

Mon, Mar. 26

Last time, we saw that there is a double covering of the nonorientable surface N_g by the orientable surface M_{g-1} . It remains to find the universal cover of M_{g-1} .

Proposition 4.3. *For $g \geq 1$, the universal cover of M_g is \mathbb{R}^2 .*

Sketch. We have already shown this for $g = 1$. In the higher genus case, this is more difficult. This is sometimes described using “hyperbolic” geometry. In that approach, \mathbb{R}^2 is replaced by the (homeomorphic) upper half-plane, equipped with the hyperbolic metric. The idea is that you can tile the hyperbolic half-plane by polygons. Since M_g has a presentation as an (oriented) quotient of a polygon, this establishes a covering of M_g by the half-plane. ■

Ok, so we know that $\pi_n(\mathbb{RP}^2) \cong \pi_n(S^2)$. What are these groups? We will show later that $\pi_2(S^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. Just like for S^1 , a generator for this group is the identity map $S^2 \rightarrow S^2$. But the fascinating thing is that, in contrast to S^1 , there are plenty of interesting higher homotopy groups! Here is a table of homotopy groups of spheres, taken from Wikipedia.

	π_1	π_2	π_3	π_4	π_5	π_6	π_7	π_8	π_9	π_{10}	π_{11}	π_{12}	π_{13}	π_{14}	π_{15}
S^0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S^1	\mathbb{Z}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
S^2	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{12}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_3	\mathbb{Z}_{15}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2^2	$\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$	$\mathbb{Z}_{84} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^2$	\mathbb{Z}_2^2
S^3	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{12}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_3	\mathbb{Z}_{15}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2^2	$\mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$	$\mathbb{Z}_{84} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^2$	\mathbb{Z}_2^2
S^4	0	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_{12}$	\mathbb{Z}_2^2	\mathbb{Z}_2^2	$\mathbb{Z}_{24} \times \mathbb{Z}_3$	\mathbb{Z}_{15}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2^3	$\mathbb{Z}_{120} \times \mathbb{Z}_{12} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$	$\mathbb{Z}_{84} \times \mathbb{Z}_2^5$
S^5	0	0	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{24}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{30}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2^3	$\mathbb{Z}_{72} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$
S^6	0	0	0	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{24}	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{60}	$\mathbb{Z}_{24} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$	\mathbb{Z}_2^3
S^7	0	0	0	0	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{24}	0	0	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{120}	\mathbb{Z}_2^3
S^8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	\mathbb{Z}	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_{24}	0	0	\mathbb{Z}_2	$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_{120}$

There are several things to note in this table.

- (1) We have $\pi_n(S^3) = \pi_n(S^2)$ for $n \geq 3$. There is a map $S^3 \rightarrow S^2$ that induces this isomorphism on homotopy groups. It is the Hopf map η we studied before ($\mathbb{C}^2 - \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{CP}^1$). This map is not a cover, since the fibers are circles. But this is a higher analogue of a covering: it is an S^1 -bundle. The analogue of the “evenly covered neighborhoods” here is called “local triviality” of the bundle. This means that each point in $x \in \mathbb{CP}^1$ has a neighborhood U such that $\eta^{-1}(U) \cong S^1 \times U$. Remembering that a point in \mathbb{CP}^1 is of the form $x = [z_1 : z_2]$, consider the open sets $U_1 = \{[z_1 : z_2] | z_1 \neq 0\}$ and $U_2 = \{[z_1 : z_2] | z_2 \neq 0\}$. These certainly cover \mathbb{CP}^1 , and the isomorphism

$$\eta^{-1}(U_1) \cong S^1 \times U_1$$

is

$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \left(\frac{z_1}{\|z_1\|}, [z_1 : z_2] \right).$$

A bundle still has a lifting property for paths and homotopies, but the lifts are no longer unique. This means that we can't necessarily lift an arbitrary map $Y \rightarrow S^2$ up to a map $Y \rightarrow S^3$, and it need not be true that *all* higher homotopy groups of S^2 are identified with those of S^3 . It turns out that what happens here is that we have a "long exact sequence" relating the homotopy groups of S^3 , S^2 , and S^1 (most of which are trivial).

- (2) We have $\pi_n(S^k) = 0$ if $n < k$. The argument is similar to the one that showed the higher spheres are all simply-connected. The main step is to show that any map $S^n \rightarrow S^k$ is homotopic to a nonsurjective map if $n < k$.
- (3) The answers are eventually constant on each diagonal. There is a suspension homomorphism $\pi_n(S^k) \rightarrow \pi_{n+1}(S^{k+1})$ that induces these isomorphisms. The stable answer for $\pi_{k+n}(S^k)$ is known as the n th stable homotopy group of spheres and is written π_n^s . We have

$$\pi_0^s = \mathbb{Z}, \quad \pi_1^s = \mathbb{Z}/2, \quad \pi_2^s = \mathbb{Z}/2, \quad \pi_3^s = \mathbb{Z}/24.$$

These groups are known out to around $n = 60$.

- (4) Most of the unstable groups are finite. The only infinite ones are $\pi_n(S^n) = \mathbb{Z}$ and $\pi_{4k-1}(S^{2k})$. The latter are all $\mathbb{Z} \times (\text{finite group})$. This is a theorem of J. P. Serre. This implies that all of the stable groups are finite, except $\pi_0^s = \mathbb{Z}$.

Ok, so homotopy groups are hard! But there are a few more examples of spaces whose homotopy groups are all known, so let's mention those before we abandon all hope and despair.

Example 4.4. Remember that we have a double cover $S^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^n$ inducing an isomorphism on all higher homotopy groups. But S^n does not have any homotopy groups until π_n , so this means that $\pi_k(\mathbb{R}P^n) = 0$ if $1 < k < n$. The inclusion $S^n \hookrightarrow S^{n+1}$, $(x_0, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_0, \dots, x_n, 0)$ induces an inclusion $\mathbb{R}P^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}P^{n+1}$. As n gets higher, we lose more and more homotopy groups. In the limit, $S^\infty = \bigcup_n S^n$ has no homotopy groups (and in fact it is contractible). Similarly, $\mathbb{R}P^\infty$ has only a fundamental group of $\mathbb{Z}/2$ but no higher homotopy groups.

Example 4.5. There is an analogous story for $\mathbb{C}P^n$. Here, we have for every n , an S^1 -bundle $S^{2n-1} \simeq \mathbb{C}^n - \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}P^n$. This map induces an isomorphism on π_k for $k \geq 3$ and gives $\pi_2(\mathbb{C}P^n) \cong \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$. So the only nontrivial homotopy group of $\mathbb{C}P^\infty$ is $\pi_2(\mathbb{C}P^\infty) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Wed, Mar. 28

Last time, we discussed higher homotopy groups of some familiar spaces. We saw that most of the M_g and N_g have no higher homotopy groups. On the other hand, basic spaces like S^2 and $\mathbb{R}P^2$ have very complicated (and unknown) higher homotopy groups. The other examples in which we had complete understanding of the higher homotopy groups were the infinite-dimensional complexes $\mathbb{R}P^\infty$ and $\mathbb{C}P^\infty$. It turns out that this is quite typical: a finite cell complex almost always has infinitely many nontrivial homotopy groups!

5. HOMOLOGY

This is rather disheartening. We think of a cell complex as an essentially finite amount of information. It would be nice if we only got finitely many algebraic objects out of it. There is such a construction: homology. As we will see, this will combine a number of the ideas we have recently encountered: the fundamental group and Euler characteristics. A good way to think about homology is that it is a more sophisticated version of the Euler characteristic.

We will deal with two versions of homology. The first, **singular homology**, is a good theoretical tool that is convenient for proving theorems. But it is not great for doing actual calculations. For that purpose, we will also consider **cellular homology**, which is defined for CW complexes. **Simplicial homology** is yet another version which is convenient for calculation, though we will not consider this version in our course.

5.1. **Singular homology.** Let Δ^n denote the standard n -simplex, which can be defined as

$$\Delta^n = \{(t_0, \dots, t_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \sum_i t_i = 1, \quad t_i \geq 0\}.$$

We will denote by $v_i \in \Delta^n$ the vertex defined by $t_i = 1$ and $t_j = 0$ if $j \neq i$. Note that each “facet” of the simplex, in which we have restricted one of the coordinates to zero, is an $(n - 1)$ -dimensional simplex. More generally, if we set k of the coordinates equal to zero, we get a face which is an $(n - k)$ -dimensional simplex.

Definition 5.1. Let X be a space. A **singular n -simplex** of X will simply be a continuous map $\Delta^n \rightarrow X$.

Let $C_n^{\text{Sing}}(X)$, or simply $C_n(X)$, be the free abelian group on the set of singular n -simplices of X . An element of $C_n(X)$ is referred to as a (singular) n -chain on X . Our goal is to assemble the $C_n(X)$, as n varies, into a “chain complex”

$$\dots \rightarrow C_3(X) \rightarrow C_2(X) \rightarrow C_1(X) \rightarrow C_0(X).$$

To say that this is a chain complex just means that composing two successive maps in the sequence gives 0.

Fri, Mar. 30

EXAM DAY