

MATH 524: Lecture 7 (09/09/2025)

7-1

Today: * chains
* boundary homomorphism, fundamental lemma of homology

Recall orientation, $\sigma = [v_0 \dots v_p] \rightarrow$ oriented simplex, opposite orientation...

Starting with oriented simplices, we define collections of them as functions, and then consider adding these functions — to define groups.

Def Let K be a simplicial complex. A **p-chain** on K is a function c from the set of oriented p -simplices of K to \mathbb{Z} such that

(1) $c(\sigma) = -c(\sigma')$ if σ, σ' are opposite orientations of the same simplex; and

(2) $c(\sigma) = 0$ for all but finitely many p -simplices σ .

Thus, even on infinite simplicial complexes, each p -chain has nonzero values on only finitely many p -simplices.

We can add two p -chains by adding their values. The resulting group is the group of oriented p -chains of K , $C_p(K)$. If $p < 0$ or $p > \dim(K)$, $C_p(K)$ is trivial.

One can indeed check that $C_p(K)$ is a group — identity (0), inverse ($-c(\sigma')$), and associativity all hold. In fact $C_p(K)$ are abelian groups, as adding the functions is commutative.

Are there really only two orientations of higher dimensional simplices?

YES! Consider a 3-simplex $\sigma = [v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3]$ and $-\sigma = [v_1, v_0, v_2, v_3]$, its reverse orientation. What about $[v_2, v_0, v_3, v_1]$, for instance?

$$[v_2, v_0, v_3, v_1] \xrightarrow{1} [v_0, v_2, v_3, v_1] \xrightarrow{2} [v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3] \xrightarrow{3} [v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3] \quad 3 \text{ swaps, i.e., odd.}$$

Hence $[v_2, v_0, v_3, v_1]$ should be the opposite orientation to $[v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3]$. But then it should be the same orientation as $[v_1, v_0, v_2, v_3]$.

$$\text{check: } [v_2, v_0, v_3, v_1] \xrightarrow{1} [v_1, v_0, v_3, v_2] \xrightarrow{2} [v_1, v_0, v_2, v_3] \quad 2 \text{ swaps, i.e., even!}$$

For oriented simplex σ , the **elementary chain** c corresponding to σ is the function defined as follows:

$$c(\sigma) = 1,$$

$$c(\sigma') = -1, \text{ where } \sigma' \text{ is the opposite orientation of } \sigma,$$

$$c(\tau) = 0, \forall \tau \neq \sigma.$$

The correspondence to unit vectors in a Euclidean space is indeed direct here. The elementary chains have value $+1$ for exactly one p -simplex. Later on, we will see that these elementary chains correspond to unit vectors representing each p -simplex — at least in the case when K is finite.

Notation: σ denotes the simplex, oriented simplex, or the elementary chain corresponding to the simplex. Then we can write $\sigma' = -\sigma$ (where σ' is the simplex with orientation opposite to that of σ).

Lemma 5.1 [M] $C_p(K)$ is free abelian, and a basis for $C_p(K)$ can be obtained by orienting each p -simplex, and using the corresponding elementary chains.

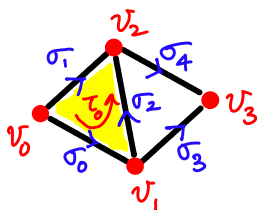
Notice that $C_0(K)$ has a "natural" basis, since each 0-simplex has only one orientation. But we do need to choose an orientation for each p -simplex to get a basis when $p > 0$. And there exist many bases when $p > 0$.

Corollary [M] Any function f from oriented p -simplices of K to abelian group G extends naturally to a homomorphism from $C_p(K)$ to G provided $f(-\sigma) = -f(\sigma)$ for all oriented p -simplices σ in K .

↘ reverse orientation of σ .

Let's consider a small example.

K :



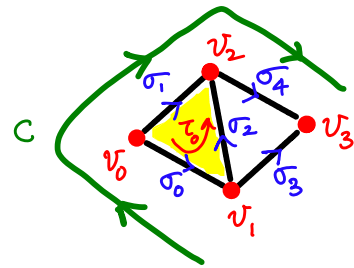
Let K be as shown here, with 4 vertices (v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3) , 5 edges $(\sigma_0 - \sigma_4)$, and 1 triangle (τ_0) . We orient the edges lexicographically, i.e., $[v_i v_j]$ with $i < j$. The triangle τ_0 is oriented as $[v_0 v_1 v_2]$, or CCW as shown here.

A 1-chain c can be specified as follows:

$$c(\sigma_0) = -1$$

$$c(\sigma_1) = 1 \quad c(\sigma_2) = 0,$$

$$c(\sigma_4) = 1 \quad c(\sigma_3) = 0$$

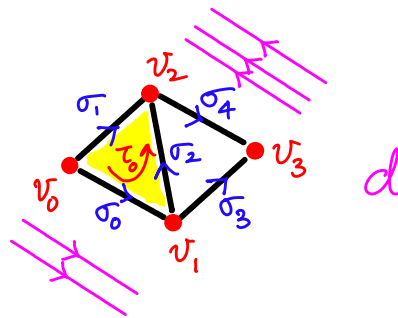


Notice that a value of -1 on σ_0 could be interpreted as "traversing" σ_0 once in its reverse orientation, i.e., going from v_1 to v_0 once. Following the same logic, we see that c here represents the piecewise linear "curve" going $v_1 \rightarrow v_0 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow v_3$ (once).

Here is another 1-chain d :

$$d(\sigma_0) = 2, \quad d(\sigma_4) = -3$$

$$d(\sigma_j) = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, 3.$$



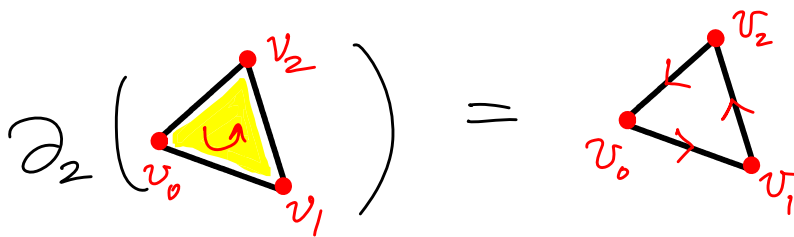
In particular, notice that the chains need not represent single connected pieces all the time.

A 2-chain can be $g(\tau_0) = 2$, which represents two copies of the single triangle in K .

Now that we have defined the chain groups $C_p(K)$ for each p , we now talk about how to connect/relate the $C_p(K)$ for various p . In particular, how are $C_p(K)$ and $C_{p-1}(K)$ related?

We define a homomorphism $\partial_p: C_p(K) \rightarrow C_{p-1}(K)$ called the **boundary operator** (or boundary homomorphism). → called the "p-boundary"

Intuitively, the boundary of a triangle is made of its three edges. But now we take the orientation also into account.



Def We define the homomorphism $\partial_p: C_p(K) \rightarrow C_{p-1}(K)$ called the **boundary operator** as follows. If $\sigma = [v_0, \dots, v_p]$, $p > 0$, then

$$\partial_p \sigma = \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_p] = \sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_p] \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where \hat{v}_i means vertex v_i is deleted from $[v_0, \dots, v_p]$.

As $C_p(K)$ is trivial for $p < 0$, ∂_p is the trivial homomorphism for $p \leq 0$.

Since ∂_p is a homomorphism, we naturally extend the definition of boundary from p -simplices to p -chains. If $c = \sum n_i \sigma_i$ is a p -chain, then $\partial_p c = \partial_p (\sum n_i \sigma_i) = \sum n_i (\partial_p \sigma_i)$.

Examples

1-simplex

$$\partial_1 [v_0 v_1] = v_1 - v_0$$

Notice that $\partial_1 [v_1 v_0] = v_0 - v_1$;

$$\partial_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{---} v_1 \\ \nearrow \\ v_0 \end{array} \right) = v_1 - v_0$$

head - tail, if you think of the oriented edge as an "arrow".

$$\partial_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} v_1 \\ \nearrow \quad \searrow \\ v_0 \quad v_2 \end{array} \right) = v_1 - v_0 + v_2 - v_1 = v_2 - v_0$$

Notice that the computations are sensitive to the choice of orientations.

$$\partial_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} v_1 \\ \nearrow \quad \nwarrow \\ v_0 \quad v_2 \end{array} \right) = 2v_1 - v_0 - v_2 \quad (v_1 - v_0 + v_1 - v_2)$$

2-simplex

$$\partial_2 [v_0 v_1 v_2] = (-1)^0 [v_1 v_2] + (-1)^1 [v_0 v_2] + (-1)^2 [v_0 v_1] = [v_1 v_2] - [v_0 v_2] + [v_0 v_1]$$

$$\partial_2 \left(\begin{array}{c} v_2 \\ \nearrow \quad \nwarrow \\ v_0 \quad v_1 \end{array} \right)$$

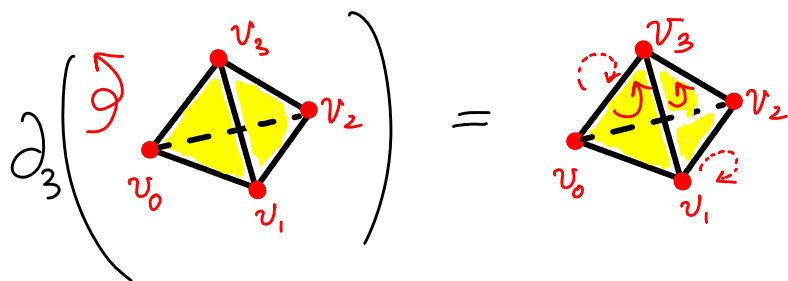
$$= \begin{array}{c} v_2 \\ \nearrow \quad \nwarrow \\ v_0 \quad v_1 \end{array}$$

The 1-boundary is $-e_0 + e_1 - e_2$

Notice that the orientation induced from the 2-simplex onto its faces (1-simplices) by the boundary operation could be distinct from the individual orientations of the 1-simplices themselves.

3-simplex

$$\partial_3 [v_0 v_1 v_2 v_3] = [v_1 v_2 v_3] - [v_0 v_2 v_3] + [v_0 v_1 v_3] - [v_0 v_1 v_2]$$



We observe that $\partial_1(\partial_2[v_0 v_1 v_2]) = 0$. (both algebraically and geometrically)

$$\partial_1 \left(\begin{array}{c} v_2 \\ e_2 \\ v_0 \quad e_0 \quad v_1 \\ e_1 \end{array} \right) = \partial_1 (-e_0 + e_1 - e_2) = -(v_0 - v_1) + (v_2 - v_1) - (v_2 - v_0) = 0.$$

A similar observation can be made for the tetrahedron:

$$\partial_2(\partial_3[v_0 v_1 v_2 v_3]) = \partial_2 \left(\begin{array}{c} [v_1 v_2 v_3] \\ - [v_0 v_2 v_3] \\ + [v_0 v_1 v_3] \\ - [v_0 v_1 v_2] \end{array} \right) = 0$$

$+ [v_1 v_2]$ $- [v_1 v_2]$

every edge cancels in pairs.

Indeed, this result holds in general — $\partial_p \partial_{p+1} \sigma = 0$. And we can prove it using the definition of ∂_p .

Before that, let's make sure ∂_p is well-defined. In particular, we need to check that $\partial_p(-\sigma) = -\partial_p(\sigma)$.

We check what happens in Sum(1) when we swap v_j & v_{j+1} .

Consider $\sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_p]$ and $\sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i (-[v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_p])$. If $i \neq j, j+1$, the corresponding terms do differ by a sign. When $i=j$, compare terms in

and

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j, v_{j+1}, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p] & \text{--- (1a)} \\ \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_{j+1}, v_j, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p] & \text{--- (1b)} \end{aligned}$$

↔ swapped

} before we leave out one vertex at a time...

We have $(-1)^j [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, \hat{v}_j, v_{j+1}, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p]$ in (1a), and $(-1)^{j+1} [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_{j+1}, \hat{v}_j, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p]$ in (1b)

These two terms do differ by a sign: $(-1)^j$ and $(-1)^{j+1}$. Argument for $i=j+1$ is similar.

We now prove the general result on taking the boundary of a boundary. Indeed, we will use this result to define homology groups as subgroups of $C_p(K)$. Hence this result is called the fundamental lemma of homology.

Lemma 5.3 [M]

$$\partial_{p-1} \circ \partial_p = 0. \rightarrow \text{Fundamental lemma of homology}$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} & \partial_{p-1} \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_p] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^p (-1)^i \partial_{p-1} [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots, v_p] \\ &= \sum_{j < i} (-1)^i (-1)^j [\dots \hat{v}_j, \dots, \hat{v}_i, \dots] + \sum_{j > i} (-1)^i (-1)^{j-1} [\dots \hat{v}_i, \dots, \hat{v}_j, \dots] \\ &= 0, \text{ as the terms cancel in pairs!} \end{aligned}$$

□