# A Certain Exact Sequence 

( ${ }^{1}$

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# A CERTAIN EXACT SEQUENCE 

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## Introduction

In this paper we give detailed proofs of the theorems announced in $^{1}$ [1]. These theorems concern, first of all, an exact sequence, $\Sigma(K)$, where $K$ is a (connected)

[^0]complex. ${ }^{2}$ The sequence $\Sigma(K)$ is the same as $\Sigma$ in $\S 1$ below if
$$
C_{n+1}=\pi_{n+1}\left(K^{n+1}, K^{n}\right), \quad A_{n}=\pi_{n}\left(K^{n}\right)
$$
$$
(n \geqq 2)
$$
$\beta, j$ are the (homotopy) boundary and injection operators and $C_{2}=j A_{2}, C_{n}=$ $A_{n}=0$ if $n<2$. It is shown to be a homotopy invariant and a fortiori a topological invariant of $K$.

Various realizability theorems are proved, which show that, if $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ and $\operatorname{dim} K \leqq 4$, the part of $\Sigma(K)$ which we call $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ is an algebraic equivalent of the homotopy type of $K$. Thus $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ may be used to replace the more complicated cohomology ring, $R(K)$, which was defined in [3]. Moreover $\Sigma_{4}(K)$, besides being simpler, is in some other ways better than $R(K)$. For $\Sigma_{4}(K)$, unlike $R(K)$, is defined for infinite complexes. Besides this, $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ includes $\pi_{3}(K)$ as a component part and therefore yields more information than $R(K)$ concerning homotopy classes of maps $K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$. Thus the theory of $\Sigma_{4}(K)$, unlike that of $R(K)$, includes the homotopy classification of maps $S^{3} \rightarrow S^{2}$, where $S^{n}$ is an $n$-sphere. ${ }^{3}$ But $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ does not include $\pi_{4}(K)$ and is incapable of distinguishing between the two classes of maps $S^{4} \rightarrow S^{3}$. A step towards including $\pi_{4}(K)$ in a purely algebraic system would be to calculate $\pi_{1}\left(S_{1}^{2} \cup S_{2}^{2}\right)$, where $S_{1}^{2} \cap S_{2}^{2}$ is a single point.

On replacing $H_{4}(K)$ by $H_{4}(K) / \mathrm{i} \pi_{4}(K)$ we obtain a very simple algebraic expression for the 4 -type, as defined in $\mathrm{CH} I$, of a simply connected complex. ${ }^{4}$

Another set of theorems concerns a certain group, $\Gamma(A)$, which is constructed from a given Abelian group $A$. We prove that $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \approx \Gamma_{3}$, where $\Pi_{2}, \Gamma_{3}$ are taken from $\Sigma(K)$. When $K$ is a finite, simply connected complex we use $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$ to express the secondary modular boundary homomorphism,

$$
\mathfrak{b}(m): H_{4}(m) \rightarrow \Gamma_{3} / m \Gamma_{3}
$$

in terms of the Pontrjagin square map

$$
\mathfrak{p}: H^{2}(K, A) \rightarrow H^{4}(K, \Gamma(A)),
$$

which is defined in Chapter IV. Our expression for $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ shows that, if $K$ is given in a suitable form (e.g. as a simplicial complex, which is known to be simply connected) $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ can be calculated constructively.

In Chapter V we show how the domain of definition of $\Sigma(K)$ can be extended from the category ${ }^{5}$ of CW-complexes to the category of all arcwise connected

[^1]spaces. The method used is to realize the singular complex of a space, $X$, by a CW-complex, $K(X)$, which is seen to be of the same homotopy type as $X$ in case $X$ is itself a CW-complex. We then define $\Sigma(X)$ as $\Sigma\{K(X)\}$, if $X$ is any arcwise connected space.
In presenting these theorems we have, as far as possible, separated the purely algebraic part of the theory from the geometrical applications. The result is that Chapters I and II are purely algebraic. The geometrical applications are given in Chapters III, IV and V. In the latter we refer to certain "topological" and "homotopy" categories, which we define as follows. The topological category of all (topological) spaces will mean the one in which the objects are all spaces and the mappings are all maps of one space into another. The homotopy category of all spaces will mean the one in which the mappings are all homotopy classes of maps of one space into another. Similarly we define the topological and homotopy categories of all (geometrical) complexes of any specified kind. Here a complex means a pair $(X, K)$, where $X$ is the space which is covered by a complex $K$. A map of ( $X, K$ ) into a complex ( $Y, L$ ) means a triple ( $\phi, K, L$ ), where $\phi$ maps $X$ into $Y$, and a homotopy class of maps, $(X, K) \rightarrow(Y, L)$, has a similar meaning. We shall denote ( $X, K$ ) by the single letter $K$ and $\phi: K \rightarrow L$ will stand for ( $\phi, K, L$ ).

We shall introduce a number of standard operators, $\beta, j, k, l$ etc., which we shall denote by the same letters, with or without subscripts, in whatever system they occur. With the exception of the deformation operators, in $\S 3$ for example, a subscript attached to an operator, as in $\beta_{n}: C_{n} \rightarrow A_{n-1}$, will always agree with the one attached to the group which is being operated on. All our groups, except groups of operators, will be additive and we shall denote zero homomorphisms, $C \rightarrow 0$, and identical automorphisms $C \rightarrow C$, by 0 and 1 .

## Chapter I. The Sequence $\Sigma(C, A)$

## 1. Definition of $\Sigma(C, A)$

Let $(C, A)$ denote a sequence of arbitrary Abelian ${ }^{6}$ groups, $C_{n}, A_{n}$, together with a sequence of homomorphisms,

$$
\cdots \xrightarrow{j} C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{n} \xrightarrow{j} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{n-1} \xrightarrow{j} \cdots
$$

such that $j_{n} A_{n}=\beta_{n}^{-1}(0)$. In general $\beta_{n} C_{n} \neq \bar{j}_{n-1}^{1}(0)$. We assume that $C_{n}, A_{n}$ are defined for every $n=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \cdots$. Let

$$
d_{n+1}=j_{n} \beta_{n+1}: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n} .
$$

Then $d_{n} d_{n+1}=0$, since $\beta_{n} j_{n}=0$. Let $Z_{n}=d_{n}^{-1}(0)$. Then $j A_{n} \subset Z_{n}$, since $d_{n} j_{n}=$ $j_{n-1} \beta_{n} j_{n}=0$, and $d C_{n+1} \subset j A_{n}$. Let

$$
\Gamma_{n}=j_{n}^{-1}(0), \quad \Pi_{n}=A_{n} / \beta C_{n+1}, \quad H_{n}=Z_{n} / d C_{n+1}
$$

[^2]and let
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
i_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}, \quad k_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}, \quad l_{n}: Z_{n} \rightarrow H_{n} \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

be the identical map of $\Gamma_{n}$ and the natural homomorphisms of $A_{n}, Z_{n}$. Notice that the sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma_{n} \xrightarrow{i} A_{n} \xrightarrow{j} C_{n} \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{n-1} \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is (internally) ${ }^{7}$ exact. Notice also that $j_{n} k_{n}^{-1}(0)=j_{n} \beta_{n+1} C_{n+1}=l_{n}^{1}(0)$. Therefore a homomorphism, $\mathfrak{i}_{n}: \Pi_{n} \rightarrow H_{n}$, is defined by $\mathfrak{i}_{n} k_{n}=l_{n} j_{n}$.

Let $z \in Z_{n+1}$. Then $j_{n} \beta_{n+1} z=0$, whence $\beta_{n+1} z \in \Gamma_{n}$, Since

$$
\beta_{n+1} d_{n+2}=\beta_{n+1} j_{n+1} \beta_{n+2}=0
$$

it follows that $\beta_{n+1} \mid Z_{n+1}$ induces a homomorphism $\mathfrak{b}_{n+1}: H_{n+1} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n}$. Therefore a sequence of homomorphisms,

$$
\Sigma: \quad \ldots \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} H_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{b}} \Gamma_{n} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} \Pi_{n} \xrightarrow{\dot{\mathrm{i}}} H_{n} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{b}} \Gamma_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} \cdots
$$

is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{blz}=\beta z, \quad \mathrm{i}=k i, \quad \mathrm{j} k=l j . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We describe $\mathfrak{b}$ as the secondary boundary operator. We shall sometimes write $\Sigma=\Sigma(C, A)$.

Theorem 1. The sequence $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ is exact.
It follows from (1.3) and the exactness of (1.2) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathfrak{i} b l z=\mathfrak{i} \beta z=k \beta z=0 \\
& \mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{i}=\mathfrak{j} k i=l j i=0 \\
& \mathfrak{b} \mathfrak{j} k=\mathfrak{b} l j=\beta j=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{i b}=0, \mathfrak{i} i=0, \mathfrak{b j}=0$.
Let $\mathfrak{i} \gamma=k \gamma=0$, where $\gamma \epsilon \Gamma_{n}$. Then $\gamma=\beta c$, for some $c \epsilon C_{n+1}$, since $k_{n}^{-1}(0)=$ $\beta C_{n+1}$. Moreover $d c=j \beta c=j \gamma=0$. Therefore $c \epsilon Z_{n+1}, l c \in H_{n+1}$ and we have

$$
\gamma=\beta c=\mathfrak{b l c} \in \mathfrak{b} H_{n+1}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{i}_{n}^{-1}(0)=\mathfrak{b} H_{n+1}$.
Let $\mathfrak{j} k a=l j a=0$, where $a \in A_{n}$. Then $j a=d c=j \beta c$, for some $c \in C_{n+1}$, since $l_{n}^{-1}(0)=d C_{n+1}$. Therefore $a=\gamma+\beta c$, where $\gamma \in \Gamma_{n}$, and

$$
k a=k \gamma+k \beta c=\mathfrak{i} \gamma \in \mathfrak{i} \Gamma_{n}
$$

Therefore $\dot{\mathrm{i}}_{n}^{-1}(0)=\mathrm{i} \Gamma_{n}$.
Let $\mathfrak{b l} z=\beta z=0$, where $z \in Z_{n}$. Then $z=j a$, for some $a \in A_{n}$, since $\beta_{n}^{-1}(0)=$ $j A_{n}$. Therefore

$$
l z=l j a=\mathrm{j} k a \in \mathrm{i}_{n}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{b}_{n}^{-1}(0)=\mathfrak{i} \Pi_{n}$ and the theorem is proved.

[^3]
## 2. The secondary modular boundary operator

Let $m>0$ and assume that, for some particular value of $n$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { (a) }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m z=0 \text { implies } z=0, \text { where } z \in Z_{n-1} \\
\text { (b) } \\
j A_{n-1}=Z_{n-1} .
\end{array}\right. \tag{2.1}
\end{align*}
$$

Let

$$
H_{n}(m)=\left\{d_{n}^{1}\left(m Z_{n-1}\right) / d C_{n+1}\right\}_{m},
$$

where $G_{m}=G / m G$ if $G$ is any additive Abelian group. We proceed to define what we call the secondary modular boundary homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{b}_{n}(m): H_{n}(m) \rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1, m}=\Gamma_{n-1} / m \Gamma_{n-1} . \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $c_{*} \in H_{n}(m)$ and let $c \in C_{n}$ be any representative of $c_{*}$. Then $d c=m z=$ $m j a$, for some $a \epsilon A_{n-1}$, by (2.1b). Therefore $j(\beta c-m a)=0$, whence $\beta c-m a \epsilon$ $\Gamma_{n-1}$. If $a^{\prime} \in A_{n-1}$ is any other element such that $m j a^{\prime}=d c=m j a$ it follows from (2.1a) that $\mathrm{j}\left(a^{\prime}-a\right)=0$. Therefore $a^{\prime}=\gamma+a$, where $\gamma \in \Gamma_{n-1}$, and $\beta c-m a^{\prime}=(\beta c-m a)-m \gamma$. Therefore the coset, $(\beta c-m a)_{m} \in \Gamma_{n-1, m}$, which contains $\beta c-m a$, is uniquely determined by $c$, where $a \in A_{n-1}$ is an arbitrary element such that $m j a=d c$.

If $c^{\prime} \in C_{n}$ is any other representative of $c_{*}$, then $c^{\prime}=c+m c_{1}+d c_{2}$, where $c_{1} \in C_{n}, c_{2} \in c_{n+1}$, and

$$
d c^{\prime}=d c+d m c_{1}=j m\left(a+\beta c_{1}\right) .
$$

Moreover $\beta c^{\prime}-m\left(a+\beta c_{1}\right)=\beta c-m a$. Therefore a single-valued map (2.2), which is obviously a homomorphism, is defined by

$$
\mathfrak{b}_{n}(m) c_{*}=(\beta c-m a)_{m},
$$

where $c \epsilon C_{n}$ is any representative of $c_{*}$ and $j m a=d c$.
As an alternative to (2.1a), let $j: A_{n-1} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ have a right inverse, ${ }^{8} u: Z_{n-1} \rightarrow$ $A_{n-1}$. Then $j(\beta-u d)=0$, whence $(\beta-u d) C_{n} \subset \Gamma_{n-1}$. We define $\mathfrak{b}(m): H_{n}(m)$ $\rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1, m}$ by $\mathfrak{b}(m) c_{*}=\{(\beta-u d) c\}_{m}$, where $c \in d^{-1}\left(m Z_{n-1}\right)$. The homomorphism $u$ is determined by $j$, modulo an arbitrary homomorphism $\theta: Z_{n-1} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1}$. If $d c=m z$ we have $\{\beta-(u+\theta) d\} c=(\beta-u d) c-m \theta z$. Therefore $u$ and $u+\theta$ determine the same homomorphism $\mathfrak{b}(m)$, which is therefore determined uniquely by the system $(C, A)$. If (2.1a) is also satisfied this definition of $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ is equivalent to the previous one.

## 3. Induced homomorphisms of $\Sigma$

Let $\Sigma^{\prime}$ be a sequence of the same sort as $\Sigma$. By a homomorphism (isomorphism),

$$
F=(\mathfrak{h}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{f}): \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}
$$

[^4]we mean a family of homomorphisms (isomorphisms) ${ }^{9}$
$$
\mathfrak{b}_{n+1}: H_{n+1} \rightarrow H_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad \mathfrak{g}_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}, \quad f_{n}: \Pi_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}^{\prime},
$$
such that
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{b h}=\mathfrak{g b}, \quad \mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{g}=\mathfrak{f i}, \quad \mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{f}=\mathfrak{h} \mathfrak{i}, \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $\mathfrak{b}: H_{n+1}^{\prime} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ etc. are the homomorphisms in $\Sigma^{\prime}$.
Let ( $C^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime}$ ) be a system of the same sort as ( $C, A$ ). Then a homomorphism (isomorphism)

$$
\begin{equation*}
(h, f):(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

will mean a family of homomorphisms (isomorphisms),

$$
h_{n+1}: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad f_{n}: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta h=f \beta, \quad j f=h j . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that $d h=j \beta h=j f \beta=h j \beta=h d$ in consequence of (3.3). Also $f \Gamma_{n} \subset \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ since $j f i=h j i=0$, where $i: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}$ is the identical map.

Let (3.2) be a given homomorphism and let $\Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$. Then $k f \beta=$ $k \beta h=0, l h d=l d h=0$. Therefore $h, f$ induce homomorphisms

$$
\mathfrak{h}: H_{n+1} \rightarrow H_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad \mathfrak{g}: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}, \quad \cdot \mathrm{f}: \Pi_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}^{\prime}
$$

according to the rules

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{h l z}=l h z, \quad i \mathfrak{g}=f i, \quad f k=k f \quad\left(z \in Z_{n+1}\right) \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (1.3), (3.3) and (3.4) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{b h l z} & =\mathfrak{b l h z}=\beta h z=\mathfrak{f} \beta z \\
& =\mathfrak{g} \beta z=\mathfrak{g} b l z, \\
\mathfrak{i} \mathfrak{g} & =k i \mathfrak{g} \\
\mathfrak{i} f k & =\mathfrak{j} k f=\mathfrak{j} k=l j \mathfrak{l} \mathfrak{f}=\mathfrak{f i} \\
& =\mathfrak{h} \mathfrak{j} k .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism. We call it the homomorphism induced by ( $h, f$ ).

By a deformation operator, $\xi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$, we mean a family of arbitrary homomorphisms, $\xi_{n+1}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n+1}^{\prime}$. We describe two homomorphisms,

$$
(h, f), \quad\left(h^{*}, f^{*}\right):(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)
$$

as homotopic, and write $(h, f) \simeq\left(h^{*}, f^{*}\right)$, if, and only if, there is a deformation operator, $\xi: C \rightarrow C^{\prime}$, such that

[^5]\[

\left\{$$
\begin{array}{l}
h_{n}^{*}-h_{n}=d_{n+1} \xi_{n+1}+\xi_{n} d_{n}  \tag{3.5}\\
f_{n}^{*}-f_{n}=\beta_{n+1} \xi_{n+1} j_{n}
\end{array}
$$\right.
\]

Since $l d=0, j i=0, k \beta=0$ it follows from (3.5) that $l h^{*} z=l h z, f^{*} i=f i$, $k f^{*}=k f$. Therefore ( $h, f$ ) and ( $h^{*}, f^{*}$ ) induce the same homomorphism $\Sigma(C, A) \rightarrow \Sigma\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$.

Let $(C, A)$ and ( $C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}$ ) both satisfy (2.1). Let $c \in \bar{d}_{n}^{-1}\left(m Z_{n-1}\right)$ and let $d c=m z$. Let $Z_{n-1}^{\prime} \subset C_{n-1}^{\prime}$ and $H_{n}^{\prime}(m)$ be defined in the same way as $Z_{n-1}$ and $H_{n}(m)$. Then $h Z_{n-1} \subset Z_{n-1}^{\prime}$, since $d h=h d$, and $d h c=h d c=m h z$. Therefore $h_{n}$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\mathfrak{h}(m): H_{n}(m) \rightarrow H_{n}^{\prime}(m)
$$

according to the rule $\mathfrak{h}(m) c_{*}=(h c)_{*}$, where $c_{*}$ and $(h c)_{*}$ are the elements of $H_{n}(m)$ and $H_{n}^{\prime}(m)$, which correspond to $c$ and $h c$. Also $g$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\mathrm{g}(m): \Gamma_{n-1, m} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1, m}^{\prime}
$$

such that $\mathfrak{g}(m) \gamma_{m}=(\mathrm{g} \gamma)_{m}$, where $\gamma_{m},(\mathrm{~g} \gamma)_{m}$ are the cosets which contain $\gamma, \mathrm{g} \gamma$. By the definition of $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ we have $\mathfrak{b}(m) c_{*}=(\beta c-m a)_{m}$ where $a \in A_{n-1}$ is such that $d c=m j a$. Then $d h c=h d c=m h j a=m j f a$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{b}(m)(h c)_{*} & =(\beta h c-m f a)_{m} \\
& =\{f(\beta c-m a)\}_{m} \\
& =\{\mathfrak{g}(\beta c-m a)\}_{m} \\
& =\mathfrak{g}(m) \mathfrak{b}(m) c_{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ is natural in the sense that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{b}(m) \mathfrak{h}(m)=\mathfrak{g}(m) \mathfrak{b}(m) \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Obviously ( $h, f$ ) and ( $h^{*}, f^{*}$ ) induce the same homomorphisms $\mathfrak{h}(m), \mathfrak{g}(m)$ if $(h, f) \simeq\left(h^{*}, f^{*}\right)$.

Let $j: A_{n-1} \rightarrow C_{n-1}$ and $j: A_{n-1}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{n-1}^{\prime}$ have right inverses, $u$ and $u^{\prime}$, let $j A_{n-1}$ $=Z_{n-1}$ and let $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ be defined by the second method in $\S 2$. Since $j\left(f u-u^{\prime} h\right)$ $=h j u-h=0$ it follows that $f u-u^{\prime} h=\phi: Z_{n-1} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1}^{\prime}$. Let $d c=m z$, where $c \in C_{n}$. Then $f(\beta-u d) c=\left(\beta-u^{\prime} d\right) h c-m \phi z$, whence $\mathfrak{g}(m) \mathfrak{b}(m)=\mathfrak{b}(m) \mathfrak{h}(m)$.

## 4. Combinatorial realizability

By a composite chain system we shall mean a system $(C, A)$, of the kind introduced in $\S 1$, such that
(a) $C_{r}=A_{r}=0$ if $r<2$
(b) each $C_{n}$ is a free Abelian group.

Let $(C, A)$ be a composite chain system. Then $\Sigma(C, A)$ terminates with $H_{2} \rightarrow 0$,
followed by a series of homomorphisms, $0 \rightarrow 0$, which we discard. Let

$$
\Sigma^{\prime}: \cdots \xrightarrow{\dot{1}} H_{n+1}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{b}} \Gamma_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} \Pi_{n}^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\dot{1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\dot{\mathfrak{l}}} H_{2}^{\prime} \rightarrow 0
$$

be an exact sequence in which the groups are Abelian, but otherwise arbitrary. A composite chain system ( $C, A$ ) will be called a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ if, and only if, $\Sigma(C, A) \approx \Sigma^{\prime}$.

Theorem $2 . \Sigma^{\prime}$ has a combinatorial realization.
Assume that we have constructed a composite chain system ( $C, A$ ), and homomorphisms

$$
l_{n+1}^{\prime}: Z_{n+1} \rightarrow H_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad \mathfrak{g}_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \approx \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}, \quad k_{n}^{\prime}: A_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}^{\prime}
$$

for every $n=1,2, \cdots$, such that
where, as usual, $z \in Z_{n+1}$ and $i_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}$ is the identical map. Then it follows from (4.1b) that isomorphisms and homomorphisms,

$$
\mathfrak{G}_{n+1}: H_{n+1} \approx H_{n+1}^{\prime}, \quad \mathfrak{f}_{n}: \Pi_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}^{\prime} \quad(n=1,2, \cdots),
$$

are defined by $\mathfrak{G l}=l^{\prime}, \mathfrak{f} k=k^{\prime}$, where $H_{n+1}, \Pi_{n}$ are in $\Sigma=\Sigma(C, A)$. It follows from (4.1a) and (1.3) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{b h l}=\mathfrak{b} l^{\prime} z & =\mathfrak{g} \beta z=\mathfrak{g} \mathfrak{b l z} \\
\mathfrak{i g} & =k^{\prime} i=\mathfrak{f l} k=\mathfrak{f i} \\
\mathfrak{i f l} & =\mathfrak{j} k^{\prime}=l^{\prime} j=\mathfrak{h l j}=\mathfrak{h} \mathfrak{j} k .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{b} \mathfrak{h}=\mathfrak{g b}$ etc. and $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ is a homomorphism. Since $\mathfrak{b}_{n+1}, \mathfrak{g}_{n}$ are isomorphisms (onto) for every $n$, so if $\mathfrak{f}_{n}$, by (7.5) on p. 435 of [17]. Therefore $(C, A)$ is a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma^{\prime}$.

We now construct ( $C, A$ ) inductively, starting with $C_{1}=A_{0}=0$. Let $r \geqq 1$ and assume that we have constructed the groups and homomorphisms,

$$
C_{r} \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{r-1} \xrightarrow{j} C_{r-1} \xrightarrow{\beta} \cdots \xrightarrow{\beta} A_{0},
$$

likewise $l_{n+1}^{\prime}, k_{n}^{\prime}$, so as to satisfy (4.1) for $n=0, \cdots, r-1$. Let $\Gamma_{r}, B_{r}$ be any groups which are isomorphic to $\Gamma_{r}^{\prime}, \beta_{r}^{-1}(0)$ and let $g_{r}: \Gamma_{r} \approx \Gamma_{r}^{\prime}, u: \beta_{r}^{-1}(0) \approx B_{r}$ be any isomorphisms. We define $A_{r}$ and $j_{r}$ by $^{10}$

$$
A_{r}=\Gamma_{r}+B_{r}, \quad j_{r}(\gamma+b)=u^{-1} b \quad\left(\gamma \in \Gamma_{r}, b \in B_{r}\right) .
$$

Then $\Gamma_{r}=j_{r}^{-1}(0)$ and $j_{r} A_{r}=\beta_{r}^{-1}(0)$. Since $C_{r}$ is a free Abelian group so are $\beta_{r}^{-1}(0)$ and $B_{r}$. Let $\left\{b_{\lambda}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $B_{r}$. It follows from (4.1a),

[^6]with $n=r-1$, that $\mathfrak{b}_{r} l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r}=g_{r-1} \beta_{r} j_{r}=0$. Therefore $l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r} b_{\lambda}=\dot{j}_{r} x_{\lambda}^{\prime}$, for some $x_{\lambda}^{\prime} \in \Pi_{r}^{\prime}$ by the exactness of $\Sigma^{\prime}$. We define $k_{r}^{\prime}: A_{r} \rightarrow \Pi_{r}^{\prime}$ by
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{r}^{\prime}\left(\gamma+b_{\lambda}\right)=\mathfrak{i}_{r} g_{r} \gamma+x_{\lambda}^{\prime} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

Then $\dot{j}_{r} k_{r}^{\prime} \gamma=0=l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r} \gamma$ and $\dot{j}_{r} k_{r}^{\prime} b_{\lambda}=l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r} b_{\lambda}$. Also $k_{r}^{\prime} i_{r}=\mathfrak{i}_{r} g_{r}$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{i}_{r} g_{r}=k_{r}^{\prime} i_{r}, \quad \mathfrak{i}_{r} k_{r}^{\prime}=l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r} \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\left\{y_{\mu}\right\}$ be a set of elements which generate $H_{r+1}^{\prime}$. Let $Z_{r+1}$ be a free Abelian group with a set of free generators, $\left\{z_{\mu}\right\}$, in a (1-1) correspondence, $z_{\mu} \rightarrow y_{\mu}$, with $\left\{y_{\mu}\right\}$. Let $l_{r+1}^{\prime}: Z_{r+1} \rightarrow H_{r+1}^{\prime}$ be defined by $l_{r+1}^{\prime} z_{\mu}=y_{\mu}$. Then $l_{r+1}^{\prime} Z_{r+1}=H_{r+1}^{\prime}$. Let $P_{r+1}$ be any group such that $v: P_{r+1} \approx l_{r}^{\prime-1}(0) \subset Z_{r}$ and let $C_{r+1}=$ $Z_{r+1}+P_{r+1}$. Since $C_{r}$ is free Abelian so are $l_{r}^{\prime-1}(0), P_{r+1}$ and hence $C_{r+1}$. Let $\left\{p_{\sigma}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $P_{r+1}$. Since $v P_{r+1}=l_{r}^{\prime-1}(0)$ it follows from (4.1a), with $n=r-1$, that

$$
\beta_{r} v p_{\sigma}=\mathrm{g}_{r-1}^{-1} \mathrm{~b}_{r} l_{r}^{\prime} v p_{\sigma}=0
$$

Since $j_{r} A_{r}=\beta_{r}^{-1}(0)$ it follows that $v p_{\sigma}=j_{r} a_{\sigma}$ for some $a_{\sigma} \in A_{r}$ and from (4.3) that $\dot{j}_{r} k_{r}^{\prime} a_{\sigma}=l_{r}^{\prime} j_{r} a_{\sigma}=l_{r}^{\prime} v p_{\sigma}=0$. Therefore there is a $\gamma_{\sigma}^{\prime} \in \Gamma_{r}^{\prime}$ such that $k_{r}^{\prime} a_{\sigma}=$ $\mathfrak{i}_{r} \gamma_{\sigma}^{\prime}=k_{r}^{\prime} \gamma_{\sigma}$, where $\gamma_{\sigma}=\mathrm{g}_{r}^{-1} \gamma_{\sigma}^{\prime}$. Also it follows from (4.3) and the exactness of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ that

$$
k_{r}^{\prime} \mathfrak{g}_{r}^{-1} \mathfrak{b}_{r+1} l_{r+1}^{\prime} z=\mathfrak{i}_{r} \mathfrak{b}_{r+1} l_{r+1}^{\prime} z=0
$$

We define $\beta_{r+1}$ by

$$
\beta_{r+1}\left(z+p_{\sigma}\right)=\mathfrak{g}_{r}^{-1} \mathfrak{b}_{r+1} l_{r+1}^{\prime} z+\left(a_{\sigma}-\gamma_{\sigma}\right)
$$

Then $d_{r+1}\left(z+p_{\sigma}\right)=j_{r} \beta_{r+1}\left(z+p_{\sigma}\right)=j_{r} a_{\sigma}=v p_{\sigma}$, whence $d_{r+1}^{-1}(0)=Z_{r+1}$ and $d_{r+1} C_{r+1}=l_{r}^{\prime-1}(0)$. Also $k_{r}^{\prime} \beta_{r+1}=0$ and $\mathfrak{g}_{r} \beta_{r+1} z=\mathfrak{b}_{r+1} l_{r+1}^{\prime} z$. Therefore (4.1) are satisfied when $n=r$ and the induction is complete.

Addendum. The combinatorial realization, $(C, A)$, of $\Sigma^{\prime}$ may be constructed so that
(a) $l_{n}^{\prime}: Z_{n} \approx H_{n}^{\prime}$ if $H_{n}^{\prime}$ is free Abelian.
(b) The rank of $C_{n}$ is finite if both $H_{n}^{\prime}, H_{n-1}^{\prime}$ have finite sets of generators.

To prove this we assume, as part of the inductive hypothesis, that these conditions are satisfied for $n \leqq r$ and also that the rank of $Z_{n}$ is finite if $H_{n}^{\prime}$ is finitely generated. We insist that the generators $\left\{y_{\mu}\right\}$ of $H_{r+1}^{\prime}$ shall be free if $H_{r+1}^{\prime}$ is free Abelian, in which case $l_{r+1}^{\prime}: Z_{r+1} \approx H_{r+1}^{\prime}$, and finite in number if $H_{r+1}^{\prime}$ is finitely generated. In the latter case the rank of $Z_{r+1}$ is finite. If $H_{r}^{\prime}$, and hence $Z_{r}$, are finitely generated, so are $l_{r}^{\prime-1}(0)$ and $P_{r+1}$. Therefore the rank of $C_{r+1}$ is finite if both $H_{r+1}^{\prime}, H_{r}^{\prime}$ are finitely generated. This proves the addendum.

Let $\Sigma=\Sigma(C, A), \Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$, where $(C, A)$ and $\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ are composite chain systems. If a given homomorphism $F: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ is the one induced by a homomorphism $(h, f):(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ we shall call $(h, f)$ a combinatorial realization of $F$.

Theorem 3. Any homomorphism, $F: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ has a combinatorial realization $(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$.

Let $F=(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f})$. As in the proof of Theorem 2 we have

$$
C_{n+1}=Z_{n+1}+P_{n+1}, \quad A_{n}=\Gamma_{n}+B_{n}
$$

where $P_{n+1} \approx d C_{n+1}, B_{n} \approx j A_{n}$. Let $\left\{b_{\lambda}\right\},\left\{z_{\mu}\right\},\left\{p_{\sigma}\right\}$ be sets of free generators of $B_{n}, Z_{n+1}, P_{n+1}$.

Let $z_{\mu}^{\prime} \epsilon I_{n+1}^{1} \mathfrak{h}_{n+1} l_{n+1} z_{\mu} \subset Z_{n+1}^{\prime}$ and let $h_{n+1}^{0}: Z_{n+1} \rightarrow Z_{n+1}^{\prime}$ be defined by $h^{0} z_{\mu}=z_{\mu}^{\prime}$ for every $n \geqq 1$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
l h^{0}=\mathfrak{h l} . \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $a_{\lambda}^{\prime} \in k_{n}^{-1} \mathfrak{F}_{n} k_{n} b_{\lambda} \subset A_{n}^{\prime}$. Then it follows from (1.3), (3.1) and (4.4), since $j A_{n} \subset Z_{n}$, that

$$
\begin{aligned}
l j a_{\lambda}^{\prime} & =\mathfrak{i} k a_{\lambda}^{\prime}=\mathrm{i} f k b_{\lambda}=\mathfrak{h} \mathfrak{j} k b_{\lambda} \\
& =\mathfrak{h} l j b_{\lambda}=\operatorname{lh}^{0} j b_{\lambda} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $j a_{\lambda}^{\prime}=h^{0} j b_{\lambda}+d c_{\lambda}^{\prime}$, for some $c_{\lambda}^{\prime} \epsilon C_{n+1}^{\prime}$. Let $f: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}$ be defined by

$$
f i=i g \quad f b_{\lambda}=a_{\lambda}^{\prime}-\beta c_{\lambda}^{\prime}
$$

Then $k f i=k i g=i \mathrm{ig}=f \mathrm{i}=f k i$ and $k f b_{\lambda}=k a_{\lambda}^{\prime}=f k b_{\lambda}$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{h l}=l h^{0}, \quad i \mathfrak{g}=f i, \quad f / \mathfrak{l}=k f . \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $k f=\left\{k\right.$ and $k \beta=0$ we have $k f \beta p_{\sigma}=\left\{k \beta p_{\sigma}=0\right.$. Therefore $f \beta p_{\sigma}=\beta c_{\sigma}^{\prime \prime}$, for some $c_{\sigma}^{\prime \prime} \epsilon C_{n+1}^{\prime}$. Let $h: C_{n+1} \rightarrow C_{n+1}^{\prime}$ be defined by $h z=h^{0} z, h p_{\sigma}=c_{\sigma}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\beta h p_{\sigma}=f \beta p_{\sigma}$. Since $\beta z=\mathrm{blz}$ it follows from (4.5) and (4.4) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f \beta z & =f b l z=\mathfrak{g} b l z=\mathfrak{b b l z} \\
& =\mathrm{blhz}=\beta h z .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $f \beta=\beta h$. Also $j f i=j i_{\mathrm{g}}=0=h j i, j f b_{\lambda}=j a_{\lambda}^{\prime}-d c_{\lambda}^{\prime}=h j b_{\lambda}$. Therefore $j f=h j$. Thus ( $h, f$ ) is a homomorphism. Since $h z=h^{\circ} z$ it follows from (4.5) that ( $h, f$ ) is a combinatorial realization of $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f})$ and the proof is complete.

## Chapter II. The group $\Gamma(A)$

## 5. Definition of $\Gamma(A)$

Let $A$ be any additive, Abelian group. We shall define $\Gamma(A)$, additively, by means of symbolic generators and relations. The symbolic generators shall be the elements of $A$. We emphasize the fact that an element $a \in A$ is not an element of $\Gamma(A)$. The elements of $\Gamma(A)$ are equivalence classes of words, written as sums, in the pairs (,$+ a$ ), (,$- a$ ) for every $a \in A$. We write ( $\pm, a$ ) as $\pm w(a)$ and, frequently, $+w(a)$ as $w(a)$. We shall use the symbol $\equiv$ to denote equivalence between words and $=$ to indicate that two symbols, in any context, stand for the same thing. In defining $\Gamma(A)$, or any other group, by this means we
always assume that the "trivial relations", $x-x \equiv 0$, are satisfied as a matter of course.

The relations for $\Gamma(A)$ are

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { (a) }\{w(-a) \equiv w(a) \\
& \text { (b) }\left\{\begin{array}{r}
w(a+b+c)-w(b+c)-w(c+a)-w(a+b) \\
+w(a)+w(b)+w(c) \equiv 0
\end{array}\right. \tag{5.1}
\end{align*}
$$

for all elements $a, b, c \in A$. It follows from (5.1b), with $a=b=c=0$, that

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(0) \equiv 0 \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence it follows from (5.1b), with $b=0, a+c=d$, that

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(d)-w(c)-w(d)+w(c) \equiv 0 \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore $\Gamma(A)$ is Abelian. It follows from (5.1a), (5.2) and (5.1b), with $a=$ $b=-c$, that

$$
w(a)-w(2 a)+3 w(a) \equiv 0
$$

whence $w(2 a) \equiv 4 w(a)$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
W(a, b)=w(a+b)-w(a)-w(b) \tag{5.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $W(a, b) \equiv W(b, a)$ since $A$ and $\Gamma(A)$ are Abelian. Since $w(2 a)=4 w(a)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
W(a, a) \equiv 2 w(a) \tag{5.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given that addition is commutative, it is easily verified that (5.1b) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
W(a, b+c) \equiv W(a, b)+W(a, c) \tag{5.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (5.4), (5.6) and induction on $n$ that

$$
\begin{equation*}
w\left(a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}\right) \equiv \sum_{i} w\left(a_{i}\right)+\sum_{i<j} W\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right) \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

On taking $a_{1}=\cdots=a_{n}$ it follows from (5.5) and (5.7) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(n a) \equiv n^{2} w(a) \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\gamma(a) \in \Gamma(A)$ be the element which corresponds to $w(a)$ and $[a, b] \in \Gamma(A)$ the element corresponding to $W(a, b)$. Then

$$
\gamma(a+b)=\gamma(a)+\gamma(b)+[a, b]
$$

in consequence of (5.4). Therefore $-[a, b]$ is a factor set which measures the error made in supposing the map $\gamma: A \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$ to be a homomorphism. We shall deal with the generators (i.e., generating elements) $\gamma(a)$ in preference to the symbols $w(a)$.

Let $g$ be a map ${ }^{11}$ of the set of generators $\gamma(a)$, indexed to $A$ by the map

[^7]$a \rightarrow \gamma(a)$, into an (additive) group $G$. We shall say that $g$ is consistent with a relation
$$
\varepsilon_{1} w\left(a_{1}\right)+\cdots+\varepsilon_{n} w\left(a_{n}\right) \equiv 0 \quad\left(\varepsilon_{i}= \pm 1\right)
$$
if, and only if,
$$
\varepsilon_{1} g \gamma\left(a_{1}\right)+\cdots+\varepsilon_{n} g \gamma\left(a_{n}\right)=0 .
$$

If $g$ is consistent with all the relations (5.1) it determines a homomorphism $\Gamma(A) \rightarrow G$.
We give some examples of groups $\Gamma(A)$. First let $A$ be free Abelian and let $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $A$, indexed in (1-1) fashion to a set $\{i\}$.
(A) $\Gamma(A)$ is free Abelian and is freely generated by the set of elements $\gamma\left(a_{i}\right)$, $\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]$, for every $i \in\{i\}$ and every pair $j, k \in\{i\}$ such that ${ }^{12} j<k$.
Let ${ }^{13}$ be a free Abelian group, which is freely generated by a set of elements, $\left\{g_{i}, g_{j k}\right\}$, indexed in (1-1) fashion to the union of $\{i\}$ and the totality of pairs $(j, k)$ such that $j<k$. Let $\phi: G \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$ be the homomorphism which is defined by $\phi g_{i}=\gamma\left(a_{i}\right), \phi g_{j k}=\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]$. Let $a(x)=\Sigma x_{i} a_{i}$ where $\left\{x_{i}\right\}$ is a set of integers, almost all ${ }^{14}$ of which are zero. Let

$$
g(x)=\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} g_{i}+\sum_{j<k} x_{j} x_{k} g_{j k} .
$$

Then $g(-x)=g(x)$, where $-x=\left\{-x_{i}\right\}$. Since

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(x_{i}+y_{i}\right)^{2}-x_{i}^{2}-y_{i}^{2}=2 x_{i} y_{i} \\
\left(x_{j}+y_{j}\right)\left(x_{k}+y_{k}\right)-x_{j} x_{k}-y_{j} y_{k}=x_{j} y_{k}+x_{k} y_{j}
\end{gathered}
$$

it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x+y)-g(x)-g(y)=2 \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} g_{i}+\sum_{j<k}\left(x_{j} y_{k}+x_{k} y_{j}\right) g_{j k}, \tag{5.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $y=\left\{y_{i}\right\}, x+y=\left\{x_{i}+y_{i}\right\}$. Since this is bilinear in $x, y$ and since $g(-x)=g(x)$ it follows that the correspondence $\gamma\{a(x)\} \rightarrow g(x)$ is consistent with (5.1a) and with (5.6), and hence with (5.1b). Therefore it determines a homomorphism $\phi^{\prime}: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow G$. Obviously $\phi^{\prime} \gamma\left(a_{i}\right)=g_{i}$ and it follows from (5.4) and (5.9) that $\phi^{\prime}\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]=g_{j k}$ if $j<k$. Therefore $\phi^{\prime} \phi=1$. Also it follows from (5.7) and (5.8), with $a_{i}$ in (5.7) replaced by $x_{i} a_{i}$, that $\phi \phi^{\prime}=1$. Therefore $\phi: G \approx \Gamma(A)$, which proves the assertion.
(B) Let $A$ be cyclic of (finite) order $m$ and let $a_{1}$ be a generator of $A$. Then $\Gamma(A)$ is cyclic of order $m$ or $2 m$, according as $m$ is odd or even, and is generated by $\gamma\left(a_{1}\right)$.
This is a corollary of Theorem 5 below.

[^8](C) If every element in $A$ is of finite order and also divisible by its order, then $\Gamma(A)=0$.

Let $a \in A$ be of order $m$ and let $a=m b$. Then

$$
2 \gamma(a)=[a, a]=[a, m b]=[m a, b]=0 .
$$

Therefore $2 \gamma(x)=0$ for every $x \in A$. In particular $2 \gamma(b)=0$. If $m$ is even it follows that

$$
\gamma(a)=\gamma(m b)=m^{2} \gamma(b)=0 .
$$

Since $m^{2} \gamma(a)=\gamma(m a)=0$ and $2 \gamma(a)=0$ we also have $\gamma(a)=0$ if $m$ is odd. This proves (C).

It follows from (C) that $\Gamma\left(R_{1}\right)=0$ if $R_{1}$ is the group of rationals, mod. 1 .
(D) If $A$ is the additive group of rationals, then $\Gamma(A) \approx A$.

First let $A$ be the additive group of any commutative ring, $R$. Then a homomorphism, $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow A$, is defined by $g \gamma(a)=a^{2}$. Now let $R$ be the ring of rationals. Then it may be verified that a homomorphism, $f: A \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$, is defined by ${ }^{15} f(p / q)=p q \gamma(1 / q)$, where $p, q$ are any integers, and that $f g=1, g f=1$.

Let $A$ be a free Abelian group and let $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $A$. Then the following expression for $\Gamma(A)$ is suggested by [19]. Let $I_{0}$ be the group of integers and let $A^{*}$ be the group of homomorphisms $a^{*}: A \rightarrow I_{0}$, which are restricted by the condition that $a^{*} a_{i}=0$ for almost all values of $i$. Then $A^{*}$ is a free Abelian group, which is freely generated by $\left\{a_{i}^{*}\right\}$, where $a_{i}^{*} a_{j}=1$ or 0 according as $j=i$ or $\jmath \neq i$. We describe a homomorphism $f: A^{*} \rightarrow A$ as admissible if, and only if, $f a_{i}^{*}=0$ for almost all values of $i$ and as symmetric if, and only if,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{*} f b^{*}=b^{*} f a^{*}, \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every pair $a^{*}, b^{*} \varepsilon A^{*}$. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f a_{i}^{*}=\Sigma_{j} f_{i j} a_{j}=\Sigma_{j}\left(a_{j}^{*} f a_{i}^{*}\right) a_{j} . \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then (5.10) is equivalent to the condition $f_{i j}=f_{j i}$.
Let $S$ be the additive group of all admissible, symmetric homomorphisms, $f: A^{*} \rightarrow A$, and let $\lambda: S \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$ be given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda f=\sum_{i \leq j}\left(a_{i}^{*} f a_{i}^{*}\right) e_{i j}, \tag{5.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $e_{i i}=\gamma\left(a_{i}\right), e_{i j}=\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]$ if $i<j$. It follows from (A) and (5.11) that $\lambda^{-1}(0)=0$. An arbitrary element $\alpha \epsilon \Gamma(A)$ is given by

$$
\alpha=\sum_{i \leqq j} \gamma_{i j} e_{i j}
$$

for integral values of $\gamma_{i j}$, which are zero for almost all values of $i, j$. Therefore $\alpha=\lambda f$, where $f$ is given by (5.11), with $f_{i j}=\gamma_{i j}$ if $i \leqq j$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda: S \approx \Gamma(A) \tag{5.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^9]
## 6. Induced homomorphisms of $\Gamma(A)$

Let $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be a homomorphism of $A$ into an additive Abelian group $A^{\prime}$. Let $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be defined in the same way as $\Gamma(A)$ and let $\gamma\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be defined in the same way as $\gamma(a)$. Then the correspondence $\gamma(a) \rightarrow \gamma(f a)$ obviously determines a homomorphism

$$
g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)
$$

We describe $g$ as the homomorphism induced by $f$. It is given by $g \gamma=\gamma f$. Obviously

$$
\begin{equation*}
g[a, b]=[f a, f b] \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
(a, b \in A)
$$

It is also obvious that $g \Gamma(A)=\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ if $f A=A^{\prime}$ and that $g=1$ if $A=A^{\prime}$ and $f=1$. Let $g^{\prime}: \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be induced by $f^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$. Then it is obvious that $g^{\prime} g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is induced by $f^{\prime} f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime \prime}$. Hence it follows that

$$
g: \Gamma(A) \approx \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)
$$

if $f: A \approx A^{\prime}$.
Let $A$ admit a (multiplicitive) group, $W$, as a group of operators. Then so does $\Gamma(A)$, according to the rule

$$
\begin{equation*}
w_{\gamma}(a)=\gamma(w a) \quad(w \in W) \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is to say, $w: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$ is the automorphism induced by $w: A \rightarrow A$. Let $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ be an operator homomorphism into a group, $A^{\prime}$, which also admits $W$ as a group of operators. Then it is easily verified that the induced homomorphism, $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, is also an operator homomorphism.

On taking $A$ to be cyclic infinite and $A^{\prime}=A$ we see that a given automorphism, $\Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$ (e.g. $\gamma(a) \rightarrow-\gamma(a)$ ), is not necessarily induced by any endomorphism $A \rightarrow A$; also that distinct automorphisms of $A$ (e.g. $a \rightarrow \pm a$ ) may induce the same automorphism of $\Gamma(A)$.

Let $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be induced by $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Let $\left\{a_{i}\right\} \subset A$ be a set of generators of $A$ and let $\left\{b_{\lambda}\right\} \subset f^{-1}(0)$ be a set of elements which generate $f^{-1}(0)$. Then

$$
g \gamma\left(b_{\lambda}\right)=g\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right]=0
$$

Theorem 4. Let $f A=A^{\prime}$. Then $g^{-1}(0)$ is generated ${ }^{16}$ by the elements

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma\left(b_{\lambda}\right), \quad\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right], \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all values of $\lambda, i$.
Let $\Gamma_{0} \subset \boldsymbol{g}^{-1}(0)$ be the sub-group generated by the elements (6.3). I say that, if $a \in A, b \in f^{-1}(0)$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma(a+b)-\gamma(a) \epsilon \Gamma_{0} . \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For let $b=b_{\lambda_{1}}+\cdots+b_{\lambda_{p}}$, Then it follows from (5.7) that

$$
\gamma(b)=\sum_{\rho} \gamma\left(b_{\lambda_{\rho}}\right)+\sum_{\rho<\sigma}\left[b_{\lambda_{\rho}}, b_{\lambda_{\rho}}\right] .
$$

${ }^{16}$ Cf. Theorem 6 in [20].

Each $b_{\lambda_{\rho}}$ is a sum of generators in the set $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$. Therefore $\left[b_{\lambda_{\rho}}, b_{\lambda_{\sigma}}\right]$ is a sum of elements of the form $\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda_{\sigma}}\right]$. Therefore $\gamma(b) \in \Gamma_{0}$. Let $a=a_{i_{1}}+\cdots+a_{i_{q}}$. Then

$$
[a, b]=\sum_{r} \sum_{\sigma}\left[a_{i_{r}}, b_{\lambda_{\sigma}}\right] \in \Gamma_{0}
$$

Therefore

$$
\gamma(a+b)-\gamma(a)=[a, b]+\gamma(b) \in \Gamma_{0}
$$

which proves (6.4).
Let $\Gamma^{*}=\Gamma(A) / \Gamma_{0}$ and let $\alpha^{*} \epsilon \Gamma^{*}$ be the coset containing a given element $\alpha \in \Gamma(A)$. Since $\Gamma_{0} \subset g^{-1}(0)$ it follows that $g$ induces a homomorphism,

$$
g^{*}: \Gamma^{*} \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)
$$

which is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{*} \gamma(a)^{*}=g \gamma(a)=\gamma(f a) \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $g^{*^{-1}}(0)=g^{-1}(0) / \Gamma_{0}$ and we have to prove that $g^{*^{-1}}(0)=0$.
Let $u\left(a^{\prime}\right) \in f^{-1} a^{\prime} \subset A$ be a "representative" of $a^{\prime}$, for each $a^{\prime} \in A^{\prime}$. Then

$$
f\{u(f a)-a\}=0
$$

whence

$$
u(f a)=a+b(a)
$$

where $b(a) \in f^{-1}(0)$. Therefore it follows from (6.4) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma\{u(f a)\}^{*}=\gamma(a)^{*} \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\gamma\left\{u\left(-a^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*}=\gamma\left\{-u\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*}=\gamma\left\{u\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*}  \tag{6.7}\\
\gamma\left\{u\left(a_{1}^{\prime}+\cdots+a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*}=\gamma\left\{u\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)+\cdots+u\left(a_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let $g^{\prime}:\left\{\gamma\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right\} \rightarrow \Gamma^{*}$ be the correspondence which is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime} \gamma\left(a^{\prime}\right)=\gamma\left\{u\left(a^{\prime}\right)\right\}^{*} \tag{6.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then it follows from (6.7) that $g^{\prime}$ is consistent with the relations (5.1), for $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$. Therefore it determines a homomorphism $g^{\prime}: \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma^{*}$. It follows from (6.5), (6.8) and (6.6) that

$$
g^{\prime} g^{*} \gamma(a)^{*}=g^{\prime} \gamma(f a)=\gamma\{u(f a)\}^{*}=\gamma(a)^{*}
$$

Therefore $g^{\prime} g^{*}=1$, whence $g^{*^{-1}}(0)=0$ and the theorem is proved.
Let $A^{\prime}=A / B$, where $B \subset A$ is generated by $\left\{b_{\lambda}\right\}$, and let $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be induced by the natural homomorphism $A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Let $A$ be a free Abelian group, which is freely generated by $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$. Then $A^{\prime}$ is defined by $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$, treated as symbolic generators, and the relations $b_{\lambda} \equiv 0$, when $b_{\lambda}$ is expressed as a sum of
the generators $a_{i}$ and their negatives. It follows from $(A)$ in §5 and from Theorem 4 that $\Gamma^{*}=\Gamma(A) / g^{-1}(0)$ is similarly defined by the symbolic generators $\gamma\left(a_{i}\right)$, [ $\left.a_{j}, a_{k}\right](j<k)$ and the relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma\left(b_{\lambda}\right) \equiv 0, \quad\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right] \equiv 0 \tag{6.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $\gamma\left(b_{\lambda}\right),\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right]$ are expressed in terms of $\pm \gamma\left(a_{i}\right), \pm\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]$. Let us identify each element $\alpha^{*} \in \Gamma^{*}$ with $g^{*} \alpha^{*} \epsilon \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, where $g^{*}: \Gamma^{*} \approx \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ is given by (6.5) (obviously $g^{*}$ is onto). Then Theorem 4 can be restated in the form:

Theorem 5. Let $A^{\prime}$ be defined by symbolic generators $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ and relations $\left\{b_{\lambda} \equiv 0\right\}$. Then $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ is defined by the set of symbolic generators $\gamma\left(a_{i}\right),\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right](j<k)$ and the relations (6.9).

Let $A$ be generated by $a_{1}$, subject to the single relation $m a_{1} \equiv 0$, where $m>0$. Since $\gamma\left(m a_{1}\right)=m^{2} \gamma\left(a_{1}\right)$ and $\left[a_{1}, m a_{1}\right]=m\left[a_{1}, a_{1}\right]=2 m \gamma\left(a_{1}\right)$ it follows from Theorem 5 that $\Gamma(A)$ is generated by $\gamma\left(a_{1}\right)$, subject to the relations $m^{2} \gamma\left(a_{1}\right) \equiv 0$, $2 m \gamma\left(a_{1}\right) \equiv 0$, which reduce to the single relation $\left(m^{2}, 2 m\right) \gamma\left(a_{1}\right) \equiv 0$. This proves $(B)$ in $\S 5$ since $\left(m^{2}, 2 m\right)=m$ or $2 m$ according as $m$ is odd or even.

Theorem 4 is not necessarily true if $f$ is into, but not onto $A^{\prime}$. For example, let $A^{\prime}$ be cyclic of order $m^{2}$, where $m$ is odd. Let $a_{1}$ be a generator of $A^{\prime}$ and let $A \subset A^{\prime}$ be the sub-group generated by $m a_{1}$. Then $A$ and likewise $\Gamma(A)$ are of order $m$. Also $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ is of order $m^{2}$. Let $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism induced by the identical map $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Since

$$
\gamma\left(m a_{1}\right)=m^{2} \gamma\left(a_{1}\right)=0
$$

in consequence of the relations for $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, it follows that $g \Gamma(A)=0$, though $f^{-1}(0)=0$.

As another example let $A^{\prime}$ be the group of rationals mod. 1 and let $A \subset A^{\prime}$ by the cyclic sub-group, which is generated by $1 / m(m>1)$. Let $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be induced by the identical map $A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. In this case $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)=0$, according to $(C)$ in §5. Therefore Theorem 4 may break down even if $g$, but not $f$, is onto.

Theorem 6. Let $A^{\prime}$ be such that ${ }^{17} \Gamma\left(A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}\right) \neq 0$, for each proper sub-group $A_{0}^{\prime} \subset A^{\prime}$. Then a homomorphism, $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$, is onto $A^{\prime}$ if the induced homomorphism, $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, is onto $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$.

Let $g \Gamma(A)=\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ and let $A_{0}^{\prime}=f A$. Then

$$
f=i f_{0}: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}
$$

where $f_{0}: A \rightarrow A_{0}^{\prime}$ is defined by $f_{0} a=f a(a \in A)$ and $i: A_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ is the identical map. Therefore

$$
g=j g_{0}: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)
$$

where $g_{0}: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A_{0}^{\prime}\right), j: \Gamma\left(A_{0}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ are induced by $f_{0}, i$. Since $g$ is onto so is $j$. Let $g^{\prime}: \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism induced by the natural $\operatorname{map} f^{\prime}: A^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} / A_{0}$. Then $f^{\prime}$ is onto and so therefore are $g^{\prime}$ and

$$
g^{\prime} j: \Gamma\left(A_{0}^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}\right)
$$

[^10]But $g^{\prime} j$ is induced by $f^{\prime} i: A_{0}^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}$. Since $f^{\prime} i A_{0}^{\prime}=0$ it follows, obviously, that $g^{\prime} j \Gamma\left(A_{0}^{\prime}\right)=0$. Therefore $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}\right)=0$ and it follows from the condition on $A^{\prime}$ that $A_{0}^{\prime}=A^{\prime}$. This proves the theorem.

## 7. Relation to Tensor products

Let $A$ be a weak direct sum, ${ }^{18} \Sigma_{p} A_{p}$, where $\left\{A_{p}\right\}$ is any set of additive Abelian groups. Let $\Gamma$ be the weak direct sum

$$
\Gamma=\Sigma_{p} \Gamma\left(A_{p}\right)+\sum_{q<r} A_{q} \circ A_{r}
$$

where $A_{q} \circ A_{r}$ is the tensor product of $A_{q}$ and $A_{r}$. Since $\left[a_{q}, a_{r}\right] \in \Gamma(A)$ is bilinear in $a_{q} \in A_{q}$ and $a_{r} \in A_{r}$ it follows that a homomorphism, $f: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$, is defined by the correspondences

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma\left(a_{p}\right) \rightarrow \gamma^{\prime}\left(a_{p}\right), a_{q} \cdot a_{r} \rightarrow\left[a_{q}, a_{r}\right] \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma\left(a_{p}\right) \in \Gamma\left(A_{p}\right)$ and $\gamma^{\prime}(a) \in \Gamma(A)$ means the same as $\gamma(a)$ in $\S 5$.
Theorem 7. $f: \Gamma \approx \Gamma(A)$.
Let $A_{p}$ be defined by a set of symbolic generators, $a_{p i}$, and relations $b_{p \lambda} \equiv 0$. We assume that each $a_{p i}$ is distinct from each $a_{q j}$ if $p \neq q$. Then $A$ is defined by the combined set of generators $\left\{a_{p i}\right\}$ and the combined set of relations $\left\{b_{p \lambda} \equiv 0\right\}$. Therefore it follows from Theorem 5 that $\Gamma(A)$ is defined by the union,

$$
\left\{S_{p}^{\prime}, S_{q r}^{\prime}\right\}
$$

of all the generators and all the relations in the sets

$$
\begin{align*}
& S_{p}^{\prime}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\gamma^{\prime}\left(a_{p i}\right), \quad\left[a_{p i}, a_{p j}\right] \\
\gamma^{\prime}\left(b_{p \lambda}\right) \equiv 0, \quad\left[a_{p i}, b_{p \lambda}\right] \equiv 0
\end{array}\right.  \tag{i<j}\\
& S_{q r}^{\prime}:\left\{\begin{array}{l}
{\left[a_{q j}, a_{r k}\right]} \\
{\left[a_{q j}, b_{r_{\mu}}\right] \equiv 0,\left[b_{q \mu}, a_{r k}\right] \equiv 0}
\end{array}\right. \tag{q<r}
\end{align*}
$$

But $\Gamma\left(A_{p}\right)$ is defined by $S_{p}$ and $A_{q} \circ A_{r}$ by ${ }^{19} S_{q r}$, where $S_{p}, S_{q r}$ are obtained from $S_{p}^{\prime}, S_{q r}^{\prime}$ by writing $\gamma$ instead of $\gamma^{\prime}$ in $S_{p}^{\prime}$ and $x \cdot y$ instead of $[x, y]$ throughout $S_{q r}^{\prime}\left(x=a_{q j}\right.$ or $b_{q \mu}, y=a_{r k}$ or $\left.b_{r_{\mu}}\right)$. Therefore $\Gamma$ is defined by the combined system $\left\{S_{p}, S_{q r}\right\}$ and (7.1) transforms this system into $\left\{S_{p}^{\prime}, S_{q r}^{\prime}\right\}$. This proves the theorem.

## 8. "A" finitely generated

Let $A$ have a finite number of generators. Then it is a direct sum

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=X_{1}+\cdots+X_{t}+Y_{1}+\cdots+Y_{r} \tag{8.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{\lambda}$ is of finite order, $\sigma_{\lambda}$, and $Y_{\mu}$ is cyclic infinite. Moreover we may take

[^11]$\sigma_{1}, \cdots, \sigma_{t}$ to be the invariant factors of $A$, so that $\sigma_{1}>1, \sigma_{\lambda} \mid \sigma_{\lambda+1}$. Let this be so and let $\rho_{1}, \cdots, \rho_{p}$ be those among $\sigma_{1}, \cdots, \sigma_{t}$ which are distinct. That is to say
$$
\sigma_{k_{\lambda}+1}=\cdots=\sigma_{k_{\lambda+1}}=\rho_{\lambda} \neq \rho_{\lambda+1} \quad\left(k_{1}=0, k_{p+1}=t\right),
$$
for $\lambda=1, \cdots, p$. Let $n_{\lambda}=k_{\lambda+1}-k_{\lambda}$. Then we denote $\left(\sigma_{1}, \cdots, \sigma_{t}\right)$ by
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\rho_{1}, n_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(\rho_{p}, n_{p}\right) \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

Let $\left\{A_{p}\right\}=\left\{X_{\lambda}, Y_{\mu}\right\}$, in $\S 7$, and let $\Gamma$ be identified with $\Gamma(A)$ by means of the isomorphism $f$ in Theorem 7. Then it is clear that the rank of $\Gamma(A)$ is

$$
r(r+1) / 2
$$

Let $\rho_{\lambda}$ be odd. Then it also follows that $\rho_{\lambda}$ occurs $s_{\lambda}$ times in $\Gamma(A)$, where $s_{\lambda}$ is calculated as follows Let

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
N_{\mu}=n_{\mu}+\cdots+n_{p}+r & \left(N_{p+1}=r\right) \\
M_{\lambda}=n_{\lambda}\left(n_{\lambda}+2 N_{\lambda+1}+1\right) / 2 . &
\end{array}
$$

Then $\rho_{\lambda}$ occurs $n_{\lambda}\left(n_{\lambda}+1\right) / 2$ times in the summand

$$
\sum_{i} \Gamma\left(X_{i}\right)+\sum_{i<j} X_{i} \circ X_{j} \quad\left(k_{\lambda}<i, j \leqq k_{\lambda+1}\right)
$$

and $n_{\lambda} N_{\lambda+1}$ times in

$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{\mu} X_{i} \circ X_{\mu}+\sum_{i} \sum_{\alpha} X_{i} \circ Y_{\alpha}
$$

where $\mu=k_{\lambda+1}+1, \cdots, t, \alpha=1, \cdots, r$. Therefore $s_{\lambda}=M_{\lambda}$.
In general let $\rho_{h-1}$ be odd and $\rho_{h}$ even, where $1 \leqq h \leqq p+1$ and $h=1$, $h=p+1$ have the obvious meanings. If $\sigma_{i}=\rho_{\lambda}$ and $\lambda \geqq h$ then $\Gamma\left(X_{i}\right)$ is of order $2 \rho_{\lambda}$. Hence it follows that $\rho_{\lambda}$ occurs $M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda}$ times in $\Gamma(A)$ if $\lambda=h$ or if $\lambda>h$ and $\rho_{\lambda}>2 \rho_{\lambda-1}$. In the latter case $2 \rho_{\lambda-1}$ occurs $n_{\lambda-1}$ times. If $\rho_{\lambda}=2 \rho_{\lambda_{-1}}$ and $\lambda>h$ then $\rho_{\lambda}$ occurs $M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda}+n_{\lambda-1}$ times. Also $2 \rho_{p}$ occurs $n_{p}$ times if $h \leqq p$. Therefore the invariant factors of $\Gamma(A)$, written in the form (8.2), are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\rho_{1}, s_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(\rho_{p}, s_{p}\right) \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

together with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(2 \rho_{\mu}, n_{\mu}\right) \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $\mu$ such that $h \leqq \mu \leqq p$ and either $2 \rho_{\mu}<\rho_{\mu+1}$ or $\mu=p$, where

> (a) $\left(s_{l}=M_{l}\right.$ if $1 \leqq l<h$
> (b) $s_{h}=M_{h}-n_{h}$
> (c) $s_{\lambda}=M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda} \quad$ if $\lambda>h, \rho_{\lambda}>2 \rho_{\lambda-1}$
> (d) $s_{\lambda}=M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda}+n_{\lambda-1} \quad$ if $\lambda>h, \rho_{\lambda}=2 \rho_{\lambda-1}$.

Notice that $\Gamma(A)$ cannot be an arbitrary group. For example its rank must be a binomial coefficient or zero. Suppose however that a given group, $\Gamma$, is known to be of the form $\Gamma(A)$, where $A$ is finitely generated. Suppose further that the rank and invariant factors of $\Gamma$ are known.

Theorem 8. The rank and invariant factors of $A$ are uniquely determined by those of $\Gamma$.

Let $r^{\prime}$ be the rank of $\Gamma$. Then the rank, $r$, of $A$ is the (unique) non-negative solution of the quadratic equation

$$
x^{2}+x-2 r^{\prime}=0
$$

Let the invariant factors of $\Gamma$, written in the form (8.2) be

$$
\left(\rho_{1}^{\prime}, s_{1}^{\prime}\right), \cdots,\left(\rho_{q}^{\prime}, s_{q}^{\prime}\right)
$$

We proceed to determine the sequence (8.2) for $A$. If $\rho_{q}^{\prime}$ is odd it follows from (8.3) that $\rho_{p}=\rho_{q}^{\prime}$. Since

$$
M_{p}=n_{p}\left(n_{p}+2 r+1\right) / 2
$$

it follows from (8.5a) that $n_{p}$ is the non-negative root of the quadratic

$$
x^{2}+(2 r+1) x-2 s_{q}^{\prime}=0 .
$$

If $\rho_{q}^{\prime}$ is even then $\rho_{p}=\rho_{q}^{\prime} / 2, n_{p}=s_{q}^{\prime}$, according to (8.4), with $\mu=p$.
Assume that ( $\left.\rho_{\lambda}, n_{\lambda}\right) \cdots,\left(\rho_{p}, n_{p}\right)$ have been uniquely determined, where ${ }^{20}$ $\lambda \leqq p$, and let $\rho_{\lambda}=\rho_{i}^{\prime}$. If $j=1$ the sequence (8.2) is determined and we number $\left(\rho_{\mu}, n_{\mu}\right)$ so that $\lambda=1$. If either $j=2$ or if $j>2$ and $\rho_{i-2}^{\prime}$ is odd it follows from (8.3), (8.4) and (8.5a, b) that $\rho_{\lambda-1}=\rho_{i-1}^{\prime}$ and that $n_{\lambda-1}$ is the non-negative root of

$$
x^{2}+a x-2 s_{j-1}^{\prime}=0
$$

where $a=2 N_{\lambda} \pm 1$ according as $\rho_{i-1}^{\prime}$ is odd or even.
If $j>2$ and $\rho_{i-2}^{\prime}$ is even we consider the cases
a) $s_{j}^{\prime}=M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda}$
b) $s_{i}^{\prime} \neq M_{\lambda}-n_{\lambda}$.

In case (a) it follows from (8.4) and (8.5c) that $\rho_{\lambda-1}=\rho_{i-1}^{\prime} / 2, n_{\lambda-1}=s_{i-1}^{\prime}$. In case (b) it follows from (8.5d) that

$$
\rho_{\lambda-1}=\rho_{j}^{\prime} / 2, \quad n_{\lambda-1}=s_{i}^{\prime}+n_{\lambda}-M_{\lambda}
$$

Therefore $\rho_{\lambda-1}, n_{\lambda-1}$ are uniquely determined in each case and the theorem follows by induction on $j$.

Let $g: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism induced by a homomorphism $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. If $A^{\prime}$ is finitely generated so is $A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}$, where $A_{0}^{\prime} \subset A^{\prime}$ is any subgroup. Therefore $\Gamma\left(A^{\prime} / A_{0}^{\prime}\right) \neq 0$ unless $A_{0}^{\prime}=A^{\prime}$. Therefore it follows from

[^12]Theorem 6 that, if $A^{\prime}$ is finitely generated and $g \Gamma(A)=\Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, then $f A=A^{\prime}$. We prove a kind of dual of this.

Theorem 9. If $A$ is finitely generated, $A^{\prime}$ being arbitrary, then $g^{-1}(0)=0$ implies $f^{-1}(0)=0$.

Since $g\left[a_{0}, a\right]=0$ for any $a \in A, a_{0} \in f^{-1}(0)$ this follows from:
Theorem 10. If $A$ is finitely generated and $\left[a_{0}, a\right]=0$ for every $a \in A$, then $a_{0}=0$.

Let $A$ be given by (8.1) and let $x_{i}, y_{\lambda}$ be generators of $X_{i}, Y_{\lambda}$. Let $\left[a_{0}, a\right]=0$ for every $a \in A$, where

$$
a_{0}=k_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+k_{t} x_{t}+l_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+l_{r} y_{r}
$$

First assume that $r>0$. Then

$$
\left[a_{0}, y_{r}\right]=\sum_{i=1}^{t} k_{i}\left[x_{i}, y_{r}\right]+\sum_{\lambda=1}^{r} l_{\lambda}\left[y_{\lambda}, y_{r}\right]=0
$$

But $\left[x_{i}, y_{r}\right]$ generates the cyclic summand, $X_{i} \circ Y_{r}$, of $\Gamma(A)$, whose order is $\sigma_{i}$. Also $\left[y_{\lambda}, y_{r}\right]$ is a non-zero element in the free cyclic group $Y_{\lambda} \circ Y_{r}$ or $\Gamma\left(Y_{r}\right)$, according as $\lambda<r$ or $\lambda=r$. Therefore $k_{i} \equiv 0\left(\sigma_{i}\right), l_{\lambda}=0$, whence $a_{0}=0$.

Let $r=0$. Then a similar argument, with $y_{r}$ replaced by $x_{t}$, shows that $k_{i} x_{i}=0$ if $i<t$ and that

$$
k_{t}\left[x_{t}, x_{t}\right]=2 k_{t} \gamma\left(x_{t}\right)=0
$$

Therefore $\sigma \mid 2 k_{t}$, where $\sigma$ is the order of $\gamma\left(x_{t}\right)$. But $\sigma=\sigma_{t}$ or $2 \sigma_{t}$ according as $\sigma_{t}$ is odd or even. In either case $\sigma_{t} \mid k_{t}$. Therefore $a_{0}=0$ and the theorem follows.

As a corollary of this and Theorem 8 we have:
Theorem 11. Let both $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ be finitely generated. Then $f: A \approx A^{\prime}$ if, and only if, $g: \Gamma(A) \approx \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$, where $g$ is induced by $f$.

Notice that, in consequence of Theorem 10, a finitely generated group, $A$, is orthogonal to itself by the pairing $(A, A) \rightarrow \Gamma(A)$, in which $(a, b)=[a, b]$.

## 9. Direct systems

Let $\mathfrak{H}$ be the category of all (additive) Abelian groups, with all homomorphisms as mappings. Then a functor ${ }^{21} \Gamma: \mathfrak{X} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is obviously defined by the correspondences $A \rightarrow \Gamma(A), f \rightarrow \Gamma f$, where $\Gamma f: \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)$ is the homomorphism induced by $f: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Let $\mathfrak{D}=\mathfrak{D}$ ir be the category of direct systems of Abelian groups, defined as in [10], except that the groups are to be Abelian. Let

$$
\Gamma_{l}: \Im \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}, \quad L=\operatorname{Lim}_{\rightarrow} \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow 9
$$

be the functor defined by lifting $\Gamma([10], \S 24)$ and the direct limit functor. Let $(D, T)$ be a given system in $\mathfrak{D}$, with groups $T(d)(d \in D)$ and projections $T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)$

[^13]( $d_{1}<d_{2}$ ). Then $\Gamma_{l}(D, T)$ consists of the groups $\Gamma T(d)$ and the projections $\Gamma T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)$. Let
$$
\lambda(d): T(d) \rightarrow L(D, T), \mu(d): \Gamma T(d) \rightarrow L \Gamma_{l}(D, T)
$$
be the injections in $(D, T)$ and $\Gamma_{l}(D, T)$. Then a homomorphism
$$
\omega(D, T): L \Gamma_{l}(D, T) \rightarrow \Gamma L(D, T)
$$
$\mathrm{i}_{\text {s given by }}$
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega(D, T)\left\{\mu(d) \gamma\left(t_{d}\right)\right\}=\gamma\left\{\lambda(d) t_{d}\right\}, \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $t_{d} \in T(d)$. We recall from [10] that the transformation $\omega: L \Gamma_{l} \rightarrow \Gamma L$, which is thus defined, is natural and that $\Gamma$ is said to commute with $L$ if, and only if, $\omega$ is an equivalence, meaning that $\omega(D, T)$ is an isomorphism for each system $(D, T)$.

Theorem 12. The functor $\Gamma$ commutes with $L$.
Using the same notation as before we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu\left(d_{2}\right) \gamma\left\{T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right) t_{d_{1}}\right\} & =\mu\left(d_{2}\right)\left\{\Gamma T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)\right\} \gamma\left(t_{d_{1}}\right) \\
& =\mu\left(d_{1}\right) \gamma\left(t_{d_{1}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore a single-valued map, $\phi$, of the generators, $\gamma\left\{\lambda(d) t_{d}\right\} \in \Gamma L(D, T)$, into $L \Gamma_{l}(D, T)$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi \gamma\left\{\lambda(d) t_{d}\right\}=\mu(d) \gamma\left(t_{d}\right) . \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $a, b, c \in L(D, T)$. Then there is a $d \in D$ such that $a, b, c$ have representatives $r, s, t \in T(d)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \phi \gamma(-a)=\phi \gamma\{\lambda(d)(-r)\}=\mu(d) \gamma(-r)=\mu(d) \gamma(r) \\
& \phi \gamma(a+b+c)=\phi \gamma\{\lambda(d)(r+s+t)\}=\mu(d) \gamma(r+s+t) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly $\phi \gamma(b+c)=\mu(d) \gamma(s+t)$ etc. and it follows that $\phi$ is consistent with the relations (5.1). Therefore it determines a homomorphism

$$
\phi: \Gamma L(D, T) \rightarrow L \Gamma_{l}(D, T) .
$$

It follows from (9.1) and (9.2) that $\phi \omega(D, T)=1, \omega(D, T) \phi=1$, which proves the theorem.

## Chapter III. The sequence $\Sigma(K)$

## 10. Definition of $\Sigma(K)$

In this chapter a complex will mean a pair ( $K, e^{0}$ ), where $K$ is a connected CWcomplex and $e^{0} \in K^{0}$ is a 0 -cell, which is to be taken as base point for all the homotopy groups which we associate with $K$. Nevertheless we shall denote complexes by $K, K^{\prime}$ etc., remembering that, if $K_{i}$ stands for ( $K, e_{i}^{0}$ ) $(i=1,2)$ and $e_{1}^{0} \neq e_{2}^{0}$, then $K_{1} \neq K_{2}$. A cellular map, $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, will mean one which,
in addition to $\phi K^{n} \subset K^{\prime n}$ for every $n \geqq 0$, satisfies the condition $\phi e^{0}=e^{\prime 0}$, where $e^{0}, e^{\prime 0}$ are the base points of $K, K^{\prime}$.

Let $K$ be a given complex, let $\rho_{2}=\pi_{2}\left(K^{2}, K^{1}\right)$,

$$
C_{n+1}=\pi_{n+1}\left(K^{n+1}, K^{n}\right), A_{n}=\pi_{n}\left(K^{n}\right)
$$

and let $\beta: C_{n+1} \rightarrow A_{n}, j: A_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}$ be the boundary and injection operators, where $C_{2}=j A_{2} \subset \rho_{2}$. Let $\beta: \rho_{2} \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(K^{1}\right)$ be the boundary homomorphism. Then $\beta C_{2}=1$ and, as proved in CH II, $\rho_{2}=C_{2}+B^{*}$, where ${ }^{22} B^{*}$ is the image of $\beta \rho_{2}$ in an isomorphism, $\beta^{*}: \beta \rho_{2} \approx B^{*}$, such that $\beta \beta^{*}=1$. We can imbed $C_{2}$ isomorphically in $\rho_{2}$ made Abelian, which is a free $\pi_{1}(K)$-module. Also $C_{n}$ is a free $\pi_{1}(K)$-module if $n>2$. Therefore, ignoring the operators in $\pi_{1}(K), C_{n}(n \geqq 2)$ is a free Abelian group. Also $j_{n} A_{n}=\beta_{n}^{-1}(0)$. Therefore the family of groups $C_{n+1}, A_{n}$, related by $\beta, j$ with $\beta C_{2}=0$, is a composite chain system $(C, A)=$ $(C, A)(K)$, as defined in $\S 4$ above. We define $\Sigma(K)=\Sigma(C, A)$.

Let $\Gamma_{n}=\Gamma_{n}(K)$ etc. be the groups in $\Sigma=\Sigma(K)$. It follows from CH II that there are natural isomorphisms $\pi_{n} \approx \pi_{n}(K), H_{n} \approx H_{n}(\widetilde{K})(n \geqq 2)$, where $H_{n}(\widetilde{K})$ is the $n^{\text {th }}$ integral homology group of the universal covering complex, $\widetilde{K}$, of $K$. The homomorphisms $\dot{i}_{n}$, $\dot{i}_{n}$ in $\Sigma$ are equivalent under these isomorphisms to $i_{n}^{\prime} \mid \Gamma_{n}$ where $i_{n}^{\prime}: A_{n} \rightarrow \pi_{n}(K)$ is the injection, and to the resultant of the lifting isomorphism $\pi_{n}(K) \approx \pi_{n}(\widetilde{K})$, followed by the natural homomorphism $\pi_{n}(\widetilde{K}) \rightarrow$ $H_{n}(\widetilde{K})$. Also $\Gamma_{n}=i_{n} \pi_{n}\left(K^{n-1}\right)$, where $i_{n}: \pi_{n}\left(K^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow A_{n}$ is the injection. Therefore $\Gamma_{2}=0$ and $\Sigma$ terminates with

$$
\cdots \rightarrow \Pi_{3} \rightarrow H_{3} \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \Pi_{2} \rightarrow H_{2} \rightarrow 0
$$

An element $w \in \pi_{1}(K)$, operating in the usual way ${ }^{23}$ on $C_{n+1}, A_{n}$, obviously determines an automorphism, $w:(C, A) \approx(C, A)$, which induces an automorphism, $w: \Sigma \approx \Sigma$. More generally, let $\Sigma$ be any algebraic sequence, of the kind considered in $\S 4$. Then the totality of automorphisms of $\Sigma$ is obviously a group $G(\Sigma)$. Let $\lambda: W \rightarrow G(\Sigma)$ be a homomorphism of a given (multiplicative) group $W$ into $G(\Sigma)$. Let $\Sigma^{\prime}, W^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}$ be similarly defined. Then a homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
(F, \mathfrak{w}):(\Sigma, W, \lambda) \rightarrow\left(\Sigma^{\prime}, W^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right) \tag{10.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

will mean a pair of homomorphisms, $F: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}, \mathfrak{m}: W \rightarrow W^{\prime}$, such that $F \lambda(w)=$ $\lambda^{\prime}\{m(w)\} F$ for each $w \in W$. Since

$$
\lambda\left(w_{0}\right) \lambda(w)=\lambda\left(w_{0} w\right)=\lambda\left(w_{0} w w_{0}^{-1}\right) \lambda\left(w_{0}\right)
$$

it follows that $\left(\lambda\left(w_{0}\right),\left[w_{0}\right]\right)$ is a homomorphism, where $\left[w_{0}\right]$ is the inner automorphism, $w \rightarrow w_{0} w w_{0}^{-1}$, of $W$. We shall use $\lambda(K): \pi_{1}(K) \rightarrow G(\Sigma)$ to denote the homomorphism which describes how $\pi_{1}(K)$ operates on $\Sigma=\Sigma(K)$.

We shall say that homomorphisms $(F, \mathfrak{m}),\left(F^{*}, \mathfrak{m}^{*}\right)$, of the form (10.1), are in

[^14]the same operator class, $\{F, \mathfrak{w}\}$, if, and only if,
$$
(F, \mathfrak{w})=\left(\lambda^{\prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime}\right),\left[w_{0}^{\prime}\right]\right)\left(F^{*}, \mathfrak{w}^{*}\right)=\left(\lambda^{\prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime}\right) F^{*},\left[w_{0}^{\prime}\right] \mathfrak{w}^{*}\right),
$$
for some $w_{0}^{\prime} \epsilon W^{\prime}$. Let
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(F^{\prime \prime}, \mathfrak{w}^{\prime}\right):\left(\Sigma^{\prime}, W^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow\left(\Sigma^{\prime \prime}, W^{\prime \prime}, \lambda^{\prime \prime}\right) \tag{10.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

be a homomorphism. Then, writing $\mathfrak{w}^{\prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime}\right)=w_{0}^{\prime \prime}$, we have

$$
F^{\prime} \lambda^{\prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime}\right)=\lambda^{\prime \prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime \prime}\right) F^{\prime}, \quad \mathfrak{w}^{\prime}\left[w_{0}^{\prime}\right]=\left[w_{0}^{\prime \prime}\right] \mathfrak{w}^{\prime} .
$$

Hence it follows that a single-valued product of operator classes is defined by

$$
\left\{F^{\prime \prime}, \mathfrak{w}^{\prime}\right\}\{F, \mathfrak{w}\}=\left\{F^{\prime} F, \mathfrak{w}^{\prime} \mathfrak{w}\right\}
$$

for all pairs of homomorphisms of the form (10.1), (10.2). It may be verified that all triples ( $\Sigma, W, \lambda$ ) (the objects), together with all operator classes of homomorphisms (the mappings), constitute a category, $\mathfrak{S}^{w}$.

The usefulness of $\Sigma(K)$ is limited by our ignorance concerning $\pi_{n}(K)$ for large values of $n$. Therefore we shall often want to confine ourselves to a finite part of $\Sigma$. It will be convenient to start with $H_{q}$, and $\Sigma_{q}$ will denote the part
$\Sigma_{q}$ :

$$
H_{q} \rightarrow \Gamma_{q-1} \rightarrow \Pi_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots
$$

of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$. We write $\Sigma_{\infty}=\Sigma$, thus defining $\Sigma_{q}$ for $q \leqq \infty$. A homomorphism or isomorphism

$$
(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime} \quad(q<\infty)
$$

will mean the same as when $q=\infty$, except that $\mathfrak{b}_{n+1}, \mathfrak{g}_{n}, \mathfrak{f}_{n}$ will only be defined for $n=1, \cdots, q-1$.

## 11. The invariance of $\Sigma(K)$

Let $K=\left(K, e^{0}\right), K^{\prime}=\left(K^{\prime}, e^{\prime 0}\right)$ be given complexes. It follows from proposition $(J)$ in $\S 5$ of CH I, on homotopy extension, that any map $K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ is homotopic to one in which $e^{0} \rightarrow e^{\prime 0}$. Hence it follows from ( $L$ ) in $\S 5$ of CH II that
a) any map, $K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, is homotopic to a cellular map.
b) if $\phi_{0} \simeq \phi_{1}: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, where $\phi_{0}, \phi_{1}$ are cellular, then $\phi_{0}, \phi_{1}$ are related by $a$ cellular homotopy, $\phi_{t}: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ (i.e. $\phi_{t} K^{n} \subset K^{\prime n+1}$ ).

Therefore, in discussing the invariance of $\Sigma(K)$, we may confine ourselves to cellular maps and homotopies.

A cellular map, $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, induces a family of homomorphisms ${ }^{24}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{r+1}: \rho_{r+1}(K) \rightarrow \rho_{r+1}\left(K^{\prime}\right), f_{r}: \pi_{r}\left(K^{r}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{r}\left(K^{\prime r}\right) \quad(r \geqq 1), \tag{11.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $\beta h=f \beta, j f=h j$. Since $h_{2} j_{2}=j_{2} f_{2}$ we have $h_{2} C_{2} \subset C_{2}^{\prime}=C_{2}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. The induced homomorphism $h_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow C_{2}^{\prime}$ together with $h_{n+1}, f_{n}$ for $n=2,3, \cdots$, obviously constitute a homomorphism

$$
(h, f):(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)=(C, A)\left(K^{\prime}\right)
$$

[^15]This induces a homomorphism $F: \Sigma(K) \rightarrow \Sigma\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Let $\mathfrak{w}: \pi_{1}(K) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism, which is induced by $\phi$ and is given by $\mathfrak{m}_{1}=\iota_{1} f_{1}$, where $\iota_{1}: \pi_{1}\left(L^{1}\right)$ $\rightarrow \pi_{1}(L)$ is the injection ( $L=K$ or $K^{\prime}$ ). Then $h_{n+1}, f_{n}, h_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow C_{2}^{\prime}$ are operator homomorphisms when $\pi_{1}(K)$ operates on ( $C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}$ ) through $\mathfrak{m}$. Hence it follows that $(F, \mathfrak{w})$ is a homomorphism of the form (10.1) where $\Sigma=\Sigma(K), W=\pi_{1}(K)$, $\lambda=\lambda(K), \Sigma^{\prime}=\Sigma\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, etc. We describe $(F, \mathfrak{w})$ as the homomorphism induced by $\phi$.

Let $\phi \simeq \phi^{*}: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ and let $(h, f),\left(h^{*}, f^{*}\right)$ be the families of homomorphisms of the form (11.2), which are induced by $\phi, \phi^{*}$. Then ${ }^{24}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{0}^{\prime} h^{*}-h=d \xi+\xi d, \quad x_{0}^{\prime} f^{*}-f=\beta \xi j, \tag{11.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x_{0}^{\prime} \in \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime 1}\right)$, which operates on $C_{n+1}^{\prime}, A_{n}^{\prime}$ through the injection $\pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime 1}\right) \rightarrow$ $\pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime n}\right)$, and $\xi: \rho(K) \rightarrow \rho\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ is a deformation operator as defined in $\S 4$ of CH II. The homomorphisms $\xi_{3} \mid C_{2}, \xi_{4}, \xi_{5}, \cdots$ constitute a deformation operator in the sense of $\S 3$ above. Also $d C_{2}=0$ and $d \xi_{3} C_{2} \subset C_{2}^{\prime}$, since $d C_{3}^{\prime} \subset C_{2}^{\prime}$. Therefore

$$
(h, f) \simeq\left(w_{0}^{\prime} h^{*}, w_{0}^{\prime} f^{*}\right):(C, A) \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)
$$

in the sense of $\S 3$, where $w_{0}^{\prime}$ is the image of $x_{0}^{\prime}$ in the injection $\pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow W^{\prime}$. Hence it follows that $F=\lambda^{\prime}\left(w_{0}^{\prime}\right) F^{*}$, where $F, F^{*}: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{\prime}$ are induced by $(h, f)$, $\left(h^{*}, f^{*}\right)$. Moreover $\mathfrak{w}=\left[w_{0}^{\prime}\right] \mathfrak{w}^{*}$ in consequence of the relation

$$
x_{0}^{\prime}\left(f_{1}^{*} x\right) x_{0}^{\prime-1}\left(f_{1} x\right)^{-1}=\beta_{2} \xi_{2} x,
$$

which is included, additively, in (11.3). Therefore ( $F, \mathfrak{w}$ ) and ( $F^{*}, \mathfrak{w}^{*}$ ) are in the same operator class, where $(F, \mathfrak{m}),\left(F^{*}, \mathfrak{m}^{*}\right)$ are induced by $\phi, \phi^{*}$. Therefore a homotopy class, $\alpha: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, of maps induces a unique operator class, $\Sigma \alpha=$ $\{F, \mathfrak{w}\}$, of homomorphisms.
Let $\Omega$ be the homotopy category of all complexes (i.e. connected, CW-complexes with base points). Then it may be verified that the correspondences

$$
K \rightarrow\left(\Sigma(K), \pi_{1}(K), \lambda(K)\right), \quad \alpha \rightarrow \Sigma \alpha
$$

determine a functor $\Sigma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}^{w}$. We express this by saying that $\left(\Sigma(K), \pi_{1}(K)\right.$, $\lambda(K)$ ), or simply that $\Sigma(K)$ is a homotopy invariant of $K$.

Similarly $\Sigma_{q}(K)$ is a homotopy invariant of $K$, for any $q<\infty$. Also, for a particular value of $n$, the secondary modular boundary homomorphism

$$
\mathfrak{b}_{n}(m): H_{n}(K, m) \rightarrow \Gamma_{n-1, m}(K),
$$

is a homotopy invariant within the category of complexes such that every $(n-1)$ cycle in $\tilde{K}$ is spherical. Notice that $\mathfrak{b}_{4}(m)$ is defined for every complex.

The definition of $\Sigma(K)$ can be generalized as follows. Let $r \geqq 0$, let $A_{n}=C_{n}=0$ if $n \leqq r+1$ and if $n>r+1$ let

$$
C_{n+1}=\pi_{n+1}\left(K^{n-r+1}, K^{n-r}\right), \quad A_{n}=\pi_{n}\left(K^{n-r}\right) .
$$

Let $\beta: C_{n+2} \rightarrow A_{n}, j: A_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}\left(C_{r+2}=j A_{r+2}\right)$ be the boundary and injection operators. Then the groups $C_{n+1}, A_{n}$, related by $\beta, j$, constitute a system, $(C, A)$,
of the sort introduced in $\S 1$. We define $\Sigma^{r}(K)=\Sigma(C, A)$. Then it may be verified, in consequence of $\S 3$ and (11.1), that $\Sigma^{r}(K)$ is a homotopy invariant of $K$.

The groups which appear in $\Sigma^{r}(K)$ are naturally isomorphic to groups which belong to a larger class of "injected" invariants. Let $0 \leqq p \leqq q<r$, with $q>p$ if $p>0$, let $m<n$ and let

$$
\pi_{r}\left(K^{n}, K^{q} ; m, p\right)=i \pi_{r}\left(K^{m}, K^{p}\right)
$$

where $i: \pi_{r}\left(K^{m}, K^{p}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{r}\left(K^{n}, K^{q}\right)$ is the injection and $\pi_{r}\left(K^{s}, K^{0}\right)=\pi_{r}\left(K^{s}\right)$ $(s=m$ or $n)$. Then it follows from (11.1) ${ }^{25}$ that $\pi_{r}\left(K^{n}, K^{q} ; m, p\right)$ is a homotopy invariant, and indeed an invariant of the $n$-type of $K$. In Chapter V below we shall see how these invariants may be defined for any arcwise connected space.

## 12. The sufficiency of $\Sigma(K)$

Let $K, K^{\prime}$ be given complexes, whose dimensionalities do not exceed $q$, where $q \leqq \infty$.

Theorem 13. If a map $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ induces isomorphisms $\Sigma_{q}(K) \approx \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{q}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ and $\pi_{1}(K) \approx \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, then $^{26} \phi: K \equiv K^{\prime}$.

Since the homomorphisms $H_{n} \approx H_{n}(\widetilde{K})$ are natural this follows from Theorem 3 in Chapter I.

This is what we call a sufficiency ${ }^{27}$ theorem. We shall prove the corresponding realizability theorem, subject to the restrictions $q=4$ and $\pi_{1}(K)=1$. But first we must prove a theorem concerning $\Gamma_{3}$.

## 13. Expression for $\Gamma_{3}(K)$

Let $u: S^{3} \rightarrow S^{2}$ be a fixed map, which represents a generator of $\pi_{3}\left(S^{2}\right)$. Let $v: S^{2} \rightarrow K^{2}$ be a map which represents a given element ${ }^{28} x \in \Pi_{2}$. Then $v u: S^{3} \rightarrow K^{2}$ represents an element $u(x) \in \Gamma_{3}$. We have ${ }^{29}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
u(x+y)-u(x)-u(y)=[x, y]^{*} \tag{13.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $[x, y]^{*}$ is the product, or commutator (cf. [22]), of $x, y \in \Pi_{2}$. Also $u(-x)=$ $u(x)$ and $[x, y]^{*}$ is bilinear in $x, y$. Therefore the map $\gamma(x) \rightarrow u(x)$ is consistent with the relations (5.1a) and (5.6), for $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$. Therefore it determines a homomorphism, $\theta: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma_{3}$, and $\theta[x, y]=[x, y]^{*}$. Obviously ${ }^{30} \theta$ is an operator homomorphism with respect to the operators in $\pi_{1}(K)$.

[^16]Let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma(K) \rightarrow \Sigma\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism which is induced by a cellular map, $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, into a complex $K^{\prime}$. Since $\phi(v u)=(\phi v) u$ we have $g_{8} u(x)=$ $u\left(f_{2} x\right)$. Let $g: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ be the homomorphism induced by $\mathfrak{f}_{2}: \Pi_{2} \rightarrow \Pi_{2}^{\prime}$ and let $\theta$ mean the same in $K^{\prime}$ as in $K$. Since $\theta \gamma(x)=u(x), \mathfrak{g}_{3} u(x)=u\left(\mathfrak{f}_{2} x\right), \gamma\left(\mathfrak{f}_{2} x\right)=$ $g \gamma(x)$ we have

$$
\mathfrak{g}_{3} \theta \gamma(x)=\mathfrak{g}_{3} u(x)=u\left(\mathfrak{f}_{2} x\right)=\theta \gamma\left(\mathfrak{f}_{2} x\right)=\theta g \gamma(x) .
$$

Therefore $\theta$ is natural, in the sense that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{g}_{3} \theta=\theta \mathrm{g}: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma_{3}^{\prime} . \tag{13.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 14. $\theta: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \approx \Gamma_{3}$.
Let $\tilde{K}$ be the universal covering complex of $K$ and let $p: \widetilde{K} \rightarrow K$ be the covering map. Then it follows from the standard lifting theorems that

$$
\mathfrak{f}_{2}: \Pi_{2}(\tilde{K}) \approx \Pi_{2}, \quad g_{3}: \Gamma_{3}(\tilde{K}) \approx \Gamma_{3}
$$

where $f_{2}, g_{3}$ are induced by $p$. Therefore $g: \Gamma\left\{\Pi_{2}(\tilde{K})\right\} \approx \Gamma\left\{\Pi_{2}\right)$, where $g$ is induced by $\mathfrak{f}_{2}$, and the theorem follows from (13.2) if it is true when $K$ is replaced by $\widetilde{K}$. therefore we may assume that $\pi_{1}(K)=1$.

Let $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ and let $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $A_{2}$, which is free Abelian since $j: A_{2} \approx C_{2}$. Let $\left\{e_{\lambda}^{8}\right\}$ be the 3-cells in $K$ and let $c_{\lambda} \in C_{3}$ be the element which is represented by a characteristic $\operatorname{map}^{31}$ for $e_{\lambda}^{3}$. Then $\left\{c_{\lambda}\right\}$ is a set of free generators of $C_{3}$ and $\Pi_{2}$ is defined by the generators $a_{i}$ and the relations $b_{\lambda} \equiv 0$, where $b_{\lambda}=\beta c_{\lambda}$. By Theorem 5, $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$ is defined by the generators $\gamma\left(a_{i}\right),\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]$ $(j<k)$ and the relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma\left(b_{\lambda}\right) \equiv 0, \quad\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right] \equiv 0 \tag{13.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $K_{0}^{2}=e^{0} \mathbf{u}\left\{e_{i}^{2}\right\}$, where $\left\{e_{i}^{2}\right\}$ is a set of 2-cells in a (1-1) correspondence, $e_{i}^{2} \rightarrow$ $a_{i}$, with $\left\{a_{i}\right\}$. Thus $K_{0}^{1}=e^{0}$ and $\bar{e}_{i}^{2}=e^{0} \cup e_{i}^{2}$ is a 2 -sphere. Moreover $\pi_{2}\left(K_{0}^{2}\right)$ is freely generated by the set of elements $\left\{a_{i}^{0}\right\}$, where $a_{i}^{0}$ is represented by a homeomorphism $\phi_{i}: S^{2} \rightarrow \bar{e}_{i}^{2}$. Let $\psi: K_{0}^{2} \rightarrow K^{2}$ be a map such that ( $\psi \mid \bar{e}_{i}^{2}$ ) $\phi_{i}$ represents $a_{i}$ and let $\psi_{2}: \pi_{2}\left(K_{0}^{1}\right) \rightarrow A_{2}$ be the homomorphism induced by $\psi$. Then $\psi_{2} a_{i}^{0}=a_{i}$. Therefore $\psi_{2}: \Pi_{2}\left(K_{0}^{2}\right) \approx A_{2}$ and it follows from Theorem 1 in CHI that $\psi_{2}: K_{0}^{2} \equiv K^{2}$. By (D) in $\S 5$ of CH I any compact subset of $K_{0}^{2}$ is contained in a finite sub-d complex. Therefore it follows from arguments similar to those used in the proof of Theorem 2 in [4] that $\pi_{3}\left(K_{0}^{2}\right)$ is freely generated by $u\left(a_{i}^{0}\right),\left[a_{i}^{0}, a_{k}^{0}\right]^{*}(j<k)$. Therefore $\pi_{3}\left(K^{2}\right)$ is freely generated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
u\left(a_{i}\right),\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]^{*} \quad(j<k) \tag{13.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that $\theta \gamma\left(a_{i}\right)=u\left(a_{i}\right), \theta\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]=\left[a_{j}, a_{k}\right]^{*}$.
Since any compact subset of $K^{3}$ is contained in a finite sub-complex it follows from the proof of Lemma 4 on p. 418 of [4] that $\Gamma_{3}$ is defined by the generators (13.4) and the relations $u\left(b_{\lambda}\right) \equiv 0,\left[a_{i}, b_{\lambda}\right]^{*} \equiv 0$. It follows from (13.1) and (5.4) and the bilinearity of $[a, b],[a, b]^{*}$ that these relations, when expressed in terms of

[^17]the generators (13.4), are the images under $\theta$ of the relations (13.3). Therefore $\theta: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \approx \Gamma_{3}$ and the theorem is proved.

## 14. Geometrical realizability

Let $q<\infty$ and let
$\Sigma_{q}:$

$$
H_{q} \rightarrow \Gamma_{q-1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow H_{2} \rightarrow 0
$$

be a sequence in which the (Abelian) groups are arbitrary except that $\Gamma_{2}=0$, if $q>2$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \approx \Gamma_{3} \tag{14.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $q>3$. In this case $\theta$, like $\mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{i}, \mathfrak{i}$ is to be a component part of $\Sigma_{q}$. Let $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ be a sequence which also satisfies these conditions. We shall describe $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ as a proper homomorphism if, and only if, either $q \leqq 3$ or $q>3$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{g}_{3} \theta=\theta \mathrm{g}: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma_{3}^{\prime} \tag{14.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}^{\prime}\right)$ is induced by $f_{2}$. We shall describe a complex $K$ as a geometrical realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ if, and only if, $\Sigma_{q}(K)$ is properly isomorphic to $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$.

The symbol $(C, A)_{q}$ will denote a composite chain system, with the groups $C_{r}, A_{r-1}$ discarded if $r>q$ and $\theta: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \approx \Gamma_{3}$ if $q>3$, where $\Pi_{2}=A_{2} / \beta C_{3}$. A proper homomorphism (isomorphism), $(h, f)_{q}$, between two such systems, will consist of homomorphisms, (isomorphisms) $h_{1}, \cdots, h_{q}$ and $f_{1}, \cdots, f_{q-1}$, such that $f \beta=\beta h, h j=j f$ and (14.2) is satisfied if $q>3$, where $g_{3}$ is the homomorphism induced by $f_{3}$. That is to say $i_{3} g_{3}=f_{3} i_{3}$, as in (3.4). We describe ( $\left.C, A\right)_{q}$ as a combinatorial realization ${ }^{32}$ of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ if, and only if, there are homomorphisms (onto)

$$
\begin{equation*}
l_{n+1}^{\prime}: Z_{n+1} \rightarrow H_{n+1}^{\prime}, g_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \approx \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}, k_{n}^{\prime}: A_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n}^{\prime} \tag{14.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n=1, \cdots, q-1$, such that $k_{n}^{\prime-1}(0)=\beta C_{n+1}, l_{n}^{\prime-1}(0)=d C_{n+1}$,

$$
\mathfrak{b}_{n+1} l_{n+1}^{\prime} z=\mathrm{g}_{n} \beta_{n+1} z, \quad \mathfrak{i}_{n} g_{n}=k_{n}^{\prime} i_{n}, \quad \dot{i}_{n}^{\prime} k_{n}^{\prime}=l_{n}^{\prime} k_{n}
$$

and (14.2) is satisfied if $q>3$. If $(C, A)_{q}$ is a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ so, obviously, is any system $\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ which is properly isomorphic to $(C, A)_{q}$. The existence of a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ follows from the proof of Theorem 2, with $g_{3}$ chosen so as to satisfy (14.2) if $q>3$.

Let $n \leqq q$ and let $\Sigma_{n}^{\prime}$ be the part of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ which begins with $H_{n}^{\prime}$. We shall say that $(C, A)_{n}$ is part of $\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ if, and only if, $C_{r+1}=C_{r+1}^{\prime}, A_{r}=A_{r}^{\prime}$ and $\beta_{r+1}$, $j_{r}$ are the same in both systems, for every $r<n$. By an $n$-dimensional partial realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ we shall mean a complex, $K^{n}$, of at most $n$ dimensions, such that the part, $(C, A)_{n}$, of $(\mathrm{C}, A)\left(K^{n}\right)$ is a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma_{n}^{\prime}$. Notice that a $q$-dimensional partial realization, $K^{q}$, is a geometrical realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ if, and only if, $l_{q}^{\prime}: Z_{q} \approx H_{q}^{\prime}$.

[^18]Lemma 1. Let $n<q$ and let $K^{n}$ be a simply connected, $n$-dimensional partial realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$. If $\Gamma_{n}\left(K^{n}\right) \approx \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ the complex $K^{n}$ can be imbedded in an $(n+1)$ dimensional partial realization of $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$.

Let $(C, A)_{n}$ be part of $(C, A)\left(K^{n}\right)$ and let $(C, A)_{n}$ be extended by the construction in the proof of Theorem 2 to a combinatorial realization, $\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{n+1}$, of $\Sigma_{n+1}^{\prime}$. In order to simplify the notation we take $\Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ in $A_{n}^{\prime}$ to be the same as $\Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ in $\Sigma_{n}^{\prime}$ and the isomorphism $\Gamma_{n}^{\prime} \approx \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$, analogous to the one in (14.3), to be the identity. Let $g_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \approx \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$, where $\Gamma_{n}=\Gamma_{n}\left(K^{n}\right)$ and $g_{n}$ is defined by (14.2) if $n=3$. Then

$$
A_{n}=\Gamma_{n}+B_{n}, \quad A_{n}^{\prime}=\Gamma_{n}^{\prime}+B_{n}^{\prime}
$$

as in the proofs of Theorems 2 and 3 , where $u: j A_{n} \approx B_{n}, u^{\prime}: j A_{n}^{\prime} \approx B_{n}^{\prime}$ and $j u=1, j u^{\prime}=1$. Since $\beta_{n}$ is the same in $\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{n+1}$ and in $(C, A)_{n}$ we have $j A_{n}=\beta_{n}^{-1}(0)=j A_{n}^{\prime}$. Therefore an isomorphism, $f: A_{n} \approx A_{n}^{\prime}$, is defined by

$$
f(\gamma+b)=\mathfrak{g}_{n} \gamma+u^{\prime} j b \quad\left(\gamma \in \Gamma_{n}, b \in B_{n}\right)
$$

Since $j \gamma=0, j g_{n} \gamma=0, j u^{\prime}=1$ we have $j_{n} f=j_{n}$.
Let $\left\{c_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $C_{n+1}^{\prime}$. Let

$$
K^{n+1}=K^{n} \cup\left\{e_{\lambda}^{n+1}\right\}
$$

where the $(n+1)$-cell $e_{\lambda}^{n+1}$ is attached to $K^{n}$ by a map, $\phi_{\lambda}: \dot{E}_{\lambda}^{n+1} \rightarrow K^{n}$, such that $\phi_{\lambda} v_{\lambda}: \dot{I}^{n+1} \rightarrow K^{n}$ represents $f^{-1} \beta c_{\lambda}^{\prime}$, where $v_{\lambda}: \dot{I}^{n+1} \rightarrow \dot{E}_{\lambda}^{n+1}$ is a homeomorphism. Then $e_{\lambda}^{n+1}$ has a characteristic map, $\psi_{\lambda}: I^{n+1} \rightarrow e_{\lambda}^{n+1}$ which agrees with $\phi_{\lambda} v_{\lambda}$ in $\dot{I}^{n+1}$. Let $(C, A)_{n+1}$ be part of $(C, A)\left(K^{n+1}\right)$ and let $c_{\lambda} \in C_{n+1}$ be the element which is represented by $\psi_{\lambda}$. Then $\left\{c_{\lambda}\right\}$ is a set of free generators of $C_{n+1}$ and an isomorphism, $h: C_{n+1} \approx C_{n+1}^{\prime}$, is defined by $h c_{\lambda}=c_{\lambda}^{\prime}$. Moreover $\phi_{\lambda} \nu_{\lambda}$ represents both $\beta c_{\lambda}$ and $f^{-1} \beta c_{\lambda}^{\prime}$. Therefore $f \beta=\beta h$. Also $j_{n} f=j_{n}, f \gamma=g_{n} \gamma$ and $g_{n}$ satisfies (14.2) if $\mathrm{n}=3$. Therefore the identical maps of $C_{r+1}, A_{r}(r<n)$, together with $h, f$, constitute a proper isomorphism $(C, A)_{n+1} \approx\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{n+1}$. Therefore $(C, A)_{n+1}$ is a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma_{n+1}^{\prime}$ and the lemma is proved.

Theorem 15. $\Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ has a (simply connected) geometrical realization $K$, which is
a) at most 4-dimensional if $H_{4}^{\prime}$ is free Abelian,
b) a finite complex if each of $H_{2}^{\prime}, H_{3}^{\prime}, H_{4}^{\prime}$ is finitely generated.

Let $K^{1}$ consist of a single 0 -cell. Then $K^{1}$ is a partial realization of $\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}$. Since $\Gamma_{1}(K)=0, \Gamma_{2}(K)=0$ and $\Gamma_{3}(K) \approx \Gamma\left\{\Pi_{2}(K)\right\}$, where $K$ is any complex, it follows from three successive applications of Lemma 1 that $\Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ has a 4 -dimensional partial realization, $K^{4}$.

Let $(C, A)_{4}$ be part of $(C, A)\left(K^{4}\right)$ and let $l^{\prime}, \mathfrak{g}$ mean the same as in (14.3). Let $z \in l_{4}^{\prime-1}(0)$. Then $\beta z=g_{3}^{-1} b l_{4}^{\prime} z=0$. Therefore $z \in j_{4} \pi_{4}\left(K^{4}\right)$. Let $\left\{z_{\mu}\right\}$ be a set of elements which generate $l_{4}^{\prime-1}(0)$ and let $a_{\mu} \in{j_{4}^{-1}}_{\mu_{\mu}}$. Let $K^{5}=K^{4} \cup\left\{e_{\mu}^{5}\right\}$, where $e_{\mu}^{5}$ is attached to $K^{4}$ by a map which represents $a_{\mu}$, and let $\left\{c_{\mu}\right\}$ be the corresponding basis for $C_{5}=\pi_{5}\left(K^{5}, K^{4}\right)$. Then $\beta c_{\mu}=a_{\mu}$ and $d c_{\mu}=z_{\mu}$. Therefore $d C_{5}=$ $l_{4}^{\prime-1}(0)$ and it follows that $l_{4}^{\prime}$ induces an isomorphism $\mathfrak{b}_{4}: H_{4}\left(K^{5}\right) \approx H_{4}^{\prime}$. Therefore $K^{5}$ is a full realization of $\Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$.

If $H_{4}^{\prime}$ is free Abelian we may assume that $l_{4}^{\prime-1}(0)=0$, as in the addendum to Theorem 2. In this case $\Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ is realized by $K^{4}$. Also we may assume that, if $H_{2}^{\prime}$, $H_{3}^{\prime}, H_{4}^{\prime}$ are finitely generated, so are $C_{2}, C_{3}, C_{4}$ and hence $\Gamma_{4}^{1}(0)$ and $C_{5}$. In this case $K^{5}$ is a finite complex and the theorem is proved.

We now consider the realizability of a proper homomorphism, $F_{q}: \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$, by a map $\phi: K^{q} \rightarrow K^{\prime q}$, where $K, K^{\prime}$ are given complexes and $\Sigma=\Sigma(K), \Sigma^{\prime}=$ $\Sigma\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Let $(C, A)_{q},\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ be parts of $(C, A)(K),(C, A)\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Then it follows from the proof of Theorem 3 that $F_{q}$ can be realized combinatorially, in the same way as when $q=\infty$, by a (proper) homomorphism $(h, f)_{q}:(C, A)_{q} \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$. We shall describe a cellular map, $\phi: K^{q}-K^{\prime q}$ as a (geometrical) realization of both $(h, f)_{q}$ and $F_{q}$ if, and only if, the homomorphisms $h, f$ are those induced by $\phi$. Notice that $h_{q} d C_{q+1}^{\prime} \subset d C_{q+1}^{\prime}$, since $l_{q} h_{q}=\mathfrak{h}_{q} l_{q} ;$ also that a given map, $\phi: K^{q} \rightarrow$ $K^{\prime q}$, induces a homomorphism $\Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ if, and only if, $h_{q}: C_{q} \rightarrow C_{q}^{\prime}$ satisfies this condition, where $h_{q}$ is induced by $\phi$. This is certainly the case if $K=K^{q}$, for then $C_{q+1}=0$.
Let $(h, f)_{q}$ be a combinatorial realization of a given proper homomorphism $F_{q}: \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$. Let $1 \leqq n<q$, let $(C, A)_{n},\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{n}$ be parts of $(C, A)_{q},\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ and let $(h, f)_{n}$ consist of the homomorphisms $h_{1}, \cdots, h_{n}$ and $f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n-1}$. Let $F_{n}: \Sigma_{n} \rightarrow \Sigma_{n}^{\prime}$ be the homomorphism which is similarly induced by $F_{q}$. Then $F_{n}$ is obviously a proper homomorphism and $(h, f)_{n}$ is a combinatorial realization of $F_{n}$. Let $\phi_{n}^{0}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{\prime n}$ be a realization of $(h, f)_{n}$. We assume that K , but not necessarily $K^{\prime}$, is simply connected and also that $\phi_{n}^{0} K^{1}=e^{\prime 0}$, the base point in $K^{\prime}$. Let $\mathrm{g}_{n}^{0}, \mathrm{~g}_{n}: \Gamma_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$ be the homomorphisms induced by $\phi_{n}^{0}$ and by $f_{n}$ in $(h, f)_{q}$.

Lemma 2. If $\mathrm{g}_{n}^{0}=\mathrm{g}_{n}$ and if $j_{n} A_{n}$ is a direct summand of $C_{n}$, then $\phi_{n}^{0} \mid K^{n-1}$ can be extended to a realization, $K^{n+1} \rightarrow K^{\prime n+1}$, of $(h, f)_{n+1}$.
First let $n=1$ and let $\rho_{2}=\pi_{2}\left(K^{2}, K^{1}\right)$. Then $\rho_{2}=C_{2}+B^{*}$, as in $\S 10$, where $\beta^{*}: \beta \rho_{2} \approx B^{*}$ and $\beta \beta^{*}=1$. Also $\beta \rho_{2}=\pi_{1}\left(K^{1}\right)$, since $\pi_{1}(K)=1$. If $a \epsilon \rho_{2}, b^{*} \epsilon B^{*}$ we have $(\beta a) b^{*}=a+b^{*}-a$, by (2.1c) in CH II, and $a+b^{*}-a \epsilon B^{*}$ since $\rho_{2}$ is the direct sum of $C_{2}$ and $B^{*}$. Therefore $B^{*}$ is invariant under the operators in $\pi_{1}\left(K^{1}\right)$. Also $\beta \rho_{2}$ operates identically on $C_{2}$. Therefore $h_{2}: C_{2} \rightarrow C_{2}^{\prime}$ can be extended to an operator homomorphism, $h^{*}: \rho_{2} \rightarrow \pi_{2}\left(K^{\prime 2}, K^{\prime 1}\right)$, by taking $h^{*} B^{*}=0$. Since $\beta C_{2}^{\prime}=1$ and $\phi_{1}^{0} K^{1}=e^{\prime 0}$ we have $\beta h^{*} \rho_{2}=f^{0} \beta \rho_{2}=1$, where $f^{0}: \pi_{1}\left(K^{1}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime 1}\right)$ is induced by $\phi_{1}^{0}$. Therefore it follows from Lemma 4 in CH II that $\phi_{1}^{0}$ can be extended to a realization, $K^{2} \rightarrow K^{\prime 2}$, of $(h, f)_{2}$.

Let $n>1$ and let $f_{n}^{0}: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}$ be the homomorphism induced by $\phi_{n}^{0}$. If $f_{n}^{0}=f_{n}$ we have $f_{n}^{0} \beta_{n+1}=\beta_{n+1} h_{n+1}$, since $(h, f)_{n+1}$ is a homomorphism. Therefore it follows from ${ }^{33}$ Lemma 4 in CH II that $\phi_{n}^{0}$ can be extended to a realization, $K^{n+1}=K^{\prime n+1}$, of $(h, f)_{n+1}$. Therefore the lemma will follow when we have extended $\phi_{n}^{0} \mid K^{n-1}$ to another realization, $\phi_{n}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{\prime n}$, of $(h, f)_{n}$, which induces $f_{n}$.

Since $f_{n}^{0}, h_{n}$ are both induced by $\phi_{n}^{0}$ we have $j_{n} f_{n}^{0}=h_{n} j_{n}=j_{n} f_{n}$. Since $\bar{j}_{2}^{-1}(0)=$
${ }^{33}$ If $\pi_{1}(K) \neq 1$ this argument fails unless $h_{n+1}, f_{n}$ are operator homomorphisms associated with the homomorphism, $\pi_{1}(K) \rightarrow \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, which is induced by $\phi_{n}^{o}$.

0 it follows that $f_{n}^{0}=f_{n}$ if $n=2$. Let $n>2$, let $g_{n}^{0}=g_{n}$ and let $C_{n}=A^{*}+B^{*}$, where $A^{*}=j_{n} A_{n}$. Let $u: A^{*} \rightarrow A_{n}$ be a right inverse of $j_{n}$. Then a homomorphism, $\Delta: C_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}$, or cochain $\Delta \in C^{n}\left(K^{n}, A_{n}^{\prime}\right)$, is defined by

$$
\Delta\left(a^{*}+b^{*}\right)=\left(f_{n}-f_{n}^{0}\right) u a^{*} \quad\left(a^{*} \in A^{*}, b^{*} \in B^{*}\right)
$$

Since $j_{n}\left(f_{n}^{0}-f_{n}\right)=0$ we have $j_{n} \Delta=0$, whence $\Delta C_{n} \subset \Gamma_{n}^{\prime}$.
Let $\phi_{n}: K^{n} \rightarrow K^{\prime n}$ be an extension of $\phi_{n}^{0} \mid K^{n-1}$, which realizes ${ }^{34}$ the separation cochain $d\left(\phi_{n}, \phi_{n}^{0}\right)=\Delta$. Let $f_{n}^{1}: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}$ and $h_{n}^{1}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}$ be the homomorphisms induced by $\phi_{n}$. Then ${ }^{35}$

$$
h_{n}^{1}-h_{n}=j_{n} \Delta=0, \quad f_{n}^{1}-f_{n}^{0}=\Delta j_{n}
$$

Therefore $\phi_{n}$ is a realization of $(h, f)_{n}$, because $h_{n}^{1}=h_{n}$. Also

$$
\left(f_{n}^{1}-f_{n}^{0}\right) u a^{*}=\Delta j_{n} u a^{*}=\Delta a^{*}=\left(f_{n}-f_{n}^{0}\right) u a^{*}
$$

Therefore $f_{n}^{1} u a^{*}=f_{n} u a^{*}$. Also $f_{n}^{0} \gamma=\mathfrak{g}_{n}^{0} \gamma=\mathfrak{g}_{n} \gamma=f_{n} \gamma$, if $\gamma \in \Gamma_{n}$, and $f_{n}^{1} \gamma=f_{n}^{0} \gamma$ since $\phi_{n}\left|K^{n-1}=\phi_{n}^{0}\right| K^{n-1}$. Therefore $f_{n}^{1} \gamma=f_{n} \gamma$. Since $j_{n} u=1$ we have $A_{n}=$ $\Gamma_{n}+u A^{*}$. Therefore $f_{n}^{1}=f_{n}$ and the proof is complete.

Theorem.16. If $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ and $q \leqq 4$ any proper homomorphism, $F_{q}: \Sigma_{q}(K) \rightarrow$ $\Sigma_{q}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, has a geometrical realization $K^{q} \rightarrow K^{\prime q}$.

Let $(h, f)_{q}:(C, A)_{q} \rightarrow\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ be a combinatorial realization of $F_{q}$, where $(C, A)_{q},\left(C^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)_{q}$ are parts of $(C, A)(K),(C, A)\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Since $\Gamma_{2}=0$ the theorem follows from two successive applications of Lemma 2 if $q \leqq 3$. Let $q=4$ and let $\phi_{3}^{0}: K^{3} \rightarrow K^{\prime 3}$ be a geometrical realization of $(h, f)_{3}$. Then $\phi_{3}^{0}$ induces the homomorphism $\mathfrak{f}_{2}: \Pi_{2} \rightarrow \Pi_{2}^{\prime}$ in $F_{4}$, and it follows from (14.2) that $g_{3}^{0}=g_{3}$, where $\mathfrak{g}_{3}^{0}, \mathfrak{g}_{3}$ are induced by $\phi_{3}^{0}, f_{3}$. Therefore the theorem follows from another application of Lemma 2.

Let $\mathfrak{B}$ be any category. We describe two objects in $\mathfrak{B}$ as equivalent if, and only if, they are related by an equivalence in $\mathfrak{B}$. Let $T: \mathfrak{U} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ be a given functor, where $\mathfrak{U}$ is any category. By the sufficiency and the realizability conditions, with respect to $T$, we mean the following,
Sufficiency: if $T \alpha$ is an equivalence, so is $\alpha$, where $\alpha$ is a given mapping in $\mathfrak{U}$.
Realizability: a) any object in $\mathfrak{B}$ is equivalent to the image, $T U$, of some object in $\mathfrak{U}$, and
b) any mapping. $T U \rightarrow T U^{\prime}$, in $\mathfrak{B}$, is the image, $T \alpha$, of at least one mapping, $\alpha: U \rightarrow U^{\prime}$, for every pair of objects, $U, U^{\prime}$, in $\mathfrak{U}$.

Let $\Omega_{0}^{4}$ be the homotopy category of all simply connected complexes of at most four dimensions. Then a mapping (i.e. homotopy class), $\alpha: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$, in $\Omega_{0}^{4}$ induces a unique homomorphism $\Sigma_{4} \alpha: \Sigma_{4}(K) \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, because $\pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)=1$. Let $\mathbb{S}_{4}$ be the category in which the objects are all sequences $\Sigma_{4}$, which satisfy the conditions $\Gamma_{2}=0$ and (14.1), and in which $H_{4}$ is free Abelian, with all proper homomorphisms as mappings. Then a functor, $\Sigma_{4}: K_{0}^{4} \rightarrow \mathfrak{S}_{4}$ is obviously determined by the correspondences $K \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}(K), \alpha \rightarrow \Sigma_{4} \alpha$.

[^19]Theorem 17. The functor $\Sigma_{4}$ satisfies both the sufficiency and the realizability conditions.
This follows from Theorems 13, 15, 16.
As pointed out in the introduction, both homotopy classes of maps $S^{4} \rightarrow S^{3}$ induce the same homomorphism $\Sigma_{4}\left(S^{4}\right) \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}\left(S^{3}\right)$. Therefore the function $\alpha \rightarrow$ $\Sigma_{4} \alpha$ is not (1-1). By taking $N=S^{3} \cup S^{4}$, where $S^{3} \cap S^{4}=e^{0}$, we see that $\Sigma_{4}$ does not even induce an isomorphism of the group of equivalences $\alpha: K \equiv K$.

Sequences of the form $\Sigma_{4}(K)$ can be simplified algebraically by identifying $\Gamma_{3}, H_{3}, H_{2}$ with $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right), \Pi_{3} / \mathrm{i}_{3}, \Pi_{2}$ so as to make $\theta=1$, $\mathrm{j}_{3}$ the natural homomorphism and $\mathrm{i}_{2}=1$. When $\Sigma_{4}$ is thus simplified it is completely determined by $\Pi_{2}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{4} \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Pi_{3} . \tag{14.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\Pi_{2}$ be finitely generated. Then it follows from Theorem 8 that $\Pi_{2}$ is determined, up to an isomorphism, by $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$. Let $F_{4}: \Sigma_{4} \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ be a proper homomorphism which determines an ismorphism of the sequence (14.4). Then it follows from Theorem 11 that $F_{4}: \Sigma_{4} \approx \Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ (obviously $\mathfrak{h}_{3}: H_{3} \approx H_{3}^{\prime}$ if $g_{3}, f_{3}$ are isomorphisms, where $F_{4}=(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f})$ ).
Theorem 16 is analogous to Theorems $1,2,3$ in [5], concerning ( $n-1$ )-connected complexes (i.e. those with $\pi_{r}(K)=0$ for $r=1, \cdots, n-1$ ) when $n>2$. Let $\Sigma=\Sigma(K)$, where $K$ is ( $n-1$ )-connected ( $n>2$ ), and if $x \in \Pi_{n}$ let $u(x) \epsilon \Gamma_{n+1}$ be defined in the same way as $u(x) \in \Gamma_{3}$, in $\S 13$ above, when $x \in \Pi_{2}$. Then $u: \Pi_{n} \rightarrow \Gamma_{n+1}$ is a homomorphism since $n>2$. It is shown in [5] that $\theta: \Pi_{n, 2} \approx \Gamma_{n+1}$ where $\Pi_{n, 2}=\Pi_{n} / 2 \Pi_{n}$ and $\theta$ is induced by $u$. The argument leading to (13.2), with $\gamma: \Pi_{2} \rightarrow \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$ replaced by the natural homomorphism $\Pi_{n} \rightarrow \Pi_{n, 2}$, shows that $\theta$ is natural. Therefore Lemmas 1 and 2 yield realizability theorems for $\Sigma_{n+2}$, with $\Gamma_{r}=\Pi_{r}=H_{r}=0$ if $r<n$ and (14.1) replaced by $\theta: \Pi_{n, 2} \approx \Gamma_{n+1}$, which are analogous to Theorems $15,16$.

Many of these facts have been recorded by G. W. Whitehead in [23]. In particular his results may be used to show that, if $\Sigma=\Sigma(K)$, where $K$ is $(n-1)$ connected, then $\Sigma_{n+2}$ is internally exact $(n>2)$ and that the sequence $\Sigma_{n+2}^{0}$, which is defined in $\S 15$ below, is exact if $n>3$.

Theorem 16 is also analogous to Theorems 1, 2, 3 in [9], concerning the 3 -type of an arbitrary (connected) CW-complex. In the following section we prove a theorem which leads to analogous results concerning the 4 -type of a simply connected complex.

## 15. $q$-types

Let $2 \leqq q<\infty$. We recall from CH I that complexes $K, K^{\prime}$ are of the same $q$-type if, and only if, there are maps,

$$
\phi: K^{q} \rightarrow K^{\prime q}, \quad \phi^{\prime}: K^{\prime q} \rightarrow K^{q}
$$

such that $\phi^{\prime} \phi\left|K^{q-1} \simeq 1, \phi \phi^{\prime}\right| K^{\prime q-1} \simeq 1$. If, and only if, these conditions are
satisfied, we write $\phi: K^{q} \equiv{ }_{q-1} K^{\prime q}$. By Theorem 2 in CH I this is so if, and only if, $\phi$ induces isomorphisms $\pi_{n}(K) \approx \pi_{n}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ for $n=1, \cdots, q-1$. Obviously $K$ and $K^{q}$ have the same $q$-type. Therefore, when studying $q$-types, we may confine ourselves to complexes of at most $q$ dimensions.

Let $\Sigma_{q}=\Sigma_{q}(K)$, where, to begin with, $\operatorname{dim} K$ may exceed $q$. Let

$$
H_{q}^{0}=H_{q}^{0}(K)=H_{q} / \mathrm{i}_{q} .
$$

Thus $H_{q}^{0} \approx H_{q}(\widetilde{K}) / S_{q}(\widetilde{K})$, where $\widetilde{K}$ is the universal covering complex of $K$ and $S_{q}(\widetilde{K})$ consists of the "spherical" homology classes. Since $i \Pi_{q}=\mathfrak{b}_{q}^{-1}(0)$ an isomorphism

$$
\mathfrak{b}_{q}^{0}: H_{q}^{0} \approx \mathfrak{b}_{q} H_{q}=\mathfrak{i}_{q}^{-1}(0)
$$

is induced by $\mathfrak{b}_{q}$. Let $\Sigma_{q}^{0}=\Sigma_{q}^{0}(K)$ be the exact sequence
$\Sigma_{q}^{0}$ :

$$
0 \rightarrow H_{q}^{0} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{b}^{0}} \Gamma_{q-1} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\dot{\mathfrak{i}}} H_{2} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

Since $l_{q} Z_{q}=H_{q}, l_{q} j_{q} A_{q}=\dot{\mathrm{i}}_{q} \Pi_{q}, H_{q}^{0}\left(K^{q}\right)=Z_{q} / j_{q} A_{q}$ it follows that $l_{q}$ induces an isomorphism $H_{q}^{0}\left(K^{q}\right) \approx H_{q}^{0}$, by means of which we identify $\Sigma_{q}^{0}\left(K^{q}\right)$ with $\Sigma_{q}^{0}(K)$. From the purely algebraic point of view $\Sigma_{q}^{0}$ may be regarded as a sequence $\Sigma$, in which every group preceding $H_{q}$ is zero. Therefore we need not redefine the terms homomorphism etc.

Let $\Sigma_{q}^{\prime}=\Sigma_{q}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ and let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}): \Sigma_{q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime}$ be any homomorphism. Since $\mathfrak{b}_{q} \mathfrak{h}_{q}=\mathfrak{g}_{q-1} \mathfrak{b}_{q}$ it follows that

$$
\mathfrak{h}_{q} \mathfrak{b}_{q}^{-1}(0) \subset \mathfrak{b}_{q}^{-1}(0)=\dot{\mathfrak{i}}_{q} \Pi_{q}^{\prime}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{h}_{q}$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\mathfrak{h}_{q}^{0}: H_{q}^{0} \rightarrow H_{q}^{\prime 0} .
$$

Obviously $\mathfrak{b}_{q}^{0} \mathfrak{h}_{q}^{0}=\mathfrak{g}_{q-1} \mathfrak{b}_{q}$. Therefore a homomorphism, $F_{q}^{0}: \Sigma_{q}^{0} \rightarrow \Sigma_{q}^{\prime 0}$, which consists of $\mathfrak{h}_{q}^{0}$ and of $\mathfrak{g}_{n}, \mathfrak{f}_{n}, \mathfrak{h}_{n}$ for $n=2, \cdots, q-1$, is induced by ( $\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f}$ ). If $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{f})$ is induced by a map $\phi: K^{q} \rightarrow K^{\prime q}$ we shall say that $\phi$ induces, or realizes, $F_{q}^{0}$ 。

Theorem 18. a) If $\phi_{1}: \pi_{1}(K) \approx \pi_{1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ and $F_{q}^{0}: \Sigma_{q}^{0} \approx \Sigma_{q}^{\prime 0}$, where $\phi_{1}$ and $F_{q}^{0}$ are induced by $\phi: K^{q} \rightarrow K^{\prime q}$, then $\phi: K^{q} \equiv{ }_{q-1} K^{\prime q}$.
b) Any proper homomorphism. $F_{4}^{0}: \Sigma_{4}^{0} \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}^{\prime 0}$ has a realization $K^{4} \rightarrow K^{\prime 4}$.

Part (a) follows from Theorem 2 in CH I.
Let $\left\{z_{\mu}\right\}$ be a set of free generators of $H_{4}\left(K^{4}\right)$. Let

$$
z_{\mu}^{\prime} \epsilon \mathfrak{b}_{q}^{-1} \mathfrak{g}_{3} \mathfrak{b}_{4} z_{\mu} \subset H_{4}\left(K^{\prime 4}\right)
$$

where $g_{3}: \Gamma_{3} \rightarrow \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}$ is in $F_{4}^{0}$, and let $\mathfrak{b}_{4}: H_{4}\left(K^{4}\right) \rightarrow H_{4}\left(K^{\prime 4}\right)$ be the homomorphism which is defined by $\mathfrak{b}_{4} z_{\mu}=z_{\mu}^{\prime}$. Then $\mathfrak{b}_{4} \mathfrak{h}_{4}=\mathfrak{g}_{3} \mathfrak{b}_{4}$ and it follows that $\mathfrak{h}_{4}$ induces a homomorphism $\mathfrak{h}_{4}^{*}: H_{4}^{0}\left(K^{4}\right) \rightarrow H_{4}^{0}\left(K^{\prime 4}\right)$, such that $\mathfrak{b}_{4}^{0} \mathfrak{h}_{4}^{*}=\mathfrak{g}_{3} b_{4}^{0}=\mathfrak{b}_{4}^{0} \mathfrak{h}_{4}$. Since $\left(\mathfrak{b}_{4}^{0}\right)^{-1}(0)=0$ it follows that $\mathfrak{h}_{4}^{*}=\mathfrak{h}_{4}^{0}$. On replacing $\mathfrak{h}_{4}^{0}$ by $\mathfrak{h}_{4}$ we have a proper
homomorphism, $F_{4}: \Sigma_{4} \rightarrow \Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$, which induces $F_{4}^{0}$. Part (b) now follows from Theorem 16.

An algebraic sequence $\Sigma_{4}^{0}$ is a special kind of $\Sigma_{4}$, namely one such that $\boldsymbol{b}_{4}^{-1}(0)=$ 0 . Therefore Theorem 15 applies unchanged to the geometrical realization of $\Sigma_{4}^{0}$. Notice, however, that any sequence $\Sigma_{4}^{0}$ is realized by a complex $K^{4}$, since $\Sigma_{4}^{0}(K)=\Sigma_{4}^{0}\left(K^{4}\right)$, even if $\operatorname{dim} K>4$.

Notice that, by analogy with (14.4), $\Sigma_{4}^{0}$ may be replaced by a pair of arbitrary Abelian groups, $\Pi_{2}, \Pi_{3}$, and a homomorphism $\mathfrak{i}: \Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right) \rightarrow \Pi_{3}$, which may be arbitrary. Therefore the "algebraic 4 -type" of a simply connected complex is a comparatively simple affair. The algebraic $(n+2)$-type of an $(n-1)$-connected complex ( $n>2$ ) may be similarly defined, with $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}\right)$ replaced by $\Pi_{n, 2}$.

## Chapter IV. The Pontruagin squares

## 16. The main theorem

We give the following definition of a net of finite, simplicial complexes, which differs slightly from the one in [18]. Let $\{K(d)\}$ be a set of such complexes, which is indexed to a directed set $D$. Instead of taking a projection, $K\left(d_{2}\right) \rightarrow K\left(d_{1}\right)$, to be a single map, where $d_{1}<d_{2}$, we take it to be a homotopy class of simplicial maps. We then assume that, if $d_{1}<d_{2}$, there is a single projection,

$$
K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right): K\left(d_{2}\right) \rightarrow K\left(d_{1}\right),
$$

such that $K(d, d)=1$ and $K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right) K\left(d_{2}, d_{3}\right)=K\left(d_{1}, \cdot d_{3}\right)$ if $d_{1} \prec d_{2} \prec d_{3}$. Let $(D, K)$ denote this net and let $\left(D^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)$ be a similar net. By a homomorphism,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(R^{*}, \rho\right):(D, K) \rightarrow\left(D^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right) \tag{16.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

we shall mean an order preserving map, $R^{*}: D^{\prime} \rightarrow D$, together with a family of homotopy classes,

$$
\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right): K\left(R^{*} d^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow K^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}\right),
$$

where $\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ is defined for every $d^{\prime} \in D^{\prime}$ and

$$
\rho\left(d_{1}^{\prime}\right) K\left(R^{*} d_{1}^{\prime}, R^{*} d_{2}^{\prime}\right)=K^{\prime}\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}\right) \rho\left(d_{2}^{\prime}\right) \quad\left(d_{1}^{\prime} \preccurlyeq d_{2}^{\prime}\right)
$$

It is easily verified that all nets, with all homomorphisms as mappings, is a category $\mathfrak{X}$. We shall sometimes denote nets by $X, X^{\prime}$ etc.
Let $\mathfrak{H}$ and $\mathfrak{D}$ mean the same as in $\S 9$ above and let $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{H})$ be the Cartesian product of $\mathfrak{X}$ and $\mathfrak{U}$, in which the mappings, ( $\xi, \alpha$ ), are pairs of homomorphisms, $\xi: X \rightarrow X^{\prime}, \alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. Let $\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{A}\right)$ be similarly defined, where $\Omega_{\sigma}$ is the homotopy category of finite, simplicial complexes. Let $P:\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{Y}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ be a functor, which is contravariant in $\Omega_{\sigma}$ and covariant in $\mathfrak{A}$. Let $(\rho, \alpha):(K, A) \rightarrow\left(K^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ be any mapping in $\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{A}\right)$. Then $P(\rho, \alpha)$ is a homomorphism

$$
P(\rho, \alpha): P\left(K^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow P\left(K, A^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Let $(D, K)$ be a given net and let $P\{K, A\}$ denote the family of groups

$$
P(K(d), A)
$$

for every $d \epsilon D$. Then it follows without difficulty that $(D, P\{K, A\})$, with the homomorphisms ${ }^{36}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)=P K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right): P\left(K\left(d_{1}\right), A\right) \rightarrow P\left(K\left(d_{2}\right), A\right) \tag{16.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a direct system of groups; also that a "lifted" functor,

$$
P_{l}:(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}
$$

is defined by

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
P_{l}((D, K), A)=(D, P\{K, A\})  \tag{16.3}\\
P_{l}\left(\left(R^{*}, \rho\right), \alpha\right)=\left(R^{*}, P\{\rho, \alpha\}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where ( $R^{*}, \rho$ ) means the same as in (16.1) and $P\{\rho, \alpha\}$ denotes the family of homomorphisms

$$
P\left(\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right), \alpha\right): P\left(K^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}\right), A\right) \rightarrow P\left(K\left(R^{*} d^{\prime}\right), A^{\prime}\right)
$$

Therefore $L P_{l}$ is a functor,

$$
L P_{l}:(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{N}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A},
$$

where $L: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is the direct limit functor.
Let $\tau: P \rightarrow Q$ be a natural transformation, where $Q:\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{Y}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{N}$ is a functor of the same variance as $P$. Let $Q_{l}:(\mathcal{X}, \mathfrak{M}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ be defined in the same way as $P_{l}$. Let $(X, A)$ mean the same as before and let $\tau\{K, A\}$ denote the family of homomorphisms

$$
\tau(K(d), A): P(K(d), A) \rightarrow Q(K(d), A)
$$

Since $\tau$ is natural, and since $P, Q$ are contravariant in $\Omega_{\sigma}$, we have

$$
\tau\left(K\left(d_{2}\right), A\right) P K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)=Q K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right) \tau\left(K\left(d_{1}\right), A\right)
$$

or

$$
\tau\left(K\left(d_{2}\right), A\right) T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)=U\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right) \tau\left(K\left(d_{1}\right), A\right)
$$

where $T\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)$ is given by (16.2) and $U\left(d_{2}, d_{1}\right)=Q K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$. Therefore a homomorphism,

$$
\tau_{l}(X, A): P_{l}(X, A) \rightarrow Q_{l}(X, A)
$$

is defined by $\tau_{l}(X, A)=(1, \tau\{K, A\})$.
Let $\left(R^{*}, \rho\right)$ and $\alpha$ mean the same as in (16.3) and let $S=P$ or $Q$. Then

$$
S\left(\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right), \alpha\right)
$$

is a homomorphism

$$
S\left(\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right), \alpha\right): S\left(K^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}\right), A\right) \rightarrow S\left(K\left(R^{*} d^{\prime}\right), A^{\prime}\right)
$$

Since $\tau$ is natural we have

$$
\tau\left(K\left(R^{*} d^{\prime}\right), A^{\prime}\right) P\left(\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right), \alpha\right)=Q\left(\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right), \alpha\right) \tau\left(K^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}\right), A\right)
$$

[^20]Therefore, writing $\xi=\left(R^{*}, \rho\right)$, it follows from (16.3) that

$$
\begin{align*}
\tau_{l}\left(X, A^{\prime}\right) P_{l}(\xi, \alpha) & =\left(1, \tau\left\{K, A^{\prime}\right\}\right)\left(R^{*}, P\{\rho, \alpha\}\right) \\
& =\left(R^{*}, \tau\left\{K, A^{\prime}\right\} P\{\rho, \alpha\}\right) \\
& =\left(R^{*}, Q\{\rho, \alpha\} \tau\left\{K^{\prime}, A\right\}\right) \\
& =\left(R^{*}, Q\{\rho, \alpha\}\right)\left(1, \tau\left\{K^{\prime}, A\right\}\right) \\
& =Q_{l}(\xi, \alpha) \tau_{l}\left(X^{\prime}, A\right) \tag{16.4}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore $\tau_{l}$ is natural. Let $L \tau_{l}: L P_{l} \rightarrow L Q_{l}$ be the transformation which is defined by

$$
\left(L \tau_{l}\right)\left(X, A^{\prime}\right)=L\left(\tau_{l}\left(X, A^{\prime}\right)\right.
$$

On applying the functor $L$ to both sides of (16.4) we see that $L \tau_{l}$ is natural. ${ }^{37}$
The $r^{\text {th }}$ cohomology functor $H^{+}:\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{Y}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ is contravariant in $\Omega_{\sigma}$ and covariant in $\mathfrak{Y}$. We define $H_{l}^{r}$ in the same way as $P_{l}$ and write

$$
H^{+}=L H_{l}^{r}:(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{U}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{N}
$$

Then $H^{+}$is the Čech cohomology functor. We define the cup-product,

$$
\text { y u z } \varepsilon H^{2 n}(X, \Gamma(A)),
$$

of elements $\mathbf{y}, \mathrm{z} \in \boldsymbol{H}^{n}(X, A)$, by means of the pairing $(a, b)=[a, b] \in \Gamma(A)$, where

$$
a, b \in A
$$

It is obvious that a covariant functor

$$
\Gamma:(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{Y}) \rightarrow(\mathfrak{X}, \mathfrak{N})
$$

is defined by $\Gamma(X, A)=(X, \Gamma(A)), \Gamma(\xi, \alpha)=(\xi, \Gamma \alpha)$.
Thus we have functors

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma H^{\prime}, H^{+} \Gamma:(X, \mathfrak{X}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{N} \tag{16.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are contravariant in $\mathfrak{X}$ and covariant in $\mathfrak{N}$.
Theorem 19. Let $n$ be even. Then there is a natural transformation, ${ }^{38}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta: \Gamma H^{n} \rightarrow H^{2 n} \Gamma, \tag{16.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta(X, A)[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}]=\mathbf{y} \cup \mathbf{z} \tag{16.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every pair $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z} \in H^{\boldsymbol{n}}(X, A)$.
Assume that the analogous theorem has been proved for the category ( $\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{A}$ )

[^21]and let $\tau: \Gamma H^{n} \rightarrow H^{2 n} \Gamma$ be a natural transformation which satisfies (16.7), where $\Gamma H^{r}, H^{\top} \Gamma:\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{Y}\right) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ are defined in the same way as $\Gamma H^{r}, H^{r} \Gamma$ in (16.5). It follows from (16.3) and the definitions of $\Gamma_{l}: \mathfrak{D} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ and $\Gamma:\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{H}\right) \rightarrow\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{U}\right)$ that
$$
\left(\Gamma H^{r}\right)_{l}=\Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{r}, \quad\left(H^{\top} \Gamma\right)_{l}=H_{l}^{\tau} \Gamma .
$$

Therefore

$$
L \tau_{l}: L \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n} \rightarrow L H_{l}^{2 n} \Gamma
$$

is a natural transformation. It follows from Theorem 12 that $\omega^{-1}: \Gamma L \rightarrow L \Gamma_{l}$ is a natural equivalence, where $\omega$ is defined by (9.1). Therefore ${ }^{37}$

$$
\omega^{-1} H_{l}^{n}: \Gamma L H_{l}^{n} \rightarrow L \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n}
$$

is a natural transformation. Therefore, writing $L H_{l}^{\tau}=H^{r}$, it follows that

$$
\eta=\left(L \tau_{l}\right)\left(\omega^{-1} H_{l}^{n}\right): \Gamma H^{n} \rightarrow H^{2 n} \Gamma
$$

is a natural transformation.
We now verify (16.7). Let $X=(D, K)$. Then it follows from (16.3) that

$$
H_{l}^{r}(X, A)=\left(D, H^{\top}\{K, A\}\right), \quad \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{r}(X, A)=\left(D, \Gamma H^{r}\{K, A\}\right) .
$$

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda(d): H^{n}(K(d), A) & \rightarrow H^{n}(X, A) \\
\mu(d): \Gamma H^{n}(K(d), A) & \rightarrow L \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n}(X, A) \\
\nu(d): H^{2 n}(K(d), A) & \rightarrow H^{2 n}(X, A)
\end{aligned}
$$

be the injections. Let $(1, \rho): \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H_{l}^{2 n}(X, A)$ be a homomorphism of the direct system $\Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n}(X, A)$ into the direct system $H_{l}^{2 n}(X, A)$. Then

$$
L(1, \rho): L \Gamma_{l} H_{l}^{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H^{2 n}(X, A)
$$

is given by

$$
L(1, \rho) \mu(d) g(d)=\nu(d) \rho(d) g(d)
$$

where $g(d) \in \Gamma H^{n}(K(d), A)$.
Let

$$
\mathbf{y}=\lambda(d) y(d), \quad \mathbf{z}=\lambda(d) z(d)
$$

where $y(d), z(d) \in H^{n}(K(d), A)$. Since

$$
[y(d), z(d)]=\gamma(y(d)+z(d))-\gamma(y(d))-\gamma(z(d))
$$

it follows from (9.1) that

$$
\omega\left(H_{l}^{n}(X, A)\right) \mu(d)[y(d), z(d)]=[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}] .
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\omega^{-1} H_{l}^{n}\right)(X, A)[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}] & =\omega\left(H_{l}^{n}(X, A)\right)^{-1}[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}] \\
& =\mu(d)[y(d), z(d)] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By hypothesis $\tau(K(d), A)[y(d), z(d)]=y(d) \cup z(d)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\eta(X, A)[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}] & =\left(L \tau_{\imath}\right)(X, A)\left\{\left(\omega^{-1} H_{l}^{n}\right)(X, A)[\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}]\right\} \\
& =L(1, \tau\{K, A\}) \mu(d)[y(d), z(d)] \\
& =\nu(d) \tau(K(d), A)[y(d), z(d)] \\
& =\nu(d)(y(d) \mathbf{u} z(d)) \\
& =\mathbf{y} \mathbf{u} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore it only remains to prove the theorem for the category ( $\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{N}$ ).
Let $K$ be a finite simplicial complex, let $C^{r}=C^{r}(K)$ be the group of integral, $r$-dimensional cochains in $K$ and let $c_{1}, \cdots, c_{q}$ be a canonical basis for $C^{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta c_{i}=\sigma_{i} d_{i} \tag{16.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\left(i=1, \cdots, q ; \sigma_{i} \mid \sigma_{i+1}\right)
$$

where $\sigma_{i} d_{i}=0$ if $i>t$ and $\left(d_{1}, \cdots, d_{t}\right)$ is part of a canonical basis for $C^{n+1}$. We recall from [3] the definition of the Pontrjagin Square

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{p c}=c \mathrm{u} c+c \mathrm{u}_{1} \delta c \quad\left(c \in C^{n}\right) \tag{16.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The cochain group, $C^{n}(A)$, is the tensor product,

$$
C^{n}(A)=A \circ C
$$

and the group of cocycles, $Z^{n}(A) \subset C^{n}(A)$, consists of those, and only those, cochains,

$$
x=a_{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+a_{q} \cdot c_{q}
$$

such that $\sigma_{1} a_{2}=\cdots=\sigma_{q} a_{q}=0$, where $\sigma_{i}=0$ if $i>t$. The cup-product of cocycles,

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=a_{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+a_{q} \cdot c_{q}, \quad z=b_{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+b_{q} \cdot c_{q} \tag{16.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

is defined by

$$
y \cup z=\sum_{i} \sum_{j}\left[a_{i}, b_{j}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j}
$$

If $i<j$ then $\sigma_{i} \mid \sigma_{j}$ and, since $n$ is even,

$$
c_{i} \cup c_{j} \backsim c_{j} \cup c_{i}
$$

$\bmod . \sigma_{i}$.
Also $\sigma_{i} a_{i}=\sigma_{i} b_{i}=0$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
y \mathrm{u} z \sim \sum_{i}\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{i}+\sum_{i<j}\left(\left[a_{i}, b_{j}\right]+\left[a_{j}, b_{i}\right]\right) \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j} \tag{16.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

I say that a homomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
v: \Gamma\left(Z^{n}(A)\right) \rightarrow Z^{2 n}(\Gamma(A)) \tag{16.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
v \gamma(y)=\Sigma_{i \gamma}\left(a_{i}\right) \cdot p c_{i}+\sum_{i<j}\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j} \tag{16.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $y \in Z^{n}(A)$ is given by (16.10). For since $\sigma_{i} a_{i}=0$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{i}^{2} \gamma\left(a_{i}\right) & =\gamma\left(\sigma_{i} a_{i}\right)=0 \\
2 \sigma_{i} \gamma\left(a_{i}\right) & =\sigma_{i}\left[a_{i}, a_{i}\right]=\left[\sigma_{i} a_{i}, a_{i}\right]=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\left(\sigma_{i}^{2}, 2 \sigma_{i}\right) \gamma\left(a_{i}\right)=0$. That is to say $\sigma_{i} \gamma\left(a_{i}\right)=0$ if $\sigma_{i}$ is odd and $2 \sigma_{i} \gamma\left(a_{i}\right)=0$ if $\sigma_{i}$ is even. Obviously $\delta p c_{i} \equiv 0, \bmod . \sigma_{i}$, and it is proved in [3] that $\delta p c_{i} \equiv 0, \bmod .2 \sigma_{i}$, if $\sigma_{i}$ is even. Therefore, and since $\sigma_{i}\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]=$ $\sigma_{j}\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]=0$, it follows that $\delta v \gamma(y)=0$. That is to say, $v \gamma(y) \in Z^{2 n}(\Gamma(A))$.

Obviously $v \gamma(-y)=v \gamma(y)$. Therefore $v$ is consistent with (2.1a). Let $z \in Z^{n}(A)$ be given by (16.10). Then

$$
y+z=\left(a_{1}+b_{1}\right) \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+\left(a_{q}+b_{q}\right) \cdot c_{q}
$$

Since $\gamma\left(a_{i}+b_{i}\right)-\gamma\left(a_{i}\right)-\gamma\left(b_{i}\right)=\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right]$ and

$$
\left[a_{i}+b_{i}, a_{j}+b_{j}\right]-\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]-\left[b_{i}, b_{j}\right]=\left[a_{i}, b_{j}\right]+\left[a_{j}, b_{i}\right]
$$

we have

$$
\begin{align*}
v[y, z] & =v \gamma(y+z)-v \gamma(y)-v \gamma(z) \\
& =\sum_{i}\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot p c_{i}+\sum_{i<j}\left(\left[a_{i}, b_{j}\right]+\left[a_{j}, b_{i}\right]\right) \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j} . \tag{16.14}
\end{align*}
$$

The right hand side of (16.14) is bilinear with respect to ( $a_{1}, \cdots, a_{q}$ ) and ( $b_{1}, \cdots, b_{q}$ ). Therefore $v$ is consistent with (5.6). Therefore (16.12) is a homomorphism.

Since $\sigma_{i}\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right]=\left[\sigma_{i} a_{i}, b_{i}\right]=0$ it follows from (16.8) and (16.9) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot p c_{i} } & =\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{i}+\sigma_{i}\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup_{1} d_{i} \\
& =\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore it follows from (16.14) and (16.11) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
v[y, z] \sim y \cup z \tag{16.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $y=\delta w$ where $w \in C^{n-1}(A)$. Let

$$
w=\sum_{\lambda=1}^{s} a_{\lambda} \cdot \bar{c}_{\lambda}
$$

where $\left(\bar{c}_{1}, \cdots, \bar{c}_{s}\right)$ is part of a canonical basis for $C^{n-1}$ and $\delta \bar{c}_{\lambda}=\tau_{\lambda} c_{t+\lambda}$. Then

$$
y=\sum_{\lambda} a_{\lambda} \cdot \delta \bar{c}_{\lambda}=\sum_{\lambda} \tau_{\lambda} a_{\lambda} \cdot c_{t+\lambda}
$$

If $\delta c=0$ we have $\mathfrak{p} c=c \cup c$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma\left(\tau_{\lambda} a_{\lambda}\right) \cdot \mathrm{p} c_{t+\lambda} & =\gamma\left(a_{\lambda}\right) \cdot \tau_{\lambda}^{2}\left(c_{t+\lambda} \cup c_{t+\lambda}\right) \\
& =\gamma\left(a_{\lambda}\right) \cdot \delta \bar{c}_{\lambda} \cup \delta \bar{c}_{\lambda} \\
& =\delta\left\{\gamma\left(a_{\lambda}\right) \cdot \bar{c}_{\lambda} \cup \delta \bar{c}_{\lambda}\right\} \\
{\left[\tau_{\lambda} a_{\lambda}, \tau_{\mu} a_{\mu}\right] \cdot c_{t+\lambda} \cup c_{t+\lambda} } & =\left[a_{\lambda}, a_{\mu}\right] \cdot \delta \bar{c}_{\lambda} \cup \delta \bar{c}_{\mu}=\delta\left(\left[a_{\lambda}, a_{\mu}\right] \cdot \bar{c}_{\lambda} \cup \delta \bar{c}_{\mu}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore it follows from (16.13) that $v \gamma(\delta w) \sim 0$. Also it follows from (16.15) that

$$
v[\delta w, z] \sim(\delta w) \cup z \sim 0 .
$$

Therefore it follows from Theorem 4 in $\S 6$ above that the kernel of the homomorphism

$$
\Gamma\left(Z^{n}(A)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(H^{n}(K, A)\right)
$$

which is induced by the natural homomorphism, $Z^{n}(A) \rightarrow H^{n}(K, A)$, is carried by $v$ into the group of coboundaries in $Z^{2 n}(\Gamma(A))$. Therefore $v$ induces a homomorphism

$$
\tau(K, A): \Gamma\left(H^{n}(K, A)\right) \rightarrow H^{2 n}(K, \Gamma(A))
$$

Also it follows from (16.15) that

$$
\tau(K, A)\left[y^{*}, z^{*}\right]=y^{*} \cup z^{*}
$$

where $y^{*}, z^{*}{ }_{\epsilon} H^{n}(K, A)$.
Let $(\rho, \alpha):(K, A) \rightarrow\left(K^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ be any mapping in the category $\left(\Omega_{\sigma}, \mathfrak{H}\right)$. Then ( $\rho, \alpha$ ) is the resultant of $(1, \alpha)$, followed by $(\rho, 1)$, where each 1 denotes the appropriate identity. It is obvious that not only $\tau$, but even $v$ is natural with respect to the homomorphisms $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$. It remains to prove that $\tau$ is natural with respect to maps $K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$.

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f^{n}: Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow Z^{n}(K, A) \\
& f^{2 n}: Z^{2 n}\left(K^{\prime}, \Gamma(A)\right) \rightarrow Z^{2 n}(K, \Gamma(A))
\end{aligned}
$$

be the homomorphisms induced by a simplicial map $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$. Let

$$
g^{n}: \Gamma\left(Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(Z^{n}(K, A)\right)
$$

be the homomorphism induced by $f^{n}$ and let

$$
v^{\prime}: \Gamma\left(Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)\right) \rightarrow Z^{2 n}\left(K^{\prime}, \Gamma(A)\right)
$$

be defined in the same way as $v$, by means of a canonical basis, ${ }^{39}\left(c_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, c_{q}^{\prime}\right)$, for $C^{n}(K)$. We have to prove that

$$
f^{2 n} v^{\prime} \gamma\left(y^{\prime}\right) \backsim v^{\prime} g^{n} \gamma\left(y^{\prime}\right)=v^{\prime} \gamma\left(f^{n} y^{\prime}\right)
$$

for any $y^{\prime} \in Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)$.
Let $\delta c_{i}^{\prime}=\sigma_{i}^{\prime} d_{i}^{\prime}\left(i=1, \cdots, t^{\prime}\right), \delta c_{j}^{\prime}=0\left(j=t^{\prime}+1, \cdots, q^{\prime}\right)$, where ( $d_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, d_{t}^{\prime}$ ) is part of a basis for $C^{n+1}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Then $Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)$ is generated by cocycles of the form $a \cdot c_{i}^{\prime}$, where $\sigma_{i}^{\prime} a=0$ and $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}=0$ if $i>t^{\prime}$. Therefore it follows from Theorem 5 that $\Gamma\left(Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)\right)$ is generated by the elements $\gamma\left(a \cdot c_{i}^{\prime}\right)$, where $\sigma_{i}^{\prime} a=0$, together with $\left[y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right]$, for every pair $y^{\prime}, z^{\prime} \in Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{2 n} v^{\prime}\left[y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right] & \backsim f^{2 n}\left(y^{\prime} \cup z^{\prime}\right) \backsim f^{n} y^{\prime} \cup f^{n} z^{\prime} \\
& \sim v\left[f^{n} y^{\prime}, f^{n} z^{\prime}\right]=v g^{n}\left[y^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

[^22]it only remains to prove that, if $\sigma_{i}^{\prime} a=0$, then
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{2 n} v^{\prime} \gamma\left(a \cdot c_{i}^{\prime}\right) \backsim v \gamma\left(f^{n}\left(a \cdot c_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)=v \gamma\left(a \cdot \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime}\right) \tag{16.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $\phi^{r}: C^{r}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow C^{r}(K)$ is the (integral) cochain mapping induced by $\phi$.
Let $\phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime}=n_{1} c_{1}+\cdots+n_{q} c_{q}$ for a fixed, but arbitrary value of $i$. Let $\sigma_{i}^{\prime} a=0$. Then it follows from one of the preceding arguments that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\sigma_{i}^{\prime 2}, 2 \sigma_{i}^{\prime}\right) \gamma(a)=0 \tag{16.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ is odd, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi^{2 n} \mathfrak{p} c_{i}^{\prime} & \equiv \phi^{2 n}\left(c_{i}^{\prime} \cup c_{i}^{\prime}\right) \\
& \sim \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime} \cup \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime} \\
& \equiv p \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\bmod . \sigma_{i}^{\prime}$
$\bmod 2 \sigma_{i}^{\prime}$,

$$
\bmod .2 \sigma_{i}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi^{2 n} p c_{i}^{\prime} \backsim p \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime} \tag{16.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

as shown in [3]. In either case

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi^{2 n} \mathfrak{p} c_{i}^{\prime} \sim \mathfrak{p} \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime}=\mathfrak{p}\left(n_{1} c_{1}+\cdots+n_{q} c_{q}\right) \quad \bmod .\left(\sigma_{i}^{\prime 2}, 2 \sigma_{i}^{\prime}\right) \tag{16.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\delta c_{i}^{\prime} \equiv 0, \bmod . \sigma_{i}^{\prime}$, and since $\delta c_{j}=\sigma_{j} d_{j}$, where $\left(d_{1}, \cdots, d_{t}\right)$ is part of a basis for $C^{n+1}(K)$, it follows that $\sigma_{i}^{\prime} \mid n_{j} \sigma_{j}$. Therefore $n_{j} c_{j}$ is a cocycle, mod. $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}$, for each $j=1, \cdots, q$. Let $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ be even. Then it follows from (16.17,) (16.19) and (4.7) in [3] that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{2 n} v^{\prime} \gamma\left(a \cdot c_{i}^{\prime}\right) & =f^{2 n}\left(\gamma(a) \cdot p c_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\gamma(a) \cdot \phi^{2 n} p c_{i}^{\prime} \\
& \sim \gamma(a) \cdot p\left(n_{1} c_{1}+\cdots+n_{q} c_{q}\right) \\
& \sim \gamma(a) \cdot\left(\Sigma_{i} p\left(n_{i} c_{i}\right)+2 \sum_{i<j} n_{i} c_{i} \cup n_{j} c_{j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i} n_{i}^{2} \gamma(a) \cdot p c_{i}+\sum_{i<j}[a, a] \cdot n_{i} c_{i} \cup n_{j} c_{j} \\
& =\sum_{i} \gamma\left(n_{i} a\right) \cdot p c_{i}+\sum_{i<j}\left[n_{i} a, n_{j} a\right] \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j} \\
& =v \gamma\left(n_{1} a \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+n_{q} a \cdot c_{q}\right) \\
& =v \gamma\left(a \cdot \phi^{n} c_{i}^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ is odd we have the same result on replacing each Pontrjagin square, $\mathfrak{p c}$, by $c u c$. This proves (16.16) and hence the theorem.

Let $n$ be even, let y $\epsilon H^{n}(X, A)$ and let

$$
\mathrm{py}=\eta(X, A) \gamma(\mathrm{y})
$$

We call py the Pontrjagin square of $y$. It follows from (16.7) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(y+z)=p y+p z+y \cup z \tag{16.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus - y uz appears as a factor set, which measures the error made in supposing

$$
p: H^{n}(X, A) \rightarrow H^{2 n}(X, \Gamma(A))
$$

to be a homomorphism. We also have $\mathfrak{p}(r y)=r^{2} p y$, where $r$ is any integer. Therefore (16.20), with $y=z$, gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \mathrm{py}=\mathrm{y} u \mathrm{y} . \tag{16.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $(\xi, \alpha):(X, A) \rightarrow\left(X^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)$ be any mapping in the category $(\mathcal{X}, \mathfrak{N})$. Since $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ is natural we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{p} H^{n}(\xi, \alpha) \mathrm{y} & =\eta\left(X, A^{\prime}\right) \gamma\left(H^{n}(\xi, \alpha) \mathbf{y}\right) \\
& =\eta\left(X, A^{\prime}\right) \Gamma H^{n}(\xi, \alpha) \gamma(\mathrm{y}) \\
& =H^{2 n} \Gamma(\xi, \alpha) \eta\left(X^{\prime}, A\right) \gamma(\mathrm{y}) \\
& =H^{2 n}(\xi, \Gamma \alpha) \mathfrak{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

or, writing $f=H^{n}(\xi, \alpha), g=H^{2 n}(\xi, \Gamma \alpha)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathfrak{p f}=g \mathfrak{p}: H^{n}\left(X^{\prime}, A\right) \rightarrow H^{2 n}\left(X, \Gamma\left(A^{\prime}\right)\right) \tag{16.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $|X|$ be an arbitrary topological space and let $D$ be the directed set, which consists of all finite coverings of $|X|$ by open ${ }^{40}$ sets. Let $K(d)$ be the nerve of the covering $d$. Then $(D, K)$ is a net. Let ( $D^{\prime}, K^{\prime}$ ) be similarly defined in terms of a space $\left|X^{\prime}\right|$. Then a map $\phi:|X| \rightarrow\left|X^{\prime}\right|$ induces the homomorphism.

$$
\left(R^{*}, \rho\right):(D, K) \rightarrow\left(D^{\prime}, K^{\prime}\right)
$$

in which $R^{*} d^{\prime}$ is the covering $\left\{\phi^{-1} U^{\prime}\right\}$, where $d^{\prime}=\left\{U^{\prime}\right\}$, and $\rho\left(d^{\prime}\right)$ is determined by the transformation, $\phi^{-1} U^{\prime} \rightarrow U^{\prime}$, of the vertices of $K\left(R^{*} d^{\prime}\right)$ into those of $K^{\prime}\left(d^{\prime}\right)$. Therefore $\eta$, and likewise $\mathfrak{p}$, are topological invariants of $|X|$.

Let $K$ be a finite cell complex, which need not be a polyhedron. We take

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
C_{r}(K)=H_{r}\left(K^{r}, K^{r-1}\right)  \tag{16.23}\\
C^{r}(K)=\operatorname{Hom}\left\{C_{r}(K), I_{0}\right\}
\end{array}\right.
$$

to be the groups of $r$-dimensional, integral chains and cochains in $K$, where $I_{0}$ is the group of integers. By Theorem 13 in CH I there is a finite, simplicial complex, $L$, which is of the same homotopy type as $K$. Let $\phi: K \rightarrow L, \psi: L \rightarrow K$ be cellular maps such that $\psi \phi \simeq 1, \phi \psi \simeq 1$. Let

$$
\phi^{r}: C^{r}(L) \rightarrow C^{r}(K), \quad \psi^{r}: C^{r}(K) \rightarrow C^{r}(L)
$$

be the cochain equivalences induced by $\phi, \psi$. We define

$$
\begin{equation*}
c \cup c^{\prime}=\phi^{2 n}\left(\psi^{n} c \cup \psi^{n} c^{\prime}\right), \quad p c=\phi^{2 n} p \psi^{n} c \tag{16.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c, c^{\prime}$ are any elements of $C^{n}(K)$. If $c, c^{\prime}$ are cocycles mod. $\sigma$, so are $\psi^{n} c$, $\psi^{n} c^{\prime}$ and

$$
\psi^{2 n}\left(c \cup c^{\prime}\right)=\psi^{2 n} \phi^{2 n}\left(\psi^{n} c \cup \psi^{n} c^{\prime}\right) \sim \psi^{n} c \cup \psi^{n} c^{\prime}, \quad \bmod . \sigma
$$

[^23]Similarly $\psi^{2 n} p r \sim p \psi^{n} c$, mod. $2 \sigma$, if $\sigma$ is even. Notice that this relation is analogous to (16.18).

Let $X, Y$ be the nets which are defined by means of all the finite, open coverings of the spaces, $K, L$. Since $K, L$ are compacta it follows from the Čech cohomology theory that $\phi: K \rightarrow L$ induces isomorphisms $H^{\top}(Y, G) \approx H^{\top}(X, G)$, for every $r \geqq 0$ and every coefficient group $G$. Also the cohomology group $H^{r}(L, G)$, which is calculated in terms of cochains in $C^{r}(L)$, may be identified with $H^{r}(Y, G)$. When this is done $\eta(Y, A)$ becomes the homomorphism, $\tau(L, A)$, which is defined by means of (16.13). It follows from the final arguments in the proof of Theorem 18 that $H^{\prime}(X, G)$ and $\eta(X, G)$ may be similarly identified with $H^{\top}(K, G)$ and $\tau(K, G)$, which are defined in terms of $C^{r}(K)$, when cupproducts and Pontrjagin squares of cochains are given by (16.24).

If $K$ has a simplicial sub-division we take this to be $L$ and, as in [3], we take $\phi: K \rightarrow L$ to be the identity and $\psi: L \rightarrow K$ to be such that $\psi L_{\theta} \subset K_{0}$, for every subcomplex $K_{0} \subset K$, where $L_{0}$ is the subcomplex of $L$, which covers $K_{0}$.

## 17. Secondary boundary operators

Let $K$ be a finite cell complex, let $C_{r}(K), C^{r}(K)$ be defined by (16.23) and let cup-products and Pontrjagin squares of integral cochains be defined by (16.24). Let ( $c_{1}, \cdots, c_{q}$ ) be a canonical basis for $C^{n}(K)$, with $\delta c_{i}=\sigma_{i} d_{i}$, where $\left(d_{1}, \cdots, d_{t}\right)$ is part of a basis for $C^{n+1}(K)$ and $\sigma_{i} d_{i}=0$ if $i>t$. Let $m \geqq 0$ and let

$$
H^{n}(A)=H^{n}(K, A), \quad H_{n}(m)=H_{n}\left(K, I_{m}\right),
$$

where $I_{m}$ is the group of integers reduced mod.m. Let

$$
y^{*} \in H^{n}(A), \quad z_{*} \in H_{n}(m), \quad a(m) \in A_{m}=A / m A
$$

be the cohomology, homology and residue classes of $y \in Z^{n}(A), z \in Z_{n}\left(K, I_{m}\right)$, $a \in A$. Then a homomorphism ${ }^{41}$

$$
u_{m}=u_{m}^{n}: H^{n}(A) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left\{H_{n}(m), A\right\}
$$

is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(u_{m} y^{*}\right) z_{*}=\left(c_{1} z\right) a_{1}(m)+\cdots+\left(c_{q} z\right) a_{q}(m) \tag{17.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $y=a_{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots a_{q} \cdot c_{q}$, with $\sigma_{i} a_{i}=0$. If $K$ is without ( $n-1$ )-dimensional torsion, then

$$
u_{0}: H^{n}(A) \approx \operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{n}, A\right),
$$

where $H_{n}=H_{n}(0)$.
Let $K$ be simply connected. We make the natural identification $\Pi_{2}(K)=H_{2}$ and we also identify $\Gamma\left(\Pi_{2}(K)\right)$ with $\Gamma_{3}=\Gamma_{3}(K)$ by means of $\theta$, in Theorem 14. Also $K$ has no 1-dimensional torsion and we identify each $y^{*} \in H^{2}(A)$ with

[^24]$u_{0} y^{*}$. Moreover we take $A=H_{2}$, so that $H^{2}\left(H_{2}\right)$ is the additive group of the ring of endomorphisms of $H_{2}$. Then we have maps
$$
\operatorname{Hom}\left(H_{2}, H_{2}\right) \vec{p} H^{4}\left(\Gamma_{3}\right) \overrightarrow{u_{m}} \operatorname{Hom}\left\{H_{4}(m), \Gamma_{3, m}\right\} .
$$

Since $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ the group $C_{n}(K)(n \geqq 3)$ may be identified with $C_{n}$ in the system $(C, A)(K)$. Let $\mathfrak{b}(m): H_{4}(m) \rightarrow \Gamma_{3, m}$ be the secondary modular boundary homomorphism. Let $1 \in H^{2}\left(H_{2}\right)$ be the identity $1: H_{2} \rightarrow H_{2}$.

Theorem 20. $\mathfrak{b}(m)=u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)$.
First let $K$ be any finite cell complex, which need not be simply connected, and let the notations be the same as in (17.1). Let $a \in A$ and let $a \cdot c \in Z^{n}(A)$, where $c=n_{1} c_{1}+\cdots+n_{q} c_{q}$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\{u_{m}(a \cdot c)^{*}\right\} z_{*}= & \left\{u_{m}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{q} n_{i} a \cdot c_{i}\right)^{*}\right\} z_{*} \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(c_{i} z\right)\left(n_{i} a\right)(m) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(n_{i} c_{i} z\right) a(m) \\
& =(c z) a(m) \tag{17.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ be a cellular map into a finite cell complex, $K^{\prime}$, and let

$$
\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}
$$

be a given homomorphism. Let $H_{n}^{\prime}(m)=H_{n}^{\prime}\left(K^{\prime}, I_{m}\right)$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f: H_{n}(m) \rightarrow H_{n}^{\prime}(m), \quad \bar{\alpha}: A_{m} \rightarrow A_{m}^{\prime} \tag{17.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the homomorphisms induced by $\phi$ and $\alpha$. Consider the diagram

$$
\begin{array}{llc}
H^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right) & \stackrel{\phi^{*}}{\rightarrow} H^{n}\left(K, A^{\prime}\right) & \stackrel{\alpha_{*}}{\leftarrow} H^{n}(K, A) \\
u_{m} \downarrow & \downarrow u_{m} & \downarrow u_{m} \\
\left\{H_{n}^{\prime}(m), A_{m}^{\prime}\right\} & \xrightarrow{f^{*}}\left\{H_{n}(m), A_{m}^{\prime}\right\} \stackrel{\bar{\alpha}_{*}}{\leftarrow}\left\{H_{n}(m), A_{m}\right\}
\end{array}
$$

in which $\{H, A\}$ denotes $\operatorname{Hom}(H, A)$ and $\phi^{*}, f^{*}, \alpha_{*}, \bar{\alpha}_{*}$ are induced by $\phi, f, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}$. Thus

$$
\alpha_{*}(a \cdot c)^{*}=(\alpha a \cdot c)^{*}, \quad \bar{\alpha}_{*} h=\bar{\alpha} h, \quad f^{*} h^{\prime}=h^{\prime} f
$$

where $(a \cdot c) \in Z^{n}(K, A), h \in\left\{H_{n}(m), A_{m}\right\}, h^{\prime} \in\left\{H_{n}^{\prime}(m), A_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$. Let ( $c_{1}^{\prime}, \cdots, c_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ ) be the canonical basis for $C^{n}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, in terms of which $u_{m}$, operating on $H^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A\right)$, is defined and let $f, \phi^{*}$ etc. also denote the corresponding maps of chains and cochains. Let

$$
y^{\prime}=a_{1}^{\prime} \cdot c_{1}^{\prime}+\cdots+a_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime} \cdot c_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime} \in Z^{n}\left(K^{\prime}, A^{\prime}\right)
$$

Then $\phi^{*} y^{\prime}=a_{1}^{\prime} \cdot \phi^{*} c_{1}^{\prime}+\cdots+a_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime} \phi^{*} c_{q^{\prime}}^{\prime}$. Let $y=a_{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots a_{q} \cdot c_{q}$. Then it follows from (17.2) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{u_{m}\left(\phi^{*} y^{\prime *}\right)\right\} z_{*} & =\left\{u_{m}\left(\phi^{*} y^{\prime}\right)^{*}\right\} z_{*} \\
& =\Sigma_{i}\left\{\left(\phi^{*} c_{i}^{\prime}\right) z\right\} a_{i}^{\prime}(m) \\
& =\Sigma_{i}\left(c_{i}^{\prime} f z\right) a_{i}^{\prime}(m) \\
& =\left(u_{m} y^{\prime *}\right) f z_{*} \\
& =\left\{f^{*}\left(u_{m} y^{\prime *}\right)\right\} z_{*} \\
\left\{u_{m}\left(\alpha_{*} y^{*}\right)\right\} z_{*} & =\Sigma_{i}\left(c_{i} z\right)\left(\alpha a_{i}\right)(m) \\
& =\Sigma_{i}\left(c_{i} z\right) \bar{\alpha} a_{i}(m) \\
& =\bar{\alpha}\left\{\left(u_{m} y^{*}\right) z_{*}\right\} \\
& =\left\{\bar{\alpha}_{*}\left(u_{m} y^{*}\right)\right\} z_{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{m} \phi^{*}=f^{*} u_{m}, \quad u_{m} \alpha_{*}=\bar{\alpha}_{*} u_{m} \tag{17.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $K, K^{\prime}$ be simply connected and, as before, let

$$
\Pi_{2}=H_{2}, \quad \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)=\Gamma_{3}, \quad H^{2}\left(H_{2}\right)=\left\{H_{2}, H_{2}\right\}
$$

with the analogous identifications in $K^{\prime}$. Let $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ and $\alpha: A \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ mean the same as before and, returning to the notation used in Chapter I, let

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathfrak{h}: H_{2} \rightarrow H_{2}^{\prime}=H_{2}^{\prime}(0), & \mathfrak{h}(m): H_{4}(m) \rightarrow H_{4}^{\prime}(m) \\
\mathfrak{g}: \Gamma_{3} \rightarrow \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}=\Gamma\left(H_{2}^{\prime}\right), & \mathfrak{g}(m): \Gamma_{3, m} \rightarrow \Gamma_{3, m}^{\prime}
\end{array}
$$

be the homomorphisms induced by $\phi$. It follows from (17.3) and (16.22) that the diagram

is commutative, where $\mathfrak{h}_{*} e=\mathfrak{h} e: H_{2} \rightarrow H_{2}^{\prime}, \mathfrak{b}^{*} e^{\prime}=e^{\prime} \mathfrak{h}$ for every $e \in\left\{H_{2}, H_{2}\right\}$ $e^{\prime} \in\left\{H_{2}^{\prime}, H_{2}^{\prime}\right\}$ and the two bottom layers are the same as before, with $n=4$, $A=\Gamma_{3}$ and $\alpha=\mathfrak{g}$. Since $\mathfrak{h}^{*}(1)=\mathfrak{h}=\mathfrak{h}_{*}(1)$ it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)\right\} \mathfrak{h}(m) & =\mathfrak{h}(m)^{*} u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)=u_{m} \mathfrak{p} \mathfrak{h}^{*}(1) \\
& =u_{m} \mathfrak{p h} *(1)=\mathfrak{g}(m)_{*} u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1) \\
& =\mathfrak{g}(m) u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We also have $\mathfrak{b}(m) \mathfrak{h}(m)=\mathfrak{g}(m) \mathfrak{b}(m)$, according to (3.6).

Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\mathfrak{b}(m)-u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)\right\} \mathfrak{h}(m)=\mathfrak{g}(m)\left\{\mathfrak{b}(m)-u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)\right\} \tag{17.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $K^{\prime}$ be any simply connected complex, let $K=K^{\prime 4}$ and let $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ be the identical map. Then $\mathfrak{h}(m)$ is onto and it follows from (17.4) that Theorem 19 is true of $K^{\prime}$ if it is true of $K$. Therefore we need only consider complexes of at most four dimensions.

Let $K^{\prime}$ be any complex of the same homotopy type as $K$ and let $\phi: K \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ be a homotopy equivalence. Then $\mathfrak{g}(m)$ is an isomorphism and it follows from (17.4) that Theorem 19 is true of $K$ if it is true of $K^{\prime}$. Therefore we may replace $K$ by any complex of the same homotopy type. Therefore we may take $K$ to be a reduced, 4-dimensional complex, as defined in [3].

Let $K$ be a reduced, 4 -dimensional complex. Then

$$
K^{2}=e^{0} \cup e_{1}^{2} \cup \cdots \cup e_{q}^{2}, \quad K^{3}=K^{2} \cup e_{1}^{3} \cup \cdots \cup e_{t}^{3} \cup e_{t+1}^{3} \cup \cdots \mathbf{u} e_{t+l}^{3}
$$

where $e_{i}^{3}(i=1, \cdots, t)$ is attached to $K^{2}$ by a map, $S_{i}^{2} \rightarrow \bar{e}_{i}^{2}$, of degree $\sigma_{i}$, and $\bar{e}_{t+\lambda}^{3}(\lambda=1, \cdots, l)$ is a 3 -sphere attached to $e^{0}$. Obviously $Z_{2}(K)=C_{2}(K)$. Moreover we may assume that $\sigma_{i} \mid \sigma_{i+1}$ in which case ( $c^{1} \cdots, c^{q}$ ) is a canonical basis for $C_{2}(K)$, where $c^{i}$ is represented by a homeomorphism $S^{2} \rightarrow \bar{e}_{i}^{2}$. Let $z \in Z_{2}(K)$ and let $\left(c_{1}, \cdots, c_{q}\right)$ be the basis for $C^{2}(K)$, which is dual to $\left(c^{1}, \cdots, c^{q}\right)$. Then

$$
z_{*}=\left(c_{1} z\right) c_{*}^{1}+\cdots+\left(c_{q} z\right) c_{*}^{q}
$$

Therefore it follows from (17.1), with $m=0, n=2, H^{2}\left(H_{2}\right)=\left\{H_{2}, H_{2}\right\}, u_{0}=1$ and $a_{i}=c_{*}^{i}$, that

$$
\left(c_{*}^{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+c_{*}^{q} \cdot c_{q}\right)^{*} z_{*}=z_{*}
$$

Therefore $\left(c_{*}^{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+c_{*}^{q} \cdot c_{q}\right) *=1$.
Since $K$ is reduced we have $\mathrm{pr}=c \mathrm{u} c$ for any $c \in C^{2}(K)$, according to (10.1) in [3]. Therefore it follows from (16.13) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{p}(1) & =\left(\Sigma_{i} e^{i i} \cdot \mathfrak{p} c_{i}+\sum_{i<j} e^{i j} \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j}\right)^{*} \\
& =\left(\sum_{i \leqq j} e^{i j} \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j}\right)^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $e^{i i}=\gamma\left(c_{*}^{i}\right), e^{i j}=\left[c_{*}^{i}, c_{*}^{j}\right]$. Also it follows from (14.1) in [3] and (17.2) above, with $n=4, A=\Gamma_{3}$ that

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathfrak{b}(m) z_{*} & =\sum_{i \leqq j}\left\{\left(c_{i} \cup c_{j}\right) z\right\} e^{i j}(m)  \tag{17.5}\\
& =\left\{u_{m} \sum_{i \leqq j}\left(e^{i j} \cdot c_{i} \cup c_{j}\right)^{*}\right\} z_{*} \\
& =\left\{u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)\right\} z_{*} .
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{b}(m)=u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)$ and the proof is complete.
Let $K$ be without 2-dimensional torsion, so that $H^{2}$ and $H_{2}$ are free Abelian
groups of the same rank. Subject to this condition, G. Hirsch ([19]) has given a very elegant expression for the kernel, $G$, of the natural homomorphism

$$
\pi_{3}(K) \rightarrow H_{3} .
$$

Let $S$ be the group of symmetric homomorphisms, $f: H^{2} \rightarrow H_{2}$, which is defined at the end of $\S 5$ above, with $A=H_{2}, A^{*}=H^{2}$. Let $z_{*} \in H_{4}$ and let $f_{2}: H^{2} \rightarrow H_{2}$ be given by

$$
f_{z} c^{*}=c^{*} n z_{*} \quad\left(c^{*} \in H^{2}\right)
$$

Then $f_{z} \in S$ and a homomorphism, $\mu: H_{4} \rightarrow S$, is defined by $\mu z_{*}=f_{2}$. Hirsch's theorem states that $G \approx S / \mu H_{4}$. We give an alternative proof of this.

Let $c_{1}^{*}, \cdots, c_{q}^{*}$ be a basis for $H^{2}$. Then it follows from (5.13) and (5.12) that $\lambda: S \approx \Gamma_{3}$, where

$$
\lambda f=\sum_{i \leq i}\left(c_{i}^{*} f c_{j}^{*}\right) e^{i j},
$$

and from (17.5), with $m=0$, that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathfrak{b} z_{*} & =\sum_{j \leqq j}\left\{c_{i}^{*}\left(c_{j}^{*} \cap z_{*}\right)\right\} e^{i j}=\sum_{j \leqq i}\left(c_{i}^{*} f_{z} c_{i}^{*}\right) e^{i j} \\
& =\lambda f_{z}=\lambda \mu z_{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{b}=\lambda \mu$ and it follows that $\lambda$ induces an isomorphism

$$
S / \mu H_{4} \approx \Gamma_{3} / b H_{4} .
$$

Therefore Hirsch's theorem follows from the exactness of $\Sigma(K)$.
Let us discard the condition that $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ but let $K$ be without ( $n-1$ )dimensional torsion for some $n \geqq 2$. We take $A=H_{n}=H_{n}(0)$ and use $u_{0}^{n}$ to identify $H^{n}\left(H_{n}\right)$ with the additive group of the ring of endomorphisms of $H_{n}$. It follows from (17.1), with $m=0$ and $a_{i}=z_{*}^{i}$, that $H^{n}\left(H_{n}\right)$ operates on $H_{n}$ according to the rule

$$
e z_{*}=\left(c_{1} z\right) z_{*}^{1}+\cdots+\left(c_{q} z\right) z_{*}^{q}
$$

where $e=\left(z_{*}^{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+z^{q} \cdot c_{q}\right)^{*}$. Let $\bar{e}^{\prime}: H^{n}\left(H_{n}\right) \rightarrow H^{n}\left(H_{n}\right)$ be the endomorphism, which is induced by a given endomorphism $e^{\prime}: H_{n} \rightarrow H_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\bar{e}^{\prime} e\right) z_{*} & =\left(e^{\prime} z_{*}^{1} \cdot c_{1}+\cdots+e^{\prime} z_{*}^{q} \cdot c_{q}\right) z^{*} z_{*} \\
& =\left(c_{1} z\right) e^{\prime} z_{*}^{1}+\cdots+\left(c_{q} z\right) e^{\prime} z_{*}^{q} \\
& =e^{\prime}\left(e z_{*}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\bar{e}^{\prime} e=e^{\prime} e$. Let $g(e)$ be the endomorphism of $H^{2 n}\left\{\Gamma\left(H_{n}\right)\right\}$ which is induced by $\Gamma e: \Gamma\left(H_{n}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\left(H_{n}\right)$. Then it follows from (16.22), with $f=\bar{e}, g=g(e)$, that

$$
\mathfrak{p e}=\mathfrak{p} \bar{e}(1)=g(e) \mathfrak{p}(1) .
$$

Therefore $\mathfrak{p}: H^{n}\left(H_{n}\right) \rightarrow H^{2 n}\left\{\Gamma\left(H_{n}\right)\right\}$ is determined by the correspondence

$$
e \rightarrow g(e)
$$

together with $\mathfrak{p}(1)$.

## 18. The calculation of $\Sigma_{4}(\mathrm{~K})$

We return to the sequence

$$
\Sigma_{4}: \quad H_{4} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{b}} \Gamma_{3} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} \Pi_{3} \xrightarrow{\mathfrak{i}} H_{3} \rightarrow 0 .
$$

We make the same identifications, $\Pi_{2}=H_{2}$ and $\Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)=\Gamma_{3}$ as before. We also identify each $\bar{\gamma} \in \Gamma_{3} / b H_{4}$ with $\bar{i} \bar{\gamma} \in \mathfrak{i}_{3} \Gamma_{3}=G$, say, where

$$
\mathfrak{i}: \Gamma_{3} / \mathfrak{b} H_{4} \approx G
$$

is the isomorphism induced by $\mathfrak{i}_{3}$. Then $\mathfrak{i}_{3}$ becomes the natural homomorphism $\Gamma_{3} \rightarrow G$.

The group $\Pi_{3}$ is an extension of $H_{3}$ by $G$. Let $\Pi_{3}^{\prime}$ be an equivalent extension. Then there is a homomorphism, $\mathfrak{i}_{3}^{\prime}: \Pi_{3}^{\prime} \rightarrow H_{3}$, and an isomorphism, $\mathrm{f}: \Pi_{3} \approx \Pi_{3}^{\prime}$, such that

$$
\mathfrak{f} g=g, \quad \dot{\mathfrak{i}}_{3}^{\prime} \mathfrak{f}=\mathfrak{i}_{3}, \quad(g \in G)
$$

whence $\mathfrak{i}_{3}^{\prime-1}(0)=\mathfrak{i}_{3}^{\prime-1}(0)=G$. Let $\Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ be the sequence which is obtained from $\Sigma_{4}$ on replacing $\dot{j}_{3}: \Pi_{3} \rightarrow H_{3}$ by $\dot{j}_{3}^{\prime}: \Pi_{3}^{\prime} \rightarrow H_{3}$. Then $F: \Sigma_{4} \approx \Sigma_{4}^{\prime}$ is a proper isomorphism, where $F$ consists of $\mathrm{f}: \Pi_{3} \approx \Pi_{3}^{\prime}$ and the identical automorphisms of the other groups. Therefore $\Sigma_{4}$ is determined, up to a proper isomorphism, by the groups $H_{2}, H_{3}, H_{4}$, the homomorphism $\mathfrak{b}: H_{4} \rightarrow \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)$ and the cohomology class in $H^{2}\left(H_{3}, G\right)$ which determines the equivalence class of the extension $\Pi_{3}$.
Now let $\pi_{1}(K)=1$ and let $K$ be a finite complex. Then $H_{3}=T+B$, where $T$ is the torsion group and $B$ is free Abelian. Let $T_{1}, \cdots, T_{p}$ be cyclic summands of $T$, whose orders, $\tau_{1}, \cdots, \tau_{p}$, are the coefficients of 3 -dimensional torsion. Since $B$ is free there is a homomorphism, $\mathrm{i}^{*}: B \rightarrow \Pi_{3}$, such that $\mathrm{j}_{\mathrm{i}}{ }^{*} b=b$ for each $b \in B$. Therefore $\Pi_{3}$ is the direct sum

$$
\Pi_{3}=\Pi_{3}^{0}+\mathrm{i}^{*} B,
$$

where $\Pi_{3}^{0}=i_{3}^{-1} T$. Thus $\Pi_{3}^{0}$ is an extension of $T$ by $G$ and the equivalence class of $\Pi_{3}$ is obviously determined by that of $\Pi_{3}^{0}$.

Let $\left(c^{1}, \cdots, c^{p}, y^{1}, \cdots, y^{r}\right)$ be a canonical basis for $C_{4}$ such that $d c^{\lambda}=\tau \lambda z^{\lambda}$, $d y^{\mu}=0$ where $l_{3} z^{\lambda} \in H_{3}$ generates $T_{\lambda}$. let $a^{\lambda} \in j_{3}^{-1} z^{\lambda}, x^{\lambda}=k_{3} a^{\lambda} \in \Pi_{3}$. Then

$$
\dot{\mathfrak{j}}_{3} x^{\lambda}=\dot{j}_{3} k_{3} a^{\lambda}=l_{3} j_{3} a^{\lambda}=l_{3} z^{\lambda} .
$$

Therefore $x^{\lambda} \epsilon \Pi_{3}^{0}$ and $x^{\lambda}$ is a representative of $l_{3}{ }^{\lambda}$.
Since $j_{3}\left(\beta c^{\lambda}-\tau_{\lambda} a^{\lambda}\right)=d c^{\lambda}-\tau_{\lambda} z^{\lambda}=0$ we have

$$
\beta c^{\lambda}-\tau_{\lambda} a^{\lambda}=\gamma^{\lambda} \in \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right) .
$$

Let $g^{\lambda}=-\mathfrak{i}_{3} \gamma^{\lambda} \in G$. Then $\pi x^{\lambda}=k_{3} \neg a^{\lambda}=-k_{3} \gamma^{\lambda}=g^{\lambda}$. Therefore the equivalence class of $\Pi_{3}^{0}$ is uniquely determined ${ }^{42}$ by $g^{1}\left(\tau_{1}\right), \cdots, g^{p}\left(\tau_{p}\right)$, where $g^{\lambda}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right) \in G_{\tau_{\lambda}}$ is the residue class containing $g^{\lambda}$.

[^25]It follows from the definition of $\mathfrak{b}(m)$ that

$$
\mathfrak{b}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right) c_{*}^{\lambda}=\gamma^{\lambda}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right) \in \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)_{\tau_{\lambda}}
$$

where $c_{*}^{\lambda}$ is the homology class, mod. $\tau_{\lambda}$, which contains $c^{\lambda}$. Therefore

$$
g^{\lambda}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right)=-\mathfrak{i}_{3}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right) \mathfrak{b}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right) c_{*}^{\lambda},
$$

where $\mathfrak{i}_{3}\left(\tau_{\lambda}\right): \Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)_{\tau \lambda} \rightarrow G_{\tau \lambda}$ is the homomorphism induced by $\mathfrak{i}_{3}$. Therefore the equivalence class of $\Pi_{3}^{0}$ is determined by $\mathfrak{b}$, which determines $G$, and by

$$
\mathfrak{b}\left(\tau_{1}\right), \cdots, \mathfrak{b}\left(\tau_{p}\right),
$$

which determine $g^{1}\left(\tau_{1}\right), \cdots, g^{p}\left(\tau_{p}\right)$.
Since $\mathfrak{b}(m)=u_{m} \mathfrak{p}(1)$ the sequence $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{4}(K)$ is determined, up to a proper isomorphism, by the groups

$$
H_{2}, H_{3}, H_{4}(m), \quad H^{4}\left\{\Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)\right\} \quad\left(m=0, \tau_{1}, \cdots, \tau_{p}\right),
$$

the element $\mathfrak{p}(1) \in H^{4}\left\{\Gamma\left(H_{2}\right)\right\}$ and the family of homomorphisms $u_{m}$. If $K$ is a (finite) simplicial complex all these items can, theoretically, be calculated by finite constructions. ${ }^{43}$

Let $n>2$, let $K=K^{n+2}$ be ( $n-1$ )-connected and let us make the natural identifications

$$
\Gamma_{n+1}=\Pi_{n} / 2 \Pi_{n}=H_{n}(2)
$$

so that $\theta=1$ at the end of $\S 14$ above. Then Theorem 19 has an analogue, namely Theorem 4 in [5], which states that $\mathfrak{b}_{n+2}(2)$ is the dual of the Steenrod homomorphism ([24])

$$
S q_{n-2}: H^{n}(2) \rightarrow H^{n+2}(2) .
$$

Further light is thrown on the calculation of $\Sigma_{n+2}(K)$ in forthcoming papers by S. C. Chang and P. J. Hilton. Chang defines certain numerical invariants, called "secondary torsions", which can be calculated constructively if $K$ is given as a simplicial complex. An analysis which is similar to, but rather simpler than the one above, shows that $\Sigma_{n+2}(K)$ is determined, up to a "proper" isomorphism, by the Betti numbers and torsions of $K$, together with the secondary torsions defined by Chang.

## Chapter V. The sequence of a general space

## 19. The Complex K(X)

Let $P$ be any (geometric) simplicial complex, which may be infinite but which has the weak topology. That is to say, every (closed) simplex in $P$ has its natural topology and a sub-set of $P$ is closed provided it meets each simplex in a closed sub-set of the latter. By a local ordering of the vertices of $P$ we shall mean an ordering, $\mathfrak{p}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$, of the vertices of each simplex, $\sigma^{n} \in P$, such that, if $\sigma^{n-1}$ is a face of $\sigma^{n}$, then $\mathfrak{D}\left(\sigma^{n-1}\right)$ is the ordering induced by $\mathfrak{D}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$. Let such an ordering

[^26]be given. Let the simplexes of $P$ be divided into equivalences classes by an equivalence relation, $\equiv$, such that
a) $\sigma_{1}^{r} \equiv \sigma_{2}^{s}$ implies $r=s$,
b) if $\sigma^{n} \equiv \tau^{n}$, where $\sigma^{n}=v_{0} \cdots v_{n}, \tau^{n}=w_{0} \cdots w_{n}$ and the vertices $v_{i}, w_{i}$ are written in their correct order, then $v_{i_{0}} \cdots v_{i_{r}} \equiv w_{i_{0}} \cdots w_{i_{r}}$ for each sub-set $0 \leqq i_{0}<i_{2}<\cdots i_{r} \leqq n$.
Let $h\left(\tau^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow \tau^{n}$ be the order preserving barycentric map (onto) for every pair of simplexes $\sigma^{n}, \tau^{n} \in P$. Let $p_{1}, p_{2}$ be points in $P$. We write $p_{2} \equiv p_{2}$ if, and only if, there are equivalent simplexes, $\sigma_{1}^{n}, \sigma_{2}^{n} \in P$, such that $p_{i} \in \sigma_{i}^{n}-\dot{\sigma}_{i}^{n}$ and $p_{2}=h\left(\sigma_{2}^{n}, \sigma_{1}^{n}\right) p_{1}$. Obviously $p_{1} \equiv p_{2}$ is an equivalence relation. Let $K$ be the space whose points are these equivalence classes of points in $P$ and which has the identification topology determined by the map $\mathrm{k}: P \rightarrow K$, where $\mathrm{k} p$ is the class containing $p$.
Lemma 3. $K$ is a CW-complex, whose cells are the sets $\mathbf{k}\left(\sigma^{n}-\dot{\sigma}^{n}\right)$, for each simplex, $\sigma^{n}$, of $P$.
First assume that the following supplementary conditions are satisfied:
a) $v \not \equiv v^{\prime}$ if $v, v^{\prime}$ are distinct vertices of the same simplex of $P$
b) if $\sigma^{n}=v_{0} \cdots v_{n}, \tau^{n}=w_{0} \cdots w_{n}$ and if $v_{i} \equiv w_{j_{i}}$ for each $i=0, \cdots$, $n$, then $\sigma^{n} \equiv \tau^{n}$.
Let $\alpha$ be the cardinal number of the aggregate of classes $k v$, for each vertex, $v \in P$. Let $\mathbf{k} v \rightarrow e(\mathbf{k} v)$ be a $(1-1)$ correspondence between the aggregate $\{\mathbf{k} v\}$ and a set of basis vectors, $\{e\}$, in a non-topologized vector space, $A$, of rank $\alpha$ (Cf. [25]). Then a simplicial complex, $L$, with $\{e\}$ as the aggregate of its vertices, is defined as follows. Let $e_{0}, \cdots, e_{n}$ be any finite sub-set of $\{e\}$. Then the rectilinear simplex, $e_{0} \cdots e_{n} \subset A$, is a simplex of $L$ if, and only if, there is a simplex $v_{0} \cdots v_{n} \in P$, such that $e_{i}=e\left(\mathbf{k} v_{i}\right)(i=0, \cdots, n)$. We give $L$ the weak topology.

Let $\sigma^{n}=v_{0} \cdots v_{n}$ be a given simplex of $P$. Then it follows from the definition of $L$ that $e\left(\mathbf{k} v_{0}\right) \cdots e\left(\mathbf{k} v_{n}\right)$ is a simplex in $L$. Therefore a simplicial map, 1:P $\rightarrow L$, is defined by $l v=e(\mathbf{k} v)$, for each vertex $v \in P$. Since $P$ has the weak topology it follows that 1 is continuous. Notice that, in consequence of (19.2a), the map $1 \mid \sigma^{n}$ is non-degenerate. Let $p \equiv q$, where $p, q$ are points in $P$, and let

$$
\sigma^{n}=v_{0} \cdots v_{n}, \quad \tau^{n}=w_{0} \cdots w_{n}
$$

be the simplexes of $P$, whose interiors contain $p, q$. Then $\sigma^{n} \equiv \tau^{n}$ and it follows from (19.1b) that $\mathbf{k} v_{i}=\mathbf{k} w_{i}$, for each $i=0, \cdots, n$. Therefore $1 \sigma^{n}=1 \tau^{n}$. Also $q=h\left(\tau^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right) p$ and the map $h\left(\tau^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right)$, likewise $1 \mid \sigma^{n}$ and $1 \mid \tau^{n}$ are barycentric. Therefore $1 p=1 q$. Therefore the map $\mathbb{k}^{-1}: K \rightarrow L$ is single-valued. Since $K$ has the identification topology determined by $k$ the map $\mathbf{k}^{-1}$ is continuous. ${ }^{44}$
Similarly it follows from (19.2) that $\mathrm{kl}^{-1}: L \rightarrow K$ is single-valued. It is obviously continuous in each simplex of $L$, and hence throughout $L$, since $L$ has

[^27]the weak topology clearly $\left(\mathbf{k}^{-1}\right) \mathbf{k} \mathbf{l}^{-1}=1,\left(\mathbf{k} \mathbf{l}^{-1}\right) \mathbf{k}^{-1}=1$. Therefore $\mathbf{k l}^{-1}$ is a homeomorphism onto $K$. Therefore $K$ is a simplicial complex, with the weak topology, whose cells are the interiors of the simplexes $\mathbf{k l ^ { - 1 }}\left(\mathbf{l} \sigma^{n}\right)=\mathbf{k} \sigma^{n}$, for each simplex, $\sigma^{n} \in P$. This proves the lemma, subject to the conditions (19.2).

Now assume that (19.2a) is satisfied and let $P^{\prime}$ be the derived complex of $P$, in which each new vertex is placed at the centroid of its simplex. We define a local ordering in $P^{\prime}$ by placing the centroid of $\sigma^{n}$ after the centroid of $\sigma^{m}$ if $m<n$. The equivalence relation between the simplexes of $P$ induces a similar relation between those of $P^{\prime}$, in such a way that the equivalence classes of points are unaltered. Also it may be verified that the equivalence relation in $P^{\prime}$ satisfies both (19.2a) and (19.2b). Therefore $\mathbf{k} P^{\prime}$ is a simplicial complex and $K=\mathbf{k} P$ is a "block complex", in which the blocks are the sub-complexes of $\mathbf{k} P^{\prime}$, which cover the sets $\mathbf{k} \sigma^{n}$. It may be verified that $K$ is a CW-complex, with the combinatorial structure described in the lemma.

Finally let $P$ be general. Then the induced equivalence relation between the simplexes of the derived complex, $P^{\prime}$, obviously satisfies (19.2a). Therefore the induced equivalence relation between the simplexes of the second derived complex of $P$ satisfies both (19.2a) and (19.2b). Again it is easily verified that $K$ is a CW-complex, with the structure described in the lemma. This completes the proof.

We now proceed to the definition of $K(X)$. Let $v_{0}$ be the origin and $v_{i}$ the point $\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, \cdots\right)$ in Hilbert space, $R^{\infty}$, where $t_{i}=1$ and $t_{j}=0$ if $j \neq i$. Let $v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots$ be ordered so that $v_{\lambda}<v_{\lambda+1}$ and let $\Delta^{n} \subset R^{\infty}$ be the rectilinear simplex $v_{0} \cdots v_{n}$. Let $f: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ be a given map and let $\left(f, \Delta^{n}\right)$ be the rectilinear $n$-simplex, whose points are the pairs ( $f, r$ ), for every point $r \in \Delta^{n}$, and whose topology and affine geometry are such that the map $r \rightarrow(f, r)$ is a barycentric homeomorphism. If $\sigma^{i}$ is any face of $\Delta^{n}$ we shall denote the corresponding face of $\left(f, \Delta^{n}\right)$ by $\left(f, \sigma^{i}\right)$. We emphasize the fact that $(f, r) \neq\left(f^{\prime}, r\right)$ if $f, f^{\prime}: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ are different maps, even if $f r=f^{\prime} r$. Also $(f, r) \neq(g, r)$ if $r \in \Delta^{n-1}$ and $g=f \mid \Delta^{n-1}$. Therefore no two of the simplexes $\left(f, \Delta^{n}\right),\left(g, \Delta^{m}\right)$ have a point in common.

Let $P(X)$ be the union of all the (disjoint) simplicial complexes ( $f, \Delta^{n}$ ), for every $n \geqq 0$ and every $\operatorname{map} f: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$. We give $P(X)$ the weak topology, which makes each ( $f, \Delta^{n}$ ) both open and closed in $P(X)$. The simplexes of $P(X)$ are the simplexes $\left(f, \sigma^{r}\right)$, where $\sigma^{r}$ is any face of $\Delta^{n}$. The ordering $v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n}$, for each $n>0$, and the maps $r \rightarrow(f, r)$ determine a local ordering in $P(X)$. Let $\left(f, \sigma^{i}\right)$ and $\left(g, \tau^{j}\right)$ be faces of $\left(f, \Delta^{m}\right)$ and $\left(g, \Delta^{n}\right)$. We define $\left(f, \sigma^{i}\right) \equiv\left(g, \tau^{j}\right)$ if, and only if, $i=j$ and $^{45}$

$$
f \mid \sigma^{i}=\left(g \mid \tau^{i}\right) h\left(\tau^{i}, \sigma^{i}\right)
$$

It is easily verified that this is an equivalence relation and it obviously satisfies (19.1). Therefore a CW-complex, $K(X)=\mathrm{k} P(X)$, is defined as in Lemma 3. Notice that $K(X)$ is uniquely determined by $X$. Notice also that $f r=f^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ if $\mathbf{k}(f, r)=\mathbf{k}\left(f^{\prime}, r^{\prime}\right)$, though the converse is not necessarily true.

[^28]Let $S(X)$ be the abstract singular complex of $X$, as defined in [16]. Any $n$-cell, $s^{n} \in S(X)$, has a unique representative map, ${ }^{46} f\left(s^{n}\right): \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$. It is obvious that the correspondence $s^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{k}\left\{f\left(s^{n}\right), \Delta^{n}\right\}$ determines an isomorphic chain mapping of $S(X)$ onto $K(X)$, when the latter is treated as an abstract complex.

Let $\phi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a given map into a space $Y$. Then a map, $K \phi: K(X) \rightarrow K(Y)$, is obviously defined by

$$
(K \phi) \mathbf{k}(f, r)=\mathbf{k}(\phi f, r),
$$

where $\mathbf{k}: P(Y) \rightarrow K(Y)$ is defined in the same way as $\mathbf{k}: P(X) \rightarrow K(X)$. Moreover the correspondences $X \rightarrow K(X)$ and $\phi \rightarrow K \phi$ determine a functor $\mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{I}_{k}$, where $\mathfrak{I}$ and $\mathfrak{T}_{k}$ are the topological categories of all topological spaces and all CW-complexes. ${ }^{47}$

## 20. The maps $\kappa$ and $\lambda_{\phi}$

It is obvious that a (single-valued and continuous) map, $\kappa: K(X) \rightarrow X$, is defined by $\kappa \mathbf{k}(f, r)=f r$. Let $\phi: X \rightarrow Y$ be a given map. Then

$$
\phi \kappa \mathbf{k}(f, r)=\phi f r=\kappa\{(K \phi) \mathbf{k}(f, r)\}
$$

where $\kappa: K(Y) \rightarrow Y$ is defined in the same way as $\kappa: K(X) \rightarrow X$. Therefore $\kappa$ is natural in the sense that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi \kappa=\kappa K \phi . \tag{20.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $Q$ be any simplicial complex with the weak topology and with a local ordering of its vertices. Let $\phi: Q \rightarrow X$ be a given map. Then a map, $\lambda_{\phi}: Q \rightarrow K(X)$, is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{\phi} q=\mathbf{k}\left\{\left(\phi \mid \sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right), h\left(\Delta^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right) q\right\} \tag{20.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for each point $q \in Q$, where $\sigma^{n}$ is any simplex of $Q$, which contains $q$. Obviously $\kappa \lambda_{\phi}=\phi$. Moreover, if $Q_{0}$ is a subcomplex of $Q$, with the local ordering induced by the one in $Q$, and if $\phi_{0}=\phi \mid Q_{0}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{\phi_{0}}=\lambda_{\phi} \mid Q_{0} \tag{20.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\theta: Q \rightarrow L$ be an isomorphism of $Q$ onto a simplicial complex, $L$, with the weak topology. Let $L$ have the local ordering which makes $\theta$ order preserving in each simplex of $Q$. Let $\psi: L \rightarrow X$ be a given map. Then it may be verified that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{\psi \theta}=\lambda_{\psi} \theta: Q \rightarrow K(X) . \tag{20.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^29]Let $Q^{*}$ be any simplicial subdivision of $Q$ and let a local ordering be defined in $Q^{*}$, which is independent of the one in $Q$. Let $\phi^{*}: Q^{*} \rightarrow X$ be a given map and let $\lambda_{\phi^{*}}^{*}$ be defined in the same way as $\lambda_{\phi}$, but in terms of $Q^{*}$ and the local ordering in $Q^{*}$.

Lemma 4. If $\phi \simeq \phi^{*}$ then $\lambda_{\phi} \simeq \lambda_{\phi^{*}}^{*}$.
Let $L=Q \times I$, let $\theta_{0}, \theta_{1}^{*}$ be the maps of $Q$ into $Q \times 0, Q \times 1$, which are given by $\theta_{0} q=(q, 0), \theta_{1}^{*} q=(q, 1)$ and let $Q_{0}, Q_{1}^{*}$ be the triangulations of $Q \times 0$, $Q \times 1$ which make $\theta_{0}, \theta_{1}^{*}$ isomorphisms. Then $L$ is a polyhedral complex, which consists of the simplexes in $Q_{0}, Q_{1}^{*}$ and the convex prisims $\sigma^{n} \times I$, for every simplex, $\sigma^{n} \in Q$. Let $v\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=\left(q, \frac{1}{2}\right)$, where $q$ is the centroid of $\sigma^{n}$, and let $L^{\prime}$ be the triangulation of $L$, which is defined inductively by starring each $\sigma^{n} \times I$ from $v\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ as centre, taking $\sigma^{m} \times I$ before $\sigma^{n} \times I$ if $m<n$. We define a local ordering in $L^{\prime}$ by giving $Q_{0}, Q_{1}^{*}$ the local orderings which make $\theta_{0}, \theta_{1}^{*}$ order preserving and placing $v\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ after all the vertices of $L^{\prime}$, which lie on the boundary of $\sigma^{n} \times I$.

Let $\psi: L^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ be a map such that $\psi(q, 0)=\phi q, \psi(q, 1)=\phi^{*} q$. Let $\lambda_{\psi}: L^{\prime} \rightarrow$ $K(X)$ be defined in the same way as $\lambda_{\phi}$. Then it follows from (20.3) that $\lambda_{\phi}$ determines a homotopy $\lambda_{\psi_{0}} \theta_{0} \simeq \lambda_{\psi 1}^{*} \theta_{1}^{*}$, where $\psi_{0}=\psi\left|Q_{0}, \psi_{1}=\psi\right| Q_{1}^{*}$. Since $\phi=\psi_{0} \theta_{0}, \phi^{*}=\psi_{1} \theta_{1}^{*}$ the lemma follows from (20.4).

Let $\mu, \mu^{\prime}: Q \rightarrow K(X)$ be given maps.
Theorem 21. If $\kappa \mu \simeq \kappa \mu^{\prime}$, then $\mu \simeq \mu^{\prime}$.
We first show that, in the presence of Lemma 4, this is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \simeq \lambda_{k \mu} \tag{20.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $\kappa \mu=\kappa \lambda_{\kappa \mu}$. Therefore (20.5) follows from Theorem 21 with $\mu^{\prime}=\lambda_{\kappa \mu}$. Conversely, if $\kappa \mu \simeq \kappa \mu^{\prime}$ it follows from (20.5) and Lemma 4 that $\mu \simeq \lambda_{\kappa \mu} \simeq \lambda_{\kappa \mu^{\prime}} \simeq \mu^{\prime}$. Therefore Theorem 21 is equivalent to (20.5). We shall prove (20.5).

Let $K=K(X)$. Though $K$ is not a simplicial complex we shall describe $\mu: Q \rightarrow$ $K$ as simplicial if, and only if, it can be defined as follows. Let a barycentric map

$$
\theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow P(X)
$$

onto a simplex of $P(X)$, be defined for each simplex $\sigma^{n} \epsilon Q$ in such a way that the (simplicial) map $\mu: Q \rightarrow K$ is single-valued, where $\mu q=\mathrm{k} \theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q$ if $q \in \sigma^{n}$. Since $\mu \mid \sigma^{n}$ is continuous and $Q$ has the weak topology it follows that $\mu$ is continuous.

Let the simplex $\theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{n}$ be $d\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$-dimensional, let $j=d\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ and let

$$
\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=h\left(\Delta^{j}, \theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{n}\right) \theta^{\prime}\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{j}
$$

where $\theta^{\prime}\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow \theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{n}$ is the map induced by $\theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$. Let

$$
\theta\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{n}=\left(g\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \sigma_{0}^{j}\right) \subset P(X)
$$

where $\sigma_{0}^{j} \subset \Delta^{k}$, for some $k \geqq j$, and let

$$
f\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=\left(g\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{0}^{j}\right) h\left(\sigma_{0}^{j}, \Delta^{j}\right): \Delta^{j} \rightarrow X
$$

Let $\sigma^{m}$ be any face of $\sigma^{n}$ and let $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{m}=\sigma_{1}^{i} \subset \Delta^{j}$. Since $\mu: Q \rightarrow K$ is single-
valued it may be verified that $i=d\left(\sigma^{m}\right)$ and that
a) $\left\{\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma^{m}=\operatorname{lh}\left(\sigma_{1}^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right)\right.$
b) $\left\{f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{i}=f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right)\right.$,
where $\iota: \sigma_{1}^{i} \rightarrow \Delta^{j}$ is the identical map. Also $\left(f\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \Delta^{j}\right) \equiv\left(g\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \sigma_{0}^{j}\right)$, whence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu q=\mathbf{k}\left(f\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q\right) \quad\left(q \in \sigma^{n}\right) \tag{20.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Conversely, given $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{j}, f\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \Delta^{j} \rightarrow X$, satisfying (20.6), for each $\sigma^{n} \epsilon Q$, a simplicial map $\mu: Q \rightarrow K$ is defined ${ }^{48}$ by (20.7).

We shall describe the simplicial map $\mu$ as non-degenerate if, and only if, $d\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=n$ for each $\sigma^{n} \in Q$. Let this be so and let $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right), f\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ mean the same as in (20.6). Then we can order the vertices of each simplex $\sigma^{n} \epsilon Q$ so that $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ preserves order. It follows from (20.6a) that we thus define a local ordering in $Q$ and from Lemma 4 , with $Q^{*}=Q, \phi^{*}=\phi=\kappa \mu$, that we lose no generality in assuming this to be the one by means of which $\lambda_{\kappa \mu}$ is defined. Then

$$
\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=h\left(\Delta^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right), \quad \kappa \mu \mid \sigma^{n}=f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right)
$$

in consequence of (20.7). Therefore it follows from (20.2) and (20.7) that $\mu=$ $\lambda_{\kappa \mu}$. Therefore the theorem will follow when we have proved that a given map, $Q \rightarrow K$, is homotopic to a non-degenerate, simplicial map $Q^{*} \rightarrow K$, where $Q^{*}$ is a simplicial sub-division of $Q$.

Let $P^{\prime \prime}$ be the second derived complex of $P(X)$. Then $K^{\prime \prime}=\mathbf{k} P^{\prime \prime}$ is a simplicial sub-division of $K$, as shown in the proof of Lemma 3. Let $\delta_{t}: P^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow P(X)$ be the canonical homotopy in which $\delta_{t} v=(1-t) v+t \delta_{1} v$, where $v$ is any vertex of $P^{\prime \prime}, \delta_{t} v$ is treated as a vector and $\delta_{1} v$ is the last vertex of the simplex of $P(X)$, which contains $v$ in its interior. Obviously $\delta_{t} p \equiv \delta_{t} p^{\prime}$ if $p \equiv p^{\prime}$. Therefore ${ }^{44}$ a homotopy, $\rho_{t}: K^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow K$, is defined by $\rho_{t} \mathbf{k}=\mathbf{k} \delta_{t}$. Clearly $\rho_{1}: K^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow K$ is simplicial.

Let $\mu_{0}: Q \rightarrow K$ be a given map. By Theorem 36 on p. 320 of [7] we have $\mu_{0} \simeq \mu_{1}$, where $\mu_{1}: Q \rightarrow K$ is simplicial with respect to $K^{\prime \prime}$ and some simplicial sub-division, $Q^{*}$, of $Q$. Then $\mu_{0} \simeq \rho_{1} \mu_{1}$. The resultant of simplicial maps, $Q \rightarrow L \rightarrow K$, is obviously simplicial, where $L$ is any simplicial complex with the weak topology. Therefore $\rho_{1} \mu_{1}$ is simplicial and it follows that we lose no generality by assuming that the given $\operatorname{map} \mu: Q \rightarrow K$ is simplicial.

Let $\mu$ be simplicial and let $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right), f\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ mean the same as in (20.6). Let

$$
\mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=h\left(\Delta^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right), \quad f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right)
$$

Let $\sigma_{1}^{m}=\mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{m}$ where $\sigma^{m}$ is any face of $\sigma^{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma^{m} & =h\left(\Delta^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma^{m}=\operatorname{lh}\left(\sigma_{1}^{m}, \sigma^{m}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{\iota h}\left(\sigma_{1}^{m}, \Delta^{m}\right) \mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{m}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\iota: \sigma_{1}^{m} \rightarrow \Delta^{n}$ is the identical map. Let $\sigma_{1}^{i}=\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{m} \subset \Delta^{j}$.

[^30]Since $h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right) \sigma_{1}^{m}=\sigma^{m}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{m} & =f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{m} \\
& =\left\{f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma^{m}\right\} h\left(\sigma^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right) \\
& =\left\{f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{i}\right\} \mu^{\prime} h\left(\sigma^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\mu^{\prime}: \sigma^{m} \rightarrow \sigma_{1}^{i}$ is the map induced by $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$. It follows from (20.6a) that

$$
\mu^{\prime}=h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right)
$$

Hence, and from (20.6b), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{m} & =f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right) h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\sigma^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right) \\
& =f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\sigma^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right) \\
& =f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\sigma^{m}, \Delta^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right) \\
& =f^{*}\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{m}, \sigma_{1}^{m}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the families of maps $\mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right), f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ satisfy (20.6) and a non-degenerate, simplicial map, $\mu^{*}: Q \rightarrow K$, is defined by

$$
\mu^{*} q=\mathbf{k}\left(f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q\right) \quad\left(q \in \sigma^{n}\right)
$$

Finally we prove that $\mu \simeq \mu^{*}$. Let $u_{0}, \cdots, u_{n}$ be the vertices of $\sigma^{n}$, written in their correct order. Let $j=d\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ and let

$$
\nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow \Delta^{j+n+1}
$$

be the barycentric maps which are given by

$$
\nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{\alpha}=\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{\alpha}, \quad \nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{\alpha}=v_{j+1+\alpha} \quad(\alpha=0, \cdots, n)
$$

Let $\nu_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q=(1-t) \nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q+t \nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q$, for each $q \in \sigma^{n}$, where $0 \leqq t \leqq 1$ and $\nu_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q$ is treated as a vector in $\Delta^{j+n+1}$. Let $\rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \Delta^{j+n+1} \rightarrow \Delta^{j}$ be the barycentric retraction which is given by

$$
\rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \Delta^{j}=1, \quad \rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right) v_{j+1+\alpha}=\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{\alpha} \quad(\alpha=0, \cdots, n)
$$

and let $F\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \Delta^{j+n+1} \rightarrow X$. Let

$$
\theta_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right): \sigma^{n} \rightarrow P(X)
$$

be the homotopy which is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q=\left(F\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \nu_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q\right) \quad\left(q \in \sigma^{n}\right) \tag{20.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

I say that a homotopy, $\mu_{t}: Q \rightarrow K$, of $\mu_{0}=\mu$ into $\mu_{1}=\mu^{*}$ is given by $\mu_{t} q=$ $\mathbf{k} \theta_{i}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q$. This will follow when we have proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{k} \theta_{i}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=\mu_{i} \mid \sigma^{n} \quad(i=0,1) \tag{20.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and, since $Q$ has the weak topology and $k \theta_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ is continuous throughout $\sigma^{n}$, for each $\sigma^{n} \in Q$, that $\mu_{t}$ is single-valued. The fact that $\mu_{t}$ is single-valued will follow
when we have proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{k} \theta_{t}\left(\sigma^{m}\right)=\mathbf{k} \theta_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma^{m} \tag{20.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\sigma^{m}$ is any face of $\sigma^{n}$.
Since $\nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q=\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q\left(q \epsilon \sigma^{n}\right)$ and $F\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \Delta^{j}=f\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ it follows from (20.7) and (20.8) that $\mathbf{k} \theta_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=\mu \mid \sigma^{n}$. Let $\Delta_{1}^{n}=v_{j+1} \cdots v_{j+n+1}$. Then $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta_{1}^{n}\right)$ and $h\left(\Delta_{1}^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right)$ are the maps induced by $\rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$ and $\nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \Delta_{1}^{n} & =f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta_{1}^{n}\right) \\
& =f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\sigma^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right) h\left(\Delta^{n}, \Delta_{1}^{n}\right) \\
& =f^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) h\left(\Delta^{n}, \Delta_{1}^{n}\right) \\
\nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q & =h\left(\Delta_{1}^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right) q \\
& =h\left(\Delta_{1}^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right) h\left(\Delta^{n}, \sigma^{n}\right) q \\
& =h\left(\Delta_{1}^{n}, \Delta^{n}\right) \mu^{*}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence it follows that $\mathbf{k} \theta_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right)=\mu^{*} \mid \sigma^{n}$ and we have proved (20.9).
Let

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sigma^{m}=u_{r_{0}} \cdots u_{r_{m}}, \quad \sigma_{1}^{i}=v_{s_{0}} \cdots v_{s_{i}} \quad\left(r_{\alpha}<r_{\alpha+1} ; s_{\beta}<s_{\beta+1}\right) \\
v_{s_{0}} \cdots v_{s_{i}} v_{j+1+r_{0}} \cdots v_{j+1+r_{m}}=\sigma_{1}^{i+m+1} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then $\rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}=\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{m}=\sigma_{1}^{i}$. Let $\rho^{\prime}: \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1} \rightarrow \sigma_{1}^{i}$ be the map induced by $\rho\left(\sigma^{n}\right)$. Then it follows from (20.6a) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \rho\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i+m+1}, \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}\right) v_{j+1+r_{\alpha}} \\
& =\rho\left(\sigma^{m}\right) v_{i+1+\alpha}=\mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}} \\
& =h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}}=h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right) \rho^{\prime} v_{j+1+r_{\alpha}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right) \rho^{\prime}=\rho\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i+m+1}, \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}\right)
$$

and it follows from (20.6b) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1} & =\left\{f\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \rho\left(\sigma^{m}\right)\right\} \mid \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1} \\
& =\left\{f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) \mid \sigma_{1}^{i}\right\} \rho^{\prime} \\
& =f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i}, \sigma_{1}^{i}\right) \rho^{\prime} \\
& =f\left(\sigma^{m}\right) \rho\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i+m+1}, \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}\right) \\
& =F\left(\sigma^{m}\right) h\left(\Delta^{i+m+1}, \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\left(F\left(\sigma^{n}\right), \sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}\right) \equiv\left(F\left(\sigma^{m}\right), \Delta^{i+m+1}\right)$. Also

$$
h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right) v_{\beta}=v_{\theta_{\beta}}=h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}, \Delta^{i+m+1}\right) v_{\beta} \quad(\beta \leqq i)
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}} & =\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}}=h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right) \mu\left(\sigma^{m}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}} \\
& =h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}, \Delta^{i+m+1}\right) \nu_{0}\left(\sigma^{m}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}} \\
\nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}} & =v_{j+1+r_{\alpha}}=h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}, \Delta^{i+m+1}\right) \nu_{1}\left(\sigma^{m}\right) u_{r_{\alpha}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $\nu_{t}\left(\sigma^{n}\right) q=h\left(\sigma_{1}^{i+m+1}, \Delta^{i+m+1}\right) \nu_{t}\left(\sigma^{m}\right) q$ if $q \in \sigma^{m}$. This proves (20.10) and hence the theorem.

Let $\phi \simeq \phi^{\prime}: X \rightarrow Y$, where $Y$ is any space. Then it follows from (20.1) that

$$
\kappa K \phi=\phi \kappa \simeq \phi^{\prime} \kappa=\kappa K \phi^{\prime}
$$

Therefore $K \phi \simeq K \phi^{\prime}$, by Theorem 21. Therefore $\{K \phi\}$ is a single-valued function of $\{\phi\}$, where $\{\psi\}$ denotes the homotopy class of a map $\psi$. It may be verified that the correspondences $K \rightarrow K(X),\{\phi\} \rightarrow\{K \phi\}$ determine a functor of the homotopy category of all spaces into the homotopy category of CW-complexes.

## 21. The sequence $\Sigma(X)$.

There is a unique map, $f: \Delta^{0} \rightarrow X$, such that $f \Delta^{0}$ is a given point in $X$. Therefore $\kappa \mid K^{0}(X)$ is a (1-1) map onto $X$, whence $\kappa K(X)=X$. Since $K(X)$ is locally contractible, according to ( $M$ ) in $\S 5$ of CH I, each of its components is arcwise connected. Therefore each component of $K(X)$ is mapped by $\kappa$ into a single arc-component of $X$. Let $K_{0}(X), K_{1}(X)$ be given components of $K(X)$ and let $e_{i}^{0} \in K_{i}^{0}(X), x_{i}=\kappa e_{i}^{0}(i=0,1)$. If $x_{0}, x_{1}$, are in the same arc component of $X$ there is a map, $f: \Delta^{1} \rightarrow X$, such that $f v_{i}=x_{i}$. Then $\mathbf{k}\left(f, \Delta^{1}\right)$ is a 1-cell in $K(X)$, whose extremities are $e_{0}^{0}, e_{1}^{0}$. Therefore $K_{\theta}(X)=K_{1}(X)$ and $\kappa$ maps precisely one component of $K(X)$ onto a given arc-component of $X$.

Let $X$ be arcwise connected and let a 0 -cell $e^{0} \in K^{0}(X)$ and the point $x_{0}=\kappa e^{0}$ be chosen as base points in $K(X)$ and $X$.

Theorem 22. $\kappa_{n}: \pi_{n}\{K(X)\} \approx \pi_{n}(X)$ for every $n=1,2, \cdots$, where $\kappa_{n}$ is induced by к.

Let $\phi:\left(\dot{\Delta}^{n+1}, \Delta^{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, x_{0}\right)$ be a map which represents a given element $a \epsilon \pi_{n}(X)$. Since $\phi \Delta^{0}=x_{0}$ we have $e^{0}=\mathbf{k}\left(\phi \mid \Delta^{0}, \Delta^{0}\right)$ and $\lambda_{\phi} \Delta^{0}=e^{0}$. Therefore $\lambda_{\phi}: \dot{\Delta}^{n+1} \rightarrow K(X)$ represents an element $a_{0} \in \pi_{n}\{K(X)\}$. Since $\phi=\kappa \lambda_{\phi}$ we have $a=\kappa_{n} a_{0}$. Therefore $\kappa_{n}$ is onto.

Let $\mu: \dot{\Delta}^{n+1} \rightarrow K(X)$ be a map which represents a given element $a_{0} \in K_{n}^{-1}(0)$ and let $\mu^{\prime}$ be the constant map $\dot{\Delta}^{n+1} \rightarrow e^{0}$. Since $\kappa_{n} a_{0}=0$ we have $\kappa \mu \simeq \kappa \mu^{\prime}$. Therefore $\mu \simeq \mu^{\prime}$ by Theorem 21. Therefore $a_{0}=0$ and Theorem 22 is proved.

It follows from (20.1) that the isomorphisms $\kappa_{n}$ are natural with respect to the homomorphisms induced by maps $\phi: X \rightarrow Y$ and $K \phi$, where $Y$ is any arcwise connected space.

We recall from CH I that $X$ is dominated by a CW-complex, $L$, if, and only if, there are maps $\phi: X \rightarrow L, \psi: L \rightarrow X$, such that $\psi \phi \simeq 1$.

Theorem 23. If $X$ is dominated by a CW-complex then $\kappa: K(X) \equiv X$.
This follows from Theorem 22 and Theorem 1 in CHI.

Let $X$ be itself a CW-complex. Then it follows from Theorem 23 that $\kappa$ induces a proper isomorphism

$$
\Sigma_{q}(X) \approx \Sigma_{q}\{K(X)\} \quad(q \leqq \infty)
$$

which is natural in consequence of (20.1). If $X$ is an arbitrary, arcwise connected space we choose base points $e^{0} \epsilon K^{0}(X), \kappa e^{0} \epsilon X$ and define $\Sigma_{q}(X)$ as $\Sigma_{q}\{K(X)\}$.

The complex $K(X)$ can also be used to extend the domain of definition of other invariants from CW-complexes to arbitrary spaces. For example the $n$-type of $X$ may be defined as the $n$-type of $K(X)$. The same applies to the injected groups discussed at the end of §11.

## Appendix A. On spaces dominated by complexes

We have seen, in Theorem 23, that any arcwise connected space, $X$, which is dominated by a CW-complex, is of the same homotopy type as some CWcomplex ${ }^{49} K$. Let $\lambda: X \equiv K$ and let $\kappa: K \rightarrow X$ be a homotopy inverse of $\lambda$. Let $\lambda X \subset K_{0}$ where $K_{0}$ is a sub-complex of $K$, let $\lambda_{0}: X \rightarrow K_{0}$ be the map induced by $\lambda$ and let $\kappa_{0}=\kappa \mid K_{0}$. Then $\kappa_{0} \lambda_{0}=\kappa \lambda \simeq 1$. Therefore $X$ is dominated by $K_{0}$. If $X$ is compact, so is $\lambda X$. Therefore $\lambda X \subset K_{0}$, where $K_{0}$ is a finite sub-complex of $K$, by ( $D$ ) in $\S 5$ of Cн I. Therefore $X$ is dominated by a finite CW-complex.
Theorem 24. An arcwise connected space, $X$, which is dominated by a CWcomplex with a countable aggregate of cells, is of the same homotopy type as some locally finite polyhedron.

By Theorem 23, $\kappa: K \equiv X$, where $K=K(X)$. Let $\lambda: X \rightarrow K$ be a homotopy inverse of $\kappa$. Let $\phi: X \rightarrow L, \psi: L \rightarrow X$ be such that $\psi \phi \simeq 1$, where $L$ is a countable CW-complex. Then

$$
\lambda \simeq \lambda \psi \phi=\mu \phi: X \rightarrow K
$$

where $\mu=\lambda \psi: L \rightarrow K$. Let $e^{n}$ be any cell of $L$. Since $\mu \bar{e}^{n}$ is compact it is contained in a finite sub-complex of $K$. Since $L$ is countable it follows that $\mu L$ and hence $\mu \phi X$, is contained in a countable sub-complex, $K_{0} \subset K$. Since $\mu \phi \simeq \lambda$ we have $\mu \phi: X \equiv K$ and we may replace $\lambda$ by $\mu \phi$. Thus we assume to begin with that $\lambda X \subset K_{0}$.

Let $\rho_{t}: K \rightarrow K$ be a homotopy of $\rho_{0}=\lambda \kappa$ into $\rho_{1}=1$. Then there is a countable sub-complex, $K_{1} \subset K$, such that $\rho_{t} K_{0} \subset K_{1}$, for the same reason that $\mu L \subset K_{0}$. By repeating this argument we define a sequence of countable subcomplexes $K_{0}, K_{1}, \cdots$, such that $\rho_{t} K_{n} \subset K_{n+1}$. The union of the complexes $K_{n}$ is a countable sub-complex, $K^{*}$, such that $\lambda X \subset K^{*}$ and $\rho_{t} K^{*} \subset K^{*}$. Therefore $\lambda^{*} \kappa^{*} \simeq 1$ (in $K^{*}$ ) and $\kappa^{*} \lambda^{*}=\kappa \lambda \simeq 1$, where $\lambda^{*}: X \rightarrow K^{*}$ is the map induced by $\lambda$ and $\kappa^{*}=\kappa \mid K^{*}$. Therefore $\lambda^{*}: X \equiv K^{*}$. But $K^{*} \equiv P$, where $P$ is a locally finite polyhedron, by Theorem 13 in CH I. This proves Theorem 24.

It follows from Theorem 24, and the remarks which precede it, that any compact space which is dominated by a CW-complex, and in particular any ANR compactum, is of the same homotopy type as some locally finite poly-

[^31]hedron. We leave open the question whether or no it is of the same homotopy type as a polyhedron of finite dimensionality.

## Appendix B. On separation cochains

Let $X, X^{\prime}$ and $Y \subset X, Y^{\prime} \subset X^{\prime}$ be given topological spaces and let

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
A_{n}=\pi_{n}\left(X, y_{0}\right), & C_{n}=\pi_{n}\left(X, Y, y_{0}\right) \\
A_{n}^{\prime}=\pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, y_{0}^{\prime}\right), & C_{n}^{\prime}=\pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}, y_{0}^{\prime}\right)
\end{array}
$$

where $y_{0}, y_{0}^{\prime}$ are base points in $Y, Y^{\prime}$. Let

$$
j: A_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}, \quad j^{\prime}: A_{n}^{\prime} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}
$$

be the injections and let

$$
f, f^{0}: A_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}, \quad h, h^{0}: C_{n} \rightarrow C_{n}^{\prime}
$$

be the homomorphisms induced by given maps

$$
\phi, \phi^{0}:\left(X, Y, y_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}, y_{0}^{\prime}\right)
$$

Let $\phi\left|Y=\phi^{0}\right| Y$ : Then $\phi, \phi^{0}$ determine a separation homomorphism,

$$
\Delta=\Delta\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right): C_{n} \rightarrow A_{n}^{\prime}
$$

which is defined in the same way as Eilenberg's separation co-chain, except that attention must be paid to the base points. The purpose of this section is to prove that

$$
\text { a) }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
h-h^{0}=j^{\prime} \Delta \\
f-f^{0}=\Delta j \tag{B1}
\end{array}\right.
$$

We recall the definition of $\Delta$. Let $E_{1}^{n}, E_{2}^{n}$ be "Northern" and "Southern" hemispheres on an $n$-sphere, $S^{n}$, and let $S^{n-1}$ be the "equatorial" ( $n-1$ )-sphere. Let $I^{n} \subset R^{n}$ be the $n$-cube, which is given by $0 \leqq t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n} \leqq 1$, where $t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}$ are Cartesian coordinates for $R^{n}$. Let $\theta_{i}: E_{i}^{n} \rightarrow I^{n}$ be fixed homomorphisms (onto), such that $\theta_{1}\left|S^{n-1}=\theta_{2}\right| S^{n-1}$. Let $E_{i}^{n}$ be oriented by means of the map $\theta_{i}^{-1}(i=1,2)$ and let $S^{n}$ take its orientation from $E_{1}^{n}$. Thus, taking orientation into account,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{E}_{1}^{n}=\dot{E}_{2}^{n}=S^{n-1}, \quad S^{n}=E_{1}^{n}-E_{2}^{n} \tag{B2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall use maps of $I^{n}$ and of the (oriented) $n$-elements $E_{1}^{n}, E_{2}^{n}$ to represent elements of homotopy groups, both absolute and relative. We shall also use maps of $S^{n}$ to represent elements of absolute homotopy groups. Let $p_{0}=\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, \cdots, 0\right) \in I^{n}$. It will be convenient to take $p_{0}$ and $\theta_{i}^{-1} p_{0}$ as base points in $I^{n}$ and $S^{n}$.

Let $\lambda:\left(I^{n}, I^{n}, p_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, Y, y_{0}\right)$ be a map representing a given element $c \in C_{n}$. Then $\Delta c \in A_{n}^{\prime}$ is the element represented by $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right): S^{n} \rightarrow X^{\prime}$, where

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) q & =\phi \lambda \theta_{1} q & \text { if } q \in E_{1}^{n} \\
& =\phi^{0} \lambda \theta_{2} q & \text { if } q \in E_{2}^{n} .
\end{array}
$$

Obviously $\Delta c$ is unaltered by a homotopy of the form

$$
\lambda_{t}:\left(I^{n}, I^{n}, p_{0}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, Y, y_{0}\right) .
$$

Therefore it does not depend on the choice of the representative map $\lambda$.
Any pair of elements $c, c^{\prime} \in C_{n}$ may be represented by maps, $\lambda, \lambda^{\prime}: I^{n} \rightarrow Y$, such that

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\lambda\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) & =y_{0} & \text { if } t_{1} \leqq \frac{1}{2} \\
\lambda^{\prime}\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) & =y_{0} & & \text { if } t_{1} \geqq \frac{1}{2},
\end{array}
$$

and $c+c^{\prime}$ by $\lambda^{*}: I^{n} \rightarrow Y$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda^{*}\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) & =\lambda\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) & & \text { if } t_{1} \geqq \frac{1}{2} \\
& =\lambda^{\prime}\left(t_{1}, \cdots, t_{n}\right) & & \text { if } t_{1} \leqq \frac{1}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) E_{3}^{n}=y_{0}^{\prime}, \lambda^{\prime}\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) E_{4}^{n}=y_{0}^{\prime}$, where $E_{3}^{n}, E_{4}^{n} \subset S^{n}$ are "Western" and "Eastern" hemispheres, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda^{*}\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) & =\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) & & \text { in } E_{4}^{n} \\
& =\lambda^{\prime}\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) & & \text { in } E_{3}^{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence it follows that $\Delta\left(c+c^{\prime}\right)=\Delta c+\Delta c^{\prime}$. Therefore $\Delta$ is a homomorphism.
Let $b_{0} \in \pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right)$ and $b_{i} \in \pi_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ be the elements which are represented by the identical maps $S^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}$ and $E_{i}^{n} \rightarrow S^{n}(i=1,2)$. Then it follows from (B2) that

$$
b_{1}-b_{2}=j^{*} b_{0},
$$

where $j^{*}: \pi_{n}\left(S^{n}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right)$ is the injection. On carrying this relation into $X^{\prime}$ by means of the homomorphism

$$
\pi_{n}\left(S^{n}, S^{n-1}\right) \rightarrow \pi_{n}\left(X^{\prime}, Y^{\prime}\right)
$$

which is induced by $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right)$, we have (B1a).
Let $\lambda:\left(I^{n}, I^{n}\right) \rightarrow\left(X, y_{0}\right)$ be a map which represents a given element $a \in A_{n}$. Then $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right) S^{n-1}=y_{0}$ and $f a, f^{0} a$ are represented by the maps

$$
\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right)\left|E_{1}^{n}, \quad \lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right)\right| E_{2}^{n} .
$$

Since $S^{n}=E_{1}^{n}-E_{2}^{n}$ the map $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right)$ represents $f a-f^{0} a$. But $\lambda$ also represents $j a$ and $\lambda\left(\phi, \phi^{0}\right)$ represents $\Delta j a$. This proves (B1b).

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Numbers in square brackets refer to the list of references at the end of the paper. The two papers in [2] will be referred to as CH I and CH II.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ All our complexes will be CW-complexes, as defined in CH I. Here we define $\Sigma(K)$ for complexes which need not be simply connected.
    ${ }^{3}$ Consider also the group of homotopy classes of maps, $\phi: K \rightarrow K$, where $K=S^{2} \cup S^{3}$ and $S^{2} \cap S^{8}$ is a single point, such that $\phi \mid S^{n}$ is of degree +1 over $S^{n}$ for each $n=2,3$. All such maps induce the identical automorphism of $R(K)$. But the induced automorphism of $\pi_{8}(K)$ varies with the Hopf invariant of $\phi \mid S^{3}$ in $S^{2}$.
    ${ }^{4}$ An algebraic expression for the 3-type of a complex, which is not simply connected, is given in [9].
    ${ }^{5}$ The term category will mean the same as in [10]. We follow Eilenberg and MacLane in recognizing categories in which the objects are "all" groups etc. Theyindicate various means by which this can be justified.

[^2]:    - It is just as easy to define $\Sigma$ and to prove Theorem 1 if $A_{n}, C_{n}$ are non-Abelian, provided $\beta C_{n+1}, d C_{n+1}$ are invariant sub-groups of $A_{n}, Z_{n}$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{7}$ I.e. the last homomorphism need not be onto nor the first an isomorphism into.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ This is always the case if $C_{n-1}$, and hence $j A_{n-1}$ (See p. 50 of [18]) is free Abelian.

[^5]:    - An isomorphism, without qualification, will always mean an isomorphism onto.

[^6]:    ${ }^{10}$ If $X, Y$ are any (additive) groups $X+Y$ will always denote their direct sum. It is always to be assumed that $x \in X, y \in Y$ are identified with $(x, 0),(0, y) \in X+Y$.

[^7]:    ${ }^{11}$ We admit the possibility that $g \gamma(a) \neq g \gamma(b)$ if $a \neq b$, even if $\gamma(a)=\gamma(b)$. But the map $g \gamma: A \rightarrow G$ shall be single-valued.

[^8]:    ${ }^{12}$ We postulate a simple ordering of the set $\{i\}(j \neq k$ and $k \nless j$ if $j<k)$ as a convenient method of indicating a summation over all unordered pairs $j, k(j \neq k)$. It is to be assumed, when the context requires it, that any such store of indices is simply ordered.
    ${ }^{13}$ This proof of (A) and its use in simplifying an earlier proof of Theorem 7 below were suggested by M. G. Barratt.
    ${ }^{14}$ By almost all we mean all but a finite number.

[^9]:    ${ }^{15}$ Since $p q k^{2} \gamma(1 / k q)=p q \gamma(1 / q)$ we need not insist that $(p, q)=1$.

[^10]:    ${ }^{17}$ In $\S 8$ below we shall see that this condition is always satisfied if $A^{\prime}$ is finitely generated.

[^11]:    ${ }^{18}$ An element in $A$ is a set of elements $\left\{a_{p}\right\}$, with $a_{p} \in A_{p}$, almost all of which are zero. If $a_{p}=0$ except when $p=p_{1}, \cdots, p_{n}$ we write $\left\{a_{p}\right\}=a_{p_{1}}+\cdots+a_{p_{n}}$.
    ${ }^{19}$ This follows from two successive applications of Theorem 6 in [20].

[^12]:    ${ }^{20}$ The value of $p$ is not determined till the induction is complete. Therefore we allow $\lambda \leqq 0$.

[^13]:    ${ }^{21}$ See [10]. There are obvious generalizations of Theorem 12 below to non-Abelian groups. The partial ordering in $D$, below, is not to be confused with the simple ordering of indices, which was introduced in $\S 5$ and which is not needed here.

[^14]:    ${ }^{22}$ In defining $\Sigma(K)$ we ignore $B^{*}$ and hence lose sight of the invariant $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{s}}(K)$ (Cf. [11], [13], [9]).
    ${ }^{23}$ I.e. through the inverses of the injection isomorphisms $\pi_{1}\left(K^{n}\right) \approx \pi_{1}(K)(n \geqq 2)$.

[^15]:    ${ }^{24}$ See [17] in CH II. $\rho_{n}(L)=\pi_{n}\left(L^{n}, L^{n-1}\right)(n \geqq 2), \rho_{1}(L)=\pi_{1}\left(L^{1}\right)$.

[^16]:    ${ }^{25} \mathrm{Cf}$. p. 220 in CH I.
    ${ }^{26} \phi: K \equiv K^{\prime}$ means that $\phi$ is a homotopy equivalence.
    ${ }^{27} \mathrm{Cf}$. § 14 below and §5 in [9].
    ${ }^{28} \Pi_{2}=\Pi_{2}(K), \Gamma_{3}=\Gamma_{3}(K)$ and, in the following paragraph, $\Pi_{2}^{\prime}=\Pi_{2}(K)^{\prime}, \Gamma_{3}^{\prime}=\Gamma_{3}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, where $\Gamma_{n}(L)$ etc. are the groups in $\Sigma(L)$.
    ${ }^{29}$ See (7.6) in [21]. Alternatively let $P=S_{1}^{2} \cup S_{2}^{2}$ be formed from $S^{2}$ by pinching an equator into a point. Let $\phi: S^{2} \rightarrow P$ be the identification map and $\psi: P \rightarrow K$ a map such that $\psi\left|S_{1}^{2}, \psi\right| S_{2}^{2}$ represent $x, y$, when $S_{1}^{2}, S_{2}^{2}$ take their orientations from $S^{2}$. Let $v=\psi \phi$. Then (13.1) follows from (11.5) in [3]. Similarly $u(-x)=u(x)$.
    ${ }^{30}$ This is obvious if the operators are defined by means of homotopies $\phi_{t}: S^{n} \rightarrow K$, in which $\phi_{t} p_{o}$ varies, where $p_{o} \in S^{n}$ is the base point. If the operators are defined by means of the covering transformations, $\tilde{K} \rightarrow \tilde{K}$, it may be deduced from (13.2) below.

[^17]:    ${ }^{31}$ I.e. a map, $\phi: I^{3} \rightarrow \bar{e}_{\lambda}^{3}$, such that $\phi \dot{I}^{3} \subset K^{2}$ and $\phi \mid I^{3}-\dot{I}^{3}$ is a homeomorphism onto $e_{\lambda}^{3}$.

[^18]:    ${ }^{32}$ We take $\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}$ to consist of a single homomorphism, $0 \rightarrow 0$, and we admit that $(C, A)_{1}$ ( $C_{1}=A_{0}=0$ ) is a combinatorial realization of $\Sigma_{1}^{\prime}$.

[^19]:    ${ }^{34}$ See [15]. In order to apply the existence theorem (10.5) in [15] we can take $\phi_{n}=\phi_{n}^{0}$ in $e_{i}^{n}-\sigma_{i}^{n}$, where $\sigma_{i}^{n} \subset e_{i}^{n}$ is an $n$-simplex, for each $n$-cell $e_{i}^{n} \in K$.
    ${ }^{35}$ See Appendix B below.

[^20]:    ${ }^{36} P K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right)$ stands for $P\left(K\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right), 1\right)$.

[^21]:    ${ }^{37}$ Cf. the concluding remarks in $\S 9$ of [10].
    ${ }^{38}$ We do not assert that $\eta$ is uniquely determined by naturalness and (16.7). When this theorem is quoted it is to be understood that $\eta$ is the transformation which is defined in the course of the proof.

[^22]:    ${ }^{39}$ Possibly $K^{\prime}=K$. In this case the following argument shows that $\tau$ is independent of the choice of the canonical basis ( $c_{1}, \cdots, c_{q}$ ).

[^23]:    ${ }^{40}$ We could equally well take closed sets

[^24]:    ${ }^{41}$ Cf. (12.2) in [14].

[^25]:    ${ }^{42}$ See $\begin{aligned} & \text { 816 of [12]. }\end{aligned}$

[^26]:    ${ }^{43}$ This does not mean that we have found a finite algorithm for deciding whether or no $\Sigma_{4}(K) \approx \Sigma_{4}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Some of the difficulties in this question, even when $K, K^{\prime}$ have no torsion, are indicated on p. 88 of [3].

[^27]:    ${ }^{44}$ See 85 of [6].

[^28]:    ${ }^{45} h\left(\tau^{i}, \sigma^{i}\right)$ will always mean the order preserving, barycentric map, $\sigma^{i} \rightarrow \tau^{i}$, onto $\tau^{i}$.

[^29]:    ${ }^{46}$ Strictly speaking the unique representative of $s^{n}$ is the pair $\left(f\left(s^{n}\right), o_{n}\right)$, where $o_{n}$ is our fixed ordering of the vertices $v_{a}, \cdots, v_{n}$. Eilenberg has communicated to me a simplified definition of $S(X)$, to be used in a forthcoming book with N. E. Steenrod, in which a cell of $S(X)$ is simply a map $f: \Delta^{n} \rightarrow X$ and its faces are the cells $\left(f \mid \sigma^{i}\right) h\left(\sigma^{i}, \Delta^{i}\right)$, for each face, $\sigma^{i}$, of $\Delta^{n}$.
    ${ }^{47}$ Notice that $K \phi$ maps each cell of $K(X)$ homeomorphically onto a cell of $K(Y)$. Therefore $\mathfrak{I} \rightarrow \mathfrak{T}_{k}$ maps $\mathfrak{I}$ into the category of complexes in which the mappings are of this restricted sort.

[^30]:    ${ }^{48}$ When $\mu$ is thus defined it is to be understood that $\mu\left(\sigma^{n}\right) \sigma^{n}=\Delta^{i}\left(j=d\left(\sigma^{n}\right)\right)$ and that $i=d\left(\sigma^{m}\right)$ in (20.6).

[^31]:    ${ }^{49}$ This may be proved more directly by a construction of the sort used in [8].

