric Spaces

Proposition 6.12. Let $X$ be a metric space, $x \in X$, and $A \subseteq X$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $x \in \bar{A}$,
(ii) there is a sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of points in $A$ that tends to $x$.

Proof. (ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : Since every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, then every neighborhood of $x$ intersects $A$ which means that $x \in \bar{A}$.
$(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a point $x_{n} \in A \cap B\left(x, \frac{1}{n}\right)$. Then $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $x$.
Proposition 6.13. Let $X$ be a metric space, $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a sequence of points in $X$, and $x \in X$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $x$ is an adherence value of $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ along the filter base $\{\{n, n+1, \ldots\}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$,
(ii) there exists an infinite subset $\left\{x_{n_{k}}\right\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ of $\mathbb{N}$, with $n_{k}<n_{k+1}$, such that $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $x$ along the filter base $\left\{\left\{n_{k}, n_{k+1}, \ldots\right\}\right\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$.
Proof. $($ ii $) \Rightarrow(i)$ : The point $x$ is then an adherence value of $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, and consequently of $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : If $d$ is the metric of $X$, there exist $n_{1} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d\left(x_{n_{1}}, x\right)<1, n_{2} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n_{2}>n_{1}$ and $d\left(x_{n_{2}}, x\right)<\frac{1}{2}, n_{3} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n_{3}>n_{2}$ and $d\left(x_{n_{3}}, x\right)<\frac{1}{3}$, and so on. So, the sequence $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $x$ along $\left\{\left\{n_{k}, n_{k+1}, \ldots\right\}\right\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Proposition 6.14. Let $X, Y$ be metric spaces, $A \subseteq X, f: A \rightarrow Y$ a function, $a \in \bar{A}$, and $y \in Y$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) the point $y$ is an adherence value of $f$ along the filter $\{A \cap V\}_{V \in \mathscr{V}}$, where $\mathscr{V}$ is a fundamental system of neighborhoods of a,
(ii) there exists a sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $A$ such that $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to a and $\left(f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $y$.

Proof. (ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : On one side, if $V \in \mathscr{V}$, there exists $i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_{n} \in A \cap V$ if $n \geq i$. On the other side, if $W$ is a neighborhood of $y$, there exists $j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f\left(x_{n}\right) \in W$ if $n \geq j$. Then, $f\left(x_{n}\right) \in f(A \cap V) \cap W$ if $n \geq \max \{i, j\}$.
$(i) \Rightarrow(i i)$ : Denote by $B_{X}(a, \rho)$ and $B_{Y}\left(y, \rho^{\prime}\right)$ the open balls of centers and radius $a, y$ and $\rho, \rho^{\prime}$ respectively. Take a point $x_{1} \in B_{X}(a, 1) \cap A$ such that $f\left(x_{1}\right) \in B_{Y}(y, 1)$, take a point $x_{2} \in B_{X}\left(a, \frac{1}{2}\right) \cap A$ such that $f\left(x_{2}\right) \in B_{Y}\left(y, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, take a point $x_{3} \in B_{X}\left(a, \frac{1}{3}\right) \cap A$ such that $f\left(x_{3}\right) \in B_{Y}\left(y, \frac{1}{3}\right)$, and so on. Hence, the sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $a$, and $\left(f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $y$.
Proposition 6.15. Let $X, Y$ be metric spaces, $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function, and $x \in X$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ is continuous at $x$,
(ii) for every sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $X$ that tends to $x$, the sequence $\left(f\left(x_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $f(x)$.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow$ (ii) : Consider the filter base $\left\{\left\{x_{n}, x_{n+1}, \ldots\right\}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and a neighborhood $V$ of $f(x)$ in $Y$. There exists a neighborhood $U$ of $x$ in $X$ such that $f(U) \subseteq V$. And there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\left\{x_{k}, x_{k+1}, \ldots\right\} \subseteq U$. Then, $\left\{f\left(x_{k}\right), f\left(x_{k+1}\right), \ldots\right\} \subseteq V$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i):$ Let $d_{X}$ and $d_{Y}$ be the metrics of $X$ and $Y$ respectively, and suppose that $f$ is not continuous at $x$. There exists $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that, for any $\eta \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$, there is $y \in X$ with $d_{X}(x, y)<\eta$ yet $d_{Y}(f(x), f(y))>$ $\varepsilon$. If we successively take $\eta=1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \ldots$, we obtain points $y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, \ldots$ of $X$ such that $d_{X}\left(x, y_{n}\right)<\frac{1}{n}$ and $d_{Y}\left(f(x), f\left(y_{n}\right)\right)>\varepsilon$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\left(y_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $x$, but $\left(f\left(y_{n}\right)\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ does not tend to $f(x)$.

### 6.4 Complete Metric Spaces

Definition 6.16. Let $X$ be a metric space with metric $d$. A sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of points in $X$ is called a Cauchy sequence if, for every $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$, there exists $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m, n \geq p$ implies $d\left(x_{m}, x_{n}\right)<\varepsilon$.

Proposition 6.17. Let $X$ be a metric space with metric d. If a sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ of points in $X$ has a limit in $X$, then it is a Cauchy sequence.

Proof. Suppose that $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $x$. For every $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$, there exists a positive integer $p$ such that $n \geq p$ implies $d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Then, if $m, n$ are positive integers bigger than $p$, we have $d\left(x_{m}, x\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, which implies $d\left(x_{m}, x_{n}\right) \leq d\left(x_{m}, x\right)+d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<\varepsilon$.

Definition 6.18. A metric space $X$ is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence of points in $X$ has a limit in $X$.

Proposition 6.19. Let $X$ be a metric space, $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ a Cauchy sequence in $X$, and $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ a subsequence of $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$. If the sequence $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ has a limit $l$, then $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ also tends to $l$.

Proof. For every $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$, there exists a positive integer $p$ such that, if $m, n$ are positive integers bigger than $p$, then $d\left(x_{m}, x_{n}\right)<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Fix a positive integer $n$ bigger than $p$. Since $\left(x_{n_{k}}\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $l$, then $\left(d\left(x_{n_{k}}, x_{n}\right)\right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to $d\left(l, x_{n}\right)$, so $d\left(l, x_{n}\right) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}<\varepsilon$. As this is true for all positive integers $n \geq p$, then $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ also tends to $l$.

Proposition 6.20. Let $X$ be a complete metric space, and $Y$ a closed subspace of $X$. Then $Y$ is complete.

Proof. Let $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a Cauchy sequence in $Y$. It is also a Cauchy sequence in $X$, hence has a limit $l$ in $X$. We deduce from Proposition 6.12 that $l \in \bar{Y}$. But $\bar{Y}=Y$, thus $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ has a limit in $Y$.

Proposition 6.21. Let $X$ be a metric space, and $Y$ a complete metric subspace of $X$. Then $Y$ is closed in $X$.

Proof. Take $l \in \bar{Y}$. We know from Proposition 6.12 that there exists a sequence $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in $Y$ that tends to $l$. So, we deduce Proposition 6.17 that $\left(x_{n}\right)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence. It thus has a limit in $Y$ since $Y$ is complete. As $l$ is its limit, we must have $l \in Y$, therefore $\bar{Y}=Y$.

## Part II

## Algebraic Topology

## Chapter 7

## Fundamental Groups

### 7.1 Homotopy of Paths

Definition 7.1. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $f, g$ two paths in $X$. These paths are said to be path homotopic if they have the same origin $a$, the same extremity $b$, and if there is a continuous function $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ such that, if $s, t \in[0,1]$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F(s, 0)=f(s) \quad \text { and } \quad F(s, 1)=g(s) \\
& F(0, t)=a \quad \text { and } \quad F(1, t)=b
\end{aligned}
$$

In that case, one writes $f \simeq_{p} g$. The function $F$ is called a path homotopy between $f$ and $g$.
Example. Let $f, g$ be paths in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The function $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ defined by

$$
F(x, t)=(1-t) f(x)+\operatorname{tg}(x)
$$

is a path homotopy between $f$ and $g$.
Proposition 7.2. The relation $\simeq_{p}$ on paths in a topological space $X$ with fixed origins and extremities is an equivalence relation.

Proof. Given a path $f$, the function $F(x, t)=f(x)$ is the required path homotopy to get $f \simeq{ }_{p} f$.
If $f \simeq_{p} g$ is established by a path homotopy $F(x, t)$, then $G(x, t)=F(x, 1-t)$ is a path homotopy between $g$ and $f$.
Suppose that $f \simeq_{p} g$ by means of a path homotopy $F$, and $g \simeq_{p} h$ by means of a path homotopy $G$, then $f \simeq_{p} h$ by means of the path homotopy $H:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ defined by the equation

$$
H(x, t)= \begin{cases}F(x, 2 t) & \text { if } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right] \\ G(x, 2 t-1) & \text { if } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]\end{cases}
$$

If $f$ is a path, denote its path-homotopy equivalence class by $[f]$.
Definition 7.3. Let $X$ be a topological space, $f$ a path in $X$ from $a$ to $b$, and $g$ a path in $X$ from $b$ to $c$. Define the product $f * g$ of $f$ and $g$ to be the path $h$ in $X$ given by the equation

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

The product operation of Definition 7.3 extends to an operation on path-homotopy classes defined by

$$
[f] *[g]:=[f * g] .
$$

Lemma 7.4. Let $X, Y$ be a topological space, $k: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function, and $F$ is a path homotopy between two paths $f, f^{\prime}$ in $X$.
(i) Then $k \circ F$ is a path homotopy in $Y$ between $k \circ f$ and $k \circ f^{\prime}$.
(ii) Moreover, if $g$ is a path in $X$ with $f(1)=g(0)$, then $k \circ(f * g)=(k \circ f) *(k \circ g)$.

Proof. (i): The function $k \circ F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ is continuous such that, if $s, t \in[0,1]$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& k \circ F(s, 0)=k \circ f(s) \quad \text { and } \quad k \circ F(s, 1)=k \circ f^{\prime}(s), \\
& k \circ F(0, t)=k \circ f(0)=k \circ f^{\prime}(0) \quad \text { and } \quad k \circ F(1, t)=k \circ f(1)=k \circ f^{\prime}(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii): We have

$$
k \circ(f * g)(t)=k \circ\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
f(2 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right] \\
g(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]
\end{array}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
k \circ f(2 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right] \\
k \circ g(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]
\end{array}=(k \circ f) *(k \circ g)(t) .\right.\right.
$$

For $x \in X$, let $e_{x}$ denote the constant path carrying all of $[0,1]$ to the point $x$. Given a path $f$ in $X$ from $a$ to $b$, denote the reverse of $f$ by $\bar{f}$. It is the path from $b$ to $a$ defined for $s \in[0,1]$ by $\bar{f}(s):=f(1-s)$.
Proposition 7.5. The operation $*$ on path-homotopy classes in a topological space $X$ has the following properties:
(i) If $[f] *([g] *[h])$ is defined, so is $([f] *[g]) *[h]$, and they are equal.
(ii) If $f$ is a path in $X$ from a to $b$, then

$$
[f] *\left[e_{b}\right]=[f] \quad \text { and } \quad\left[e_{a}\right] *[f]=[f] .
$$

(iii) If $f$ is a path in $X$ from a to $b$, then

$$
[f] *[\bar{f}]=\left[e_{a}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad[\bar{f}] *[f]=\left[e_{b}\right] .
$$

Proof. (ii) : If $e_{0}$ is the constant path at 0 , and $i:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$ the identity map, then $e_{0} * i$ is a path from 0 to 1 . Since $i$ and $e_{0} * i$ are paths in $\mathbb{R}$, there is a path homotopy $F$ between them. Then $f \circ F$ is a path homotopy in $X$ between the paths $f \circ i=f$ and $f \circ\left(e_{0} * i\right)=\left(f \circ e_{0}\right) *(f \circ i)=e_{a} * f$. Similarly, using the fact that $i * e_{1}$ and $i$ are path homotopic in $[0,1]$, one shows that $[f] *\left[e_{b}\right]=[f]$.
(iii) : The path $i * \bar{i}$, that begins and ends at 0 , is path homotopic to the constant path $e_{0}$ as paths in $\mathbb{R}$ once again. Denoting $F$ a path homotopy between them, we get from Lemma 7.4 that $f \circ F$ is a path homotopy between $f \circ e_{0}=e_{a}$ and $(f \circ i) *(f \circ \bar{i})=f * \bar{f}$. With a similar argument, using the fact that $\bar{i} * i$ and $e_{1}$ are path homotopic in $[0,1]$, one shows that $[\bar{f}] *[f]=\left[e_{b}\right]$.
(i): We have

$$
f *(g * h)(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
f(2 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right], \\
g * h(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right],
\end{array}= \begin{cases}f(2 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right], \\
g(2(2 t-1)) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}\right], \\
h(2(2 t-1)-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{3}{4}, 1\right]\end{cases}\right.
$$

$$
\text { and } \quad(f * g) * h(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
f * g(2 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right], \\
h(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right],
\end{array}= \begin{cases}f(4 t) & \text { for } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right], \\
g(4 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right], \\
h(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right] .\end{cases}\right.
$$

Then $(f *(g * h)) \circ \alpha=(f * g) * h$ with $\alpha:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$ defined by $\alpha(s)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}2 s & \text { for } s \in\left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right] \\ s+\frac{1}{4} & \text { for } s \in\left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right] \\ \frac{s}{2}+\frac{1}{2} & \text { for } s \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]\end{array}\right.$. As $\alpha$ and $i$ are paths in $\mathbb{R}$, we get by Lemma 7.4 that $(f *(g * h)) \circ \alpha \simeq_{p}((f * g) * h) \circ i=(f * g) * h$.

### 7.2 Fundamental Groups

Definition 7.6. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $a \in X$. A path in $X$ that starts and ends at $a$ is called a loop at the basepoint $a$. The set of all homotopy classes $[f]$ of loops $f:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ at the basepoint $a$ is denoted $\pi_{1}(X, a)$.

Proposition 7.7. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $a \in X$. The set $\pi_{1}(X, a)$ is a group with respect to the product $*$.

Proof. By restricting to loops $f, g$ with a fixed basepoint, we guarantee that the product $f * g$ or more exactly the product $[f] *[g]=[f * g]$ is defined. It remains to verify the three axioms for a group:

- From Proposition 7.5 (i), for all $[f],[g],[h] \in \pi_{1}(X, a),[f] *([g] *[h])=([f] *[g]) *[h]$.
- From Proposition 7.5 (ii), for every $[f] \in \pi_{1}(X, a),[f] *\left[e_{a}\right]=[f]$ and $\left[e_{a}\right] *[f]=[f]$.
- From Proposition 7.5 (iii), for every $[f] \in \pi_{1}(X, a),[f] *[\bar{f}]=\left[e_{a}\right]$ and $[\bar{f}] *[f]=\left[e_{a}\right]$.

Definition 7.8. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $a \in X$. The group $\pi_{1}(X, a)$ is called the fundamental group of $X$ at the basepoint $a$.

Example. For a convex set $X$ in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with basepoint $a \in X, \pi_{1}(X, a)$ is the trivial one-element group. Indeed the function $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ defined by

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

is a path homotopy between any loops $f, g$ based at $a$.
Definition 7.9. A topological space $X$ is said to be simply connected if it is a path connected space and if $\pi_{1}(X, a)$ is the trivial one-element group for every $a \in X$.

Proposition 7.10. Let $X$ be a simply connected topological space. Then, any paths in $X$ having the same origin and extremity are path homotopic.

Proof. Let $f, g$ be paths in $X$ from $a$ to $b$. Then $f * \bar{g}$ is defined and is a loop on $X$ based at $a$. Since $X$ is simply connected, $f * g$ is path homotopic to $e_{a}$. Using Proposition 7.5, we get

$$
[f]=[f] *\left[e_{b}\right]=[f] *[\bar{g} * g]=[f * \bar{g}] *[g]=\left[e_{a}\right] *[g]=[g] .
$$

Proposition 7.11. Let $X$ be a topological space, $a, b \in X$, and $f$ a path from a to $b$. Define the map $\hat{f}: \pi_{1}(X, a) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, b)$ by

$$
\hat{f}([h]):=[\bar{f}] *[h] *[f] .
$$

Then the map $\hat{f}$ is a group isomorphism.
Proof. Let $[g],[h] \in \pi_{1}(X, a)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{f}([g]) * \hat{f}([h]) & =([\bar{f}] *[g] *[f]) *([\bar{f}] *[h] *[f]) \\
& =[\bar{f}] *[g] *[h] *[f] \\
& =\hat{f}([g] *[h])
\end{aligned}
$$

Then, $\hat{f}$ is a homomorphism. To prove that $\hat{f}$ is an isomorphism, we show that $\hat{\bar{f}}: \pi_{1}(X, b) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, a)$ defined for every $[h] \in \pi_{1}(X, b)$ by

$$
\widehat{\bar{f}}([h]):=[f] *[h] *[\bar{f}]
$$

is an inverse for $\hat{f}$. We have $\widehat{\bar{f}} \circ \hat{f}([h])=[f] *([\bar{f}] *[h] *[f]) *[\bar{f}]=[h]$. A similar computation shows that $\hat{f} \circ \widehat{\bar{f}}([h])=[h]$.

Suppose that $h: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous function that carries the point $a$ of $X$ to the point $b$ of $Y$. One denotes this fact by writing $h:(X, a) \rightarrow(Y, b)$.

Definition 7.12. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $h:(X, a) \rightarrow(Y, b)$ a continuous function. Define $h_{*}: \pi_{1}(X, a) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, b)$ by

$$
h_{*}([f]):=[h \circ f] .
$$

The map $h_{*}$ is called the homomorphism induced by $h$ relative to the basepoint $a$.
Proposition 7.13. Let $X, Y, Z$ be topological spaces.
(i) If $h:(X, a) \rightarrow(Y, b)$ and $k:(Y, b) \rightarrow(Z, c)$ are continuous maps, then $(k \circ h)_{*}=k_{*} \circ h_{*}$.
(ii) If $i:(X, a) \rightarrow(X, a)$ is the identity map, then $i_{*}$ is the identity homomorphism.

Proof. ( $i$ ) : We have both equalities

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (k \circ h)_{*}([f])=[(k \circ h) \circ f] \\
& \left(k_{*} \circ h_{*}\right)([f])=k_{*}\left(h_{*}([f])\right)=k_{*}([h \circ f])=[k \circ(h \circ f)] .
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) : We have $i_{*}([f])=[i \circ f]=[f]$.

Corollary 7.14. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces. If $h:(X, a) \rightarrow(Y, b)$ is a homeomorphism from $X$ to $Y$, then $h_{*}$ is an isomorphism from $\pi_{1}(X, a)$ to $\pi_{1}(Y, b)$.

Proof. Let $k:(Y, b) \rightarrow(X, a)$ be the inverse of $h$. Then $k_{*} \circ h_{*}=(k \circ h)_{*}=i_{*}$, where $i$ is the identity map of $(X, a)$. Besides, $h_{*} \circ k_{*}=(h \circ k)_{*}=j_{*}$, where $j$ is the identity map of $(Y, b)$. As $i_{*}$ and $j_{*}$ are the identity homomorphisms of $\pi_{1}(X, a)$ and $\pi_{1}(Y, b)$ respectively, $k_{*}$ is then the inverse of $h_{*}$.

Proposition 7.15. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $(a, b) \in X \times Y$. Then $\pi_{1}(X \times Y,(a, b))$ is isomorphic to $\pi_{1}(X, a) \times \pi_{1}(Y, b)$.

Proof. We know from Proposition 3.14 that the existence of a loop $f:[0,1] \rightarrow X \times Y$ at the basepoint $(a, b)$ is equivalent to the existence of a loop $g:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ at the basepoint $a$, and a loop $h:[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ at the basepoint $b$ such that $f=(g, h)$. We also know from Proposition 3.14 that the existence of a path homotopy $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X \times Y$ between two loops $f_{1}, f_{2}$ at the basepoint $(a, b)$ is equivalent to the existence of a path homotopy $G:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ between two loops $g_{1}, g_{2}$ at the basepoint $a$, and a path homotopy $H:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ between two loops $h_{1}, h_{2}$ at the basepoint $b$ such that $f_{1}=$ $\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right), f_{2}=\left(g_{2}, h_{2}\right)$, and $F=(G, H)$. Thus, the function $\alpha: \pi_{1}(X \times Y,(a, b)) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, a) \times \pi_{1}(Y, b)$ defined, for a loop $f=(g, h)$ at the basepoint $(a, b)$, by $\alpha([f])=([g],[h])$ is bijective. It can also be extended to a group homomorphism since, for two loops $f_{1}=\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right), f_{2}=\left(g_{2}, h_{2}\right)$ at the basepoint $(a, b)$, we have

$$
\alpha\left(\left[f_{1}\right] *\left[f_{2}\right]\right)=\alpha\left(\left[f_{1} * f_{2}\right]\right)=\left(\left[g_{1} * g_{2}\right],\left[h_{1} * h_{2}\right]\right)=\left(\left[g_{1}\right] *\left[g_{2}\right],\left[h_{1}\right] *\left[h_{2}\right]\right)=\alpha\left(\left[f_{1}\right]\right) * \alpha\left(\left[f_{2}\right]\right)
$$

Hence, $\alpha$ is an isomorphism.

### 7.3 The Fundamental Group of $\mathbb{S}^{n}$

Lemma 7.16. For $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, the triangle of vertices $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}$ is

$$
T=\left\{t_{1} p_{1}+t_{2} p_{2}+t_{3} p_{3} \mid t_{1}, t_{2}, t_{3} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, t_{1}+t_{2}+t_{3}=1\right\}
$$

Consider a topological space $X$, and a continuous function $f: T \rightarrow X$. For $i, j \in\{1,2,3\}$ with $i<j$, the standard parametrisation of $f$ restricted to the edge from $p_{i}$ to $p_{j}$ is the path

$$
f_{i j}:[0,1] \rightarrow X, \quad t \mapsto f\left((1-t) p_{i}+t p_{j}\right)
$$

from $f\left(p_{i}\right)$ to $f\left(p_{j}\right)$. We have, $f_{13} \simeq_{p} f_{12} * f_{23}$.
Proof. Consider the function

$$
q:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow T, \quad(t, s) \mapsto \begin{cases}(1-t-t s) p_{1}+2 t s p_{2}+(t-t s) p_{3} & \text { for } t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ (1-t-s-t s) p_{1}+2(1-t) s p_{2}+(t-s+t s) p_{3} & \text { for } t \geq \frac{1}{2}\end{cases}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(q(t, 0))=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
f\left((1-t) p_{1}+t p_{3}\right)=f_{13}(t) & \text { for } t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\
f\left((1-t) p_{1}+t p_{3}\right)=f_{13}(t) & \text { for } t \geq \frac{1}{2}
\end{array}=f_{13}(t)\right.
\end{aligned}, \begin{array}{ll}
f\left((1-2 t) p_{1}+2 t p_{2}\right)=f_{12}(2 t) & \text { for } t \leq \frac{1}{2} \\
f\left((1-(2 t-1)) p_{2}+(2 t-1) p_{3}\right)=f_{23}(2 t-1) & \text { for } t \geq \frac{1}{2}
\end{array}=f_{12} * f_{23}(t), ~\left\{(q(t, 1))=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
f(0, s))=f\left(p_{1}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad f(q(1, s))=f\left(p_{3}\right) .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

Hence, the function

$$
F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X, \quad(t, s) \mapsto f(q(t, s))
$$

is a path homotopy from $f_{13}$ to $f_{12} * f_{23}$.

Lemma 7.17. Let $X$ be a topological space, $f:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ a path in $X$, and $a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $0=a_{0}<a_{1}<\cdots<a_{n}=1$. For $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, let $l_{i}:[0,1] \rightarrow\left[a_{i-i}, a_{i}\right]$ be the affine function such that $l_{i}(0)=a_{i-1}$ and $l_{i}(1)=a_{i}$, and

$$
f_{i}:[0,1] \rightarrow X, \quad t \mapsto f \circ l_{i}(t)
$$

the standard parametrisation of $f$ restricted to $\left[a_{i-i}, a_{i}\right]$. Then, $[f]=\left[f_{1}\right] * \cdots *\left[f_{n}\right]$.
Proof. Using Lemma 7.16 with $f$ equal to the identity map $i_{\left[a_{0}, a_{2}\right]}$ on $\left[a_{0}, a_{2}\right]$, we prove that $l_{1} * l_{2} \simeq_{p}$ $l_{12}$ which is the affine function such that $l_{12}(0)=a_{0}$ and $l_{12}(1)=a_{2}$. More generally, for $k \in\{3, \ldots, n\}$, we can use Lemma 7.16 with $f$ equal to the identity map $i_{\left[a_{0}, a_{k}\right]}$ on $\left[a_{0}, a_{k}\right]$ to prove that $l_{1 k-1} * l_{k} \simeq{ }_{p} l_{1 k}$, where $l_{1 k-1}$ and $l_{1 k}$ are the affine functions such that $l_{1 k-1}(0)=l_{1 k}=a_{0}, l_{1 k-1}(1)=a_{k-1}$, and $l_{1 k}=a_{k}$. Hence, we successively obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
l_{1} * l_{2} * l_{3} * \cdots * l_{n} & =l_{12} * l_{3} * \cdots * l_{n} \\
& =l_{13} * \cdots * l_{n} \\
& =l_{1 n}
\end{aligned}
$$

which is the identity map on $[0,1]$. We deduce from Lemma 7.4 that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(f \circ l_{1}\right) *\left(f \circ l_{2}\right) *\left(f \circ l_{3}\right) * \cdots *\left(f \circ l_{n}\right)=f \circ l_{1 n}=f \\
& f_{1} * f_{2} * f_{3} * \cdots * f_{n}=f \\
& {\left[f_{1}\right] *\left[f_{2}\right] *\left[f_{3}\right] * \cdots *\left[f_{n}\right]=[f]}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 7.18. Let $X$ be topological space, and $A, B$ two open subsets of $X$ such that $X=A \cup B$ and $A \cap B \neq \varnothing$. Suppose that $A, B$ are path connected, and take $x \in A \cap B$. Consider the inclusion maps $i: A \hookrightarrow X$ and $j: B \hookrightarrow X$. Then, $\pi_{1}(X, x)$ is generated by the images of the induced homomorphisms

$$
i_{*}: \pi_{1}(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, x) \quad \text { and } \quad j_{*}: \pi_{1}(B, x) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, x)
$$

Proof. Let $f:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ be a loop based at $x$. We know from Theorem 8.10 that there exists a positive integer $n$ such that, for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, the restriction of $f$ to the interval $\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right]$ is contained in $A$ or in $B$. Let $f_{i}$ be the standard parametrisation of $f$ restricted to $\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right]$, that is

$$
f_{i}:[0,1] \rightarrow A(\text { or } B), \quad t \mapsto f\left(\frac{i-1+t}{n}\right)
$$

Since $A, B$ are path connected, we can find a path $h_{i}$ from $f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)$ to $x$ so that

- if $f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) \in A$, then $h_{i}:[0,1] \rightarrow A$ is a path in $A$,
- if $f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) \in B$, then $h_{i}:[0,1] \rightarrow A$ is a path in $B$.

Using Lemma 7.17, we may write

$$
\begin{aligned}
f & =f_{1} * f_{2} * \cdots * f_{i} * \cdots * f_{n-1} * f_{n} \\
& =f_{1} * h_{1} * \bar{h}_{1} * f_{2} * h_{2} * \cdots * \bar{h}_{i-1} * f_{i} * h_{i} * \cdots * \bar{h}_{n-2} * f_{n-1} * h_{n-1} * \bar{h}_{n-1} * f_{n} \\
& =k_{1} * k_{2} * \cdots * k_{n-1} * k_{n},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
k_{1}=f_{1} * h_{1}, k_{2}=\bar{h}_{1} * f_{2} * h_{2}, \ldots, k_{i}=\bar{h}_{i-1} * f_{i} * h_{i}, \ldots, k_{n-1}=\bar{h}_{n-2} * f_{n-1} * h_{n-1}, k_{n}=\bar{h}_{n-1} * f_{n} .
$$

To finish, for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, k_{i}$ is a loop based at $x$ in $A$ or in $B$.
Corollary 7.19. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A, B$ open sets of $X$ such that $X=A \cup B$ and $A \cap B \neq \varnothing$. If $A$ and $B$ are simply connected, then $X$ is simply connected.

Proof. As $A$ and $B$ are path connected, we deduce from Proposition 5.18 that $X$ is path connected. Choose a base point $x \in A \cap B$. Since $\pi_{1}(A, x)$ and $\pi_{1}(B, x)$ are the trivial one-element group, $\pi_{1}(X, x)$ is then generated by the neutral element by Proposition 7.18, so it is trivial.

Corollary 7.20. If $n$ is a positive integer such that $n \geq 2$, then $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ is simply connected.
Proof. Write $\mathbb{S}^{n}=A \cup B$, where $A=\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{(0, \ldots, 0,1)\}$ and $B=\mathbb{S}^{n} \backslash\{(0, \ldots, 0,-1)\}$. We know from the stereographic projection of $A$ onto $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ that $A$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Moreover, the function $f: A \rightarrow B, a \mapsto-a$ is a homeomorphism between $A$ and $B$. Hence, $A$ and $B$ are simply connected, and also $\mathbb{S}^{n}$ by Corollary 7.19.

## Chapter 8

## Covering Spaces

### 8.1 Covering Maps

Definition 8.1. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous surjective function. An open set $A$ of $Y$ is said to be evenly covered by $p$ if the inverse image $p^{-1}(A)$ is equal to $\bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_{i}$ such that $A_{i}$ is an open subset of $X$, and the restriction of $p$ to $A_{i}$ is a homeomorphism of $A_{i}$ to $A$. The family $\left\{A_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is called a partition of $p^{-1}(A)$ into slices.

Definition 8.2. Let $X, Y$ be open topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous surjective function. If every point $a$ of $Y$ has an open neighborhood $A$ that is evenly covered by $p$, then $p$ is called a covering map, and $X$ is said to be a covering space of $Y$.

Example. Consider $\mathbb{R}$ with the usual topology, and $\mathbb{S}^{1}=\{(\cos t, \sin t) \mid t \in[0,2 \pi]\}$ equipped with the topology induced by the usual topology of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. For any point $a=(\cos u, \sin u) \in \mathbb{S}^{1}$, the set $U_{a}=\{(\cos t, \sin t) \mid t \in(u-1, u+1)\}$ is then an open neighborhood of $a$. The function $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{1}$ given by $p(x)=(\cos 2 \pi x, \sin 2 \pi x)$ is continuous and surjective. Moreover,

- we have $p^{-1}\left(U_{a}\right)=\bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}\left(\frac{u-1}{2 \pi}+k, \frac{u+1}{2 \pi}+k\right)$, where $\left(\frac{u-1}{2 \pi}+k, \frac{u+1}{2 \pi}+k\right)$ is open in $\mathbb{R}$,
- the restriction $p_{k}$ of $p$ to $\left(\frac{u-1}{2 \pi}+k, \frac{u+1}{2 \pi}+k\right)$ is clearly a homeomorphism onto $U_{a}$.

Then, $p$ is a covering map.
Definition 8.3. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a function. A function $s: Y \rightarrow X$ is called a section of $f$ is $p(s(y))=y$ for every $y \in Y$.

Proposition 8.4. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map. For every evenly covered set $V \subseteq Y$, and every point $x \in p^{-1}(V)$, there exists a continuous section $s: V \rightarrow p^{-1}(V)$ of the restriction $p: p^{-1}(V) \rightarrow V$ such that $s(p(x))=x$. If $V$ is connected, then $s$ is unique.

Proof. We can write $p^{-1}(V)=U \sqcup W$ such that $U$ and $W$ are open, $x \in U$, and the restriction $p_{\mid U}: U \rightarrow$ $V$ is a homeomorphism. The inverse $s=p_{\mid U}^{-1}$ is clearly a continuous section of $p_{\mid U}$, and consequently of $p$ by extending its codomain to $p^{-1}(V)$.
If $V$ is connected, then $U$ is connected and is a connected component of $p^{-1}(V)$. Suppose $r: V \rightarrow X$ is another continuous section of $p$ such that $r(p(x))=x$. Since $r(V) \subseteq p^{-1}(V)$ and $V$ is connected, then
$r(V)$ is contained in the connected component of $p^{-1}(V)$ that contains $x$ which is $U$. As $p(r(y))=y$ for every $y \in V, r: V \rightarrow U$ is then the inverse of $p_{\mid U}: U \rightarrow V$.

Proposition 8.5. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map. If $Y_{0}$ is a subspace of $Y$, and if $X_{0}=p^{-1}\left(Y_{0}\right)$, then the map $p_{0}: X_{0} \rightarrow Y_{0}$ obtained by restricting $p$ is a covering map.
Proof. Given $y \in Y_{0}$, let $V$ be an open set in $Y$ containing $y$ that is evenly covered by $p$. If $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a partition of $p^{-1}(V)$ into slices, then $V \cap Y_{0}$ is a neighborhood of $y$ in $Y_{0}$, and $\left\{U_{i} \cap X_{0}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is formed by disjoint open sets in $X_{0}$ whose union is $p^{-1}\left(V \cap Y_{0}\right)$. Moreover, the restriction of $p$ to $U_{i} \cap X_{0}$ is a homeomorphism onto $V \cap Y_{0}$.

Proposition 8.6. Let $X, X^{\prime}, Y, Y^{\prime}$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y, p^{\prime}: X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y^{\prime}$ covering maps. Then $p \times p^{\prime}: X \times X^{\prime} \rightarrow Y \times Y^{\prime}$ is a covering map.

Proof. Let $\left(y, y^{\prime}\right) \in Y \times Y^{\prime}$, and $V, V^{\prime}$ neighborhoods of $y, y^{\prime}$ respectively, that are evenly covered by $p, p^{\prime}$ respectively. Let $\left\{U_{i}\right\}_{i \in I},\left\{U_{j}^{\prime}\right\}_{j \in J}$ be partitions into slices of $p^{-1}(V), p^{\prime-1}\left(V^{\prime}\right)$ respectively. Then $\left(p \times p^{\prime}\right)^{-1}\left(V \times V^{\prime}\right)=\bigsqcup_{\substack{i \in I \\ j \in J}} U_{i} \times U_{j}^{\prime}$. Moreover, the restriction of $p \times p^{\prime}$ to $U_{i} \times U_{j}^{\prime}$ is a homeomorphism onto $V \times V^{\prime}$.

### 8.2 Function Liftings

Definition 8.7. Let $E, X, Y$ be topological spaces, $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map, and $f: E \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. A lifting of $f$ is a function $\tilde{f}: E \rightarrow X$ such that $p \circ \tilde{f}=f$.


Example. Consider the covering map $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{1}$ defined by $p(x)=(\cos 2 \pi x, \sin 2 \pi x)$. The path $f:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{1}$ from $(\underset{\sim}{1}, 0)$ to $(-1,0)$ given by $f(t)=(\cos \pi t, \sin \pi t)$ lifts to the path $\tilde{f}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ from 0 to $\frac{1}{2}$ given by $\tilde{f}(t)=\frac{t}{2}$. The path $g:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{1}$ given by $g(t)=(\cos \pi t,-\sin \pi t)$ from $(1,0)$ to $(-1,0)$ lifts to the path $\tilde{g}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ from 0 to $-\frac{1}{2}$ given by $\tilde{g}(t)=-\frac{t}{2}$.

Lemma 8.8. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map. Consider the subspace

$$
X \times_{p} X=\{(a, b) \in X \times X \mid p(a)=p(b)\}
$$

of the product space $X \times X$. Then, $\Delta=\{(a, a) \mid a \in X\}$ is an open and a closed subset of $X \times{ }_{p} X$.
Proof. Take $(x, x) \in \Delta$ and choose an open set $U \subseteq X$ such that $x \in U$ and the restriction $p: U \rightarrow Y$ is injective. Then, $(U \times U) \cap\left(X \times{ }_{p} X\right)=U \times{ }_{p} U$ is an open neighborhood of $(x, x)$ in $X \times{ }_{p} X$. As $U \times{ }_{p} U=\{(a, b) \in U \times U \mid p(a)=p(b)\}=\{(a, a) \mid a \in U\} \subseteq \Delta$, then $\Delta$ is a neighborhood of points, so is open in $X \times{ }_{p} p$ by Proposition 1.9 .
Take $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \in X \times{ }_{p} X \backslash \Delta$, and choose an evenly covered open set $V \subseteq Y$ containing $p\left(x_{1}\right)=p\left(x_{2}\right)$. Since $x_{1} \neq x_{2}$, they cannot be in the same slice, so there exist disjoint open sets $U_{1}, U_{2} \in p^{-1}(V)$ such that $x_{1} \in U_{1}$ and $x_{2} \in U_{2}$. Therefore, the set $\left(U_{1} \times U_{2}\right) \cap\left(X \times{ }_{p} X\right)$ contains $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$, is open in $X \times{ }_{p} X$, and is included in $X \times{ }_{p} X \backslash \Delta$. We deduce from Proposition 1.9 that $X \times{ }_{p} X \backslash \Delta$ is open, so $\Delta$ is closed in $X \times{ }_{p} X$.

Lemm 8.9. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map, $E$ a connected space, and $f: E \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. If $g: E \rightarrow X$ and $h: E \rightarrow X$ are two liftings of $f$, we have either $g=h$ or $g(e) \neq h(e)$ for every $e \in E$.

Proof. Recall that $X \times_{Y} X=\{(a, b) \in X \times X \mid p(a)=p(b)\}$ and $\Delta=\{(a, a) \mid a \in X\}$. Consider the continuous function $\Phi: E \rightarrow X \times_{Y} X$ defined by $\Phi(e)=(g(e), h(e))$. Let $A=\{e \in E \mid g(e)=$ $h(e)\}=\Phi^{-1}(\Delta)$. We know from Lemma 8.8 that $\Delta$ is open and closed in $X \times{ }_{p} X$. Then, $A$ is open and closed in $E$. Since $E$ is connected, either $A=E$ or $A=\varnothing$.

Theorem 8.10 (Lebesgue number). Let $X$ be a compact metric space with metric $d, Y$ a topological space, $\mathscr{O}$ a family of open sets covering $Y$, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. There exists $\rho \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{*}$ such that, for any $x \in X, f(B(x, \rho))$ is contained in an open set of $\mathscr{O}$.

Proof. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $X_{n}$ be the set of points $x \in X$ having the property that there exists $U \in \mathscr{O}$ such that $B\left(x, 2^{-n}\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$. For any $x \in X$, there exists $U \in \mathscr{O}$ such that $x \in f^{-1}(U)$. As $f^{-1}(U)$ is open, there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $B\left(x, 2^{-n}\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$, then $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_{n}=X$.
It is clear that $X_{n} \subseteq X_{n+1}$. Moreover, $X_{n} \subseteq X_{n+1}^{\circ}$. Indeed, let $x \in X_{n}$ and $U \in \mathscr{O}$ such that $B\left(x, 2^{-n}\right) \subseteq$ $f^{-1}(U)$. For every $z \in X$ such that $d(x, z)<2^{-n-1}$, we have $B\left(z, 2^{-n-1}\right) \subseteq B\left(x, 2^{-n}\right) \subseteq f^{-1}(U)$, then $z \in X_{n+1}$. Hence $B\left(x, 2^{-n-1}\right) \subseteq X_{n+1}$, meaning that $X_{n+1}$ is a neighborhood of $x$.
The fact $X_{n} \subseteq X_{n+1}^{\circ}$ implies $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_{n} \subseteq \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_{n}^{\circ}$, and then $\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_{n}^{\circ}=X$. As $X$ is compact, $X=X_{n}^{\circ}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and consequently $X=X_{n}$.

Theorem 8.11. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map, and $(a, b) \in X \times Y$ such that $p(a)=b$. Any path $f:[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ beginning at $b$ has a unique lifting to a path $\tilde{f}:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ beginning at $a$.

Proof. We know from Lemma 8.9 there exists at most one lifting $\tilde{f}:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ such that $\tilde{f}(0)=a$. Then, the existence remains. Let $\mathscr{O}$ be a family of evenly covered open sets covering $Y$. We know from Theorem 8.10 that there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{n} \in \mathscr{O}$ such that $f\left(\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right]\right) \subseteq V_{i}$ for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. We recursively define $n$ continuous functions $g_{i}:\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that

- $\forall t \in\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right], p\left(g_{i}(t)\right)=f(t)$,
- $g_{1}(0)=a$, and $g_{i}\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)=g_{i+1}\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)$.

Using Proposition 8.4, we deduce the existence of a section $s_{1}: V_{1} \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(V_{1}\right)$ of the restriction $p: p^{-1}\left(V_{1}\right) \rightarrow V_{1}$ such that $s_{1}(p(a))=a$. Then, we may define $g_{1}:\left[0, \frac{1}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ by $g_{1}(t)=s_{1}(f(t))$. Suppose that $g_{i}$ has already been defined, and consider a section $s_{i+1}: V_{i+1} \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(V_{i+1}\right)$ of the restriction $p: p^{-1}\left(V_{i+1}\right) \rightarrow V_{i+1}$ such that $s_{i+1}\left(f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)\right)=s_{i+1}\left(p\left(g_{i}\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)\right)\right)=g_{i}\left(\frac{i}{n}\right)$. We may define $g_{i+1}:\left[\frac{i}{n}, \frac{i+1}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ by $g_{i+1}(t)=s_{i+1}(f(t))$. Hence $g_{1} * g_{2} * \cdots * g_{n}$ is the required lifting $\tilde{f}$.

Proposition 8.12. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map, and $(a, b) \in X \times Y$ such that $p(a)=b$. Consider a continuous function $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ such that $F(0,0)=b$. There exists a unique lifting of $F$ to a continuous function

$$
\tilde{F}:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X \quad \text { such that } \quad \tilde{F}(0,0)=a .
$$

Proof. We know from Lemma 8.9 there exists at most one lifting $\tilde{F}:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ such that $\tilde{F}(0,0)=a$. Then, the existence remains.
Let $\mathscr{O}$ be a family of evenly covered open sets covering $Y$. We know from Theorem 8.10 that there exist $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $V_{11}, \ldots, V_{m n} \in \mathscr{O}$ such that $F\left(\left[\frac{i-1}{m}, \frac{i}{m}\right] \times\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right]\right) \subseteq V_{i j}$ for every $(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, m\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$. We recursively define on each row and from the bottom to the top $m n$ continuous functions $\tilde{F}_{i j}:\left[\frac{i-1}{m}, \frac{i}{m}\right] \times\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ for every $(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, m\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that

- $\forall(s, t) \in\left[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}\right] \times\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right], p\left(\tilde{F}_{i j}(s, t)\right)=F(s, t)$,
- $\tilde{F}_{11}(0,0)=a$ and $\tilde{F}_{i 1}\left(\frac{i}{m}, 0\right)=\tilde{F}_{i+11}\left(\frac{i}{m}, 0\right)$,
- $\tilde{F}_{1 j+1}\left(0, \frac{j}{n}\right)=\tilde{F}_{1 j}\left(0, \frac{j}{n}\right)$ and $\tilde{F}_{i 1+1}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)=\tilde{F}_{i+1 j+1}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)$.

Using Proposition 8.4, we deduce the existence of a section $s_{11}: V_{11} \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(V_{11}\right)$ of the restriction $p: p^{-1}\left(V_{11}\right) \rightarrow V_{11}$ such that $s_{11}(p(a))=a$. Then, we may define $\tilde{F}_{11}:\left[0, \frac{1}{m}\right] \times\left[0, \frac{1}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ by $\tilde{F}_{11}(s, t)=s_{11}(F(s, t))$. Suppose that $\tilde{F}_{11}, \ldots, \tilde{F}_{i j}$ have already been defined, and consider a section $s_{i+1, j}: V_{i+1, j} \rightarrow p^{-1}\left(V_{i+1, j}\right)$ of the restriction $p: p^{-1}\left(V_{i+1, j}\right) \rightarrow V_{i+1, j}$ such that

$$
s_{i+1, j}\left(F\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)\right)=s_{i+1, j}\left(p\left(\tilde{F}_{i j}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)\right)\right)=\tilde{F}_{i j}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right) .
$$

We may define $\tilde{F}_{i+1, j}:\left[\frac{i}{m}, \frac{i+1}{m}\right] \times\left[\frac{j}{n}, \frac{j+1}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ by $\tilde{F}_{i+1, j}=s_{i+1}(F(s, t))$.
Remark that, due to the uniqueness of the lifting of the path $F\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j-1+t}{n}\right)$ with variable $t$ beginning at $\tilde{F}_{i j}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j-1}{n}\right)=\tilde{F}_{i+1 j}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j-1}{n}\right)$, we have

$$
\forall(s, t) \in\left\{\frac{i}{m}\right\} \times\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right], \tilde{F}_{i j}(s, t)=\tilde{F}_{i+1 j}(s, t) .
$$

Using the same argument with the lifting beginning at $\tilde{F}_{i j}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)=\tilde{F}_{i j+1}\left(\frac{i}{m}, \frac{j}{n}\right)$, we get

$$
\forall(s, t) \in\left[\frac{i-1}{m}, \frac{i}{m}\right] \times\left\{\frac{j}{n}\right\}, \tilde{F}_{i j}(s, t)=\tilde{F}_{i j+1}(s, t) .
$$

Hence, $\tilde{F}=\tilde{F}_{i j}$ on $\left[\frac{i-1}{m}, \frac{i}{m}\right] \times\left[\frac{j-1}{n}, \frac{j}{n}\right] \rightarrow X$, for every $(i, j) \in\{1, \ldots, m\} \times\{1, \ldots, n\}$, is the required lifting of $F$.

Corollary 8.13. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map, and $(a, b) \in X \times Y$ such that $p(a)=b$. Consider two paths $f:[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ and $g:[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ beginning at $b$ and ending $c$, and their respective liftings $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$ beginning at $a$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $f$ and $g$ are path homotopic,
(ii) $\tilde{f}(1)=\tilde{g}(1)$ and $\tilde{f}, \tilde{g}$ are path homotopic.

Proof. $(i) \Rightarrow(i i):$ Consider a path homotopy $F:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ such that $F(0, t)=f(t), F(1, t)=$ $g(t), F(s, 0)=b$, and $F(s, 1)=c$. Let $\tilde{F}:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ the lifting of $F$ such that $\tilde{F}(0,0)=a$ described in Proposition 8.12. Path lifting uniqueness implies $\tilde{F}(0, t)=\tilde{f}(t)$ and $\tilde{F}(1, t)=\tilde{g}(t)$. Moreover, $\tilde{F}(s, 0)$ and $\tilde{F}(s, 1)$ are the liftings of $e_{b}$ and $e_{c}$ respectively, so must be constant. Consequently, $\tilde{f}(1)=\tilde{g}(1)$ and $\tilde{F}$ is a path homotopy between $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$.
$(i i) \Rightarrow(i)$ : If $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$ are path homotopic with path homotopy $\tilde{F}$, then $p \circ \tilde{f}=f$ and $p \circ \tilde{g}=g$ are path homotopic with path homotopy $p \circ \tilde{F}$.

Definition 8.14. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map. Let $b \in Y$ and choose $a \in X$ so that $p(a)=b$. Given an element $[f]$ of $\pi_{1}(Y, b)$, let $\tilde{f}:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ be the lifting of $f$ to a path in $X$ that begins at $a$. Define the function

$$
\phi: \pi_{1}(Y, b) \rightarrow p^{-1}(b), \quad[f] \mapsto \tilde{f}(1)
$$

One calls $\phi$ the lifting correspondence derived from the covering map $p$ and the origin $a$.
Proposition 8.15. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $p: X \rightarrow Y$ a covering map. Let $b \in Y$ and choose $a \in X$ so that $p(a)=b$. If $X$ is path connected, then the lifting correspondence

$$
\phi: \pi_{1}(Y, b) \rightarrow p^{-1}(b), \quad[f] \mapsto \tilde{f}(1)
$$

is surjective. If $X$ is simply connected, then $\phi$ is bijective.
Proof. Let $a^{\prime} \in p^{-1}(b)$, and $\tilde{f}:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ a path from $a$ to $a^{\prime}$. The path $\tilde{f}$ is the lifting of $f=p \circ \tilde{f}$ which is a loop in $Y$ at $b$, then $\phi([f])=a^{\prime}$, and $\phi$ is consequently surjective.
Suppose that $X$ is simply connected. Take $[f],[g] \in \pi_{1}(Y, b)$ such that $\phi([f])=\phi([g])$. Let $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$ be the liftings of $f$ and $g$ respectively that begin at $a$. Then $\tilde{f}(1)=\tilde{g}(1)$. The fact $X$ is simply connected implies the existence of a path homotopy $\tilde{F}$ between $\tilde{f}$ and $\tilde{g}$. Then $p \circ \tilde{F}$ is path homotopy between $f$ and $g$, that is $[f]=[g]$.

Theorem 8.16. The group $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1},(1,0)\right)$ is isomorphic to the additive group $(\mathbb{Z},+)$.
Proof. Consider the covering map $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^{1}$ given by $p(x)=(\cos 2 \pi x, \sin 2 \pi x)$. We have $p^{-1}((1,0))=$ $\mathbb{Z}$. Since $\mathbb{R}$ is simply connected, we deduce from Proposition 8.15 that the lifting correspondence

$$
\phi: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1},(1,0)\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad[f] \mapsto \tilde{f}(1)
$$

is bijective. It remains to show that $\phi$ is a homeomorphism.
Given $[f],[g] \in \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1},(1,0)\right)$, let $\tilde{f}, \tilde{g}$ be their respective liftings to paths in $\mathbb{R}$ beginning at 0 . Denote $n=\tilde{f}(1)$ and $m=\tilde{g}(1)$. Define the path

$$
\tilde{\tilde{g}}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad t \mapsto n+\tilde{g}(t)
$$

Since $p \circ \tilde{\tilde{g}}(t)=p(n+\tilde{g}(t))=p(\tilde{g}(t))$, the path $\tilde{\tilde{g}}$ is then the lifting of $g$ that begins at $n$. Then $\tilde{f} * \tilde{\tilde{g}}:[0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined, and is the lifting of $f * g$ that begins at 0 . As $\tilde{f} * \tilde{\tilde{g}}(1)=\tilde{\tilde{g}}(1)=n+m$, we obtain

$$
\phi([f] *[g])=n+m=\phi([f])+\phi([g]) .
$$

## Chapter 9

## Homotopy

### 9.1 Homotopy of Functions

Definition 9.1. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f, g$ continuous functions from $X$ into $Y$. One says that $f$ is homotopic to $g$ if there is a continuous function $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ such that

$$
\forall x \in X, \quad F(x, 0)=f(x) \quad \text { and } \quad F(x, 1)=g(x)
$$

In that case, one writes $f \simeq g$. The function $F$ is called a homotopy between $f$ and $g$.
Lemma 9.2. The relation $\simeq$ on homotopic functions is an equivalence relation.
Proof. Given a function $f$, the function $F(x, t)=f(x)$ is the required homotopy to get $f \simeq f$. If $f \simeq g$ is got by a homotopy $F(x, t)$, then $G(x, t)=F(x, 1-t)$ is a homotopy between $g$ and $f$.
Suppose that $f \simeq g$ by means of a homotopy $F$, and $g \simeq h$ by means of a homotopy $G$, then $f \simeq h$ by means of the homotopy $H: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ defined by the equation

$$
H(x, t)= \begin{cases}F(x, 2 t) & \text { if } t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right] \\ G(x, 2 t-1) & \text { if } t \in\left[\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]\end{cases}
$$

Definition 9.3. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. A retraction of $X$ onto $A$ is a continuous function $r: X \rightarrow A$ such that the restriction $r: A \rightarrow A$ is the identity map of $A$. If such a function $r$ exists, one says that $A$ is a retract of $X$.

Definition 9.4. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. Suppose that there exists a continuous function $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall x \in X, \quad F(x, 0)=x \quad \text { and } \quad F(x, 1) \in A, \\
& \forall t \in[0,1], \forall a \in A, \quad F(a, t)=a .
\end{aligned}
$$

The homotopy $F$ between the identity map $F(x, 0)$ of $X$ and the retraction $F(x, 1)$ of $X$ onto $A$ is called a deformation retraction of $X$ onto $A$, and $A$ is called a deformation retract of $X$.

Proposition 9.5. Let $X$ be a topological space, $A \subseteq X$, and $x \in A$. Consider the homomorphism $i_{*}: \pi_{1}(A, x) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, x)$ induced by the inclusion map $i: A \hookrightarrow X$.
(i) If $A$ is a retract of $X$, then $i_{*}$ is injective.
(ii) If $A$ is a deformation retract of $X$, then $i_{*}$ is bijective.

Proof. (i): If $r: X \rightarrow A$ is a retraction, then $r \circ i$ is the identity map of $A$. It follows that $(r \circ i)_{*}=r_{*} \circ i_{*}$ is the identity map of $\pi_{1}(A, x)$, which implies that $i_{*}$ is injective.
(ii) : Suppose that $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ is a deformation retraction of $X$ onto $A$. Since $F(X, 1)=A$, then for any loop $f:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ based at $x, F(f(),.$.$) is a homotopy between f$ and a loop $F(f(), 1$. in $A$. Moreover, as $F(f(0), t)=F(f(1), t)=x$ for every $t \in[0,1]$, then $f \simeq_{p} F(f(), 1$.$) . Hence$ $[F(f(), 1)]=.[f]$, meaning that $[f]=i_{*}([F(f(), 1)]$.$) , and i_{*}$ is consequently surjective.
Example. There is no retraction of th real disc $\overline{B((0,0), 1)}$ onto $\mathbb{S}^{1}$. Suppose, indeed, that $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ is a retract of $\overline{B((0,0), 1)}$. According to Proposition 9.5, the homomorphism $i_{*}: \pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1},(1,0)\right) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{1}(\overline{B((0,0), 1)},(1,0))$ induced by the inclusion map $i: \mathbb{S}^{1} \hookrightarrow \overline{B((0,0), 1)}$ is injective. That is impossible, since $\pi_{1}\left(\mathbb{S}^{1},(1,0)\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_{1}(\overline{B((0,0), 1)},(1,0)) \cong 0$.

### 9.2 Homotopy Equivalence

Definition 9.6. Let $X, Y$ be a topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y, g: Y \rightarrow X$ continuous functions. Suppose that $g \circ f: X \rightarrow X$ is homotopic to the identity map of $X$, and $f \circ g: Y \rightarrow Y$ to the identity map of $Y$. Then, the functions $f$ and $g$ are said to be homotopy equivalent, and each is called a homotopy inverse of the other.
Proposition 9.7. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ a homotopy between continuous functions $f=F(., 0)$ and $g=F(., 1)$. Take $x \in X$, and consider the path $h=F(x,$.$) from f(x)$ to $g(x)$. Then, the following diagram is commutative:


Proof. Let $l:[0,1] \rightarrow X$ be a loop based at $x$. Consider the continuous function

$$
L:[0,1] \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y, \quad(s, t) \mapsto F(l(s), t)
$$

and the points $p_{1}=(0,0), p_{2}=(1,0), p_{3}=(0,1), p_{4}=(1,1)$. Denoting $L_{i j}$ the standard parametrisation of $L$ restricted to the edge from $p_{i}$ to $p_{j}$, where $i, j \in\{1,2,3,4\}$ and $i<j$, we get $L_{12} * L_{24} \simeq_{p}$ $L_{14}$ and $L_{13} * L_{34} \simeq_{p} L_{14}$ by Lemma 7.16, hence $L_{12} * L_{24} \simeq_{p} L_{13} * L_{34}$. Remark that $L_{12}=f \circ l$, $L_{13}=L_{24}=h, L_{34}=g \circ l$, hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
f \circ l * h & =h * g \circ l \\
{[f \circ l] *[h] } & =[h] *[g \circ l] \\
{[\bar{h}] *[f \circ l] *[h] } & =[g \circ l] \\
\hat{h} \circ f_{*}([l]) & =g_{*}([l]) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 9.8. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $f: X \rightarrow X$ a continuous function that is homotopic to the identity map of $X$. Then, for any $x \in X$, the function $f_{*}: \pi_{1}(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(X, f(x))$ is a group isomorphism.

Proof. Let $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy between the identity map $F(., 0)=i$ of $X$ and $F(., 1)=f$, and consider the path $h=F(x,$.$) from x$ to $f(x)$. Proposition 9.7 implies that $f_{*}=\hat{h} \circ i_{*}=\hat{h}$, which is a isomorphism from $\pi_{1}(X, x)$ to $\pi_{1}(X, f(x))$ by Proposition 7.11 .

Lemma 9.9. Let $A, B, C, D$ be sets, and $f, g, h$ functions represented by the following diagram:

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

If $g \circ f$ is bijective and $h \circ g$ is injective, then $f$ is bijective.
Proof. As $g \circ f$ is injective, then $f$ is injective.
Take $b \in B$. As $g \circ f$ is surjective, there exists $a \in A$ such that $g \circ f(a)=g(b)$. Remark that $g$ is also injective since $h \circ g$ is injective. The injectivity of $g$ implies $f(a)=b$, hence $h$ is surjective.

Theorem 9.10. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $x \in X$, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. If there exists a continuous function $g: Y \rightarrow X$ homotopy equivalent to $f$, then $f_{*}: \pi_{1}(X, x) \rightarrow \pi_{1}(Y, f(x))$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Consider the following sequence of homomorphisms:

$$
\pi_{1}(X, x) \xrightarrow{f_{*}} \pi_{1}(Y, f(x)) \xrightarrow{g_{*}} \pi_{1}(X, g \circ f(x)) \xrightarrow{f_{*}} \pi_{1}(Y, f \circ g \circ f(x)) .
$$

We know from Corollary 9.8 that $g_{*} \circ f_{*}$ and $f_{*} \circ g_{*}$ are isomorphisms. Morevore, we can deduce from Lemma 9.9 that $f_{*}$ is bijective.

## Chapter 10

## Singular Homology

### 10.1 Singular Homology

Proposition 10.1. Let $u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(i) the $p$ vectors $\overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{1}}, \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{2}}, \ldots \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{p}}$ are linearly independent,
(ii) if $s_{0}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{p}, t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{p} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{p} s_{i} u_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i} u_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{i=0}^{p} s_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i},
$$

then $s_{i}=t_{i}$ for $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, p\}$.
Proof. ( $i$ ) $\Rightarrow(i i)$ : If $\sum_{i=0}^{p} s_{i} u_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i} u_{i}$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{p} s_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\sum_{i=0}^{p}\left(s_{i}-t_{i}\right) u_{i} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{p}\left(s_{i}-t_{i}\right) u_{i}-\left(\sum_{i=0}^{p}\left(s_{i}-t_{i}\right)\right) u_{0} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{p}\left(s_{i}-t_{i}\right)\left(u_{i}-u_{0}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

As $\overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{1}}, \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{2}}, \ldots \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{p}}$ are linearly independent, it follows that $s_{i}=t_{i}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, p\}$. Moreover, $\sum_{i=0}^{p} s_{i}=\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i}$ implies $s_{0}=t_{0}$.
(ii) $\Rightarrow(i)$ : If $\sum_{i=1}^{p} t_{i}\left(u_{i}-u_{0}\right)=0$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{p} t_{i} u_{i}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{p} t_{i}\right) u_{0}$. Hence, we must have $t_{1}=\cdots=t_{n}=0$.

Definition 10.2. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}, p \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and $u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. A $p$-simplex $\left[u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right]$ is a convex hull

$$
\left\{t_{0} u_{0}+t_{1} u_{1}+\cdots+t_{p} u_{p} \mid t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{p} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, \sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i}=1\right\}
$$

with ordered vertices $u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}$ such that the $p$ vectors $\overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{1}}, \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{2}}, \ldots \overrightarrow{u_{0} u_{p}}$ are linearly independent.

Corollary 10.3. If $\left[u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right]$ is a $p$-simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then every point of $\left[u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{p}\right]$ has a distinct unique representation in the form $\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i} u_{i}$, with $t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{p} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}$and $\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i}=1$.
Proof. It is Proposition 10.1 with the conditions $t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{p} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}$and $\sum_{i=0}^{p} t_{i}=1$.
Example. The standard $n$-simplex is convex hull

$$
\Delta^{n}:=\left\{\left(t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid t_{0}, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{p} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, \sum_{i=0}^{n} t_{i}=1\right\}=\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]
$$

of the ordered vertices $e_{0}=(0, \ldots, 0), e_{1}=(1,0, \ldots, 0), \ldots, e_{n}=(0, \ldots, 0,1)$.
Definition 10.4. Let $X$ be a topological space. A singular $n$-simplex in $X$ is a continuous function

$$
\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X
$$

Denote $S_{n}(X)$ the set of singular $n$-simplices in $X$. Let $C_{n}(X)$ be the free abelian group with basis $S_{n}(X)$, that is,

$$
C_{n}(X):=\left\{\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a} \mid \# A \in \mathbb{N}, n_{a} \in \mathbb{Z}, \sigma_{a} \in S_{n}(X)\right\} .
$$

Elements of $C_{n}(X)$ are called singular $n$-chains.
Definition 10.5. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$. The $i^{\text {th }}$ face operator is the homomorphism

$$
\partial_{i}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X), \quad \sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a} \mapsto \sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a} \mid\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right],
$$

where $\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]$ is the $n-1$-simplex with vertices $e_{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}, e_{i+1}, \ldots, e_{n}$. The boundary operator is the homomorphism

$$
\partial: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \partial_{i}(\sigma)
$$

Proposition 10.6. Let $X$ be a topological space. The following composition is zero:

$$
C_{n}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial} C_{n-2}(X) .
$$

Proof. For $\sigma \in C_{n}(X)$, we have $\partial(\sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma \mid\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]$. Remark that $\partial \sigma\left|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]=\sum_{j=0}^{i-1}(-1)^{j} \sigma\right|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n}(-1)^{j-1} \sigma \mid\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]$.
Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial \circ \partial(\sigma) & =\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1}(-1)^{i+j} \sigma\left|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n}(-1)^{i+j-1} \sigma\right|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i, j \in\{0, \ldots, n\}}(-1)^{i+j} \sigma\left|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]+\sum_{\substack{i, j \in\{0, \ldots, n\} \\
i<j}}(-1)^{i+j-1} \sigma\right|\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
& =0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 10.7. Let $X$ be a topological space. The singular complex $C_{\bullet}(X)$ of $X$ is the homomorphism sequence

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

The group of singular $n$-cycles of $X$ is $Z_{n}(X):=\left\{\sigma \in C_{n}(X) \mid \partial(\sigma)=0\right\}$. The group of singular $n$-boundaries of $X$ is $B_{n}(X):=\left\{\sigma \in C_{n}(X) \mid \exists \tau \in C_{n+1}(X), \partial(\tau)=\sigma\right\}$. The quotient group

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

is the $n^{\text {th }}$ singular homology group of $X$.
Example. If $x$ is a point, then $H_{0}(\{x\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and $H_{n}(\{x\})=0$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Indeed, for every nonnegative integer $n, C_{n}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\}$, where $\sigma: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow\{x\}, t \mapsto x$. Moreover, for every $z \sigma \in C_{n}(\{x\})$,

$$
\partial(z \sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \partial_{i}(z \sigma)=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} z \sigma= \begin{cases}z \sigma & \text { if } n \text { is even and } n \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text { if } n \text { is odd. }\end{cases}
$$

The singular complex of $\{x\}$ is then

$$
\cdots \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \xrightarrow{\text { restriction }} \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \xrightarrow{\text { restriction }} \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \xrightarrow{0} 0 .
$$

Hence,

- $Z_{0}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\}$ and $B_{0}(\{x\})=\{0\}$, implying $H_{0}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} /\{0\} \cong \mathbb{Z}$,
- if $n$ is even and $n \neq 0, Z_{n}(\{x\})=\{0\}$ and $B_{n}(\{x\})=\{0\}$, then $H_{n}(\{x\})=\{0\} /\{0\}=\{0\}$,
- if $n$ is odd, $Z_{n}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\}$ and $B_{n}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\}$, then $H_{n}(\{x\})=\mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} / \mathbb{Z}\{\sigma\} \cong\{0\}$.

Proposition 10.8. Let $X$ be a topological space. Suppose that $X=\bigsqcup_{i \in I} X_{i}$, where $X_{i}$ is a path component. Then,

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

Proof. Let $\sigma$ be a singular $n$-simplex in $X$. Since $\Delta^{n}$ is path connected, then $\sigma\left(\Delta^{n}\right)$ is path connected, meaning that $\sigma\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subseteq X_{i}$ for some $i \in I$. Then $C_{n}(X)=\bigoplus_{i \in I} C_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)$. Moreover, $\partial\left(C_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)\right) \subseteq$ $C_{n-1}\left(X_{i}\right)$, hence $Z_{n}(X)=\bigoplus_{i \in I} Z_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)$ and $B_{n}(X)=\bigoplus_{i \in I} B_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)$. Consider the natural homomorphism $p: \bigoplus_{i \in I} Z_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) \mapsto \bigoplus_{i \in I} Z_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) / B_{n}\left(X_{i}\right),\left(\sigma_{i}\right)_{i \in I} \mapsto\left(\dot{\sigma}_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ which the canonical projection on each coordinate. It is obviously surjective, and $\operatorname{ker} p=\bigoplus_{i \in I} B_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)$. Therefore

$$
H_{n}(X)=\bigoplus_{i \in I} Z_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) / \bigoplus_{i \in I} B_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i \in I} Z_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) / B_{n}\left(X_{i}\right)=\bigoplus_{i \in I} H_{n}\left(X_{i}\right) .
$$

Proposition 10.9. Let $X$ be a topological space. Suppose that $X=\bigsqcup_{i \in I} X_{i}$, where $X_{i}$ is a path component. Then,

$$
H_{0}(X) \cong \overbrace{\cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots}^{\text {\#I times }}
$$

Proof. Define a homomorphism $h: C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \sigma_{j} \mapsto \sum_{j \in J} n_{j}$. It is obviously surjective as $X_{i}$ is assumed to be nonempty. For every $\sigma \in S_{1}\left(X_{i}\right)$, we have $h \circ \partial(\sigma)=h\left(\sigma\left|\left[e_{1}\right]-\sigma\right|\left[e_{0}\right]\right)=1-1=0$. It follows that $\left\{\tau \in C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) \mid \exists \sigma \in C_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), \partial(\sigma)=\tau\right\}=B_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) \subseteq$ ker $h$.
Now, let $\sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \sigma_{j} \in C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)$ such that $h\left(\sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \sigma_{j}\right)=0$. Take a point $x \in X_{i}$ and note that, for each $j \in J$, there exists a singular 1-simplex $\tau_{j}:\left[e_{0}, e_{1}\right] \rightarrow X_{i}$ such that $\tau_{j}\left(e_{0}\right)=\sigma\left(e_{0}\right)$ and $\tau_{j}\left(e_{1}\right)=x$. We have

$$
\partial\left(\sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \tau_{j}\right)=\sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \sigma_{j}-\left(\sum_{j \in J} n_{j}\right) \phi=\sum_{j \in J} n_{j} \sigma_{j} \quad \text { with } \quad \phi:\left[e_{0}\right] \rightarrow X_{i}, e_{0} \mapsto x
$$

Hence ker $h \subseteq\left\{\sigma \in C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) \mid \exists \tau \in C_{1}\left(X_{i}\right), \partial(\tau)=\sigma\right\}=B_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)$.
We deduce that $B_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)=\operatorname{ker} h$. Therefore

$$
H_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)=Z_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) / B_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)=C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right) / \operatorname{ker} h \cong h\left(C_{0}\left(X_{i}\right)\right)=\mathbb{Z}
$$

Finally, we get $H_{0}(X) \cong \overbrace{\cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots}^{\# I \text { times }}$ by Proposition 10.8 .

### 10.2 Homotopy Invariance

Definition 10.10. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. The homomorphism induced on singular $n$-chains by $f$ is

$$
f_{\sharp}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n}(Y), \quad \sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a} \mapsto \sum_{a \in A} n_{a} f \circ \sigma_{a} .
$$

Lemma 10.11. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. The following diagram is commutative:


Proof. Let $\sigma \in C_{n}(X)$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{\sharp} \circ \partial(\sigma) & =f_{\sharp}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma \mid\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} f_{\sharp} \circ \sigma \mid\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right] \\
& =\partial\left(f_{\sharp} \circ \sigma\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 10.12. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. Then, $f_{\sharp}$ induces a homomorphism

$$
f_{\star}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y), \quad \sigma+B_{n}(X) \mapsto f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y) .
$$

Proof. Using Lemma 10.11 .

- If $\sigma \in Z_{n}(X)$, then $\partial\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)\right)=f_{\sharp}(\partial(\sigma))=f_{\sharp}(0)=0$, so $f_{\sharp}\left(Z_{n}(X)\right) \subseteq Z_{n}(Y)$,
- if $\sigma \in C_{n+1}(X)$, then $f_{\sharp}(\partial(\sigma))=\partial\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)\right)$, so $f_{\sharp}\left(B_{n}(X)\right) \subseteq B_{n}(Y)$.

Hence, for every $\sigma+B_{n}(X) \in H_{n}(X), f_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y) \in H_{n}(Y)$ is well-defined. And $f_{\star}\left(\sigma+\tau+B_{n}(X)\right)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma+\tau)+B_{n}(Y)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+f_{\sharp}(\tau)+B_{n}(Y)=f_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right)+f_{\star}\left(\tau+B_{n}(X)\right)$.

Definition 10.13. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. The homomorphism induced on homology groups by $f$ is

$$
f_{\star}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y), \quad \sigma+B_{n}(X) \mapsto f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y) .
$$

Proposition 10.14. Let $X, Y, Z$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y, g: Y \rightarrow Z$ continuous functions. In particular, let $i_{X}: X \rightarrow X$ and $i: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(X)$ be the identity maps of $X$ and $H_{n}(X)$ respectively. Then,
(i) $(g \circ f)_{\star}=g_{\star} \circ f_{\star}$,
(ii) $\left(i_{X}\right)_{\star}=i$.

Proof. ( $i$ ): If $\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a} \in C_{n}(X)$, we have

$$
g_{\sharp} \circ f_{\sharp}\left(\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a}\right)=g_{\sharp}\left(\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} f \circ \sigma_{a}\right)=\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} g \circ f \circ \sigma_{a}=(g \circ f)_{\sharp}\left(\sum_{a \in A} n_{a} \sigma_{a}\right) .
$$

Hence, if $\sigma+B_{n}(X) \in H_{n}(X)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{\star} \circ f_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right) & =g_{\star}\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y)\right) \\
& =g_{\sharp} \circ f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Z) \\
& =(g \circ f)_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Z) \\
& =(g \circ f)_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii): For $\sigma+B_{n}(X) \in H_{n}(X),\left(i_{X}\right)_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right)=\left(i_{X}\right)_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(X)=\sigma+B_{n}(X)$.

For a nonnegative integer $n$, set $\Delta^{n} \times\{0\}:=\left[e_{0}^{0}, e_{1}^{0}, \ldots, e_{n}^{0}\right]$ and $\Delta^{n} \times\{1\}:=\left[e_{0}^{1}, e_{1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]$ such that $e_{i}^{0}$ and $e_{i}^{1}$ have the same image $e_{i}$ under the projection $\Delta^{n} \times\{0,1\} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$, where $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$.

Proposition 10.15. Let $n$ be a nonnegative integer. Then

$$
\Delta^{n} \times[0,1]=\bigcup_{i=0}^{n}\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]
$$

Proof. Let $u=\sum_{j=0}^{i} t_{j}^{0} e_{j}^{0}+\sum_{j=i}^{n} t_{j}^{1} e_{j}^{1} \in\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]$. If $u=\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n+1}\right)$, then

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{n} \lambda_{k}=\sum_{j=0}^{i} t_{j}^{0}+\sum_{j=i}^{n} t_{j}^{1}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda_{n+1}=\sum_{j=i}^{n} t_{j}^{1} \in[0,1] .
$$

Hence $\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right] \subseteq \Delta^{n} \times[0,1]$.
Now, take $\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n+1}\right) \in \Delta^{n} \times[0,1]$. Let $i=\max \left\{j \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\} \mid \sum_{j=i}^{n} \lambda_{j} \geq \lambda_{n+1}\right\}$. Then,

$$
\left(\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n+1}\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \lambda_{j} e_{j}^{0}+\left(\lambda_{i}-\lambda_{n+1}+\sum_{j=i}^{n} \lambda_{j}\right) e_{i}^{0}+\left(\lambda_{n+1}-\sum_{j=i}^{n} \lambda_{j}\right) e_{i}^{1}+\sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \lambda_{j} e_{j}^{1}
$$

which belongs to $\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]$. Hence $\Delta^{n} \times[0,1] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=0}^{n}\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]$.
Definition 10.16. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, id : $[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1]$ the identity map, and $F: X \times$ $[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. The composition $F \circ(\sigma \times i d): \Delta^{n} \times[0,1] \rightarrow X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ is well-defined and the prism operator of $F$ is the function

$$
P: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right] .
$$

Proposition 10.17. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $f: X \rightarrow Y, g: X \rightarrow Y$ continuous functions, and $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ a homotopy between $f$ and $g$. Then,

$$
\partial \circ P=g_{\sharp}-f_{\sharp}-P \circ \partial .
$$

Proof. Denote

$$
F_{i, j}^{0}=F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, \widehat{e_{j}^{0}}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right] \text { and } F_{i, j}^{1}=F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, \ldots, \widehat{e_{j}^{1}}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right] .
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial \circ P(\sigma) & =\partial\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \partial\left(F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i-1}^{0}, e_{i}^{0}, e_{i}^{1}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{i}(-1)^{j} F_{i, j}^{0}+\sum_{j=i}^{n}(-1)^{j+1} F_{i, j}^{1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i}(-1)^{i+j} F_{i, j}^{0}+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=i}^{n}(-1)^{i+j+1} F_{i, j}^{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark that $\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, \widehat{e_{i}^{1}}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]=\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{i}^{0}, \widehat{e_{i+1}^{0}}, e_{i+1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]$, which implies $F_{i, i}^{1}=F_{i+1, i+1}^{0}$. Hence

$$
\partial \circ P(\sigma)=F_{0,0}^{0}+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1}(-1)^{i+j} F_{i, j}^{0}+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n}(-1)^{i+j+1} F_{i, j}^{1}-F_{n, n}^{1} .
$$

Note that $F_{0,0}^{0}=F \circ(\sigma \times i d) \mid\left[\widehat{e_{0}^{0}}, e_{0}^{1}, e_{1}^{1}, \ldots, e_{n}^{1}\right]=g_{\sharp}$ and $F_{n, n}^{1}=F \circ(\sigma \times i) \mid\left[e_{0}^{0}, \ldots, e_{n-1}^{0}, e_{n}^{0}, \widehat{e_{n}^{1}}\right]=f_{\sharp}$.
Moreover,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P \circ \partial(\sigma) & =P\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sigma \mid\left[e_{0}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{i}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n}(-1)^{j} F_{i, j}^{1}+\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i-1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1}(-1)^{j} F_{i, j}^{0} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1}(-1)^{i+j-1} F_{i, j}^{0}+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n}(-1)^{i+j} F_{i, j}^{1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\partial \circ P=g_{\sharp}-P \circ \partial-f_{\sharp}$.
Theorem 10.18. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y, g: X \rightarrow Y$ continuous functions. If $f$ and $g$ are homotopic, then $f_{\star}=g_{\star}$.

Proof. Let $P$ be the prism operator of a homotopy between $f$ and $g$. If $\sigma \in Z_{n}(X)$, we then know from Proposition 10.17 that $g_{\sharp}(\sigma)-f_{\sharp}(\sigma)=\partial \circ P(\sigma)+P \circ \partial(\sigma)=\partial \circ P(\sigma)$, since $\partial(\sigma)=0$. Thus $g_{\sharp}(\sigma)-f_{\sharp}(\sigma) \in B_{n}(Y)$, meaning that $g_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y)$. So, for all $\sigma+B_{n}(X) \in H_{n}(X)$,

$$
g_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right)=g_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y)=f_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X)\right) .
$$

Corollary 10.19. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ a continuous function. If $f$ is homotopy equivalent some function, then $f_{\star}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. Let $g: Y \rightarrow X$ be a function homotopy equivalent to $f$. Moreover, let $i_{X}, i_{Y}, i_{H_{n}(X)}, i_{H_{n}(Y)}$ be the identity maps of $X, Y, H_{n}(X), H_{n}(Y)$ respectively. Using Proposition 10.14 and Theorem 10.18, we get

- $g_{\star} \circ f_{\star}=(g \circ f)_{\star}=\left(i_{X}\right)_{\star}=i_{H_{n}(X)}$,
- $f_{\star} \circ g_{\star}=(f \circ g)_{\star}=\left(i_{Y}\right)_{\star}=i_{H_{n}(Y)}$.

Hence, $g_{\star}=f_{\star}^{-1}$, which implies that $f_{\star}$ is an isomorphism.
Example. If $X$ is a convex set in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, then $H_{0}(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, and $H_{n}(X)=0$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Indeed, if $a \in X$, the function

$$
F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow X, \quad(x, t) \mapsto t a+(1-t) x
$$

is a deformation retraction of $X$ onto $\{a\}$. Consider both functions

$$
f: X \rightarrow\{a\}, x \mapsto a \quad \text { and } g:\{a\} \rightarrow X, x \rightarrow x .
$$

Denoting $i_{X}, i_{\{a\}}$ the identity maps of $X$ and $\{a\}$ respectively, we see that

- $g \circ f=f$ which is homotopic to $i_{X}$ by the deformation retraction $F$,
- $f \circ g=i_{\{a\}}$.

Hence, $f$ and $g$ are homotopy equivalent. We deduce from Corollary 10.19 that $f_{\star}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(\{a\})$ is an isomorphism.

### 10.3 Relative Homology Groups

Definition 10.20. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. The free abelian subgroup $C_{n}(A)$ is

$$
C_{n}(A):=\left\{\sum_{i \in I} n_{i} \sigma_{i} \in C_{n}(X) \mid \sigma_{i}\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subseteq A\right\}
$$

The relative $n$-chains are the elements of the quotient group $C_{n}(X, A):=C_{n}(X) / C_{n}(A)$.
Lemma 10.21. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. The boundary operator $\partial: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow$ $C_{n-1}(X)$ induces the quotient boundary operator

$$
\dot{\partial}: C_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X, A), \quad \sigma+C_{n}(A) \mapsto \dot{\partial}(\sigma)+C_{n-1}(A)
$$

Proof. Let $\tau=\sum_{i \in I} n_{i} \tau_{i} \in C_{n}(A)$ and $j \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$. Since $\tau_{i} \mid\left[e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, \hat{e}_{j}, \ldots, e_{n}\right]\left(\Delta^{n-1}\right) \subseteq A$, then $\partial(\tau) \in C_{n-1}(A)$. Hence $\partial\left(C_{n}(A)\right) \subseteq C_{n-1}(A)$, and $\dot{\partial}: C_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X, A)$ is well-defined.

Definition 10.22. Let $X$ be a topological space, and $A \subseteq X$. The relative complex $C_{\bullet}(X, A)$ of $X$ relative to $A$ is

$$
\cdots \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} C_{n+1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} C_{n}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} C_{n-1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} C_{1}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} C_{0}(X, A) \xrightarrow{\dot{\partial}} 0 .
$$

The group of relative $n$-cycles of $X$ relative to $A$ is

$$
Z_{n}(X, A):=\left\{\sigma+C_{n}(A) \in C_{n}(X, A) \mid \partial(\sigma) \in C_{n-1}(A)\right\}
$$

The group of relative $n$-boundaries of $X$ relative to $A$ is

$$
B_{n}(X, A):=\left\{\sigma+C_{n}(A) \in C_{n}(X, A) \mid \exists \tau \in C_{n+1}(X), v \in C_{n}(A), \partial(\tau)=\sigma+v\right\}
$$

The quotient group

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

is the $n^{\text {th }}$ relative homology group of $X$ relative to $A$.
Denote $f:(X, A) \rightarrow(Y, B)$ a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y$, and $f(A) \subseteq B$.
Lemma 10.23. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y$, and $f:(X, A) \rightarrow(Y, B)$ a continuous function. The homomorphism $f_{\sharp}: C_{n}(X) \rightarrow C_{n}(Y)$ induces the homomorphism on relative $n$-chains

$$
\dot{f}_{\sharp}: C_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n}(Y, B), \quad \sigma+C_{n}(A) \mapsto f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+C_{n}(B) .
$$

Proof. If $\sum_{i \in I} n_{i} \sigma_{i} \in C_{n}(A)$, then $f_{\sharp}\left(\sum_{i \in I} n_{i} \sigma_{i}\right)=\sum_{i \in I} n_{i} f \circ \sigma_{i} \in C_{n}(B)$. Hence $f_{\sharp}\left(C_{n}(A)\right) \subseteq C_{n}(B)$, and $\dot{f}_{\sharp}: C_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n}(Y, B)$ is well-defined.

Lemma 10.24. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y$, and $f:(X, A) \rightarrow(Y, B)$ a continuous function. The homomorphism $f_{\star}: H_{n}(X) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y)$ induces the homomorphism on relative homology groups

$$
\dot{f}_{\star}: H_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, B), \quad \sigma+B_{n}(X, A) \mapsto f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y, B) .
$$

Proof. We have:

- If $\sigma+C_{n}(A) \in Z_{n}(X, A)$, then

$$
\partial\left(f_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)\right)=\partial\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+C_{n}(B)\right)=\partial\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)\right)+\partial\left(C_{n}(B)\right)=f_{\sharp}(\partial(\sigma))+\partial\left(C_{n}(B)\right) .
$$

Since $\partial(\sigma) \in C_{n-1}(A)$, then $f_{\sharp}(\partial(\sigma))+\partial\left(C_{n}(B)\right) \subseteq C_{n-1}(B)$, so $f_{\sharp}\left(Z_{n}(X, A)\right) \subseteq Z_{n}(Y, B)$.

- If $\sigma+C_{n+1}(A) \in C_{n+1}(X, A)$, then

$$
f_{\sharp}\left(\partial\left(\sigma+C_{n+1}(A)\right)\right)=\partial\left(f_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n+1}(A)\right)\right)=\partial\left(f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+C_{n+1}(B)\right),
$$

hence $f_{\sharp}\left(B_{n}(X, A)\right) \subseteq B_{n}(Y, B)$.
Like in Proposition 10.12, we deduce that $f_{\sharp}$ induces a homomorphism $f_{\star}: H_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, B)$.
Proposition 10.25. Let $X, Y$ be topological spaces, $A \subseteq X, B \subseteq Y$, and $f:(X, A) \rightarrow(Y, B), g$ : $(X, A) \rightarrow(Y, B)$ continuous functions. Suppose that there exists a homotopy $F: X \times[0,1] \rightarrow Y$ between $f$ and $g$ such that

$$
\forall t \in[0,1], F(A, t) \subseteq B .
$$

Then $\dot{f}_{\star}: H_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, B)=\dot{g}_{\star}: H_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H_{n}(Y, B)$.
Proof. If $\sigma \in C_{n}(X)$ such that $\sigma\left(\Delta^{n}\right) \subseteq A$, we get the composition $F \circ(\sigma \times i d): \Delta^{n} \times[0,1] \rightarrow A \times$ $[0,1] \rightarrow B$. The prism operator $P$ of $F$ then takes $C_{n}(A)$ to $C_{n+1}(B)$. Hence, it induces a relative prism operator

$$
\dot{P}: C_{n}(X, A) \rightarrow C_{n+1}(Y, B), \quad \sigma+C_{n}(A) \mapsto P(\sigma)+C_{n+1}(B) .
$$

Besides, for every $\sigma+C_{n}(A) \in C_{n}(X, A), \dot{\partial} \circ \dot{P}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)=\dot{\partial}\left(P(\sigma)+C_{n+1}(B)\right)=\partial \circ P(\sigma)+C_{n}(B)$ and $\dot{P} \circ \dot{\partial}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)=\dot{P}\left(\partial(\sigma)+C_{n-1}(A)\right)=P \circ \partial(\sigma)+C_{n}(B)$. So, by Proposition 10.17,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\partial} \circ \dot{P}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)+\dot{P} \circ \dot{\partial}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right) & =\partial \circ P(\sigma)+P \circ \partial(\sigma)+C_{n}(B) \\
& =g_{\sharp}(\sigma)-f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+C_{n}(B) \\
& =\dot{g}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)-\dot{f}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\sigma+C_{n}(A) \in Z_{n}(X, A)$, since $\dot{\partial}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)=C_{n-1}(A)$, then

$$
\dot{g}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)-\dot{f}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)=\dot{\partial} \circ \dot{P}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right) .
$$

Thus $\dot{g}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right)-\dot{f}_{\sharp}\left(\sigma+C_{n}(A)\right) \in B_{n}(Y, B)$, meaning that $g_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y, B)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y, B)$. So, for all $\sigma+B_{n}(X, A) \in H_{n}(X, A)$,

$$
\dot{g}_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X, A)\right)=g_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y, B)=f_{\sharp}(\sigma)+B_{n}(Y, B)=\dot{f}_{\star}\left(\sigma+B_{n}(X, A)\right) .
$$

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