

## Homological Algebra and Its Application: A Descriptive Study

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### ABSTRACT

Algebra has been used to define and answer issues in almost every field of mathematics, science, and engineering. Homological algebra depends largely on computable algebraic invariants to categorise diverse mathematical structures, such as topological, geometrical, arithmetical, and algebraic (up to certain equivalences). String theory and quantum theory, in particular, have shown it to be of crucial importance in addressing difficult physics questions. Geometric, topological and algebraic algebraic techniques to the study of homology are to be introduced in this research. Homology theory in abelian categories and a category theory are covered. the  $n$ -fold extension functors  $\text{EXT}^n(-, -)$ , the torsion functors  $\text{TOR}_n(-, -)$ , Algebraic geometry, derived functor theory, simplicial and singular homology theory, group co-homology theory, the sheaf theory, the sheaf co-homology, and the  $\mathbb{I}$ -adic co-homology, as well as a demonstration of its applicability in representation theory.

**Keywords-** Homological algebra, torsion functors, extension functors, E'tale sheaf theory.

### I. INTRODUCTION

Homology, an algebraic compression approach that eliminates all but the most relevant topological attributes, may be used to compress topological data structures. So, homology and topology are linked in this manner. Abstract space and its transformations are studied in the field of topology. In order to represent space as a open system of subsets that satisfy certain consistency criteria, all that is required is a set and a open neighbourhood. If you don't utilise metrics, you don't need to. Many well-known notions in applied mathematics, such as networks, graphs, data sets, signals, and images, may be analysed using topological spaces with helpful auxiliary structures. Aside from comparison and inference, mappings may also be used to describe modifications of these objects, such as information or inference. For topology, equality extends as far as the fuzziness with which we define space. Connectivity is critical, although rounded edges or curves are less so. These invariants are unaffected by changes in coordinates or deformation of the mappings, and they represent the

most important qualitative characteristics of spaces and their mappings.

The homology of a topological invariant is the simplest, most general, and most computationally feasible invariant of the invariant. A sequence of vector spaces  $H(X)$  with dimensions that count various kinds of linearly independent holes in  $X$  are homologous to a space  $X$ . Linear algebraic in nature, but superior to it in power, is what sparked the development of homological algebra. Algebra is the driving force behind the subject matter.

### II. USEFULNESS OF HOMOLOGICAL METHODS

In general, homological approaches are resilient since they don't need perfect coordinates or accurate estimations of effectiveness. The best place to employ them is when geometric accuracy is compromised. Tremendous adaptability and vulnerability go hand in hand with great toughness. Such approaches are not meant to replace analytic, probabilistic or spectral methods. Instead they are more basic. In other cases, however, they

may provide light on the underlying causes of anomalous behaviour in certain datasets and systems. Using topological approaches in isolation is dangerous because it assumes that unknown higher mathematics weapons are impervious to corruption.

### III. CATEGORIES AND FUNCTORS

Categorization allows us to think of mathematical structures like groups, rings, modules, and vector spaces in the same way that we think of mathematical structures like vector spaces. Category theory is used often in mathematics to convey specific outcomes. Using the Go del–Bernays set axiomatic framework is the best way to study category theory. This axiomatic system uses classes instead of sets as a fundamental concept, as explained in Chapter 2 of Algebra 1. Indeed, the members of a class are the constituents of a set. There are suitable classes for classes that don't form sets.

#### 3.1. A Category consists of the following:

1. A class  $Obj\Sigma$  termed the class of objects of  $\Sigma$ .
2. For each couple  $A, B$  in  $Obj\Sigma$ , we have a set  $Mor\Sigma(A, B)$  termed the set of morphisms from the object  $A$  to the object  $B$ . Additional,

$$Mor\Sigma(A, B) \cap Mor\Sigma(A', B') \neq \emptyset \text{ only if } A = A' \text{ and } B = B'.$$

3. For each three-way  $A, B, C$  in  $Obj\Sigma$ , we have a plot  $\cdot$  from  $Mor\Sigma(B, C) \times Mor\Sigma(A, B)$  to  $Mor\Sigma(A, C)$  termed the law of composition. We signify the image  $\cdot(g, f)$  of the duo  $(g, f)$  under the map  $\cdot$  by  $gf$ . Supplementary, the law of compositions is associative in the sense that if  $f \in Mor\Sigma(A, B)$ ,  $g \in Mor\Sigma(B, C)$  and  $h \in Mor\Sigma(C, D)$ , then  $(hg)f = h(gf)$ .

4. For each  $A \in Obj\Sigma$ , there is an component  $I_A$  in  $Mor\Sigma(A, A)$  such that  $fI_A = f$  for all morphisms  $f$  from  $A$ , and  $I_Ag = g$  for all morphisms  $g$  to  $A$ .

If  $f \in Mor\Sigma(X, Y)$ , then  $X$  is christened the **domain** of  $f$  and  $Y$  is termed the **codomain** of  $f$ . We also signify the morphism  $f$  by  $X \rightarrow Y$ .

Obviously, for each object  $A$  of  $\Sigma$ ,  $I_A$  is the exclusive morphism, and it is termed the identity morphism on  $A$ . The category  $\Sigma$  is termed a **small category** if  $Obj\Sigma$  is a set.

Let  $\Sigma$  and  $\Gamma$  be groups. A **functor**  $F$  from  $\Sigma$  to  $\Gamma$  is an reminder which associates to each member  $A \in Obj\Sigma$ , a member  $F(A)$  of  $Obj\Gamma$ , and to each morphism  $f \in Mor\Sigma(A, B)$ , a morphism  $F(f) \in Mor\Gamma(F(A), F(B))$  such that the subsequent two circumstances hold:

- (i)  $F(gf) = F(g)F(f)$  whenever the structure  $gf$  is defined.
- (ii)  $F(I_A) = I_{F(A)}$  for all  $A \in Obj\Sigma$ .

Let  $\Sigma$  be a category. Reflect the category  $\Sigma^o$  whose substances are same as those of  $\Sigma$ ,  $Mor\Sigma(A, B) = Mor\Sigma(B, A)$ , and the composition  $f g$  in  $\Sigma$  is same as  $gf$  in  $\Sigma^o$ . The category is termed the opposite category of  $\Sigma$ . A functor from  $\Sigma^o$  to a category is termed a **contra-**

**variant functor**  $\Sigma$  and  $\Gamma$ . If  $\Sigma$  is a category, then the uniqueness map  $I_{Obj\Sigma}$  from  $Obj\Sigma$  to itself describes a functor termed the identity functor.

### IV. SIMPLICIAL COMPLEX AND POLYHEDRONS HOMOMOLOGY

“In this part, we'll focus only on those simple, but complicated, systems.  $(\Sigma, S)$  in the sense that each vertex has a limited number of neighbours.  $v \in \Sigma$ , near are only finitely numerous simplexes  $\sigma \in S$  such that  $v \in \sigma$ . Indeed, we'll be focusing on finite simplicial complexes for the most part (complexes for which are finite). Simicial complexes that are locally finite are referred to as SCs. A simplicial complex  $(\Sigma, S)$  is termed a finite simplicial complex if is finite.

Accordingly, we establish a functor between the categories SC and T O P of simplicial complexes. Let  $(\Sigma, S)$  be a simplicial complex. Let  $|\Sigma, S|$  signify the set containing of all maps  $\alpha$  from  $\Sigma$  to  $[0, 1]$  such that (i)  $\{v \in \Sigma \mid \alpha(v) \neq 0\}$  is a simplex and (ii)  $\sum_v \alpha(v) = 1$ . The number  $\alpha(v)$  is termed the  $v_{i,h}$  **barycentric coordinate** of  $\alpha$ . Clearly, any  $\alpha \in |\Sigma, S|$  is 0 at all but finitely many vertices in  $\Sigma$ . We have a metric  $d$  on  $|\Sigma, S|$  well-defined by

$$d(\alpha, \beta) = +\sqrt{\sum_v (\alpha(v) - \beta(v))^2}.$$

If  $\sigma$  is a simplex of  $(\Sigma, S)$ , then  $|\sigma, \sigma|$  can be recognized with the subspace

$$\{\alpha \in |\Sigma, S| \mid \alpha(v) \neq 0 \Rightarrow v \in \sigma\}$$

of  $|\Sigma, S|$ . This subspace is symbolized by  $|\sigma|$ , and it is termed as a closed simplex. Likewise,  $|\sigma, \sigma'|$  is symbolized by  $|\sigma'|$ . Evidently,  $|\sigma'|$  is a boundary of  $|\sigma|$ . The subset  $\langle \sigma \rangle = |\sigma| - |\sigma'|$  is an open subspace of  $|\sigma|$ , and it is termed an open simplex. Recall that the standard q-simplex  $\Delta^q$  is the convex hull of the normal basis  $\{\bar{e}_0, \bar{e}_1, \dots, \bar{e}_q\}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{q+1}$ . More explicitly,  $\Delta^q$  is the subspace

$$\Delta^q = \{\bar{a} = \sum_{i=0}^q a_i \bar{e}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{q+1} \mid a_i \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum a_i = 1\}$$

of  $\mathbb{R}^{q+1}$  with the Euclidean metric. If  $\sigma = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q\}$  is a q-simplex in  $(\Sigma, S)$ , then we have an isometry  $\phi_q$  from normal q-simplex to  $|\sigma|$  given by

$$\phi_q(\bar{a})(v_i) = a_i, 0 \leq i \leq q, \text{ and } \phi_q(\bar{a})(v) = 0 \text{ if } v \notin \sigma.$$

Therefore,  $|\sigma|$  is a compact ( and so also a closed) subset of  $|\Sigma, S|$ . Sience  $(\Sigma, S)$  locally finite, it trails easily that a subset  $A$  of  $|\Sigma, S|$  is a closed subset if and only if  $A \cap |\sigma|$  is a closed subset of  $|\sigma|$  for all simplexes  $\sigma$  of  $(\Sigma, S)$ .

In specific, a map  $f$  from  $|\Sigma, S|$  to a topological subspace  $X$  is incessant if and only if  $f$  limited to each closed simplex is nonstop.

For a static  $v \in \Sigma$ , study the map  $\phi_v$  from  $|\Sigma, S|$  to  $[0, 1]$  defined by  $\phi(\alpha) = \alpha(v)$ . Evidently,  $\phi_v$  is a continuous map. Hence  $\phi_v^{-1}((0, 1]) = \{\alpha \in |\Sigma, S| \mid \alpha(v) = 0\}$  is an open subset of  $|\Sigma, S|$ . The star of  $v$  is the name given to this collection.  $St(v)$ . Therefore,  $St(v) = \{\alpha \in |\Sigma, S| \mid \alpha(v) = 0\}$ .

### V. SUBDIVISION CHAIN MAP

“Let  $(\Sigma, S)$  be a simplicial complex. For each  $p \geq 0$ , we shall describe a homomorphism  $sd_p$  from  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma, S)$  to  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  such that  $sd = \{sd_p \mid p \geq 0\}$  is an augmentation-preserving chain alteration from  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma, S)$  to  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$ . The chain map  $sd$  will be referred to as a map of a subdivision subdivision chain. P-induction is used to do this. Defintionally,,  $\Lambda_0(\Sigma, S)$  is the free abelian collection on the set  $\{v \mid v \in \Sigma\}$  of concerned with 0-simplexes. We describe  $sd_0$  to be the unique homomorphism from  $0(\Sigma, S)$  to  $0(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  which maps  $\{v\}$  to  $\{\hat{v}\}$ . Evidently,  $sd_0$  respects the increase maps. Given a 1-simplex  $\sigma = \{v_0, v_1\}$ , we have two ordered 1-simplexes  $(v_0, v_1)$  and  $(v_1, v_0)$  related with  $\sigma$ . Indeed, they have different locations also, and so  $[v_0, v_1] \neq [v_1, v_0]$ . Define a map  $\phi_1$  from  $\Lambda_1(\Sigma, S)$  to  $\Lambda_1(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  by

$$\phi_1(v, w) = \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{v} + \hat{w}), \hat{w} \right] - \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{w} + \hat{v}), \hat{v} \right].$$

Evidently,  $\phi_1(v, w) + \phi_1(w, v) = 0$ . Therefore,  $\phi_1$  tempts a homomorphism  $sd_1$  from  $\Lambda_1(\Sigma, S)$  to  $\Lambda_1(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  defined by

$$sd_1[v, w] = \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{v} + \hat{w}), \hat{w} \right] - \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{w} + \hat{v}), \hat{v} \right].$$

Further,

$$d_1 sd_1[v, w] = d_1 \left( \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{v} + \hat{w}), \hat{w} \right] \right) - d_1 \left( \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\hat{w} + \hat{v}), \hat{v} \right] \right) = [\hat{w}] - [\hat{v}] = sd_0 d_1[v, w]$$

for all  $v, w \in \Sigma$ . This shows that  $d_1 sd_1 = sd_0 d_1$ . For suitability,  $[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q]$  is also signified by  $v_0 \cdot [v_1,$

$\dots, v_q]$ . More usually, if  $\sum_i n_i [\sigma_i, \alpha_i]$  is an element

of  $\Lambda_q(\Sigma, S)$ , and  $v$  is a vertex such that  $v \cdot [\sigma_i, \alpha_i]$  is

well-defined for all  $i$ , then  $\sum_i n_i [v \cdot \sigma_i, \alpha_i]$  is signified

by  $v \cdot (\sum_i n_i [\sigma_i, \alpha_i])$ . Therefore,

$$sd_1[v, w] = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{v} + \hat{w}) \cdot \{\hat{w}\} - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{w} + \hat{v}) \cdot \{\hat{v}\}.$$

Supposing that  $sd_q$  is now definite for all  $q < p$  filling the condition  $d_q sd_q = sd_{q-1} d_q$  for all  $q < p$ . Let  $[\sigma, \alpha]$  be an concerned with  $p$ -simplex. Suppose that  $[\sigma, \alpha] = [\sigma, \beta]$ . It can be confirmed that

$$b(\sigma) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i sd_{p-1}([\sigma_i, \alpha_i]) + b(\sigma) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i sd_{p-1}([\sigma_i, \beta_i]) = 0.$$

As a result, there will always be a single homomorphism in existence  $sd_p$  from  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma, S)$  to  $\Lambda_p(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  subject to

$$sd_p([\sigma, \alpha]) = b(\sigma) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i sd_{p-1}([\sigma_i, \alpha_i]) = b(\sigma) \cdot sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha])).$$

In turn,

$$\begin{aligned} d_p sd_p([\sigma, \alpha]) &= d_p(b(\sigma) \cdot sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha]))) \\ &= sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha])) - b(\sigma) \cdot d_{p-1}(sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha]))) \\ &= sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha])) - b(\sigma) \cdot sd_{p-2}(d_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha]))) = sd_{p-1}(d_p([\sigma, \alpha])) \end{aligned}$$

for all concerned with  $p$ -simplex  $[\sigma, \alpha]$ . This shows that  $d_p sd_p = sd_{p-1} d_p$ . Therefore,  $sd$  is a chain change and it is termed the **subdivision chain map**.

$sd$  causes isomorphisms on the associated simplicial homology groups, as we'll demonstrate in this paper. We use the term simplicial map to describe it.  $\chi$  from  $(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$  to  $(\Sigma, S)$  such that  $\Lambda(\chi) \circ sd$  and  $sd \circ \Lambda(\chi)$  equal to the identity chain changes that they represent. By meaning,  $\Sigma_{bd} = \{b(\sigma) \mid \sigma \in S\}$ . The axiom of hike gives us a map  $\chi$  from  $\Sigma_{bd}$  to  $\Sigma$  such that  $\chi(b(\sigma)) \in \sigma$ . Let  $\sigma'$  be a simplex  $f(\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd})$ . By description, there is an well-ordered simplex  $(\sigma, \alpha) = (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_q)$  in  $(\Sigma, S)$  such that  $\sigma = \{v_0, (v_0 + v_1), \dots, (v_0 + v_1 + \dots + v_q)\}$ . In fact, the order in is naturally ordered.  $\alpha$  on  $\sigma$ . Clearly,  $\chi(\sigma') \subseteq \sigma$ , and hence  $\chi(\sigma')$  is a simplex in  $(\Sigma, S)$ . This demonstrates that a simple map is a scalar product of. A simplicial approximation of

the tautological identity map is indeed available.  $|\Sigma_{bd}, S_{bd}| = |\Sigma, S|$ . Let be a  $q$ -simplex of  $S$ . Inductively, identify the components.  $\chi^i(\sigma) \in \sigma$  for each  $i, 0 \leq i \leq q$  as follows: Take  $\chi^0(\sigma) = \chi(b(\sigma))$ , and  $\chi^i(\sigma) = \chi(b(\sigma - \{\chi^0(\sigma)\}))$ . Shoulder that  $\chi^i(\sigma), i < q$ , has previously been defined. Define  $\chi^{i+1} = \chi(b(\sigma_j = 1 \{ \chi^i(\sigma) \}))$ . This gives us an oriented  $q$ -simplex  $[\sigma, \bar{\chi}]$ , where  $\bar{\chi}(i) = \chi^i(\sigma)$ .

### VI. EULER-POINCARÉ THEOREM

“Let

$$\Omega \equiv \dots \xrightarrow{d_{q+1}} \Omega_q \xrightarrow{d_q} \Omega_{q-1} \xrightarrow{d_{q-1}} \dots$$

be a finitely made chain complex of abelian groups. Then  $H(\Omega) = \{H_q(\Omega) \mid q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a finitely generated graded abelian group and  $\chi(\Omega) = \chi(H(\Omega))$ .

**Proof:** Meanwhile  $\Omega_q$  is a finitely made abelian group,  $C_q(\Omega), B_q(\Omega)$ , and  $H_q(\Omega) = C_q(\Omega)/B_q(\Omega)$  are finitely made. From the above proposal,

$$r(C_q(\Omega)) = r(H_q(\Omega)) + r(B_q(\Omega)).$$

Again, meanwhile

$$\begin{aligned} \Omega_q / C_q(\Omega) &\approx B_{q-1}(\Omega), \\ r(\Omega_q) &= r(C_q(\Omega)) + r(B_{q-1}(\Omega)). \end{aligned}$$

It follows from the preceding two equations that

$$r(\Omega_q) = r(H_q(\Omega)) + r(B_q(\Omega)) + r(B_{q-1}(\Omega)).$$

Multiplying by  $(-1)^q$  and summing over  $q$ , we find that  $\chi(\Omega) = \chi(H(\Omega))$ .

Let  $X$  be a topological space such that the classified singular homology group  $H(X) = \{H_q(X) \mid q \geq 0\}$  is a finitely made graded abelian group. The rank of  $H_q(X)$  is termed the  $q$ th **Betti number**, and it is meant by  $b_q(X)$ . The tor-sion numbers of  $H_q(X)$  are termed the  $q$ th torsion numbers of  $X$ . The Euler–Poincare characteristic

$$\chi(H(X)) = \sum_{q=0}^n (-1)^q b_q(X)$$

of  $H(X)$  is termed the Euler–Poincare distinctive of  $X$ , and it is signified by  $\chi(X)$ . These are all invariants of the space up to homotopy”.

### VII. EILENBERG–ZILBER

“Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. Then  $S(X \times Y)$  is chain equivalent to  $S(X) \otimes S(Y)$ . Therefore, if  $H_q(X)$  or  $H_q(Y)$  is torsion free, then by the Kunnetth formula,  $H_n(X \times Y) = \sum_{p+q=n} H_p(X) \otimes H_q(Y)$ , and  $\chi(X \times Y) = \chi(X)\chi(Y)$ . In particular,  $\chi(S^2 \times S^2) = 4$ .”

### VIII. JORDAN–BROUWER SEPARATION THEOREM

If we take a homeomorphic copy, it's clear what will happen. A of  $S^1$  embedded in  $S^2$ , then  $S^2 - A$  is broken down into two related components  $B$  and  $C$ , both of which have a shared boundary with  $A$ . Mathematically speaking, it's not that simple to prove this. It requires some arithmetic effort. The following theorem applies in a broader sense. Let  $A$  be a copy of  $S^{n-1}$  embedded as a homeomorphic subspace of  $S^n$ . Then  $S^n - A = B \cup C$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are related components of  $S^n - A$  such that  $A$  serves as the common border of  $B$  and  $C$ . To prove this theorem, we need further evidence.

### IX. BORSUK–ULAM THEOREM

Contemplate the Euclidean space  $R^{n+1}$ . The map  $A$  from  $R^{n+1}$  to itself given by  $A(x^-) = -x^-$  is termed the antipodal map. Evidently,  $A$  is an orthogonal transformation on  $R^{n+1}$  of determinant  $(-1)^{n+1}$ . A subset  $X$  of  $R^{n+1}$  is said to be invariant below antipodal map  $A$  if  $A(X) = X$ . For example,  $S^n$ ,  $D^{n+1}$ , and the cube  $I^n = \{x^- \in R^{n+1} \mid \max\{|x_i| \mid i\} = 1\}$  are  $A$ -invariant subspaces of  $R^{n+1}$ . Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be  $A$ -invariant subspaces of  $R^{n+1}$ . A incessant map  $f$  from  $X$  to  $Y$  is termed an **antipodes** preserving map (also termed an odd map) if  $f(Ax^-) = A(f(x^-))$  for each  $x^- \in X$ . Therefore, the antipodal map  $A$  is an antipodes preserving map. The map

$$f(x^-) = \frac{x^-}{|x^-|}$$

from  $I^n$  to  $S^n$  agreed by  $f$  is an antipodes preserving map. If  $m \leq n$ , then the inclusion map  $i$  from  $S^m$  to  $S^n$  assumed by  $i(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m) = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m, 0, \dots, 0)$  is antipodes preserving continuous map.

$(0, 0, \dots, 0)$  is antipodes preserving continuous map. Though, we shall found the theorem of Borsuk–Ulam which asserts that such a map from  $S_m$  to  $S_n$  for  $m > n$  does not exist. There are numerous equivalent formulations of the theorem of Borsuk–Ulam”.

### X. HUREWICZ THEOREM, AN APPLICATION OF SPECTRAL SEQUENCE

“Our goal is to prove an important Hurewicz theorem on the relationship between a space's basic groups and its homology groups using spectral sequence arguments.”

Let  $X$  be a path-connected space with a starting point  $x_0 \in X$ . Recollection the loop space  $\Omega(X, x_0)$  of all continuous loops in  $X$  around  $x_0$ . A path in  $\Omega(X, x_0)$  from a loop  $\sigma$  to a loop  $\tau$  is, in fact, a homotopy  $H$  from  $\sigma$  to  $\tau$ . Let  $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \pi_0(\Omega(X, x_0))$  signify the set of all path components of  $\Omega(X, x_0)$ . Therefore,  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is the set of homotopy classes of loops in  $X$  around  $x_0$ . A homotopy class of loops determined by  $\sigma$  will be signified by  $[\sigma]$ . Let  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  be members of  $\Omega(X, x_0)$ . Define a map  $\sigma \star \tau$  from  $I$  to  $X$  by putting  $(\sigma \star \tau)(t) = 2t$  for  $t \in [0, 1/2]$  and  $(\sigma \star \tau)(t) = 2t - 1$  for  $t \in [1/2, 1]$ . Clearly,  $\sigma \star \tau \in \Omega(X, x_0)$ . The notation  $\sigma \approx \tau$  will mean that  $\sigma$  is homotopic to  $\tau$ . If  $\sigma \approx \sigma'$  and  $\tau \approx \tau'$ , then it can be seen easily that  $\sigma \star \tau \approx \sigma' \star \tau'$ . Therefore, we have a product  $\cdot$  in  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  given by  $[\sigma] \cdot [\tau] = [\sigma \star \tau]$ . It can be verified that  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is a group with respect to this operation. The homotopy class  $[e_0]$  is the identity, where  $e_0$  is the continuous loop given by  $e_0(t) = x_0$  for all  $t$ . The inverse of  $[\sigma]$  is  $[\sigma^{-1}]$ , where  $\sigma^{-1}(t) = \sigma(1-t)$ . The group  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is termed the first **fundamental group** or the **homotopy group** of based at  $x_0$ . Further,  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ ,  $e_0$  is termed the second fundamental group of  $X$  based at  $x_0$  and it is signified by  $\pi_2(X, x_0)$ . Inductively, we can define all higher fundamental groups  $\pi_n(X, x_0)$ . It can be seen that  $\pi_n(X, x_0)$  is abelian for all  $n \geq 2$ . Let  $\sigma \in \Omega(X, x_0)$ . Then  $\sigma$  is a 1-singular simplex in  $S^1(X)$ . Indeed,  $\sigma$  represents a 1-cycle and determines an element of  $H_1(X, Z)$  which we signify by  $\hat{\sigma}$ . If  $\sigma \approx \tau$ , then it can be easily observed that  $\hat{\sigma} = \hat{\tau}$ . This describes a map  $\chi$  from  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  to  $H_1(X, Z)$ . Since  $X$  is path connected,  $\chi$  is surjective. It can also be shown that  $\chi$  is a homomorphism whose kernel is the commutator  $[\pi_1(X, x_0), \pi_1(X, x_0)]$  of  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ . Therefore,  $H_1(X, Z)$  is naturally isomorphic to the abelianizer of the fundamental group  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$ . In particular, if  $\pi_1(X, x_0)$  is abelian, then  $\pi_1(X, x_0) \approx H_1(X, x_0)$ . If  $X$  is path connected and  $\pi_1(X, x_0) = \{0\} = \pi_0(\Omega(X, x_0))$ , then  $\Omega(X, x_0)$  is path connected. In turn,  $\pi_2(X, x_0) = \pi_1(\Omega(X, x_0), e_0) \approx H_1(\Omega(X, x_0), Z)$ .

A continuous map  $E \rightarrow B$  is termed a **Hurewicz Fibration** if it has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any space  $X$  in the following sense:

Given a homotopy  $H$  from  $X \times I$  to  $B$  and a continuous map  $f$  from  $X$  to  $E$  such that  $H(x, 0) = \text{pof}(x)$

for each  $x \in X$ , there is a continuous map  $\hat{H}$  from  $X \times I$  to  $E$  such that  $\hat{H}(x, 0) = f(x)$  for each  $x$  and  $p\hat{H} = H$ .

A continuous map  $E \rightarrow B$  is termed a **Weak Fibration** or a **Serre fibration** if it has the homotopy lifting property with respect to any cube  $I^n$ ,  $n \geq 0$ . Therefore, a Hurewicz fibration is a Serre fibration. For an element,  $b \in B$ ,  $p^{-1}(b)$  is termed the fiber over  $B$

## XI. CONCLUSION

Topological data analysis has been approached using homological algebra in this review. When working with rings, modules, and even more exciting categories like rings, polynomials, and polynomials (as hinted at by the evader-inference example above), mathematicians will be delighted to discover that the story begins in earnest. When working with real data, however, it is best to begin with vector spaces and linear transformations.

Recommendations for further reading on topology and homological algebra [50, 51] also apply. These notes are notable for their unique perspective. A more thorough view of topological data analysis may be gained by exploring the growing literature. Theory and algorithms may be learned from Edelsbrunner and Harer's book [40]. The book on computational homology by Kaczynsky, Mischaikow, and Mrozek [62] has much more algorithmic knowledge. This is because algorithms have a shorter shelf life than theories, hence both books suffer from it. Persistent homology theory is the focus of numerous upcoming publications, including Oudot's [76]. In lieu of a single book, Carlsson's [23] collection of overview articles on topology is ideal for beginning courses in the data sciences.

There are numerous unsolved problems in the subject of topological data analysis, which is in its infancy. It's reasonable to say that topological techniques and viewpoints are gradually finding their way into new application fields. It's not yet clear to this author which of these sectors will benefit the most from homological techniques considering the rapid speed of research in all of them. An antipodal extension of applications occurs when homologous data and current mathematics are coupled. A mathematical structure that would otherwise look unreasonable and unexplored has already been encouraged by the special demands of data (e.g. interleaving distance in sheaf theory and persistence in matroid theory). The simple use of representation theory to homological data analysis might enliven homological data analysis.

Researchers are increasingly focusing on stability in the context of persistent homology, sheaves, and other representation structures. Getting things in order will take some time. Algebraic topology's deeper ideas are likely to be used in various fields of mathematics as time goes on. Optimism and uncertainty may be found at the intersection of probabilistic and stochastic techniques. These comments, in stark contrast to the rest of the book, are devoid of quotation marks. Topology and

probability are not at odds. Studies on Gaussian random fields and random complexes' homology have been published recently [6 and 63]. There is a lot of material in these lectures that might be coupled with more modern probabilistic methods. Two of the most important characteristics of a good mathematician are bravery and optimism.

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