

# Simplicial Complexes and Homology

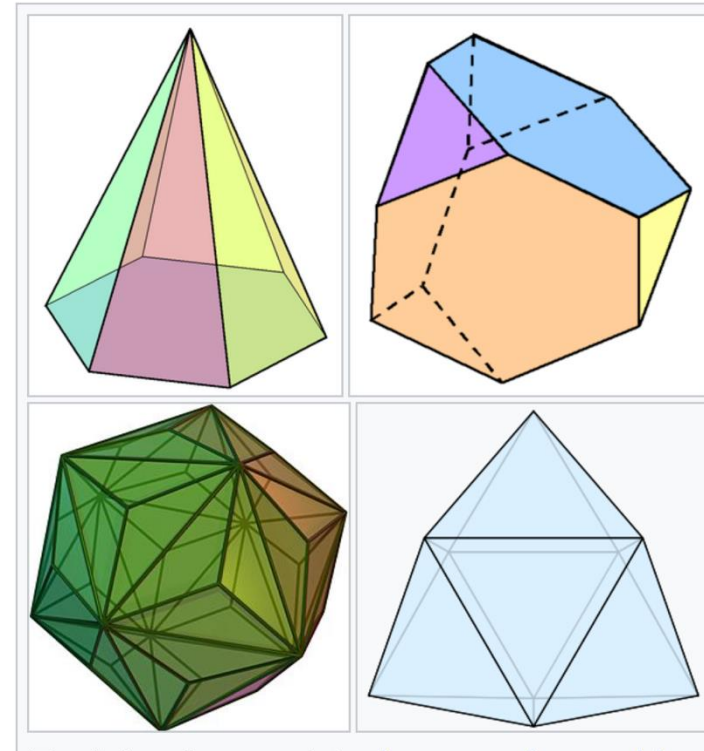
Tao Hou, University of Oregon

# Topological invariant

- Recall that a topological invariant is a type of characteristics for spaces that are preserved by topological equivalence (homeomorphism)
- We shall eventually look at the topological invariant called **homology**, which people heavily rely on in TDA
- But before looking at that, let's first we look at a simpler invariant called **Euler characteristic**

# Euler characteristics

- Here we consider **Polyhedron**, which is a 3D object whose building blocks are
  - **Polygonal faces** (2d)
  - **Edges** (1d)
  - **Vertices** (0d)



We wish to  
count:

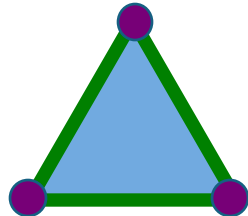
vertex



edge



face



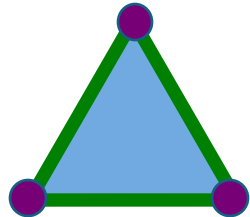
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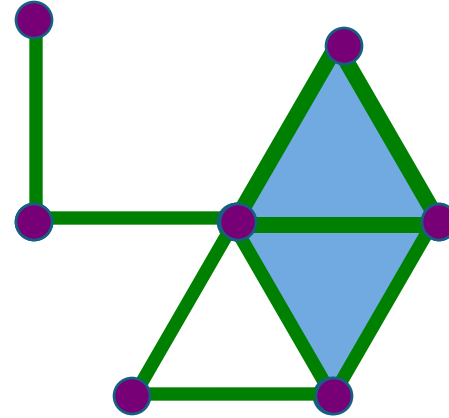
edge



face



Example:



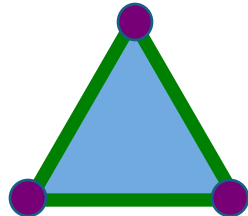
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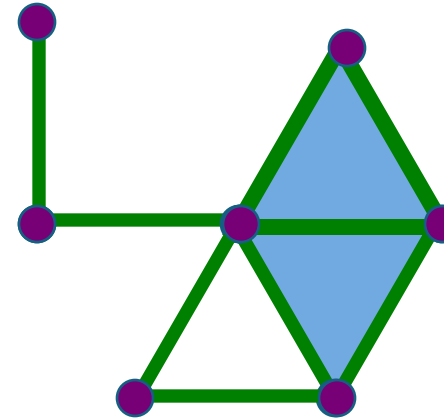
edge



face



Example:



7 vertices,  
9 edges,  
2 faces.

## Euler characteristic (simple form):

$\chi$  = number of vertices – number of edges + number of faces

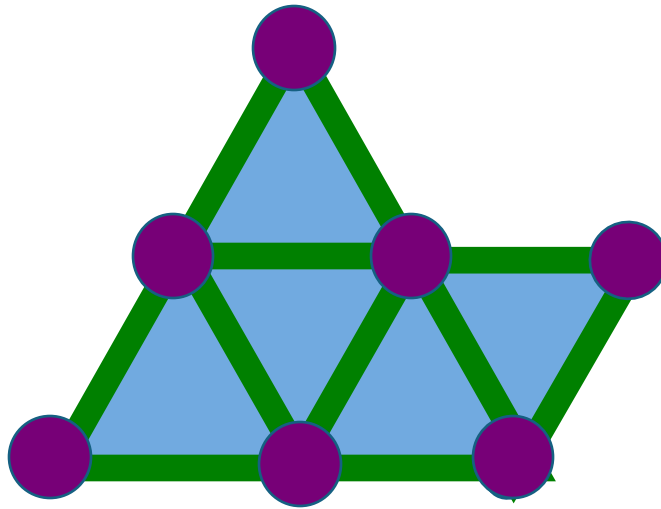
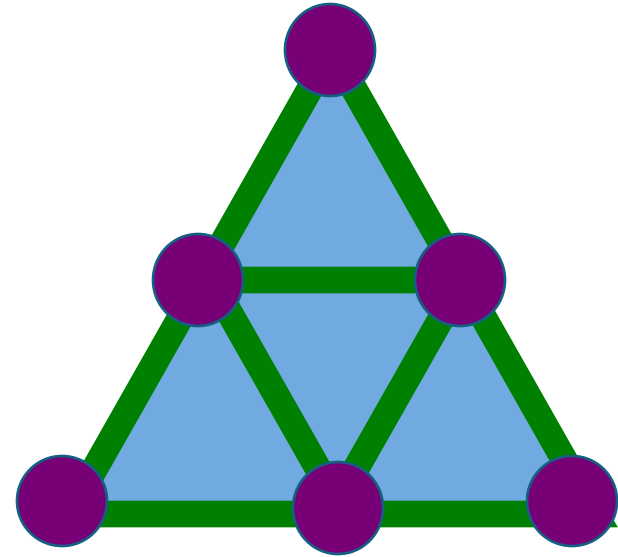
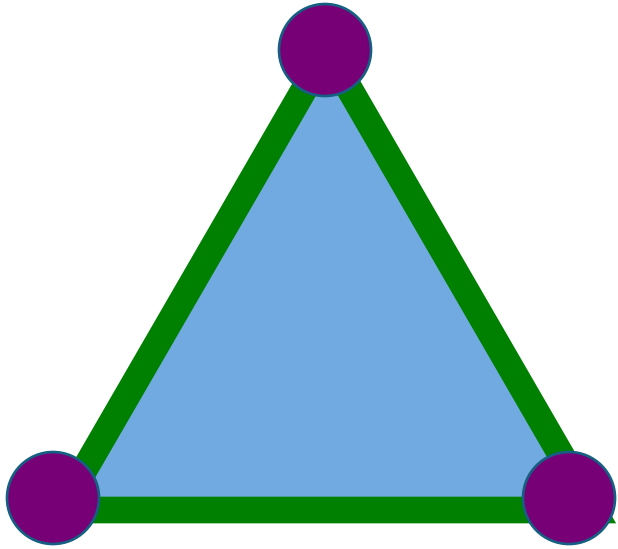
Or in short-hand,

$$\chi = |V| - |E| + |F|$$

where  $V$  = set of vertices

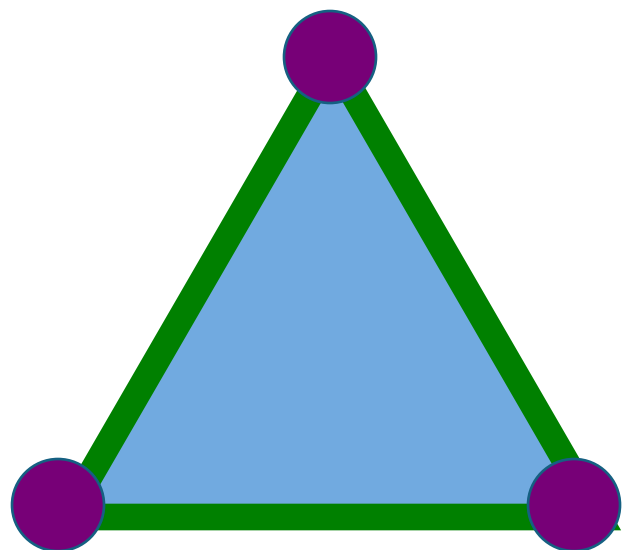
$E$  = set of edges

$F$  = set of faces

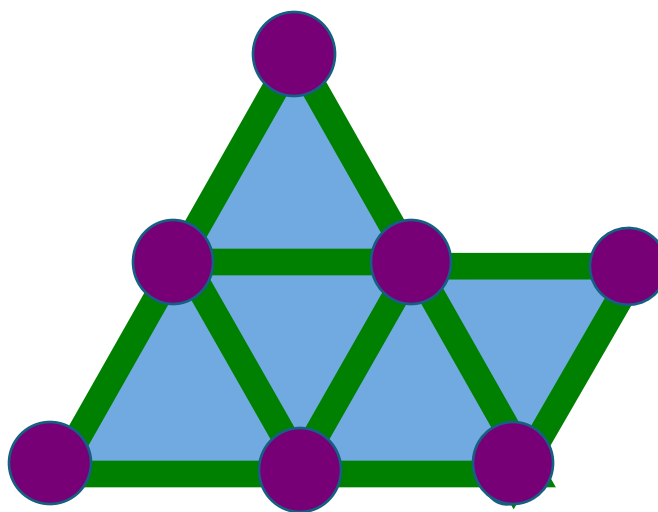
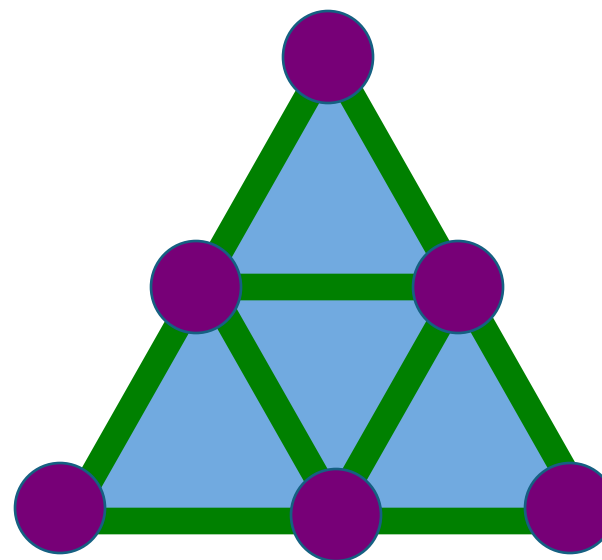


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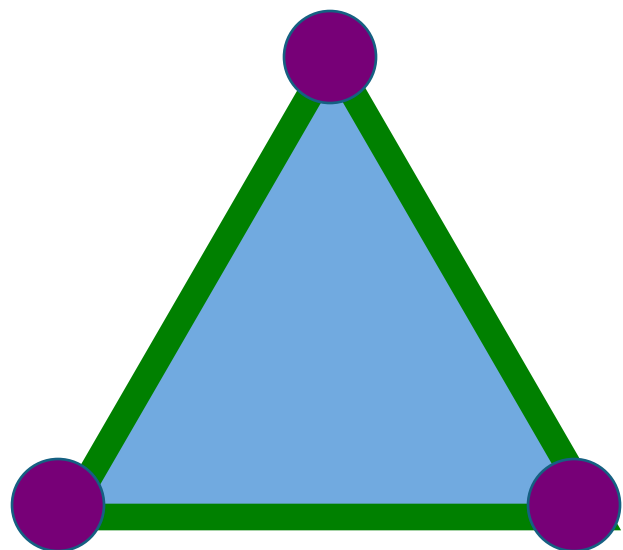




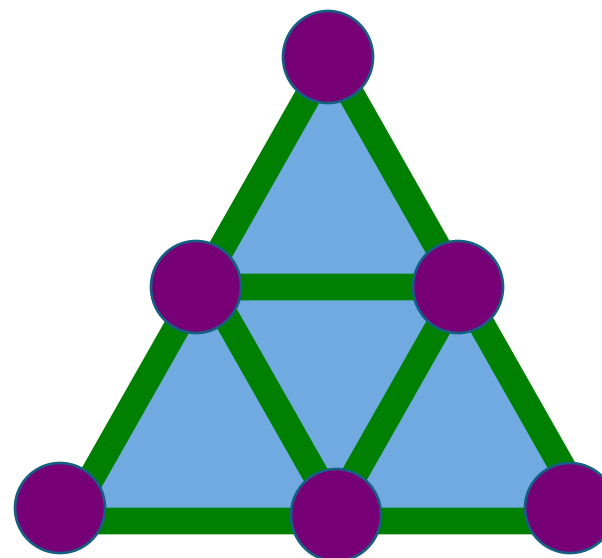
$$\chi = 3 - 3 + 1 = 1$$



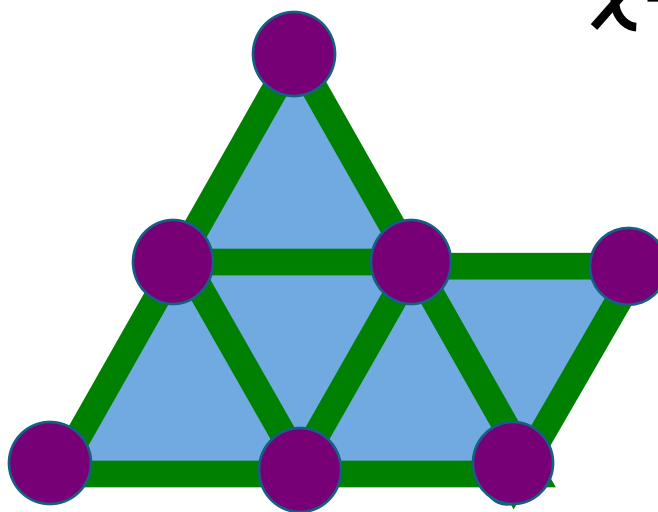
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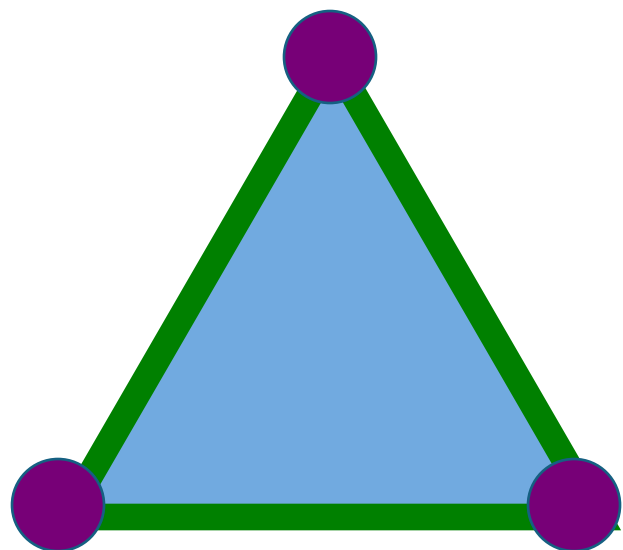
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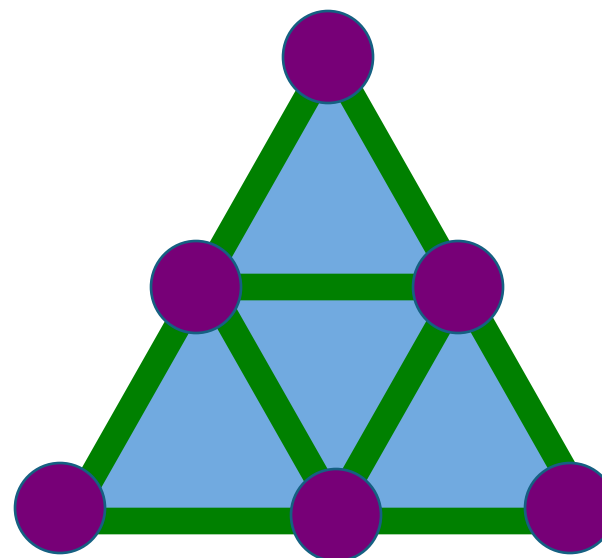
$$\chi = 9 - 9 + 4 = 1$$



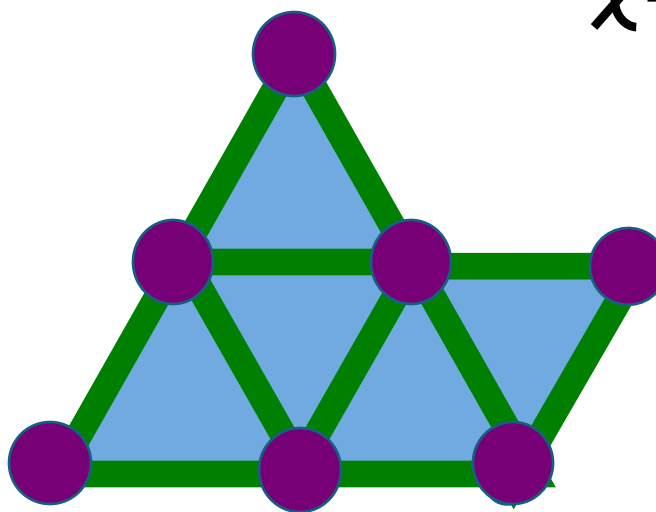
$$\chi = |V| - |E| + |F|$$



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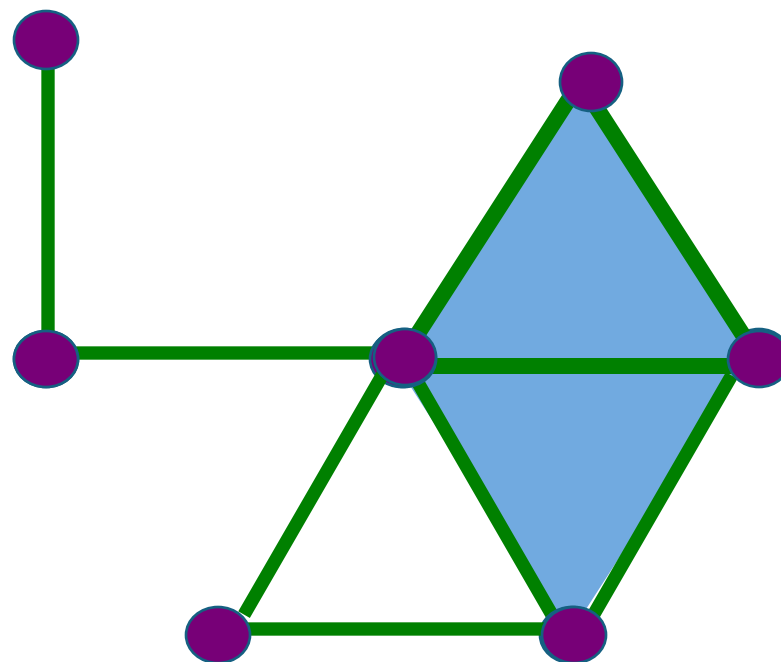
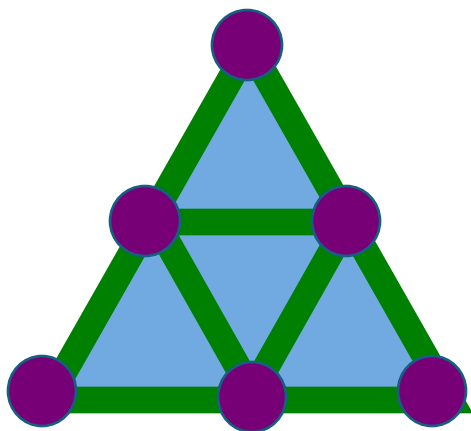


$$\chi = 6 - 9 + 4 = 1$$

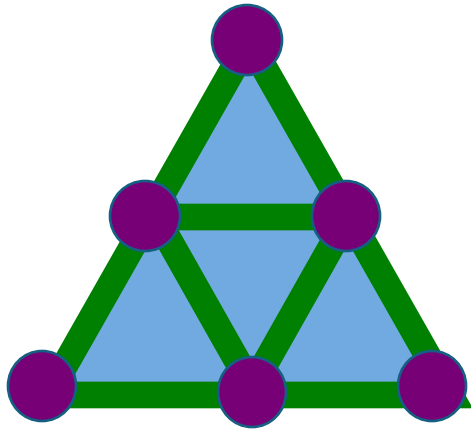


$$\chi = 7 - 11 + 5 = 1$$

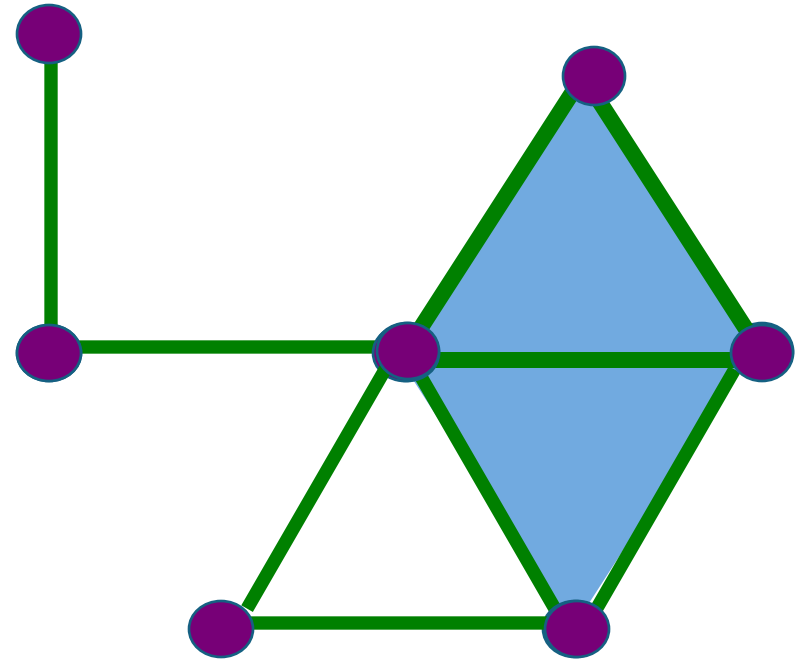
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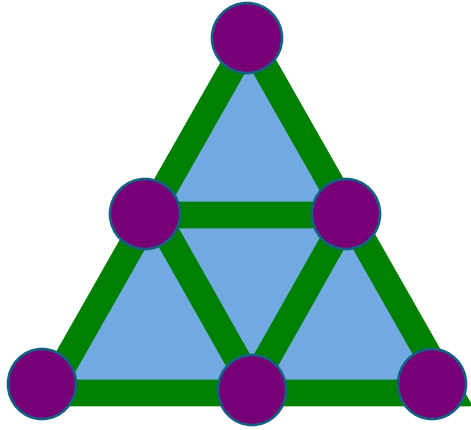
$$\chi = |V| - |E| + |F|$$



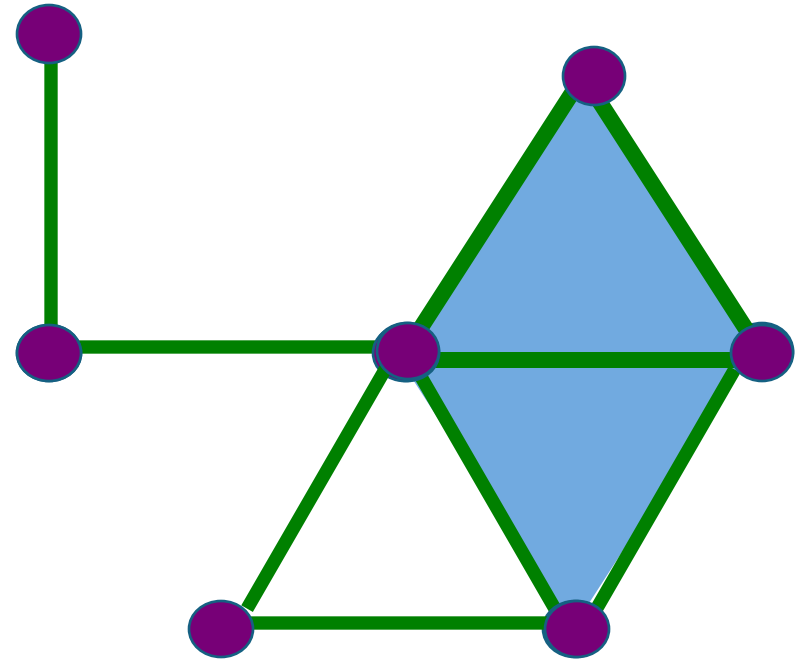
$$\chi = 6 - 9 + 4 = 1$$



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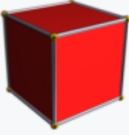

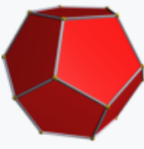
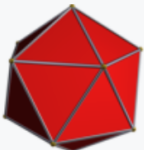
$$\chi = 7 - 9 + 2 = 0$$

$$\chi = |V| - |E| + |F|$$

# Conclusion


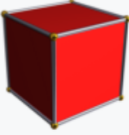

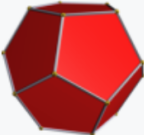

- Euler characteristics is a **topological invariant** for topological spaces,
  - meaning that for two topological spaces which are equivalent (homeomorphic), their Euler characteristics is the same.

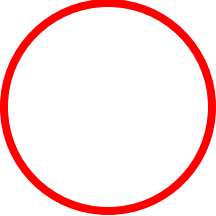
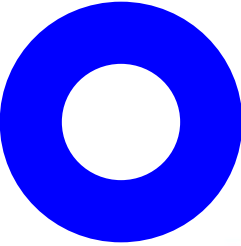
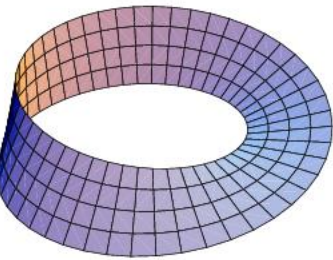

# More examples

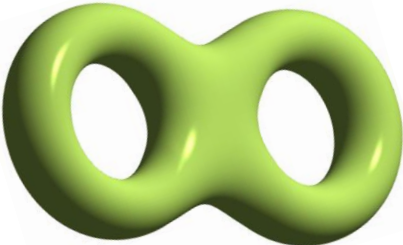
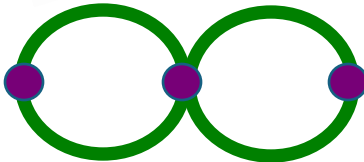
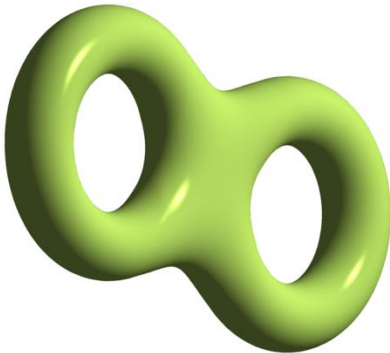
Name	Image	Vertices $V$	Edges $E$	Faces $F$	Euler characteristic: $\chi = V - E + F$
Tetrahedron					
Hexahedron or cube					
Octahedron					
Dodecahedron					
Icosahedron					

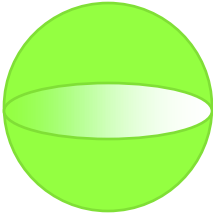

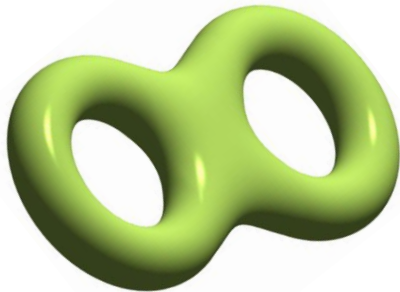
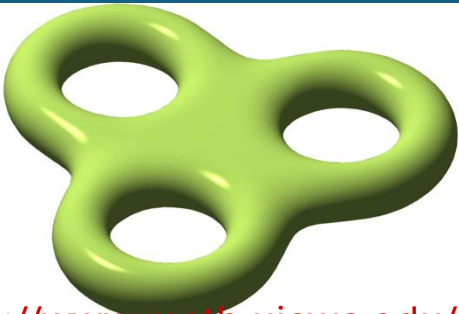


# More examples

Name	Image	Vertices $V$	Edges $E$	Faces $F$	Euler characteristic: $\chi = V - E + F$
Tetrahedron		4	6	4	2
Hexahedron or cube		8	12	6	2
Octahedron		6	12	8	2
Dodecahedron		20	30	12	2
Icosahedron		12	30	20	2

Euler characteristic	
0	circle 
	Annulus 
	Mobius band 
	Torus = $S^1 \times S^1$ 

Euler characteristic	
-1	<p data-bbox="912 339 1661 416">Solid double torus</p>  <p data-bbox="912 574 1370 768">A graph of two cycles:</p> 
	<p data-bbox="912 925 1661 1230">Double torus = boundary of solid double torus</p> 

Euler characteristic	2-dimensional orientable surface without boundary
2	sphere 
0	$S^1 \times S^1 =$ torus 
-2	genus 2 torus 
-4	genus 3 torus 

# Euler characteristics for graphs

- Graphs: consist of only vertices and edges
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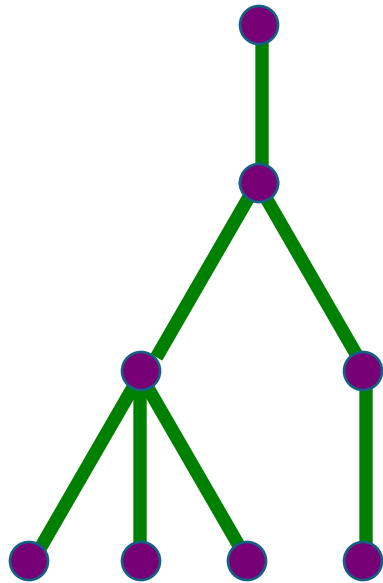
- Graphs: consist of only vertices and edges
- So, Euler characteristic becomes:  $V - E$
- We can use Euler characteristic to verify whether a graph is a *tree*
  - **Definition:** A *tree* is a connected graph that does not contain a cycle
- **Theorem:** The number of edges in a tree is always equal to the number of vertices  $- 1$ . So the Euler characteristic becomes

$$V - E = V - (V - 1) = 1.$$

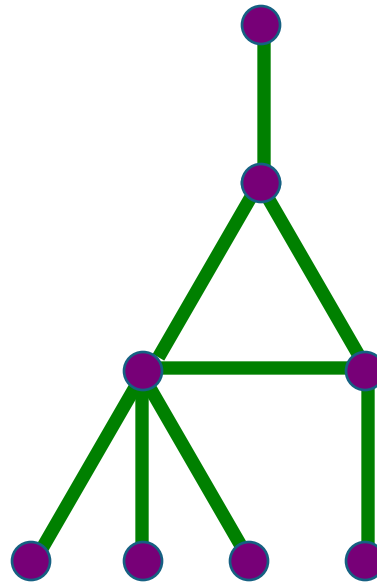


# Graphs: Identifying Trees

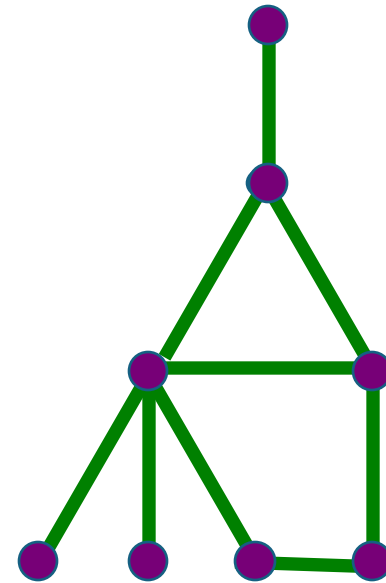
Defn: A *tree* is a connected graph that does not contain a cycle



$$\chi = 8 - 7 = 1$$



$$\chi = 8 - 8 = 0$$



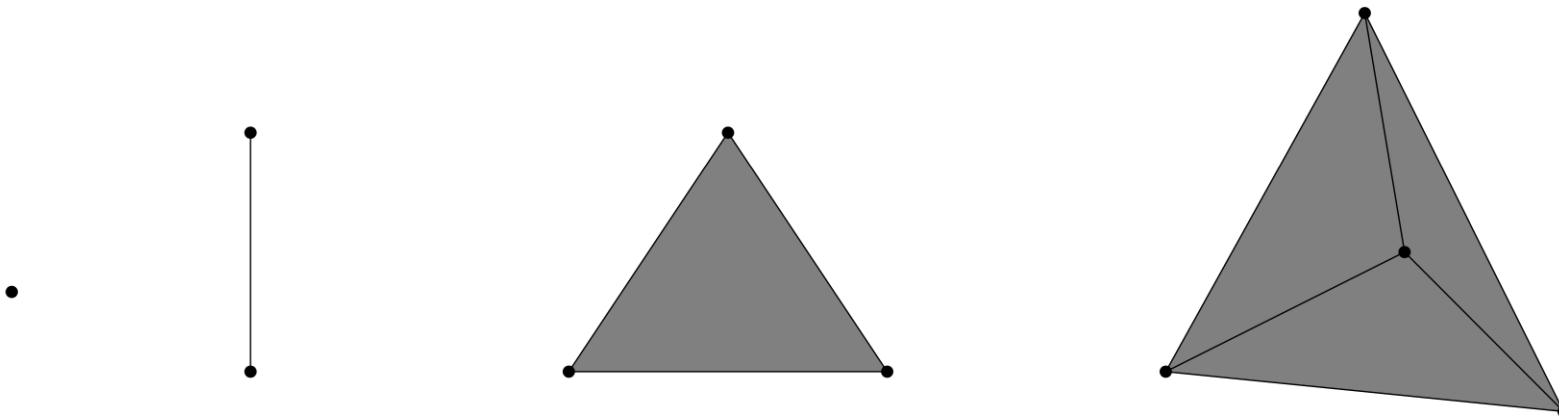
$$\chi = 8 - 9 = -1$$

# Representation of shapes

- Before moving on to look at the more important invariant, **homology**
- We need another important definition **that will be utilized throughout the course**
- This solves a fundamental problem we face when we try to process shapes in computer: we need a way to **represent shapes** (topological spaces) that is **easy for computer to process**
- It turns out there have been such an invention in Mathematics already, which is called **simplicial complex**.

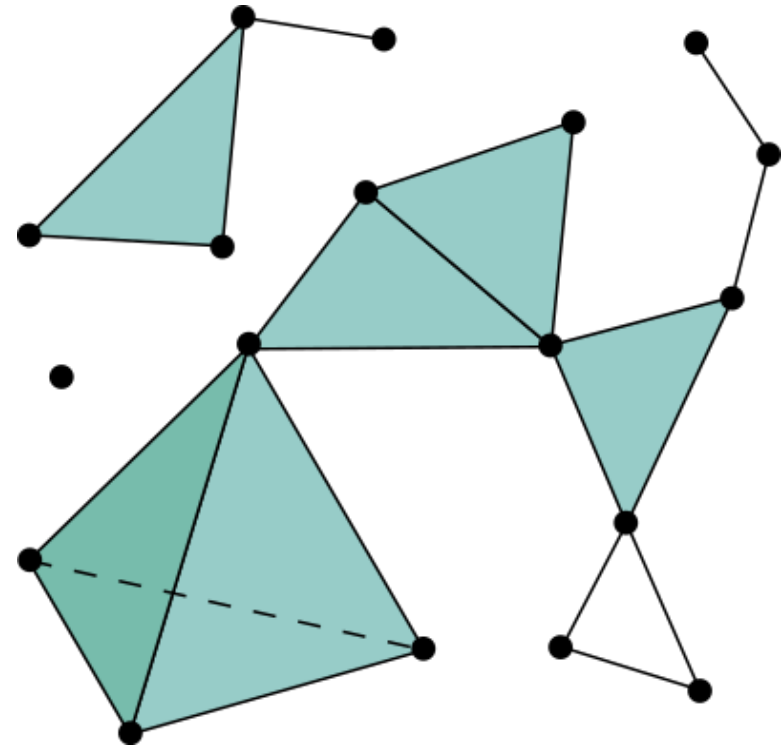
# Simplicial Complex

- A **simplicial complex** is a generalization of a polyhedron, with building blocks called **simplices** in different dimensions:
  - 0-simplex: vertex
  - 1-simplex: edge
  - 2-simplex: triangle
  - 3-simplex: tetrahedron
  - ...
  - d-simplex (generalizations)



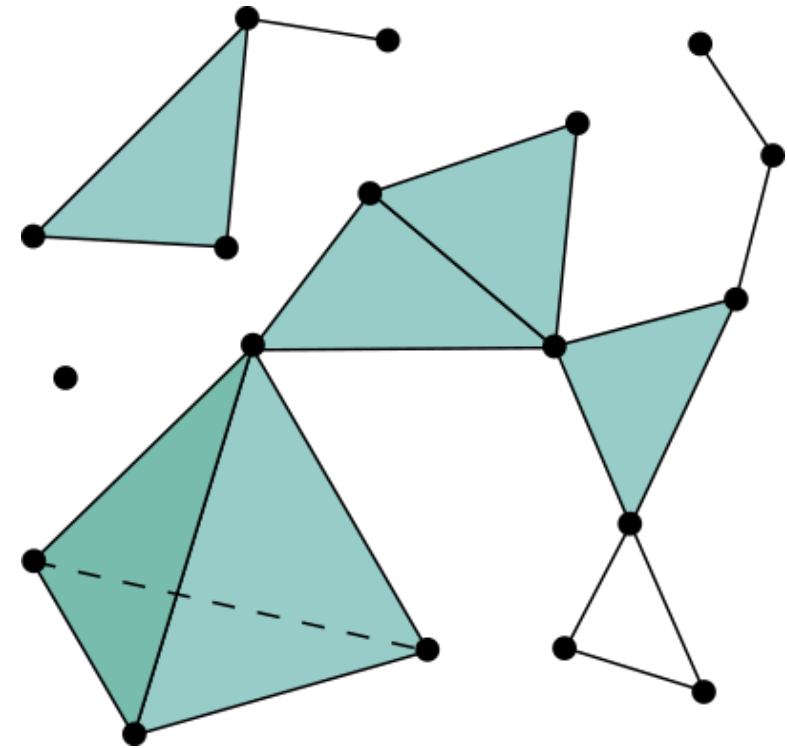
# Simplicial Complex

- The following is a simplicial complex with simplices up to dimension 3:
  - 0-simplices (vertices): 18
  - 1-simplices (edges): 23
  - 2-simplices (triangles): 8
  - 3-simplices (tetrahedra): 1



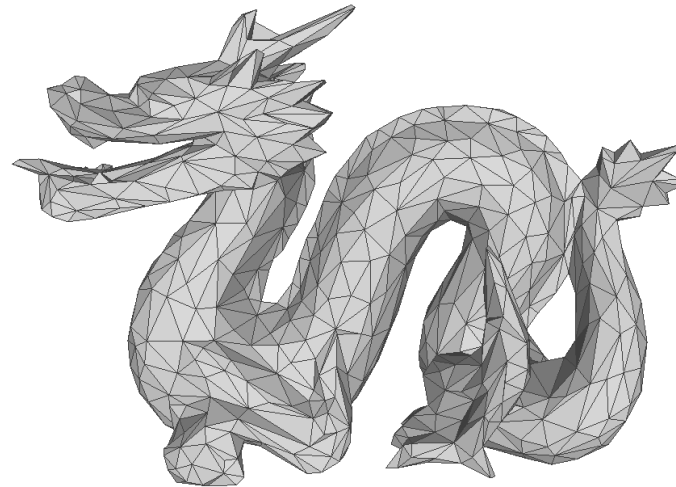
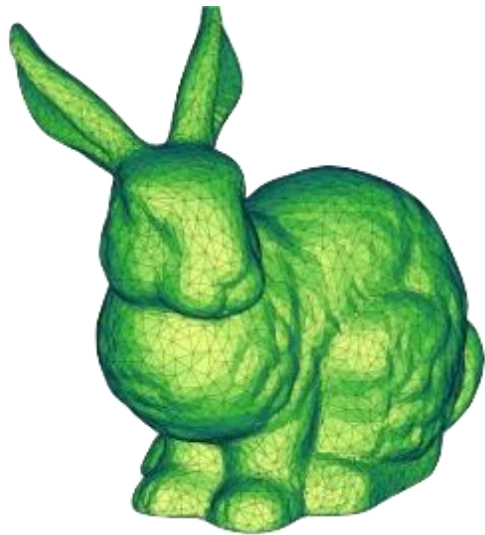
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  - 0-simplices (vertices): 18
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  - 3-simplices (tetrahedra): 1
- **Definition:** The *dimension* of a simplicial complex is the maximum dimension of its simplices
- So the dimension of the left complex is 3
- Note: A simplicial complex is sometimes simply called a *complex*
- A  $d$ -dimensional simplicial complex is sometimes simply called a *simplicial  $d$ -complex* or  *$d$ -complex*



# Triangular meshes

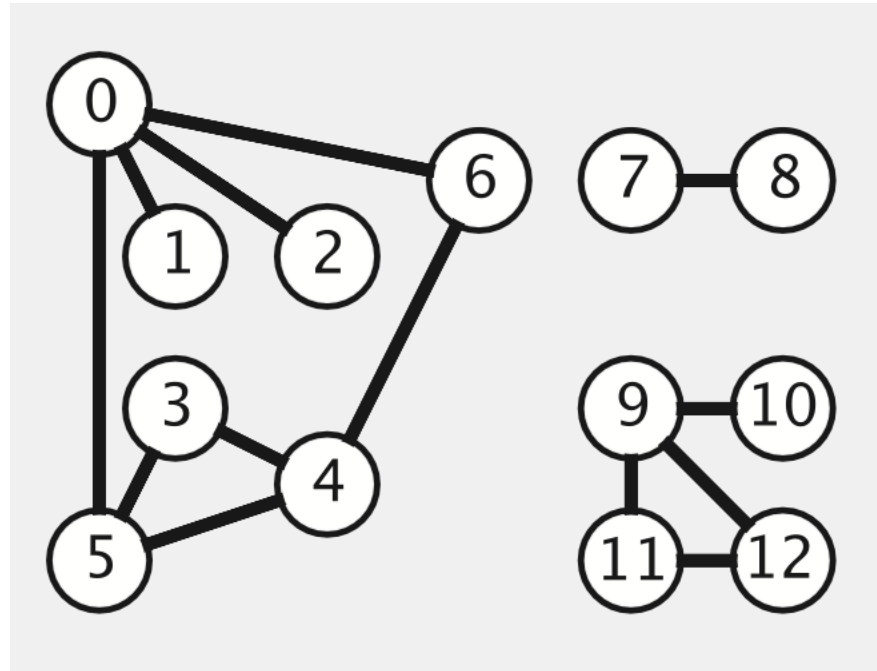
- A very common type of simplicial complexes used in computer graphics are triangular meshes (a 3D object whose surface is made up of glueing small triangle patches)
- From a topological point of view, they are nothing but 2-dimensional simplicial complexes



(figure from favpng.com)

# Graphs

- Another more common type of simplicial complexes in CS are graphs.
- A graph is a tuple  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of 0-simplices and  $E$  is the set of 1-simplices. So it's a 1-complex.



# Faces of a Simplex

- For a simplex  $\sigma$ , we notice that there are other simplices **on its boundary**, which are called the **faces** of  $\sigma$ .
- If a face  $\tau$  of  $\sigma$  is a  $d$ -dimensional simplex, then we also call it a  **$d$ -face** of  $\sigma$ .
- A convention is that  $\sigma$  is always **a face of itself**.



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- Ex: A vertex has only one face which is itself

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- Ex: An edge  $ab$  has:
  - Two 0-faces:  $a$  and  $b$
  - One 1-face:  $ab$

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- Ex: A triangle  $abc$  has:
  - Three 0-faces:  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$
  - Three 1-faces:  $ab$ ,  $ac$ , and  $bc$
  - One 2-face:  $abc$

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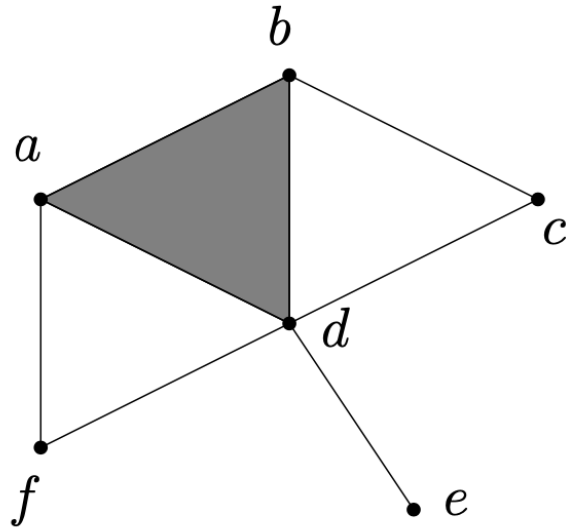
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- Ex: A tetrahedron  $abcd$  has:
  - Four 0-faces:  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $d$
  - Six 1-faces:  $ab$ ,  $ac$ ,  $ad$ ,  $bc$ ,  $bd$ ,  $cd$
  - Four 2-faces:  $abc$ ,  $abd$ ,  $acd$ ,  $bcd$
  - One 3-face:  $abcd$

# Simplicial Complex (Formal Definition)

- **Definition:** a simplicial complex  $\mathcal{K}$  is a set of simplices such that, if a simplex  $\sigma$  is in  $\mathcal{K}$ , then all the faces of  $\sigma$  are also in  $\mathcal{K}$ .

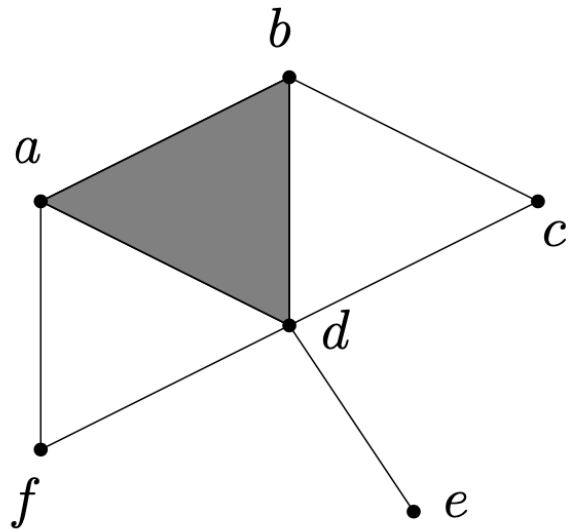
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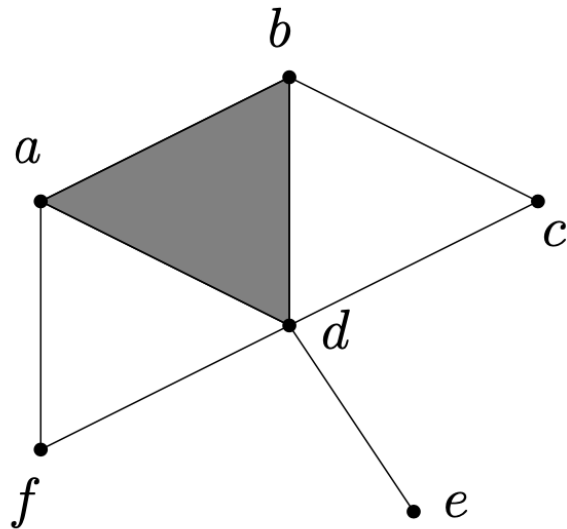
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✓ : {abd, ab, bd, ad, bc, cd, af, dd, de, a, b, c, d, e, f}

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- Another example: For a graph (1-complex), each edge must join two vertices in the vertex set (a vertex that is a face of an edge must also be in the complex)

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- Another example: For a graph (1-complex), each edge must join two vertices in the vertex set (a vertex that is a face of an edge must also be in the complex)

The condition that faces of any simplex in a complex should also be in the complex is very important part in the definition making it mathematically sound

# Some remarks

- For denoting a simplicial complex, we typically first assign labels to the vertices of the complex.
  - In class, the labels could be letters but could also be other things
  - In computer programs, the labels are almost always integers  $0, \dots, l - 1$ .
- Then, each simplex is represented as a set of the vertices on its corner.
- Note: Each  $d$ -simplex  $\sigma$  is represented by a set of  $d + 1$  vertices
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- All the faces of  $\sigma$  are nothing but all subsets of  $\sigma$ , excluding empty set
- Also note: A  $d$ -simplex is typically represented by a **sorted** array of  $d + 1$  vertices (integers) in computer programs, this makes checking the equality of two simplices easier

# Endowing Algebraic Structures to Complexes

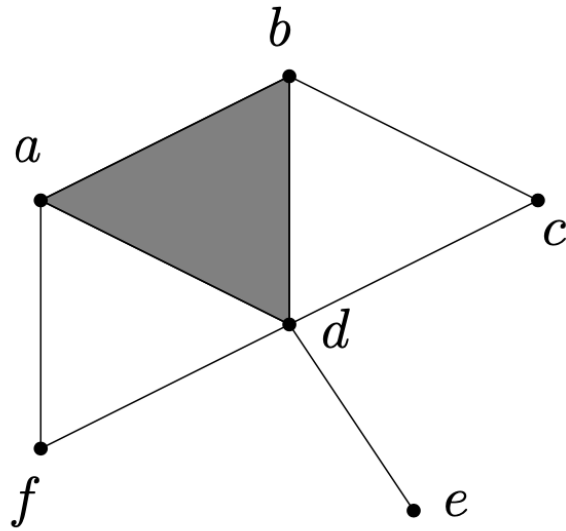
- Now we continue towards our goal of **defining homology**
- There are still *a few steps* before that
- Recall that homology is a “numeric” invariant that computer can handle
- More formally, it’s an “**algebraic**” **invariant**.
- So, let’s give a simplicial complex and its simplices an **algebraic structure**, so that we could **do algebra** on it (just like what we used to do  $1+1=2$  in primary school).

# Chains

- We first introduce an algebraic notion called **chains**.
- A chain is a summation (formal sum) of a bunch of simplices of the same dimension  $d$ , and we also call it a  $d$ -chain.
- i.e., it is of the general form:  $\sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i$ , where each  $\sigma_i$  is a  $d$ -simplex.

# Chains

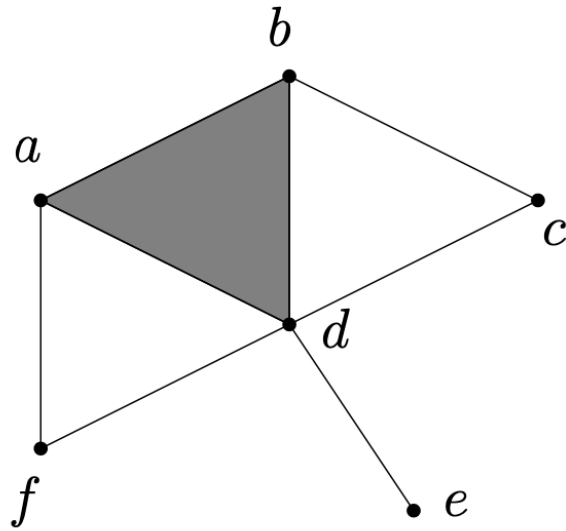
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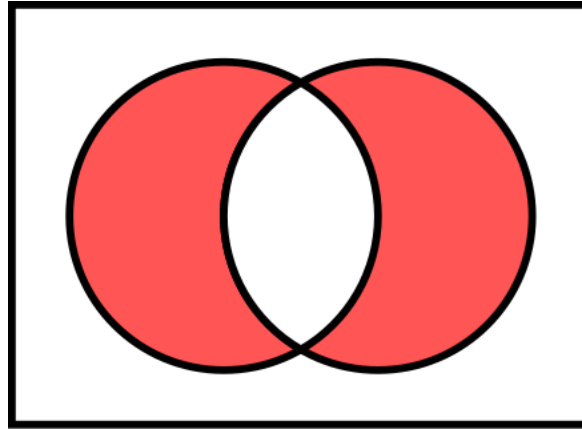


- 0-chain:  $a + d + f$
- 1-chain:  $ab + cd + de$
- 2-chain:  $abd$
- Note: we have a special chain ' $\emptyset$ ' which contains no simplices



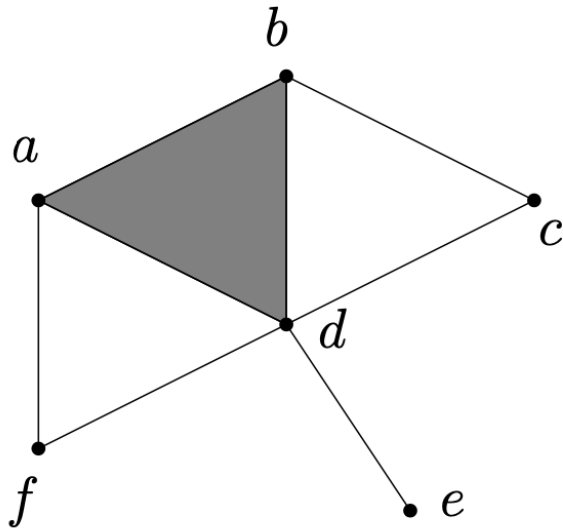
# Summation of Chains

- The summation of two chains is called the “**symmetric difference**”, i.e.,
  - Keep simplices that occurs in exactly one of the chains
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# Summation of Chains

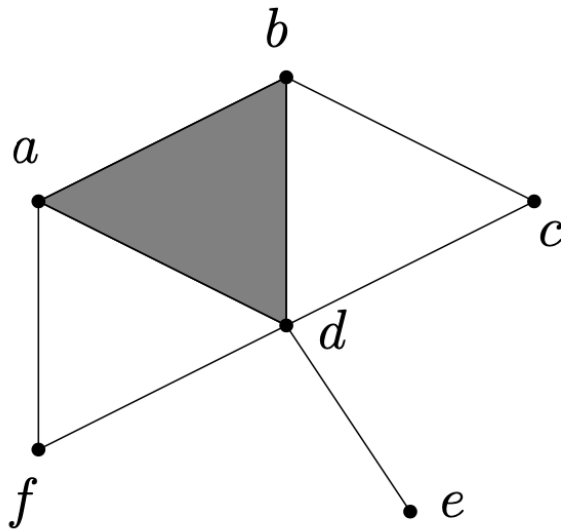
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- $(ab + cd + de) + (bd + cd) = ab + bd + de$

# Boundaries of Chains

- Next thing we want to define are **boundaries** for chains
- But before doing that let's try to define boundary for a region in general
- For a two-dimensional region, the boundary is just the “border” of the region



# Boundaries of Chains

- Question: what is the boundary for a 1-dimensional line segment?

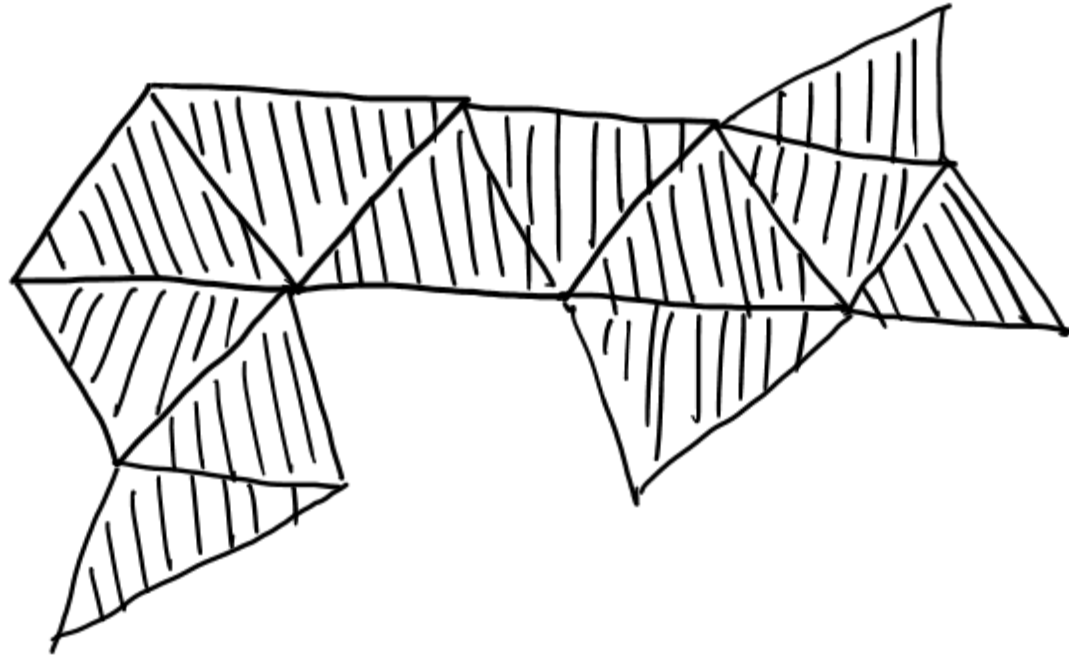


# Boundaries of Chains

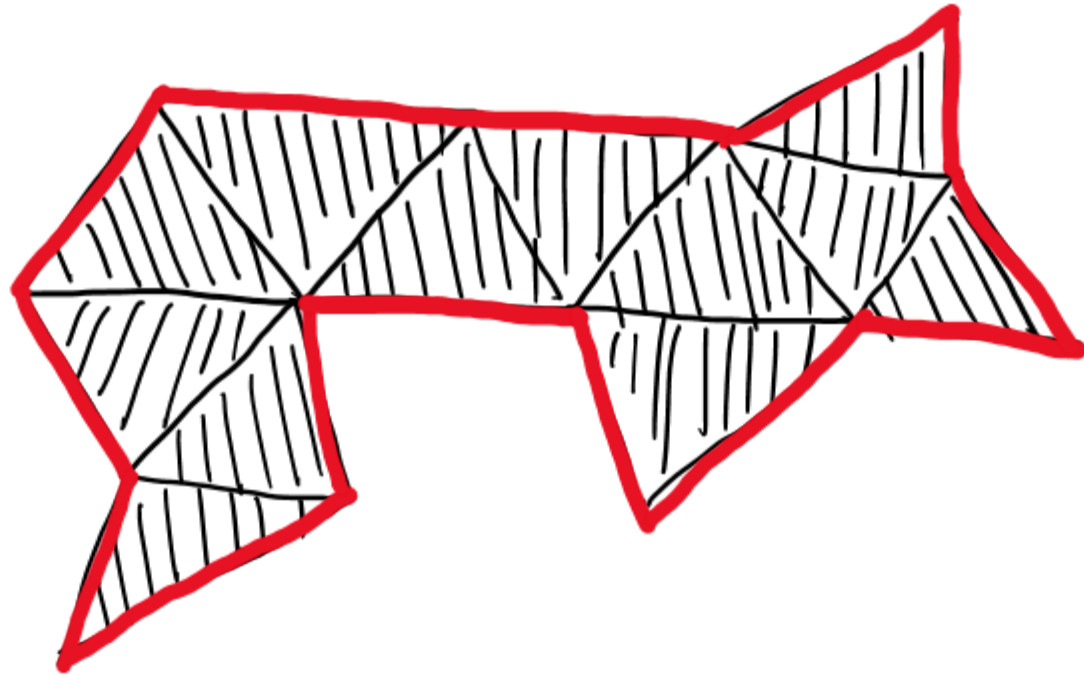
- Question: what is the boundary for a 1-dimensional line segment?
- Answer: the two end points (because they are the places where we cannot travel any further [within the 1-dimensional region](#))



# Boundaries of Chains

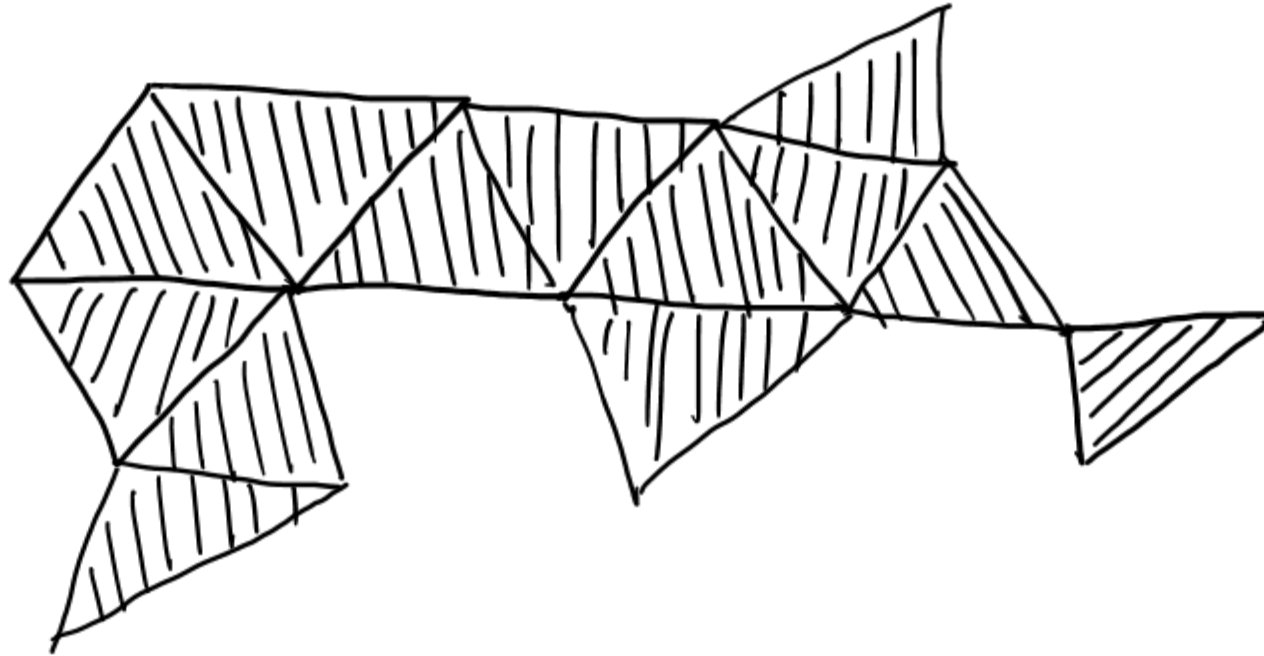


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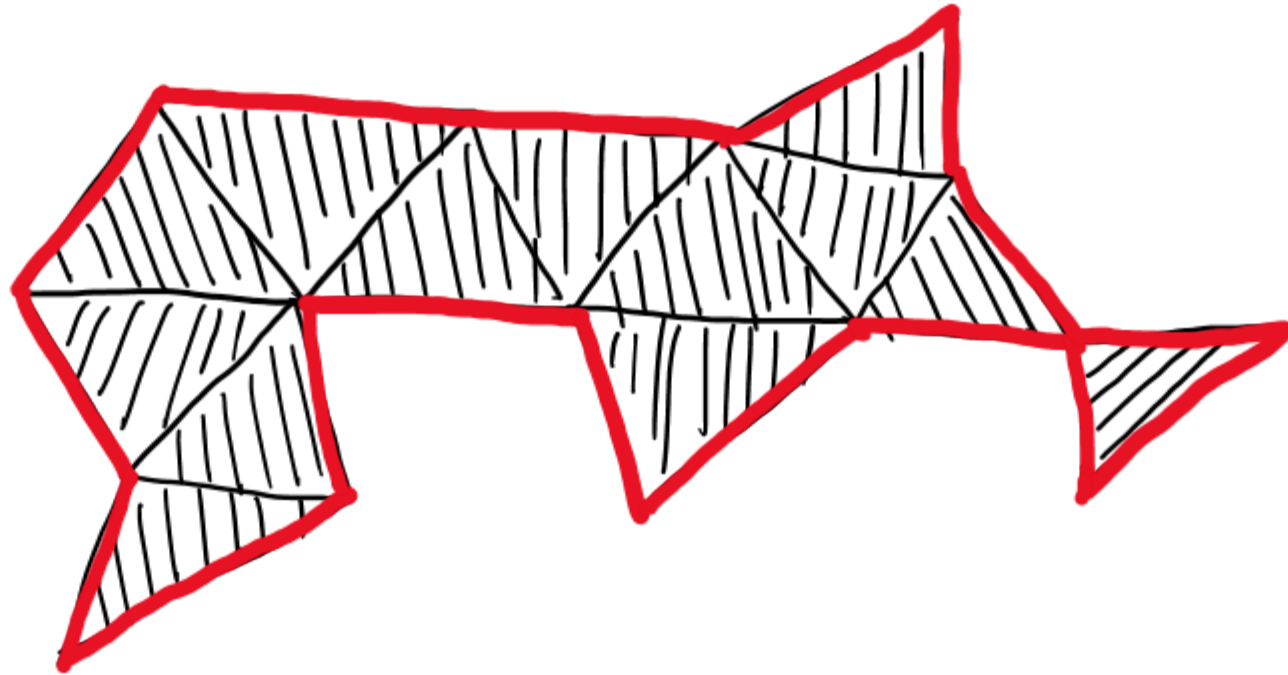




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- **Observation:** the boundary of a  $d$ -chain  $c$  is also a chain, which is of one dimension lower, so it's a  $(d - 1)$ -chain. We denote it as  $\partial(c)$ .

# Boundary of a Simplex

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- The boundary of a tetrahedron  $abcd$  is the four triangles it contains:

$$\partial(abcd) = abc + abd + acd + bcd$$

# Boundaries of Chains

- **Observation:** The boundary of a chain equals the summation of the boundaries of its simplices, i.e.,

$$\partial(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \cdots + \sigma_k) = \partial(\sigma_1) + \partial(\sigma_2) + \cdots + \partial(\sigma_k)$$



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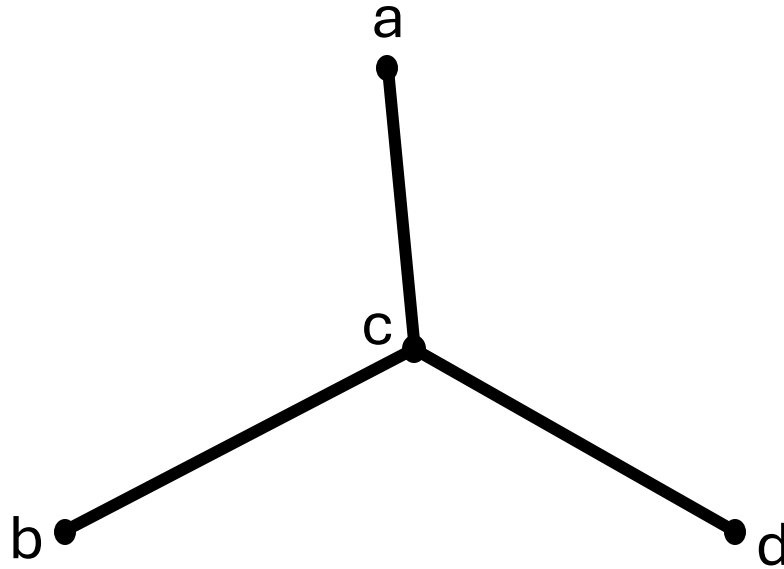
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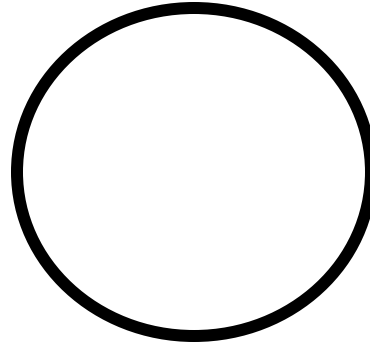
# Quick Question

- What is the boundary of the following 1-chain?



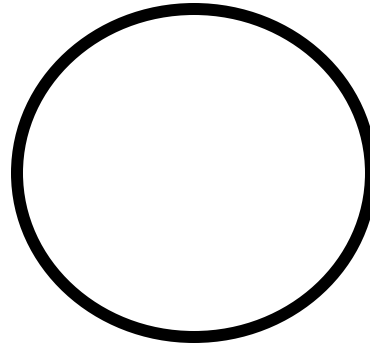
# Boundaries of Some Special Chains

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# Boundaries of Some Special Chains

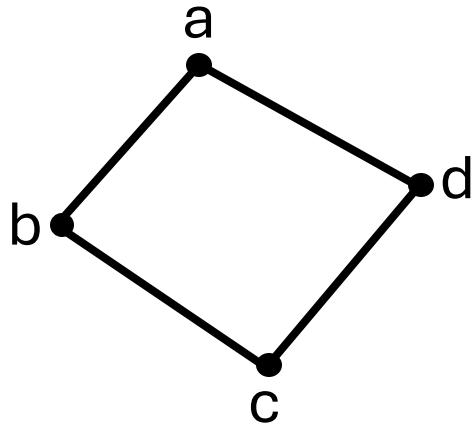
- What is the boundary of a circle?



- Answer: 0 (empty)
- **Definition:** We generalize a circle and define a *d-cycle* as a *d-chain* whose boundary is 0.

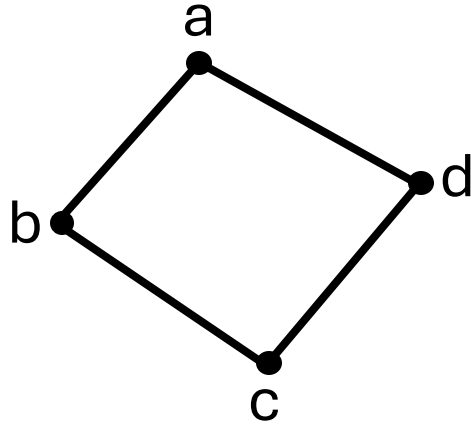
# Cycles

- Example of a 1-cycle (the same as a cycle on graphs):

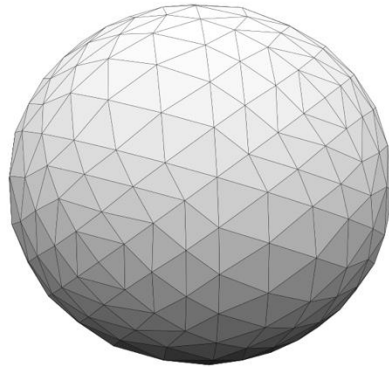


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- Example of a 1-cycle (the same as a cycle on graphs):



- Example of a 2-cycle (triangulated sphere):





# Fundamental theorem of homology

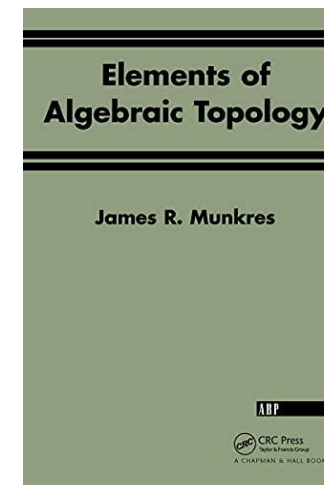
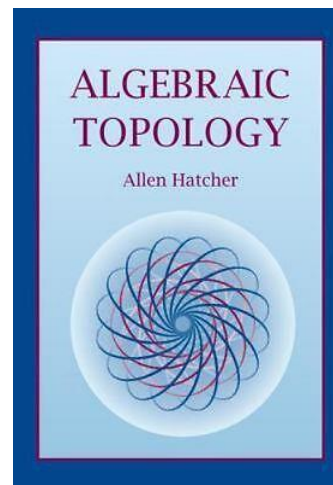
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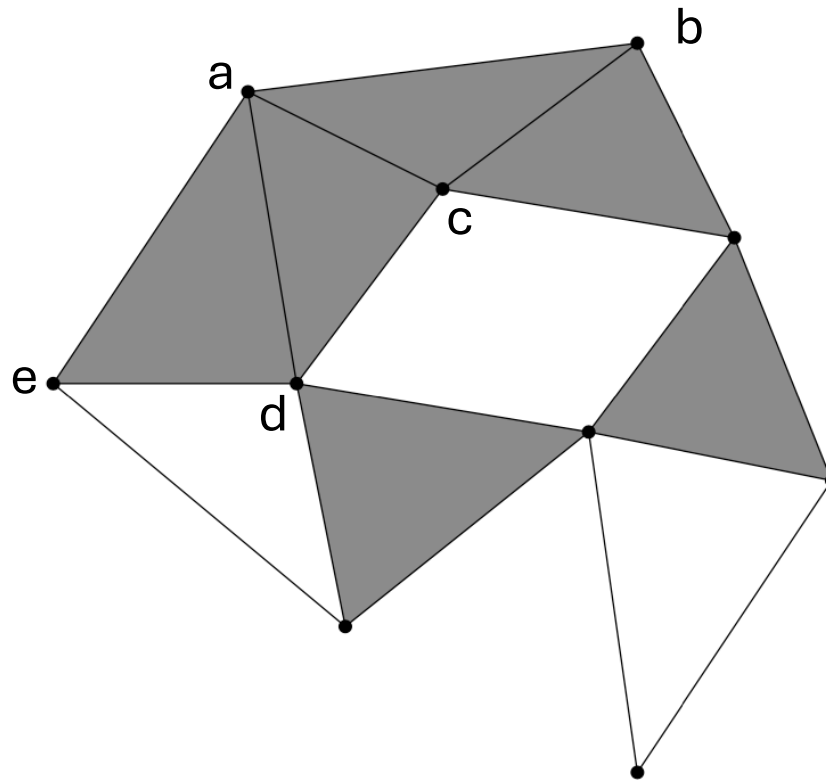
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- The above theorem is a fundamental fact making homology theory possible
- The proof of it and any further algebraic interpretations of it are beyond the scope of this course.



# Fundamental theorem of homology

- A simple exercise: calculate the boundary of  $\partial(abc + acd + ade)$ .

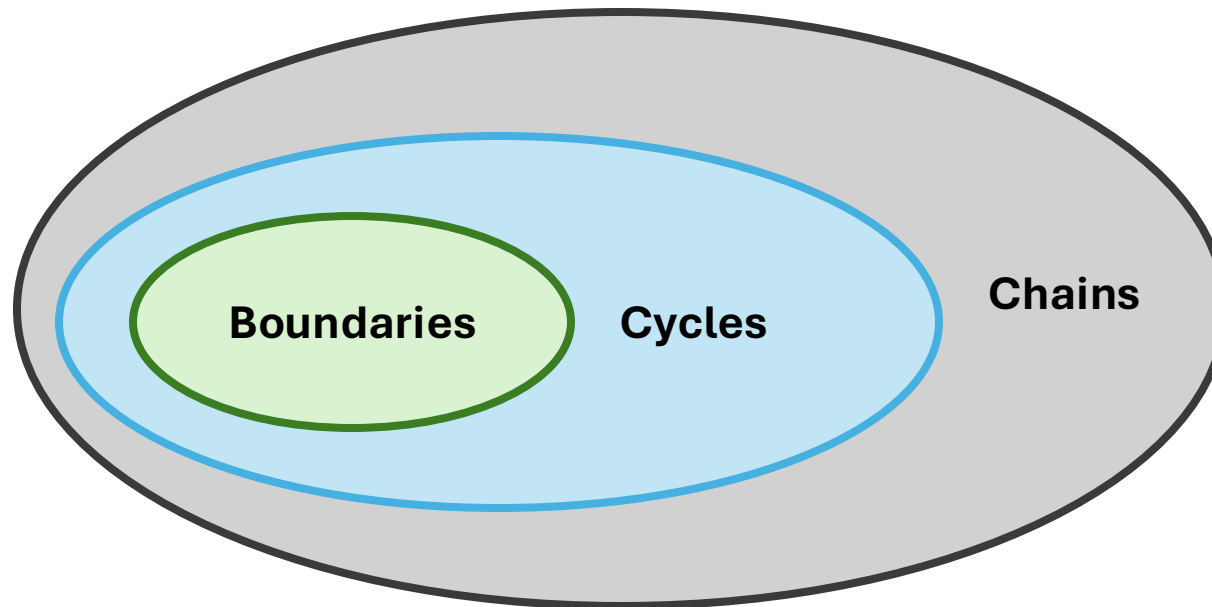


# Classification for the set of all cycles

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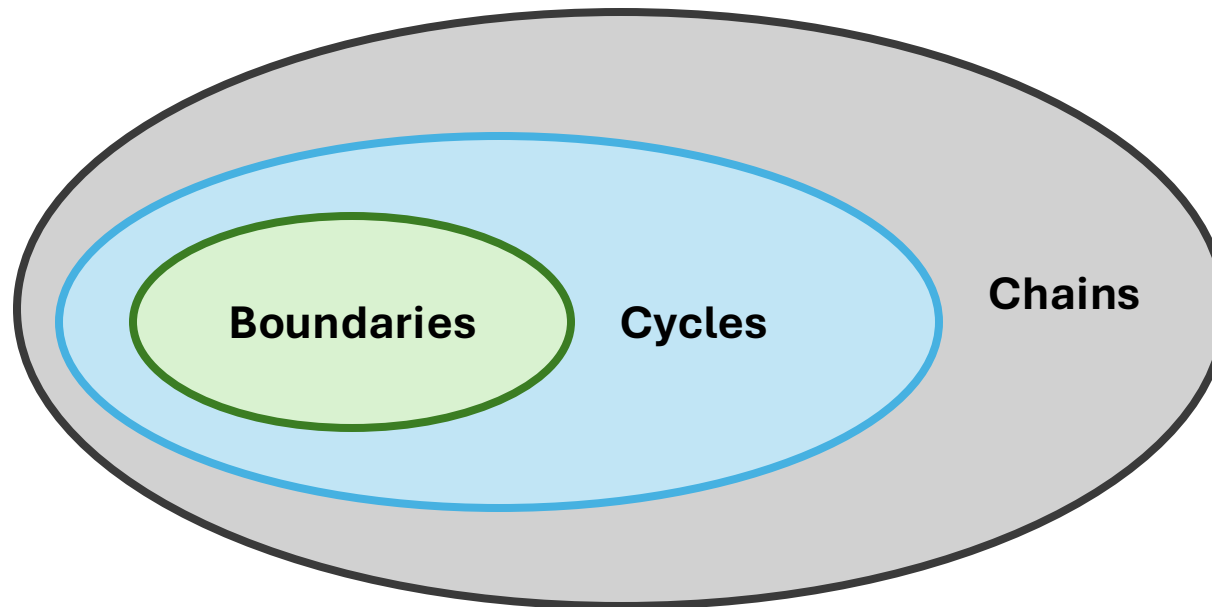
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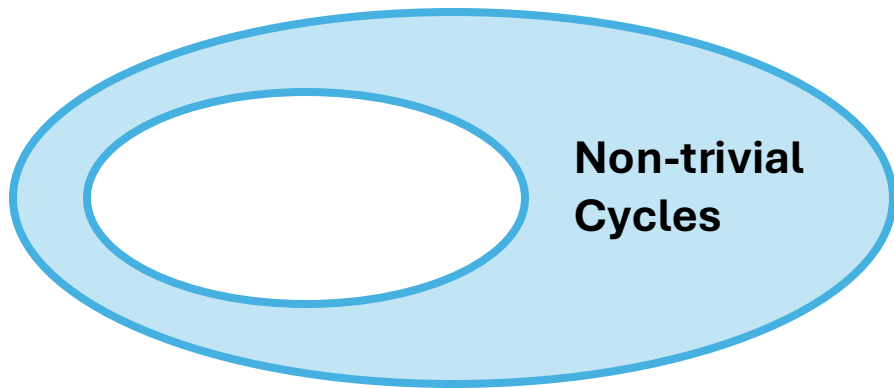
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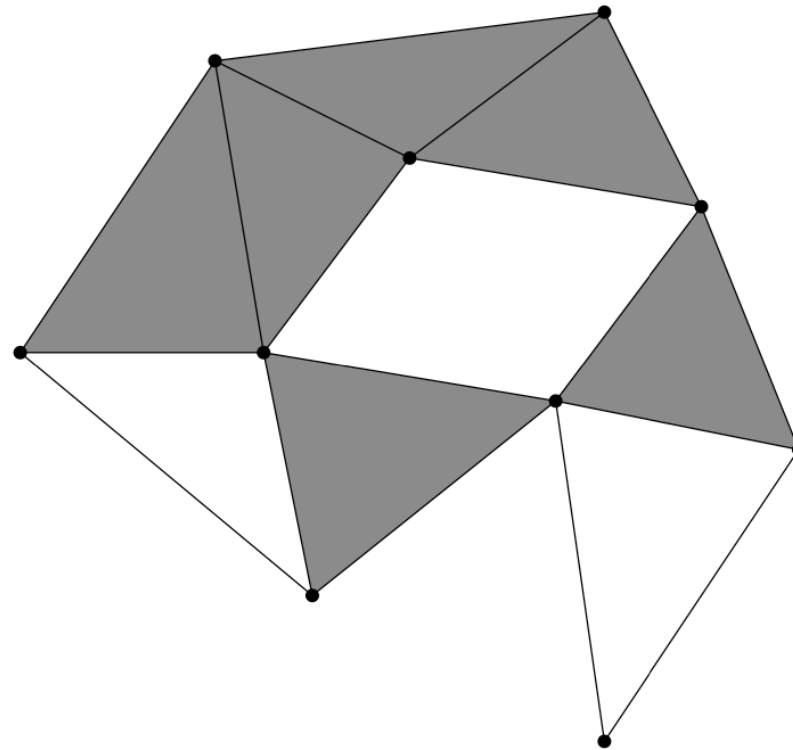


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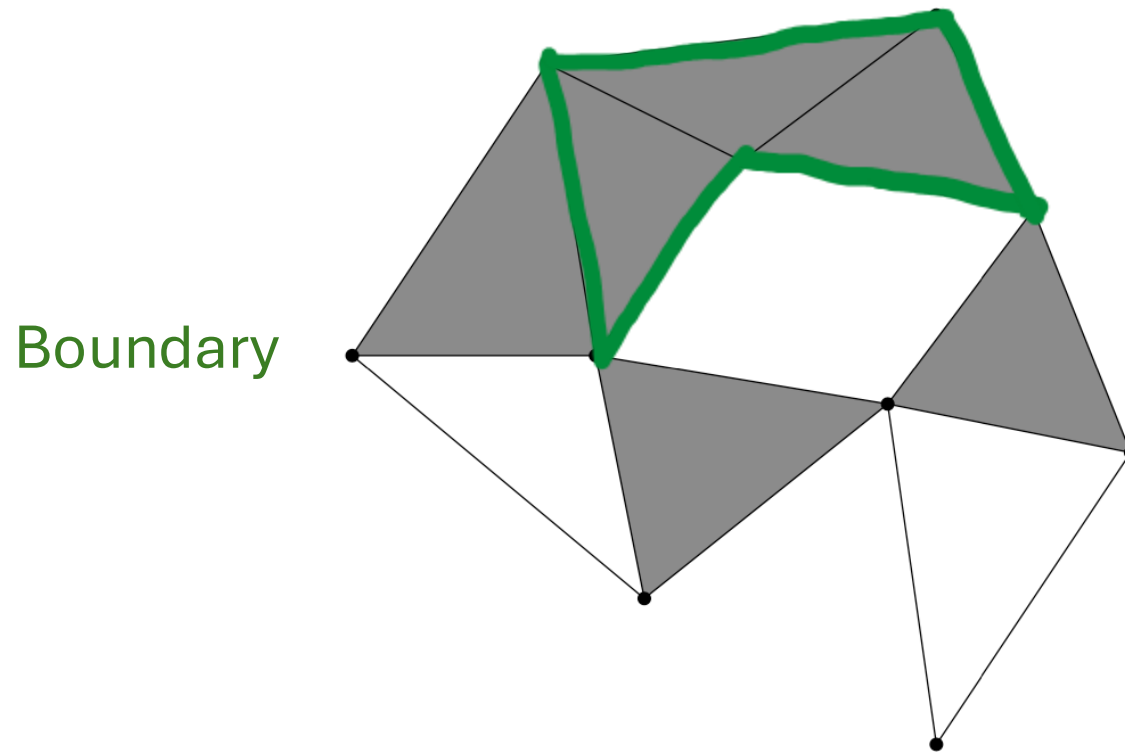
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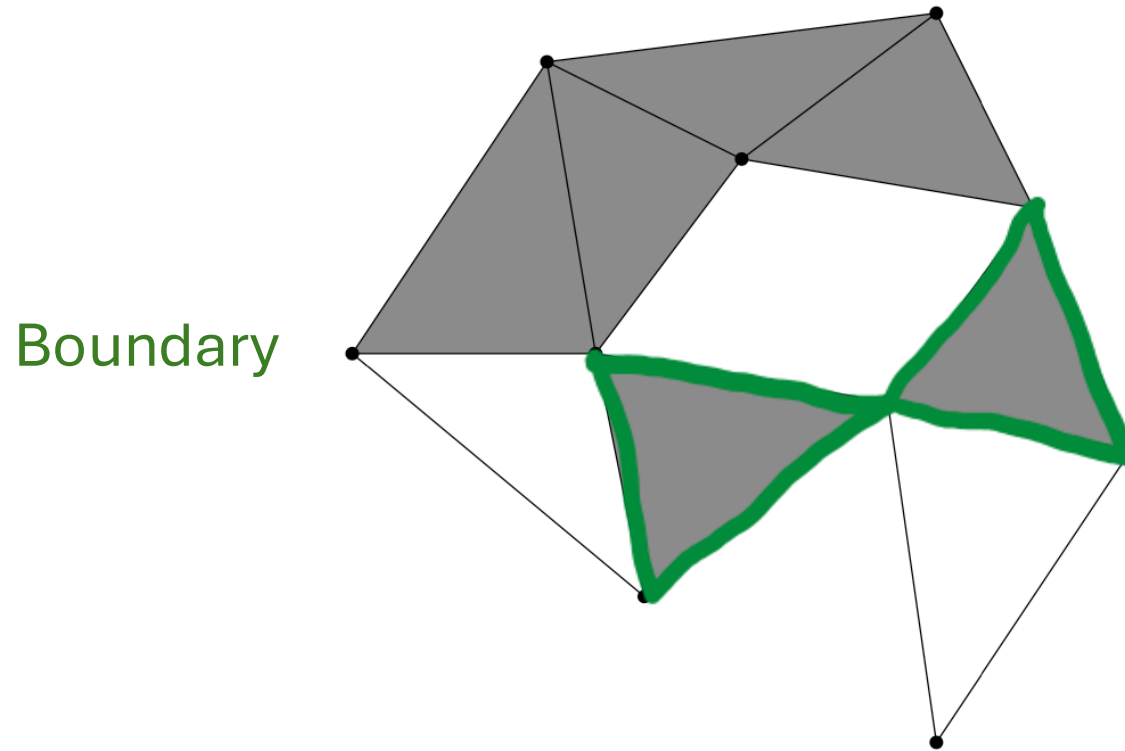
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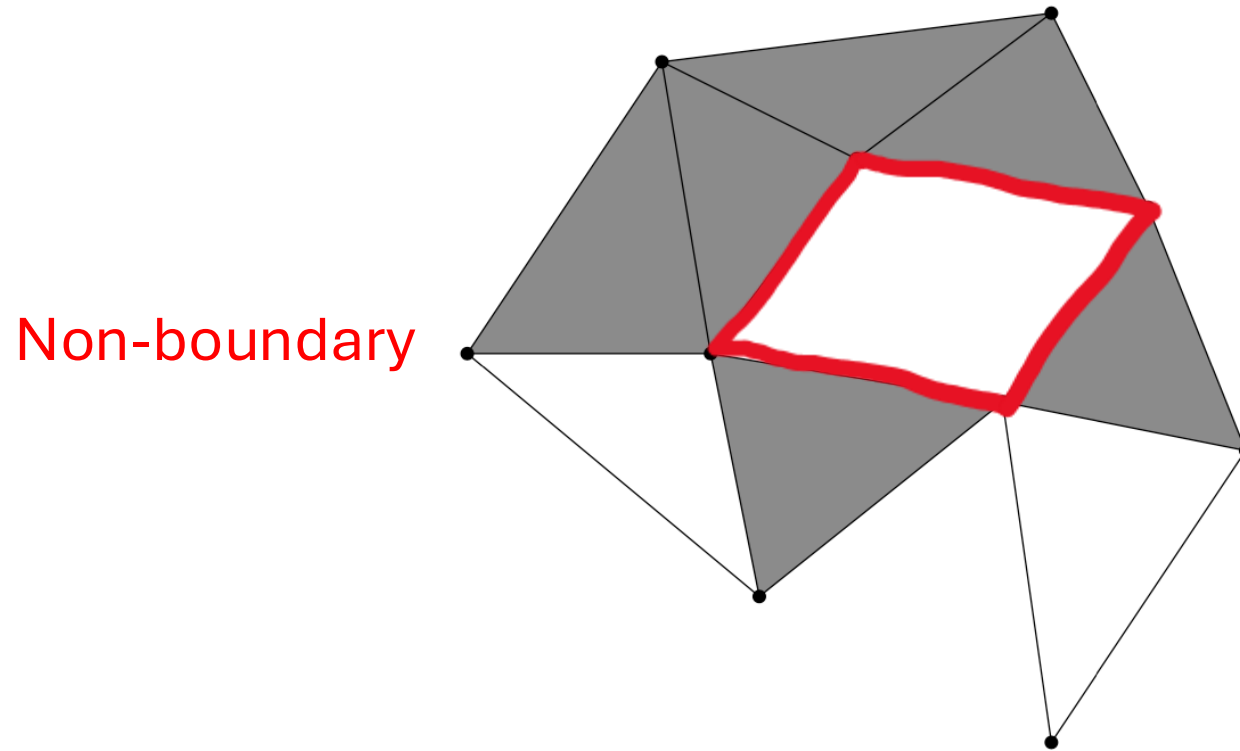
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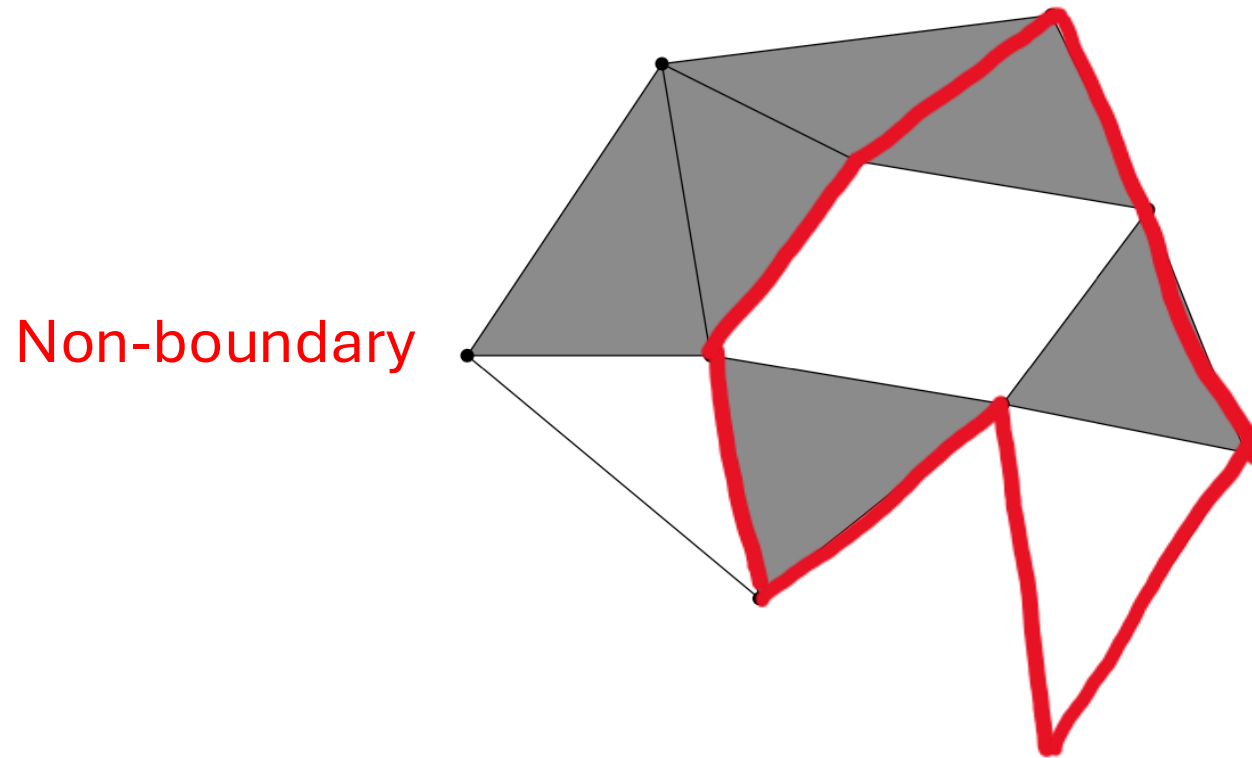
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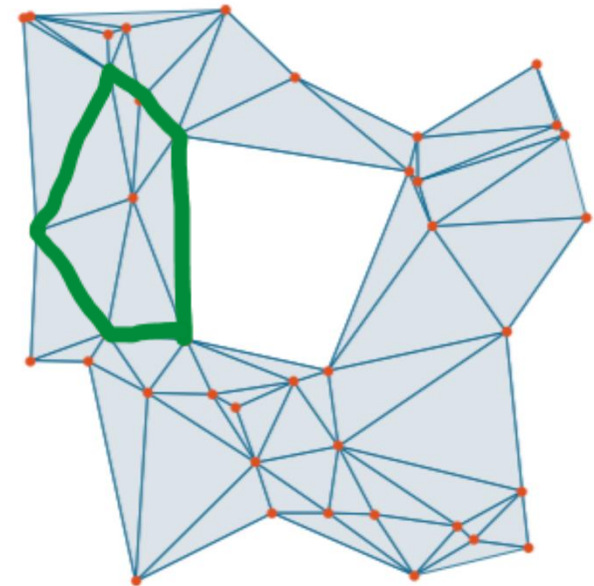
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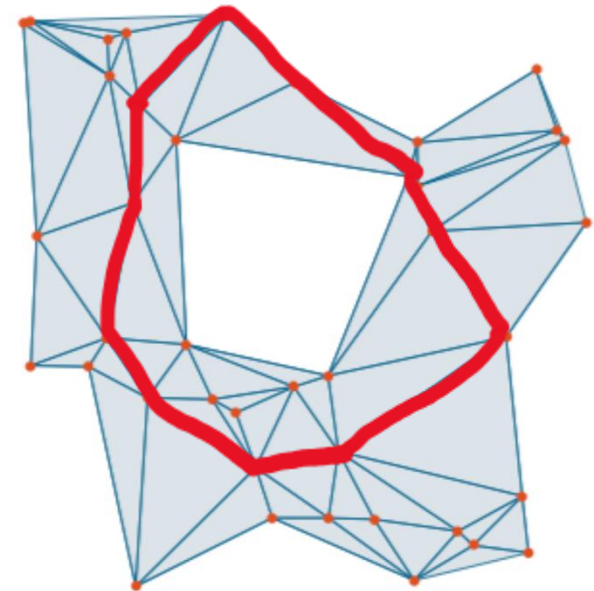
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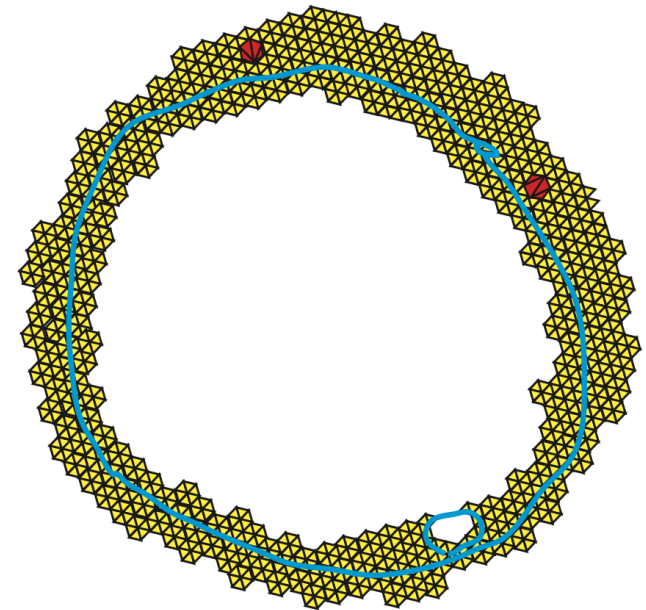
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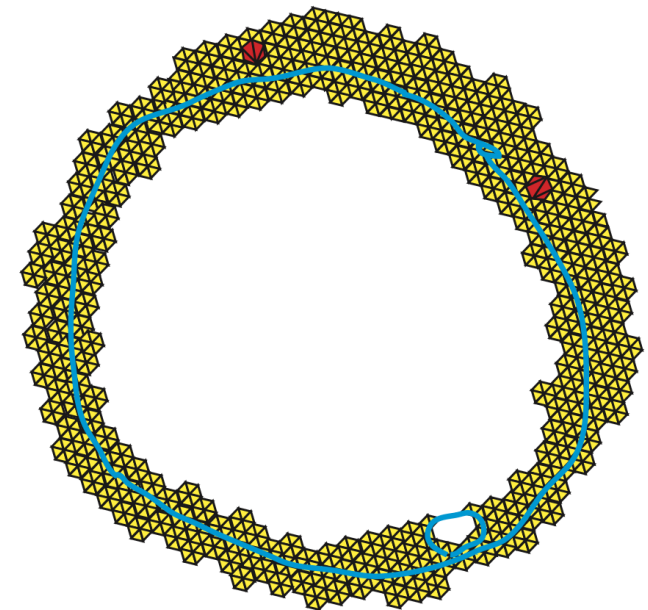
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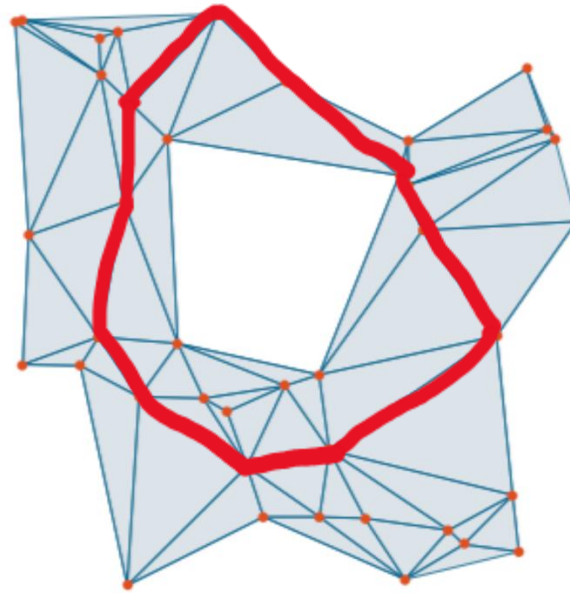
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- Ex: For the right simplicial complex, do you think the **red** boundary cycle represent the shape, or the **large blue** non-boundary one?
- **Trying to capture the something like the major blue cycle to represent the shape of data is an aim of TDA and the course!!**



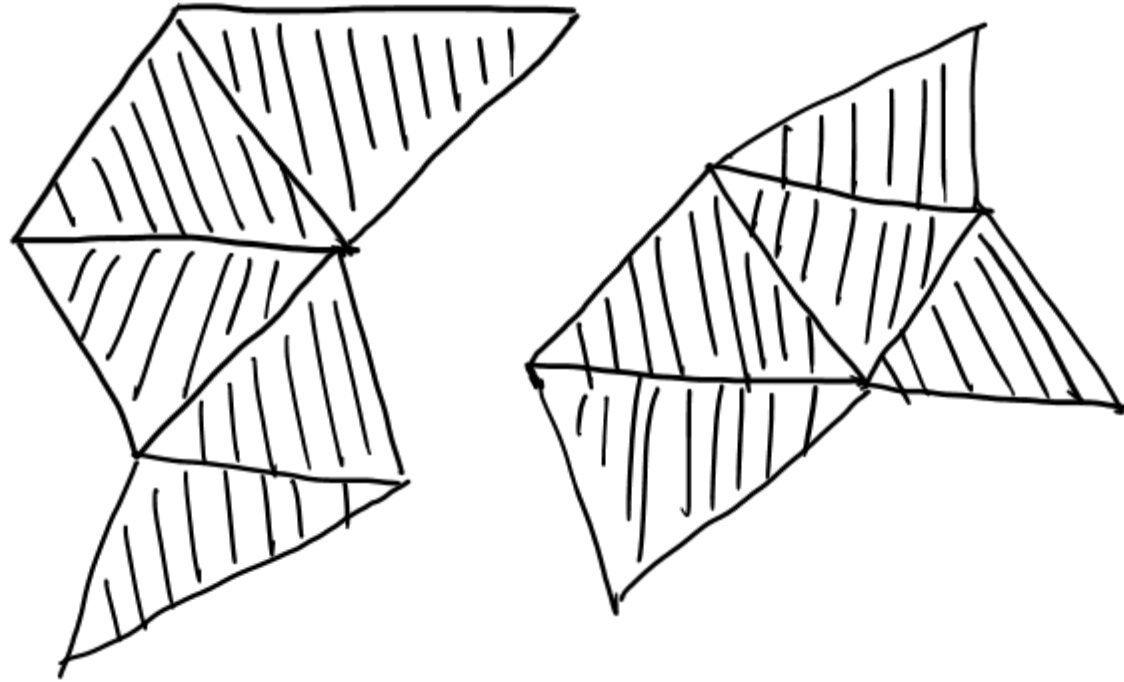
# Homology Studies: Cycles That Are NOT Boundaries

- So far we have been showing **1-dimensional non-boundary cycles** (aka. holes) captured by homology theory, partially because it's easy to visualize
- But notice that homology can capture holes in any dimension ( $\geq 0$ ).
- What about holes in other dimensions?



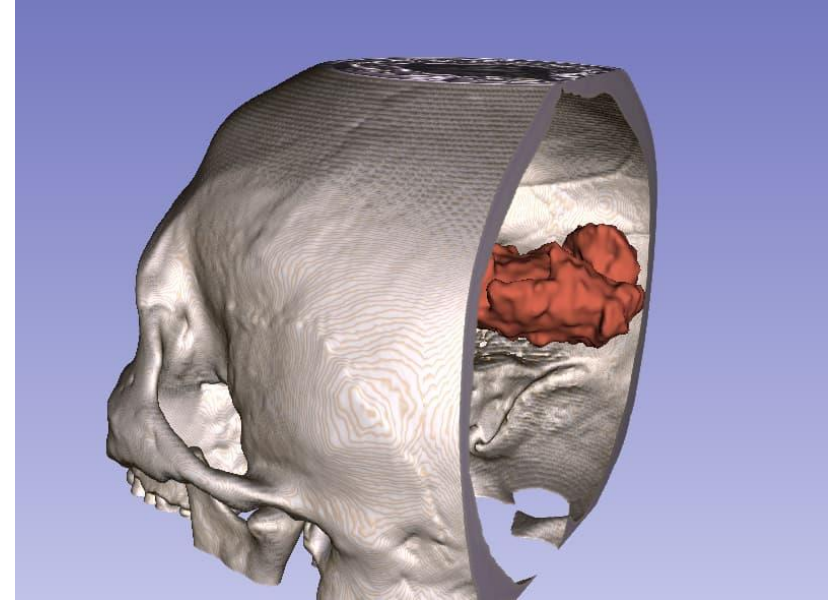
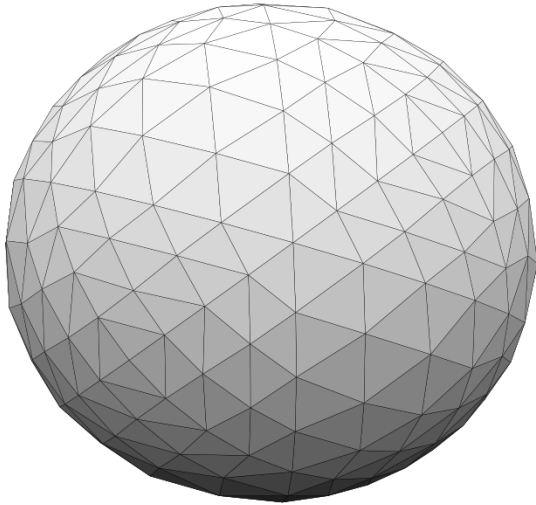
# Homology Studies: Cycles That Are NOT Boundaries

- **0-dimensional holes** capture “gaps” between different connected components:



# Homology Studies: Cycles That Are NOT Boundaries

- **2-dimensional holes** capture “cavity” or “hollowness” inside:



# Homology Basis: Additional Structures on Cycle Space

- Okay, now we know that homology studies cycles that are not boundaries
- But we can observe more algebraic structures on the cycles in a simplicial complex
- **Fact:** Each  $d$ -cycle of a simplicial complex is “generated by” a set of non-trivial  $d$ -cycles called the ***homology basis***.

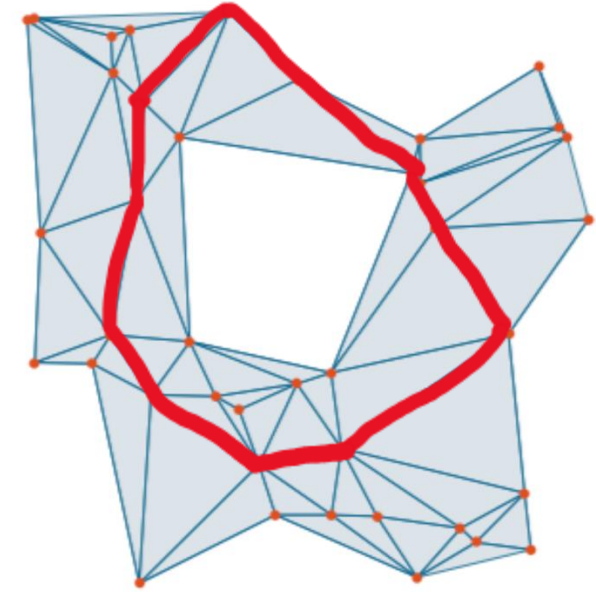
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- Formally, a  $d$ -cycle  $z$  being “generated by” cycles in the homology basis means that  $z$  **can be written as:**
  - A sum of cycles in the basis + a boundary (which is “trivial”).



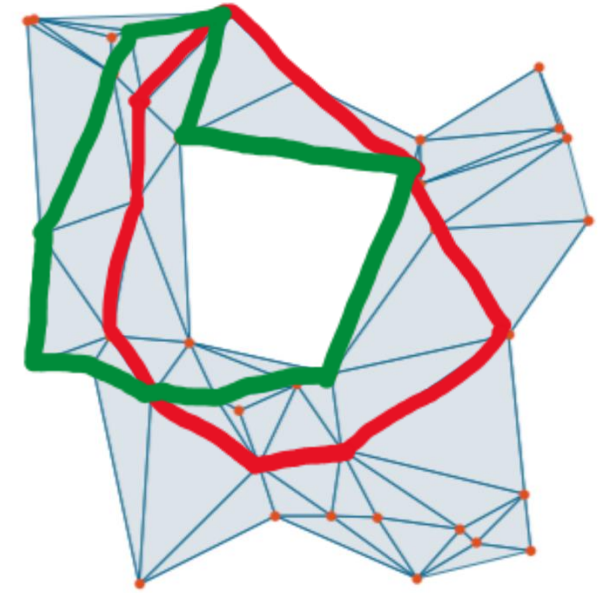
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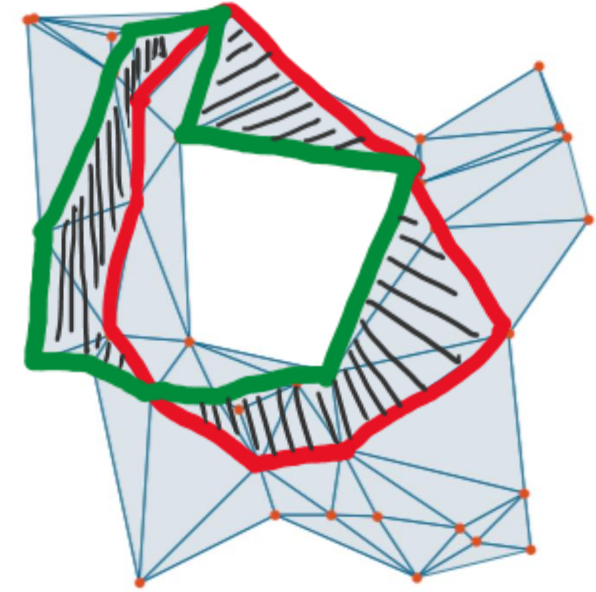
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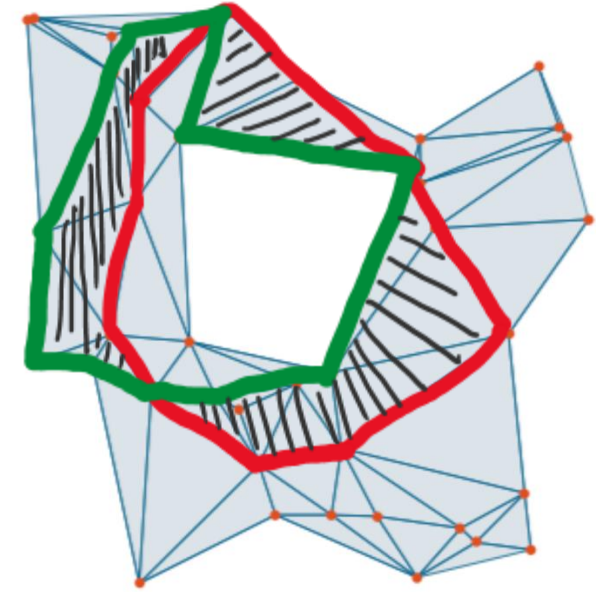
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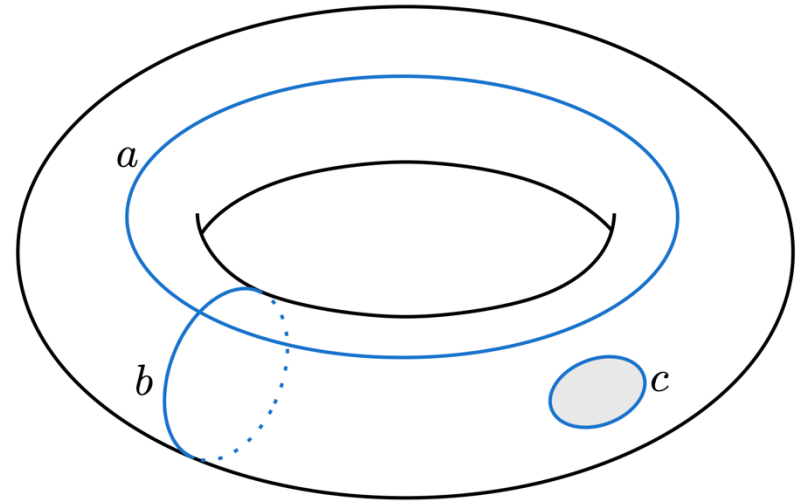
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- In a sense, the red cycle “generates” the green cycle because you can **continuously stretch the red one to the green one**



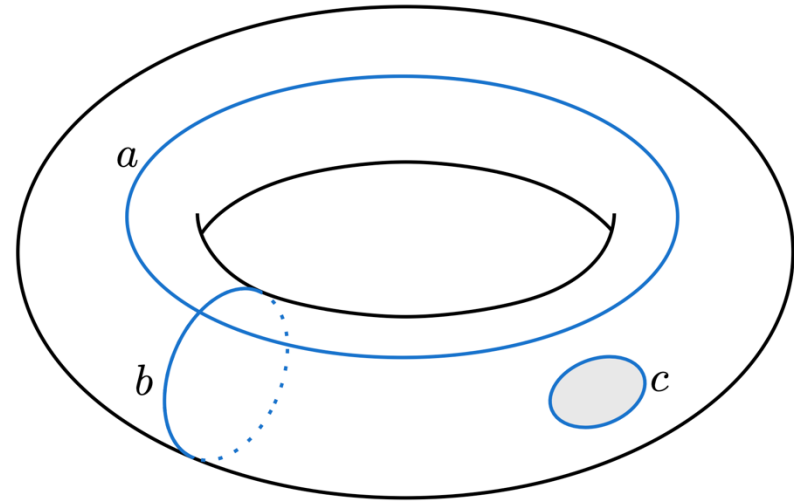
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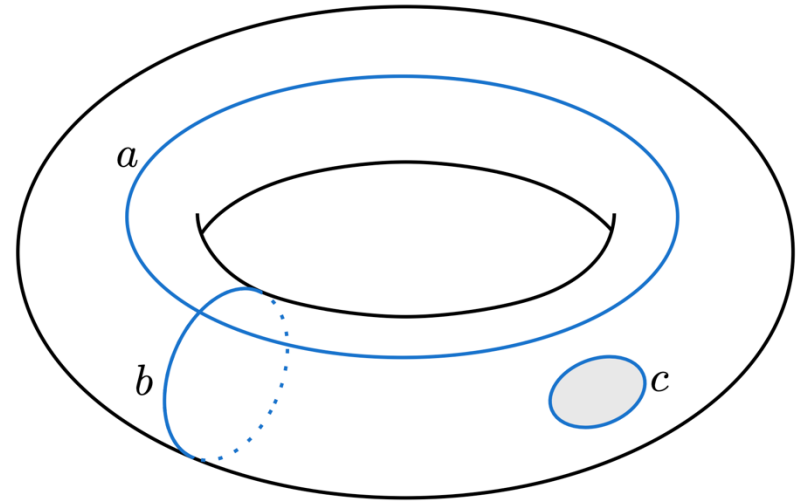
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- One way to differentiate trivial and non-trivial cycles on a torus:
  - a non-trivial cycle does not cut the torus into two pieces



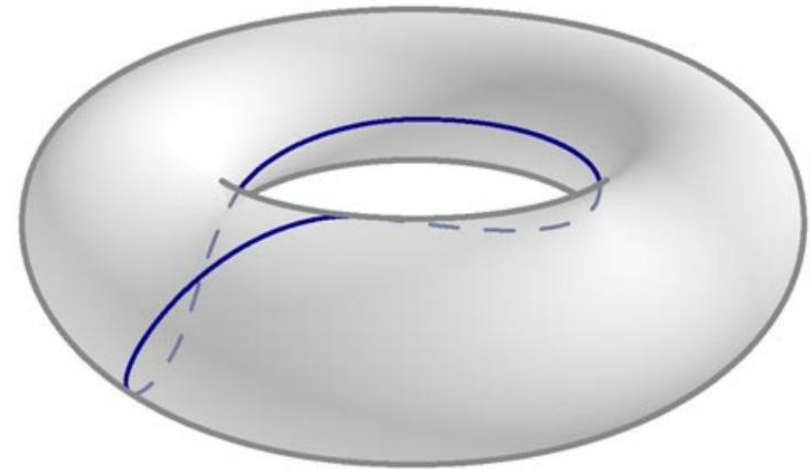
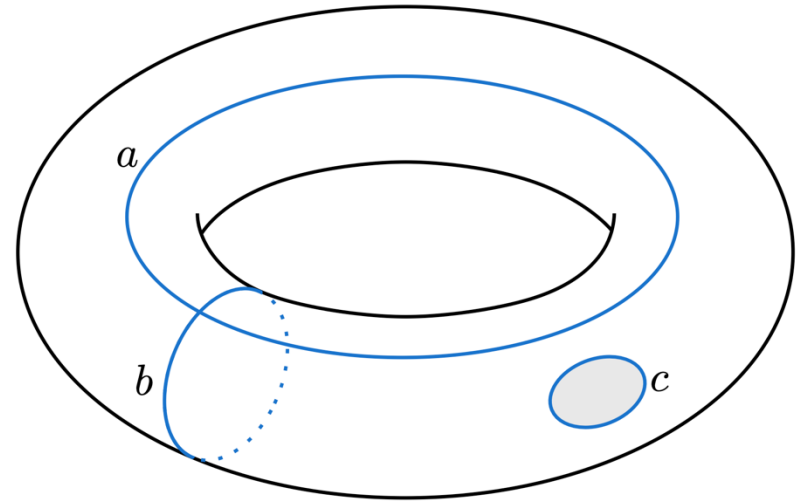
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- **Ex:** A homology basis for the 1-cycles in a torus (the surface of a donut) contains two 1-cycles:
  - **$a$  (longitude) and  $b$  (meridian)**
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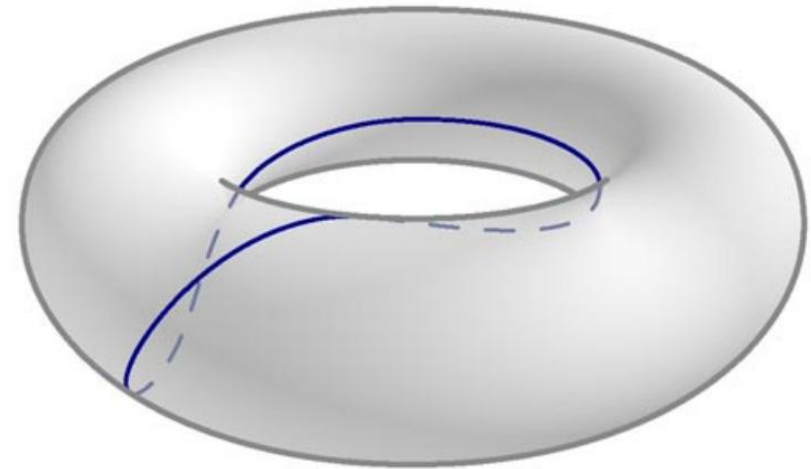
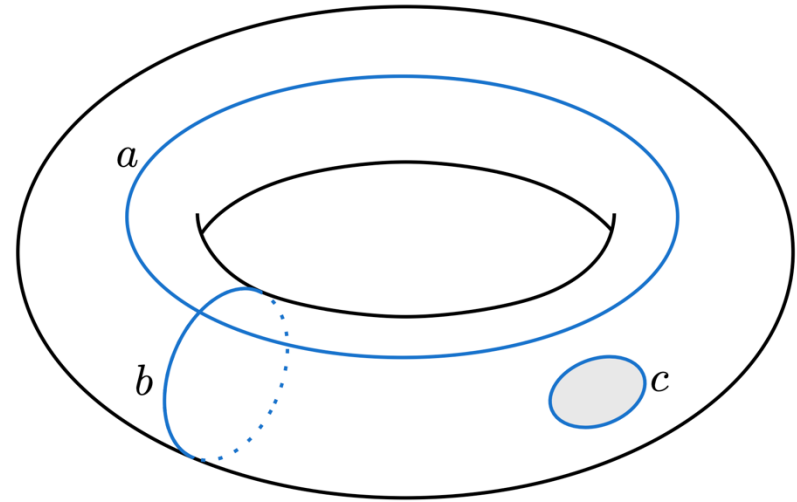
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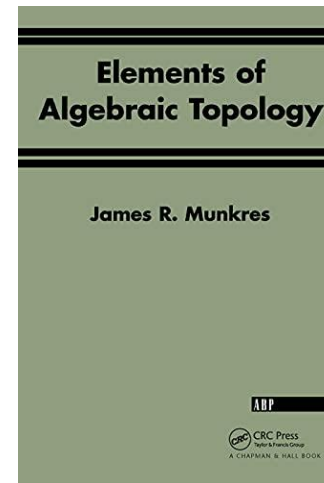
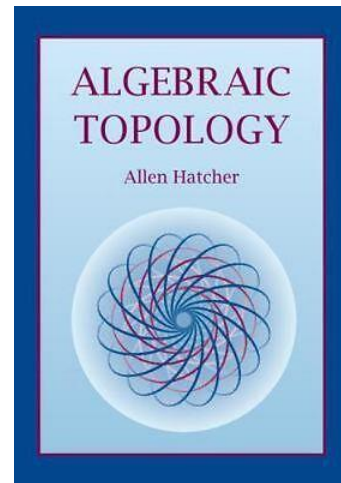
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  - $a + b + a$  boundary



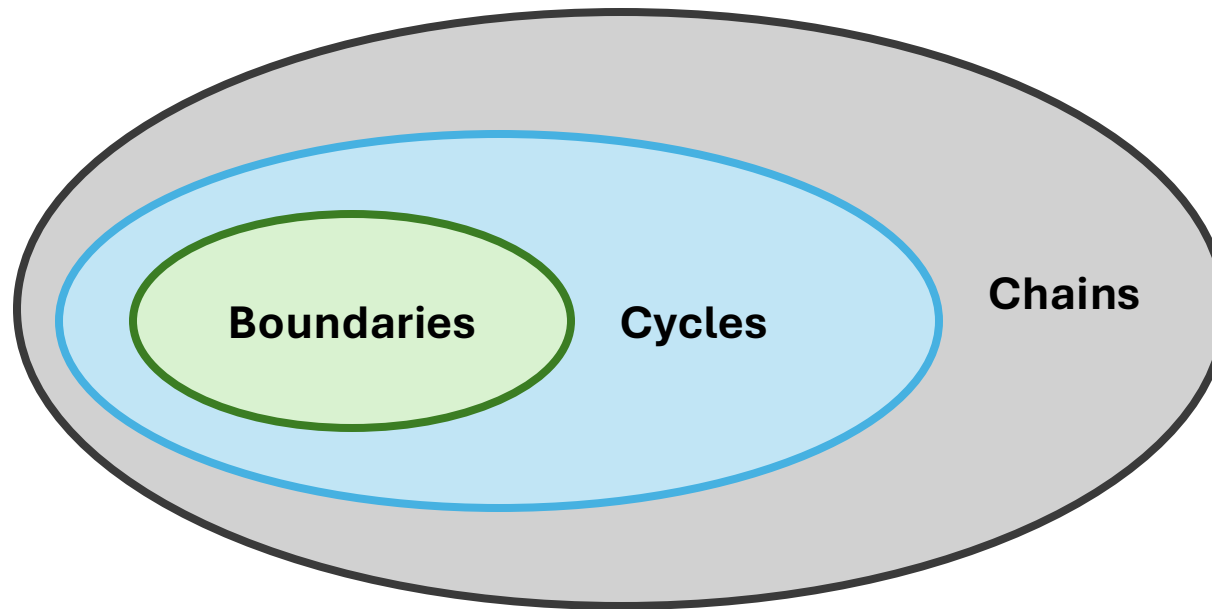
# Full Algebraic Structures on Cycle Space

- We will briefly explain the full algebraic structures for the cycles and boundaries we described so far; see the textbooks for detailed formulation



# Full Algebraic Structures on Cycle Space

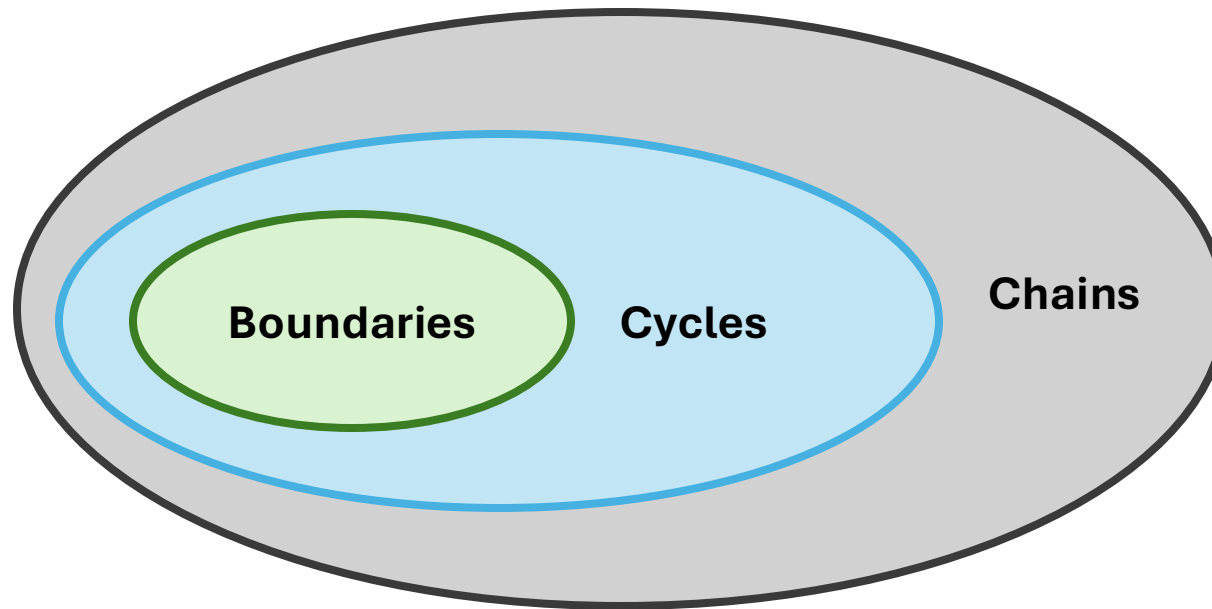
- Recall the following picture.
- We have that all  $p$ -chains for simplicial complex  $K$  not only form a set, but also form a **vector space** (object studied by linear algebra; see: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vector\\_space](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vector_space)), denoted by  $C_p(K)$



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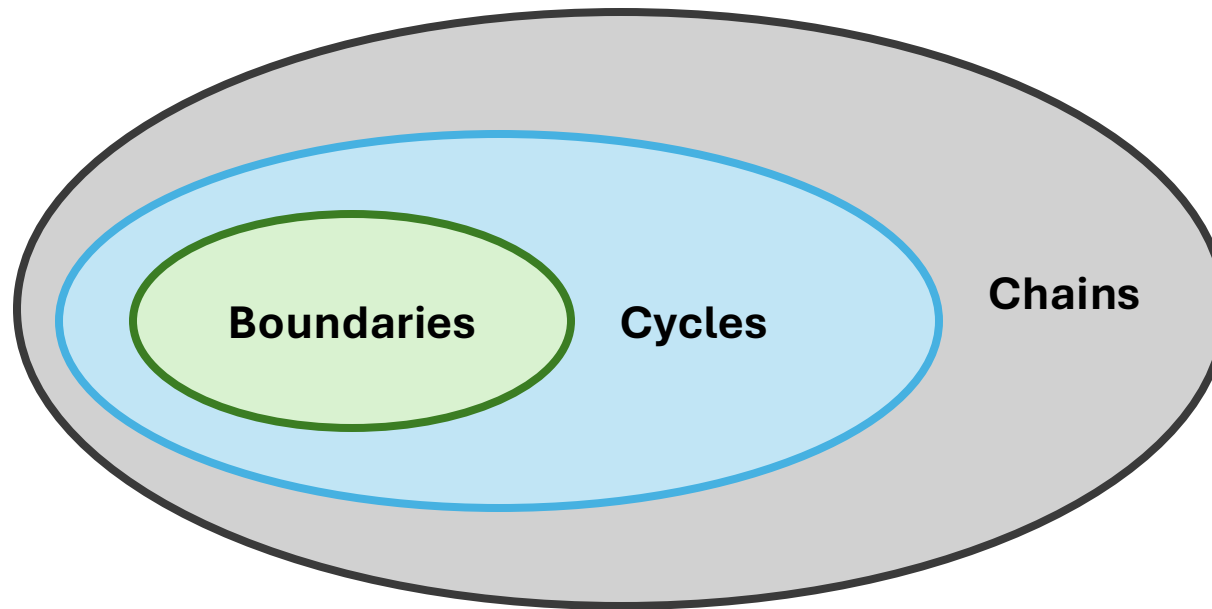
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- Furthermore, boundaries and cycles are not only subsets but also **vector subspaces** of  $Z_p(K)$ , denoted  $B_p(K)$  and  $Z_p(K)$  respectively.



$$B_p(K) \subseteq Z_p(K) \subseteq C_p(K)$$

# Homology group

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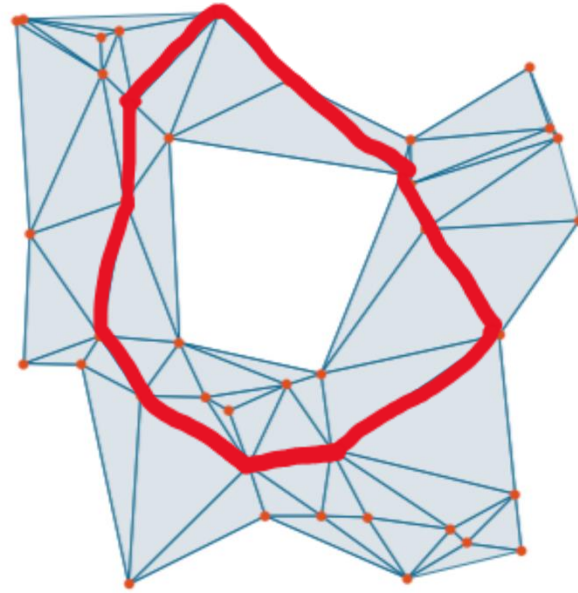
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- BTW, the cardinality (number of elements) of the homology basis for the  $p$ -dimensional cycles is called the  **$p$ -th Betti number**, denoted  $\beta_p$ .

# Betti number

- $\beta_1 = 1$



# Betti number

- $\beta_1 = 2$

