

MATH 524 - Lecture 8 (09/14/2023)

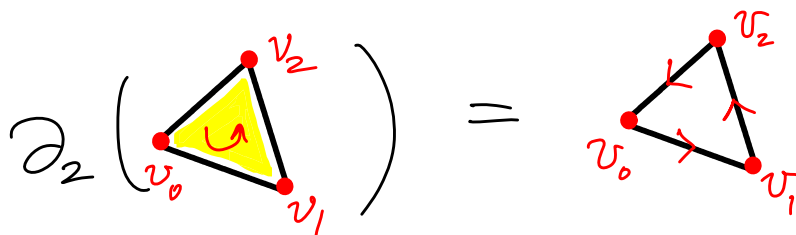
8-1

Today: * boundary homomorphism
* cycles, boundaries, homology group

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".

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

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

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

2-simplex

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

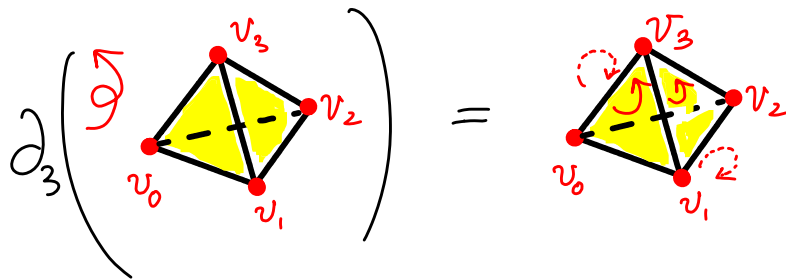
$$\partial_2 \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{triangle with vertices } v_0, v_1, v_2 \text{ and edges } e_0, e_1, e_2 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c} \text{triangle with vertices } v_0, v_1, v_2 \text{ and edges } e_0, e_1, e_2 \end{array}$$

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)

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

A similar observation can be made for the tetrahedron:

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} & \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j, v_{j+1}, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p] \quad \text{--- (1a)} \\ \text{and} & \quad \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, \overset{\text{swapped}}{v_{j+1}, v_j, v_{j+2}, \dots}, v_p] \quad \text{--- (1b)} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} & \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_j, v_{j+1}, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p] \quad \text{--- (1a)} \\ & \partial_p [v_0, \dots, v_{j-1}, v_{j+1}, v_j, v_{j+2}, \dots, v_p] \quad \text{--- (1b)} \end{aligned}} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{before we} \\ \text{leave out one} \\ \text{vertex at a time...} \end{array}$$

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]

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

Proof

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

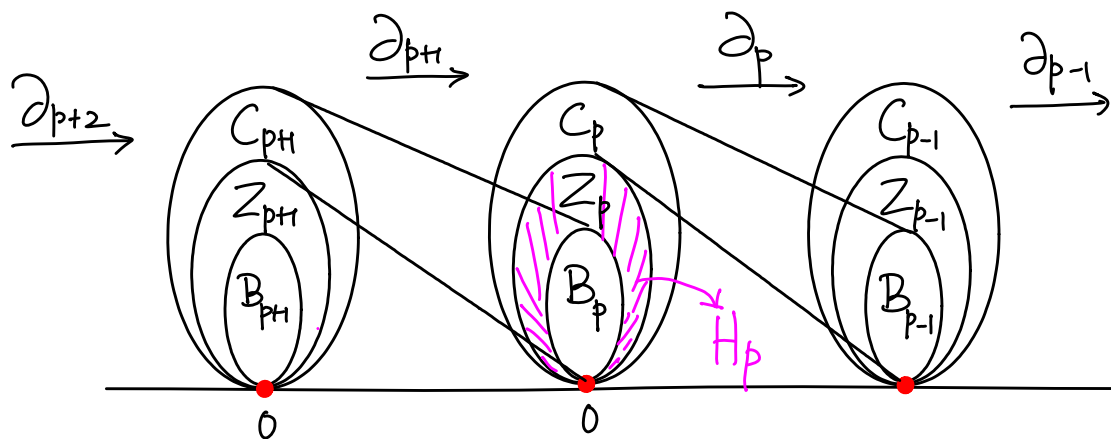
$= 0$, as the terms cancel in pairs!

□

Def The kernel of $\partial_p: C_p(K) \rightarrow C_{p-1}(K)$ is the group of **p-cycles**, denoted $Z_p(K)$. The image of $\partial_{p+1}: C_{p+1}(K) \rightarrow C_p(K)$ is the group of **p-boundaries**, denoted $B_p(K)$. Since $\partial_p \partial_{p+1} = 0$ by the above lemma, each boundary of a $(p+1)$ -chain is automatically a p-cycle. Hence, $B_p(K) \subset Z_p(K) \subset C_p(K)$.

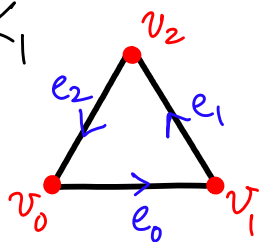
We now define $H_p(K) = Z_p(K)/B_p(K)$, and call it the **p-th homology group** of K .

The various groups and 2 homomorphisms have the following structure:



Examples

1. K_1



$C_1(K_1)$ is free abelian, generated by, e.g., $\{e_0, e_1, e_2\}$.

→ We use vector notation for chains

Any 1-chain in K can be given as $\bar{c} = n_0 e_0 + n_1 e_1 + n_2 e_2$ for $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

→ ideally, $\bar{c} = n_0 \bar{e}_0 + n_1 \bar{e}_1 + n_2 \bar{e}_2$

When is \bar{c} a cycle?

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_1 \bar{c} &= n_0 (v_1 - v_0) + n_1 (v_2 - v_1) + n_2 (v_0 - v_2) \\ &= (n_2 - n_0) v_0 + (n_0 - n_1) v_1 + (n_1 - n_2) v_2. \end{aligned}$$

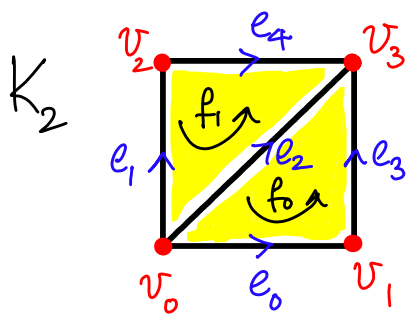
So, $\partial_1 \bar{c} = 0$ iff $n_0 = n_1 = n_2$. Thus \bar{c} is a 1-cycle iff $n_0 = n_1 = n_2$.

We can see that $Z_1(K_1)$ is infinite cycle, generated by $\bar{e}_0 + \bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_2$. In other words, we can pick an integer, and that number tells us how many times we go around the cycle. If $n_0 = n_1 = n_2 = -3$, for instance, we go around in the opposite direction (i.e., clockwise) 3 times.

There are no 2-simplices, so $B_1(K_1)$ is trivial. In other words, there are no 1-boundaries. Hence $H_1(K_1) = Z_1(K_1) \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.

Also, $\beta_1(K_1) = \text{rk}(H_1(K_1)) = 1$.

Example 2



This is the same example 2 in [M], but with different choices of orientations.

$|K_2|$ is a square.

A general 1-chain in K_2 is $\bar{c} = \sum_{i=0}^4 n_i \bar{e}_i$. Then $\partial_1 \bar{c} = \sum n_i \partial_1(\bar{e}_i)$.

When is \bar{c} a 1-cycle?

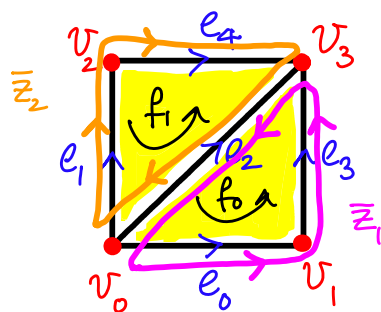
We need $n_0 = n_3$ (at v_1), and $n_1 = n_4$ (at v_2).

Similarly, $n_2 = -(n_0 + n_1)$ at v_0 , and $n_2 = -(n_3 + n_4)$ at v_3 .

Hence we can choose n_0, n_1 arbitrarily, and the other n_i 's are fixed. So $Z_1(K_2)$ is free abelian with rank 2. One

basis is $\{ \underbrace{\bar{e}_0 + \bar{e}_3 - \bar{e}_2}_{n_0=1, n_1=0}, \underbrace{\bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_4 - \bar{e}_2}_{n_0=0, n_1=1} \}$.

Let's call these cycles as $\{ \bar{z}_1, \bar{z}_2 \}$.

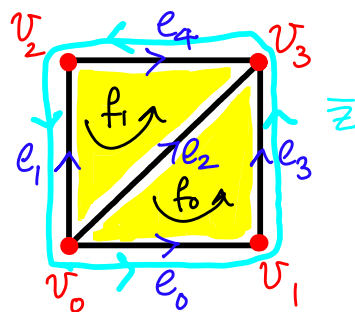


Indeed, any other cycle in K_1 can be written as a sum of \bar{z}_1 and \bar{z}_2 . For instance, let \bar{z} be the 1-cycle $\bar{e}_0 + \bar{e}_3 - \bar{e}_4 - \bar{e}_1$

Indeed, \bar{z} can be written as $\bar{z}_1 - \bar{z}_2$

$$= (\bar{e}_0 + \bar{e}_3 - \bar{e}_2) - (\bar{e}_1 + \bar{e}_4 - \bar{e}_2).$$

that the \bar{e}_2 portions from \bar{z}_1 and \bar{z}_2 cancel.



Now let's characterize $B_1(K_2)$. Notice that both 1-cycles \bar{z}_1 and \bar{z}_2 are also 1-boundaries. Indeed, we have

$$\partial_2 \bar{f}_0 = \bar{e}_0 + \bar{e}_3 - \bar{e}_2 = \bar{z}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \partial_2 \bar{f}_1 = \bar{e}_2 - \bar{e}_4 - \bar{e}_1 = -\bar{z}_2.$$

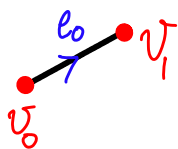
So $B_1(K_2) = Z_1(K_2)$. Hence $H_1(K_2) = Z_1(K_2)/B_1(K_2) = 0$.

(i.e., the first homology group is trivial; there are no 1-cycles that are not 1-boundaries).

Likewise, $H_2(K_2) = 0$. The general 2-chain is $\bar{d} = m_0 \bar{f}_0 + m_1 \bar{f}_1$. And $\partial_2 \bar{d} = 0$ iff $m_0 = m_1 = 0$. There are no 2-cycles. And $H_p(K_2) = 0$ for $p \geq 3$ trivially.

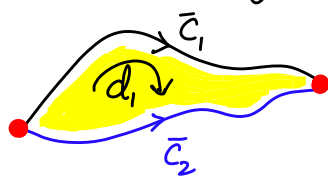
We now present some definitions we will use subsequently.

Def A chain \bar{c} is **carried by a subcomplex** L if $\bar{c}(\sigma) = 0 \quad \forall \sigma \notin L$. Two p -chains \bar{c}_1, \bar{c}_2 are homologous if $\bar{c}_1 - \bar{c}_2 = \partial_{p+1} \bar{d}$ for some $(p+1)$ -chain \bar{d} . In particular, if $\bar{c} = \partial_{p+1} \bar{d}$, then \bar{c} is homologous to zero, or we say that \bar{c} **bounds**, i.e., \bar{c} is a **boundary**. \hookrightarrow we write $\bar{c}_1 \sim \bar{c}_2$

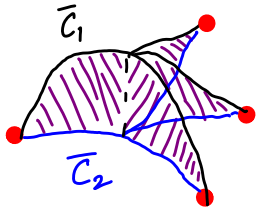


Here, the 2 0-chains v_0 and v_1 are homologous, since $v_1 - v_0 = \partial_1 e_0$.

Consider two 1-chains \bar{c}_1, \bar{c}_2 representing two 1D curves starting and ending at the same pair of vertices as shown.

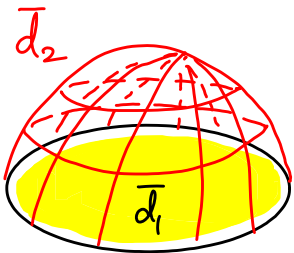


Then \bar{c}_1 and \bar{c}_2 are homologous here, as $\bar{c}_1 - \bar{c}_2 = \partial_2 \bar{d}_1$, where \bar{d}_1 is the 2-chain representing the 2D patch in between \bar{c}_1 & \bar{c}_2 .



Notice that \bar{C}_1 and \bar{C}_2 need not be just simple open curves. Here, \bar{C}_1 and \bar{C}_2 both represent Y-shaped 1D curves. Again, $\bar{C}_1 - \bar{C}_2$ is the boundary of the 2D patch in between the two Y-shaped curves.

Consider two 2-chains \bar{d}_1 and \bar{d}_2 , one representing a disc, and another representing the upper hemispherical surface that has the same boundary as the disc.



\bar{d}_1 and \bar{d}_2 are homologous, as $\bar{d}_1 - \bar{d}_2$ represents the boundary of the 3D solid hemisphere bounded by the two surfaces.