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Edge Collapse and Persistence of Flag Complexes

Jean-Daniel Boissonnat

Université Côte d’Azur, INRIA, Sophia Antipolis, France
Jean-Daniel.Boissonnat@inria.fr

Siddharth Pritam

Université Côte d’Azur, INRIA, Sophia Antipolis, France
siddharth.pritam@inria.fr

Abstract

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

2012 ACM Subject Classification Mathematics of computing; Theory of computation \rightarrow Computational geometry; Mathematics of computing \rightarrow Topology

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

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1 Introduction

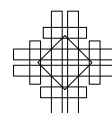
Improving the performance of computing persistent homology has been a central goal in Topological Data Analysis (TDA) since the early days of the field about 20 years ago. Very significant progress has been obtained on the two main components of the overall pipeline: the preprocessing of the sequence of complexes given as input and the computation of persistence homology (PH). The latter line of research led to improvement of the persistence algorithm and of its analysis, to efficient implementations and optimizations, and to a new generation of software [37, 8, 6, 45]. The former and complementary direction has been intensively explored with the goal of reducing the size of the complexes in the input sequence while preserving the persistent homology of the sequence, or approximating it in a controlled way [44, 30, 18, 13, 51, 41, 20, 27]. Among the most widely used complexes in TDA are the flag complexes and, in particular, the Vietoris-Rips complexes. These complexes are of great theoretical and practical interest since they are fully characterized by their graph (or 1-skeleton) and can thus be stored in a very compact way. Specific algorithms and very



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efficient codes have been developed for those complexes [6, 51]. Despite all these advances, further progress has been obtained recently both for general simplicial complexes [12] and for flag complexes [11] using a special type of collapses, called strong collapses, introduced by J. Barmak and E. Miniam [5]. The basic idea is to simplify the complexes of the input sequence by using strong collapses and to compute the PH of an induced sequence of reduced simplicial complexes whose PH is the same or a close approximation of the PH of the initial sequence. In the case of flag complexes, the critical observation was that the construction of the reduced sequence can be done using only the 1-skeletons of the complexes, without constructing the full complexes, therefore saving time and space.

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

1. Instead of strong collapses, we use the so-called edge collapses. In fact, we more generally define k -collapses that are identical to the *extended collapses* introduced in [4] (see also the early work of V. Welker [53]). When $k = 0$, we have strong collapses and when $k = 1$ edge collapses. Edge collapses share with strong collapses some important properties. Most notably, we can use edge collapses to reduce any flag filtration \mathcal{F} to a smaller flag filtration \mathcal{F}^c with the same persistence, using only the 1-skeletons of the complexes.
2. The reduction is exact and the PH of the reduced sequence is identical to the PH of the input sequence. However, the method can be easily adapted so as to produce an approximate reduction that would lead to better run time.
3. In [12] and in [11], the reduced sequence associated to a filtration was usually a tower (a sequence of simplicial complexes connected through simplicial maps), and part of the computing time was devoted to transforming this tower in another equivalent filtration using ideas from [26, 40]. There is no such need in the algorithm presented in this paper, which is another main source of improvement. Note however that the algorithm described in [11] works for flag towers while, in this paper, we restrict ourselves to flag filtrations.
4. The resulting method is simple and extremely efficient. On the theory side, we show that the edge collapse of a flag filtration can be computed in time $O(n n_c k^2)$, where n and n_c are the number of edges in the input and output 1-skeletons respectively and k is the maximal degree of a vertex in the input graph. The algorithm has been implemented. Numerous experiments on publicly available data show that preprocessing PH computation of flag complexes using edge collapse leads to unprecedented performance. The code will be soon released in the Gudhi library [37].

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

2 Preliminaries

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

Simplex, simplicial complex and simplicial map. An abstract simplicial complex K is a collection of subsets of a non-empty finite set X , such that for every subset A in K , all the subsets of A are in K . From now on, we will call an *abstract simplicial complex* simply

a *simplicial complex* or just a *complex*. An element of K is called a **simplex**. An element of cardinality $k + 1$ is called a k -simplex and k is called its **dimension**. Given a simplicial complex K , we denote its geometric realization as $|K|$. A simplex is called **maximal** if it is not a proper subset of any other simplex in K . A sub-collection L of K is called a **subcomplex** if it is a simplicial complex itself.

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

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

Star, Link and Simplicial Cone. Let σ be a simplex of a simplicial complex K , the **closed star** of σ in K , $st_K(\sigma)$ is a subcomplex of K which is defined as follows, $st_K(\sigma) := \{\tau \in K \mid \tau \cup \sigma \in K\}$. The **link** of σ in K , $lk_K(\sigma)$ is defined as the set of simplices in $st_K(\sigma)$ which 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 , $st_K^o(\sigma)$ is defined as the set $st_K(\sigma) \setminus lk_K(\sigma)$. Usually $st_K^o(\sigma)$ is not a subcomplex of K .

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

Sequences of complexes. A **sequence** of simplicial complexes $\mathcal{T} : \{K_1 \xrightarrow{f_1} K_2 \xrightarrow{f_2} \dots \xrightarrow{f_{(m-1)}} K_m\}$ connected through simplicial maps f_i is called a **simplicial tower** or simply a *tower*. When all the simplicial maps f_i are inclusions, the tower is called a **filtration**. If all the simplicial complexes K_i are flag complexes, we call it **flag towers** and **flag filtrations**.

Persistent homology. If we compute the homology classes of all the K_i , we get the sequence $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T}) : \{H_p(K_1) \xrightarrow{f_1^*} H_p(K_2) \xrightarrow{f_2^*} H_p(K_3) \xrightarrow{f_3^*} \dots \xrightarrow{f_{(m-1)}^*} H_p(K_m)\}$. Here $H_p()$ denotes the homology class of dimension p with coefficients from a field \mathbb{F} and f_i^* is the homomorphism induced from f_i . $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$ is a sequence of vector spaces connected through the f_i^* called a **persistence module**. More formally, a *persistence module* \mathbb{V} is a sequence of vector spaces $\{V_1 \rightarrow V_2 \rightarrow V_3 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_m\}$ connected with homomorphisms $\{\rightarrow\}$ between them. A persistence module arising from a sequence of simplicial complexes captures the evolution of the topology of the sequence. Two different persistence modules $\mathbb{V} : \{V_1 \rightarrow V_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow V_m\}$ and $\mathbb{W} : \{W_1 \rightarrow W_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow W_m\}$, connected through a set of homomorphisms $\phi_i : V_i \rightarrow W_i$ are **equivalent** if the ϕ_i are isomorphisms and the following diagram commutes [14, 24].

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

Any persistence module can be *decomposed* into a collection of intervals of the form $[i, j)$ [14]. The multiset of all the intervals $[i, j)$ in this decomposition is called the **persistence diagram** of the persistence module. An interval of the form $[i, j)$ in the persistence diagram of $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T})$ corresponds to a homological feature (a “cycle”) which appeared at i and disappeared at j . The persistence diagram (PD) completely characterizes the persistence module, that is, there is a bijective correspondence between the PD and the equivalence class of the persistence module [14, 58]. In other words, equivalent persistence modules have the same persistence diagram.

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

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

3 Edge Collapse

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

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

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

The notion of k -collapse is the same as the notion of *extended collapse* introduced in [4]. We give it a different name to indicate the dependency on the dimension. A 0-collapse is a strong collapse as introduced in [5]. A 1-collapse will be called an **edge collapse**. It is not hard to

see that an elementary simple collapse of a k -simplex σ is a k -collapse, as it is dominated by the vertex $v = \tau \setminus \sigma$, where τ is the unique coface containing σ . Each k -collapse can be decomposed into a sequence of elementary simple collapses and therefore k -collapses preserve the simple homotopy type [53, Lemma 2.7] and [4, Lemma 8]. Therefore, like simple collapses, k -collapses induce a strong deformation retract as well on the geometric realization.

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

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

Proof. If $\sigma \prec v'$ then $lk_K(\sigma) = v'L$ by definition. This implies that for any maximal simplex τ in $st_K(\sigma)$, $v' \in \tau$. Therefore, $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. For the reverse direction, let $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. Hence, for any maximal simplex τ in $st_K(\sigma)$, we have $v' \in \tau$. Now as $v' \notin \sigma$, v' belong to all the simplices $\tau \setminus \sigma$, and thus $lk_K(\sigma) = v'L$ where $L = (\tau \setminus \sigma) \setminus v'$. Hence $\sigma \prec v'$ iff $v' \in \bigcap \Sigma_\sigma$. ◀

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

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

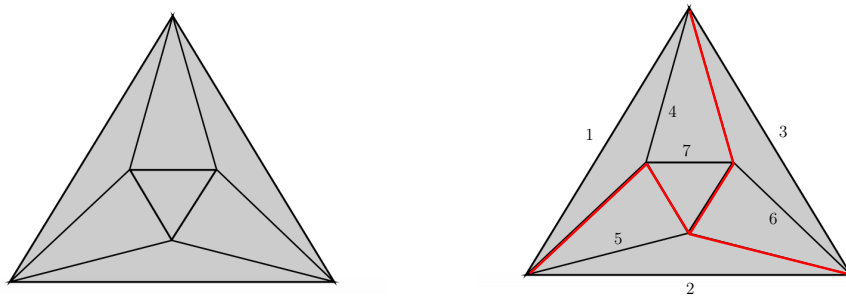
► **Lemma 2.** *Let σ be a simplex of a flag complex K . Then σ will be dominated by a vertex v' if and only if $N_G[\sigma] \subseteq N_G[v']$.*

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

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

Lemma 2 is a generalisation of Lemma 1 in [11]. The next lemma, though elementary, is of crucial significance. Both lemmas show that edge collapses are well-suited to flag complexes.

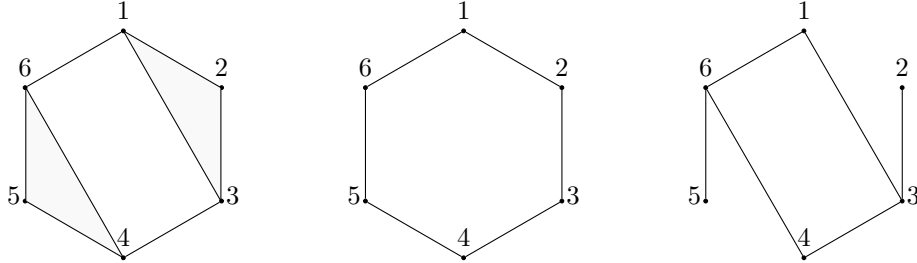
► **Lemma 3.** *Let K be a flag complex and let L be any subcomplex of K obtained by edge collapse. Then L is also a flag complex.*



■ **Figure 1** The above complex does not have any dominated vertex and thus cannot be 0-collapsed. However, by proceeding from the boundary edges, one can edge collapse this complex to a 1-dimensional complex. The 1-core obtained in this way is collapsible to a point using 0-collapse.

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Efficiency of reduction. As will be demonstrated in Section 6, edge collapse appears to be a very efficient tool to reduce the size of a complex while preserving its homotopy type. A simple example will help giving some intuition why edge collapse can be superior to vertex collapse. See Figure 1.



■ **Figure 2** The complex on the left has two different 1-cores, the one in the middle is obtained after removing the inner edges $[1, 3]$ and $[4, 6]$, and the one in the right by removing the outer edges $[1, 2]$ and $[4, 5]$. Note that the one in the right can be further strong collapsed.

4 Simple Collapse and Persistence

In this section, we turn our attention to the general case of simple collapses (of which k -collapses are a special case) and provide one of the main result of this article. This can be seen as a generalization of Theorem 2 of [12].

► **Theorem 4.** *Let $f : K \rightarrow L$ be a simplicial map between two complexes K and L and let $K' \subset K$ and $L' \subset L$ be subcomplexes of K and L such that $K \searrow K'$ and $L \searrow L'$. Then there exists a map $f' : K' \rightarrow L'$, induced by f , such that the persistence of $f^* : H_p(K) \rightarrow H_p(L)$ and $f'^* : H_p(K') \rightarrow H_p(L')$ are the same for any integer $p \geq 0$. The induced map f' may not be simplicial. Nevertheless, it can be expressed as a combination of inclusions, contractions and removals of simplices.*

Proof. Let us consider the following diagram between the geometric realizations of the complex $|K|$, $|L|$, $|K'|$ and $|L'|$.

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

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

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

Here $|r_k|$ and $|r_l|$ are the deformation retractions on the geometric realizations associated with the simple collapse and $|i_k|$ and $|i_l|$ are the inclusion maps. $H_p^o()$ denotes the singular homology and $*$ is the induced homomorphisms by the corresponding continuous maps. The map $|f'|$ is defined as $|f'| := |r_l| \circ |f| \circ |i_k|$. Hence $|f'| \circ |r_k| = |r_l| \circ |f| \circ |i_k|$. Now observe

that, since $|r_k|$ is a deformation retraction, $|i_k||r_k|$ is homotopic to the identity over $|K|$. It follows that $|r_l||f||i_k||r_k|$ is homotopic to $|r_l||f|$. Since homotopic maps induce identical homomorphisms on the corresponding homology groups [38, Proposition 2.19], we deduce that $|f'|^*|r_k|^* = |r_l|^*|f|^*$ (commutativity). Also, since $|r_k|^*$ and $|r_l|^*$ are induced by deformation retractions, they are isomorphisms on their respective singular homology groups. We have thus proved that the above diagram commutes and that the vertical maps $|r_k|$ and $|r_l|$ are isomorphisms. This implies that the two maps $|f| : |K| \rightarrow |L|$ and $|f'| : |K'| \rightarrow |L'|$ have the same singular persistent homology.

$|f'|$ induces a map $f' := r_l \circ f \circ i_k$ between the simplicial complexes K' and L' . Note that f' can be expressed as a composition of inclusions, contractions and removals of simplices, as i_k is an inclusion, f is simplicial and r_l is a simple collapse. Also, for simplicial complexes, singular homology is isomorphic to simplicial homology [38, Theorem 2.27]. This implies that the persistent singular homology $|f'|^* : H_p^o(|K'|) \rightarrow H_p^o(|L'|)$ and the persistent simplicial homology $f'^* : H_p(K') \rightarrow H_p(L')$ are equivalent. Therefore, the persistent simplicial homologies $f^* : H_p(K) \rightarrow H_p(L)$ and $f'^* : H_p(K') \rightarrow H_p(L')$ are equivalent. ◀

The use of singular homology in the proof is due to the lack of a simplicial map associated with the retraction ($|r|$) of a simple collapse. Due to the same reason, the induced map $f' : K' \rightarrow L'$ may not be necessarily simplicial. However, as mentioned in the above proof the map f' can be expressed as a combination of inclusions, contractions and removals of simplices. When a sequence of simplicial complexes contains removals of simplices, it is called a zigzag sequence. There are algorithms [45, 42] to compute zigzag persistence but they are not as efficient as the usual algorithms for filtrations and towers.

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

5 Edge collapse of a flag filtration

In Section 3, we have introduced edge collapse for general simplicial complexes and provided an easy criterion for edge-domination in a flag complex using only the 1-skeleton of the complex. In this section, we provide an algorithm to simplify a flag filtration by removing dominated edges (i.e. edge collapses), again using only the 1-skeleton of the complex.

We define a notion of **removable edge** to help explain how our algorithm works (Algorithm 1) and to prove its correctness. Let G be a graph and K be the associated flag complex. We say that an edge e in a graph G is removable either if it is dominated in K or if there exists a sequence of edge collapses $K \searrow \searrow^1 K^c$ such that e is dominated in the reduced complex K^c . Our algorithm is based on the fact that the flag complexes K and K^c are homotopy equivalent [53, Lemma 2.7] and [4, Lemma 8]. If $e = [u, v]$, we define the **edge-neighborhood** of an edge $e \in G$ as the set $EN_G(e) := \{[x, y], x \in \{u, v\}, y \in N_G([uv])\}$.

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

Let's give an intuitive presentation of the algorithm first. The central idea is to identify edges that appear to be non-removable at some point in the algorithm. We store such edges

in a set E^c . To be more specific, consider the case of the inclusion of an edge $G_{i-1} \xrightarrow{e_i} G_i$ such that e_i is dominated in G_i : e_i is thus removable in G_i and is not included in E^c . Suppose first that all further edges e_s are dominated in G_s , $i < s \leq n$. Then e_i remains removable and will never be put in E^c . This is consistent with the fact that e_i does not change the topology of the complexes K_s and is therefore not required when computing persistence.

Assume now that some edge e_p , $i < p \leq n$, is non-dominated in G_p . The status of e_i , that was removable in all G_s for $s < p$, may change to non-removable in G_p . Therefore, we check whether e_i is non-removable in G_p (by proceeding in the reverse filtration order) and, in the affirmative, include e_i in E^c . In turn, the fact that e_i changed from removable to non-removable may change the status of the edges with smaller indices which could become non-removable after the inclusion of e_i . If such edges are found, they are also included in E^c .

Before describing the algorithm in detail, two remarks are in order. First, we do not change the status of an edge from non-removable to removable even if it has become removable: this will enforce the output sequence to be a filtration. Second, we change the filtration values of some edges: the new filtration value of an edge is the first index at which it is found to be non-removable. The second point leads to faster computation of E^c , otherwise one has to proceed backward recursively to search for new non-removable edges.

We now explain how to compute E^c . See [Algorithm 1] for the pseudo-code. The main **for** loop on line 6 (called the forward loop) iterates over the edges in the filtration \mathcal{F} by increasing filtration values, i.e. in the *forward direction*, and check whether or not the current edge e_i is dominated in the graph G_i . If *not*, we insert e_i in E^c and keep its original index i .

After the insertion of an edge e_i in E^c , we proceed to the so-called backward loop ([Lines 9-26]) and look for new non-dominated edges in G_i , considering the edges by decreasing filtration values. We assign G_i to a temporary graph G , and we assign the edge-neighborhood of e_i in the graph G_i to E^{nbd} [Line 9-10]. As established in Lemma 5, the search for new non-dominated edges can be restricted to E^{nbd} . If an edge e_j is not in E^c and not in E^{nbd} [Line 13-14], e_j is still dominated: we then remove it from G [Line 22]. If $e_j \notin E^c$ and $e_j \in E^{nbd}$, then we check whether it is dominated or not. If e_j is dominated, we remove it from G [Line 19]. Otherwise, we insert 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 the backward search in G_i . Next we enlarge the edge-neighborhood E^{nbd} by inserting the edge-neighbors of e_j in G . We repeat this process until the last index $j = 1$. Upon termination of the forward loop [Line 6-30], we output E^c as the final set.

The computation of non-removable edges (the set E^c) is dependent on the order in which we do the backward search (the backward loop). In Algorithm 1 we chose to proceed in the reverse order of the filtration. A different choice of order might result in a different set of non-removable edges since edge collapses are order dependent as mentioned in Section 3.

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

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

■ **Algorithm 1** Core flag filtration algorithm.

```

1: procedure CORE-FLAG-FILTRATION( $E$ )
2:   input : set of edges  $E$  of  $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{F}}$  sorted by filtration value.
3:    $E^c \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;  $i \leftarrow 1$ ;
4:    $E^{nbd} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
5:    $G \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
6:   for  $e_i \in E$  do                                     ▷ For  $i = 1, \dots, n$  in increasing order
7:     if  $e_i$  is non-dominated in  $G_i$  then
8:       Insert  $\{e_i, i\}$  in  $E^c$ .
9:        $G \leftarrow G_i$ 
10:       $E^{nbd} \leftarrow EN_{G_i}(e_i)$ 
11:       $j \leftarrow i - 1$ 
12:      for  $e_j \in G_i$  do                                   ▷ For  $j = (i - 1), \dots, 1$  in decreasing order
13:        if  $e_j \notin E^c$  then
14:          if  $e_j \in E^{nbd}$  then
15:            if  $e_j$  is non-dominated in  $G$  then
16:              Insert  $\{e_j, i\}$  in  $E^c$ .
17:               $E^{nbd} \leftarrow E^{nbd} \cup EN_G(e_j)$ 
18:            else
19:               $G \leftarrow G \setminus e_j$ 
20:            end if
21:          else
22:             $G \leftarrow G \setminus e_j$ 
23:          end if
24:        end if
25:       $j \leftarrow j - 1$ 
26:    end for
27:  end if
28:   $G \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
29:   $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
30: end for
31: return  $E^c$                                            ▷  $E^c$  is the 1-skeleton of the core flag filtration.
32: end procedure

```

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

Correctness. We now prove some lemmas to certify the correctness of our algorithm.

The following lemma justifies the fact that the search for new critical edges during the backward loop of Algorithm 1 is restricted to the neighborhood of already found critical edges.

► **Lemma 5.** *Let e be an edge in a graph G and let e' be a new edge and $G' := G \cup e'$. If e is dominated in G and $e \notin EN_{G'}(e')$, then e is dominated in G' .*

Proof. Let $e \prec v'$ in G , then $N_G[e] \subseteq N_G[v']$. Plainly, $N_G[v'] \subseteq N_{G'}[v']$ and, since $e \notin EN_{G'}(e')$, $N_{G'}[e] = N_G[e]$. Therefore, $N_{G'}[e] = N_G[e] \subseteq N_{G'}[v']$ implies $e \prec v'$ in G' . ◀

The following lemma says that a non-critical edge is always removable and that a critical edge is removable until it becomes critical.

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► **Lemma 6.** *Let e_i^j be an edge with $i < j$, then it is removable in all G_t , $i \leq t < \min(n+1, j)$.*

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

1. Let us first consider the case $j = \infty$. Note that e_i^∞ is non-critical and let j_i be the smallest primary critical index greater than i . If no such index exists, set $j_i = n + 1$. We show by induction that e_i^∞ remains removable in all G_t , $i \leq t < n + 1$. As shown above, it 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 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 , which implies that e_i^j is removable in G_t (in the backward sequence e_t, e_{t-1}, \dots, e_i). Consider now $t = j_i$. Since e_{j_i} is a primary critical edge, it is non-dominated in G_{j_i} . According to the algorithm, a backward loop has been triggered at j_i . During this backward loop, e_i^∞ has *not* been inserted in E^c since its second critical index is ∞ . This is only possible because e_i^∞ has been found to be dominated in G . Since G is initialized as G_{j_i} , it follows that e_i^∞ is removable in G_{j_i} . We can now proceed in a similar way for all $t, j_i < t < n + 1$.
2. The proof is very similar for the case $i < j \leq n$. As e_i^j has not been inserted in E^c until the backward loop triggered at index j , e_i^j remains removable in all G_t , $i \leq t < j$. ◀

Note that our statement does not imply that a critical edge e_i^j , $i < j \leq n$, can never be removable in G_t , $t \geq j$. It just means that we are sure that it will remain removable until the point it becomes critical.

► **Lemma 7.** *For each i , Algorithm 1 produces a sequence of elementary edge collapses such that $K_i \searrow \searrow^1 K_i^c$.*

Proof. By definition, $G_i \setminus G_i^c = \{e_t^m \mid t \leq i, m > i\}$ is the set of edges of G_i whose critical index m is greater than i , which includes the non-critical edges ($m = \infty$). Any edge $e_t^m \in G_i \setminus G_i^c$ is removable in all K_j , $j < m$ by Lemma 6. ◀

The proof of the following theorem certifying the correctness of our algorithm follows directly through the application of Lemma 7 and Theorem 4.

► **Theorem 8.** *Let $\mathcal{F} : K_1 \hookrightarrow K_2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow K_n$ be a flag filtration and $\mathcal{G}_{\mathcal{F}} : G_1 \hookrightarrow G_2 \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow G_n$ be the associated sequence of 1-skeletons, such that $G_i \hookrightarrow G_{i+1}$ is an elementary 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 before. Then the associated flag filtration of the critical edges, $\mathcal{F}^c : K_1^c \hookrightarrow K_2^c \hookrightarrow \dots \hookrightarrow K_n^c$ has the same persistence diagram as \mathcal{F} .*

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

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

Using Lemma 7, there is an edge collapse and therefore a simple collapse from K_i to K_i^c and from K_{i+1} to K_{i+1}^c . And $|r_i|$ and $|r_{i+1}|$ are the deformation retractions induced by the corresponding edge collapses. The equivalence of the persistence modules then follows directly from the application of Theorem 4. ◀

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

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

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

6 Computational Experiments

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

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

The code has been compiled using the compiler “clang-900.0.38” and all computations were performed on a “2.8 GHz Intel Core i5” machine with 16 GB of available RAM. Both EdgeCollapser and VertexCollapser work irrespective of the dimension of the complexes associated to the input datasets. However, the size of the complexes in the reduced filtration, even if much smaller than in the original filtration, might exceed the capacities of the PD computation algorithm. For this reason, we introduced, as in Ripser [6], a parameter dim and restricts the expansion of the flag complexes to a maximal dimension dim .

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

Comparison with VertexCollapser. The same set of experimental results using VertexCollapser are summarized in Table 2. VertexCollapser can be used in two modes: in the exact mode (step=0), the output filtration has the same PD as the input filtration while,

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

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in the approximate mode (step>0), a certified approximation is returned. For appropriate comparison, we use VertexCollapser in exact mode. It can be seen that EdgeCollapser is faster than VertexCollapser by approximately two orders of magnitude. The main reason for this is the efficient preprocessing algorithm behind EdgeCollapser. As it can be noticed in some cases, the reduction obtained using VertexCollapser is better than using EdgeCollapser, but even in those cases EdgeCollapser is faster than VertexCollapser.

In terms of size reduction, EdgeCollapser either outperforms VertexCollapser by a big amount or is comparable. Some intuition can be gained from the *torus* example. This is a well distributed point sets sampled from a manifold without boundary. The fact that there is no boundary implies that there are only a few number of dominated vertices, which dramatically reduces the capacity of VertexCollapser to collapse.

EdgeCollapser computes the exact PD of the input filtration while VertexCollapser has an exact and an approximate modes, Results in Table 2 are obtained using the exact mode of VertexCollapser, while results in Table 1 [11] are obtained using the approximate mode. In both cases, EdgeCollapser performs much better than VertexCollapser. An approximate version of EdgeCollapser can be easily implemented similarly to the case of VertexCollapser. Instead of triggering the backward loop of the algorithm [Line12-26] at each primary critical edge we find, we can trigger the backward loop at certain snapshot values only. See Section 5 of [11] for more details on the approximate methodology and description of snapshot.

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

Data	Pnt	Thrsld	EdgeCollapser +PD				
			Edge(I)/Edge(C)	Size/Dim	dim	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

■ **Table 2** The columns are, from left to right: dataset (Data), number of points (Pnt), maximum value of the scale parameter (Thrsld), number of simplices (Size) and dimension of the final filtration (Dim), parameter (dim), time (in seconds) taken by VertexCollapser, total time (in seconds) including PD computation (Tot-Time), parameter $Step$ (linear approximation factor) and the number of snapshots used (Snaps). For the last experiment (torus), the preprocessing was stopped after 12hrs due to the number of snapshots and the size of the complexes.

Data	Pnt	Thrsld	VertexCollapser +PD					
			Size/Dim	dim	Pre-Time	Tot-Time	$Step$	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

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

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

Data	Pnt	Threshold	Ripser		Ripser		Ripser	
			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	∞		

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² We used the command `<./ripser inputData -format distances -threshold inputTh -dim inputDim >`.

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