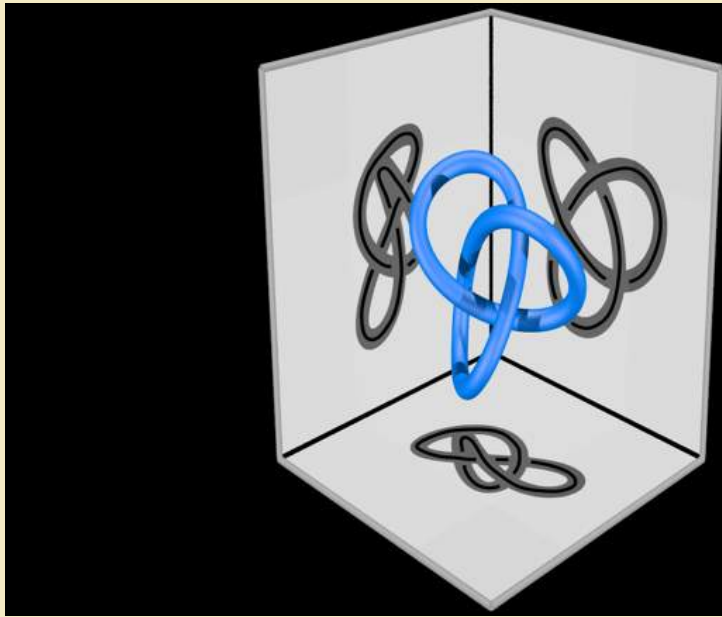
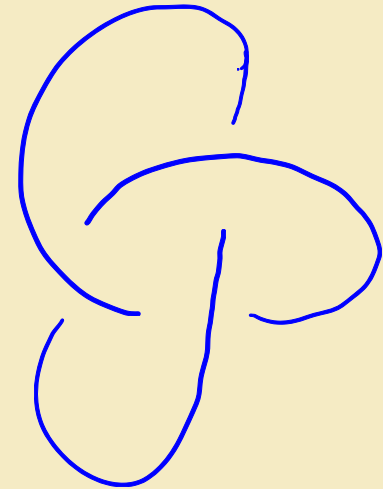
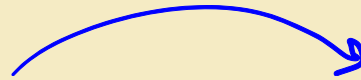


Grid diagrams (§3.1)

A Knot (ie, an embedding $S^1 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$) is usually represented by a Knot diagram, ie a planar diagram resulting from the projection $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ with the information "over/under" at its crossings.



Knot in \mathbb{R}^3



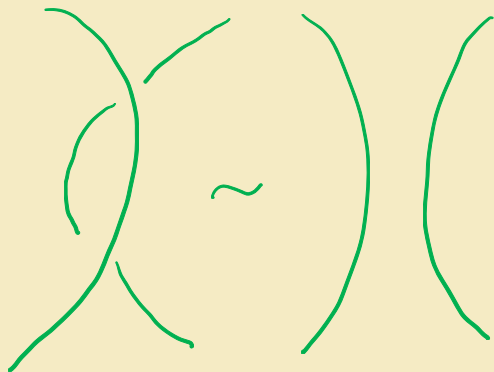
Knot diagram

Since we are interested in studying knots (more generally, links) up to isotopy, one wonders what is the corresponding relation on knot diagrams.

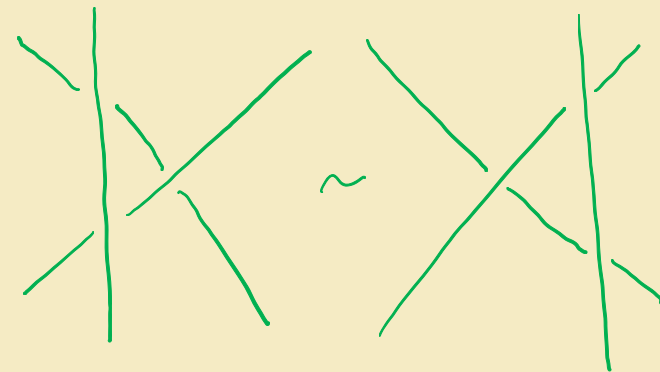
Theorem (Reidemeister, 1926): let L, L' be links and let D, D' be link diagrams representing them. Then L, L' are isotopic if and only if D, D' are related by a (finite) sequence of Reidemeister moves



R_1

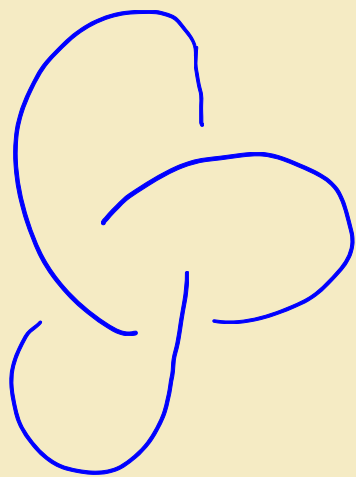


R_2



R_3

The starting point of grid homology is to turn the topological data of the link into combinatorial data encoded in a grid diagram:

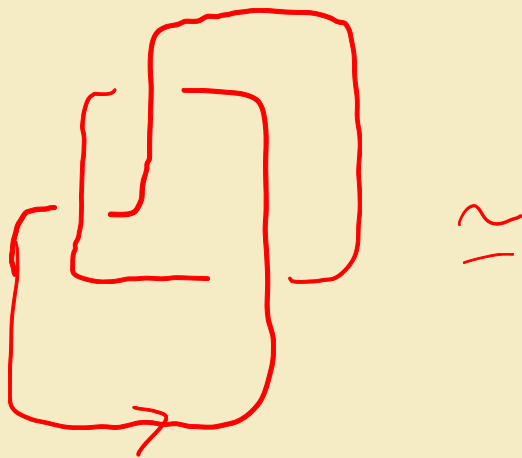
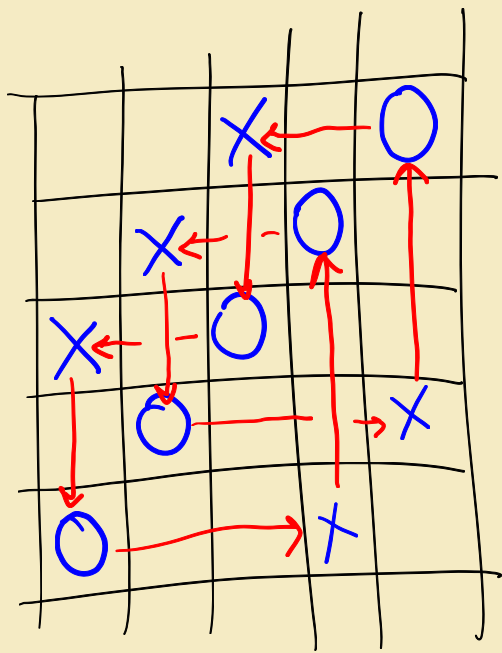


		X		O
	X		O	
X		O		
	O			X
O			X	

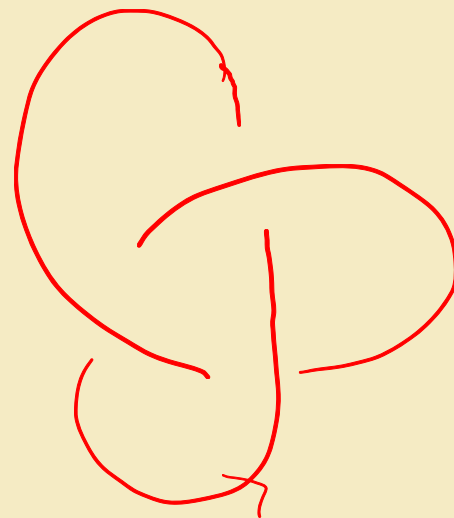
Definition: A (planar) grid diagram is a $n \times n$ grid together with n labels X and n labels O , all in different positions, with the property that every column and every row has exactly one X and one O .

* Every grid diagram gives rise to an oriented link diagram in the following way: draw oriented segments from X 's to O 's vertically, and from O 's to X 's horizontally. When the segments intersect, declare the vertical segment to be the over strand.



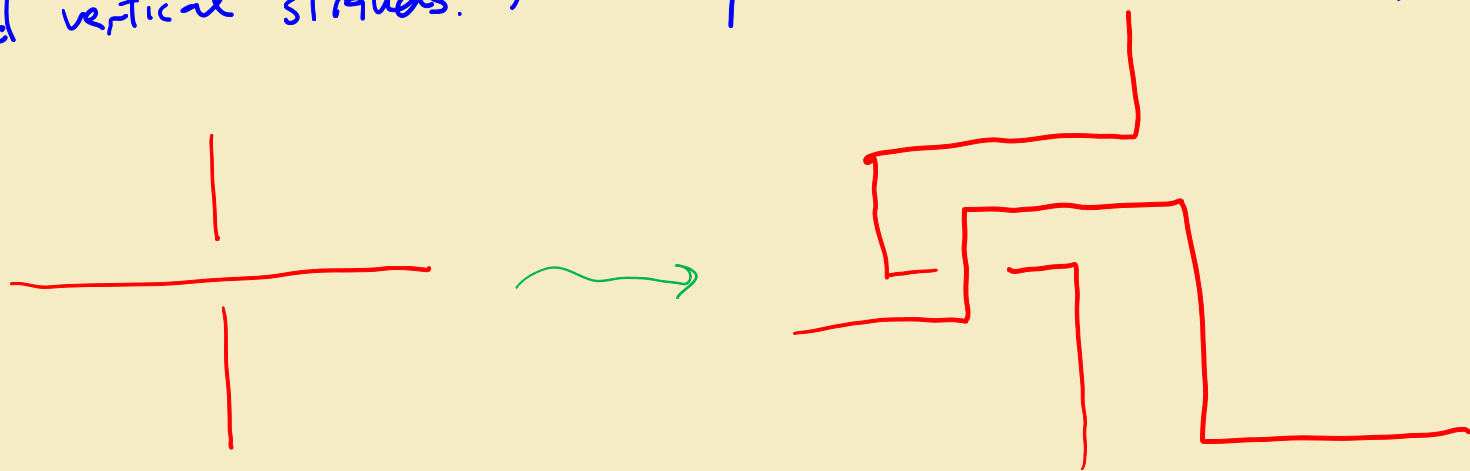


\approx



Lemma : Every oriented link is represented by a grid diagram.

Pf. Arrange the strands of a link diagram so that it only has non-collinear horizontal and vertical strands. Now replace horizontal overcrossings as indicated:

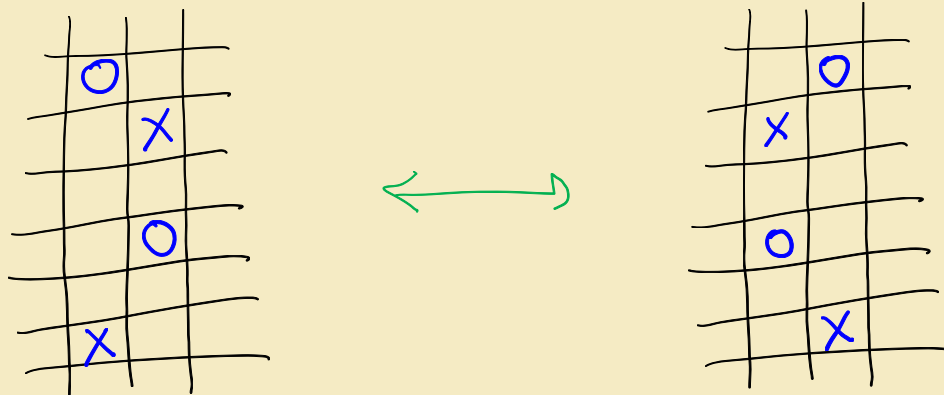


□

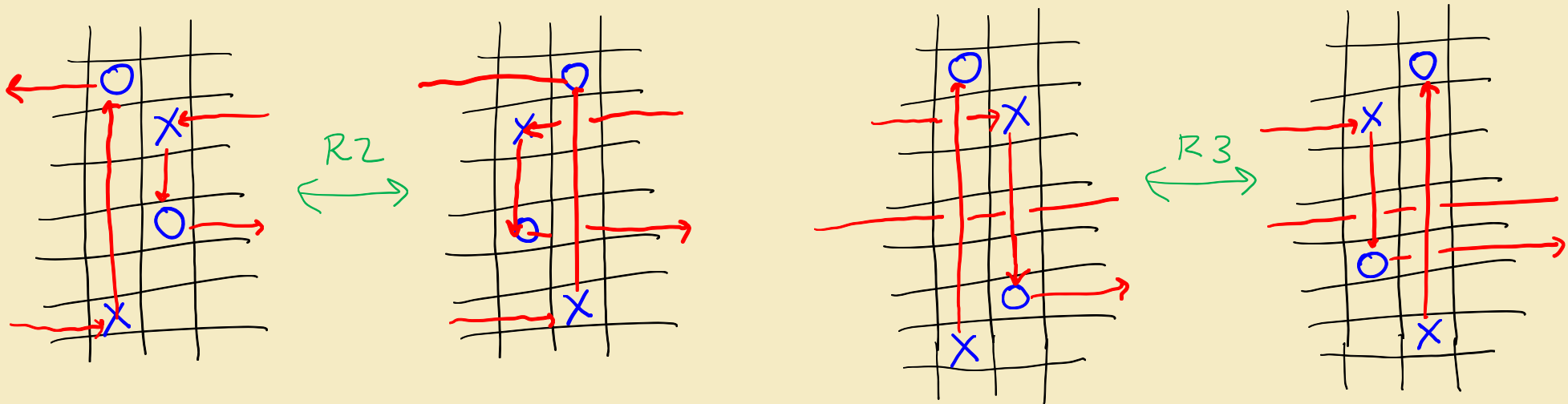
Q. When do two grid diagrams represent the same link?

Theorem (Cromwell, 95): Two grid diagrams represent the same link if and only if they are related by a (finite) sequence of the following transformations (called grid moves):

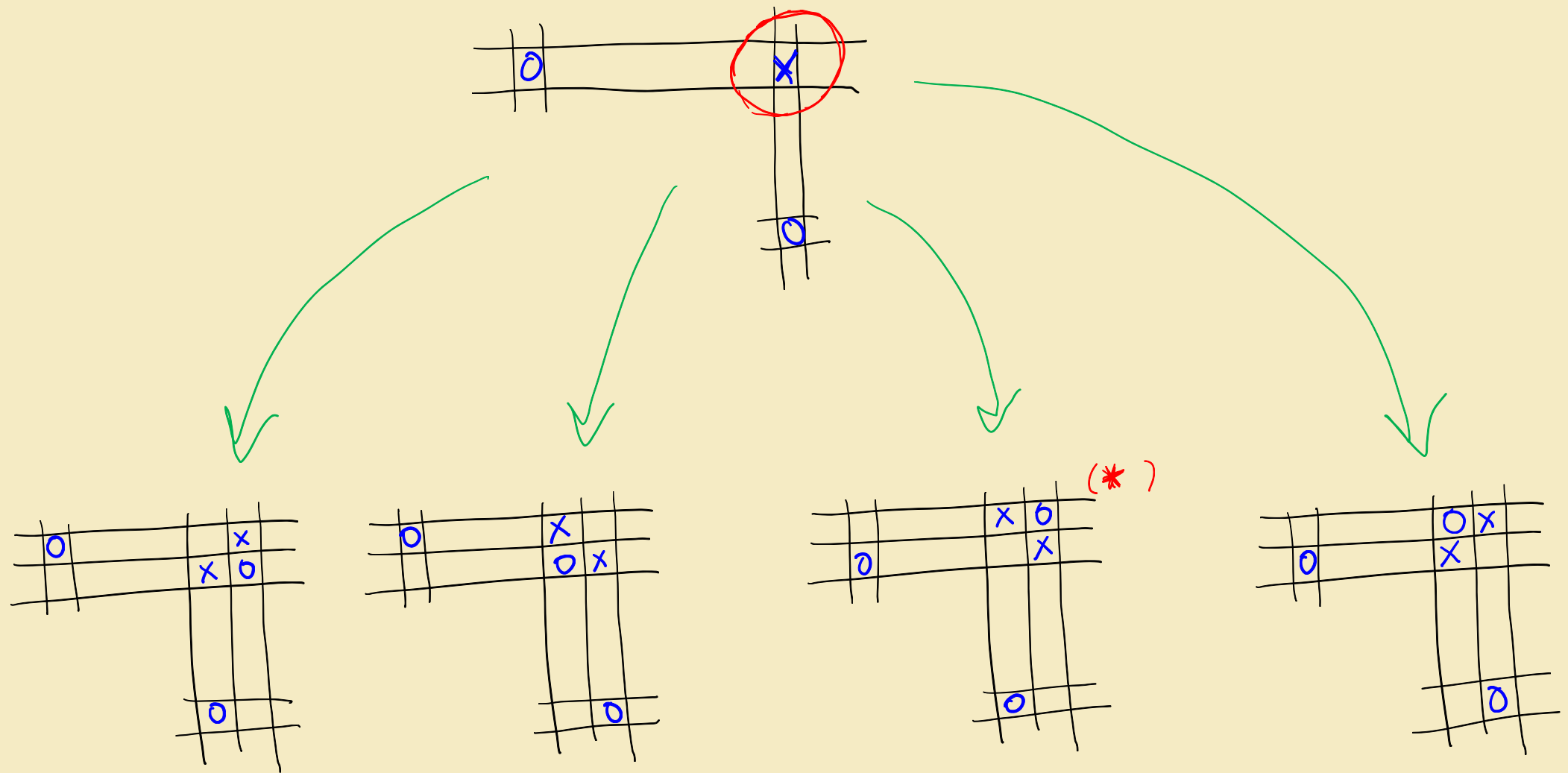
(1) Commutations: If two intervals (from X to O) associated to two consecutive columns (or rows) are either disjoint or one is contained in the other, then the two columns (or rows) can be interchanged.



This move corresponds to $R2$ & $R3$:



2) Stabilisations: Turn a $n \times n$ diagram into a $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ diagram in the following way: pick a marked square and remove the O/X in the same column, the O/X in the same row and the selected marked square itself. Now double the (empty) row and column giving rise to an $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ grid. There are four possible ways to insert markings in the new column and row. Each of them is a stabilisation.



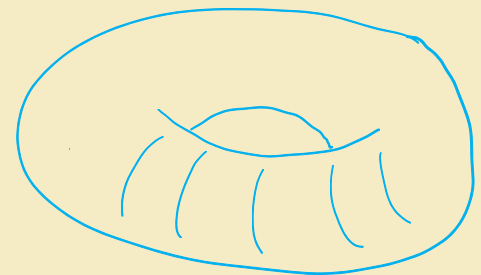
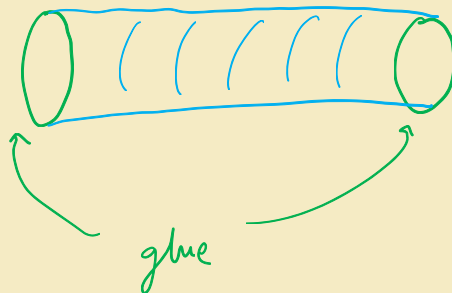
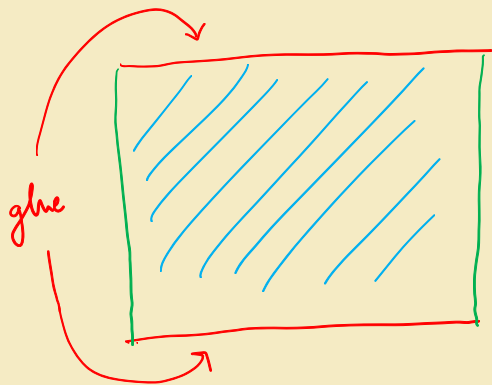
(this move corresponds to $R1^{(*)}$ & planar isotopies).

3) Destabilisations: The inverse process of a stabilisation.

To sum up, we have seen that there are bijections

$$\frac{\{ \text{links in } \mathbb{R}^3 \}}{\text{isotopy}} \cong \frac{\{ \text{link diagrams} \}}{\text{Reidemeister moves}} \cong \frac{\{ \text{grid diagrams} \}}{\text{grid moves}}$$

• Toroidal diagrams: We will also make use of toroidal diagrams. First recall that the torus $S^1 \times S^1$ can be obtained by identifying opposite edges of $[0,1]^2$:



- If G is a planar grid diagram, a toroidal grid diagram is obtained by making the same identification on G . Likewise, a toroidal diagram gives rise to n^2 different planar diagrams (planar realisations). Any two such are connected by a sequence of cyclic permutations of rows and columns.

