

TDA - Fall 2025

Maps

Morse theory



Recap

- Overview of class
↳ questions?
- At some point, check HW page for overview of the class project
- Office hours: Monday after class
Tues or Thurs.

Question from last time

→ Metric space:

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

other: $d(p, q) \geq 0$

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

- $d(p, q) = d(q, p) \quad \forall p, q \in \mathbb{T}$

triangle inequality

- $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q) \quad \forall p, q, r \in \mathbb{T}$

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

But: the first 3 imply the 4th.

Why? (exercise)

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

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

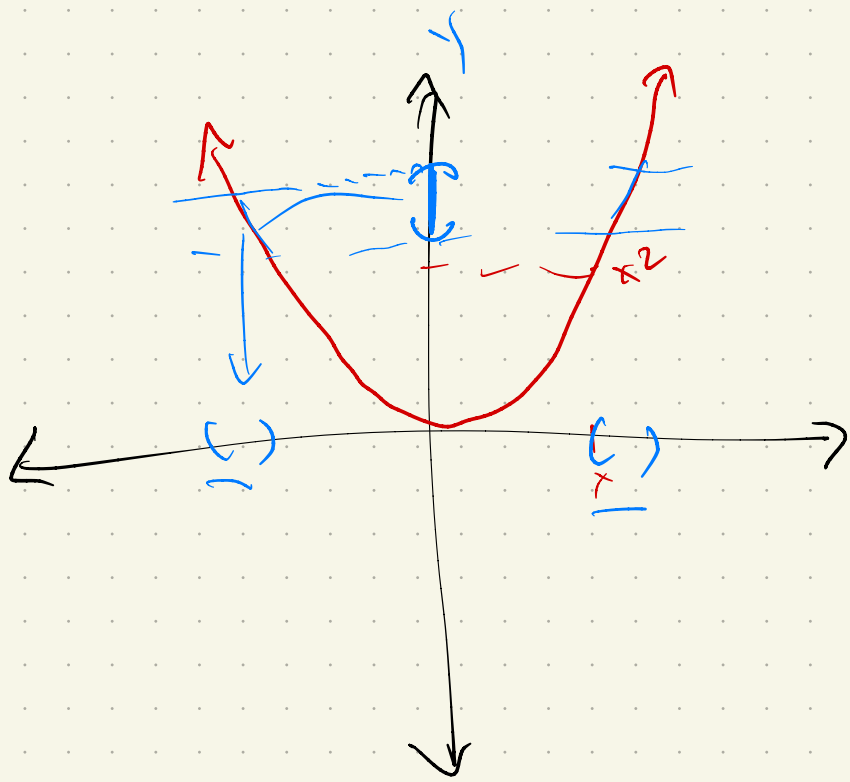
Ex: $A = (1, 2) \cup (3, 4) \subset \mathbb{R}$

Note: subspace topology: Given $U \subseteq \mathbb{T}$,
 U can inherit topology from \mathbb{T} via
 $\{X \cap U \mid X \in \mathcal{T}\}$

Maps

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

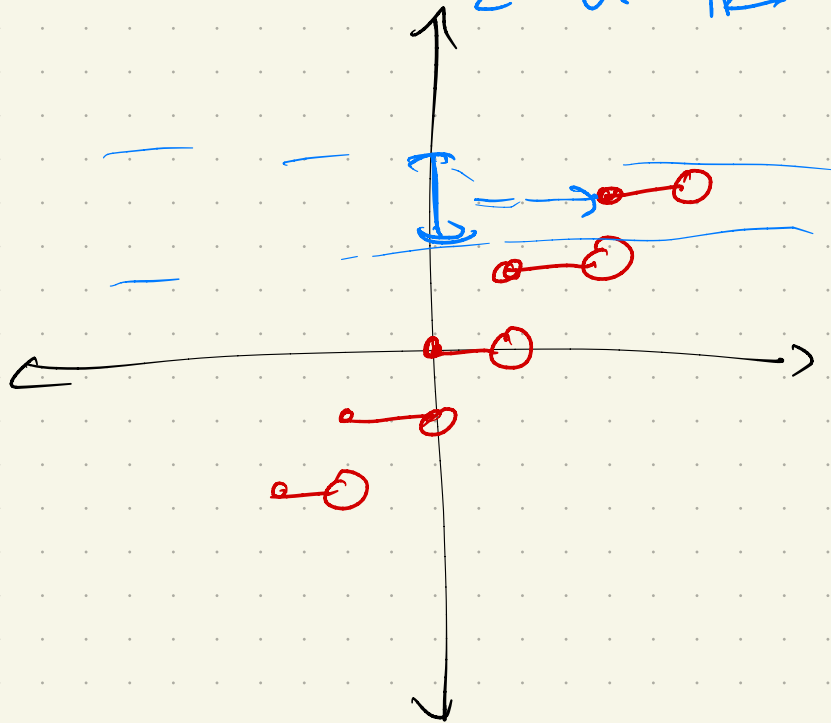
Example: $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x) = x^2$



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

$$g(x) = |x|$$

$\leftarrow U = \mathbb{R}$

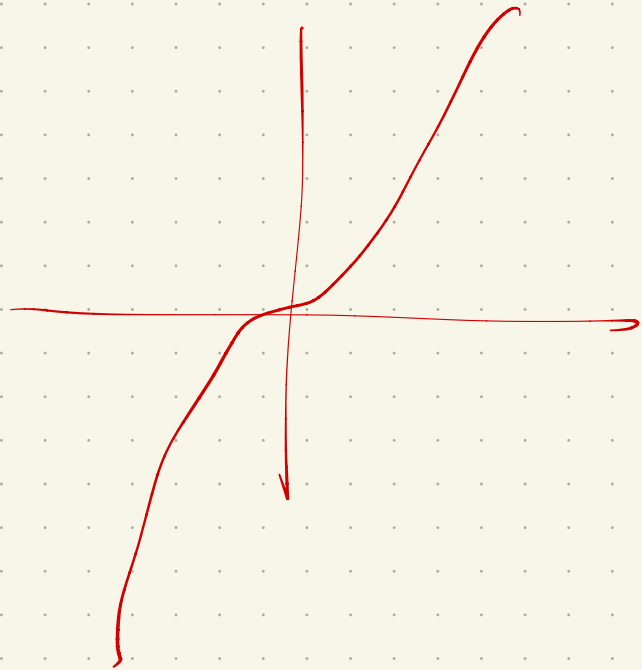


A map $f: T \rightarrow U$ is an **embedding** of T into U if f is injective.

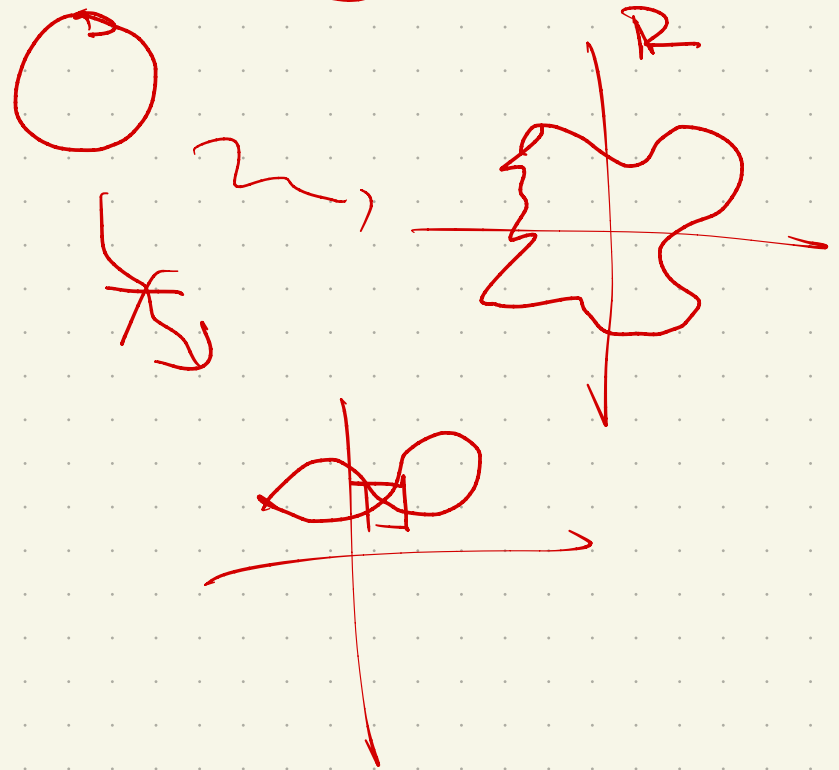
injective, or 1-1:

$$f(a) = f(b) \Leftrightarrow a = b$$

Example: $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x) = x^3$

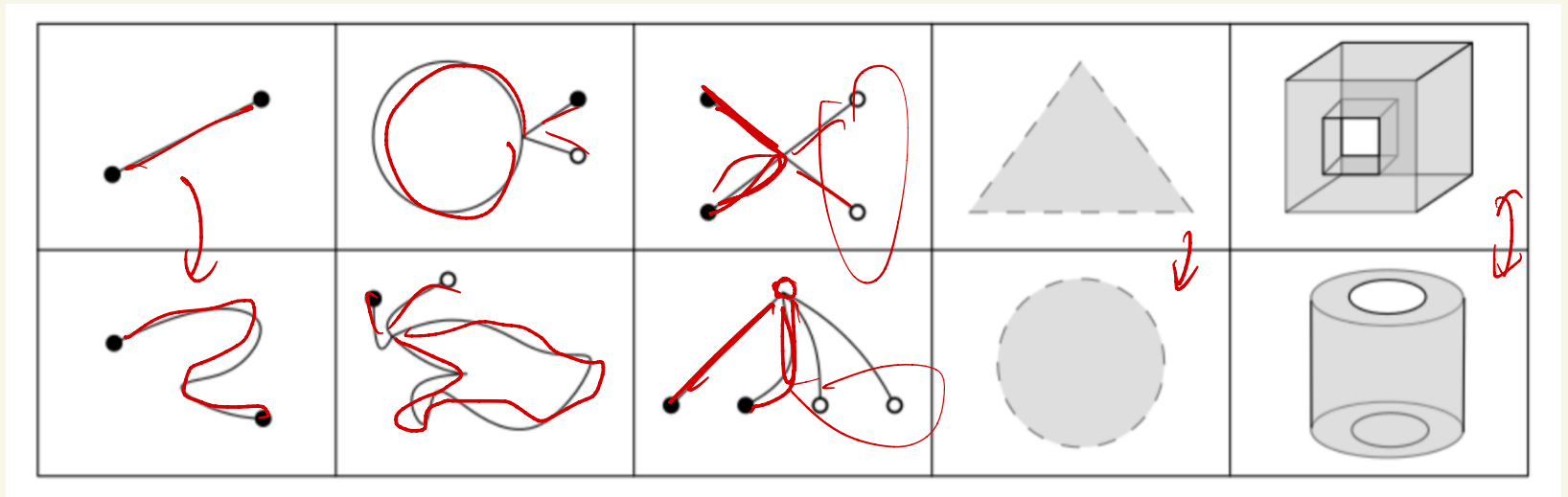


Example: $g: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$



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

Examples:

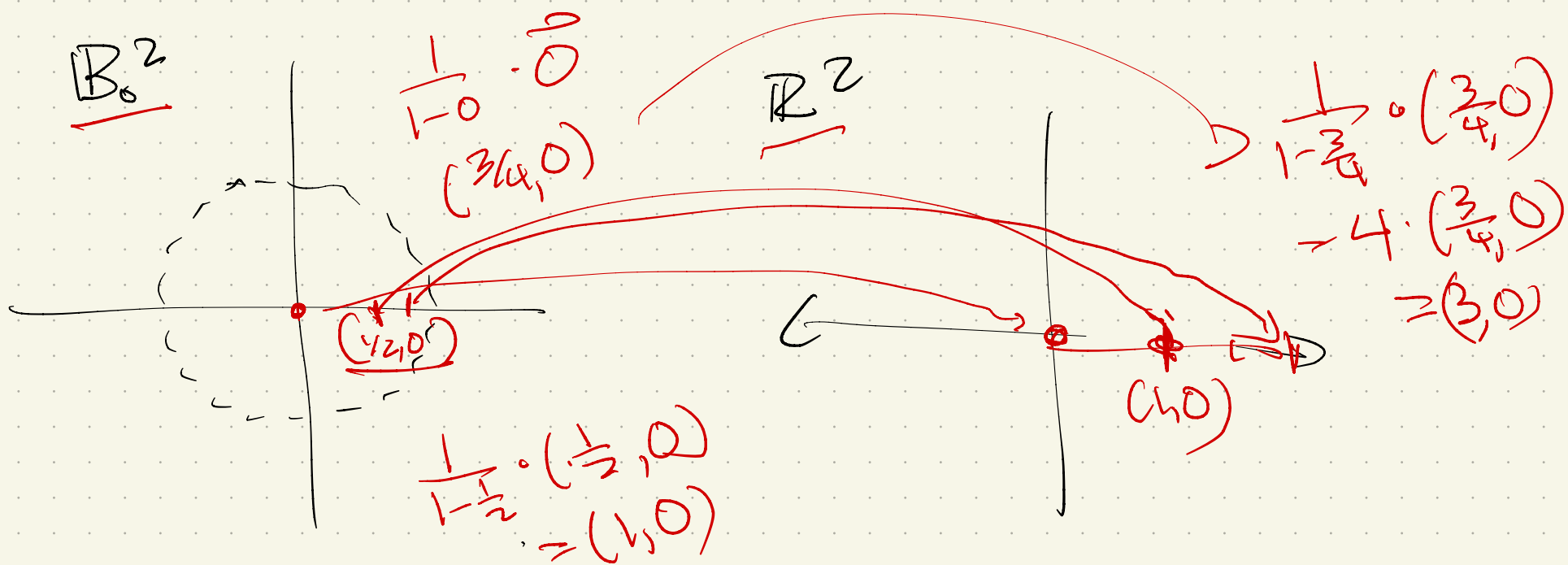


Note: requires construction of a function!

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

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

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



For nice enough spaces, a "cheap trick".

Proposition

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

Isotopy

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

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

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

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

Examples: For open d-ball again:

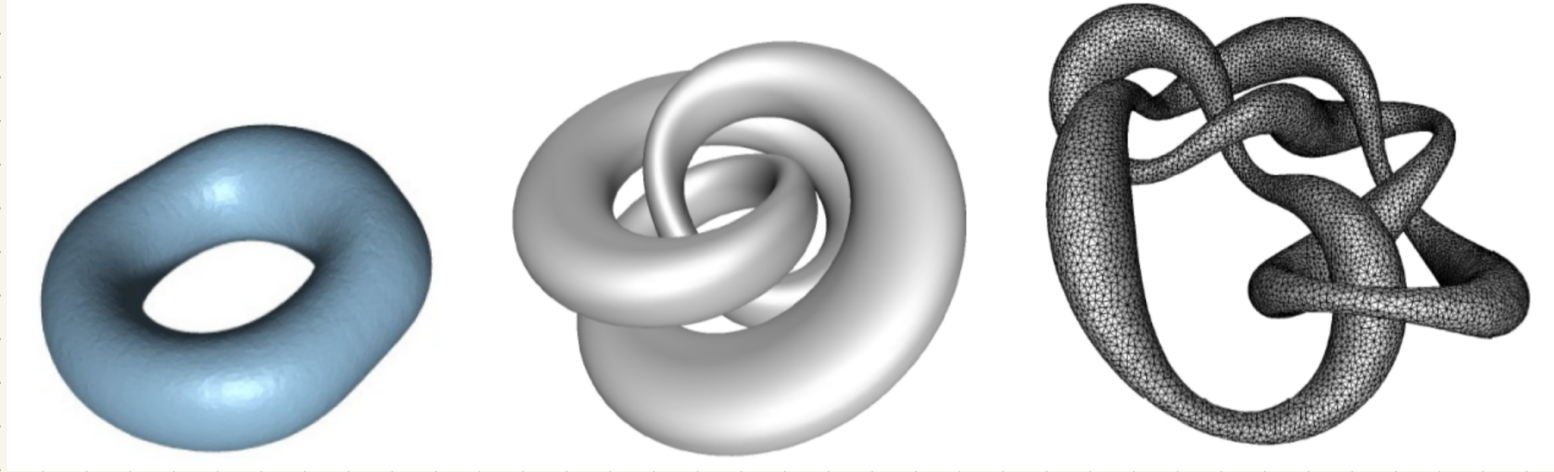
Consider $\xi(x, t) = \frac{1 - (1-t)\|x\|}{1 - \|x\|} \cdot \vec{x}$ }

If $t=0$: $\frac{1 - (1-0)\|x\|}{1 - \|x\|} \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{x}$

If $t=1$: $\frac{1 - (1-1)\|x\|}{1 - \|x\|} \cdot \vec{x} = \frac{1}{1 - \|x\|} \cdot \vec{x}$

So B^d & \mathbb{R}^d are isotopic.

Homeomorphism \ll Isotopy \ll ambient isotopy :



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

Homotopy

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

A homotopy is a map $H: X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow U$ such that $H(\cdot, 0) = g$ and $H(\cdot, 1) = h$

Example:

$$g: \mathbb{B}_0^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 \quad \text{inclusion map } h(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}$$
$$h: \mathbb{B}_0^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3, \quad h(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$$

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

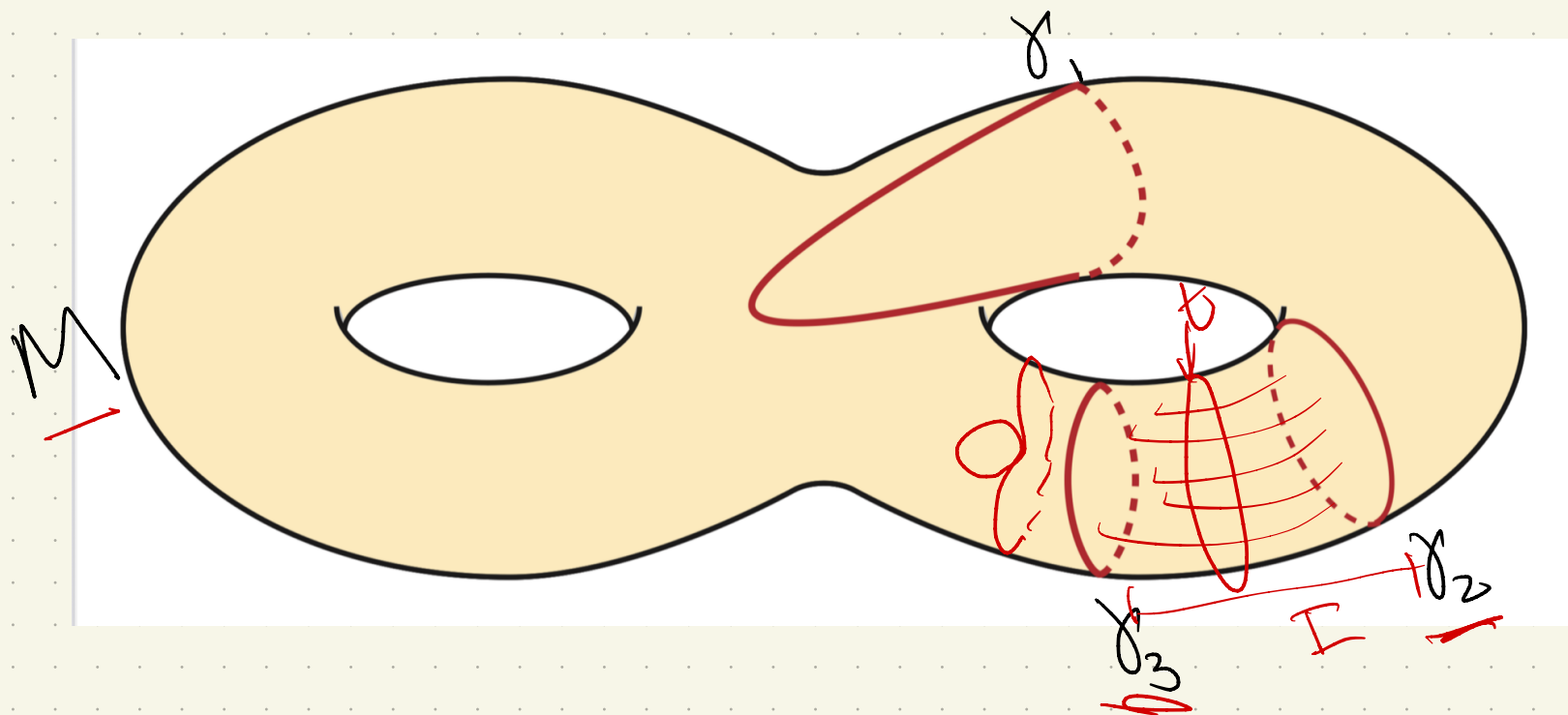
$$\text{check: } H(\cdot, 0) = (1-0) \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{x}$$

$$H(\cdot, 1) = (1-1) \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

↖ between:

Another: curves on surfaces

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



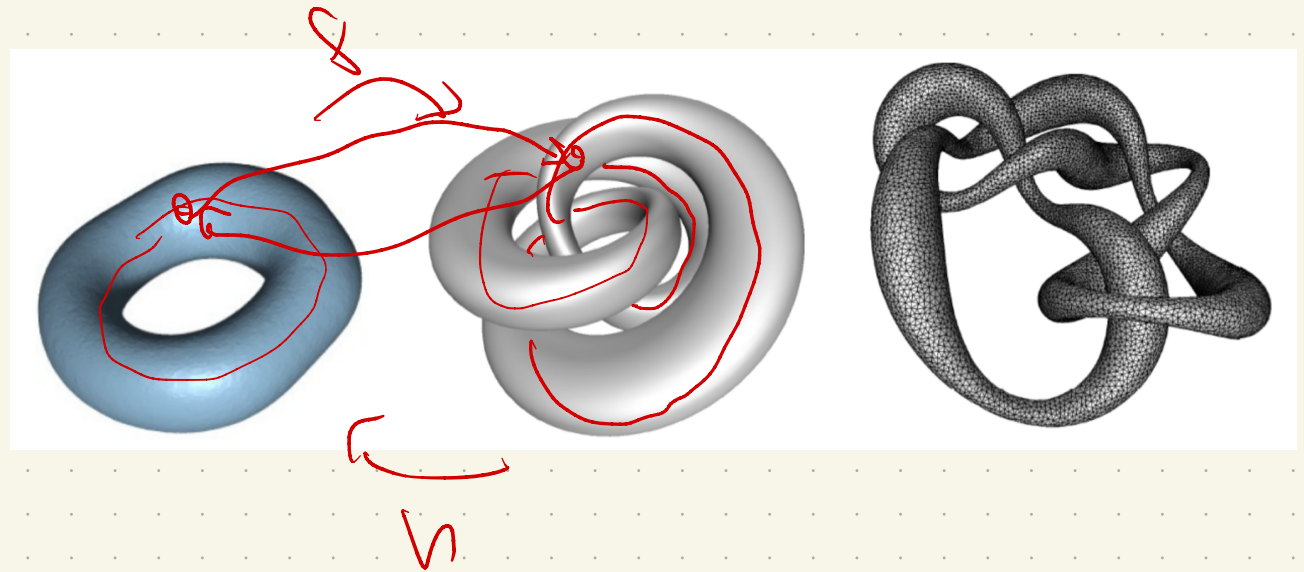
Here, homotopy $H: S^1 \times [0, 1] \rightarrow M$

$$H(\cdot, 0) = \gamma_3 \quad H(\cdot, 1) = \gamma_2$$

Homotopy equivalence

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

Example:

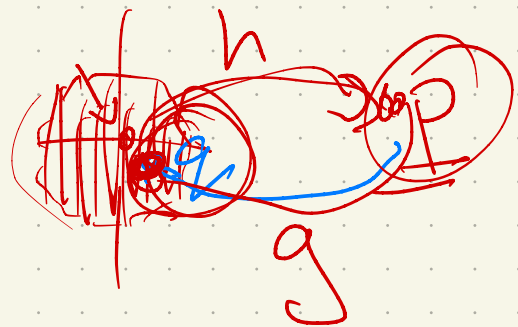


Another: \mathbb{B}_0^2 and any point p .

$$h: \mathbb{B}_0^2 \rightarrow \{p\}, \quad h(x) = p$$

$$g: \{p\} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}_0^2, \quad \text{with } g(p) = q \quad \leftarrow$$

(an arbitrary point in \mathbb{B}_0^2)



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

$$\underline{g \circ h}: \mathbb{B}_0^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{B}_0^2$$

sends every $\underline{x \in \mathbb{B}_0^2}$ to \underline{q}

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

at $t=0$:

$$\text{at } t=1: \underline{t \cdot \bar{x}} = \underline{\bar{x}}$$

Retracts

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

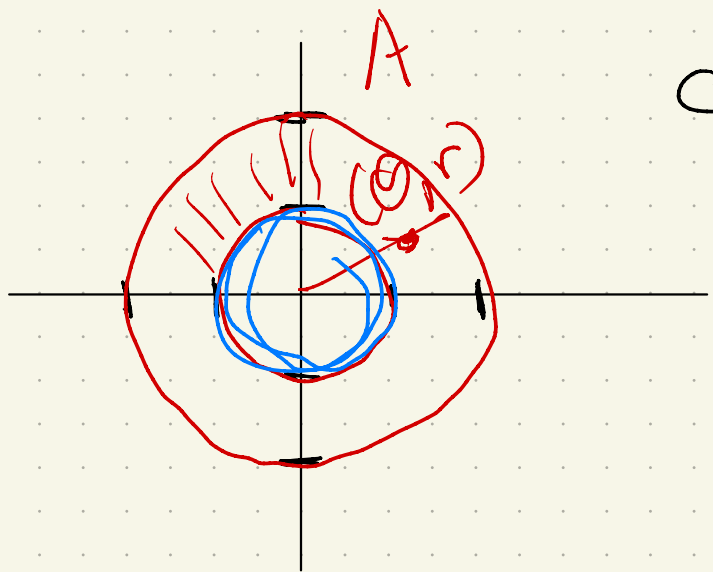
A retraction r of \mathbb{T} to U is a
map $f: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow U$ s.t. $f(x) = x \quad \forall x \in U$.

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

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

How to make f ?

$$f(\theta, r) = (\theta, 1)$$



Deformation Retract

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

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

- $R(\cdot, 0) = \text{id}_{\mathbb{T}}$ ←

- $\underbrace{R(\cdot, 1)}$ is a retraction $\mathbb{T} \rightarrow U$

- $R(x, t) = \underline{x}$ for every $x \in U$
and $t \in [0, 1]$.

Try previous example:

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

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

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

Check 3 things:

if $t=0$: $(\theta, r+t)$

if $t=1$ (θ, t)

$\nabla R(\theta, 1, t) =$ $(\theta, (1-t) \cdot 1 + t)$
 $= (\theta, 1)$

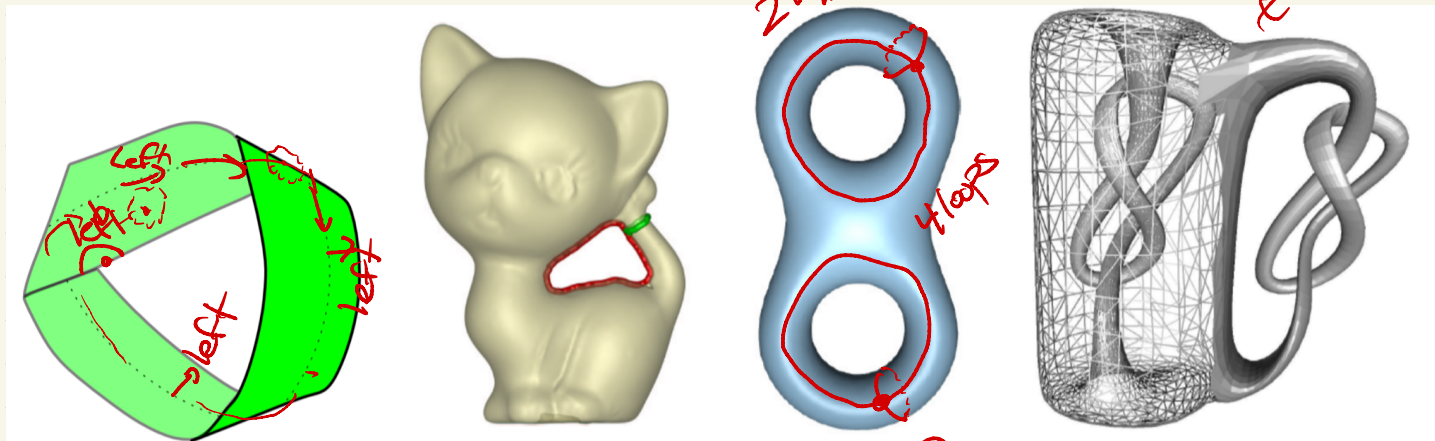
Manifolds

A topological space is an m -manifold if every $x \in M$ has a point homeomorphic to the m -ball B_0^m or the m -half-space H^m :

$$B_0^m = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \|y\| < 1\}$$

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

B_0^2




2-manifold

4 loops

$g=2$



Notation / terminology

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

Smooth

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

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

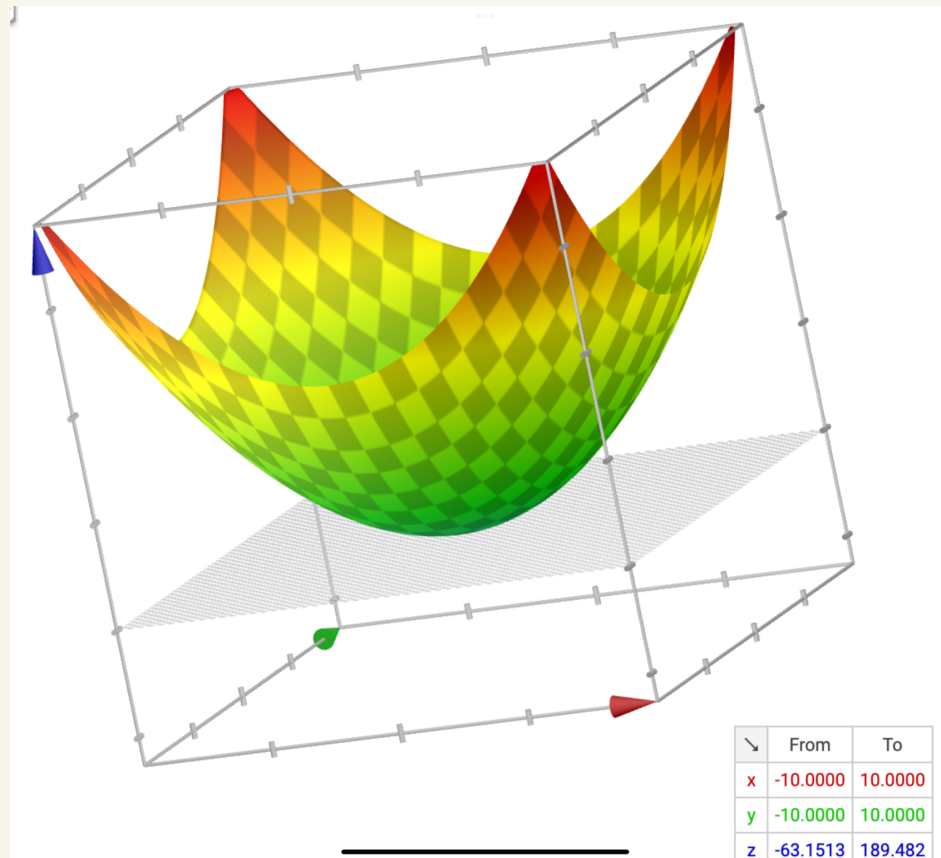
$$\nabla f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(x) \right]$$

Ex: $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$

$$\nabla f =$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} f \right]$$

$$= [2x_1, 2x_2]$$



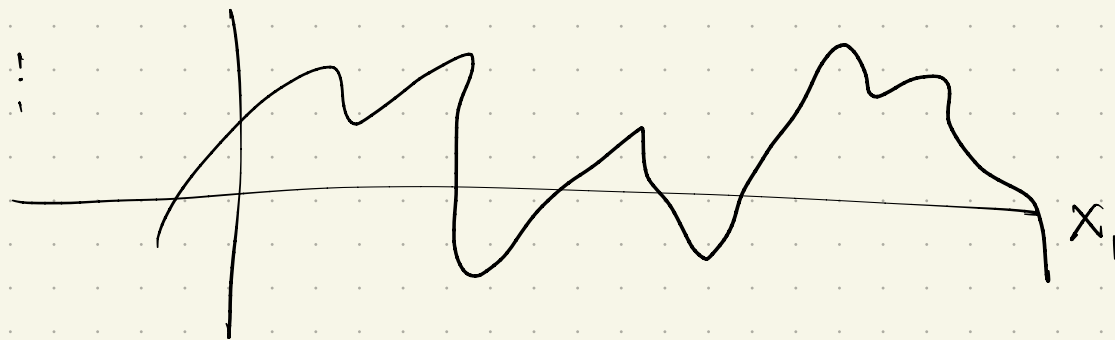
Then $\nabla f(0,0) = [0,0]$
 $\nabla f(1,0) = [2,0]$

Critical point

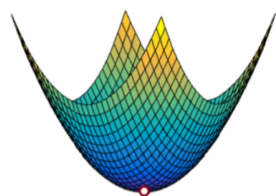
Any $p \in \mathbb{R}^d$ where $\nabla f(p) = \vec{0}$
(Otherwise we say p is regular)

On 1 manifolds:

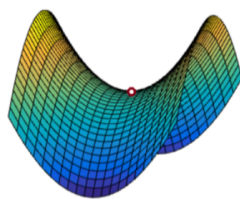
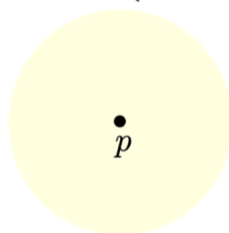
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot x = 0$$



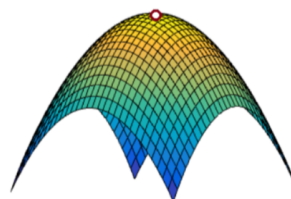
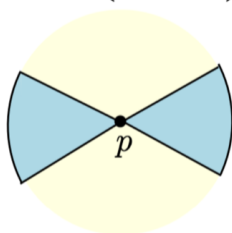
On 2 manifolds:



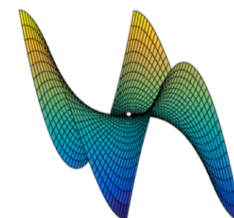
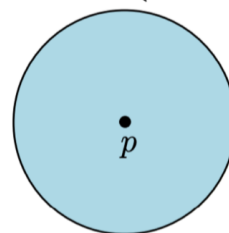
minimum (index-0)



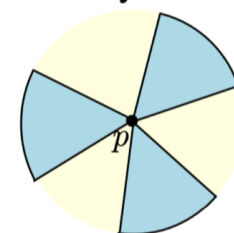
saddle (index-1)



maximum (index-2)



monkey-saddle



Extending to manifolds:

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

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

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

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

Types of critical points

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

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

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

An example: $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^3 - 3x_1x_2^2$

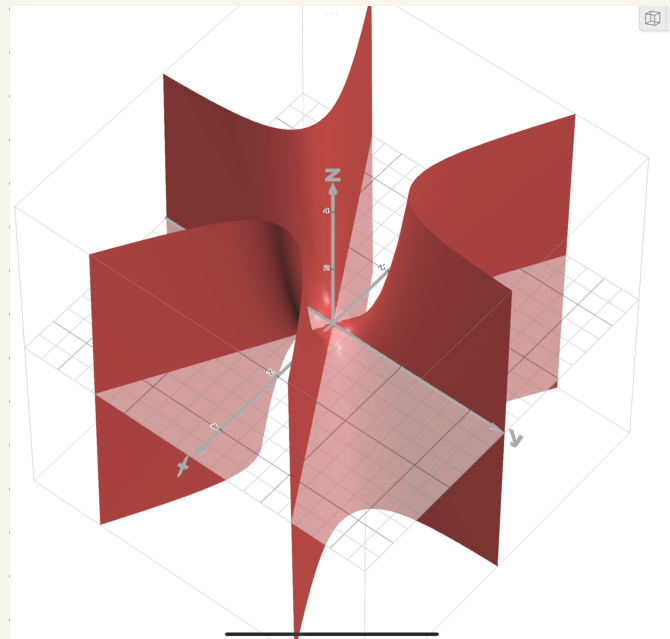
$$\nabla f =$$

\Rightarrow

Is it degenerate?

$$\text{Hessian: } \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{!}{=}$$

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



Morse Lemma

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

- p 's coordinate is $\vec{0}$

- locally, any x is in the form

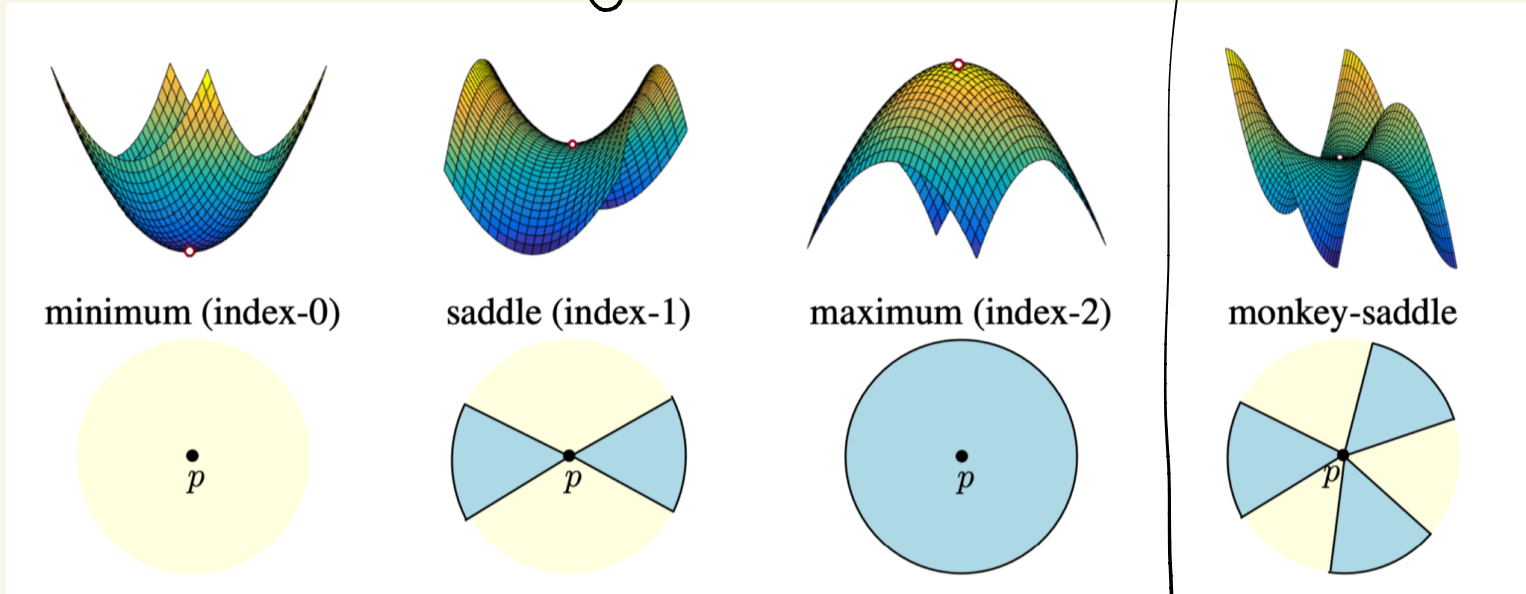
$$f(x) = f(p) - x_1^2 - \dots - x_s^2 + x_{s+1}^2 + \dots + x_m^2$$

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

s is called the index of p .

Back to that picture...
non-degenerate

degenerate



everything is
bigger around p

everything is
smaller around p

one coordinate bigger,
one smaller

Next time:

Why we care about Morse
theory...