

Algebraic Topology - MATH0023

Based on lectures by Prof FEA Johnson

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Notes based on the Autumn 2021 Algebraic Topology lectures by Prof FEA Johnson.

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1 Simplicial complexes

Definition (Simplicial complex). A *simplicial complex* X is a pair (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X) where V_X denotes the vertex set of X and \mathcal{S}_X is the set of *finite, non-empty* subsets of V_X satisfying

1. $\forall v \in V_X$, then $\{v\} \in \mathcal{S}_X$
2. If $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$, $\tau \subset \sigma$, $\tau \neq \emptyset$, then $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_X$.

\mathcal{S}_X is called the set of *simplices* of X .

Example. A *standard 1-simplex*, denoted by Δ^1 is simply the line segment (or usually denoted by I).

$$V_{\Delta^1} = \{0, 1\}$$

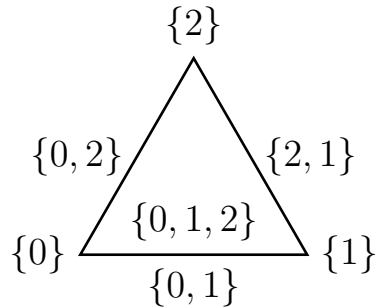
$$\mathcal{S}_{\Delta^1} = \{\{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$$

$$\{0\} \xrightarrow{\{0, 1\}} \{1\}$$

A *standard 2-simplex*, denoted by Δ^2 is the equilateral triangle.

$$V_{\Delta^2} = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{\Delta^2} = \{\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}$$



In general, the *standard n -simplex* Δ^n , is $\Delta^n = (V_{\Delta^n}, \mathcal{S}_{\Delta^n})$ where

$$V_{\Delta^n} = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{\Delta^n} = \{\alpha : \alpha \subset \{0, \dots, n\}, \alpha \neq \emptyset\}$$

If $X = (V_x, \mathcal{S}_X)$ is a simplicial complex, we now want to pick a field \mathbb{F} , usually \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{F}_2 (in this course) and want to produce a sequence of vector spaces (over \mathbb{F})

$$C_n(X)_{0 \leq n}$$

$C_0(X)$ is the vector space whose basis elements are simply the vertices of the simplicial complex, and this has dimension 0.

Definition (k -simplex of a simplicial complex). If X is a simplicial complex then a k -simplex of X is a simplex $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$ such that $|\sigma| = k + 1$.

$C_k(X)$ is the vector space whose basis elements are the *oriented k -simplices* of X which are the following symbols,

$$[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n]$$

(where $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ is an n -simplex of X) subject to the rules

$$[v_{\rho(0)}, v_{\rho(1)}, \dots, v_{\rho(n)}] = \text{sign}(\rho)[v_0, \dots, v_n]$$

Definition.

$$\partial_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)$$

is a linear map defined on basis elements as follows;

$$\partial_n[v_0, \dots, v_n] = \sum_{r=0}^n (-1)^r [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n]$$

where \hat{v}_r indicates omission of v_r .

Example.

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_2[0, 1, 2] &= [1, 2] - [0, 2] + [0, 1] \\ \partial_1[v_0, v_2] &= [v_1] - [v_0]\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_1\partial_2[0, 1, 2] &= \partial_1([1, 2] - [0, 2] + [0, 1]) \\ &= ([2] - [1]) - ([2] - [0]) + ([1] - [0]) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Proposition (Poincaré lemma). Let X be a simplicial complex. Consider

$$\partial_r : C_r(X) \rightarrow C_{r-1}(X)$$

for $r \geq 1$, then

$$\partial_{n-1}\partial_n \equiv 0$$

Proof.

$$\partial_n[v_0, \dots, v_n] = \sum_{r=0}^n (-1)^r [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n]$$

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_{n-1}[v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n] &= \sum_{s < r} (-1)^s [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_s, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n] \\ &\quad + \sum_{s > r} (-1)^{s-1} [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, \hat{v}_s, \dots, v_n]\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_{n-1}\partial_n[v_0, \dots, v_n] &= \sum_{s < r} (-1)^{r+s} [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_s, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n] \\ &\quad + \sum_{s > r} (-1)^{r+s-1} [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, \hat{v}_s, \dots, v_n] \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition. If

$$C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}$$

then

$$\text{im}(\partial_{n+1}) \subset \ker(\partial_n)$$

Proof. By previous lemma. □

2 Homology

2.1 Quotient spaces

Let V be a vector space over a field \mathbb{F} , and $U \subset V$ a vector subspace.

Definition. The following set

$$x + U = \{x + u : u \in U\}$$

is called the (left) coset of U in V . Note that

$$x + U = x' + U \iff x - x' \in U$$

Definition (Quotient space). The quotient space V/U is the set

$$V/U = \{x + U : x \in V\}$$

where addition and scalar multiplication is defined by

$$(x + U) + (y + U) = x + y + U$$

$$\lambda \cdot (x + U) = \lambda x + U$$

and 0 is represented by

$$0 + U$$

Note that V/U is a vector space.

Proposition.

$$\dim(V/U) = \dim(V) - \dim(U)$$

Proof. There exists a natural linear map

$$\eta : V \rightarrow V/U$$

given by

$$\eta(x) = x + U$$

Clearly this map is surjective so

$$\dim(V/U) = \dim(\text{im}(\eta))$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \ker(\eta) &= \{x \in V : \eta(x) = U\} \\ &= \{x \in V : x + U = U\} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$x + U = U \iff x - 0 \in U \iff x \in U$$

so $\ker(\eta) = U$. Then,

$$\dim(V) = \dim \ker(\eta) + \dim \text{im}(\eta)$$

so

$$\dim(V/U) = \dim \text{im}(\eta) = \dim(V) - \dim(U)$$

□

Definition.

$$H_n(X; \mathbb{F}) = \ker(\partial_n) / \text{im}(\partial_{n+1})$$

We call $H_n(X; \mathbb{F})$ the n^{th} *homology group* of X with coefficients in \mathbb{F} . If $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{Q}$, then $\dim H_n(X; \mathbb{Q})$ is called the n^{th} *Betti* number of X .

Consider Δ^3 . The set $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ represents the 'middle' of the tetrahedron (inside, interior). If we exclude the middle and simply take its boundary, we have

$$\partial \Delta^n = S^{n-1}$$

It happens that S^2 (middle excluded) is the simplest simplicial model of the 2-sphere.

Example. Consider

$$H_k(S^2; \mathbb{F})$$

Note that

$$C_n(S^2) = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 3$$

as there are no 3-simplices, so we only have to worry about

$$H_2(S^2; \mathbb{F}), H_1(S^2; \mathbb{F}), H_0(S^2; \mathbb{F})$$

We proceed to calculate these from first principles. First note that $C_3(S^2) = 0$. Now, (noting the order of these bases) $C_2(S^2)$ has basis

$$[0, 1, 2], [0, 1, 3], [0, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3]$$

$C_1(S^2)$ has basis

$$[0, 1], [0, 2], [0, 3], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3]$$

and lastly $C_0(S^2)$ has basis

$$[0], [1], [2], [3]$$

The linear maps

$$\partial_2 : C_2(S^2) \rightarrow C_1(S^2)$$

$$\partial_1 : C_1(S^2) \rightarrow C_0(S^2)$$

can both be represented by a 6×4 matrix and a 4×6 matrix respectively.

We apply ∂_2 and ∂_1 to the bases to obtain the entries to the matrices, so for example

$$\partial_2([0, 1, 2]) = [1, 2] - [0, 2] + [0, 1]$$

so the first column of the matrix representing ∂_2 is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ Proceeding,

we will obtain that

$$\partial_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\partial_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice that $\partial_1 \partial_2 = 0$, which further confirms the lemma from before. Now reducing both the matrices to row reduced echelon form, we obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

thus $\dim \ker \partial_2 = 1$, $\dim \operatorname{im} \partial_2 = 3$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

thus $\dim \ker \partial_1 = 3$, $\dim \operatorname{im} \partial_1 = 3$

$$0 \xrightarrow[\partial_3]{} C_2 \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0 \rightarrow 0$$

so now

$$H_2(S^3) = \ker(\partial_2) / \operatorname{im}(\partial_3) = \ker(\partial_2) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

as $\text{im}(\partial_3) = 0$, so in total,

$$H_2(S^2; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

Next,

$$H_1(S^2) = \ker(\partial_1)/\text{im}(\partial_2)$$

Now note that

$$\dim H_1(S^2) = \dim \ker(\partial_1) - \dim \text{im}(\partial_2) = 3 - 3 = 0$$

thus

$$H_1(S^2; \mathbb{F}) = 0$$

Next,

$$H_0(S^2) = \ker(\partial_0)/\text{im}(\partial_1) = C_0/\text{im}(\partial_1)$$

and

$$\dim H_0(S^2) = \dim C_0 - \dim \text{im}(\partial_1) = 4 - 3 = 1$$

thus

$$H_0(S^2; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

We've shown

$$H_k(S^2; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \\ 0 & k \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

We will soon see that this theorem generalises if

$$S^n = \Delta^{n+1}$$

then

$$H_k(S^n) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0, n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

2.2 Chain complex

Definition (Chain complex). Let \mathbb{F} be a field. A *chain complex* over \mathbb{F} is

$$C_* = (C_r, \partial_r)_{r \in \mathbb{N}}$$

where

1. Each C_r is a vector space over \mathbb{F}
2. $\partial_r : C_r \rightarrow C_{r-1}$ is a linear map such that $\partial_r \partial_{r+1} = 0$ for all r .

If $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$, we have defined a chain complex

$$C_*(X) = (C_r(X), \partial_r)$$

Given a chain complex

$$C_* = (C_r, \partial_r)_{r \geq 0}$$

we define its *homology* $H_*(C_*)$ by

$$H_k(C_*) = \ker(\partial_k) / \text{im}(\partial_{k+1})$$

If $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$ is a simplicial complex, we define

$$H_k(X; \mathbb{F}) = H_k(C_*(X; \mathbb{F}))$$

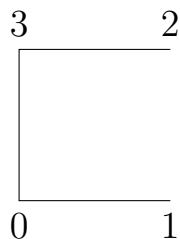
2.3 Simplicial mapping

Definition (Simplicial mapping). Let X, Y be simplicial complexes, i.e., $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$ and $Y = (V_Y, \mathcal{S}_Y)$. A *simplicial mapping* $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a mapping of vertex sets $f : V_X \rightarrow V_Y$ such that

$$\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X \implies f(\sigma) \in \mathcal{S}_Y$$

Example. Let $X = Y = \Delta^2$. Then defining f by $f(0) = 1$, $f(1) = 2$, $f(2) = 0$, it is obvious that this mapping is simplicial.

Consider the following simplicial complex



and consider

$$f(0) = 1, f(1) = 2, f(2) = 3, f(3) = 0$$

This mapping is *not* simplicial as $f(\{0, 1\})$ is *not* a simplex.

Given a simplicial mapping $f : X \rightarrow Y$, we are going to produce linear maps

$$H_k(f) : H_k(X) \rightarrow H_k(Y)$$

such that if

$$g : Y \rightarrow Z$$

then

$$g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$$

and

1. $H_k(g \circ f) = H_k(g) \circ H_k(f)$
2. $H_k(\text{id}_X) = \text{id}_{H_k(X)}$

Remark. (Look up on functors for a more general treatment of the above concept.)

2.4 Chain mapping

Definition. Let

$$C_* = (C_r, \partial_r^C)$$

$$D_* = (D_r, \partial_r^D)$$

be chain complexes. A *chain mapping* $f_* : C_* \rightarrow D_*$ is a collection of linear maps

$$f_* = (f_r)_{r \geq 0}$$

where $f_r : C_r \rightarrow D_r$ and the following commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_r & \xrightarrow{\partial_r^C} & C_{r-1} \\ f_r \downarrow & & \downarrow f_{r-1} \\ D_r & \xrightarrow{\partial_r^D} & D_{r-1} \end{array}$$

Notice from the diagram that

$$\partial_n^D \circ f_n = f_{n-1} \partial_n^C$$

If $g : D_* \rightarrow E_*$ is also a chain mapping, then

$$(g \circ f)_n = g_n \circ f_n : C_* \rightarrow E_*$$

is also a chain mapping.

$$\text{id} : C_* \rightarrow C_*, \quad \text{id}_n = \text{id}_{C_n}$$

is also a chain mapping.

Proposition. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a simplicial mapping, define

$$C_n(f) : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_n(Y)$$

by action on a basis as follows

$$C_n(f)[v_0, \dots, v_n] = [f(v_0), \dots, f(v_n)]$$

then

$$C_*(f) : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(Y)$$

is also a chain mapping.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
\partial_n^D C_n(f)[v_0, \dots, v_n] &= \partial_n^D([f(v_0), \dots, f(v_n)]) \\
&= \sum_{r=0}^n (-1)^r [f(v_0), \dots, f(\hat{v}_r), \dots, f(v_n)] \\
&= C_{n-1}(f) \sum_{r=0}^n (-1)^r [v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_n] \\
&= C_{n-1}(f) \partial_n^C[v_0, \dots, v_n]
\end{aligned}$$

□

We will often write $f_n[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ rather than $C_n(f)[v_0, \dots, v_n]$.

Proposition. If $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ are simplicial maps, then

$$C_n(g \circ f) = C_n(g) \circ C_n(f)$$

which sometimes we will write as

$$(g \circ f)_n = g_n \circ f_n$$

instead.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
(g \circ f)[v_0, \dots, v_n] &= [(g \circ f)(v_0), \dots, (g \circ f)(v_n)] \\
&= g_n[f(v_0), \dots, f(v_n)] \\
&= g_n \circ f_n[v_0, \dots, v_n]
\end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition. Let

$$\text{id} : X \rightarrow X$$

then $C_*(\text{id}) : C_*(X) \rightarrow C_*(X)$ is a chain mapping.

If $C_* = (C_n, \partial_n)$ is a chain complex, define

$$H_n(C_*) = \ker \partial_n / \text{im}(\partial_{n+1})$$

It is usual to write

$$Z_n(C) = \ker(\partial_n) \quad (\text{cycles})$$

$$B_n(C) = \text{im}(\partial_{n+1}) \quad (\text{boundaries})$$

thus by this notation,

$$H_n(C) = Z_n(C) / B_n(C)$$

If $f = (f_n)$, $C_* \rightarrow D_*$ is a chain mapping, we now want to show f induces a mapping

$$H_n(F) : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_n(D_*)$$

Proposition. If $f : C_* \rightarrow D_*$ is a chain mapping, then

$$f_n(Z_n(C_*)) \subset Z_n(D_*)$$

Proof. Recall that

$$f_{n-1}\partial_n^C(z) = \partial_n^D f_n(z)$$

If

$$z \in Z_n(C_*), \partial_n^C(z) = 0$$

then we have

$$f_{n-1}\partial_n^C(z) = 0$$

and so

$$\partial_n^D f_n(z) = 0$$

and thus

$$f_n(z) \in Z_n(D_*)$$

□

Proposition. If $f : C_* \rightarrow D_*$ is a chain mapping, then

$$f_n(B_n(C_*)) \subset B_n(D_*)$$

Proof. Note that

$$f_n \partial_{n+1}^C(x) = \partial_{n+1}^D f_{n+1}(x)$$

If $\beta \in B_n(C_*)$, we can write $\beta = \partial_{n+1}^C(x)$ for some x and then

$$f_n(\beta) = \partial_{n+1}^D(k)$$

where $k = f_{n+1}(x)$ so

$$f_n(\beta) \in B_n(D_*)$$

□

Corollary. If $f : C_* \rightarrow D_*$ is a chain mapping, then f induces a (linear) mapping

$$H_n(f) : H_n(C_*) \rightarrow H_n(D_*)$$

Proof. An element of $H_n(C_*)$ has form

$$[z] = z + B_n(C_*), \quad z \in Z_n(C_*)$$

Now define

$$H_n(f)[z] = f_n(z) + B_n(D_*) \in H_n(D_*)$$

and now note that

$$f_n(z) \in Z_n(D_*)$$

□

By now it is clear if $g : D_* \rightarrow E_*$, $f : C_* \rightarrow D_*$ are chain mappings, then

$$H_n(g \circ f) = H_n(g) \circ H_n(f)$$

and also if $\text{id} : C_* \rightarrow C_*$ we have

$$H_n(\text{id}) = \text{id}_{H_n}$$

We now formally have

$$H_n(X) = H_n(C_*(X))$$

Corollary. If X is a *non-empty* simplicial complex, then $H_0(X; \mathbb{F}) \neq 0$ (for any field \mathbb{F}).

Proof. As $X \neq \emptyset$, we have that $V_X \neq \emptyset$. Let $v \in V_X$ be a vertex and $*$ be the simplicial complex

$$* = (\{v\}, \{\{v\}\})$$

so $*$ consists of one vertex v , and one 0-simplex $\{v\}$. Now define a constant mapping

$$c : X \rightarrow *, c(x) = v, \forall x \in V_X$$

We also have a simplicial mapping

$$\iota : * \rightarrow X, \iota(v) = v$$

so now

$$c \circ \iota = \text{id}_*$$

and so

$$H_0(c) \circ H_0(\iota) = H_0(\text{id}_*)$$

but notice that

$$H_0(*) = \mathbb{F}$$

since we know

$$C_0(*) = \mathbb{F}, C_r(*) = 0, r \geq 1$$

and thus

$$H_0(c) \circ H_0(\iota) = \text{id}_{\mathbb{F}}$$

$$c \circ \iota = \text{id} \neq 0$$

and now note that c is surjective, and ι is injective. In particular

$$H_0(c) : H_0(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{F} = H_0(*)$$

is surjective, so

$$H_0(X) \neq 0$$

□

So we now know if $H_0(X) \neq 0$ if $X \neq \emptyset$.

Now let X be a simplicial complex. If $v, w \in V_X$, then by a path from v to w , we mean a sequence of 1-simplices

$$[v_0, v_1], [v_1, v_2], \dots, [v_{n-1}, v_n], [v_n, v_{n+1}]$$

such that $v_0 = v$ and $v_n = w$.

Proposition. If X is non-empty and connected, then

$$H_0(X; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

Proof.

$$C_1(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0(X)$$

If $v, w \in V_X$, then $[w] - [v] \in \text{im}(\partial_1)$. To see this, choose a path

$$v = v_0 < v_1 < \dots < v_{n-1} < v_n = w$$

i.e., $[v_{i+1}, v_i]$ is a 1-simplex for $0 \leq i \leq n-1$.

$$\partial_1[v_{i+1}, v_i] = [v_{i+1}] - [v_i] \in \text{im}(\partial_1)$$

so then,

$$[w] - [v] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} [v_{i+1}, v_i] \in \text{im}(\partial_1)$$

Now $\{[v] : v \in V_X\}$ is a basis for C_0 . Choose a specific $v \in V_X$. By elementary basis change,

$$\{[v]\} \cup \{[w] - [v] : w \in V_X, w \neq v\}$$

is a basis for C_0 . However $[w] - [v] \in \text{im}(\partial_1)$ ($w \neq v$). So $C_0(X)/\text{im}(\partial_1)$ has dimension ≤ 1 , and then $\dim H_0(X) \leq 1$ if X is connected. But $X \neq \emptyset$, hence $\dim H_0(X) = 1$, hence

$$H_0(X) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

when X is connected. □

Proposition. In general, $\dim H_0(X)$ is equal to the number of connected components in X

If X is a simplicial complex, then define a relation \sim on V_X by $v \sim w$ if and only if there exists a path from v to w .

\sim defines an equivalence relation, where the number of connected components is equal to the number of equivalence classes.

If X consists of a single point,

$$H_k(\text{pt.}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

2.5 Cone

Definition. Let X be a simplicial complex. A *cone* on X , $C(X)$, is defined as follows, choose $*$ (cone point) such that $*$ $\notin V_X$

$$V_{C(X)} = \{*\} \cup V_X$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{C(X)} = \mathcal{S}_X \cup \{\{*\} \cup \{\sigma \cup \{*\} : \sigma \in S_X\}\}$$

i.e., join everything in X to the cone point.

Theorem. If X is a simplicial complex, then,

$$H_k(C(X); \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

i.e., $C(X)$ behaves just like a point (homologically).

Proof. First note that $C(X)$ is connected. Take $v, w \in V_{C(X)}$, $v \neq w$. Either one of them is the cone point, or none of them are the cone point.

(1) Without loss of generality, suppose w is the cone point. ($w = *$). By definition, $[v, w] = [v, *]$ is a 1-simplex of $C(X)$. So we've joined v to w .

(2) If neither are the cone point, then, $[v, *]$ and $[w, *]$ are both 1-simplices, so again, we've joined v to w . So

$$H_0(C(X); \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

Now we must show

$$H_k(C(X)) = 0, k \geq 0$$

We define, for each $k > 0$, a linear map

$$\mathcal{H}_k : C_k(C(X)) \rightarrow C_{k+1}(C(X))$$

(called a contracting homotopy) \mathcal{H}_k is defined on a basis by

$$\mathcal{H}_k[v_0, \dots, v_k] = [* , v_0, \dots, v_k]$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_{k+1} \mathcal{H}_k[v_0, \dots, v_k] &= \partial_{k+1}[* , v_0, \dots, v_k] \\ &= [v_0, \dots, v_k] + \sum_{r=0}^k (-1)^{r+1} [* , v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_k] \end{aligned}$$

$$\partial_{k+1} \mathcal{H}_k([v_0, \dots, v_k] + \sum_{r=0}^k (-1)^r [* , v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_k]) = [v_0, \dots, v_k]$$

However,

$$\mathcal{H}_{k-1}[v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_k] = [* , v_0, \dots, \hat{v}_r, \dots, v_k]$$

and

$$(\partial_{k+1} \mathcal{H}_k + \mathcal{H}_{k-1} \partial_k)[v_0, \dots, v_k] = [v_0, \dots, v_k]$$

i.e.,

$$\partial_{k+1} \mathcal{H}_k + \mathcal{H}_{k-1} \partial_k = \text{id}$$

(we call the above a homotopy relation)

$$H_k(C(X)) = Z_k(C(X))/B_k(C(X))$$

and if $z \in Z_k(C(X))$, $\partial_k(z) = 0$, so if $z \in Z_k(C(X))$, $z = \partial_{k+1}\mathcal{H}_k(z)$ so $z \in \text{im}(\partial_{k+1})$, i.e., $Z_k(C(X)) \subset B_k(C(X)) (\subset Z_k(X))$ so if $C(X)$ is a cone and $k > 0$,

$$Z_k(C(X)) = B_k(C(X))$$

and $H_k(C(X); \mathbb{F}) = 0$ □

Corollary.

$$H_k(\Delta^n; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

where $\Delta^n = n$ -simplex

Proof. Δ^n is a cone. $\Delta^n = (C(\Delta^{n-1}))$ □

Let X be a simplicial complex, $n \geq 0$. Then the n -skeleton $X^{(n)}$ of X is defined by

$$V_{X^{(n)}} = V_X$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{X^{(n)}} = \{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X : |\sigma| \leq n + 1\}$$

i.e., $\dim(\sigma) \leq n$.

The standard model S^n of the n -sphere

$$V_{S^n} = \{0, \dots, n + 1\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{S^n} = \{\sigma \subset \{0, \dots, n + 1\} | \sigma \neq \emptyset, |\sigma| \leq n + 1\}$$

i.e., $S^n = n$ -skeleton of Δ^{n+1}

Theorem.

$$H_k(X^{(n)}) \equiv H_k(X), \text{ for } 0 \leq k \leq n - 1$$

(and there exists a natural surjection $H_n(X^{(n)}) \rightarrow H_n(X)$) (note this is not an isomorphism)

Proof. From definition, $C_k(X^{(n)}) \equiv C_k(X)$, $0 \leq k \leq n$

$$C_*(X^{(n)}) \quad 0 \longrightarrow C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$C_*(X) \quad C_{n+1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0 \longrightarrow 0$$

$$H_k(X^{(n)}) \equiv H_k(X) \text{ for } k \leq n-1$$

$$\begin{aligned} H_n(X^{(n)}) &\equiv \ker(\partial_n : C_n(X) \rightarrow C_{n-1}(X)) \\ &= Z_n(X) \end{aligned}$$

but $B_n(X^{(n)}) = 0$. In general $B_n(X) \neq 0$. □

As $S^n = (\Delta^{n+1})^{(n)}$, ($n \neq 0, n \geq 1$) we see that

$$H_k(S^{(n)}; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & 1 \leq k \leq n-1 \end{cases}$$

We now still need to compute $H_n(S^n)$.

2.6 Exact sequences

Definition. Let $U \xrightarrow{f} V \xrightarrow{g} W$ be linear maps. We say sequence is *exact* at V when

$$\ker(g) = \text{im}(f)$$

In general if

$$V_{n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{n+1}} V_n \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_{r+1} \xrightarrow{f_{r+1}} V_r \xrightarrow{f_r} V_{r-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} V_0$$

is a sequence of linear maps, we say a sequence is *exact* at V_r when

$$\ker f_r = \text{im} f_{r+1}$$

We say the sequence is *exact* when it is *exact* at each possible V_r .

4 term exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow U \xrightarrow{f} V \rightarrow 0$$

is exact if and only if f is an isomorphism.

Proof. The sequence is exact at V , so

$$\text{im}(f) = \ker(V \rightarrow 0) = V$$

so f is surjective. The sequence is exact at U , so

$$\ker(f) = \text{im}(0 \rightarrow U) = 0$$

so f is injective. □

Short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow U \xrightarrow{f} V \xrightarrow{g} W \rightarrow 0$$

Exactness here means

1. g is surjective, $\text{im}(g) = \ker(W \rightarrow 0)$
2. f is injective, $\ker(f) = \text{im}(0 \rightarrow V) = 0$
3. $\ker(g) = \text{im}(f)$

Example. Kernel-rank theorem

Suppose we have the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow U \xrightarrow{f} V \xrightarrow{g} W \rightarrow 0$$

if U, V, W are finite dimensional, then

$$\dim(V) = \dim(U) + \dim(W)$$

by the kernel-rank theorem. To see this, note that

$$\text{im}(g) = W$$

by exactness.

$$\dim \ker(g) + \dim \operatorname{im}(g) = \dim(V) \implies \dim \ker(g) + \dim(W) = \dim(V)$$

$$\ker(g) = \operatorname{im}(f) \cong U$$

(since f is injective) and so

$$\dim \ker(g) = \dim(U)$$

so

$$\dim(U) + \dim(W) = \dim(V)$$

$$H_k(X) = Z_k(X)/B_k(X)$$

$$0 \rightarrow B_k(X) \hookrightarrow Z_k(X) \rightarrow H_k(X) \rightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence, $z \mapsto [z]$, $z + B_k(X)$, so

$$\dim H_k(X) = \dim Z_k(X) - \dim B_k(X)$$

Exact sequences of chain complexes Let A_*, B_*, C_* be chain complexes and ,

$$f : A_* \rightarrow B_*, g : B_* \rightarrow C_*$$

Consider the following sequence of chain maps

$$0 \rightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{f} B_* \xrightarrow{g} C_* \rightarrow 0$$

so for each n we have a sequence of linear maps

$$0 \rightarrow A_n \xrightarrow{f_n} B_n \xrightarrow{g_n} C_n \rightarrow 0$$

We say that this is exact when for each n , this sequence is exact.

3 Mayer-Vietoris Theorem

3.1 Algebraic Mayer-Vietoris Theorem

Theorem (Algebraic Mayer-Vietoris Theorem). Suppose

$$0 \rightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{i} B_* \xrightarrow{p} C_* \rightarrow 0$$

is an exact sequence of chain complexes, then there exists a long exact sequence of the following type

$$\begin{aligned} & \rightarrow H_{n+1}(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_{n+1}(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_{n+1}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(B) \dots \\ & \rightarrow H_1(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_1(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_1(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_0(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_0(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_0(C) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

where in our case, $A_n = B_n = C_n = 0$ for $n < 0$.

This requires

$$A_* = (A_n, \partial_n), A_n = 0, n < 0$$

$$B_* = (B_n, \partial_n), B_n = 0, n < 0$$

$$C_* = (C_n, \partial_n), C_n = 0, n < 0$$

The connecting homomorphisms have the following *naturality property*: Suppose we have the following exact sequences of chain complexes,

$$0 \rightarrow A_* \xrightarrow{i} B_* \xrightarrow{p} C_* \rightarrow 0$$

$$0 \rightarrow A'_* \xrightarrow{i} B'_* \xrightarrow{p} C'_* \rightarrow 0$$

and suppose the following commutes,

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A_* & \xrightarrow{i} & B_* & \xrightarrow{p} & C_* \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \alpha \downarrow & & \beta \downarrow & & \gamma \downarrow \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & A'_* & \longrightarrow & B'_* & \longrightarrow & C'_* \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Compare the two long exact sequences,

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
H_{n+1}(B) & \xrightarrow{p_*} & H_{n+1}(C) & \xrightarrow{\delta} & H_n(A) & \xrightarrow{i_*} & H_n(B) & \xrightarrow{p_*} & H_n(0) \\
\downarrow \beta_* & & \downarrow \gamma_* & & \downarrow \alpha_* & & \downarrow \beta_* & & \downarrow \gamma_* \\
H_{n+1}(B') & \xrightarrow{q_*} & H_{n+1}(C') & \xrightarrow{\delta'} & H_n(A') & \xrightarrow{j_*} & H_n(B') & \xrightarrow{q_*} & H_n(0)
\end{array}$$

this diagram commutes.

The Algebraic Mayer-Vietoris Theorem implies the *Geometric* Mayer-Vietoris Theorem.

3.2 Subcomplexes

Let $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$, $Y = (V_Y, \mathcal{S}_Y)$ be simplicial complexes. Then we say that Y is a *subcomplex* of X if,

1. $V_Y \subset V_X$
2. $\mathcal{S}_Y \subset \mathcal{S}_X$

Proposition.

1. Let X_1, X_2 be subcomplexes of Z . Then $(V_{X_1} \cup V_{X_2}, \mathcal{S}_{X_1} \cup \mathcal{S}_{X_2})$ is also a subcomplex of Z . This is called the union $X_1 \cup X_2$.
2. $(V_{X_1} \cap V_{X_2}, \mathcal{S}_{X_1} \cap \mathcal{S}_{X_2})$ is also a subcomplex of Z . This is called the intersection $X_1 \cap X_2$.

We are interested in the case $Z = X_1 \cup X_2$.

Definition. Let Δ, Δ' be chain complexes. $\Delta = (\Delta_n, \partial_n)$, $\Delta' = (\Delta'_n, \partial'_n)$. Then the *direct sum*:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \oplus \Delta' &= \left(\Delta \oplus \Delta', \begin{pmatrix} \partial_n & 0 \\ 0 & \partial'_n \end{pmatrix} \right) \\
\begin{pmatrix} \partial_n & 0 \\ 0 & \partial'_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{n+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \partial'_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \partial_n \partial_{n+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \partial'_n \partial'_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

3.3 The Geometric Mayer-Vietoris Theorem: Chain Version

Suppose X is a simplicial complex decomposed as a union $X = X_+ \cup X_-$, where X_+, X_- are subcomplexes. Then there exists an exact sequence of chain complexes like this,

$$0 \rightarrow C_*(X_+ \cap X_-) \xrightarrow{i} C_*(X_+ \oplus X_-) \xrightarrow{p} C_*(X) \rightarrow 0$$

If we apply the algebraic Mayer-Vietoris Theorem, we get the homological version, namely the long exact sequence,

$$\begin{aligned} H_{n+1}(X_+) \oplus H_{n+1}(X_-) &\rightarrow H_{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_n(X_+ \cap X_-) \\ &\rightarrow H_n(X_+) \oplus H_n(X_-) \rightarrow H_n(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}(X_+ \cap X_-) \end{aligned}$$

and finishes

$$\begin{aligned} \xrightarrow{\delta} H_1(X_+ \cap X_-) &\rightarrow H_1(X_+) \oplus H_1(X_-) \rightarrow H_1(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_0(X_+ \cap X_-) \\ &\rightarrow H_0(X_+) \oplus H_0(X_-) \rightarrow H_0(X) \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let S^n = standard model of n -sphere,

$$S^n = (\Delta^{n+1})^{(n)}$$

We've shown for $n \geq 1$,

$$H_r(S^n; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & r = 0 \\ 0 & 0 < r < n \\ ? & r = n \\ 0 & n < r \end{cases}$$

We've shown that $H_2(S^2; \mathbb{F}) = \mathbb{F}$.

Proposition. For $n \geq 2$, S^n can be written as $S^n = X_+ \cup X_-$ where $X_+ \cap X_- = S^{n-1}$ and X_+, X_- are *cones*.

$$\Delta^{n+1} = (\{0, 1, \dots, n+1\}, \{\text{all non-empty subsets of } \{0, 1, \dots, n+1\}\})$$

$S^n = (\{0, 1, \dots, n+1\}, \{\text{all proper non-empty subsets of } \{0, 1, \dots, n+1\}\})$

In particular every non-empty subset of $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ is a simplex of S^n so,

1. $\Delta^n \subset S^n$. But as $S^{n-1} \subset \Delta^n$, then,
2. $S^{n-1} \subset S^n$ (note that $n+1 \notin V_{S^{n-1}}$) and,
3. Taking $n+1$ to be the cone point $C(S^{n-1}) \subset S^n$. ($C(S^{n-1})$ is sometimes called the *Witches hat*)
- 4.

$$\begin{aligned} S^n &= \Delta^n \cup C(S^{n-1}) \\ S^{n-1} &= \Delta^n \cap C(S^{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

So we can write,

$$S^n = X_+ \cup X_-, \text{ where}$$

$$X_+ = C(S^{n-1})$$

$$X_- = \Delta^n$$

$$X_+ \cap X_- = S^{n-1}$$

Corollary. $H_n(S^n; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$ for all $n \geq 2$.

Proof. By induction on n . We know this is true for $n = 2$. Suppose we've proven the hypothesis for $n-1$ and consider the exact sequence,

$$H_n(X_+) \oplus H_n(X_-) \longrightarrow H_n(S^n) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X_+) \oplus H_{n-1}(X_-)$$

$$0 \oplus 0 \longrightarrow H_n(S^n) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_{n-1}(S^{n-1}) \longrightarrow 0 \oplus 0$$

which is isomorphic by the very short exact sequence. \square

Let W be a vector space over \mathbb{F} and suppose we have two vector subspaces of W , say U and V .

3.4 External and internal sum

Definition. External sum (coproduct)

$$U \oplus V = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} : u \in U, v \in V \right\}$$

$U \oplus V$ is a vector space. We define sums, scalar multiplication and zero as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ v_1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} u_2 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} u_1 + u_2 \\ v_1 + v_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \lambda \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \lambda u \\ \lambda v \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

If U and V have finite dimensions, then

$$\dim(U \oplus V) = \dim(U) + \dim(V)$$

where U, V are subspaces of W .

Definition. Internal sum

$$U + V = \{u + v : u \in U, v \in V\}$$

Note that $U + V$ is a vector subspace of W .

What is the relationship between $U + V$ and $U \oplus V$? There is an exact sequence

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow U \oplus V &\xrightarrow{\mu} U + V \\ \mu \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} &= u + v \end{aligned}$$

μ is linear and surjective by the definition of $U + V$.

Proposition.

$$\mu \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = 0 \iff u + v = 0 \iff v = -u, u \in U, v \in V \text{ so } v \in U \cap V$$

We get an exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow U \cap V \xrightarrow{i} U \oplus V \xrightarrow{\mu} U + V \rightarrow 0$$

$$i(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ -u \end{pmatrix}$$

As a consequence,

$$\dim(U \cap V) + \dim(U + V) = \dim(U) + \dim(V)$$

Theorem. (Chain version of the Geometric Mayer-Vietoris Theorem)
Let $X = X_+ \cup X_-$ be the union of subcomplexes. For each n , there exists an exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow C_n(X_+ \cap X_-) \xrightarrow{i} C_n(X_+) \oplus C_n(X_-) \xrightarrow{\mu} C_n(X) \rightarrow 0$$

$$\mu \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x + y, i(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ -u \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof. $C_n(X)$ has basis $\{[v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n] : [v_0, \dots, v_n] \in \mathcal{S}_X\}$

$$\mathcal{S}_X = \mathcal{S}_{X_+} \cup \mathcal{S}_{X_-}$$

$$C_n(X_+) \oplus C_n(X_-) \rightarrow C_n(X) \rightarrow 0$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} e \\ f \end{pmatrix} \mapsto e + f$$

The map is surjective because a basis element of $C_n(X)$ is either in $C_n(X_+)$ or $C_n(X_-)$. As a basis for the kernel, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} [v_0, \dots, v_n] \\ -[v_0, \dots, v_n] \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\} \subset \mathcal{S}_{X_+} \cap \mathcal{S}_{X_-} = \mathcal{S}_{X_+ \cap X_-}$ so we have an exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow C_n(X_+ \cap X_-) \xrightarrow{i} C_n(X_+) \oplus C_n(X_-) \xrightarrow{\mu} C_n(X) \rightarrow 0$$

This is an exact sequence of chain complexes because boundary formula is the same in every case. \square

Corollary. (of the geometric Mayer-Vietoris Theorem) Let X be a finite simplicial complex. Then,

$$\dim H_0(X; \mathbb{F}) = \{\text{number of connected components of } X\}$$

Proof. Let n be the number of connected components. This is true for $n = 1$. Suppose this is true for $n - 1$, and X has n connected components X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . Put

$$X_- = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup \dots \cup X_{n-1}$$

$$X_+ = X_n$$

$$X_+ \cup X_- = X, X_+ \cap X_- = \emptyset \text{ (by definition)}$$

Look at the following

$$H_0(X_+ \cap X_-) \rightarrow H_0(X_+) \oplus H_0(X_-) \rightarrow H_0(X) \rightarrow 0$$

(note that $H_0(X_+ \cap X_-) = 0$). So

$$\dim H_0(X) = \dim H_0(X_+) + \dim H_0(X_-) = 1 + n - 1 = n$$

\square

Example.

$$S^0 = 0\text{-sphere} = 2 \text{ distinct points } \{-1, +1\}$$

So $H_0(S^0; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F}$

$$H_n(S^0; \mathbb{F}) = 0, n \neq 0 \text{ (no higher simplices)}$$

On the other hand, the standard model of S^1 is,

$$V_{S^1} = \{0, 1, 2\}$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{S^1} = \{\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}\}$$

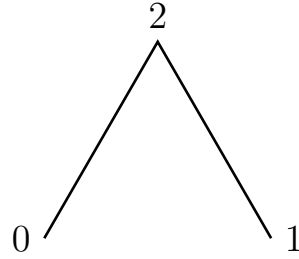
Proposition.

$$H_n(S^1; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & n = 0 \\ \mathbb{F} & n = 1 \\ 0 & n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Proof. Decompose $S^1 = X_1 \cup X_+$, where X_- is equal to

$$0 \text{ ————— } 1$$

and X_+ is equal to



i.e.,

$$X_- = C(0), \quad X_+ = \text{cone on } S^0 = \{\{0\}, \{1\}\}$$

$X_+ \cap X_- = S^0$. Use the Mayer-Vietoris Theorem, so,

$$H_1(X_+) \oplus H_1(X_-) \rightarrow H_1(S^1) \rightarrow H_0(S^0) \rightarrow H_0(X_+) \oplus H_0(X_-) \rightarrow H_0(S^1)$$

$$0 \rightarrow H_1(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

$\dim(H_1(S^1)) = 1$ follows from Whitehead's lemma. □

Lemma. Let

$$0 \rightarrow V_n \xrightarrow{f_n} V_{n-1} \xrightarrow{f_{n-1}} \dots \rightarrow V_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} V_0 \rightarrow 0$$

be an exact sequence of finite dimensional vector spaces. Then,

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \dim(V_{2n}) = \sum_{n \geq 0} \dim(V_{2n+1})$$

Proof. Let $P(n)$ denote the induction hypothesis on n .

$$0 \rightarrow V_1 \rightarrow V_0 \rightarrow 0$$

then $P(1)$ holds. The sequence is exact which implies $V_1 \cong V_0$. Now suppose we have an exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow V_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} V_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} V_0 \rightarrow 0$$

then by the kernel-rank theorem, this implies that

$$\dim(V_0) + \dim(V_2) = \dim(V_1)$$

and so $P(2)$ is true. Now we prove that $P(2n) \implies P(2n+1)$. Suppose that $P(2n)$ is true, and take the following exact sequence,

$$0 \rightarrow V_{2n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{2n+1}} V_{2n} \xrightarrow{f_{2n}} V_{2n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_0 \rightarrow 0$$

Split the sequence and define $f = \text{im}(f_{2n}) = \ker(f_{2n-1})$. Now we have two exact sequences,

$$0 \rightarrow V_{2n+1} \rightarrow V_{2n} \rightarrow f \rightarrow 0$$

and

$$0 \rightarrow f \rightarrow V_{2n-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_0 \rightarrow 0$$

By $P(2n)$,

$$\dim(f) + \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \dim(V_{2r}) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \dim(V_{2r+1})$$

and $\dim(f) = \dim(V_{2n}) - \dim(V_{2n+1})$. Substitute this into the previous expression and we get,

$$\sum_{r=0}^n \dim(V_{2r}) - \dim(V_{2n+1}) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \dim(V_{2r+1})$$

This proves that $P(2n) \implies P(2n+1)$. To prove that $P(2n+1) \implies P(2n+2)$, take

$$0 \rightarrow V_{2n+2} \rightarrow V_{2n+1} \rightarrow V_{2n} \rightarrow \dots$$

Split the exact sequence as before and proceed as before. (Set $f = \text{im}(f_{2n+1}) = \ker(f_{2n})$) \square

Lemma. (Five lemma) Suppose we have a commutative diagram of abelian groups and homomorphisms,

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} A_0 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_0} & A_1 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_1} & A_2 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_2} & A_3 & \xrightarrow{\alpha_3} & A_4 \\ \downarrow f_0 & & \downarrow f_1 & & \downarrow f_2 & & \downarrow f_3 & & \downarrow f_4 \\ B_0 & \xrightarrow{\beta_0} & B_1 & \xrightarrow{\beta_1} & B_2 & \xrightarrow{\beta_2} & B_3 & \xrightarrow{\beta_3} & B_4 \end{array}$$

in which both rows are exact, and f_0, f_1, f_3, f_4 are isomorphisms. Then f_2 is also an isomorphism.

Proof. We first show that f_2 is injective. Suppose $x \in A_2$ such that $f_2(x) = 0$. We want to show that $x = 0$.

$$\beta_2 f_2(x) = 0 \implies f_3 \alpha_2(x) = 0$$

but f_3 is an isomorphism, which implies that $\alpha_2(x) = 0$. But then $x \in \ker(\alpha_2) = \text{im}(\alpha_1)$, so $x = \alpha_1(y)$ for some $y \in A_1$.

$$f_2 \alpha_1(y) = 0 \implies \beta_1 f_1(y) = 0$$

so $f_1(y) \in \ker(\beta_1) = \text{im}(\beta_0)$. Thus there exists $w \in B_0$ such that $\alpha_0(w) = f_1(y)$. But f_0 is surjective so write

$$w = f_0(z), \alpha_0 f_0(z) = f_1(y) \implies f_1 \alpha_0(z) = f_1(y)$$

but now f_1 is an isomorphism so $y = \alpha_0(z)$, $x = \alpha_1(y) = \alpha_1 \alpha_0(z)$. By exactness, $\alpha_1 \alpha_0 = 0$, so $x = 0$.

Now we show that f_2 is surjective. Take $b \in B_2$. We want to find $a \in A_2$ such that $f_2(a) = b$. Now, $\beta_2(b) \in B_3$. f_3 is an isomorphism so choose $x \in A_3$ so that

$$f_3(x) = \beta_2(b) \implies \beta_3 f_3(x) = \beta_3 \beta_2(b)$$

However by exactness, $\beta_3\beta_2 = 0$, so $\beta_3f_3(x) = 0 \implies f_4\alpha_3(x) = 0$. Now f_4 is an isomorphism thus $\alpha_3(x) = 0$, $x \in \ker(\alpha_3) = \ker(\alpha_2)$. Now there exists $y \in A_2$ such that $\alpha_2(y) = x$. Consider $b - f_2(y)$. Then

$$\beta_2(b - f_2(y)) = \beta_2(b) - \beta_2f_2(y) = \beta_2(b) - f_3\alpha_2(y) = \beta_2(b) - f_3(x) = 0$$

Thus $b - f_2(y) \in \ker(\beta_2) = \ker(\beta_1)$ so there exists $w \in \beta_1$ such that $\beta_1(w) = b - f_2(y)$. f_1 is an isomorphism implies that there exists $z \in A_1$ such that $f_1(z) = w$. So

$$\beta_1f_1(z) = b - f_2(y)$$

$$f_2\alpha_1(z) = b - f_2(y) \implies b = f_2(y + \alpha_1(z))$$

Let $a = y + \alpha_1(z)$ which implies $b = f_2(a)$. Thus f_2 is surjective. \square

4 Subdivision

We will now show that homology is invariant under 'subdivision'. We first have to illustrate what 'subdivision' means.

Take for example Δ^2 (the triangle), and add a point at its barycenter, adding edges from the barycenter to each three of the vertices of Δ^2 . We end up with an additional point (vertex), two additional regions and three additional edges. This is an example of an easy subdivision.

Definition. Let $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$ be a finite simplicial complex, and let $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_X$. $\hat{\tau}$ will denote the subcomplex of X determined by τ .

$$V_{\hat{\tau}} = \tau, \quad \mathcal{S}_{\hat{\tau}} = \{p \in \mathcal{S}_X, p \subset \tau\}$$

We say that $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$ is *principal* (or maximal) when σ is not contained properly in any other simplex.

Proposition. If $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$ are the principal simplices of X then

$$X = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \hat{\sigma}_2 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

4.1 Subdivision at a principal simplex

Let σ be a principal simplex of X and let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$ be the remaining principal simplices such that

$$X = \hat{\sigma} \cup \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

Put $X_+ = \hat{\sigma}$, $X_- = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$. Then $X = X_+ \cup X_-$ and $X_+ \cap X_- \subset \partial \hat{\sigma}$ (boundary of $\hat{\sigma}$)

Definition.

$$Sd(X, \sigma) = C(\partial\sigma) \cup \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

i.e.,

$$Sd(X\sigma) = X'_+ \cup X'_-$$

where X'_+ is the cone on the boundary of σ and

$$X'_- = X_- = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

and

$$X'_+ \cap X'_- = X_+ \cap X_-$$

Taking our Δ^2 example earlier, letting $\sigma = \Delta^2$, $Sd(\Delta^2, \sigma)$ is exactly the resulting simplex we get by performing our subdivision earlier.

4.2 Squash mapping

Let σ be an n -simplex and consider $C(\partial\sigma)$. We construct simplicial mappings $C(\partial\sigma) \rightarrow \sigma$ as follows,

$$Sq|_{\partial\sigma} = \text{id}_{\partial\sigma}$$

$$Sq(*) = \text{some (arbitrarily chosen) vertex in } \partial\sigma$$

where $*$ is our cone point.

Proposition. $Sq : H_k(C(\partial\sigma)) \rightarrow H_k(\sigma)$ is an isomorphism for all k .

Proof. $C(\partial\sigma)$ and σ are both cones, so $H_k(C(\partial\sigma)) = H_k(\sigma) = 0$ if $k > 0$. For $k = 0$, any vertex V in $C(\partial\sigma)$ gives a basis $[v]$ for $H_0(C(\partial\sigma))$ (any two vertices differ by a boundary). Likewise, any vertex w in σ gives basis element $[w]$ in $H_0(\sigma)$ and $Sq([v]) = [w]$, so now

$$Sq : H_0(C(\partial\sigma)) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_0(\sigma)$$

□

Theorem. Let K be a finite complex. Let σ be a principal complex, and let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$ be the remaining principal simplices and define an extended squash map $Sq : Sd(X, \sigma) \rightarrow X$ by

$$Sq : C(\delta\sigma) \rightarrow \sigma \text{ is a squash mapping}$$

$$Sq : \sigma_i \rightarrow \sigma_i \text{ identity } i = 1, \dots, N$$

Then $Sq : H_k(Sd(X, \sigma)) \rightarrow H_k(X)$ is an isomorphism for all k .

Proof. Put

$$X_+ = \hat{\sigma}, X'_+ = C(\partial\sigma)$$

$$X'_- = X_- = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

so $X'_+ \cap X'_- = X_+ \cap X_-$ and $Sq : X'_- \rightarrow X_-$ is the identity. Consider the Mayer-Vietoris sequences

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} H_n(X'_+ \cap X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X'_+) \oplus H_n(X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(Sd(X, \sigma)) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X'_+ \cap X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X'_+) \oplus H_{n-1}(X'_-) \\ \downarrow \text{id} & & \downarrow M & & \downarrow Sq & & \downarrow \text{id} & & \downarrow M \\ H_n(X_+ \cap X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_+) \oplus H_n(X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X_+ \cap X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X_+) \oplus H_{n-1}(X_-) \end{array}$$

where $M = \begin{pmatrix} Sq & 0 \\ 0 & \text{id} \end{pmatrix}$. id is clearly an isomorphism, as well as M ,

since $Sq : H_n(X'_+) \rightarrow H_n(X_+)$ is an isomorphism. By the five lemma, Sq is an isomorphism. □

We have now shown that if $Sd(X, \sigma)$ is the subdivision of X at a principal simplex, then $H_*(Sd(X, \sigma)) \cong H_*(X)$. Now we have to show that this also holds for non-principal simplices.

4.3 Subdivision at a non-principal simplex

We first describe an example of a non-principal simplex. Take Δ^2 . Then take $\{0, 1\}$. This is contained within $\{0, 1, 2\}$, hence this is a non-principal simplex. We wish to perform subdivisions at simplices such as these.

Definition (Join). Let $K = (V_K, \mathcal{S}_K)$ and $L = (V_L, \mathcal{S}_L)$ be simplicial complexes such that $V_K \cap V_L = \emptyset$. Define

$$K * L = (V_K \cup V_L, \mathcal{S}_K \cup \mathcal{S}_L \cup \{p \cup \tau, p \in \mathcal{S}_K, \tau \in \mathcal{S}_L\})$$

A special case is where $K = \text{point}$, so then $K * L = C(L)$.

Proposition.

$$\Delta^{m+n+1} \cong \Delta^m * \Delta^n$$

Proof. Vertex set of Δ^{m+n+1} is

$$\{0, \dots, m+n+1\} = \{0, \dots, m\} \cup \{m+1, \dots, m+n+1\}$$

There is a 1-1 correspondence between the last set and

$$0, \dots, n$$

so if we take as our model of Δ^n the vertex set $\{m+1, \dots, m+n+1\}$ and simplices to be all the non-empty subsets, we get $\Delta^{m+n+1} = \Delta^m * \Delta^n$ (the dimension goes up by 1). \square

Note also that $S^m * S^n \cong S^{m+n+1}$. If k is a single point pt , then $C(L) = \{pt\} * L$.

Join is associative. If K, L, M are simplicial complexes with no vertices in common, then

$$(K * L) * M \equiv K * (L * M)$$

Corollary. If K, L are disjoint complexes, then $C(K) * L \cong C(K * L)$

So the join of a cone to anything is a cone.

4.4 Star and Link

Definition (Star neighbourhood). Let τ be a simplex of X , and let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$ be the principal simplices which contain τ . Then

$$St(\tau, X) = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N = \text{star neighbourhood of } \tau \text{ in } X$$

Definition (Link). Let X be a simplicial complex and ρ, τ be simplices of X such that $\rho \cap \tau = \emptyset$. We say that ρ is joinable to τ in X (i.e., $\rho \cup \tau = \rho * \tau$). The *link* of τ in X , $Lk(\tau, X)$ consists of all these simplices of X such that $\rho \cap \tau = \emptyset$ and $\rho \cup \tau$ is a simplex, i.e., ρ is joinable to τ .

Example. star and link example

Proposition. If τ is a simplex of X , then $St(\tau, X) = \hat{\tau} * Lk(\tau, X)$

Proof. The case where τ is principal is empty here. So suppose τ is not principal. Let σ be a principal simplex with $\tau \subset \sigma$. Write

$$\tau = \{v_0, \dots, v_m\} \quad m < n$$

$$\sigma = \{v_0, \dots, v_m, v_{m+1}, \dots, v_n\}$$

Put $\rho = \{v_{m+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ so then

$$\sigma = \tau * \rho$$

Do this for every principal simplex which contains τ . Each $\sigma_i = \tau * \rho_i$ for some ρ_i , so

$$\bigcup \sigma_i = \tau * (\bigcup \rho_i) = \tau * Lk(\tau, X)$$

□

Definition (Subdivision at a non-principal simplex). Let X be a finite simplicial complex, and τ a non-principal simplex. Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m$

be the principal simplices which contain τ . Let $\sigma_{m+1}, \dots, \sigma_N$ be the remaining principal simplices. Put

$$X_+ = \hat{\sigma}_1 \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_m = St(\tau, X)$$

$$X_- = \hat{\sigma}_{m+1} \cup \dots \cup \hat{\sigma}_N$$

$$X = X_+ + X_- \quad (X_+ \cap X_- \cap \tau \subset \partial\sigma)$$

and put

$$X'_+ = C(\partial\tau) * Lk(\tau, X)$$

$$X'_- = X_-$$

Define

$$Sd(X, \tau) = X'_+ \cup X'_-$$

$$Sd = (C(\partial\tau) * Lk) \cup X'_-$$

We have $Sq : C(\partial\tau) \rightarrow \tau$. Extend by identity to $Sq : C(\partial\tau) * Lk \rightarrow \tau * Lk$ by identity on Lk . Extend again by identity on $X'_- = X_-$, $Sq : Sd(X, \tau) \rightarrow X$

Proposition. $Sq : Sd(X, \tau) \rightarrow X$ induces an isomorphism on homology.

Proof.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} H_n(X'_+ \cap X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X'_+) \oplus H_n(X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(Sd(X, \tau)) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X'_+ \cap X'_-) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X'_+) \oplus H_{n-1}(X'_-) \\ \downarrow \text{id} & & \downarrow M & & \downarrow Sq & & \downarrow \text{id} & & \downarrow M \\ H_n(X_+ \cap X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X_+) \oplus H_n(X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_n(X) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X_+ \cap X_-) & \longrightarrow & H_{n-1}(X_+) \oplus H_{n-1}(X_-) \end{array}$$

where $M = \begin{pmatrix} Sq & 0 \\ 0 & \text{id} \end{pmatrix}$. Apply the five lemma to show Sq induces an

isomorphism. □

So now we've proved the following,

Theorem. Homology is invariant under subdivision.

Example. subdivision isomorphism example

We now have a functor H_n which takes simplicial complexes to vector spaces, and simplicial maps to linear maps, e.g., if

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} X & \xrightarrow{f} & Y & \xrightarrow{g} & Z \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ & & g \circ f & & \end{array}$$

then

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} H_n(X) & \xrightarrow{H_n(f)} & H_n(Y) & \xrightarrow{H_n(g)} & H_n(Z) \\ & \searrow & & \nearrow & \\ & & H_n(g \circ f) & & \end{array}$$

Properties of functors:

1. $H_n(g \circ f) = H_n(g) \circ H_n(f)$
2. $H_n(\text{id}) = \text{id}_{H_n}$ i.e.,

$$\text{id} : X \rightarrow X, H_n(\text{id}) : H_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(X)$$

As a consequence, if $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is an isomorphism, then $H_n(f) : H_n(X) \rightarrow H_n(Y)$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. If $g = f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$, $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$, $f \circ g = \text{id}_Y$ then

$$H_n(g) \circ H_n(f) = \text{id}, H_n(f) \circ H_n(g) = \text{id}$$

so

$$H_n(g) = H_n(f)^{-1}$$

□

But we have established a stronger property, that is, H_n is invariant under subdivision, i.e., if Y subdivides X , then $H_n(Y) \cong H_n(X)$.

Definition. Let X, Y be simplicial complexes. We say that X, Y are *combinatorially equivalent* (written $X \sim Y$) if and only if there exists a finite sequence $(X_r)_{0 \leq r \leq N}$ of complexes X_r such that $X_0 = X$, $X_N = Y$ and for each r , $0 \leq r \leq N - 1$, either X_{r+1} is a subdivision of X_r or X_r is a subdivision of X_{r+1} .

Corollary. If $X \sim Y$ then $H_n(X) \cong H_n(Y)$.

So we won't worry too much about how we triangulate things.

Consider $S^2 = \Delta^3$ with the interior missing. This is the minimal model of S^2 . The dodecahedron is also a model of S^2 obtained from the minimal model by a sequence of subdivisions, hence for any model of S^2 ,

$$H_k(S^2, \mathbb{F}) \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \\ 0 & k > 2 \end{cases}$$

We note that the usual definition of S^2 is given by

$$S^2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = 1 \right\}$$

Now we define $S^1(n)$ to be the model of the circle S^1 with n -subdivision points ($n \geq 3$), so

$$S^1(n) \sim S^1(m) \quad \forall m, n \geq 3$$

so for example, $S^1(3)$ is the triangle, $S^1(4)$ is the square, $S^1(5)$ the pentagon, and so on.

5 Orientation Theorem

Definition (Orientability). We say that a surface Σ is orientable if and only if it is possible to orient each 2-simplex in such a way that

every 1-simplex receives the opposite orientations from its containing 2-simplices.

Example. orientability of T^2

5.1 Euler characteristic

Definition. Let $X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$ be a finite simplicial complex. Let c_n be the number of n -simplices of X ,

$$c_n(X) = c_n = \text{no. of } n\text{-simplices of } X$$

we define

$$\chi_{\text{geom}}(X) = \sum_n (-1)^n c_n(X)$$

This is known as the *geometric* Euler characteristic.

Put $h_n^{\mathbb{F}}(X) = \dim H_n(X; \mathbb{F}) (= h_n)$, and define

$$\chi_{\text{hom}}^{\mathbb{F}}(X) = \sum_n (-1)^n h_n^{\mathbb{F}}(X)$$

This is known as the *homological* Euler characteristic.

We will show that

Theorem.

$$\chi_{\text{hom}}^{\mathbb{F}}(X) = \chi_{\text{geom}}(X)$$

In particular $\chi_{\text{hom}}^{\mathbb{F}}$ is independent of \mathbb{F} , so we'll ignore \mathbb{F} .

Proof. Fix a field \mathbb{F} . $c_n = c_n(X) = \text{no. of } n\text{-simplices of } X$

$$c_n = \dim C_n(X; \mathbb{F})$$

so put $h_n = \dim H_n(X; \mathbb{F})$ and look at the sequence

$$C_{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}(X)$$

$$H_n(X) = \ker \partial_n / \operatorname{im} \partial_{n+1} = Z_n(X) / B_n(X)$$

Put $z_n = \dim \ker \partial_n$, $b_n = \dim \operatorname{im}(\partial_{n+1})$ so

$$z_n = h_n + b_n$$

However by the kernel-rank theorem,

$$c_n = z_n + b_{n-1}$$

hence

$$c_n = h_n + b_n + b_{n-1}$$

Now take the alternating sum

$$\sum_n (-1)^n c_n = \sum_n (-1)^n h_n + \sum_n (-1)^n (b_n + b_{n-1})$$

The last term on the RHS evaluates to 0, and recognising what the other two sums are, we have

$$\chi_{\operatorname{hom}}^{\mathbb{F}}(X) = \chi_{\operatorname{geom}}(X)$$

□

As $H_*(X; \mathbb{F})$ is invariant under subdivision, it follows that $\chi_{\operatorname{geom}}(X)$ is the same as well, so from now on, we will usually just write $\chi(X)$.

Example. euler characteristic examples homology of real projective plane example

Definition (Connected sum of surfaces). Let Σ , Σ' be surfaces. Let σ be a 2-simplex in Σ , σ' be a 2-simplex in Σ' . Let Σ_0 be the complex obtained from Σ by removing σ . Likewise for Σ'_0 . Formally,

$$\Sigma \# \Sigma' = \Sigma_0 \bigcup_{\partial=\partial'} \Sigma'_0$$

(i.e., we glue the boundaries of Σ_0 and Σ'_0 together.)

Proposition.

$$\chi(\Sigma \# \Sigma') = \chi(\Sigma) + \chi(\Sigma') - 2$$

Example. examples of orientable surfaces, 2-sphere, 2-torus, etc.

Theorem (Classification Theorem for Surfaces). placeholder

Recall that if σ is a simplex of X , then $Lk(\sigma, X)$ is equal to the complex where simplices τ satisfy $\sigma \cap \tau = \emptyset$, where $\sigma \cup \tau$ is a simplex of X .

A simplicial surface Σ is a complex in which

$$Lk(v, \Sigma) \cong S^1(N)$$

where v is a vertex of Σ ($N \geq 3$). Recall that $S^1(N)$ is the circle with N subdivision points, for example, $S^1(5)$ is 'the' pentagon.

Observe that in $S^1(N)$, every vertex belongs to exactly *two* 1-simplices.

Proposition. If Σ is a simplicial surface then every 1-simplex lies in exactly two 2-simplices.

Proof. Let $\rho = [v_0, v_1]$ be a 1-simplex. $Lk(v_0, \Sigma) \cong S^1(N)$, $v_1 \in Lk(v_0, \Sigma)$ and v_1 belongs to exactly two 1-simplices, say τ_0, τ_1 , so then

$$\tau_0 * \{v_0\}, \tau_1 * \{v_0\}$$

are the two 2-simplices which contain ρ . □

5.2 Copath

Definition. Let X be a simplicial complex of dimension 2. Let σ, σ' be 2-simplices in X . A *copath* from σ to σ' is a collection of 2-simplices

$$\{\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N\}$$

such that $\sigma_0 = \sigma$, $\sigma_N = \sigma'$ and $\sigma_r \cap \sigma_{r+1}$ is a 1-simplex for $0 \leq r \leq N-1$.

Theorem. If Σ is a connected simplicial surface and $\sigma, \sigma', \sigma \neq \sigma'$ are 2-simplices in Σ then there exists a copath $(\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_N)$ from σ to σ' .

Proof. Consider $\sigma \cap \sigma'$. A priori we have 4 cases

1. $|\sigma \cap \sigma'| = 3$. This is impossible, as this implies $\sigma = \sigma'$
2. $|\sigma \cap \sigma'| = 2$. Put $\rho = \sigma \cap \sigma'$ which is a 1-simplex, where ρ lies in exactly two 2-simplices which are σ, σ' and now (σ, σ') is a copath from σ to σ'
3. $|\sigma \cap \sigma'| = 1$. $\sigma \cap \sigma' = \{v\}$ for some vertex v . Look at $Lk(v, \Sigma)$. Write

$$\sigma = \{v, u, u_0\}$$

$$\sigma' = \{v, w, w_0\}$$

We know $v, w \in Lk(v, \Sigma) \cong S^1(N)$ which is connected. So choose a path in $Lk(v, \Sigma)$ from u to w

$$\xi = (\xi_0, \dots, \xi_N)$$

$$\xi_0 = u, \dots, \xi_N = w$$

Then $[\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}]$ is a 1-simplex in $Lk(v, \Sigma)$. Define $\sigma_i = \{v, \xi_i, \xi_{i+1}\}$ which is a 2-simplex, and then we have that $\sigma_0, \dots, \sigma_N$ is a copath from σ to σ' .

4. $\sigma \cap \sigma' = \emptyset$. Let N be a shortest path from a vertex v of σ to a vertex v' of σ' . We proceed by induction on N . The induction base case here is when $N = 1$. (v, v') sits inside two 2-simplices. Choose one of them and call it τ . $\sigma \cap \tau = \{v\}$ so there exists a copath from σ to τ . Similarly, $\sigma' \cap \tau = \{v'\}$ so there exists a copath from τ to σ' . Compare the two copaths to get a copath from σ to σ' .

Now for our induction step (assume hypothesis proved for $N - 1$), let $v \in \sigma, v' \in \sigma'$. Let (w_0, \dots, w_M) be a shortest path from v

to v' . Let τ be any 2-simplex such that $w_{m-1} \in \tau$. By our induction hypothesis, there exists a copath from σ to τ . By the induction base, there exists a copath from τ to σ' . Compose the two copaths to get a copath from σ to σ' .

□

5.3 Orientation Theorem

Theorem (Orientation Theorem). Let Σ be a connected simplicial surface, and let \mathbb{F} be a field.

1. If $1 + 1 \neq 0$ in \mathbb{F} and Σ is orientable then

$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

2. If $1 + 1 \neq 0$ in \mathbb{F} and Σ is non-orientable then

$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) = 0$$

3. If $1 + 1 = 0$ then

$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

regardless if Σ is orientable or not.

Definition (Intersection number).

$$\langle [v_0, v_1, v_2], [v_0, v_1] \rangle = +1$$

$$\partial[v_0, v_1, v_2] = [v_1, v_2] - [v_0, v_2] + [v_0, v_1]$$

$$\langle [v_0, v_1, v_2], [v_0, v_2] \rangle = -1$$

$$\langle [v_0, v_1, v_2], [v_1, v_2] \rangle = +1$$

More generally,

$$\langle [v_{\sigma(0)}, v_{\sigma(1)}, v_{\sigma(2)}], [v_0, v_1] \rangle = \text{sgn}(\sigma)$$

$$\langle [v_{\sigma(0)}, v_{\sigma(1)}, v_{\sigma(2)}], [v_0, v_2] \rangle = -\text{sgn}(\sigma)$$

$$\langle [v_{\sigma(0)}, v_{\sigma(1)}, v_{\sigma(2)}], [v_1, v_2] \rangle = \text{sgn}(\sigma)$$

(of *Orientation Theorem*). For each 1-simplex ρ of Σ , fix once and for all a specific orientation $\hat{\rho}$ of ρ .

Let $\Sigma_1, \dots, \Sigma_N$ be a list of the 2-simplices of Σ and $\hat{\Sigma}_i$ fixed orientation of Σ_i . To change the orientations on 2-simplices, we need a function

$$\eta : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$$

$\eta(i)\hat{\sigma}_i$ is the oriented 2-simplex which is

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\sigma}_i & \eta(i) = 1 \\ \text{opposite orientation of } \hat{\sigma}_i & \eta(i) = -1 \end{cases}$$

We shall consider elements of $C_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$ of the form

$$[\eta] = \sum_{i=1}^N \eta(i)\hat{\sigma}_i \in C_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$$

We want to calculate $\partial[\eta]$.

Fix a 1-simplex ρ and let σ_s, σ_t be the adjacent 2-simplices which contain ρ . The coefficient of $\hat{\rho}$ in $\partial[\eta]$ is simply

$$[\eta(s)\hat{\sigma}_s, \hat{\rho}] + [\eta(t)\hat{\sigma}_t, r\hat{h}o] = \begin{cases} 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{cases}$$

To ensure that $\partial[\eta] = 0$ we require η to satisfy

$$[\eta(s)\hat{\sigma}_s, \hat{\rho}] + [\eta(t)\hat{\sigma}_t, r\hat{h}o] = 0$$

i.e.,

$$\langle \eta(s)\hat{\sigma}_s, p \rangle + \langle \eta(t)\hat{\sigma}_t, r\hat{h}o \rangle = 0 \quad (*)$$

whenever σ_s, σ_t are adjacent, and now we know Σ is orientable if and only if there exists a function

$$\eta : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$$

such that we have $(*)$ whenever σ_s, σ_t are adjacent.

So when Σ is orientable and $\eta : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ is an orientation, then $[\eta] \in Z_2(\Sigma)$ and so defines a non-zero element of $H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$.

Now we show that when Σ is orientable,

$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

and $[\eta]$ is a *generator*.

Let us consider the elements

$$\sum_{s=1}^N a_s \hat{\sigma}_s \in C_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$$

where $a_s \in \mathbb{F}$. Suppose that ρ is a 1-simplex and σ_s, σ_t are adjacent 2-simplices which contain ρ .

We calculate $\partial(\sum a_s \sigma_s)$. The coefficients of $r\hat{h}o$ is simply $a_s \langle \hat{\sigma}_t, \hat{\rho} \rangle + a_t \langle \hat{\sigma}_t, \hat{\rho} \rangle$. If we want $\partial(\sum a_s \sigma_s) = 0$ then

$$a_s \langle \hat{\sigma}_t, \hat{\rho} \rangle + a_t \langle \hat{\sigma}_t, \hat{\rho} \rangle = 0$$

for adjacent s, t .

$$\pm a_s \pm a_t = 0$$

so $a_t = \pm a_s$ if σ_s, σ_t are adjacent. So going along a copath, coefficients a_s are constant up to sign.

Fix a "base 2-simplex" σ_0 and suppose

$$\partial(\sum a_s \sigma_s) = 0$$

Then going along a copath from σ_0 to σ_s , we find that $a_s = \pm a_0$. Define $\eta : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ by

$$\eta(s) = \begin{cases} +1 & a_s = a_0 \\ -1 & a_s = -a_0 \end{cases}$$

then $\alpha = a_0[\eta]$ if $\partial\alpha = 0$ which shows that $\dim H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) \leq 1$.

If Σ is orientable, there exists global orientation $\eta : \{1, \dots, N\} \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ and $[\eta]$ generates $H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$

If Σ is non-orientable, $\partial[\eta] \neq 0$ for any such η and if $\alpha \in Z_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$, $\alpha = \sum a_s \hat{\sigma}_s$,

$$\alpha = a_0[\eta] \quad \partial(\alpha) = a_0\partial[\eta]$$

$$\partial(\alpha) = 0 \implies a_0\partial[\eta] = 0$$

but $\partial[\eta] \neq 0$ and $\alpha = 0$, so $a_0 = 0$, so then

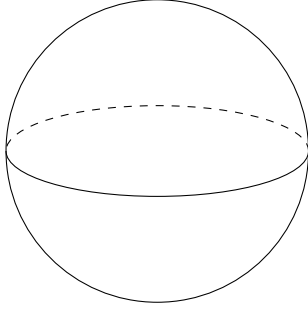
$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$$

However if $1 + 1 = 0$, then

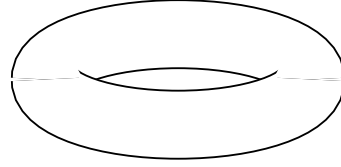
$$\partial\left(\sum_{s=1}^N \hat{\sigma}_s\right) = 0$$

as $\pm 2 = 0$ and $H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) \cong \mathbb{F}$. □

For surfaces, H_0 tells us whether the surface is connected or not. H_2 tells us whether the surface is orientable or not. H_1 in a sense tells us how 'big' the surface is.



$$\Sigma_0^+, S^2, \text{ genus} = 0$$



$$\Sigma_1^+, T^2, \text{ genus} = 1$$

$$H_k = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ 0 & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

$$H_k = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F} & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

In general for $\Sigma_g^+ = n$ -fold torus, we have

$$H_k \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ H_1 = \mathbb{F} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{F} \text{ (} 2g \text{ times)} & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

We also have

$$\Sigma_0^- = \mathbb{R}P(2), \Sigma_g^- = \mathbb{R}P(2) \# \dots \# \mathbb{R}P(2) \text{ (} g + 1 \text{ times)}$$

If $1 + 1 \neq 0$, then

$$H_k = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{F}^g & k = 1 \\ 0 & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

but if $1 + 1 = 0$,

$$H_k = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{F}^{g+1} & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

As $H_*(-; \mathbb{F})$ is invariant under combinatorial equivalence (\sim), we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma_g^+ &\sim \Sigma_h^+ \implies g = h \\ \Sigma_g^- &\sim \Sigma_h^- \implies g = h \\ \Sigma_g^+ &\not\sim \Sigma_h^- \text{ for any } g, h\end{aligned}$$

6 Some linear algebra

Proposition. If A, B are $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} , then

$$\text{Tr}(AB) = \text{Tr}(BA)$$

Proof. First write $A = (a_{kj})$, $B = (b_{ji})$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}(AB)_{ki} &= \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} b_{ji} \\ (AB)_{kk} &= \sum_j a_{kj} b_{jk}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Tr}(AB) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} b_{jk} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{kj} b_{jk}\end{aligned}$$

and we know

$$a_{kj} b_{jk} = b_{jk} a_{kj}$$

as \mathbb{F} is a field, so now we have

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n b_{jk} a_{kj} = \text{Tr}(BA)$$

□

Remark. Note that in general $\text{Tr}(AB) \neq \text{Tr}(A)\text{Tr}(B)$. For example, take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = B$$

so that

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \text{Tr}(B) = 0, \quad \text{Tr}(AB) = 2$$

Corollary. If A, P are $n \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F} and P is invertible then

$$\text{Tr}(PAP^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(A)$$

Proof.

$$\text{Tr}((PA)P^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(P^{-1}PA) = \text{Tr}(A)$$

□

6.1 Trace of a linear map

Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F} . Let $X : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear map. Take a basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ for V , and write

$$X(e_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n e_j \xi_{ji}$$

$$X \sim (\xi_{ji}) = \xi$$

We would like to define $\text{Tr}(X) = \text{Tr}(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_{ji}$

However, ξ depends on the choice of basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$. Suppose we take another basis $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ so that $X(f_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j \eta_{ji}$,

$$X \sim (\eta)$$

η, ξ are related by $\eta = P\xi P^{-1}$ where P is the change of basis matrix,

$$P = M(\text{id})_{\xi}^{\eta}, \quad P^{-1} = M(\text{id})_{\eta}^{\xi}$$

Consequently

$$\text{Tr}(\eta) = \text{Tr}(P\xi P^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(\xi)$$

so the trace is independent of the particular basis so we can legitimately define

$$\text{Tr}(X) = \text{Tr}(\xi)$$

when $X(e_i) = \sum_{j=1}^n e_j \xi_{ji}$.

Proposition (Additivity of Tr). Let

$$0 \rightarrow U \rightarrow V \xrightarrow{p} W \rightarrow 0$$

be an exact sequence of finite dimensional vector spaces over \mathbb{F} and suppose there exists linear maps T_U, T_V, T_W such that the following commutes

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & U & \longrightarrow & V & \xrightarrow{p} & W \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow T_U & & \downarrow T_V & & \downarrow T_W \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & U & \longrightarrow & V & \xrightarrow{p} & W \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

then

$$\text{Tr}(T_V) = \text{Tr}(T_U) + \text{Tr}(T_W)$$

Lemma. Let $T : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear map over \mathbb{F} . Suppose $\dim(V) = n$, and let $U \subset V$ be a subspace; $T(U) \subset U$, and $\dim(U) = k$. Then T can be represented by a matrix

$$T \sim \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}$$

where A is a $k \times k$ matrix, B is a $k \times (n - k)$ matrix and D is a $(n - k) \times (n - k)$ matrix.

Proof. (of lemma) Let $\{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$ be a basis for U . Extend to a basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_k, f_1, \dots, f_q\}$ for V ($q = n - k$). With respect to this basis,

$$T(e_i) = \sum_{j=1}^k e_j a_{ji} \quad (T(U) \subset U)$$

$T(f_r)$ is a linear combination in $\{e_1, \dots, e_k, f_1, \dots, f_q\}$. Write

$$T(f_r) = \sum_{s=1}^k e_s b_{sr} + \sum_{t=1}^q f_t d_{tr} \quad (1 \leq r \leq q)$$

so the matrix of T has block form,

$$T \sim \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}$$

where $A = (a_{ji})$, $B = (b_{sr})$, $D = (d_{tr})$. □

Note that $Tr(T) = Tr(A) + Tr(D)$.

Proof. (of proposition) Let $\{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$ be a basis for U , and $\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_q\}$ be basis for W . For all r , choose $f_r \in V$, $p(f_r) = \phi_r$. Then, $\{e_1, \dots, e_k\} \cup \{f_1, \dots, f_q\}$ is a basis for V . By the previous lemma, T_V is represented by a block matrix

$$T_V \sim \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix}$$

where A = matrix of T_U , and factoring out U ,

$$D = \text{matrix } T_W \text{ with respect to } \{f_1, \dots, f_q\}$$

hence

$$\begin{aligned} Tr(T_V) &= Tr(A) + Tr(D) \\ &= Tr(T_U) + Tr(T_W) \end{aligned}$$

□

7 Lefschetz Fixed Simplex Theorem

Theorem (Lefschetz Fixed Simplex Theorem). Let $f : K \rightarrow K$ be a simplicial map where K is a finite simplicial complex. Define

$$\lambda(f) = \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(H_k(f))$$

If $\lambda(f) \neq 0$ then there exists a simplex σ of K such that $f(\sigma) = \sigma$. $\lambda(f)$ is called the *Lefschetz number* of f (pick a field \mathbb{F})

Definition (Geometrical Lefschetz index).

$$\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f) = \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(C_k(f))$$

where $C_k(f) : C_k(K; \mathbb{F}) \rightarrow C_k(K; \mathbb{F})$ is the mapping induced by f .

Definition (Homological Lefschetz index).

$$\lambda_{\text{hom}}(f) = \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr}(H_k(f))$$

Proposition.

$$\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f) = \lambda_{\text{hom}}(f)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_k(K) & \longrightarrow & C_k(K) & \longrightarrow & B_{k-1}(K) \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \downarrow Z_k(f) & & \downarrow C_k(f) & & \downarrow B_{k-1}(f) \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & Z_k(K) & \longrightarrow & C_k(K) & \longrightarrow & B_{k-1}(K) \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

$$Z_k(K) = \ker \partial_k, \quad B_{k-1}(K) = \text{im}(\partial_k)$$

so

$$\text{Tr}(C_k(f)) = \text{Tr}(Z_k(K)) + \text{Tr}(B_{k-1}(K)) \quad (1)$$

and we also have

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
0 & \longrightarrow & B_k(K) & \longrightarrow & Z_k(K) & \longrightarrow & H_k(K) \longrightarrow 0 \\
& & \downarrow B_k(f) & & \downarrow Z_k(F) & & \downarrow H_k(f) \\
0 & \longrightarrow & B_k(K) & \longrightarrow & Z_k(K) & \longrightarrow & H_k(K) \longrightarrow 0
\end{array}$$

where both the rows are exact, so

$$Tr(Z_k(f)) = Tr(H_k(f)) + Tr(B_k(f)) \quad (2)$$

Substituting (2) into (1), we have

$$Tr C_k(f) = Tr H_k(f) + Tr B_k(f) + Tr(B_{k-1}(f))$$

but

$$\sum_k (-1)^k Tr B_k(f) + Tr B_{k-1}(f) = 0$$

so

$$\sum_k (-1)^k Tr C_k(f) = \sum_k (-1)^k Tr H_k(f)$$

thus

$$\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f) = \lambda_{\text{hom}}(f)$$

□

Remark. Note that $\lambda_{\text{hom}}(f)$ is easier to compute, but $\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f)$ carries geometric information.

Now consider $C_k(f) : C_k(K) \rightarrow C_k(K)$. If σ is a k -simplex of K , either $f(\sigma)$ is a k -simplex or $f(\sigma)$ is an l -simplex, where $l < k$.

In the first case, $C_k(f)(\sigma)$ is a basis element of C_k . In the second case, $C_k(f)(\sigma) = 0$, so representing $C_k(f)$ as a matrix, in a column there is at most one non-zero entry.

List the k -simplices of K , $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N$. $C_k(f)$ is an $N \times N$ matrix. The (i, i) entry of $C_k(f)$ is non-zero if and only if $f(\sigma) = \pm\sigma$, so if no k -simplex is fixed by f then the diagonal of $C_k(f)$ is 0 and $Tr(C_k(f)) = 0$.

of Lefschetz fixed simplex theorem. Formally put,

$$f \text{ fixes no } k\text{-simplex} \implies \text{Tr } C_k(f) = 0$$

$$\text{so } f \text{ fixes no simplex} \implies \text{Tr } C_k(f) = 0 \text{ for all } k$$

$$\text{so } f \text{ fixes no simplex} \implies \sum_k (-1)^k \text{Tr } C_k(f) = (\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f) =) 0$$

In the contrapositive,

$$\lambda_{\text{geom}}(f) \neq 0 \implies f \text{ fixes some simplex (up to sign, it may change local orientation)}$$

hence

$$\lambda_{\text{hom}}(f) \neq 0 \implies f \text{ fixes some simplex}$$

□

Recall that

Proposition. If $f : K \rightarrow K$ is a simplicial map and K is connected then

$$H_0(f) = \text{id} : H_0(K) \rightarrow H_0(K)$$

Proof. If v, w are vertices of K , then $|v| - |w| \in \mathfrak{S}\partial_1$, so $[v] = [w]$ in $H_0(K)$. Hence $[f(v)] = [v]$ in $H_0(K)$ for any vertex v . But any vertex v generates $H_0(K)$ (K connected), so

$$H_0(f) = \text{id} : \text{generator} \rightarrow \text{itself}$$

□

Corollary. If K is a connected simplicial complex and $f : K \rightarrow K$ is simplicial, then

$$\text{Tr } H_0(K) = 1$$

Corollary. Let $f : K \rightarrow K$ be a simplicial map, where K is a finite connected simplicial complex and

$$H_k(K; \mathbb{F}) \text{ for } k > 0$$

then $\lambda(f) = 1$.

Corollary. If $f : K \rightarrow K$ is a simplicial map, K a finite connected complex such that $H_k(K; \mathbb{F}) = 0$ for $k > 0$, then there exists a simplex σ of K such that $f(\sigma) = \sigma$ (up to orientation.)

Proof.

$$\lambda(f) = 1 \neq 0$$

□

Corollary. If K is a finite simplicial complex and $K \sim CX$ (combinatorially equivalent) where CX is the cone on X , for some X , then any simplicial map $f : K \rightarrow K$ fixes a simplex.

Example. $K \sim \Delta^n$, any simplicial $f : K \rightarrow K$ fixes a simplex. (Brouwer Fixed Simplex)

To transform a finite simplicial complex into a metric space, replace the formal n -simplex by standard geometric n -simplex,

$$|\Delta^n| = \{t_0e_0 + t_1e_1 + \dots + t_ne_n \mid t_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=0}^n t_i = 1\}$$

where e_0, \dots, e_n are the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

$f : \Delta^n \rightarrow \Delta^n$ (formal simplicial mapping) gives a continuous mapping

$$\begin{aligned} |f| : |\Delta^n| &\rightarrow |\Delta^n| \\ |f|(\sum t_i e_i) &\rightarrow \sum t_i f(e_i) \end{aligned}$$

f permutes e_0, \dots, e_n ,

$$|f|(\frac{1}{n} \sum e_i) = \frac{1}{n} \sum e_i \text{ (fixed point)}$$

so if $g : K \rightarrow K$ is a simplicial map, K a finite complex, we get a continuous mapping (!) $|g| : |K| \rightarrow |K|$. If g fixes a simplex, then $|g|$ fixes a point.

Theorem (Brouwer Fixed Point Theorem). Let $X = |K|$ where K is some finite simplicial complex. Suppose any simplicial map $g(m) : K(m) \rightarrow K(m)$ has a fixed simplex $K(m)$ (subdivision of K), then any continuous $f : X \rightarrow X$ has a fixed point.

Proof. Suppose $f : X \rightarrow X$ does not have a fixed point. X compact, so there exists $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\epsilon \leq \|f(x) - x\|$ for all x . Suppose $g(m) : K(m) \rightarrow K(m)$, then

$$\|f(x) - x\| \leq \|f(x) - g_m(x)\| + \|g_m(x) - x\|$$

so

$$\forall \eta \exists m \|f(x) - g_m(x)\| < \eta \quad \forall x$$

Choose m so that $\|f(x) - g_m(x)\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ so then

$$\frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq \|g_m(x) - x\| \quad \forall x$$

which is a contradiction, thus $g_m(x)$ has a fixed point. □

Theorem (Künneth theorem (will not be proven here)).

$$H_n(X \times Y; \mathbb{F}) = \bigoplus_{r=0}^n H_r(X; \mathbb{F}) \oplus H_{n-r}(Y; \mathbb{F})$$

however we will prove the following,

$$\chi(X \times Y) = \chi(X)\chi(Y)$$

where X, Y are finite simplicial complexes. To see applications of this, consider $S^2 \times S^2$ and S^4 , both of which are simply connected compact 4-manifolds. However, $S^2 \times S^2 \not\cong S^4$ since

$$\chi(S^2 \times S^2) = \chi(S^2)\chi(S^2) = 4$$

and

$$\chi(S^4) = 2$$

Definition (Posets (Partially ordered sets)). A *poset* (X, \leq) consists of a set X and a relation \leq in $X \times X$

1. $x \leq x \quad \forall x$
2. $x \leq y \wedge y \leq z \implies x \leq z$

In a total ordering we also have $\forall x, y \in X$ either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.

Now let (X, \leq) be a finite poset. Construct a simplicial complex $N(X, \leq)$ the *nerve* of (X, \leq) . The vertex set of $N(X, \leq)$ is X and simplex set of $N(X, \leq)$ is the set of totally ordered non-empty subsets.

If (X, \leq) , (Y, \leq') are finite posets then the product poset is $(X \times Y, \preceq)$ where

$$(x, y) \preceq (x', y') \iff (x \leq x') \wedge (y \leq' y')$$

Notice that if (X, \leq) , (Y, \leq') are totally ordered then $(X \times Y, \preceq)$ isnt, except trivially.

From now on we will always use the symbol ' \leq '.

Example. posets and triangulation

Proposition. If X is a finite simplicial, we can write

$$X = N(\mathcal{X}, \leq)$$

for some \mathcal{X} .

Proof. Take an arbitrary ordering on the vertices of X , $\{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$. X embeds in Δ^N ,

$$v_i \mapsto i, \quad \mathcal{X} = \text{im}(v_i \mapsto i)$$

$$\Delta^N = \text{nerve on totally ordered set } 0 \leq 1 \leq \dots \leq N$$

so each simplex σ of X is totally ordered. □

So now to define $X \times Y$, we write

$$X = N(\mathcal{X}), \quad Y = N(\mathcal{Y})$$

where \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} are posets. Then, we define

$$X \times Y = N(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})$$

By an *ordered* simplex complex, we mean a simplicial complex

$$X = (V_X, \mathcal{S}_X)$$

together with a partial ordering on V_X such that for all $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$, σ is totally ordered, so any simplicial complex can be regarded as an ordered simplicial complex,

$$X = N(\mathcal{X} \text{ for some } \mathcal{X})$$

If X, Y are ordered simplicial complexes, then so is $X \times Y$.