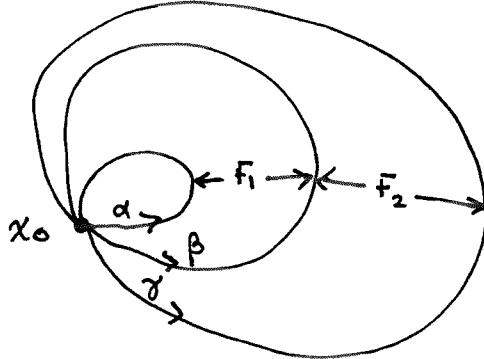


- (a)  $\alpha \sim \alpha$
- (b)  $\alpha \sim \beta \Rightarrow \beta \sim \alpha$
- (c)  $\alpha \sim \beta$  and  $\beta \sim \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \sim \gamma$ .

I will just prove (c), which is the hardest. A picture gives the idea:



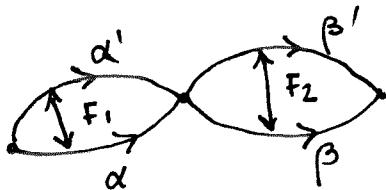
$$\text{Let } F(s, t) = \begin{cases} F_1(s, 2t), & 0 \leq t \leq 1/2 \\ F_2(s, 2t-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq t \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Then  $F$  deforms  $\alpha$  into  $\gamma$ .

Thus we have equivalence classes of loops based at a point  $x_0$ ,  $[\alpha], [\beta]$ , etc. We want to define

$$[\alpha] * [\beta] = [\alpha * \beta] \quad (\text{multiplication of classes}).$$

But we have to show that this is consistent (independent of choice made for representative element). That is, let  $\alpha' \sim \alpha$  and  $\beta' \sim \beta$ . Want to show that  $\alpha' * \beta' \sim \alpha * \beta$ . Draw a picture, makes it obvious:



[Here picture drawn for arbitrary paths, but you get loops if endpoints are same point.]. Picture shows what to do:

Let  $F(s, t) = \begin{cases} F_1(2s, t), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ F_2(2s-1, t), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1 \end{cases}$ .

$F$  is the homotopy that deforms  $\alpha * \beta$  into  $\alpha * \gamma$ .

Turns out, this  $*$  law on equivalence classes of loops based at a point  $x_0$  defines a group. Need to show:

$$([\alpha][\beta])[y] = [\alpha]([\beta][y]) \quad \text{associative law} \quad (\text{drop } * \text{ now})$$

$$[\alpha][c] = [c][\alpha] = [\alpha], \quad [c] = \text{equiv. class of constant loop,}$$

$$[\alpha^{-1}][\alpha] = [\alpha][\alpha^{-1}] = [c]. \quad c: [0, 1] \rightarrow X: s \mapsto x_0.$$

Thus  $[c]$  is the identity: It is the equivalence class of loops that can be contracted to a point.

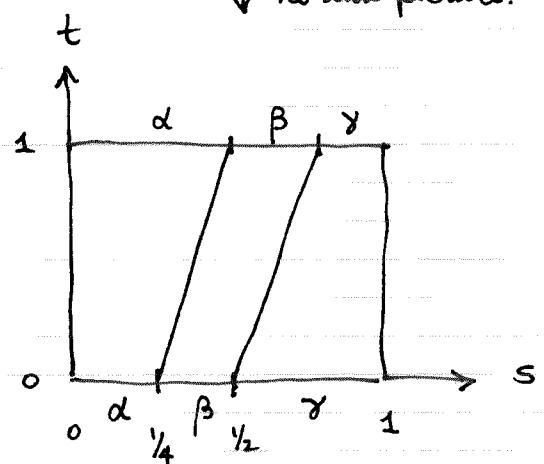
I will just prove the associative law (the others are easy). A picture makes it obvious, and also shows how to construct the formal proof:



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

✓ deform according to this picture.

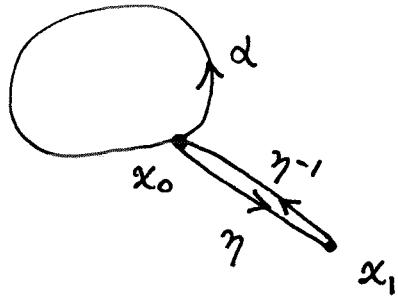
$$((\alpha * \beta) * \gamma)(s) = \begin{cases} \alpha(4s), & 0 \leq s \leq \frac{1}{4} \\ \beta(4s-1), & \frac{1}{4} \leq s \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ \gamma(2s-1), & \frac{1}{2} \leq s \leq 1. \end{cases}$$



Thus, the set of equivalence classes of loops based at a point  $x_0$  constitutes a group, denoted

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \text{first homotopy group of } X \text{ based at } x_0.$$

This group is defined relative to a base point  $x_0$ . If we choose a different ~~base~~ base point we get a different group, say,  $\pi_1(X, x_1)$ . What is the relation between these? Answer is easy in an arc-wise connected space (which for us is just a connected space), in which a path  $\eta: [0, 1] \rightarrow X$ ,  $\eta(0) = x_0$ ,  $\eta(1) = x_1$  always exists.



Given  $\alpha$  based at  $x_0$ , can create an  $\alpha'$  based at  $x_1$  by writing,

$$\alpha' = \eta^{-1} * \alpha * \eta.$$

Moreover, if  $\alpha \sim \beta$ , then  $\alpha' \sim \beta'$ , so the conjugation by  $\eta$  preserves the equivalence class structure. (Easy to show.) So we have a mapping parameterized by  $\eta$ ,

$$P_\eta: \pi_1(X, x_0) \rightarrow \pi_1(X, x_1): [\alpha] \mapsto [\eta^{-1} * \alpha * \eta]$$

In fact,  $P_\eta$  is a group isomorphism. We prove this by showing first that  $P_\eta$  is a homomorphism, then that  $P_\eta^{-1}$  is a homomorphism.

Proof that  $P_\eta$  is a homomorphism is easy.

Need to show that  $(P_\eta[\alpha])(P_\eta[\beta]) = P_\eta[\alpha\beta]$  (omit  $*$ )

$\text{LHS} = [\eta^{-1}\alpha\eta][\eta^{-1}\beta\eta] = [\eta^{-1}\alpha\eta\eta^{-1}\beta\eta] = [\eta^{-1}\alpha\beta\eta] = \text{RHS.}$

Similarly, consider  $P_\eta^{-1} : \pi_1(x, x_1) \rightarrow \pi_1(x, x_0)$  defined by

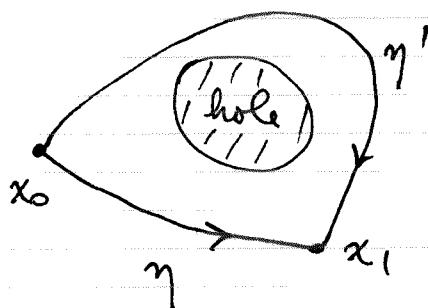
$$P_\eta^{-1}[\gamma] = [\eta\gamma\eta^{-1}] \quad \text{where } \gamma \in \pi_1(x, x_1) \text{ and } \eta \text{ as before.}$$

Then easily show that  $P_\eta^{-1}$  actually is the inverse of  $P_\eta$ . Thus,  $P_\eta$  is a bijection, hence an isomorphism.

Thus, while  $\pi_1(x, x_0)$  depends on the base point  $x_0$ , the group  $\pi_1(x, x_1)$  at any other point (remember this is an arcwise-connected space) is isomorphic to it. Thus, as abstract groups, these groups are the same: it is written simply as

$\pi_1(x)$ , called the fundamental group of  $X$ .

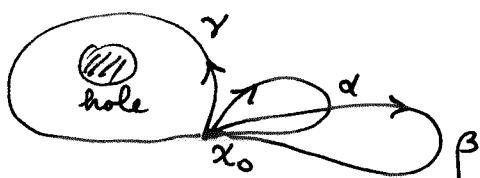
But notice, the isomorphism between  $\pi_1(x, x_0)$  and  $\pi_1(x, x_1)$  is not a natural isomorphism, because it depends on the choice of  $\eta$  connecting  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ .



$P_\eta \neq P_{\eta'}$  in this picture.

Review: We are thinking of maps  $f: S^1 \rightarrow M$  of the circle onto a given space  $M$ , in order to understand the topology of  $M$  and for other reasons. We usually represent these maps by in a different form,  $f: I \rightarrow M$  where  $I = [0, 1]$  is the unit interval and where we require  $f(0) = f(1) \equiv x_0 \in M$ . We call such a map a loop based at  $x_0$ .

Loops are considered equivalent (homotopic) if they can be continuously deformed into one another. The map that does the deformation is called the homotopy.



In the picture,  $\alpha \sim \beta$  but  $\alpha \not\sim \gamma$  (all loops based at  $x_0$ ).

The <sup>set of</sup> equivalence classes of loops based at a point  $x_0$  can be given a group structure, in which the multiplication is just catenation. The group is denoted  $\pi_1(M, x_0)$ , the first homotopy group based at  $x_0$ . The group  $\pi_1(M, x_1)$  based at a different point is isomorphic to  $\pi_1(M, x_0)$ , if  $M$  is connected. Thus, as abstract groups, they are the same. This group is denoted  $\pi_1(M)$ , the fundamental group.

Now we explore some of the properties of the fundamental group  $\pi_1(M)$  of a manifold  $M$ , and work on ways of computing it.

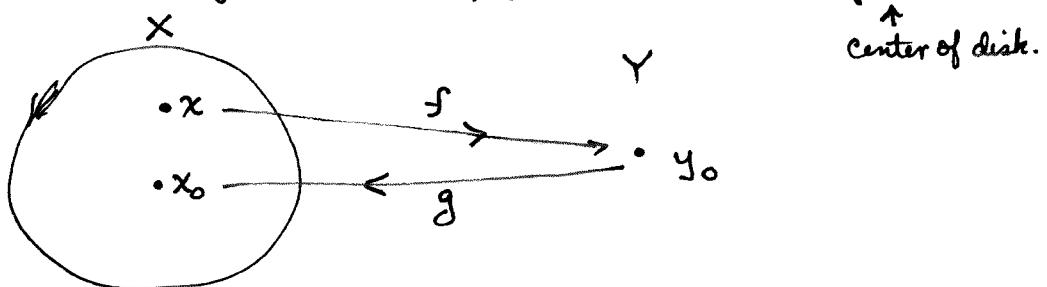
Recall defn of homeomorphism: let  $X, Y$  be topological spaces. Then  ~~$X, Y$  are homeomorphic~~ if  $\exists$  contin. maps  $f: X \rightarrow Y$ ,  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $f \circ g = \text{id}_Y$  and  $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$ .

Now we introduce a weaker concept. Let  $X, Y$  be topological spaces.

Def.  $X$  and  $Y$  are of the same homotopy type if  $\exists$  contin. maps  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $f \circ g \sim \text{id}_Y$  and  $g \circ f \sim \text{id}_X$ . ( $\sim$  means, "is homotopic to"). Point is that = for a homeomorphism is replaced by  $\sim$  for same homotopy type.

An example of spaces that are of same homotopy type but not homeomorphic.

- Let  $X = 2\text{-disk } D^2$ ,  $Y = \text{single point } y_0$ . Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be the const. map  $f(x) = y_0$ ,  $\forall x \in X$ . Let  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  map  $y_0$  onto a certain point  $x_0 \in X$ .



Not homeomorphic, because  $f$  not invertible. ~~Are~~ Are  $X, Y$  of same homotopy type? Well,  $f \circ g: Y \rightarrow Y: y_0 \mapsto y_0$  is just the identity map  $\text{id}_Y$  (has to be, since  $Y$  only has one point.). Next  $g \circ f: X \rightarrow X: x$  (any  $x$ )  $\mapsto x_0$ , it is the constant map. So is  $g \circ f \sim \text{id}_X$ ? Yes, just shrink disk by radial factor, to make disk  $\rightarrow$  central point.

Notice that with "same homotopy type" (as with "homeomorphic")

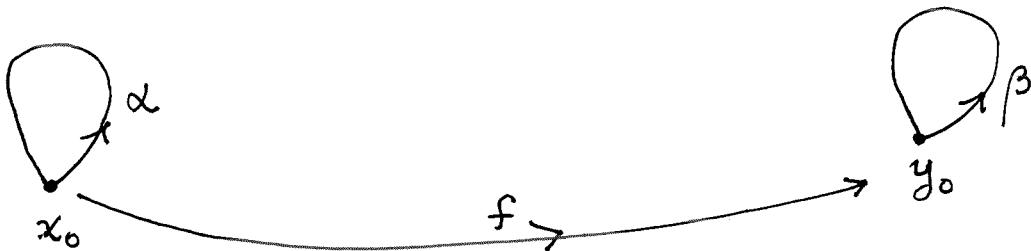
Return to the theorem: If  $X, Y$  are of the same homotopy type, then

$$\pi_1(X, x_0) = \pi_1(Y, y_0)$$

where  $y_0 = f(x_0)$  and  $f$  is the map:  $X \rightarrow Y$  that enters into the definition of "same homotopy type". Here "=" means, "is isomorphic to." Thus, if  $X, Y$  are connected, so that the homotopy groups are independent of base point, then  $\pi_1(X) = \pi_1(Y)$ .

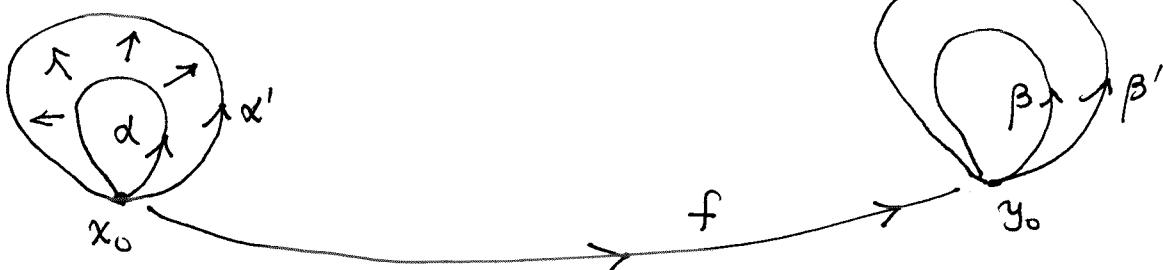
Here is the beginning of a proof of the theorem.

Choose  $x_0 \in X$ , let  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$ , and let  $\alpha: I \rightarrow X$  be a loop at  $x_0$ . Let  $\beta$  be the image of  $\alpha$  under  $f$ ,



that is,  $\beta = f \circ \alpha$ ,  $\beta: I \rightarrow Y$  is a loop based at  $y_0$ . Thus,  $f$  maps loops based at  $x_0$  into loops based at  $y_0$ .

What does  $f$  do to equivalence classes of loops? Let  $\alpha, \alpha'$  be two loops based at  $x_0$ , and let  $\alpha \sim \alpha'$  ( $\alpha, \alpha'$  are homotopic). Also let  $\beta = f \circ \alpha$ ,  $\beta' = f \circ \alpha'$ . Are  $\beta, \beta'$  homotopic?



continuous

Yes, because the deformation of  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha'$  produces a family of curves  $\alpha_t$ ,  $\alpha_0 = \alpha$ ,  $\alpha_1 = \alpha'$ , and  $f \circ \alpha_t \equiv \beta_t$  is a deformation of  $\beta$  into  $\beta'$ . That is, the composition of two continuous maps is continuous: Here we compose  $f$  with the homotopy deforming  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha'$ .

This means that  $f$  induces a mapping between equivalence classes of curves based at  $x_0$  into those based at  $y_0$ . Call this mapping  $K$ :

$$K: \pi_1(X, x_0) \longrightarrow \pi_1(Y, y_0).$$

Every equiv. class at  $x_0$  corresponds to some equivalence class at  $y_0$ , i.e.  $K[\alpha] = [\beta]$ .

The map  $K$  is injective. That means that if  $[\alpha] \neq [\alpha']$ , then  $[\beta] \neq [\beta']$ , i.e., if  $\alpha \not\sim \alpha'$  then  $\beta \not\sim \beta'$ . That is, the only way we can have  $[\beta] = [\beta']$  is if  $[\alpha] = [\alpha']$ . To prove this we may show that  $[\beta] = [\beta'] \Rightarrow [\alpha] = [\alpha']$ . Since above we showed that  $\cancel{f \circ} [\alpha] = [\alpha'] \Rightarrow [\beta] = [\beta']$ , the result will be  $[\alpha] = [\alpha'] \Leftrightarrow [\beta] = [\beta']$ , and  $K$  is injective.

So again assume we have 2 loops  $\alpha, \alpha'$  at  $x_0 \in X$ , and define  $\beta = f \circ \alpha$ ,  $\beta' = f \circ \alpha'$ , so  $\beta, \beta'$  are loops at  $y_0 = f(x_0) \in Y$ . Now, however, assume  $\beta \sim \beta'$ . We wish to prove that  $\alpha \sim \alpha'$ .

(9)

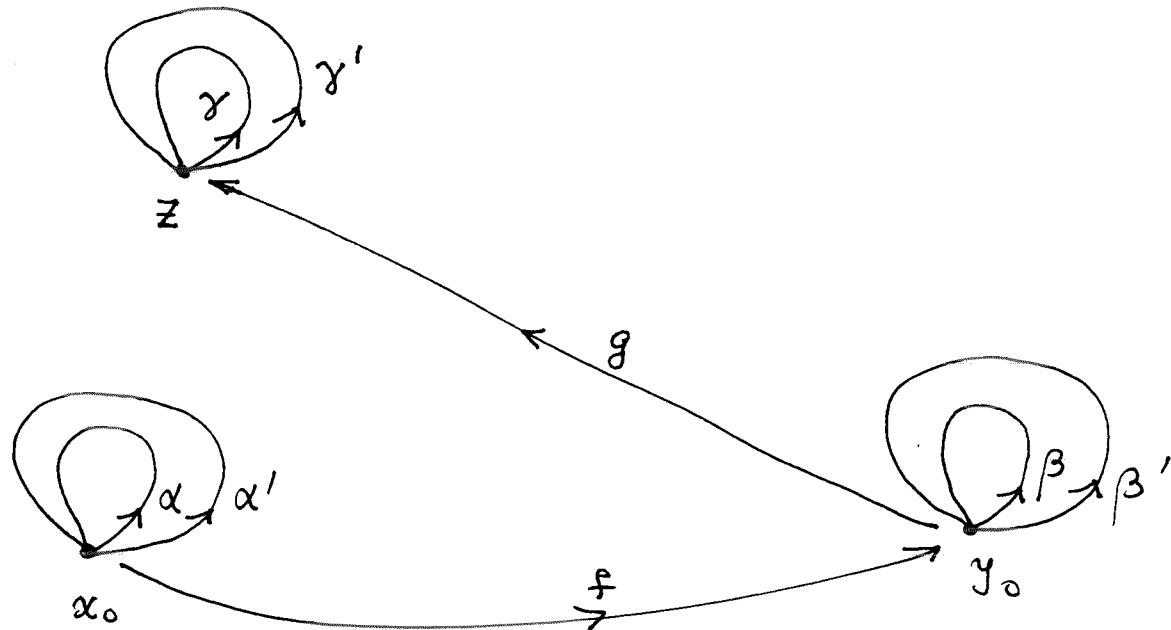
Use the map  $g$  to map  $\beta, \beta'$  back onto  $X$ , call the new loops  $\gamma, \gamma'$ :

$$\gamma = g \circ \beta = g \circ f \circ \alpha$$

$$\gamma' = g \circ \beta' = g \circ f \circ \alpha'$$

since  $g$  is continuous, and since  $\beta \sim \beta'$ , we have  $\gamma \sim \gamma'$ . But  $\gamma, \gamma'$  are not based at  $x_0$ , they are based at a new point call it  $z \in X$ ,

$$z = g(y_0) = (g \circ f)(x_0).$$



We know that  $\pi_1(X, z)$  and  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  are isomorphic if we can find a curve connecting  $z$  to  $x_0$ . In fact, we can, since we know that  $g \circ f \sim \text{id}_X$ . Thus there exists a smooth family of maps  $M_t : X \rightarrow X$ ,  $t \in [0, 1]$ , such that  $M_0 = g \circ f$  and  $M_1 = \text{id}_X$ . Define a path  $\eta : [0, 1] \rightarrow X$

by  $\eta(t) = M_t x_0$ . Then  $\eta(0) = z$ ,  $\eta(1) = x_0$ :

And let  $\gamma'$  run from  $x_0$  to  $z$ .

Then

$$\gamma^{-1} * \gamma * \eta \equiv \delta$$

$$\text{and } \gamma^{-1} * \gamma' * \eta \equiv \delta'$$

are loops based at  $x_0$ .

In fact,  $\delta \sim \delta'$ . We see this since we know  $\gamma \sim \gamma'$ , and if in the definitions of  $\delta, \delta'$

we let  $\gamma$  deform into  $\gamma'$ , we get  $\delta$  deforming into  $\delta'$ . It's clear from the picture, too.

Now write out  $\delta, \delta'$  in another way:

$$\delta = \gamma^{-1} * (g \circ f \circ \alpha) * \gamma^* = \gamma^{-1} * (M_0 \circ \alpha) * \gamma$$

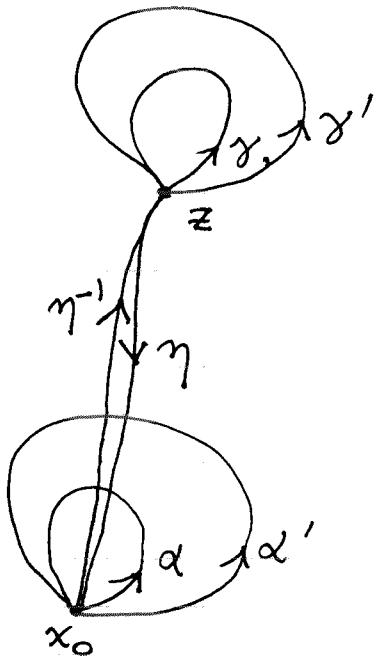
$$\delta' = \gamma^{-1} * (g \circ f \circ \alpha') * \gamma = \gamma^{-1} * (M_0 * \alpha') * \gamma$$

Now let  $z(t) = M_t(x_0)$ , so  $z(t)$  runs along  $\gamma$  as  $t$  goes from 0 to 1. Also let  $\eta_t$  be the curve that starts at  $z(t)$  and ends at  $x_0$ , following  $\eta$ , i.e., let

$$\eta_t : [0, 1] \rightarrow X, \quad \eta_t(s) = \eta(t + (1-t)s),$$

so  $\eta_t(0) = z(t)$ ,  $\eta_t(1) = x_0$ . ~~constant~~ Thus  $\eta_0 = \eta$ ,

and  $\eta_1$  is the path at  $x_0$  (it shrinks to  $x_0$  as  $t \rightarrow 1$ ).



Now define

$$\delta_t = \eta_t^{-1} * (M_t \circ \alpha) * \eta_t$$

$$\delta'_t = \eta_t^{-1} * (M_t \circ \alpha') * \eta_t$$

at  $t=0$  we have  $\delta_0 = \delta$ ,  $\delta'_0 = \delta'$ , at  $t=1$  we have  $\delta_1 = \alpha$ ,  $\delta'_1 = \alpha'$ . Thus,  $\delta \sim \alpha$  and  $\delta' \sim \alpha'$ . But since  $\delta \sim \delta'$  we have  $\alpha \sim \alpha'$ . QED for this part,  $\beta \circ \beta' \Rightarrow \alpha = \alpha'$ .

Thus  $K: \pi_1(X \rightarrow x_0) \xrightarrow{\cong} \pi_1(Y, y_0)$  is injective.

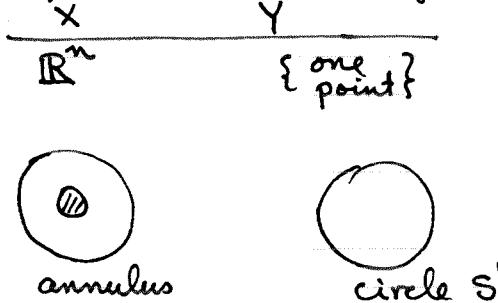
The remaining steps of the proof are to show that  $K$  is surjective (hence bijective), and then finally that it is a <sup>group</sup> homomorphism (hence an isomorphism).

(Back to deformation retracts.)

(12)

we don't talk about deforming spaces (which would require an imbedding space), we talk about deforming maps.

Other examples of same homotopy type spaces:



These examples show that being of "same homotopy type" allows dimensions of spaces  $X, Y$  to be different, no invertible map

If sets are homeomorphic, then they are of same homotopy type, ~~and conversely~~ ~~this means that~~ (but not the converse).

Fact: "Same homotopy type" is an equivalence relation.

Thm: If  $X$  and  $Y$  are of the same homotopy type, then  $\pi_1(X) = \pi_1(Y)$ .

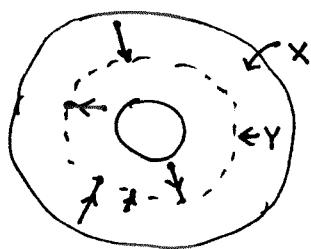
We won't prove this thm, but the proof is not very hard, and if you try it you will see the motivation for the definition of "same homotopy type". In any case, this theorem implies that homotopy groups are topological invariants.

So how to tell if spaces are of same homotopy type? May not be easy, but one case arises a lot in practice, occurs when  $Y$  is a subset of  $X$ . Suppose we have a family of maps parameterized by a deformation parameter  $t \in [0, 1]$  which is the identity at  $t=0$ , which maps  $X$  onto  $Y$  when  $t=1$ , and which leaves points of  $Y$  alone for all  $t$ .

Picture, example:

$X = \text{annulus}$   
 $Y = \text{circle (dotted)}$

(13)



shown are paths of a point  $x \in X$  under the map, as deformation parameter goes from 0 to 1.

official definition: let  $X, Y$  be topological spaces,  $Y \subset X$ .

A deformation retract is a map  $F: X \times [0,1] \rightarrow X$  such that

$$\begin{array}{l|l} F(x,0) = x & (\text{identity at } t=0) \\ \hline F(x,1) \in Y & (\text{into } Y \text{ at } t=1) \end{array} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} F(y,t) = y, \quad \forall t \in [0,1] \\ (\text{Y invariant, all } t). \end{array} \right.$$

Fact: If ~~also~~  $Y$  is a deformation retract of  $X$ , then  $X, Y$  are of same homotopy type. [ $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is the retraction at  $t=1$ ,  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  is the inclusion.]

Another Def. If  $x_0 \in X$  is the deformation retract of  $X$  (special case  $Y = \{x_0\} = \text{one point}$ ), then  $X$  is contractible. A contractible space is necessarily connected.

Follows immediately,

Corollary: If  $X$  is contractible, then  $\pi_1(X) = \{e\}$  (the trivial group).

Def. If  $\pi_1(X) = \{e\}$ , then  $X$  is simply connected.

Before going on, let's get some examples of fundamental groups, obtained by intuition if nothing else.

- (1) First,  $\pi_1(\mathbb{R}^n) = \{\text{id}\}$  (the trivial group), because all loops are contractible (the space is simply connected). This is obvious by drawing pictures,



- (1a) Note the special case  $n=0$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^0 = \text{one point} = \{\text{id}\}$ ,  $\pi_1(\text{one point}) = \{\text{id}\}$ .

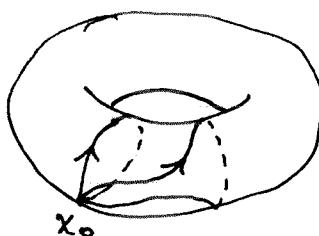
- (2) Next,  $\pi_1(S^1) = \mathbb{Z}$ , where the integer  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  is the "winding number" of the map. This is intuitively clear if you wrap a rubber band around a cylinder. We consider a more formal argument below.

- (3) Next,  $\pi_1(S^n) = \{\text{id}\}$  for  $n > 1$ . This is intuitively obvious for  $S^2$  (any closed loop on  $S^2$  can be contracted to a point):



and a similar logic works for  $S^n$  for higher  $n$ .

- (4) Next,  $\pi_1(T^2) = \mathbb{Z}^2$  (the 2-torus), as is intuitively clear by drawing pictures,



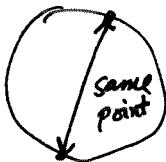
The homotopy class is determined by the ~~two~~ two "winding numbers".

This can be proved from the case  $\pi_1(S^1) = \mathbb{Z}$  by using the theorem that the fundamental group of the Cartesian product of two arcwise connected spaces is the Cartesian products of the groups,

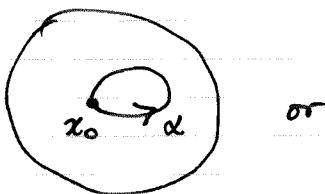
$$\pi_1(X \times Y) = \pi_1(X) \times \pi_1(Y).$$

The same thing shows that  $\pi_1(T^n) = \mathbb{Z}^n$  ( $n$  winding numbers on an  $n$ -torus), since  $T^n = S^1 \times \dots \times S^1$  ( $n$  times).  
(also mention cylinder =  $\mathbb{R} \times S^1$ ).

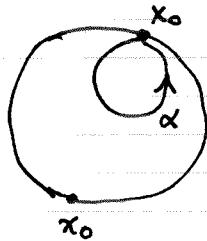
(5) Take the case of  $\mathbb{RP}^2$ , ~~circle~~<sup>disk</sup> with opposite bdry points identified.



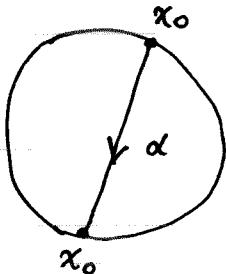
Easy to find contractible loops:



or



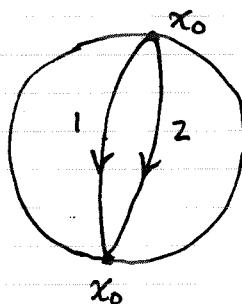
Here is a loop that is not contractible:



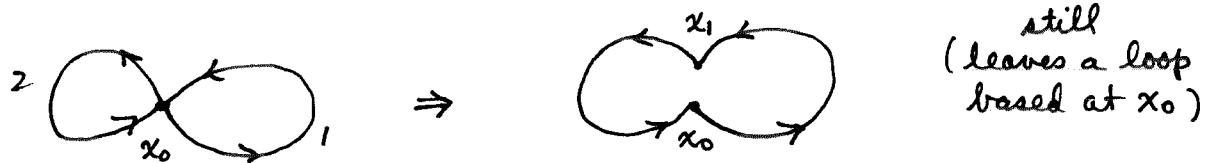
Because you can't bring the two attachment points together (they stay on opposite sides of the bdry under any contin. deformation).

So  $[\alpha]$  is a nontrivial element of  $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2, x_0)$ . Now look at  $[\alpha] * [\alpha]$ , equiv. class of loops that ~~are~~ are homotopic to traversing  $\alpha$  twice.

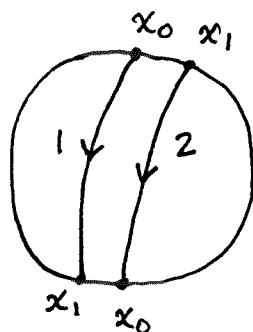
Label the 2 traversals 1, 2 to indicate order, and bow them out slightly to separate them:



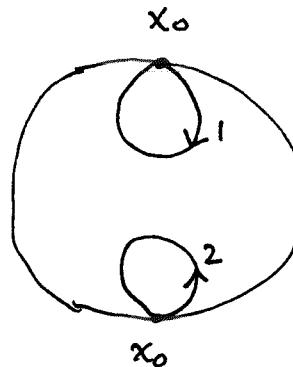
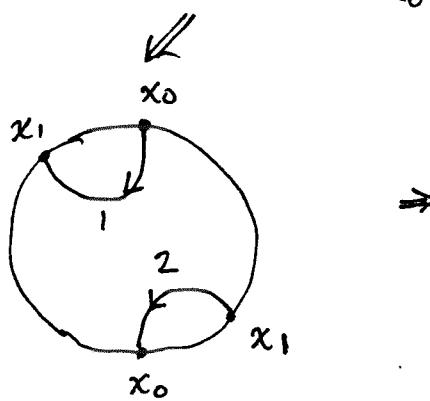
This path starts at  $x_0$ , passes through  $x_0$  a 2nd time, then comes back to  $x_0$  a 3rd time. Pull the path away from  $x_0$  on the second encounter, like this:



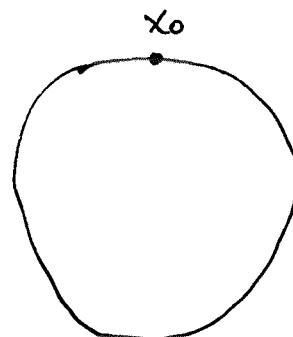
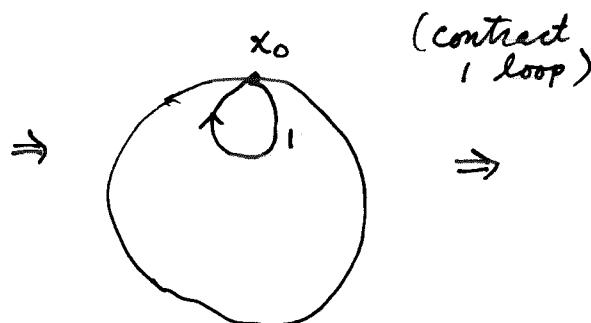
which on  $\mathbb{RP}^2$  looks like this:



Then deform further by moving  $x_1$  around to meet  $x_0$ :



(contract 2 loop)



(trivial loop at  $x_0$ ).

Thus  $[\alpha] * [\alpha] = [c]$  = trivial class, contractible.

Hence  $\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^2) = \mathbb{Z}_2$ . A similar argument shows that

$\pi_1(\mathbb{RP}^n) = \mathbb{Z}_2$ ,  $n \geq 2$ .

This  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  is responsible for the line defect (vortex) in a nematic liquid, that can annihilate when it meets another such line defect, leaving behind no defect at all. [It's not that vortices of "opposite charge" are annihilating, rather, there is only one charge and it obeys the rule  $1+1=0$ .]

While on the subject of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$ , note special case  $n=1$ . Recall,  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  is the sphere  $S^n$  with antipodal points identified; equivalently, it is the  $n$ -dimensional disk  $D^n$  (= the "northern hemisphere" of  $S^n$ ) with antipodal points on the boundary identified. (The disk  $D^n$  is region  $r \leq 1$  in  $n$ -dim. space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; it is the sphere  $S^{n-1}$  plus all interior points.) So, for  $n=1$ , we get a circle with opposite points identified, or  $D'$ , the 1-disk, which is a line segment with ~~opposite~~ endpoints identified:

$$\mathbb{R}P^1 = \begin{matrix} \text{circle with } \xrightarrow{\quad} \text{ and } \xleftarrow{\quad} \\ \frac{S'}{\sim} \end{matrix} = D' = \begin{matrix} \text{line segment with } \xleftarrow{\quad} \text{ and } \xrightarrow{\quad} \\ \frac{D'}{\sim} \end{matrix} = S^1$$

You might say the final circle is  $1/2$  as big as the first one.

Now is a good time to comment on the relationship between classical rotations and spin rotations in QM. A classical rotation is an element of  $SO(3)$ , a linear map of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  onto itself that preserves lengths, angles, and cross products. It takes 3 parameters to specify some  $R \in SO(3)$  (i.e.,  $SO(3)$  is a 3-dimensional manifold). These parameters can be specified in various ways. One is the Euler angles (often an ugly choice). Another is the axis-angle parameterization:  
(continued on p. 11).