1 Elementary Definitions and Observations

1.1 3-Homogeneous Simplicial Complexes

Let V be a finite set of cardinality at least 3. A 3-homogeneous simplicial complex, or simply a complex, on V is a non-empty family K of subsets of V, each of which is called a simplex, such that

- any 1-subset of V is a simplex,
- 2. any non empty subset of a simplex is a simplex, and
- 3. any simplex is contained in a simplex consisting of 3 points.

The set V is sometimes called the underlying set of the complex K.

The simplexes consisting of 1,2, and 3 points are called, respectively, the vertexes, the edges, and the triangles of K. In the sequel, we let V(K) denote the set of vertexes of K, E(K) the set of edges of E(K), and E(K) the set of triangles of E(K). Without loss of generality, the elements of E(K) and E(K) are considered as identical. In addition, we shall identify a simplex with the set of vertexes that determines the simplex whenever the situation is more convenient.

A subfamily J of K which is a complex whose underlying set is contained in the underlying set V of K is said to be a subcomplex of K, denoted $J \preceq K$. Clearly, given any two complexes J and K, $J \preceq K$ if and only if $max(J) \subseteq max(K)$. A subcomplex J of a complex K such that $J \neq K$ is said to be proper. In this case, we write $J \prec K$.

For geometrical definitions of complexes, refer to [1, 9, 16, 18].

Example 1 Let V be a finite set of no less than 3 points. A very natural complex on V is given by the family of all 3-subsets of V and their non empty subsets. Indeed, it is the largest complex on V.

Example 2 Let $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Then each of the following families is a complex on V:

```
 \begin{split} ^1K_1 &= \{123,124,12,13,14,23,24,1,2,3,4\}, \\ K_2 &= \{123,124,134,12,13,14,23,24,34,1,2,3,4\}, \text{ and } \\ K_3 &= \{123,124,134,234,12,13,14,23,24,34,1,2,3,4\}. \\ \textit{Note that } K_1 \preceq K_2 \preceq K_3. \end{split}
```

Example 3 Let $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. A complex on V is $\{123, 345, 12, 13, 23, 34, 35, 45, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

1.2 Connectedness and Hyper Connectedness

In this section, we introduce two related notions: connectedness and hyper connectedness. It can be seen easily that hyper connected complexes form a proper subcollection of connected complexes.

1.2.1 Connectedness

A path in a complex K is a sequence x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n of no fewer than two distinct elements in V(K) such that $x_i \neq x_j$ for all $i \neq j$, except possibly $x_1 = x_n$, and $x_k x_{k+1} \in E(K)$ for $k = 1, 2, \cdots, n-1$.

A complex K is said to be connected if for all $u,v\in V(K)$ such that $u\neq v$, there is a path along the edges of K initiated by u and terminated by v. We may see immediately that the complex K is connected if and only if given any two distinct $\delta,\delta'\in max(K)$, there is a sequence $\delta=\delta_1,\delta_2,\cdots,\delta_s=\delta'$ in max(K) such that $\delta_k\sim \delta_{k+1}\neq\emptyset$ for $k=1,2,\cdots,s-1$. A component of K is a maximal connected subcomplex of K. Refer to [1,9,16,18].

1.2.2 Hyper Connectedness

A complex K is said to be hyper connected if given any $\delta, \delta' \in max(K)$, then either

1.
$$\delta = \delta'$$
, or

 $^{^{1}\}text{For simplicity, we have written, say 123, for } \{1,2,3\}.$ Unless stated otherwise, we shall adopt this shorthand convention in the sequel.

there is a finite sequence δ = δ₁, δ₂, ···, δ_s = δ' in max(K) of which
any two consecutive elements in the sequence, that is, δ_i and δ_{i+1} for
i = 1, 2, ···, s - 1, share an edge.

There is another equivalent definition:

Proposition 1 Let K be a complex. Then K is hyper connected if and only if

- 1. K consists of exactly one triangle, or
- given any proper subcomplex J of K, namely J ≺ K, the subcomplex J' such that max(J') = max(K)\max(J) possesses an edge in common with J.

Proof. Suppose K is hyper connected. If K possesses only one triangle, then the conclusion is trivial. Suppose K consists of no less than two triangles. Let $\delta \in J$ and $\delta' \in J'$. Since K is hyper connected, there is a sequence $\delta = \delta_1, \delta_2, \cdots, \delta_s = \delta'$ in $\max(K)$ of which any two consecutive elements in the sequence share an edge. Let j be the largest integer such that $\delta_j \in J$, so that $\delta_{j+1} \in J'$. It then follows that J and J' share the edge which is common to both δ_j and δ_{j+1} . More explicitly, $\delta_j \frown \delta_{j+1}$ forms an edge in both J and J'.

Conversely, let $\delta, \delta' \in max(K)$. Note that if we let $max(J) = \{\delta\}$, then δ and J' have an edge in common by hypothesis. This implies that there is an element $\delta_2 \in max(J')$ such that $\delta \sim \delta_2 \in E(K)$. If $max(K) = \{\delta, \delta_2\}$, we're done. Otherwise, we let $max(J) = \{\delta, \delta_2\}$ and proceed analogously. Since max(K) is finite, it can be seen easily that there must be a sequence $\delta = \delta_1, \delta_2, \cdots, \delta_s = \delta'$ in max(K) of which any two consecutive elements in the sequence share an edge, showing that K is hyper connected.

q.e.d.

Obviously, a hyper connected complex is connected, but the converse may be false. The complexes illustrated in example 1 and example 2 are both hyper connected. The complex in example 3 is connected, but not hyper connected.

Two interesting families of hyper connected complexes are pseudosurfaces and surfaces. See [1, 9, 18].

A subcomplex J of a complex K may or may not be hyper connected. The subcomplex J is said to be a hyper component of K if J is hyper connected, and the union of J with any $\delta \in \max(K) \backslash \max(J)$ and the vertexes and edges contained in δ yields a subcomplex of K which is no longer hyper connected. In other words, J is a hyper component of K if and only if J is a maximal hyper connected subcomplex of K.

Throughout, we shall let h(K) denote the number of hyper components of K. Clearly, h(K)=1 if and only if K is hyper connected.

Example 4 Let K be the complex given in example 3. We may check easily that h(K) = 2.

1.3 The Incidence Quotients of Complexes

Suppose there are two complexes K and L. One question immediately arises: how do we recognise whether K and L are identical despite the labelling of their vertexes?

We say that the complexes K and L are identical, or more formally, isomorphic, denoted $K \simeq L$, if there is a bijective correspondence f, which is known as an isomorphism, mapping V(K) onto V(L) such that $xy\cdots z \in K$ if and only if $f(x)f(y)\cdots f(z) \in L$ where $x,y,\cdots,z \in V(K)$. The complex L is then called an isomorphic image of K, and vice versa. To emphasize the isomorphism f, we write $K \stackrel{L}{\simeq} L$. Refer to [1,9,16].

We may now rephrase the question: how do we determine whether $K \simeq L$? To partially resolve the question, we proceed to implant some algebraic structures into the complexes.

Let K be a complex. The group of 1-chains $C_1(K)$ of K is defined as the additive free abelian group on V(K). The group of 3-chains $C_3(K)$ of K is similarly defined on $\max(K)$. Next, we let the incidence operator D_3^2 be the homomorphism from $C_3(K)$ into $C_1(K)$ such that

$$D_3^2(\delta) = x + y + z$$

in which x, y, and z are the vertexes of δ for each $\delta \in max(K)$.

For computational convenience, we may sometimes write $\alpha \equiv \beta(D_3^2(C_3(K_3)))$

))), or simply $\alpha \equiv \beta$ whenever the complex K involved is clear, to denote that $\alpha - \beta \in D^2_3(C_3(K))$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in C_1(K)$. In this case, we say that α is congruent to β . Otherwise, α and β are said to be not congruent, denoted $\alpha \not\equiv \beta$.

The incidence quotient Q(K) of K is simply the factor group of $C_1(K)$ over the set of images under D_3^2 , namely

$$Q(K) = C_1(K)/D_3^2(C_3(K)).$$

Note that since the incidence operator D_3^2 is a linear map, we may regard D_3^2 as an incidence matrix. Refer to [8, 20]. The incidence quotient Q(K) of a given complex K can be interpreted as a two-step homology group of the complex. See [5]. For general background on homology groups, see [1, 9, 13, 16, 18].

For simplicity, we may identify any element of Q(K) with the corresponding 1-chain. In particular, if $x \in V(K)$, then $x + D_3^2(C_3(K))$ is written as x whenever it is more convenient. Furthermore, the symbol 0 may represent the set of images under D_3^2 , namely $D_3^2(C_3(K))$, instead of the zero 1-chain. This shall be clear from the context.

Note that V(K) is then a system of generators for Q(K). One of our objectives is to find a minimal system of generators, which is a subset of V(K), for Q(K). We shall see in later sections that we have been successful in certain cases, especially in dealing with hyper connected complexes.

Before we proceed further, we state an obvious observation.

Proposition 2 Let K and L be two complexes. Then $K \simeq L$ implies that $D^2_3(C_3(K)) \cong D^2_3(C_3(L))$ and $Q(K) \cong Q(L)$.

Proof. Let
$$K \stackrel{f}{\simeq} L$$
. Define $\mu : D_3^2(C_3(K)) \to D_3^2(C_3(L))$ such that
$$\sum_{z \in V(K)} j_z x \stackrel{\mu}{\mapsto} \sum_{z \in V(L)} j_z f(x)$$

for any sequence $\{j_x\}_{x\in V(K)}$ of integers such that $\sum_{x\in V(K)}j_xx\in D^2_3(C_3(K))$. Suppose $\sum_{x\in V(K)}j_xx\in D^2_3(C_3(K))$, so that

$$\begin{array}{l} \sum_{x \in V(K)} j_x x = D_3^2(\sum_{\delta \in max(K)} n_\delta(x_\delta y_\delta z_\delta)) \\ = \sum_{\delta \in max(K)} n_\delta(x_\delta + y_\delta + z_\delta) \end{array}$$

for a sequence $\{n_\delta\}_{\delta \in max(K)}$ of integers, in which $\delta = x_\delta y_\delta z_\delta$ for each $\delta \in max(K)$. It follows immediately that the sum of all coefficients of a vertex $x \in V(K)$ in the above summation is given by $\sum_{x \in \delta, \delta \in max(K)} n_\delta$, which is equivalent to saying that

$$j_x = \sum_{x \in \delta, \delta \in max(K)} n_{\delta}$$
.

Therefore,

$$\begin{array}{l} \sum_{x \in V(K)} j_x f(x) = \sum_{x \in V(K)} (\sum_{x \in \delta, \delta \in \max(K)} n_\delta) f(x) \\ = \sum_{\delta \in \max(K)} n_\delta f(x_\delta) + f(y_\delta) + f(z_\delta)) \\ = D_3^2 (\sum_{\delta \in \max(K)} n_\delta f(x_\delta) f(y_\delta) f(z_\delta))) \end{array}$$

since f is bijective . Thus, $\sum_{x \in V(K)} j_x x \xrightarrow{\mu} \sum_{x \in V(K)} j_x f(x) \in D^2_3(C_3(L))$ and μ is well-defined.

That μ is an isomorphism follows from the facts that $V(L) = \{f(x) | x \in V(K)\}$ is a basis of $C_1(L)$, and that f is invertible. Hence, $D_3^2(C_3(K)) \cong D_3^2(C_3(L))$.

We may indeed extend the domain of definition of μ so that it is an isomorphism from $C_1(K)$ onto $C_1(L)$, which then induces a canonical epimorphism from $C_1(K)$ onto Q(L) whose kernel is given by $D_3^2(C_3(K))$, showing that $Q(K) \cong Q(L)$.

q.e.d.

2 The Equivalence Relation on the Set of Vertexes

2.1 The Equivalence Relation on the Set of Vertexes

To give a geometrical interpretation to the incidence quotient Q(K) of a complex K, we introduce an equivalence relation on V(K).

Let $x, y \in V(K)$. We say that x is equivalent to y, denoted $x \sim y$, if either

- x = y, or
- there is a finite sequence x = x₁, x₂, · · · , x_n = y in V(K) such that to
 each pair of consecutive elements in the sequence, namely x_i and x_{i+1}