

CS 7301.003.20F Lecture 22–November 2, 2020

Main topics are `#simplicial_homology`.

Homology

- A few weeks ago, we discussed the minimum cut problem in surface embedded graphs.
- To solve it quickly, I introduced a tool from algebraic topology called *homology*, albeit in the restricted case of homology in a surface embedding with coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_2 .
- Today, we're going to generalize the idea. As before, it's used to learn about 'cycles' in topological spaces, kind of like homotopy. But while two homotopic cycles are always homologous, homology is a bit courser. It also works on things we wouldn't normally call cycles like even subgraphs.
- And it's a lot easier to compute things with homology as we'll see.

Oriented Simplices, Chains, and Boundary Maps

- Let X be a finite simplicial complex (a proper Delta-complex). These ideas extend to generalizations like polytopal complexes and these things called CW-complexes that I didn't have time to discuss last Monday.
- To define homology, we're going to need to assign an arbitrary *orientation* to each simplex in X . An orientation of a simplex is one of the two equivalence classes of permutations of its vertices, where two permutations are equivalent if they have an even number of inversions compared to one another.
- We can write an oriented simplex as a sequence of its vertices $\sigma := [x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k]$. Let $-\sigma$ denote the same simplex in the opposite orientation. For example, an orientation of the triangle with vertices x, y , and z can be denoted in a few different ways:
 - $[x, y, z] = -[x, z, y] = [z, x, y] = -[z, y, x] = [y, z, x] = -[y, x, z]$
- Now, fix a non-negative integer k . Let X_k denote the oriented k -dimensional simplices in X and $n_k := |X_k|$.
- A k -chain over X is a function $\alpha : X_k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\alpha(-\sigma) = -\alpha(\sigma)$. You could also think of it as a vector of n_k integers, one per k -simplex in X .
- For the sake of notation, we may also represent a k -chain as a formal sum $\sum_i \alpha_i \Delta_{\{k, i\}}$ where each α_i is an integer and each $\Delta_{\{k, i\}}$ is the i th oriented k -simplex in X .
- The set of all k -chains form an abelian (commutative) group under addition, isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}^{n_k} , called the k th chain group $C_k(X)$.
- There's nothing particular special about us using the integers, and any coefficient ring R will do. For example, we already played with $R = \mathbb{Z}_2$, making k -chains 0-1 vectors, or

equivalently, a subset of the k -simplices. If R is a field, then the group $C_k(X)$ is a vector space. Otherwise, like with $R = \mathbb{Z}$, it is merely an R -module which doesn't have scalar division.

- The boundary partial sigma of an oriented k -simplex sigma is a $(k - 1)$ -chain, defined as a weighted sum of facets of sigma:

$$\partial[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] := \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i [x_0, x_1, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_k]$$

where $[x_0, x_1, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_k]$ is the facet opposite of vertex x_i . So for example,

$$\begin{aligned} \partial[w, x, y, z] &:= [x, y, z] - [w, y, z] + [w, x, z] - [w, x, y] \\ \partial[x, y, z] &:= [y, z] - [x, z] + [x, y] \\ \partial[x, y] &:= [y] - [x] \\ \partial[x] &:= [] \end{aligned}$$

- The boundary function is antisymmetric: $\partial(-\sigma) = -\partial\sigma$.
- And we can extend the boundary function linearly to k -chains, giving us the k th boundary homomorphism $\partial_k : C_k(X) \rightarrow C_{k-1}(X)$.
- Because ∂_k is linear, we can represent it using an $n_{k-1} \times n_k$ integer matrix with entries in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$. Hit the matrix on the vector for a k -chain to get its boundary's vector.
- Something interesting happens when you take the boundary of a boundary.
- Lemma: $\partial_{k-1} \circ \partial_k = 0$ for all $k \geq 2$
 - Boundary functions are linear, so it suffices to show the boundary of the boundary of a k -simplex is the empty $(k - 2)$ -chain.

$$\begin{aligned} &\partial_{k-1}(\partial_k[x_0, \dots, x_d]) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^d (-1)^i \partial_{k-1}[x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_d] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^d (-1)^i \left(\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} (-1)^j [x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_j, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_d] + \sum_{j=i+1}^d (-1)^{j-1} [x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, \hat{x}_j, \dots, x_d] \right) \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq j < i \leq d} (-1)^{i+j} [x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_j, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_d] - \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq d} (-1)^{i+j} [x_0, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, \hat{x}_j, \dots, x_d] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

- (except replace every d in the equations above with k)

Cycles and Homology

- There are two important subgroups of $C_k(X)$ that we need to discuss before finally getting to homology.
- A k -cycle is a k -chain α such that $\partial_k \alpha = 0$.
- A k -boundary is a k -chain α such that $\alpha = \partial_{k+1} \beta$ for some $(k + 1)$ -chain β .
- The previous lemma implies every k -boundary is a k -cycle, but not every cycle is a boundary.
- The k -cycles and k -boundaries form subgroups of $C_k(X)$ called the k th cycle group $Z_k(X)$

and the k th boundary group $B_k(X)$. By definition

$$Z_k(X) := \ker \partial_k \text{ and } B_k(X) := \text{im } \partial_{k+1}$$

- And if you prefer to think in terms of linear algebra:

∂_k $B_k(X)$ $Z_k(X)$	linear map $C_k \rightarrow C_{k-1}$ $\text{im } \partial_{k+1}$ $\ker \partial_k$	$n_{k-1} \times n_k$ integer matrix row space of ∂_{k+1} right null space of ∂_k
Equivalent definitions of the cycle and boundary groups.		

- These are also free abelian groups, meaning they are each isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}^c for some integer c .
- Now we can finally define homology equivalence classes.
- Two k -cycles α and β are *homologous* if the k -cycle $\alpha - \beta$ is a k -boundary. Again, α lies in the *homology (equivalence) class* $[\alpha]$ and addition of homology classes is well defined as $[\alpha] + [\beta] := [\alpha + \beta]$.
- Homology classes of k -cycles under addition form the k th homology group $H_k(X)$.
- It can also be defined as a quotient group:

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

- This group is an abelian group, but it is not free in general.
- However, we can use a fact from abstract algebra: Since it is a finitely-generated abelian group, it is isomorphic to a product of cyclic groups:

$$H_k(X) \cong \mathbb{Z}^{\beta_k(X)} \oplus \bigoplus_i (\mathbb{Z}/d_i\mathbb{Z})$$

for some integers β_k and $1 \leq d_1 \leq d_2 \leq \dots \leq d_m$ where each integer d_i is a divisor of its successor d_{i+1} .

- The rank β_k of the free component of $H_k(X)$ is called the k th Betti number of X . The components $(\mathbb{Z}/d_i\mathbb{Z})$ are called *torsion subgroups*.
- Using just the examples we've seen so far in this class, I think I can offer the following intuition.
 - The k th Betti number tells you how many k -dimensional features the simplicial complex has. β_0 is the number of components. β_1 is the number of "handles" or "twists". β_2 is the number of "cavities", and so on.
 - The existence of torsion is a sign of non-orientability.
- Like before, we can define chains and other things derived from them using other coefficient rings. We use $H_k(X; R)$ to denote the k th homology group of X with coefficients in ring R . Different choices of R lead to different homology groups.
- But one nice thing is that if R is a field of characteristic zero like \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , we have $H_k(X; R) \cong R^{\beta_k}$. There's no more torsion.
- As one final note, we observe the following.
- Theorem: If X and Y are homeomorphic simplicial complexes, then $H_k(X) = H_k(Y)$.