

# The magnitude of graphs and finite metric spaces

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# Plan

1. Background
2. The magnitude of a finite set of points
3. Diversity
4. The magnitude of a graph
5. The future: magnitude homology

# *1. Background*

## Size

For many types of mathematical object, there is a canonical notion of size.

- Sets have cardinality. It satisfies

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

$$|A \times B| = |A| \times |B|.$$

- Subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  have volume. It satisfies

$$\text{vol}(A \cup B) = \text{vol}(A) + \text{vol}(B) - \text{vol}(A \cap B)$$

$$\text{vol}(A \times B) = \text{vol}(A) \times \text{vol}(B).$$

- Topological spaces have Euler characteristic. It satisfies

$$\chi(A \cup B) = \chi(A) + \chi(B) - \chi(A \cap B) \quad (\text{under hypotheses})$$

$$\chi(A \times B) = \chi(A) \times \chi(B).$$

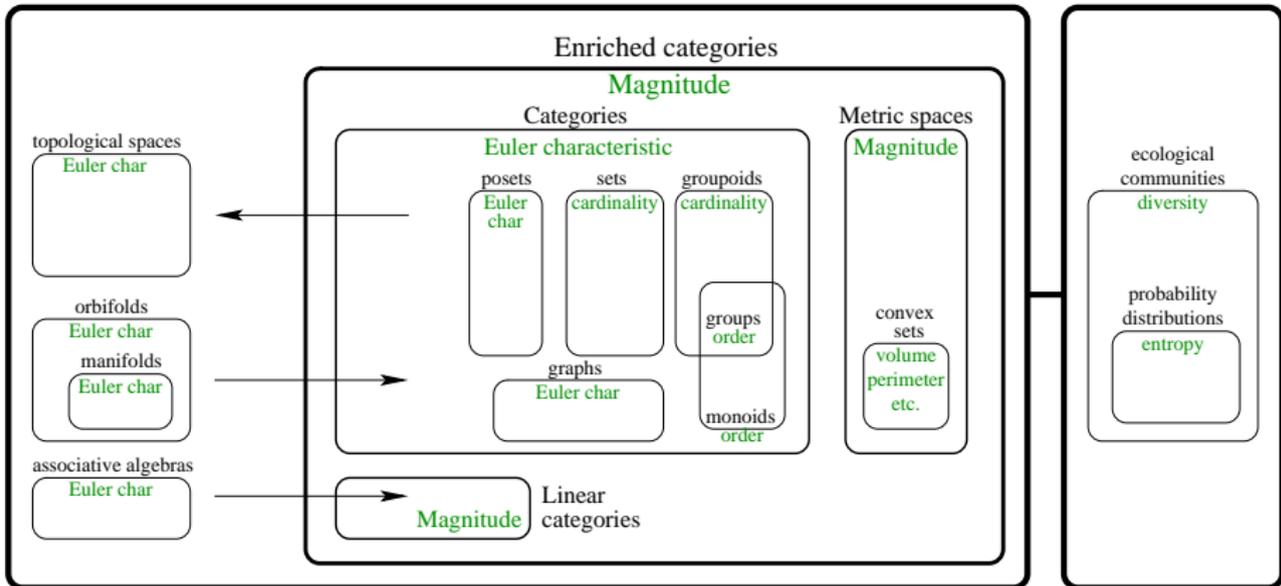
**Challenge** Find a general definition of 'size', including these and other examples.

**One answer** The **magnitude of an "enriched category"**.

# The wide world of magnitude

**SIZE**

**SPREAD**



# The magnitude of a compact metric space

Let  $A$  be a compact metric space, e.g. a closed bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .



The **magnitude**  $|A|$  of  $A$  is a real number measuring the 'size' of  $A$ .  
(Definition later.)

Olaf, yesterday: 'There is no privileged scale!' So...

Given  $t > 0$ , write  $tA$  for  $A$  scaled up by a factor of  $t$ .

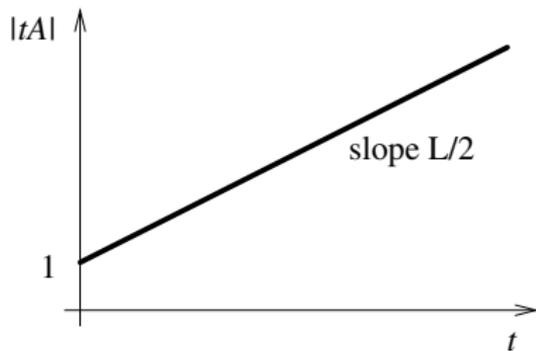
The **magnitude function** of  $A$  is the function  $t \mapsto |tA|$ .

Thus, **magnitude** assigns to each space not just a *number*, but a *function*.

# The magnitude of a line segment

**Example:** Let  $A$  be a straight line of length  $L$ .

The magnitude function of  $A$  is



$$t \mapsto |tA| = \boxed{1} + \frac{1}{2} \boxed{L} \cdot t^{\boxed{1}}$$

Euler characteristic      length      dimension

## The magnitude of a compact metric space: theorems

Let  $A$  be a compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Theorem (Meckes)** *The asymptotic growth rate of  $|tA|$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  is the Minkowski dimension of  $A$ .*

E.g.  $\left| t \text{  \right|$  grows like  $t^2$  and  $\left| t \text{  \right|$  grows like  $t^{1.261\dots}$ ,  
for large  $t$ .

**Theorem (Barceló and Carbery; Gimperlein and Goffeng)** *Under technical hypotheses,*

$$|tA| = c_n \text{vol}_n(A) \cdot t^n + c_{n-1} \text{vol}_{n-1}(\partial A) \cdot t^{n-1} + O(t^{n-2})$$

as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $c_n$  and  $c_{n-1}$  are known constants.

E.g. If  $n = 3$  then  $\text{vol}_n(A)$  and  $\text{vol}_{n-1}(\partial A)$  are the volume and surface area of  $A$ .

So: if you know the magnitude function of a space, you know its dimension, volume and surface area.

## The magnitude of a compact metric space: theorems

**Theorem (Willerton)** *Let  $A$  be a homogeneous Riemannian  $n$ -manifold.*

*Then*

$$|tA| = C_n \operatorname{vol}_n(A) \cdot t^n + C_{n-2} \operatorname{TotalScalarCurvature}(A) \cdot t^{n-2} + O(t^{n-4})$$

*as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $C_n$  and  $C_{n-2}$  are known constants. In particular, when  $n = 2$ ,*

$$|tA| = \frac{1}{2\pi} \operatorname{area}(A) \cdot t^2 + \chi(A) + O(t^{-2}).$$

**Theorem (Barceló and Carbery)** *The magnitude of an odd-dimensional Euclidean ball is a rational function of its radius. Specifically:*

$$|tB^1| = 1 + t,$$

$$|tB^3| = \frac{1}{3!} (6 + 12t + 6t^2 + t^3),$$

$$|tB^5| = \frac{1}{5!} \frac{360 + 1080t + 525t^2 + 135t^4 + 18t^5 + t^6}{3 + t}.$$

## The moral

For geometrically interesting subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the magnitude function conveys geometrically interesting information.

(Despite—or because of?—its very general, abstract categorical origins.)

What information does the magnitude function contain for *finite* sets of points?

*2. The magnitude of a  
finite set of points*

## The definition

Let  $A$  be a finite metric space with points  $1, \dots, n$  and distance  $d_{ij}$  from point  $i$  to point  $j$ .

Write  $Z_A = Z$  for the  $n \times n$  matrix with entries

$$Z_{ij} = e^{-d_{ij}}.$$

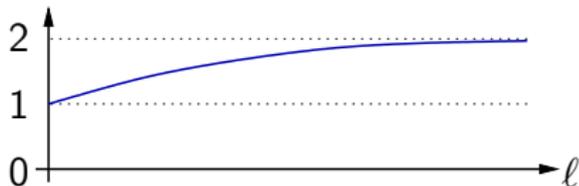
Assuming  $Z$  is invertible (which it usually is), the **magnitude** of  $A$  is

$$|A| = \sum_{i,j} (Z^{-1})_{ij}$$

—the sum of all  $n^2$  entries of  $Z^{-1}$ .

## First examples

- $|\emptyset| = 0$ .
- $|\bullet| = 1$ .
- $|\overset{\leftarrow}{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\ell} \bullet| = \text{sum of entries of } \begin{pmatrix} e^{-0} & e^{-\ell} \\ e^{-\ell} & e^{-0} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{2}{1 + e^{-\ell}}$ .



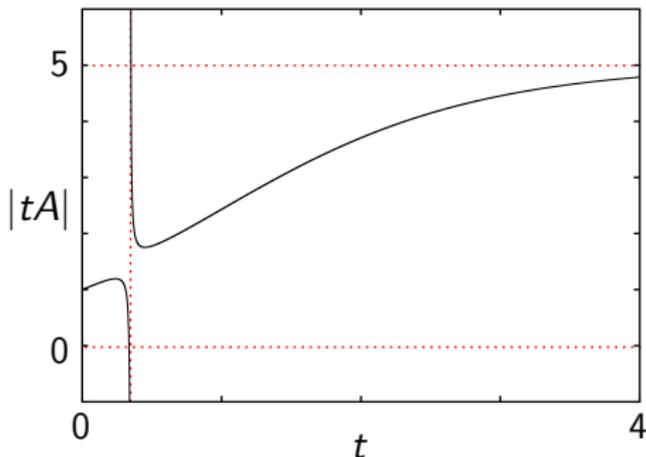
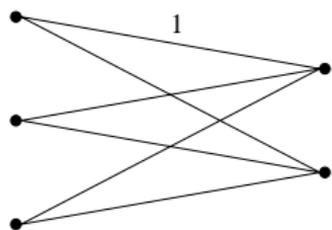
- If  $d(i, j) = \infty$  for all  $i \neq j$  then  $|A| = n$  (number of points).

**Slogan:** Magnitude is the 'effective number of points'  
(or clusters, or modules, ...)

## Magnitude functions

Let  $A$  be a finite metric space. The **magnitude function** of  $A$  is the (partially-defined) function  $t \mapsto |tA|$  ( $t > 0$ ).

Example:



Properties:

- The magnitude function has only finitely many singularities (none if  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ )
- $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} |tA|$  is equal to  $n$ , the number of points
- $|tA|$  is increasing in  $t$  for  $t \gg 0$ .

# Detecting clusters at different scales (Willerton)



Magnitude: 1

## Detecting clusters at different scales (Willerton)



Magnitude: 1.01

## Detecting clusters at different scales (Willerton)



Magnitude: 1.2

# Detecting clusters at different scales (Willerton)



Magnitude: 1.6

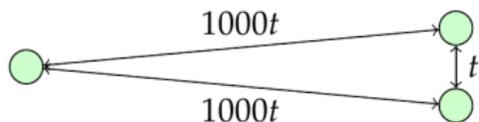
# Detecting clusters at different scales (Willerton)



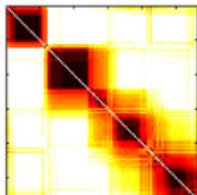
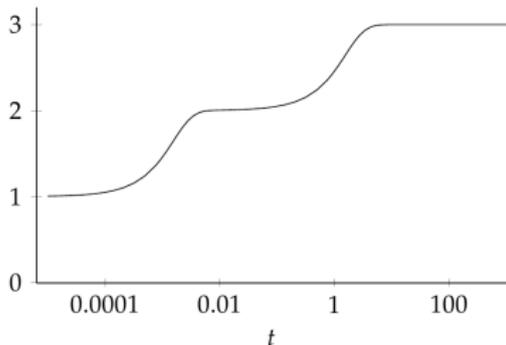
Magnitude: 2.3

As the points get further apart, the magnitude gets closer to 3.

Precise version: the magnitude function of the 3-point space



is



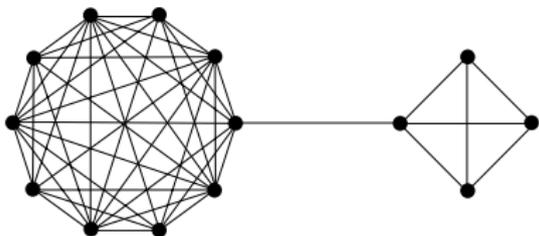
## Observation

Magnitude can be seen as 'effective number of clusters', but it's not always an integer! Awkward reality: 'clusters' are ill-defined.

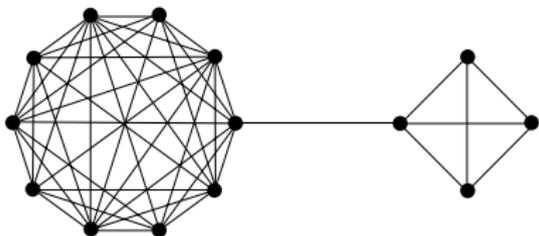
## Detecting the critical nodes and edges

View a graph as a metric space: the points are the nodes, and the distance between nodes is the length of a shortest path between them.

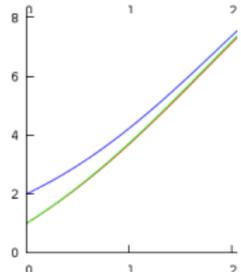
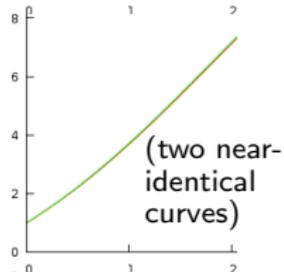
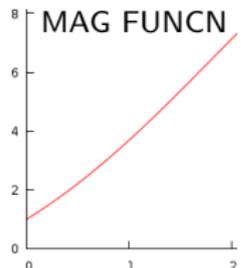
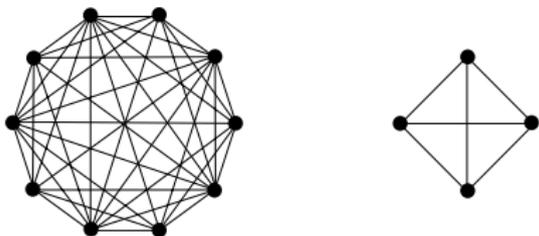
whole graph



one edge on left deleted

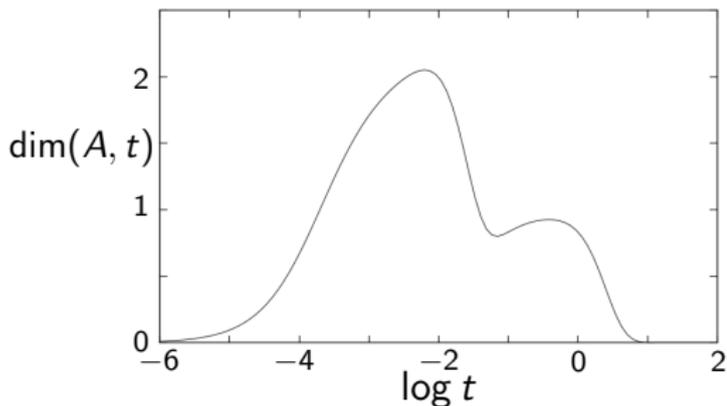
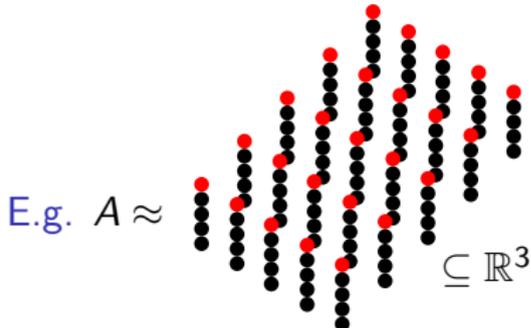
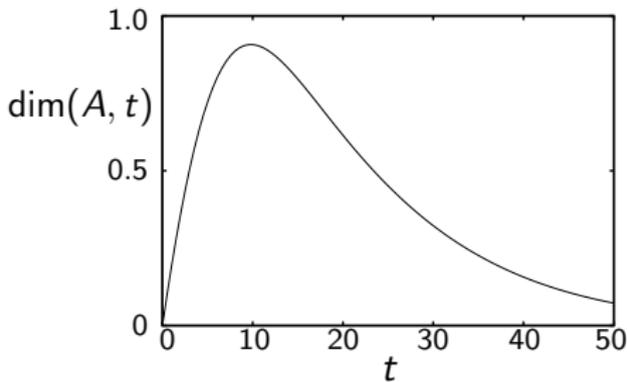
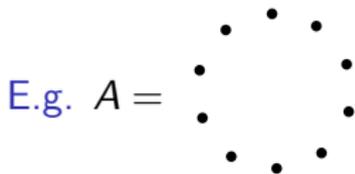


bridge deleted



## Detecting dimension at multiple scales

Definition (Willerton) The dimension of  $A$  at scale  $t$  is  $\dim(A, t) = \frac{d(\log|tA|)}{d(\log t)}$ .



grid is  $100 \times 100 \times 100$ ,  
with 100:1 ratio of  
horizontal:vertical spacing.

# An appeal

The only 'results' we have on the ability of magnitude functions to detect features of data-sets are a handful of specific examples. We need:

1. More empirical exploration
2. Theorems. . . or at least, conjectures!

## Back to compact spaces

There are several equivalent ways to define the magnitude of a compact metric space  $X$  (assuming a technical hypothesis).

The simplest:

$$|X| = \sup\{|A| : \text{finite } A \subseteq X\}.$$

With this definition, and lots of analysis, we get all the results on geometric invariants stated earlier.

### 3. *Diversity*

Joint with Christina Cobbold (*Ecology*, 2012)

# A brief history of diversity measurement

**Challenge** Given a biological community, derive a single real number measuring its 'diversity' (whatever *that* means).

There are practical problems . . . which we'll ignore.

There are statistical problems . . . which we'll ignore.

There are conceptual problems . . . which we'll focus on.

Some conceptual questions:

- How much importance to attach to rare species?  
E.g. there are 8 species of great ape, but 99.99% are humans.
- How to incorporate the varying similarities between species?  
E.g. 10 species of pine vs. 10 very different tree species.

# Lots of measures of diversity have been proposed. . .

688

NATURE

April 30, 1949 Vol. 163

## Measurement of Diversity

THE 'characteristic' defined by Yule<sup>1</sup> and the 'index of diversity' defined by Fisher<sup>2</sup> are two measures of the degree of concentration or diversity

The third and fourth cumulants of the distribution of  $l$  have also been calculated exactly. They indicate that as  $N$  increases, the distribution tends to normality except when  $\lambda = 1/Z$ ; in that case the distribution of  $l$  tends to that of  $l$  with  $Z$  degrees of freedom

## VEGETATION OF THE SISKIYOU MOUNTAINS, OREGON AND CALIFORNIA<sup>1</sup>

R. H. WHITTAKER

*Biology Department, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn 10, N. Y.*

"new measure of biodiversity"

All

Images

News

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About 12,800 results (0,24 seconds)

Lots of measures of diversity have been proposed. . .

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NATURE

April 30, 1949 Vol. 163

## THE NONCONCEPT OF SPECIES DIVERSITY: A CRITIQUE AND ALTERNATIVE PARAMETERS<sup>1</sup>

STUART H. HURLBERT<sup>2</sup>

*Division of Biological Control, Department of Entomology, University of California, Riverside*

*Abstract.* The recent literature on species diversity contains many semantic, conceptual, and technical problems. It is suggested that, as a result of these problems, species diversity has become a meaningless concept, that the term be abandoned, and that ecologists take a

## THROUGH THE JUNGLE OF BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY

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Lots of measures of diversity have been proposed. . .

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NATURE  
THE NONCONCEPT OF SPECIES DIVERSITY  
AN ALTERNATIVE PARADIGM

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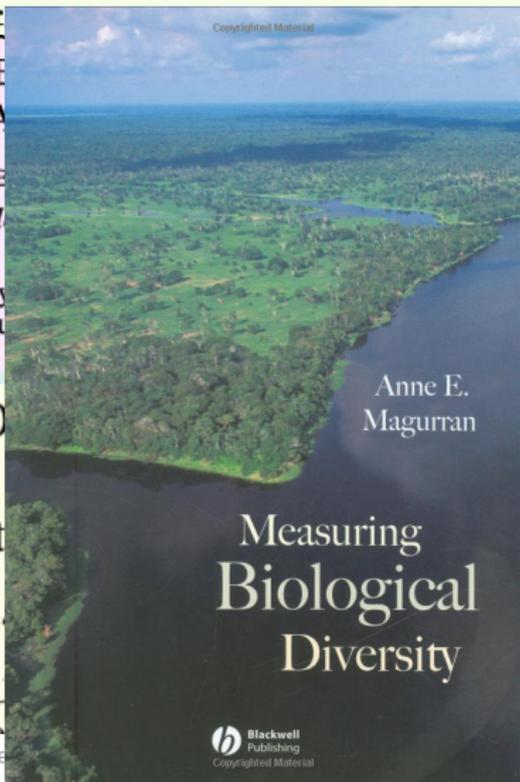
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We'll meet a family of measures that encompasses many of them.

## Modelling a community

Model a biological community mathematically as follows:

- The organisms are classified into  $n$  species.
- They have relative abundances  $\mathbf{p} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \end{pmatrix}$  (with  $\sum p_i = 1$ ).
- The similarity between species  $i$  and  $j$  is  $Z_{ij} \in [0, 1]$ .  
Here 0 means totally dissimilar and 1 means identical.  
Assume  $Z_{ii} = 1$  and  $Z_{ij} = Z_{ji}$ , so have symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $Z$ .

Similarity can be measured in many ways, including:

- **Naive model**  $Z = I$ : distinct species have nothing in common.
- Percentage genetic similarity.
- Taxonomically, e.g.  $Z_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if same species} \\ 0.7 & \text{if different species but same genus} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$
- $Z_{ij} = e^{-d_{ij}}$  if  $(d_{ij})$  is a metric on species.

## A unifying family of diversity measures

**Recap:** We model a community by a relative abundance vector  $\mathbf{p} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \end{pmatrix}$  and an  $n \times n$  similarity matrix  $Z$ .

- $(Z\mathbf{p})_i = \sum_j Z_{ij}p_j$  is the expected similarity between a random organism and one of species  $i$ . It measures the **ordinariness** of species  $i$ .
- So  $1/(Z\mathbf{p})_i$  is the **distinctiveness** of species  $i$ .

A community is diverse if it contains many distinctive individuals.

So one measure of diversity is the average distinctiveness:

$$\sum_i p_i \frac{1}{(Z\mathbf{p})_i}.$$

More generally, it's worth considering the power mean

$$\left( \sum_i p_i \left( \frac{1}{(Z\mathbf{p})_i} \right)^{1-q} \right)^{1/(1-q)}$$

for every real  $q$  (but we'll stick to  $q \geq 0$ ).

# A unifying family of diversity measures

## Definition

The **diversity** of the community, of order  $q \geq 0$ , is

$$D_q^Z(\mathbf{p}) = \left( \sum_i p_i (Z\mathbf{p})_i^{q-1} \right)^{1/(1-q)}.$$

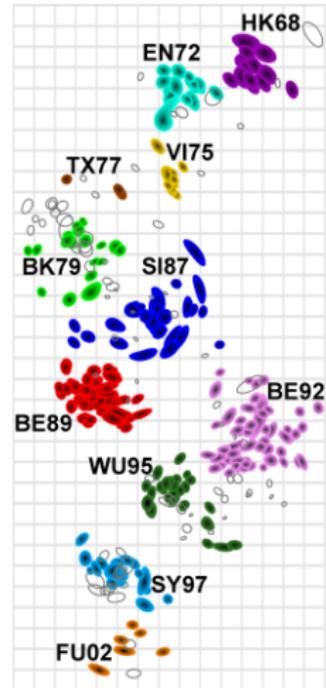
When  $q = 1$ , this doesn't make sense. Instead, define

$$D_1^Z(\mathbf{p}) = \lim_{q \rightarrow 1} D_q^Z(\mathbf{p}) = \exp\left(-\sum p_i \log(Z\mathbf{p})_i\right).$$

E.g. Naive model  $Z = I$ : then  $D_1^Z(\mathbf{p}) = \exp(\text{Shannon entropy of } \mathbf{p})$ .

# Properties of these diversity measures

- This family of diversity measures encompasses many of the measures already defined and used by ecologists, geneticists, etc.
- They behave sensibly when species are reclassified (don't jump suddenly).
- They behave smoothly under change of resolution (e.g. if we go down to the subspecies level).
- They can be used in situations where we *don't have species classifications at all* (often the case for microbial communities).

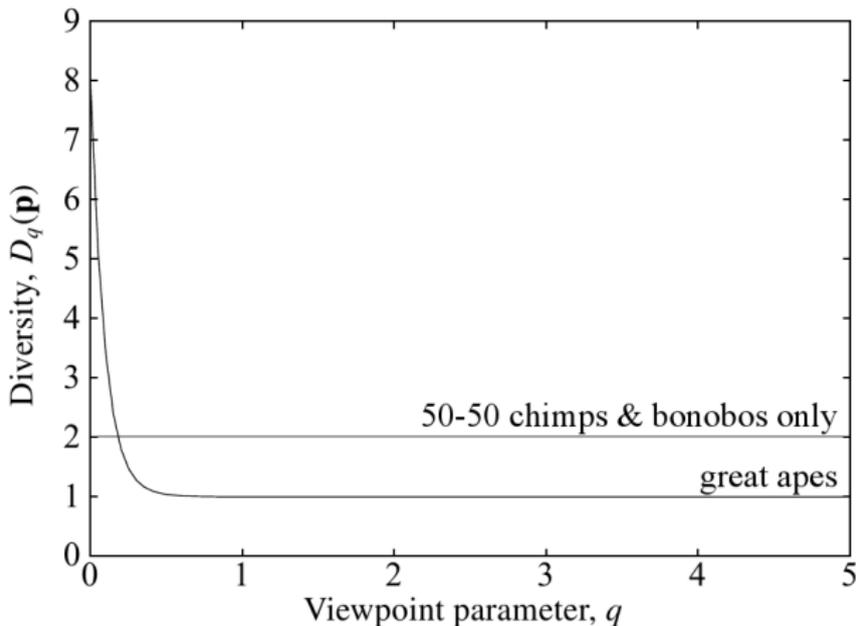


Influenza strains,  
1968–2002

## Comparing communities

The **diversity profile** of a community is the graph of  $D_q^Z(\mathbf{p})$  against  $q$ .

E.g. Great apes worldwide, with naive similarity matrix ( $Z = I$ ):



The parameter  $q$  controls the relative emphasis on rare or common species.

## Maximizing diversity

**Problem:** Fix a list of species (i.e. a similarity matrix  $Z$ ), and suppose we are free to choose their relative abundances  $\mathbf{p}$ .

- Which distribution  $\mathbf{p}$  maximizes the diversity  $D_q^Z(\mathbf{p})$ ?
- What is the value of the maximum diversity,  $\sup_{\mathbf{p}} D_q^Z(\mathbf{p})$ ?

Diversity profiles can cross, so in principle, both answers depend on  $q$ .

**Theorem (with Mark Meckes, *Entropy*, 2016)**

*Neither does. That is:*

- *There is a single distribution  $\mathbf{p}_{\max}$  maximizing diversity of all orders  $q$  simultaneously (a 'best of all possible worlds').*
- *The maximum diversity  $D_q^Z(\mathbf{p}_{\max})$  is the same for all  $q$ . Call it  $D_{\max}(Z)$ .*

## Consequences of the maximum diversity theorem

Any  $n \times n$  similarity matrix  $Z$  (e.g. coming from a metric via  $Z_{ij} = e^{-d_{ij}}$ ) gives rise *canonically* to:

- a probability distribution  $\mathbf{p}_{\max}$  on  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  (usually unique)
- a real number  $D_{\max}(Z)$ .

Often,  $D_{\max}(Z)$  is equal to the magnitude  $|Z| = \sum_{i,j} (Z^{-1})_{ij}$ .

It's *always* equal to the magnitude of  $Z$  restricted to some subset of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ .

In a slogan:

Magnitude  $\approx$  maximum diversity

## 4. *Graphs, revisited (briefly)*

## The magnitude of a graph

We've seen that any graph  $G$  can be understood as a special metric space, where all distances are integers.

(For simplicity, I'll stick to undirected graphs—but can do directed.)

**Special property of graphs** Write  $x = e^{-t}$ . Then the magnitude function  $t \mapsto |tG|$  is a rational function of  $x$ .

E.g.  all have magnitude function

$$\frac{5 + 5x - 4x^2}{(1 + x)(1 + 2x)}.$$

The magnitude of a graph can be studied as a graph invariant, and shares some invariance properties with the Tutte polynomial.

## The magnitude of a graph

**Lemma** *The magnitude function of a graph can also be expressed as a power series with integer coefficients.*

E.g.  have magnitude function

$$5 - 10x + 16x^2 - 28x^3 + 52x^4 - 100x^5 + \dots$$

In general, the magnitude function of a graph  $G$  is

$$c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots$$

where

$c_0$  = number of nodes

$c_1$  =  $-2 \cdot$  (number of edges)

$c_2$  =  $\sum_{i,j:d_{ij}=2} \underbrace{\left( (\text{num of configurations } i \text{---} \bullet \text{---} j) - 1 \right)}_{\text{redundancy}}$

+  $6 \cdot$  (num of triangles) +  $2 \cdot$  (num of edges).

*5. The future:  
magnitude homology*

## Two points of view on Euler characteristic

**So far:** Euler characteristic has been treated as an analogue of cardinality.

**Alternatively:** Given any homology theory  $H_*$  of any kind of object  $X$ , can define

$$\chi(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \text{rank } H_n(X).$$

Note:

- $\chi(X)$  is a *number*
- $H_*(X)$  is an *algebraic structure*, and functorial in  $X$ .

In this sense, homology improves on (“categorifies”) Euler characteristic.

## The magnitude homology of a graph (Hepworth–Willerton)

There is a definition (omitted) of the **magnitude homology** of a graph.

It is a *graded* homology theory. That is, for each graph  $G$  and integer  $k \geq 0$ , it gives a *sequence*

$$H_{k,0}(G), H_{k,1}(G), H_{k,2}(G), \dots$$

of abelian groups.

So for each  $k \geq 0$ , we have a power series

$$\text{rank}(H_{k,0}(G)) + \text{rank}(H_{k,1}(G))x + \text{rank}(H_{k,2}(G))x^2 + \dots$$

The Euler characteristic  $\chi(G)$  for this homology theory is (inevitably) defined as the alternating sum of these power series over  $k = 0, 1, \dots$

**Theorem (Hepworth, Willerton)**  $\chi(G)$  is exactly the magnitude function of  $G$ .

So: **magnitude is the Euler characteristic of magnitude homology.**

## The magnitude homology of a metric space

The definition of magnitude homology can be generalized from graphs to enriched categories (Shulman).

In particular, there is a magnitude homology of metric spaces.

**Sample Theorem** For a closed set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$A \text{ is convex} \iff H_1(A) = 0.$$

Otter (2018) has done a comparison of magnitude homology with persistent homology:

- She proves a relationship between persistent homology and a ‘blurred version’ of magnitude homology. . .
- but concludes that ‘morally, these are very different homology theories’, conveying different information.

# *Summary*

## Summary

**Magnitude** is a numerical invariant of metric spaces (e.g. data sets, networks, and the kinds of space that geometers like thinking about).

By considering rescalings, magnitude assigns a **function** to each space.

- For geometrically interesting spaces, the magnitude function carries geometrically interesting information (volume, dimension, etc).
- For finite spaces, it seems—empirically—to carry multiscale information on number of clusters and dimensionality.

We can also measure the **diversity** ( $\sim$  entropy) of any probability distribution on a finite metric space. . .

. . . and magnitude is closely related to maximum diversity.

There is a theory of **magnitude homology** for metric spaces.

It is related to persistent homology, but expresses different information about the space. . . Lots to explore here!

References and further reading: [www.maths.ed.ac.uk/~tl/magbib](http://www.maths.ed.ac.uk/~tl/magbib)