

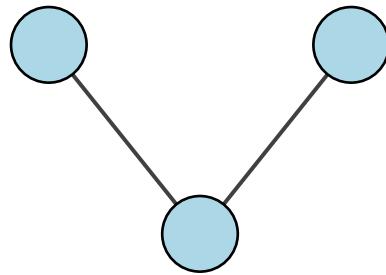
# Homology of Finite Digraphs for Beginners

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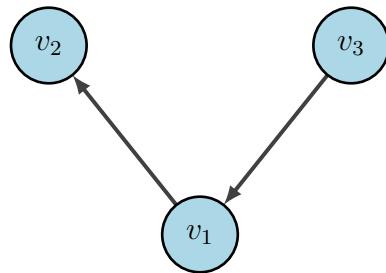
## 1 Graphs (Informal)

Informally, a graph is a collection of dots with a collection of links between them, like the picture below:



Why do we care about these objects? Graphs are extremely useful models for many real world phenomena such as road networks, cellular networks, social networks, etc. Consider the following example: for each Facebook user, create a dot in the graph. For each user's dot, create a link to another user's dot if the two users are friends. This is a classic example of a graph.

Let's start introducing some terminology. The "dots" in a graph are called **vertices**, and the "links" are called **edges**. There are also different types of graphs. The graphs we would like to concern ourselves with in this discussion are **finite directed graphs** or **finite digraphs** for short. The graph pictured above is what's known as an **undirected graph**. This is because the edges have no specified direction. One can traverse the edges freely without concern for orientation. The Facebook example we discussed is also an undirected graph since being friends with someone on Facebook requires that they be friends with you. It is a directionless relationship. So what is a **directed graph**? A directed graph is simply a graph in which the edges are given a direction. Let's take a look at an example. I will label the vertices so we can discuss direction much more clearly:



In this graph, we can travel from  $v_3$  to  $v_1$ , but we cannot travel from  $v_1$  to  $v_3$  since this edge is directed from  $v_3$  to  $v_1$ . When might we use a directed graph? Consider the following example: for each website on the

internet, create a vertex in the graph. For each website's vertex, create a directed edge to another website's vertex if the website has a link to the other website. This is a great example of a directed graph since some websites have links to others without those websites having links in return. It should be noted that some websites might have links to each other, in which case there are directed edges in both directions. These directed edges essentially function like an edge from an undirected graph.

Let's now discuss the final adjective we would like to apply to our graph: **finite**. A **finite directed graph** is simply a directed graph in which there are finite vertices and finite edges. The directed graph pictured above is an example of a finite directed graph. Many people don't even consider the possibility of graphs with infinite vertices and infinite edges upon first learning about them so the finite descriptor probably feels natural anyway.

## 2 Graphs (Formal)

We now define the notion of a finite directed graph formally. In mathematics, we must precisely define concepts in terms of concrete mathematical objects. A picture of the object is not actually the object, it is just a helpful tool for visualizing it. We first need to understand some preliminary definitions. These definitions will not be completely rigorous, but they will be rigorous *enough* for us to understand the definition of a finite directed graph.

**Definition 1:** An *n-tuple* is an ordered list of *n* items.

The formal term for an “item” in an *n*-tuple is **element**. Let's look at an example. Here is a 3-tuple:

$$(a, b, c)$$

It consists of the elements *a*, *b*, and *c*. Notice the notation here. We represent an *n*-tuple by placing the elements in parentheses separated by commas. Here is a 6-tuple:

$$(1.12, \pi, \text{red}, f, 678.09, \forall)$$

Notice that there need not be any correlation between the elements. You can put whatever you want inside an *n*-tuple. Let's talk about the *ordered* part of the definition. “Ordered” in this context means that swapping the ordering of the elements in an *n*-tuple results in a different object. To give a concrete example, this is to say:

$$(1, 2, 3) \neq (2, 1, 3)$$

While these 3-tuples contain the same elements, the elements appear in different orders so they are considered not equal.

**Definition 2:** A **set** is an unordered collection of items without duplicates.

We also call the “items” in sets **elements**. Let's look at an example of a set:

$$\{1, 2, 3\}$$

this set consists of the elements 1, 2, and 3. Notice the notation here. We represent a set by placing the elements in curly brackets separated by commas. Sets are unordered, which is to say that as long as two sets contain the same elements, they are equal, regardless of the order in which the elements appear. For example:

$$\{1, 2, 3\} = \{2, 1, 3\}$$

Sets also cannot contain duplicate elements. So

$$\{1, 1, 2, 3\}$$

is not a set. It should be noted however that  $n$ -tuples *can* contain duplicates. We use the symbol  $\in$  to indicate that something is an element of a set. For example:

$$1 \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$

can be read as, “1 is an element of the set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$ ”.

**Definition 3:** A **function** or **map**  $f$  from a set  $X$  to a set  $Y$  is a mapping of elements in  $X$  to elements in  $Y$  such that

- For all  $x \in X$ , there exists  $y \in Y$  such that  $f(x) = y$
- For all  $x \in X$ , and all  $y, y' \in Y$ , if  $f(x) = y$ , and  $f(x) = y'$ ,  $y = y'$ .

We call  $X$  the **domain** of  $f$ , and  $Y$  the **codomain** of  $f$ . (Note!!! Normally, we'd use the concept of **binary relations** to define maps. I've decided against this because I don't want to get stuck in the weeds, especially since this document is intended for beginners).

We use the notation  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  to mean “ $f$  is a map from  $X$  to  $Y$ ”. Let's break this down a little bit. The first bullet point is just saying that all elements in  $X$  must map to something in  $Y$ . We can't just leave elements unmapped. The second bullet point is saying that we can only map each element in  $X$  to one element in  $Y$ , we can't map to multiple elements. Here is an example of a map with domain  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  and codomain  $\{a, b\}$ :

$$f(1) = a, f(2) = a, f(3) = b$$

Each element in  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is mapped to an element in  $\{a, b\}$ , and each element in  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is mapped to only one element in  $\{a, b\}$ . Here is an example of something that is not a map:

$$f(1) = a, b, f(2) = a, f(3) = b$$

This is not a map because 1 gets mapped to two elements of  $\{a, b\}$  which is forbidden by definition.

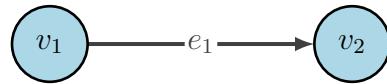
We now know just enough to understand the definition of a finite directed graph.

**Definition 4:** A **finite directed graph**  $\Gamma = (V, E, s, t)$  is a 4-tuple in which:

- $V$  and  $E$  are finite sets, referred to as the set of vertices and the set of edges respectively.
- $s : E \rightarrow V$  is a map, referred to as the source map
- $t : E \rightarrow V$  is a map, referred to as the target map

Let's examine this definition a little bit.  $V$  and  $E$  are the objects that represent our collections of vertices and edges. The source map  $s$  is the map that assigns each edge to the vertex it originates from, and the target map  $t$  is the map that assigns each edge to the vertex it points to. So  $s$  and  $t$  determine where edges go in the graph, and in what direction they face. Let's practice drawing a picture given the formal object to help us understand this better.

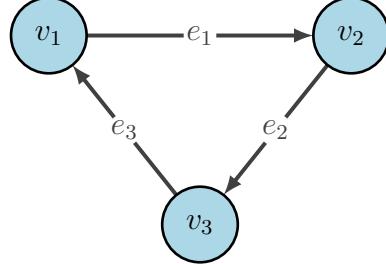
Let us draw a picture of the graph  $\Gamma = (V, E, s, t)$  where  $V = \{v_1, v_2\}$ ,  $E = \{e_1\}$ ,  $s(e_1) = v_1$ , and  $t(e_1) = v_2$ :



Why is this the correct picture? Well, we have two vertices given by  $V = \{v_1, v_2\}$ , and one edge given by  $E = \{e_1\}$ .  $s(e_1) = v_1$  which means the edge  $e_1$  will originate, or start from,  $v_1$ .  $t(e_1) = v_2$  which means the

edge  $e_1$  will point towards, or end at,  $v_2$ . This is precisely what we have drawn.

Let's now start with a picture, and define the formal object from the picture. Consider this picture of a graph:



Identifying the sets  $V$  and  $E$  is simple, simply look at the labelings of the vertices and the edges and we get:  $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ ,  $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ . We must now define the source and target maps. Let's start with the source map. What is  $s(e_1)$ ?  $e_1$  starts from  $v_1$ , so  $s(e_1) = v_1$ . What about  $s(e_2)$ ?  $e_2$  starts from  $v_2$ , so  $s(e_2) = v_2$ . By similar reasoning,  $s(e_3) = v_3$ . Now let's define the target map. What is  $t(e_1)$ ?  $e_1$  ends at/points to  $v_2$ , so  $t(e_1) = v_2$ . By similar reasoning,  $t(e_2) = v_3$  and  $t(e_3) = v_1$ . We have specified a mapping for each edge for  $s$  and  $t$  so these maps are now well-defined. In this case, there's actually a pattern in how edges are assigned, so we can define them more concisely like so:

$$s(e_i) = v_i, \quad (1 \leq i \leq 3)$$

$$t(e_i) = v_{(i \bmod 3)+1}, \quad (1 \leq i \leq 3)$$

You don't have to define  $s$  and  $t$  like this, this is just a more concise way to do it relative to the method of just explicitly writing down all of the mappings. The concise way of writing  $t$  uses a concept called "modular arithmetic", but it is not important that you understand this for this discussion.

This is all we need to know about graphs for our discussion about homology. Next, we will discuss the prerequisite knowledge we need in *linear algebra*.

### 3 Linear Algebra

Coming soon...