# Topology - week 8 Math3061 

Daniel Tubbenhauer, University of Sydney

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## Eulerian circuits and graphs

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## Example



Warning Eulerian graphs do not need to be connected because they may have vertices of degree 0 !

## Finding Eulerian circuits

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In answering this question Euler laid the foundations of graph theory

## Classifying Eulerian graphs

## Theorem

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph. Then $G$ is Eulerian if and only if every vertex has even degree

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Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph. Then $G$ is Eulerian if and only if every vertex has even degree

## Proof

Assume that there is at least one vertex $v$ of odd degree. Since we want to visit every edge exactly once we will eventually get stuck in $v$ or another vertex of odd degree while trying to create an Eulerian cycle. Hence, G can not have an Eulerian cycle


## Classifying Eulerian graphs

## Proof continued

Conversely, if every vertex has even degree, then $G$ is not a tree so contains some circuit $C$. If $C$ is an Euler circuit we are done, and if not remove all edges of $C$ from $G$. The resulting (potentially disconnected) graph $G^{\prime}$ has still even degrees for all of its vertices but fewer edges than $G$

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So we can argue by induction on the number of edges (the base case has no edges and is thus clear), and inductively we can assume that the connected components of $G^{\prime}$ have Euler circuits $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{n}$

## Classifying Eulerian graphs

## Proof continued

We piece $C$ and $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{n}$ together into an Euler cycle: we walk along $C$ and whenever we hit a vertex of $C_{i}$ we take a detour over $C_{i}$


## Eulerian paths

A Eulerian path is a path that is not a circuit and which passes through every edge exactly once

## Corollary

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph that is not Eulerian. Then $G$ has a Eulerian path if and only if it has exactly two vertices of odd degree

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## Proof

Only vertices of odd degree can be a start or an end vertex, so we need precisely two of them (all other must be of even degree by the same argument as before)

## Eulerian paths

## Proof continued

Conversely, if $v$ and $w$ are the two vertices of even degree, then we put an additional edge $e$ between them. We get a graph $G^{\prime}=G \cup\{e\}$ and the previous theorem gives us an Euler circuit $C$ in $G^{\prime}$. Then $C \backslash\{e\}$ is an Euler path


## What about Königsberg?



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There is no Eulerian circuit since all vertices have odd degree There is no Eulerian path since all vertices have odd degree Solution: Destroy bridge e;-)

## Topological equivalence

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{m}$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$, for $m, n \geq 1$

## Definition

A homeomorphism $f: X \longrightarrow Y$ is a continuous map that has a continuous inverse $g: Y \longrightarrow X$. The spaces $X$ and $Y$ are homeomorphic if there is a homeomorphism $f: X \longrightarrow Y$

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- We have $X \cong X$
- If $X \cong Y$, then $Y \cong X$
- If $X \cong Y$ and $Y \cong Z$, then $X \cong Z$


## Examples of homeomorphisms

## Proposition

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Exercise Show that $(a, b) \cong(c, d)$ and $(a, b] \cong(c, d] \stackrel{!!!}{\cong}[a, b) \cong[c, d)$

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## Proposition

If $a<b$, then $(a, b) \cong \mathbb{R}$
Proof It is enough to show that $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{R}$

## Examples of homeomorphisms

## Proof continued

Homeomorphisms are given by $f(x)=\tan (x)$ and $g(x)=\tan ^{-1}(x)$


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The square is $\left\{(x, y)||x|+|y|=1\}\right.$ and $S^{1}=\left\{(x, y) \mid x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$

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\begin{aligned}
& f: \square \longrightarrow S^{1} ;(x, y) \mapsto\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}}, \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}}\right) \\
& g: S^{1} \longrightarrow \square ;(x, y) \mapsto\left(\frac{x}{|x|+|y|}, \frac{y}{|x|+|y|}\right)
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Note that


For free we see that the square and disk are homeomorphic:

## Corollary

$$
\cong \cong
$$

## Stereographic projection in two dimensions

Think of the north pole of the circle $S^{1}$ as $\infty$
Stereographic projection gives a homeomorphism $\pi: S^{1} \backslash\{\infty\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

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## Stereographic projection in three dimensions

Think of the north pole of the circle $S^{2}$ as $\infty$
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## Maps

Stereographic projection is used to draw maps:



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Other projections are also used such as gnomonic projections, conic projections and the Mercator projection, which is a cylindrical projection

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Stereographic projection is used to draw maps:


Other projections are also used such as gnomonic projections, conic projections and the Mercator projection, which is a cylindrical projection Now that we have seen homeomorphisms we are ready to define surfaces

## Surfaces - informal definition

## Definition

A surface is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ that, locally, is homeomorphic to the graph of the function $f: \mathbb{R}^{2} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by $f(x, y)=z /$ alternatively to a disc

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Here "locally" means that we can find a "local neighborhood" of every point where the function looks like the plane $f(x, y)=z /$ a disc

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## Examples

- A standard xyz-plane in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$


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## Surfaces - examples...

- Non-standard planes in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$



## Surfaces - examples...

- Non-standard planes in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$

- Curved surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$



## Surfaces - examples...

- A disk $\mathbb{D}^{2}$



## Surfaces - examples...

- A disk $\mathbb{D}^{2}$
- An annulus $\mathbb{A}$



## Surfaces - examples.

- A disk $\mathbb{D}^{2}$

- An annulus $\mathbb{A} \cong$ cylinder


Strictly speaking, these are not surfaces according to our definition because they have a boundary, whereas planes in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ do not have boundaries.

Our rigorous definition of a surface will allow surfaces with boundaries

## Surfaces — examples...

- A sphere $S^{2}$



## Surfaces - examples...

- A sphere $S^{2}$
- A torus $\mathbb{T}$



## Surfaces - real world examples..

- A sphere $S^{2} \cong$ soccer ball



## Surfaces - real world examples..

- A sphere $S^{2} \cong$ soccer ball

- A torus $\mathbb{T} \cong$ swim ring



## Surfaces - real world example.

- Here is a surface with boundary:


The patches are examples of neighborhoods which are discs

## Surfaces - examples..

- The real projective plane $\mathbb{P}^{2}=S^{2}$ /antipode



## Surfaces - examples.

- The real projective plane $\mathbb{P}^{2}=S^{2} /$ antipode


We will see other ways to describe $\mathbb{P}^{2}$ later

## Surfaces - examples...

- A Möbius band, or Möbius strip, $\mathbb{M}$



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This is a three dimensional "shadow" of a four dimensional object

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## Surfaces - non-examples

- This is not a surface because of the cusp at the origin



## Surfaces - non-examples

- This is not a surface because of the cusp at the origin

- This is not a surface because the indicated point has not a disc neighborhood



## Identification spaces

A partition of a surface $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is a collection $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}$ of subsets of $S$ such that $S=X_{1} \cup X_{2} \cup \cdots \cup X_{r}$

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The space $S$ is an identification space for $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if there exists a continuous surjective map $f: S \longrightarrow Y$

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The space $S$ is an identification space for $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if there exists a continuous surjective map $f: S \longrightarrow Y$
Note $Y=f\left(X_{1}\right) \cup f\left(X_{2}\right) \cup \cdots \cup f\left(X_{r}\right)$ and that the map $f$ implicitly identifies the points in $f\left(X_{i_{1}}\right) \cap \cdots \cap f\left(X_{i_{s}}\right)$, for $1 \leq i_{1}, \ldots, i_{s} \leq r$

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This makes is possible to understand $Y$ in terms of, often, easier spaces $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{r}$, which we think of as covering $Y$ like a patchwork quilt

## Identification space for a cylinder



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That is, the cylinder is the identification space obtained by identifying the top and bottom edges of a suitably sized rectangle

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## Identification space for a torus



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So, the torus $\mathbb{T}$ is obtained by identifying the top and bottom, and the left and right, edges of a rectangle

## Identification space for a sphere



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The sphere $S^{2}$ is obtained by identifying adjacent sides of a rectangle, or a 2-gon (a polygon with two sides)

## Identification space for the projective plane $\mathbb{P}^{2}$



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## Identification space for a Möbius strip



## Identification space for a Klein bottle

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It is not clear how we to do the last step in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and, in fact, we can't!

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- The image of $C_{m}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is an $m$-gon, or a polygon with $m$ sides
- Polygons are surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. They are different from cyclic graphs because they have vertices, edges and one face
- The graph $C_{2}$ has only one edge. When working with surfaces we think of $C_{2}$ as having two edges so that its image in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is a 2-gon


## Surfaces and polygonal decompositions

## Definition

A surface $S$ is an identification space in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ that is obtained by gluing together polygons along their edges in such a way that at most two edges meet along any edge
The polygons give a polygonal decomposition of the surface $S$

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- A surface with a polygonal decomposition has vertices, edges and faces


## Definition

A surface $S$ is an identification space in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ that is obtained by gluing together polygons along their edges in such a way that at most two edges meet along any edge
The polygons give a polygonal decomposition of the surface $S$

## Remarks

- A surface is an identification space where we identify pairs of edges in polygons. Informally, a surface is a patchwork quilt of polygons
- This essentially agrees with our earlier definition of surfaces because every polygon is homeomorphic to a closed disc $\mathbb{D}^{2}$ so, locally, surfaces look like planes / like discs
- A surface can have many seemingly different polygonal decompositions
- A surface with a polygonal decomposition has vertices, edges and faces
- We sometimes write $S=(V, E, F)$, where $V$ is the vertex set, edge set $E$, and face set $F$


## Identifying edges in polygonal decompositions

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- When doing surgery always double check that you do not accidentally change the orientation of an edge


## Examples of polygonal decompositions

We have already seen that:


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- Projective plane

- Torus



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is not polygonal decomposition of a surface
- Any polygonal decomposition can be replaced with one that only uses 3-gons:

$\Longrightarrow$ Iterating this process, shows that any surface has infinitely many different polygonal decompositions!


## Important facts about polygonal decompositions.

- Every connected surface has a polygonal decomposition with one polygon - with identified edges (A polygonal surface is connected if the underlying graph is connected)



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- We have to check that what we are doing does not depend on the choice of polygonal decomposition


## Surgery: cutting and gluing

Surgery is our main tool for working with surfaces: it allows us to change a polygonal decomposition by cutting and gluing
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We want an easy way to identify surfaces from polygonal decompositions

## Example surface

Exercise Can we describe the following surface?


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## Example surface

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Answer Not yet! First we need more language and technology.

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Example



## Example boundary circles.

- Sphere

- Projective plane



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All edges paired $\Longrightarrow$ no boundary

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Exercise What is the boundary of the surface?


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## The Euler characteristic of a surface

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- The Euler characteristic $\chi(S)=|V|-|E|+|F|$ of $S$ is a higher dimensional generalization of the Euler characteristic of a graph $G=(V, E)$, which is $\chi(G)=|V|-|E|$
- The definition of $\chi(S)$ appears to depend on the choice of polygonal decomposition ( $V, E, F$ ) of $S$. In fact, we will soon see that $\chi(S)$ is independent of this choice


## Euler characteristic of basic surfaces.

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- Klein bottle
$\mathbb{K} \cong{\underset{b}{b}}_{\substack{\text { b } \\ b \\ b}}^{b}, \chi=0$


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## Euler characteristic example

Example What is the Euler characteristic of the surface:


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Example What is the Euler characteristic of the surface:

$\Longrightarrow \quad \chi(S)=-3$

## Subdivision of a surface

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- The subdivision of a subdivision of $S$ is a subdivision of $S$
- If $\dot{S}$ has a polygonal decomposition that is a subdivision of a polygonal decomposition of $S$ then $S \cong \dot{S}$


## Subdividing and Euler characteristic

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Both operations preserve $\chi$

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## Common subdivisions

## Theorem

Let $S$ be a surface and suppose that $S$ has polygonal decomposition $P_{1}=\left(V_{1}, E_{1}, F_{1}\right)$ and $P_{2}=\left(V_{2}, E_{2}, F_{2}\right)$. Then $S$ has a polygonal decomposition $(V, E, F)$ that is a common subdivision of $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$

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Proof Merge the two subdivisions - adding extra vertices as necessary


## Two invariants

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Suppose that $S$ and $T$ are homeomorphic surfaces that have polygonal decompositions. Then $\chi(S)=\chi(T)$ and $S$ and $T$ have the same number of boundary circles.

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Similarly, $S$ and $T$ have the same number of boundary circles

## Why are invariants useful?

## Question

Let $S$ and $T$ be surfaces. Is $S \cong T$ ?
To show that $S$ and $T$ are homeomorphic is, in principle, easy: we find a continuous map $f: S \longrightarrow T$ with a continuous inverse $g: T \longrightarrow S$

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Exercise Using what we know so far, deduce that the surfaces

$$
S^{2}, \mathbb{A}, \mathbb{D}^{2}, \mathbb{K}, \mathbb{M}, \mathbb{P}^{2}
$$

are pairwise non-homeomorphic (see Tutorial 9)

