

Last lecture we defined the singular homology $H_n X := H_n(X, \mathbb{Z})$ of a topological space X and computed $H_0 X \cong \mathbb{Z}$ for X path connected. Today we observe that less trivial calculations get hard fast: the impressive edifice of homological algebra, which we now begin to develop properly, exists largely to facilitate such calculations. Here long exact sequences are a crucial tool.

Example Recall that for a ring R , and chain complex $C \in \text{Ch.}(R)$, we defined the homology

$$H_n(C) := \frac{\text{Ker}(\partial_n: C_n \rightarrow C_{n-1})}{\text{Im}(\partial_{n+1}: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_n)}$$

as cycles (elements x with $\partial(x) = 0$) mod boundaries (y with x s.t. $y = \partial(x)$). This terminology originates in the case of the complex of abelian groups associated to a topological space X .

Let SC (singular chain complex) denote the functor

$$\text{Top} \xrightarrow{S} \underline{\text{SSet}} = [\Delta^{\text{op}}, \underline{\text{set}}] \xrightarrow{\text{val}} [\Delta^{\text{op}}, \underline{\text{Ab}}] \xrightarrow{\text{comp}} \text{Ch.}(\mathbb{Z})$$

from Lecture 12, so that $SC(X) \in \text{Ch.}(\mathbb{Z})$ and $H_n(X) := H_n SC(X)$.

Then cycles and boundaries in $SC(X)$ are "real" cycles and boundaries in X .

Example Let $\gamma: \Delta^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a loop in \mathbb{R}^n , i.e. $\gamma(1,0) = \gamma(0,1)$. Clearly γ is a cycle, i.e. $\gamma \in Z_1 SC(\mathbb{R}^n)$. It is a boundary if we can find some linear combination of singular 2-simplices (= triangles) in \mathbb{R}^n whose boundary is γ , i.e. if we can fill in the loop, in the way

that the standard 2-simplex $\iota: \Delta^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ (ι the inclusion) fills in the cycle which is its boundary

$$\partial_2 \left(\text{triangle in } \mathbb{R}^3 \right) = \sum_{i=0}^2 (-1)^i \iota \circ \Delta^{\varepsilon^i} \quad \text{where}$$

$\Delta^2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon^0, \varepsilon^1, \varepsilon^2: [1] &\rightarrow [2] & \Delta^{\varepsilon^0}: \Delta^1 &\rightarrow \Delta^2 \\ \cap & & \cap & \\ \mathbb{R}^2 & & \mathbb{R}^3 & \end{aligned}$$

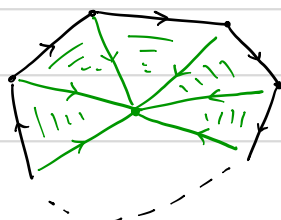
$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{\varepsilon^0}(x_0, x_1) &= (0, x_0, x_1) \\ \Delta^{\varepsilon^1}(x_0, x_1) &= (x_0, 0, x_1) \\ \Delta^{\varepsilon^2}(x_0, x_1) &= (x_0, x_1, 0) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \begin{array}{c} (0,0,1) \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ (0,1,0) \quad (1,0,0) \end{array} - \begin{array}{c} (0,0,1) \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ (1,0,0) \quad (1,0,0) \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} (0,0,1) \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ (1,0,0) \quad (0,1,0) \end{array}$$

$$= \begin{array}{c} \text{triangle with edges labeled } -1, +1, +1 \end{array}$$

read the -1 as reversing the orientation, making this a loop

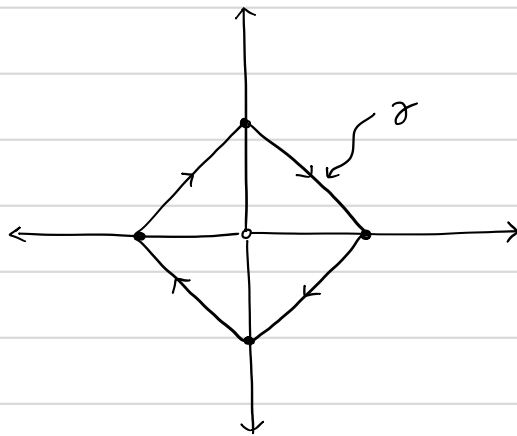
It is intuitively clear that any 1-cycle in \mathbb{R}^n (= element of $Z_1 \text{SC}(\mathbb{R}^n)$) is a boundary, and thus that $H_1(\mathbb{R}^n) = 0$, by erecting cones over the pieces of the 1-cycle. A similar trick works in every dimension, so in fact



$$H_n(\mathbb{R}^m) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & n=0 \\ 0 & n>0 \end{cases}$$

But it's fairly obvious that proving some n -cycle $x \in Z_n SC(X)$ in a complicated space X is not a boundary (and thus gives a nonzero homology class $[x] \in H_n X$) is going to be hard, if we try to argue directly.

Example Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ and let $\sigma \in Z_1 SC(X)$ be as shown



(3.1)

While it is intuitively clear $[\sigma] \neq 0$ in $H_1 X$, how to prove it?

In fact one can show that for $n > 1$ and $F \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a set of m points,

$$H_k(\mathbb{R}^n - F) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}^m & k = n - 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (3.2)$$

One of the most useful techniques for computing homology groups $H_n(X)$ are long exact sequences associated to subspaces $A \subseteq X$. One such long exact sequence is the main ingredient required to calculate $H_k(\mathbb{R}^n - F)$ (at least, in one standard approach, e.g. Dold's "Lectures on Algebraic Topology"). We turn now to a study of such long exact sequences.

Def^N Let R be a ring, and $C \in \text{Ch.}(R)$. A subcomplex of C is a family of submodules $D_n \subseteq C_n$ s.t. for all n , $\partial_n(D_n) \subseteq D_{n-1}$, making $(D_n, \partial_n|_{D_n})$ a complex. In this case the quotients C_n/D_n also form a complex with differential $\bar{\partial}_n: C_n/D_n \rightarrow C_{n-1}/D_{n-1}$, denoted C/D .

Ex 1 If $\iota: A \rightarrow X$ is an injective continuous map, then $SC(\iota): SCA \rightarrow SCX$ is injective in each degree, and thus defines a subcomplex of SCX .

Ex 2 A subcomplex is precisely a subobject in $\text{Ch.}(R)$. Find the zero object in $\text{Ch.}(R)$ and prove the quotient maps define a morphism of complexes $C \rightarrow C/D$ which is the cokernel of the inclusion $D \rightarrow C$.

Def^N The relative singular complex of (X, A) , with $A \subseteq X$ a subspace, is

$$SC(X, A) := SCX / SCA \in \text{Ch.}(\mathbb{Z}).$$

The relative homology is

$$H_n(X, A) := H_n SC(X, A). \quad (4.1)$$

Def^N Let (C, ∂) be a chain complex of R -modules. We say C is exact in degree $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ if $H_n C = 0$. We say C is exact if $H_n C = 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. A short exact sequence is a pair $\mathcal{J}: M \rightarrow N$, $\mathcal{Y}: N \rightarrow P$ of morphisms of R -modules with $\mathcal{Y} \circ \mathcal{J} = 0$ such that the complex

$$0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{\mathcal{J}} N \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Y}} P \rightarrow 0 \quad (4.2)$$

is exact, that is, \mathcal{J} is injective, \mathcal{Y} is surjective and $\text{Im}(\mathcal{J}) = \text{Ker}(\mathcal{Y})$.

Def^N A short exact sequence in $\text{Ch}_*(R)$ is a pair of morphisms of complexes $\gamma: C \rightarrow D$, $\psi: D \rightarrow E$ with $\gamma \circ \psi = 0$ (meaning $\gamma_n \circ \psi_n = 0$ for all n) and the morphisms $\gamma_n: C_n \rightarrow D_n$, $\psi_n: D_n \rightarrow E_n$ forming a short exact sequence for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$0 \longrightarrow C_n \xrightarrow{\gamma_n} D_n \xrightarrow{\psi_n} E_n \longrightarrow 0.$$

In this case we write

$$0 \longrightarrow C \xrightarrow{\gamma} D \xrightarrow{\psi} E \longrightarrow 0 \quad (5.1)$$

for the short exact sequence.

Ex 3 Prove in the setting of (4.2) that $P \cong N/M$, and in the setting of (5.1) that $E \cong D/C$. We'll return to this "properly" once we have understood abelian categories.

Theorem A Given a short exact sequence of complexes of R -modules

$$0 \longrightarrow C \xrightarrow{\gamma} D \xrightarrow{\psi} E \longrightarrow 0 \quad (5.2)$$

there are R -linear maps $\{\omega_n: H_n E \rightarrow H_{n-1} C\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ called connecting morphisms with the property that the sequence

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \xrightarrow{\omega_{n+1}} & H_n C & \xrightarrow{H_n \gamma} & H_n D & \xrightarrow{H_n \psi} & H_n E \\ & \searrow \omega_n & & & & & \downarrow \omega_{n-1} \\ & & H_{n-1} C & \xrightarrow{H_{n-1} \gamma} & H_{n-1} D & \xrightarrow{H_{n-1} \psi} & H_{n-1} E \\ & & & & & & \cdots \end{array} \quad (5.3)$$

is an exact complex.

This is called the long exact homology sequence associated to (5.1).

We will go into the proof next lecture, but first let us see how useful it is!

Example Let $A \subseteq X$ be a subspace with inclusion $i: A \rightarrow X$. By definition there is a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow SA \rightarrow SX \rightarrow S^X/S_A =: S(X,A) \rightarrow 0 \quad (6.1)$$

and hence a long exact sequence

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \rightarrow & H_n A & \rightarrow & H_n X & \rightarrow & H_n(X,A) \\ & & \searrow & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & H_{n-1} A & \rightarrow & H_{n-1} X & \rightarrow & H_{n-1}(X,A) \\ & & & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & & & H_1 A & \rightarrow & H_1 X \rightarrow H_1(X,A) \\ & & & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & & & H_0 A & \rightarrow & H_0 X \rightarrow H_0(X,A) \rightarrow 0. \end{array} \quad (6.2)$$

Example Let us apply (6.2) to $X = \mathbb{R}^n$, $A = \mathbb{R}^n - F$, F a finite number of points, $H_k(\mathbb{R}^n) = 0$ for $k > 0$ (which is easy) and $H_0(\mathbb{R}^n) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ (which we proved). Then (6.2) becomes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \cdots & \rightarrow & H_k(\mathbb{R}^n - F) & \rightarrow & 0 & \rightarrow & H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \\ & & \searrow & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & H_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n - F) & \rightarrow & 0 & \rightarrow & H_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \\ & & & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & & & H_1(\mathbb{R}^n - F) & \rightarrow & 0 \rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \\ & & & & \searrow & & \searrow \\ & & & & H_0(\mathbb{R}^n - F) & \rightarrow & \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow H_0(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \rightarrow 0 \end{array} \quad (6.3)$$

From exactness we deduce

$$H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \cong H_{k-1}(\mathbb{R}^n - F) \quad k > 1 \quad (7.1)$$

So it suffices now to compute $H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F)$ which is done by reducing to the case $|F|=1$ where $H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) \cong H_k(\mathbb{B}^n, S^{n-1})$, and the latter is computed directly, as $H_k(\Delta^n, \partial\Delta^n)$. See p. 56 of Dold's "Lectures on Algebraic Topology". The upshot is ($n > 1$)

$$H_k(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n - F) = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq n \\ \mathbb{Z}^{|F|} & k = n \end{cases}$$

Hence by (7.1) we have (as stated in (3.2) above)

$$H_k(\mathbb{R}^n - F) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}^{|F|} & k = n-1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In the case $n=2$, $F = \{(0,0)\}$ the generator of $H_1(\mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0,0)\})$ is the class of the cycle γ in (3.1). Since $H_0(\mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0,0)\}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ (generated by the class of any point) and $H_k(\mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0,0)\}) = 0$ for $k > 1$ this completely calculates the homology.

Conclusion The point of all this is not that I want you to be able to compute these homology groups yourself. I think it is important, however, that you have seen a sketch of a genuine application of the homological methods to the kind of problem they were invented to solve.