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Edge Collapse and Persistence of Flag Complexes*

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1 — Abstract —

2 In this article, we extend the notions of dominated vertex and strong collapse of a simplicial complex
3 as introduced by J. Barmak and E. Miniam. We say that a simplex (of any dimension) is dominated
4 if its link is a simplicial cone. Domination of edges appear to be very powerful and we study it
5 in the case of flag complexes in more detail. We show that edge collapse (removal of dominated
6 edges) in a flag complex can be performed using only the 1-skeleton of the complex. Furthermore,
7 the residual complex is a flag complex as well. Next we show that, similar to the case of strong
8 collapses, we can use edge collapses to reduce a flag filtration \mathcal{F} to a smaller flag filtration \mathcal{F}^c with
9 the same persistence. Here again, we only use the 1-skeletons of the complexes. The resulting
10 method to compute \mathcal{F}^c is simple and extremely efficient and, when used as a preprocessing for
11 Persistence Computation, leads to gains of several orders of magnitude wrt the state-of-the-art
12 methods (including our previous approach using strong collapse). The method is exact, irrespective
13 of dimension, and improves performance of Persistence Computation even in low dimensions. This
14 is demonstrated by numerous experiments on publicly available data.

2012 ACM Subject Classification Mathematics of computing, Topological Data Analysis, Computational geometry

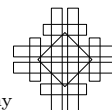
Keywords and phrases Computational Topology, Topological Data Analysis, Strong Collapse, Persistent homology

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15 **1** Introduction

16 Improving the performance of computing persistent homology has been a central goal in
17 Topological Data Analysis (TDA) since the early days of the field about 20 years ago. Very
18 significant progress has been obtained on the two main components of the overall pipeline :
19 the actual computation of persistence homology (PH) and the preprocessing of the sequence
20 of complexes given as input. The first line of research led to improvement of the persistence
21 algorithm and of its analysis, to efficient implementations and optimizations, and to a new
22 generation of software [37, 8, 6, 45]. The other and complementary direction has been
23 intensively explored with the goal of reducing the size of the complexes in the input sequence
24 while preserving (or approximating in a controlled way) the persistent homology of the
25 sequence [44, 30, 18, 13, 51, 41, 20, 27]. Among the most widely used complexes in TDA

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26 are the flag complexes and, in particular, the Vietoris-Rips complexes. These complexes are
 27 of great theoretical and practical interest since they are fully characterized by their graph
 28 (or 1-skeleton) and can thus be stored in a very compact way. Specific algorithms and very
 29 efficient codes have been developed for those complexes [6, 51]. Despite all these advances,
 30 further decisive progress was obtained very recently both for general simplicial complexes [12]
 31 and for flag complexes [11] using a special type of collapses, called strong collapses, introduced
 32 by J. Barmak and E. Minian [5]. The basic idea is to simplify the complexes of the input
 33 sequence by using strong collapses and to compute the PH of an induced sequence of reduced
 34 simplicial complexes whose PH is the same or a close approximation of the PH of the initial
 35 sequence. In the case of flag complexes, the critical observation was that the construction
 36 of the reduced sequence can be done using only the 1-skeletons of the complexes, without
 37 constructing the full complexes, therefore saving time and space.

38 This paper further improves on these last results. Although the general philosophy is the
 39 same, there are some new key features that make the new method several orders of magnitude
 40 more efficient than all known methods.

41 1. Instead of strong collapses, we use the so-called edges collapses. In fact, we more generally
 42 define k -collapses that are identical to the *extended collapses* introduced in [4] (see also
 43 the early work of V. Welker [53]). When $k = 0$, we have strong collapses and when $k = 1$
 44 edge collapses. Edge collapses share with strong collapses some important properties. Most
 45 notably, we can use edge collapses to reduce flag filtrations \mathcal{F} to smaller flag filtrations \mathcal{F}^c
 46 with the same persistence, using only the 1-skeletons of the complexes.

47 2. The reduction is exact and the PH of the reduced sequence is identical to the PH of
 48 the input sequence. Our algorithm thus computes the exact PH as does [6] but differs
 49 from [51, 11] where provably good approximations were computed.

50 3. In [12] and in [11], the reduced sequence associated to a filtration was usually a tower
 51 (a sequence of simplicial complexes connected through simplicial maps), and part of the
 52 computing time was devoted to transforming this tower in another equivalent filtration using
 53 ideas from [26, 40]. There is no such need in the algorithm presented in this paper, which is
 54 another main source of improvement.

55 4. The resulting method is simple and extremely efficient. On the theory side, we show that
 56 the edge collapse of a flag filtration can be computed in time $O(n n_c k^2)$, where n and n_c are
 57 the number of edges in the input and output 1-skeletons respectively and k is the maximal
 58 degree of a vertex in the input graph. The algorithm has been implemented. Numerous
 59 experiments on publicly available data show that the PH computation of flag complexes
 60 using edge collapse is much faster than with previous methods, and can even solve cases that
 61 were out of reach before. The code will be soon released in the Gudhi library [37].

62 An outline of this paper is as follows. Section 2 recalls some basic ideas and constructions
 63 related to simplicial complexes and simple collapses. We introduce k -collapse and then
 64 edge collapse in Section 3. In Section 4, we prove that simple collapse preserves persistence.
 65 In Section 5, we provide the main algorithm that reduces a flag filtration to another flag
 66 filtration using edge collapse. Experiments are discussed in Section 6.

67 2 Preliminaries

68 In this section we provide some background material. Readers can refer to [38] for a
69 comprehensive introduction to these topics.

70 **Simplex, simplicial complex and simplicial map.** An **abstract simplicial complex** K is
71 a collection of subsets of a non-empty finite set X , such that for every subset A in K , all
72 the subsets of A are in K . From now on, we will call an *abstract simplicial complex* simply
73 a *simplicial complex* or just a *complex*. An element of K is called a **simplex**. An element
74 of cardinality $k + 1$ is called a k -simplex and k is called its **dimension**. Given a simplicial
75 complex K , we denote its geometric realization as $|K|$. A simplex is called **maximal** if
76 it is not a proper subset of any other simplex in K . A sub-collection L of K is called a
77 **subcomplex**, if it is a simplicial complex itself.

78 A map $\psi : K \rightarrow L$ between two simplicial complexes is called a **simplicial map**, if it always
79 maps a simplex in K to a simplex in L . Simplicial maps are induced by vertex-to-vertex
80 maps. A simplicial map $\psi : K \rightarrow L$ between two simplicial complexes K and L induces
81 a continuous map $|\psi| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ between the underlying geometric realizations. Any
82 general simplicial map can be decomposed into more elementary simplicial maps, namely
83 **elementary inclusions** (i.e., inclusions of a single simplex) and **elementary contractions**
84 $\{\{u, v\} \mapsto u\}$ (where a vertex is mapped onto another vertex). The inverse operation of
85 inclusion is called **simplicial removal** denoted as $K \leftarrow L$, where L is a subcomplex of K .

86 **Flag complex and Neighborhood.** A complex K is a flag or a clique complex if, when a
87 subset of its vertices has pairwise edges between them, they span a simplex. It follows that
88 the full structure of K is determined by its 1-skeleton (or graph) we denote by G . For a vertex
89 v in G , the **open neighborhood** $N_G(v)$ of v in G is defined as $N_G(v) := \{u \in G \mid [uv] \in E\}$,
90 here E is the set of edges of G . The **closed neighborhood** $N_G[v]$ is $N_G[v] := N_G(v) \cup \{v\}$.
91 Similarly we define the closed and open neighborhood of an edge $[xy] \in G$, $N_G[xy]$ and
92 $N_G(xy)$ as $N_G[xy] := N[x] \cap N[y]$ and $N_G(xy) := N(x) \cap N(y)$, respectively. The above
93 definitions can be extended to any k -clique $\sigma = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k]$ of G ; $N_G[\sigma] := \bigcap_{v_i \in \sigma} N[v_i]$
94 and $N_G(\sigma) := \bigcap_{v_i \in \sigma} N(v_i)$.

95 **Star, Link and Simplicial Cone.** Let σ be a simplex of a simplicial complex K , the **closed**
96 **star** of σ in K , $st_K(\sigma)$ is a subcomplex of K which is defined as follows, $st_K(\sigma) := \{\tau \in$
97 $K \mid \tau \cup \sigma \in K\}$. The **link** of σ in K , $lk_K(\sigma)$ is defined as the set of simplices in $st_K(\sigma)$ which
98 do not intersect with σ , $lk_K(\sigma) := \{\tau \in st_K(\sigma) \mid \tau \cap \sigma = \emptyset\}$. The **open star** of σ in K , $st_K^o(\sigma)$
99 is defined as the set $st_K(\sigma) \setminus lk_K(\sigma)$. It is not a subcomplex of K .

100 Let L be a simplicial complex and a a vertex not in L . Then the simplicial cone aL is defined
101 as $aL := \{a, \tau \mid \tau \in L \text{ or } \tau = \sigma \cup a; \text{ where } \sigma \in L\}$.

102 **Sequences of complexes.** A **sequence** of simplicial complexes $\mathcal{T} : \{K_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} K_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} K_3 \xrightarrow{f_3}$
103 $\dots \xrightarrow{f_{(m-1)}} K_m\}$, connected through simplicial maps f_i is called a **simplicial tower** or
104 simply a *tower*. We call a tower a **flag tower** if all the simplicial complexes K_i are flag
105 complexes. When all the simplicial maps the f_i are inclusions, then the tower is called a
106 **filtration** and a flag tower is called a **flag filtration**.

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107 **Persistent homology.** If we compute the homology classes of all the K_i , we get the sequence
 108 $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T}) : \{H_p(K_1) \xrightarrow{f_1^*} H_p(K_2) \xrightarrow{f_2^*} H_p(K_3) \xrightarrow{f_3^*} \dots \xrightarrow{f_{(m-1)}^*} H_p(K_m)\}$. Here $H_p()$ denotes the
 109 homology class of dimension p with coefficients from a field \mathbb{F} and f_i^* is the homomorphism
 110 induced from f_i . $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$ is a sequence of vector spaces connected through the f_i^* called a
 111 **persistence module**. More formally, a *persistence module* \mathbb{V} is a sequence of vector spaces
 112 $\{V_1 \rightarrow V_2 \rightarrow V_3 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_m\}$ connected with homomorphisms $\{\rightarrow\}$ between them. A
 113 persistence module arising from a sequence of simplicial complexes captures the evolution of
 114 the topology of the sequence.

115 Any persistence module can be *decomposed* into a collection of intervals of the form $[i, j)$
 116 [14]. The multiset of all the intervals $[i, j)$ in this decomposition is called the **persistence**
 117 **diagram** of the persistence module. An interval of the form $[i, j)$ in the persistence diagram
 118 of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$ corresponds to a homological feature (a ‘cycle’) which appeared at i and disappeared
 119 at j . The persistence diagram (PD) completely characterizes the persistence module, that
 120 is, there is a bijective correspondence between the PD and the equivalence class of the
 121 persistence module [14, 58].

122 Two different persistence modules $\mathbb{V} : \{V_1 \rightarrow V_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_m\}$ and $\mathbb{W} : \{W_1 \rightarrow W_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow$
 123 $W_m\}$, connected through a set of homomorphisms $\phi_i : V_i \rightarrow W_i$ are **equivalent** if the ϕ_i are
 124 isomorphisms and the following diagram commutes [14, 24]. Equivalent persistence modules
 125 have the same interval decomposition, hence the same diagram.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & V_1 & \longrightarrow & V_2 & \cdots & \longrightarrow & V_{m-1} & \longrightarrow & V_m \\
 & \downarrow \phi_1 & & \downarrow \phi_2 & & & \downarrow \phi_{m-1} & & \downarrow \phi_m \\
 126 & W_1 & \longrightarrow & W_2 & \cdots & \longrightarrow & W_{m-1} & \longrightarrow & W_m
 \end{array}$$

127 **Simple collapse.** Given a complex K , a simplex $\sigma \in K$ is called a **free simplex** if σ has
 128 a unique coface $\tau \in K$. The pair $\{\sigma, \tau\}$ is called a **free pair**. The action of removing a
 129 free pair: $K \rightarrow K \setminus \{\sigma, \tau\}$ is called an **elementary simple collapse**. A series of such
 130 elementary simple collapses is called a **simple collapse**. We denote it as $K \searrow L$. This
 131 operation preserves the homotopy type of the simplicial complex K , which we write $K \sim L$.
 132 In particular, there is a retraction map $|r| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ between the underlying geometric
 133 realization of K and L which is a strong deformation retraction. A complex K' will be called
 134 **simply-minimal** if there is no free pair $\{\sigma, \tau\}$ in K' . A subcomplex K^{ec} of K is called
 135 **elementary core** of K if $K \searrow K^{ec}$ and K^{ec} is simply-minimal.

136 **Removal of a simplex.** We denote by $K \setminus \sigma$ the subcomplex of K obtained by removing σ ,
 137 i.e. the complex that has all the simplices of K except the faces and the cofaces of σ .

3 Edge Collapse

139 In this section, we first extend the definition of a dominated vertex introduced in [5] to
 140 simplices of any dimension. Given a simplex $\sigma \in K$, we denote by Σ_σ the set of maximal (for
 141 the inclusion) simplices of K that contain σ . The intersection of all the maximal simplices in
 142 Σ_σ will be denoted as $\bigcap \Sigma_\sigma := \bigcap_{\tau \in \Sigma_\sigma} \tau$.

143 **Dominated simplex.** A simplex σ in K is called a **dominated simplex** if the link $lk_K(\sigma)$
 144 of σ in K is a simplicial cone, i.e. if there exists a vertex $v' \notin \sigma$ and a subcomplex L of K ,
 145 such that $lk_K(\sigma) = v'L$. We say that the vertex v' is *dominating* σ and that σ is *dominated*
 146 by v' , which we denote as $\sigma \prec v'$.

147 **k -collapse.** Given a complex K , the action of removing a dominated k -simplex σ from K
 148 is called an **elementary k -collapse**, denoted as $K \searrow \searrow^k \{K \setminus \sigma\}$. A series of elementary
 149 k -collapses is called a **k -collapse**, denoted as $K \searrow \searrow^k L$. We further call a complex K
 150 **k -minimal** if it does not have any dominated k simplices. A subcomplex K^o of K is called
 151 a **k -core** if $K \searrow \searrow^k K^o$ and K^o is k -minimal.

152 The notion of k -collapse is the same as the notion of *extended collapse* introduced in [4].
 153 We give it a different name to indicate the dependency on the dimension. A 0-collapse is
 154 a strong collapse as introduced in [5]. A 1-collapse will be called an **edge collapse**. It is
 155 not hard to see that an elementary simple collapse of a k -simplex σ is a k -collapse, as it is
 156 dominated by the vertex $v = \tau \setminus \sigma$, where τ is the unique coface containing σ .

157 The following lemma extends a result in [5] to general k -collapse. It shows that the domination
 158 of a simplex can be characterized in terms of maximal simplices.

159 **► Lemma 1.** *A simplex $\sigma \in K$ is dominated by a vertex $v' \in K$, $v' \notin \sigma$, if and only if all*
 160 *the maximal simplices of K that contain σ also contain v' , i.e. $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$.*

161 **Proof.** Since $\sigma \prec v'$, $lk_K(\sigma) = v'L$ by definition. This implies that for any maximal simplex
 162 τ in $st_K(\sigma)$, $v' \in \tau$. Therefore, $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. For the reverse direction, let $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. Therefore,
 163 for any maximal simplex τ in $st_K(\sigma)$, we have $v' \in \tau$. Now since $v' \notin \sigma$, v' belong to all the
 164 simplices $\tau \setminus \sigma$, therefore $lk_K(\sigma) = v'L$. Hence $\sigma \prec v'$ if and only if $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. ◀

165 Lemma 1 has important algorithmic consequences. To perform a k -collapse, one simply needs
 166 to store the adjacency matrix between the k -simplices and the maximal simplices of K .

167 Next we study the special case of a flag complex K and characterize the domination of a
 168 simplex σ of a flag complex K in terms of its neighborhood.

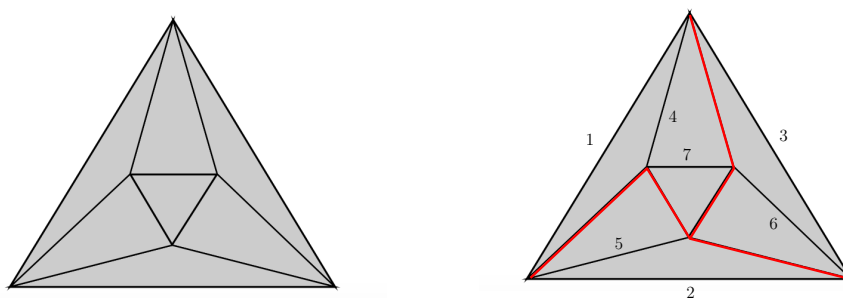
169 **► Lemma 2.** *Let σ be a simplex of a flag complex K . Then σ will be dominated by a vertex*
 170 *v' if and only if $N_G[\sigma] \subseteq N_G[v']$.*

171 **Proof.** Assume that $N_G[\sigma] \subseteq N_G[v']$ and let τ be a maximal simplex of K that contains σ .
 172 For a vertex $x \in \tau$ and for any vertex $v \in \sigma$, the edge $[x, v] \in \tau$. Therefore $x \in N_G[\sigma] \subseteq N_G[v']$.
 173 Every vertex in τ is thus linked by an edge to v' and, since K is a flag complex and τ is
 174 maximal, v' must be in τ . This implies that all the maximal simplices that contains σ also
 175 contain v' . Hence σ is dominated by v' .

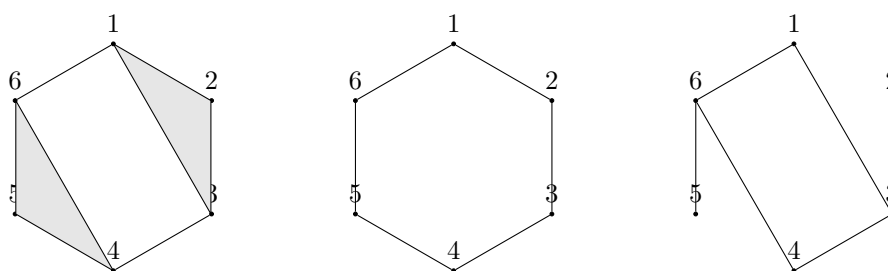
176 Consider the other direction. If $\sigma \prec v'$, by Lemma 1, all the maximal simplices containing σ
 177 also contains v' . This implies $N_G[\sigma] \subseteq N_G[v']$. ◀

178 The above lemma is a generalisation of Lemma 1 in [11]. The next lemma, though trivial, is of
 179 crucial significance. Both lemmas show that edge collapses are well suited to flag complexes.

180 **► Lemma 3.** *Let K be a flag complex and let L be any subcomplex of K obtained by edge*
 181 *collapse. Then L is also a flag complex.*



182 **Figure 1** The above complex does not have any dominated vertex. However, by proceeding from
 183 the edges at the boundary one can edge collapse this complex to a 1-dimensional complex. The
 184 1-core obtained in this way can be further reduced to a point using 0-collapse.



188 **Figure 2** The complex in the left has two different 1-cores, the one in the middle is obtained
 189 after removing the inner edges [1,3] and [4,6], and the one in the right by removing outer edges
 190 [1,2] and [4,5]. Note that the one in the right has further possibility of strong collapse (0-collapse).

185 **Efficiency of reduction.** In the practical cases we have considered (see Section 6), the
 186 ability of edge collapse to reduce the size of a complex is either comparable or superior than
 187 that of vertex collapse. This is illustrated in Figure 1, see also the **torus** example in Section 6.

191 **NP Completeness.** Unlike strong collapses (0-collapses), edge collapses (1-collapses) do
 192 not guarantee to have a unique core as illustrated in Figure 2. This leads to the natural
 193 optimization problem of computing an optimal sequence of edge collapses. However, this
 194 problem is difficult. More precisely, the following variant : Given a simplicial complex K , is
 195 it possible to compute a smallest 1-core (in terms of the number of edges), is strongly \mathcal{NP} -
 196 complete as shown below. To prove this, we will first recall a result of Egeciglu and Gonzalez
 197 [33]. Let K be a connected pure 2-dimensional simplicial complex that is embeddable in \mathbf{R}^3
 198 and consider the following decision problem: given an integer k , does there exist a subset
 199 S of 2-simplices of K with $|S| \leq k$ such that $K \setminus S$ simply collapses to a 1-dimensional
 200 subcomplex of K . This problem is strongly \mathcal{NP} -complete [33].

201 We will show that, for a 2-dimensional complex, elementary edge collapses and elementary
 202 simple collapses are equivalent. It will then follow that finding an optimal edge collapse is
 203 \mathcal{NP} -complete as well.

204 **► Lemma 4.** *Let e be an edge of a 2-dimensional complex K . Then e is dominated in K if
 205 and only if it is free, i.e. if it has a unique coface.*

206 **Proof.** Let $e = [xy]$ be a dominated edge of K . By Lemma 1, there exists a vertex $v' \notin e$ of

207 K such that $v' \in \cap \Sigma_e$. Hence, the 2-simplex $[x, y, v'] \in \cap \Sigma_e$. Now, as K is 2 dimensional,
 208 the maximal simplices are 2-dimensional and we must have $[x, y, v'] = \Sigma_e$. This implies that
 209 e is a free edge. The other direction is obvious since a free edge is always dominated. ◀

210 Using the above lemma and the result by Egeciglu and Gonzalez [33], we get:

211 ▶ **Theorem 5.** *Let K be a simplicial complex that is connected, pure, 2-dimensional and*
 212 *embeddable in \mathbf{R}^3 , and let k be an integer. It is strongly \mathcal{NP} -complete to decide whether*
 213 *there exists a subset S of 2-simplices of K , with $|S| \leq k$, such that there is an edge collapse*
 214 *from $K \setminus S$ to a 1-dimensional subcomplex of K .*

215 **4 Simple Collapse and Persistence**

216 In this section we provide one of the main result of this article. This can be seen as a
 217 generalization of Theorem 2 of [12].

218 ▶ **Theorem 6.** *Let $f : K \rightarrow L$ be a simplicial map between two complexes K and L and let K^{ec}*
 219 *and L^{ec} be the associated elementary cores. Then there exists a map $f^{ec} : K^{ec} \leftrightarrow L^{ec}$, induced*
 220 *by f , such that the persistence of $f^* : H_p(K) \rightarrow H_p(L)$ and $f^{ec*} : H_p(K^{ec}) \leftrightarrow H_p(L^{ec})$ are*
 221 *the same for any integer $p \geq 0$. The induced map f^{ec} may not be simplicial. Nevertheless, it*
 222 *can be expressed as a combination of inclusions, contractions and removals of simplices.*

223 **Proof.** Let us consider the following diagram between the geometric realizations of the
 224 complex $|K|, |L|, |K^{ec}|$ and $|L^{ec}|$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 |K| & \xrightarrow{|f|} & |L| \\
 |i_k| \uparrow \downarrow |r_k| & & |i_l| \uparrow \downarrow |r_l| \\
 |K^{ec}| & \xrightarrow{|f^{ec}|} & |L^{ec}|
 \end{array}$$

226 and the associated diagram after computing the p -th singular homology groups

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 H_p^o(|K|) & \xrightarrow{|f|^*} & H_p^o(|L|) \\
 |i_k|^* \uparrow \downarrow |r_k|^* & & |i_l|^* \uparrow \downarrow |r_l|^* \\
 H_p^o(|K^{ec}|) & \xrightarrow{|f^{ec}|^*} & H_p^o(|L^{ec}|)
 \end{array}$$

228 Here $|r_k|$ and $|r_l|$ are the deformation retractions on the geometric realizations associated
 229 with the simple collapse and $|i_k|$ and $|i_l|$ are the inclusion maps. $H_p^o()$ denotes the singular
 230 homology and $*$ is the induced homomorphisms by the corresponding continuous maps. The
 231 map $|f^{ec}|$ is defined as $|f^{ec}| := |r_l| |f| |i_k|$. Now by definition $|f^{ec}| |r_k| = |r_l| |f| |i_k| |r_k|$. And
 232 $|r_l| |f| |i_k| |r_k| \sim |r_l| |f|$ (homotopic) since $|r_k|$ is a deformation retraction, therefore $|i_k| |r_k|$ is
 233 homotopic to the identity over $|K|$. Since homotopic maps induce identical homomorphisms
 234 on the corresponding homology groups, we have $|f^{ec}|^* |r_k|^* = |r_l|^* |f|^*$ (commutativity) [38,
 235 Proposition 2.19]. Also, since $|r_k|^*, |r_l|^*$ are induced by deformation retractions, they are
 236 isomorphisms on their respective singular homology groups. This proves that the two maps
 237 $|f| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ and $|f^{ec}| : |K^{ec}| \rightarrow |L^{ec}|$ have the same singular persistent homology. Now for
 238 simplicial complexes, singular homology is isomorphic to simplicial homology [38, Theorem

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239 2.27]. Since $|f^{ec}| = |r_l| |f| |i_k|$ and the inclusion i_k and f are simplicial except r_l which
240 is removal of simplices, f^{ec} can be expressed as composition of inclusions, contractions
241 and removals of simplices. Therefore, we deduce that the persistent simplicial homologies
242 $f^* : H_p(K) \rightarrow H_p(L)$ and $f^{ec*} : H_p(K^{ec}) \leftrightarrow H_p(L^{ec})$ are equivalent. ◀

243 The use of singular homology in the proof is due to the lack of a simplicial map associated
244 with the retraction ($|r|$) of simple collapse. Due to the same reason, the induced map
245 $f^{ec} : K^{ec} \leftrightarrow L^{ec}$ between the elementary cores may not be necessarily simplicial. Nevertheless,
246 the proof explicitly constructs this map and shows that it can be expressed as a combination
247 of inclusions, contractions and removals of simplices. When a sequence of simplicial complexes
248 contains removals of simplices, it is called a zigzag sequence. There are algorithms [45, 42] to
249 compute zigzag persistence but they are not as efficient as the usual algorithms for filtrations
250 and towers.

251 In the next section, we consider the case of flag filtrations and show that we can restrict the
252 way the edge collapses are performed so that the reduced filtration is also a flag filtration.

253 5 Edge collapse of a flag filtration

254 In Section 3, we have introduced edge collapse for general simplicial complexes and provided
255 an easy criterion for edge-domination in a flag complex using only the 1-skeleton of the
256 complex. In this section, we provide an algorithm to simplify a flag filtration using edge
257 collapse and again using only the 1-skeleton of the complex.

258 The correctness of the following algorithm rely on the notion of **removable edge**. Let G
259 be a graph and K be the associated flag complex. We say that an edge e in a graph G is
260 removable either if it is dominated in K or if there exists a sequence of edge collapses in
261 K such that e is dominated in the reduced complex K^c . Let $G^c \subseteq G$ be the 1-skeleton of
262 K^c . The flag complexes K and K^c are homotopy equivalent and we say that G and G^c are
263 **edge-equivalent**, which we denote as $G \sim_e G^c$.

264 **Algorithm.** Let $\mathcal{F} : K_1 \hookrightarrow K_2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow K_n$ be a flag filtration and $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{F}} : G_1 \hookrightarrow G_2 \hookrightarrow$
265 $\dots \hookrightarrow G_n$ be the associated sequence of 1-skeletons. We further assume that $G_i \hookrightarrow G_{i+1}$ is
266 an elementary inclusion, namely the inclusion of a single edge we name e_{i+1} . The edges in
267 $E := \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ are thus indexed by their order in the filtration and we denote by G_i the
268 subset $\{e_1, \dots, e_i\}$. Our algorithm computes a subset of edges $E^c \subseteq E$ and attach to each
269 edge in E^c a new index. We thus obtain a new sequence of flag complexes \mathcal{F}^c , we call the
270 *core sequence*. The construction of E^c and of the new indices is done so that \mathcal{F}^c has the
271 same persistence diagram as \mathcal{F} .

272 We now explain how to compute E^c . See [Algorithm 1] for the pseudo-code. The main
273 **for** loop on line 6 (called the forward loop) iterates over the edges in the filtration \mathcal{F} by
274 increasing filtration values, i.e. in the *forward direction*, and check whether or not the current
275 edge e_i is dominated in the graph G_i . If *not*, we insert e_i in the set E^c and assign i as the
276 new index of e_i (i.e. we keep the original index). Note that we check the domination of e_i
277 in G_i , not in the final graph G_n . The non-domination of e_i in G_i implies that G_i and G_{i-1}
278 are not edge equivalent and therefore the status of some edges that were dominated in G_{i-1}
279 can change to non-dominated. This is why, after the insertion of edge e_i in E^c , we trigger

280 another search in G_i by decreasing filtration values, i.e. in the *reverse direction* ([Line 9-26]),
 281 called the backward loop).

282 If $e = [u, v]$, we define the edge-neighborhood of an edge $e \in G$ as $NEIGHBORS(e, G) =$
 283 $\{[x, y], x \in \{u, v\}, y \in N_G([uv])\}$. Notice that the only edges that can change their status
 284 are in the edge-neighbourhood of an edge that has been inserted in E^c (Lemma 8). To
 285 benefit from this fact and to restrict the search, we assign G_i to a temporary graph G , and
 286 we assign the edge-neighborhood of e_i in the graph G_i to E^{nbd} [Line 9-10]. Thereafter, we
 287 iterate through the edges of G_i in decreasing order of their indices [Line 12-26]. Specifically,
 288 we proceed as follows. If an edge $e_j \notin E^c$ and $e_j \notin E^{nbd}$ [Line 13-14], e_j is still dominated
 289 and we remove it from G [Line 22]. If $e_j \notin E^c$ and $e_j \in E^{nbd}$, then we check whether it is
 290 dominated or not. If e_j is dominated, we remove it from G [Line 19]. Otherwise, we insert
 291 e_j in E^c and assign to it the *new index* i , i.e. the index of the edge e_i that has triggered
 292 the backward search in G_i . Next we enlarge the edge-neighborhood E^{nbd} by inserting the
 293 edge-neighbors of e_j in G . We then repeat this process [Line 12-26] until the last index
 294 ($j = 1$) in G_i . Upon termination of the forward loop [Line 6-30], we output E^c as the final
 295 set.

329 We now prove the correctness of the above algorithm after some more definitions.

330 **Critical Edges:** Edges in E^c are called **critical** while edges in $E \setminus E^c$ are called **non-critical**.
 331 All edges have an original index i given by the insertion order in the input filtration \mathcal{F} . The
 332 critical edges received a second index j , called their **critical index**, when they are inserted
 333 in E^c . By convention, if an edge is not critical and thus has never been inserted in E^c , we
 334 will set its critical index to be ∞ . Hence, at the end of Algorithm 1, each edge $e \in E$ has
 335 two indices, an original and a critical index. To make this explicit, we denote e as e_i^j . Clearly
 336 $i \leq j$. We further distinguish the cases $i = j$ and $i < j$. If $i = j$, e_i has been put in E^c
 337 during a forward move (forward loop) and we call e_i a **primary critical edge**. If $i < j$, e_i
 338 has been put in E^c during a backward move (backward loop) and we call it a **secondary**
 339 **critical edge**.

340 For $i = 1, \dots, n$, we define the **critical graph** at index i , denoted G_i^c , whose edges are the
 341 edges in E^c with a critical index at most i . We denote the associated flag complex as K_i^c .

342 **Correctness.** We now prove some lemmas to certify the correctness of our algorithm. The
 343 following simple lemma justifies the fact that the search for new critical edges during the
 344 backward loop of Algorithm 1 is restricted to the neighborhood of already found critical
 345 edges.

346 **► Lemma 7.** *Let e be an edge in a graph G and let e' be a new edge. If e is dominated in G
 347 and does not belong to $EN_{G'}(e')$, then it is still dominated in $G' = G \cup e'$.*

348 The following lemma characterizes non-critical and critical edges in terms of being dominated
 349 or removable in certain specific graphs G_i . It essentially says that a non-critical edge is
 350 always removable and that a critical edge is removable until it becomes critical.

351 **► Lemma 8.** *Let e_i^j be an edge with $i < j$, then it is removable in all G_t , $i \leq t < \min(n+1, j)$.*

352 **Proof.** According to the algorithm, if $i < j$, e_i^j is dominated in G_i (j being finite or not).

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296 **Algorithm 1** Core flag filtration algorithm

```

297 1: procedure CORE-FLAG-FILTRATION( $E$ )
298 2:   input : set of edges  $E$  of  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{F}}$  sorted by filtration value.
299 3:    $E^c \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  $i \leftarrow 1$ ;
300 4:    $E^{nbd} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
301 5:    $G \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
302 6:   for  $e_i \in E$  do                                      $\triangleright$  For  $i = 1, \dots, n$  in increasing order
303 7:     if  $e_i$  is non-dominated in  $G_i$  then
304 8:       Insert  $\{e_i, i\}$  in  $E^c$ .
305 9:        $G \leftarrow G_i$ 
306 10:       $E^{nbd} \leftarrow NEIGHBORS(e_i, G_i)$ 
307 11:       $j \leftarrow i - 1$ 
308 12:      for  $e_j$  in  $G_i$  do                                $\triangleright$  For  $j = (i - 1), \dots, 1$  in decreasing order
309 13:        if  $e_j \notin E^c$  then
310 14:          if  $e_j \in E^{nbd}$  then
311 15:            if  $e_j$  is non-dominated in  $G$  then
312 16:              Insert  $\{e_j, i\}$  in  $E^c$ .
313 17:               $E^{nbd} \leftarrow E^{nbd} \cup NEIGHBORS(e_j, G)$ 
314 18:            else
315 19:               $G \leftarrow G \setminus e_j$ 
316 20:            end if
317 21:          else
318 22:             $G \leftarrow G \setminus e_j$ 
319 23:          end if
320 24:        end if
321 25:         $j \leftarrow j - 1$ 
322 26:      end for
323 27:    end if
324 28:     $G \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
325 29:     $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
326 30:  end for
327 31:  return  $E^c$                                           $\triangleright E^c$  is the 1-skeleton of the core flag filtration.
328 32: end procedure

```

353 Let us first consider the case $i < j = \infty$. Note that e_i^∞ is non-critical and let j_i be the
354 smallest primary critical index greater than i . If no such index exists, set $j_i = n + 1$. We
355 show by induction that e_i^∞ remains removable in all G_t , $i \geq t < n + 1$. As shown above, it
356 is true for $t = i$ since e_i^j is dominated in G_i . So assume that e_i^j is removable in G_{t-1} and
357 consider the insertion of e_t in G_t , for some $t < j_i$. By definition of j_i , e_t is dominated in G_t ,
358 which implies that e_i^j is removable in G_t .

359 Consider now $t = j_i$. Since e_{j_i} is a primary critical edge, it is non-dominated in G_{j_i} .
360 According to the algorithm, a backward loop has been triggered at j_i . During this backward
361 loop, e_i^∞ has *not* been inserted in E_c since its second critical index is ∞ . This is only possible
362 because e_i^∞ has been found to be dominated in G . Since G is initialized as G_{j_i} , it follows
363 that e_i^∞ is removable in G_{j_i} . We can now proceed in a similar way for all t , $j_i < t < n + 1$.

364 Consider now the case $i < j \leq n$. The proof is very similar to the previous case. As e_i^j has

365 not been inserted in E^c until the backward loop triggered at index j , e_i^j remains removable
 366 in all G_t , $i \leq t < j$. ◀

367 Note that our statement does not imply that a critical edge e_i^j , $i < j \leq n$, can never be
 368 removable in G_t , $t \geq j$. It just means that we are sure that it will remain removable until
 369 the point it becomes critical. By definition, $G_i \setminus G_i^c = \{e_t^m \mid t \leq i, m \geq i\}$ is the set of edges
 370 whose critical index $m \geq i$, including the non-critical edges ($m = \infty$). Using Lemma 8,

371 ▶ **Lemma 9.** For each i , $G_i^c \sim_e G_i$.

372 The proof of the following theorem certifying the correctness of our algorithm follows directly
 373 through the application of Lemma 9 and Theorem 6.

374 ▶ **Theorem 10.** Let $\mathcal{F} : K_1 \hookrightarrow K_2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow K_n$ be a flag filtration and $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{F}} : G_1 \hookrightarrow G_2 \hookrightarrow$
 375 $\dots \hookrightarrow G_n$ be the associated sequence of 1-skeletons, such that $G_i \hookrightarrow G_{i+1}$ is an elementary
 376 inclusion of an edge e_{i+1} . Let G_i^c be the critical graph and K_i^c be its flag complex as defined
 377 before. Then the associated flag filtration of the critical edges, $\mathcal{F}^c : K_1^c \hookrightarrow K_2^c \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow K_n^c$
 378 is equivalent to \mathcal{F} .

379 **Proof.** Let us consider the following diagram of the flag complexes for any $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$,
 380 where K_i^c is the flag complex of the critical graph G_i^c .

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 K_i & \hookrightarrow & K_{i+1} \\
 \updownarrow r_i & & \updownarrow r_{i+1} \\
 K_i^c & \hookrightarrow & K_{i+1}^c
 \end{array}$$

381

382 Using Lemma 9, K_i is homotopic to K_i^c . And r_i is a deformation retraction induced by the
 383 corresponding edge collapse. Now let us consider the following diagram after computing the
 384 homology groups.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 H_p(K_i) & \hookrightarrow & H_p(K_{i+1}) \\
 \updownarrow r_i^* & & \updownarrow r_{i+1}^* \\
 H_p(K_i^c) & \hookrightarrow & H_p(K_{i+1}^c)
 \end{array}$$

385

386 The equivalence of the persistence then follows directly from the application of Theorem 6. ◀

387 **Complexity:** Write n_v for the total number of vertices, n for the total number of edges and
 388 k for the maximum degree of a vertex in G_n . We represent each graph G_i as an adjacency
 389 list, where every vertex stores a *sorted* list of at most k adjacent vertices. Additionally, we
 390 store the set of edges (E and E^c) as a separate data structure.

391 The cost of inserting and removing an edge from such an adjacency list is $\mathcal{O}(k)$. Since the
 392 size of $N_G[v]$ is at most k for any vertex v , the cost of computing $N_G[e]$ for an edge e is
 393 $\mathcal{O}(k)$. Checking if an edge e is dominated by a vertex $v \in N_G[e]$ reduces to checking whether
 394 $N_G[e] \subseteq N_G[v]$. Since all the lists are sorted, this operation takes $\mathcal{O}(k)$ time per vertex v ,
 395 hence $\mathcal{O}(k^2)$ time in total.

396 Let us now analyze the worst-case time complexity of Algorithm 1. At each step i of the
 397 forward loop [Line 6], either e_i is dominated (which can be checked in $O(k^2)$ time) or an
 398 backward loop is triggered [Line 12]. The backward loop will consider all edges with (original)
 399 index at most i and check whether they are dominated or not. Writing n_c for the number of
 400 primary critical edges, the worst-case time complexity is $nk^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n_c} nk^2 = \mathcal{O}(nn_ck^2)$. The
 401 space complexity is $\mathcal{O}(n)$. In practice, n_c is a small fraction of n (see Table 1).

402 6 Computational Experiments

403 Our algorithm [Algorithm 1] has been implemented for VR filtrations as a C++ module
 404 named EdgeCollapser. Our previous preprocessing method described in [11] to simplify
 405 VR filtrations using strong collapse is called the VertexCollapser (previously called the
 406 RipsCollapser). Both EdgeCollapser and VertexCollapser take as input a VR filtration and
 407 return the reduced flag filtration according to their respective algorithms.

408 We present results on five datasets **netw-sc**, **senate**, **eleg**, **HIV** and **torus**. The first four
 409 datasets are publicly available [22] and are given as the interpoint distance matrix of the points.
 410 The last dataset **torus** has 2000 points sampled in a spiraled fashion on a torus embedded in
 411 a 3-sphere of \mathbf{R}^4 [39]. The reported time includes the time of EdgeCollapser/VertexCollapser
 412 and the time to compute the persistent diagram (PD) using the Gudhi library [37].

413 The code has been compiled using the compiler ‘clang-900.0.38’ and all computations were
 414 performed on a ‘2.8 GHz Intel Core i5’ machine with 16 GB of available RAM. Both
 415 EdgeCollapser and VertexCollapser work irrespective of the dimension of the complexes
 416 associated to the input datasets. However, the size of the complexes in the reduced filtration,
 417 even if much smaller than in the original filtration, might exceed the capacities of the PD
 418 computation algorithm. For this reason, we introduced, as in Ripser (a state of the art
 419 software to compute PH of VR complex [6]), a parameter *dim* and restricts the expansion of
 420 the flag complexes to a maximal dimension *dim*.

422 The experimental results using EdgeCollapser are summarized in Table 1. Observe that
 423 the reduction in the number of edges done by EdgeCollapser is quite significant. The ratio
 424 between the number of initial edges and the number of critical edges is approximately 20. If
 425 the number of edges in a graph is $|E|$ then the size of the $(k+1)$ -cliques $\mathcal{O}(|E|^k)$. Therefore the
 426 reduction in the size of k -simplices can be as large as $\mathcal{O}(20^k)$. This is verified experimentally
 427 too, as the reduced complexes are small and of low dimension (column Size/Dim) compared
 428 to the input VR-complexes which are of dimensions respectively 57, 54 and 105 for the first
 429 three datasets **netw-sc**, **senate** and **eleg**.¹

430 **Comparison with VertexCollapser.** The same set of experimental results using Vertex-
 431 Collapser are summarized in Table 2. VertexCollapser can be used in two modes: in the
 432 exact mode (step=0), the output filtration has the same PD as the input filtration while,
 433 in the approximate mode (step>0), a certified approximation is returned. For appropriate
 434 comparison, we use VertexCollapser in exact mode. It can be seen that EdgeCollapser is faster
 435 than VertexCollapser by approximately two orders of magnitude. The main reason for this is
 436 the efficient preprocessing algorithm behind EdgeCollapser. As it can be noticed in some

421 ¹ The sizes of the complexes are so big that we could not compute the exact number of simplices.

437 cases, the reduction obtained using by VertexCollapser is better than using EdgeCollapser,
 438 but even in those cases EdgeCollapser is faster than VertexCollapser.

439 In terms of size reduction, EdgeCollapser either outperforms VertexCollapser by a big
 440 amount or is comparable. Some intuition can be gained from the case of *torus*. This is a well
 441 distributed point sets sampled from a manifold without boundary. The fact that there is no
 442 boundary implies that there are only few dominated vertices, which dramatically reduces
 443 the capacity of VertexCollapser to collapse. To better grasp this fact, one can play with
 444 examples of well distributed points on a circle or a sphere (without boundary) and on a disk
 445 (with boundary). Remarkably, EdgeCollapser does not face this problem. in this case.

446 EdgeCollapser computes the exact PD of the input filtration while VertexCollapser has an
 447 exact and an approximate modes, Results in Table 2 are obtained using the exact mode of
 448 VertexCollapser, while results in Table 1 [11] are obtained using the approximate mode. In
 449 both cases, EdgeCollapser performs much better than VertexCollapser. It would be easy to
 450 implement an approximate version of EdgeCollapser similarly to what has been done for
 451 VertexCollapser. Instead of triggering the backward loop of the algorithm [Line12-26] at each
 452 primary critical edge we find, we can trigger the backward loop at certain snapshot values
 453 only. See Section 5 of [11] for more details on the approximate methodology and description
 454 of snapshot.

Data	Pnt	Thrsld	EdgeCollapser +PD				
			Edge(I)/Edge(C)	Size/Dim	<i>dim</i>	Pre-Time	Tot-Time
netw-sc	379	5.5	8.4K/417	1K/6	∞	0.62	0.73
senate	103	0.415	2.7K/234	663/4	∞	0.21	0.24
eleg	297	0.3	9.8K/562	1.8K/6	∞	1.6	1.7
HIV	1088	1050	182K/6.9K	86.9M/?	6	491	2789
torus	2000	1.5	428K/14K	44K/3	∞	288	289

462 ■ **Table 1** The columns are, from left to right: dataset (Data), number of points (Pnt), maximum
 463 value of the scale parameter (Thrsld), Initial number of edges/Critical (final) number of
 464 edges *Edge(I)/Edge(C)*, number of simplices (Size) and dimension of the final filtration (Dim),
 465 parameter (*dim*), time (in seconds) taken by Edge-Collapser and total time (in seconds) including
 466 PD computation (Tot-Time).

Data	Pnt	Thrsld	VertexCollapser +PD					
			Size/Dim	<i>dim</i>	Pre-Time	Tot-Time	<i>Step</i>	Snaps
netw-sc	379	5.5	175/3	∞	366.46	366.56	0	8420
senate	103	0.415	417/4	∞	15.96	15.98	0	2728
eleg	297	0.3	835K/16	∞	518.36	540.40	0	9850
HIV	1088	1050	127.3M/?	4	660	3,955	4	184
torus	2000	1.5		4	∞^*	∞	0	428K

474 ■ **Table 2** The columns are, from left to right: dataset (Data), number of points (Pnt), maximum
 475 value of the scale parameter (Thrsld), number of simplices (Size) and dimension of the final
 476 filtration (Dim), parameter (*dim*), time (in seconds) taken by VertexCollapser, total time (in
 477 seconds) including PD computation (Tot-Time), parameter *Step* (linear approximation factor) and
 478 the number of snapshots used (Snaps). *The last experiment (torus) could not finish (>12hrs) the
 479 preprocessing due to large number of snapshots and the size of the complex.

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481 **Comparison with Ripser.** Ripser [6] computes the *exact* PD associated to the input filtration
482 up to dimension dim . EdgeCollapser (as well as VertexCollapser) are not really competitors
483 of Ripser since they act more as a preprocessing of the input filtration and do not compute
484 Persistence Homology. Hence they can be associated to any software computing flag filtrations.
485 Nevertheless, we run Ripser² on the same datasets as in Table 1 to demonstrate the benefit
486 of using EdgeCollapser. Results are presented in Table 3. The main observation is that, in
487 most of the cases, EdgeCollapser computes PD in all dimensions and outperforms Ripser,
488 even when we restrict the dimension of the input filtration given to Ripser.

Data	Pnt	Threshold	Val		Val		Val	
			dim	Time	dim	Time	dim	Time
netw-sc	379	5.5	4	25.3	5	231.2	6	∞
senate	103	0.415	3	0.52	4	5.9	5	52.3
"	"	"	6	406.8	7	∞		
eleg	297	0.3	3	8.9	4	217	5	∞
HIV	1088	1050	2	31.35	3	∞		
torus	2000	1.5	2	193	3	∞		

497 ■ **Table 3** Time is the total time (in seconds) taken by Ripser. ∞ means that the experiment ran
498 longer than 12 hours or crashed due to memory overload.

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