## Algebraic Topology - MATH0023

## Based on lectures by Prof FEA Johnson

Notes taken by Imran Radzi

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  $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_X$ .

 $S_X$  is called the set of *simplices* of X.

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

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

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

$$\{0\} \frac{}{\{0, 1\}} \{1\}$$

A standard 2-simplex, denoted by  $\Delta^2$  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  $\Delta^n$ , is  $\Delta^n = (V_{\Delta^n}, \mathcal{S}_{\Delta^n})$  where

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

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

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  $\mathbb{F}$ )

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

 $C_0(X)$  is the vector space whose basis elements are simply the vertices of the simplicial complex, the 0-dimensional bits.

**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,

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

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

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

#### Definition.

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

is a linear map defined on basis elements as follows;

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

where  $\hat{v_r}$  indincates omission of  $v_r$ .

Example.

$$\partial_2[0, 1, 2] = [1, 2] - [0, 2] + [0, 1]$$
  
 $\partial_1[v_0, v_2] = [v_1] - [v_0]$ 

$$\partial_1 \partial_2 [0, 1, 2] = \partial_1 ([1, 2] - [0, 2] + [0, 1])$$
  
=  $([2] - [1]) - ([2] - [0]) + ([1] - [0])$   
=  $0$ 

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

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

for  $r \geq 1$ , then

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

Proof.

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

$$\partial_{n-1}[v_0, \dots, \hat{v_r}, \dots, v_n] = \sum_{s < r} (-1)^s [v_0, \dots, \hat{v_s}, \dots, \hat{v_r}, \dots, v_n] + \sum_{s > r} (-1)^{s-1} [v_0, \dots, \hat{v_r}, \dots, \hat{v_s}, \dots, v_n]$$

$$\partial_{n-1}\partial_{n}[v_{0},\dots,v_{n}] = \sum_{s< r} (-1)^{r+s}[v_{0},\dots,\hat{v_{s}},\dots,\hat{v_{r}},\dots,v_{n}] + \sum_{s> r} (-1)^{r+s-1}[v_{0},\dots,\hat{v_{r}},\dots,\hat{v_{s}},\dots,v_{n}] = 0$$

#### Proposition. If

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

then

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

*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

$$\eta: V \to V/U$$

given by

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

Clearly this map is surjective so

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

Now,

$$\ker(\eta) = \{x \in V : \eta(x) = U\}$$
  
=  $\{x \in V : x + U = U\}$ 

and

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

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

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

SO

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

Definition.

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

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  $\Delta^3$ . 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

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

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

The linear maps

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

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

can both be represented by a  $6 \times 4$  matrix and a  $4 \times 6$  matrix respectively.

We apply  $\partial_2$  and  $\partial_1$  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  $\partial_2$  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 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 im  $\partial_1 = 3$ 

$$0 \xrightarrow{\partial_3} C_2 \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0 \to 0$$

so now

$$H_2(S^2) = \ker(\partial_2)/\operatorname{im}(\partial_3) = \ker(\partial_2) \cong \mathbb{F}$$

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

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

Next,

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

Now note that

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

thus

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

Next,

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

and

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

thus

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

We've shown

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

We will soon see that this theorem generalises if

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

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.  $\partial_r: C_r \to C_{r-1}$  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

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

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

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

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  $f: X \to Y$  is a mapping of vertex sets  $f: V_X \to V_Y$  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  $f: X \to Y$ , we are going to produce linear maps

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

such that if

$$q: Y \to Z$$

then

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

and

1. 
$$H_k(g \circ f) = H_k(g) \circ H_k(f)$$

$$2. H_k(\mathrm{id}_X) = \mathrm{id}_{H_k(X)}$$

**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  $f_*: C_* \to D_*$  is a collection of linear maps

$$f* = (f_r)_{r \ge 0}$$

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

$$C_r \xrightarrow{\partial_r^C} C_{r-1}$$

$$f_r \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow f_{r-1}$$

$$D_r \xrightarrow{\partial_r^D} D_{r-1}$$

i.e.,

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

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

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

is also a chain mapping.

$$id: C_* \to C_*, id_n = id_{C_n}$$

is also a chain mapping.

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

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

by action on a basis as follows

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

then

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

is also a chain mapping.

Proof.

$$\partial_{n}^{D}C_{n}(f)[v_{0}, \dots, v_{n}] = \partial_{n}^{D}([f(v_{0}), \dots, f(v_{n})])$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{n} (-1)^{r}[f(v_{0}), \dots, f(\hat{v}_{0}), \dots, f(v_{n})]$$

$$= C_{n-1}(f) \sum_{r=0}^{n} (-1)^{r}[v_{0}, \dots, \hat{v_{r}}, \dots, v_{n}]$$

$$= C_{n-1}(f) \partial_{n}^{C}[v_{0}, \dots, v_{n}]$$

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

**Proposition.** If  $f: X \to Y, g: Y \to Z$  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.

$$(g \circ f)[v_0, \dots, v_n] = [(g \circ f)(v_0), \dots, (g \circ f)(v_n)]$$
  
=  $g_n[f(v_0), \dots, f(v_n)]$   
=  $g_n \circ f_n[v_0, \dots, v_n]$ 

Proposition. Let

$$id: X \to X$$

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

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

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

It is usual to write

$$Z_n(C) = \ker(\partial_n)$$
 (cycles)

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

thus by this notation,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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  $g: D_* \to E_*$ ,  $f: C_* \to D_*$  are chain mappings, then

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

and also if id :  $C_* \to C_*$  we have

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

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 simplicial mapping

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

We also have a simplicial mapping

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

so now

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

and so (since both maps are simplicial, hence chain mappings)

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

but notice that

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

since we know

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

and thus

$$H_0(c) \circ H_0(\iota) = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{F}}$$
  
 $c \circ \iota = \mathrm{id} \neq 0$ 

and now note that c is surjective, and  $\iota$  is injective. In particular

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

is surjective, so

$$H_0(X) \neq 0$$

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

**Definition.** 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

$$[v_0, v_1], [v_1, v_2], \dots, [v_{n-2}, v_{n-1}], [v_{n-1}, v_n]$$

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

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

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

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

so then,

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

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  $[w] - [v] \in \operatorname{im}(\partial_1)$   $(w \neq v)$ . So  $C_0(X) / \operatorname{im}(\partial_1)$  has dimension  $\leq 1$ , and then dim  $H_0(X) \leq 1$  if X is connected. But  $X \neq \emptyset$ , so  $H_0(X) \neq 0$ , 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  $* \notin V_X$ 

$$V_{C(X)} = \{*\} \cup V_X$$
 
$$S_{C(X)} = S_X \cup \{\{*\} \cup \{\sigma \cup \{*\} : \sigma \in S_X\}\}$$

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

$$H_k(C(X)) = 0, k > 0$$

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

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

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

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

Then,

$$\partial_{k+1} \mathcal{H}_k[v_0, \dots, v_k] = \partial_{k+1}[*, v_0, \dots, v_k]$$

$$= [v_0, \dots, v_k] + \sum_{r=0}^k (-1)^{r+1}[*, v_0, \dots, \hat{v_r}, \dots, v_k]$$

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

However,

$$\mathcal{H}_{k-1}[v_0,\ldots,\hat{v_r},\ldots,v_k] = [*,v_0,\ldots,\hat{v_r},\ldots,v_k]$$

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.,

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

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

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

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

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

The standard model  $S^n$  of the *n*-sphere is

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

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

i.e.,  $S^n = n$ -skeleton of  $\Delta^{n+1}$ 

#### Theorem.

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$H_n(X^{(n)}) \equiv \ker(\partial_n : C_n(X) \to C_{n-1}(X))$$
  
=  $Z_n(X)$ 

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

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

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

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

In general if

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

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

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

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

#### 4 term exact sequence

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

is exact if and only if f is an isomorphism.

*Proof.* The sequence is exact at V, so

$$im(f) = ker(V \to 0) = V$$

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

$$\ker(f) = \operatorname{im}(0 \to U) = 0$$

so f is injective. Thus f is bijective and so an isomorphism.

#### Short exact sequence

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

Exactness here means

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

#### Example. Kernel-rank theorem

Suppose we have the exact sequence

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

if U, V, W are finite dimensional, then

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

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

$$im(g) = W$$

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

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

Example.

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

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

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

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

Consider the following sequence of chain maps

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

so for each n we have a sequence of linear maps

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

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

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

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

$$\to H_{n+1}(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_{n+1}(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_{n+1}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(B) \dots$$

$$\to H_1(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_1(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_1(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_0(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_0(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_0(C) \to 0$$

with  $\delta$  called the connecting homomorphism, where in our case,  $A_n = B_n = C_n = 0$  for n < 0, i.e.,

$$A_* = (A_n, \partial_n), A_n = 0, n < 0$$
  
 $B_* = (B_n, \partial_n), B_n = 0, n < 0$   
 $C_* = (C_n, \partial_n), C_n = 0, n < 0$ 

The connecting homomorphisms have the following naturality property:

Suppose we have the following exact sequences of chain complexes,

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

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

and suppose the following commutes,

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

$$\downarrow \alpha \qquad \qquad \downarrow \beta \qquad \qquad \uparrow \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

(where  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ) are chain maps). Compare the two long exact sequences,

$$H_{n+1}(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_{n+1}(C) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_n(A) \xrightarrow{i_*} H_n(B) \xrightarrow{p_*} H_n(0)$$

$$\downarrow^{\beta_*} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_*} \qquad \downarrow^{\alpha_*} \qquad \downarrow^{\beta_*} \qquad \downarrow^{\gamma_*}$$

$$H_{n+1}(B') \xrightarrow{q_*} H_{n+1}(C') \xrightarrow{\delta'} H_n(A') \xrightarrow{j_*} H_n(B') \xrightarrow{q_*} H_n(0)$$

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.  $S_Y \subset S_X$

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

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

# 3.3 The Geometric Mayer-Vietoris Theorem: Chain Version

**Theorem.** 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 as follows,

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

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

$$H_{n+1}(X_+) \oplus H_{n+1}(X_-) \to H_{n+1}(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_n(X_+ \cap X_-)$$
  
 $\to H_n(X_+) \oplus H_n(X_-) \to H_n(X) \xrightarrow{\delta} H_{n-1}(X_+ \cap X_-)$ 

and finishes

$$\stackrel{\delta}{\to} H_1(X_+ \cap X_-) \to H_1(X_+) \oplus H_1(X_-) \to H_1(X) \stackrel{\delta}{\to} H_0(X_+ \cap X_-)$$
$$\to H_0(X_+) \oplus H_0(X_-) \to H_0(X) \to 0$$

**Example.** Let  $S^n = \text{standard model of } n\text{-sphere},$ 

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

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.

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

So we can write,

$$S^n = X_+ \cup X_-$$
, 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,

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

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

which is isomorphic by the very short exact sequence.

#### 3.4 External and internal sum

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

**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,

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

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

 $\mu$  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,

$$0 \to U \cap V \xrightarrow{i} U \oplus V \xrightarrow{\mu} U + V \to 0$$
$$i(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ -u \end{pmatrix}$$

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,

$$0 \to C_n(X_+ \cap X_-) \xrightarrow{i} C_n(X_+) \oplus C_n(X_-) \xrightarrow{\mu} C_n(X) \to 0$$
$$\mu \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = x + y, \ i(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ -u \end{pmatrix}$$

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

$$S_X = S_{X_+} \cup S_{X_-}$$

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

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

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  $\ker(\mu)$ , we have

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

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

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

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

**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  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ . Put

$$X_{-}=X_{1}\cup X_{2}\cup\ldots\cup X_{n-1}$$
 
$$X_{+}=X_{n}$$
 
$$X_{+}\cup X_{-}=X,\,X_{+}\cap X_{-}=\emptyset(\text{ by definition})$$

Look at the following

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

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

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

Example.

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

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

$$H_n(S^0; \mathbb{F}) = 0, n \neq 0$$
 (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.

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

*Proof.* Decompose  $S^1 = X_1 \cup X_+$ , where  $X_-$  is equal to 0 - 1

and  $X_+$  is equal to



i.e.,

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

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

$$H_1(X_+) \oplus H_1(X_-) \to H_1(S^1) \to H_0(S^0) \to H_0(X_+) \oplus H_0(X_-) \to H_0(S^1)$$
  
 $0 \to H_1(S) \to \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F} \oplus \mathbb{F} \to \mathbb{F}$ 

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

Lemma. Let

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

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,

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

then by the kernel-rank theorem, this implies that

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

and so P(2) is true. For n=3,

$$0 \to V_3 \xrightarrow{f_3} V_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} V_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} V_0 \to 0$$

is an exact sequence. Put  $K = \ker(f_1) = \operatorname{im}(f_2)$  so we have two exact sequences

$$0 \to K \to V_1 \to V_0 \to 0$$

$$0 \to V_3 \to V_2 \to K \to 0$$

so by the kernel-rank theorem,

$$\dim V_0 + \dim V_2 = \dim V_1 + \dim V_3$$

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

$$0 \to V_{2n+1} \xrightarrow{f_{2n+1}} V_{2n} \xrightarrow{f_{2n}} V_{2n-1} \to \ldots \to V_0 \to 0$$

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

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

and

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

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

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

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

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

$$A_{0} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{0}} A_{1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{1}} A_{2} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{2}} A_{3} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{3}} A_{4}$$

$$\downarrow f_{0} \qquad \downarrow f_{1} \qquad \downarrow f_{2} \qquad \downarrow f_{3} \qquad \downarrow f_{4}$$

$$B_{0} \xrightarrow{\beta_{0}} B_{1} \xrightarrow{\beta_{1}} B_{2} \xrightarrow{\beta_{2}} B_{3} \xrightarrow{\beta_{3}} B_{4}$$

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  $x \in \ker(\alpha_2) = \operatorname{im}(\alpha_2)$ , 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  $f_1(y) \in \ker(\beta_1) = \operatorname{im}(\beta_0)$ . Thus there exists  $w \in \beta_0$  such that  $\alpha_0(w) = f_1(y)$ . But  $f_0$  is surjective so write

$$w = f_0(z), \ \beta_0 f_0(z) = f_1(y) \implies f_1 \alpha_0(z) = f_1(y)$$

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  $b \in \beta_2$ . We want to find  $a \in A_2$  such that  $f_2(a) = b$ . Now,  $\beta_2(b) \in B_3$ .  $f_2$  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

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

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

$$\beta_1 f_1(z) = \beta_1(w) = b - f_2(y)$$

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

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  $\Delta^2$  (the triangle), and add a point at its barycenter, adding edges from the barycenter to each three of the vertices

of  $\Delta^2$ . 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  $\tau$ .

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

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

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

$$X = \hat{\sigma_1} \cup \hat{\sigma_2} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_N}$$

### 4.1 Subdivision at a principal simplex

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

$$X = \hat{\sigma} \cup \hat{\sigma_1} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_N}$$

Put  $X_+ = \hat{\sigma}, X_- = \hat{\sigma_1} \cup ... \cup \hat{\sigma_N}$ . Then  $X = X_+ \cup X_-$  and  $X_+ \cap X_- \subset \partial \hat{\sigma}$  (boundary of  $\hat{\sigma}$ )

Definition.

$$Sd(X,\sigma) = C(\partial\sigma) \cup \hat{\sigma_1} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_N}$$

i.e.,

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

where  $X'_{+}$  is the cone on the boundary of  $\sigma$  and

$$X'_{-} = X_{-} = \hat{\sigma_1} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_N}$$

and

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

Taking our  $\Delta^2$  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  $\sigma$  be an *n*-simplex and consider  $C(\partial \sigma)$ . We construct simplicial mappings  $C(\partial \sigma) \to \sigma$  as follows,

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

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

where \* is our cone point.

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

Proof.  $C(\partial \sigma)$  and  $\sigma$  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  $\sigma$  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  $\sigma$  be a principal complex, and let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_N$  be the remaining principal simplices and define an extended squash map  $Sq: Sd(X, \sigma) \to X$  by

 $Sq:C(\partial\sigma)\to\sigma$  is a squash mapping

$$Sq: \sigma_i \to \sigma_i \text{ identity } i=1,\ldots,N$$

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

Proof. Put

$$X_{+} = \hat{\sigma}, X'_{+} = C(\partial \sigma)$$
$$X'_{-} = X_{-} = \hat{\sigma_{1}} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_{N}}$$

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

$$H_{n}(X'_{+} \cap X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X'_{+}) \oplus H_{n}(X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(Sd(X,\sigma)) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X'_{+} \cap X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X'_{+}) \oplus H_{n-1}(X'_{-})$$

$$\downarrow_{id} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{M} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{id} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{M}$$

$$H_{n}(X_{+} \cap X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X_{+}) \oplus H_{n}(X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X_{+} \cap X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X_{+}) \oplus H_{n-1}(X_{-})$$

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

since  $Sq: H_n(X'_+) \to H_n(X_+)$  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  $\Delta^2$ . 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 = point, so then K \* L = C(L).

Proposition.

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

*Proof.* Vertex set of  $\Delta^{m+n+1}$  is

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

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

$$\{0,\ldots,n\}$$

so if we take as our model of  $\Delta^n$  the vertex set  $\{m+1, \ldots, m+n+1\}$  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).

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  $\tau$  be a simplex of X, and let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_N$  be the principal simplices which contain  $\tau$ . Then

$$St(\tau, X) = \hat{\sigma_1} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_N} = star\ neighbourhood\ of\ \tau\ in\ X$$

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

$$Lk(\tau, X) = \{ \rho \in X \mid \rho \cap \tau = \emptyset, \rho \cup \tau \in \mathcal{S}_X \}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Definition** (Subdivision at a non-principal simplex). Let X be a finite simplicial complex, and  $\tau$  a non-principal simplex. Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_m$  be the principal simplices which contain  $\tau$ . Let  $\sigma_{m+1}, \ldots, \sigma_N$  be the remaining principal simplices. Put

$$X_{+} = \hat{\sigma_{1}} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_{m}} = St(\tau, X)$$

$$X_{-} = \hat{\sigma_{m+1}} \cup \ldots \cup \hat{\sigma_{N}}$$

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

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

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

Proof.

$$H_{n}(X'_{+} \cap X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X'_{+}) \oplus H_{n}(X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(Sd(X,\tau)) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X'_{+} \cap X'_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X'_{+}) \oplus H_{n-1}(X'_{-})$$

$$\downarrow^{\mathrm{id}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{M} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\mathrm{sq}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\mathrm{id}} \qquad \downarrow^{M}$$

$$H_{n}(X_{+} \cap X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X_{+}) \oplus H_{n}(X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n}(X) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X_{+} \cap X_{-}) \longrightarrow H_{n-1}(X_{+}) \oplus H_{n-1}(X_{-})$$

$$\mathrm{where} \ M = \begin{pmatrix} Sq & 0 \\ 0 & \mathrm{id} \end{pmatrix}. \ \mathrm{By} \ \mathrm{the} \ \mathrm{five} \ \mathrm{lemma}, \ Sq \ \mathrm{induces} \ \mathrm{an} \ \mathrm{isomorphism}.$$

So now we've proved the following,

**Theorem.** Homology is invariant under subdivision.

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

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$$

then

$$H_n(X) \xrightarrow{H_n(f)} H_n(Y) \xrightarrow{H_n(g)} H_n(Z)$$

$$\xrightarrow{H_n(g \circ f)}$$

### Properties of functors:

1. 
$$H_n(g \circ f) = H_n(g) \circ H_n(f)$$

2. 
$$H_n(id) = id_{H_n}$$
 i.e.,

$$id: X \to X, H_n(id): H_n(X) \to H_n(X)$$

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

Proof. If 
$$g = f^{-1}: Y \to X$$
,  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_X$ ,  $f \circ g = \mathrm{id}_Y$  then  $H_n(g) \circ H_n(f) = \mathrm{id}$ ,  $H_n(f) \circ H_n(g) = \mathrm{id}$ 

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  $(X_r)_{0 \le r \le N}$  of complexes  $X_r$  such that  $X_0 = X$ ,  $X_N = Y$  and for each r,  $0 \le r \le N - 1$ , 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  $S^2 = \partial \Delta^3$ . This is the minimal model of  $S^2$ . The dodecahedron is also a model of  $S^2$  obtained from the minimal model by a sequece 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

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

which is harder to compute homology with.

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

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

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  $\Sigma$  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.

## 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

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

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

**Definition** (Connected sum of surfaces). Let  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Sigma'$  be surfaces. Let  $\sigma$  be a 2-simplex in  $\Sigma$ ,  $\sigma'$  be a 2-simplex in  $\Sigma'$ . Let  $\Sigma_0$  be the complex obtained from  $\Sigma$  by removing  $\sigma$ . Likewise for  $\Sigma'_0$ . Formally,

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

(i.e., we glue the boundaries of  $\Sigma_0$  and  $\Sigma'_0$  together.)

Proposition.

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

**Example.** Some examples of orientable surfaces, are the following,

$$\Sigma_{+}^{0} = S^{2}$$

$$\Sigma_{+}^{1} = T^{2}$$

$$\Sigma_{+}^{2} = T^{2} \# T^{2}$$

$$\Sigma_{+}^{g} = T^{2} \# \dots \# T^{2} \text{ (g times)}$$

These are orientable surfaces of genus g.

**Proposition.**  $\chi(\Sigma_+^g) = 2 - 2g$ 

*Proof.* We proceed by induction on g. This is clearly true for g=0  $(\chi(S^2)=2)$  and g=1  $(\chi(T^2)=0)$ . Suppose this is true for some  $g\geq 1$ , then,

$$\Sigma_+^{g+1} = \Sigma_+^g \# \Sigma_+^1$$

$$\chi(\Sigma_{+}^{g+1}) = \chi(\Sigma_{+}^{g}) + \chi(\Sigma_{+}^{1}) - 2$$
$$= 2 - 2g + 0 - 2$$
$$= 2 - 2(g+1)$$

Corollary. Over any field  $\mathbb{F}$ ,

$$H_k(\Sigma_+^g; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0\\ \mathbb{F}^{2g} & k = 1\\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2\\ 0 & k > 2 \end{cases}$$

**Example.** The following are examples of non-orientable surfaces,

$$\Sigma_{-}^{0} = \mathbb{R}P(2)$$

$$\Sigma_{-}^{1} = \mathbb{R}P(2) \# \mathbb{R}P(2) \ (\cong) \text{ Klein bottle}$$

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

Proposition.  $\chi(\Sigma_{-}^{g}) = 1 - g$ 

*Proof.* We proceed by induction.

$$\Sigma_{-}^{0} = \mathbb{R}P(2), \ \chi(\Sigma_{-}^{0}) = 1$$

hence is true for g = 0. Suppose this is true for  $g \ge 0$ , then,

$$\Sigma_{-}^{g+1} = \Sigma_{-}^{g} \# \mathbb{R}P(2)$$

and so on. Then,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \chi(\Sigma_{-}^{g+1}) & = & \chi(\Sigma_{-}^{g}) + \chi(\mathbb{R}P(2)) - 2 \\ & = & (1-g) + 1 - 2 \\ & = & 1 - (g+1) \end{array}$$

**Proposition.** If  $1 + 1 \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{F}$ , then,

$$H_k(\Sigma_-^g; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0\\ \mathbb{F}^g & k = 1\\ 0 & k \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

*Proof.*  $H_2(\Sigma_-^g; \mathbb{F}) = 0$  by the Orientation theorem. We know

$$H_0(\Sigma_-^g; \mathbb{F}) = \mathbb{F} \text{ (connected)}$$

Then,

$$\begin{split} \chi_{\text{hom}}(\Sigma_{-}^g) &= h_0^{\mathbb{F}} - h_1^{\mathbb{F}} + h_2^{\mathbb{F}} \\ 1 - g &= 1 - h_1^{\mathbb{F}} + 0 \\ h_1^{\mathbb{F}} &= g \end{split}$$

hence

$$H_1(\Sigma_-^g; \mathbb{F}) = \mathbb{F}^g$$

**Proposition.** If 1 + 1 = 0 in  $\mathbb{F}$ , then,

$$H_k(\Sigma_-^g; \mathbb{F}) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & k = 0 \\ \mathbb{F}^{g+1} & k = 1 \\ \mathbb{F} & k = 2 \end{cases}$$

*Proof.*  $\chi = 1 - g$  but now

$$h_0^{\mathbb{F}} = 1, h_2^{\mathbb{F}} = 1 \ (1+1=0)$$

and thus

$$h_1^{\mathbb{F}} = g + 1$$

**Theorem** (Classification Theorem for Surfaces). Let  $\Sigma$  be a finite connected surface.

1. If  $\Sigma$  is orientable, then,

$$\Sigma \sim \Sigma_+^g$$
 for some  $g \ge 0$ 

2. If  $\Sigma$  is non-orientable, then,

$$\Sigma \sim \Sigma_{-}^{g}$$
 for some  $g \geq 0$ 

The homology groups of the surfaces distinguishes them, i.e.,

$$\Sigma_{+}^{g} \sim \Sigma_{+}^{h} \iff g = h$$

$$\Sigma_{-}^{g} \sim \Sigma_{-}^{h} \iff g = h$$

$$\Sigma_{+}^{g} \not\sim \Sigma_{-}^{g}$$

One non-trivial relation is

$$\mathbb{R}P(2)\#T^2 \sim \mathbb{R}P(2)\#\mathbb{R}P(2)\#\mathbb{R}P(2)$$

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

**Definition** (Simplicial surface). A simplicial surface  $\Sigma$  is a complex in which

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

where v is a vertex of  $\Sigma$  ( $N \ge 3$ ). 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  $\Sigma$  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  $\tau_0, \tau_1$ , so then

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

are the two 2-simplices which contain  $\rho$ .

### 5.2 Copath

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

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

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

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

*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  $\rho$  lies in exactly two 2-simplices which are  $\sigma, \sigma'$  and now  $(\sigma, \sigma')$  is a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma'$
- 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  $\sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_N$  is a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma'$ .

4.  $\sigma \cap \sigma' = \emptyset$ . Let N be a shortest path from a vertex v of  $\sigma$  to a vertex v' of  $\sigma'$ . 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  $\tau$ .  $\sigma \cap \tau = \{v\}$  so there exists a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\tau$ . Similarly,  $\sigma' \cap \tau = \{v'\}$  so there exists a copath from  $\tau$  to  $\sigma'$ . Compare the two copaths to get a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma'$ .

Now for our induction step (assume hypothesis proved for N-1), let  $v \in \sigma$ ,  $v' \in \sigma'$ . Let  $(w_0, \ldots, w_M)$  be a shortest path from v to v'. Let  $\tau$  be any 2-simplex such that  $w_{m-1} \in \tau$ . By our induction hypothesis, there exists a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\tau$ . By the induction base, there exists a copath from  $\tau$  to  $\sigma'$ . Compose the two copaths to get a copath from  $\sigma$  to  $\sigma'$ .

## 5.3 Orientation Theorem

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

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

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

2. If  $1+1\neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{F}$  and  $\Sigma$  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  $\Sigma$  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,

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

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

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

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

Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_N$  be a list of the 2-simplices of  $\Sigma$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_i$  fixed orientation of  $\sigma_i$ . To change the orientations on 2-simplices, we need a function

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

 $\eta(i)\hat{\sigma}_i$  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  $\rho$  and let  $\sigma_s$ ,  $\sigma_t$  be the adjacent 2-simplices which contain  $\rho$ . The coefficient of  $\hat{\rho}$  in  $\partial[\eta]$  is simply

$$[\eta(s)\hat{\sigma_s}, \hat{\rho}] + [\eta(t)\hat{\sigma_t}, \hat{\rho}] = \begin{cases} 2\\0\\-2 \end{cases}$$

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

$$[\eta(s)\hat{\sigma_s}, \hat{\rho}] + [\eta(t)\hat{\sigma_t}, \hat{\rho}] = 0$$

i.e.,

$$\langle \eta(s)\hat{\sigma_s}, \hat{\rho}\rangle + \langle \eta(t)\hat{\sigma_t}, \hat{\rho}\rangle = 0 \ (*)$$

whenever  $\sigma_s$ ,  $\sigma_t$  are adjacent, and now we know  $\Sigma$  is orientable if and only if there exists a function

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

such that we have (\*) whenever  $\sigma_s$ ,  $\sigma_t$  are adjacent.

So when  $\Sigma$  is orientable and  $\eta: \{1, \ldots, N\} \to \{\pm 1\}$  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  $\Sigma$  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  $\rho$  is a 1-simplex and  $\sigma_s, \sigma_t$  are adjacent 2-simplices which contain  $\rho$ .

We calculate  $\partial(\sum a_s\sigma_s)$ . The coefficients of  $\hat{\rho}$  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  $\sigma_s$ ,  $\sigma_t$  are adjacent. So going along a copath, coefficients  $a_s$  are constant up to sign.

Fix a "base 2-simplex"  $\sigma_0$  and suppose

$$\partial(\sum a_s \hat{\sigma_s}) = 0$$

Then going along a copath from  $\sigma_0$  to  $\sigma_s$ , we find that  $a_s = \pm a_0$ . Define  $\eta: \{1, \ldots, N\} \to \{\pm 1\}$  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  $\Sigma$  is orientable, there exists global orientation  $\eta: \{1, \ldots, N\} \to \{\pm 1\}$  and  $[\eta]$  generates  $H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F})$ 

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

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

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

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

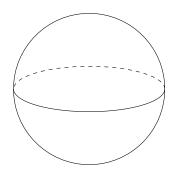
$$H_2(\Sigma; \mathbb{F}) = 0$$

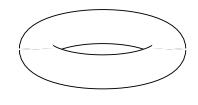
However if 1 + 1 = 0, then

$$\partial(\sum_{s=1}^{N}\hat{\sigma_s})=0$$

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.





$$\Sigma_0^+, S^2$$
, genus = 0

$$\Sigma_1^+, T^2$$
, genus = 1

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

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

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

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

We also have

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

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

$$\Sigma_g^+ \sim \Sigma_h^+ \implies g = h$$

$$\Sigma_g^- \sim \Sigma_h^- \implies g = h$$

$$\Sigma_g^+ \not\sim \Sigma_h^- \text{ for any } g, h$$

# 6 Some linear algebra

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

$$Tr(AB) = Tr(BA)$$

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

$$(AB)_{ki} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{kj} b_{ji}$$

$$(AB)_{kk} = \sum_{j} a_{kj} b_{jk}$$

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

and we know

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

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

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

**Remark.** Note that in general  $Tr(AB) \neq Tr(A)Tr(B)$ . 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

$$Tr(A) = Tr(B) = 0$$
,  $Tr(AB) = 2$ 

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

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

Proof.

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

## 6.1 Trace of a linear map

Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}$ . Let  $X:V\to V$  be a linear map. Take a basis  $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$  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  $Tr(X) = Tr(\xi) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \xi_{ji}$ 

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

$$X \sim (\eta)$$

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

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

Consequently

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

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

$$Tr(X) = Tr(\xi)$$

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

**Proposition** (Additivity of Tr). Let

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

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

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

$$\downarrow^{T_U} \qquad \downarrow^{T_V} \qquad \downarrow^{T_W}$$

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

then

$$Tr(T_V) = Tr(T_U) + Tr(T_W)$$

**Lemma.** Let  $T: V \to V$  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  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_k\}$  be a basis for U. Extend to a basis  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_k, f_1, \ldots, f_q\}$  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  $\{e_1,\ldots,e_k,f_1,\ldots,f_q\}$ . Write

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

so the matrix of T has block form,

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

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

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

*Proof.* (of proposition) Let  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_k\}$  be a basis for U, and  $\{\phi_1, \ldots, \phi_q\}$  be basis for W. For all r, choose  $f_r \in V$ ,  $p(f_r) = \phi_r$ . Then,  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_k\} \cup \{f_1, \ldots, f_q\}$  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  $A = \text{matrix of } T_U$ , and factoring out U,

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

hence

$$Tr(T_V) = Tr(A) + Tr(D)$$
  
=  $Tr(T_U) + Tr(T_W)$ 

## 7 Lefschetz Fixed Simplex Theorem

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

$$\lambda(f) = \sum_{k} (-1)^{k} Tr(H_{k}(f))$$

If  $\lambda(f) \neq 0$  then there exists a simplex  $\sigma$  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).

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

where  $C_k(f): C_k(K; \mathbb{F}) \to C_{k-1}(K; \mathbb{F})$  is the mapping induced by f.

**Definition** (Homological Lefschetz index).

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

Proposition.

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

Proof.

$$0 \longrightarrow Z_{k}(K) \longrightarrow C_{k}(K) \longrightarrow B_{k-1}(K) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{Z_{k}(f)} \qquad \downarrow^{C_{k}(F)} \qquad \downarrow^{B_{k-1}(f)}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow Z_{k}(K) \longrightarrow C_{k}(K) \longrightarrow B_{k-1}(K) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$Z_{k}(K) = \ker \partial_{k}, B_{k-1}(K) = \operatorname{im}(\partial_{k})$$

SO

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

and we also have

$$0 \longrightarrow B_k(K) \longrightarrow Z_k(K) \longrightarrow H_k(K) \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{B_k(f)} \qquad \downarrow^{Z_k(F)} \qquad \downarrow^{H_k(f)}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow B_k(K) \longrightarrow Z_k(K) \longrightarrow H_k(K) \longrightarrow 0$$

where both the rows are exact, so

$$Tr(Z_k(f)) = Tr(H_k(f)) + Tr(B_k(f))$$
 (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  $C_k(f): C_k(K) \to C_k(K)$ . If  $\sigma$  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,  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_N$ .  $C_k(f)$  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 if 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,

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

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

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

In the contrapositive,

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

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

Recall that

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

$$H_0(f) = \mathrm{id} : H_0(K) \to H_0(K)$$

*Proof.* IF v, w are vertices of K, then  $|v| - |w| \in \Im \partial_1$ , so [v] = [w] in  $H_0(K)$ . Hence [f(v)] = [v] in  $H_0(K)$  for any vertex v. But any vertex v generates  $H_0(K)$  connected), so

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

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

$$Tr H_0(K) = 1$$

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

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

then  $\lambda(f) = 1$ .

**Corollary.** If  $f: K \to K$  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  $\sigma$  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  $f: K \to K$  fixes a simplex.

**Example.**  $K \sim \Delta^n$ , any simplicial  $f: K \to K$  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,

$$|\Delta^n| = \{t_0 e_0 + t_1 e_1 + \ldots + t_n e_n \mid t_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=0}^n t_i = 1\}$$

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

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

$$|f|: |\Delta^n| \to |\Delta^n|$$
  
 $|f|(\sum t_i e_i) \to \sum t_i f(e_i)$ 

f permutes  $e_0, \ldots, e_n,$ 

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

so if  $g: K \to K$  is a simplicial map, K a finite complex, we get a continuous mapping  $(!) |g|: |K| \to |K|$ . 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):  $K(m) \to K(m)$  has a fixed simplex K(m) (subdivision of K), then any continuous  $f: X \to X$  has a fixed point.

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

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

SO

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

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

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

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

# 8 Posets and products

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,  $S^2 \times S^2 \ncong S^4$  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  $X \times X$ 

 $1. \ x \le x \ \forall x$ 

$$2. \ x \leq y \land y \leq 2 \implies x \leq z$$

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  $(X \times Y, \preccurlyeq)$  where

$$(x,y) \preccurlyeq (x',y') \iff (x \le x') \land (y \le' y')$$

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

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

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,  $\{v_0, \ldots, v_n\}$ . X embeds in  $\Delta^N$ ,

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

 $\Delta^N$  = nerve on totally ordered set  $0 \le 1 \le \dots N$ 

so each simplex  $\sigma$  of X is totally ordered.

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

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

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  $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$ ,  $\sigma$  is totally ordered, so any simplicial complex can be regarded as an ordered simplicial complex,

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

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

### Example.

$$\Delta^n = N(\{0, \dots, n\})$$

under the standard ordering.

#### Definition.

$$\Delta^m \times \Delta^n = N(\{o, \dots, m\} \times \{0, \dots, n\})$$

 $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$  has dimension m+n and has  $\frac{(m+n)!}{m!n!}$  principal simplices.

**Example**  $(\Delta^1 \times \Delta^1)$ . placeholder

Every finite simplicial complex K can be represented as an *ordered*  $simplicial\ complex$ , as shown before.

### 8.1 Product structure on $X \times Y$

Let X, Y be finite simplicial complexes. Represent them as ordered simplicial complexes. If  $\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X$ ,  $\tau \in \mathcal{S}_Y$ , we make the isomorphisms

$$\sigma \cong \Delta^m, \ \tau \cong \Delta^n$$

Write

$$X = \bigcup_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X} \sigma, \ Y = \bigcup_{\tau \in \mathcal{S}_Y} \tau$$

and

$$X \times Y = \bigcup_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_X, \tau \in \mathcal{S}_Y} \sigma \times \tau$$

and each  $\sigma \times \tau$  is triangulated as explained before.

It can be shown up to combinatorial equivalence that this is independent of orderings chosen on X, Y.

Now we wish to prove

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

Recall the Künneth theorem,

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

In the special case where  $Y = \Delta^m$ ,

$$H_{n-k}(Y) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F} & n-k = 0\\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

so as a special case, we do have

$$H_*(X \times \Delta^m) \cong H_*(X)$$

which we will prove.

Fix  $\Delta^m$ . For any simplicial complex X, we have simplicial maps

$$i: X \to X \times \Delta^m, \ i(v) = (v, 0)$$

$$\pi: X \times \Delta^m \to X, \ \pi(x,y) = x$$

Both maps induce isomorphisms on  $H_*$ , so we will just prove this for i. Let P(n,k) denote the statement,

If X is finite complex of  $\dim(X) \leq n$  having at most k simplices of dimension n,

then 
$$i: H_*(X; \mathbb{F}) \to H_*(X \times \Delta^m; \mathbb{F})$$
 is an isomorphism

We first show that P(n,0) is true for all n, i.e.,

$$i:\Delta^n\to\Delta^n\times\Delta^m$$
 induces isomorphisms

$$i_*: H_*(\Delta^n) \to H_*(\Delta^n \times \Delta^m)$$

Let  $(A, \leq)$  be a poset. We say that A has a maximum when there exists  $a \in A$  such that for all  $b \in A$ ,  $b \leq a$ .

**Proposition.** If  $(A, \leq)$  has a maximum then  $N(A, \leq)$  is a cone.

*Proof.* Let a be a maximum element. Define  $A' = A - \{a\}$ .  $(A', \leq)$  is still a poset, and  $N(A, \leq)$  is a cone on  $N(A', \leq)$  with cone point a.  $\square$ 

Now note that  $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$  has maximum (m, n), so  $\Delta^m \times \Delta^n$  is a cone.

### Corollary.

$$i_*: H_*(\Delta^n) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_*(\Delta^n \times \Delta^m)$$

and P(n,0) is true for all n.

**Proposition.** P(0, k) is true for all k.

*Proof.* Here X is a 0-dimensional complex with k-points. Note that for k = 0, this isnt true, so P(0,0) is true. We proceed by induction.

Suppose that the statement is proven for k-1. Then

$$X = X_0 \sqcup \{x_k\} \ X_0 = \{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$$

By hypothesis

$$H_*(X_0 \times \Delta^m) \cong \bigoplus_{r=1}^{k-1} H_*(\{x_r\} \times \Delta^m) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{F}^{k-1} & * = 0 \\ 0 & * \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$X \cap X_0 = \emptyset$$
,  $H_*(X \cap X_0) = 0$  for all  $*$ 

Using the Mayer-Vietories sequence,

$$H_*((X_0 \sqcup \{x_k\}) \times \Delta^m) \cong H_*(X_0 \times \Delta^m) \oplus H_*(\{x_k\} \times \Delta^m)$$

We know

$$H_*((X_0 \sqcup \{x_k\}) \times \Delta^m) \cong H_*(X)$$

and

$$H_*(X_0 \times \Delta^m) \oplus H_*(\lbrace x_k \rbrace \times \Delta^m) \cong H_*(X_0) \oplus H_*(\lbrace x_k \rbrace)$$

so P(0, k) for all k.

Now let  $P(n) = \wedge_{k \geq 0} P(n, k)$ . So now we know P(0) is true. Also,  $P(n, 0) \equiv P(n - 1) \ (P(n, 0); \text{ no } n\text{-simplices}).$ 

P(n,1) is true for all n. It is enough to prove

$$P(n, k-1) \wedge P(n-1) \implies P(n, k)$$

*Proof.* Take X to be a finite complex of dimension less than or equal to n with exactly k simplices of dimension n.

Let  $X_0$  be the complex obtained by removing an *n*-simplex  $\sigma \cong \Delta^n$ ,

$$X = X_0 \cup \sigma$$

 $X_0 \cap \sigma$  has dimension  $\leq n-1$ .

$$H_{p}(X_{0} \cap \sigma) \longrightarrow H_{p}(X_{0}) \oplus H_{p}(\sigma) \longrightarrow H_{p}(X) \longrightarrow \downarrow_{i_{*}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow_{i_{*}} \qquad \longrightarrow H_{p}(X \times \Delta^{m}) \longrightarrow H_{p}(X \times \Delta^{m}) \longrightarrow H_{p}(X \times \Delta^{m}) \longrightarrow H_{p-1}(X_{0} \cap \sigma) \longrightarrow H_{p-1}(X_{0}) \oplus H_{p-1}(\sigma) \qquad \downarrow_{i_{*}} \qquad \downarrow_{\mathcal{I}} \qquad \downarrow_{\mathcal{I}} \qquad \downarrow_{\mathcal{I}} \qquad \longrightarrow H_{p-1}(X_{0} \cap \sigma \times \Delta^{m}) \longrightarrow H_{p-1}(X_{0} \times \Delta^{m}) \oplus H_{p-1}(\sigma \times \Delta^{m}) \qquad \text{where} \qquad \mathcal{I} = \begin{pmatrix} i_{*} & 0 \\ 0 & i_{*} \end{pmatrix}$$

Both rows are exact. The outer arrows are isomorphisms. Hence  $i_*: H_p(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} H_p(X \times \Delta^m)$  is isomorphic for all p, so

$$P(n, k-1) \wedge P(n-1) \implies P(n, k)$$