Homology Annotations via Matrix Reduction

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Oleksiy Busaryev, Tamal K. Dey, Yusu Wang Department of Computer Science and Engineering The Ohio State University Columbus, OH 43210, USA {busaryev,tamaldey,yusu}@cse.ohio-state.edu

ABSTRACT

In this work, we propose an alternative algorithm for annotating simplices of a simplicial complex \mathcal{K} with sub-bases of a basis B of its p-dimensional homology group $\mathsf{H}_1(\mathcal{K})$. Such annotations, summed over p-simplices in any p-cycle z, provide an expression of z in B. This allows us to answer queries of null homology and independence of p-cycles efficiently and improve the running time of the greedy algorithm to compute a shortest basis of $\mathsf{H}_1(\mathcal{K})$. The best known algorithm for the shortest basis problem that does not use annotations has a time complexity of $O(n^4)$, where n is the size of the 2-skeleton of \mathcal{K} . We improve it to $O(n^3 + n^2 g^2)$, where g is the rank of $\mathsf{H}_1(\mathcal{K})$.

Annotating simplices with a homology basis has been considered before [1]. The existing approach can preprocess the simplicial complex and assign annotations in sub-cubic time. However, this involves computing the LSP-decomposition of the boundary matrix, which can be computationally cumbersome. We present a simple and implementation-friendly $O(n^3)$ approach that fits nicely to the family of matrix reduction algorithms such as the persistence algorithm and the classic Smith normal form reduction. Our analysis also reveals interesting connections to the persistence algorithm. Namely, our matrix reduction method computes pairing between simplices under homomorphisms between homology groups that are not necessarily induced by inclusions between the subcomplexes of the filtration of \mathcal{K} .

1. INTRODUCTION

The p-dimensional cycles in simplicial complexes, p-cycles in short, are topological generalizations of cycles in graphs. These p-cycles play a fundamental role in summarizing the topological information about the underlying space that a complex represents. For example, homology groups, which

are well known algebraic structures capturing topology of a space, are defined as the sets of equivalence classes on the space of all cycles. Consequently, questions about topological characterizations of input cycles often come up in computations dealing with topology. For example, to compute a shortest basis of a homology group with greedy approach, one needs to determine if cycles in a given set are *independent*. To determine the topological complexity of a given cycle, a first level test could be that if it is *null homologous*, or equivalently if it is a boundary.

A number of studies has been done that concern with the computation of such topological characterization of cycles [2, 3, 5, 4, 11]. However, most of these studies focus on the special case of 1-cycles on surfaces. Recently, a preprocessing technique was proposed [1] that helps answering some of the basic topological queries about cycles efficiently. Given a simplicial complex K, the algorithm annotates simplices in K in such a way that one may derive topological information about a given p-cycle z in K quickly. For this purpose, a basis B of the homology group in question is determined, and a sub-basis of B is assigned to each p-simplex. The sub-bases, called annotations, are such that when added for all p-simplices in a p-cycle z, they form the expression or coordinates of z in B. The coordinates of z in a basis B reveal its topological class, and thus help answering questions about its topological characterizations.

The algorithm from [1] can compute annotations in $O(n^{\omega})$ matrix multiplication time, where $\omega < 2.376$. However, this approach is not particularly suitable for implementation, since computing LSP-decomposition can be inefficient in practice. We propose a simple alternative that involves only simple matrix operations such as column additions. First, we consider a canonical basis of the p-chain group of a simplicial complex K formed by its p-simplices. Using simple chain additions and the boundary operator, we change the basis of the p-chain group so that a basis of all p-cycles can be identified. We change the basis of p-cycles further, again with careful chain additions, so that a basis of the p-th homology group can be identified. In the process, we also identify the sub-bases that should annotate each p-simplex. The entire algorithm can be implemented by column additions in boundary matrices that represent the boundary operator. In this respect, the algorithm falls in the class of well known Smith normal form reduction algorithm that computes ranks of homology groups [12] and the recent persistence algorithm [10] that computes persistent homology.

^{*}Pleasee refer to the paper 'Annotating Simplices with a Homology Basis and Its Applications' [1] for additional information on simplex annotations.

However, there are important differences that enable our algorithm to compute annotations which neither of the other two algorithms does. Incidentally, the persistence algorithm can be viewed as a special case of our annotation algorithm. In fact, we obtain a slightly different reduction sequence for the persistence algorithm which enables it to run faster on some special input. Furthermore, our results suggest that simplices can be paired differently while still remaining consistent with a notion of persistent homology which allows homomorphisms between the homology groups that are not necessarily induced by inclusions in a filtration.

We show how the annotations of the simplices can be leveraged to answer some of the topological queries efficiently. In particular, with an $O(n^3)$ preprocessing time for a simplicial complex of n simplices, we achieve the following. A p-cycle with m simplices can be checked for null homology in O(mg) time, where g is the rank of H_p . A set of k p-cycles with m simplices in total can be verified for independence in $O(m+kg^2)$ time. Lastly, we can improve the time complexity of the greedy algorithm to compute a shortest basis for the one-dimensional homology group of a simplicial complex. The greedy approach, first proposed for surfaces [11] and later extended to simplicial complexes [8], needs independence checks. Using annotations, one can carry out the entire greedy algorithm in $O(n^3 + n^2g^2)$ time, improving the previously known time complexity of $O(n^4)$.

2. BACKGROUND AND NOTATIONS

We briefly introduce the notations for chains, cycles, boundaries, and homology groups of a simplicial complex; one may obtain the details from any standard book on algebraic topology such as [12].

Let \mathcal{K} be a simplicial complex. A p-chain in \mathcal{K} is a formal sum of p-simplices. The additions are assumed to be \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions in this work. The set of p-chains forms an abelian group $\mathsf{C}_p = \mathsf{C}_p(\mathcal{K})$ under \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions where the empty chain plays the role of identity.

A boundary operator ∂_p acting on a p-simplex provides a (p-1)-chain that is the sum of the (p-1)-faces of σ . This boundary operator linearly extends to provide a homomorphism $\partial_p: \mathsf{C}_p \to \mathsf{C}_{p-1}$. The kernel $\ker \partial_p$ is called the p-cycle group of \mathcal{K} , denoted $\mathsf{Z}_p = \mathsf{Z}_p(\mathcal{K})$. The image im ∂_p is called the (p-1)-boundary group of \mathcal{K} , denoted $\mathsf{B}_{p-1} = \mathsf{B}_{p-1}(\mathcal{K})$. By definitions, Z_p and B_{p-1} are subgroups of C_p and C_{p-1} respectively. Also, since $\partial_{p+1} \circ \partial_p = 0$, we have $\mathsf{B}_p \subseteq \mathsf{Z}_p \subseteq \mathsf{C}_p$. Therefore, the quotient group $\mathsf{H}_p = \mathsf{Z}_p/\mathsf{B}_p$ is well defined, which is called the p-dimensional homology group of \mathcal{K} .

The groups C_p , Z_p , and B_p are all free abelian groups generated finitely. Thus, they have finite bases. The homology group H_p under \mathbb{Z}_2 additions becomes a finite vector space. Consequently, it also admits a finite basis. An element v in a group with a finite basis $B = \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$ has the coordinate $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k\}$ where $v = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i$. Letting $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denote the scalar product associated to the basis B, we have $\alpha_i = \langle v, v_i \rangle$ as B becomes orthonormal. The only scalar product we use here is that associated to the canonical basis of C_p formed by its p-simplices. Thus, for a p-chain p and a p-simplex p, $\langle z, b \rangle = 1$ if and only if p contains p.

3. BOUNDARY AND CYCLE BASIS

In this section, we describe a so-called *pivot* operation and how it can be used to produce a certain basis for the boundary and cycle groups. An example is provided in Section 6 to help illustrating our descriptions.

Let \mathcal{K} be a simplicial complex and p be a non-negative integer not more than the dimension of \mathcal{K} . Canonical bases of the chain groups C_{p-1} and C_p are given by the set of (p-1)-simplices $\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}$ and the set of p-simplices $\{b_1,\ldots,b_m\}$ respectively in \mathcal{K} . The boundary group $\mathsf{B}_{p-1}\subseteq\mathsf{C}_{p-1}$ is the image $\partial_p(\mathsf{C}_p)$ of the boundary homomorphism $\partial_p:\mathsf{C}_p\to\mathsf{C}_{p-1}$. Let $\{a_{i_1},\ldots,a_{i_{p+1}}\}\subseteq\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}$ denote the set of (p-1)-simplices in the boundary of a p-simplex b_i . We drop the subscript p from ∂_p when it is obvious from the context. Clearly, the boundary group B_{p-1} is generated by

$$\{\partial b_i = a_{i_1} + \dots + a_{i_{p+1}} \mid i = 1, \dots, m\}.$$

We pivot the boundary cycles $\{d_i = \partial b_i\}$ in any order which updates them as follows (see Section 6 for an example). Suppose we are pivoting d_i now. If $d_i = 0$ because of previous pivoting, no updates occur. Otherwise, we choose any a_{i_k} as a sentinel where

$$d_i = a_{i_1} + \dots + a_{i_k} + \dots + a_{i_r}$$

and eliminate a_{i_k} from all other chains by the following sequence of reductions:

$$\forall j \neq i : d_j \leftarrow d_j + d_i \text{ if } d_j \text{ contains } a_{i_k}.$$
 (R1)

After the application of (R1), a_{i_k} can exist only in d_i and no other d_j 's for $j \neq i$. Observe also that after any reduction, a boundary cycle d_j remains a sum of the boundaries of the *p*-simplices that were added to it for reductions (R1). Therefore, at any point of the pivot sequence

$$d_j = \partial b_{j_1} + \dots + \partial b_{j_k} = \partial (b_{j_1} + \dots + b_{j_k}),$$

where $\{j_1,\ldots,j_k\}\subseteq\{1,\ldots,m\}$. Let $b'_j=b_{j_1}+\cdots+b_{j_k}$. As the (p-1)-chains $\{d_j\}$ change due to reductions, so do the p-chains $\{b'_j\}$. The set $\{b'_j\}$ continues to be a basis of C_p since a reduction replaces a basis element by a linear combination of the element itself with other basis elements. In particular, if d^*_i and b^*_i are the final chains where $d^*_i=\partial b^*_i$ after all pivots are complete, we have a new basis for C_p .

PROPOSITION 1. $\{b_1^*, \ldots, b_m^*\}$ form a basis of C_p .

Recall that the pivot operation may render zero some of the boundary cycles in $\{d_1^*,\ldots,d_m^*\}$. Let $U\subseteq\{b_1^*,\ldots,b_m^*\}$ be the maximal subset of the new basis where $\partial b_i^*=0$ $(U=\{b_3^*,b_5^*\}$ in the example in Section 6). Let $V=\{b_1^*,\ldots,b_m^*\}\setminus U$ be the rest of the basis. Recall that $\langle \cdot, \rangle$ denotes the scalar product in the canonical base $\{b_1,\ldots,b_m\}$ of C_p .

CLAIM 1. If $b_i^* \in V$ and a_{i_k} is the sentinel to pivot d_i , then $\langle \partial b_j^*, a_{i_k} \rangle = 1$ if and only if i = j. Similarly, if $b_i^* \in U$, then $\langle b_j^*, b_i \rangle = 1$ if and only if i = j.

PROOF. Consider $b_i^* \in V$. By definition $d_i^* = \partial b_i^*$ is a nonzero chain. Then, d_i must have been pivoted since the pivot operation skips a chain only if it is zero, and a zero

chain remains to be so throughout the pivot sequence. Observe that, once a chain d_i is pivoted, it contains the *unique* sentinel a_{i_k} which does not appear in any other chain d_j , $j \neq i$, for the rest of the pivot sequence. Since $d_i = \partial b_i'$, we have the first claim.

Next, consider $b_i^* \in U$. By definition $d_i^* = \partial b_i^*$ is a zero chain. Then, the chain d_i was never pivoted since otherwise it would contain a unique a_{i_k} till the end. The chain b_i' is simply b_i at the beginning of the pivot sequence. Since d_i is not pivoted, b_i is not added to any b_j' , $j \neq i$ during the entire pivot sequence. Therefore, no p-chain b_j' , $j \neq i$, contains b_i at any point of the pivot operation. Hence, $\langle b_j^*, b_i \rangle = 0$ for $j \neq i$. Clearly, the chain b_i' cannot lose b_i due to reductions since no other b_j' contains b_i . Thus, $\langle b_i^*, b_i \rangle = 1$, completing the proof of the second claim. \square

PROPOSITION 2. The chains in $\partial V = \{\partial b_i^* \mid b_i^* \in V\}$ form a basis of the boundary group B_{p-1} whereas the chains in U form a basis of Z_p .

PROOF. First, since $\{b_i^* \mid i=1,\ldots,m\}$ is a basis of C_p , $\{\partial b_i^* \mid i=1,\ldots,m\}$ is a set of cycles that generates B_{p-1} . Among these cycles, the ones in ∂U are zero chains. Therefore, B_{p-1} is generated by ∂V . Furthermore, the chains in ∂V are linearly independent since the chain ∂b_i^* for any $b_i^* \in V$ has a unique element a_{i_k} which does not appear in any other ∂b_i^* (Claim 1). Hence ∂V , a generator for B_{p-1} , must be its basis.

Now consider U, which is a set of p-cycles as $\partial b_i^* = 0$ for each $b_i^* \in U$. Cycles in U are linearly independent since each $b_i^* \in U$ has a unique element b_i which does not appear in any b_j^* for $j \neq i$ (Claim 1). Furthermore, it is well-known that rank $\mathsf{C}_p = \mathrm{rank}\,\mathsf{B}_{p-1} + \mathrm{rank}\,\mathsf{Z}_p$. It then follows that $|U| = \mathrm{rank}\,\mathsf{Z}_p$ since $U \cup V$ forms a basis for C_p and cardinality of V equals that of ∂V which is $\mathrm{rank}(\mathsf{B}_{p-1})$. Hence U forms a basis of Z_p . \square

Let the index-set I(U) of U denote the set of indices $I(U) = \{i \mid d_i^* \in U\}$. The index-set I(V) is defined similarly. It may be of independent interest to observe that the index-sets of U and V remain independent of the choice of the sentinels. They only depend on the choice of the order by which the chains $\{d_i\}$ are pivoted. Without loss of generality, assume that the chains $\{d_i\}$ have been pivoted in order $\{d_1, \ldots, d_m\}$.

PROPOSITION 3. The index-sets of U and V remain independent of the choice of the sentinels $\{a_{i_k}\}$.

PROOF. Assume inductively that the index set of zero chains $U_{i-1} \subset \{d_1, \ldots, d_{i-1}\}$ and hence that of non-zero chains $V_{i-1} = \{d_1, \ldots, d_{i-1}\} \setminus V_{i-1}$ remain independent of the choice of the sentinels after pivoting up to the chain d_{i-1} . The assertion is true when i=2 since d_1 is not zero no matter which sentinel is chosen for it. To continue induction, consider the chain d_i . The fact whether d_i is zero or not does not depend on the choice of the previous sentinels. To see this, consider the complex \mathcal{K}_i made by p-simplices b_1, \ldots, b_i and their faces. According to Proposition 2, the cardinality

of U_i determines the rank of cycle group $\mathsf{Z}_p(\mathcal{K}_i)$. Since this rank and $I(U_{i-1})$ remain independent of the choice of sentinels, the nullity of d_i and hence inclusion of i into the index set does not depend on them either. We have the claim as $I(U) = I(U_m)$ and $I(V) = I(V_m)$. \square

4. ANNOTATION

Consider a simplicial complex \mathcal{K} with (p-1)-, p-, (p+1)-simplices $\{a_1,\ldots,a_n\}$, $\{b_1,\ldots,b_m\}$, and $\{c_1,\ldots,c_\ell\}$ respectively. We now describe the procedure to annotate each p-simplex in \mathcal{K} . We will show in next section that our pivot operation and annotation procedure can be easily implemented using a simple reduction algorithm.

4.1 Chains to cycles

Consider the chain group C_p with the basis $\{b_1^*, \dots b_m^*\}$ and, after re-indexing if necessary, let $U = \{b_1^*, \dots b_r^*\}$ and $V = \{b_{(r+1)}^*, \dots, b_m^*\}$ be the subbases as defined before. In light of Proposition 2, U is a basis of Z_p . We first observe (also see the example in Section 6):

Claim 2. For any $z \in \mathsf{Z}_p$, $z = \sum_{i=1}^r \langle z, b_i \rangle b_i^*$.

PROOF. Since U is a basis of Z_p , we can represent z uniquely as $z = \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_i b_i^*$. It then follows from Claim 1 that $\langle z, b_i \rangle = \langle \sum_{j=1}^r \alpha_j b_j^*, b_i \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^r \langle \alpha_j b_j^*, b_i \rangle = \alpha_i$. \square

4.2 Cycles to homology bases

Our goal is to find a basis for $H_p = Z_p/B_p$, and an annotation of simplices so that the class of any p-cycle can be coordinatized easily in this precomputed basis. To achieve this, we will first compute a subbasis of Z_p that is a basis of the boundary group B_p .

Specifically, consider (p+1)-simplices $\{c_1,\ldots,c_\ell\}$ which form a basis of C_{p+1} . The boundary cycles $e_i := \partial c_i = b_{i_1} + \cdots + b_{i_{(p+2)}}$ for $i=1,\ldots,\ell$ generate the boundary group B_p . We extract a basis out of these boundary cycles similar to what we did for B_{p-1} using the boundary chains $\{\partial b_i \mid i \in [1,m]\}$, but based on a slightly modified pivot operation as follows. The pivot operation considers a chain e_i if it has not yet been pivoted and it is not a zero chain. The reductions in this pivot sequence are distinguished from the ones in (R1) in that the sentinel for e_i , say b_{i_k} , must be from $\{b_1,\ldots,b_r\}$ so that $b_{i_k}^* \in U$. We claim in Proposition 4 below that such an element exists in any chain e_i chosen for pivot. After choosing the sentinel b_{i_k} in e_i , we reduce other chains as:

$$\forall j \neq i : e_j \leftarrow e_j + e_i \text{ if } e_j \text{ contains } b_{i_k}$$
 (R2)

PROPOSITION 4. Let $e_i = b_{i_1} + \cdots + b_{i_s}$ be any non-zero chain chosen for pivot. There must exist $b_{i_k} \in \{b_{i_1}, \dots, b_{i_s}\}$ such that no e_i has been pivoted with b_{i_k} and $b_{i_k} \in \{b_1, \dots, b_r\}$.

PROOF. Since e_i is a p-cycle, we can write $e_i = \sum_{j=1}^r \alpha_j b_j^*$. Since e_i is non-zero, at least one coordinate, say α_j of e_i is 1. By Claim 2, $\langle e_i, b_j \rangle = \langle e_i, b_j^* \rangle = \alpha_j = 1$, implying that b_j is from $\{b_{i_1}, \ldots, b_{i_s}\}$ and we can set $i_k = j$. Furthermore, this b_{i_k} cannot be a sentinel chosen previously for some chain since then b_{i_k} would have been eliminated from e_i . The claim then follows. \square

At the end of pivot sequence with reductions in (R2), the boundary cycles $\{e_1, \ldots, e_\ell\}$ are split into two disjoint sets S and T where S is the set of all zero chains and T is the rest. Letting T take the role of ∂V in Proposition 2, one can show that T is a basis of B_p (see the example in Section 6).

To construct a basis for $\mathsf{H}_p = \mathsf{Z}_p/\mathsf{B}_p$ we set T, a basis of B_p , to zero. This means setting $e_i = 0$ for each $e_i \in T$. Consider any $e_i \in T$. By Claim 2, we can write $e_i = \sum_{j=1}^r \langle e_i, b_j \rangle b_j^*$. Let $\{i_1, \ldots, i_t\}$ be the set of indices from [1, r] such that $\langle e_i, b_{i_u} \rangle = 1$ for $u \in [1, t]$; that is, $e_i = b_{i_1}^* + \cdots + b_{i_t}^*$ with each $i_u \in [1, r]$. Let b_j be the sentinel we used to pivot e_i . It follows from Proposition 4 that $j \in \{i_1, \ldots, i_t\}$ (as $\langle e_i, b_j \rangle = 1$ and $j \in [1, r]$) and assume without loss of generality that $j = i_t$. Setting $e_i = 0$ is equivalent to setting

$$b_{i_t}^* = b_{i_1}^* + \dots + b_{i_{t-1}}^*. \tag{1}$$

Since the sentinel b_{i_t} only appears in chain e_i after all pivot operations, none of the chains that are on the righthand side of the relations in (1) are on the left. Let $P = \{b_{i_t}^*\}$ be the set of chains that are on the left of equations in (1). By definition of $b_{i_t}^*$, we have $P \subseteq \{b_1^*, \ldots, b_r^*\}$. Let $W = \{b_1^*, \ldots, b_r^*\} \setminus P$. In the example in Section 6, we have $b_3^* = b_5^*$ by setting $e_1 = 0$ and thus $P = \{b_3^*\}$ and $W = \{b_5^*\}$.

The group H_p is the image of the homomorphism $\eta\colon\mathsf{Z}_p\to\mathsf{H}_p$ where η takes a cycle $z\in\mathsf{Z}_p$ to its equivalence class [z]. Using relations in (1), it can be defined the basis of Z_p as:

$$\eta(b_i^*) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} [b_i^*] & \text{if } b_i^* \in W \\ [b_{i_1}^*] + \dots + [b_{i_{t-1}}^*] & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

PROPOSITION 5. $[W] = \{[b_i^*] | b_i^* \in W\}$ is a basis for H_p .

4.3 Annotation

Finally, we annotate the p-simplices with p-chains that mimic the map η :

$$\sharp b_i = \begin{cases} b_i & \text{if } b_i^* \in W, \\ b_{i_1} + \dots + b_{i_{t-1}} & \text{if } b_i^* = b_{i_t}^* \in P, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

Since [W] is a basis for H_p , its cardinality is g. By reindexing if necessary, we assume that $W = \{b_1^*, \ldots, b_q^*\}$.

Theorem 1. Given a p-cycle $z \in \mathsf{Z}_p$ with $[z] = \sum_i^g \alpha_i[b_i^*]$, we have that $\alpha_i = \langle \sum_{j=1}^m \langle z, b_j \rangle \sharp b_j, b_i \rangle$.

PROOF. Since $\{b_1,\ldots,b_m\}$ forms a basis for C_p , we can write the p-cycle z as $\sum_{j=1}^m \langle z,b_j\rangle b_j$. By Claim 2, $z=\sum_{j=1}^r \langle z,b_j\rangle b_j^*$, where all the simplices with index higher than r can be safely ignored. The homology class of z expressed using basis [W] is $\eta(z)=\sum_{j=1}^r \langle z,b_j\rangle \eta(b_j^*)$. By the way we define the \sharp -operator, this is equivalent to

$$\eta(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{r} \left\{ \langle z, b_j \rangle \sum_{i=1}^{g} \langle \sharp b_j, b_i \rangle [b_i^*] \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{g} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{r} \langle z, b_j \rangle \cdot \langle \sharp b_j, b_i \rangle [b_i^*] \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{g} \langle \sum_{j=1}^{m} \langle z, b_j \rangle \sharp b_j, b_i \rangle [b_i^*]. \quad \Box$$

In other words, given any cycle z, its homology class [z] can be expressed in the basis [W] as $\sum_{i=1}^{g} \alpha_i[b_i^*]$ where its coordinate vector $\theta = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_q\}$ is

$$\theta = \{ \langle \Sigma_i \langle z, b_i \rangle \sharp b_i, b_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle \Sigma_i \langle z, b_i \rangle \sharp b_i, b_g \rangle \}.$$

Once the annotation $\sharp b_i$ of each simplex b_i is given, the coordinate vector of any p-cycle can be computed in O(ng) time where n is the number of p-simplices and $g = \operatorname{rank} H_p$.

COROLLARY 1. For a set of cycles z_1, \ldots, z_k , we have (i) $z_1 + \cdots + z_k = 0$ iff $\theta_1 + \cdots + \theta_g = 0$ (ii) $[z_1], \ldots, [z_k]$ are independent if and only if the coordinate vectors $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k$ are independent.

5. ALGORITHM

To compute the annotations for p-simplices, we perform two pivot sequences, one reducing (p-1)-chains (R1) and another reducing p-chains (R2). Let $\{a_i \mid i=1,\ldots,n\}$, $\{b_i \mid i=1,\ldots,m\}$, and $\{c_i \mid i=1,\ldots,\ell\}$ be arbitrarily ordered sets of (p-1)-, p-, and (p+1)-simplices respectively in a given simplicial complex \mathcal{K} . The boundary homomorphism $\partial_p:\mathsf{C}_p\to\mathsf{C}_{p-1}$ is represented by an $n\times m$ boundary matrix, denoted $[\partial_p]$, where $[\partial_p][i,j]=\langle a_i,\partial b_j\rangle$. This means that the i-th row and j-th column of $[\partial_p]$ represent the (p-1)-simplex a_i and the p-simplex b_j respectively. Therefore, the reductions of (R1) can be carried out by column additions of $[\partial_p]$. For reductions of (R2), we consider $[\partial_{p+1}]$.

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Algorithm 1 PIVOT(D, m, n)
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```
1: J \leftarrow \{1, \ldots, m\};
 2: while J \neq \emptyset do
 3:
         choose any j \in J; J \leftarrow J \setminus j;
 4:
         if col_D[j] \neq \mathbf{0} then
 5:
             choose any i such that D[i, j] \neq 0;
             \operatorname{pivot}[j] \leftarrow i;
 6:
 7:
             for all k: D[i, k] \neq 0, k \neq j do
 8:
                 \operatorname{col}_D[k] \leftarrow \operatorname{col}_D[k] + \operatorname{col}_D[j]
 9:
10:
         end if
11: end while
12: return (D, pivot);
```

First, we write the algorithm PIVOT for pivoting a general $n \times m$ matrix D which we call in the two specific contexts of implementing pivot sequences. Let $\operatorname{col}_D[j]$ and $\operatorname{row}_D[j]$ denote the column j and row j of D respectively. In all pseudo-codes we assume that arrays are initialized appropriately. The algorithm PIVOT picks any column j to pivot that has not yet been pivoted (lines 3,4). A sentinel i representing the (p-1)-simplex a_i is chosen (line 5) and all columns containing a_i other than column j are reduced (lines 7-8). We record that the chain for column j has been pivoted with a_i by setting the jth entry to i in an array pivot (line 6). This pivot array is used later as explained below.

The routine Reduce performs two pivot sequences. First, it reduces $[\partial_p]$ by calling Pivot (line 1) which returns a pivot array pivot1. The columns of $[\partial_p]$ that are reduced to zero represent the set U after the first pivot sequence (R1). The rest of the columns represent the set V. This information is implicitly recorded in pivot1. Assuming that all entries of

Algorithm 2 REDUCE($[\partial_{p+1}], [\partial_p], \ell, m, n$)

```
1: ([\partial_p], \operatorname{pivot1}) \leftarrow \operatorname{PIVOT}([\partial_p], m, n);

2: for all i \leftarrow 1 to m do

3: if \operatorname{pivot1}[i] \neq 0 then

4: \operatorname{row}_{[\partial_{p+1}]}[i] \leftarrow \mathbf{0};

5: end if

6: end for

7: ([\partial_{p+1}], \operatorname{pivot2}) \leftarrow \operatorname{PIVOT}([\partial_{p+1}], \ell, m);

8: return ([\partial_{p+1}], \operatorname{pivot1}, \operatorname{pivot2});
```

pivot1 are initialized to 0, any nonzero entry at location, say j, indicates that the jth p-chain b_j^* is in V. The second pivot sequence (R2) is performed on the matrix $[\partial_{p+1}]$. In this sequence, we choose the sentinels whose indices correspond to the elements in U. Complementary, the p-simplices whose indices correspond to the chains in V cannot be chosen as sentinels. We implement this constraint by zeroing out the row i of $[\partial_{p+1}]$ if the column i in the reduced $[\partial_p]$ is not a zero column, or equivalently, pivot $[i] \neq 0$ (lines 2-4). After modifying $[\partial_{p+1}]$ as above, we pass it to PIVOT for the second pivot sequence (line 5). Next, we call the routine Annotate which completes the annotation using an array A.

Algorithm 3 Annotate($[\partial_{p+1}], [\partial_p], \ell, m, n$)

```
1: ([\partial_{p+1}], \text{pivot1}, \text{pivot2}) \leftarrow \text{Reduce}([\partial_{p+1}], [\partial_p], \ell, m, n);
 2: for j \leftarrow 1 to \ell do
 3:
         if (i \leftarrow \text{pivot2}[j]) \neq 0 then
            A[i] \leftarrow \{k \mid [\partial_{p+1}][k,j] = 1, k \neq i\};
 4:
         end if
 5:
 6: end for
 7: for i \leftarrow 1 to m do
         if pivot1[i] \neq 0 then
 8:
 9:
            A[i] \leftarrow 0;
10:
         else
11:
             if A[i] = 0 then
12:
                A[i] \leftarrow i;
13:
             end if
14:
         end if
15: end for
```

The routine Annotate first pivots the columns of $[\partial_p]$ and $[\partial_{p+1}]$ and obtains pivot arrays pivot1 and pivot2 (line 1). At the end of pivoting, the columns of $[\partial_{p+1}]$ that are not zeroed out represent the chains forming the basis T of B_p . Then, if any such column j was pivoted using the row i, we annotate b_i with the chain $b_{i_1} + \cdots + b_{i_s}$, where $[\partial_{p+1}][i_1, j]$, ..., $[\partial_{p+1}][i_s, j]$ are remaining non-zero entries in the column $\operatorname{col}_{[\partial_{p+1}]}[j]$. Specifically, line 3 in the **for** loop (line 2-4), checks if j-th column is zero. If not, we know j-th column is pivoted with ith row (correspond to sentinel b_i) since $\operatorname{pivot2}[j] = i$. Therefore, A[i] is set to the list of row indices (representing $b_{i,s}^*$) having non-zero entries in the column j.

A simplex b_i among the rest of the p-simplices is annotated with 0 if i is a pivoted column of $[\partial_p]$, i.e., pivot1 $[i] \neq 0$ (line 6-7). Notice that this assignment does not conflict with the previous assignments in line 4 since if column i is not zero in $[\partial_p]$, it is not chosen as a sentinel row in $[\partial_{p+1}]$. The rest of the entries in A which are not set in line 4 and 7, are set to i (b_i itself) following the annotation assignments in (2).

5.1 Connection to persistence

It turns out that the matrix based persistence algorithm [9] can be obtained as a special case of our pivoting algorithm. Interestingly, we also obtain a new variant of pairing between simplices.

A filtration of a simplicial complex K is a sequence of nested sub-complexes: $\emptyset = \mathcal{K}_0 \subset \cdots \subset \mathcal{K}_n = \mathcal{K}$. Assume that the difference between any two consecutive sub-complexes is a simplex $\sigma_i = \mathcal{K}_i \setminus \mathcal{K}_{i-1}$, and let $\{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ denote the sequence of simplices in K induced by the filtration. The persistence algorithm inserts the simplices in the filtration order, and computes the changes in homology groups defined under \mathbb{Z}_2 coefficients. Specifically, when a *p*-simplex σ is brought in, it either creates a p-dimensional homology class, or destroys a (p-1)-dimensional homology class. The persistence algorithm pairs each destroyer σ with a unique creator that creates a homology class destroyed by σ . This can be implemented by reducing the boundary matrix $[\partial]$ of K whose columns and rows are sorted according to the filtration order. The reduction considers the columns from left to right while performing column \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions to the right as follows. Let low(j) be the row index of the lowest 1 in column j. When we consider column j, we check if any column i to the left of column j has low(i) = low(j). If so, we add column i to column j and thus move low(j)upward. These column additions continue till either column j becomes a zero column or low(j) becomes a unique row index so that $low(j) \neq low(j')$ for any j' < j. The simplex σ_j pairs with σ_i if low(j) = i. Notice that if σ_j is a p-simplex, σ_i is necessarily a (p-1)-simplex.

We claim that same pairing can be obtained by two simple changes in PIVOT. First, we pivot the columns in increasing order of their indices. So, replace lines 2-3 of PIVOT with

for
$$j \leftarrow 1$$
 to m .

Second, instead of choosing any sentinel, choose low(j) as the sentinel row and make the column additions only for columns to the right of j, that is, replace line 5 by

choose
$$i \leftarrow \text{low}(j)$$

and line 7 by

for
$$k \leftarrow j + 1$$
 to m such that $D[i, k] \neq 0$.

Actually, the change in line 7 is not required though it saves time. First, we assume the change in line 7 and later argue why it can be dropped. The following result from [7] is the key in establishing that the pairing of simplices with the proposed changes in PIVOT is same as that of the standard persistence algorithm.

PROPOSITION 6 ([7]). Let $[\partial]$ be a boundary matrix of a simplicial complex K whose rows and columns are sorted according to a filtration of K. If $[\partial]$ is reduced by column additions where the column on right is replaced by the addition result, and each non-zero column contains a unique low(j) after reduction, then (low(j), j) is the same as the pair obtained by the standard persistence algorithm.

Now, observe that the changes in Pivot precisely achieve the conditions above. Column j is added to columns on its

right. Also, since low(j) disappears from all such columns because of \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions, it is never chosen as sentinel later. It follows that low(j) remains unique for each non-zero column. The algorithm is different from the standard persistence algorithm [7, 9] in that it considers columns on right when reducing a column j rather than the columns on its left. Interestingly, this strategy runs faster in some special cases. Consider a p-dimensional simplicial manifold, having each of its n (p-1)-simplices incident to at most two of its m p-simplices. The algorithm computes all p- and (p-1)simplex pairings in time O(mn) instead of $O(m^2n)$ that the persistence algorithm would require. Observe that each row in this case has 1 in at most two of the columns which are on the right of the column being reduced. This invariant is true at the beginning and is maintained throughout column reductions. As a result, only one column addition is necessary per column reduction giving us an O(mn) time.

Now, we argue why the change in line 7 can be dropped. After reducing with all proposed changes, the simplices pair as in the standard persistence algorithm. Think of adding a column j to any column on its left that has 1 in the row low(j). Since low(j) is unique, these additions cannot disturb low(j) for any column j, i.e. pairing remains the same. However, these additions have the same effect as adding a column j to all columns that have 1 in the row low(j). This is equivalent to keeping line 7 of PIVOT unchanged.

Next, we examine changing only lines 2-3 to choose the columns from left to right for pivot. By Proposition 3, the classification of simplices as creators/destroyers is exactly the same as that obtained by persistence algorithm. However, since we choose sentinels arbitrarily, we have a different pairing between simplices. Each set of such simplex pairings actually captures a persistent homology that is not necessarily defined by inclusions implied by a filtration of the input complex \mathcal{K} . To elaborate, consider a filtration and the homomorphisms it induces between the homology groups:

$$\mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_1) \stackrel{\iota_1}{\to} \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_2) \stackrel{\iota_2}{\to} \cdots \stackrel{\iota_{n-1}}{\to} \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_n),$$

where ι_j s are induced by inclusions $\mathcal{K}_j \subset \mathcal{K}_{j+1}$. For $j \geq i$, let $\beta_{i,j} = \operatorname{rank} (\mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_i) \overset{\iota}{\to} \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_j))$ where $\iota = \iota_i \circ \cdots \circ \iota_j$. Following [6] define the persistence number $\mu_{i,j} = \beta_{i,j} - \beta_{i-1,j} + \beta_{i,j+1} - \beta_{i-1,j+1}$. The persistence algorithm pairs (σ_i, σ_j) iff $\mu_{i,j} = 1$. If we replace $\iota_i \colon \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_i) \to \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_{i+1})$ by another homomorphism $h_i \colon \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_i) \to \mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K}_{i+1})$ such that rank $\iota_i = \operatorname{rank} h_i$ then we get different values for $\mu_{i,j}$ which dictates a different pairing. The algorithm PIVOT with only lines 2-3 changed, implements different homomorphisms h_i s with different choices of sentinels. In particular, when low(·) is chosen, h_i equates ι_i and hence we get the standard persistence pairs. In general, it spews out pairs that are consistent with the persistent homology connecting homology groups with homomorphisms h_i which need not be ι_i .

To summarize, the pivoting algorithm we presented bears similarity with the persistence algorithm and the Smith normal form reduction algorithm. However, unlike the other two, our algorithm obtains a meaningful annotation for each simplex and our analysis gives insights into the reduction procedure. By different choice of sentinels, the algorithm outputs a persistence pairing with respect to a different sequence of homomorphisms for the filtered space.

6. ANNOTATION EXAMPLE

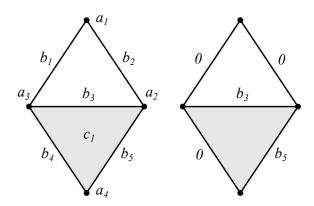


Figure 1: Left: a simplicial complex. Right: the same complex with annotations assigned.

Figure 1 illustrates the annotation process for a simplicial complex with a single nontrivial 1-homology class. Below, we elaborate on both reduction sequences. The sentinel simplices are shown in bold.

$$\begin{array}{lll} d_1:\partial(b_1)=\mathbf{a_1}+a_3 & & \partial(b_1)=a_1+a_3 \\ d_2:\partial(b_2)=a_1+a_2 & & \partial(b_1+b_2)=\mathbf{a_2}+a_3 \\ d_3:\partial(b_3)=a_2+a_3 & & \partial(b_3)=a_2+a_3 \\ d_4:\partial(b_4)=a_3+a_4 & & \partial(b_4)=a_3+a_4 \\ d_5:\partial(b_5)=a_2+a_4 & & \partial(b_5)=a_2+a_4 \end{array} \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \partial(b_1) = a_1 + a_3 & \partial(b_1 + b_4) = a_1 + a_4 \\ \partial(b_1 + b_2) = a_2 + a_3 & \partial(b_1 + b_2 + b_3) = 0 \\ \partial(b_4) = \mathbf{a_3} + a_4 & \partial(b_1 + b_2 + b_3) = 0 \\ \partial(b_1 + b_2 + b_3) = a_3 + a_4 & \partial(b_1 + b_2 + b_3) = 0 \end{array}$$

R1 reductions: After all pivots, $b_1^* = b_1 + b_4$, $b_2^* = b_1 + b_2 + b_4$, $b_3^* = b_1 + b_2 + b_3$, $b_4^* = b_4$, and $b_5^* = b_1 + b_2 + b_4 + b_5$. We have $U = \{b_3^*, b_5^*\}$ and $V = \{b_1^*, b_2^*, b_4^*\}$ (note that, we haven't reindexed which was done for convenience in the text).

$$e_1: \partial(c_1) = \mathbf{b_3} + b_4 + b_5 \to \partial(c_1) = b_3 + b_4 + b_5$$

R2 reductions: There is only one chain e_1 which generates the boundary group B_1 . To pivot e_1 , either b_3 or b_5 can be chosen as the sentinel since both b_3^* and b_5^* are in U after R1 reductions. Here $T = \{e_1\}$. Notice that $e_1 = b_3^* + b_5^*$ as suggested by our argument in the text after Proposition 4. We choose b_3 as the sentinel and thus $P = \{b_3^*\}$ and W = $\{b_5^*\}$. The annotations in this case assigns the edge b_5 the chain b_5 , the edge b_3 the chain b_5 , and all other edges the chain 0. The class $[b_5^*] = [b_1 + b_2 + b_4 + b_5]$ constitutes a basis for H_1 . The expression (coordinates) of the class of any cycle in this basis can be obtained by adding the annotations of its edges. For example, the sum of annotations for the cycle $b_3 + b_4 + b_5$ gives 0 which confirms that it is a trivial cycle in H_1 . Similarly, the sum of annotations for cycle $b_1+b_2+b_4+b_5$ gives b_5 which should be the case as the expression of its class in the basis $[b_5^*]$ is indeed $[b_5^*]$.

7. APPLICATIONS

Our annotation algorithm can be used to address some of the computational problems involving cycles.

7.1 Null homology

A p-cycle z in a complex K is called null homologous if [z] = 0. A cycle is null homologous if and only if it has zero coordinates in any basis of $H_p(K)$ (Corollary 1). Consider the problem:

QUESTION 1. Given a p-cycle z in a simplicial complex K, decide if z is null homologous.

This problem can be solved by the persistence algorithm as follows. First, run the persistence algorithm on any filtration of K. Then, think of inserting an open (p+1)-cell whose boundary is z into K treating it as a cell complex. If z is already null homologous in K, the inserted (p+1)-cell creates a (p+1)-cycle in the cellular homology of K. This can be detected by inserting a column, say d, for the dummy (p+1)-cell at the right end of the reduced boundary matrix $[\partial_{p+1}]$ of \mathcal{K} . We set $[\partial_{p+1}][i,d] \leftarrow \langle z,\sigma_i \rangle$ for each p-simplex $\sigma_i \in \mathcal{K}$ and reduce the new column d by column additions as in the persistence algorithm. The cycle z is null homologous if and only if column d is reduced to a zero column. After the initial persistence algorithm which runs in $O(n^3)$ time, this algorithm takes $O(m^2)$ query time where K contains n simplices and m p-simplices. This is because reduction of a column involves $O(m^2)$ additions O(m) column additions of O(m) \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions each). Hence, Question 1 can be answered in $O(m^2)$ query time with $O(n^3)$ preprocessing

With annotations whose computations take $O(n^3)$ time, we can improve the query time for Question 1 to O(mg) where g is the rank of $\mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K})$. For this we simply add the annotations of the p-simplices in z and check if the result is zero (Corollary 1). The annotations of the p-simplices in z can be added in time linear in the total length of all annotations in z which is O(mg). For adding the annotations, one can simply use an array of length n and index the annotations which are integer values between 1 and n while toggling an entry between 0 and 1 each time it is hit to simulate \mathbb{Z}_2 -additions. At the end we check if all entries that have been toggled are reduced to 0 or not, which again takes at most O(mg) time.

Given two cycles in K, the question of whether they belong to the same equivalence class motivates the following decision problem:

QUESTION 2. Given two cycles p-cycle z_1 and z_2 in a simplicial complex K, decide if z_1 and z_2 are homologous.

Question 2 reduces to Question 1 because z_1 and z_2 are homologous if and only if $z_1 + z_2$ is null homologous. Therefore, Question 2 can be answered in $O((m_1 + m_2)g)$ time after $O(n^3)$ time preprocessing where m_1 and m_2 are the number of p-simplices in z_1 and z_2 respectively.

7.2 Independence

An analogous problem to testing null homology is the problem of testing independence. A set of p-cycles z_1, \ldots, z_k is called independent if $\Sigma_{i=1}^k \alpha_i[z_i] = 0$ implies that $\alpha_i = 0$ for each $i \in [1, k]$. Consider the following problem of independence:

QUESTION 3. Find a maximally independent subset of a given set of p-cycles z_1, \ldots, z_k in a simplicial complex K.

Since we are considering \mathbb{Z}_2 -homology, the homology group $\mathsf{H}_p(\mathcal{K})$ is a vector space. As a result, a maximal independent subset of a given set of p-cycles can be found with a greedy approach [11]. Assume that $\{z_1',\ldots,z_i'\}\subseteq\{z_1,\ldots,z_{j-1}\},j\leq k$, have been determined to be a maximal independent subset of the first j-1 cycles. Next, we check if z_j is independent of the chosen subset so far. If so, it is included into the subset. It is easy to show that the new subset is a maximally independent subset of z_1,\ldots,z_j .

This greedy approach can be implemented by maintaining a reduced boundary matrix $[\partial_{p+1}]$ as is done by the persistence algorithm when run on a filtration of K. As in the case of null homology testing, we modify (implicitly) K with the test of each cycle z_j . Insert an open 'dummy' (p+1)-cell with the boundary z_j into \mathcal{K} . The cycle z_j is independent of the cycles $\{z'_1,\ldots,z'_i\}$ if and only if the (p+1)-cell of z_j does not make a (p+1)-cycle in the modified complex \mathcal{K} that already have the dummy (p+1)-cells of the independent cycles $\{z'_1, \ldots, z'_i\}$. We carry out the implicit modification of \mathcal{K} with each test cycle by running the persistence algorithm. First, we run the persistence algorithm on the boundary matrix $[\partial_{p+1}]$ of \mathcal{K} . Then, we insert a column d_j for each cycle $z_j \in \{z_1, \dots, z_k\}$ where $[\partial_{p+1}][i, d_j] \leftarrow \langle z_j, \sigma_i \rangle$ where σ_i is a p-simplex. We reduce the column d_j till it becomes a zero column or $low(d_j)$ becomes unique. In the former case, we delete the column d_j , and in the latter we add z_j into the independent set.

Each column reduction takes $O(m^2)$ time and thus each test in the above greedy algorithm takes $O(m^2)$ time. Assuming a preprocessing time $O(n^3)$ for building the initial reduction of $[\partial_{p+1}]$, the above algorithm answers Question 3 with $O(km^2)$ query time. We can improve this to $O(tg+kg^2)$ using annotations, where t is the total number of p-simplices in the given k cycles and g is the rank of $H_p(\mathcal{K})$. The preprocessing time for our algorithm remains $O(n^3)$. First, we compute the expression of each z_i in a chosen basis by summing annotations of all p-simplices in z_i . This takes $O(t_i g)$ time if z_i has t_i p-simplices giving a total of O(tg) time over all given cycles. Next, to test if a cycle z_i is independent of the previously chosen independent cycles, we test its annotations of O(g) length against others. This means we carry out the previous column reduction algorithm, but with a matrix M of size $g \times O(g)$. When a cycle z_j is tested, the column d_i of M is set so that $M[i, d_i] \leftarrow 1$ if z_i has 1 for the basis i and 0 otherwise. We delete the column d_j if z_j is tested to be dependent on the previously determined independent cycles. Since there can be at most q independent cycles, the total number of columns of M remains at most g giving an $O(g^2)$ testing time.

7.3 Shortest 1-homology basis

Given a simplicial complex \mathcal{K} , we assume that each 1-cycle (a loop) is assigned a non-negative weight. We are to find a set of $g = \operatorname{rank} \mathsf{H}_1(\mathcal{K})$ loops with minimal total weight whose homology classes form a basis of $\mathsf{H}_1(\mathcal{K})$.

QUESTION 4. Compute a set of g independent loops whose total weight is minimal among all such sets.

Dey, Sun, and Wang [8] gave an $O(n^4)$ time algorithm for this problem, where n is the size of the 2-skeleton of K. The algorithm runs as follows. For every vertex $v \in K$, a shortest path tree T_v rooted at this vertex is computed. For every edge $e \notin T_v$, we form a loop c_e by concatenating e with two shortest paths from v to the endpoints of e. Let the set of such loops be denoted L_v . The algorithm runs a persistence algorithm to determine a shortest basis G_v out of all loops in L_v . Dey et al. show that $\bigcup_v G_v$ contains a shortest basis of $H_1(\mathcal{K})$ and thus a greedy algorithm can find such a basis from the loops in $\bigcup_v G_v$ sorted in non-decreasing sequence of their weights. This greedy approach uses the persistence algorithm to test cycles for independence. Since there are O(ng) loops in $\cup_v G_v$, the greedy algorithm runs in $O(n^3g)$ time. The complexity of $O(n^4)$ is incurred due to running the persistence algorithm on K with different filtration for each of O(n) vertices.

Our algorithm eliminates the need for running the persistence algorithm for each vertex. Instead, $O(n^3)$ time is spent to obtain annotations for simplices in \mathcal{K} first and then independence checks are carried out as we described. We collect loop sets L_v over all vertices. We run the greedy algorithm on the set $\cup_v L_v$. Using annotations, the greedy algorithm takes $O(tg+kg^2)$ time. Here $k=O(n^2)$ since each L_v may contain at most O(n) loops for any v, thus giving $|\cup_v L_v| = O(n^2)$. Here, t, the total number of edges in $\cup_v L_v$ is $O(n^3)$ since each of the $O(n^2)$ loops may contain O(n) edges. Therefore, with this approach we run the greedy algorithm in $O(n^3g+n^2g^2)$ time. It turns out that we can improve this time to $O(n^2g^2)$ as follows.

The loops in L_v are constructed out of the shortest path tree T_v . We traverse T_v in a depth first order and each time we reach a new vertex w, we augment it with the sum of annotations on the unique path from v to w in T_v . This can be computed incrementally. Assume that we have reached w from the vertex u through the edge uw. At this point, the annotation a_u for the vertex u is already available. We add the annotation for the edge uw with a_u to obtain a_w . Completing the annotations for all vertices takes O(ng) time. The expression for a loop c_e can be computed by adding the annotation of e with those of its endpoints. Therefore, coordinates for each cycle can be obtained in O(q) time after O(ng) preprocessing. Summing over all loops in L_v , we get an O(ng) time complexity. Summing over all vertices, we get $O(n^2g)$ time complexity to complete the expressions for all loops in $\cup_v L_v$. After obtaining the coordinates, the greedy algorithm runs in $O(n^2g^2)$ time giving an overall $O(n^2g^2)$ time complexity for the greedy algorithm. Since computing shortest path trees, and all other computations are dominated by the $O(n^3)$ preprocessing time, we have $O(n^3+n^2g^2)$ time for the shortest basis computation as claimed.

8. CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we present an algorithm to annotate simplices with sub-bases of the homology groups. We have shown its applications to some problems that concern with the topological characterizations of the cycles. Actually, the improvement in running time for the shortest homology basis computation with our approach has been quite phenomenal in practice. We have released the ShortLoop software based on this new algorithm. It would be interesting to find other applications of simplex annotations.

The connection to persistence raises some interesting questions. Since our approach allows different pairings among simplices, it associates different persistence diagrams [6] for these pairings. It might be interesting to explore the connections between these various persistence diagrams.

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