# Dynamical Systems & Applications — 28/09/23

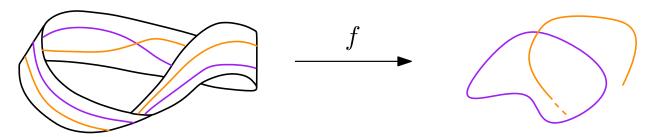
An introduction to Topological Data Analysis

Part II/IV: Homology & homological inference

https://raphaeltinarrage.github.io

Non-embedabbility of the Möbius strip: Suppose we have a embedding f into  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

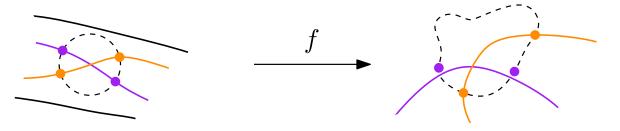
We draw two circles on the strip,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , that only intersect once.



In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , the circles  $C^1$  and  $C^2$  only intersect once, contradicting Jordan's theorem.

The circles are not tangent because of the following drawing (the order of the points is

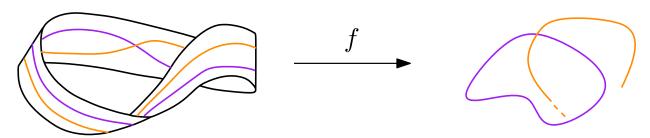
respected):



Homework: The intervals [0,1) and (0,1) are not homeomorphic.



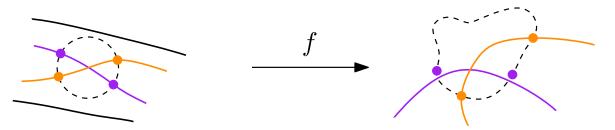
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The circles are not tangent because of the following drawing (the order of the points is

respected):



Homework: The intervals [0,1) and (0,1) are not homeomorphic.



By contradiction, suppose there exists a homeomorphism  $f\colon [0,1)\to (0,1)$ . Consider the induced map  $g\colon [0,1)\setminus \{0\}\to (0,1)\setminus \{f(0)\}$ . The map g is a homeomorphism. But  $[0,1)\setminus \{0\}$  has one connected component, and  $(0,1)\{f(0)\}$  two. This is impossible.

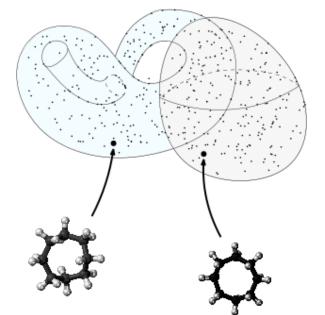
Part I/IV: Topological invariants Tuesday 26th

Part II/IV: Homology
Thursday 28th

Part III/IV: Persistent Homology Tuesday 3rd

Part IV/IV: Python tutorial Thursday 5th

Some datasets contain topology

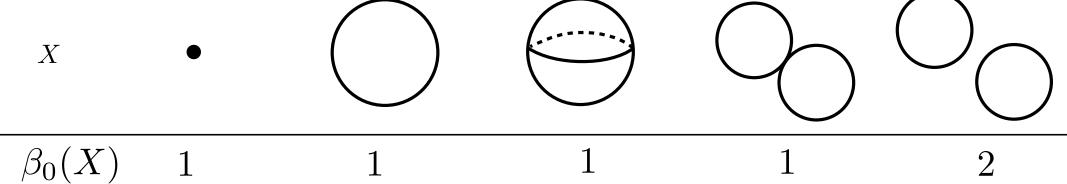


Invariants of homotopy classes allow to describe and understand topological spaces

Number of connected components

Euler characteristic  $\chi$ 

Betti numbers  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots$ 

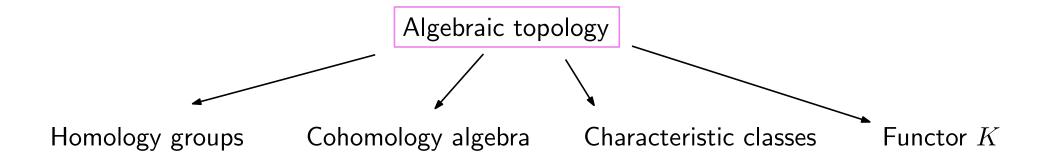


 $\beta_1(X)$ 

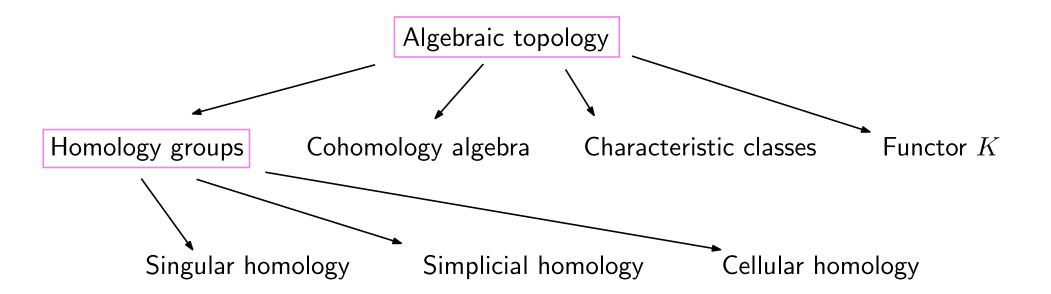
 $\beta_2(X)$ 

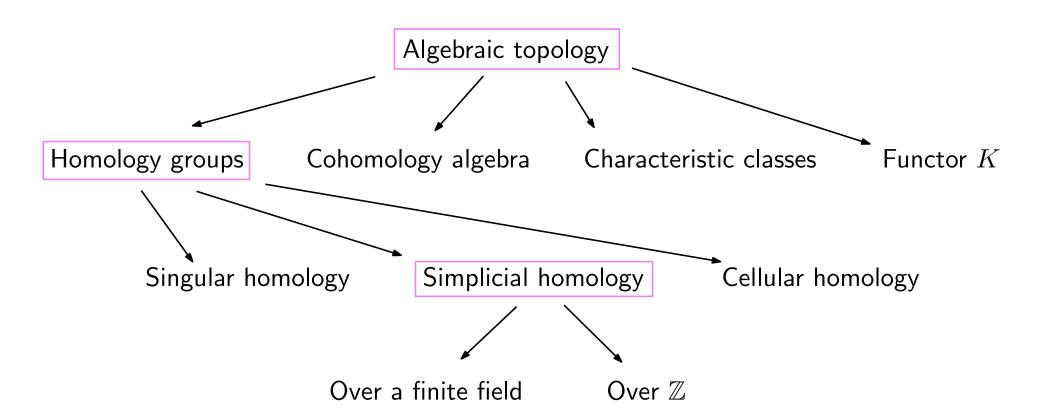
Today we will define a powerful invariant, **homology groups**, that already contains the number of connected components, and the Euler characteristic.

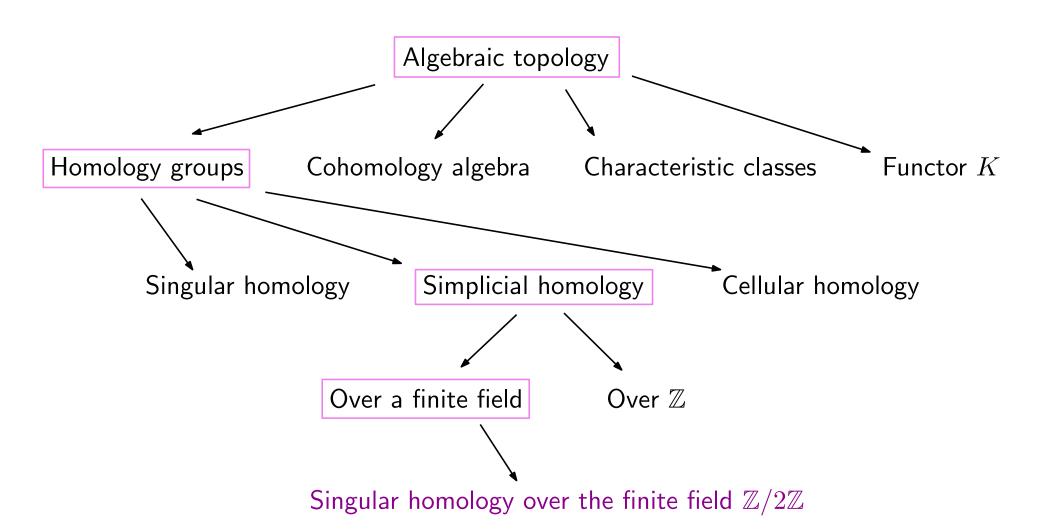
Algebraic topology



# Cardápio







### I - Simplicial homology

- 1 Reminder of algebra
- 2 Homological algebra
- 3 Incremental algorithm

### II - More about homology

- 1 Topology of simplicial complexes
- 2 Singular homology
- 3 Functoriality

### III - Homological inference

- 1 Thickening parameter selection
- 2 Čech complex
- 3 Rips complex

The **group**  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  can be seen as the set  $\{0,1\}$  with the operation

$$0 + 0 = 0$$
  
 $0 + 1 = 1$   
 $1 + 0 = 1$   
 $1 + 1 = 0$ 

For any  $n \geq 1$ , the **product group**  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n$  is the group whose underlying set is

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n = \{(\epsilon_1, ..., \epsilon_n), \epsilon_1, ..., \epsilon_n \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\}$$

and whose operation is defined as

$$(\epsilon_1, ..., \epsilon_n) + (\epsilon'_1, ..., \epsilon'_n) = (\epsilon_1 + \epsilon'_1, ..., \epsilon_n + \epsilon'_n).$$

The group  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  can be given a **field** structure

$$0 \times 0 = 0$$
  
 $0 \times 1 = 0$   
 $1 \times 0 = 0$   
 $1 \times 1 = 1$ 

and  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n$  can be seen as a  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space over the field  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .

Definition: A vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  is a set V endowed with two operations

$$\begin{array}{c} V\times V\longrightarrow V & \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\times V\longrightarrow V \\ (u,v)\longmapsto u+v & (\lambda,v)\longmapsto \lambda\cdot v \\ \text{such that} \\ & \text{(associativity)} \ \ \forall u,v,w\in V, \ \ (u+v)+w=u+(v+w), \\ & \text{(identity)} \ \ \exists 0\in V, \ \forall v\in V, \ \ v+0=0+v=v, \\ & \text{(inverse)} \ \ \forall v\in V, \exists w\in V, \ \ u+v=v+u=0, \\ & \text{(commutativity)} \ \ \forall u,v\in V, \ \ u+v=v+u, \\ & \text{(compatibility of multiplication)} \ \ \forall \lambda,\mu\in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v\in V, \lambda\cdot (\mu\cdot v)=(\lambda\times \mu)\cdot v, \\ & \text{(scalar distributivity)} \ \ \forall v\in V, 1\cdot v=v, \\ & \text{(scalar distributivity)} \ \ \forall \mu,\nu\in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v\in V, \ (\lambda+\nu)\cdot v=\lambda\cdot v+\nu\cdot v, \\ & \text{(vector distributivity)} \ \ \forall \mu\in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v,w\in V, \lambda\cdot (u+v)=\lambda\cdot v+\nu\cdot v. \end{array}$$

Definition: A vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  is a set V endowed with two operations

$$V \times V \longrightarrow V \qquad \qquad \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times V \longrightarrow V$$
$$(u, v) \longmapsto u + v \qquad \qquad (\lambda, v) \longmapsto \lambda \cdot v$$

such that

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{(associativity)} \ \ \forall u,v,w \in V, \ \ (u+v)+w=u+(v+w), \\ \text{(identity)} \ \ \exists 0 \in V, \ \forall v \in V, \ v+0=0+v=v, \\ \text{(inverse)} \ \ \forall v \in V, \exists w \in V, \ u+v=v+u=0, \\ \text{(commutativity)} \ \ \forall u,v \in V, \ u+v=v+u, \\ \text{(compatibility of multiplication)} \ \ \forall \lambda,\mu \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v \in V, \lambda \cdot (\mu \cdot v)=(\lambda \times \mu) \cdot v, \\ \text{(scalar identity)} \ \ \forall v \in V, 1 \cdot v=v, \\ \text{(scalar distributivity)} \ \ \forall \mu,\nu \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v \in V, \ (\lambda+\nu) \cdot v=\lambda \cdot v+\nu \cdot v, \\ \text{(vector distributivity)} \ \ \forall \mu \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \forall v,w \in V, \ \lambda \cdot (u+v)=\lambda \cdot v+\nu \cdot v. \end{array}
```

Proposition: Le (V, +) be a commutative group. It can be given a  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space structure iff  $\forall v \in V, v + v = 0$ .

Proposition: Let  $(V, +, \cdot)$  be a finite  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space. Then there exists  $n \geq 0$  such that V has cardinal  $2^n$ , and  $(V, +, \cdot)$  is isomorphic to the vector space  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^n$ .

Proof: Consequence of the theory of vector spaces.

A **linear subspace** of  $(V, +, \cdot)$  is a subset  $W \subset V$  such that

$$\forall u, v \in W, u + v \in W$$
 and  $\forall v \in W, \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}, \lambda v \in W.$ 

We define the following equivalence relation on V: for all  $u, v \in V$ ,

$$u \sim v \iff u - v \in W$$
.

Denote by V/W the quotient set of V under this relation. For any  $v \in V$ , one shows that the equivalence class of v is equal to  $v + W = \{v + w \mid w \in W\}$ .

One defines a group structure  $\oplus$  on V/W as follows:

$$(u+W)\oplus(u'+W)=(u+u')+W.$$

Definition: The vector space  $(V/W, \oplus, \cdot)$  is called the **quotient vector space**.

Proposition: We have  $\dim V/W = \dim V - \dim W$ .

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### II - More about homology

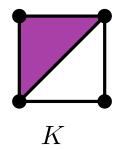
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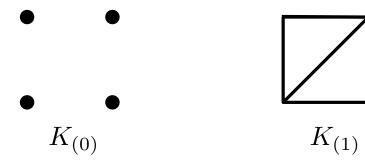
Definition (reminder): Let V be a set (called the set of *vertices*). A **simplicial complex** over V is a set K of subsets of V (called the *simplices*) such that, for every  $\sigma \in K$  and every non-empty  $\tau \subset \sigma$ , we have  $\tau \in K$ .

The dimension of a simplex  $\sigma \in K$  is  $\dim(\sigma) = |\sigma| - 1$ .



Let K be a simplicial complex. For any  $n \geq 0$ , define

$$K_{(n)} = \{ \sigma \in K \mid \dim(\sigma) = n \}.$$

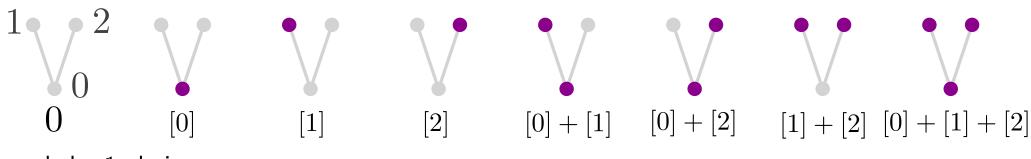




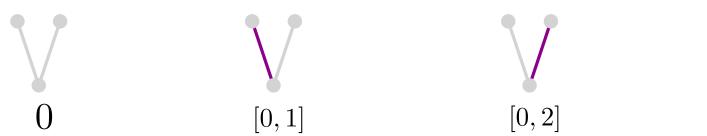
[0,1] + [0,2]

Let  $n \geq 0$ . The n-chains of K is the set  $C_n(K)$  whose elements are the formal sums  $\sum_{\sigma \in K_{(n)}} \epsilon_\sigma \cdot \sigma \quad \text{where} \quad \forall \sigma \in K_{(n)}, \ \epsilon_\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}.$ 

Example: The 0-chains of  $K = \{[0], [1], [2], [0, 1], [0, 2]\}$  are:



and the 1-chains



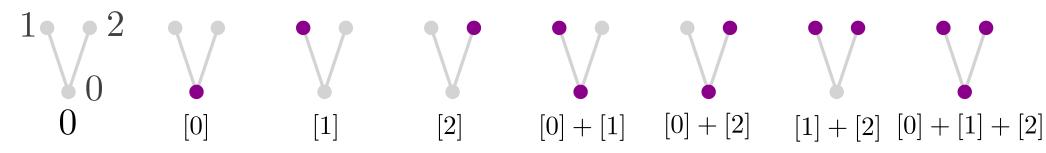
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We can give  $C_n(K)$  a **group structure** via

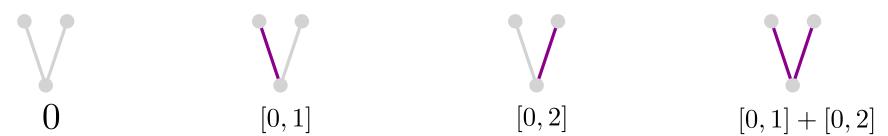
$$\sum_{\sigma \in K_{(n)}} \epsilon_{\sigma} \cdot \sigma + \sum_{\sigma \in K_{(n)}} \eta_{\sigma} \cdot \sigma = \sum_{\sigma \in K_{(n)}} (\epsilon_{\sigma} + \eta_{\sigma}) \cdot \sigma.$$

Moreover,  $C_n(K)$  can be given a  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space structure.

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Moreover,  $C_n(K)$  can be given a  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space structure.

Example: In the simplicial complex  $K = \{[0], [1], [2], [0, 1], [0, 2]\}$ , the sum of the 0-chains [0] + [1] and [0] + [2] is [1] + [2]:

$$([0] + [1]) + ([0] + [2]) = [0] + [0] + [1] + [2] = [1] + [2].$$

$$\partial_n \sigma = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \tau$$

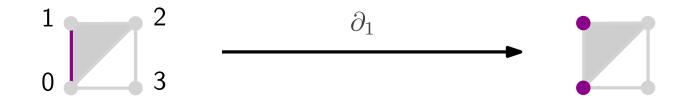
We can extend the operator  $\partial_n$  as a linear map  $\partial_n : C_n(K) \to C_{n-1}(K)$ .

Example: Consider the simplicial complex

$$K = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [0, 1], [0, 2], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3], [0, 1, 2]\}.$$

The simplex [0,1] has the faces [0] and [1]. Hence

$$\partial_1[0,1] = [0] + [1].$$



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Example: Consider the simplicial complex

$$K = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [0, 1], [0, 2], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3], [0, 1, 2]\}.$$

The boundary of the 1-chain [0,1]+[1,2]+[2,0] is

$$\partial_1 ([0,1] + [1,2] + [2,0]) = \partial_1 [0,1] + \partial_1 [1,2] + \partial_1 [2,0]$$
$$= [0] + [1] + [1] + [2] + [2] + [0] = 0$$

$$\partial_n \sigma = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \tau$$

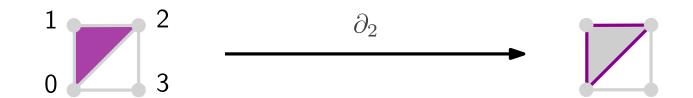
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$$K = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [0, 1], [0, 2], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3], [0, 1, 2]\}.$$

The simplex [0,1,2] has the faces [0,1] and [1,2] and [2,0]. Hence

$$\partial_2[0,1,2] = [0,1] + [1,2] + [2,0].$$



$$\partial_n \sigma = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \tau$$

We can extend the operator  $\partial_n$  as a linear map  $\partial_n \colon C_n(K) \to C_{n-1}(K)$ .

Proposition: For any  $n \geq 1$ , for any  $c \in C_n(K)$ , we have  $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n(c) = 0$ .

Proposition: For any  $n \geq 1$ , for any  $c \in C_n(K)$ , we have  $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n(c) = 0$ .

Proof: Suppose that  $n \geq 2$ , the result being trivial otherwise.

Since the boundary operators are linear, it is enough to prove that  $\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n(\sigma) = 0$  for all simplex  $\sigma \in K_{(n)}$ .

By definition,  $\partial_n(\sigma) = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \tau$ , and

$$\partial_{n-1} \circ \partial_n(\sigma) = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \partial_{n-1}(\tau) = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1 |\nu| = |\tau| - 1}} \sum_{\nu \subset \tau} \nu$$

We can write this last sum as

$$\sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \sum_{\substack{\nu \subset \tau \\ |\nu| = |\tau| - 1}} \nu = \sum_{\substack{\nu \subset \sigma \\ |\nu| = |\sigma| - 2}} \alpha_{\nu} \nu$$

where  $\alpha_{\nu} = \{ \tau \subset \sigma \mid |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1, \nu \subset \tau \}.$ 

It is easy to see that for every  $\nu$  such that  $\dim \nu = \dim \tau - 2$ , we have  $\alpha_{\nu} = 2 = 0$ .

Let  $n \geq 0$ . We have a sequence of vector spaces

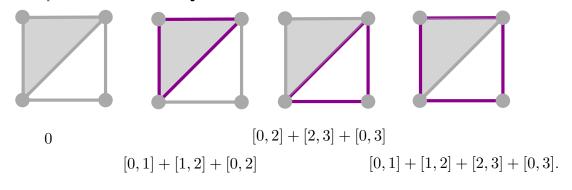
$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1}(K) \xrightarrow{\partial n+1} C_n(K) \xrightarrow{\partial n} C_{n-1}(K) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

The maps  $\partial_{n+1}$  and  $\partial_n$  are linear maps, and we can consider their kernel and image.

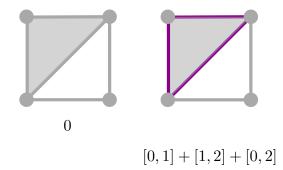
Definition: We define:

- The *n*-cycles:  $Z_n(K) = \text{Ker}(\partial_n) = \{c \in C_n(K) \mid \partial_n(c) = 0\},$
- The *n*-boundaries:  $B_n(K) = \operatorname{Im}(\partial_{n+1}) = \{\partial_{n+1}(c) \mid c \in C_{n+1}(K)\}.$

Example: The 1-cycles are:



The 1-boundaries are:



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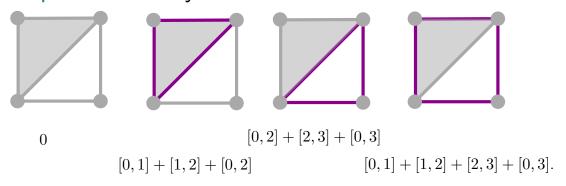
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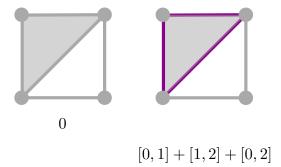
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Example: The 1-cycles are:



The 1-boundaries are:



Proposition: We have  $B_n(K) \subset Z_n(K)$ .

→ interpretation: among the cycles, the boundaries are not actual 'holes' (they are filled)

We have defined a sequence of vector spaces, connected by linear maps

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1}(K) \longrightarrow C_n(K) \longrightarrow C_{n-1}(K) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

and for every  $n \geq 0$ , we have defined the cycles and the boundaries  $Z_n(K)$  and  $B_n(K)$ .

Definition: The  $n^{\text{th}}$  (simplicial) homology group of K is the quotient vector space

$$H_n(K) = Z_n(K)/B_n(K).$$

interpretation: by taking the quotient, we kill the boundaries, and we are left only with the actual 'holes'



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Remark: A finite  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -vector space must be isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^k$  for some k.

Definition: Let K be a simplicial complex and  $n \ge 0$ . Its  $n^{\text{th}}$  Betti number is the integer  $\beta_n(K) = \dim H_n(K)$ .

$$H_n(K) = (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^k \longrightarrow \beta_n(K) = k$$

We have defined a sequence of vector spaces, connected by linear maps

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_{n+1}(K) \longrightarrow C_n(K) \longrightarrow C_{n-1}(K) \longrightarrow \cdots$$

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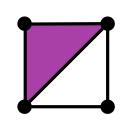
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Definition: Let K be a simplicial complex and  $n \ge 0$ . Its  $n^{\text{th}}$  Betti number is the integer  $\beta_n(K) = \dim H_n(K)$ .

#### Example:



$$H_0(K) = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $\beta_0(K) = 1$ 

$$H_1(K) = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \beta_1(K) = 1$$

$$H_2(K) = 0 \qquad \longrightarrow \quad \beta_2(K) = 0$$

X	•				
$H_0(X)$	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	$(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$
$\beta_0(X)$	1	1	1	1	2
$H_1(X)$	0	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	0	$(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$	$(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$
$\beta_1(X)$	0	1	0	2	2
$H_2(X)$	0	0	$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$	0	0
$\beta_2(X)$	0	0	1	0	0

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Let K be a simplicial complex with n simplices. Choose a total order of the simplices

$$\sigma^1 < \sigma^2 < \dots < \sigma^n$$

such that

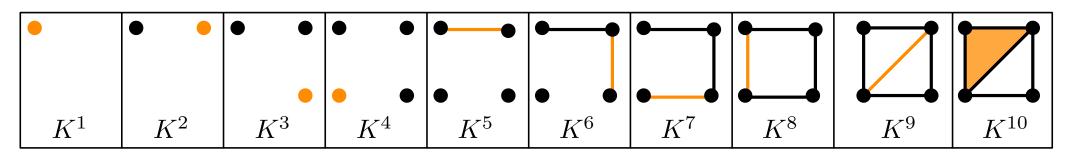
$$\forall \sigma, \tau \in K, \ \tau \subsetneq \sigma \implies \tau < \sigma.$$

In other words, a face of a simplex comes before the simplex itself. For every  $i \le n$ , consider the simplicial complex

$$K^i = {\sigma^1, ..., \sigma^i}.$$

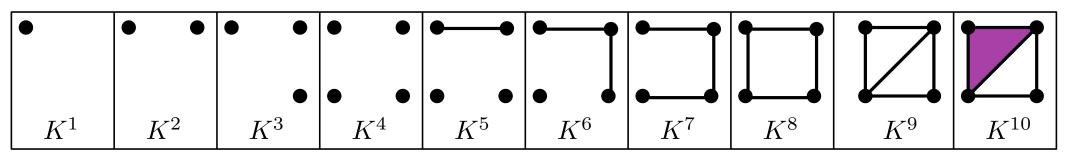
We have  $\forall i \leq n, K^{i+1} = K^i \cup \{\sigma^{i+1}\}$ , and  $K^n = K$ . They form an inscreasing sequence of simplicial complexes

$$K^1 \subset K^2 \subset \ldots \subset K^n$$
.



### Positividade dos simplexos

16/45 (1/8)

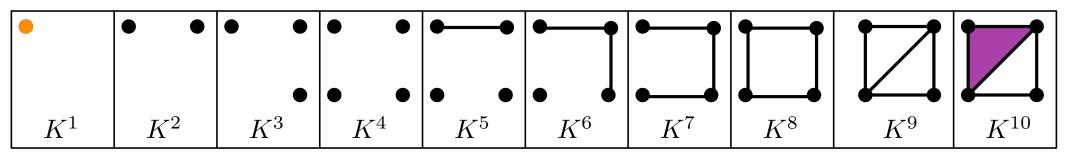


Let  $k \geq 0$ . We will compute the homology groups of  $K^i$  incrementally:

$$H_k(K^1), H_k(K^2), H_k(K^3), H_k(K^4), H_k(K^5), H_k(K^6), H_k(K^7), H_k(K^8), H_k(K^9), H_k(K^{10})$$

## Positividade dos simplexos

16/45 (2/8)



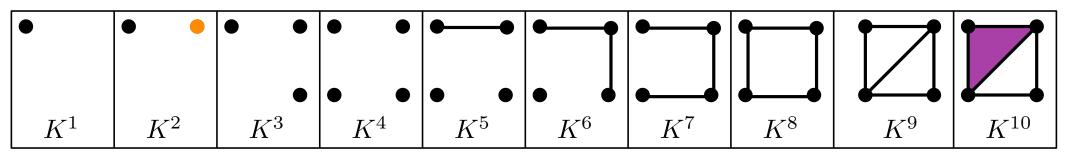
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Definition: Let  $i \in [\![1,n]\!]$ , and  $d = \dim(\sigma^i)$ . Recall that  $K^i = K^{i-1} \cup \{\sigma_i\}$ . The simplex  $\sigma^i$  is **positive** if there exists a cycle  $c \in Z_d(K^i)$  that contains  $\sigma^i$ . In other words, there exist  $c = \sum_{\sigma \in K^i_{(n)}} \epsilon_\sigma \cdot \sigma \in C_n(K^i)$  such that  $\epsilon_{\sigma^i} = 1$  and  $\partial_n(c) = 0$ . Otherwise,  $\sigma^i$  is **negative**.

#### Example:

•  $\sigma^1 \in K^1$  is **positive** because it is included in the cycle  $c = \sigma^1$  (indeed,  $\partial_0(\sigma^1) = 0$ ).



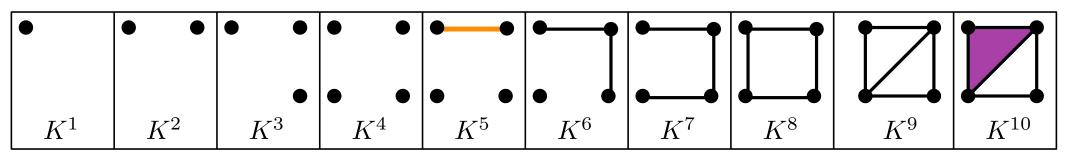
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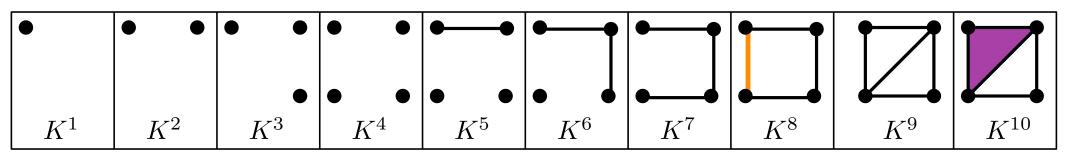
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- $\sigma^8 \in K^8$  is **positive** because it is included in the cycle  $c = \sigma^5 + \sigma^6 + \sigma^7 + \sigma^8$  (indeed,  $\partial_1(c) = 2\sigma^1 + 2\sigma^2 + 2\sigma^3 + 2\sigma^4 = 0$ ).

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Remark: By adding  $\sigma^i$  in the simplicial complex, the only groups that may change are  $Z_d(K^i)$  and  $B_{d-1}(K^i)$ .

# Positividade dos simplexos

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Lemma: If  $\sigma^i$  is positive, then  $\beta_d(K^i) = \beta_d(K^{i-1}) + 1$ , and for all  $d' \neq d$ ,  $\beta_{d'}(K^i) = \beta_{d'}(K^{i-1})$ .

Proof: We start by proving the following fact: if  $c \in Z_d(K^i)$  is a cycle that contains  $\sigma_i$ , then c is not homologous (in  $K^i$ ) to a cycle of  $c' \in Z_d(K^{i-1})$ .

By contradiction: if c=c'+b with  $c'\in Z_d(K^{i-1})$  and  $b\in B_d(K^i)$ , then  $c-c'=b\in B_d(K^i)$ . This is absurd because we just added  $\sigma_i$ : it cannot appear in a boundary of  $K^i$ .

As a consequence,  $\dim Z_d(K^i) = \dim Z_d(K^{i-1}) + 1$ .

We conclude by using the relation  $\beta_d(K^i) = \dim Z_d(K^i) - \dim B_d(K^i)$ .

# Positividade dos simplexos

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Remark: By adding  $\sigma^i$  in the simplicial complex, the only groups that may change are  $Z_d(K^i)$  and  $B_{d-1}(K^i)$ .

Lemma: If  $\sigma^i$  is positive, then  $\beta_d(K^i) = \beta_d(K^{i-1}) + 1$ , and for all  $d' \neq d$ ,  $\beta_{d'}(K^i) = \beta_{d'}(K^{i-1})$ .

Lemma: If  $\sigma^i$  is negative, then  $\beta_{d-1}(K^i) = \beta_{d-1}(K^{i-1}) - 1$ , and for all  $d' \neq d-1$ ,  $\beta_{d'}(K^i) = \beta_{d'}(K^{i-1})$ .

Proof: We start by proving the following fact:  $\partial_d(\sigma^i)$  is not a boundary of  $K^{i-1}$ .

Otherwise, we would have  $\partial_d(\sigma^i) = \partial_d(c)$  with  $c \in C_d(K^{i-1})$ , i.e.  $\partial_d(\sigma^i + c) = 0$ . Hence  $\sigma^i + c$  would be a cycle of  $K^i$  that contains c, contradicting the negativity of  $\sigma^i$ .

As a consequence,  $\dim B_{d-1}(K^i) = \dim B_{d-1}(K^{i-1}) + 1$ .

We conclude by using the relation  $\beta_{d-1}(K^i) = \dim Z_{d-1}(K^i) - \dim B_{d-1}(K^i)$ .

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Lemma: If \sigma^i is positive, then \beta_d(K^i) = \beta_d(K^{i-1}) + 1, and for all d' \neq d, \beta_{d'}(K^i) = \beta_{d'}(K^{i-1}).
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Lemma: If  $\sigma^i$  is negative, then  $\beta_{d-1}(K^i) = \beta_{d-1}(K^{i-1}) - 1$ , and for all  $d' \neq d-1$ ,  $\beta_{d'}(K^i) = \beta_{d'}(K^{i-1})$ .

We deduce the following algorithm:

	$K^1$	$K^2$	$K^3$	$K^4$	$K^5$	$K^6$	$K^7$	$K^8$	$K^9$	$K^{10}$
Dimension	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	2
Positivity	+	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	+	_
$\beta_0(K^i)$	1	2	3	4	3	2	1	1	1	1
$eta_1(K^i)$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1

We deduce the following algorithm:

```
Input: an increasing sequence of simplicial complexes K^1 \subset \cdots \subset K^n = K

Output: the Betti numbers \beta_0(K), ...\beta_d(K)

\beta_0 \leftarrow 0, ..., \beta_d \leftarrow 0;

for i \leftarrow 1 to n do

d = \dim(\sigma^i);

if \sigma^i is positive then
\beta_k(K^i) \leftarrow \beta_k(K^i) + 1;

else if d > 0 then
\beta_{k-1}(K^i) \leftarrow \beta_{k-1}(K^{i-1}) - 1;
```

### Característica de Euler

Reminder: the Euler characteristic of a simplicial complex K is

$$\chi(K) = \sum_{0 \le i \le n} (-1)^i \cdot (\text{number of simplices of dimension } i).$$

Proposition: The Euler characteristic is also equal to

$$\chi(K) = \sum_{0 \le i \le n} (-1)^i \cdot \beta_i(K).$$

### Característica de Euler

Proposition: The Euler characteristic of K is equal to

$$\chi(K) = \sum_{0 \le i \le n} (-1)^i \cdot \beta_i(K).$$

Proof: Pick an ordering  $K^1 \subset \cdots \subset K^n = K$  of K, with  $K^i = K^{i-1} \cup \{\sigma^i\}$  for all  $2 \le i \le n$ .

By induction, let us show that, for all  $1 \leq m \leq n$ ,

$$\sum_{0 \leq i \leq m} (-1)^i \cdot \beta_i(K^m) = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq m} (-1)^i \cdot (\text{number of simplices of dimension } i \text{ of } K^m).$$

For m=1,  $\sigma^m$  is a 0-simplex, and the equality reads 1=1.

Now, suppose that the equality is true for  $1 \le m < n$ , and consider the simplex  $\sigma^{m+1}$ . Let  $d = \dim \sigma^{m+1}$ . The right-hand side of the Equation is increased by  $(-1)^d$ .

If  $\sigma^{m+1}$  is positive, then  $\beta_d(K^{m+1}) = \beta_d(K^m) + 1$ , hence the left-hand side of the Equation is increased by  $(-1)^d$ .

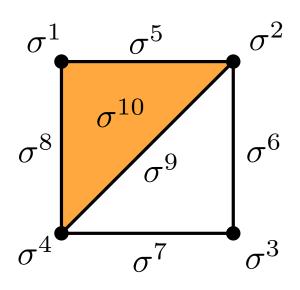
Otherwise, it is negative, and  $\beta_{d-1}(K^{m+1}) = \beta_{d-1}(K^m) - 1$ , hence the left-hand side of the Equation is increased by  $-(-1)^{d-1} = (-1)^d$ .

The only thing missing to apply the incremental algorithm is to determine whether a simplex is positive or negative.

Let K be a simplicial complex, and  $\sigma^1 < \sigma^2 < \cdots < \sigma^n$  and ordering of its simplices.

Define the **boundary matrix** of K, denoted  $\Delta$ , as follows:  $\Delta$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix, whose (i,j)-entry  $(i^{\text{th}} \text{ row}, j^{\text{th}} \text{ column is})$ 

 $\Delta_{i,j} = 1$  if  $\sigma^i$  is a face of  $\sigma^j$  and  $|\sigma^i| = |\sigma^j| - 1$  0 else.



 $\sigma^{10}$ 

By adding columns one to the others, we create chains.

If we were able to reduce a column to zero, then we found a cycle.

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	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	$\sigma^8$	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$				$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	ó ×	$\sigma^9$
$\sigma^1$	$\int_{0}^{\infty}$	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0			$\sigma^1$	$\int_{0}^{\infty}$	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0			$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0			$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0			$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/			$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\partial_1(\sigma^6)$	) = (	$\sigma^2$ -	$+ \sigma^{5}$	3							$\delta$	$\theta_1(\sigma)$	0.5 + 6	$\sigma^6$ +	$\sigma^7$	$+ \alpha$	$\sigma^8$ )	= 0	-			_

The process of reducing columns to zero is called **Gauss reduction**.

For any  $j \in [1, n]$ , define  $\delta(j) = \max\{i \in [1, n] \mid \Delta_{i,j} \neq 0\}.$ 

If  $\Delta_{i,j} = 0$  for all j, then  $\delta(j)$  is undefined.

We say that the boundary matrix  $\Delta$  is *reduced* if the map  $\delta$  is injective on its domain of definition.

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#### **Algorithm 2:** Reduction of the boundary matrix

Input: a boundary matrix  $\Delta$ Output: a reduced matrix  $\widetilde{\Delta}$ 

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to n do

while there exists i < j with  $\delta(i) = \delta(j)$  do

add column i to column j;

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	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	o o	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$
$\sigma^1$	$\int_{0}^{\infty}$	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$ \sigma^{2} $ $ \sigma^{3} $ $ \sigma^{4} $ $ \sigma^{5} $ $ \sigma^{6} $ $ \sigma^{7} $ $ \sigma^{8} $ $ \sigma^{9} $ $ \sigma^{10} $	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/
	•								J	,

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									3	
	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	o o	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$
$\sigma^1$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1 (	1	0	0
$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	$\overset{\smile}{0}$	1	0	1	0
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$ \sigma^{1} $ $ \sigma^{2} $ $ \sigma^{3} $ $ \sigma^{4} $ $ \sigma^{5} $ $ \sigma^{6} $ $ \sigma^{7} $ $ \sigma^{8} $ $ \sigma^{9} $ $ \sigma^{10} $	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/

									d ×	
	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	o o	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$
$\sigma^1$	$\int_{0}^{\infty}$	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0/
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
$ \sigma^{2} $ $ \sigma^{3} $ $ \sigma^{4} $ $ \sigma^{5} $ $ \sigma^{6} $ $ \sigma^{7} $	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^8$ $\sigma^9$ $\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/

Input: a boundary matrix  $\Delta$  Output: a reduced matrix  $\widetilde{\Delta}$ 

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									1 ×	6
	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	6 ×	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$
$\sigma^1$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0 (	1)	1	0	(1)	1	0
$ \sigma^{2} $ $ \sigma^{3} $ $ \sigma^{4} $ $ \sigma^{5} $ $ \sigma^{6} $ $ \sigma^{7} $ $ \sigma^{8} $ $ \sigma^{9} $	0	0	0	0	$\overset{\smile}{0}$	1	1	0	0	0
$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/

								1 × 0					
	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	چ > 6	$\sigma^9$	$\sigma^{10}$			
$\sigma^1$	$\int_{0}^{\infty}$	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0			
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0			
$\sigma^2$ $\sigma^3$ $\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0			
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0			
$\sigma^5$ $\sigma^6$ $\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			
$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1			
$\sigma^8$ $\sigma^9$ $\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/			

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										3	C
									$\times \overset{^{\checkmark}}{\sigma^9}$	6 × 6	
	$\sigma^1$	$\sigma^2$	$\sigma^3$	$\sigma^4$	$\sigma^5$	$\sigma^6$	$\sigma^7$	6	$\times \frac{\mathfrak{o}}{\sigma^9}$	$\sigma^{10}$	
$\sigma^1$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0)	
$\sigma^2$	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	
$\sigma^3$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	
$\sigma^4$	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	
$\sigma^5$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
$\sigma^6$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
$\sigma^7$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
$\sigma^8$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
$\sigma^9$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
$\sigma^{10}$	$\int 0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0/	
	`					Α.			A	•	

**Input:** a boundary matrix  $\Delta$ 

Output: a reduced matrix  $\Delta$ 

for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to n do

while there exists i < j with  $\delta(i) = \delta(j)$  do | add column i to column j;

Lemma: Suppose that the boundary matrix is reduced. Let  $j\in [\![1,n]\!]$ . If  $\delta(j)$  is defined, then the simplex  $\sigma^j$  is negative.

Otherwise, it is positive.

$$\sigma^{1} \quad \sigma^{2} \quad \sigma^{3} \quad \sigma^{4} \quad \sigma^{5} \quad \sigma^{6} \quad \sigma^{7} \quad \delta^{5} \quad \delta^{6} \quad \delta^{7} \quad \delta^{7$$

#### Incremental computation of the homology

```
Input: an increasing sequence of simplicial complexes K^1 \subset \cdots \subset K^n = K

Output: the Betti numbers \beta_0(K), ..., \beta_d(K)

\beta_0 \leftarrow 0, ..., \beta_d \leftarrow 0;

for i \leftarrow 1 to n do

d = \dim(\sigma^i);

if \sigma^i is positive then
\beta_k(K^i) \leftarrow \beta_k(K^i) + 1;

else if d > 0 then
\beta_{k-1}(K^i) \leftarrow \beta_{k-1}(K^{i-1}) - 1;
```

Gauss reduction of the boundary matrix

```
Input: a boundary matrix \Delta
Output: a reduced matrix \widetilde{\Delta}
for i \leftarrow 1 \ j \circ n \ \mathbf{do}

| while there exists i < j \ with \ \delta(i) = \delta(j) \ \mathbf{do}
| add column i to column j;
```

## I - Simplicial homology

- 1 Reminder of algebra
- 2 Homological algebra
- 3 Incremental algorithm

### II - More about homology

- 1 Topology of simplicial complexes
- 2 Singular homology
- 3 Functoriality

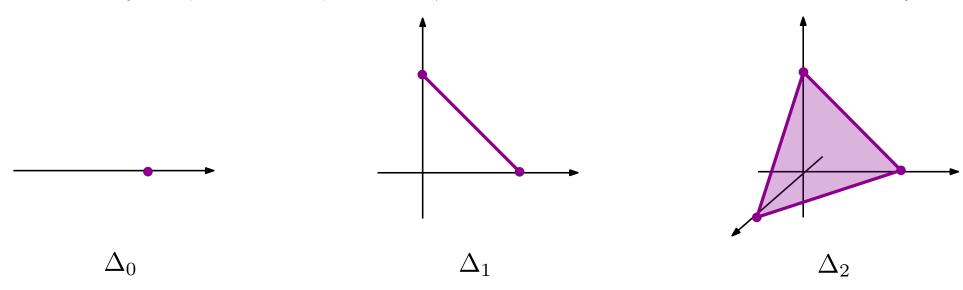
## III - Homological inference

- 1 Thickening parameter selection
- 2 Čech complex
- 3 Rips complex

In order to describe topological spaces, we will decompose them into simpler pieces. The pieces we shall consider are the standard simplices.

The **standard simplex of dimension** n is the following subset of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ 

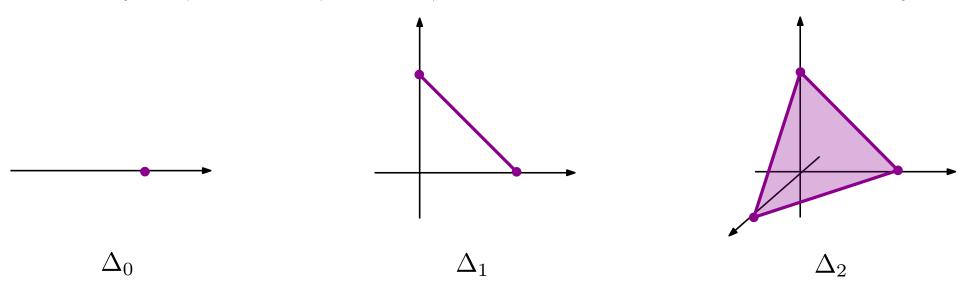
$$\Delta_n = \{ x = (x_1, ..., x_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid x_1, ..., x_{n+1} \ge 0 \text{ and } x_1 + ... + x_{n+1} = 1 \}$$



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Remark: For any collection of points  $a_1,...,a_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , their convex hull is defined as:

$$conv(\{a_1...a_k\}) = \left\{ \sum_{1 \le i \le k} t_i a_i \mid t_1 + ... + t_k = 1, \quad t_1, ..., t_k \ge 0 \right\}.$$

We can say that  $\Delta_n$  is the convex hull of the vectors  $e_1, ..., e_{n+1}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , where  $e_i = (0, ..., 1, 0, ..., 0)$  ( $i^{\text{th}}$  coordinate 1, the other ones 0).

Let us give simplicial complexes a topology.

Definition: Let K be a simplicial complex, with vertex  $V = \{1,...,n\}$ . In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , consider, for every  $i \in [\![1,n]\!]$ , the vector  $e_i = (0,...,1,0,...,0)$  ( $i^{\text{th}}$  coordinate 1, the other ones 0).

Let |K| be the subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined as:

$$|K| = \bigcup_{\sigma \in K} \operatorname{conv} \left( \{ e_j, j \in \sigma \} \right)$$

where conv represent the convex hull of points.

Endowed with the subspace topology,  $(|K|, \mathcal{T}_{|K|})$  is a topological space, that we call the topological realization of K.

If  $a_1, ..., a_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the convex hull is defined as:

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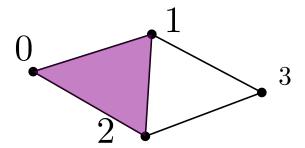
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Remark: If the simplicial complex can be drawn in the plane (or space) without crossing itself, then its topological realization simply is the subspace topology.

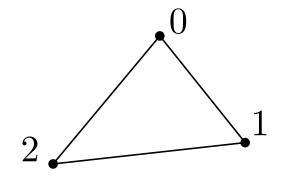
Example:  $K = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [0, 1], [1, 2], [2, 0], [1, 3], [2, 3], [0, 1, 2]\}.$ 



Definition: Let X be a topological space. A **triangulation** of X is a simplicial complex K such that its topological realization |K| is homeomorphic to X.

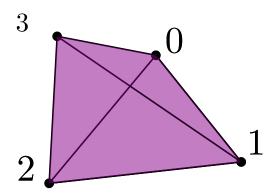
Example: The following simplicial complex is a triangulation of the circle:

$$K = \{[0], [1], [2], [0, 1], [1, 2], [2, 0]\}$$



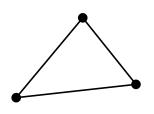
Example: The following simplicial complex is a triangulation of the sphere:

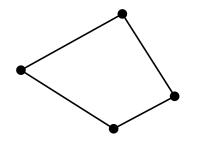
$$K = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [0, 1], [1, 2], [2, 3], [3, 0], [0, 2], [1, 3], [0, 1, 2], [0, 1, 3], [0, 2, 3], [1, 2, 3]\}.$$

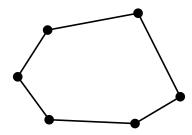


Definition: Let X be a topological space. A **triangulation** of X is a simplicial complex K such that its topological realization |K| is homeomorphic to X.

Given a topological space, it is not always possible to triangulate it. However, when it is, there exists many different triangulations.







Theorem (Manolescu, 2016): For any dimension  $n \geq 5$  there is a compact topological manifold which does not admit a triangulation.

# I - Simplicial homology

- 1 Reminder of algebra
- 2 Homological algebra
- 3 Incremental algorithm

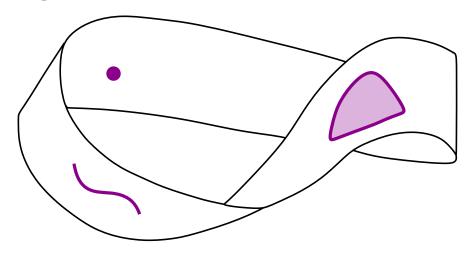
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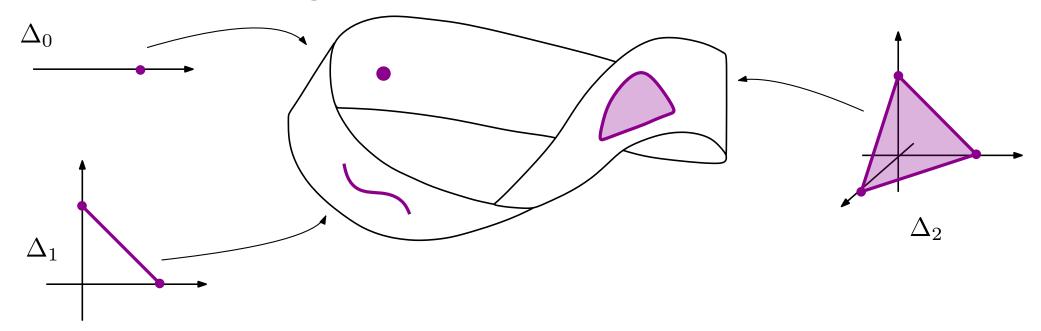
## III - Homological inference

- 1 Thickening parameter selection
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Let us consider a **topological space** X. We want a notion of **simplices**.



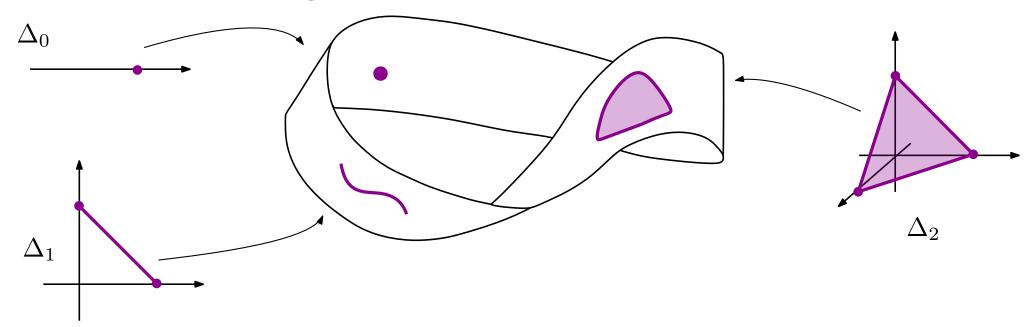
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Definition: A singular n-simplex is a continuous map  $\Delta_n \to X$ , where  $\Delta_n$  is the standard n-simplex. We denote  $S_n$  their set.

We now want a notion of **boundary**.

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Definition: A singular n-simplex is a continuous map  $\Delta_n \to X$ , where  $\Delta_n$  is the standard n-simplex. We denote  $S_n$  their set.

We now want a notion of **boundary**.

The boundary of  $\Delta_n$  consists in n+1 copies of  $\Delta_{n-1}$ .

We can restrict a singular n-simplex  $\Delta_n \to X$  to the boundaries, giving n+1 singular (n-1)-simplices  $\Delta_{n-1} \to X$ .

Definition: The **boundary** of a singular n-simplex  $\Delta_n \to X$  is the formal sum of the n+1 singular (n-1)-simplices  $\Delta_{n-1} \to X$ 

For a **simplicial complex** K, we have defined

$$n$$
-chains

$$\sum_{\sigma \in K_{(n)}} \epsilon_{\sigma} \cdot \sigma$$
 where  $\forall \sigma \in K_{(n)}, \ \epsilon_{\sigma} \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ 

$$\partial_n \sigma = \sum_{\substack{\tau \subset \sigma \\ |\tau| = |\sigma| - 1}} \tau$$

$$\dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+2}} C_{n+1}(K) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n+1}} C_n(K) \xrightarrow{\partial_n} C_{n-1}(K) \xrightarrow{\partial_{n-1}} \dots$$

$$n$$
-cycles and  $n$ -boundaries  $Z_n(K) = \operatorname{Ker}(\partial_n)$   $B_n(K) = \operatorname{Im}(\partial_{n+1})$ 

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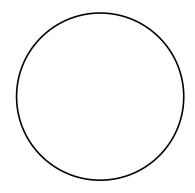
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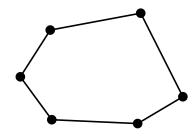
Theorem: If X is a topological space and K a triangulation of it, then for all  $n \ge 0$ ,  $H_n(X) = H_n(K)$  (singular homology is equal to simplicial homology).



$$H_0(X) = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

$$H_1(X) = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

$$H_2(X) = 0$$

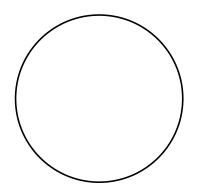


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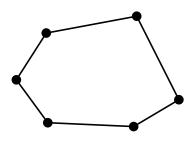
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$$H_1(K) = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

$$H_2(X) = 0$$

Theorem: If X and Y are homotopy equivalent topological spaces, then for all  $n \ge 0$ ,  $H_n(X) = H_n(Y)$ .

Corollary: If K and L are homotopy equivalent simplicial complexes, then for all  $n \geq 0$ ,  $H_n(K) = H_n(L)$ .

the homology groups are **invariants** of homotopy classes

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# Homologia é um functor

We have seen that homology transforms topological spaces into vector spaces

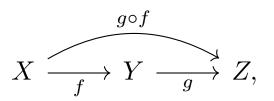
$$H_i \colon \mathrm{Top} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Vect}$$
  
 $X \longmapsto H_i(X)$ 

Actually, it also transforms continous maps into linear maps

$$X \xrightarrow{f} Y$$

$$H_n(X) \xrightarrow{H_n(f)} H_n(Y)$$

This operation preserves **commutative diagrams**:



$$H_n(g \circ f)$$

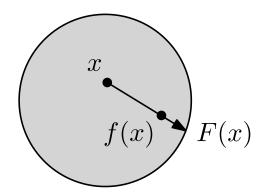
$$H_n(X) \xrightarrow{H_n(f)} H_n(Y) \xrightarrow{H_n(g)} H_n(Z).$$

$$H_n(g \circ f) = H_n(g) \circ H_n(f)$$

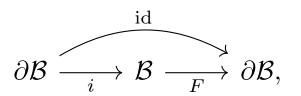
#### Application (Brouwer's fixed point theorem):

Let  $f: \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}$  be a continous map, where  $\mathcal{B}$  is the unit closed ball of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let us show that f has a fixed point (f(x) = x).

If not, we can define a map  $F: \mathcal{B} \to \partial \mathcal{B}$  such that F restricted to  $\partial \mathcal{B}$  is the identity. To do so, define F(x) as the first intersection between the half-line [x, f(x)) and  $\partial \mathcal{B}$ .



Denote the inclusion  $i: \partial \mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $F \circ i: \partial \mathcal{B} \to \partial \mathcal{B}$  is the identity. By functoriality, we have commutative diagrams



$$H_i(\partial \mathcal{B}) \xrightarrow{H_i(i)} H_i(\mathcal{B}) \xrightarrow{H_i(F)} H_i(\partial \mathcal{B}).$$

But for i = n - 1, we have an absurdity:

$$\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{id}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}.$$

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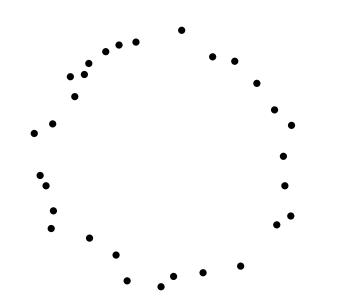
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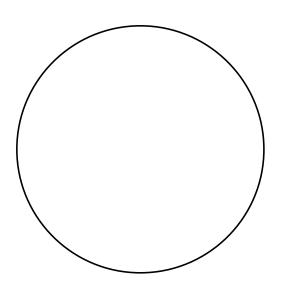
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# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (1/13)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded subset. Suppose that we are given a finite sample  $X \subset \mathcal{M}$ . Estimate the homology groups of  $\mathcal{M}$  from X.



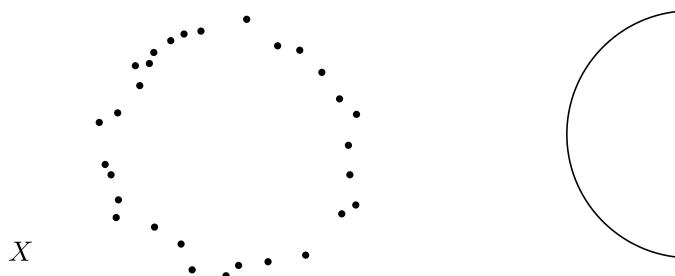
X

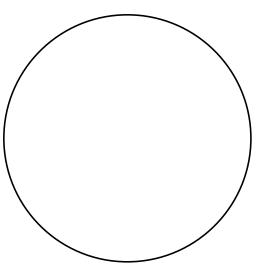


 $\mathcal{M}$ 

# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (2/13)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded subset. Suppose that we are given a finite sample  $X \subset \mathcal{M}$ . Estimate the homology groups of  $\mathcal{M}$  from X.





 $\mathcal{N}$ 

We cannot use X directly. Its homology is disapointing:

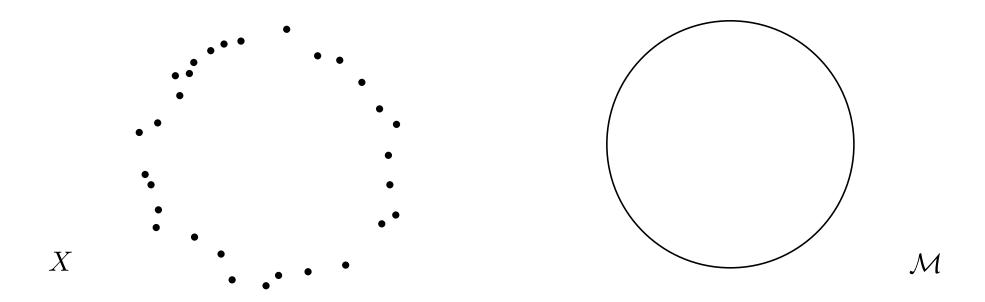
$$\beta_0(X) = 30$$
 and  $\beta_i(X) = 0$  for  $i \ge 1$ 

number of connected components .

= number of points of X

## O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (3/13)

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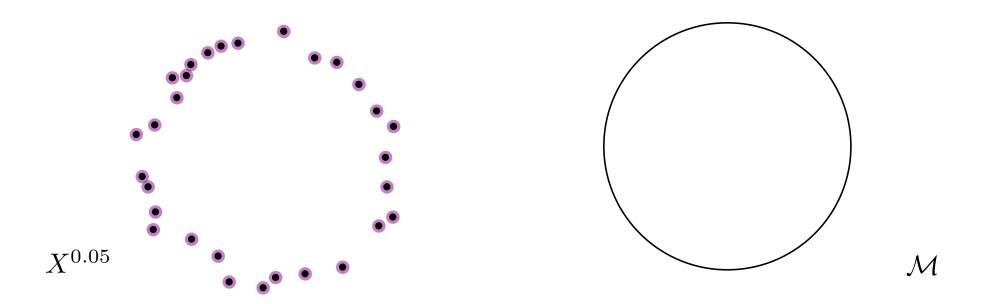
We cannot use X directly.

Idea: Thicken X.

$$X^{t} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \exists x \in X, ||x - y|| \le t \}.$$

## O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (4/13)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded subset. Suppose that we are given a finite sample  $X \subset \mathcal{M}$ . Estimate the homology groups of  $\mathcal{M}$  from X.



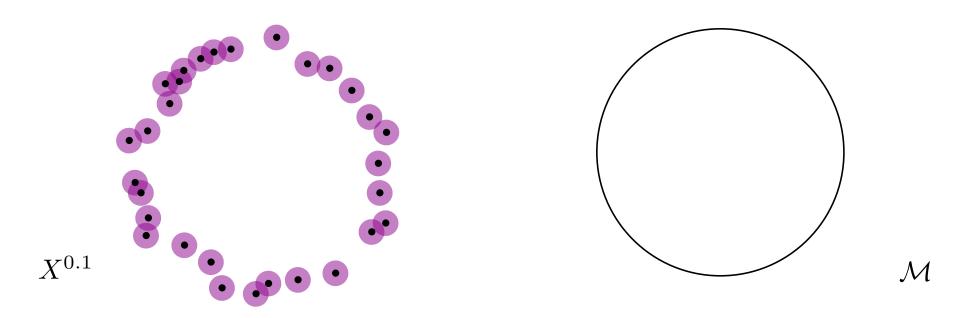
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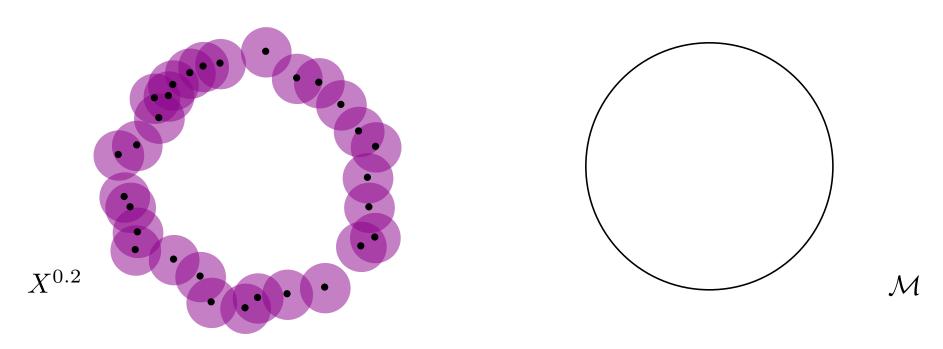
We cannot use X directly.

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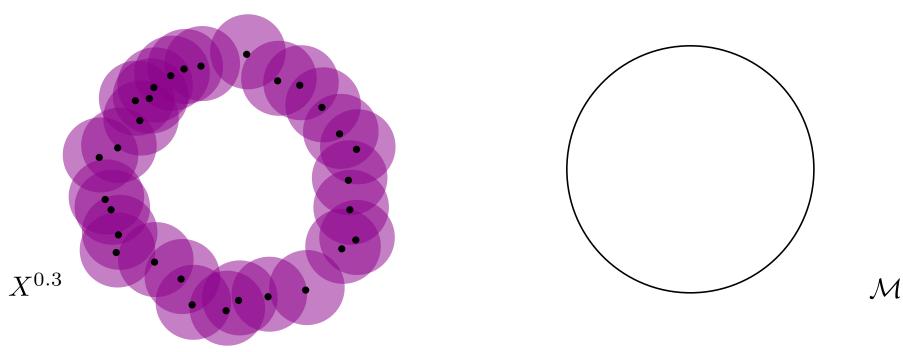
We cannot use X directly.

Idea: Thicken X.

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# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (7/13)

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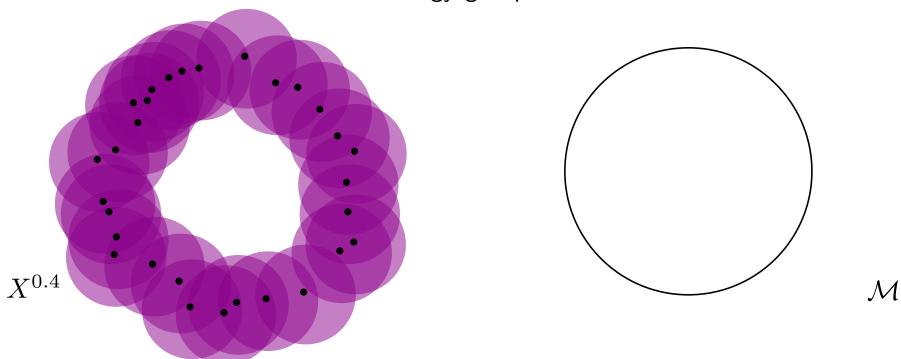
We cannot use X directly.

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$$X^{t} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \exists x \in X, ||x - y|| \le t \}.$$

# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (8/13)

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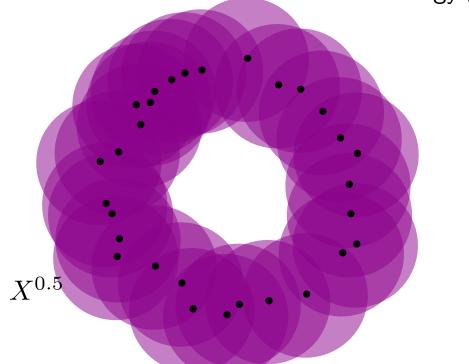
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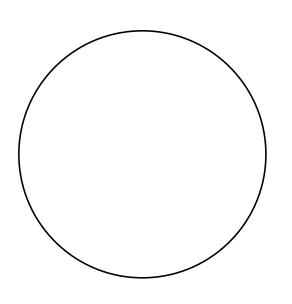
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# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (9/13)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded subset. Suppose that we are given a finite sample  $X \subset \mathcal{M}$ . Estimate the homology groups of  $\mathcal{M}$  from X.





 $\mathcal{M}$ 

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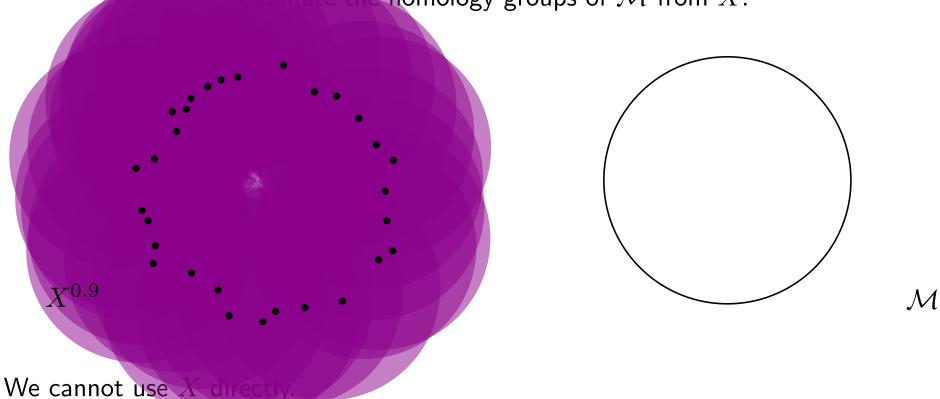
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# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (10/13)

Let  $\mathcal{M} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a bounded subset. Suppose that we are given a finite sample  $X \subset \mathcal{M}$ .

**Example 1** the homology groups of  $\mathcal{M}$  from X.

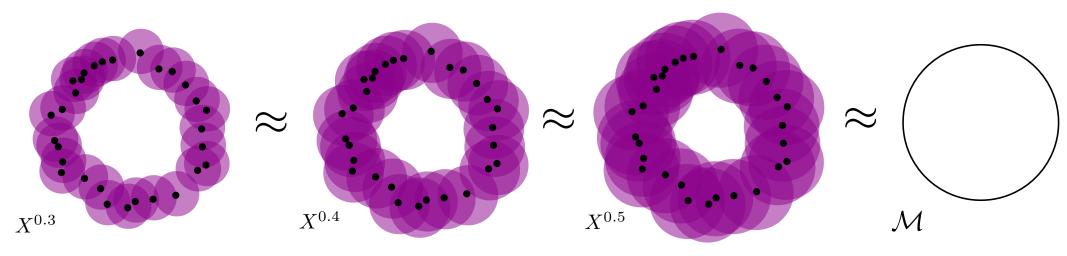


Idea: Thicken X.

$$X^{t} = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid \exists x \in X, ||x - y|| \le t \}.$$

# O problema da inferência homológica<sub>32/45</sub> (11/13)

Some thickenings are homotopy equivalent to  $\mathcal{M}$ .



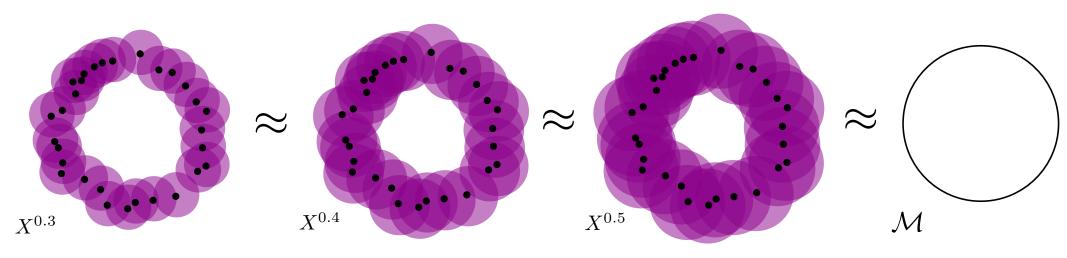
Hence we can recover the homology of  $\mathcal{M}$ :

$$\beta_0(\mathcal{M}) = \beta_0(X^{0.3})$$
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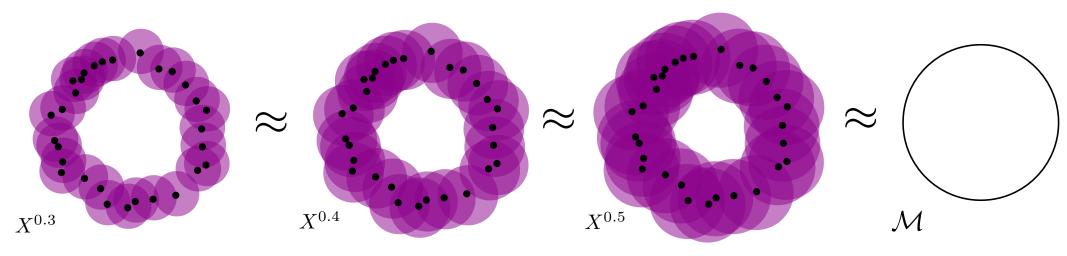
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Question 1: How to select a t such that  $X^t \approx \mathcal{M}$ ?

Question 2: How to compute the homology groups of  $X^t$ ?

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Hausdorff distance

Reach

Question 2: How to compute the homology groups of  $X^t$ ?

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- 2 Homological algebra
- 3 Incremental algorithm

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- 1 Thickening parameter selection
- 2 Čech complex
- 3 Rips complex

Let X be any subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The function **distance to** X is the map

$$\operatorname{dist}(\cdot, X) : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
$$y \longmapsto \operatorname{dist}(y, X) = \inf\{\|y - x\|, x \in X\}$$

A **projection** of  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  on X is a point  $x \in X$  which attains this infimum.

### Distância de Hausdorff

Let X be any subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The function **distance to** X is the map

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Definition: Let  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be another subset. The **Hausdorff distance** between X and Y is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{d_{H}}\left(X,Y\right) &= \max \left\{ \sup_{y \in Y} \mathrm{dist}\left(y,X\right), & \sup_{x \in X} \mathrm{dist}\left(x,Y\right) \right\} \\ &= \max \left\{ \sup_{y \in Y} \inf_{x \in X} \left\|x - y\right\|, & \sup_{x \in X} \inf_{y \in Y} \left\|x - y\right\| \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

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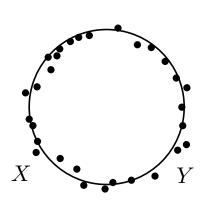
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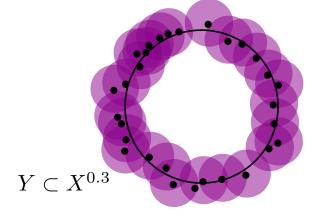
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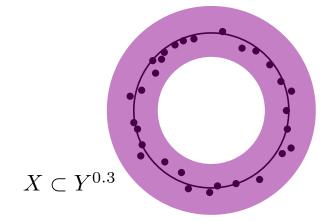
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$$d_{H}(X,Y) = \max \left\{ \sup_{y \in Y} \operatorname{dist}(y,X), \sup_{x \in X} \operatorname{dist}(x,Y) \right\}$$
$$= \max \left\{ \sup_{y \in Y} \inf_{x \in X} \|x - y\|, \sup_{x \in X} \inf_{y \in Y} \|x - y\| \right\}.$$

Proposition: The Hausdorff distance is equal to  $\inf\{t \geq 0 \mid X \subset Y^t \text{ and } Y \subset X^t\}$ .





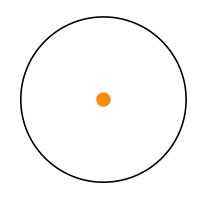


$$med(X) = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \exists x, x' \in X, x \neq x', ||y - x|| = ||y - x'|| = dist(y, X) \}.$$

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#### Examples:

The medial axis of the unit circle is the origin

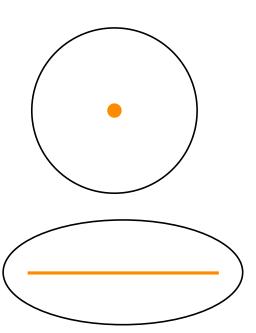


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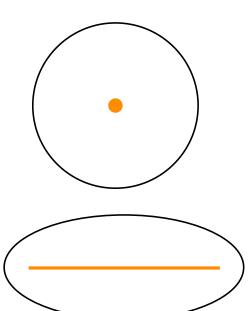
The medial axis of an ellipse is a segment



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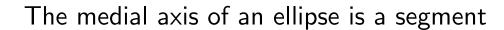
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The medial axis of a point is the empty set

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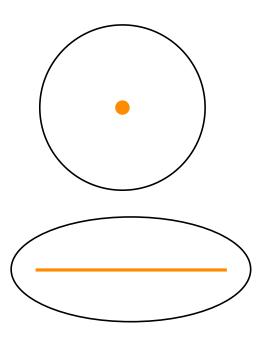
#### Examples:

The medial axis of the unit circle is the origin



The medial axis of a point is the empty set

The medial axis of two points is their bisector



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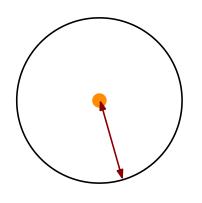
The **reach** of X is

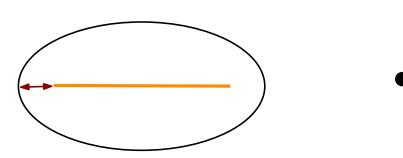
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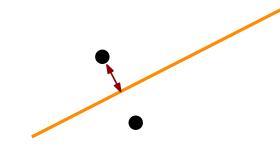
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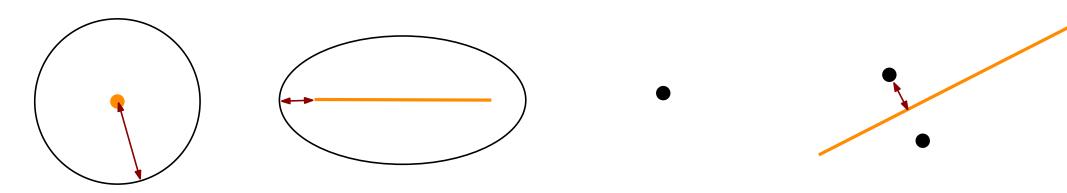




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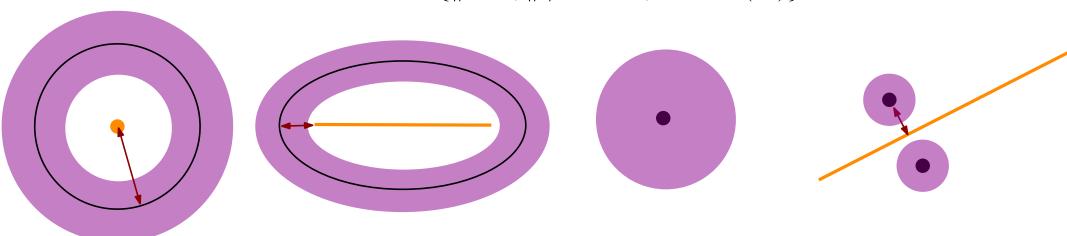


Proposition: For every  $t \in [0, \text{reach}(X))$ , the spaces X and  $X^t$  are homotopy equivalent.

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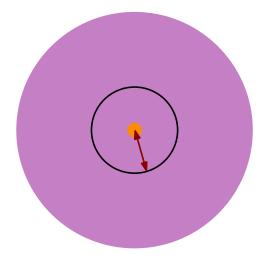


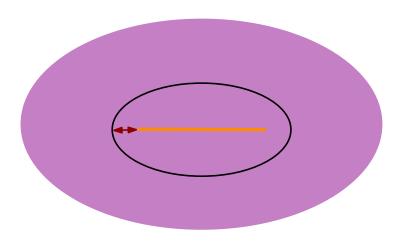
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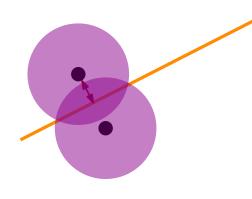
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If  $t \ge \operatorname{reach}(X)$ , the sets X and  $X^t$  may not be homotopy equivalent.

Proposition: For every  $t \in [0, \text{reach}(X))$ , the spaces X and  $X^t$  are homotopy equivalent.

Proof: For every  $t \in [0, \text{reach}(X))$ , the thickening  $X^t$  deform retracts onto X. A homotopy is given by the following map:

$$X^t \times [0,1] \longrightarrow X^t$$
  
 $(x,t) \longmapsto (1-t)x + t \cdot \operatorname{proj}(x,X).$ 

Indeed, the projection proj(x, X) is well defined (it is unique).

Remember Question 1: How to select a t such that  $X^t \approx \mathcal{M}$ ?



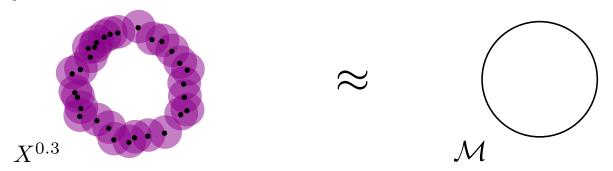
Theorem (Frédéric Chazal, David Cohen-Steiner, and André Lieutier, 2009):

Let X and  $\mathcal{M}$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}$  has positive reach, and that  $d_H(X,\mathcal{M}) \leq \frac{1}{17} \mathrm{reach}(\mathcal{M})$ .

Then  $X^t$  and  $\mathcal M$  are homotopic equivalent, provided that

$$t \in [4d_{\mathrm{H}}(X, \mathcal{M}), \mathrm{reach}(\mathcal{M}) - 3d_{\mathrm{H}}(X, \mathcal{M})).$$

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### Theorem (Frédéric Chazal, David Cohen-Steiner, and André Lieutier, 2009):

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### Theorem (Partha Niyogi, Stephen Smale, and Shmuel Weinberger, 2008):

Let X and  $\mathcal{M}$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , with  $\mathcal{M}$  a submanifold, and X a finite subset of  $\mathcal{M}$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}$  has positive reach.

Then  $X^t$  and  $\mathcal M$  are homotopic equivalent, provided that

$$t \in \left[ 2d_{\mathrm{H}}(X, \mathcal{M}), \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} \mathrm{reach}(\mathcal{M}) \right].$$

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Let us consider Question 2: How to compute the homology groups of  $X^t$ ?

We must a triangulation of  $X^t$ , that is: a simplicial complex K homeomorphic to X.

Actually, we will define something weaker: a simplicial complex K that is homotopy equivalent to X.

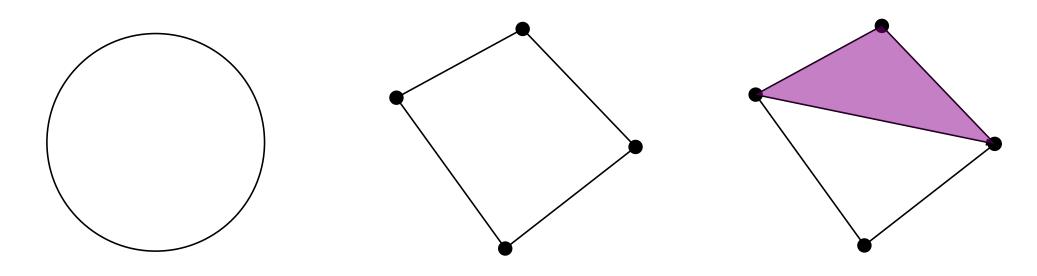
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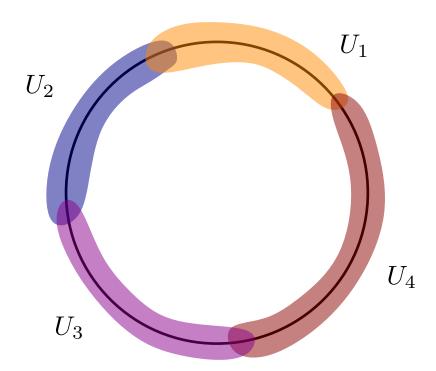
Either case, we will have  $\beta_i(X) = \beta_i(K)$  for all  $i \geq 0$ .



Definition: Let X be a topological space, and  $\mathcal{U} = \{U_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq N}$  a cover of X, that is, a collection of subsets  $U_i \subset X$  such that

$$\bigcup_{1 \le i \le N} U_i = X.$$

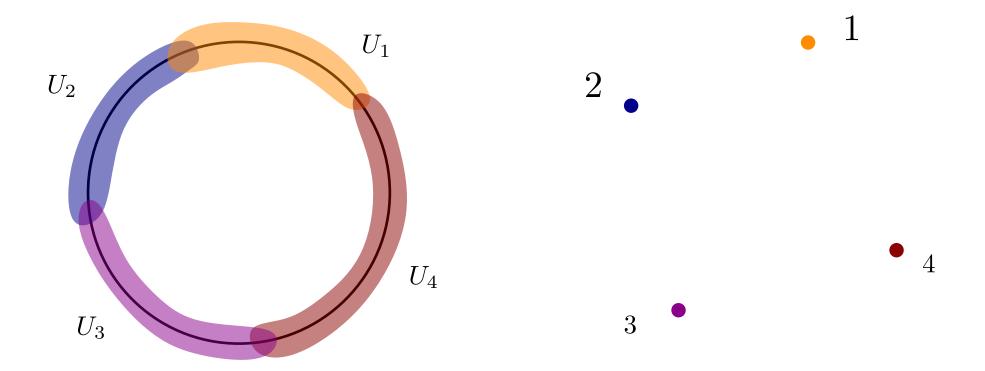
The **nerve** of  $\mathcal{U}$  is the simplicial complex with vertex set  $\{1,...,N\}$  and whose m-simplices are the subsets  $\{i_1,...,i_m\}\subset\{1,...,N\}$  such that  $\bigcap_{k=0}^m U_{i_k}\neq\emptyset$ . It is denoted  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{U})$ .



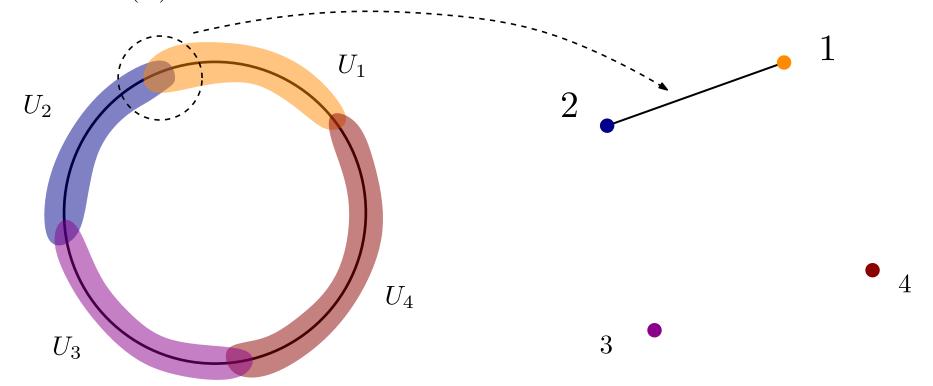
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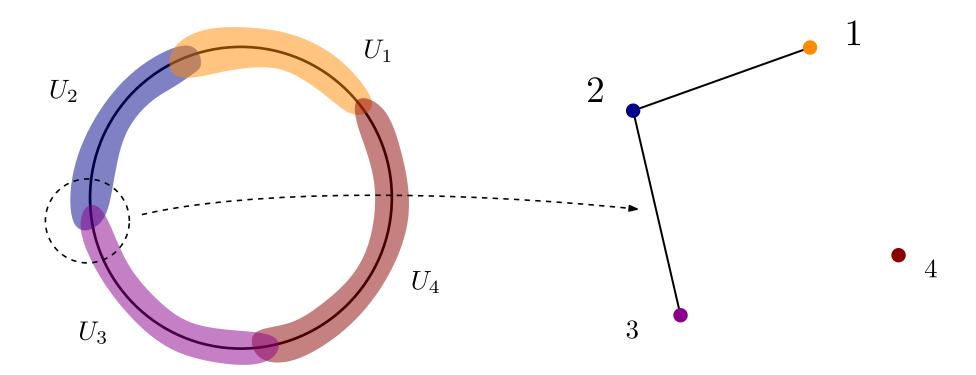
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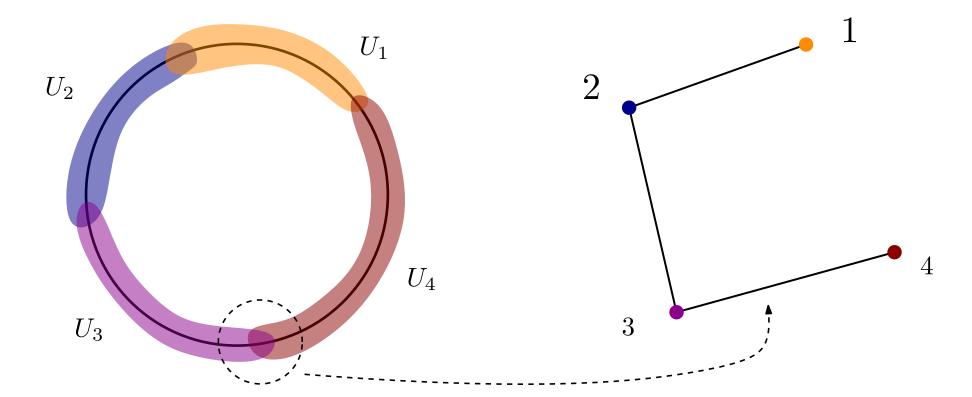
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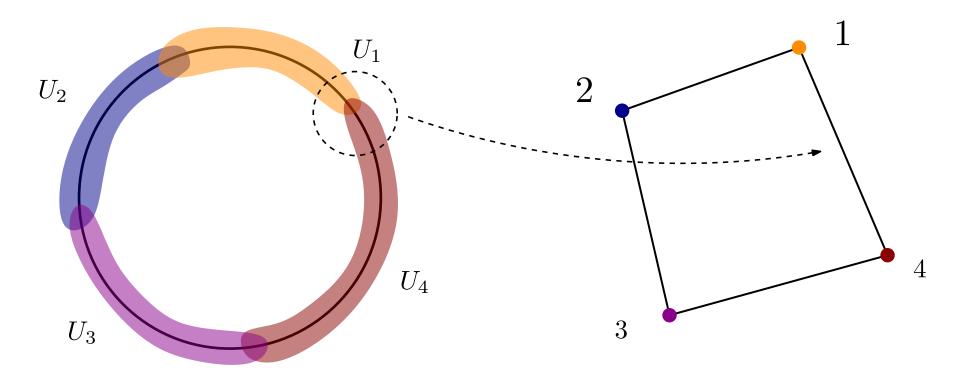
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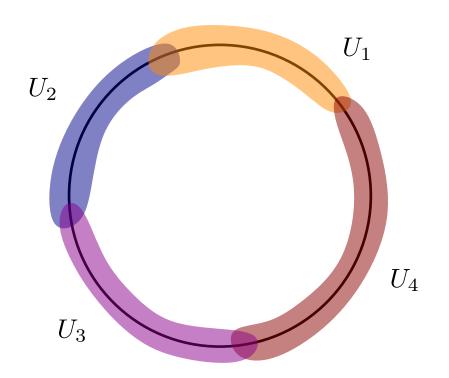
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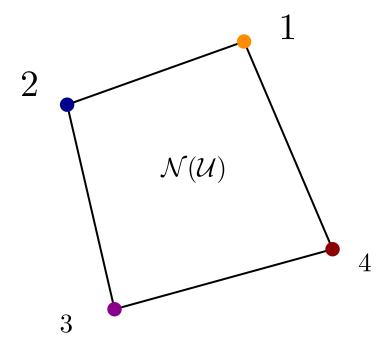


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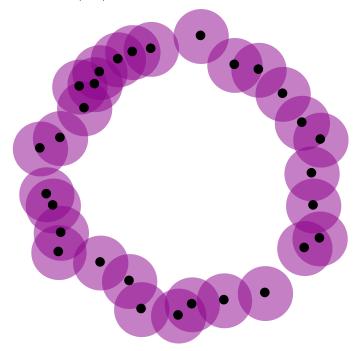


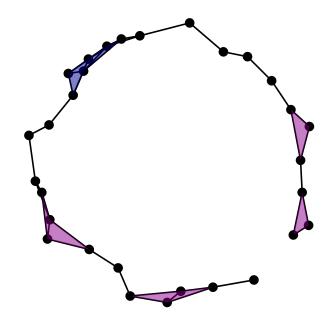
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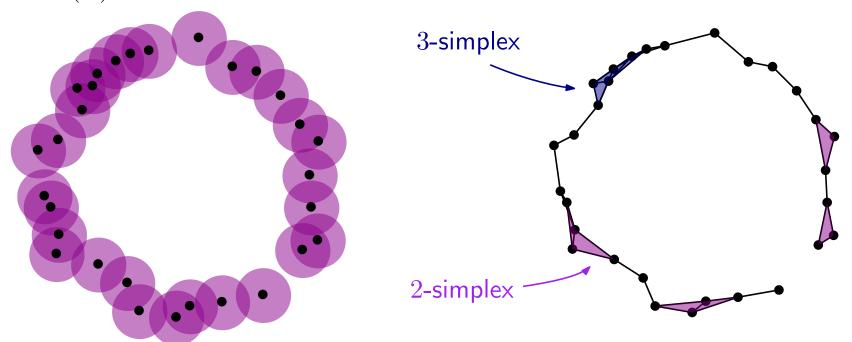
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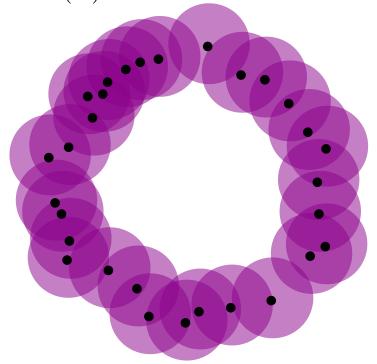
$$X^{0.2} = \bigcup_{x \in X} \overline{\mathcal{B}}(x, 0.2)$$
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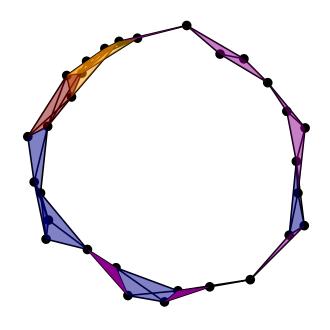
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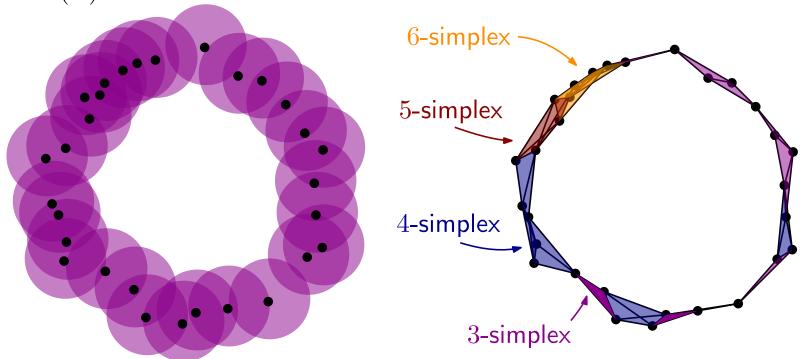
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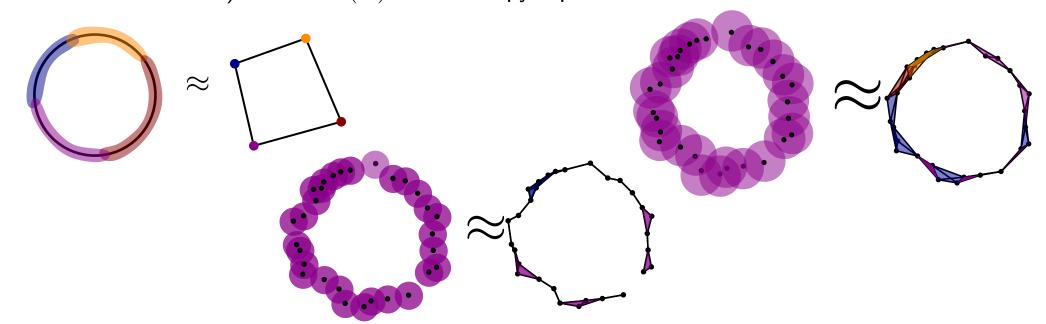


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The **nerve** of  $\mathcal{U}$  is the simplicial complex with vertex set  $\{1,...,N\}$  and whose m-simplices are the subsets  $\{i_1,...,i_m\}\subset\{1,...,N\}$  such that  $\bigcap_{k=0}^m U_{i_k}\neq\emptyset$ . It is denoted  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{U})$ .

Nerve theorem: Consider  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that each  $U_i$  are balls (or more generally, closed and convex). Then  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{U})$  is homotopy equivalent to X.



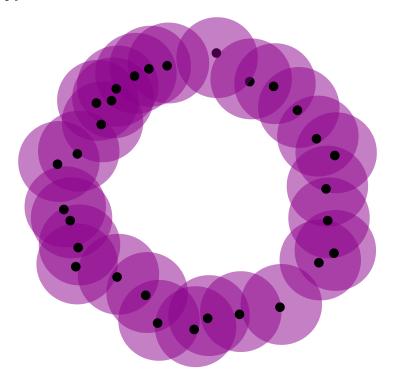
# Complexo de Čech

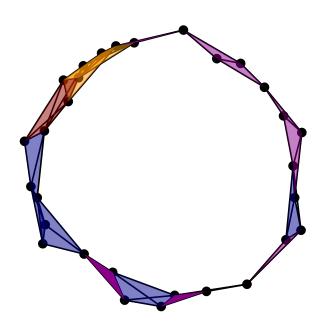
Let X be a finite subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $t \geq 0$ . Consider the collection

$$\mathcal{V}^{t} = \left\{ \overline{\mathcal{B}}(x,t), x \in X \right\}.$$

This is a cover of the thickening  $X^t$ , and each components are closed balls. By Nerve Theorem, its nerve  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{V}^t)$  has the homotopy type of  $X^t$ .

Definition: This nerve is denoted  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X)$  and is called the  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}$  complex of X at time t.



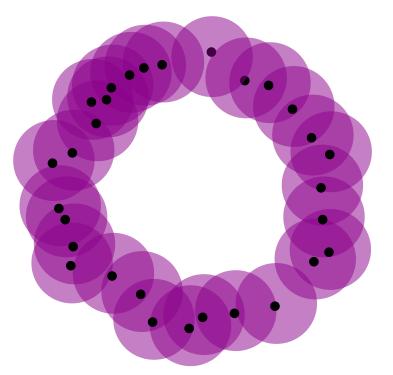


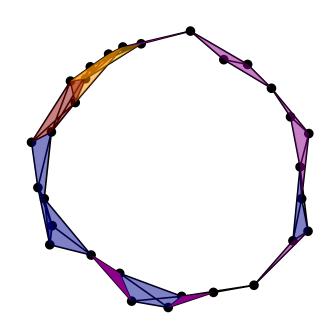
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The Question 2 (How to compute the homology groups of  $X^t$ ?) is solved.

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Let  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be finite, let  $t \geq 0$  and consider the t-thickening

$$X^{t} = \bigcup_{x \in X} \overline{\mathcal{B}}(x, t).$$

By definition, its nerve,  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X)$ , the  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}$  complex at time t, is a simplicial complex on the vertices  $\{1,\ldots,N\}$  whose simplices are the subsets  $\{i_1,\ldots,i_m\}$  such that

$$\bigcap_{1 \le k \le m} \overline{\mathcal{B}}(x_{i_k}, t) \neq \emptyset.$$

Let  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be finite, let  $t \geq 0$  and consider the t-thickening

$$X^{t} = \bigcup_{x \in X} \overline{\mathcal{B}}(x, t).$$

By definition, its nerve,  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X)$ , the  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}$  complex at time t, is a simplicial complex on the vertices  $\{1,\ldots,N\}$  whose simplices are the subsets  $\{i_1,\ldots,i_m\}$  such that

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Therefore, computing the Čech complex relies on the following geometric predicate:

#### Given m closed balls of $\mathbb{R}^n$ , do they intersect?

This problem is known as the *smallest circle problem*.

It can can be solved in  ${\cal O}(m)$  time, where m is the number of points.

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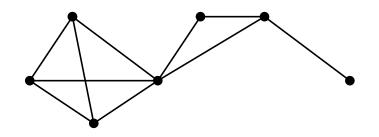
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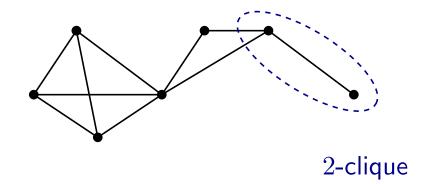
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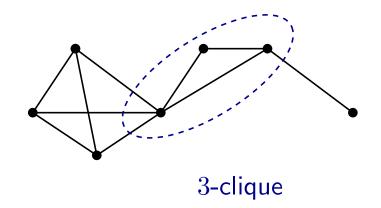
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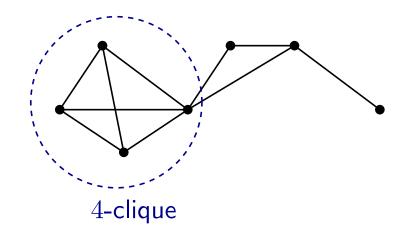
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in practice, we prefer a more simple version

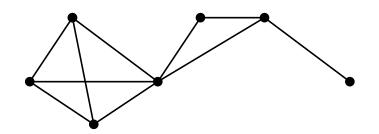






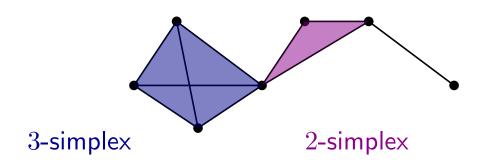


We call a **clique** of G a set of vertices  $v_1, ..., v_m$  such that for every  $i, j \in [1, m]$  with  $i \neq j$ , the edge  $[v_i, v_j]$  belongs to G.

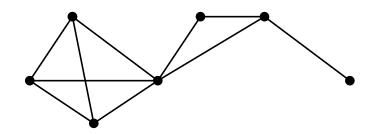


Definition: Given a graph G, the corresponding **clique complex** is the simplicial complex whose

- vertices are the vertices of *G*,
- simplices are the sets of vertices of the cliques of G.

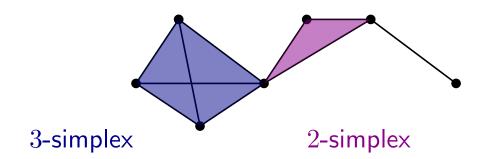


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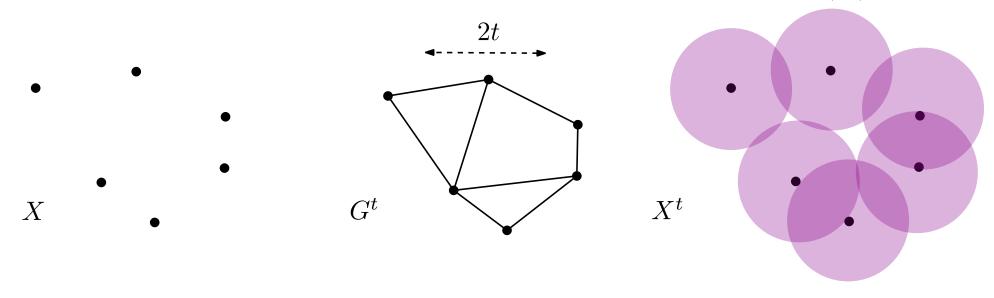


Observation: The clique complex of a graph is a simplicial complex.

Let  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t \geq 0$ .

Consider the graph  $G^t$  whose vertex set is  $\{1, \ldots, N\}$ , and whose edges are the pairs (i, j) such that  $||x_i - x_j|| \le 2t$ .

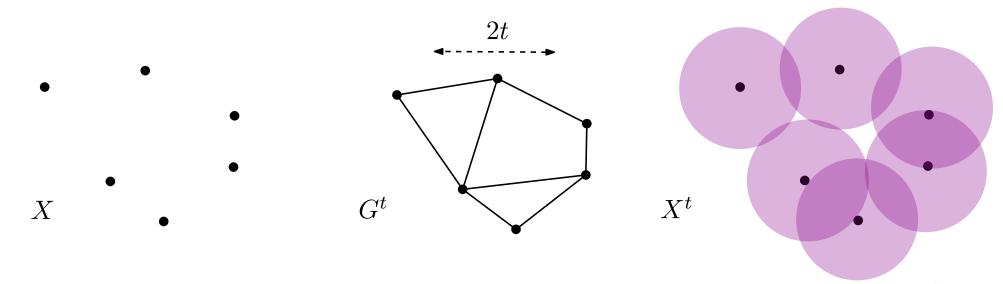
Alternatively,  $G^t$  can be seen as the 1-skeleton of the Čech complex  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X)$ .



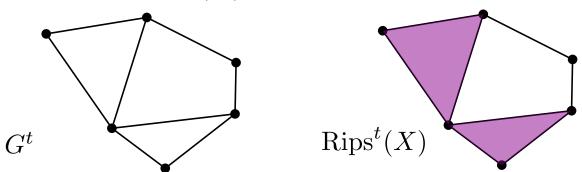
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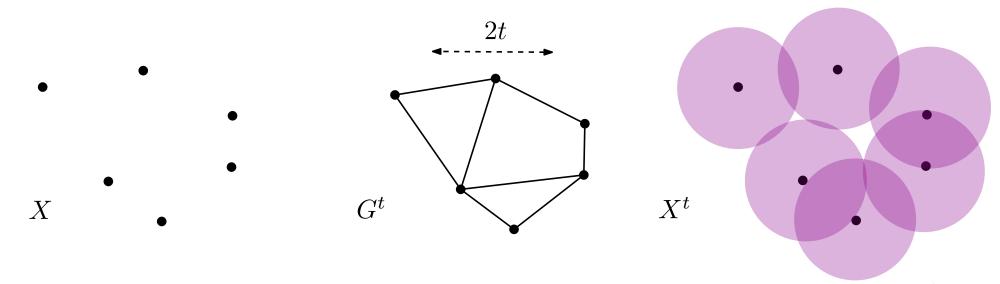
Definition: The **Rips complex** of X at time t is the clique complex of the graph  $G^t$ . We denote it  $\operatorname{Rips}^t(X)$ .



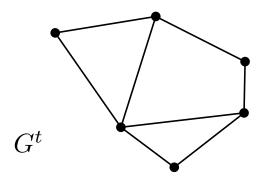
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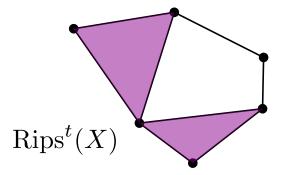
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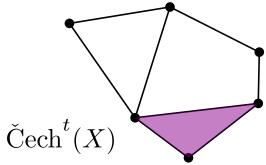
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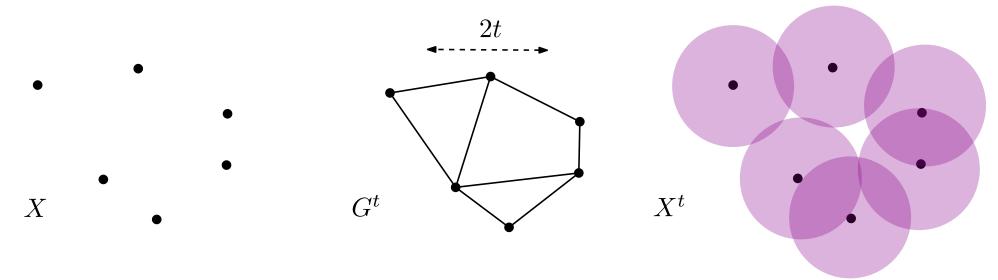




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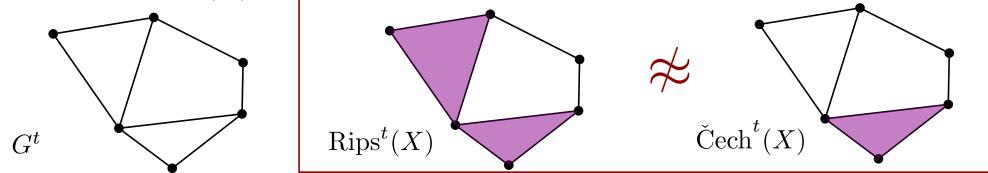
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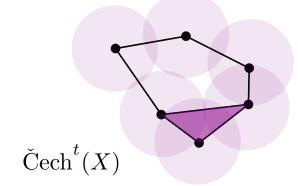
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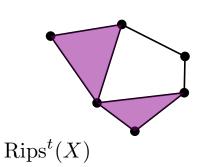
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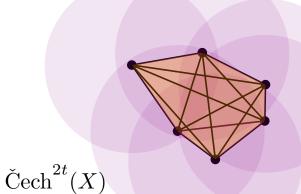


Proposition: For every  $t \geq 0$ , we have

$$\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X) \subset \operatorname{Rips}^t(X) \subset \operatorname{\check{C}ech}^{2t}(X).$$

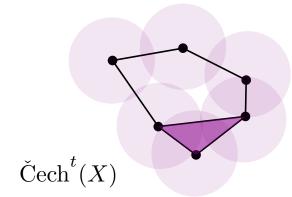


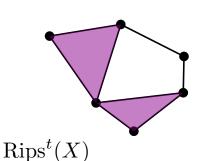


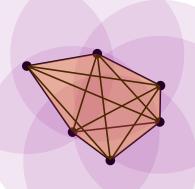


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 $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^{2t}(X)$ 

Proof: Let  $t \geq 0$ . The first inclusion follows from the fact that  $\operatorname{Rips}^t(X)$  is the clique complex of  $\operatorname{\check{C}ech}^t(X)$ .

To prove the second one, choose a simplex  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Rips}^t(X)$ . Let us prove that  $\omega \in \operatorname{\check{C}ech}^{2t}(X)$ .

Let  $x \in \sigma$  be any vertex. Note that  $\forall y \in \sigma$ , we have  $||x - y|| \le 2t$  by definition of the Rips complex. Hence

$$x \in \bigcap_{y \in \sigma} \overline{\mathcal{B}}(y, 2t).$$

The intersection being non-empty, we deduce  $\sigma \in \operatorname{\check{C}ech}^{2t}(X)$ .

### Question 1: How to select a t such that $X^t \approx \mathcal{M}$ ?

Theorem (Frédéric Chazal, David Cohen-Steiner, and André Lieutier, 2009):

Let X and  $\mathcal{M}$  be subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}$  has positive reach, and that  $d_H(X,\mathcal{M}) \leq \frac{1}{17} \mathrm{reach}(\mathcal{M})$ .

Then  $X^t$  and  $\mathcal{M}$  are homotopic equivalent, provided that

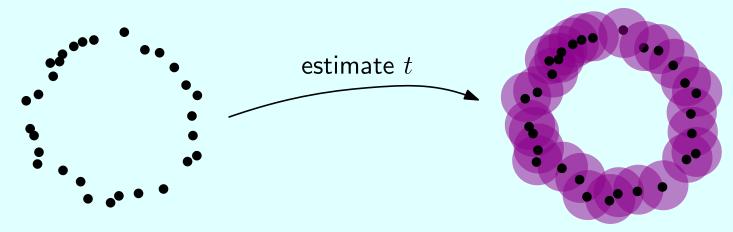
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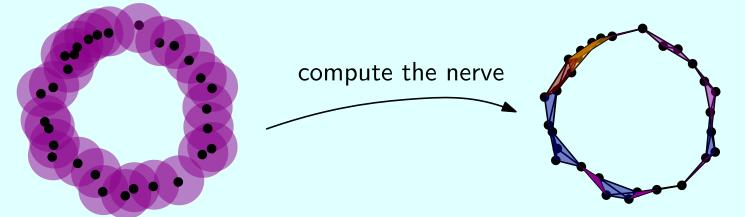
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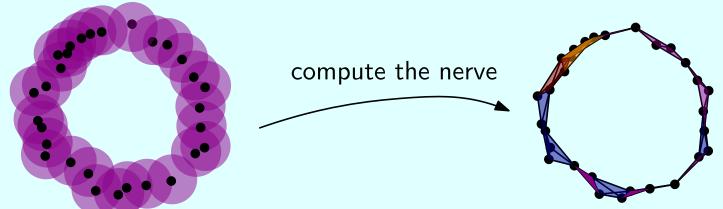
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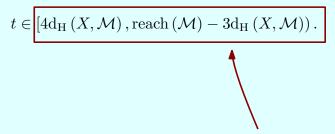


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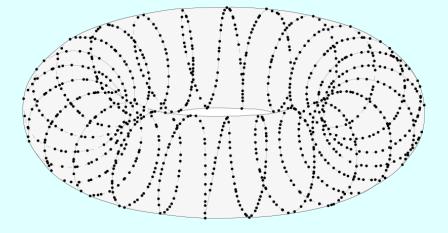
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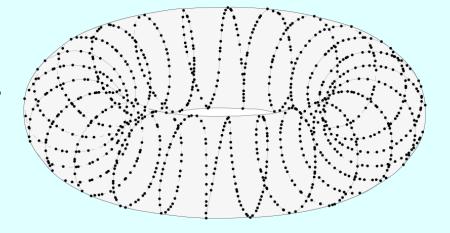
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Idea (multiscale analysis): Instead of estimating a value of t, we will choose all of them.