

TDA - Fall 2025

Maps



Recap

- Overview of class
 - ↳ questions?
- At some point, check HW page for overview of the class project
- Office hours:

Question from last time

Metric space:

a pair (T, d) , where T is a set and
 $d: T \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies other: $d(p, q) \geq 0$

$$\bullet d(p, q) = 0 \Leftrightarrow p = q$$

$$\bullet d(p, q) = d(q, p) \quad \forall p, q \in T$$

$$\text{triangle inequality: } \bullet d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q) \quad \forall p, q, r \in T$$

Sometimes a 4th: $\forall p, q \quad d(p, q) \geq 0$

But: the first 3 imply the 4th

Why?

A topological space is **disconnected**
if \exists 2 disjoint nonempty open sets
 $U, V \in T$ s.t. $T = U \cup V$.

(The space is **connected** if it is
not disconnected.)

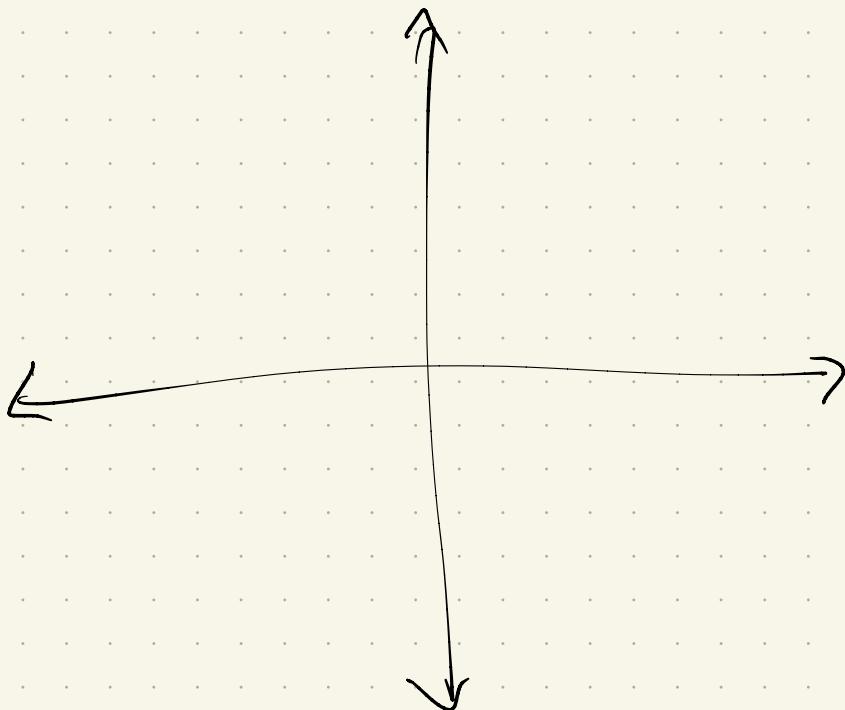
Ex: $A = (1, 2) \cup (3, 4) \subset \mathbb{R}$

Note: **Subspace topology**: Given $U \subseteq T$,
 U can inherit topology from T via
 $\{x \cap U \mid x \in T\}$

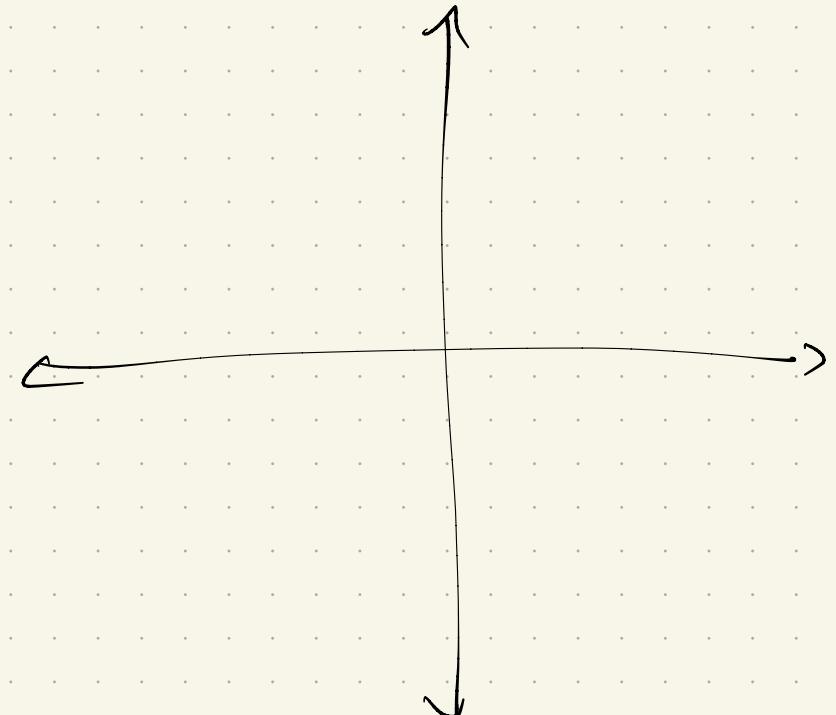
Maps

A function $f: T \rightarrow U$ is **continuous** if
for every open set $Q \subseteq U$, $f^{-1}(Q)$ is open.
(These are also called **maps**.)

Example: $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x) = x^2$



Example: $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $g(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$



A map $f: T \rightarrow U$ is an embedding
of T into U if g is injective.

injective, or 1-1:

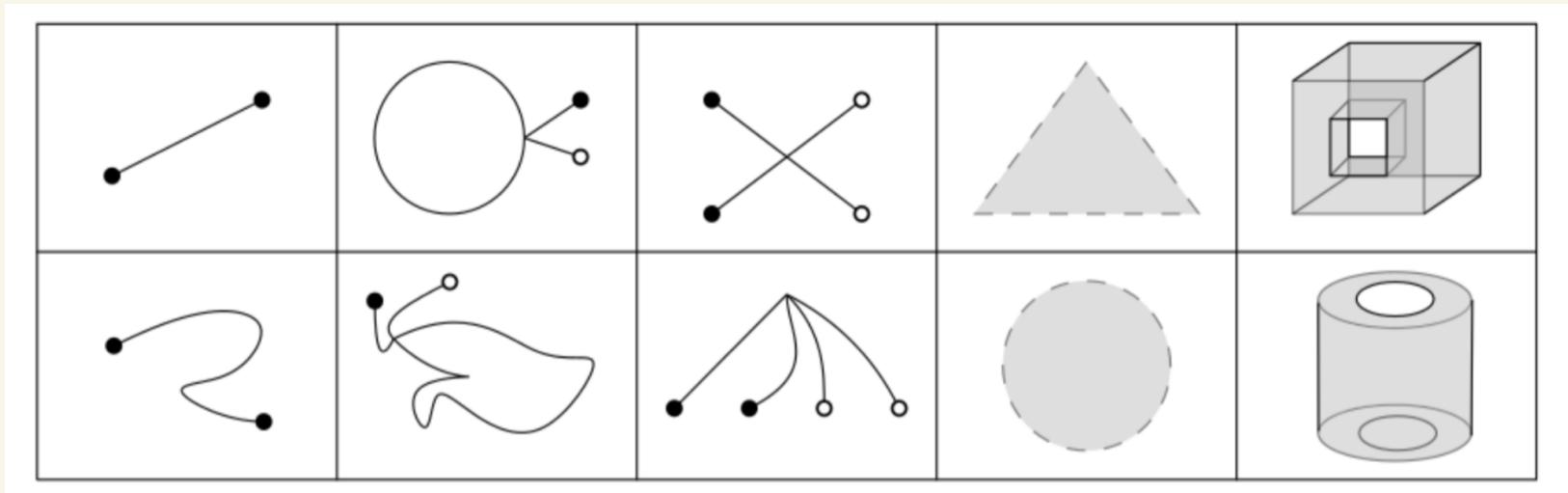
Example: $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = x^3$$

Example: $g: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$

Let T & U be topological spaces.
A **homeomorphism** $h: T \rightarrow U$ is a bijective
map whose inverse is also continuous.
(We say T & U are **homeomorphic** if
such an h exists.)

Examples:



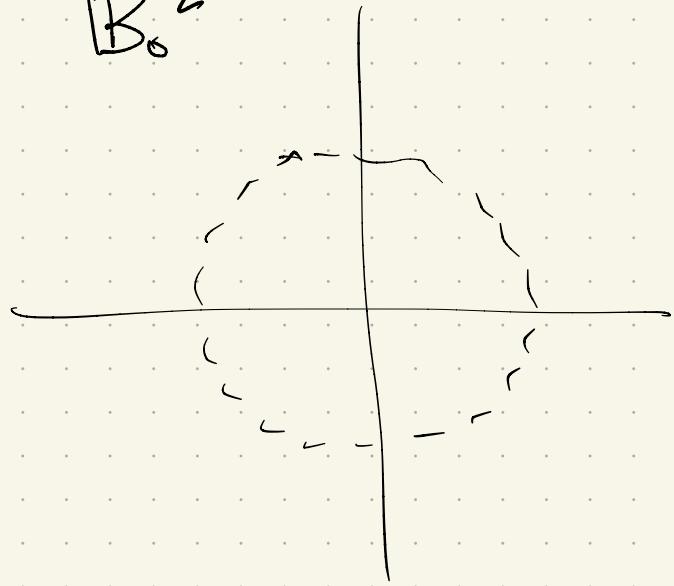
Note: requires construction of a function!

Example: open d-ball B_0^d and \mathbb{R}^d

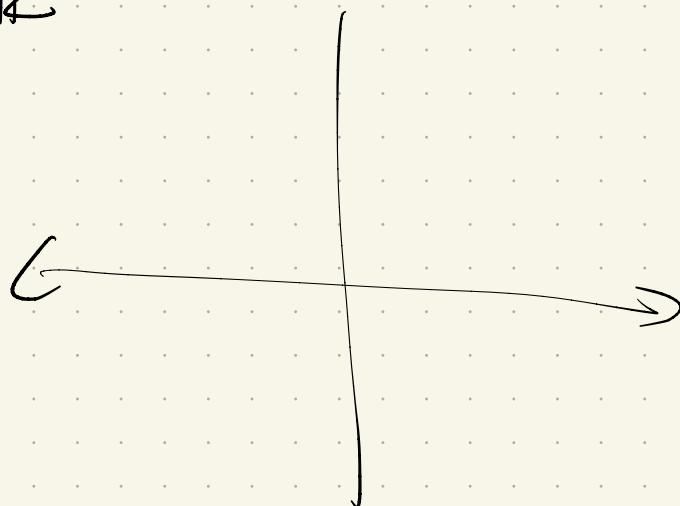
$$h(x) = \frac{1}{1-\|x\|} \cdot x$$

$$(so \ h^{-1}(y) = \frac{\sqrt{1+4\|y\|^2}-1}{2\|y\|^2} \cdot y \text{ if } y \neq 0, \text{ and } = 0 \text{ if } y = 0)$$

B_0^2



\mathbb{R}^2



For nice enough spaces, a "cheap trick":

Proposition

If T & U are compact metric spaces,
every bijective map $T \rightarrow U$ has
a continuous inverse.

Isotopy

When T, U are subspaces of a common topological space, can study something stronger:

An isotopy connecting $T \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d + U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$
is a map $\xi: T \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ where

- $\xi(T, 0) = T$

- $\xi(T, 1) = U$

- $\forall t \in [0, 1]$, $\xi(\cdot, t)$ is a homeomorphism from T to its image

Ambient isotopy: map $\xi: \mathbb{R}^d \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$

Examples: For open d-ball again:

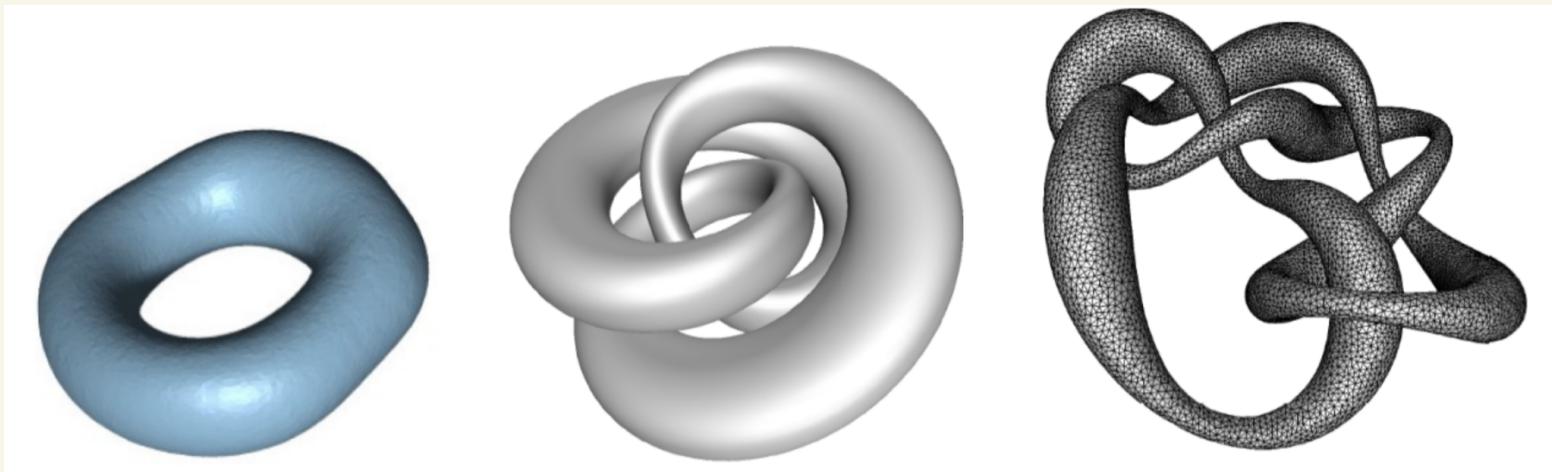
Consider $\xi(x, t) = \frac{1 - (1-t)\|x\|}{1 - \|x\|} \cdot \bar{x}$

If $t=0$:

If $t=1$:

So B^d & R^d are isotopic.

Homeomorphism \ll Isotopy \ll ambient
isotopy:



Obstruction comes from the ambient
space: $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus$ knot here

Homotopy

Consider maps $g: X \rightarrow U$ and $h: X \rightarrow U$.

A homotopy is a map $H: X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow U$

such that $H(\cdot, 0) = g$ and $H(\cdot, 1) = h$

Example:

$g: B_0^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ inclusion map $h(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}$

$h: B_0^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$, $h(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$

homotopy: $H(x, t) = (1-t) \cdot \vec{x}$

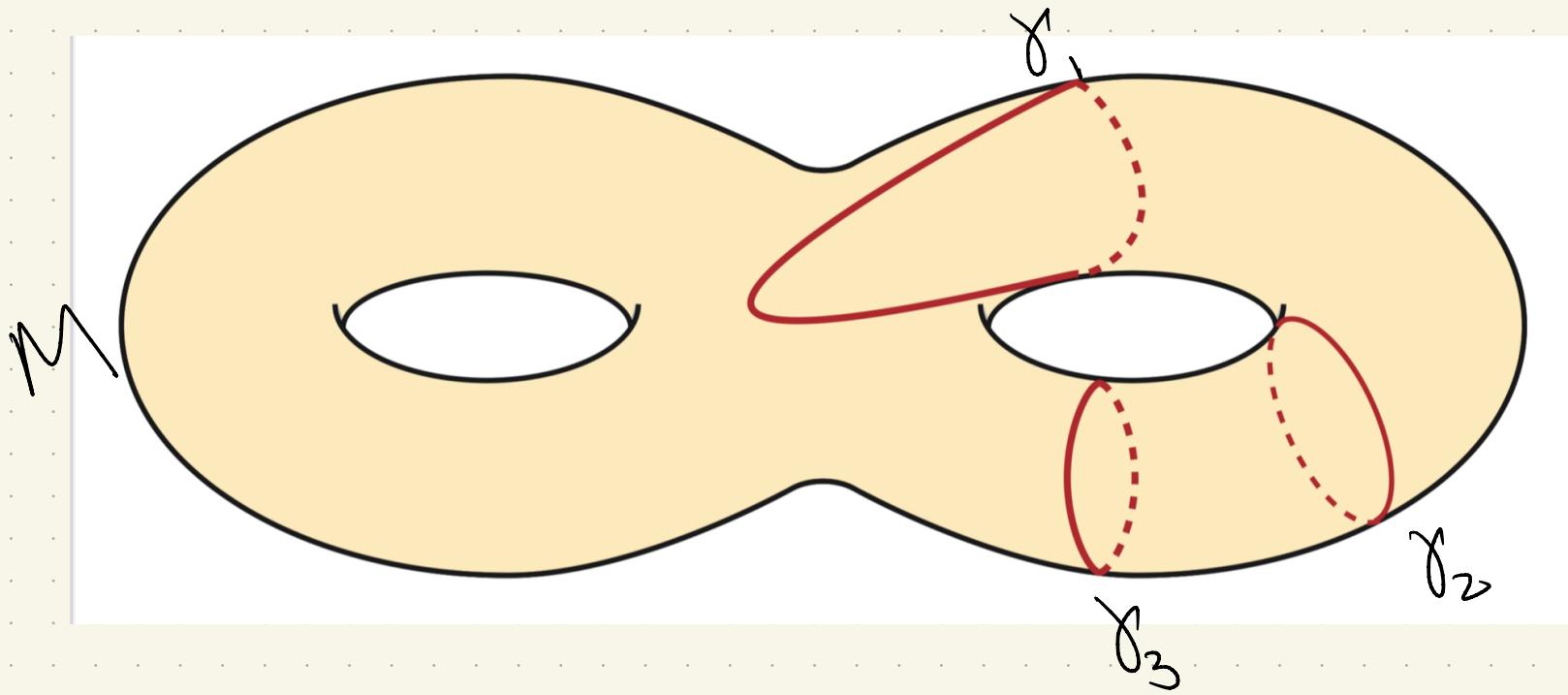
check: $H(\cdot, 0)$

$H(\cdot, 1)$

& between:

Another: Curves on Surfaces

$$\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3: S^1 \rightarrow M$$

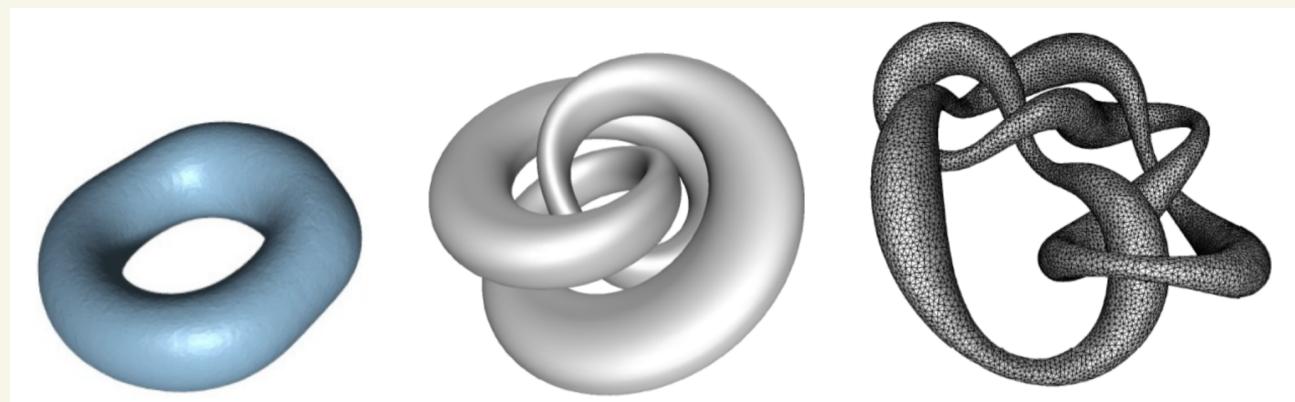


Here, homotopy $H: S^1 \times [0, 1] \rightarrow M$

Homotopy equivalence

Two topological spaces T & M are homotopy equivalent if $\exists g: T \rightarrow M$ and $h: M \rightarrow T$ such that $h \circ g$ and $g \circ h$ are homotopic to identity maps

Example:



Another: B_0^2 and any point p .

$$h: B_0^2 \rightarrow \{p\}, \quad h(x) = p$$

$$g: \{p\} \rightarrow B_0^2, \text{ with } g(p) = q$$

(an arbitrary point in B_0^2)

$$\underline{h \circ g}: \{p\} \rightarrow \{p\}$$

$$\underline{g \circ h}: B_0^2 \rightarrow B_0^2$$

sends every $x \in B_0^2$ to q

$$\text{Homotopy: } H(x, t) = (1-t) \cdot q + t \cdot x$$

at $t=0$:

at $t=1$:

Retracts

Consider T a topological space, &
 $U \subseteq T$ a subspace.

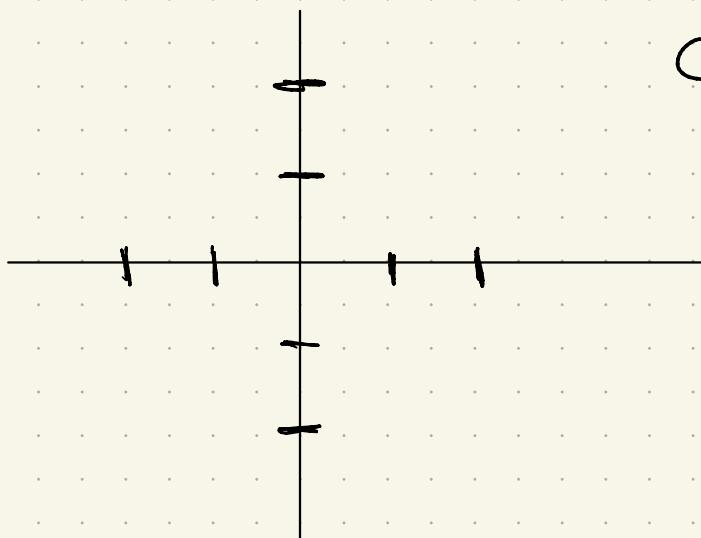
A retraction r of T to U is a

map $r: T \rightarrow U$ s.t. $r(x) = x \quad \forall x \in U$.

Example: annulus $A = \{(0, r) \mid 1 \leq r \leq 2\}$
and $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$

circle $S^1 = \{(0, 1) \mid \theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$

How to make r ?



Deformation Retract

$U \subseteq T$ is a deformation retract if the identity map on T can be continuously deformed to a retraction with no change to points in U . More precisely:

\exists homotopy $R: T \times [0, 1] \rightarrow T$ s.t.

- $R(\cdot, 0) = \text{Id}_T$
- $R(\cdot, 1)$ is a retraction $T \rightarrow U$
- $R(x, t) = x$ for every $x \in U$ and $t \in [0, 1]$.

Try previous example:

annulus $A = \{(0, r) \mid 1 \leq r \leq 2$
and $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$

circle $S^1 = \{(0, 1) \mid \theta \in [0, 2\pi]\}$

Set $R((0, r), t) = (0, (1-t)r + t)$

Check 3 things:

If $t=0$:

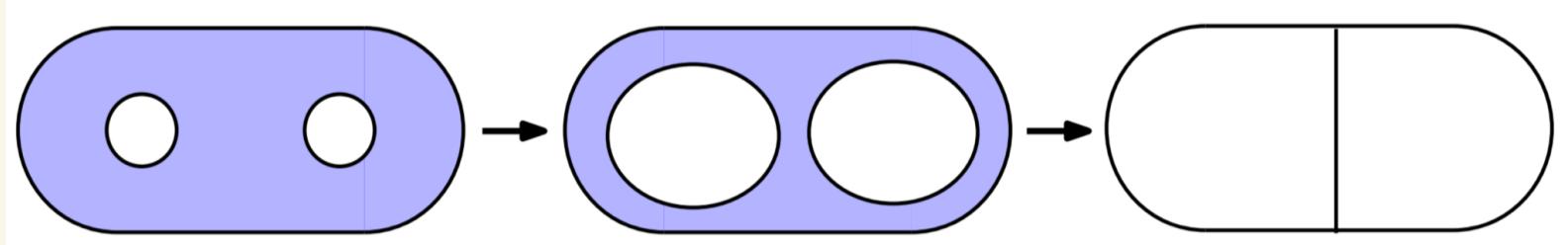
If $t=1$

$\Rightarrow R((0, 1), t) =$

Why care??

Theorem If U is a deformation retract
of Π , then $\Pi + U$ are homotopy
equivalent.

Ex:



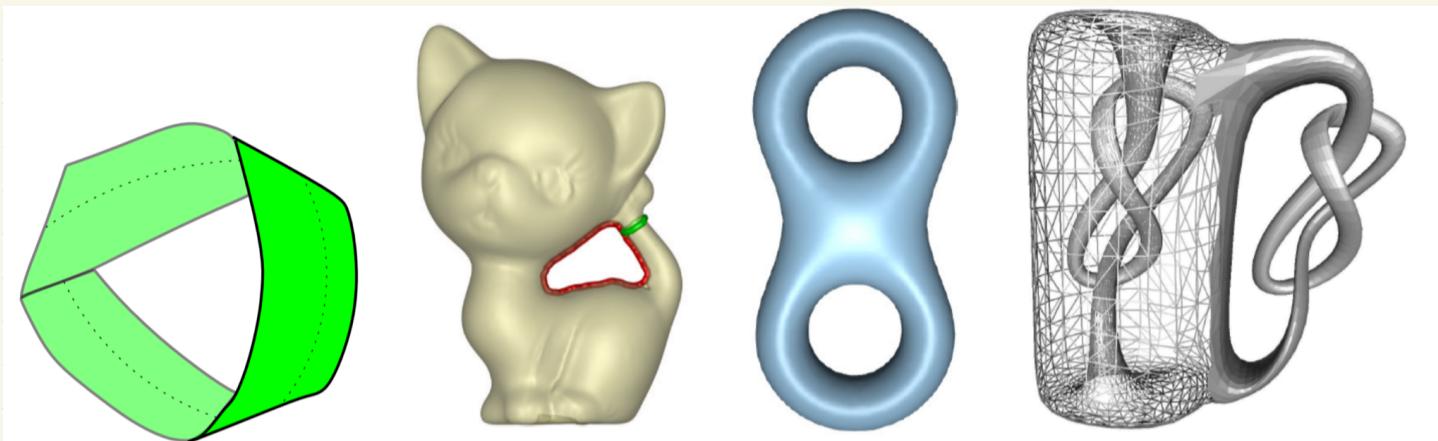
(Note:  and  are homotopy equivalent, but no deformation retract.)

Manifolds

A topological space is an m -manifold if every $x \in M$ has a point homeomorphic to the m -ball B_o^m or the m -halfspace H^m :

$$B_o^m = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \|y\| < 1\}$$

$$H^m = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \|y\| < 1 \text{ and } y_m \geq 0\}$$



Notation / terminology

- boundary
- Surface
- Non-orientable : walk along a curve starting on one side.
If you could end up on other side
when you return \rightarrow non-orientable
- Loop : 1-manifold, no boundary
- Genus g : \exists a set of $2g$ loops which can be removed without disconnecting it.

Smooth

Topological manifolds are spaces
But usually, consider an embedding
into Euclidean space \Rightarrow geometry.

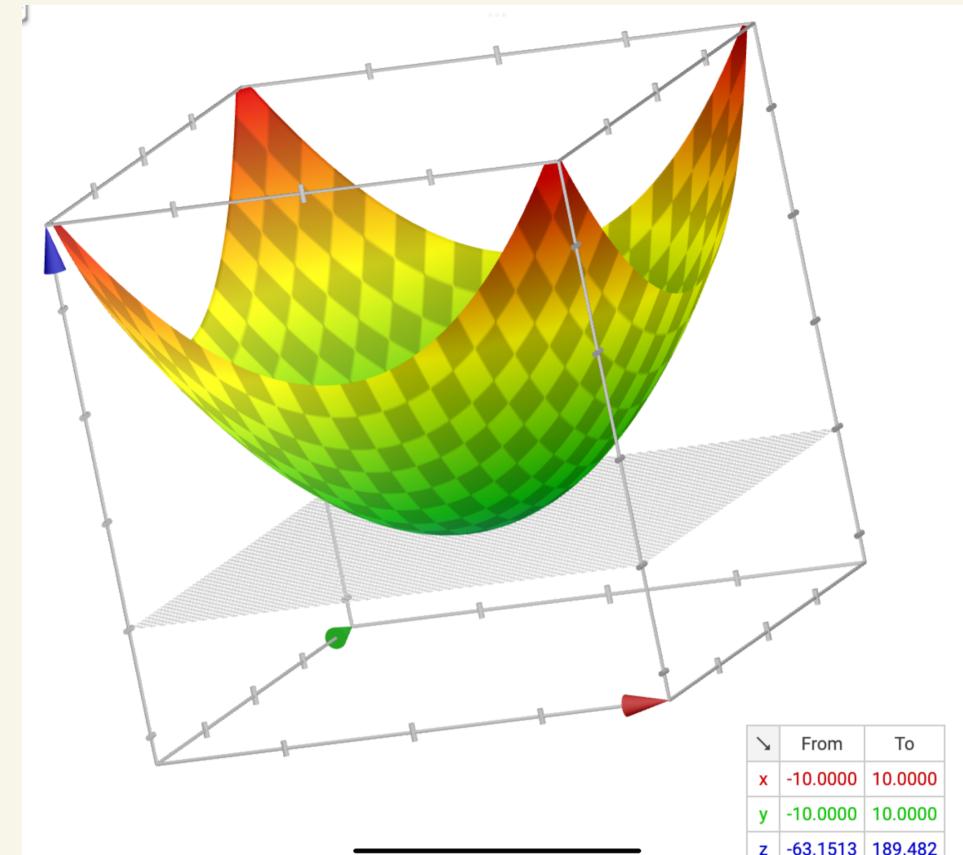
Given a smooth function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,
the gradient vector field $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$
at a point x is:

$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(x) \right]$$

Ex: $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

$$\nabla f =$$



Then $\nabla f((0,0)) =$

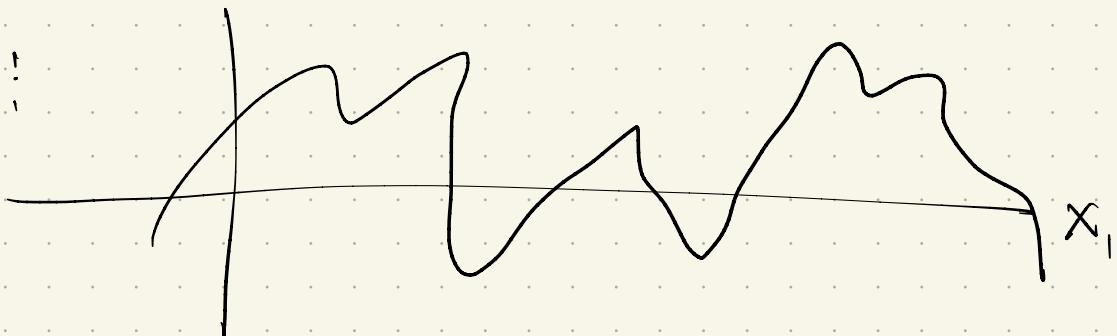
$$\nabla f((1,0)) =$$

Critical point

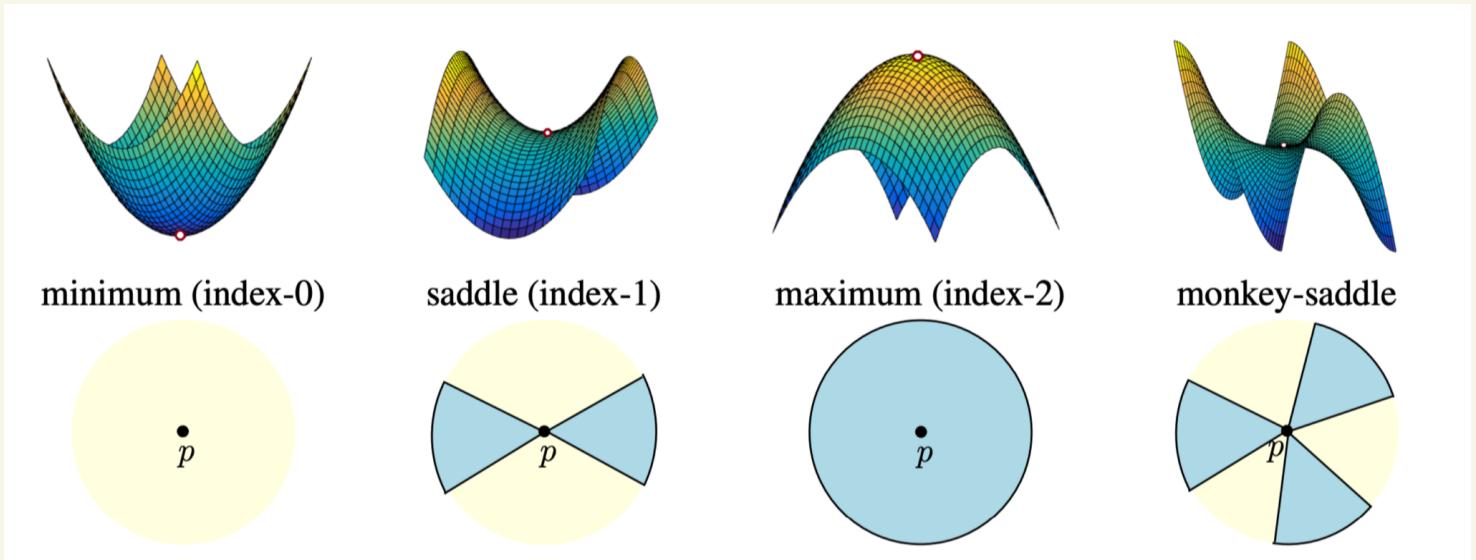
Any $p \in \mathbb{R}^d$ where $\nabla f(p) = \vec{0}$
(Otherwise we say p is regular)

On 1 manifolds:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot x = 0$$



On 2 manifolds:



Extending to manifolds:

Given $\phi: U \rightarrow W$, $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^k$ & $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$
open sets, where

$$\phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \dots, \phi_d(x))$$

The Jacobian of ϕ is a $d \times k$
matrix of partial derivatives:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \phi_1(x)}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \phi_1(x)}{\partial x_k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \phi_d(x)}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \phi_d(x)}{\partial x_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

Types of critical points

For a smooth m -manifold, the Hessian matrix of $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the matrix of 2nd order partial derivatives:

$$\text{Hessian}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_m}(x) \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_m}(x) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_m \partial x_1}(x) & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_m \partial x_2}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_m \partial x_m}(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

A critical point is non-degenerate if Hessian is nonsingular ($\det \neq 0$); otherwise degenerate.

An example: $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^3 - 3x_1x_2^2$$

$$\nabla f =$$

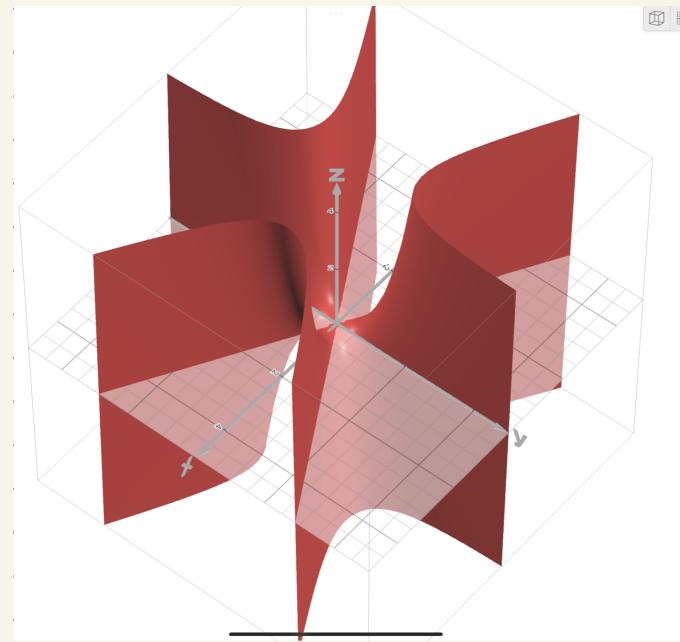


Is it degenerate?

Hessian:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} =$$

So at $(0,0)$, $\det =$



Morse Lemma

Given a smooth function $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on a smooth manifold M , let p be a non-degenerate critical point of f . Then \exists a local coordinate system in a neighborhood $U(p)$ s.t.

- p 's coordinate is $\overset{\rightharpoonup}{0}$

- locally, any x is in the form

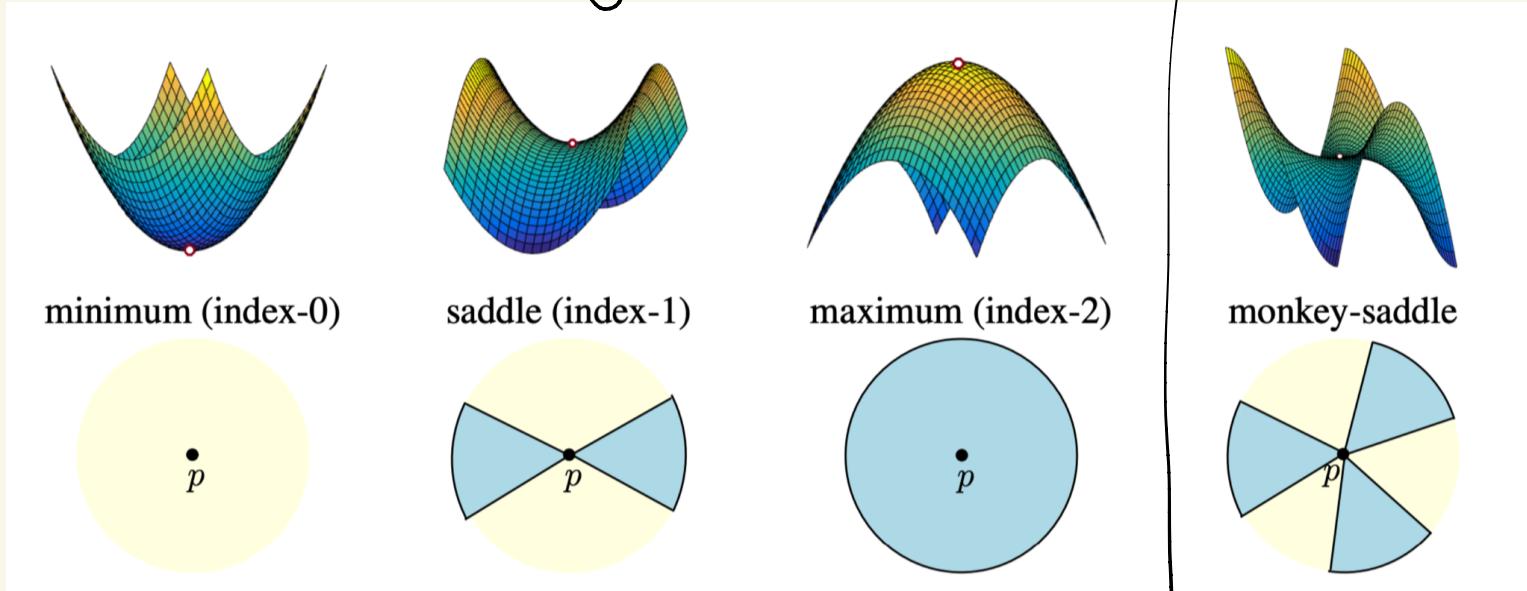
$$f(x) = f(p) - x_1^2 - \dots - x_s^2 + x_{s+1}^2 + \dots + x_m^2$$

for some $s \in [0, m]$

s is called the **index** of p .

Back to that picture...
non-degenerate

degenerate



↑
everything is
bigger around p

↑
everything is
smaller around p
One coordinate bigger,
one smaller

Next time:

Why we care about Morse
theory...