

GREEN FUNCTIONS OF ENERGIZED COMPLEXES

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1. RESULTS

1.1. A function $h : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ from a finite abstract simplicial complex G to a ring \mathbb{K} with conjugation x^* defines $\chi(A) = \sum_{x \in A} h(x)$ and $\omega(G) = \sum_{x,y \in G, x \cap y \neq \emptyset} h(x)^* h(y)$. Define $L(x, y) = \chi(W^-(x) \cap W^-(y))$ and $g(x, y) = \omega(x)\omega(y)\chi(W^+(x) \cap W^+(y))$, where $W^-(x) = \{z \mid z \subset x\}$, $W^+(x) = \{z \mid x \subset z\}$ and $\omega(x) = (-1)^{\dim(x)}$ with $\dim(x) = |x| - 1$.

1.2. The following relation [8] only requires the addition in \mathbb{K}

Theorem 1. $\chi(G) = \sum_{x,y \in G} g(x, y)$

1.3. The next new **quadratic energy relation** links simplex interaction with multiplication in \mathbb{K} . Define $|h|^2 = h^* h = N(h)$ in \mathbb{K} .

Theorem 2. $\omega(G) = \sum_{x,y \in G} \omega(x)\omega(y)|g(x, y)|^2$.

1.4. The next determinant identity holds if h maps G to a division algebra \mathbb{K} and \det is the **Dieudonné determinant** [1]. The geometry G can here be a finite set of sets and does not need the simplicial complex axiom stating that G is closed under the operation of taking non-empty finite subsets.

Theorem 3. $\det(L) = \det(g) = \prod_{x \in G} h(x)$.

1.5. If $h : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ takes values in the **units** $U(\mathbb{K})$ of \mathbb{K} , like i.e. $\mathbb{Z}_2, U(1), SU(2), \mathbb{S}^7$ of the division algebras $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O}$, the **unitary group** $U(H) \cap \mathbb{K}$ of an operator C^* -algebra $\mathbb{K} \subset B(\mathcal{H})$ for some Hilbert space \mathcal{H} or the units in a ring $\mathbb{K} = O_K$ of integers of a number field K , and if G is a simplicial complex, then:

Theorem 4. *If $h(x)^* h(x) = 1$ for all $x \in G$, then $g^* = L^{-1}$.*

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1.6. For an overview of simplicial complexes and references, see [5]. Except for Theorem (2), the results were known [8, 7] in special cases like the topological $h(x) = \omega(x)$, where $\chi(G) = \sum_{x \in G} \omega(x)$ is the **Euler characteristic** and $\omega(G) = \sum_{x \sim y \in G} \omega(x)\omega(y)$ is the **Wu characteristic** [11, 2]. The pair (G, \mathbb{K}) is an example of a **ringed space** or a sheaf. For $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Z}$ we might think of h as a **divisor** and $h(G)$ as its degree, for $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$ as a quantum mechanical wave and $|\omega(h)|^2 = h^*h$ as a **probability amplitude**, for $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}^n$, we might interpret h as a section of a vector bundle or as an embedding of G in \mathbb{R}^n like for example when doing a geometric realization of G , where $h(x)$ is the location of the simplex in space.

1.7. When taking $\mathbb{K} = \mathcal{G}$ as the ring generated by simplicial complexes and $h(x) = X(x)$, the complex generated by $x \in G$, we can see $G \in \mathbb{K} \rightarrow \exp(G) = \det(L(G)) \in \mathbb{K}$ as an **exponential map** because $\exp(G_1 + G_2) = \exp(G_1)\exp(G_2)$ as addition $G_1 + G_2$ is the disjoint union and Theorem (3) shows that we get from a sum a product.

2. PROOFS

2.1. We reprove Theorem (1) algebraically. The setup in [8] was harder, because we did not start with the explicit expressions for $g(x, y)$ yet. Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ enumerate the elements of $V = \bigcup_{x \in G} x$ and h take values in the **free algebra** (monoid ring) generated by the variables x_1, \dots, x_n . If \mathbb{K} is commutative, we can work with the **polynomial algebra** $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. The algebraic picture is now transparent:

Proof. Write $h(x) = x$ and have x be the variable associated to the set $x \in G$. The matrix entries of L and g are linear expressions:

$$L(u, v) = \sum_{x \in G, x \subset u \cap v} x ,$$

$$g(u, v) = \sum_{x \in G, u \cup v \subset x} \omega(u)\omega(v)x .$$

Seen as such, the claim is the algebraic relation

$$\sum_{x \in G} x = \sum_{x \in G} \left[\sum_{u, v \in G, u \cup v \subset x} \omega(u)\omega(v) \right] x .$$

Because x is a simplex of Euler characteristic 1, we have $\sum_{u \subset x} \omega(u) = 1$ and $\sum_{v \subset x} \omega(v) = 1$ so that also

$$\left[\sum_{u, v \in G, u \cup v \subset x} \omega(u)\omega(v) \right] = \left[\sum_{u \in G, u \subset x} \omega(u) \right]^2 = 1 .$$

□

2.2. Theorem (2) can also be seen algebraically. While one needs to distinguish xy and yx in the non-commutative case, associativity does not yet factor in because only products of two elements occur. The Theorem also so holds also for octonions $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{O}$ or Lie algebras $x * y = [x, y]$ or if $xy = \langle x, y \rangle$ is considered to be an inner product.

Proof. When writing the expressions algebraically, $\omega(G) = \sum_{x \cap y \neq \emptyset} x^*y$ is a **generating function** for all intersection relations in the complex G . Take a pair of sets x, y which do need to be different and look at the expression x^*y on the left. On the right, the term x^*y appears if we consider $g(u, v)$ for any pair $u, v \subset x \cap y$. We see especially that x and y need also to have a non-empty intersection to the right. We have to show

$$x^*y = \sum_{u, v \subset x \cap y} \omega(u)\omega(v)x^*y.$$

We get the same term x^*y on the right because

$$\sum_{u \cup v \subset x \cap y} \omega(u)\omega(v) \left[\sum_{u \subset x \cap y} \omega(u) \right] \left[\sum_{v \subset x \cap y} \omega(v) \right]$$

which is $\chi_{top}(x \cap y)^2 = 1$. □

2.3. Theorem (3) holds more generally for any set G of non-empty sets, where also the empty set \emptyset (= void) is allowed. Unlike for simplicial complexes, the class of sets of sets has an involution $x \leftrightarrow x' = V = \bigcup_{x \in G} x \setminus x$, assigning to x its complement $x' \in V$. The proof makes use of this duality switching $W^+(x)$ and $W^-(x)$ as to establish linearity of \det in one variable, we need both a proportionality factor 1 as well as the affinity factor 0 in each variable.

Proof. Because $L^+(u, v) = \sum_{x \in G, x \subset u \cap v} x$ and $L^-(u, v) = \sum_{x \in G, u \cup v \subset x} x$ are dual to each other in the category of sets of sets, we only need to verify the identity for $L = L^-$ or L^+ . We can use induction with respect to the number of elements n in G and use that if we lift a property for L^+ from $(n - 1)$ to n , we have also shown it for L^- . For $n = 1$, the situation is clear as then $L^+ = L^- = [x]$ is a 1×1 matrix. In general because the matrix entries of L are linear in each variable, a Laplace expansion will show in the induction that the determinant is affine $a_k x_k + b_k$ in each variable x_k . We need then to establish multi-linearity. The induction assumption is that for any set of $(n - 1)$ sets like $\{x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ or we have $\det(L^+) = \det(L^-) = \prod x_i$, which is a multi-linear expression in each of the variables. Lets assume that x_1 is a minimal element as a set then L^- has zero column and row entries if its value is zero and deleting these rows and columns

produces the connection matrix L^+ of a set of sets without the x_1 set in which some entries are changed. Still as a row is zero, the expression $\det(L^+(x_1))$ is linear ax_1 in x_1 for some a and not affine $ax_1 + b$. To fix the proportionality factor a we use duality and look at x_1 in $L^+(x)$ which corresponds to take a maximal element x_n in $L^-(x)$ which means that it is a minimal element in the dual picture. Given G with n elements, and $x = x_n$ is maximal, we look at $\det(L^-(x))$. In that matrix L^- , only the corner entry $L_{n,n}^-$ contains a linear expression in x and x does not appear anywhere else. A Laplace expansion shows then that the determinant is of the form $x\det(A) + b$, where A is the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix in which the last column and row is deleted and b is some constant. Together, these two insights show adding a new set, the determinant is a linear function in the energy $h(x)$ of that set so that $\det(L) = \prod_{i=1}^n x_i$. \square

2.4. To see Theorem (4), we order G so that if $|x| < |y|$, then the set x comes before y in the listing of G . Also this theorem needs the simplicial complex assumption for G .

Proof. With the elements in G ordered according to dimension, the matrix g^*L is (i) upper triangular, (ii) contains terms $|x|^2 = x^*x$ in the diagonal and (iii) contains only sums of terms of the form $|y|^2 - |z|^2$ in the upper triangular part. If all $|x|^2 = 1$, these three properties (i),(ii),(iii) then show that g^*L is the identity matrix. Now to the proof of the three statements: the product $(g^*L)(x, y) = \sum_{z \in G} g^*(x, z)L(z, y)$ with $g^*(x, z) = \sum_{u, x \cup z \subset u} \omega(x)\omega(z)u^*$ and $L(z, y) = \sum_{v, v \subset z \cap y} v$ is

$$\sum_z \omega(z)g^*(x, z)L(z, y) = \sum_z \sum_{u, v, x \cup z \subset u, v \subset z \cap y} \omega(x)\omega(z)u^*v$$

which is 0 if $y \subset x$ and equal to $x^*y = x^*x = |x|^2 = 1$ if $x = y$ and which is a sum of terms $\sum_z \sum_{x \subset z \subset y} \omega(x)\omega(z)|z|^2 = 0$ if $x \subset y$. The last follows from $\sum_{x \subset z \subset y} \omega(z) = 0$ rephrasing that the reduced Euler characteristic $1 - \chi_{top}(X)$ of a simplex $X \subset G$ is zero. \square

2.5. Let us formulate the last step as a lemma

Lemma 1. *If X is a complete complex with n elements and $Y \subset X$ is a complete sub-complex with $0 < m < n$ elements, then the number of odd and even dimensional simplices in X containing Y are the same.*

Proof. Assume X is the complex generated by its largest element x and Y is the complex generated by its largest element y . Define a map $\phi : z \rightarrow z \setminus y$ and build the set of sets $\phi(X) = \{\phi(z), z \in X\}$. It is an extended complete simplicial complex containing also

the void \emptyset , a set of dimension -1 satisfies $\omega(\emptyset) = (-1)$. The f-vector $(f_{-1}, f_0, f_1, \dots, f_{n-m-1})$ has the Binomial coefficients $f_k = B(n-m, k+1)$ as components. Because $f(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-m} f_{k-1} t^k = (1+t)^{n-m}$ satisfies $f(-1) = 0$ for $n > m$, the number of odd and even dimensional simplices are the same. \square

2.6. For $m = 0$, there is one more even dimensional simplex and odd dimensional and $\sum_{y \subset x} \omega(x) = 1$ for $m = n$, there is only the simplex x and $\sum_{x \subset y \subset x} \omega(x) = \omega(x)$. For X is the complex generated by x which is $X = \{x = \{1, 2, 3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}\}$ and $Y = \{\{y = \{1, 2\}\}\}$ then $\{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ is the set of sets in x containing y . It contains one even and one odd dimensional simplex. If $Y = \{y = \{1\}\}$, then $\{\{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ contains two even and two odd dimensional simplices.

3. REMARKS

3.1. Theorem (3) justifies to see $g(x, y)$ as **Green function entries** or potential energy values between x and y . The notation $N(g(x, y))$ for arithmetic norm or the real **amplitudes** is commonly used if the ring \mathbb{K} is a **number field** or **ring of integers** in a number field like $N(a + ib) = a^2 + b^2$ in $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Z}[i]$. In the case if \mathbb{K} is a C^* algebra, then $N(x) = |h(x)|^2$ is the square of the norm of the operator $h(x)$ which is the **spectral radius** of the self-adjoint operator x^*x .

3.2. If $\sum_{x \in G} L(x, x)$ denotes the **trace** of L then

$$\text{str}(L) = \sum_{x \in G} \omega(x) L(x, x)$$

is called the **super trace**. With the **checkerboard matrix** $S(x, y) = \omega(x)\omega(y)$ one can write $\text{str}(L) = \text{tr}(SL)$. Our first proof of Theorem (1) used the following identity in Corollary (2) which had been a key when proving the energy theorem in the topological case without the Green-Star formula. It actually identified with the Green function entries $K(x) = \omega(x)g(x, x)$ as **curvature** which add up by Gauss-Bonnet to Euler characteristic. Theorem (3) then identifies this curvature $K(x)$ as the **potential** which all the simplices (including x) induce on x . When $h(x) = \omega(x)$ we have seen $\omega(x)g(x, x) = 1 - S(x)$ as the reduced Euler characteristic of the unit sphere $S(x)$ in the Barycentric refinement graph of x . Even so this curvature or potential energy is an element in the ring \mathbb{K} , Theorem (1) can be interpreted therefore as a **Gauss-Bonnet** formula

Corollary 1. $\chi(G) = \sum_{x \in G} K(x) = \text{tr}(Sg) = \text{str}(g)$.

Sweet complexes

Proof. We have

$$g(u, v) = \sum_{x \in G, u \cup v \subset x} \omega(u)\omega(v)x,$$

so that

$$\text{str}(g) = \sum_u \omega(u)g(u, u) = \sum_u \omega(u) \sum_{x \in G, u \subset x} x$$

Comparing the coefficient of the expression x in $\chi(G) = \sum_{x \in G} x$ with the expression x appearing in $\text{str}(g) = [\sum_{u \subset x} \omega(u)]x$ gives a match because the topological Euler characteristic of a simplex $x \in G$ is 1. \square

3.3. Corollary 2 can be seen as a connection analogue of the discrete McKean Singer formula $\chi(G) = \text{str}(e^{-Ht})$ [9, 3] for the **Hodge Laplacian** $H = (d + d^*)^2 = D^2$, where d are the **incidence matrices** of the simplicial complex. The self-adjoint Dirac operator D and its square $D^2 = H$ act on the same Hilbert space than the matrices L, g and produces a symmetry of the non-zero spectrum of even and odd dimensional forms. The dimension of the kernel of the blocks of $H = D^2$ are the Betti numbers. We should see L as the **connection analog** of D and L^*L as the analogue of H . We do not have kernels of L and no Hodge theory for L . There are some relations although. The matrix $(L + g)^*(L + g) = L^*L + g^*g + 2$ and for one-dimensional complexes, $L + g$ is the sign-less Hodge Laplacian.

Corollary 2. $\omega(G) = \text{tr}(Sg^*Sg)$

Proof. Define

$$A(x, y) = (Sg^*S)(x, y) = \omega(x)\omega(y)g^*(x, y)$$

so that we can see this as a **Hilbert-Schmidt inner product**

$$\text{tr}(Sg^*Sg) = \text{tr}(Ag) = \sum_{x, y} A(x, y)g(x, y) = \sum_{x, y} \omega(x)\omega(y)|g(x, y)|^2.$$

Now use Theorem (2). \square

3.4. We still have a relation for the **cubic Wu characteristic** $\omega_3(G) = \sum_{x, y, z \in G} h(x)^*h(y)h(z)$, where the sum is over all triples which pairwise interact. We have $\omega_3(G) = \text{tr}((Sg)^3)$ but this then starts to fail for $\text{tr}((Sg)^4)$. We still need to investigate more these higher Wu characteristic $\omega_n(x)$ for $n \geq 3$. While for ω we look only at pair interactions, for ω_3 we look at three point interactions. Because the Green function entries $g(x, y)$ can be thought of as the interaction energy between x and y , it is likely that some “tensor quantity” like $L^+(x, y, z) = \chi(W^+(x) \cap W^+(y)) + \chi(W^+(x) \cap W^+(z)) + \chi(W^+(y) \cap W^+(z))$ will capture the three point interaction of the three simplices x, y, z better.

3.5. If h takes values in a real or complex Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , one could replace the pairing $h(x)^*h(y) \in \mathbb{K}$ with some **inner product** $h(x)^* \cdot h(y) = \langle h(x), h(y) \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$. If h takes values in unit spheres of a Hilbert space, one gets then close to an **Ising** or a **Heisenberg type model** (i.e. [10]). By the classification of real division algebras, this is natural for \mathbb{R} (Ising), \mathbb{C} (2D Heisenberg) and \mathbb{H} (3D Heisenberg). Also the octonion case \mathbb{O} or any linear space with Hilbert space works. For non-commutative cases like \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O} , the determinant becomes the Dieudonné determinant which in the non-commutative division algebra case happens to agree with the **Study determinant** and in our case $\prod_x |h(x)|$. If we do not insist on working with determinants, we can have $h(x)$ take values in the unit sphere of any Hilbert space and still have $g^*L = 1$. With the dot product as “multiplication”, the right hand side 1 in $g^*L = 1$ does then have real entries 1 and operator 1 entries like the matrices g and L .

3.6. If $A, B \subset G$ are any subsets with k elements, we can look at **minors** $\det(g_{A,B})$ which are matrix entries of the **exterior product** $g \wedge g \cdots \wedge g$. The **Fredholm energy** $\det(1 + g^*g)$ is a sum over all possible amplitudes $|\det(g_{A,B})|^2$, where $A, B \subset G$ have the same cardinality. This is a **generalized Cauchy-Binet** formula [4]

$$\det(1 + F^T G) = \sum_P \det(F_P) \det(G_P)$$

which holds for all $n \times m$ matrices F, G and also extends to Dieudonné determinants. We can think of a subset $A \subset G$ with $|A| = k$ as a **k -particle state** and $\chi(A)$ as a sort of momentum and $\omega(A)$ as a sort of kinetic energy. For two A, B of cardinality k , the minor $g(A, B) = \det(g_{A,B})$ is a matrix entry of $\wedge_{j=1}^k g$. The Cauchy-Binet relation $g^2(A, B) = \sum_C g(A, C)g(C, B)$ and more generally the n 'th matrix power $g^n(A, B)$ sums over all paths

$$g(A, C_1)g(C_1, C_2) \dots g(C_{n-1}, B) .$$

We mention this to illustrate that there is a **multi-particle interpretation** of the set-up. The determinant $\det(L)$ is then an n -particle quantity. The additive energy $\chi(G)$ the quadratic energy $\omega(G)$ and the **Fredholm energy** $\sum_j 1 + |\lambda_j|^2$ are now all natural notions.

3.7. Unrelated to the **intersection calculus** described in Theorems (1) to (4) is an **incidence calculus** defined by **incidence matrices** d defining an **exterior derivative** satisfying $d^2 = 0$. The **Dirac matrix** $D = d + d^*$ and the **Hodge Laplacian** $H = (d + d^*)^2$ are like L, g finite matrices of the same size $n \times n$ than L or g . When doing

a **Lax deformation** of D , we deform the exterior algebra the matrix entries of d become then ring valued. The Hodge matrix H is block diagonal with blocks H_i for which $\dim(\ker(H_i)) = b_i$ are still **Betti numbers** defining the Poincaré polynomial $p(t) = \sum_{j=0} b_j t^j$. This information uses the topological $h(x) = \omega(x)$ and by Euler-Poincaré, the topological Euler characteristic $\chi(G) = \sum_x \omega(x)$ is the Poincaré polynomial evaluated at $t = -1$. For Wu characteristic, there is also a **quadratic incidence calculus** by defining the exterior derivative $dF(x, y) = F(dx, y) - F(x, dy)$ leading to Betti numbers and a **Wu-Poincaré polynomial** $q(t)$, where $q(-1)$ is the Wu characteristic $\omega(G) = \sum_{x \sim y} \omega(x)\omega(y)$. Also the **Wu-Poincaré map** $q : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[t]$ is a ring homomorphism. Unlike simplicial cohomology associated with $\chi(G)$, the **quadratic incidence cohomology** associated with $\omega(G)$ is not a homotopy invariant. But it can distinguish the cylinder from the Möbius strip. Also here, the Dirac operator can be deformed in a \mathbb{K} -valued frame work (for associative \mathbb{K}) without changing the quadratic cohomology.

3.8. For subset $A \subset G$, the sum $\omega(A) = \sum_{x, y \in A} h(x)h(y)$ does in general not relate to the Green function entries $g(x, y)$, where $g(x, y)$ is the Green function of the entire complex G . This also was the case for $\chi(A) = \sum_{x \in A} h(x)$ which is in general not the sum over all green function entries of G , nor of A (as the energy theorem requires that A is a simplicial complex). For sub-complexes $A \subset G$ we can take the Green functions of the sub-complex and ignore the outside $G \setminus A$. With $\bar{A} = \bigcup_{x \in A} W^+(x)$ as some sort of closure, we tried to see whether $\chi(\bar{A})$ agrees with $\sum_{x, y \in A} g_A(x, y)$ or $\omega(\bar{A}) = \sum_{x, y \in A} |g_A(x, y)|^2 \omega(x)\omega(y)$ but this also does not seem to work. The quantities $\omega(A)$ depends on how A is embedded in G . There are interaction energies between A and places outside A if A is not a simplicial complex itself. The boundary is crucial. We know that for a discrete manifold G without boundary in the topological case $\omega(G) = \chi(G)$ and for a discrete manifold G with boundary δG one has $\omega(G) = \chi(G) \setminus \chi(\delta G)$. This implies that $\omega(B) = (-1)^d$ for a closed ball B of dimension d and so $\omega(x) = \omega(X) = (-1)^{\dim(x)}$ if X is the complete simplicial complex generated by a simplex x . This is the reason why we denoted the Wu characteristic with ω .

3.9. If h takes values in $\{-1, 1\}$, then L, g are inverses of each other by Theorem (4) are **real integral quadratic** forms for which the number of negative eigenvalues agree with the number of negative h values. This follows from the relation $\det(L) = \det(g) = \prod_{x \in G} h(x)$ holding

for all \mathbb{C} -valued h and which when comparing arguments shows that $\sum_j \arg(\lambda_j) = \sum_{x \in G} \arg(h(x))$. More generally:

Corollary 3. *If $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ and $h(x) \neq 0$ for all x , then the number of elements in G with $h(x) > 0$ agrees with the number of positive eigenvalues of L or g .*

3.10. In the constant case $h(x) = 1$, the matrices L, g are **integral positive definite quadratic forms** L, g which are inverses of each other $L^{-1} = g$ and which have a **symplectic property** in that they are iso-spectral [6]. The reason for the association is that symplectic matrices have the property that the inverse of a matrix has the same eigenvalues than the matrix itself. It is known by a **theorem of Kirby** that if n is even and a $n \times n$ matrix has this spectral symmetry of $\sigma(L) = \sigma(L^{-1})$, then L is conjugated to a symplectic matrix A (meaning $A^T J A = J$ with the standard symplectic matrix J satisfying $J^2 = -1$ and $J^T = J^{-1} = -J$. The spectral property follows from the definition $A^{-1} = J^T A^T J$.) In general, since $L, g = L^{-1}$ are self-adjoint, it follows from the spectral theorem that there is an orthogonal U such that $L^{-1} = U^T L U$. In the symplectic case, the unitary matrix is $U = J$. Kirby's observation is just that that if n is even, there is a coordinate system in which $U = J$ and that if n is odd we have an eigenvalue 1, there is a coordinate system in which the unitary U decomposes into a $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ symplectic block J and a 1×1 block 1.

3.11. Still in the case $h(x) = 1$, the **spectral Zeta function** of L $\zeta(s) = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j^{-s}$ is an entire function in s satisfying the functional equation $\zeta(a + ib) = \zeta(-a + ib)$. The reason is that there is not only the symmetry $\zeta(z) = \zeta(-z)$ but also the symmetry $\zeta(z) = \zeta(z^*)$, where z^* is the complex coordinate. The same functional equation $\zeta(a + ib) = \zeta(-a + ib)$ for the zeta function holds if $h(x) = \omega(x)$ and if G is one-dimensional. In general, if h is complex valued, the zeta function needs to be defined properly as it is not clear which branch of the logarithm to use for each λ . It should then be considered for the matrix $L^* L = |L|^2$ or its inverse $g^* g = |g|^2$ which are positive definite self-adjoint matrices and so have real eigenvalues.

3.12. If $h : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ takes values in the units of a ring of integers \mathcal{O} in a number field \mathbb{K} , then $g^* g$ is a positive definite integer quadratic form over \mathcal{O} and $L^* L$ is the inverse of $g^* g$. They are both positive definite \mathcal{O} -valued quadratic forms. We could also take the iso-spectral $g g^*$ rather than $g^* g$ but selfadjoint cases like $g + g^*$ or $(L + g)^*(L + g)$ do not have an inverse in general. For $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$, and $h(x) \neq 0$, we get positive definite Hermitian forms $g^* g$ and $L^* L$. There is a unique

Hermitian matrix A such that $e^{-A} = g^*g$ and $e^A = L^*L$. One can get them by finding the unitary matrix U with diagonal $U^*(g^*g)U = D$ and $U^*(L^*L)U = D^{-1}$ then defining $A = U \log(D)U^*$. Now we can define for $t \in \mathbb{C}$ the one-parameter group e^{At} of operators which for $t = 1$ gives L^*L and for $t = -1$ gives g^*g .

3.13. If λ_j are the eigenvalues of $A = g^*g$, the zeta function $\zeta(s) = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j^{-s}$ which can be rewritten as $\text{tr}(g^*g)^s = \text{tr}(L^*L)^{-s}$. It makes sense for all $s \in \mathbb{C}$. The **Schrödinger equation** $iu' = -Au$ has the solution $u(t) = U(t)u(0) = e^{-iAt}u(0) = (g^*g)^{it}u(0)$ so that $\text{tr}(U(t)) = \zeta(it)$. The zeta function is therefore both interesting for the random reversible walk $(L^*L)^n$ (when taking integer n) and for the unitary Schrödinger flow $(g^*g)^{it}$. We need only that $h(x)$ takes values in some unitary group of an operator algebra, so that Theorem 4 applies. We have now an action of the complex plane \mathbb{C} which leads to a trace interpretation of the zeta function:

Corollary 4. *For $H = L^*L = e^A$ the flow H^s is defined for all complex $s \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\zeta(s) = \text{tr}(H^s)$.*

With classical Laplacians this is not possible. The zeta function of the circle is related to the quantum harmonic oscillator and is the **Riemann zeta function**. The trace of the evolution in negative time only exists by analytic continuation and one has to disregard the zero energy. For classical Laplacians Δ on functions or Hodge Laplacians $(d + d^*)^2$ on forms, the heat flow can not be evolved backwards due to the existence of harmonic forms leading non-invertibility. Also discrete random walks defined by stochastic matrices not be reversed as there are always zero eigenvalues.

3.14. We could also define a **non-linear Schrödinger flow** as follows. Let $h(t) = u(t)$ define $L(t)$, then look at the differential equation $u'(t) = iH(t)u(t)$ in which the energy operator $H(t) = L(t)L(t)^*$ is defined by the wave $u(t)$. A discrete version is to start with $u(0)$, then define $u(1) = L_0^*L_0u(0)$ then $u(2) = L_1^*L_1u(1)$, where always L_k are defined by the functions $u(k) : G \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$. This flow still defines a zeta function $\zeta(s) = \text{tr}(H^{-s})$ but now the eigenvalues $\lambda_k(t)$ move with time and we might have to analytically continue to define $\zeta(s)$. We have not yet explored that. The possibility to attach operators L to a wave $h : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and then **let these operators L act on the wave** is an interesting case, where fields h become **quantized** in the sense that we attach an operator to a field and let this operator propagate the field. This is an ingredient of **quantum field theories**. Only that in this combinatorial settings, it only in involves combinatorics and linear

algebra, leading to non-linear ordinary differential equations. Because the dynamics does not change the norm of the operators or fields, there is a globally defined dynamics. We still need to investigate this flow and study its long term properties depending on the geometry G .

3.15. We will elaborate elsewhere more on the arithmetic of complexes G as the current work is heavily motivated by that. Complexes generate a natural ring \mathcal{R} in which the addition is the disjoint union and the multiplication is the Cartesian product. There is a natural norm on this Abelian ring \mathcal{R} given in terms of the **clique number** $c(G)$ of the graph complement of the connection graph of G then defining $|G| = \min_{G=A-B} |c(A) + c(B)|$ in the group completion of the monoid given by disjoint union. This works as $c(A + B) = c(A) + c(B)$, $c(A \times B) = c(A)c(B)$ for simplicial complexes. This defines a norm satisfying the Banach algebra property $|G_1 \times G_2| \leq |G_1||G_2|$ so that we can complete the ring to a **commutative Banach algebra** and with a conjugation even to a **C^* -algebra** \mathcal{K} extending the Banach algebra of complex numbers \mathbb{C} we know for our usual arithmetic constructs. Actually, the complex plane is a sub algebra generated by 0-dimensional complexes, leading to a complex scaling multiplication $G \rightarrow \lambda G$ for complex λ . So, the base space G is in \mathbb{K} but also the target ring \mathbb{K} can be that space. Now take $\mathbb{K} = \mathcal{K}$. For example, we can look at $h(x) = X$, where X is the complex generated by the set x . This function defines $\chi : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathcal{K}$ given by $\chi(X) = \sum_{x \in X} h(x)$. The spectral properties of L and g are such that the spectra are the union of spectra under addition and the product of the spectra under multiplication. This shows that for every fixed complex number s , the value $G \rightarrow \zeta_G(s)$ is a character and so an element in the Gelfand spectrum of the ring \mathbb{K} which by the Gelfand isomorphism is $C(K)$ for some compact topological space K (it is compact because \mathbb{K} is unital). The zeta map $s \rightarrow \zeta_G(s)/n(G) \in K$, where $n(G) = \zeta_G(0) = \text{tr}(L(G))^0$ is for connected finitely generated simplices the number of elements in G , which extends to a character in \mathcal{K} , now embeds the complex line in the compact space K . We don't know whether this **zeta curve** is dense in the Gelfand spectrum K . We can for example ask whether $n : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by extending cardinality to \mathcal{G} or Euler characteristic $\chi_{top} : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ which are known to be a characters correspond to points in the spectrum K of \mathcal{K} , can be approximated by a zeta curve. This is related to the open question whether we can read off the topological Euler characteristic $\chi(G)$ from the spectrum of a natural connection Laplacian L like in the topological case when $h(x) = \omega(x) \in \{-1, 1\}$.

4. EXAMPLES

4.1. Lets take the example, where \mathbb{K} is the free algebra generated by the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n augmented by conjugated entries x_k^* defining $|x_k|^2 = x_k^*x_k$ in an enumeration of $V = \bigcup_{x \in G} x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$. For $G = K_2 = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\} = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ we have $\chi(G) = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$ and $\omega(G) = x_1^*x_1 + x_2^*x_2 + x_3^*x_3 + x_1^*x_3 + x_3^*x_1 + x_2^*x_3 + x_3^*x_2$. The matrices

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 0 & x_1 \\ 0 & x_2 & x_2 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \end{bmatrix}, g = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + x_3 & x_3 & -x_3 \\ x_3 & x_2 + x_3 & -x_3 \\ -x_3 & -x_3 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

multiply to

$$g^*L = \begin{bmatrix} |x_1|^2 & 0 & |x_1|^2 - |x_3|^2 \\ 0 & |x_2|^2 & |x_2|^2 - |x_3|^2 \\ 0 & 0 & |x_3|^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

4.2. For the next example $G = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}\}$ lets use variables $G = \{x, y, z, a, b, c\}$. Now,

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & 0 & x & x & 0 \\ 0 & y & 0 & y & 0 & y \\ 0 & 0 & z & 0 & z & z \\ x & y & 0 & a + x + y & x & y \\ x & 0 & z & x & b + x + z & z \\ 0 & y & z & y & z & c + y + z \end{bmatrix},$$

$$g = \begin{bmatrix} a + b + x & a & b & -a & -b & 0 \\ a & a + c + y & c & -a & 0 & -c \\ b & c & b + c + z & 0 & -b & -c \\ -a & -a & 0 & a & 0 & 0 \\ -b & 0 & -b & 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & -c & -c & 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}.$$

One can check that $\sum_{x,y} g(x, y) = a + b + c + x + y + z = \chi(G)$. We have $\omega(G) = ab + ba + ac + ca + ax + xa + ay + yz + bc + ca + bx + xb + bz + zb + cy + yc + cz + zc + |a|^2 + |b|^2 + |c|^2 + |x|^2 + |y|^2 + |z|^2$, the generating function for the intersection relations. We compute $\sum_{x,y} \omega(x)\omega(y)|g(x, y)|^2 = |a + b + x|^2 + |a + c + y|^2 + |b + c + z|^2 - |a|^2 - |b|^2 - |c|^2$ and can check that this is the same. We have $\det(L) = \det(g) = abcxyz$. Finally, we

see

$$gL = \begin{bmatrix} |x|^2 & 0 & 0 & |x|^2 - |a|^2 & |x|^2 - |b|^2 & 0 \\ 0 & |y|^2 & 0 & |y|^2 - |a|^2 & 0 & |y|^2 - |c|^2 \\ 0 & 0 & |z|^2 & 0 & |z|^2 - |b|^2 & |z|^2 - |c|^2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & |a|^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & |b|^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & |c|^2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If all entries have length 1, we get the identity matrix.

4.3. Lets look at the example $G = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ which is not a simplicial complex. Denote the energy variables by $G = \{x, y, z\}$. Now,

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} x & 0 & x \\ 0 & y & y \\ x & y & x + y + z \end{bmatrix}, g = \begin{bmatrix} x + z & z & z \\ z & y + z & z \\ z & z & z \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have $\omega(G) = |x|^2 + xz + zx + |y|^2 + yz + zy + |z|^2$ and

$$\sum_{x,y} \omega(x)\omega(y)g(x, y)^2 = |x + z|^2 + |y + z|^2 + 7|z|^2$$

which are not the same. We need the simplicial complex structure. Also the energy $\chi(G) = x + y + z$ does not agree with $\sum_{x,y \in G} g(x, y) = x + y + 9z$ so that Theorem (1) does not hold. We have however $\det(L) = \det(g) = xyz$. The determinant identity Theorem (3) holds in general, also if G is not a simplicial complex.

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Sweet complexes

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