

Going up in dimensions: Combinatorial and probabilistic aspects of simplicial complexes

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- ▶ Extremal combinatorics and its connections to other parts of mathematics.
- ▶ The emergence of the probabilistic method.
- ▶ The computational perspective.

So, what is the next frontier?

The ubiquity of graphs

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But what if we have relations involving more than two objects at a time?

A little about simplicial complexes

This is one of the major contact points between combinatorics and geometry (more specifically - with topology).

From the combinatorial point of view, this is a very simple and natural object. Namely, a down-closed family of sets.

Definition

Let V be a finite set of *vertices*. A collection of subsets $X \subseteq 2^V$ is called a *simplicial complex* if it satisfies the following condition:

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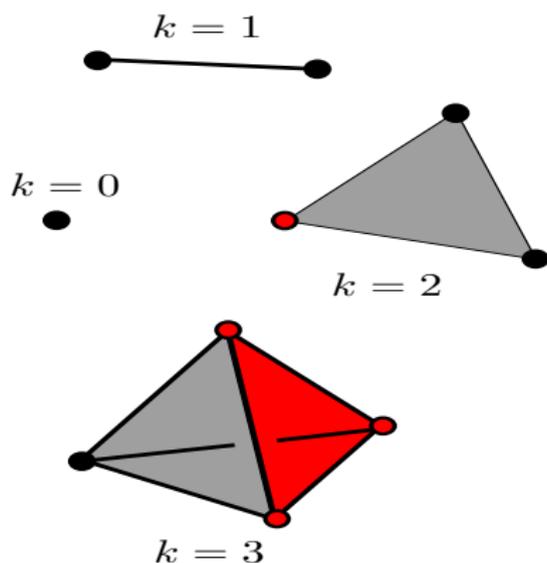
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The dimension of X is the largest dimension of a face in X .

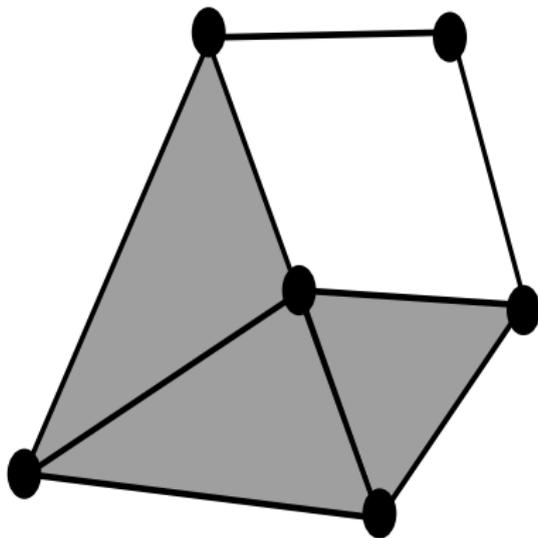
Simplicial complexes as geometric objects

We view $A \in X$ and $|A| = k + 1$ as a k -dimensional simplex.



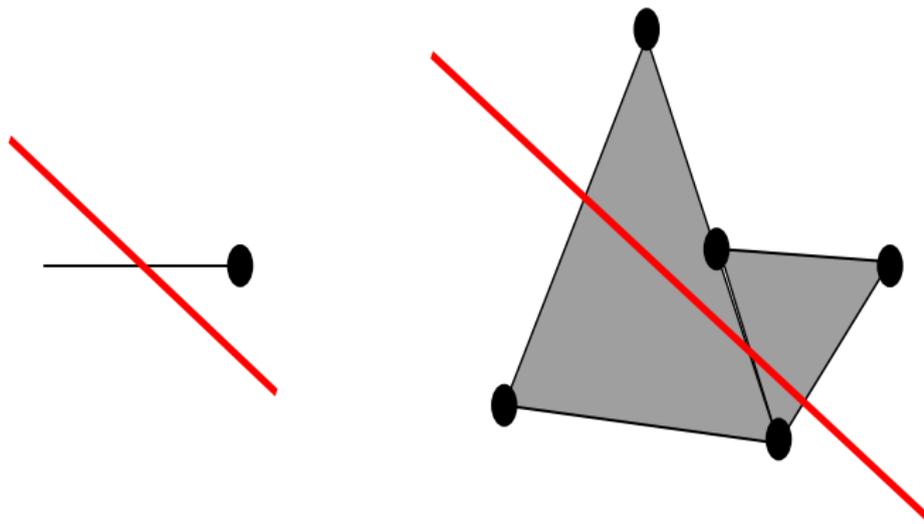
Putting simplices together properly

The intersection of every two simplices in X is a common face.



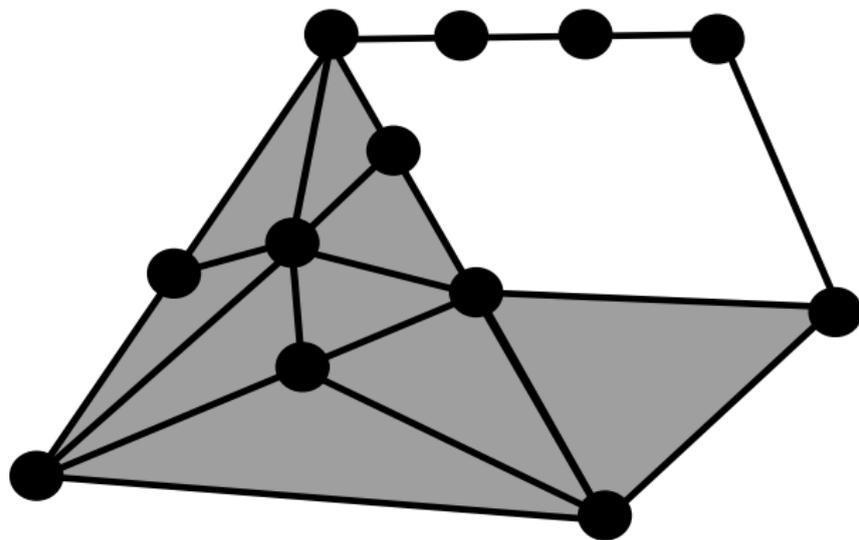
How NOT to do it

Not every collection of simplices in \mathbb{R}^d is a simplicial complex



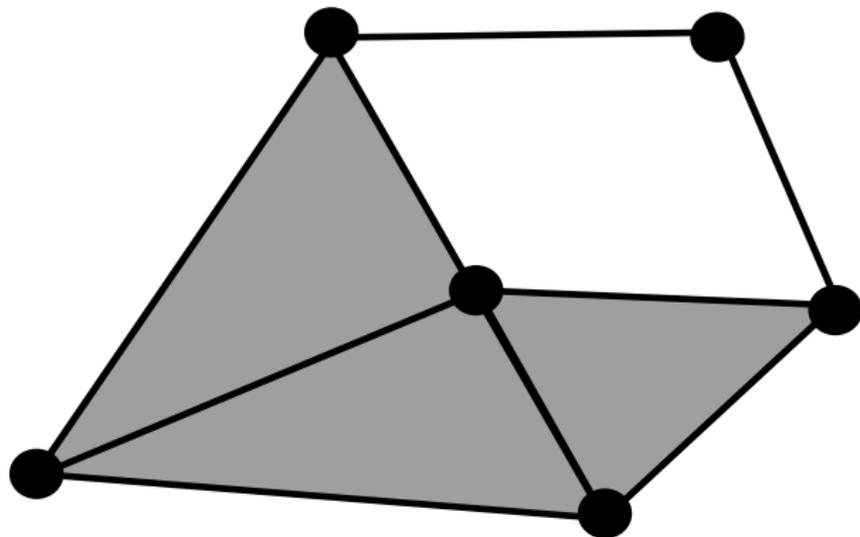
Geometric equivalence

Combinatorially different complexes may correspond to the same geometric object (e.g. via subdivision)



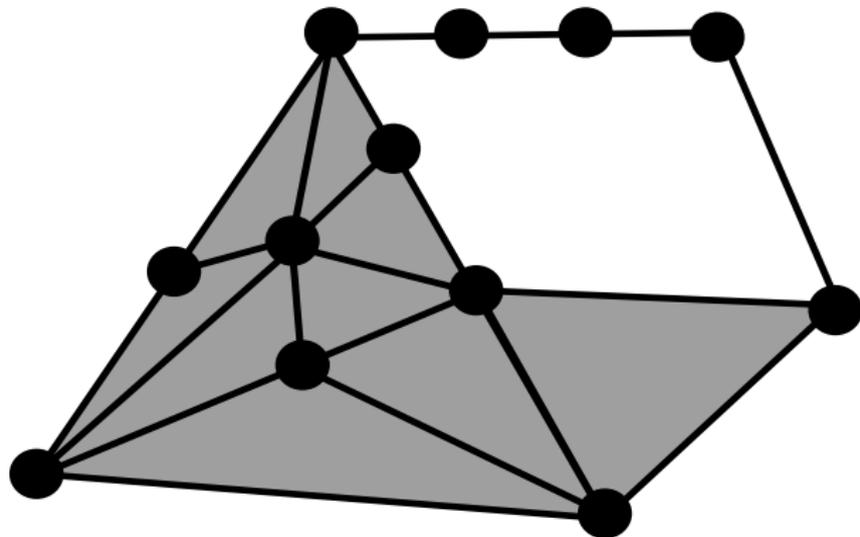
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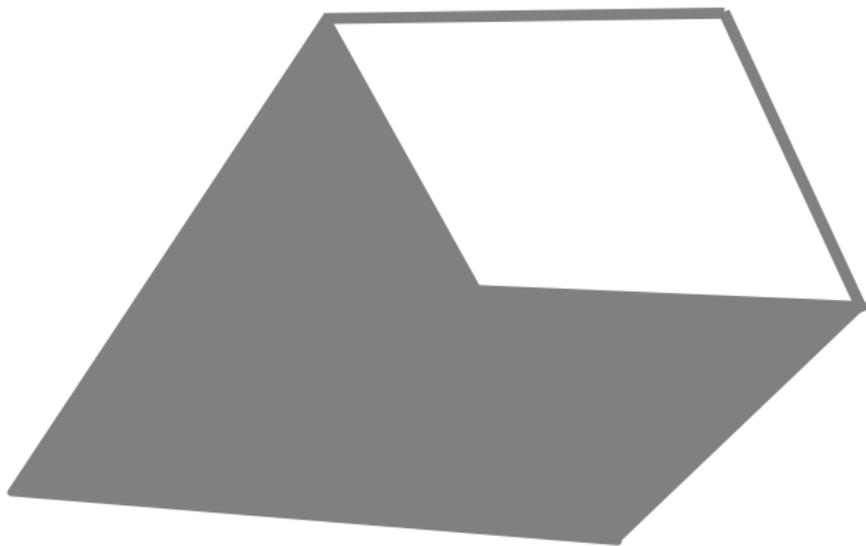
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Geometric equivalence

are two different combinatorial descriptions of the same geometric object



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- ▶ Graphs need no advertising in this forum.
- ▶ A graph may be viewed as a one-dimensional simplicial complex.
- ▶ Higher dimensional complexes have a very geometric (mostly topological) aspect to them.
- ▶ Can we benefit from investigating higher dimensional complexes?
- ▶ How should this be attacked?
 1. Using extremal combinatorics
 2. With the probabilistic method

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- ▶ In the study of matching in hypergraphs (Starting with [Aharoni Haxell '00]).

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The game ends when Alice knows with certainty whether G has property \mathcal{P} .

The evasiveness conjecture

Conjecture

For every monotone graph property \mathcal{P} , Bob has a strategy that forces Alice to query all $\binom{n}{2}$ pairs of vertices in V .

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A: Fix n , the number of vertices in the graphs we consider. Think of an n -vertex graph as a subset of $W = \binom{[n]}{2}$. (**Careful:** W is the set of vertices of the complex we consider).

If \mathcal{G} is the collection of all n -vertex graphs that have property \mathcal{P} , then \mathcal{G} is a simplicial complex (since \mathcal{P} is monotone).

Kahn Saks and Sturtevant (contd.)

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Lemma

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Collapsibility is a simple combinatorial property of simplicial complexes which can be thought of as a higher-dimensional analogue of being a forest.

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Collapsibility is a simple combinatorial property of simplicial complexes which can be thought of as a higher-dimensional analogue of being a forest.

We will later return to this notion.

Kahn Saks and Sturtevant

The additional ingredient is that \mathcal{P} is a **graph property**. Namely, it does not depend on vertex labeling. This implies that the complex \mathcal{G} is highly symmetric. Using some facts from group theory they conclude:

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Theorem (KSS '83)

The evasiveness conjecture holds for all graphs of order n when n is prime.

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- ▶ Topological connectivity.

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- ▶ Use ideas from topology to develop new probabilistic models (random lifts of graphs should be a small step in this direction...).
- ▶ **Introduce ideas from topology into computational complexity**

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We want to develop a theory of **random complexes**, similar to random graph theory. Specifically we seek a higher-dimensional analogue to $G(n, p)$. For the purpose of illustration let us mostly consider:

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We denote by $X(n, p)$ this probability space of two-dimensional complexes.

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Theorem (ER '60)

The threshold for graph connectivity in $G(n, p)$ is

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- ▶ The vanishing of the $(d - 1)$ -st homology (with any ring of coefficients).
- ▶ Being simply connected (vanishing of the fundamental group).

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- ▶ Likewise, if S is the vertex set of a connected component of G , then $\mathbf{1}_S M = 0$.
- ▶ It is not hard to see that **G is connected iff the only vector x that satisfies $xM = 0$ is $x = \mathbf{1}$.**

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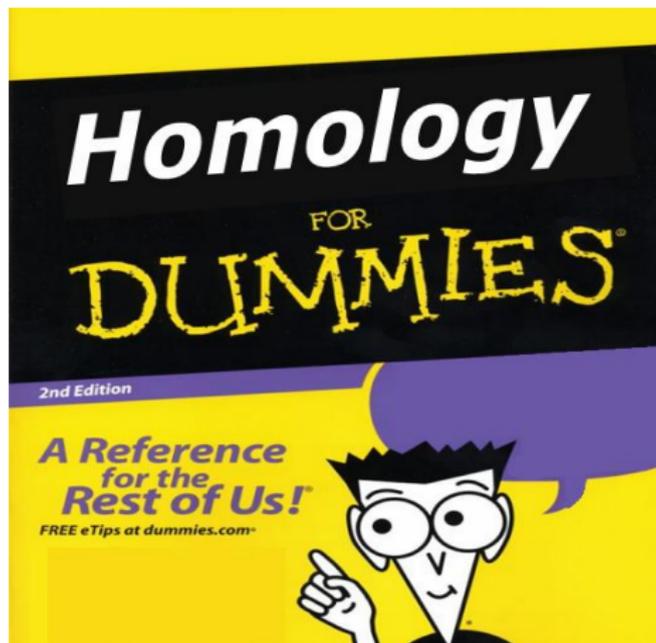
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- ▶ The transformations associated with A_1 resp. A_2 are called *the boundary operator* (of the appropriate dimension) and are denoted ∂ (perhaps with an indication of the dimension).

It is an easy exercise to verify that $A_1 A_2 = 0$ (in general there holds $\partial \partial = 0$, a key fact in homology theory).

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Is this a proper inclusion or an equality?

This is quantified by considering the quotient space
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In our situation where X and Y are inclusion matrices of k vs. $(k + 1)$ -dimensional faces of a simplicial complex, these quotient spaces are the relevant homology and cohomology groups.

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That should be clear now: The row space of the $n \times \binom{n}{2}$ matrix.

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The process of selecting the columns yields a random two-dimensional complex with a full one-dimensional skeleton. We call this model of random complexes $X_2(n, p)$. (So, e.g. $X_1(n, p)$ is nothing but good old $G(n, p)$).

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We have asked for the critical p where there a non-trivial left kernel exists.

In topological language: What is the critical p at which the first homology with \mathbb{F}_2 coefficients of a random $X \in X_2(n, p)$ vanishes?

...and the answer is...

Theorem (L. + Meshulam '06)

The threshold for the vanishing of the first homology of $X_2(n, p)$ with \mathbb{F}_2 coefficients is

$$p = \frac{2 \ln n}{n}$$

More generally

Likewise define $X_d(n, p)$, the random d -dimensional simplicial complexes with a full $(d - 1)$ -st dimensional skeleton.

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We still do not know, however:

Question

What is the threshold for the vanishing of the \mathbb{Z} -homology?

The vanishing of the fundamental group

Theorem (Babson, Hoffman, Kahle '09 ?)

The threshold for the vanishing of the fundamental group in $X(n, p)$ is near

$$p = n^{-1/2}.$$

Comment: When the field is not \mathbb{F}_2

We have to select an (arbitrary but fixed) orientation to the triples and pairs. The entries of the inclusion matrix are ± 1 depending on whether the orientation of the edge and the 2-face containing it are **consistent or not**.

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The d -dimensional case is similar (with an appropriate adaptation).

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Again let's start with the graphical case. The right kernel of the $V \times E$ inclusion matrix of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is G 's **cycle space**. So the relevant 1-dimensional theorem is:

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Theorem

The critical probability for almost sure existence of a cycle in $G(n, p)$ is

$$p = \frac{1}{n}.$$

And the higher-dimensional analogue?

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Theorem (Aroshtam, L., Meshulam; work in progress)

The critical probability where a random complex in $X_2(n, p)$ has almost surely a nontrivial second homology satisfies

$$\frac{1.34\dots}{n} \leq p \leq \frac{2.74\dots}{n}.$$

I.e., this is the critical p where a random $\binom{n}{2} \times p \binom{n}{3}$ matrix as above has almost surely a nontrivial right kernel.

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As mentioned, this is still work in progress and we hope to soon know more.

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What is a regular complex?

Even very simple objects from graph theory may become subtle when you move up in dimension:

Let X be a simplicial complex with vertex set V , and let $x \in V$ be a vertex. The **link** of x , denoted $\text{link}_X(x)$, is a simplicial complex Y on vertex set $V \setminus \{x\}$. A subset $A \subseteq V \setminus \{x\}$ is a face in Y iff $A \cup \{x\}$ is a face in X .

In the same way we define $\text{link}_X(S)$ for any $S \subset V$.
Namely $B \subseteq V \setminus S$ is a face of $\text{link}_X(S)$ iff $B \cup S$ is a face of X .

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Namely $B \subseteq V \setminus S$ is a face of $\text{link}_X(S)$ iff $B \cup S$ is a face of X .

In simple words: Your link is everything that together with you forms a face.

Regular complexes?

So, in a graph $G = (V, E)$, $\text{link}(x)$ is the neighbor set of the vertex x . We say that G is **regular** if all vertex links are "the same", i.e., all these sets have the same cardinality.

Regular complexes?

So, in a graph $G = (V, E)$, $\text{link}(x)$ is the neighbor set of the vertex x . We say that G is **regular** if all vertex links are "the same", i.e., all these sets have the same cardinality.

But in a two-dimensional complex X the link of a vertex $\text{link}_X(x)$ is a graph H . (Recall: yz is an edge of H iff xyz is a face in X). This leads to the following:

Regular complexes?

Open Problem

For which graphs H does there exist a two-dimensional complex X , such that $\text{link}_X(x)$ is isomorphic to H for every vertex x ?

Alternatively...

We could try and restore the simplicity of the notion of regular graphs by considering links of pairs (since $\text{link}(x, y)$ is just a set and we only care about its cardinality).

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Namely, let X be a two-dimensional simplicial complex with a full one-dimensional skeleton. Say that X is **(2, d)-regular** if for any two vertices, the cardinality of the set $\text{link}(x, y)$ is d . This, however, means that X is a **Steiner Triple System = STS** and leads to another open question.

Learning (a bit more) from history

The study of random regular graphs is, of course, a major part of the field. To develop a higher-dimensional analog to this, we would have to resolve:

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Open Problem

Give an efficient algorithm to uniformly generate STS's.

A high-dimensional Cayley formula?

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But a set of columns in this matrix is just a graph. Which graphs are bases?

High-dimensional Cayley (contd.)

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High-dimensional Cayley (contd.)

Definition

Let M be a matrix. In an **elementary collapse** we erase row i and column j of M provided that M_{ij} is the only nonzero entry in the i -th row.

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If M is the vertex-edge incidence matrix of a graph, an elementary collapse is a step where we remove a vertex of degree 1 and the edge incident with it.

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As mentioned, over \mathbb{Q} we work with a signed matrix, that corresponds to an (arbitrary, but fixed) orientation of the graph.

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We turn to the $\binom{n}{2} \times \binom{n}{3}$ inclusion matrix and consider column bases. The rank now is $\binom{n-1}{2}$. We call a column basis over \mathbb{Q} a **hypertree** and we now know what to ask

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1. Is it still the case that being a column basis does not depend on the field?
2. In particular, is it still equivalent to collapsibility? (It's easy to see that collapsibility is still a *sufficient* condition).
3. At any event: How many column bases does the $\binom{n}{2} \times \binom{n}{3}$ inclusion matrix have over our favorite fields?

A little surprise

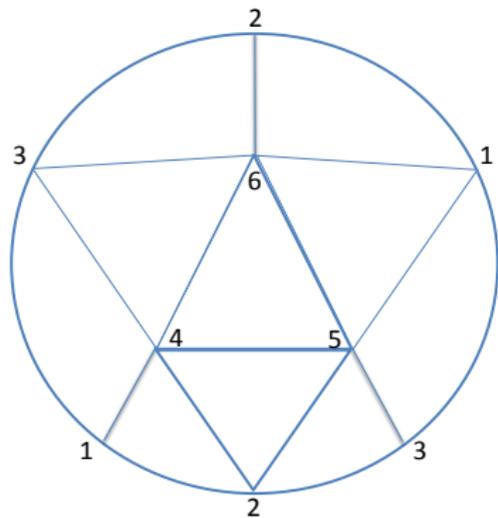


Figure: A triangulation of the projective plane

A little surprise

The example we just saw is a column basis for \mathbb{Q} , but **not for \mathbb{F}_2** (in fact, it's a 2-STS). A partial remedy is given by

Theorem (Kalai '83)

$$\sum |H_{d-1}|^2 = n \binom{n-2}{d}$$

where the sum is over all d -dimensional \mathbb{Q} -hypertrees T .

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Over \mathbb{Q} ?*
2. *How likely is such a basis to be collapsible?
(Perhaps it's $o(1)$?).*

Extremal combinatorics of simplicial complexes

Theorem (Brown, Erdős, Sós '73)

Every n -vertex two-dimensional simplicial complex with $\Omega(n^{5/2})$ simplices contains a two-sphere. The bound is tight.

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- ▶ In particular, there is a cycle C that is contained in the link of x as well as in $\text{link}(y)$.
- ▶ We just found a double pyramid with base C and x and y as apexes. This is homeomorphic to a two-sphere.

But many extremal questions on simplicial complexes remain widely open

Conjecture

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- ▶ We can show that if true this bound is tight.
- ▶ This may be substantially harder than the BES theorem, since a “local” torus need not exist.
- ▶ (With Friedgut:) $\Omega(n^{8/3})$ simplices suffice.

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- ▶ How many they are: $n!$
- ▶ How to sample a random permutation.
- ▶ Numerous *typical* properties of random permutations e.g.,:
 - ▶ Number of fixed points.
 - ▶ Number of cycles.

High-dimensional permutations?

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An alternative description: An $n \times n$ array M where m_{ij} gives the unique k for which $a_{ijk} = 1$. It is easy to verify that M is defined by the condition that every row and column in M is a permutation of $[n]$. Such a matrix is called a **Latin square**.

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So this raises

Question

Determine or estimate \mathcal{L}_n , the number of $n \times n$ Latin squares.

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The (fairly easy) proof uses two substantial facts about permanents: The proof of the van der Waerden conjecture and Brégman's Theorem. This raises:

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- ▶ In general dimension?

...and a few words on tensors...

Let us quickly recall the notion of tensor rank. But first a brief reminder of matrix rank. A matrix A has rank one iff there exist vectors x and y such that $a_{ij} = x_i y_j$.

Proposition

The rank of a matrix M is the least number of rank-one matrices whose sum is M .

More on tensors...

All of this extends to tensors almost verbatim:
A three-dimensional tensor A has rank one iff there exist vectors x, y and z such that $a_{ijk} = x_i y_j z_k$.

Definition

The rank of a three-dimensional tensor Z is the least number of rank-one tensors whose sum is Z .

Can you believe that this question is open?

Open Problem

What is the largest rank of an $n \times n \times n$ real tensor.

It is only known (and easy) that the answer is between $\frac{n^2}{3}$ and $\frac{n^2}{2}$. With A. Shraibman we have constructed a family of examples which suggests

Conjecture (L. and Shraibman)

The answer is $(1 + o(1))\frac{n^2}{2}$

THAT'S ALL, FOLKS....