

## Reading 21

# Cellular homology of real projective space

We know from previous lectures that the differential in the cellular chain complex

$$\partial_k : H_k(X^k/X^{k-1}) \rightarrow H_{k-1}(X^{k-1}/X^{k-2})$$

is a matrix whose  $\alpha, \beta$  component (after a change of basis) is computed as the map induced on homology of the following composition:

$$\partial D_\alpha^k \xrightarrow{\varphi_\alpha} X^{k-1} \xrightarrow{q_{k-1, k-2}} X^{k-1}/X^{k-2} \cong \bigvee_{\beta \in \mathcal{A}_{k-1}} S^{k-1} \xrightarrow{p_\beta} S_\beta^{k-1}.$$

Here,  $p_\beta$  is the “projection” map. It acts as the identity on the  $\beta$ th copy of  $S^{k-1}$ , and collapses all other spheres to the basepoint  $x_0$ .

We witness the concrete role that the attaching map  $\varphi_\alpha$  plays in the cellular differential.

### 21.1

Today, to get our hands dirty, we will consider the case  $X = \mathbb{R}P^n$ , otherwise known as real projective space of dimension  $n$ . It is not a bad time to brush up on Reading 16.

Recall  $X$  can be given a CW structure where for every  $k$  between 0 and  $n$ ,  $X$  has exactly one  $k$ -cell. So there is no need to worry about  $\alpha$ s and  $\beta$ s. Put another way,

$$X^k/X^{k-1} \cong \bigvee_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_k} S^k \cong S^k$$

for all  $k \geq 1$ . Let us also recall that  $X^k = \mathbb{R}P^k$ .

Moreover, we know that the attaching map for the  $k$ -cell is the quotient map

$$\partial D^k = S^{k-1} \rightarrow X^{k-1} = \mathbb{R}P^{k-1}, \quad v \mapsto [v] = \{\pm v\}.$$

It is our task now to understand the composition

$$S^{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^{k-1}/\mathbb{R}P^{k-2} \cong S^{k-1}.$$

The induced map on homology of the above composition is the map  $\partial_k$ . Note that  $k = 1$  is a special case, as  $X^0 = pt$  (not  $S^0$ ).

## 21.2 $k = 1$

Let us compute  $\partial_1$ . We know that to compute this differential, we look at every 1-cell  $D_\alpha^1$  and determine where the endpoints of  $D_\alpha^1$  are sent via the attaching map.

In our case,  $X^1 = \mathbb{R}P^1$  is obtained from  $X^0 = pt$  by attaching both endpoints of a single  $D^1$  to  $X^0$ . In particular, if  $x \in H_1(X^1/X^0) \cong H_1(S^1)$ , we have that

$$\partial_1(x) = x - x = 0.$$

So we have computed that  $\partial_1 = 0$ .

## 21.3 $k = 2$

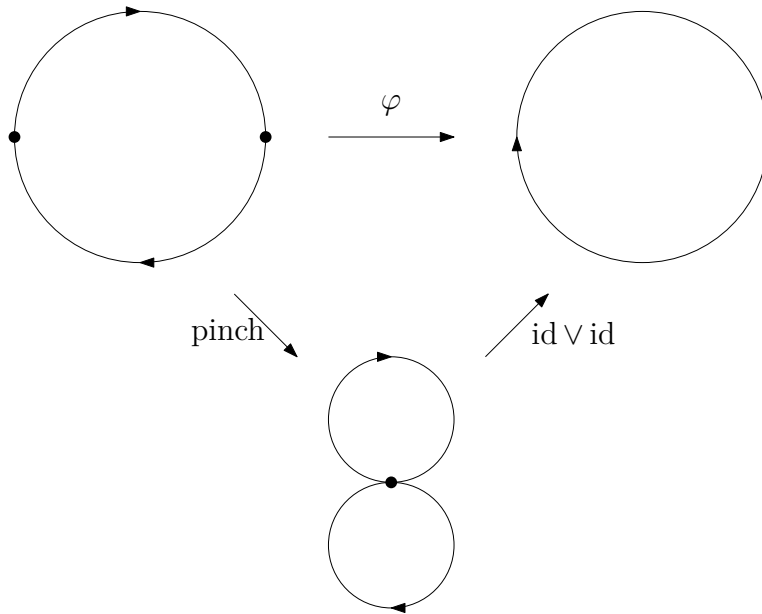
We know that the 2-cell of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  is attached via the map

$$\partial D^2 = S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}P^1, \quad v \mapsto [\pm v].$$

Confusingly,  $\mathbb{R}P^1/\mathbb{R}P^0 \cong \mathbb{R}P^1 \cong S^1$ . Moreover, because  $(1, 0)$  and  $(-1, 0) \in S^1$  have the same image,  $\varphi_1$  factors through the quotient

$$\left(\partial D^2/(1, 0) \sim (0, 1)\right) \cong S^1 \vee S^1$$

so we are now in business. We may add up the effect on homology from each component of  $S^1 \vee S^1$  to  $\mathbb{R}P^1 \cong S^1$  to compute  $\partial_2$ . It is straightforward to see that the map from each component of  $S^1 \vee S^1$  is identified with the



**Figure 21.3.1.** The attaching map for the 2-cell of  $\mathbb{R}P^2$  is a map  $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$  of degree 2.

identity map  $S^1 \rightarrow S^1$ . In other words,  $\varphi$  is a composition of a pinch map followed by two identity maps. By Proposition 20.4.2, we conclude

$$\partial_2 : H_2(\mathbb{R}P^2/\mathbb{R}P^1) \rightarrow H_1(\mathbb{R}P^1/\mathbb{R}P^0)$$

after changing basis to  $H_2(\mathbb{R}P^2/\mathbb{R}P^1) \cong H_1(S^1)$  and  $H_1(\mathbb{R}P^1/\mathbb{R}P^0) \cong H_1(S^1)$ , is given by the map

$$\partial_2(x) = 2x.$$

In summary, the cellular chain complex of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$  looks as follows, so far:

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3} A \xrightarrow{2} A \xrightarrow{0} A \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow \dots \tag{21.3.0.1}$$

## 21.4 Homology of $\mathbb{R}P^2$

Because  $\mathbb{R}P^2$  has no 3-cells (and no higher dimensional cells) we can compute its homology using what we've done so far.

**Exercise 21.4.1.** Show, by computing the homology of the cellular chain complex (21.3.0.1), that:

(a) For any abelian group  $A$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; A) \cong \begin{cases} A & i = 0 \\ A/2A & i = 1 \\ \ker(A \xrightarrow{2} A) & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

In particular,

(b) For  $A = \mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; \mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & i = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & i = 1 \\ 0 & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

(c) For  $A = \mathbb{F}_2$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; \mathbb{F}_2) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{F}_2 & i = 0 \\ \mathbb{F}_2 & i = 1 \\ \mathbb{F}_2 & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

(d) For  $A = \mathbb{F}_3 = \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; \mathbb{F}_3) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{F}_3 & i = 0 \\ 0 & i = 1 \\ 0 & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

(e) For  $A = \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} & i = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & i = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

(f) For  $A = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$H_i(\mathbb{R}P^2; \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}) \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} & i = 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} & i = 1 \\ \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} & i = 2 \\ 0 & i \geq 3. \end{cases}$$

**Remark 21.4.2.** Exercise 21.4.1 should really open our eyes.

Even over  $\mathbb{Z}$ , we are witnessing that a 2-dimensional CW complex can have *trivial* 2nd homology groups. (Secretly, we knew this was possible already – we could for example consider  $D^2$ , which has the homology of a point.)

We are witnessing that homology groups can look substantially different depending on our choice of  $A$ . For example, over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ , the 2nd homology groups are non-trivial. In particular, different choices of  $A$  seem to capture different aspects of the topology of  $\mathbb{R}P^2$  – over  $\mathbb{F}_3$ ,  $\mathbb{R}P^2$  has homology at dimensions 1 and above.

Finally, we are also seeing how homology groups can differ substantially based on the dimension  $i$ . Over  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ , the homology groups  $H_0, H_1, H_2$  are different abelian groups.

## 21.5 The geometry of the attaching map

To compute  $\partial_{k+1}$  in general, we have to study the composition

$$\partial D^{k+1} = S^k \xrightarrow{x \mapsto [\pm x]} \mathbb{R}P^k \xrightarrow{q_{k,k-1}} \mathbb{R}P^k / \mathbb{R}P^{k-1}.$$

For brevity, let's call the composition  $f$ . Let  $E \subset S^k$  be the equator. Then  $f(E) = [\mathbb{R}P^{k-1}]^1$ . So  $f$  factors through  $S^k/E \cong S^k \vee S^k$ . That is (by the universal property of quotient spaces) there is a dashed continuous map as below, making the triangle commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S^k & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathbb{R}P^k / \mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \\ & \searrow & \nearrow \text{---} \\ & S^k/E & \end{array} \quad (21.5.0.1)$$

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<sup>1</sup>In fact,  $f^{-1}([\mathbb{R}P^{k-1}]) = E$

Let us identify each term in a useful way.

### 21.5.1 Collapsing the equator

Identify  $D^k$  with the northern and southern hemispheres of  $S^k$  as usual<sup>2</sup>:

$$\begin{aligned} a_+ : D^n &\rightarrow S^n, & (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) &\mapsto \left( x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}, \sqrt{1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) \\ a_- : D^n &\rightarrow S^n, & (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) &\mapsto \left( x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}, -\sqrt{1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{21.5.1.1}$$

This induces a homeomorphism

$$(D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- \rightarrow S^k/E \tag{21.5.1.2}$$

where we have labeled the two components of the domain by  $+$  and  $-$  for later notational clarity. The homeomorphism sends an element  $[x]$  of the domain to  $[a_+(x)]$  or to  $[a_-(x)]$  depending on the component of the wedge sum  $x$  is in.

Consider the commutative diagram of topological spaces below:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S^k & \longrightarrow & S^k/E & \xrightarrow[\cong]{[a_+]^{-1} \vee [a_-]^{-1}} & (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- & \xrightarrow{p_+} & D^k/\partial D^k \\ & \searrow h_+ & \downarrow & & & & \uparrow \text{id} \\ & & S^k/a_-(D^k) & \xleftarrow[\cong]{[a_+]} & D^k/\partial D^k & \xrightarrow{\text{id}} & D^k/\partial D^k \end{array}$$

We note that  $h_+$  is the map that collapses the southern hemisphere (including the equator). Concretely, the arrows in the lower-left corner of the diagram compose as follows:

$$[a_+]^{-1} \circ h_+(x) = \begin{cases} [\partial D^k] & x \text{ is in the southern hemisphere} \\ [a_+^{-1}(x)] & x \text{ is in the northern hemisphere} \end{cases}$$

And of course,  $a_+^{-1}(x)$  has a very easy expression:

$$a_+^{-1}(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n) = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

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<sup>2</sup>We saw this in (16.2.0.1)

so we may re-write our above formula as

$$[a_+]^{-1} \circ h_+(x) = \begin{cases} [\partial D^k] & x \text{ is in the southern hemisphere} \\ [(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})] & x \text{ is in the northern hemisphere} \end{cases}$$

In the minus version, letting  $h_- : S^k \rightarrow S^k/a_+(D^k)$  collapse the northern hemisphere to a point, we find

$$[a_-]^{-1} \circ h_-(x) = \begin{cases} [\partial D^k] & x \text{ is in the northern hemisphere} \\ [(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})] & x \text{ is in the southern hemisphere} \end{cases}$$

To decrease clutter, let's use the notation

$$\pi_+ := [a_+]^{-1} \circ h_+ \quad \pi_- := [a_-]^{-1} \circ h_-.$$

Let  $R_k : S^k \rightarrow S^k$  denote the map

$$(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, x_k) \mapsto (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, -x_k).$$

In words,  $R_k$  is the reflection about the usual copy of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  inside  $\mathbb{R}^{k+1}$ . Then we see that

$$\pi_- = \pi_+ \circ R_k.$$

Putting everything together, we find

**Proposition 21.5.1.** Let  $\pi_+$  denote the composition

$$S^k \rightarrow S^k/E \xrightarrow{\cong} (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- \xrightarrow{p_+} (D^k/\partial D^k)_+$$

and let  $\pi_-$  denote the composition

$$S^k \rightarrow S^k/E \xrightarrow{\cong} (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- \xrightarrow{p_-} (D^k/\partial D^k)_-.$$

Then

$$\pi_- = \pi_+ \circ R.$$

### 21.5.2 Collapsing the $(k - 1)$ -skeleton

Moreover, we recall that we have a preferred isomorphism  $\mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \cong D^k/\partial D^k$ , as follows: Thinking of  $\mathbb{R}P^k$  as a quotient of a sphere, we identify  $D^k$  with the northern hemisphere and identify  $E/(x \sim -x)$  with  $\mathbb{R}P^{k-1}$ . This allows us to write

$$D^k/\partial D^k \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1}, \quad [x] \mapsto [a_+(x)]. \quad (21.5.2.1)$$

The homeomorphisms (21.5.1.2) and (21.5.2.1) thus fit into a commuting square

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- & \xrightarrow[\cong]{[a_+] \vee [a_-]} & S/E \\ \downarrow f' & & \downarrow \text{dashed} \\ D^k/\partial D^k & \xrightarrow[\cong]{[a_+]} & \mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \end{array}$$

where the dashed arrow is from (21.5.0.1). Our task is to understand  $f'$ .

- If  $[x]$  is in the  $+$  component, the top horizontal arrow sends  $[x]$  to  $[a_+(x)]$ , and the dashed arrow sends  $v \in S$  to  $[v]$ , so the composition of the two sends  $[x]$  to  $[a_+(x)]$ . In particular, if  $[x]$  is in the  $+$  component,  $f'$  sends  $[x]$  to  $[x]$ .
- If  $[x]$  is in the  $-$  component, the composition of the top horizontal arrow with the dashed arrow is  $[-a_-(x)]$ . So  $f'$  sends  $[x]$  to  $[a_+^{-1}(-a_-(x))]$ .

So let us understand  $[a_+^{-1}(-a_-(x))]$ . Parsing the formulas (21.5.1.1) we find that

$$\begin{aligned} [a_+^{-1}(-a_-(x))] &= \left[ a_+^{-1} \left( - \left( x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, -\sqrt{1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) \right) \right] \\ &= \left[ a_+^{-1} \left( \left( -x_0, -x_1, \dots, -x_{n-1}, \sqrt{1 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \right) \right) \right] \\ &= [(-x_0, -x_1, \dots, -x_{n-1})] \\ &= [-x]. \end{aligned}$$



the triangle (21.5.0.1) becomes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 S^k & \xrightarrow{\quad} & D^k/\partial D^k \\
 & \searrow & \nearrow \text{---} \\
 & (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- & 
 \end{array} \tag{21.5.2.2}$$

In other words,  $f'$  is a wedge of two maps – one that sends  $[x]$  to itself (otherwise known as the identity map) and a map that sends  $[x]$  to  $[-x]$ . We have proven:

**Proposition 21.5.2.** The following diagram of continuous maps commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 S^k & \xrightarrow{\quad f \quad} & \mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \\
 \downarrow & & \parallel \\
 S^k/E & \text{---} & \mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1} \\
 \uparrow \cong & & \uparrow \cong \\
 (D^k/\partial D^k)_+ \vee (D^k/\partial D^k)_- & \xrightarrow{\quad \text{id} \vee [-x] \quad} & (D^k/\partial D^k).
 \end{array}$$

### 21.5.3 Putting things together

Combining Propositions 21.5.1 and 21.5.2, we finally have a usable description of the map  $f$  in (21.5.0.1):

**Proposition 21.5.3.** The diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 H_k(S^k) & \xrightarrow{\quad f_* \quad} & H_k(\mathbb{R}P^k/\mathbb{R}P^{k-1}) \\
 \downarrow (\pi_+)_* \oplus (\pi_+ \circ R)_* & & \uparrow \cong \\
 H_k((D^k/\partial D^k)_+) \oplus H_k((D^k/\partial D^k)_-) & \xrightarrow{\quad \text{id}_* + [-x]* \quad} & H_k(D^k/\partial D^k).
 \end{array}$$

commutes.

**Lemma 21.5.4.**  $R : S^k \rightarrow S^k$  is a degree -1 map.

*Proof of Lemma 21.5.4.* This was a homework assignment. □

**Lemma 21.5.5.**  $[-x] : D^k/\partial D^k \rightarrow D^k/\partial D^k$  is a degree 1 map if  $k$  is even, and degree -1 map if  $k$  is odd.

*Proof.* Suppose  $k$  is even. Then the map  $x \mapsto -x$  is represented by a  $k$ -by- $k$ -dimensional matrix  $-I$  – negative the identity:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the family of functions  $H_t$  represented by the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) \end{pmatrix}$$

from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 1$  is a homotopy from the identity matrix to the  $-I$  matrix. Notice that because, for every  $t$ , the matrix  $H_t$  is an orthogonal matrix,  $H_t(\partial D^k) = \partial D^k$ , so the induced map of quotient spaces  $[H_t]$  indeed defines a function  $D^k/\partial D^k \rightarrow D^k/\partial D^k$ . Because  $[H_0] = \text{id}_{D^k/\partial D^k}$  and  $[H_1] = [-x]$ , this shows that  $[-x]_* = \text{id}_* = \text{id}$ .

Now if  $k$  is odd, then the same argument (with a  $-1$  in the last corner!)

produces a homotopy

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \cos(\pi t) & -\sin(\pi t) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \sin(\pi t) & -\cos(\pi t) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

from  $[-x]$  to a map that reflects the last coordinate (and is the identity on all other coordinates). On the other hand, one can choose a homeomorphism  $D^k/\partial D^k \cong S^k$  so that this map reflecting only the last coordinate is transformed to  $R$  on  $S^k$ . Thus Lemma 21.5.4 allows us to see that the operation  $D^k/\partial D^k \rightarrow D^k/\partial D^k$  reflecting only one coordinate induces the map  $-1$  on  $k$ th homology.  $\square$

**Corollary 21.5.6.** If  $k$  is odd, then  $\partial_{k+1}$  – after a change of basis – is the multiplication-by-2 homomorphism. If  $k$  is even, then  $\partial_{k+1}$  is the zero homomorphism.

*Proof of Corollary 21.5.6 assuming Lemmas 21.5.4 and 21.5.5.* If  $k$  is odd, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{id}_* + [-x]_*)((\pi_+)_* \oplus (\pi_+ \circ R)_*)(x) &= (\text{id}_* + [-x]_*)((\pi_+)_*x, -(\pi_+)_*x) \\ &= (\pi_+)_*x + (\pi_+)_*x \\ &= 2(\pi_+)_*x. \end{aligned}$$

Noting that  $(\pi_+)_* : H_k(S^k) \rightarrow H_k(D^k/\partial D^k)$  is an isomorphism, we can change basis via  $(\pi_+)_*$  and via  $[a_+]_*$  to see that

$$\partial_{k_1}(x) = 2x.$$

If  $k$  is even, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{id}_* + [-x]_*)((\pi_+)_* \oplus (\pi_+ \circ R)_*)(x) &= (\text{id}_* + [-x]_*)((\pi_+)_*x, -(\pi_+)_*x) \\ &= (\pi_+)_*x - (\pi_+)_*x \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

## 21.6 Summary

Today, we saw:

**Theorem 21.6.1.** The cellular chain complex of  $\mathbb{R}P^k$  for  $k$  even is:

$$\dots 0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\times 2} A \xrightarrow{0} A \xrightarrow{\times 2} \dots \xrightarrow{0} A \xrightarrow{\times 2} A \xrightarrow{0} A \longrightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots$$

where the highest-degree copy of  $A$  is in degree  $k$  and the last copy of  $A$  is in degree 0. The cellular chain complex of  $\mathbb{R}P^k$  for  $k$  odd is:

$$\dots 0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{0} A \xrightarrow{\times 2} \dots \xrightarrow{0} A \xrightarrow{\times 2} A \xrightarrow{0} A \longrightarrow 0 \rightarrow \dots$$

where the highest-degree copy of  $A$  is in degree  $k$  and the last copy of  $A$  is in degree 0.

**Exercise 21.6.2.** For all  $k \geq 3$ , compute the homology groups of  $\mathbb{R}P^k$  for  $A = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  and  $A = \mathbb{Z}$ .