

Simplicial Complexes and Homology

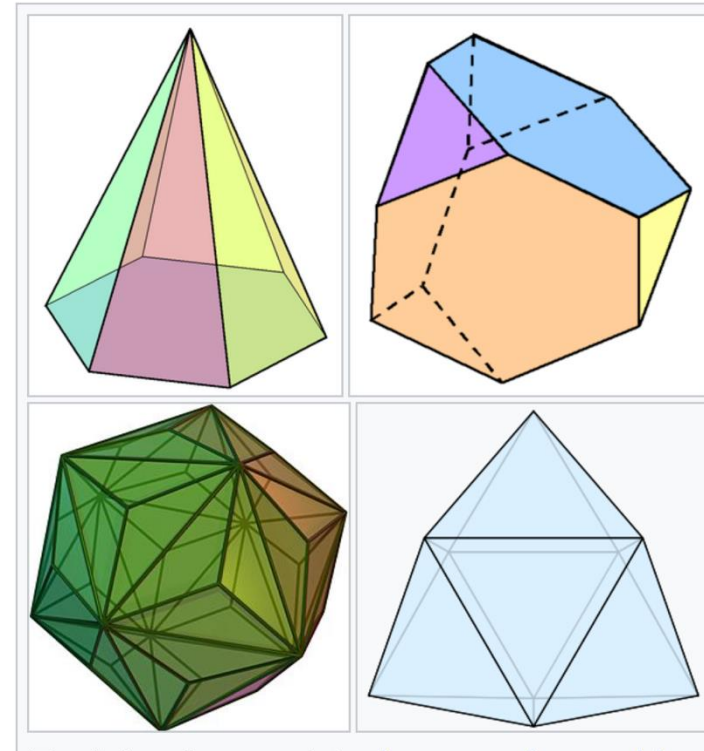
Tao Hou, University of Oregon

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:

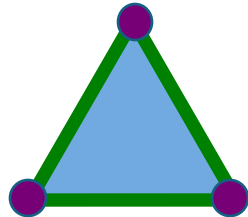
vertex



edge



face



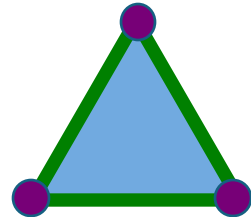
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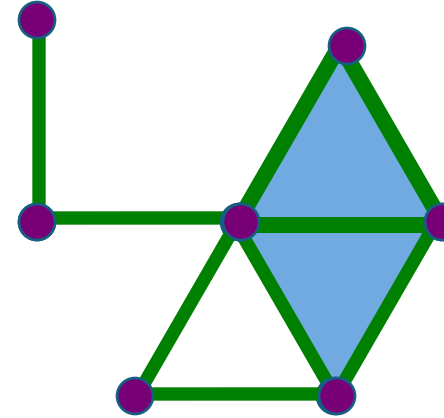
edge



face



Example:



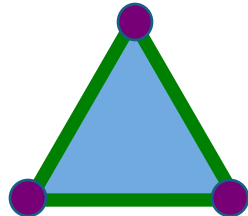
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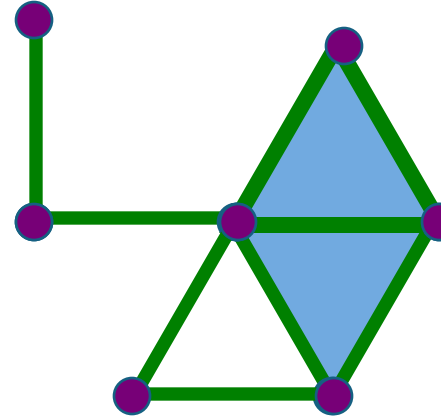
edge



face



Example:



7 vertices,
9 edges,
2 faces.

Euler characteristic (simple form):

χ = number of vertices – number of edges + number of faces

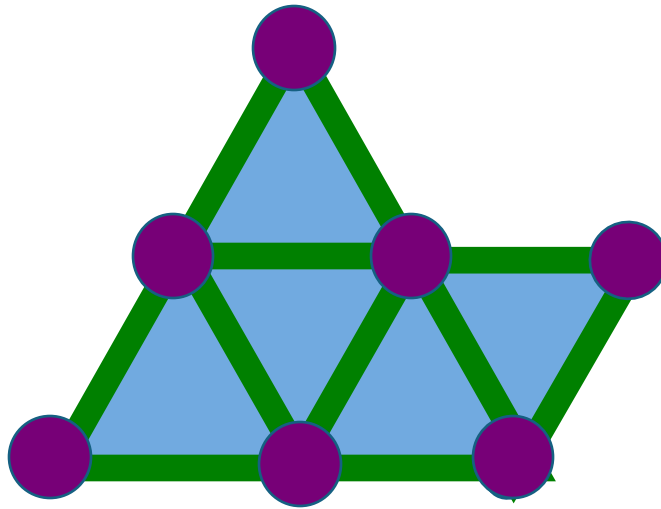
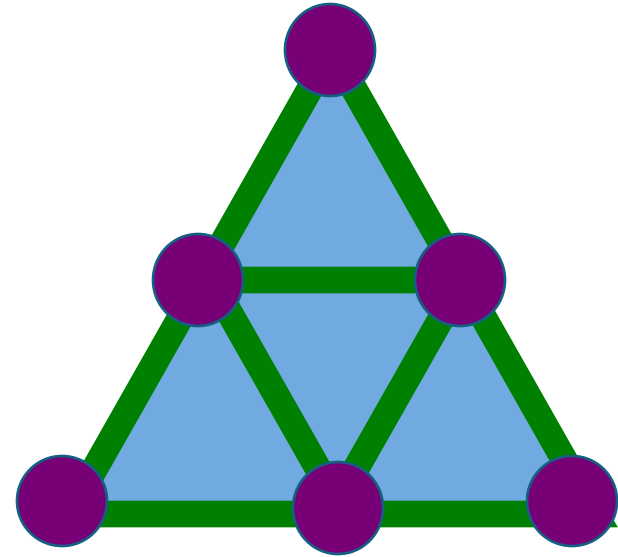
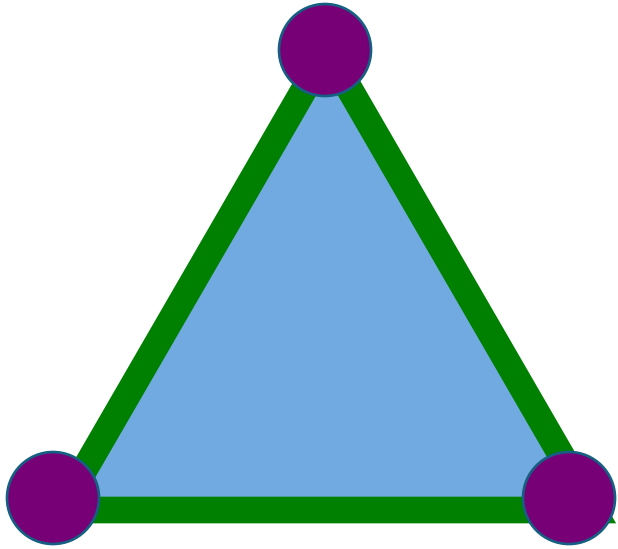
Or in short-hand,

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

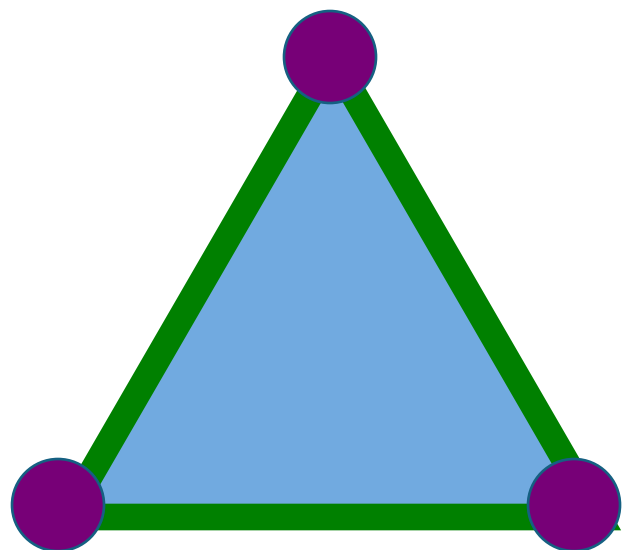
where V = set of vertices

E = set of edges

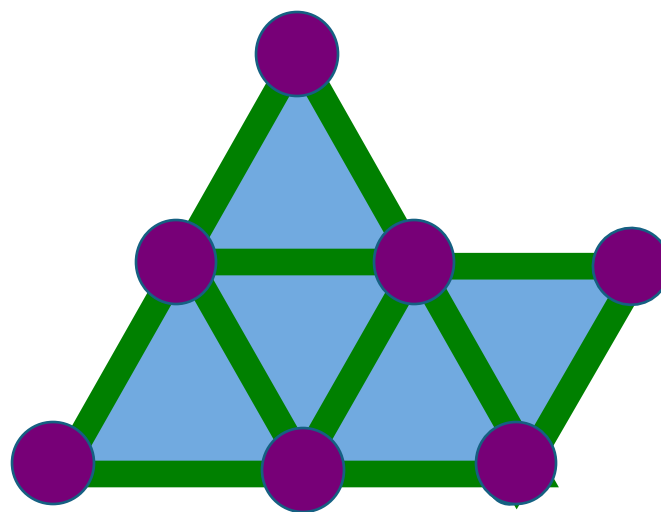
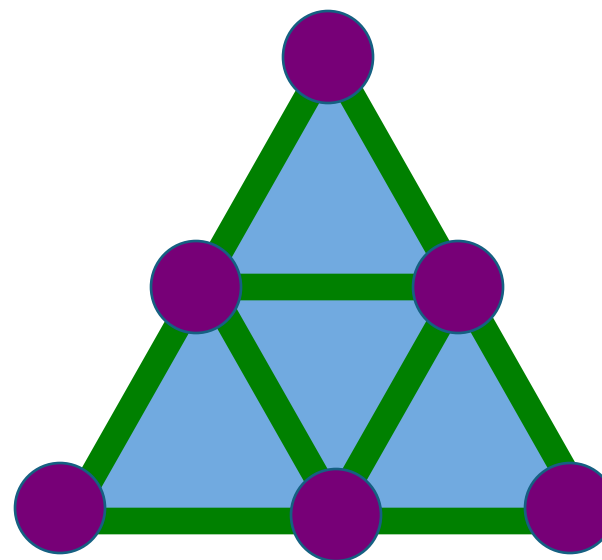
F = set of faces



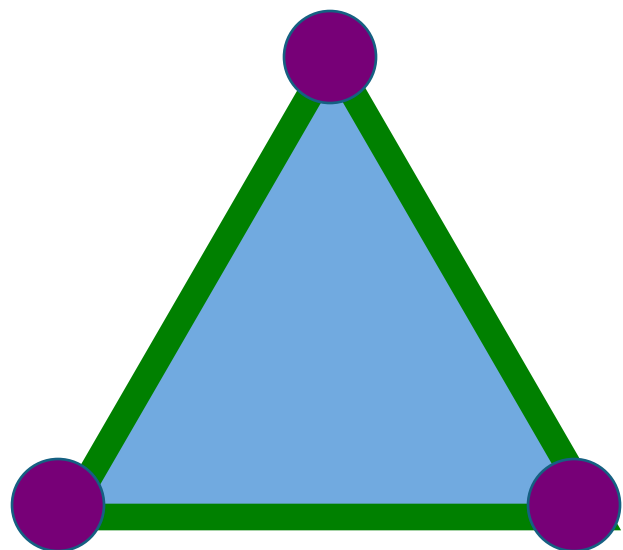
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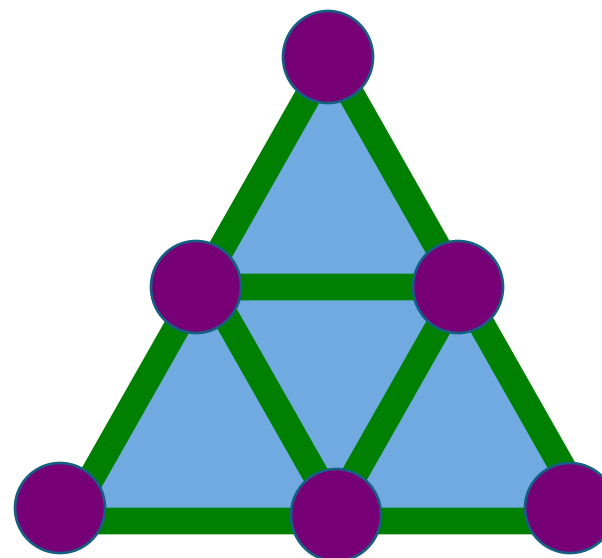
$$\chi = 3 - 3 + 1 = 1$$



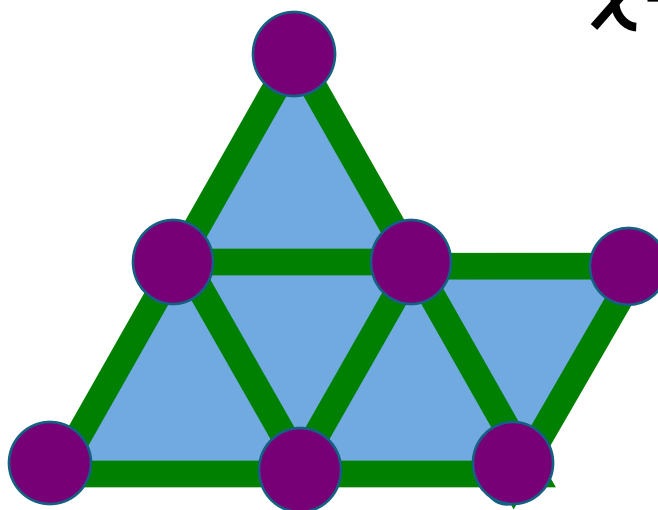
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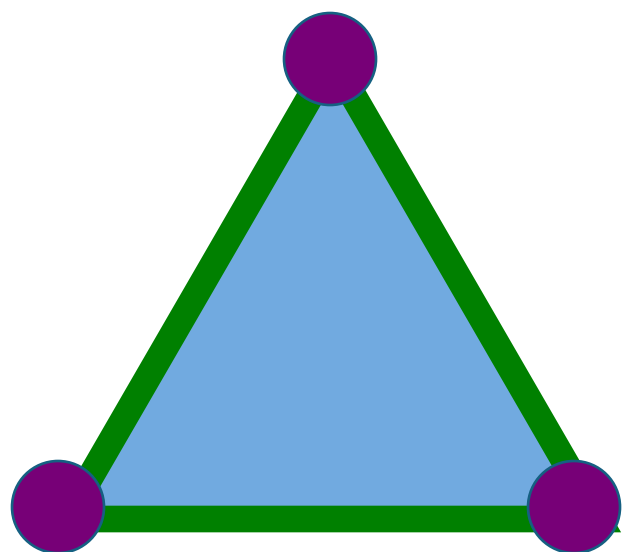
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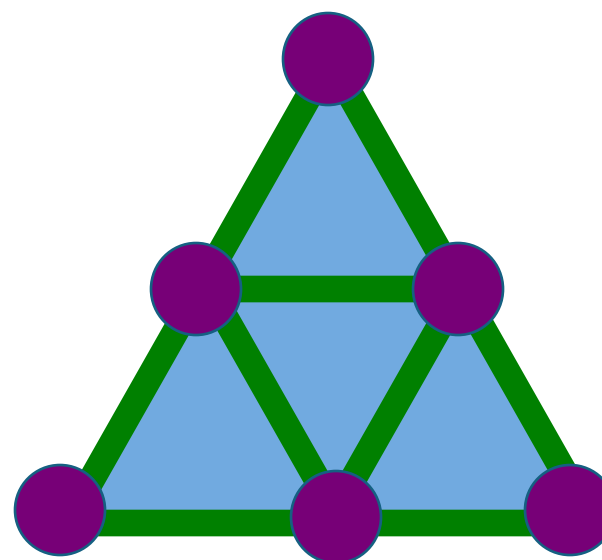
$$\chi = 6 - 9 + 4 = 1$$



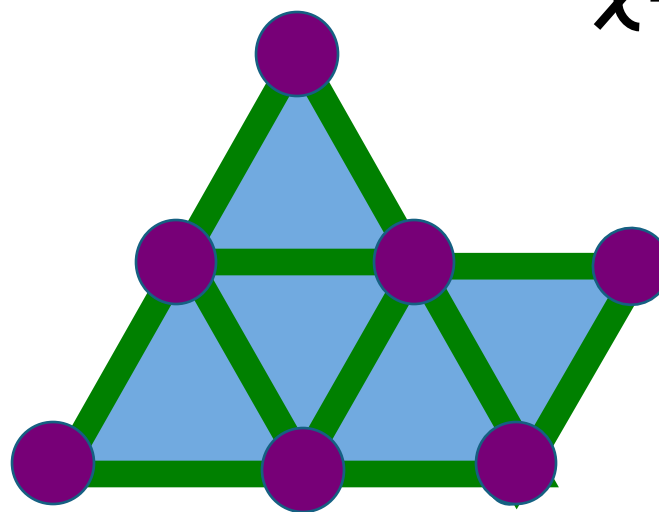
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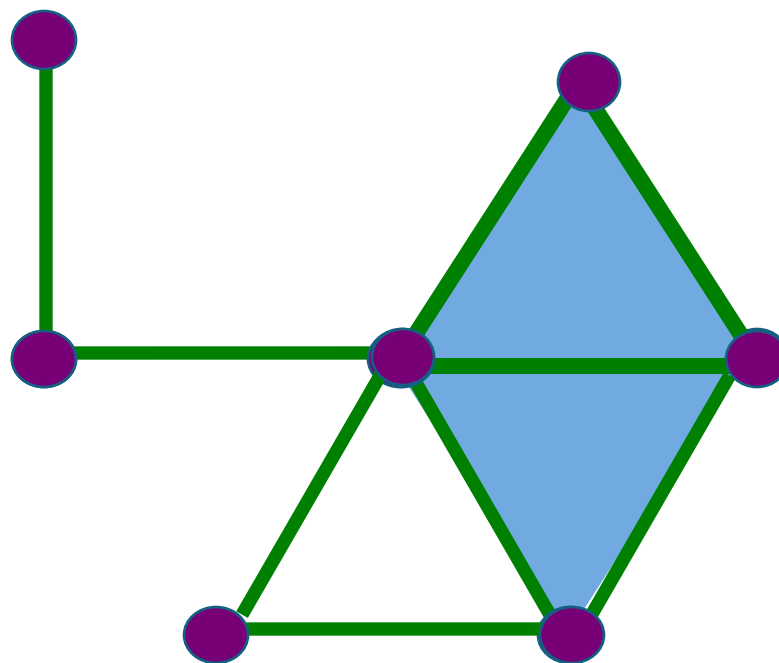
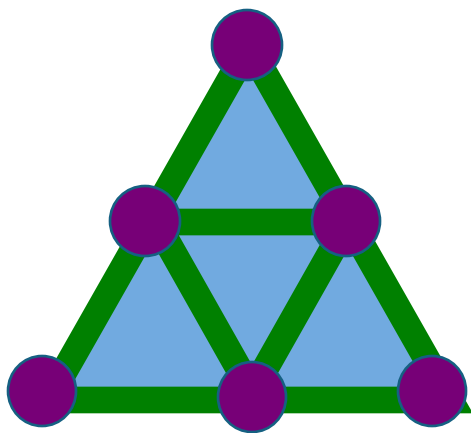


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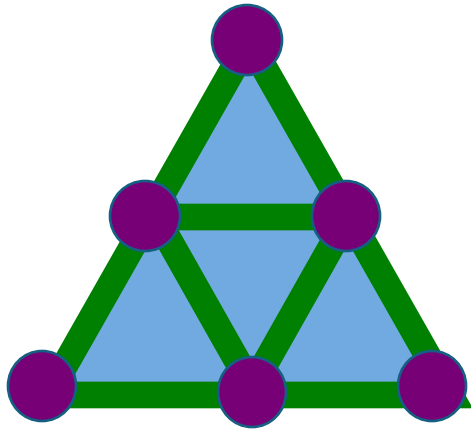


$$\chi = 7 - 11 + 5 = 1$$

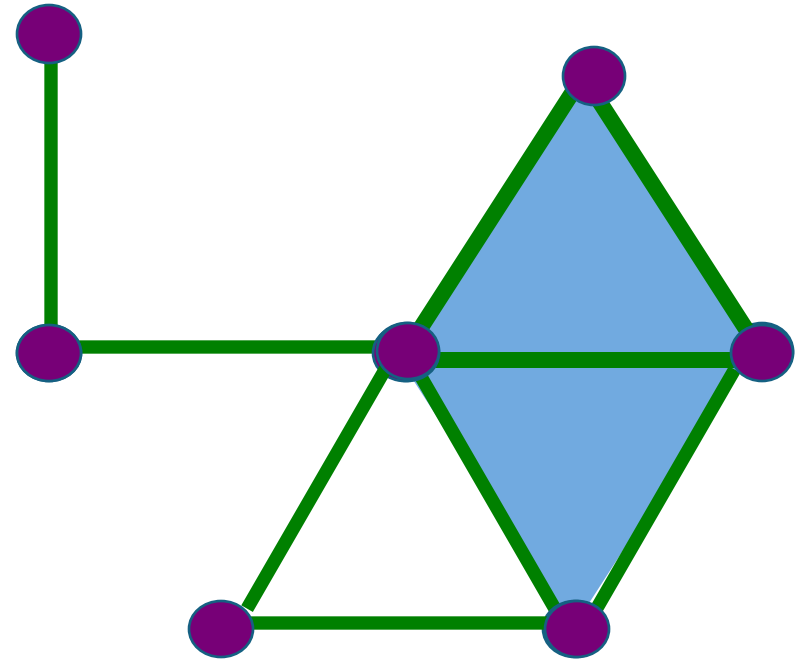
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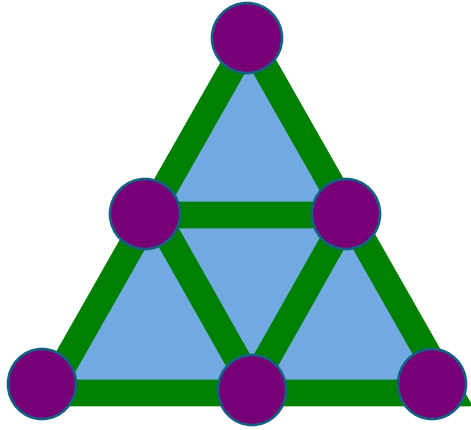
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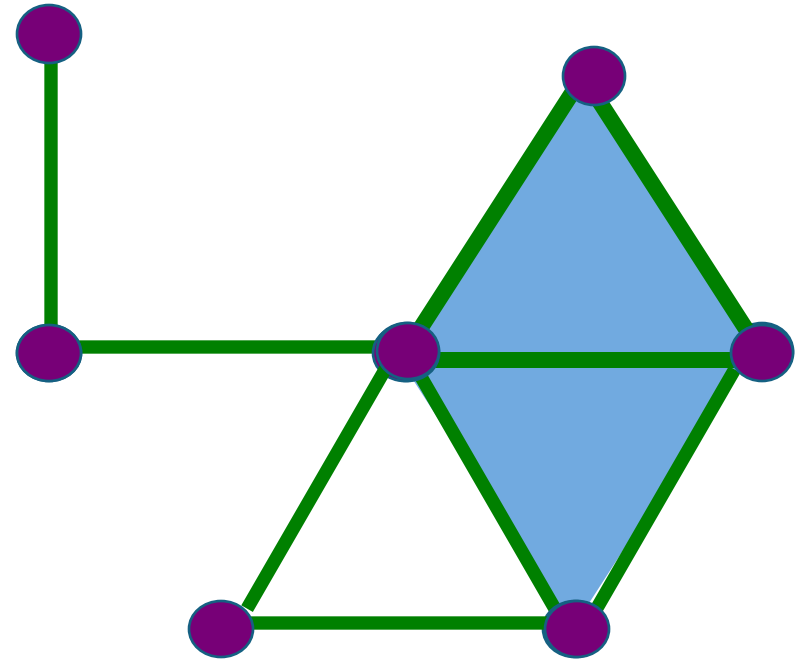
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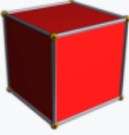

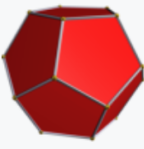
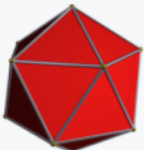
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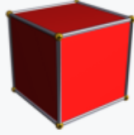

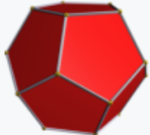

$$\chi = 7 - 9 + 2 = 0$$

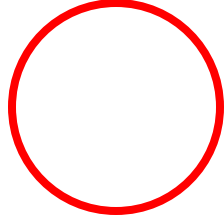
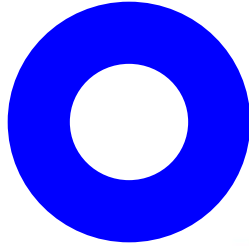
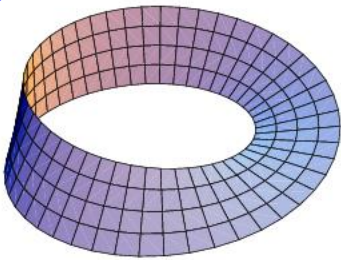
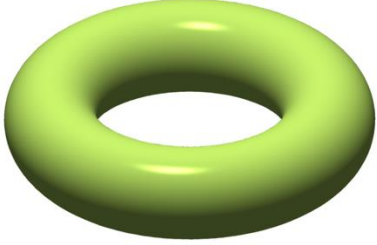
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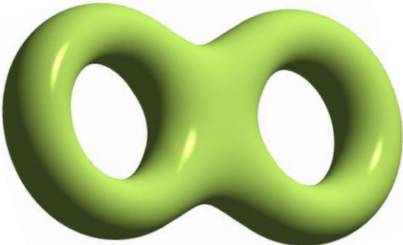
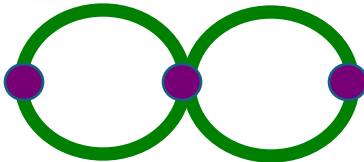
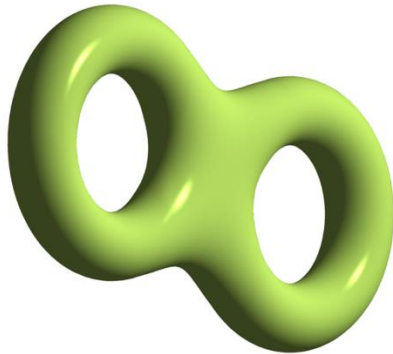
More examples

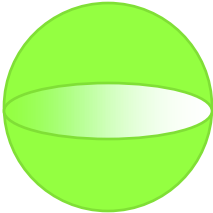

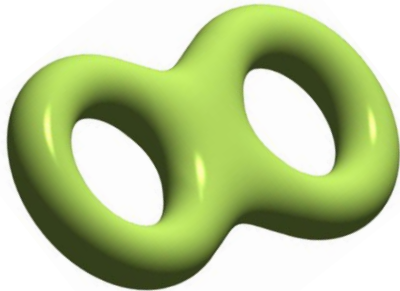
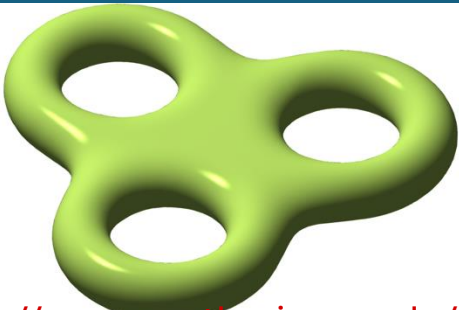
Name	Image	Vertices V	Edges E	Faces F	Euler characteristic: $\chi = V - E + F$
Tetrahedron					
Hexahedron or cube					
Octahedron					
Dodecahedron					
Icosahedron					

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	<div data-bbox="912 311 1126 382">circle</div> <div data-bbox="1286 261 1508 475"></div>
	<div data-bbox="912 618 1223 689">Annulus</div> <div data-bbox="1286 546 1533 789"></div>
	<div data-bbox="912 868 1396 939">Mobius band</div> <div data-bbox="1465 775 1803 1032"></div>
	<div data-bbox="912 1160 1421 1232">Torus = $S^1 \times S^1$</div> <div data-bbox="1516 1061 1890 1303"></div>

Euler characteristic	
-1	<p data-bbox="912 339 1658 415">Solid double torus</p>  <p data-bbox="912 572 1370 758">A graph of two cycles:</p> 
	<p data-bbox="912 925 1666 1225">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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 - **Definition:** A *tree* is a connected graph that does not contain a cycle

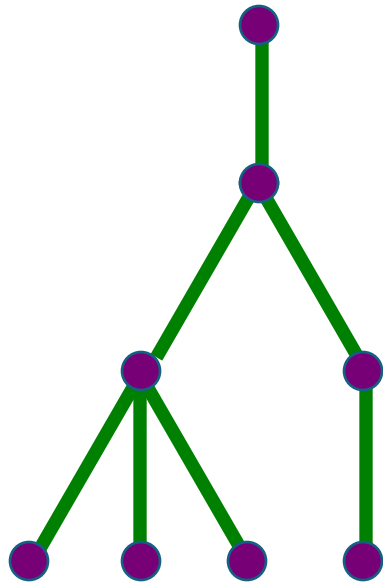
Euler characteristics for graphs

- 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

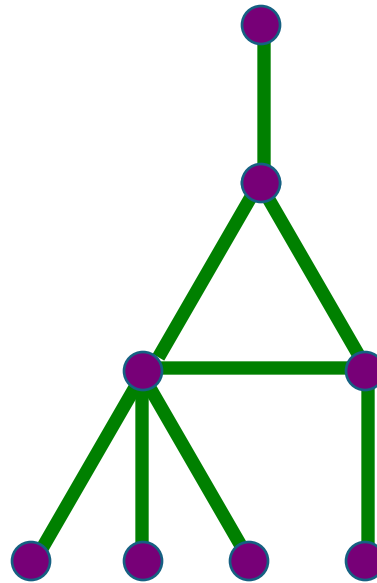
$$V - E = V - (V - 1) = 1.$$

Graphs: Identifying Trees

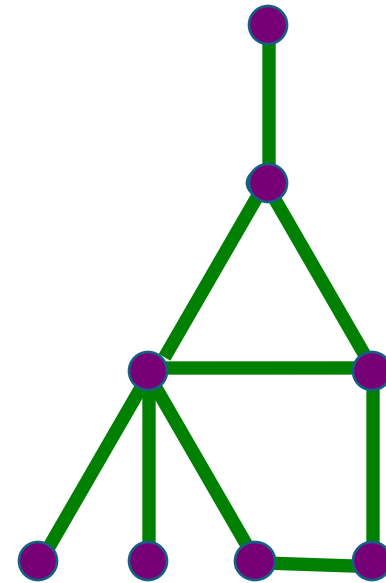
Defn: A *tree* is a connected graph that does not contain a cycle



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



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



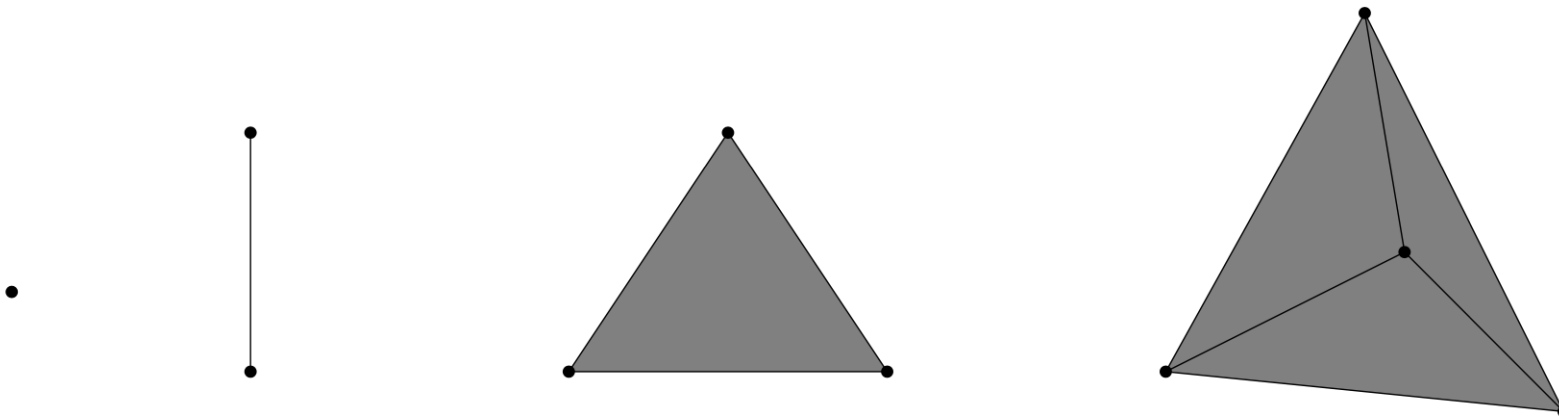
$$\chi = 8 - 9 = -1$$

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**.

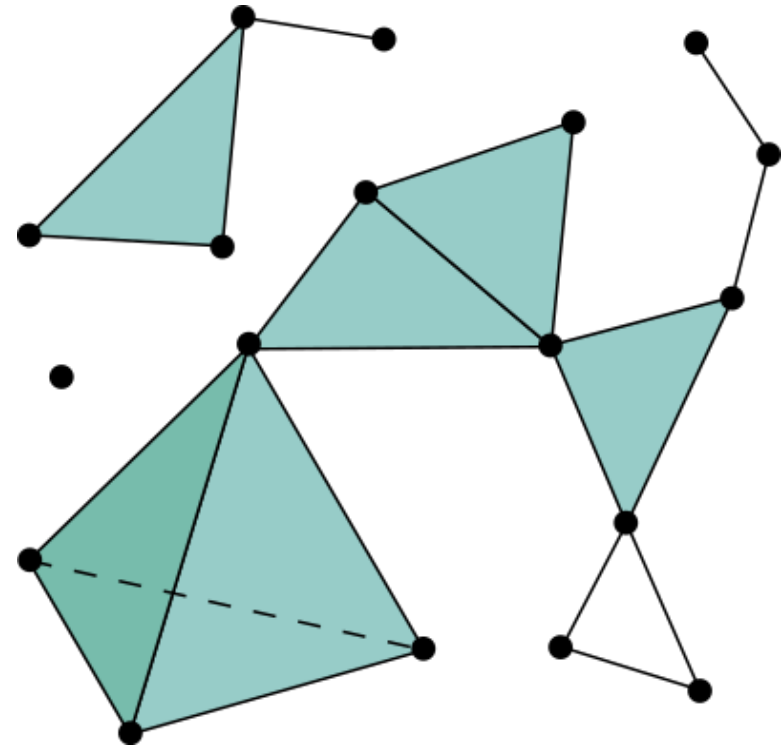
Simplicial Complex

- 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)



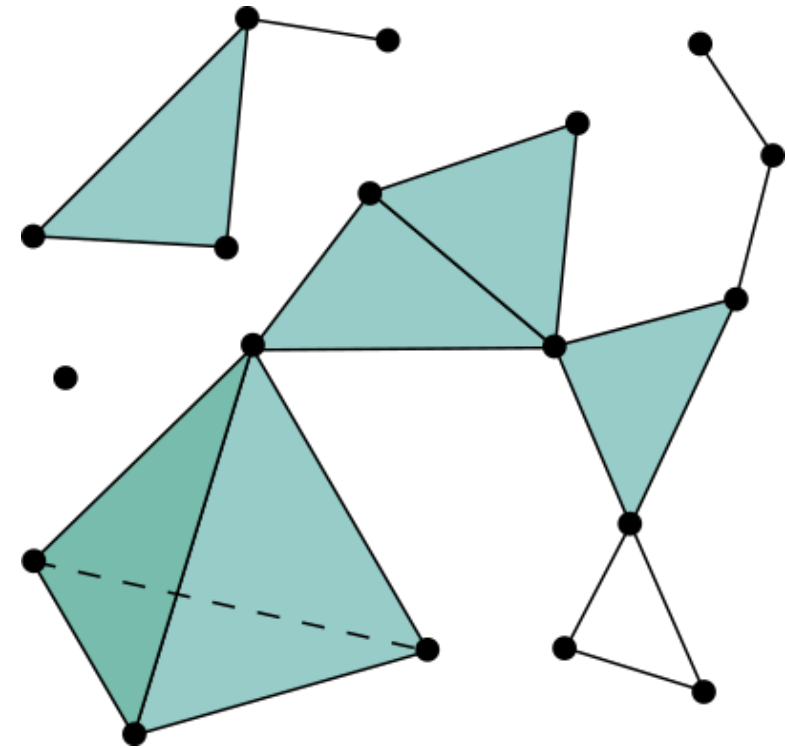
Simplicial Complex

- 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



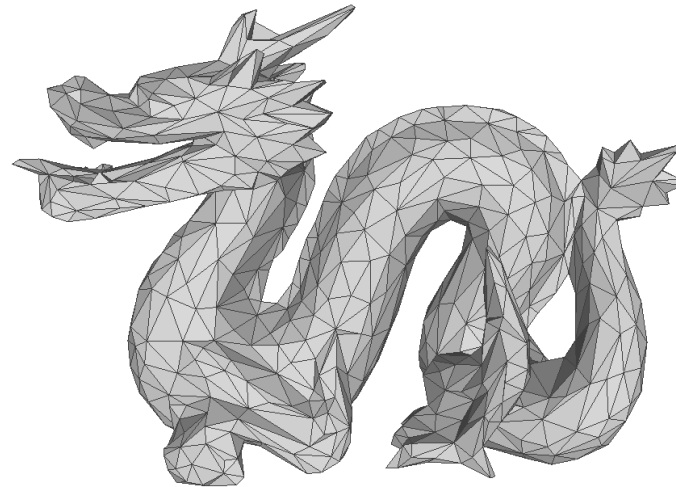
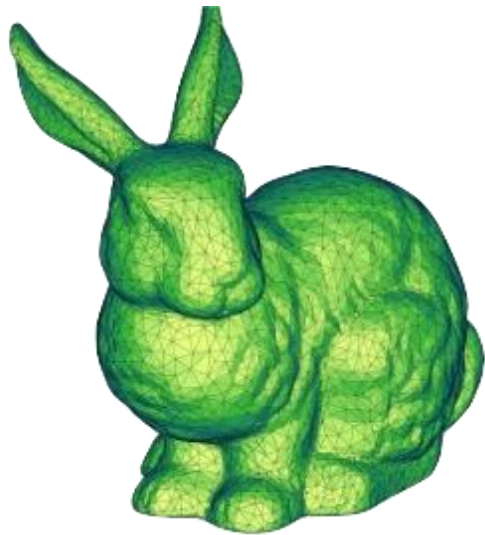
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 - 0-simplices (vertices): 18
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 - 3-simplices (tetrahedra): 1
- **Definition:** The *dimension* of a simplicial complex is the maximum dimension of its simplices
- So the dimension of the left complex 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

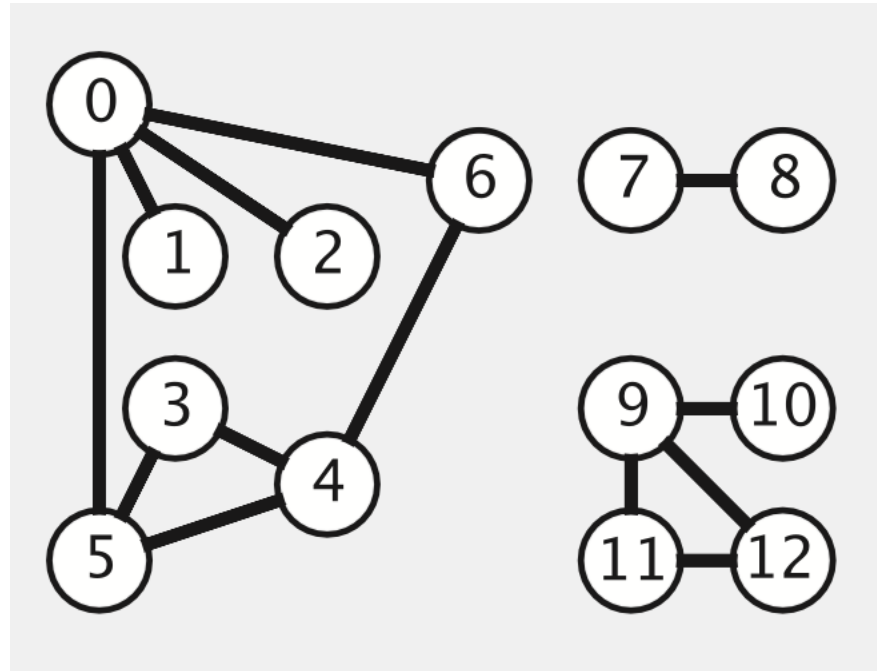
- A very common type of simplicial complexes used in computer graphics are triangular meshes (a 3D object whose surface is made up of glueing small triangle patches)
- From a topological point of view, they are nothing but 2-dimensional simplicial complexes



(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 σ , we notice that there are other simplices **on its boundary**, which are called the **faces** of σ .
- If a face τ of σ is a d -dimensional simplex, then we also call it a **d -face** of σ .
- A convention is that σ 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

Faces of a Simplex

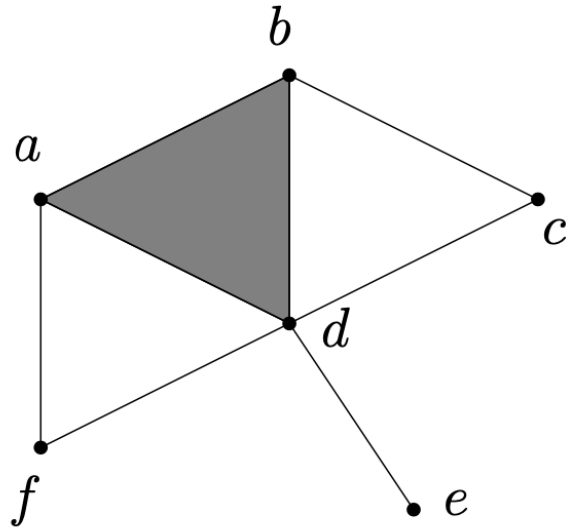
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- Ex: A tetrahedron $abcd$ has:
 - Four 0-faces: a, b, c , and d
 - Six 1-faces: ab, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd
 - Four 2-faces: abc, abd, acd, bcd
 - One 3-face: $abcd$

Simplicial Complex (Formal Definition)

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

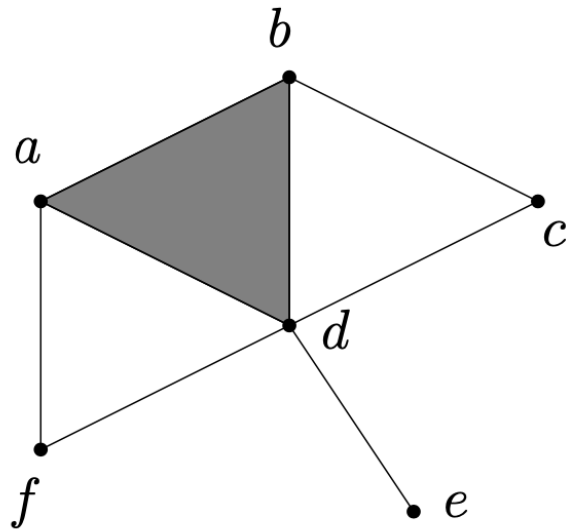
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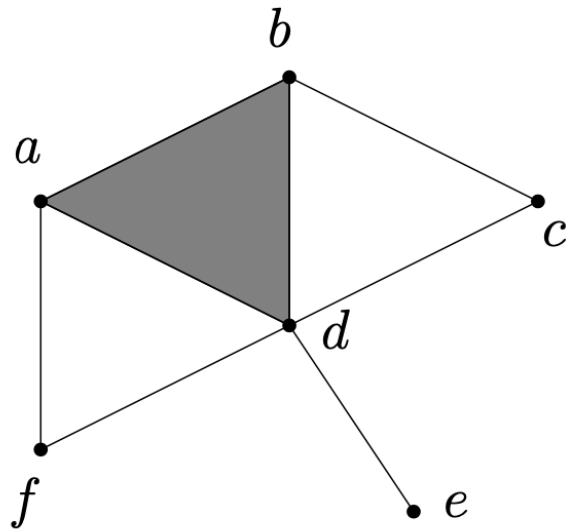
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✗ : {abd, ~~ab~~, bd, ad, bc, cd, af, dd, de, ~~a~~, b, c, d, e, f}

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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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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 σ is represented by a set of $d + 1$ vertices
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- Then, each simplex is represented as a set of the vertices on its corner.
- Note: Each d -simplex σ is represented by a set of $d + 1$ vertices
- All the faces of σ are nothing but all subsets of σ , 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

Endowing Algebraic Structures to Complexes

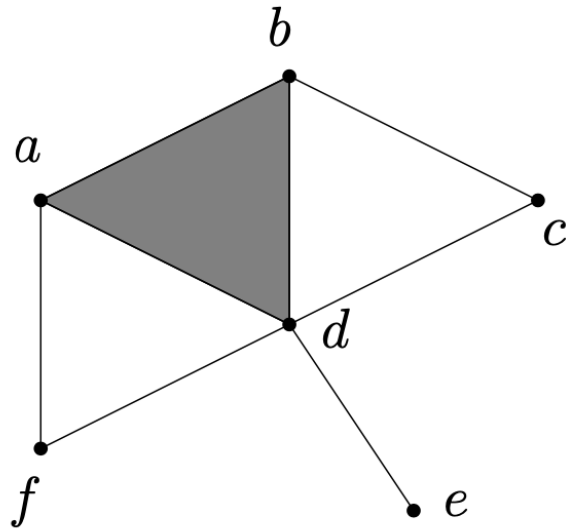
- Now we continue towards our goal of **defining homology**
- There are still *a few steps* before that
- Recall that homology is a “numeric” invariant that computer can handle
- More formally, it’s an “**algebraic**” **invariant**.
- So, let’s give a simplicial complex and its simplices an **algebraic 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 σ_i is a d -simplex.

Chains

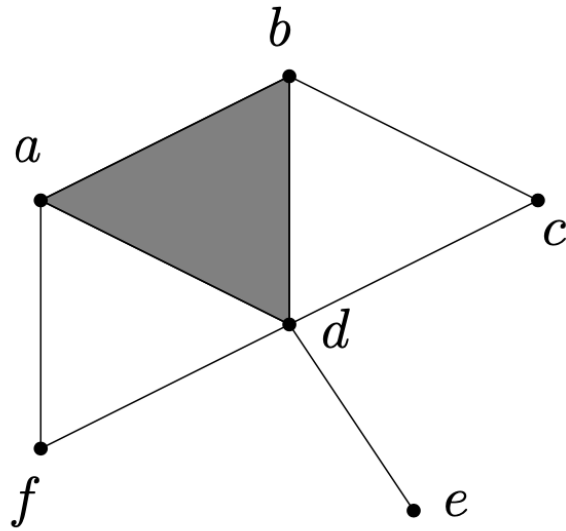
- We first introduce an algebraic notion called **chains**.
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- i.e., it is of the general form: $\sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i$, where each σ_i is a d -simplex.



- 0-chain: $a + d + f$
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Chains

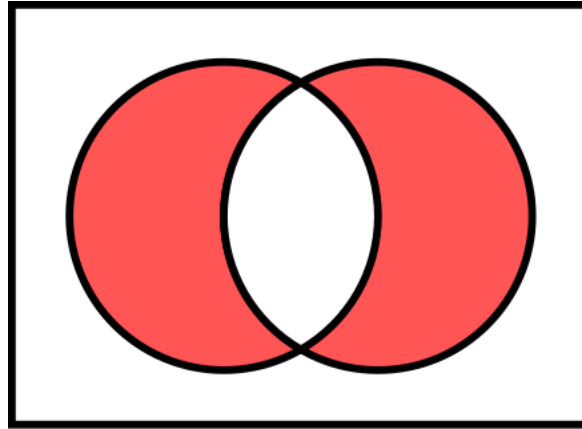
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- Note: we have a special chain ' \emptyset ' which contains no simplices

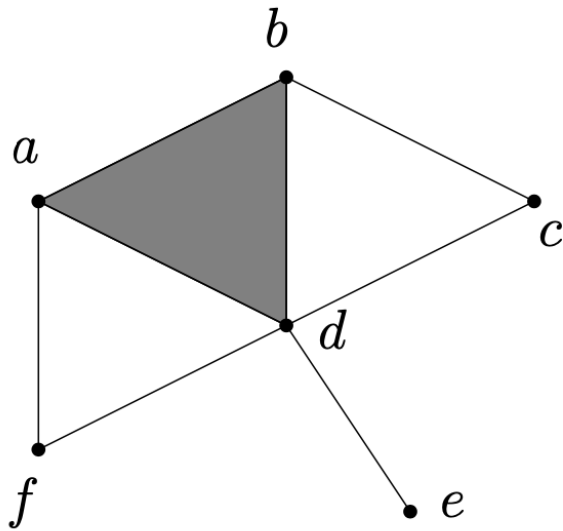
Summation of Chains

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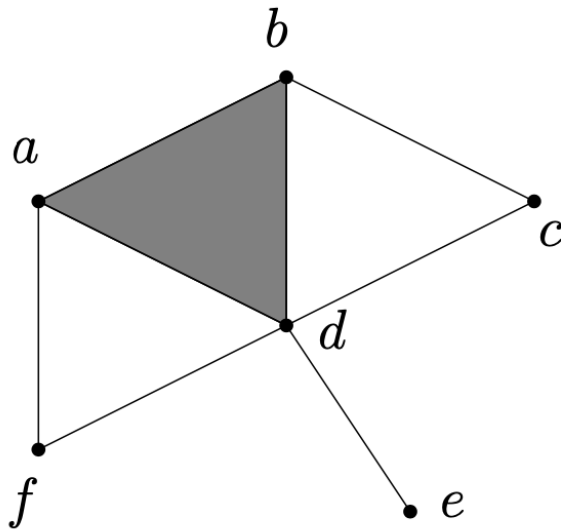
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Boundaries of Chains

- 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?

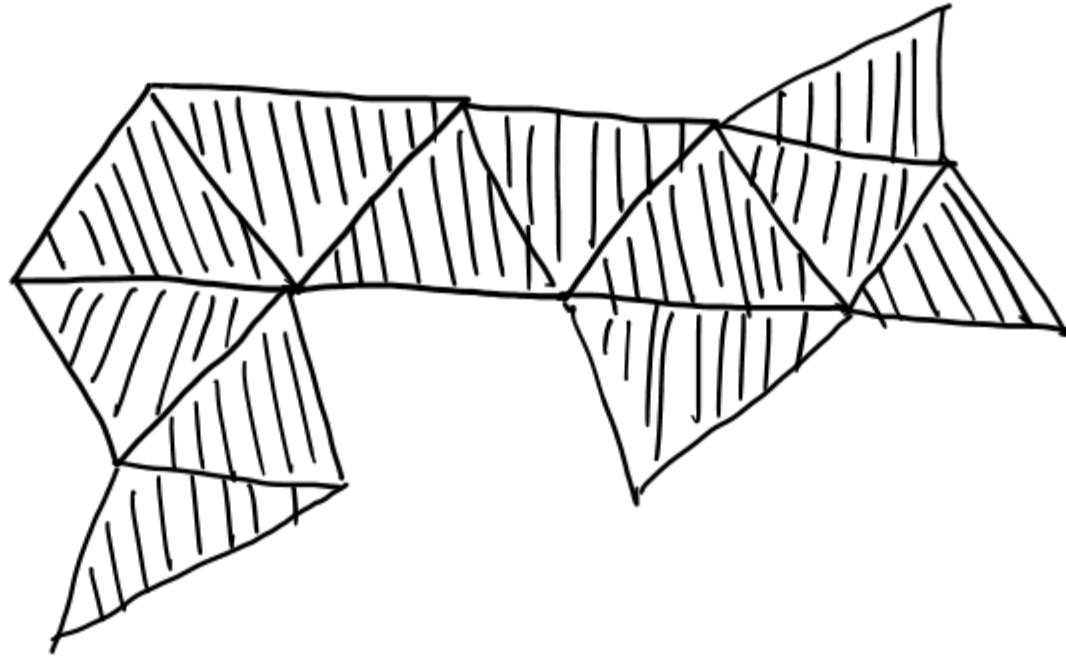


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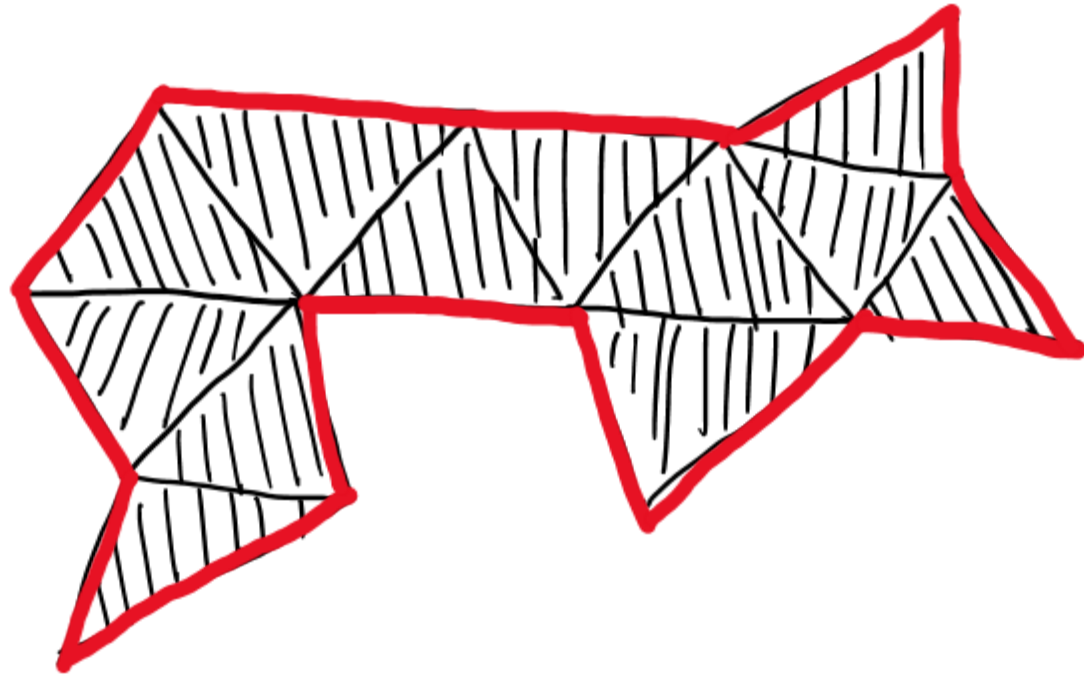
- Question: what is the boundary for a 1-dimensional line segment?
- Answer: the two end points (because they are the places where we cannot travel any further [within the 1-dimensional region](#))



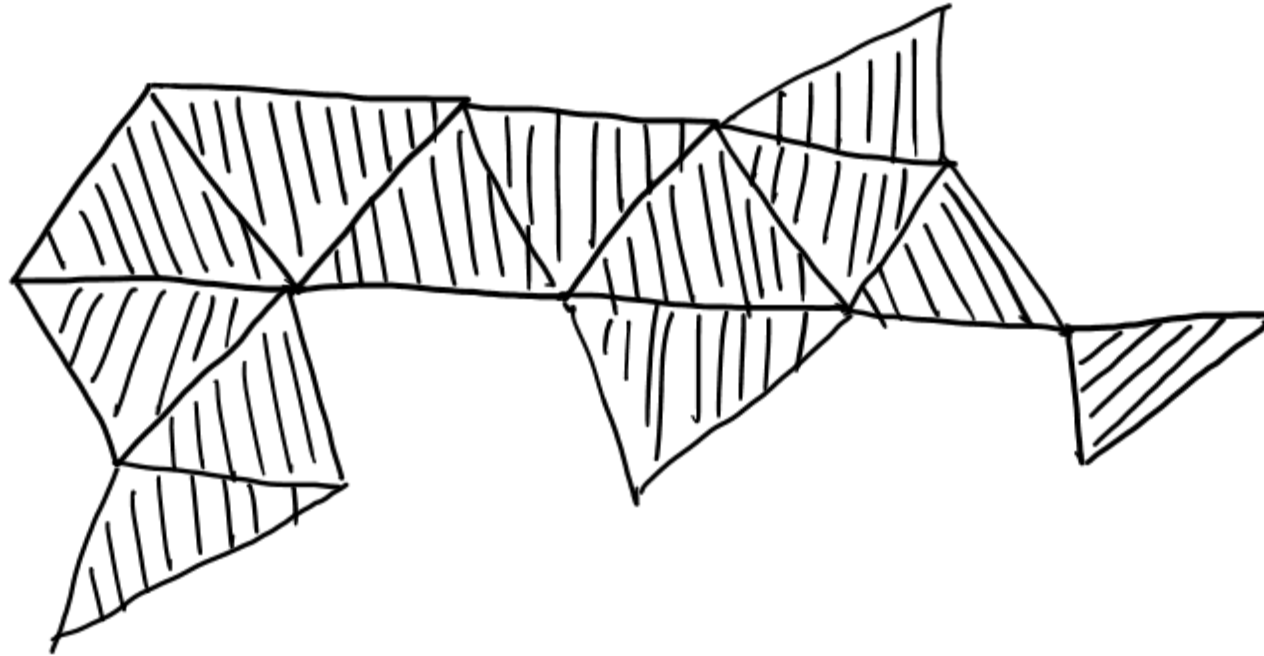
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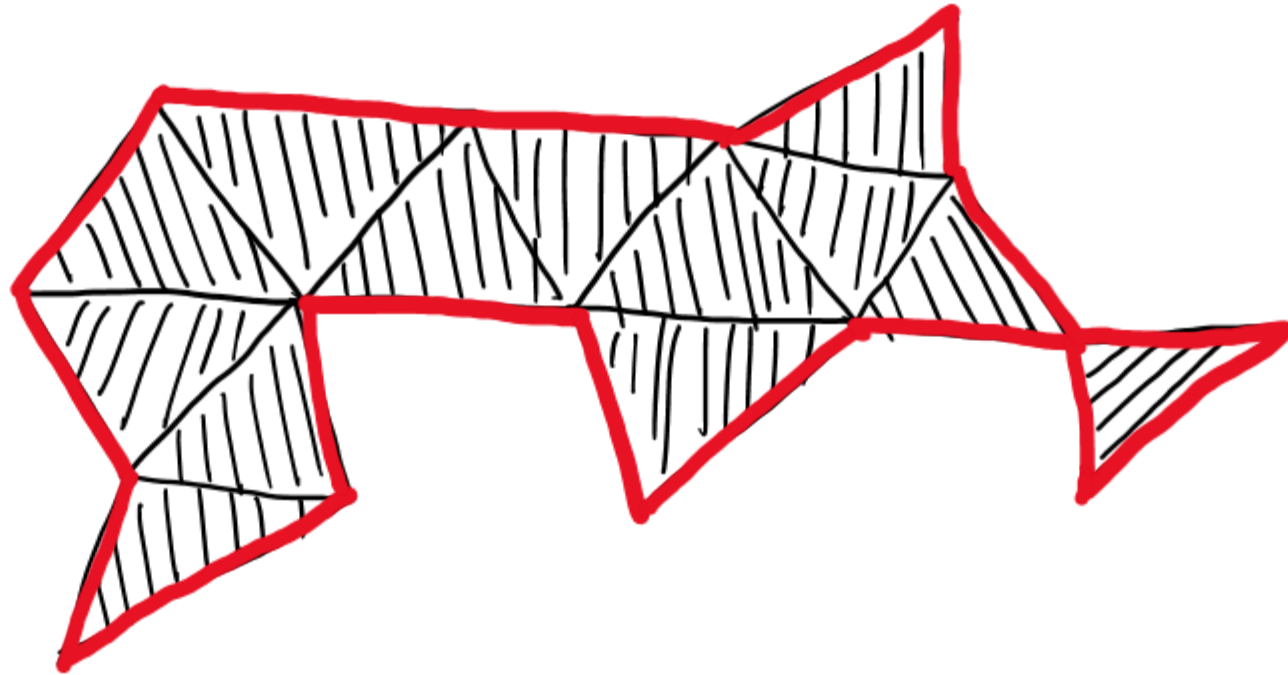
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Boundaries of Chains

- **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 $\partial(c)$.

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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.,

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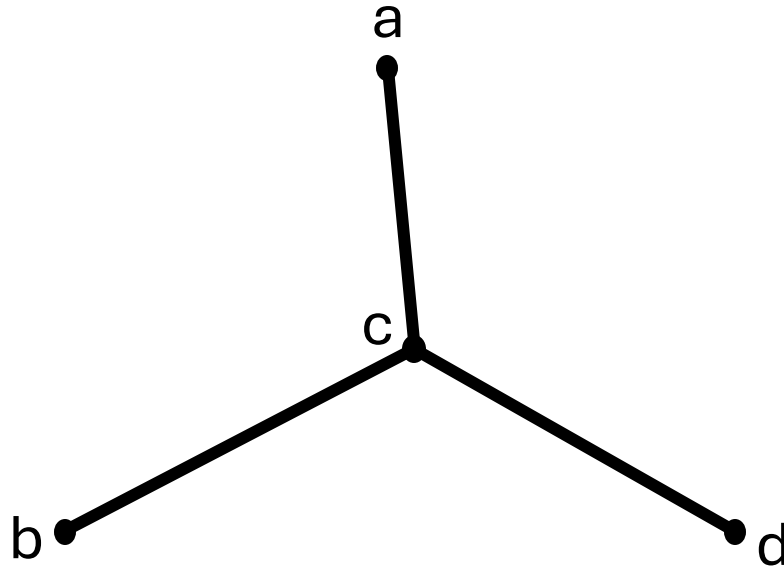
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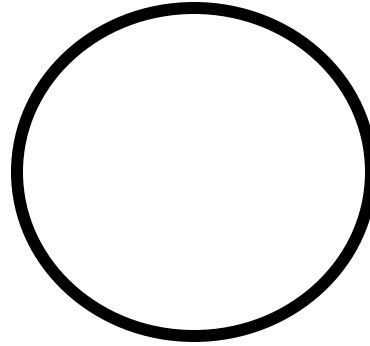
Quick Question

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



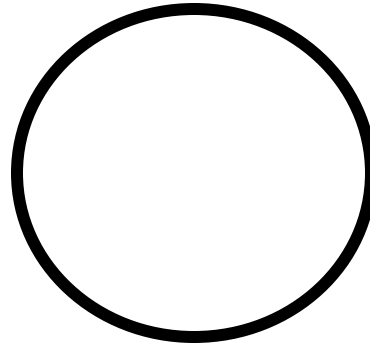
Boundaries of Some Special Chains

- What is the boundary of a circle?



Boundaries of Some Special Chains

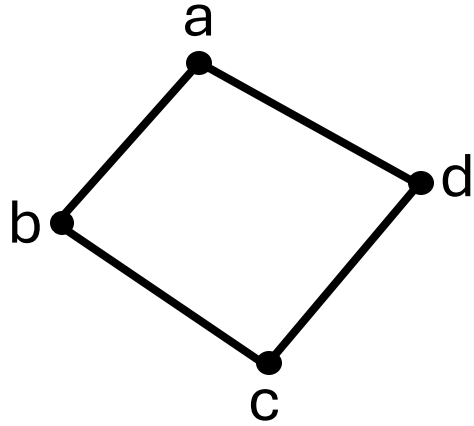
- What is the boundary of a circle?



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

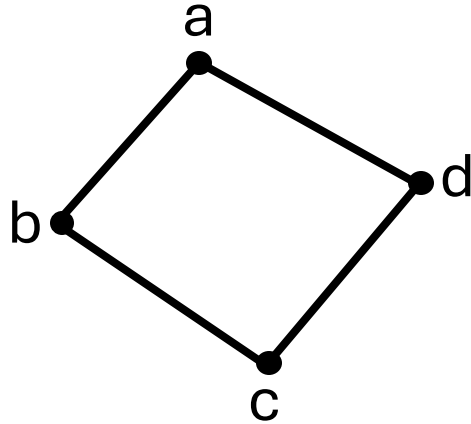
Cycles

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

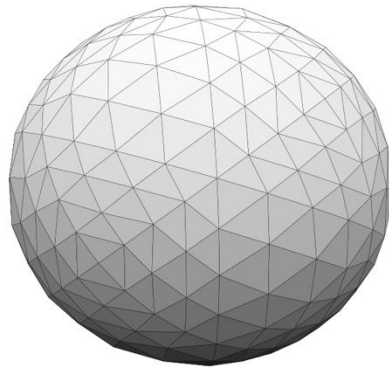


Cycles

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



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



Fundamental theorem of homology

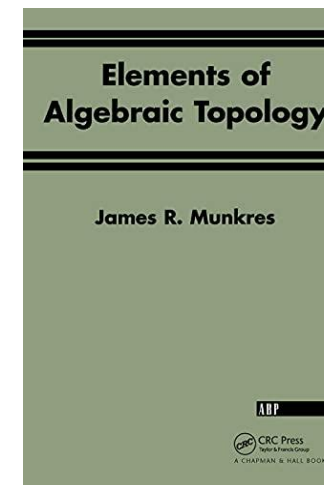
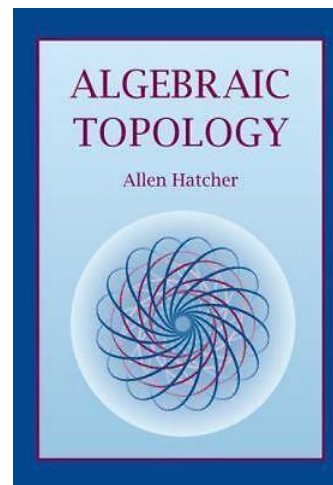
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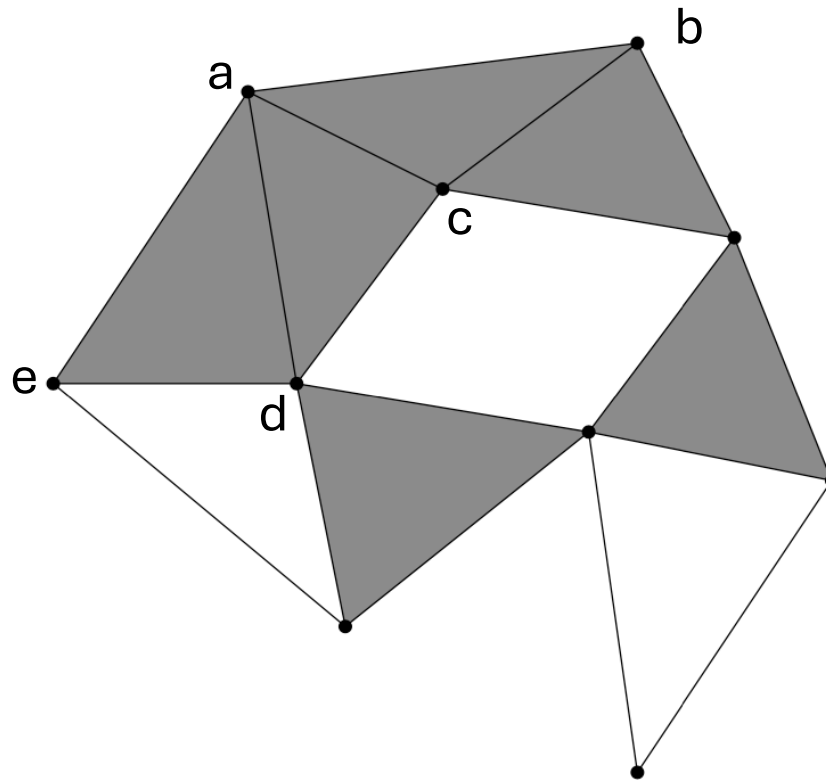
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- The above theorem is a fundamental fact making homology theory possible
- The proof of it and any further algebraic interpretations of it are beyond the scope of this course.



Fundamental theorem of homology

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

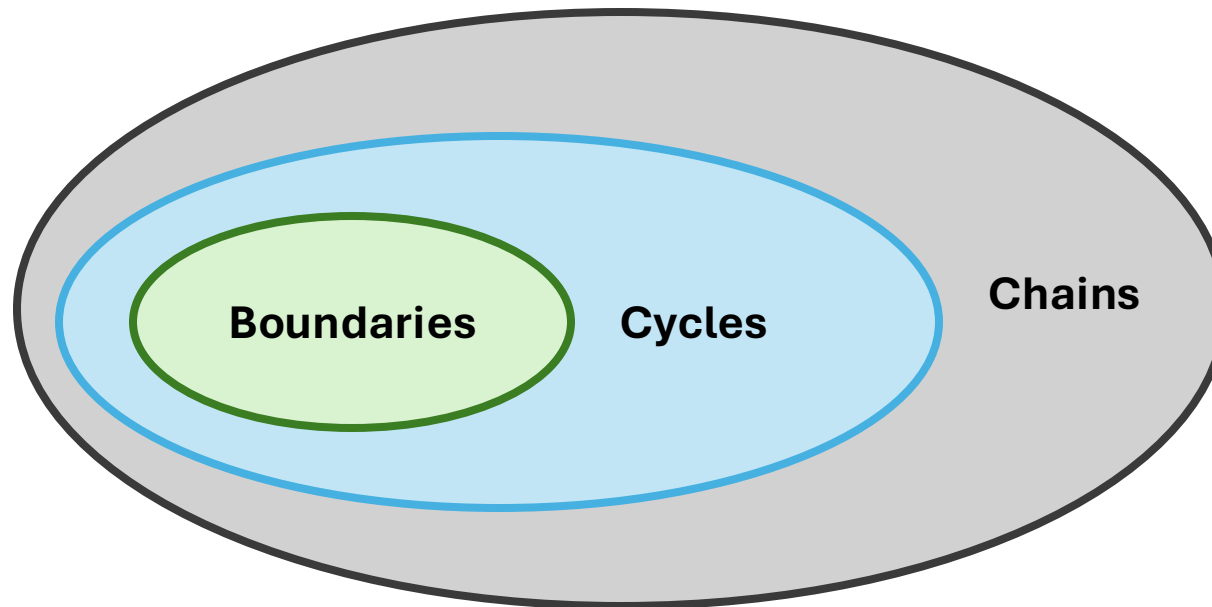


Classification for the set of all cycles

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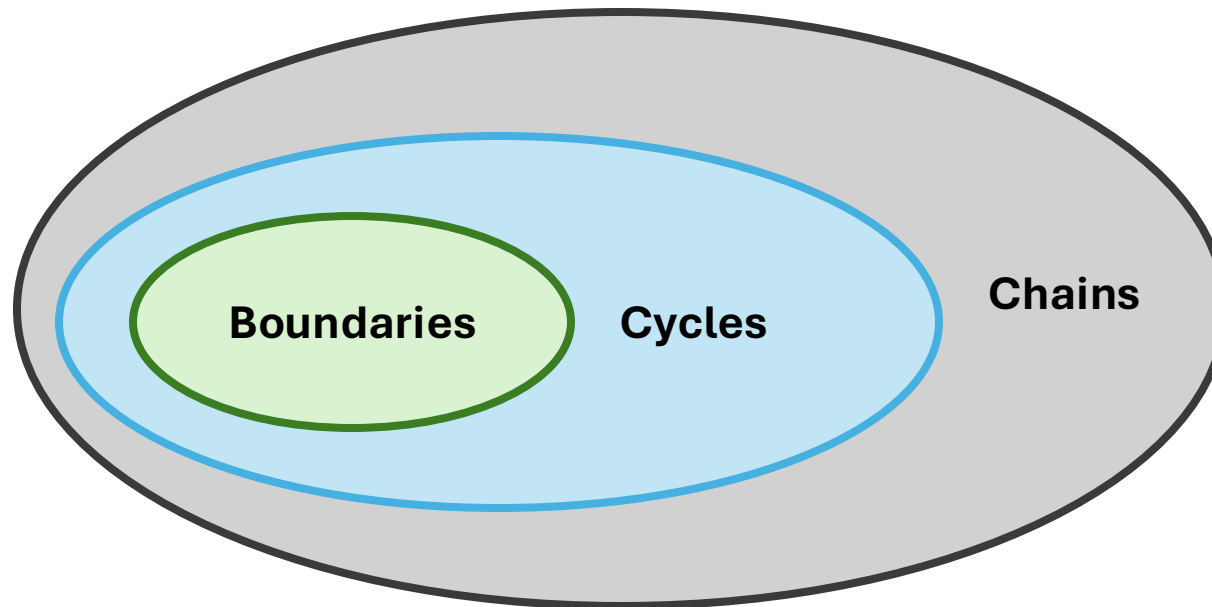
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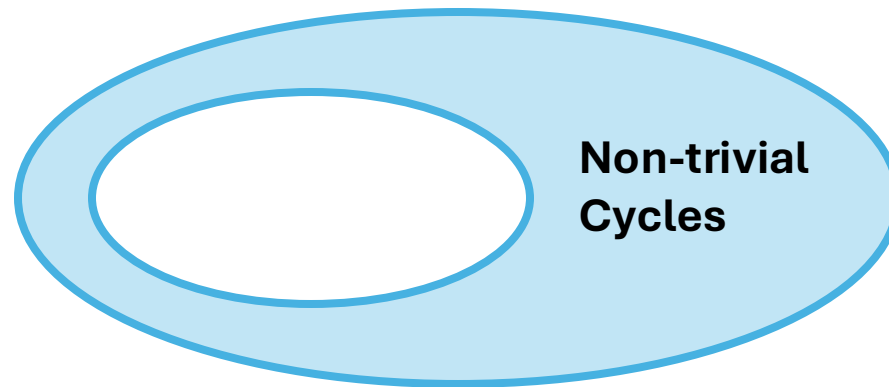
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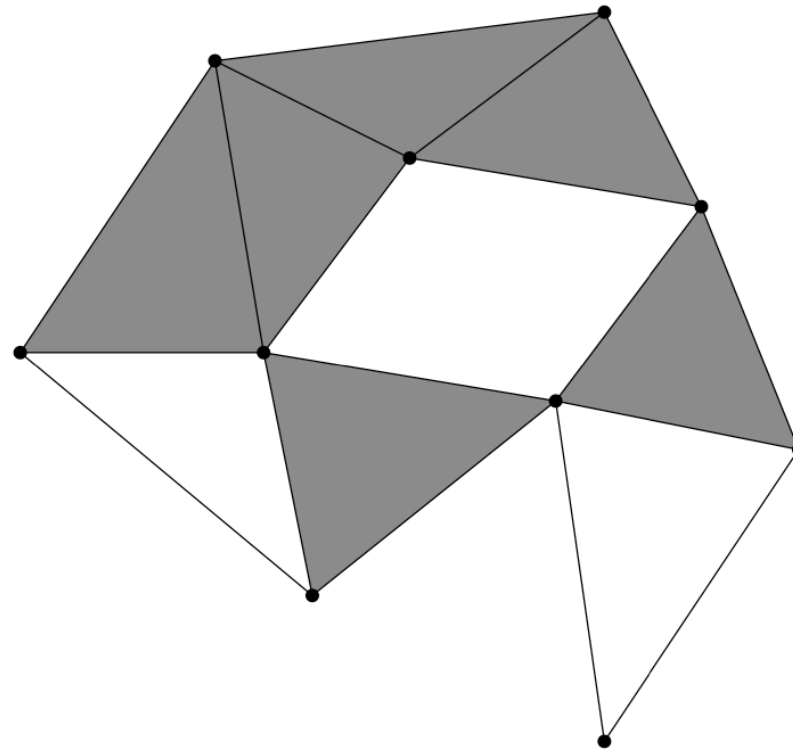
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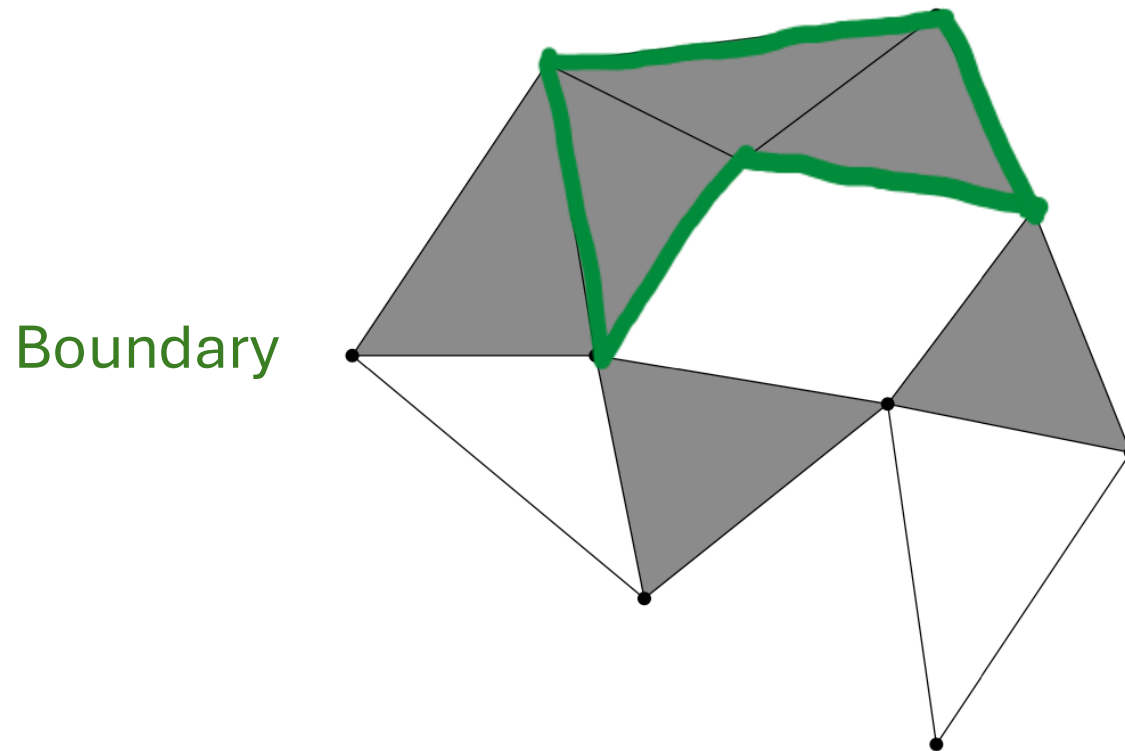
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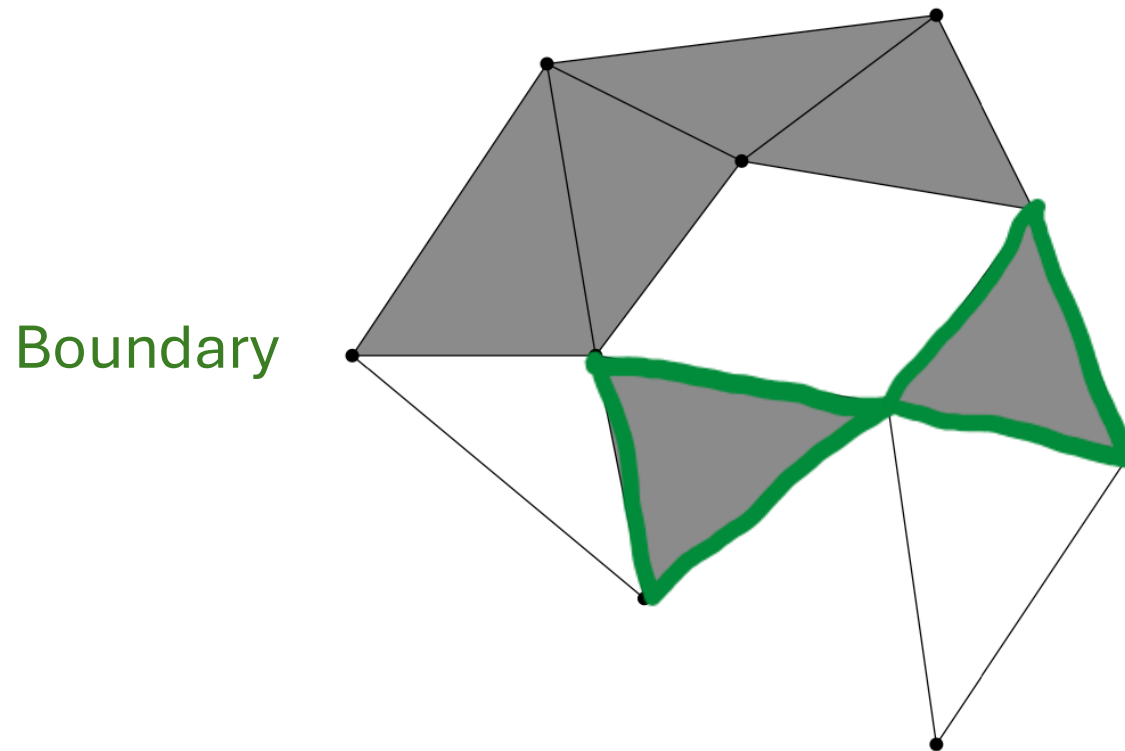
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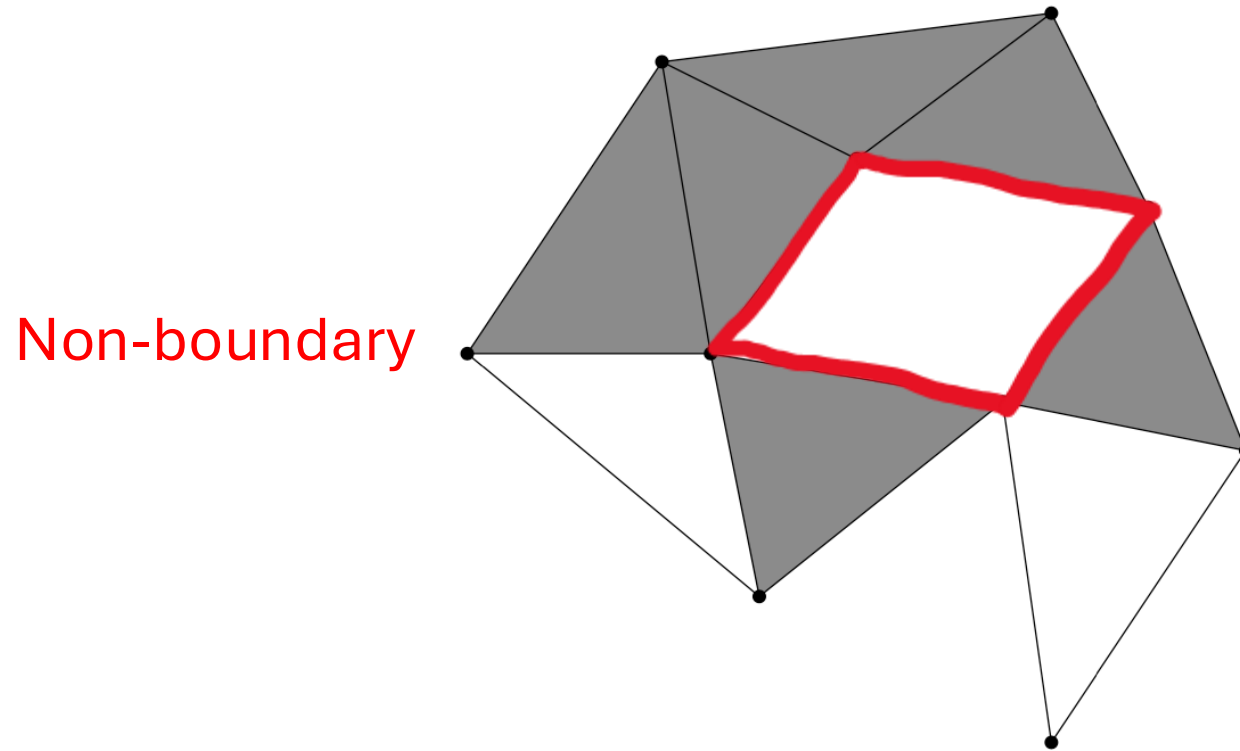
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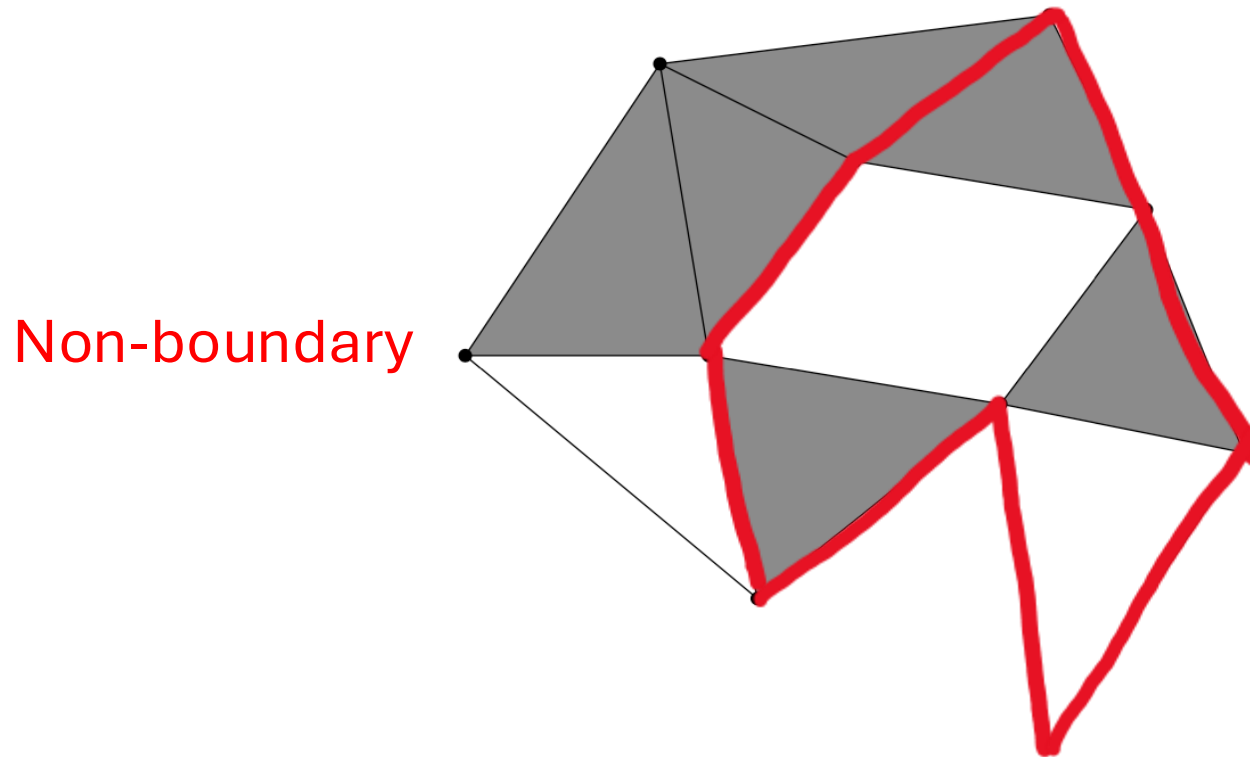
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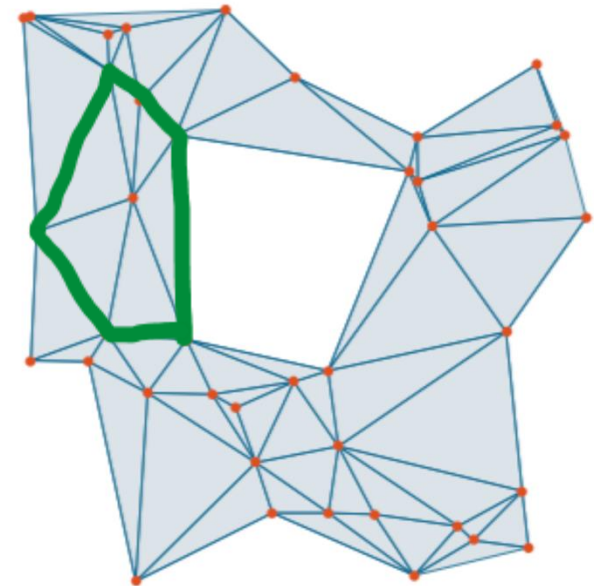
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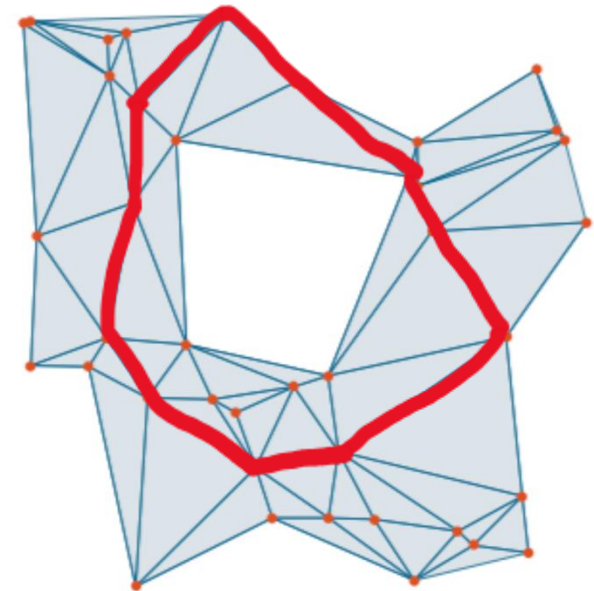
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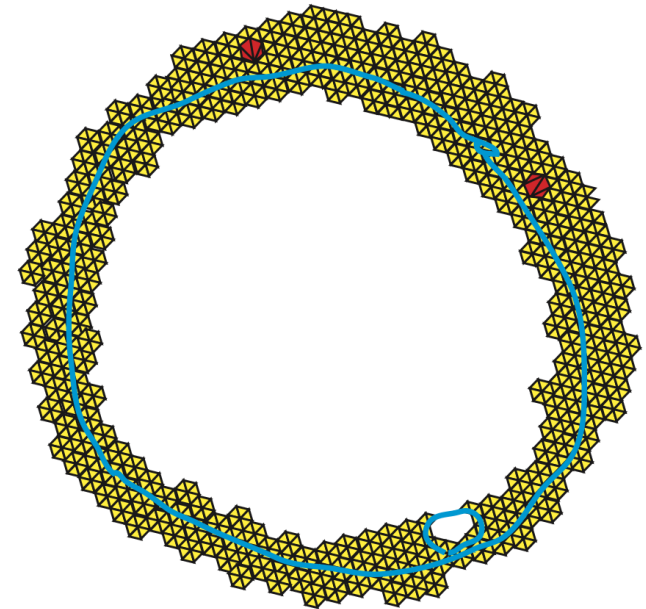
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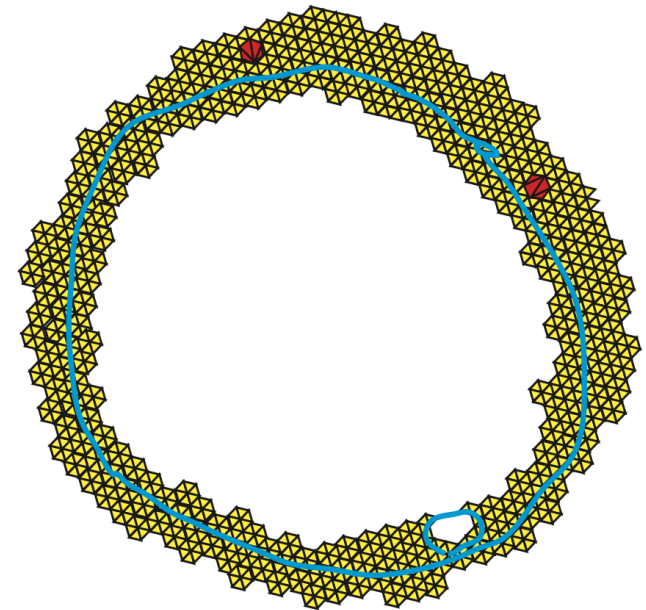
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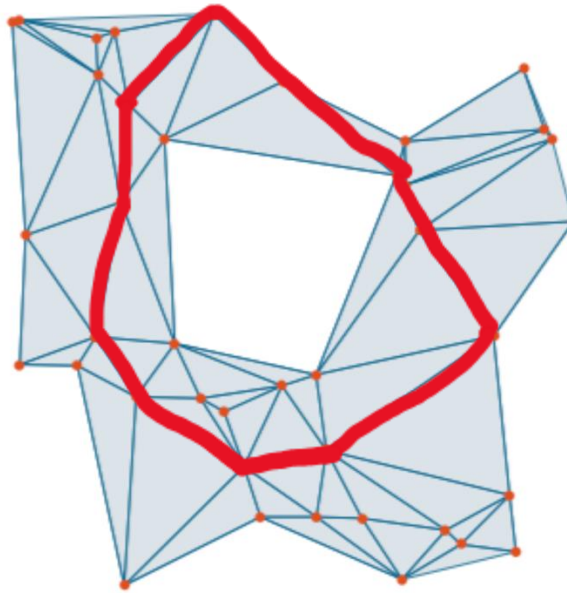
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- Ex: For the right simplicial complex, do you think the **red** boundary cycle represent the shape, or the **large blue** non-boundary one?
- **Trying to capture the something like the major blue cycle to represent the shape of data is an aim of TDA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



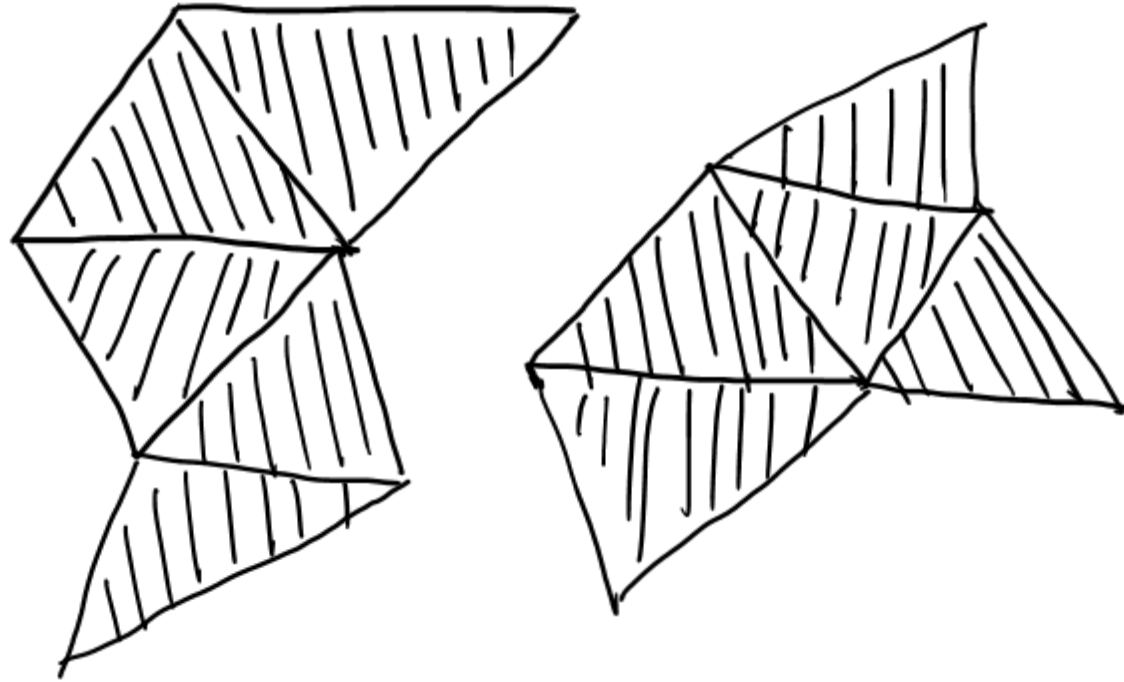
Homology Studies: Cycles That Are NOT Boundaries

- 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 (≥ 0).
- What about holes in other dimensions?



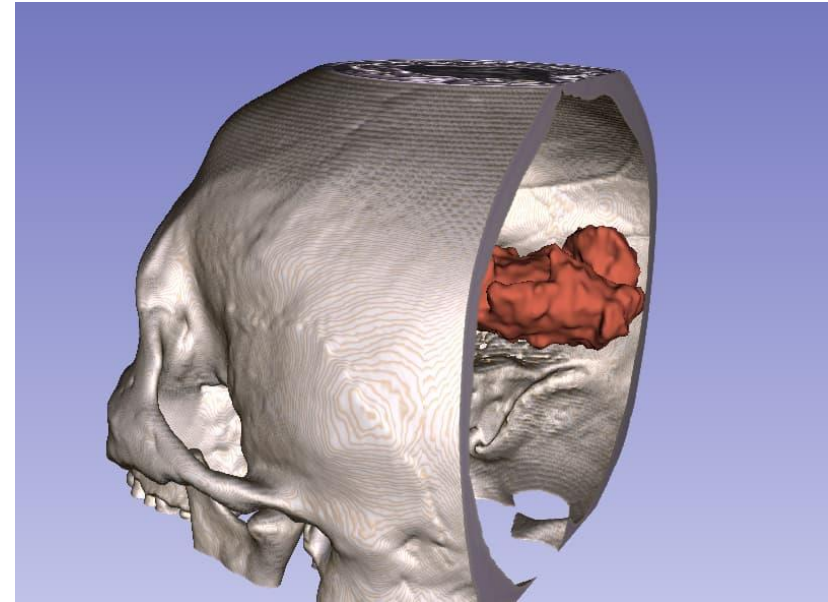
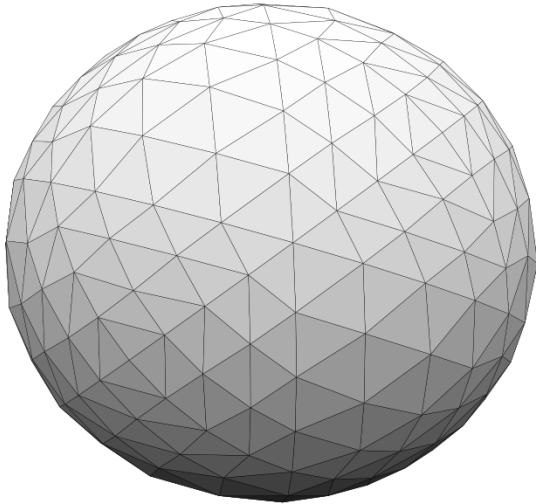
Homology Studies: Cycles That Are NOT Boundaries

- **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

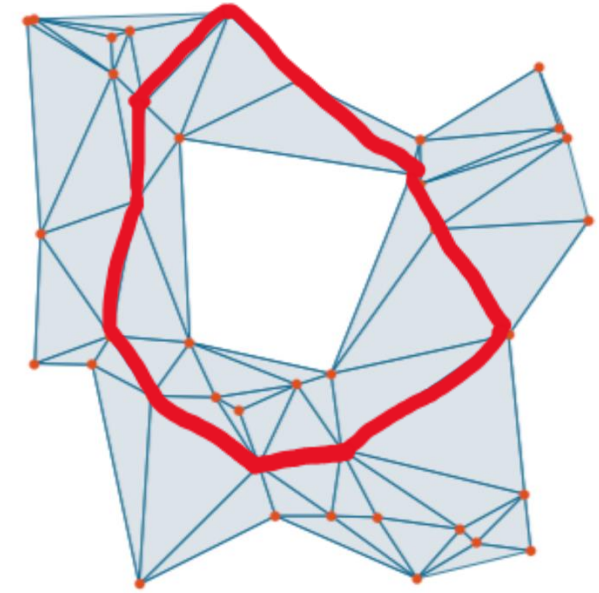
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- **Fact:** Each d -cycle of a simplicial complex is “generated by” a set of non-trivial d -cycles called the ***homology basis***.

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- **Fact:** Each d -cycle of a simplicial complex is “generated by” a set of non-trivial d -cycles called the **homology basis**.
- 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”).

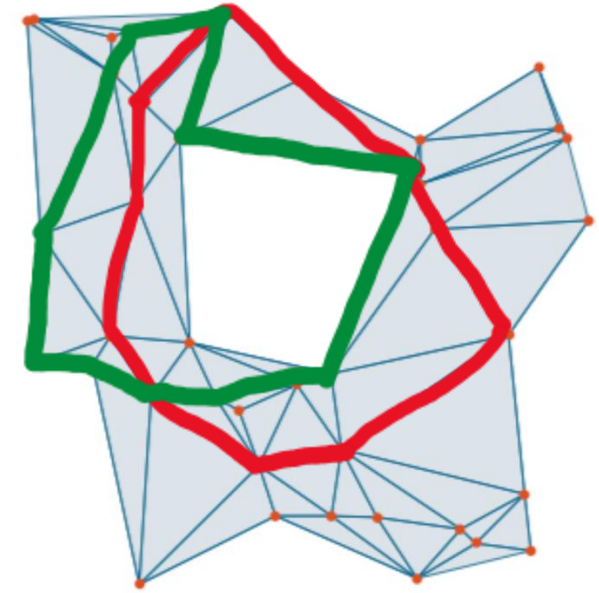
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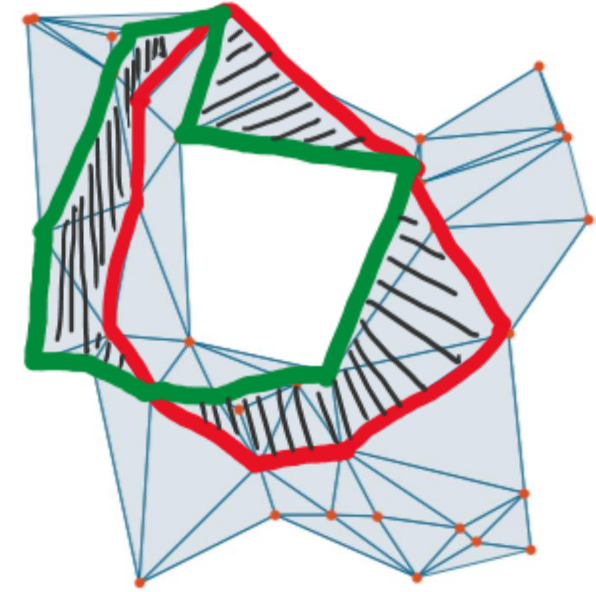
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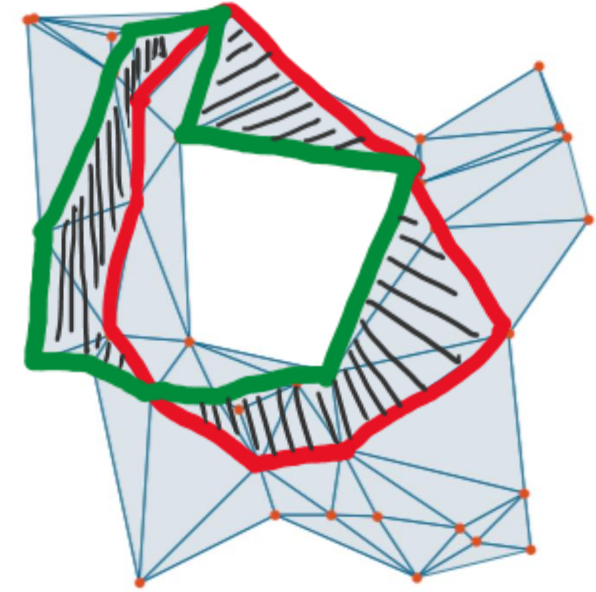
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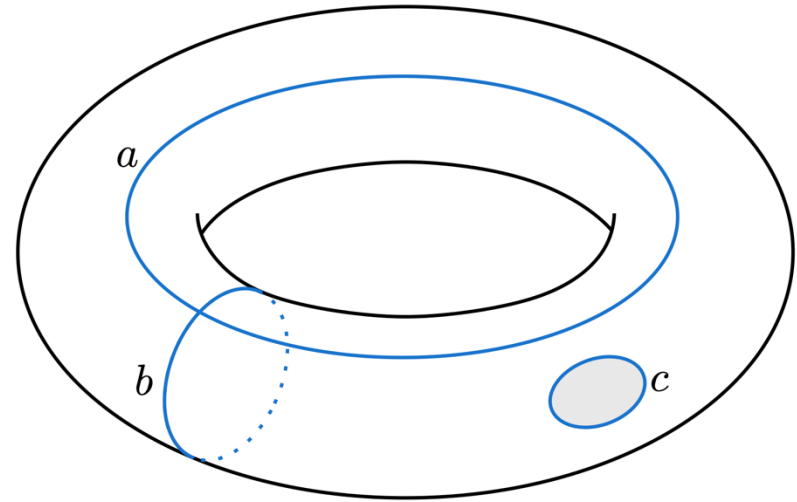
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- In a sense, the red cycle “generates” the green cycle because you can **continuously stretch the red one to the green one**



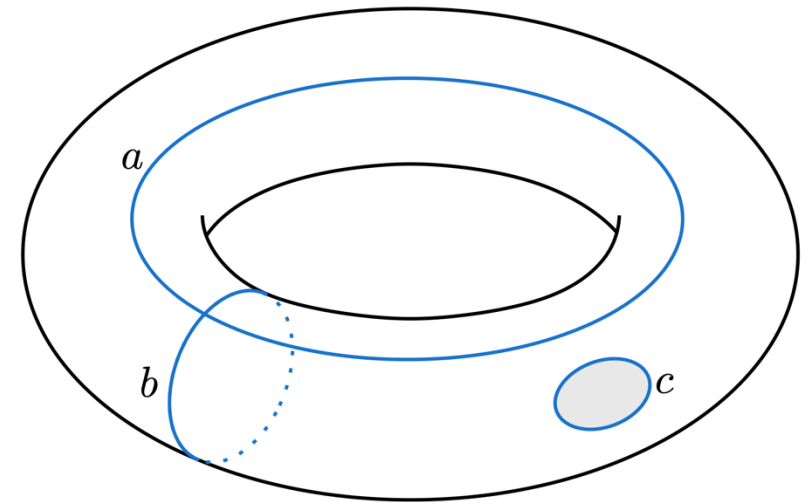
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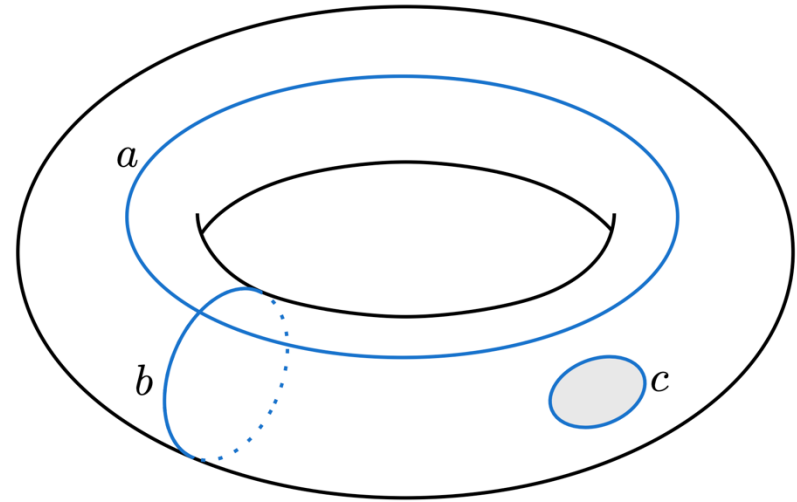
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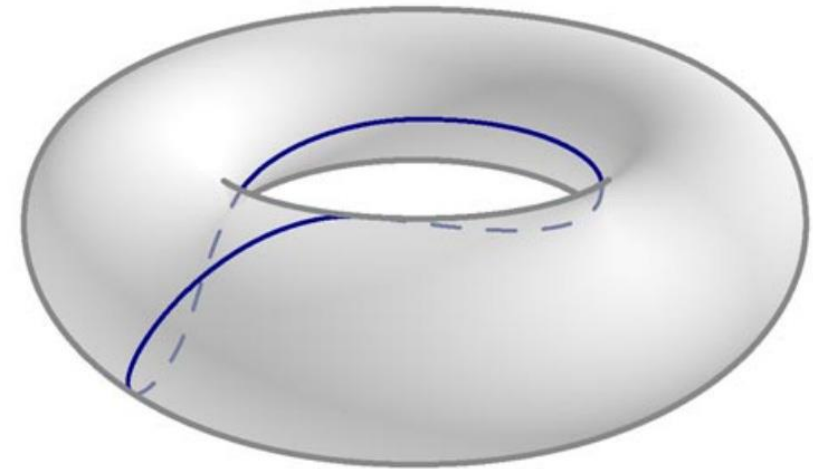
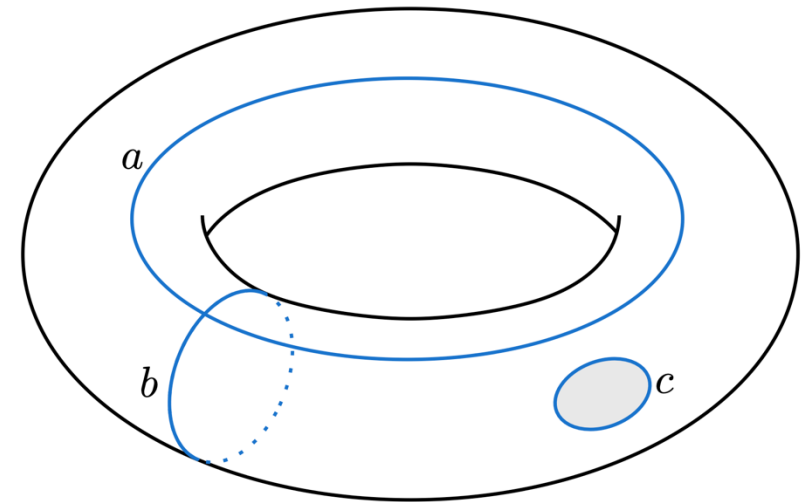
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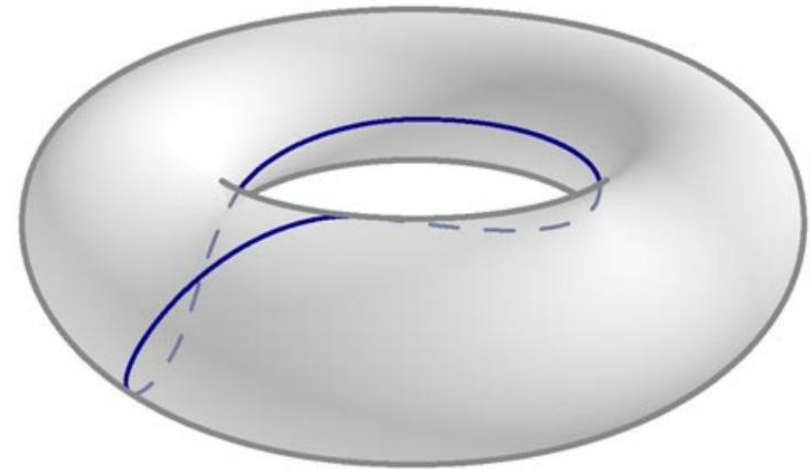
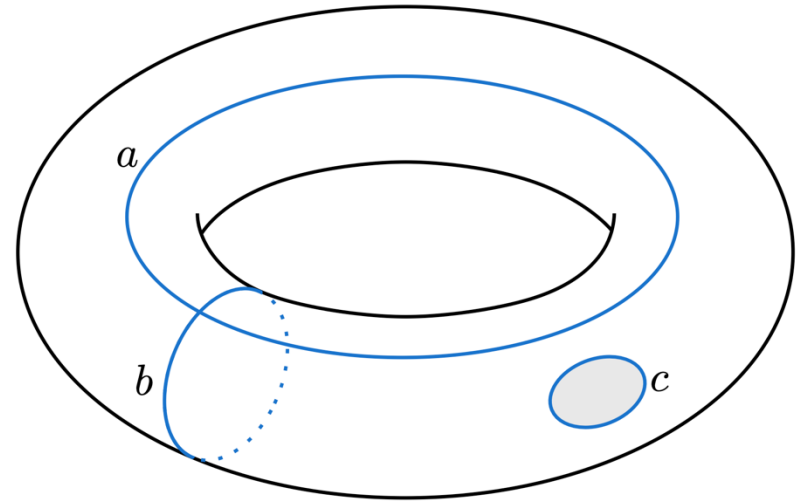
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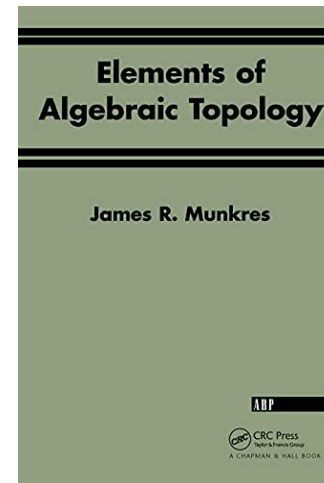
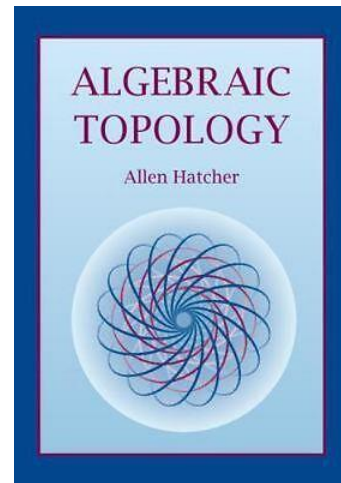
Homology Basis: Additional Structures on Cycle Space

- **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)**
- One way to differentiate trivial and non-trivial cycles on a torus:
 - a non-trivial cycle does not cut the torus into two pieces
 - while a trivial cycle (such as c) does
- Example of how a and b generate cycles in torus: the cycle in the lower torus equals
 - $a + b + a$ boundary



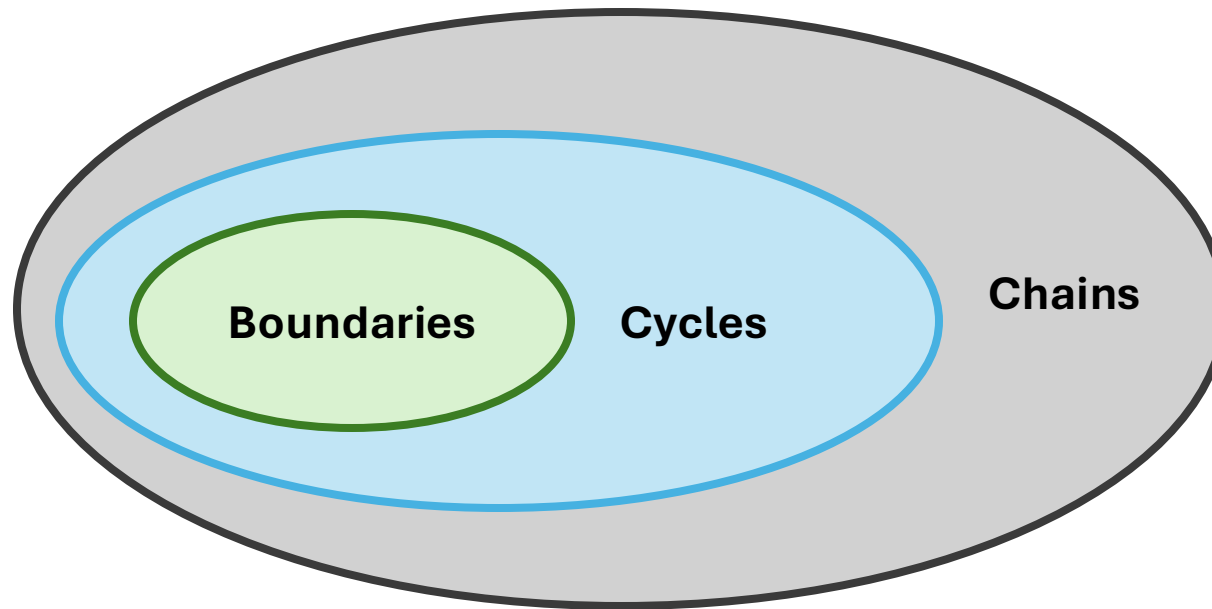
Full Algebraic Structures on Cycle Space

- 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

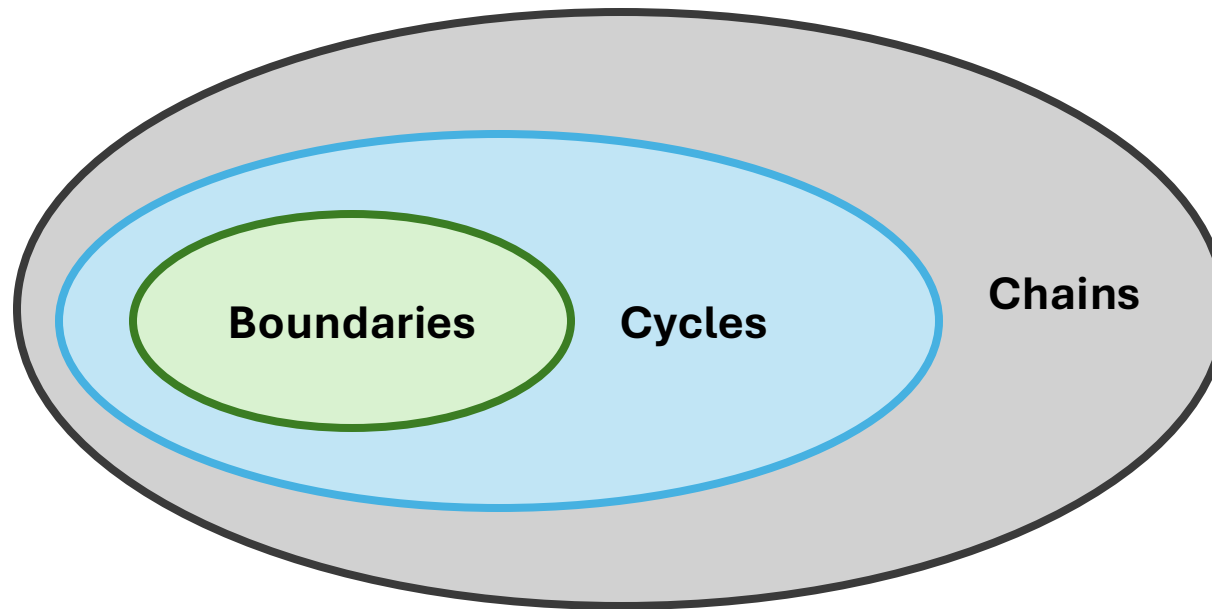
- Recall the following picture.
- We have that all p -chains for simplicial complex K not only form a set, but also form a **vector space** (object studied by linear algebra; see: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vector_space), denoted by $C_p(K)$



$$\text{Boundaries} \subseteq \text{Cycles} \subseteq \text{Chains}$$

Full Algebraic Structures on Cycle Space

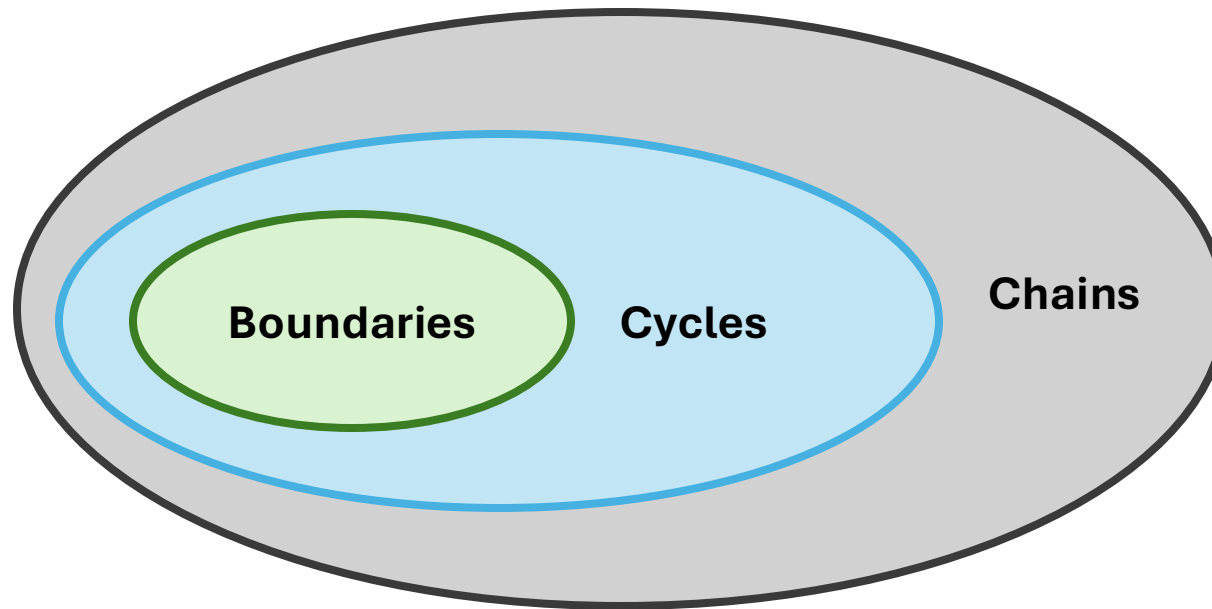
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- Furthermore, boundaries and cycles are not only subsets but also **vector subspaces** of $Z_p(K)$, denoted $B_p(K)$ and $Z_p(K)$ respectively.



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

Homology group

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- But in a nutshell, by letting the boundaries $B_p(K)$ be denominator, we are **discarding the effect of boundaries among the cycles**, so that we only focus on the non-trivial cycles.

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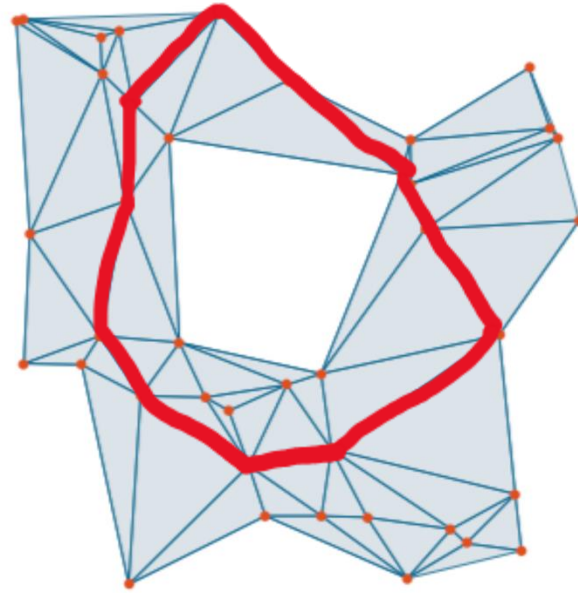
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- BTW, the cardinality (number of elements) of the homology basis for the p -dimensional cycles is called the **p -th Betti number**, denoted β_p .

Betti number

- $\beta_1 = 1$



Betti number

- $\beta_1 = 2$

