

# 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  $\alpha_i$  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 *kth 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  $\partial_k$  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.

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

- (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  $\alpha$  such that  $\partial_k \alpha = 0$ .
- A  $k$ -boundary is a  $k$ -chain  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha = \partial_{k+1} \beta$  for some  $(k + 1)$ -chain  $\beta$ .
- 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:

$\partial_k$ $B_k(X)$ $Z_k(X)$	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 $\partial_{k+1}$ right null space of $\partial_k$
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  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are *homologous* if the  $k$ -cycle  $\alpha - \beta$  is a  $k$ -boundary. Again,  $\alpha$  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  $\beta_k$  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  $\beta_k$  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.  $\beta_0$  is the number of components.  $\beta_1$  is the number of "handles" or "twists".  $\beta_2$  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  $H_k(X) = H_k(Y)$ .