

Otterbein University

Digital Commons @ Otterbein

Mathematics Faculty Scholarship

Mathematical Sciences

2010

The Topology of Incidence Pseudographs

Thomas R. James

Otterbein University, TJames@otterbein.edu

Reinhard Klette

University of Auckland

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.otterbein.edu/math_fac



Part of the [Computer Sciences Commons](#), and the [Mathematics Commons](#)

Repository Citation

James, Thomas R. and Klette, Reinhard, "The Topology of Incidence Pseudographs" (2010). *Mathematics Faculty Scholarship*. 22.

https://digitalcommons.otterbein.edu/math_fac/22

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Mathematical Sciences at Digital Commons @ Otterbein. It has been accepted for inclusion in Mathematics Faculty Scholarship by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ Otterbein. For more information, please contact digitalcommons07@otterbein.edu.

The Topology of Incidence Pseudographs

T. R. James* R. Klette†

March 10, 2010

Abstract

Incidence pseudographs model a (reflexive and symmetric) incidence relation between sets of various dimensions, contained in a countable family. Work by Klaus Voss in 1993 suggested that this general discrete model allows to introduce a topology, and some authors have done some studies into this direction in the past (also using alternative discrete models such as, for example, abstract complexes or orders on sets of cells). This paper provides a comprehensive overview about the topology of incidence pseudographs. This topology has various applications, such as in modeling basic data in 2D or 3D digital picture analysis, or in describing polyhedral complexes. This paper addresses especially also partially open sets which occur, for example, in common (non-binary) picture analysis.

1 Introduction

An incidence pseudograph $[S, I, \dim]$ models a (reflexive and symmetric) incidence relation I between sets c of dimension $\dim(c) \geq 0$, contained in a countable family S . (Relation I represents the symmetric completion of the *subset-of*-relationship.) This very general discrete model allows to introduce a topology, and to derive combinatorial formulas assuming some kind of regularity for the underlying geometry of *cells* $c \in S$. Obviously, the generality of this model allows for applications in a wide range of situations.

For example, digital (2D or 3D) pictures may be considered to be substructures of a regular orthogonal grid in (2D or 3D) space, and S would be a set of m -cells c (i.e., $\dim(c) = m$ with $0 \leq m \leq 3$) in this case; a pixel is a 2-cell, a voxel is a 3-cell, two pixels are *vertex-adjacent* if they are both incident with the same 0-cell, two voxels are *face-connected* iff they are both incident with the same 2-cell, and so forth.

See Figure 1 for 2-cells, 1-cells, and 0-cells of a 2D picture. The sketch in this figure indicates a partition of the digital plane into those cells, and in case of more than two values in a digital picture, one of those values defines non-open and non-closed regions, which will be studied as partially open in

*Mathematics Department, Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio, USA

†Computer Science Department, The University of Auckland, New Zealand

this paper. (For example, in the sketch on the right, black regions are open, there is one closed gray region, and one partially-open white region.)

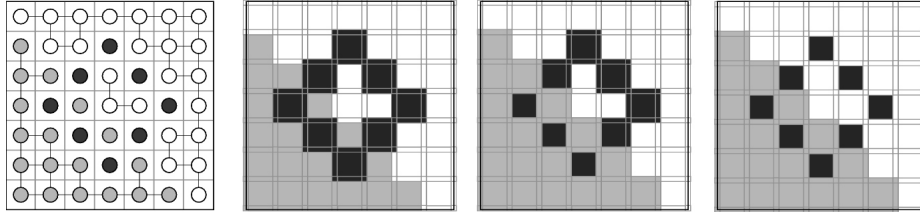


Figure 1: Figure 5.21 in (7). The three-valued digital picture on the left is shown in three alternative topological interpretations. From left to right: black is 8-connected (forming a closed set), and gray is 4-connected (forming an open set), then gray is closed and white is open, and, finally, gray is again closed, but black is open.

Definition 1 An *incidence structure* $[S, I, \dim]$ is defined by a countable set S of nodes, an *incidence relation* I on S that is reflexive and symmetric, and a function \dim defined on S into a finite set $\{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ of natural numbers.

Such a structure is called an *incidence pseudograph* (see Definition 2 below) if it satisfies additional constraints, such as having only finite sets $I(c)$ (i.e., being *locally finite*), or that a node $c' \in I(c)$ cannot be of the same dimensionality as node c . Incidence pseudographs allow us to model the topology of digital pictures, or of other discrete objects characterized by elements of varying dimensionality.

The book (7) decided for the model of incidence pseudographs for discussing the underlying digital topology of 2D or 3D digital pictures. Equivalently, also some model based on cells and their dimensionality (9), or on cells and their order (2) could have been used; however, graphs might be seen as an even more abstract model compared to families of cells.

Abstract complexes (9) are defined by cells of different dimensionality; see, for example, (5; 6; 8) for applications of this approach for defining fundamentals of binary image analysis. The equivalence between abstract complexes and incidence pseudographs was stated on page 223 in (7): Let $[S, I, \dim]$ be an incidence pseudograph. We define that $c < c'$ iff

$$c' \in I(c), c \neq c', \text{ and } \dim(c) < \dim(c')$$

Let $c \leq c'$ iff $c < c'$ or $c = c'$. It follows that $[S, \leq, \dim]$ is an abstract complex. Note that the work in (5) (based on cells and their dimensionality) was mainly motivated by proving the correctness of a 3D surface scanning algorithm, which is also a central subject in (4), which defines and applies *digital spaces*, which are graph-theoretical models rather than cellular spaces.

Orders on sets of cells have been discussed in (2; 3), also for defining fundamentals of binary image analysis. (1) discussed the equivalence of orders on sets of cells with abstract complexes.

Incidence pseudographs have been introduced in (10) for discussing combinatorial properties of sets of pixels or voxels, considered to be grid points (note: not cells!) in 2D or 3D regular orthogonal grids. [Applying the topological discussion of (7) and what follows below, finite incidence pseudographs as considered in (10) are *open sets*.] The discussion of combinatorial properties (i.e., counts of nodes of various dimensions, and relations between such counts) has been complemented in (7) by also discussing closed sets. However, in this paper we will not discuss any of those combinatorial properties, and will focus on set-theoretical or topological properties instead. In this sense, this paper is not a review on incidence pseudographs in general by leaving one important subject fully out of our discussion.

This paper recalls the discussion of topological subjects of incidence pseudographs as given in (7) in a brief but concise form, and extends it then into a much more detailed analysis of topological properties of incidence pseudographs. In particular, this paper aims at presenting a topological concept for multi-valued (i.e., not just binary) pictures, having not just open or closed sets, but also *partially open* sets. Thus, this paper contains various new topological or set-theoretical results on incidence pseudographs, and the authors do not compare in every case what has been said already in (7) or not.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces into incidence pseudographs. Sections 3 and 6 introduce the auxiliary notions of the rooted set and a descendance path, respectively. Section 4 introduces components and regions; subjects of major interest in this study. Section 5 then finally defines the topology by introducing open and closed sets. Section 7 shows that there is a unique topological closure for any finite set which has a connected nonempty core. Open, closed and complete sets are studied in Section 8. Section 9 shows that there is also a smallest open set containing a given set. Section 10 discusses a more technical concept (of 0-rooted sets), which is then applied in Section 11 for studying partially open sets and so-called 0-components and 0-regions. Section 12 concludes this paper.

2 Incidence Pseudographs

Let $G = [S, I, \text{dim}]$ be an incidence structure. If n is the maximum of the range of dim , then we call G an n -incidence structure and say that $\text{ind}(G) = n$. A node $c \in S$ is called an i -cell if $\text{dim}(c) = i$ and if $i = n$ we also say c is a *principal node* otherwise we say c is a *marginal node* of G . The set of all principal nodes of G is called the *core* of G , written $\text{core}(G)$, or $\text{core}(M)$ for $M \subseteq G$.

For $M \subseteq S$, the *complement* of M is defined as $\overline{M} = S \setminus M$. Two nodes $p, q \in S$ are *connected wrt* $M \subseteq S$ iff there exists a finite sequence

$\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$ where

$$\begin{aligned} p &= p_0 \text{ and } q = p_n, \\ (\forall i \in \{0, \dots, n\} p_i \in M) \vee (\forall i \in \{0, \dots, n\} p_i \in \overline{M}), \text{ and} \\ \forall i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} p_i &\in I(p_{i+1}). \end{aligned}$$

The sequence $\{p_0, \dots, p_n\}$ is called a *path from p to q*. If also $p_i \in M$, for all $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, we say that p and q are *connected in M*.

We say that p and q are *connected* if they are connected in S . A set $A \subseteq M \subseteq S$ is *connected wrt M* iff all $p, q \in A$ are connected wrt M . We say that A is *connected* if A is connected wrt S .

For $p \in \overline{M}$, the set $\{(p, q) : p \text{ and } q \text{ are connected wrt } M\} \subseteq \overline{M}$ defines a *complementary component* of M .

Definition 2 An incidence structure $G = [S, I, \dim]$ is called an *incidence pseudograph* iff it has the following properties:

- (1) For all $c \in S$, $I(c)$ is finite.
- (2) The core of G is connected.
- (3) Any finite set of principal nodes of G has at most one infinite complementary component of principal nodes.
- (4) If $c' \in I(c)$, $c' \neq c$, then $\dim(c) \neq \dim(c')$.
- (5) Each marginal node of G is incident with at least one principal node of G .

G is said to be *monotonic* provided

- (6) If $c' \in I(c)$, $c'' \in I(c')$ and $\dim(c) \leq \dim(c') \leq \dim(c'')$ implies $c'' \in I(c)$.

Digital pictures, and subsets in those, are typically modeled by monotonic incidence pseudographs. However, those pseudographs allow us to describe discrete structures in a more general sense, and we also include non-monotonic pseudographs into our discussion (e.g., assume that *blocks* are either defined by bounded polyhedral objects, or a geometric arrangement of a finite number of blocks; incidence is only defined between polyhedral objects, or blocks of the same level of construction).

$G = [S, I, \dim]$ always denotes an incidence pseudograph in this paper; if there is no danger of confusion, a set S uniquely identifies “its” pseudograph G , and vice-versa. – For $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and $c \in S$, we define

$$\begin{aligned} I_i(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \dim(c') = i\} \\ G_i(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \dim(c') \geq i\} \\ G(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \dim(c') > \dim(c)\} \end{aligned}$$

The following was not yet defined this way in (7), and will prove to be useful. For $M \subseteq S$, $n = \text{ind}(G)$, and $0 \leq i \leq n$, we define M_i^+ recursively by

$$\begin{aligned} M_n^+ &= M \\ M_{i-1}^+ &= M_i^+ \cup \{c \in S : \dim(c) = i - 1 \wedge \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_i^+\} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, let $M^+ = M_0^+$. We say M^+ is the *completion* of M .

Definition 3 M is *complete* iff $M = M^+$.

It follows that, if $\text{core}(M) = \emptyset$, then $M^+ = M$.

Lemma 1 *If $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and $M \subseteq S$, then*

- (i) *For $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n$, $M_i^+ \supseteq M_j^+$.*
- (ii) $M_0^+ = \bigcup_{i=0}^n M_i^+$
- (iii) *If $0 \leq i < n$, then $c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+ \iff \dim(c) = i \wedge \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+ \wedge c \notin M$.*
- (iv) *If $i = \dim(c) \wedge c \in M^+ \setminus M$, then $c \in M_i^+ \wedge \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+$.*

Proof: Property (i) follows immediately from the definition. Property (ii) follows from $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n, M_i^+ \supseteq M_j^+$. Property (iii) follows immediately from the definition.

To prove Property (iv), let $0 \leq i < n$ and assume $i = \dim(c)$ and $c \in M_0^+ \setminus M$ and let k be the largest integer such that $c \in M_k^+$. Since $c \notin M = M_n^+$, we have $k < n$ and $c \in M_k^+ \setminus M_{k+1}^+$ and thus $k = i \wedge \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+ \wedge c \notin M$. \square

Theorem 1 *For $M \subseteq S$, M^+ is the smallest subset of S satisfying:*

- (i) $M \subseteq M^+$.
- (ii) *If $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M^+$, then $c \in M^+$.*

Proof: Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$. Property (i) follows from the fact that $M = M_n^+ \subseteq M_0^+ = M^+$. To prove (ii), assume $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M^+$. If $c \in M = M_0^+$, then $c \in M^+$ so assume $c \notin M$. Let $i = \dim(c)$. Thus, by Lemma 1, $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+ \wedge c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+$. Hence $c \in M^+$. Therefore M^+ satisfies Properties (i) and (ii).

Suppose C satisfies Properties (i) and (ii). Let $c \in M_{i+1}^+$. If $c \in M$, then, by Property (i), $c \in C$. Assume $c \in M^+ \setminus M$. Thus, by definition and Lemma 1, $c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+$ where $i = \dim(c)$. Thus $c \in M_i^+ \setminus M$ where $i = \dim(c)$. We claim this is sufficient to insure $c \in C$.

Let $\mathbb{P}(i)$ be the statement “If $\dim(c) = i \wedge c \in M_i^+ \setminus M$, then $c \in C$ ”. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$. Since $M_n^+ = M$ and C satisfies Property (i), $\mathbb{P}(n)$ is true.

Assume $\mathbb{P}(j)$ is true for all j such that $i \leq j \leq n$ for some i such that $0 < i \leq n$ and let $\dim(c) = i - 1$ and $c \in M_{i-1}^+ \setminus M$. Thus $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_i^+$. Let $c' \in G(c)$ and $k = \dim(c')$. Thus $c' \in M^+$ and $k \geq \dim(c) + 1 = i$. If $c' \in M$ then $c' \in C$ so assume $c' \notin M$. It follows that $c' \in M_k^+ \setminus M$. Since $i \leq k \leq n$, by assumption, $\mathbb{P}(k)$ is true and hence $c' \in C$. Thus $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq C$. Since C satisfies Property (ii), $c \in C$. Therefore $M^+ \subseteq C$. \square

Corollary 1 M is complete iff $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M$ implies $c \in M$.

Proof: If M is complete then $M = M^+$ and, by Theorem 1, $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M$ implies $c \in M$. If $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M$ implies $c \in M$, then $M = M^+$ and hence is complete. \square

3 Rooted Sets

A node $c \in M$ is said to be *rooted in M* iff c is incident to a principal node of M , otherwise c is said to be *unrooted in M* . $Rooted(c)$ is the set of rooted nodes in M , and $Rooted(M)$ the union of all $Rooted(c)$, for $c \in M$. $Unrooted(c)$ is the set of unrooted nodes in M .

Definition 4 If $M = Rooted(M)$, M is said to be *rooted*.

From this we have the following:

$$\begin{aligned} Rooted(M) &= \{c \in M : core(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\} \\ Unrooted(M) &= M \setminus Rooted(M) = \{c \in M : core(M) \cap I(c) = \emptyset\} \end{aligned}$$

If $M \neq \emptyset$ and M is rooted, then $core(M) \neq \emptyset$. – The following two lemmas will be of repeated use later in this paper:

Lemma 2 $Rooted(M)$ is rooted, and it is also complete if M is complete.

Proof: Let $R = Rooted(M)$. Note that $core(R) = core(M)$. Suppose $c \in R$. Thus $c \in M$ and $core(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and so $core(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Therefore R is rooted.

To show that R is complete, suppose there exists a $c \in R^+ \setminus R$. Since $R \subseteq M, R^+ \subseteq M^+$. Since M is complete we have $R^+ \subseteq M^+ = M$ and hence $c \in M \setminus R$. Thus $core(M) \cap I(c) = \emptyset$. Let $i = \dim(c)$. Since $c \in R^+ \setminus R$ we have $G(c) \subseteq R_{i+1}^+$. Since G is an incidence pseudograph, there exists a $p \in core(S) \cap I(c)$. Since M is complete and $c \in M$ we have $p \in M$. Hence $core(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in R$ but $c \notin R$. Therefore $R^+ = R$ and hence R is complete. \square

Lemma 3 If $c \in M^+ \setminus M$ and $p \in core(S) \cap I(c)$, then $p \in M$.

Proof: Let $c \in M^+ \setminus M$ and $p \in core(S) \cap I(c)$. Let $i = \dim(c)$. Thus $c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+$ and $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}$. We have $p \in I(c)$ and $\dim(p) > \dim(c) = i$ so $p \in G(c)$ and therefore $p \in M_{i+1} \subseteq M^+$. Thus $p \in core(M^+) = core(M)$. Therefore $p \in M$. \square

This lemma allows the following

Corollary 2 (i) If $c \in M^+ \setminus M$, then $core(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$

(ii) If M is rooted, then M^+ is rooted.

Proof: Property (i): Let $c \in M^+ \setminus M$. Since G is an incidence pseudograph, $\exists p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$. By Lemma 3 this implies $p \in M$ and since p is a principal node, that $p \in \text{core}(M)$. Hence $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$.

Property (ii): Assume M is rooted and let $c \in M^+$. If $c \in M$, then $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Otherwise, by Lemma 3, $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Therefore M^+ is rooted. \square

4 Components and Regions

If M is complete and $C \subseteq M$, then C is called a *component* of M iff

- (1) The principal nodes of C form a non-empty maximal connected (wrt M) subset of the principal nodes of M .
- (2) If p is a principal node of C , $c \in M$, and $c \in I(p)$, then $c \in C$.
- (3) C is complete wrt G .

Definition 5 $M \subseteq S$ is said to be a *component* iff M is a component of M . A *region* (of M) is a finite component (of M).

If M is complete, rooted, and $\text{core}(M)$ connected and if C is a component of M , then $C = M$. – By using Lemma 3, we can show the following

Corollary 3 *If C is a component of M , then $\text{Rooted}(C)$ is a rooted component of M .*

Proof: Let $R = \text{Rooted}(C)$. Note $R \subseteq C \subseteq M$. The set $\text{core}(R) = \text{core}(C)$ is a nonempty maximal connected subset of $\text{core}(M)$ since C is a component of M .

If $c \in M$, $\text{core}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$, then $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and $c \in M$. Therefore $c \in C$ since C is a component of M . Thus $c \in R$ since $c \in C$ and $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$.

To show R is complete, assume that there exists a $c \in R^+ \setminus R$. Since $R^+ \subseteq C^+ = C$, $c \in C$, and $c \notin R$ we have $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) = \emptyset$. Since G is an incidence pseudograph, there exists a $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$. By Lemma 3, $p \in C$. Therefore $p \in \text{core}(R) = \text{core}(C)$ and $p \in I(c)$ which contradicts $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) = \emptyset$, since $c \notin C$. Therefore R is complete.

Let $c \in R$ which implies $c \in C$ and $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Therefore $\text{core}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and so R is rooted. \square

By using Lemma 3, we also show the following lemma, which will be used in the proof of the following theorem.

Lemma 4 *If M is complete and $p \in \text{core}(M)$, then M has a unique rooted component C containing p . Furthermore $C = \text{core}(C) \cup \{c \in M : I(c) \cap \text{core}(C) \neq \emptyset\}$.*

Proof: Let $p \in \text{core}(M)$ for M complete. Let $A = \{c \in \text{core}(M) : c \text{ and } p \text{ are connected wrt } M\}$. A is a nonempty maximal connected subset of $\text{core}(M)$.

Let $C = A \cup \{c \in M : A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$. $C \subseteq M$. Note that $\text{core}(C) = A$. Thus $\text{core}(C)$ is a non-empty maximal connected subset of M .

To show C is complete suppose there exists a $c \in C^+ \setminus C$. Since $c \notin C$, we have $A \cap I(c) = \emptyset$. There exists a principal node $q \in I(c)$. By Lemma 3, $q \in C$ which implies $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. This implies that $c \in C$ which contradicts the assumption that $c \notin C$. Therefore $C = C^+$ and hence C is complete.

Let $q \in \text{core}(C)$, $c \in M$, and $c \in I(q)$. Thus $c \in M$ and $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in C$. Therefore C is a component of M containing p .

To show C is rooted let c be a marginal node of C . By the definition of C we have $\text{core}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and hence C is rooted.

To show C is unique, assume R is a rooted component of M containing p . Since $\text{core}(R)$ and $\text{core}(C)$ are both maximal connected subsets of the $\text{core}(M)$ each containing p , we must have $\text{core}(C) = \text{core}(R) = A$. Let $c \in C$ and hence $c \in M$. If $c \in A$ then $c \in R$ so assume $c \notin A$ which implies $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and hence $\text{core}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which, since R is a component of M implies $c \in R$. So $C \subseteq R$. Let $c \in R$ which implies $c \in M$. Since R is rooted there exists a principal node $p \in I(c)$. Thus $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in C$. Therefore $C = R$. \square

Theorem 2 (i) *If M is complete and rooted, then the rooted components of M form a partition of M .*

(ii) *If M is complete and not rooted, then the set consisting of $\text{Unrooted}(M)$ along with the rooted components of M is a partition of M .*

Proof: Property (i): Following the previous lemma, for each $p \in \text{core}(M)$ let C_p be the unique rooted component of M containing p . Recall that $C_p = \text{core}(C_p) \cup \{c \in M : \text{core}(C_p) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$. Let $\mathbb{A} = \{C_p : p \in \text{core}(M)\}$. Let $p, q \in \text{core}(M)$ and assume $C_p \cap C_q \neq \emptyset$. Let $c \in C_p \cap C_q$. Since C_p and C_q are rooted, there exists a $p' \in \text{core}(C_p) \cap I(c)$ and there exists a $q' \in \text{core}(C_q) \cap I(c)$. We have p, p', c, q', q is a sequence of nodes in M each connected to the next and thus p and q are connected wrt M and thus $p \in C_q$ which implies $C_p = C_q$ since the rooted components of M containing p are unique. Thus \mathbb{A} consists of disjoint subsets of M .

Let $c \in M$. Since M is rooted there exists a $p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(c)$ and so $c \in C_p$ which implies $c \in \bigcup \mathbb{A}$. Since $\bigcup \mathbb{A} \subseteq M$ we conclude that $M = \bigcup \mathbb{A}$.

Property (ii): At first we show that, if C is a component of $\text{Rooted}(M)$, then C is a rooted component of M . – Let $R = \text{Rooted}(M)$ and let C be a component of R . Note that $\text{core}(R) = \text{core}(M)$ and thus $\text{core}(C)$ is a maximal connected subset of $\text{core}(M)$.

Assume $p \in \text{core}(C)$, $c \in M$, and $c \in I(p)$. Since $\text{core}(C) \subseteq \text{core}(R)$, $p \in \text{core}(R)$, $c \in M$ and $c \in I(p)$ which implies that c is rooted in M and hence $c \in R$. Since C is a component of R we have $c \in C$, and since C ,

being a component of R is complete, we have C is a component of M . Since $C \subseteq \text{Routed}(M)$, we have $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$, for all $c \in C$. Therefore C is a rooted component of M .

Now let $K = M \setminus \text{Unrooted}(M) = M \cap \text{Routed}(M) = \text{Routed}(M)$. By Lemma 2, K is complete and rooted. Thus, by Property (i), K is partitioned by the rooted components of K . Let \mathbb{P} be the collection of the rooted components of K along with the set $\text{Unrooted}(M)$. As shown above, we also have that the components of K are rooted components of M . Clearly $M = \bigcup \mathbb{P}$. We have the rooted components of M are disjoint and disjoint from $\text{Unrooted}(M)$. Therefore \mathbb{P} partitions M . \square

5 Definition of Topology; Closed and Open Sets

Definition 6 $M \subseteq S$ is said to be *closed* iff, for all $c \in M$ and for all $c' \in I(c)$ with $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$, it follows that $c' \in M$. M is said to be *open* iff $\overline{M} = S \setminus M$ is closed.

As usual, the family of all open sets defines a *topology*, here on the given incidence pseudograph. A set M is closed iff \overline{M} is open. A node c of a set M is called an *inner node of M* iff $I(c) \subseteq M$, otherwise it is called a *border node of M* .

Definition 7 M^∇ is the set of inner nodes of M . δM is the set of border nodes of M and is called the *border of M* .

Theorem 3 If M is closed, then both M and M^∇ are complete.

Proof: Set M : Suppose M is closed. We claim $M_i^+ \subseteq M$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$ where $n = \text{ind}(G)$. Recall $M_n^+ = M$ so the claim is true for $i = n$.

Assume $M_i^+ \subseteq M$ for some $0 < i \leq n$ and let $c \in M_{i-1}^+$. Thus $c \in M_i^+$ (and hence $c \in M$) or that $\dim(c) = i - 1 < n$ and $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_i^+$. Assume $c' \in G(c) \subseteq M_i^+$. Thus $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$. By assumption $M_i^+ \subseteq M$. Hence $c' \in M$. Since M is closed, this implies $c \in M$. Therefore $M_i^+ \subseteq M$ for all i satisfying $0 < i \leq n$. This implies $M^+ = M$ and therefore M is complete.

Set M^∇ : Assume M is closed. We claim $(M^\nabla)_i^+ \subseteq M^\nabla$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$.

Assume $(M^\nabla)_i^+ \subseteq M^\nabla$ for some $0 < i \leq n$ and let $c \in (M^\nabla)_{i-1}^+$. Thus $c \in (M^\nabla)_i^+$ (and hence $c \in M^\nabla$) or that $\dim(c) = i - 1 < n$ and $\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq (M^\nabla)_i^+$. Assume $c' \in G(c) \subseteq (M^\nabla)_i^+$. Thus $c' \in I(c)$, $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$, and $c' \in (M^\nabla)_i$ which, by assumption, implies $c' \in M^\nabla$. Since $c \in I(c')$ this implies that $c \in M^\nabla$.

To show $c \in (M^\nabla)$ let $b \in I(c)$. If $\dim(b) > \dim(c)$, then, since $G(c) \subseteq M^\nabla$, we have $b \in M^\nabla$ and hence $b \in M$. If $\dim(b) = \dim(c)$, then $b = c$ which implies $b \in M$. If $\dim(b) < \dim(c)$, then $b \in M$ since M is closed. This implies $(M^\nabla)^+ = M^\nabla$ and therefore M^∇ is complete. \square

We also note that M is both open and closed iff its border is the empty set (i.e., $\delta M = \emptyset$ iff $M = M^\nabla$).

The examples in Figures 2 to 5 illustrate various situations which may occur.

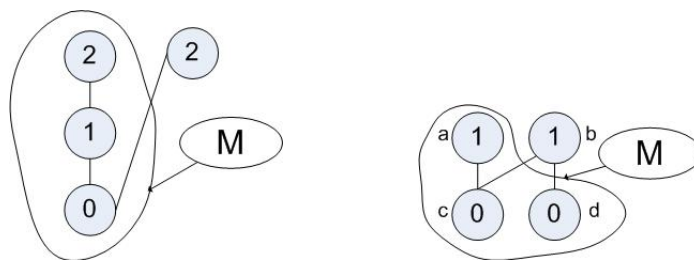


Figure 2: Left: A finite, closed (and hence complete), non-empty M which has a non-rooted component. Right: An M which is closed (and hence complete) with $M \neq \text{core}(M)^+$.

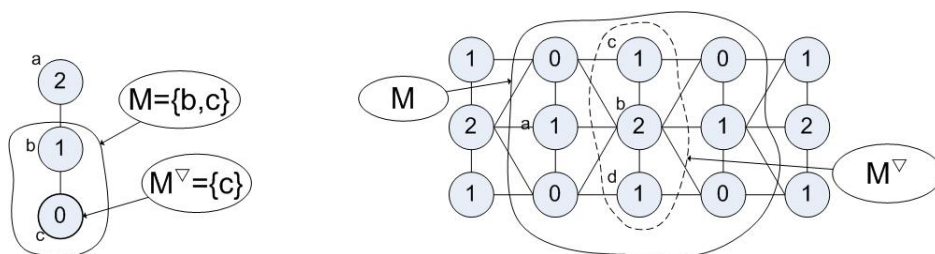


Figure 3: Left: An M which is closed (and hence complete) and M^∇ not open. Right: An M which is closed, not open, and M^∇ not closed.

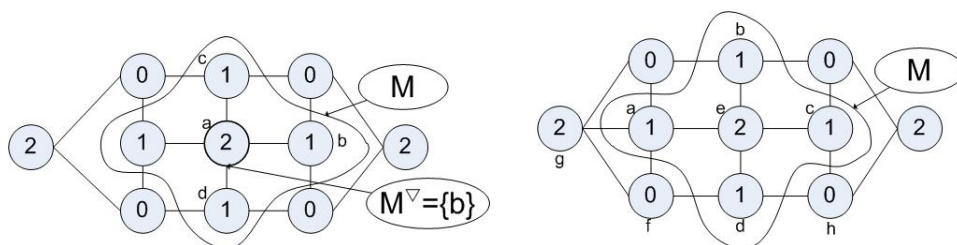
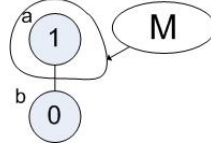


Figure 4: Left: An M which is complete, open, not closed, and M^∇ is not complete. Right: An M which is complete and δM is not complete, not closed, and not open.

Lemma 5 M is open iff, for all $c \in M$ and $c' \in I(c)$ with $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$, it follows that $c' \in M$.

Proof: Assume M is open, $c \in M$, $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$. If $c' \in \overline{M}$ which is closed since M is open, we would have $c \in \overline{M}$. Therefore $c' \in M$.

Figure 5: An M which is open but not complete.

Assume that for all $c \in M$ and $c' \in I(c)$ with $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$ it follows that $c' \in M$, and suppose $c \in \overline{M}$, $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. If $c' \in M$ this would imply that $c \in M$. Thus $c' \in \overline{M}$. Therefore \overline{M} is closed and hence M is open. \square

6 Descendence Paths

This section prepares for important considerations in the following section by providing and discussing the notion of a descendence path.

A sequence of nodes $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is called a *descendence path* (from p_0 to p_k) iff, for all $i \in \{0, \dots, k-1\}$, $\dim(p_{i+1}) > \dim(p_i)$ and $p_{i+1} \in I(p_i)$. For example, in a 3D regular grid, we may start with a grid vertex p_0 , continue with a grid edge p_1 which is incident with this vertex, then with a grid face p_2 incident with this edge, and finally a grid cube p_3 incident with this face.

A descendence path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is called a *descendence path wrt M* (from p_0 to p_k) iff for $0 \leq i < k$, $p_i \notin M$ and $p_k \in S$. Note that for any node c , $\{c\}$ is a descendence path (wrt any M) from c to c .

For $M \subseteq S, i \in \mathbb{N}$ define

$$\mathbb{C}(M, i) = \{c \in S : \exists \text{ descendence path } \{p_0, \dots, p_i\} \text{ with } c = p_0 \wedge p_i \in M\}$$

$$M^\bullet = \cup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{C}(M, i)$$

Note that $M = \mathbb{C}(M, 0)$, so $M \subseteq M^\bullet$. Also note that for $n = \text{ind}(G)$, $M^\bullet = \cup_{i=0}^n \mathbb{C}(M, i)$ since $\mathbb{C}(M, i) = \emptyset$ for $i > n$. We say c' is a *descendent* of c iff there exists a descendence path from $c = p_0$ to $c' = p_k$. Let $D(c) = \{c' : c' \text{ is a descendent of } c\}$ and $D^M(c) = \{c' : \exists \text{ descendence path wrt } M \text{ from } c \text{ to } c'\}$.

If $c' \in I(c) \wedge \dim(c') > \dim(c)$, then $D(c') \subseteq D(c)$. We also have that $D(c) = \{c\} \cup \bigcup \{D(c') : c' \in I(c) \wedge \dim(c') > \dim(c)\}$.

For $0 \leq i \leq \text{ind}(G)$, we define $D_i(c) = \{c' \in D(c) : \dim(c) = i\}$ and $D_i^M(c) = \{c' \in D^M(c) : \dim(c) = i\}$.

If $A = M \cup \{c \in S \setminus M : D_n(c) \subseteq M\}$, $n = \text{ind}(G)$, and if $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is a descendence path for which there exists a $p_i \in A \setminus M$, then $p_j \in A$, for all j , with $i \leq j \leq k$. If $c \notin \text{core}(S) \wedge D^M(c) \subseteq M$, then $c \in M^+$.

Note that, if $p_i \notin M$ for all i satisfying $0 \leq i \leq k$, then $p_k \in D^M(c)$. Thus it follows that if a node c , which is in the completion of a set M , had

a descendent b which is not in the completion of M , then every descendance path from c to b must contain at least one member of M . We restate this fact in the following:

Corollary 4 *If $c \in M^+$ and $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is a descendance path with $c = p_0$ and $p_k \notin M^+$, then there exists i , $0 \leq i \leq k$, with $p_i \in M$.*

7 Topological Closure

In this section we show that any set $M \subseteq S$ does have a unique “topological closure”.

Lemma 6 *If D is closed and $M \subseteq D$, then*

(i) *for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{C}(M, i) \subseteq D$*

(ii) *$M^\bullet \subseteq D$*

Proof: Property (ii) follows from Property (i) since $M^\bullet = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{C}(M, i)$.

Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$. Note that $\mathbb{C}(M, i) = \emptyset$, for all $i > n$. We prove Property (i) by induction. Since $\mathbb{C}(M, 0) = M$ we have $\mathbb{C}(M, 0) \subseteq D$.

Assume $\mathbb{C}(M, i) \subseteq D$ and let $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, i+1)$ for some $0 \leq i < n$. By definition there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_{i+1}\}$ with $c = p_0$ and $p_{i+1} \in M$. For $0 \leq j \leq i$ let $s_j = p_{j+1}$. We have $s_i = p_{i+1} \in M$ so $s_0 \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)$. By the assumption we have $s_0 \in D$. Hence $p_1 \in D$ and $p_0 \in I(p_1)$. Since D is closed, $c = p_0 \in D$. \square

Corollary 5 *If D is closed, $M \subseteq D$, and if $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is a descendance path with $p_k \in M$, then $p_0 \in D$.*

Theorem 4 *M^\bullet is the smallest closed set containing M .*

Proof: $M = \mathbb{C}(M, 0) \subseteq M^\bullet$. To show M^\bullet is closed, let $c \in M^\bullet$ and $c' \in I(c)$ such that $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. Then there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ such that $c = p_0$ and $p_k \in M$. Define $s_0 = c'$ and for $1 \leq j \leq k+1$, define $s_j = p_{j-1}$. Thus $\{s_0, \dots, s_{k+1}\}$ is a descendance path with $c' = s_0 \wedge s_{k+1} \in M$. Hence $c' \in M^\bullet$ and therefore M^\bullet is closed.

Suppose $M \subseteq D$ and D is closed. By Lemma 6, $M^\bullet \subseteq D$. \square

This theorem now allows us to formulate the following important

Definition 8 Let $M \subseteq S$; we denote the unique (topological) *closure* of M by M^\bullet .

Corollary 6 $M^\bullet = (M^+)^\bullet$

Proof: $M^+ \subseteq M^\bullet$ and M^\bullet is closed. It follows from Theorem 4 that $(M^+)^\bullet \subseteq M^\bullet$. Since $M \subseteq M^+$, it follows that $M^\bullet \subseteq (M^+)^\bullet$. Therefore $M^\bullet = (M^+)^\bullet$. \square

Corollary 7 *If M is finite, then M^\bullet is finite.*

Proof: Assume M is finite. Thus $\mathbb{C}(M, 0) = M$ is finite. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and assume $\mathbb{C}(M, i)$ is finite for $0 \leq i < n$. We show that

$$\mathbb{C}(M, i+1) = \{c \in S : \exists c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i) \cap I(c) \wedge \dim(c) < \dim(c')\}$$

Let $A = \{c \in S : \exists c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i) \cap I(c) \text{ with } \dim(c) < \dim(c')\}$ and let $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, i+1)$. By definition, there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_{i+1}\}$ with $c = p_0$ and $p_{i+1} \in M$.

Let $c' = p_1$. From the definition of a descendance path we have $c = p_0 \in I(c')$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(c')$. For $0 \leq j \leq i$ let $s_j = p_{j+1}$. Then, $\{s_0, \dots, s_i\}$ is a descendance path with $c' = s_0$ and $s_i = p_{i+1} \in M$. Hence $c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)$ and thus $c \in A$.

Let $c \in A$. Then there exists a $c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)$ such that $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(c')$. There exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_i\}$ such that $c' = p_0$ and $p_i \in M$. Let $s_0 = c$ and for $1 \leq j \leq i+1$, let $s_j = p_{j-1}$. We note that $\{s_0, \dots, s_{i+1}\}$ is a descendance path from C to $p_i \in M$ and hence $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, i+1)$. Therefore $\mathbb{C}(M, i+1) = A$.

Note that if $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, i+1)$, then there exists a $c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)$ such that $c \in I(c')$. And thus $c \in \bigcup \{I(c') : c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)\}$. Therefore

$$\mathbb{C}(M, i+1) \subseteq \bigcup \{I(c') : c' \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)\}$$

which is a finite union of finite sets and therefore finite. Thus $M^\bullet = \bigcup_{i=0}^n \mathbb{C}(M, i)$ is also finite. \square

Corollary 8 *If M is finite, then M^+ is finite.*

Proof: $M^+ \subseteq M^\bullet$ for the previous corollary. \square

Lemma 7 *If G is monotonic and $M \subseteq S$, then $M^\bullet = M \cup \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$.*

Proof: Let $A = M \cup \mathbb{C}(M, 1) = \mathbb{C}(M, 0) \cup \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$. We will show $\mathbb{C}(M, i) \subseteq \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$ for all i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, by induction. Clearly it is true for $i = 1$.

Assume $\mathbb{C}(M, i) \subseteq \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$ and let $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, i+1)$. Thus there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ such that $c = p_0$ and $p_{i+1} \in M$. For $0 \leq j \leq i$ define $s_j = p_{j+1}$. So $p_1 = s_0 \in \mathbb{C}(M, i)$. By assumption, $p_1 = c_0 \in \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$. Thus there exists a descendance path $\{t_0, t_1\}$ such that $p_1 = t_0$ and $t_1 \in M$. We have $c = p_0 \in I(p_1)$, $\dim(c) < \dim(p_1)$, $t_0 = p_0 \in I(t_1)$, and $\dim(p_1) < \dim(t_1)$. Since G is monotonic this implies $c \in I(t_1)$. Thus, for $r_0 = c, r_1 = t_1$, $\{r_0, r_1\}$ is a descendance path with $c = r_0$ and $r_1 \in M$. Therefore $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$. \square

Corollary 9 *If $G = [S, I, \dim]$ is monotonic and if M is a rooted subset of S , then M^\bullet is rooted.*

Proof: Let c be a marginal node of M^\bullet . If $c \in M$, then $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ since M is rooted. So assume $c \notin M$. Since G is monotonic we have from Lemma 7 that $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$. So there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, p_1\}$ such that $c = p_0$ and $p_1 \in M$. If $p_1 \in \text{core}(M) = \text{core}(M^\bullet)$, then $p_1 \in \text{core}(M^\bullet) \cap I(c)$. Assume $p_1 \notin \text{core}(M)$. Thus p_1 is marginal in M . Since M is rooted there exists a $p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(p_1)$. We have $c \in I(p_1)$, $\dim(c) < \dim(p_1)$, $p_1 \in I(p)$ and $\dim(p_1) < \dim(p)$. Since G is monotonic this implies $c \in I(p)$. Thus $p \in \text{core}(M) = \text{core}(M^\bullet)$. Therefore M^\bullet is rooted. \square

We also state the following three set-theoretical relations:

- (i) $\text{core}(M^+) = \text{core}(M)$,
- (ii) $\text{core}(M^\bullet) = \text{core}(M)$,
- (iii) $M^+ \subseteq M^\bullet$.

Also note that, if M is finite, $\text{core}(M)$ is non-empty and connected wrt M , then M^\bullet is a closed region. If $M \subseteq S$, $\emptyset \neq \text{core}(M)$ is connected wrt M , then M^\bullet is a closed component containing M .

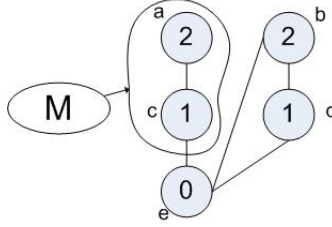


Figure 6: A rooted, complete, finite $M \setminus \emptyset \neq \text{core}(M)$ which is connected wrt M , but $M^\bullet = \{a, c, e\}$ is not a rooted component of M .

Figure 6 shows that there exists a rooted, complete, finite, nonempty set $M \neq \text{core}(M)$ which is connected wrt M , but M^\bullet is not a rooted component of M .

8 Open and Closed Regions; Complete Sets

If $M \subseteq S$ is finite then M is a closed region iff

- (i) $\emptyset \neq \text{core}(M)$ is a non-empty, maximal connected subset of $\text{core}(M)$.
- (ii) For all $c \in M$, $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$ it follows that $c' \in M$.

Corollary 10 *Let M be a finite subset of S where $G = [S, I, \dim]$ is an n -incidence pseudograph. Then*

- (i) M is an open region of G iff
 - (i.1) $\text{core}(M)$ is non-empty and connected,
 - (i.2) $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow c \in M$, and

(i.3) if $\dim(c) < n$, then $c \in M \Leftrightarrow G(c) \subseteq M$.

(ii) If G is monotonic then M is an open region of G iff

(ii.1) $\text{core}(M)$ is non-empty and connected,

(ii.2) $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow c \in M$, and

(ii.3) if $\dim(c) < n$, then $c \in M \Leftrightarrow \text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \subseteq M$.

Proof: Assume M is an open region of G . Properties (i.1) and (i.2) follow directly from the fact that M is a component. To prove Property (i.3), first assume $\dim(c) < n$ and $c \in M$ and $b \in G(c)$. Thus $b \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(b)$. Since M is open by Lemma 5, $b \in M$. Thus $G(c) \subseteq M$.

Next assume $\dim(c) < n$ and $G(c) \subseteq M$. There exists a $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$. Thus $c \in I(p)$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(p)$ which implies $p \in G(c) \subseteq M$. Hence $p \in M$. Since M is closed this implies $c \in M$. Therefore Property (i.3) is satisfied by M .

Assume M is a subset satisfying Properties (i.1), (i.2), and (i.3). To show M is open assume $c \in M$, $c' \in I(c)$, and $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$. By Property (i.3), $c' \in M$. Thus, by Lemma 5, M is open.

To show that M is complete suppose $c \in M^+ \setminus M$. Thus, by Lemma 1, $G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}$ where $i = \dim(c)$. It follows, by Property (i.3), that $c \in M$. This contradiction establishes $M^+ = M$ and hence M is complete. Thus we have that M is an open region. Therefore we have shown (i).

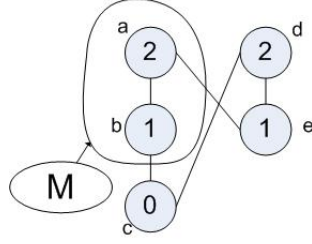
To prove (ii) assume G is monotonic.

Assume G is open. Then, by (i), G satisfies (ii.1), (ii.2), and (i.3). Suppose $\dim(c) < n$. Assume $c \in M$ and $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$. Thus $p \in G(c)$. By (i.3), $p \in M$. Thus $\text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \subseteq M$. Assume $\text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \subseteq M$ and let $b \in G(c)$. Thus $b \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(b)$. There exists $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(b)$. We have $c \in I(b)$, $b \in I(p)$, and $\dim(c) < \dim(b) \leq \dim(p)$. Since G is monotonic, we have $c \in I(p)$. Hence $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$ which, by assumptions, implies $p \in M$. Thus $p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(b)$ and thus, by (i.2), $b \in M$. Hence $G(c) \subseteq M$ and thus, by (i.3), $c \in M$. Therefore M satisfies (ii.1), (ii.2), and (ii.3).

Assume G satisfies (ii.1), (ii.2), and (ii.3). Thus G satisfies (i.1) and (i.2). Suppose $\dim(c) < n$. Assume $c \in M$ and $b \in G(c)$. There exists $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(b)$. We have $c \in I(b)$, $b \in I(p)$, and $\dim(c) < \dim(b) \leq \dim(p)$. Since G is monotonic $c \in I(p)$. Hence $p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c)$. It follows by (ii.3), $p \in M$. Since $p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(b)$, we have by (ii.2), $b \in M$. Therefore $G(c) \subseteq M$.

Assume $G(c) \subseteq M$. Since $\text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \subseteq G(c)$, it follows from (ii.3), that $c \in M$. Therefore G satisfies (i.1), (i.2), and (i.3) and thus is open. \square

Figure 7 shows that there exists an M which is finite, $\text{core}(M) \neq \emptyset$, connected, open, complete, and satisfies $\dim(c) < \text{ind}(G) \Rightarrow [c \in M \Leftrightarrow D(c) \subseteq M]$ but is not a component as it fails to satisfy $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow c \in M$.

Figure 7: A finite set M which is not a component.

$c \in S$ is said to be *invalid wrt* M iff $c \notin M \wedge M \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. The following definition provides an alternative to the definition of a border as given above:

Definition 9 The set of all nodes invalid wrt M is called the *boundary of* M , denoted by $bd(M)$.

Theorem 5 (i) If M is closed, then $bd(M) = \emptyset$.
(ii) If $bd(M) = \emptyset$, then M is complete.

Proof: Property (i): Assume M is closed and $c \in bd(M)$. Thus $c \notin M$ and there exists a $p \in core(M) \cap I(c)$. Hence $p \in I(c)$, $p \in M$, and $\dim(c) < \dim(p)$. Since M is closed this implies $c \in M$ but $c \notin M$. Therefore $bd(M) = \emptyset$.

Property (ii): Suppose M is not complete. Thus there exists a $c \in M^+ \setminus M$. Since there exists a principal node $p \in I(c)$, we have by Proposition 3, $p \in core(M) \cap I(c)$. Since $c \notin M$ this implies $c \in bd(M)$. But $bd(M) = \emptyset$. Therefore M is complete. \square

Obviously, this shows that any closed set is also complete. – The following are some technical specifications, needed in the following auxiliary considerations.

A node c is an *upward rooted point* of a set M iff $c \in M$ and there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ with

$$c = p_0 \wedge p_k \in core(M) \wedge \forall i (0 \leq i \leq k \Rightarrow p_i \in M)$$

The set of all upward rooted points of M is denoted by $URP(M)$. A node c is a *downward exit point* of M iff $c \notin M$ and there exists a $c' \in M \cap I(c)$ with $\dim(c) < \dim(c')$. The set of all downward exit points of M is denoted by $DXP(M)$. A node c is an *upward exit point* of M iff $c \notin M$ and there exists a $c' \in M \cap I(c)$ with $\dim(c) > \dim(c')$. The set of all upward exit points of M is denoted by $UXP(M)$.

For these sets we have that M is closed iff $DXP(M) = \emptyset$, M is open iff $UXP(M) = \emptyset$, M is complete iff $DXP(M) \subseteq URP(\overline{M})$, and M is open and complete iff $UXP(M) = \emptyset$ and $DXP(M) \subseteq URP(\overline{M})$.

9 Partially Open Sets

For $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and $c \in S$, we define $L_i(c) = \{c' \in I(c) : \dim(c') \leq i\}$ and $L(c) = \{c' \in I(c) : \dim(c') < \dim(c)\}$. It follows that $I(c) = L(c) \cup G(c)$, and, if $\dim(c) = i$, then $L(c) = L_{i-1}(c)$.

Let $M \subseteq S$ and $n = \text{ind}(G)$. For $0 \leq i \leq n$ we define a set M^- recursively by

$$\begin{aligned} M_0^- &= M \\ M_{i+1}^- &= M_i^- \cup \{c \in S : \dim(c) = i + 1 \wedge \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_i^-\} \end{aligned}$$

We define $M^- = \bigcup_{i=0}^n M_i^-$.

Definition 10 M is *partially open* iff $M = M^-$.

Note that if M is open, then M is partially open. Partially open sets occur in non-binary digital images (e.g., gray-level or color images); see Figure 1 for a three-valued image.

Lemma 8 *If $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and $M \subseteq S$, then*

- (i) $M_i^- \subseteq M_j$, for $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n$
- (ii) $M_n^- = \bigcup_{i=0}^n M_i^-$
- (iii) if $0 < i \leq n$ then $c \in M_i^- \setminus M_{i-1}^- \Leftrightarrow \dim(c) = i \wedge \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^- \wedge c \notin M$
- (iv) if $\dim(c) = i \wedge c \in M^- \setminus M$ then $i > 0 \wedge c \in M_i^- \wedge \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^-$

Proof: Properties (i), (ii), and (iii) follow immediately from the definitions. To prove Property (iv) let $c \in M^- \setminus M$. Let k be the smallest natural number such that $c \in M_k^-$. Since $c \notin M = M_0^-$, $k > 0$ and $c \in M_k^- \setminus M_{k-1}^-$. Thus $i = k > 0$ and $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^-$. \square

Theorem 6 *For $M \subseteq S$, M^- is the smallest subset of S satisfying:*

- (i) $M \subseteq M^-$
- (ii) if $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M^-$ then $c \in M^-$.

*Proof:*¹ Property (i) follows from $M = M_0 \subseteq M^-$. To prove Property (ii), assume $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M^-$. If $c \in M$, then $c \in M^-$ so assume $c \notin M$. Thus, by Lemma 8, $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^-$ and $c \in M_i^- \setminus M_{i-1}^-$. Hence $c \in M^-$. Therefore M satisfies Properties (i) and (ii).

Suppose A satisfies Properties (i) and (ii). Let $c \in M^-$. If $c \in M$, then $c \in A$ since A satisfies Property (i). Assume $c \notin M$. Thus, by Lemma 8,

¹There is an obvious analogy of this proof to the one of Theorem 1.

$c \in M_i^- \setminus M_{i-1}^-$ and $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^-$ where $i = \dim(c)$. Hence $c \in M^- \setminus M$. We claim that this is sufficient to show $c \in A$.

Let $\mathbb{P}(i)$ be the statement ‘‘If $c \in M_i^- \setminus M \wedge \dim(c) = i$, then $c \in A$ ’’. Since $M_0^- = M$, $\mathbb{P}(0)$ is true (vacuously.)

Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and assume $\mathbb{P}(j)$ is true for all $0 \leq j \leq i$ for some $i, 0 \leq i < n$. Let $c \in M_{i+1}^- \setminus M$ such that $\dim(c) = i + 1$. It follows from Lemma 8 that $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_i^-$. Let $c' \in L(c)$ and $k = \dim(c')$. Thus $c' \in M_i^-$ and $k \leq \dim(c) - 1 = i$. If $c' \in M$ then $c' \in A$ so assume $c' \notin M$. It follows that $c' \in M_k^- \setminus M$. Since $0 \leq k \leq i$, and the assumption $\mathbb{P}(k)$ is true, we have that $c' \in A$. Thus $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq A$. Since A satisfies Property (ii), $c \in A$. Hence $\mathbb{P}(i)$ is true for all $0 \leq i \leq n$. Therefore $M^- \subseteq A$. \square

For $M \subseteq S$, and $i \in \mathbb{N}$ we define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{O}(M, i) &= \{c \in S : \exists \text{ descendance path } \{p_0, \dots, p_i\} \text{ with } c = p_0 \wedge p_i \in M\} \\ \mathbb{O}(M) &= \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{O}(M, i) \end{aligned}$$

Lemma 9 *If A is open and $M \subseteq A$, then*

- (i) $\mathbb{O}(M, i) \subseteq A$, for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$
- (ii) $\mathbb{O}(M) \subseteq A$

Proof: Property (ii) follows from Property (i) since $\mathbb{O}(M) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{O}(M, i)$. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$. Note that $\mathbb{O}(M, i) = \emptyset$, $\forall i > n$. We will prove Property (i) by induction. Since $\mathbb{O}(M, 0) = M$ and $M \subseteq A$, we have $\mathbb{O}(M, 0) \subseteq A$.

Assume $\mathbb{O}(M, i) \subseteq A$ and let $c \in \mathbb{O}(M, i + 1)$ for some i such that $0 \leq i < n$. By definition there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_{i+1}\}$ with $c = p_{i+1}$ and $p_0 \in M$. Note $\{p_0, \dots, p_i\}$ is a descendance path with $p_0 \in M$ and thus $p_i \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)$. By assumption this implies $p_i \in A$. We have $p_i \in A$, $p_i \in I(c)$, and $\dim(p_i) < \dim(c)$. Since A is open this implies $c \in A$. \square

Corollary 11 *If A is open, $M \subseteq A$, and if $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is a descendance path with $p_0 \in M$, then $p_k \in A$.*

Theorem 7 *If M is finite, then $\mathbb{O}(M)$ is finite.*

Proof: Assume M is finite. Thus $\mathbb{O}(M, 0) = M$ is finite. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and assume $\mathbb{O}(M, i)$ is finite for some i such that $0 \leq i < n$. We show that

$$\mathbb{O}(M, i + 1) = \{c \in S : \exists c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i) \text{ with } c' \in I(c) \wedge \dim(c') < \dim(c)\}$$

Let $A = \{c \in S : \exists c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i) \text{ with } c' \in I(c) \wedge \dim(c') < \dim(c)\}$ and let $c \in \mathbb{O}(M, i + 1)$. By definition there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_{i+1}\}$ such that $p_0 \in M$ and $c = p_{i+1}$. Let $c' = p_i$. Note $\{p_0, \dots, p_i\}$ is a descendance path with $p_0 \in M \wedge c' = p_i$. Thus $c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)$, $c' \in I(c)$, and $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. Thus $c \in A$. Therefore $\mathbb{O}(M) \subseteq A$.

Now let $c \in A$. Thus there exists a $c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)$ with $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. Let $\{p_0, \dots, p_i\}$ be a descendance path with $p_0 \in M \wedge c' = p_i$. Let $s_{i+1} = c$ and let $s_j = p_j$ for $0 \leq j \leq i$. Note that $\{s_0, \dots, s_{i+1}\}$ is a descendance path with $s_0 \in M$ and $c = s_{i+1}$. Hence $c \in \mathbb{O}(M, i+1)$ and therefore $\mathbb{O}(M, i+1) = A$.

Note if $c \in \mathbb{O}(M, i+1)$, then there exists a $c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)$ such that $c \in I(c')$. Thus $\mathbb{O}(M, i+1) \subseteq \bigcup \{I(c') : c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)\}$, which is a finite union of finite sets. \square

It follows that M^- is finite if M is finite. If G is monotonic, then $\mathbb{O}(M) = M \cup \mathbb{O}(M, 1)$.

Theorem 8 $\mathbb{O}(M)$ is the smallest open set containing M .

Proof: $M = \mathbb{O}(M, 0) \subseteq \mathbb{O}(M)$. To show $\mathbb{O}(M)$ is open, let $c \in \mathbb{O}(M)$ and $c' \in I(c)$ such that $\dim(c') > \dim(c)$. Thus there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ such that $p_0 \in M$ and $c = p_k$. Define $p_{k+1} = c'$ then $\{p_0, \dots, p_{k+1}\}$ is a descendance path with $p_0 \in M$ and $c' = p_{k+1}$. Thus $c' \in \mathbb{O}(M)$. Therefore $\mathbb{O}(M)$ is open.

Suppose $M \subseteq A$ for some open set A . By Lemma 9, $\mathbb{O}(M) \subseteq A$. \square

The last theorem defines a dual to the topological closure of a set M , which is normally not available in other topologies.

10 0-Rooted Sets

Finally we reverse the roles of principal and 0-dimensional nodes. For example, in picture analysis it might be of interest to focus on grid vertices (corners of grid cubes, end points of grid edges, and so forth) rather than on pixels or voxels, identified by principal nodes. This will also support studies of “partially open” sets (i.e., sets which are typically not studied in topological papers related to binary picture processing).

For $M \subseteq S$ we define $leaves(M) = \{c \in M : \dim(c) = 0\}$. A node $c \in M$ is said to be *0-rooted* in M iff $I(c) \cap leaves(M) \neq \emptyset$. The set of all 0-rooted nodes in M is denoted by *0-Rooted*(M).

Let *0-Unrooted*(M) = $M \setminus$ 0-Rooted(M). If $M =$ 0-Rooted(M), then we say M is *0-rooted*.

Definition 11 If S is 0-rooted, then we also say that G is *0-rooted*.

Corollary 12 $leaves(M^-) = leaves(M)$

Proof: Let $c \in leaves(M^-)$. Thus $\dim(c) = 0 \wedge c \in M^-$. Suppose $c \notin M$. Then, by Lemma 8, $\dim(c) > 0$. Thus $c \in M$ which implies $c \in leaves(M)$. Therefore $leaves(M^-) \subseteq leaves(M)$.

Let $c \in leaves(M)$. Thus $c \in M \wedge \dim(c) = 0$ which implies $c \in M^- \wedge \dim(c) = 0$. Thus $c \in leaves(M^-)$. Therefore $leaves(M^-) = leaves(M)$. \square

We also have that $leaves(\mathbb{O}(M)) = leaves(M)$ and $M^- \subseteq \mathbb{O}(M)$.

Lemma 10 *If $c \in M^- \setminus M$ and $b \in \text{leaves}(S) \cap I(c)$, then $b \in M$.*

Proof: Let $c \in M^- \setminus M$ and $b \in \text{leaves}(S) \cap I(c)$. Let $i = \dim(c)$. Thus, by Lemma 8, $i > 0 \wedge c \in M_i^- \setminus M$ and $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^-$. We have $b \in I(c)$ and $\dim(b) < \dim(c)$. Thus $b \in L(c)$ and hence $b \in M_{i-1}^-$. This implies $b \in M^-$. Since $\dim(b) = 0$, $b \in \text{leaves}(M^-) = \text{leaves}(M)$. Therefore $b \in M$. \square

If G is 0-rooted and $c \in M^- \setminus M$, then $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. If M is 0-rooted, then M^- is 0-rooted. If $M \neq \emptyset$ and M is 0-rooted, then $\text{leaves}(M) \neq \emptyset$.

Theorem 9 *If G is 0-rooted and M is partially open, then $0\text{-Rooted}(M)$ is partially open and 0-rooted.*

Proof: Let $A = 0\text{-Rooted}(M)$. Note that $\text{leaves}(A) = \text{leaves}(M)$. Suppose $c \in A$. Thus $c \in M$ and $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and so $\text{leaves}(A) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Therefore A is 0-rooted.

To show that A is partially open, suppose there exists a $c \in A^- \setminus A$. Since $A \subseteq M$, we have $A^- \subseteq M^-$. Since M is partially open this implies $A^- \subseteq M$ and hence $c \in M \setminus A$ which implies $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) = \emptyset$. Let $i = \dim(c)$. Since G is 0-rooted, there exists a $b \in \text{leaves}(S) \cap I(c)$ and since $c \in A^- \setminus A$, we have, by Proposition 10, $b \in A$ and hence $\text{leaves}(A) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. But, since $\text{leaves}(A) = \text{leaves}(B)$, this implies $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. This contradiction establishes that A is partially open. \square

11 0-Components and 0-Regions

$C \subseteq M$ is a 0-component of M iff

- (1) $\text{leaves}(C)$ form a non-empty maximal connected (wrt M) subset of $\text{leaves}(M)$,
- (2) if $b \in \text{leaves}(C) \wedge c \in M \wedge c \in I(b)$, then $c \in C$, and
- (3) C is partially open.

A finite 0-component of M is called a 0-region of M .

Definition 12 If M is a 0-component of M , then we call M a 0-region.

Let M be partially open, 0-rooted, and $\text{leaves}(M)$ is connected. If C is a 0-component of M , then $C = M$.

Lemma 11 *If G is 0-rooted and C is a 0-component of M , then $0\text{-Rooted}(C)$ is a 0-rooted component of M .*

Proof: Let $R = 0\text{-Rooted}(C)$. Note that $\text{leaves}(R) = \text{leaves}(C)$ is a non-empty maximal connected subset of $\text{leaves}(M)$ since C is a 0-component of M . Clearly R is 0-rooted.

Let $c \in M$ such that $leaves(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Thus $c \in M$ and $leaves(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Since C is a 0-component this implies $c \in C$. Since $leaves(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ we have $c \in R$.

To show R is 0-complete assume there exists a $c \in R^- \setminus R$. Since G is 0-rooted there exists a $b \in leaves(S) \cap I(c)$. Thus, by Proposition 10, $b \in R$ and thus $leaves(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Since $leaves(R) = leaves(C)$, $leaves(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Since $R \subseteq C, R^- \subseteq C^- = C, c \in C$, and $c \notin R$, we have $leaves(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. This contradiction establishes that R is 0-complete. Therefore R is a 0-rooted 0-component of M . \square

Lemma 12 *If G is 0-rooted, M is partially open, and $b \in leaves(M)$, then M has a unique 0-rooted 0-component C containing b . Furthermore $C = leaves(C) \cup \{c \in M : leaves(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$*

Proof: Let $b \in leaves(M)$ for M partially open. Let $A = \{c \in leaves(M) : c \text{ and } b \text{ are connected wrt } M\}$. Note A is a non-empty maximal connected subset of $leaves(M)$. Let $C = A \cup \{c \in M : A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$. Note $C \subseteq M$ and $leaves(C) = A$. Thus $leaves(C)$ is a non-empty maximal connected subset of $leaves(M)$.

To show C is 0-complete suppose there exists a $c \in C^- \setminus C$ which implies $A \cap I(c) = \emptyset$. Since G is 0-rooted there exists a $p \in leaves(S) \cap I(c)$ which, by Theorem 10, implies $p \in leaves(C) \cap I(c)$. This contradiction establishes that C is 0-complete.

Let $p \in leaves(C)$ and $c \in M$ such that $c \in I(p)$. Thus $c \in M$ and $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in C$. Therefore C is a 0-component of M . Clearly C is 0-rooted. Therefore C is a 0-rooted 0-component of M containing b .

To show that C is unique, assume R is a 0-rooted 0-component of M containing b . Since both C and R are 0-rooted and contain b , there exists a $c \in leaves(C)$ and an $r \in leaves(R)$ such that $c \in I(b)$ and $r \in I(c)$. Thus $leaves(R)$ and $leaves(C)$ are connected in M by b and since $leaves(R)$ and $leaves(C)$ are both maximal connected subsets of $leaves(M)$, we must have $leaves(R) = leaves(C) = A$.

Let $c \in C$ and hence $c \in M$. If $c \in A$, then $c \in R$ so assume $c \notin A$ which implies $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and hence $leaves(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Since R is a 0-component of M this implies $c \in R$. Thus $C \subseteq R$.

Let $c \in R$ which implies $c \in M$. Since R is 0-rooted there exists a $p \in leaves(R) \cap I(c)$. Thus $c \in M$ and $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in C$. Therefore $C = R$. \square

Lemma 13 *If G is 0-rooted and M is partially open and 0-rooted, then the 0-rooted 0-components of M partition M*

Proof: For each $b \in leaves(M)$, let C_b be the unique 0-rooted 0-component of M containing b . Recall $C_b = leaves(C_b) \cup \{c \in M : leaves(C_b) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$. Let $\mathbb{P} = \{C_b : b \in leaves(M)\}$. Suppose $a, b \in leaves(M)$ such that

$C_a \cap C_b \neq \emptyset$. Let $c \in C_a \cap C_b$. Since C_a and C_b are 0-rooted there exists an $a' \in \text{leaves}(C_a) \cap I(c)$ and there exists a vertex $b' \in \text{leaves}(C_b) \cap I(c)$. We have that $[a, a', c, b', b]$ is a sequence of nodes in M each connected to the next and thus a and b are connected wrt M and hence $a \in C_b$ which implies $C_a = C_b$.

Let $c \in M$. Since M is 0-rooted, there exists $b \in \text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c)$. Thus $c \in C_b$ which implies $c \in \bigcup \mathbb{P}$. Since $\bigcup \mathbb{P} \subseteq M$ we have $M = \bigcup \mathbb{P}$. Therefore \mathbb{P} partitions M . \square

Lemma 14 *If C is a 0-component of 0-Rooted(M), then C is a 0-rooted 0-component of M .*

Proof: Let $K = \text{0-Rooted}(M)$ and let C be a 0-component of K . Note that $\text{leaves}(K) = \text{leaves}(M)$ and thus $\text{leaves}(C)$ is a non-empty maximal connected subset of $\text{leaves}(M)$.

Assume $p \in \text{leaves}(K)$, $c \in K$, and $c \in I(p)$. Thus $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ and hence $c \in K$. Since C is a 0-component of K we have $c \in C$. Since C is partially open, C is a 0-component of M . Since $C \subseteq \text{0-Rooted}(M)$, we have $\text{leaves}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$, for all $c \in C$. Therefore C is a 0-rooted 0-component of M . \square

Corollary 13 *If G is 0-rooted and M is partially open and not 0-rooted, then the set consisting of 0-Unrooted(M) along with the 0-rooted 0-components of M forms a partition of M .*

Proof: Let $K = M \setminus \text{0-Unrooted}(M) = \text{Rooted}(M)$. By Lemma 11, K is 0-complete and 0-rooted. Let \mathbb{P} be the collection of the 0-rooted 0-components of K along with $\text{Unrooted}(M)$. By Lemma 14, the 0-rooted 0-components of K are 0-rooted 0-components of M . By Lemma 13, K is the union of the 0-rooted 0-components of K (and hence of M). Since $M = \text{0-Unrooted}(M) \cup K$, we have $M = \bigcup \mathbb{P}$. Since the 0-rooted 0-components of M are disjoint and distinct from each other and from $\text{0-Unrooted}(M)$, \mathbb{P} partitions M . \square

We demonstrate the existence of some particular kinds of sets by means of examples. There exists a finite M which is complete with \overline{M} not partially open. For this, see $M = \{a, b\} = M^+$ and $\overline{M} \neq \overline{M}^- = \{a, b, c, d\}$ on the left in Figure 8. There also exists a finite M which is partially open with \overline{M} not complete; see right of Figure 8: $M = \{b, c\} = M^-$, and $\overline{M} = \{a, d, e\} \neq \overline{M}^- = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$.

There exists a finite M which is open (and hence partially open) with $M \neq \text{leaves}(M)^-$. See $M = \{a, b, d\} = M^-$ and $\text{leaves}(M)^- = \{d\} \neq M$ in Figure 9, left.

If M is open, then M^∇ is partially open. There exists a closed, partially open M for which M^∇ is not partially open. Figure 9 shows such a set on the right, with $M = \{a, b, c\}$, $M^\nabla = \{c\}$ and $L(a) = M^\nabla$ but $a \notin M^\nabla$. Therefore M^∇ is not partially open.

If $M \neq \emptyset$ and $M^\nabla = \emptyset$ (i.e., $\delta M = M$), then M is not open or M is not closed. There exists an M which is partially open and closed (and therefore

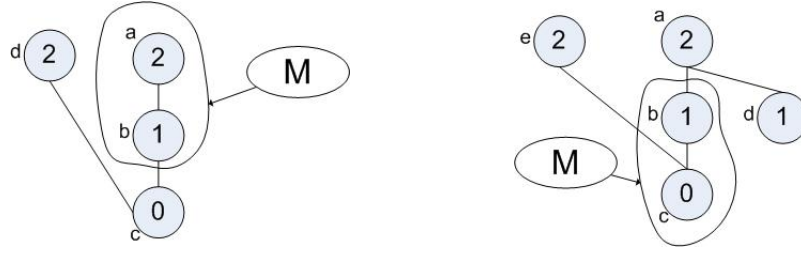


Figure 8: Left: a finite set M which is complete, and \overline{M} is not partially open. Right: a finite M which is partially open with \overline{M} not complete.



Figure 9: Left: a finite set M which is open, with $M \neq \text{leaves}(M)^-$. Right: a finite set M which is closed, partially open, and for which M^{∇} is not partially open.

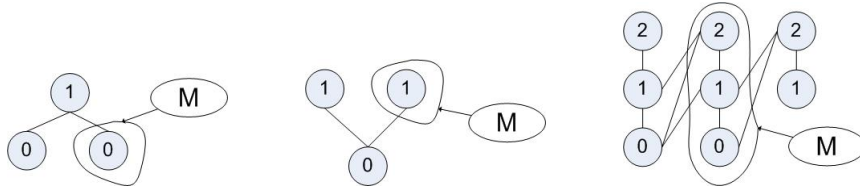


Figure 10: Left: set M which is partially open and closed with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$. Middle: set M which is complete and open with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$. Right: set M which is partially open and complete, $\text{core}(M) \neq \emptyset$, $\text{leaves}(M) \neq \emptyset$, rooted and 0-rooted, with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$.

complete) with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$. See Figure 10, left. There exists an M which is complete and open (and therefore partially open) with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$. See Figure 10, middle. There exists an M which is partially open and complete, $\text{core}(M) \neq \emptyset$, $\text{leaves}(M) \neq \emptyset$, rooted and 0-rooted, with $M^{\nabla} = \emptyset$. See Figure 10, right.

A node c is a *downward 0-rooted point* of M iff $c \in M$ and there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ such that

$$p_0 \in \text{leaves}(M) \wedge c = p_k \wedge \forall i (0 \leq i \leq k \rightarrow p_i \in M)$$

The set of all downward 0-rooted points of M is denoted by $\text{DRP}(M)$.

Theorem 10 *If G is 0-rooted, then M is partially open iff $\text{UXP}(M) \subseteq$*

$DRP(\overline{M})$.

Proof: Assume G is 0-rooted.

Assume M is partially open and let $c \in UXP(M)$. Thus $c \notin M$ and there exists a $b \in M$ such that $\dim(b) < \dim(c)$. Hence $L(c) \neq \emptyset$ and, since M is partially open, $L(c) \neq \emptyset$, and $c \notin M = M^-$, we must have $L(c) \neq M$. Thus there exists $c' \in I(c) \cap \overline{M}$ such that $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. Chose $p_0 = c$ and $p_1 = c'$.

Assume p_0, \dots, p_i have been chosen for some $i \geq 1$, such that for all j such that $1 \leq j \leq i, p_j \in I(p_{j-1})$ and $\dim(p_j) < \dim(p_{j-1})$. If $\dim(p_i) = 0$ we set $k = i$ and stop. Otherwise, since G is 0-rooted and $\dim(p_i) > 0$, we have $L(p_i) \neq \emptyset$. Since $p_i \in \overline{M}$, $L(p_i) \neq \emptyset$, and M is partially open, we have $p_i \notin M^-$. Hence there exists a $p_{i+1} \in L(p_i) \setminus M$. Thus we have $p_{i+1} \in I(p_i) \cap \overline{M}$ and $\dim(p_{i+1}) < \dim(p_i)$. This process will eventually end.

Define $s_j = p_{k-j}$, for each j such that $0 \leq j \leq k$. Then $\{s_0, \dots, p_k\}$ is a descendance path with $s_0 \in \text{leaves}(\overline{M})$ and $s_k = c$. Thus $c \in DRP(\overline{M})$ and therefore $UXP(M) \subseteq DRP(\overline{M})$.

Assume $UXP(M) \subseteq DRP(\overline{M})$. Let $n = \text{ind}(G)$ and for $0 \leq i \leq n$ consider the statement

$$\mathbb{P}(i) \equiv \exists c \in \overline{M} \setminus M \text{ with } \dim(c) = i$$

Suppose $c \in M^- \setminus M$ and $\dim(c) = 0$. Thus $c \in \text{leaves}(M^-) = \text{leaves}(M) \subseteq M$. Therefore $\mathbb{P}(0)$ is true.

Assume $\mathbb{P}(j)$ is true for all j such that $0 \leq j \leq i$ for some i with $0 \leq i < n$ and suppose $c \in M^- \setminus M$ with $\dim(c) = i + 1$. Thus $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M^-$. Hence there exists a $c' \in L(c)$ such that $c' \in I(c)$, $\dim(c') < \dim(c) = i + 1$, and $c' \in M_i^- \subseteq M^-$. By assumption, since $\dim(c') \leq i$, $c' \notin M^- \setminus M$. Since $c' \in M^-$, we must have $c' \in M$. Hence $c \in DXP(M) \subseteq URP(\overline{M})$. Thus there exists a descendance path $\{p_0, \dots, p_k\}$ such that $p_0 \in \text{leaves}(\overline{M})$, $p_k = c$, and $p_j \in \overline{M}$, for all j satisfying $0 \leq j \leq k$. Since $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$, $\dim(c) > 0$ and so $k > 0$. Thus $p_{k-1} \in I(c)$, $\dim(p_{k-1}) < \dim(c)$, and $p_{k-1} \notin M$. However, $p_{k-1} \in L(c) \subseteq M^-$, which implies $p_{k-1} \in M^- \setminus M$ and $\dim(p_{k-1}) = i$. Thus, by assumption $\mathbb{P}(\dim(p_{k-1}))$ is true which implies $p_{k-1} \notin M^- \setminus M$. This contradiction establishes that $\mathbb{P}(i + 1)$ is true and therefore $M^- \setminus M = \emptyset$. Therefore M is partially open. \square

Corollary 14 *A set M is closed and partially open iff $DXP(M) = \emptyset$ and $UXP(M) \subseteq DRP(\overline{M})$.*

12 Concluding Remarks

This paper provides a comprehensive discussion of a topology on incidence pseudographs, as introduced by Klaus Voss in 1993, and further discussed by others in more recent years. (The references below only give a very limited account of such work; for an extensive bibliography see, for example, (7).)

The paper also discusses (for the first time) especially partially open sets, as occurring in common (non-binary) digital picture analysis.

References

- [1] S. Alayrangues and J.-O. Lachaud. Equivalence between order and cell complex representations. In Proc. *Computer Vision Winter Workshop*, pages 222–233, 2002.
- [2] G. Bertrand. New notions for discrete topology. In Proc. *DGCI*, LNCS 1568, pages 216–226, 1999.
- [3] G. Bertrand and M. Couprie. A model for digital topology. In Proc. *DGCI*, LNCS 1568, pages 227–239, 1999.
- [4] G.T. Herman. *Geometry of Digital Spaces*. Birkhäuser, Boston, Massachusetts, 1998.
- [5] G.T. Herman and D. Webster. Surfaces of organs in discrete three-dimensional space. In: G. Herman and F. Natterer, editors. *Mathematical Aspects of Computerized Tomography*, 8:204–224, 1980.
- [6] R. Klette. *M-dimensional cellular spaces*. Computer Science Dep., TR-1266, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 1983.
- [7] R. Klette and A. Rosenfeld. *Digital Geometry - Geometric Methods for Digital Picture Analysis*. Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco, 2004.
- [8] V. Kovalevsky. Algorithms and data structures for computer topology. In: G. Bertrand, A. Imiya, and R. Klette, editors. *Digital and Image Geometry: Advanced Lectures*, 38–58. Lecture Notes in Computer Science 2243, Springer, Berlin, Germany, 2001.
- [9] E. Steinitz. Beiträge zur Analysis. *Sitzungsberichte der Berliner Mathematischen Gesellschaft*, 7:29–49, 1908.
- [10] K. Voss. *Discrete Images, Objects, and Functions in \mathbb{Z}^n* . Springer, Berlin, 1993.