The Topology of Incidence Pseudographs

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The Topology of Incidence Pseudographs

T. R. James∗ R. Klette†

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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 \([S, I, \text{dim}]\) models a (reflexive and symmetric) incidence relation \(I\) between sets \(c\) of dimension \(\text{dim}(c) \geq 0\), 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 sub-structures of a regular orthogonal grid in (2D or 3D) space, and \(S\) would be a set of \(m\)-cells \(c\) (i.e., \(\text{dim}(c) = m\) 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

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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 \([S, I, \text{dim}]\) is defined by a countable set \(S\) of nodes, an incidence relation \(I\) on \(S\) that is reflexive and symmetric, and a function \(\text{dim}\) defined on \(S\) into a finite set \(\{0, 1, \ldots, n\}\) 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 \([S, I, \text{dim}]\) be an incidence pseudograph. We define that \(c < c'\) iff

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

Let \(c \leq c'\) iff \(c < c'\) or \(c = c'\). It follows that \([S, \leq, \text{dim}]\) 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 descendence 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 $G = [S, I, \dim]$ 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 $\dim(c) = i$ 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, \ldots, p_n\} \text{ where }
\begin{align*}
p &= p_0 \text{ and } q = p_n, \\
(\forall i \in \{0, \ldots, n\} \ p_i \in M) \lor (\forall i \in \{0, \ldots, n\} \ p_i \in \overline{M}), \text{ and} \\
\forall i \in \{0, \ldots, n - 1\} \ p_i \in I(p_{i+1}).
\end{align*}

The sequence \{p_0, \ldots, p_n\} is called a path from \(p\) to \(q\). If also \(p_i \in M\), for all \(i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}\), 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 \(S\).

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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).

\(G = [S, I, \text{dim}]\) 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{align*}
I_i(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \text{dim}(c') = i\} \\
G_i(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \text{dim}(c') \geq i\} \\
G(c) &= \{c' \in I(c) : \text{dim}(c') > \text{dim}(c)\}
\end{align*}

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
\[M_i^+ = M\]
\[M_{i+1}^- = M_i^+ \cup \{c \in S : \dim(c) = i - 1 \land \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_i^+\}\]

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 \(0 \leq i \leq j \leq n\), \(M_{i+1}^+ \supseteq M_j^+\).

(ii) \(M_0^+ = \bigcup_{i=0}^n M_i^+\)

(iii) If \(0 \leq i < n\), then \(c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+ \iff \dim(c) = i \land \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_i \setminus M_{i+1}^+\).

(iv) If \(i = \dim(c) \land c \in M^+ \setminus M\), then \(c \in M_i^+ \land \emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+\).

**Proof:** Property (i) follows immediately from the definition. Property (ii) follows from \(0 \leq i \leq j \leq n\), \(M_{i+1}^+ \supseteq M_j^+\). Property (iii) follows immediately from the definition.

To prove Property (iv), let \(0 \leq i < n\) and assume \(i = \dim(c)\) and \(c \in M_i^+ \setminus M\) and let \(k\) be the largest integer such that \(c \in M_k^+\). Since \(c \not\in M = M_n^+\), we have \(k < n\) and \(c \in M_k^+ \setminus M_{k+1}^+\) and thus \(k = i \land \emptyset \neq G_i(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+\).

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

(i) \(M \subseteq M^+\).

(ii) If \(\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M^+_i\), then \(c \in M^+_i\).

**Proof:** Let \(n = \text{ind}(G)\). Property (i) follows from the fact that \(M = M_n^+ \subseteq M_0^+ = M^+\). To prove (ii), assume \(\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M^+_i\). If \(c \in M = M_0^+\), then \(c \in M^+\) so assume \(c \not\in M\). Let \(i = \dim(c)\). Thus, by Lemma 1, \(\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{i+1}^+ \land c \in M_i^+ \setminus M_{i+1}^+\). 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, \(c \in M_{i+1}^+ \setminus M_i^+\) 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 \(\dim(c) = i \land c \in M_i^+ \setminus M\), 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 \(0 < j \leq n\) for some \(i\) such that \(0 < i \leq n\) and \(i \leq j \leq n\) and \(c \in M_j^+ \setminus M\). Thus \(\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq M_{j-1}^+\). 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 \(c' \not\in M\). It follows that \(c' \in M_{k-1}\). Since \(i \leq k \leq n\), by assumption, \(\mathbb{P}(i)\) is true and hence \(c' \in C\). Thus \(\emptyset \neq G(c) \subseteq C\). Since \(C\) satisfies Property (ii), \(c \in C\). Therefore \(M^+ \subseteq C\).
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 \( c \in M \). Therefore \( p \in M \) 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 \( M = \text{Rooted}(M) \), \( M \) is said to be rooted.

From this we have the following:

\[
\text{Rooted}(M) = \{ c \in M : \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \}
\]

\[
\text{Unrooted}(M) = M \setminus \text{Rooted}(M) = \{ c \in M : \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) = \emptyset \}
\]

If \( M \neq \emptyset \) and \( M \) is rooted, then \( \text{core}(M) \neq \emptyset \). 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 \( R = \text{Rooted}(M) \). Note that \( \text{core}(R) = \text{core}(M) \). Suppose \( c \in R \). Thus \( c \in M \) and \( \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \) and so \( \text{core}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \). 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 \( \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) = \emptyset \). 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 \( p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \). Since \( M \) is complete and \( c \in M \) we have \( p \in M \). Hence \( \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \) 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 \( p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \), then \( p \in M \).

Proof: Let \( c \in M^+ \setminus M \) and \( p \in \text{core}(S) \cap I(c) \). Let \( i = \dim(c) \). Thus \( c \in M^+ \setminus M^+_{i+1} \) 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 \( p \in \text{core}(M^+) = \text{core}(M) \). Therefore \( p \in M \). \( \square \)

This lemma allows the following

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

(ii) If \( M \) is rooted, then \( M^+ \) is rooted.
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 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 Rooted($C$) is a rooted component of $M$.

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

If $c \in M$, core($R$) $\cap$ I($c$) $\neq$ $\emptyset$, then 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 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 core($C$) $\cap$ I($c$) = $\emptyset$. Since $G$ is an incidence pseudograph, there exists a $p \in$ core($S$) $\cap$ I($c$). By Lemma 3, $p \in C$. Therefore $p \in$ core($R$) = core($C$) and $p \in I(c)$ which contradicts core($C$) $\cap$ I($c$) = $\emptyset$, since $c \notin C$. Therefore $R$ is complete.

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

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 $p \in$ core($M$), then $M$ has a unique rooted component $C$ containing $p$. Furthermore $C =$ core($C$) $\cup$ $\{c \in M : I(c) \cap$ core($C$) $\neq$ $\emptyset\}$. 

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

Property (ii): Assume $M$ is rooted and let $c \in M^+$. If $c \in M$, then core($M$) $\cap$ I($c$) $\neq$ $\emptyset$. Otherwise, by Lemma 3, core($M$) $\cap$ I($c$) $\neq$ $\emptyset$. Therefore $M^+$ is rooted. □
4 COMPONENTS AND REGIONS

Proof: Let \( p \in \text{core}(M) \) for \( M \) complete. Let \( A = \{ c \in \text{core}(M) \mid c \) and \( p \) 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 \( \text{core}(C_p) = \text{core}(C_p) \cup \{ c \in M : \text{core}(C_p) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset \} \). Let \( A = \{ C_p : p \in \text{core}(M) \} \). 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 \( A \) 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 \( c \in \bigcup A \). Since \( \bigcup A \subseteq M \) we conclude that \( M = \bigcup A \).

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 $C \subseteq \text{Rooted}(M)$, 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 $K = M \setminus \text{Unrooted}(M) = M \cap \text{Rooted}(M) = \text{Rooted}(M)$. 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** $M^\n$ is the set of inner nodes of $M$. $\delta M$ 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 $M^\n$ 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 $M_i^+ = M$ so the claim is true for $i = n$.

Assume $M_{i-1}^+ \subseteq M$ 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 $M^\n$: Assume $M$ is closed. We claim $(M^\n)_i^+ \subseteq M^\n$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$.

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

To show $c \in (M^\n)$ let $b \in I(c)$. If $\dim(b) > \dim(c)$, then, since $G(c) \subseteq M^\n$, we have $b \in M^\n$ 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 $(M^\n)_i^+ = M^\n$ and therefore $M^\n$ 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 $M = M^\n$).
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 $M^\triangledown$ not open. Right: An $M$ which is closed, not open, and $M^\triangledown$ not closed.

Figure 4: Left: An $M$ which is complete, open, not closed, and $M^\triangledown$ is not complete. Right: An $M$ which is complete and $\delta M$ 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 $c' \in M$. 
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 \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) is called a descendence path (from \( p_0 \) to \( p_k \)) iff, for all \( i \in \{0, \ldots, k-1\} \), \( \dim(p_{i+1}) > \dim(p_i) \) 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 \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) is called a descendence path wrt \( M \) (from \( p_0 \) to \( p_k \)) iff for \( 0 \leq i < k \), \( p_i \not\in M \) 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

\[
\mathcal{C}(M, i) = \{c \in S : \exists \text{ descendence path } \{p_0, \ldots, p_i\}\text{ with } c = p_0 \land p_i \in M\}
\]

\[
M^\bullet = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{C}(M, i)
\]

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

If \( c' \in I(c) \land \dim(c') > \dim(c) \), then \( D(c') \subseteq D(c) \). We also have that

\[
D(c) = \{c\} \cup \bigcup \{D(c') : c' \in I(c) \land \dim(c') > \dim(c)\}.
\]

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 \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) 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 \( c \not\in \text{core}(S) \land D^M(c) \subseteq M \), then \( c \in M^+ \).

Note that, if \( p_i \not\in M \) for all \( i \) satisfying \( 0 \leq i < k \), 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

Figure 5: An \( M \) which is open but not complete.
7 TOPOLOGICAL CLOSURE

a descendent \( b \) which is not in the completion of \( M \), then every descendence 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 \( \{ p_0, \ldots, p_k \} \) is a descendence path with \( c = p_0 \) and \( p_k \not\in M^+ \), 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^* \subseteq D \\

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

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 descendence path \( \{ p_0, \ldots, p_{i+1} \} \) with \( c = p_0 \) and \( p_{i+1} \in M \). For \( 0 \leq j \leq i \) let \( s_j = p_j + 1 \). We have \( s_j = p_j + 1 \in M \) 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 \( \{ p_0, \ldots, p_k \} \) is a descendence path with \( p_k \in M \), then \( p_0 \in D \).

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

**Proof:** \( M = \mathbb{C}(M, 0) \subseteq M^* \). To show \( M^* \) is closed, let \( c \in M^* \) and \( c' \in I(c) \) such that \( \dim(c') < \dim(c) \). Then there exists a descendence path \( \{ p_0, \ldots, p_k \} \) 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 \( \{ s_0, \ldots, s_{k+1} \} \) is a descendence path with \( c' = s_0 \wedge s_{k+1} \in M \). Hence \( c' \in M^* \) and therefore \( M^* \) is closed.

Suppose \( M \subseteq D \) and \( D \) is closed. By Lemma 6, \( M^* \subseteq D \). \( \square \)

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 \( M^* \).

**Corollary 6** \( M^* = (M^+)^* \)

**Proof:** \( M^+ \subseteq M^* \) and \( M^* \) is closed. It follows from Theorem 4 that \( (M^+)^* \subseteq M^* \). Since \( M \subseteq M^+ \), it follows that \( M^* \subseteq (M^+)^* \). Therefore \( M^* = (M^+)^* \). \( \square \)
Corollary 7 If $M$ is finite, then $M^*$ is finite.

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

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

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

Let $c' = p_1$. From the definition of a descendence 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, $\{s_0, \ldots, s_i\}$ is a descendence path with $c' = s_0$ and $s_i = p_{i+1} \in M$. Hence $c' \in \mathcal{C}(M,i)$ and thus $c \in A$.

Let $c \in A$. Then there exists a $c' \in \mathcal{C}(M,i)$ such that $c' \in I(c)$ and $\dim(c) < \dim(c')$. There exists a descendence path $\{p_0, \ldots, p_i\}$ 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 $\{s_0, \ldots, s_{i+1}\}$ is a descendence path from $C$ to $p_i \in M$ and hence $c \in \mathcal{C}(M,i + 1)$. Therefore $\mathcal{C}(M,i + 1) = A$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Assume $\mathcal{C}(M,i) \subseteq \mathcal{C}(M,1)$ and let $c \in \mathcal{C}(M,i + 1)$. Thus there exists a descendence path $\{p_0, \ldots, p_k\}$ such that $c = p_0$ and $p_{k+1} \in M$. For $0 \leq j \leq i$ define $s_j = p_{j+1}$. So $p_1 = s_0 \in \mathcal{C}(M,i)$. By assumption, $p_1 = c_0 \in \mathcal{C}(M,1)$. Thus there exists a descendence 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 descendence path with $c = r_0$ and $r_1 \in M$. Therefore $c \in \mathcal{C}(M,1)$. \hfill $\square$

Corollary 9 If $G = [S, I, \dim]$ is monotonic and if $M$ is a rooted subset of $S$, then $M^*$ 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 $c \not\in M$. Since $G$ is monotonic we have from Lemma 7 that $c \in \mathbb{C}(M, 1)$. So there exists a descendence 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 $p_1 \not\in \text{core}(M)$. 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.

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

(1.1) $\text{core}(M)$ is non-empty and connected,
(1.2) $\text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ $\Rightarrow$ $c \in M$, and
(i.3) if dim(c) < n, then c ∈ M ⇔ G(c) ⊆ M.

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

(ii.1) core(M) is non-empty and connected,
(ii.2) core(M) ∩ I(c) ≠ ∅ ⇒ c ∈ M, and
(ii.3) if dim(c) < n, then c ∈ M ⇔ core(S) ∩ I(c) ⊆ 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 ∈ M and b ∈ G(c). Thus b ∈ I(c) and dim(c) < dim(b). Since M is open by Lemma 5, b ∈ M. Thus G(c) ⊆ M.

Next assume dim(c) < n and G(c) ⊆ M. There exists a p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(c). Thus c ∈ I(p) and dim(c) < dim(p) which implies p ∈ G(c) ⊆ M. Hence p ∈ M. Since M is closed this implies c ∈ 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 ∈ M, c' ∈ I(c), and dim(c') > dim(c). By Property (i.3), c' ∈ M. Thus, by Lemma 5, M is open.

To show that M is complete suppose c ∈ M+ \ M. Thus, by Lemma 1, G(c) ⊆ M_{i+1} where i = dim(c). It follows, by Property (i.3), that c ∈ 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 ∈ M and p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(c). Thus p ∈ G(c). By (i.3), p ∈ M. Thus core(S) ∩ I(c) ⊆ M and let b ∈ G(c). Thus b ∈ I(c) and dim(c) < dim(b). There exists p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(b). We have c ∈ I(b), b ∈ I(p), and dim(c) < dim(b) ≤ dim(p).

Since G is monotonic, we have c ∈ I(p). Hence p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(c) which, by assumptions, implies p ∈ M. Thus p ∈ core(M) ∩ I(b) and thus, by (i.2), b ∈ M. Hence G(c) ⊆ M and thus, by (i.3), c ∈ 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 ∈ M and b ∈ G(c). There exists p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(b). We have c ∈ I(b), b ∈ I(p), and dim(c) < dim(b) ≤ dim(p).

Since G is monotonic c ∈ I(p). Hence p ∈ core(S) ∩ I(c). It follows by (iii.3), p ∈ M. Since p ∈ core(M) ∩ I(b), we have by (ii.2), b ∈ M. Therefore G(c) ⊆ M.

Assume G(c) ⊆ M. Since core(S) ∩ I(c) ⊆ G(c), it follows from (ii.3), that c ∈ M. Therefore G satisfies (i.1), (i.2), and (i.3) and thus is open. □

Figure 7 shows that there exists an M which is finite, core(M) ≠ ∅, connected, open, complete, and satisfies dim(c) < ind(G) ⇒ [c ∈ M ⇔ D(c) ⊆ M] but is not a component as it fails to satisfy core(M) ∩ I(c) ≠ ∅ ⇒ c ∈ M.
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 \( \text{bd}(M) \).

**Theorem 5** (i) If \( M \) is closed, then \( \text{bd}(M) = \emptyset \).

(ii) If \( \text{bd}(M) = \emptyset \), then \( M \) is complete.

*Proof:* Property (i): Assume \( M \) is closed and \( c \in \text{bd}(M) \). Thus \( c \notin M \) and there exists a \( p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \). 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 \( \text{bd}(M) = \emptyset \).

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, \( p \in \text{core}(M) \cap I(c) \). Since \( c \notin M \) this implies \( c \in \text{bd}(M) \). But \( \text{bd}(M) = \emptyset \). Therefore \( M \) is complete. \qed

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 \( M \) if \( c \in M \) and there exists a descendence path \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) with

\[
c = p_0 \land p_k \in \text{core}(M) \land \forall i (0 \leq i \leq k \Rightarrow p_i \in M)
\]

The set of all upward rooted points of \( M \) is denoted by \( \text{URP}(M) \). A node \( c \) is a **downward exit point** of \( M \) if \( c \notin M \) 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 \( \text{DXP}(M) \). A node \( c \) is an **upward exit point** of \( M \) if \( c \notin M \) 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 \( \text{UXP}(M) \).

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

\[
\begin{align*}
M_0^- &= M \\
M_{i+1}^- &= M_i^- \cup \{ c \in S : \dim(c) = i + 1 \land \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_i^- \}
\end{align*}
\]

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 \( c \in M_i^- \setminus M_{i-1}^- \iff \dim(c) = i \land \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^- \land c \notin M \)

(iv) if \( \dim(c) = i \land c \in M^- \setminus M \) then \( i > 0 \land c \in M_i^- \land \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^- \)

**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 \( \emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_{i-1}^- \).

**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:**

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

Let $\mathbb{P}(i)$ be the statement “If $c \in M_i^c \setminus M$ \wedge \dim(c) = i$, then $c \in A$”. Since $M_i^c = M$, $\mathbb{P}(0)$ 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 $c \in M_{i+1}^c \setminus M$ such that $\dim(c) = i + 1$. It follows from Lemma 8 that $\emptyset \neq L(c) \subseteq M_i^c$. Let $c' \in L(c)$ and $k = \dim(c')$. Thus $c' \in M_i^c$ and $k \leq \dim(c) - 1 = i$. If $c' \in M$ then $c' \in A$ so assume $c' \notin M$. It follows that $c' \in M_k^c \setminus M$. 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 $M^c \subseteq A$. \qed

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

$$
\mathbb{O}(M, i) = \{ c \in S : \exists \text{ descendence path } \{p_0, \ldots, p_i\} \text{ with } c = p_0 \land p_0 \in M \}
$$

$$
\mathbb{O}(M) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{O}(M, i)
$$

**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 descendence path $\{p_0, \ldots, p_{i+1}\}$ with $c = p_{i+1}$ and $p_0 \in M$. Note $\{p_0, \ldots, p_i\}$ is a descendence 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 $c \in A$. \qed

**Corollary 11** If $A$ is open, $M \subseteq A$, and if $\{p_0, \ldots, p_k\}$ is a descendence 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

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

Let $A = \{ c \in S : \exists c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i) \text{ with } c' \in I(c) \land \dim(c') < \dim(c) \}$ and let $c \in \mathbb{O}(M, i + 1)$. By definition there exists a descendence path $\{p_0, \ldots, p_{i+1}\}$ such that $p_0 \in M$ and $c = p_{i+1}$. Let $c' = p_i$. Note $\{p_0, \ldots, p_i\}$ is a descendence path with $p_0 \in M \land c' = p_i$. Thus $c' \in \mathbb{O}(M, i)$, $c' \in I(c)$, and $\dim(c') < \dim(c)$. Thus $c \in A$. Therefore $\mathbb{O}(M) \subseteq A$.\qed
Now let \( c \in A \). Thus there exists a \( c' \in \mathcal{O}(M,i) \) with \( c' \in I(c) \) and \( \dim(c') < \dim(c) \). Let \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_i\} \) be a descendence 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 \( \{s_0, \ldots, s_{i+1}\} \) is a descendence path with \( s_0 \in M \) and \( c = s_{i+1} \). Hence \( c \in \mathcal{O}(M,i+1) \) and therefore \( \mathcal{O}(M,i+1) = A \).

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

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

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

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

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

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

Let 0-Unrooted\( (M) = M \setminus 0\text{-Rooted}(M) \). If \( M = 0\text{-Rooted}(M) \), 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** \( \text{leaves}(M^-) = \text{leaves}(M) \)

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

Let \( c \in \text{leaves}(M) \). Thus \( c \in M \land \dim(c) = 0 \) which implies \( c \in M^- \land \dim(c) = 0 \). Thus \( c \in \text{leaves}(M^-) \). Therefore \( \text{leaves}(M^-) = \text{leaves}(M) \).

We also have that \( \text{leaves}(\mathcal{O}(M)) = \text{leaves}(M) \) and \( M^- \subseteq \mathcal{O}(M) \). \( \square \)
Lemma 10 If \( c \in M^\prime \setminus M \) and \( b \in \text{leaves}(S) \cap I(c) \), then \( b \in M \).

Proof: Let \( c \in M^\prime \setminus M \) and \( b \in \text{leaves}(S) \cap I(c) \). Let \( i = \dim(c) \). Thus, by Lemma 8, \( i > 0 \land c \in M^\prime \setminus M \) 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 \( b \in M \). \( \Box \)

If \( G \) is 0-rooted and \( c \in M^\prime \setminus M \), 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 \( c \in A^\prime \setminus A \).

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. \( \Box \)

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 \( b \in \text{leaves}(C) \land c \in M \land c \in I(b) \), 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 $\text{leaves}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Thus $c \in M$ and $\text{leaves}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. Since $C$ is a 0-component this implies $c \in C$. Since $\text{leaves}(C) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ we have $c \in R$.

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

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

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

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

Let $p \in \text{leaves}(C)$ and $c \in M$ such that and $c \in I(p)$. 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 $c \in \text{leaves}(C)$ and an $r \in \text{leaves}(R)$ such that $c \in I(b)$ and $r \in I(c)$. Thus $\text{leaves}(R)$ and $\text{leaves}(C)$ are connected in $M$ by $b$ and since $\text{leaves}(R)$ and $\text{leaves}(C)$ are both maximal connected subsets of $\text{leaves}(M)$, we must have $\text{leaves}(R) = \text{leaves}(C) = A$.

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 $\text{leaves}(R) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$. 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 $p \in \text{leaves}(R) \cap I(c)$. Thus $c \in M$ and $A \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset$ which implies $c \in C$. Therefore $C = R$. □

**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 $b \in \text{leaves}(M)$, let $C_b$ be the unique 0-rooted 0-component of $M$ containing $b$. Recall $C_b = \text{leaves}(C_b) \cup \{c \in M : \text{leaves}(C_p) \cap I(c) \neq \emptyset\}$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{C_b : b \in \text{leaves}(M)\}$. Suppose $a, b \in \text{leaves}(M)$ 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 w.r.t. $M$ 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 $M$. \hfill \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 $K = 0$-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 $C \subseteq 0$-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 $M$. \hfill \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 $K = M \setminus 0$-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 $M = 0$-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 0-Unrooted$(M)$, $\mathbb{P}$ partitions $M$. \hfill \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 $M = \{a, b\} = M^+\setminus \{a, b, c, d\}$ 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: $M = \{b, c\} = M^\sim$, and $\overline{M} = \{a, d, e\} \neq M^\sim = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$.

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

If $M$ is open, then $M^\nabla$ is partially open. There exists a closed, partially open $M$ for which $M^\nabla$ 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 $M^\nabla$ 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 $M \neq \text{leaves}(M)^\sim$. Right: a finite set $M$ which is closed, partially open, and for which $M^\vee$ is not partially open.

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

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

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

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

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, \( L(c) \neq M = M^- \), 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 \( p_0, \ldots, p_i \) 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 \( \{s_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) is a descent path with \( s_0 \in leaves(\overline{M}) \) 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

\[ \mathbb{P}(i) \quad \text{iff} \quad \exists c \in \overline{M} \setminus M \text{ with } \dim(c) = i \]

Suppose \( c \in M^- \setminus M \) and \( \dim(c) = 0 \). Thus \( c \in leaves(M^-) = leaves(M) \subseteq M \). 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 \( c' \in M^- \subseteq M^- \). 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 descent path \( \{p_0, \ldots, p_k\} \) such that \( p_0 \in leaves(\overline{M}) \), \( p_k = c \), 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


