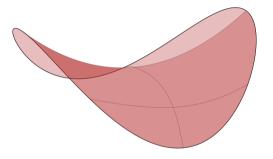
Luciano Melodia

Introduction to Persistent Homology

Underlying spaces



What if this **manifold** describes a set of points close to perfection? How can we determine a suitable **topology** for a given set of points?



Overview

I: Motivation

II: Simplicial complexes

III: Filtrations

IV: Homology groups

V: Persistent homology



Part I: Motivation



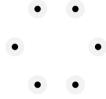
The structure of data



There exists at least a **topological manifold** underlying the data. A **dataset** is a set of points embedded in some \mathbb{R}^n .



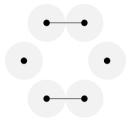
The structure of data



How can we make the **topological structure** of the underlying space visible? We span a **simplicial complex** using closed balls starting with radius r = 0.25.



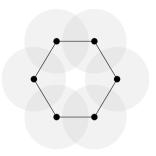
The structure of data



No additional **simplex** is created, thus we enlarge the radius. This **simplicial complex** is spanned with an r=0.5.



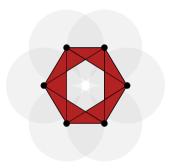
The structure of data



Whenever two of the **closed balls** touch, an edge is created. This **simplicial complex** is spanned with an r=0.85. This simplicial complex is called 1-skeleton or $\mathcal{K}^{(1)}$, with $\dim \sigma \leq 1$.



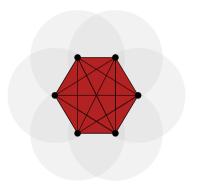
The structure of data



Whenever three or more of the **closed balls** touch, a 2-**simplex** is created. This **simplicial complex** is spanned with an r = 1.0.



The structure of data



When no more additional **simplices** appear, we have a **triangulation**. This **triangulation** does not embed into \mathbb{R}^2 , but into \mathbb{R}^3 .



Part II: Simplicial complexes



Simplices Building blocks

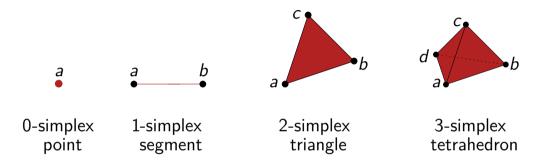
Given a set $X = \{x_0, \dots, x_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ of k+1 points that **do not lie on a hyperplane with dimension less than** d, the k-dimensional simplex v spanned by X is the **set of convex combinations**

$$\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i x_i$$
 with $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 1$ and $\lambda_i \geq 0$. (1)



Simplices

Examples



The coefficients λ_i are chosen from the **vectorspace** $\mathbb{Z}_2 := \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, such that we can **neglect the orientation** of the simplices. This is done for illustrative purposes, but can also be used for highly efficient computations.

Abstract simplicial complexes Definition

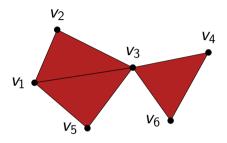
Let V be a finite set of vertices $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$. Let K be a set of subsets of V, such that all subsets of elements from K also belong to K. Then we call the elements of K faces and K an abstract simplicial complex.

The dimension of K is the maximum dimension of any of its simplices. The underlying space is denoted by |K|. It is the union of its simplices together with the topology inherited from \mathbb{R}^d , with d being the dimension of K.



Abstract simplicial complexes

Example



$$V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6\}.$$

$$K = \{\{v_1\}, \dots, \{v_6\}, \{\{v_1\}, \{v_2\}\}, \dots, \{\{v_4\}, \{v_6\}\}, \{\{v_1\}, \{v_2\}, \{v_3\}\}, \dots, \{\{v_3\}, \{v_4\}, \{v_6\}\}\}.$$



Geometric simplicial complexes

The geometric realization theorem

An abstract simplicial complex of dimension d has a geometric realization in \mathbb{R}^{2d+1} .



Geometric simplicial complexes

Proof of the geometric realization theorem

Let $f: K^{(0)} \to \mathbb{R}^{2d+1}$ be injective, whose image is a **set of points in general position** (2d+2) or fewer points are affinely independent). Let σ and σ_0 be simplices in K with $k = \dim \sigma$ and $k_0 = \dim \sigma_0$. Their union has size

$$\operatorname{card} (\sigma \cup \sigma_0) = \operatorname{card} \sigma + \operatorname{card} \sigma_0 - \operatorname{card} (\sigma \cap \sigma_0)$$
 (2)

$$\leq k + k_0 + 2 \leq 2d + 2. \tag{3}$$



Geometric simplicial complexes

Proof of the geometric realization theorem

The points in $\sigma \cup \sigma_0$ are affinely independent.

 \implies Every **convex combination** x **of points** in $\sigma \cup \sigma_0$ is unique.

Hence $x \in \tau = \text{conv } f(\sigma)$ as well $x \in \tau_0 = \text{conv } f(\sigma_0)$, iff x is a convex combination of $\sigma \cap \sigma_0$.

 \implies The intersection of τ and τ_0 is either empty or within $f(\sigma \cap \sigma_0)$.



Geometric simplicial complexes Simplicial maps

A **vertex map** is a function $\varphi: K^{(0)} \to L^{(0)}$ with the property that the vertices of every simplex in K map to vertices of a simplex in L. Then φ can be extended to a continuous map $f: |K| \to |L|$ defined by

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_i(x) \varphi(v_i). \tag{4}$$

This map is the **simplicial map** induced by φ .

Part III: Filtrations



Filtered (simplicial) complexes Brief motivation

We believe that different data comes from different **topological spaces**. How can we distinguish these using the data?

We don't want to distinguish data only by their **holes** of their **triangulation**, therefore we introduce a **magnifying glass** which allows us to capture the **structure of a topological space** in different granularity.



Filtered (simplicial) complexes

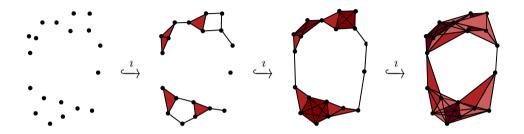
A **filtration** is a nested sequence of complexes K_i , which induce an ordering of the sublevel complexes. These complexes, together with the inclusion $K_i \hookrightarrow K_j$ for $0 \le i \le j \le n$ is called a filtration and denoted by \mathbb{K} :

$$\mathbb{K}: \quad \emptyset = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq K_n = K.$$

The inclusion on the filtration induces a homomorphism of groups $f_k^{i,j}: H_k(K_i) \to H_k(K_j)$, in this case H_k are the k-th homology groups.

Filtered (simplicial) complexes

Example



Vastly used complexes to create a filtration on a point set X are:

Čech complex: $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \check{\mathsf{Cech}}_r(X) \iff \bigcap_{i=0}^k B_r(x_i) \neq \emptyset.$

Vietoris-Rips complex: $(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \text{Rips}_r(X) \iff ||x_i - x_j|| \le r$.

Part IV: Homology groups



Groups

Recall

A **set** G together with a map $+: G \times G \to G$, $(x,y) \mapsto x+y$ and an element $e=e_G$ are called **group**, iff

- 1. (xy)z = x(yz) for all $x, y, z \in G$,
- 2. xe = ex = x for all $x \in G$,
- 3. for all $x \in G$ there exists $x^{-1} \in G$ such that $xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = e$.

If the group is abelian, which means commutative in every element under the operation, one denotes the group operation as +.



Homomorphisms of groups

Recall

A homomorphism of groups is a map $\varphi : G \to H$, with G, H being groups, such that

$$\varphi(e_G) = e_H,$$

$$\varphi(g_1 \star g_2) = \varphi(g_1) \circ \varphi(g_2).$$



Chain groups

The kth chain group of a simplicial complex K is $(C_k(K), +)$, the free commutative group on the (oriented) k-simplices.

An element of $C_k(K)$ is called k-chain, $\sum_i \lambda_i \sigma_i, \lambda_i \in \mathbb{Z}_2, \sigma_i \in K$.



Boundary homomorphism

Let K be a simplicial complex and $\sigma \in K$, $\sigma = [v_0, v_1, \cdots, v_k]$. The boundary homomorphism $\partial_k : C_k(K) \to C_{k-1}(K)$ is

$$\partial_k \sigma = \sum_i (-1)^i [v_0, v_1, \cdots, \hat{v}_i, \cdots, v_n].$$
 (5)



Boundary homomorphism

Fundamental lemma

The composition $\partial_{k-1} \circ \partial_k$ is zero.

We have

$$\partial_k(\sigma) = \sum_i (-1)^i \sigma | [v_0, \cdots, \hat{v}_i, \cdots, v_k], \tag{6}$$

and hence

$$\partial_{k-1}\partial_k(\sigma) = \sum_{j
(7)$$

$$+ \sum_{j>i} (-1)^{i} (-1)^{j-1} \sigma | [v_0, \cdots, \hat{v}_i, \cdots, \hat{v}_j, \cdots, v_k].$$
 (8)

The latter two summations cancel, as the second sum becomes the negative of the first after switching i and j.



Cycle group

The *k*th cycle group Z_k is defined as

$$Z_k = \ker \partial_k$$

$$= \{ c \in C_k \mid \partial_k c = 0 \}.$$
(9)
(10)

An element of this group is called k-cycle.



Boundary group

The *k*th boundary group B_k is defined as

$$B_k = \operatorname{im} \partial_{k+1}$$

$$= \{ c \in C_k \mid \exists d \in C_{k+1} : c = \partial_{k+1} d \}.$$

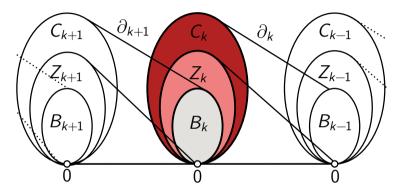
$$(11)$$

An element of this group is called k-boundary.



Normal subgroup relation

Following Edelsbrunner, Zomorodian and many more



A subgroup B of a group Z is normal with respect to Z, iff $zbz^{-1} \in B$. Thus, if it is invariant under conjugation. Normal subgroups are important. Only they can construct quotient groups.



Chain complex

$$0 \xrightarrow{\partial_{k+1}} C_k \xrightarrow{\partial_k} C_{k-1} \xrightarrow{\partial_{k-1}} \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1 \xrightarrow{\partial_1} 0 \tag{13}$$



The kth homology group of a simplicial complex is defined as

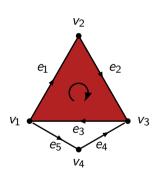
$$H_k(K) = \ker \partial_k C_k(K) / \text{im } \partial_{k+1} C_{k+1}(X). \tag{14}$$

Intuitively, the kernel of the boundary homomorphism of the kth chain group gives all k-cycles, thus the cycle group, from which we quotient out all elements of the kth boundary group, i.e. $H_k(K) = Z_k(K)/B_k(K)$.

Technical details: Both subgroups, the cycle and boundary group, are normal because our chain groups are abelian.



Example



What we want to compute:

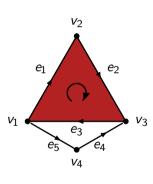
$$H_0(K) = \ker(\partial_0(C_0(K)))/\text{im } (\partial_1(C_1(K)))$$

= $C_0(K)/\text{im}(\partial_1(C_1(K)))$

Applying the boundary operator:

$$\begin{split} \partial_{1}(c \in C_{1}(K)) &= \partial_{1}(\lambda_{1}e_{1} + \lambda_{2}e_{2} + \lambda_{3}e_{3} + \lambda_{4}e_{4} + \lambda_{5}e_{5}) \\ &= \lambda_{1}(\partial_{1}(e_{1})) + \lambda_{2}(\partial_{1}(e_{2})) + \lambda_{3}(\partial_{1}(e_{3})) \\ &+ \lambda_{4}(\partial_{1}(e_{4})) + \lambda_{5}(\partial_{1}(e_{5})) \\ &= \lambda_{1}(v_{2} - v_{1}) + \lambda_{2}(v_{3} - v_{2}) + \lambda_{3}(v_{1} - v_{3}) \\ &+ \lambda_{4}(v_{3} - v_{4}) + \lambda_{5}(v_{4} - v_{1}) \end{split}$$

Example



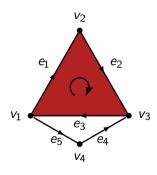
What we have computed:

$$\partial_1(c \in C_1(K)) = \lambda_1(v_2 - v_1) + \lambda_2(v_3 - v_2) + \lambda_3(v_1 - v_3) + \lambda_4(v_3 - v_4) + \lambda_5(v_4 - v_1)$$

We bring this into matrix form:

$$M_{\partial_1(c)} = egin{array}{ccccc} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 \ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \ v_5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}
ight)$$

Example



What we have computed:

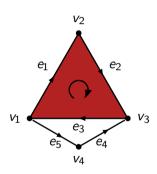
$$M_{\partial_1(c)} = egin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We conclude that:

$$C_1(K) \simeq \mathbb{Z}^5$$
.

What about $M_{\partial_1(c)}$?

Example



After some Gaussian elimination:

Thus $\operatorname{rank}(M_{\partial_1(c)})=3$ and $M_{\partial_1(c)}\simeq \mathbb{Z}^3.$ Therefore

$$H_0(K) = C_0(K)/B_0(K) \simeq \mathbb{Z}^4/M_{\partial_1(c)} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^4/\mathbb{Z}^3 \simeq \mathbb{Z}.$$
 (15)

Betti numbers

The kth **Betti** number β_k is the rank of the kth homology group $H_k(K)$ of the topological space K.

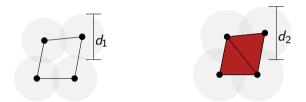
We'll track the betti numbers to track the amount of holes along the filtration. Other properties of the vector space could also be helpful.



Part V: Persistent homology



What is persistence?



Each hole, corresponding to a **representative** of a particular **homology group**, appears at a particular value of d and disappears at another value of d. We can represent the **persistence** of such a representative by a pair (d_1, d_2) .



Persistence barcodes



$$\beta_0 = 1$$



$$\beta_0 = 3$$
$$\beta_1 = 0$$

$$\beta_0 = 2$$
$$\beta_1 = 0$$

$$\beta_0 = 1$$
$$\beta_1 = 0$$

$$\beta_0 = 1$$
$$\beta_1 = 1$$

$$\beta_0 = 1 \\ \beta_1 = 0$$

 β_0

 β_1

Takeaway message

Persistent homology is a new way to analyse high dimensional data.

Persistent homology uncovers highly nonlinear features.

It has connections to other homology / homotopy theories.

It has connections to homological algebra.

It is used along many mathematical disciplines.

Algorithms compute in $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ with respect to the number of simplices.



Thank you for your attention!

More Questions?

Drop me a line: luciano.melodia@fau.de, and add me on GitHub: karhunenloeve.