

Lecture # 37

Goal for today: Discuss topological notions of knots, links, link diagrams, Reidemeister moves, Jones-Conway polynomial.

First, we shall define links and knots in \mathbb{R}^3 . To this end, we start with:

Def: A polygonal arc L in $X = \mathbb{R}^3$ is a union of a finite number of segments $L = \bigcup_{i=1}^{m-1} [P_i, P_{i+1}]$, such that $(P_i, P_{i+1}) \cap (P_j, P_{j+1}) = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$. Here: P_i - "vertices" of L , $[P_i, P_{i+1}]$ - "edges" of L .
 closed segment, open segments

The order on vertices defines an orientation of L , often indicated by arrows on its edges. For this reason P_1 is called "origin of L ", P_n - "endpoint of L ". We also will always consider only simple L , i.e. those polygonal arcs s.t. $\{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{n-1}\}$ are pairwise distinct. On the other hand, if $P_1 = P_n$ then L will be called "closed".

Def: A link L in $X = \mathbb{R}^3$ is the union of a finite number m of pairwise disjoint simple closed polygonal arcs in X . A knot is a link of order 1.
 connected components of L , the order of L .

We shall consider links up to equivalence. In fact, there are two ways to define the latter (kind of discrete vs continuous) but they end up with the same equiv. rel-n.

Def: If L is a link in $X = \mathbb{R}^3$ and P_i, P_{i+1} are two consecutive vertices in a connected component of L , then given another point $Q \in X$ s.t. $Q \notin L$, $P_i \notin [Q, P_{i+1}]$, $P_{i+1} \notin [Q, P_i]$, and $\text{convex hull}(P_i, P_{i+1}, Q) \cap L = [P_i, P_{i+1}]$ define a new link L' obtained from L by a Δ -operation $L' := (L \setminus [P_i, P_{i+1}]) \cup [P_i, Q] \cup [Q, P_{i+1}]$



Taking a symmetric & transitive closure of such operations defines \sim :

Def: Two links L & L' are combinatorially equivalent, denoted $L \sim L'$, if there is a sequence of links $L_0 = L, L_1, L_2, \dots, L_{n-1}, L_n = L'$, such that $\forall 0 \leq i \leq n-1$ one of $\{L_i, L_{i+1}\}$ is obtained from the other by a Δ -operation.

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On the other hand, there is a standard topological equivalence "up to isotopy".

Def: Two links L & L' are isotopic, denoted $L \sim L'$ if there is an orientation preserving isotopy h of $X = \mathbb{R}^3$ mapping L to L' , i.e. a piece-wise linear map $h: [0,1] \times X \rightarrow X$ s.t. $h(0,-) = id_X$, $h(t,-): X \rightarrow X$ - homeomorphism, and $h(1,L) = L'$.

Clearly, \sim is an equivalence relation. Moreover, we have:

Fact 1: $L \sim L' \Leftrightarrow L \sim_i L'$ for any two links L, L' in \mathbb{R}^3

hence, one can just write $L \sim L'$ omitting i .

Basic Problem: Given two links L, L' in \mathbb{R}^3 determine if they are equivalent or not

One way to approach this problem is to construct invariants for links $L \mapsto I_L$, where I_L will be some algebraic object (number, polynomial, function, etc). Here, invariant means $L \sim L' \Rightarrow I_L = I_{L'}$, which shall allow to detect when L, L' are not equivalent.

Two elementary examples:

(1) Order of a link (= # connected components)

This is clearly a link invariant. However, it's weak, e.g. all knots will have the same value $m=1$, but not every knot is equivalent to a trivial

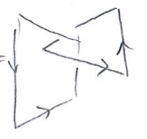
(2) Linking number (either $m=2$, or treat every pair of connected components in L)

Given two connected components L_1, L_2 of a link L , one may define

$lk(L_1, L_2) = \frac{1}{2} \sum \epsilon(P)$

where P runs through all crossings of L_1 & L_2 in link diagram, $\epsilon(P) \in \{ \pm 1 \}$ is determined by the rule $\epsilon(\text{crossing}) = 1, \epsilon(\text{crossing}) = -1$. defined on the next page.

Example: The Hopf link H is not trivial



Indeed $lk(H) = 1 \neq 0 = lk(\text{trivial 2-component link})$

The key goal for today is to introduce a much finer "Jones-Conway pol-1" invariant. But first, we shall discuss link diagrams that allow to think of links in 3dim space rather as some diagrams on a plane.

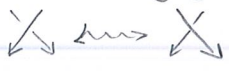

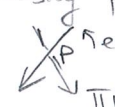
- Def: a) A link projection Π is the union of a finite number of closed polygonal arcs in \mathbb{R}^2 s.t. no vertex is in an interior of another edge.
- b) A crossing point of Π is a point lying in the interior of >1 edges of Π .
- c) Π is regular if \forall crossing point P , it lies in interior of exactly 2 edges of Π .
- d) Finally, a link diagram is a regular link projection Π in \mathbb{R}^2 s.t. \forall crossing point P the set E_P of 2 edges in interior of which P lies, is ordered.

The first edge in E_P is commonly called "overcrossing", 2nd - "undercrossing".

These are usually visualized by drawing  for overcrossing and  for undercrossing.

Note: Any link diagram Π in \mathbb{R}^2 naturally gives rise to a link L in \mathbb{R}^3 , defined up to isotopy.

Lemma 1: Any link diagram Π may be turned to a link diagram of a trivial link in \mathbb{R}^3 by a sequence of "changes of crossings".

Here, changes of crossings means changing order of the set E_P at one of the crossing points P , so that . The above result is obvious: pick any polygonal arc Π_i of Π and start moving around it making all crossing points P into  unless the other edge was just travelled in which case  earlier at Π_i .

After these changes $\forall i$, we shall get a link diagram of a trivial link.

Notations: A trivial link of order m is denoted $O^{\otimes m} = \underbrace{OO\dots O}_m$ m times.

In fact, not only every link diagram gives rise to a link in \mathbb{R}^3 , but also any link gives rise to a family of link diagrams through projections $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$.

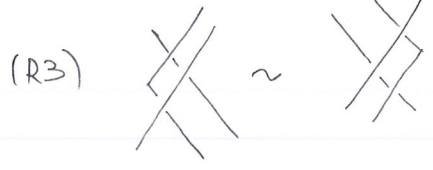
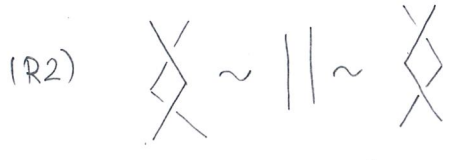
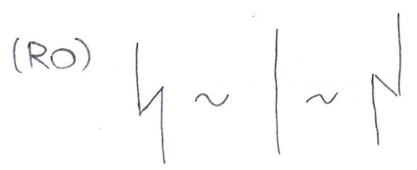
Fact 2: For any projection $\pi: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$, any link L is equivalent to a link L' such that $\pi(L')$ is a regular link projection (thus giving rise to a link diagram).

But now we get a new important question:

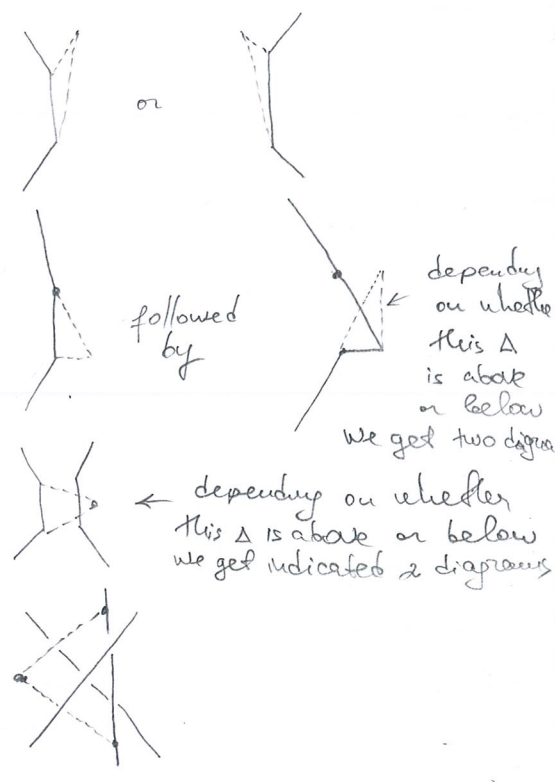
Q: When two link diagrams Π_1 & Π_2 represent equivalent links L_1 & L_2 (so that $L_1 \sim L_2$)?

The answer was provided almost a century ago by Reidemeister and requires the famous Reidemeister moves.

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these moves can easily be seen as projections of Δ -operations on links hence, (R0)-(R3) do not change isotopy class of corresponding link



Reidemeister moves, which allow to change a link diagram locally (without changing the rest)

Theorem of Reidemeister: Two generic link diagrams represent equivalent links in \mathbb{R}^3 if and only if they are related by a sequence of Reidemeister Moves (R1-R3) and isotopies of diagrams

Here:

- a link diagram is called "generic" if any two of its vertices have different y-coord (height). [clearly; moving each vertex slightly up/down any link diagram may be turned to generic]
- isotopy of link diagrams Π & Π' is an isotopy h of \mathbb{R}^2 s.t. $h(1, \Pi) = \Pi'$ and the orders of $\{E_p | p \text{-crossing point}\}$ are preserved through isotopy h . [clearly, isotopic link diagrams represent isotopic links in \mathbb{R}^3]

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We are now ready to state & prove the main result for today, but we start with

Def: A triple (L_+, L_-, L_0) of oriented links in \mathbb{R}^3 is called a Conway triple if they can be represented by link diagrams (Π_+, Π_-, Π_0) that coincide outside a small disk in \mathbb{R}^2 and are isotopic inside this disk to:



Main Theorem (Jones-Conway polynomial invariant)

There is a unique map

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{oriented links in } \mathbb{R}^3 \\ \downarrow \\ L \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{\quad} \Lambda = \mathbb{Z}[x^{\pm 1}, y^{\pm 1}] \quad \text{s.t.}$$
$$L \xrightarrow{\quad} P_L$$

- 1) if $L \sim L'$, then $P_L = P_{L'}$ (so that it's indeed invariant)
- 2) $P_0 = 1$, where $0 =$ trivial knot
- 3) for any Conway triple (L_+, L_-, L_0) have

$$x \cdot P_{L_+} - x^{-1} P_{L_-} = y P_{L_0} \quad (*)$$

P_L is called the Jones-Conway polynomial of a link L

(*) are the famous skein relations

Remark: Various specializations of x, y provide some other invariants (not stronger than P_L though)

a) Specializing $x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto z$ get a 1-variable polynomial invariant $\nabla_L(z) = P_L(1, z)$
(in fact, $\nabla_L(z) \in \mathbb{Z}[z]$ not just $\mathbb{Z}[z^{\pm 1}]$) \uparrow Conway polynomial

b) Specializing $x \mapsto t, y \mapsto t^{1/2} - t^{-1/2}$ yields $V_L(z) = P_L(t, t^{1/2} - t^{-1/2}) \in \mathbb{Z}[t^{\pm 1/2}]$
 \uparrow Jones polynomial

Let's rephrase the statement of the theorem above. To this end, let's consider the set of equivalence classes of oriented links in \mathbb{R}^3 , denoted by K , and define the Λ -module generated by K modulo skein relations

$$\mathbb{V} := \Lambda[K] / \text{relations } (*) \quad \leftarrow \text{"skein module of } \mathbb{R}^3 \text{"}$$

The above is equivalent to:

Theorem 1: The Λ -linear map $Q: \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{V}, 1 \mapsto [O]$, \downarrow class of trivial knot is an isomorphism

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The proof of surjectivity of Q is purely topological and follows from 2 lemmas:

Lemma 2: For any $n \geq 1$, $[O^{\otimes n}] = \left(\frac{x-x^{-1}}{y}\right)^{n-1} [O]$ in V .

Using the Conway triple $(\begin{matrix} \nearrow \searrow \\ \downarrow \\ \circ \end{matrix}, \begin{matrix} \searrow \nearrow \\ \downarrow \\ \circ \end{matrix}, \begin{matrix} \nearrow \searrow \\ \downarrow \\ \circ \end{matrix})$ we conclude that in V :

$$x \cdot [O^{\otimes(n-1)}] - x^{-1} [O^{\otimes(n-1)}] = y [O^{\otimes n}] \Rightarrow [O^{\otimes n}] = \frac{x-x^{-1}}{y} [O^{\otimes(n-1)}] = \dots = \left(\frac{x-x^{-1}}{y}\right)^{n-1} [O]$$

Lemma 3: The Λ -module V is generated by $\{[O^{\otimes n}] \mid n \geq 1\}$

The proof follows easily by induction on # crossing points of a link diagram, where one uses skein relations (*) together with Lemma 1, which tells that after some changes of crossings we shall get the trivial link.

Combining Lemmas 2-3, we get $Q: \Lambda \rightarrow V$ is surjective.

The proof of injectivity of Q requires the following result (to be proved in 2 classes)

Fact 3: For any $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 1}$ and $q \in \mathbb{C}^* \setminus \{\pm 1\}$, $\exists!$ map $\Phi_{m,q}: \{\text{oriented links in } \mathbb{R}^3\} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

1) if $L \sim L'$, then $\Phi_{m,q}(L) = \Phi_{m,q}(L')$

2) $\Phi_{m,q}(O) = \frac{q^m - q^{-m}}{q - q^{-1}}$

3) for any Conway triple (L_+, L_-, L_0) have

$$q^m \Phi_{m,q}(L_+) - q^{-m} \Phi_{m,q}(L_-) = (q - q^{-1}) \Phi_{m,q}(L_0)$$

Property 1) and 3) imply that $\Phi_{m,q}$ gives rise to Λ -linear map

$$\Phi'_{m,q}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad f(x,y) \cdot [L] \mapsto f(q^m, q - q^{-1}) \cdot \Phi_{m,q}(L)$$

by specializing $x \mapsto q^m, y \mapsto (q - q^{-1})$ and viewing \mathbb{C} as a Λ -module under this

Now if $f(x,y) \in \Lambda$ is s.t. $Q(f) = 0$, then $(\Phi'_{m,q} \circ Q)(f) = 0$. But $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \Rightarrow \\ \Rightarrow \end{matrix} \right.$

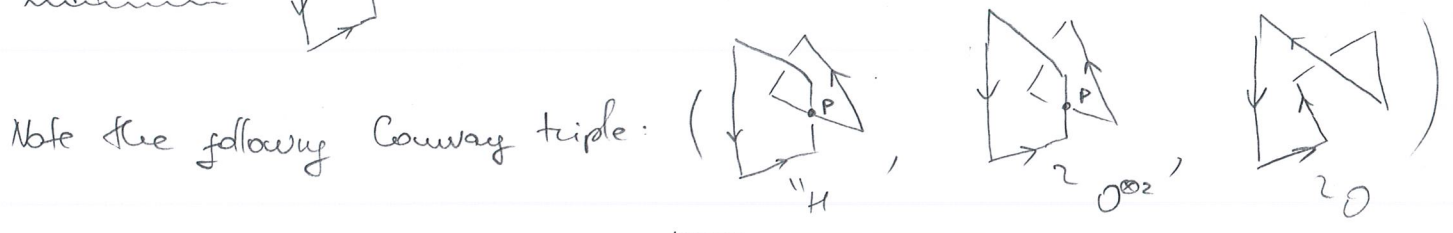
$$(\Phi'_{m,q} \circ Q)(f) = f(q^m, q - q^{-1}) \cdot \frac{q^m - q^{-m}}{q - q^{-1}} \quad \& \quad q \neq \pm 1$$

$\Rightarrow f(q^m, q - q^{-1}) = 0 \quad \forall q \in \mathbb{C}^* \setminus \{\pm 1\}, \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 1}$. This implies $f(x,y) = 0!$

This completes proof of injectivity of Q , hence Thm 1, hence also Main Theorem.

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We conclude with a computation of two examples.

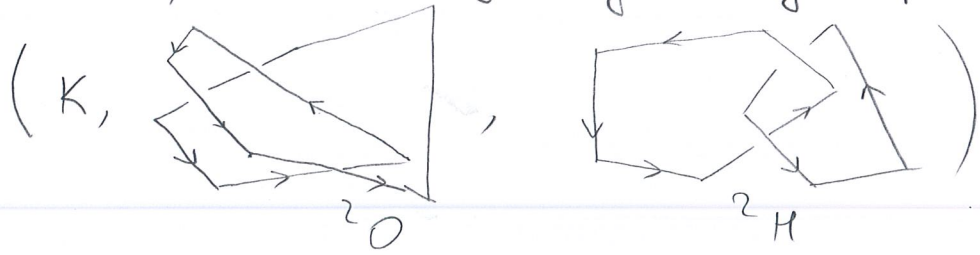


Hence: $x \cdot P_H - x^{-1} P_{O^2} = y P_O \implies \boxed{P_H = x^{-1} \cdot y + (x^{-1} - x^{-3}) y^{-1}}$

Lemma 2



In this case, we note the following Conway triple:



Hence: $x \cdot P_K - x^{-1} \cdot P_O = y \cdot P_H \stackrel{(1)}{\implies} \boxed{P_K = x^{-2} y^2 + 2x^{-2} - x^{-4}}$

Exercise: Verify that for the left-handed trefoil knot \tilde{K} : $P_{\tilde{K}} = 2x^2 - x^4 + x^2 y^2$.
Deduce that $K \neq \tilde{K}$