Persistent Homology: Interpretation and Stability

Tao Hou, University of Oregon

- Previously, we were able to formally define persistent homology and the topological summary it produces, aka. PD or barcode.
- We also looked at several common ways for building filtration out of data that are practical in different applications

- Previously, we were able to formally define persistent homology and the topological summary it produces, aka. PD or barcode.
- We also looked at several common ways for building filtration out of data that are practical in different applications
- Notice that our ultimate goal is to use persistent homology to infer the "shape" of data (i.e., homology inference)
- To do this, we need to fully understand the meanings of PD or barcode, from different aspects

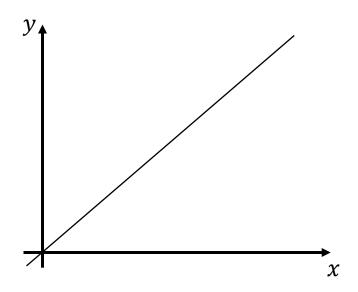
- Previously, we were able to formally define persistent homology and the topological summary it produces, aka. PD or barcode.
- We also looked at several common ways for building filtration out of data that are practical in different applications
- Notice that our ultimate goal is to use persistent homology to infer the "shape" of data (i.e., homology inference)
- To do this, we need to fully understand the meanings of PD or barcode, from different aspects
- Moreover, we shall also see some properties that are critical to showing that persistent homology is a "reliable" way for inferring the shape

• Previously, we defined a persistence diagram (PD) as a set of points on the 2D plane above the diagonal

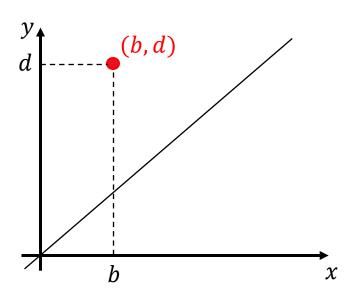
- Previously, we defined a persistence diagram (PD) as a set of points on the 2D plane above the diagonal
- But somehow, all we know about a point (b,d) in a PD is that
 - b is the "birth value" of a homological feature (hole)
 - d is the "death value" of it

- Previously, we defined a persistence diagram (PD) as a set of points on the 2D plane above the diagonal
- But somehow, all we know about a point (b,d) in a PD is that
 - b is the "birth value" of a homological feature (hole)
 - d is the "death value" of it
- Why above the diagonal?

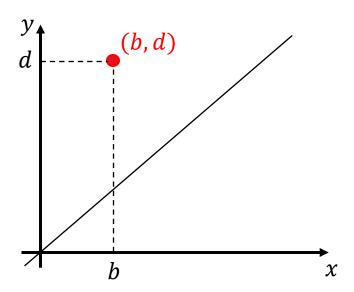
• Consider a point (b, d) in a PD



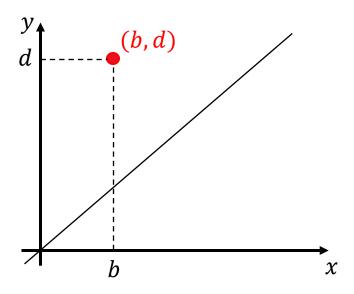
• Consider a point (b, d) in a PD



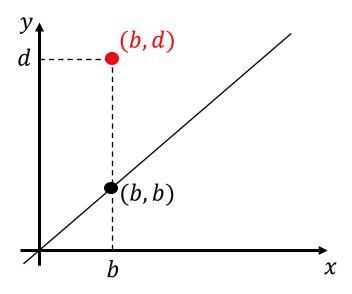
- Consider a point (b, d) in a PD
- We must have b < d because something must be born before it can die



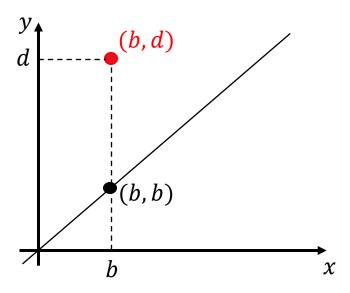
- Consider a point (b, d) in a PD
- ullet We must have b < d because something must be born before it can die
- If you look at the intersection of the vertical line passing (b,d) and and diagonal, which is (b,b)



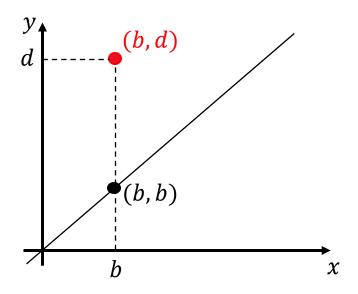
- Consider a point (b, d) in a PD
- ullet We must have b < d because something must be born before it can die
- If you look at the intersection of the vertical line passing (b,d) and and diagonal, which is (b,b)



- Consider a point (b, d) in a PD
- ullet We must have b < d because something must be born before it can die
- If you look at the intersection of the vertical line passing (b,d) and and diagonal, which is (b,b)
- (b, d) must be above (b, b) because b < d



- Consider a point (b, d) in a PD
- We must have b < d because something must be born before it can die
- If you look at the intersection of the vertical line passing (b,d) and and diagonal, which is (b,b)
- (b, d) must be above (b, b) because b < d
- So (b, d) is above the diagonal



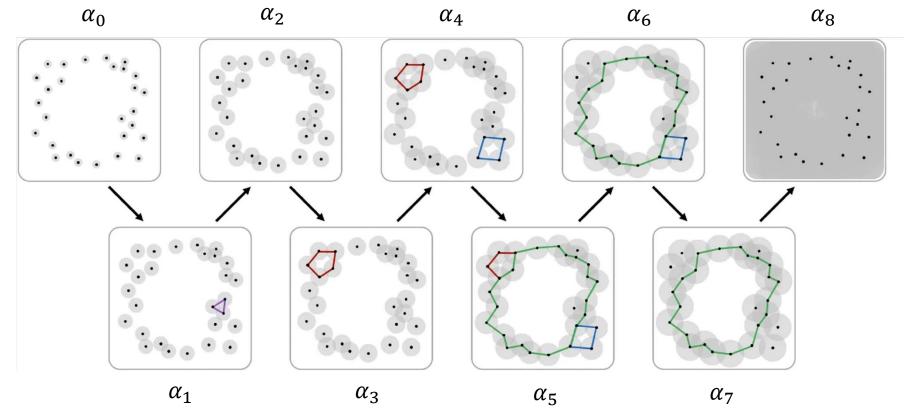
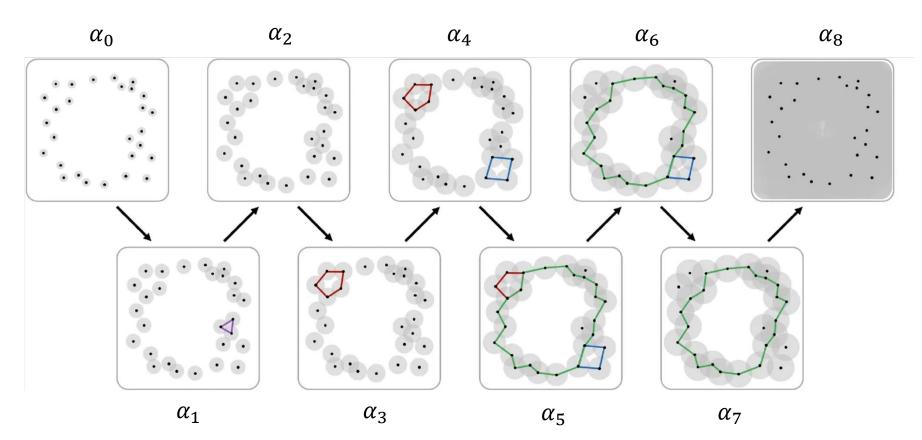


Image: Bobrowski, Skraba. A universal null-distribution for topological data analysis



- $(\alpha_5, \alpha_8) \Rightarrow$ green cycle
- $(\alpha_4, \alpha_7) \Rightarrow$ blue cycle
- $(\alpha_3, \alpha_6) \Rightarrow \text{red cycle}$
- $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \Rightarrow \text{purple cycle}$

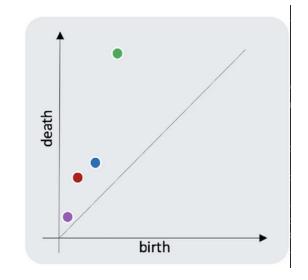
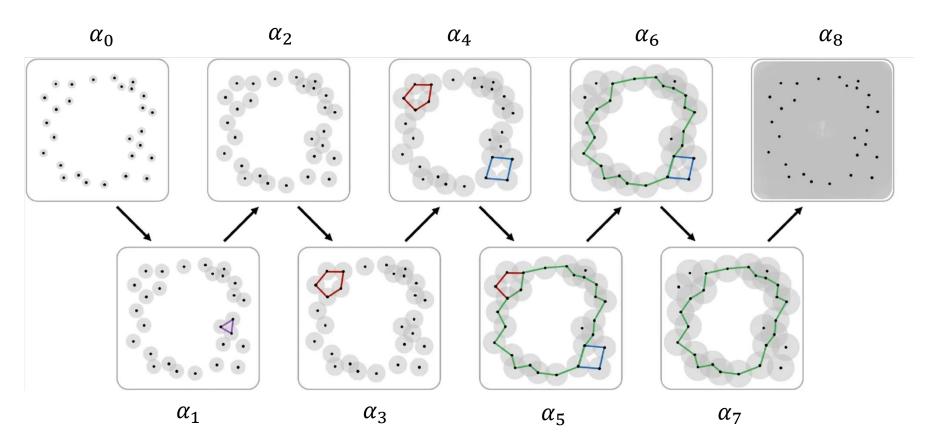


Image: Bobrowski, Skraba. A universal null-distribution for topological data analysis

• Define length of a PD interval (point), (b, d), as d - b



- $(\alpha_5, \alpha_8) \Rightarrow$ green cycle
- $(\alpha_4, \alpha_7) \Rightarrow$ blue cycle
- $(\alpha_3, \alpha_6) \Rightarrow \text{red cycle}$
- $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \Rightarrow$ purple cycle

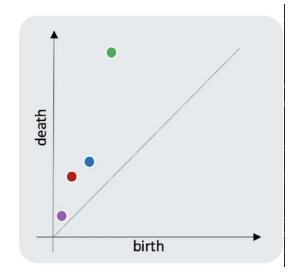
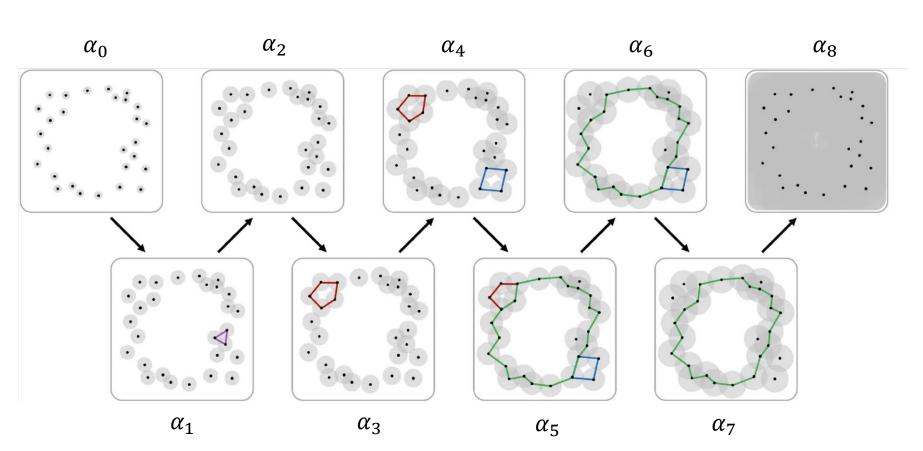


Image: Bobrowski, Skraba. A universal null-distribution for topological data analysis

- Define length of a PD interval (point), (b, d), as d b
- Observe the longer an interval is, the more significant its homology hole is



- $(\alpha_5, \alpha_8) \Rightarrow$ green cycle
- $(\alpha_4, \alpha_7) \Rightarrow$ blue cycle
- $(\alpha_3, \alpha_6) \Rightarrow \text{red cycle}$
- $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \Rightarrow \text{purple cycle}$

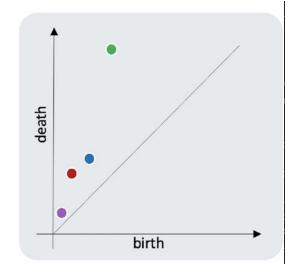
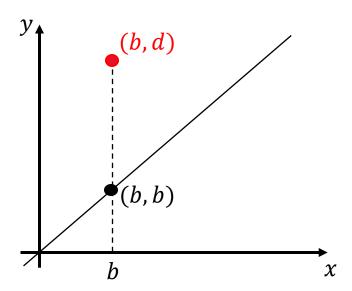


Image: Bobrowski, Skraba. A universal null-distribution for topological data analysis

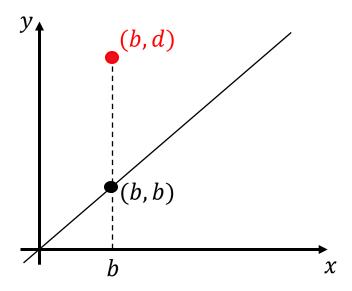
Length of an interval manifested on PD

• We observe that the length d-b of a PD point (b,d) equals $1/\sqrt{2}$ times the distance of (b,d) to the diagonal



Length of an interval manifested on PD

- We observe that the length d-b of a PD point (b,d) equals $1/\sqrt{2}$ times the distance of (b,d) to the diagonal
- This means that the distance of a point in PD to the diagonal indicates the length of the corresponding interval, and hence the significance of the homological feature



 Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data

- Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data
- For this, we argue that the PD you get is not some arbitrary set of points produced: their change w.r.t the data is "reasonable"

- Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data
- For this, we argue that the PD you get is not some arbitrary set of points produced: their change w.r.t the data is "reasonable"
 - Aka. if the data changes a little, the PD also changes a little
 - If the two datasets correspond, then their PD's also correspond

- Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data
- For this, we argue that the PD you get is not some arbitrary set of points produced: their change w.r.t the data is "reasonable"
 - Aka. if the data changes a little, the PD also changes a little
 - If the two datasets correspond, then their PD's also correspond
- The result that we are going to build is formally called the "stability" of persistence diagram, and is a corner stone of persistent homology and its applications

- Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data
- For this, we argue that the PD you get is not some arbitrary set of points produced: their change w.r.t the data is "reasonable"
 - Aka. if the data changes a little, the PD also changes a little
 - If the two datasets correspond, then their PD's also correspond
- The result that we are going to build is formally called the "stability" of persistence diagram, and is a corner stone of persistent homology and its applications
- For this, we need a way to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs

- Now, we are going to address an important problem in topology inference using PD: Arguing that PD is a "reliable" topological signature / indicator for the data
- For this, we argue that the PD you get is not some arbitrary set of points produced: their change w.r.t the data is "reasonable"
 - Aka. if the data changes a little, the PD also changes a little
 - If the two datasets correspond, then their PD's also correspond
- The result that we are going to build is formally called the "stability" of persistence diagram, and is a corner stone of persistent homology and its applications
- For this, we need a way to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs
- Mathematically, the tool to measure the difference of two objects is called a distance function (or metric)

Distance function (as on Wikipedia)

Definition [edit]

Formally, a **metric space** is an ordered pair (M, d) where M is a set and d is a **metric** on M, i.e., a function

$$d:M imes M o \mathbb{R}$$

satisfying the following axioms for all points $x,y,z\in M$:[4][5]

1. The distance from a point to itself is zero:

$$d(x,x)=0$$

2. (Positivity) The distance between two distinct points is always positive:

If
$$x \neq y$$
, then $d(x, y) > 0$

3. (Symmetry) The distance from x to y is always the same as the distance from y to x:

$$d(x,y) = d(y,x)$$

4. The triangle inequality holds:

$$d(x,z) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,z)$$

This is a natural property of both physical and metaphorical notions of distance: you can arrive at z from x by taking a detour through y, but this will not make your journey any shorter than the direct path.

If the metric d is unambiguous, one often refers by abuse of notation to "the metric space M".

Examples:

• For two numbers x and y on the real line, d(x,y) = |x-y|

Examples:

- For two numbers x and y on the real line, d(x,y) = |x-y|
- For two points from higher-dimensional space, say, two points

$$x = (x_1, x_2)$$
 and $y = (y_1, y_2)$

from \mathbb{R}^2 , we have:

Examples:

- For two numbers x and y on the real line, d(x, y) = |x y|
- For two points from higher-dimensional space, say, two points

$$x = (x_1, x_2)$$
 and $y = (y_1, y_2)$

from \mathbb{R}^2 , we have:

• L_1 -distance (Manhattan distance): $d_1(x, y) = |x_1 - y_1| + |x_2 - y_2|$

Examples:

- For two numbers x and y on the real line, d(x, y) = |x y|
- For two points from higher-dimensional space, say, two points

$$x = (x_1, x_2)$$
 and $y = (y_1, y_2)$

from \mathbb{R}^2 , we have:

- L_1 -distance (Manhattan distance): $d_1(x, y) = |x_1 y_1| + |x_2 y_2|$
- L_2 -distance (Euclidean distance): $d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 y_1)^2 + (x_2 y_2)^2}$

Examples:

- For two numbers x and y on the real line, d(x, y) = |x y|
- For two points from higher-dimensional space, say, two points

$$x = (x_1, x_2)$$
 and $y = (y_1, y_2)$

from \mathbb{R}^2 , we have:

- L_1 -distance (Manhattan distance): $d_1(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = |x_1 y_1| + |x_2 y_2|$
- L_2 -distance (Euclidean distance): $d(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_1 y_1)^2 + (x_2 y_2)^2}$
- L_{∞} -distance: $d_{\infty}(x, y) = \max\{|x_1 y_1|, |x_2 y_2|\}$

- Recall we need to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs

- Recall we need to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs
- What is the data we try to measure here?

- Recall we need to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs
- What is the data we try to measure here?
- It turns out that "functions" are a quite universal type of data (reason will be made clear later)

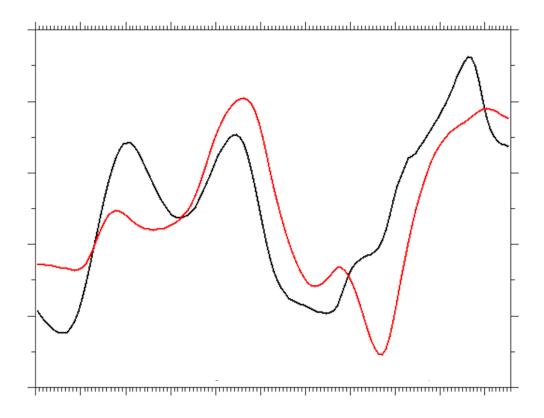
- Recall we need to measure:
 - Difference between the data
 - Difference between two PDs
- What is the data we try to measure here?
- It turns out that "functions" are a quite universal type of data (reason will be made clear later)
- Specifically, for measuring the difference of two functions, we assume the domain to be the same, aka. we measure two functions of the following form:
 - $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$
 - $g: X \to \mathbb{R}$

• The idea of our distance d(f,g) for the two functions f,g is to measure the maximum of difference of the function values at each point in the domain X

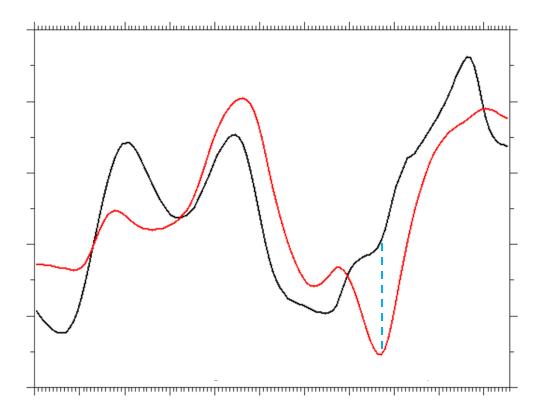
- The idea of our distance d(f,g) for the two functions f,g is to measure the maximum of difference of the function values at each point in the domain X
- The distance is also denoted $\| f g \|_{\infty}$:

$$|| f - g ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in X} \{|f(x) - g(x)|\}$$

• Suppose $X = \mathbb{R}$ for f and g.

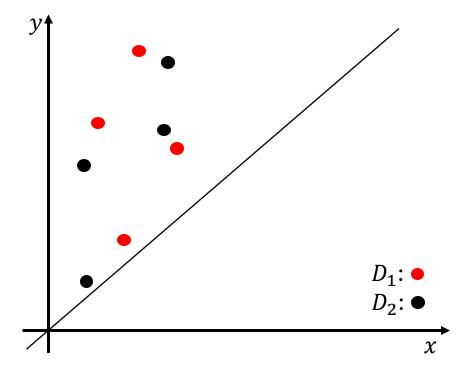


- Suppose $X = \mathbb{R}$ for f and g.
- The maximum is achieved by the blue line

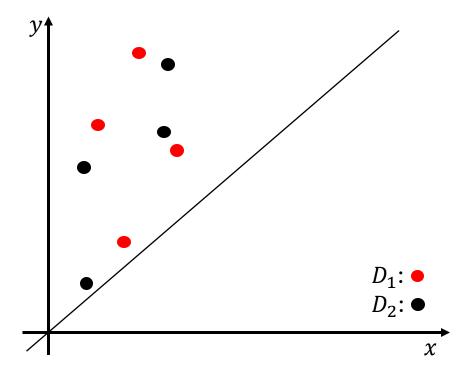


• Now we look at how to measure difference between two PDs, D_1 and D_2

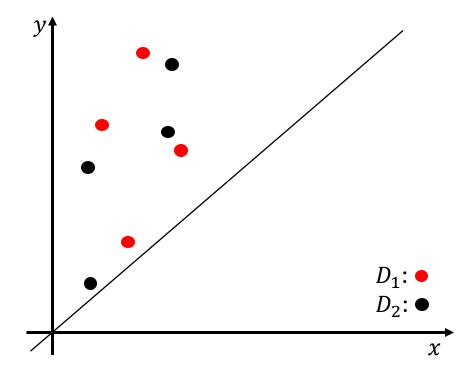
• Now we look at how to measure difference between two PDs, D_1 and D_2



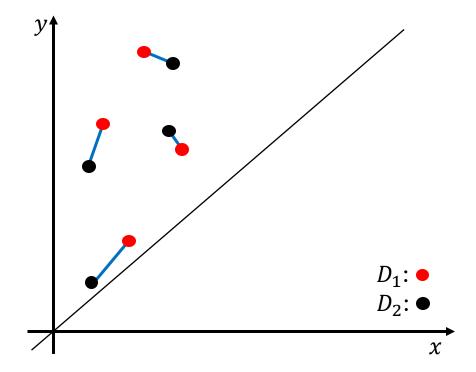
- Now we look at how to measure difference between two PDs, D_1 and D_2
- To measure the difference, we try to "match" points in ${\cal D}_1$ and ${\cal D}_2$ in a one-to-one manner



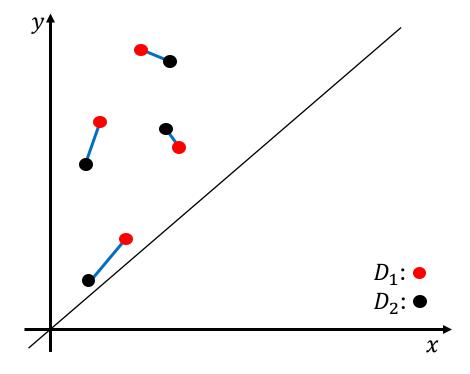
- Now we look at how to measure difference between two PDs, D_1 and D_2
- To measure the difference, we try to "match" points in ${\cal D}_1$ and ${\cal D}_2$ in a one-to-one manner
- Furthermore, we want the matched points in the two PDs to be as close as possible, which indicates that overall the two PDs are "close" to each other



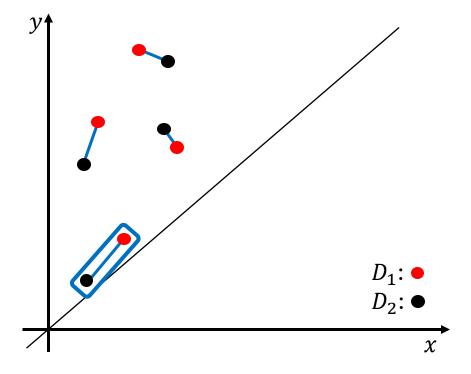
- Now we look at how to measure difference between two PDs, D_1 and D_2
- To measure the difference, we try to "match" points in ${\cal D}_1$ and ${\cal D}_2$ in a one-to-one manner
- Furthermore, we want the matched points in the two PDs to be as close as possible, which indicates that overall the two PDs are "close" to each other



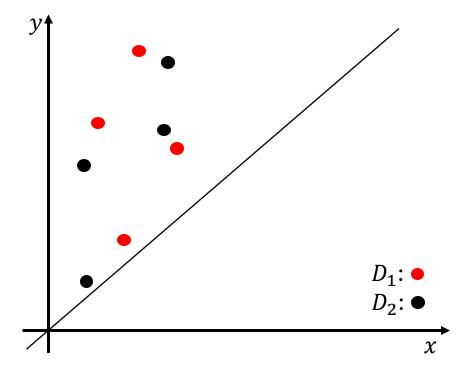
 Under the matching, the distance of the farthest two points (aka. "maximum" distances among the matched pairs) provides the distance for the overall two PDs



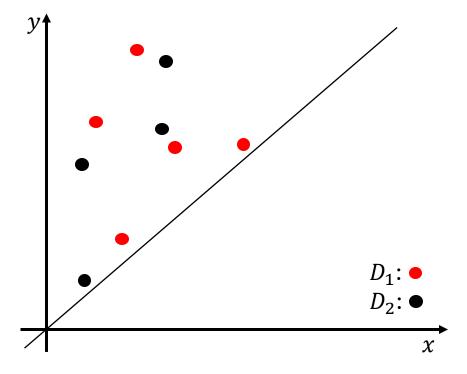
 Under the matching, the distance of the farthest two points (aka. "maximum" distances among the matched pairs) provides the distance for the overall two PDs



• However, D_1 and D_2 may not have the same number of points, making the "perfect matching" impossible (aka. suppose we add another point in D_1)



• However, D_1 and D_2 may not have the same number of points, making the "perfect matching" impossible (aka. suppose we add another point in D_1)



- We then introduce a "partial matching":
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other

- We then introduce a "partial matching":
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - And of course, we want each matched points to be close to each other

- We then introduce a "partial matching":
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - And of course, we want each matched points to be close to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched", meaning we want to "ignore" them

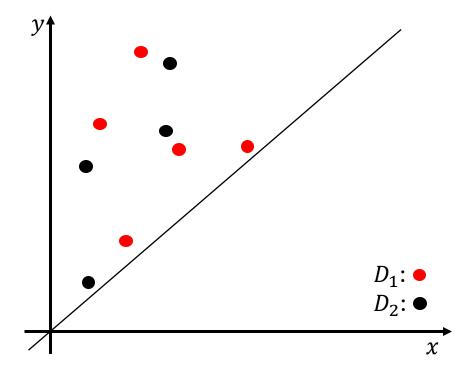
- We then introduce a "partial matching":
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - And of course, we want each matched points to be close to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched", meaning we want to "ignore" them
 - However, we can only "ignore" then when they are not very "important", aka. being close to the diagonal

- We then introduce a "partial matching":
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - And of course, we want each matched points to be close to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched", meaning we want to "ignore" them
 - However, we can only "ignore" then when they are not very "important", aka. being close to the diagonal
 - We measure the "cost" of "ignoring" these unmatched points by taking their distance to the diagonal

• The distance defined by such a "partial matching" is called the **bottleneck** distance, denoted $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$.

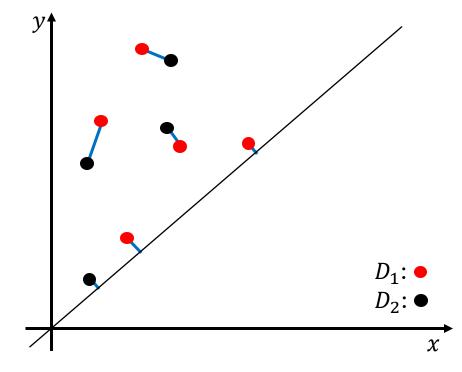
- The distance defined by such a "partial matching" is called the **bottleneck** distance, denoted $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$.
- $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$ being small means that we could find a close matching between those significant points in D_1,D_2 while those remaining points are "insignificant"

- The distance defined by such a "partial matching" is called the **bottleneck** distance, denoted $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$.
- $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$ being small means that we could find a close matching between those significant points in D_1,D_2 while those remaining points are "insignificant"



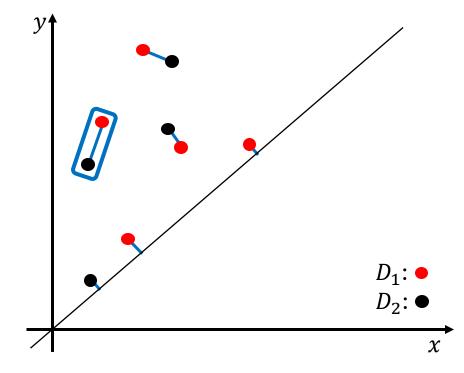
- The distance defined by such a "partial matching" is called the **bottleneck** distance, denoted $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$.
- $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$ being small means that we could find a close matching between those significant points in D_1,D_2 while those remaining points are "insignificant"

Blue lines: a "close" partial matching η



- The distance defined by such a "partial matching" is called the **bottleneck** distance, denoted $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$.
- $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)$ being small means that we could find a close matching between those significant points in D_1,D_2 while those remaining points are "insignificant"

Blue lines: a "close" partial matching η



Let η be a partial matching between D_1 and D_2 . We define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:

Let η be a partial matching between D_1 and D_2 . We define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:

1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{p,q \text{ matched in } \eta} \{d_{\infty}(p,q)\}$$

Let η be a partial matching between D_1 and D_2 . We define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:

1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{p,q \text{ matched in } \eta}\{d_\infty(p,q)\}$$
 where $d_\infty(p,q)=\max\{|b_1-d_1|,|b_2-d_2|\}$ for $p=(b_1,d_1),q=(b_2,d_2)$

Let η be a partial matching between D_1 and D_2 . We define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:

1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{p,q \text{ matched in }\eta}\{d_\infty(p,q)\}$$
 where $d_\infty(p,q)=\max\{|b_1-d_1|,|b_2-d_2|\}$ for $p=(b_1,d_1),q=(b_2,d_2)$

2. Maximum length d-b (aka. distance to diagonal) of each unmatched point (b,d)

Let η be a partial matching between D_1 and D_2 . We define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:

1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{p,q \text{ matched in }\eta}\{d_\infty(p,q)\}$$
 where $d_\infty(p,q)=\max\{|b_1-d_1|,|b_2-d_2|\}$ for $p=(b_1,d_1),q=(b_2,d_2)$

2. Maximum length d-b (aka. distance to diagonal) of each unmatched point (b,d)

The **bottleneck distance** is then defined as follows:

$$d_{\rm B}(D_1, D_2) = \min_{\eta \text{ over all partial matchings}} \{cost(\eta)\}$$

aka. the minimum cost of all partial matchings

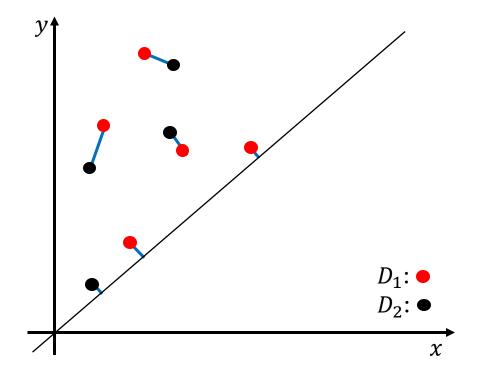
• The bottleneck distance between two PDs being small means that there is a "close" partial matching such that:

- The bottleneck distance between two PDs being small means that there is a "close" partial matching such that:
 - Each two matched points in the two PDs are close to each other (their L_{∞} -distance is small)

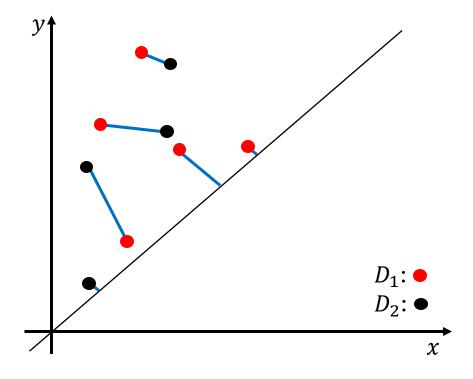
- The bottleneck distance between two PDs being small means that there is a "close" partial matching such that:
 - Each two matched points in the two PDs are close to each other (their L_{∞} -distance is small)
 - Each unmatched point is "insignificant" (length is small) so we can "ignore" them

- The bottleneck distance between two PDs being small means that there is a "close" partial matching such that:
 - Each two matched points in the two PDs are close to each other (their L_{∞} -distance is small)
 - Each unmatched point is "insignificant" (length is small) so we can "ignore" them
- So overall the two PDs are close

• The following is a "close" partial matching (with small cost) which achieves the bottleneck distance between D_1 , D_2 (aka. $d_{\rm B}(D_1,D_2)=cost(\eta)$)



 The following is a partial matching where the max distance between matched points is high



Stability Theorem for Persistent Homology

• Stability Theorem: For any two functions $f,g:X\to\mathbb{R}$, one has $d_{\mathbb{R}}(PD(f),PD(g))\leq \|f-g\|_{\infty}$

Stability Theorem for Persistent Homology

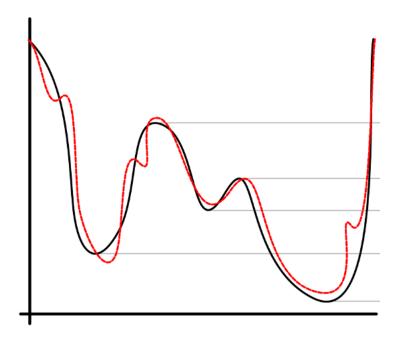
• Stability Theorem: For any two functions $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$, one has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD(f), PD(g)) \le \|f - g\|_{\infty}$$

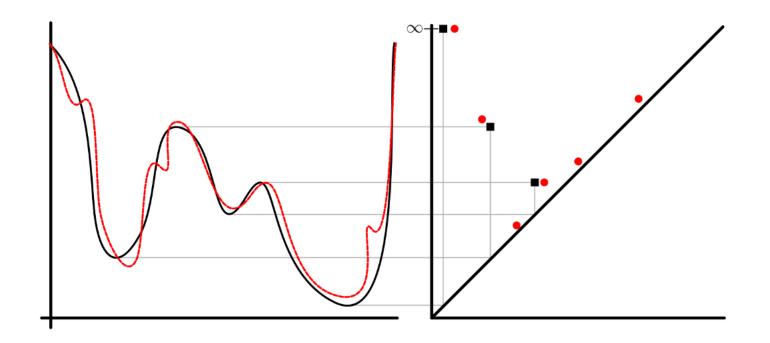
• The PD(f), PD(g) above indicates the PD derived by taking the sublevelset filtration of the function

• Stability Theorem: For any two functions $f,g:X\to\mathbb{R}$, one has $d_{\mathbb{R}}(PD(f),PD(g))\leq \|f-g\|_{\infty}$

• The PD(f), PD(g) above indicates the PD derived by taking the sublevelset filtration of the function



- Stability Theorem: For any two functions $f,g:X\to\mathbb{R}$, one has $d_{\mathbb{R}}(PD(f),PD(g))\leq \|f-g\|_{\infty}$
- The PD(f), PD(g) above indicates the PD derived by taking the sublevelset filtration of the function



- Stability Theorem: For any two functions $f,g:X\to\mathbb{R}$, one has $d_{\mathbb{R}}(PD(f),PD(g))\leq \|f-g\|_{\infty}$
- The PD(f), PD(g) above indicates the PD derived by taking the sublevelset filtration of the function

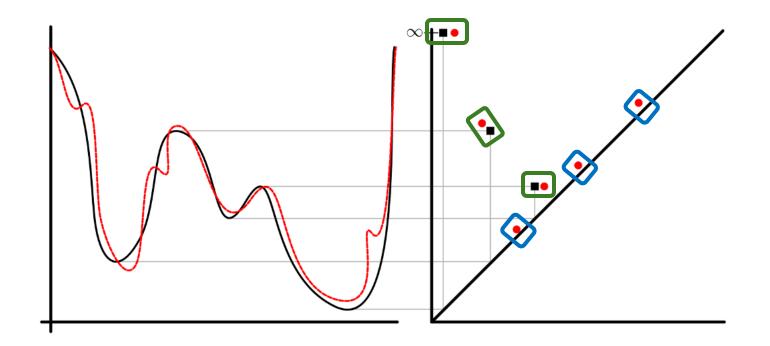


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

 We also have that the local minimums and maximums that create and destroy the 0d gaps (holes) correspond in the two functions

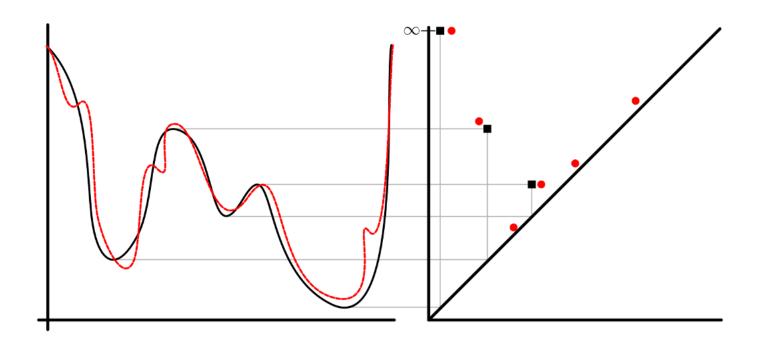


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

 We also have that the local minimums and maximums that create and destroy the 0d gaps (holes) correspond in the two functions

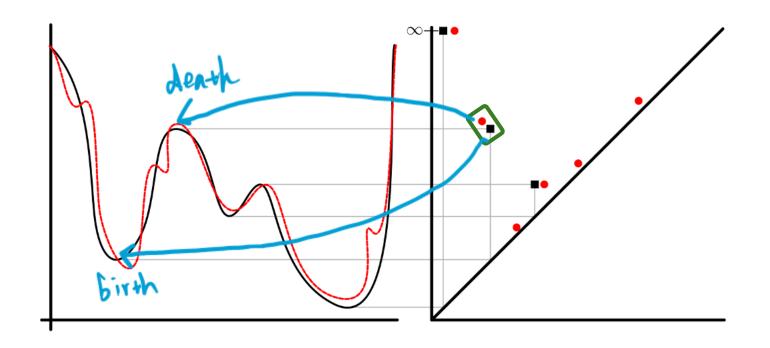


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

 We also have that the local minimums and maximums that create and destroy the 0d gaps (holes) correspond in the two functions

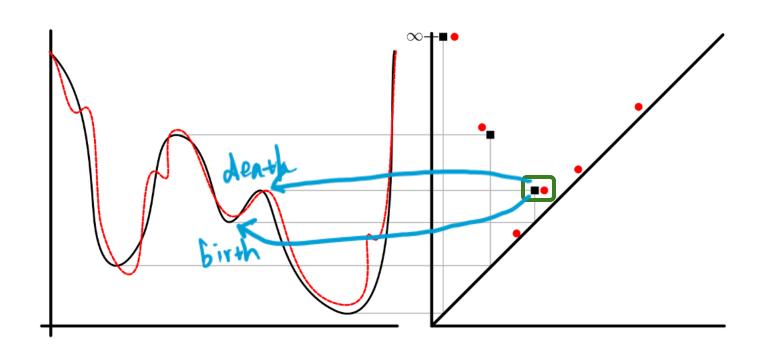


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

• Furthermore, the three points in the PD of red curve are close to diagonal --- hence, they are "insignificant" and are typically consider "noise" in TDA

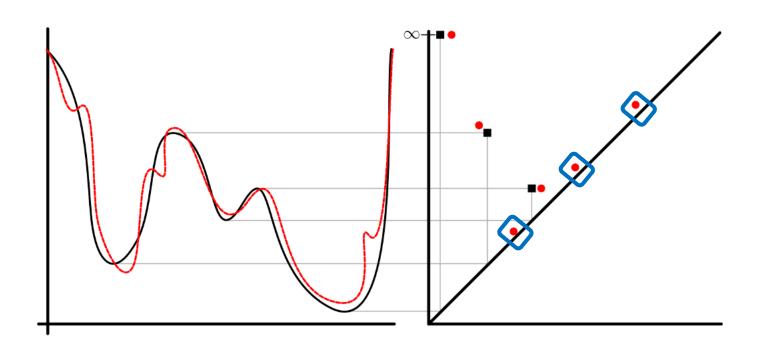


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

- Furthermore, the three points in the PD of red curve are close to diagonal --hence, they are "insignificant" and are typically consider "noise" in TDA
- This also corresponds to the fact that the red curve is more noisy than the black one

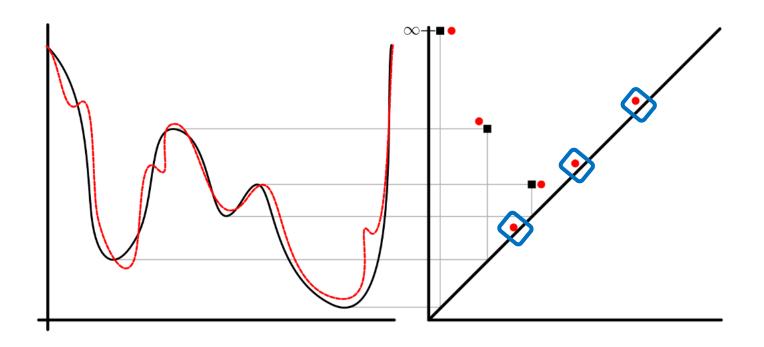


Figure from: Bendich et al. Topological and statistical behavior classifiers for tracking applications

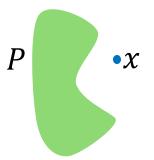
- So far, we have addressed the stability of PD for functions
- But there is another important type of data which is point cloud ---- a stability result for it would also be helpful
- We are going to frame the stability for point clouds in terms of the stability for functions

- So far, we have addressed the stability of PD for functions
- But there is another important type of data which is point cloud ---- a stability result for it would also be helpful
- We are going to frame the stability for point clouds in terms of the stability for functions
- First, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and an arbitrary point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define distance between x and P as the minimum distance of x with any point in P:

$$d(x,P) = \min_{p \in P} \{d(x,p)\}\$$

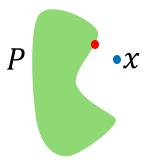
- So far, we have addressed the stability of PD for functions
- But there is another important type of data which is point cloud ---- a stability result for it would also be helpful
- We are going to frame the stability for point clouds in terms of the stability for functions
- First, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and an arbitrary point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define distance between x and P as the minimum distance of x with any point in P:

$$d(x,P) = \min_{p \in P} \{d(x,p)\}\$$



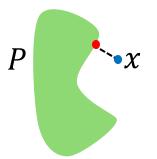
- So far, we have addressed the stability of PD for functions
- But there is another important type of data which is point cloud ---- a stability result for it would also be helpful
- We are going to frame the stability for point clouds in terms of the stability for functions
- First, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and an arbitrary point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define distance between x and P as the minimum distance of x with any point in P:

$$d(x,P) = \min_{p \in P} \{d(x,p)\}\$$



- So far, we have addressed the stability of PD for functions
- But there is another important type of data which is point cloud ---- a stability result for it would also be helpful
- We are going to frame the stability for point clouds in terms of the stability for functions
- First, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and an arbitrary point $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define distance between x and P as the minimum distance of x with any point in P:

$$d(x,P) = \min_{p \in P} \{d(x,p)\}\$$



• Now, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, we define a function $f_P \colon \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ called the distance field of P as:

$$f_P(x) = d(x, P) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

• Now, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, we define a function $f_P : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ called the distance field of P as:

$$f_P(x) = d(x, P) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

• Observation: $f_P^{-1}(-\infty, \alpha] = \bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$, aka. the sublevelset of f_P with value α equals the union of the α -balls around points in P

• Now, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, we define a function $f_P : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ called the distance field of P as:

$$f_P(x) = d(x, P) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- Observation: $f_P^{-1}(-\infty, \alpha] = \bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$, aka. the sublevelset of f_P with value α equals the union of the α -balls around points in P
- The reason is that: A point x is in $\bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$ if and only if x is of a distance no more than α to a point in P

• Now, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, we define a function $f_P : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ called the distance field of P as:

$$f_P(x) = d(x, P) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- Observation: $f_P^{-1}(-\infty, \alpha] = \bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$, aka. the sublevelset of f_P with value α equals the union of the α -balls around points in P
- The reason is that: A point x is in $\bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$ if and only if x is of a distance no more than α to a point in P
- Hence, the distance of x to P is no more than α

• Now, given a point set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, we define a function $f_P : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ called the distance field of P as:

$$f_P(x) = d(x, P) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- Observation: $f_P^{-1}(-\infty, \alpha] = \bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$, aka. the sublevelset of f_P with value α equals the union of the α -balls around points in P
- The reason is that: A point x is in $\bigcup_{p \in P} B_{\alpha}(p)$ if and only if x is of a distance no more than α to a point in P
- Hence, the distance of x to P is no more than α
- Corollary: The above observation also means that $PD(f_P)$ equals the PD of the Čech filtration of P

- To frame the stability for PDs w.r.t to two different point clouds P and Q, we also need a distance between P and Q
- This is the famous **Hausdorff** distance

- To frame the stability for PDs w.r.t to two different point clouds P and Q, we also need a distance between P and Q
- This is the famous Hausdorff distance
- We first define the "unsymmetric Hausdorff" distance from P to Q as follows:

$$d_H^{unsym}(P,Q) = \max_{p \in P} \{d(p,Q)\}$$

aka. it is the maximum distance of any point in P to the whole set Q

- To frame the stability for PDs w.r.t to two different point clouds P and Q, we also need a distance between P and Q
- This is the famous Hausdorff distance
- We first define the "unsymmetric Hausdorff" distance from P to Q as follows:

$$d_H^{unsym}(P,Q) = \max_{p \in P} \{d(p,Q)\}$$

aka. it is the maximum distance of any point in P to the whole set Q

• As the name indicates, the previous distance is not symmetric, i.e.,

$$d_H^{unsym}(P,Q) \neq d_H^{unsym}(Q,P)$$

while a distance has to be symmetric

- To frame the stability for PDs w.r.t to two different point clouds P and Q, we also need a distance between P and Q
- This is the famous Hausdorff distance
- We first define the "unsymmetric Hausdorff" distance from P to Q as follows:

$$d_H^{unsym}(P,Q) = \max_{p \in P} \{d(p,Q)\}$$

aka. it is the maximum distance of any point in P to the whole set Q

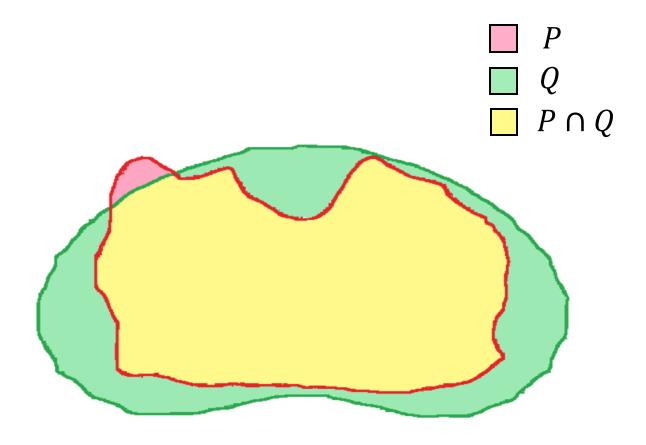
• As the name indicates, the previous distance is not symmetric, i.e.,

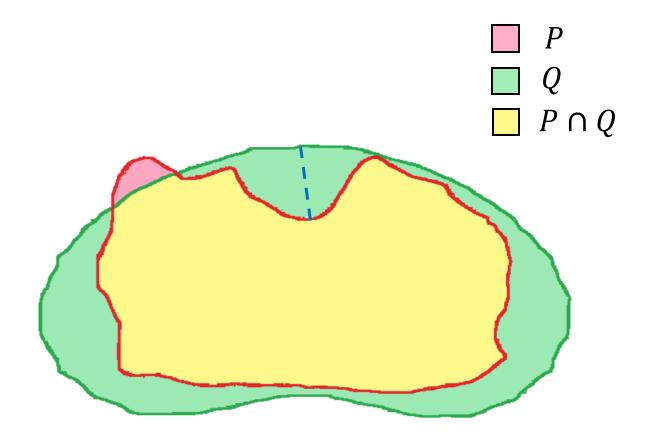
$$d_H^{unsym}(P,Q) \neq d_H^{unsym}(Q,P)$$

while a distance has to be symmetric

The Hausdorff distance is then the maximum of the two:

$$d_H(P,Q) = \max\{d_H^{unsym}(P,Q), d_H^{unsym}(Q,P)\}$$





• Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $\|f_P - f_Q\|_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $\|f_P f_Q\|_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

• we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) - d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$\| f_P - f_Q \|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.
- To show this, we show

$$d(x, P) - d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$$
 and $d(x, Q) - d(x, P) \le d_H(P, Q)$

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.
- To show this, we show

$$d(x, P) - d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$$
 and $d(x, Q) - d(x, P) \le d_H(P, Q)$

• We only show $d(x,P)-d(x,Q) \leq d_H(P,Q)$ and the other is similar

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.
- To show this, we show

$$d(x, P) - d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$$
 and $d(x, Q) - d(x, P) \le d_H(P, Q)$

- We only show $d(x, P) d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$ and the other is similar
- Let p be the point in P such that d(x, P) = d(x, p).

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.
- To show this, we show

$$d(x, P) - d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$$
 and $d(x, Q) - d(x, P) \le d_H(P, Q)$

- We only show $d(x,P)-d(x,Q) \leq d_H(P,Q)$ and the other is similar
- Let p be the point in P such that d(x, P) = d(x, p).
- Let q be the point in Q such that d(p, Q) = d(p, q).

- Fact: For two point clouds P and Q, one has $||f_P f_Q||_{\infty} \le d_H(P,Q)$
- Proof: Since

$$|| f_P - f_Q ||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |f_P(x) - f_Q(x)| \} = \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \{ |d(x, P) - d(x, Q)| \},$$

- we only need to show that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $|d(x,P) d(x,Q)| \le d_H(P,Q)$.
- To show this, we show

$$d(x, P) - d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$$
 and $d(x, Q) - d(x, P) \le d_H(P, Q)$

- We only show $d(x, P) d(x, Q) \le d_H(P, Q)$ and the other is similar
- Let p be the point in P such that d(x, P) = d(x, p).
- Let q be the point in Q such that d(p, Q) = d(p, q).
- Based on the definition of Hausdorff distance, we have

$$d(p,q) = d(p,Q) \le d_H(P,Q)$$

We then have

$$d(x,Q) \le d(x,q) \le d(x,p) + d(p,q) \le d(x,P) + d_H(P,Q)$$

with the second inequality due to the triangle inequality

We then have

$$d(x,Q) \le d(x,q) \le d(x,p) + d(p,q) \le d(x,P) + d_H(P,Q)$$

with the second inequality due to the triangle inequality

• We then have $d(x,Q) - d(x,P) \le d_H(P,Q)$

• Define $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{C}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{C}(P)$ is the Čech filtration of P

- Define $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{C}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{C}(P)$ is the Čech filtration of P
- Stability Theorem for Point Clouds: One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{C}ech}(P), PD_{\check{C}ech}(Q)) \leq d_{H}(P, Q)$$

- Define $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{C}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{C}(P)$ is the Čech filtration of P
- Stability Theorem for Point Clouds: One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{C}ech}(P), PD_{\check{C}ech}(Q)) \leq d_{H}(P, Q)$$

• Proof: First of all

$$PD_{\check{c}ech}(P) = PD(f_P)$$
 and $PD_{\check{c}ech}(Q) = PD(f_Q)$

based on previous corollary

- Define $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{C}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{C}(P)$ is the Čech filtration of P
- Stability Theorem for Point Clouds: One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{C}ech}(P), PD_{\check{C}ech}(Q)) \leq d_{H}(P, Q)$$

Proof: First of all

$$PD_{\check{c}ech}(P) = PD(f_P)$$
 and $PD_{\check{c}ech}(Q) = PD(f_Q)$

based on previous corollary

We then have

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{c}ech}(P), PD_{\check{c}ech}(Q)) = d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD(f_{P}), PD(f_{Q})) \le \|f_{P} - f_{Q}\|_{\infty} \le d_{H}(P, Q)$$

where the middle inequality is by previous stability theorem

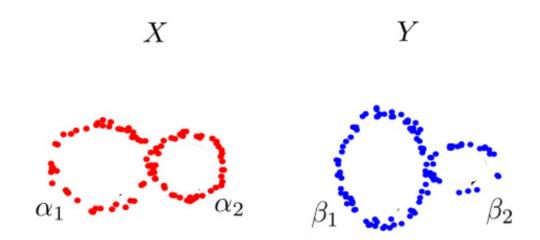
- Define $PD_{Rips}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{R}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{R}(P)$ is the Rips filtration of P
- Stability Theorem for Point Clouds (Vietoris-Rips): One has

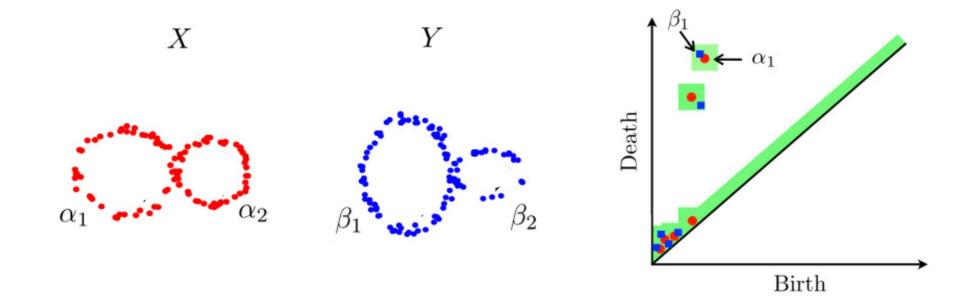
$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{Rips}(P), PD_{Rips}(Q)) \le d_{H}(P, Q)$$

- Define $PD_{Rips}(P) \coloneqq PD(\mathcal{R}(P))$ for a point cloud P and recall that $\mathcal{R}(P)$ is the Rips filtration of P
- Stability Theorem for Point Clouds (Vietoris-Rips): One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{Rips}(P), PD_{Rips}(Q)) \le d_{H}(P, Q)$$

 Proof of this needs the more advanced notion of "interleaving" stability and is beyond scope





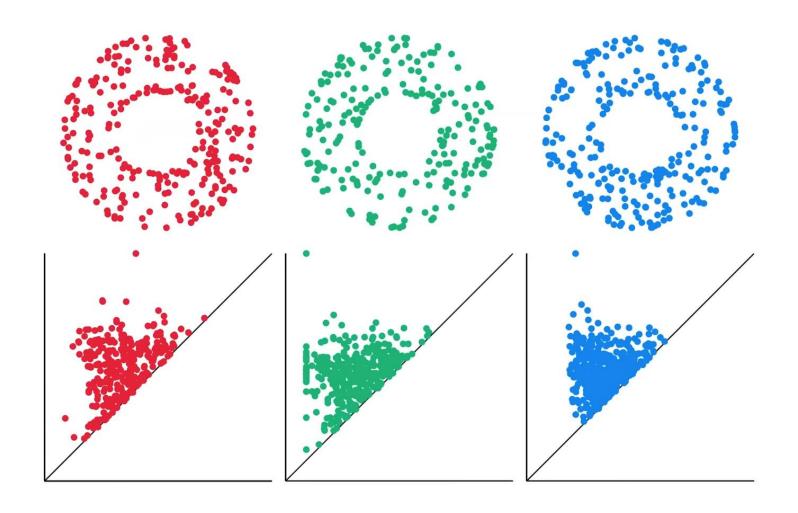


Figure from: Bastian Rieck: Topological Data Analysis for Machine Learning III: Topological Descriptors & How to Use Them (https://www.youtube.com/watch?app=desktop&v=7i1kabhl5IU)

• For a point cloud P, define $PD^{\log}_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ as the PD derived from $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ by taking the logarithm of the birth and death value for each point (with an arbitrary but fixed base)

- For a point cloud P, define $PD^{\log}_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ as the PD derived from $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ by taking the logarithm of the birth and death value for each point (with an arbitrary but fixed base)
- Define $PD_{Rips}^{\log}(P)$ similarly

- For a point cloud P, define $PD^{\log}_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ as the PD derived from $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ by taking the logarithm of the birth and death value for each point (with an arbitrary but fixed base)
- Define $PD_{Rips}^{\log}(P)$ similarly
- Theorem: One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{c}ech}^{\mathrm{log}}(P), PD_{Rips}^{\mathrm{log}}(P)) \leq \log 2$$

- For a point cloud P, define $PD^{\log}_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ as the PD derived from $PD_{\check{C}ech}(P)$ by taking the logarithm of the birth and death value for each point (with an arbitrary but fixed base)
- Define $PD_{Rips}^{\log}(P)$ similarly
- Theorem: One has

$$d_{\mathrm{B}}(PD_{\check{c}ech}^{\mathrm{log}}(P), PD_{Rips}^{\mathrm{log}}(P)) \le \log 2$$

 The theorem follows from the previous "interleaving" between Čech and Rips complexes (but details omitted)

$$\mathbb{C}^{\alpha}(P) \subseteq \mathbb{VR}^{\alpha}(P) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^{2\alpha}(P)$$

Computing bottleneck distance

- https://github.com/nihell/tutorialathon/blob/master/BottleneckTutorial.ipyn
 b
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4WswT9snTjc

Bottleneck distance

- Define a "partial matching" η :
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched"

Bottleneck distance

- Define a "partial matching" η :
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched"
- Define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:
 - 1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{x,y \text{ matched in }\eta}\{d_\infty(x,y)\}$$
 where $d_\infty(x,y)=\max\{|b_1-d_1|,|b_2-d_2|\}$ for $x=(b_1,d_1),y=(b_2,d_2)$

2. Maximum length d-b (aka. distance to diagonal) of each unmatched point (b,d)

Bottleneck distance

- Define a "partial matching" η :
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched"
- Define $cost(\eta)$ as the maximum of the two below:
 - 1. Maximum L_{∞} -distance of each two matched point p and q in D_1 , D_2 :

$$\max_{x,y \text{ matched in }\eta}\{d_\infty(x,y)\}$$
 where $d_\infty(x,y)=\max\{|b_1-d_1|,|b_2-d_2|\}$ for $x=(b_1,d_1),y=(b_2,d_2)$

- 2. Maximum length d-b (aka. distance to diagonal) of each unmatched point (b,d)
- The **bottleneck distance** is then defined as follows:

$$d_{\rm B}(D_1, D_2) = \min_{\eta \text{ over all partial matchings}} \{cost(\eta)\}$$

aka. the minimum cost of all partial matchings

Wasserstein distance

- Define a "partial matching" η :
 - 1. Select the same number of points from D_1 and D_2 : let these points "perfectly" match to each other
 - 2. For the remaining points, we let them be "unmatched"
- Define $cost_p(\eta)$ as:

$$\int_{x,y}^{p} \sum_{\text{matched in } \eta} \left(d_p(x,y) \right)^p + \sum_{(b,d) \text{ unmatched in } \eta} (d-b)^p$$

where
$$(d_p(x,y))^p = (b_1 - d_1)^p + (b_2 - d_2)^p$$
 for $x = (b_1, d_1), y = (b_2, d_2)$

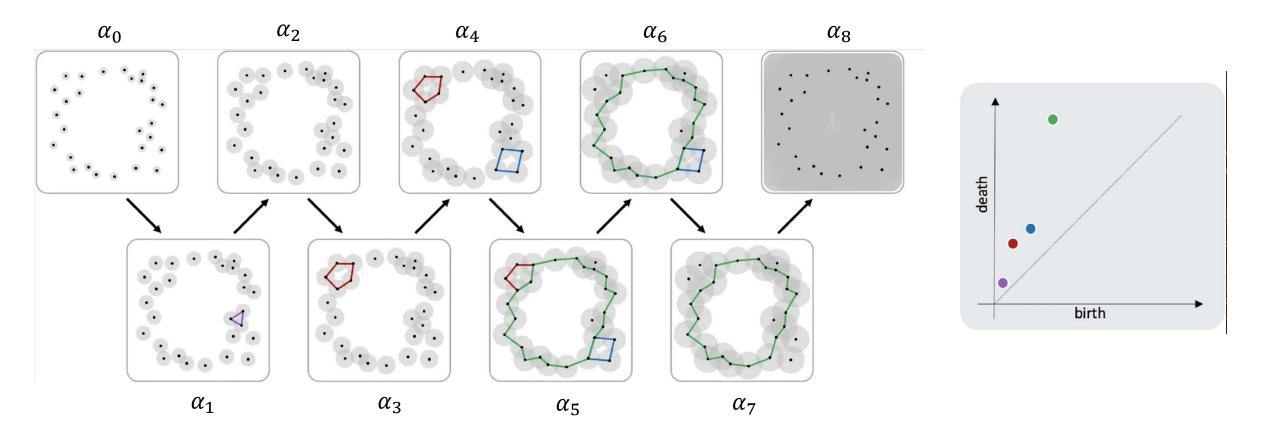
• The p-th Wasserstein distance is then defined as follows:

$$d_p^W(D_1, D_2) = \min_{\eta \text{ over all partial matchings}} \{cost_p(\eta)\}$$

aka. the minimum cost of all partial matchings

• A practical use of drawing a PD as a barcode is that barcode provides a way to "visualize" the Betti number across the different range (value α)

- A practical use of drawing a PD as a barcode is that barcode provides a way to "visualize" the Betti number across the different range (value α)
- For the previous filtration on a point cloud and its 1d PD



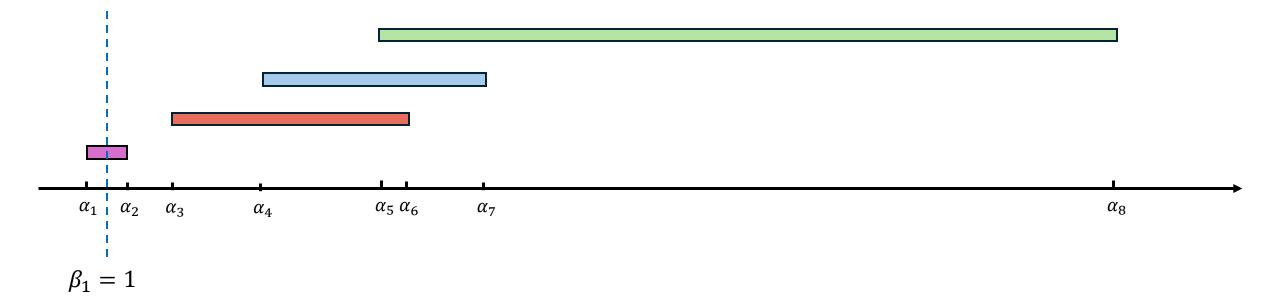
• The following is its 1d barcode



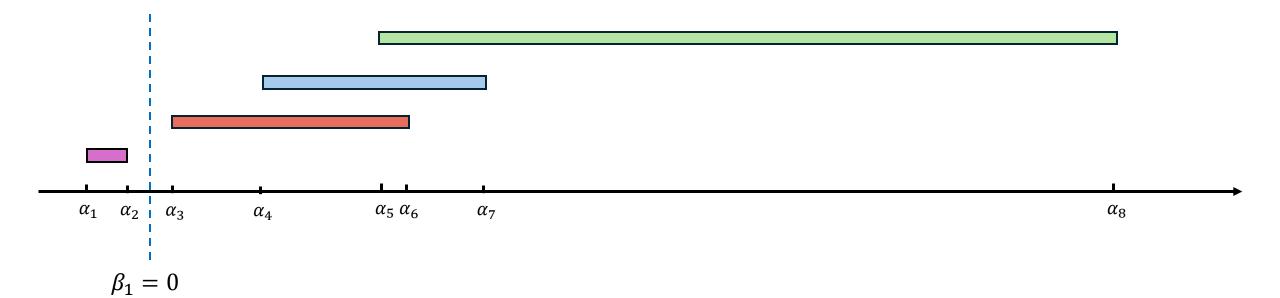
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



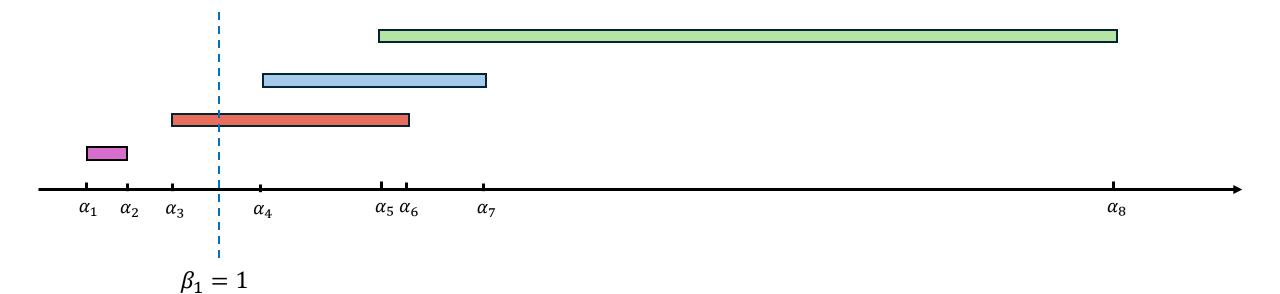
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



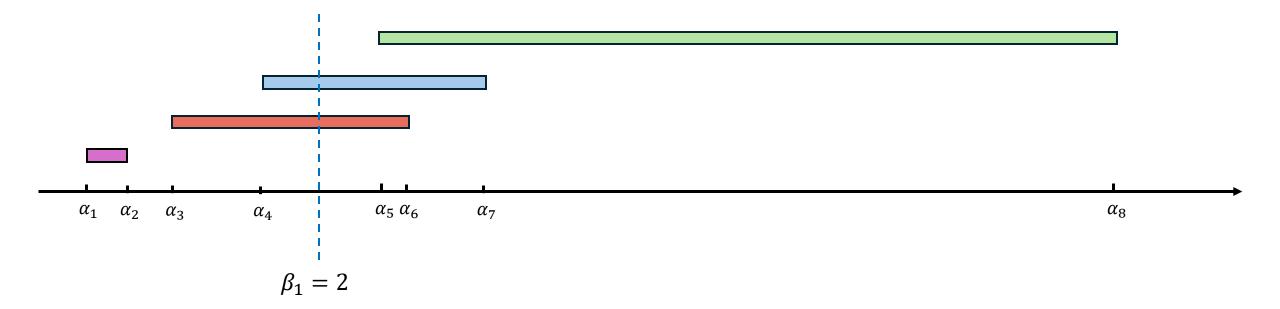
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



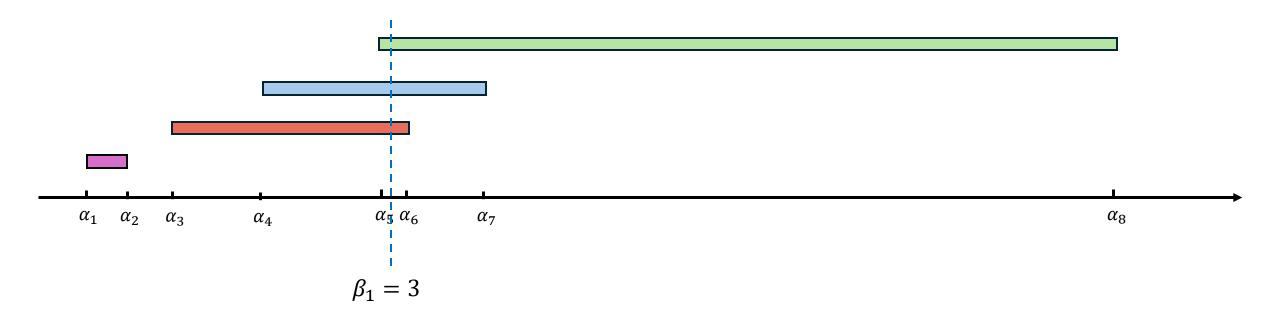
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



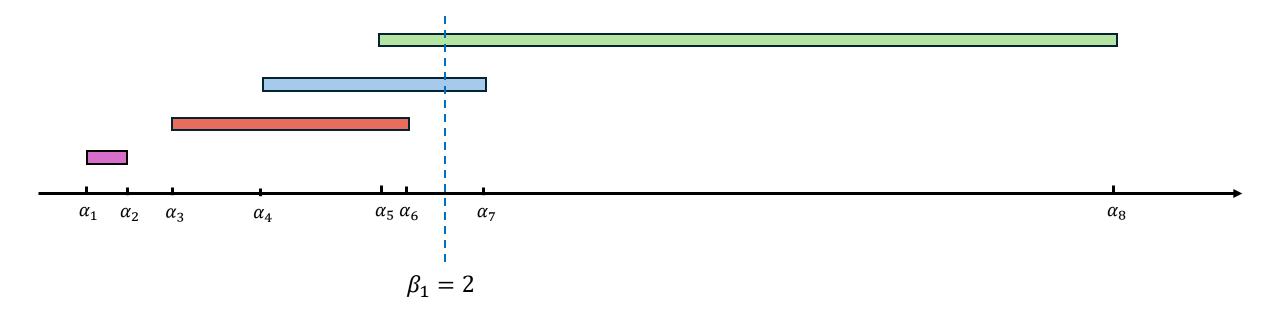
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



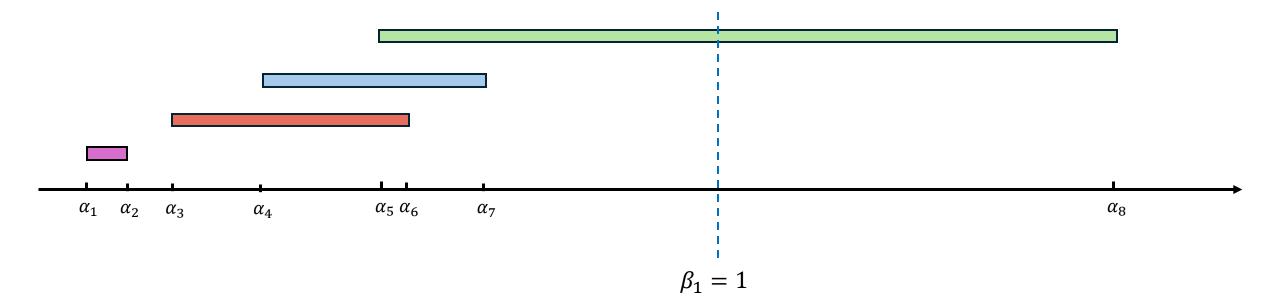
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



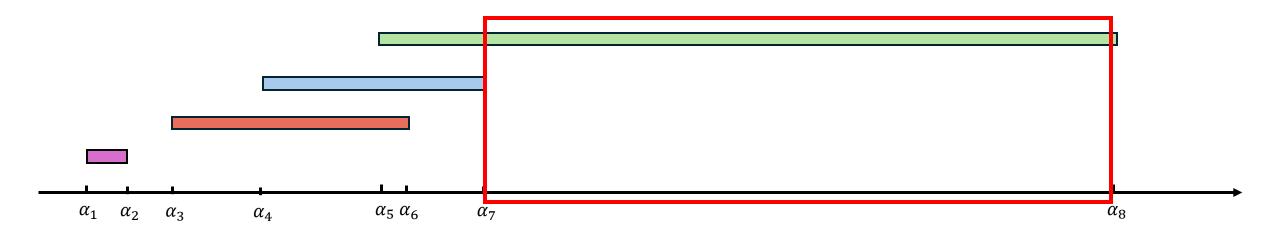
- The following is its 1d barcode
- Observe, if you count the number of intervals (bars) containing a certain value, then it gives you the 1st Betti for the complex corresponding to the range (value α) in the filtration



 More powerfully, if you look at the range of the values where the Betti number stays the same, and take the longest range, that would give you the most probably inference of the Betti number



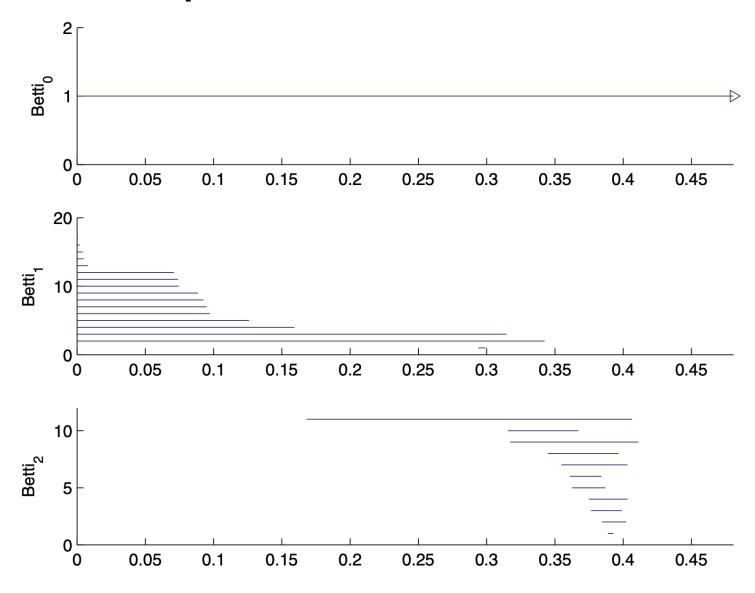
 More powerfully, if you look at the range of the values where the Betti number stays the same, and take the longest range, that would give you the most probably inference of the Betti number



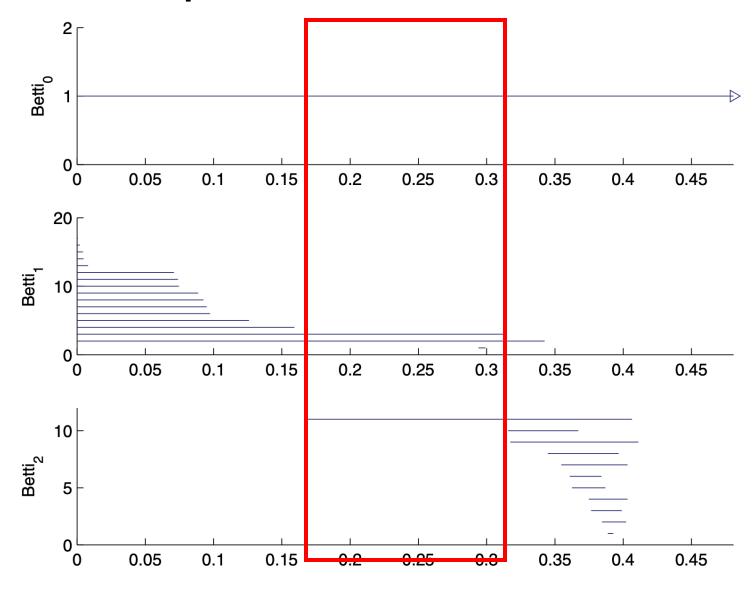
- More powerfully, if you look at the range of the values where the Betti number stays the same, and take the longest range, that would give you the most probably inference of the Betti number
- So most probably, for the previous point cloud, $\beta_1=1$ (complying out intuitions)



Another example



Another example

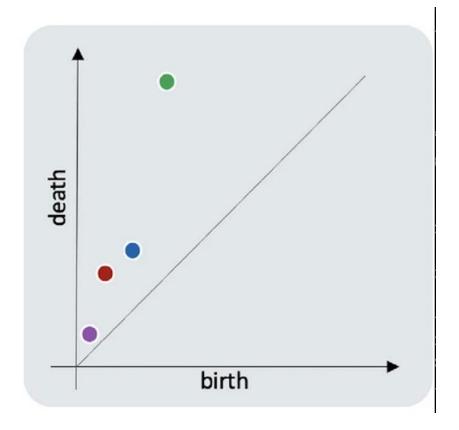


Counting Betti number using PD

• Now we know that taking the intersection of a vertical line with the intervals in the barcode gives you the Betti number at the value of the vertical line, what about PD? Can we do similar things in PD?

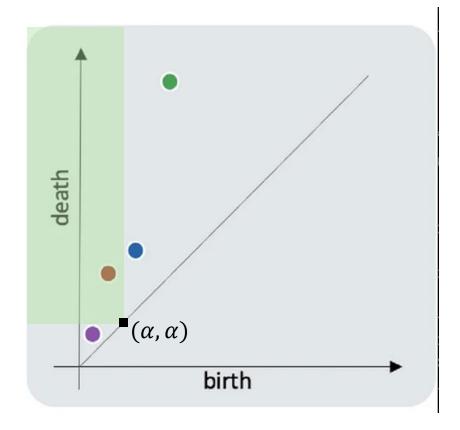
Counting Betti number using PD

• It turns out that, the number of intervals intersecting a value α as manifested on the PD is the number of pointing in the upper-left quadrant of the point (α, α) on the diagonal



Counting Betti number using PD

• It turns out that, the number of intervals intersecting a value α as manifested on the PD is the number of pointing in the upper-left quadrant of the point (α, α) on the diagonal

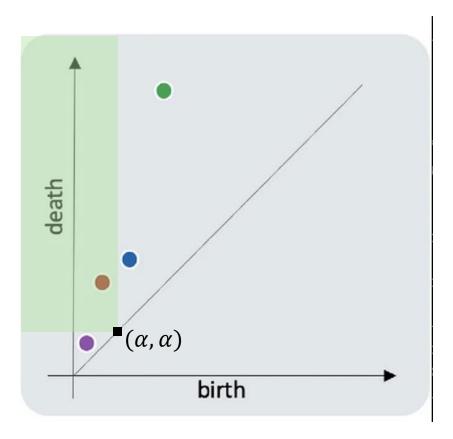


On barcode

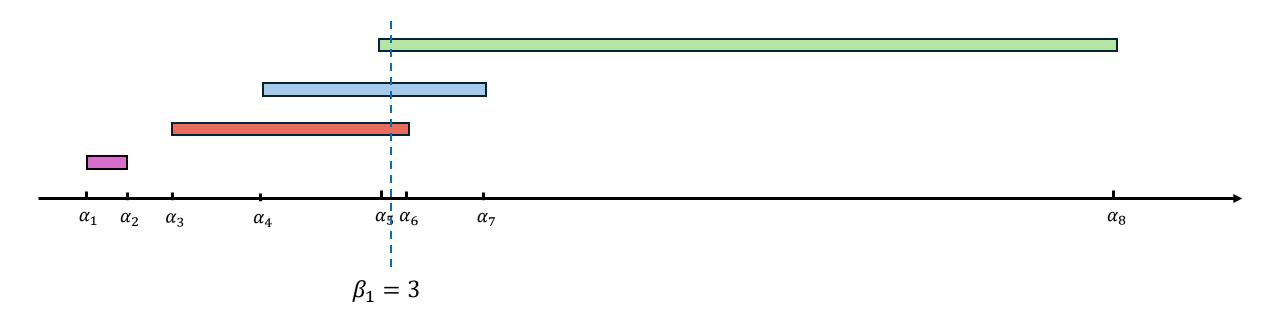


On PD

• $\alpha_3 < \alpha < \alpha_4$

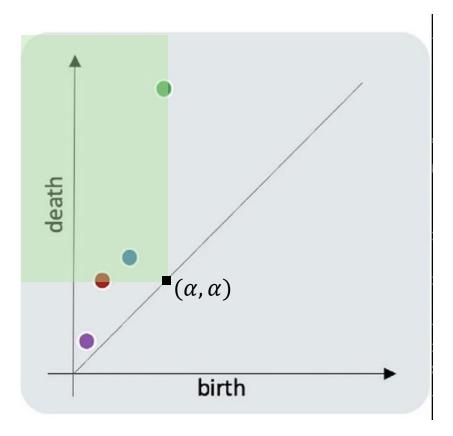


On Barcode



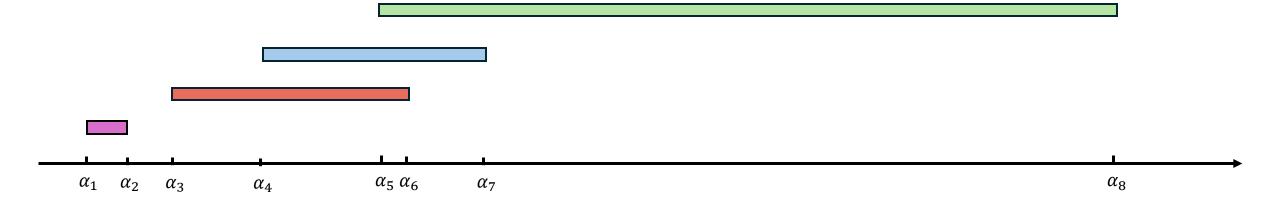
On PD

• $\alpha_5 < \alpha < \alpha_6$



- A typically belief in TDA is that people often think of features (intervals) with long lifespans as robust, important features, whereas a short lifespan may be an indication that the feature is less essential and may in fact be due to noise in data
- A commonly adopted approach in using PD/barcode for inference is to find a "cut-off" for the short intervals (noise), and focus on the long intervals (actual features) only

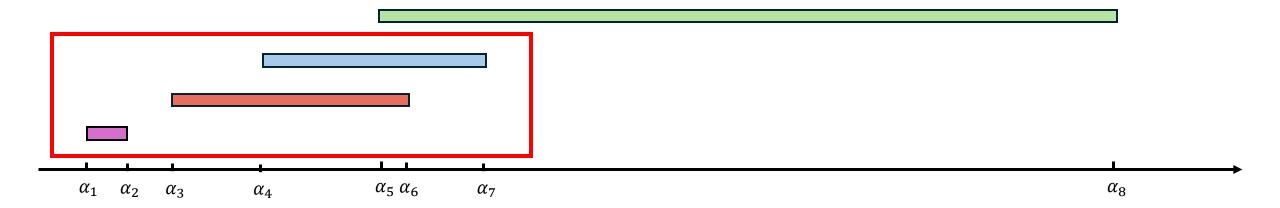
- A typically belief in TDA is that people often think of features (intervals) with long lifespans as robust, important features, whereas a short lifespan may be an indication that the feature is less essential and may in fact be due to noise in data
- A commonly adopted approach in using PD/barcode for inference is to find a "cut-off" for the short intervals (noise), and focus on the long intervals (actual features) only



- A typically belief in TDA is that people often think of features (intervals) with long lifespans as robust, important features, whereas a short lifespan may be an indication that the feature is less essential and may in fact be due to noise in data
- A commonly adopted approach in using PD/barcode for inference is to find a "cut-off" for the short intervals (noise), and focus on the long intervals (actual features) only



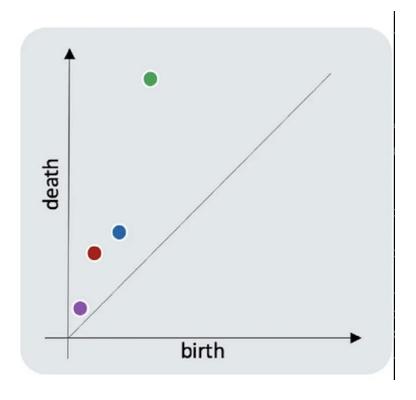
- A typically belief in TDA is that people often think of features (intervals) with long lifespans as robust, important features, whereas a short lifespan may be an indication that the feature is less essential and may in fact be due to noise in data
- A commonly adopted approach in using PD/barcode for inference is to find a "cut-off" for the short intervals (noise), and focus on the long intervals (actual features) only



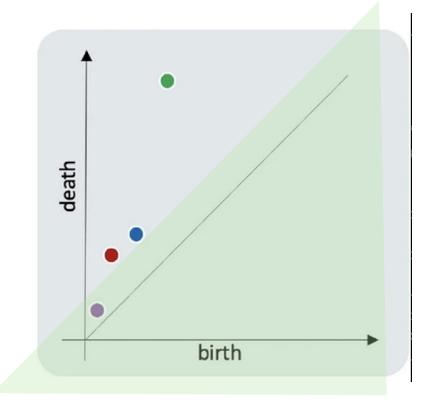
• The interpretation for the length "cut-off" in the PD is that we ignore all points which are within a certain distance from the diagonal

- The interpretation for the length "cut-off" in the PD is that we ignore all points which are within a certain distance from the diagonal
- This is equivalent to take the lower-half space of a 45° degree line (parallel to disgonal)

- The interpretation for the length "cut-off" in the PD is that we ignore all points which are within a certain distance from the diagonal
- This is equivalent to take the lower-half space of a 45° degree line (parallel to disgonal)



- The interpretation for the length "cut-off" in the PD is that we ignore all points which are within a certain distance from the diagonal
- This is equivalent to take the lower-half space of a 45° degree line (parallel to disgonal)



- The interpretation for the length "cut-off" in the PD is that we ignore all points which are within a certain distance from the diagonal
- This is equivalent to take the lower-half space of a 45° degree line (parallel to disgonal)

