# Sliced Wasserstein Kernel for Persistence Diagrams

## Mathieu Carriere, Marco Cuturi, Steve Oudot

Xiao Zha

# 1. Motivation and Related Work

- Persistence diagrams (PDs) play a key role in topological data analysis
- PDs enjoy strong stability properties and are widely used
- However, they do not live in a space naturally endowed with a Hilbert structure and are usually compared with non-Hilbertian distances, such as the bottleneck distance.
- To in corporate PDs in a convex learning pipeline, several kernels have been proposed with a strong emphasis on the stability of the resulting RKHS (Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space) distance
- In this article, the authors use the sliced Wasserstein distance to define a new kernel for PDs
- Stable and discriminative

# Related Work

- A series of recent contributions have proposed kernels for PDs, falling into two classes
- The first class of methods builds explicit feature maps
- One can compute and sample functions extracted from PDS (Bubenik, 2015; Adams et al., 2017; Robins & Turner, 2016)
- The second class of methods defines implicitly features maps by focusing instead on building kernels for PDs
- For instance, Reininghaus et al (2015) use solutions of the heat differential equation in the plane and compare them with the usual  $L^2$  ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) dot product

# 2. Background on TDA and Kernels

### 2. 1 Persistent Homology

- Persistent Homology is a technique inherited from algebraic topology for computing stable signature on real-valued functions
- Given f : X → ℝ as input, persistent homology outputs a planar point set with multiplicities, called the persistence diagram of f denoted by Dg f.
- It records the topological events ( e.g. creation or merge of a connected component, creation or filling of a loop, void, etc)
- Each point in the persistence diagram represents the lifespan of a particular topological feature, with its creation and destruction times as coordinates

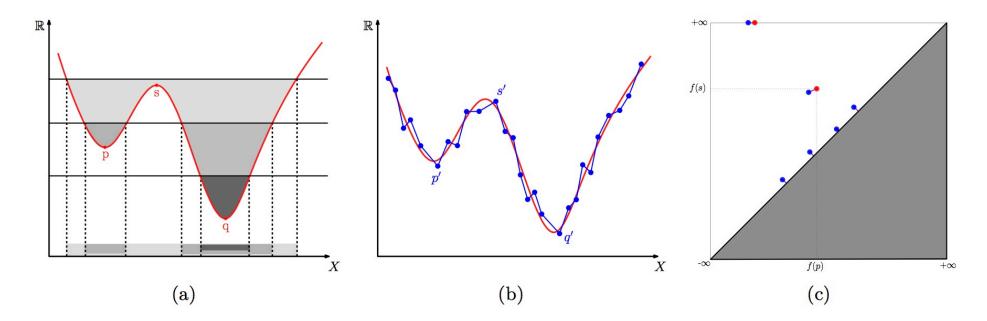


Figure 1: Sketch of persistent homology: (a) the horizontal lines are the boundaries of sublevel sets  $f((-\infty, t])$ , which are colored in decreasing shades of grey. The vertical dotted lines are the boundaries of their different connected components. For instance, a new connected component is created in the sublevel set  $f^{-1}((-\infty, t])$  when t = f(p), and it is merged (destroyed) when t = f(s); its lifespan is represented by a copy of the point with coordinates (f(p), f(s)) in the persistence diagram of f (Figure (c)); (b) a piecewise-linear approximation g (blue) of the function f (red) from sampled values; (c) superposition of Dg(f) (red) and Dg(g) (blue), showing the partial matching of minimum cost (magenta) between the two persistence diagrams.

#### Distance between PDs

Let's define the *p*th diagram distance between PDs. Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $D_{g_1}, D_{g_2}$ be two PDs. Let  $\Gamma : D_{g_1} \supseteq A \to B \subseteq D_{g_2}$  be a partial bijection between  $D_{g_1}$ and  $D_{g_1}$ . Then, for any point  $x \in A$ , the p-cost of x is defined as  $c_p(x) \coloneqq ||x - \Gamma(x)||_{\infty}^p$ , and for any point  $y \in (D_{g_1} \sqcup D_{g_2}) \setminus (A \sqcup B)$ , the p-cost of yis defined as  $c'_p(y) \coloneqq ||y - \pi_{\Delta}(y)||_{\infty}^p$ , where  $\pi_{\Delta}$  is the projection onto to the diagonal  $\Delta = \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ . The cost  $c_p(\Gamma)$  is defined as:  $c_p(\Gamma) \coloneqq (\sum_x c_p(x) + \sum_y c'_p(y))^{1/p}$ .

We then define the *pth* diagram distance  $d_p$  as the cost of the best partial bijection between the PDs:

$$d_p(\mathrm{Dg}_1,\mathrm{Dg}_2) = \inf_{\Gamma} \mathrm{c}_p(\Gamma).$$

In the particular case  $p = +\infty$ , the cost of  $\Gamma$  is defined as  $c(\Gamma) \coloneqq \max\{\max_{x} c_1(x) + \max_{y} c'_1(y)\}$ . The corresponding distance  $d_{\infty}$  is often called the bottleneck distance.

### 2.2 Kernel Methods

#### Positive Definite Kernels

Given a set X, a function  $k : X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a positive definite kernel if for all integers n, for all families  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  of points in X, the matrix  $[k(x_i, x_j)]_{i,j}$  is itself positive semi-definite. For brevity, positive definite kernels will be just called kernels in the rest of the paper.

It is known that kernels generalize scalar products, in the sense that, given a kernel k, there exists a Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS)  $\mathcal{H}_k$  and a feature map  $\phi : X \to \mathcal{H}_k$  such that  $k(x_1, x_2) = \langle \phi(x_1), \phi(x_2) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_k}$ . A kernel k also induces a distance  $d_k$  on X that can be computed as the Hilbert norm of the difference between two embeddings:

$$d_k^2(x_1, x_2) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} k(x_1, x_1) + k(x_2, x_2) - 2k(x_1, x_2)$$

# Negative Definite and RBF Kernels

- A standard way to construct a kernel is to exponentiate the negative of a Euclidean distance.
- Gaussian kernel:  $k_{\sigma}(x, y) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ , where  $\sigma > 0$ .
- Theorem of Berg et al. (1984) (Theorem 3.2.2, p.74) states that such an approach to build kernels, namely setting k<sub>σ</sub>(x, y) <sup>def</sup> exp(- f(x,y)/2σ<sup>2</sup>), for an arbitrary function f can only yield a valid positive definite kernel for all σ > 0 if and only if f is a negative semi-definite function, namely that, for all integers n, ∀x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub> ∈ X, ∀a<sub>1</sub>,..., a<sub>n</sub> ∈ ℝ<sup>n</sup> such that Σ<sub>i</sub> a<sub>i</sub> = 0, Σ<sub>i,j</sub> a<sub>i</sub>a<sub>j</sub>f(x<sub>i</sub>, x<sub>j</sub>) ≤ 0.
- In this article, the authors use an approximation of  $d_1$  with the Sliced Wasserstein distance and use it to define a RBF kernel

# 2.3 Wasserstein distance for unnormalized measures on $\mathbb R$

- The 1-Wasserstein distance for nonnegative, not necessarily normalized, measures on the real line.
- Let  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  be two nonnegative measures on the real line such that  $|\mu| = \mu(\mathbb{R})$  and  $|\nu| = \nu(\mathbb{R})$  are equal to the same number r. Let's define the three following objects:

$$\mathcal{W}(\mu,\nu) = \inf_{P \in \Pi(\mu,\nu)} \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} |x-y| P(\mathrm{d}x,\mathrm{d}y)$$
(2)

$$Q_r(\mu,\nu) = r \int_{\mathbb{R}} |M^{-1}(x) - N^{-1}(x)| dx$$
(3)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mu,\nu) = \inf_{f \in 1-\text{Lipschitz}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) [\mu(\mathrm{d}x) - \nu(\mathrm{d}x)]$$
(4)

where  $\prod(\mu, \nu)$  is the set of measures on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with marginals  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ , and  $M^{-1}$  and  $N^{-1}$  the generalized quantile functions of the probability measures  $\mu/r$  and  $\nu/r$  respectively

# Proposition 2.1

•  $\mathcal{W} = Q_r = \mathcal{L}$ . Additionally (i)  $Q_r$  is negative definite on the space of measures of mass r; (ii) for any three positive measures  $\mu, \nu, \gamma$  such that  $|\mu| = |\nu|$ , we have  $\mathcal{L}(\mu + \gamma, \nu + \gamma) = \mathcal{L}(\mu, \nu)$ .

The equality between (2) and (3) is only valid for probability measures on the real line. Because the cost function  $|\cdot|$  is homogeneous, we see that the scaling factor r can be removed when considering the quantile function and multiplied back. The equality between (2) and (4) is due to the well known Kantorovich duality for a distance cost which can also be trivially generalized to unnormalized measures.

The definition of  $Q_r$  shows that the Wasserstein distance is the  $l_1$  norm of  $rM^{-1} - rN^{-1}$ , and is therefore a negative definite kernel (as the  $l_1$  distance between two direct representations of  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  as functions  $rM^{-1}$  and  $rN^{-1}$ ), proving point (i). The second statement is immediate.

• An important practical remark:

For two unnormalized uniform empirical measures  $\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{x_i}$ and  $\nu = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{y_i}$  of the same size, with ordered  $x_1 \leq \cdots \leq x_n$  and  $y_1 \leq \cdots \leq y_n$ , one has:  $\mathcal{W}(\mu, \nu) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i - y_i| = ||X - Y||_1$ , where  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $Y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

### 3. The Sliced Wasserstein Kernel

• The idea underlying this metric is to slice the plane with lines passing through the origin, to project the measures onto these lines where  $\mathcal{W}$  is computed, and to integrate those distances over all possible lines.

**Definition 3.1.** Given  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with  $\|\theta\|_2 = 1$ , let  $L(\theta)$  denote the line  $\{\lambda \theta \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , and let  $\pi_{\theta} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to L(\theta)$  be the orthogonal projection onto  $L(\theta)$ . Let  $Dg_1$ ,  $Dg_2$  be two PDs, and let  $\mu_1^{\theta} \coloneqq \sum_{p \in Dg_1} \delta_{\pi_{\theta} \circ \pi_{\Delta}(p)}$  and  $\mu_{1\Delta}^{\theta} \coloneqq \sum_{p \in Dg_1} \delta_{\pi_{\theta} \circ \pi_{\Delta}(p)}$ , and similarly for  $\mu_2^{\theta}$ , where  $\pi_{\Delta}$  is the orthogonal projection onto the diagonal. Then, the Sliced Wasserstein distance is defined as:

$$SW(Dg_1, Dg_2) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{S}_1} \mathcal{W}(\mu_1^{\theta} + \mu_{2\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_2^{\theta} + \mu_{1\Delta}^{\theta}) d\theta$$

Since  $Q_r$  is negative semi-definite, we can conclude that SW itself is negative semi-definite.

Lemma 3.2 Let *X* be the set of bounded and finite PDs. Then, *SW* is negative semi-definite on *X*.

*Proof.* Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $a_1, ..., a_n \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\sum_i a_i = 0$  and  $\mathrm{Dg}_1, ..., \mathrm{Dg}_n \in X$ . Given  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , we let  $\tilde{\mu}_i^{\theta} := \mu_i^{\theta} + \sum_{q \in \mathrm{Dg}_k, k \neq i} \delta_{\pi_{\theta} \circ \pi_{\Delta}(q)}, \quad \tilde{\mu}_{ij\Delta}^{\theta} := \sum_{p \in \mathrm{Dg}_k, k \neq i, j} \delta_{\pi_{\theta} \circ \pi_{\Delta}(p)}$  and  $d = \sum_i |\mathrm{Dg}_i|$ . Then:

$$\begin{split} &\sum_{i,j} a_i a_j \mathcal{W}(\mu_i^{\theta} + \mu_{j\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_j^{\theta} + \mu_{i\Delta}^{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} a_i a_j \mathcal{L}(\mu_i^{\theta} + \mu_{j\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_j^{\theta} + \mu_{i\Delta}^{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} a_i a_j \mathcal{L}(\mu_i^{\theta} + \mu_{j\Delta}^{\theta} + \mu_{ij\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_j^{\theta} + \mu_{i\Delta}^{\theta} + \mu_{ij\Delta}^{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} a_i a_j \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mu}_i^{\theta}, \tilde{\mu}_j^{\theta}) = \sum_{i,j} a_i a_j \mathcal{Q}_d(\tilde{\mu}_i^{\theta}, \tilde{\mu}_j^{\theta}) \leq 0 \end{split}$$

The result follows by linearity of integration.

• Hence, the theorem of Berg et al. (1984) allows us to define a valid kernel with:

$$k_{\rm SW}({\rm Dg}_1,{\rm Dg}_2) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def.}}{=} \exp\left(-\frac{{
m SW}({
m Dg}_1,{
m Dg}_2)}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Theorem 3.3 Let X be the set of bounded PDs with cardinalities bounded by  $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$ . Let  $Dg_1, Dg_2 \in X$ . Then, one has:

$$\frac{d_1(Dg_1, Dg_2)}{2M} \le SW(Dg_1, Dg_2) \le 2\sqrt{2}d_1(Dg_1, Dg_2)$$

where M = 1 + 2N(2N - 1)

*Proof.* Let  $s^{\theta} : Dg_1 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_2) \to Dg_2 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_1)$  be the one-to-one bijection between  $Dg_1 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_2)$  and  $Dg_2 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_1)$  induced by  $\mathcal{W}(\mu_1^{\theta} + \mu_{2\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_2^{\theta} + \mu_{1\Delta}^{\theta})$ , and let s be the one-to-one bijection between  $Dg_1 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_2)$  and  $Dg_2 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_1)$  induced by the partial bijection achieving  $d_1(Dg_1, Dg_2)$ .

Upper bound. Recall that  $\|\theta\|_2 = 1$ . We have:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{W}(\mu_{1}^{\theta} + \mu_{2\Delta}^{\theta}, \mu_{2}^{\theta} + \mu_{1\Delta}^{\theta}) &= \sum |\langle p - s^{\theta}(p), \theta \rangle| \\ &\leq \sum |\langle p - s(p), \theta \rangle| \leq \sqrt{2} \sum ||p - s(p)||_{\infty} \\ &\leq 2\sqrt{2}d_{1}(\mathrm{Dg}_{1}, \mathrm{Dg}_{2}), \end{split}$$

where the sum is taken over all  $p \in Dg_1 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(Dg_2)$ . The upper bound follows by linearity.

*Lower bound.* The idea is to use the fact that  $s^{\theta}$  is a piecewise-constant function of  $\theta$ , and that it has at most 2+2N(2N-1) critical values  $\Theta_0, ..., \Theta_M$  in  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ . Indeed, it suffices to look at all  $\theta$  such that  $\langle p_1 - p_2, \theta \rangle = 0$  for some  $p_1, p_2$  in  $\mathrm{Dg}_1 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(\mathrm{Dg}_2)$  or  $\mathrm{Dg}_2 \cup \pi_{\Delta}(\mathrm{Dg}_1)$ . Then:

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\Theta_i}^{\Theta_{i+1}} \sum |\langle p - s^{\theta}(p), \theta \rangle| d\theta \\ &= \sum \|p - s^{\Theta_i}(p)\|_2 \int_{\Theta_i}^{\Theta_{i+1}} |\cos(\angle (p - s^{\Theta_i}(p), \theta))| d\theta \\ &\geq \sum \|p - s^{\Theta_i}(p)\|_2 (\Theta_{i+1} - \Theta_i)^2 / 2\pi \\ &\geq (\Theta_{i+1} - \Theta_i)^2 d_1 (\mathrm{Dg}_1, \mathrm{Dg}_2) / 2\pi, \\ &\text{where the sum is again taken over all } p \in \mathrm{Dg}_1 \cup \pi_\Delta(\mathrm{Dg}_2), \\ &\text{and where the inequality used to lower bound the integral of the cosine is obtained by concavity. The lower bound follows then from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. \end{tabular}$$

# Computation

In practice, the authors propose to approximate  $k_{SW}$  in O(Nlog(N)) time using Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Computation of  $SW_M$ 

**Input:**  $Dg_1 = \{p_1^1 \dots p_{N_1}^1\}, Dg_2 = \{p_1^2 \dots p_{N_2}^2\}, M.$ Add  $\pi_{\Delta}(Dg_1)$  to  $Dg_2$  and vice-versa. Let SW<sub>M</sub> = 0;  $\theta = -\pi/2$ ;  $s = \pi/M$ ; for i = 1 ... M do Store the products  $\langle p_k^1, \theta \rangle$  in an array  $V_1$ ; Store the products  $\langle p_k^2, \theta \rangle$  in an array  $V_2$ ; Sort  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  in ascending order;  $SW_M = SW_M + s \|V_1 - V_2\|_1;$  $\theta = \theta + s;$ end for Output:  $(1/\pi)$ SW<sub>M</sub>;

# 4 Experiments

- PSS. The Persistence Scale Space kernel  $k_{PSS}$  (Reininghaus et al., 2015)
- PWG. The Persistence Weighted Gaussian kernel  $k_{PWG}$  (Kusano et al., 2016; 2017)
- Experiment: 3D shape segmentation. The goal is to produce point classifiers for 3D shapes.
- Use some categories of the mesh segmentation benchmark of Chen et al . (Chen et al., 2009), which contains 3D shapes classified in several categories ("airplane", "human", "ant", …). For each category, the goal is to design a classifier that can assign, to each point in the shape, a label that describes the relative location of that point in the shape. To train classifiers, we compute a PD per point using the geodesic distance function to this point.

# Results

TASK	$k_{\rm PSS}$	$k_{\rm PWG}$	$k_{\rm SW}$
HUMAN	$68.5\pm2.0$	$64.2 \pm 1.2$	$74.0 \pm 0.2$
AIRPLANE	$65.4 \pm 2.4$	$61.3\pm2.9$	<b>72.6</b> $\pm$ 0.2
ANT	$86.3\pm1.0$	$87.4\pm0.5$	$92.3\pm0.2$
BIRD	$67.7 \pm 1.8$	$\textbf{72.0} \pm 1.2$	$67.0\pm0.5$
FOURLEG	$67.0\pm2.5$	$64.0\pm0.6$	<b>73.0</b> $\pm$ 0.4
OCTOPUS	$77.6 \pm 1.0$	$78.6 \pm 1.3$	$85.2\pm0.5$
FISH	$76.1 \pm 1.6$	$\textbf{79.8} \pm 0.5$	$75.0\pm0.4$