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# Explainable Framework for Time-series Analysis via Topological Data Analysis

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## Abstract

1 We propose an explainable framework for TDA-based time-series analysis, which  
2 characterizes time-series signals through time-delay embedding and persistent  
3 diagrams. Given the persistence diagram corresponding to a target class, our  
4 method continuously deforms an input signal into a signal whose diagram is close  
5 to the target diagram. We formulate this problem as a minimization of Wasserstein  
6 distance between persistence diagrams. The potential of this method is illustrated  
7 on some synthetic and real examples.

## 8 1 Introduction

9 Machine learning has been widely applied in many domains such as healthcare, finance, and social  
10 science, where there is increasing interest in explainability so that the users can better understand  
11 and trust the results of the algorithms. Several explainable techniques have been proposed, such as  
12 visualization of feature contribution to a model’s prediction [1, 6].

13 In this paper, we focus on explainable frameworks for time-series analysis. Time-series data com-  
14 monly appear and play an important role in many real world applications. According to the previous  
15 study [11], practical explainable frameworks for time-series analysis is required to give information  
16 not only about which parts in a given time-series contribute to the output, but also about how it  
17 differs from signals in another class. To provide such information, Karlsson *et al.* [11] proposed the  
18 following problem: given a classifier and a signal, find a transformation of signals that changes the  
19 predicted class to a desired one with minimal distortion.

20 For time-series analysis, Topological Data Analysis (TDA) has been successfully used in the past  
21 decade [15, 16, 18, 19]. Here, TDA is a topic in data analysis, which characterizes the shape of data  
22 such as high dimensional point clouds. When TDA is applied to time-series analysis, a time-series  
23 signal is converted into a point cloud through time-delay embedding and then into a persistence  
24 diagram. With persistence diagrams, we can effectively apply machine learning methods to chaotic  
25 time-series signals [16, 18].

26 In this work, we focus on TDA for time-series analysis and propose a novel explainable framework.  
27 To show how a given time-series signal differs from one in another class, we consider deforming the  
28 input signal continuously so that the resultant persistent diagram is close to a target diagram. For this  
29 purpose, we propose to minimize the 2-Wasserstein distance between persistence diagrams, which  
30 can be solved by gradient-based method.

## 31 Notation

32 In this work, a time-series signal is represented as a sequence of length  $N$ :  $\{x_t\}_{t=0}^{N-1}$ ,  $x_t \in \mathbb{R}$ . For  
 33 this time-series, we define a point cloud  $e(\{x_t\}_t)$  embedded in an  $E$ -dimensional space as

$$\begin{aligned} e(\{x_t\}_t) &= \{u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}\}, \\ u_i &= [x_i, \dots, x_{i+(E-1)\tau}] \in \mathbb{R}^E, \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

34 where  $E$  is a positive integer and  $\tau$  is the time-delay parameter. This point set  $e(\{x_t\}_t)$  is called  
 35 the *time-delay embedding* of the signal  $\{x_t\}_t$ . With the right choice of  $E$  and  $\tau$  it is possible to  
 36 reconstruct the phase space of a dynamical system according to Takens' embedding theorem [17].  
 37 The correspondence from  $\{x_t\}_t$  to  $e(\{x_t\}_t)$  can be regarded as a linear map  $e: \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^L$ , where  
 38  $L = n \cdot E$ . Constructing the associated VR-filtration or DTM-filtration [2], we can compute the  
 39 persistence diagram  $D(\{x_t\}_t)$  from the time-delay embedding  $e(\{x_t\}_t)$ .

## 40 2 Methodology

41 Now we present our method in a more formal way. Given an input signal  $\{x_t\}_t$  and a target persistence  
 42 diagram  $D^{\text{tgt}}$ , our aim is to continuously deform  $\{x_t\}_t$  so that the persistence diagram of the resulting  
 43 signal is close to  $D^{\text{tgt}}$ . We formulate this goal in the form of the following optimization problem:

$$\underset{\{w_t\}_{t=0}^{N-1}, w_t \in \mathbb{R}}{\text{minimize}} \quad W_2^2(D(\{w_t\}_t), D^{\text{tgt}}), \quad (2)$$

44 where  $W_2^2$  is the squared 2-Wasserstein distance and we initialize the problem with  $\{x_t\}_t$ . The  
 45 definition of  $W_2^2$  is shown in Appendix.

46 Since, the correspondence from a time-series to its persistence diagram  $\{w_t\}_t \mapsto D(\{w_t\}_t)$  is  
 47 piecewise differentiable, the objective function  $W_2^2(D(\{w_t\}_t), D^{\text{tgt}})$  is piecewise differentiable. How-  
 48 ever, it rarely happens that a point generated by an iterative method lands exactly on a non-smooth  
 49 configuration due to limited numerical precision [8]. Therefore, we can apply gradient-based methods  
 50 to the problem (2). The piecewise differentiability of the objective function is described in Appendix.  
 51 See also [5, 8, 12] for the differentiability of persistence maps.

52 Our approach can be used for any input signal and any target persistence diagram. In the context  
 53 of explainability for time-series analysis, a target persistence diagram  $D^{\text{tgt}}$  needs to be defined in a  
 54 suitable way. The target is expected to represent the desired behavior. One possible way is to define  
 55 the target to be the persistence diagram of any signal that belongs to the desired class. Another way is  
 56 to define the target by modifying the persistence diagram of an input signal according to our purpose.  
 57 For example, we modify a persistence diagram according to a rule related to a TDA-based algorithm  
 58 whose results we would like to analyze.

## 59 3 Experimental results

60 In this section, we show the usefulness of our algorithm based on both artificial and real-world  
 61 time-series datasets. In each experiment, the algorithm continuously deformed a given time-series by  
 62 solving the problem (2) with some target diagram. In the experiment with an artificial dataset, we set  
 63 a target diagram by a rule associated with a classifier. For EEG and motion sensor datasets, we set  
 64 our target diagram to be the diagram of a reference time-series in each case. We compared the input  
 65 and the deformed signals to understand which behavior contributes to the difference.

66 Throughout our experiments, we set the embedding dimension  $E = 3$  and the delay parameter  
 67  $\tau = 1$ . The algorithm was implemented in Python with the use of the GUDHI package [13], which  
 68 is available at [9]. In order to minimize the optimal transport based cost in Equation (2), we used  
 69 the fast implementation given in [10]. Also, we used the sequential quadratic programming (SQP)  
 70 solver [14], which is available in SciPy.

### 71 3.1 Artificial datasets

72 First we show some results for an artificial dataset. We considered two types of anomalous time-series  
 73 as show in Figure 1: (a) mean shifts, (b) spike noise, where the normal signal was generated from a  
 74 Gaussian with standard derivation 0.5.

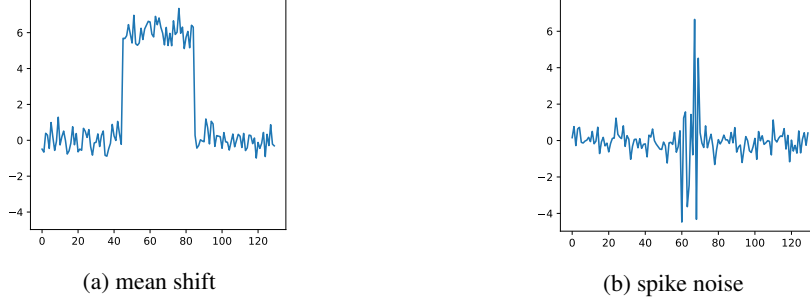


Figure 1: Examples of anomalous signals

To define a target diagram for each signal, we set a classification rule that detects anomaly based on the persistence diagram of a given signal. More concretely, we regarded a signal as anomalous if there is a point in its persistence diagram outside the region  $\{(b, d) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid b \leq 1.4, d - b \leq 0.3\}$  (see Figure 1). According to this classification rule, we set a target diagram as follows. For a point  $(b, d)$  in the persistence diagram of an input signal with  $b \leq 1$ ,  $d - b > 0.3$  we replaced it by  $(b, b + 0.3)$ , and for a point  $(b, d)$  with  $b > 1.4$  we replaced it by  $(1.4, 1.4)$ , to obtain  $D^{\text{tgt}}$ . Here, we used the DTM-filtration with DTM parameter  $k = 20$  to obtain a persistence diagram.

By solving the optimization problem given in Equation (2), we generated a new signal, which can be compared with the anomalous signal. Figure 2 (resp. Figure 3) shows a result for a signal with mean shifts (with spike noise) and its persistence diagram. In Figures 2 and 3, we could see that the generated signals exhibited normal behavior, while still being close to the input signals. By comparing the new signal with the anomalous signal, we could better understand how the TDA-based algorithm recognized anomalies.

In such applications, constant offsets could appear in the deformed signal, as we see in Figure 2. This is because two signals which differ by a constant offset could still have time-delay embedded point clouds of the same shape.

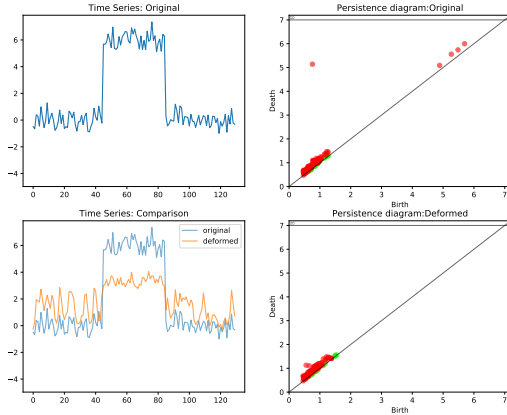


Figure 2: Result for a signal with mean shifts

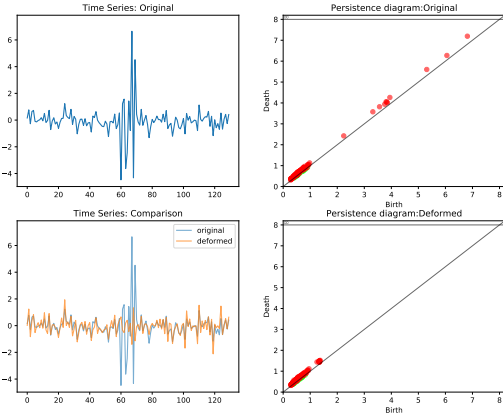


Figure 3: Result for a signal with spike noise

### 3.2 Real datasets

In this experiment, we use two real datasets: an electroencephalogram (EEG) dataset [3] and the daily and sports activities dataset [4].

EEG dataset contains two types of EEG signals, one is for the state of eyes open and the other is for the state of eyes closed. We set  $k$  in the DTM-filtration to be 5 and defined  $D^{\text{tgt}}$  to be the persistence diagram of a signal when eyes are closed and deformed a signal when eyes are open. Figure 4 shows the original signal, the target signal, the deformed signal, and their persistence diagrams. In the results shown in Figure 4, we noticed that the output signal behaved like one where eyes are closed.

By this result, we could see that the amplitude and frequency made the difference between the states of eyes open and closed, which agreed with a widely-accepted theory. Note that our framework deformed the signal by only referring to the target persistence diagram that corresponds to a signal obtained when eyes are closed.

Next we present a result for the daily and sports activities dataset [4]. We created an input time-series, where the first and third parts correspond to walking, while the middle part corresponds to running. The reference time-series consisted of walking only. Note that the walking samples were taken from different time windows. In the experiment, we set  $k$  in the DTM-filtration to be 10, and applied our algorithm to the input signal and the persistence diagram of the reference signal. From the results shown in Figure 5, we can see that the amplitude of the part corresponding to running was deformed towards that of walking. Thus, our framework succeeded in showing how the part corresponding to running differs from that of walking.

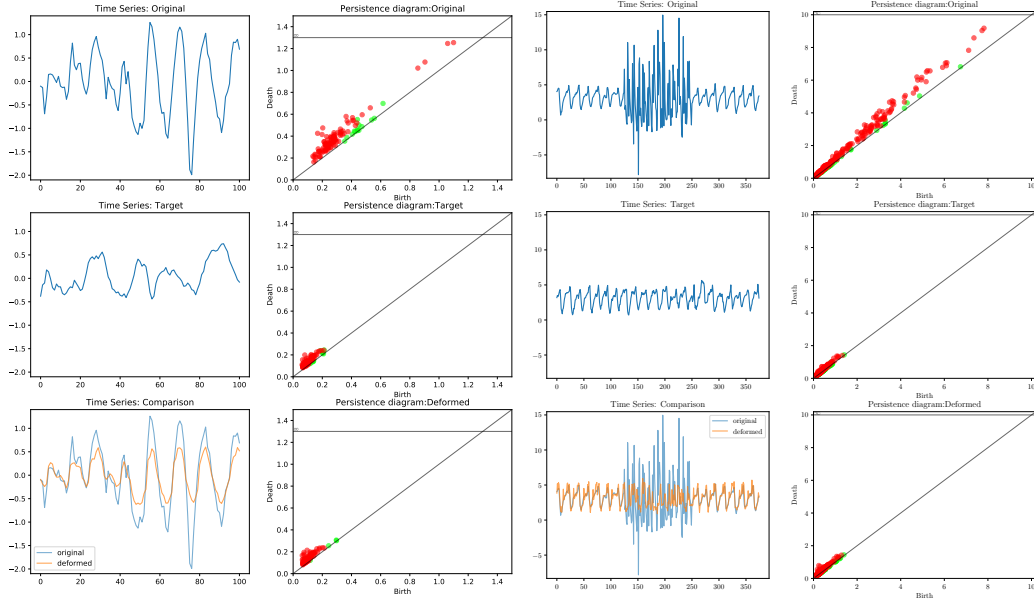


Figure 4: Result for a signal in the EEG dataset [3]      Figure 5: Result for a signal in the dataset [4]

Through these experiments, we verified that our proposed algorithm could bridge the difference between persistence diagrams into that between time-series, which can explain how two classes differ as time-series data. Each of the broad range of situations described so far could be addressed by dedicated methods derived from a priori knowledge. However, an advantage of our approach is that it can work without requiring special knowledge about a given problem.

## 4 Conclusion

In this paper, we have proposed a TDA-based explainable framework to better understand the output of a machine learning algorithm for time-series data. Our proposed method can continuously deform an input signal so that the persistence diagram of the resulting signal is close to a target one that describes behavior of a specific class. This gives further information about which behavior of the signal led to it being classified in a particular way. We have formulated the problem of finding such a deformation as a minimization problem of the distance between persistence diagrams, which can be solved by a gradient-based approach. With artificial and real-world datasets, we have experimentally shown that our method could explain the difference between two classes of time-series data through the difference in their persistence diagrams.

To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first application of a TDA-based method towards explainability for time-series data. We believe that our method provides a new fundamental tool for time-series analysis. For further research, defining a desired target persistence diagram is one of the interesting topics.

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## A Persistence diagram and Wasserstein distance

In this section, we explain how to construct a persistence diagram from a given point cloud. We also recall the Wasserstein distance on the space of persistence diagrams.

Let  $P$  be a point cloud in  $\mathbb{R}^E$ :  $P = \{u_i \in \mathbb{R}^E \mid i = 1, \dots, n\}$ . We regard a subset of  $P$  as a simplex, for example, a point, a line segment connecting two points, a triangle, and so on. For  $r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , we define a set of simplices or a simplicial complex  $\Sigma(r)$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma \in \Sigma(r) &\iff r \geq r_{u_i, u_j} \text{ for any } u_i, u_j \in \sigma, \\ \text{where } r_{u_i, u_j} &= \frac{1}{2} \|u_i - u_j\|. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In other words, the value  $r_\sigma$  when a simplex  $\sigma$  appears in  $\Sigma(r)$  is equal to  $\max_{u_i, u_j \in \sigma} r_{u_i, u_j}$ . By considering increasing values of  $r$ , we obtain a series of simplicial complexes  $\{\Sigma(r)\}_r$ , which is called a filtration. The above definition leads to the Vietoris-Rips filtration.

Defining  $r_\sigma$  in other ways could give us other filtrations. Here we present DTM-filtration [2], which is based on the  $k$ -nearest neighbors structure around each point and proven to be more robust to noise. We fix a positive integer  $k$  and define the DTM-function  $f: P \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  on the point cloud  $P$  as follows,

$$f(u_i) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{u \in \text{NN}(u_i, k)} \|u - u_i\|^2}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\text{NN}(u_i, k)$  denotes the set of  $k$ -nearest neighbors of  $u_i$ . By replacing  $r_{u_i, u_j}$  in (3) with

$$r_{u_i, u_j} = \frac{1}{2} (\|u_i - u_j\| + f(u_i) + f(u_j)), \quad (5)$$

we obtain the DTM-filtration. Note that in the case  $k = 1$  the DTM-filtration is equivalent to the Vietoris-Rips filtration.

As  $r$  increases, more and more simplices appear in  $\Sigma(r)$  and the topology of the resulting simplicial complex would change. Changing topology takes the form of birth or death of various topological features. Here, 0-dimensional topological features are connected components, 1-dimensional ones are loops, 2-dimensional ones are voids, etc. Each  $\ell$ -dimensional topological feature appears (resp. vanishes) by the introduction of a particular simplex and the value  $r$  which leads to the creation of the simplex is called the birth (resp. death) time of the feature. The pair of the birth and death times of an  $\ell$ -dimensional feature can be described as a point  $(b, d)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , where  $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ . Here if a feature never vanishes, its death time is considered to be  $\infty$ . For each dimension  $\ell$ , the collection of such points forms a multiset  $D_\ell(P)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and is called the  $\ell$ th persistence diagram. In our application, we simultaneously consider persistence diagrams corresponding to more than one dimension. Hence, it is useful to introduce the notion of a total persistence diagram:  $D(P) := \{D_\ell(P)\}_{\ell=0,1,2,\dots}$ .

A distance based on optimal transport, such as the bottleneck distance or the  $p$ -Wasserstein distance, endows the space of persistence diagrams with a partial matching metric [7]. For  $p \geq 1$ , the  $p$ -Wasserstein metric between two  $\ell$ th persistence diagrams  $D_\ell^1$  and  $D_\ell^2$  is defined as

$$W_p(D_\ell^1, D_\ell^2) := \left( \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma(\overline{D_\ell^1}, \overline{D_\ell^2})} \sum_{q \in \overline{D_\ell^1}} \|q - \gamma(q)\|_p^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad (6)$$

where  $\overline{D} = D \cup \Delta$ ,  $\Delta$  being the diagonal  $\{(x, x) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$  with infinite multiplicity, and  $\Gamma(\overline{D_\ell^1}, \overline{D_\ell^2})$  is the set of all bijections  $\gamma: \overline{D_\ell^1} \rightarrow \overline{D_\ell^2}$ . This means that a point in one persistence diagram can be either matched to another point in the other diagram or its own projection to the diagonal. In this paper, we work with  $p = 2$ . Moreover, for two total persistence diagrams  $D^1$  and  $D^2$ , we define the squared 2-Wasserstein distance between them by

$$W_2^2(D^1, D^2) := \sum_{\ell \geq 0} (W_2(D_\ell^1, D_\ell^2))^2. \quad (7)$$

In practical use of the DTM-filtration [2], points in 0th persistence diagrams could be close to the diagonal. When we minimize the 2-Wasserstein distance between two 0th persistence diagrams,

217 a point could get matched to its own projection on the diagonal, instead of to a point in the other  
 218 diagram. Thus, we will not be able to move the input persistence diagram towards the target diagram,  
 219 when we try to minimize the objective in Equation (2). To overcome this problem, under the condition  
 220 that two 0th persistence diagrams have the same number of points, we will use complete matching  
 221 instead of partial matching. That is, for 0th persistence diagrams  $D_0^1$  and  $D_0^2$  with the same number  
 222 of points, we compute

$$W_2(D_0^1, D_0^2) := \left( \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma(D_0^1, D_0^2)} \sum_{q \in D_0^1} \|q - \gamma(q)\|_2^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (8)$$

223 where unlike Equation (6),  $\Gamma(D_0^1, D_0^2)$  is the set of bijections between  $D_0^1$  and  $D_0^2$ . In our applications,  
 224 the assumption on the number of points in 0th persistence diagrams is satisfied and we use (8) for  
 225 the 0th part in the squared Wasserstein distance (7). In case the target 0th persistence diagram has a  
 226 different number of points compared to the input 0th diagram, we can interpolate and resample the  
 227 input signal, so that this condition is satisfied. This will encourage points in the input diagram to  
 228 move towards those in the target.

## 229 B Piecewise differentiability of the objective function

230 In this section, we explain the piecewise differentiability of the objective function.

231 We identify  $\{u_i \in \mathbb{R}^E \mid i = 1, \dots, n\}$  with the vector  $u \in \mathbb{R}^L, L = n \cdot E$  obtained by stacking  
 232 the points  $u_i$ . For  $u \in \mathbb{R}^L$ , we obtain the persistence diagram  $D(u)$  of the corresponding point  
 233 cloud, through the Vietoris-Rips filtration or the DTM-filtration [2]. We can represent the persistence  
 234 diagram  $D(u)$  as a vector, by ordering the birth-death pairs as described in [8], for example. It can be  
 235 aligned as the following form:

$$D(u) = (b_1, d_1, \dots, b_{m'}, d_{m'}, b_{m'+1}, \dots, b_{m'+n'}) \in \mathbb{R}^M, \quad (9)$$

236 where  $M = 2m' + n'$ . Note that the dimension  $M$  depends on the configuration of a point cloud  $u$ .  
 237 One can prove that there exists a decomposition  $\mathbb{R}^L = S \sqcup O_1 \sqcup \dots \sqcup O_m$  satisfying

- 238 1.  $S$  is of measure zero and each  $O_i$  is an open subset,
- 239 2. on each  $O_i$  the dimension  $M$  of  $D(u)$  is constant, and
- 240 3. the correspondence  $O_i \ni u \mapsto D(u) \in \mathbb{R}^M$  is differentiable.

241 Each element of  $D(u)$  is of the filtration value  $r_\sigma$  associated with some simplex  $\sigma$ , which is explicitly  
 242 written as a function of  $u$ . Thus on each  $O_i$ , we can compute the derivative of the map  $u \mapsto D(u)$  with  
 243 respect to  $u$ . This leads to a piecewise differentiable map that assigns a point cloud to a persistence  
 244 diagram, which is called the persistence map.

245 By composing the persistence map with the time-delay embedding map  $e$ , we obtain a piecewise  
 246 differentiable map from a time-series to its persistence diagram, whose derivative can be computed by  
 247 the chain rule. As a result, the objective function  $W_2^2(D(\{w_t\}_t), D^{\text{tgt}})$  is a piecewise differentiable  
 248 function with respect to  $\{w_t\}_t \in \mathbb{R}^N$  and its gradient can be explicitly computed.