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Published in:
EPRINTS-BOOK-TITLE

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Document Version
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Publication date:
2012

Link to publication in University of Groningen/UMCG research database

Citation for published version (APA):
Chattopadhyay, A., Vegter, G., \& Yap, C. K. (2012). Certified Computation of planar Morse-Smale Complexes. In EPRINTS-BOOK-TITLE University of Groningen, Johann Bernoulli Institute for Mathematics and Computer Science.

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# Certified Computation of planar Morse-Smale Complexes 

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#### Abstract

The Morse-Smale complex is an important tool for global topological analysis in various problems of computational geometry and topology. Algorithms for Morse-Smale complexes have been presented in case of piecewise linear manifolds [9]. However, previous research in this field does not provide certified methods in the case of smooth functions. In the current paper we use interval arithmetic to compute a topologically correct approximation of Morse-Smale complex of smooth functions of two variables. The algorithm can also compute geometrically close Morse-Smale complex.


## Categories and Subject Descriptors

G. 1 [Mathematics of Computing]: Numerical Analysis; G.1.0 [Numerical Analysis]: Interval Arithmetic; G.1.2 [Numerical Analysis]: Approximation

## General Terms

Algorithms

## Keywords

Morse-Smale Complex, Certified Computing, Interval Arithmetic

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Geometrical shapes occurring in the real world are often extremely complex. To analyze them, one associates a sufficiently smooth scalar field with the shape, e.g., a density function or a function interpolating gray values. Using this function, topological and geometrical information about the shape may be extracted, e.g., by computing its Morse-Smale complex. The cells of this complex are maximal connected sets consisting of orthogonal trajectories of the contour lines-curves of steepest ascent-with the same

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SCG'12, June 17-20, 2012, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA.
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critical point of the function as origin and the same critical point as destination. The leftmost plots in Figures 1(a) and 1(b) illustrate the level sets of such a density function $h$, and the rightmost pictures the Morse-Smale complex of $h$ as computed by the algorithm in this paper. This complex reveals the global topology of the shape. Recently, the Morse-Smale complex has been successfully applied in different areas like molecular shape analysis, image analysis, data and vector field simplification, visualization and detection of voids and clusters in galaxy distributions $[6,11]$.

(a) Contour plot (left) and Morse-Smale complex (right) of $h(x, y)=\cos x \sin y+0.2(x+y)$ inside box $[-3.5,3.5] \times$ $[-3.5,3.5]$. CPU-time: 11 seconds.

(b) Contour plot (left) and Morse-Smale Complex (right) of $h(x, y)=10 x-\frac{13}{2}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{3}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)^{2}$ inside box $[-5,5] \times[-5,5]$. CPU-time: 0.5 seconds.

Figure 1: Contour plots of Morse-Smale functions, and their Morse-Smale complexes.

### 1.1 Problem statement

A Morse function $h: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued function with non-degenerate critical points (i.e., critical points with non-singular Hessian matrix). Non-degenerate critical points are isolated, and are either maxima, or minima, or
saddle points. They correspond to singular points of the gradient vector field $\nabla h$ of $h$, of type sink, source or saddle, respectively. Regular integral curves of the gradient vector field $\nabla h$ are orthogonal trajectories of the regular level curves of $h$. We are interested in the configuration of integral curves of the gradient vector field. An unstable (stable) separatrix of a saddle point is the set of all regular points whose forward (backward) integral curve emerges from the saddle point. Appendix A contains a more precise definition. A non-degenerate saddle point has two stable and two unstable separatrices. A Morse-Smale function is a Morse function whose stable and unstable separatrices are disjoint. In particular, the unstable separatrices flow into a sink, and separate the unstable regions of two sources. Similarly, the stable separatrices emerge from a source, and separate the stable regions of two sinks. The corresponding gradient vector field is called a Morse-Smale system (MS-system). The Morse-Smale complex (MS-complex for short) is a complex consisting of all singularities, separatrices and the open regions forming their complement, of the $M S$-system. In other words, a cell of the MS-complex is a maximal connected subset of the domain of $h$ consisting of points whose integral curves have the same origin and destination. See also [8, 9, 20] and Appendix A. The MS-complex describes the global structure of a Morse-Smale function.

Existing algorithms for MS-complexes [8, 9] compute the complex of a piecewise linear function on a piecewise linear manifold, or, in other words, of a discrete gradient-like vector field. When $h$ is an analytic function, we cannot use these algorithms without first creating a piecewise linear approximation $\widetilde{h}$. However, the MS-complex of $\widetilde{h}$ is not guaranteed to be combinatorially equivalent to the MS-complex of the smooth vector field. The topological correctness depends on how close the approximation $\widetilde{h}$ is to $h$. Here "topological correctness" of the computed MS-complex $\widetilde{M}$ means that there is a homeomorphism $f$ of the domain that induces a homeomorphism of each cell $\widetilde{c} \in \widetilde{M}$ to a cell $c \in M$ where $M$ is the true MS-complex, and, moreover, this induced map $\widetilde{c} \mapsto c$ is an isomorphism of $\widetilde{M}$ and $M$. An isomorphism of two MScomplexes preserves the types of cells and their incidence relations. We can also require $f$ to be an $\varepsilon$-homeomorphism for some specified $\varepsilon>0$, i.e., the distance of a point and its $f$-image does not exceed $\varepsilon$. As far as we know this problem has never been rigorously studied. Therefore, the main problem of this paper is to compute a piecewise-linear complex that is $\varepsilon$-homeomorphic to the MS-complex of a smooth Morse-Smale function $h$. In short, we seek an exact computation in the sense of the Exact Geometric Computation (EGC) paradigm [15]. Note that it is unclear whether many fundamental problems from analysis are exactly computable in the EGC sense. In particular, the current state-of-the-art in EGC does not (yet) provide a good approach for coping with degenerate situations, and, in fact, this paradigm needs to be extended to incorporate degeneracies. Therefore, we have to assume that the gradients we start out with are Morse-Smale systems. However, generic gradients are Morse-Smale systems [20], so the presence of degenerate singularities and of saddle-saddle connections is exceptional. Note that in restricted contexts, like the class of polynomial functions, absence of degenerate critical points (the first, and local, Morse-Smale condition) can be detected. However, even (most) polynomial gradient systems cannot be
integrated explicitly, so absence of saddle-saddle connections (the second, and global, Morse-Smale condition) cannot be detected with current approaches. Detecting such connections even in a restricted context remains a challenging open problem.

### 1.2 Overview

We present a solution for the main problem which produces output such as illustrated in Figures 1(a)-(b). In particular, our algorithm produces:

- (arbitrarily small) isolated certified boxes each containing a unique saddle, source or sink;
- certified initial and terminal intervals (on the boundary of saddleboxes), each of which is guaranteed to contain a unique point corresponding to a stable or unstable separatrix;
- disjoint certified funnels (strips) around each separatrix, each of which contains exactly one separatrix, and as close to the separatrix as desired.

The construction of the MS-complex of a gradient system $\nabla h$ consists of two main steps: constructing disjoint certified boxes for its singular points, and constructing disjoint certified strips (funnels) enclosing its separatrices. Singular points of the gradient system are computed by solving the system of equations $h_{x}(x, y)=0, h_{y}(x, y)=0$. This is a special instance of the more general problem of solving a generic system of two equations $f(x, y)=0, g(x, y)=0$. Here, generic means that the Jacobi matrix at any solution is non-singular (geometrically it means the two curves $f=0$ and $g=0$ intersect transversally). Section 3 presents a method to compute disjoint isolating boxes for all solutions of such generic systems of two equations in two unknowns. In Section 4 these boxes are refined further. Saddle-boxes are augmented with four disjoint intervals in their boundary, one for each intersection of the boundary with the stable and unstable separatrices of the enclosed saddle point. We also show that these intervals can be made arbitrarily small, which is crucial in the second stage of the algorithm. Sink- and source-boxes are refined by computing boxesnot necessarily axis-aligned-around the sink or source on the boundaries of which the gradient system is transversal (pointing into the sink-box and out of the source-box). This implies that all integral curves reaching (emerging from) such a refined sink-box (source-box) lie inside this box beyond (before) the points of intersection.

Having constructed isolating boxes for the critical points of the MS-function $h$, we isolate the two unstable (stable) separatrices of each saddle point by tracing them in forward (backward) direction to the sinks (sources) that are their destination (origin). Reliable techniques for this tracing step are not readily available. In the simplest case where $h$ is a polynomial (with rational coefficients), isolating the critical points can be done using known algebraic algorithms. But even in this restricted context integral curves are nonalgebraic, so computing isolating sets for separatrices is a problem. To do so, we turn the Euler method for tracing integral curves into a certified algorithm, applying quantitative error bounds on the Euler method from [14] to construct isolating strips for all separatrices. Section 5 describes the second stage of the algorithm, in which isolating strips (funnels) for the stable and unstable separatrices are constructed. The boundary curves of funnels enclosing an un-
stable separatrix are polylines with initial point on a saddle box and terminal point on a sink box. The gradient vector field is transversally pointing inward at each point of these polylines. The initial points of the polylines are connected by the unstable interval through which the separatrix leaves its saddle box, and, hence, enters the funnel. The terminal points of these polylines lie on the boundary of the same sink-box. See also Figure 6. Given this direction of the gradient system on the boundary of the funnel, the unstable separatrix enters the sink-box and tends to the enclosed sink, which is its destination. Although the width of the funnel may grow exponentially in the distance from the saddlebox, this growth is controlled in a known way. We exploit the computable (although very conservative) upper bound on this growth rate to obtain funnels that isolate separatrices from each other, and, hence, form a good approximation of the Morse-Smale complex together with the source- and sink-boxes. These upper bounds are also used to prove that the algorithm, which may need several subdivision steps, terminates. We have implemented this algorithm, using Interval Arithmetic. Section 7 presents sample output of our algorithm.

Remark. In this paper, the domain $\mathbb{D}$ of $h$ is a finite union of axis-aligned dyadic boxes. Furthermore, we (have to) assume that all stable and unstable separatrices of the saddle points are transversal to the boundary. Computationally this means that any sufficiently close approximation of these separatrices is transversal to the boundary as well.

### 1.3 Related Work

Milnor [18] provides a basic set-up for Morse theory. The survey paper [5], focusing on geometrical-topological properties of real functions, gives an excellent overview of recent works on MS-complexes. Originally, Morse theory was developed for smooth functions on smooth manifolds. Banchoff [4] introduced the equivalent definition of critical points on polyhedral surfaces. Many of the recent developments on MS-complexes are based on this definition. A completely different discrete version of Morse theory is provided by Forman [10].

Different methods for computation. In the literature there are two different method for computing the MorseSmale complexes: (a) boundary based approaches and (b) region based approaches. Boundary based methods compute boundaries of the cells of the MS-complex, i.e., the integral curves connecting a saddle to a source, or a saddle to a $\operatorname{sink}[24,3,9]$. On the other hand, watershed algorithms for image segmentation are considered as region based approaches [17]. Edelsbrunner et.al [9] computes the Morse-Smale complex of piecewise linear manifolds using a paradigm called Simulation of Differentiability. In higher dimensions they give an algorithm for computing Morse Smale complexes of piecewise linear 3-manifolds [8].

Morse-Smale complexes have also been applied in shape analysis and data simplification. Computing MS-complexes is strongly related to vector field visualization [12]. In a similar context, designing vector fields on surfaces has been studied for many graphics applications [26]. Cazals et.al. [6] applied discrete Morse theory to molecular shape analysis.

This paper contributes to the emerging area of Exact Numerical Algorithms for geometric problems [25]. Recent algorithms of this genre (e.g., $[21,16]$ ) are numerical subdi-
vision algorithms based on interval function evaluation and sign evaluation.

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

Our computational model ${ }^{1}$ has two simple foundations: (1) BigFloat packages and (2) interval arithmetic (IA) [19]. Together, these are able to deliver efficient and guaranteed results in the implementation of our algorithms. A BigFloat package is a software implementation of exact ring $(+,-, \times)$ operations, division by 2 , and exact comparisons, over the set $\mathbb{F}=\left\{m 2^{n}: m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ of dyadic numbers. In practice, we can use IEEE machine arithmetic as a filter for BigFloat computation to speed up many computation. Range functions form a basic tool of IA: given any function $F: \mathbb{R}^{m} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, a range function $\square F$ for $F$ computes for each $m$ - dimensional interval $I$ (i.e., an $m$-box) an $n$-dimensional interval $\square F(I)$, such that $F(I) \subset \square F(I)$. A range function is said to be convergent if the diameter of the output interval converges to 0 when the diameter of the input interval shrinks to 0 . Convergent range functions exist for the basic operators and functions, so all range functions are assumed to be convergent. Moreover, we assume that the sign of functions can be evaluated exactly at dyadic numbers. All our boxes are dyadic boxes, meaning that their corners have dyadic coordinates.

If $I=I_{x} \times I_{y}$ is a 2 D -interval (box) in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, the interval Jacobian determinant $\square \frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}$ is the $2 \times 2$ interval determinant given by

$$
\square \frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}(I)=\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\square \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(I) & \square \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(I) \\
\square \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(I) & \square \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}(I)
\end{array}\right|
$$

Proposition 1. (Interval Implicit Function Theorem, Snyder [22, 23]) Let $F: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a $C^{1}$-map with components $f$ and $g$. If $I \subset \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ is a box for which $0 \notin \square \frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}(I)$, then the system $f(x, y)=0, \quad g(x, y)=0$ has at most one solution in $I$.

## 3. ISOLATING BOXES FOR SINGULARITIES OF GRADIENT FIELDS

As a first step towards the construction of the MorseSmale complex of $h$ we construct disjoint isolating boxes for the singular points of $\nabla h$. To this end, we first show how to compute isolating boxes for the solutions of a generic system of two equations in two unknowns, which are confined to a bounded domain in the plane, which is a finite union of dyadic boxes. Applying this general method to the case in which the two equations are defined by the components of the gradient vector field $\nabla h$ we obtain isolating boxes for the singularities of this gradient field.

### 3.1 Certified solutions of systems of equations

We consider a system of equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=0, \quad g(x, y)=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f$ and $g$ are $C^{1}$-functions defined on a bounded axisparallel box $\mathbb{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$ with dyadic vertices. Furthermore, we

[^0]assume that the system has only non-degenerate solutions, i.e., the Jacobian determinant
$$
\frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}:=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}
$$
is non-zero at a solution $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. Geometrically this means that the curves $Z_{f}$ and $Z_{g}$, given by $f(x, y)=0$ and $g(x, y)=$ 0 , respectively, are regular near a point of intersection ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) and the intersection is transversal. Since $\mathbb{D}$ is compact, the system has finitely many solutions in $\mathbb{D}$.

Our goal is to construct a collection of axis-aligned boxes $\mathbb{B}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbb{B}_{m}$ and $\mathbb{B}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathbb{B}_{m}^{\prime}$ such that (i) box $\mathbb{B}_{i}$ is concentric with and strictly contained in $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$, (ii) the boxes $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ are disjoint, (iii) each solution of (1) is contained in one of the boxes $\mathbb{B}_{i}$, and (iv) each box $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ contains exactly one solution (contained inside the enclosed box $\left.\mathbb{B}_{i}\right)$. The box pair $\left(\mathbb{B}_{i}, \mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ is certified: $\mathbb{B}_{i}$ contains a solution, and $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ provides positive clearance to other solutions.
In fact, the sequence of boxes will satisfy the following stronger conditions:

1. The curves $Z_{f}$ and $Z_{g}$ each intersect the boundary of $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ transversally in two points.
2. There are disjoint intervals $\mathbb{I}_{i}^{0}(f), \mathbb{I}_{i}^{0}(g), \mathbb{I}_{i}^{1}(f)$ and $\mathbb{I}_{i}^{1}(g)$ in the boundary of $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ (in this order), where the first and the third interval each contain one point of intersection of $Z_{f}$ and $\partial \mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$, and the second and fourth interval each contain one point of intersection of $Z_{g}$ and $\partial \mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$.
3. The (interval) Jacobian determinant of $f$ and $g$ does not vanish on $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$, i.e., $0 \notin \square \frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}\left(\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}\right)$.

### 3.2 Construction of certified box pairs

We first subdivide the domain $\mathbb{D}$ into equal-sized boxes $\mathbb{I}$ (called grid-boxes), until all boxes satisfy certain conditions to be introduced now. For a (square, axis-aligned) box $\mathbb{I}$ let $N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ be the box obtained by multiplying box $\mathbb{I}$ from its center by a factor of $1+\varrho$, where $\frac{1}{2} \leq \varrho \leq 1$. We also denote $N_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ by $N(\mathbb{I})$; this is the box formed by the union of $\mathbb{I}$ and its eight neighbor grid-boxes. The algorithm subdivides $\mathbb{D}$ until all grid-boxes $\mathbb{I}$ satisfy $C_{0}(\mathbb{I}) \vee\left(C_{1}(\mathbb{I}) \wedge C_{2}(\mathbb{I})\right)$, where the clauses $C_{i}(\mathbb{I}), i=0,1,2$, are the following predicates:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
C_{0}(\mathbb{I}): & 0 \notin \square f(\mathbb{I}) \vee 0 \notin \square g(\mathbb{I}) \\
C_{1}(\mathbb{I}): & 0 \notin \square \frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)}(N(\mathbb{I})) \\
C_{2}(\mathbb{I}): & C_{2}(\mathbb{I}, f) \wedge C_{2}(\mathbb{I}, g),
\end{array}
$$

where

$$
C_{2}(\mathbb{I}, f)=\left\langle\square \frac{\nabla f}{\|\nabla f\|}(N(\mathbb{I})), \square \frac{\nabla f}{\|\nabla f\|}(N(\mathbb{I}))\right\rangle \geq \cos \frac{\pi}{30}
$$

If $C_{0}(\mathbb{I})$ holds, box $\mathbb{I}$ does not contain a solution, so it is discarded. The second predicate guarantees that $N(\mathbb{I})$ contains at most one solution. This is a consequence of Theorem 1. Condition $C_{2}(\mathbb{I})$ is a small angle variation condition, guaranteeing that the variation of the unit normals of the curves $Z_{f} \cap N(\mathbb{I})$ and $Z_{g} \cap N(\mathbb{I})$ do not vary too much, so these curves are regular, and even 'nearly linear' (the unit normal of $Z_{f}$ is the normalized gradient of $f$ ).

Remark 2. Condition $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ implies that there is a computable positive lower bound $\alpha(\mathbb{I})$ on the angle between $\nabla f(p)$ and $\nabla g(q)$ where $p, q$ range over the box $\mathbb{I}$. More
precisely, to compute $\alpha(\mathbb{I})$, we first compute a lower bound $L$ on the quantity $\frac{\partial(f, g)}{\partial(x, y)} \frac{1}{\|\nabla f\| \cdot\|\nabla g\|}$. This $L$ may be obtained by an interval evaluation of this quantity at $N(\mathbb{I})$; note that $L>0$ iff condition $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ holds. We define $\alpha(\mathbb{I})$ as $\arcsin (L)$.

Our algorithm will construct disjoint certified boxes surrounding a box $\mathbb{I}$. Since the surrounding boxes $N(\mathbb{I})$ and $N(\mathbb{J})$ of disjoint boxes $\mathbb{I}$ and $\mathbb{J}$ may intersect, we consider smaller surrounding boxes for a grid box $\mathbb{I}$. If $N(\mathbb{J}) \cap \mathbb{I}=\emptyset$, then $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ and $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{J})$ have disjoint interiors. This is a key observation with regard to the correctness of our algorithm.

Lemma 3. Let $\mathbb{I}$ be a box such that conditions $\neg C_{0}(\mathbb{I})$, $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ and $C_{2}(\mathbb{I})$ hold. Let $d$ be the length of its edges, and let $\frac{1}{2} \leq \varrho \leq 1$.

1. If $Z_{f}$ intersects $\mathbb{I}$, it intersects the boundary of $N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ transversally at exactly two points. At a point of intersection of $Z_{f}$ and an edge $e$ of $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ the angle between $Z_{f}$ and $e$ is at least $\frac{1}{15} \pi$.
2. If $\mathbb{I}$ contains a point of intersection of $Z_{f}$ and $Z_{g}$, then the points of intersection of $Z_{f}$ and $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ are at distance at least $2 \varrho d \tan \frac{1}{2} \alpha(\mathbb{I})$ from the points of intersection of $Z_{g}$ and $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$. On $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$, the points of intersection with $Z_{f}$ and with $Z_{g}$ are alternating.

If $f$ and $g$ are linear functions, the previous result is easy to check. The proof of the general case uses the small angle variation of $\nabla f$ and $\nabla g$. Note that this Lemma already establishes the existence and isolation of a solution of (1) in case we can certify that $Z_{f}$ and $Z_{g}$ intersect $\mathbb{I}$.

### 3.3 Towards an algorithm

For each grid-box $\mathbb{I}$, the algorithm calls one of the following:

- Discard ( $\mathbb{I}$ ), if it decides that $\mathbb{I}$ does not contain a solution. It marks box $\mathbb{I}$ as processed.
- ReportSolution(I). It returns the certified pair of boxes $\left(N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I}), N(\mathbb{I})\right)$, and marks all boxes contained in $N(\mathbb{I})$ as processed.

In the latter case a solution is found inside $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$, but, as will become clear later, it may not be contained in the smaller box $\mathbb{I}$. In view of $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ none of the grid-boxes in $N(\mathbb{I})$ contain a solution different from the one reported, so they are marked as being processed.

Decisions are based on evaluation of the signs of $f$ and $g$ at the vertices of the grid-boxes (or at certain dyadic points on edges of grid-boxes). An edge of a box is called bichromatic (monochromatic) for $f$ if the signs of the value of $f$ at its vertices are opposite (equal).

Algorithm, case 1: $\mathbb{I}$ has a bichromatic edge for $f$ and a bichromatic edge for $g$. Then $Z_{f}$ and $Z_{g}$ intersect $\mathbb{I}$, and, according to Lemma 3, part 1, both curves intersect the boundary of $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ transversally in exactly two points. For each of the two points in $\partial N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ the algorithm computes an isolating interval-called an $f$-intervalon $\partial N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ of length $\frac{1}{2} d \tan \frac{1}{2} \alpha(\mathbb{I})$. The two $g$-intervals are computed similarly. If the $f$ - and $g$-intervals are not interleaving, there is no solution of (1) in box $\mathbb{I}$ - even though there may be a solution in $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$-and $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$ is called.

This follows from Lemma 3, part 2. If the intervals are interleaving, then there is a point of intersection inside $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$, so the algorithm calls ReportSolution(II).

Algorithm, case 2: $\mathbb{I}$ contains no bichromatic edge for $f(g)$, and at least one bichromatic edge for $g$ ( $f$, respectively). We only consider the case in which all edges of $\mathbb{I}$ are monochromatic for $f$. Then the algorithm also evaluates the sign of $f$ at the vertices of the box $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$. If $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ has no disjoint bichromatic edges (as in the fourth and fifth configuration of Figure 2), the isocurve $Z_{f}$ does not intersect $\mathbb{I}$, so the algorithm calls $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$. To deal


Figure 2: Sign patterns of the box $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ enclosing the grid-box $\mathbb{I}$ with monochromatic edges for $f$. The three top configurations are ruled out by the small normal variation condition $C_{2}(\mathbb{I})$. The fourth, fifth and sixth configuration are all possible, but only in the sixth situation $Z_{f}$ may intersect the inner box.
with the remaining case, in which $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ has two disjoint bichromatic edges (as in the sixth configuration in Figure 2) we need to evaluate the sign of $f$ at certain dyadic points of these bichromatic edges.

To make this more precise, let $e$ be the edge of $\mathbb{I}$ closest to the (monochromatic) edge of $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ at whose vertices the sign of $f$ is the opposite of the sign of $f$ at the vertices of $\mathbb{I}$ (this is the bottom edge of the outer box in the sixth configuration of Figure 2). Let $l$ and $r$ be the points of intersection of the line through $e$ and the edges of the surrounding box $N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$, perpendicular to $e$. See also Figure 3. The intervals on the boundary of this surrounding box with length $\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}(1+\varrho) d$, centered at $l$ and $r$, respectively, are denoted by $L_{\varrho}(e)$ and $R_{\varrho}(e)$, where $d$ is the length of the edges of $\mathbb{I}$, and $\frac{1}{2} \leq \varrho \leq 1$.

Lemma 4. Let $\mathbb{I}$ be a box such that $\neg C_{0}(\mathbb{I}), C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ and $C_{2}(\mathbb{I})$ hold, and let $e$ be one of its edges. Let $\frac{1}{2} \leq \varrho \leq 1$. 1. If $Z_{f}$ intersects an edge $e$ of the boundary of $\mathbb{I}$ in at least two points, then it transversally intersects $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ in exactly two points, one in each of the intervals $L_{\varrho}(e)$ and $R_{\varrho}(e)$. 2. If $Z_{f}$ intersects $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ in the intervals $L_{\varrho}(e)$ and $R_{\varrho}(e)$, then these intersections are transversal, and $Z_{f}$ intersects $\partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$ at exactly two points, one in each of these intervals.

Algorithm, case 2 (cont'd). By evaluating the signs of $f$ at the (dyadic) endpoints of the interval $L_{\varrho}(e)$ and $R_{\varrho}(e)$ the algorithm decides whether they contain a point of intersection with $Z_{f}$. If at least one of these intervals


Figure 3: Intervals containing points $Z_{f} \cap \partial N_{\varrho}(\mathbb{I})$.
is disjoint from $Z_{f}$, then $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$ is called. Otherwise, the algorithm computes isolating $f$ - and $g$-intervals of length $\frac{1}{2} d \tan \frac{1}{2} \alpha(I)$. As in case 1, the algorithm calls ReportSoLUtion (II) if these intervals are interleaving, and Discard( $\mathbb{I}$ ) otherwise.

Algorithm, case 3: all edges of $\mathbb{I}$ are monochromatic for both $f$ and $g$. Again, let $e$ be the (unique) edge of $\mathbb{I}$ closest to the edge of $N_{1 / 2}(\mathbb{I})$ which is monochromatic for $f$, at whose vertices the sign of $f$ is the opposite of the sign of $f$ at the vertices of $\mathbb{I}$. Edge $e^{\prime}$ of $\mathbb{I}$ is defined similarly for $g$.
Case 3.1: $e=e^{\prime}$. In this case $Z_{f}$ or $Z_{g}$ does not intersect $\mathbb{I}$. Indeed, if $Z_{f}$ intersects $\mathbb{I}$, it intersects $e$ in at least two points, so there is a point $p \in Z_{f}$ at which $\nabla f(p)$ is perpendicular to $e$. Condition $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ guarantees that $\nabla g$ is nowhere parallel to $\nabla f(p)$, so $Z_{g}$ does not intersect $e$, and, hence, does not intersect $\mathbb{I}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$ is called. Case 3.2: $e \neq e^{\prime}$. If $Z_{f}$ does not intersect $L_{\varrho}(e)$ or $R_{\varrho}(e)$, or if $Z_{g}$ does not intersect $L_{\varrho}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$ or $R_{\varrho}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$, then, as in case 2, the algorithm calls $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$. Otherwise, $L_{\varrho}(e)$ or $R_{\varrho}(e)$ are isolating $f$-intervals which are disjoint from the isolating $g$-intervals $L_{\varrho}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$ or $R_{\varrho}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$. If $e$ and $e^{\prime}$ are perpendicular, then these $f$ - and $g$-intervals are interleaving, and, hence, ReportSolution( $\mathbb{I}$ ) is called. Otherwise, there is no solution in $\mathbb{I}$, so $\operatorname{Discard}(\mathbb{I})$ is called.

### 3.4 Refinement: disjoint surrounding boxes

We would like distinct isolating boxes $\mathbb{I}, \mathbb{J}$ to have disjoint surrounding boxes $N(\mathbb{I}), N(\mathbb{J})$. There is a simple way to ensure this: we just use the predicate $C_{1}(N(\mathbb{I}))$ instead of $C_{1}(\mathbb{I})$ in the above subdivision process. Then, if the interior of $N(\mathbb{I}) \cap N(\mathbb{J})$ is non-empty, we can discard any one of $\mathbb{I}$ or J.

## 4. COMPUTING SOURCE-, SADDLE- AND SINK-BOXES

Using the previous method we construct disjoint isolating boxes $\mathbb{B}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathbb{B}_{m}^{\prime}$ for the singularities of $\nabla h$, which are refined further to facilitate the construction of the MS-complex.

Each saddlebox is augmented by computing four disjoint intervals in its boundary, one for each intersection of a stable or unstable separatrix with the box boundary. See the leftmost picture in Figure 4. These isolating separatrix intervals can be made arbitrarily small. These intervals are constructed as the intersection of disjoint stable and unstable wedges along the boundary of which the gradient vector field is pointing outward and inward, respectively. Therefore, these wedges enclose the stable and unstable separatrices, respectively. In the full paper we show how the width of these wedges can be made arbitrarily small, provided the saddlebox satisfies some additional (computable) criteria.

Inside each source- and sink-box we construct a box on
the boundary of which the $\nabla h$ is pointing outward or inward, respectively. These boxes are contained in the sourceand sinkboxes constructed in the previous section, but are not necessarily axes-aligned. They are aligned with approximations of the (orthogonal) eigenvectors of the Hessian of $h$ at the center of the source- or sinkbox, however. See the rightmost picture in Figure 4.


Figure 4: Left: The unstable wedge $C_{\beta}^{u}$ enclosing the unstable separatrix, and the stable wedge $C_{\beta}^{s}$ enclosing the stable separatrix. The gradient vector field $\nabla h$, represented by solid arrows, is transversally pointing inward along the boundary of the unstable wedge, and outward along the boundary of the stable wedge. At points of the unstable wedge boundary the vector field $X_{\beta}$ is (anti)parallel to the unstable eigenvector $V^{u}$ of the Hessian of $h$ at the center of the box, so $\nabla h$ makes an angle $-\beta$ with $V^{u}$ or $-V^{u}$ there. Right: Sink-/source-boxes, nearly aligned with the eigenvectors of the Hessian matrix of $h$ at the center of the box, at the boundaries of which $\nabla h$ is transversal (pointing inward/outward).

## 5. ISOLATING FUNNELS AROUND SEPARATRICES

We continue by constructing certified funnels around separatrices inside the region $\mathbb{D}^{*}=\mathbb{D} \backslash \cup_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$, where $\mathbb{B}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathbb{B}_{m}^{\prime}$ are the boxes isolating the singular points of $\nabla h$. If the forward orbits of the endpoints of an unstable separatrix interval have the same sink of $\nabla h$ as destination, these forward orbits bound a region around the unstable separatrix leaving the saddle box via this unstable segment. This region is called a funnel for the separatrix (this terminology is borrowed from [14]). We now describe how to construct a certified funnel for an unstable separatrix. For each isolating unstable separatrix interval $\mathbb{J}$ on the boundary of a saddle box we construct two polylines $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ and $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ as follows. The initial points of these polylines are the endpoints of $\mathbb{J}, q_{-}$and $q_{+}$, where $q_{-}$comes before $q_{+}$in the counterclockwise orientation of the boundary of the saddle box. The polyline $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ is uniquely defined by requiring that its vertices $q_{+}=p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}$ lie on grid edges, with the property that
(1) The line segment $p_{i-1} p_{i}, 0<i \leq n$, lies in a (closed) grid box of $\mathbb{D}$, and has direction $X_{\vartheta}\left(p_{i-1}\right)$, and
(2) $p_{n}$, the last vertex, lies on the boundary of $\mathbb{D}$.

Here $X_{\vartheta}$ is the vector field obtained by rotating the vector field $X=\nabla h$ over an angle $\vartheta$, i.e.,

$$
X_{\vartheta}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \vartheta & -\sin \vartheta \\
\sin \vartheta & \cos \vartheta
\end{array}\right)\binom{h_{x}}{h_{y}} .
$$

See Figure 5 (Right). The polyline $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ is defined similarly. The polylines $L_{ \pm \vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ are called fences of the (unique) unstable separatrix of $\nabla h$ intersecting $\mathbb{J}$.
It is not hard to see that that a grid box contains at most two consecutive edges of each of these polylines, but it is not obvious a priori that each box cannot contain more than two edges of each polyline in total. It follows from the next result that the intersection of a grid box with any of these polylines is connected, and, hence, that these polylines are finite.

### 5.1 Small angle variation

We subdivide the region $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ into square boxes over which the angle variation of $\nabla h$ is at most $\vartheta$, where $\vartheta$ is to be determined later. If $X=(f, g)$ is a vector field on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, then the angle variation over a regular curve $\Gamma$ is given by [2, Section 36.7]: $\int_{\Gamma} \frac{g d f-f d g}{f^{2}+g^{2}}$. If $X=\nabla h$, this angle variation is equal to

$$
\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\left(h_{x} h_{x y}-h_{y} h_{x x}\right) d x+\left(h_{x} h_{y y}-h_{y} h_{x y}\right) d y}{h_{x}^{2}+h_{y}^{2}} .
$$

The next result gives an upper bound for the size of gridboxes such that the angle variation of $\nabla h$ over any box in $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ is less than $\vartheta$. It also provides a construction of a 'box-wise' funnel around integral curves of $\nabla h$.

Lemma 5. Let $C_{0}$ be a constant such that

$$
\max _{\mathbb{D}^{*}}\left(\left|\frac{h_{x} h_{x y}-h_{y} h_{x x}}{h_{x}^{2}+h_{y}^{2}}\right|,\left|\frac{h_{x} h_{y y}-h_{y} h_{x y}}{h_{x}^{2}+h_{y}^{2}}\right|\right) \leq C_{0}
$$

and let $0<\vartheta<\frac{\pi}{2}$, and let the width $w$ of grid-boxes in $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ satisfy $w \leq \frac{\vartheta}{2 C_{0} \sqrt{2}}$. Then

1. The angle variation of $\nabla h$ on any gridbox is less than $\vartheta$. 2. Let $p$ be a point on an edge of a gridbox, and let $q_{\vartheta}\left(q_{-\vartheta}\right)$ be the point on the boundary of the gridbox into which $X_{\vartheta}(p)$ $\left(X_{-\vartheta}(p)\right)$ is pointing, such that the line segment $p q_{\vartheta}\left(p q_{-\vartheta}\right)$ has direction $X_{\vartheta}(p)\left(X_{-\vartheta}(p)\right)$. See Figure 5. Then $\nabla h$ is pointing rightward along the (directed) line segment $p q_{\vartheta}$ and leftward along $p q_{-\vartheta}$.
2. The function $h$ is strictly increasing on the line segments $p q_{\vartheta}$ and $p q_{-\vartheta}$.


Figure 5: Left: The orientation of $\nabla h$ with respect to $X_{\vartheta}(p)$ does not change over a grid box. Right: A funnel formed by two polylines covered by two vertical $\varepsilon$-strips, one $\varepsilon$-box and three horizontal $\varepsilon$-strips. Here $\varepsilon$ is six times the width of a grid box. $L_{+\vartheta}$ intersects the $\varepsilon$-box in a single edge, which is quasivertical but not quasihorizontal. All edges of $L_{-\vartheta}$ inside the $\varepsilon$-box are quasivertical as well (and some of them are also quasihorizontal). $\nabla h$ points inward, and the enclosed separatrix (not shown) runs from left to right.
The third property will be crucial for constructing fences around separatrices that cross each grid-box at most once.

### 5.2 Fencing in the separatrices

For each isolating unstable separatrix interval $\mathbb{J}$ on the boundary of a saddle box we construct two polylines (called fences) $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ and $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ as follows. The initial points of these polylines are the endpoints $q_{-}$and $q_{+}$of $\mathbb{J}$, where $q_{-}$ comes before $q_{+}$in the counterclockwise orientation of the boundary of the saddle box. The polyline $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ is uniquely defined by requiring that its vertices $q_{+}=p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}$ lie on grid edges, with the property that (i) the line segment $p_{i-1} p_{i}, 0<i \leq n$, lies in a (closed) grid box of $\mathbb{D}^{*}$, and has direction $X_{\vartheta}\left(p_{i-1}\right)$, and (ii) $p_{n}$, the last vertex, lies on the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^{*}$. The polyline $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ is defined similarly with respect to $q_{-}$and $X_{-\vartheta}$. If the endpoints of the fences $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ and $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ lie on the same connected component of the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^{*}$, then these fences split $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ into two connected regions. See Figure 6. In this case, the region


Figure 6: Fences around a separatrix $\gamma$. If the fences end in the same connected component of the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^{*}$, and enclose a simply connected region in $\mathbb{D}^{*}$, then this region isolates the separatrix from the source-, sink- and saddle-boxes (rightmost picture). containing the separatrix interval $\mathbb{J}$ in its boundary is called the funnel of $\mathbb{J}$ (with angle $\vartheta$ ) denoted by $F_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$. Its boundary consists of $\mathbb{J}$, the two fences $L_{\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ and $L_{-\vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$, and a curve $\mathbb{J}^{*}$ on the boundary of $\partial \mathbb{D}$ connecting the endpoints of these fences. The fences $L_{ \pm \vartheta}(\mathbb{J})$ start from the endpoints of $\mathbb{J}$. New line segments are added until a fence hits the boundary of $\mathbb{D}^{*}$, or until the width of the enclosed funnel becomes larger than a positive number $\varepsilon$ (to be specified later). To define the width of a funnel more precisely, we distinguish quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts of a funnel, and show that the width of a funnel does not increase substantially at transitions between these quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts. A nonzero vector $v=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ is called quasihorizontal if $\left|v_{2}\right| \leq 2\left|v_{1}\right|$, and quasivertical if $\left|v_{1}\right| \leq 2\left|v_{2}\right|$. Note that each nonzero vector is quasihorizontal, quasivertical, or both. A horizontal $\varepsilon$-strip is the union of a sequence of boxes where successive boxes share a vertical edge, such that the horizontal edge of the rectangle thus obtained has length at most $\varepsilon$. A vertical $\varepsilon$-strip is defined similarly. An $\varepsilon$-box is a square box with edge length at most $\varepsilon$ which is the union of a number of boxes.

The construction of a funnel is illustrated in Figure 5 (Right). If both initial segments of $L_{ \pm \vartheta}$ are quasihorizontal (quasivertical), the width of the funnel (under construction) is measured in the vertical (horizontal) direction. As long as the width is less than $\varepsilon$, the funnel crosses the next vertical (horizontal) $\varepsilon$-strip by extending $L_{ \pm \vartheta}$ with one or two line segments. As soon as one of the new segments of $L_{\vartheta}$ or $L_{-\vartheta}$ ceases to be quasihorizontal (quasivertical), the funnel is extended through a square box of minimal width. Upon exit of this square box the edges of $L_{\vartheta}$ are both quasivertical (quasihorizontal). See Figure 5 (Right). This observation, together with a standard result from Dynamical Systems Theory [14, Theorem 4.4.1] on the growth of the deviation of the Euler approximation from the integral curve it approximates, yields the following (rather conservative) upper
bound on the growth of the funnel width of a separatrix having $M$ transitions between quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts (which are bounded by singularity-boxes or $\varepsilon$-boxes).

Lemma 6. Let $T$ be the (computable) edge length of $a$ bounding square of the domain $\mathbb{D}$ of $h$, and let $M$ be the total number of quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts of the polylines bounding a separatrix funnel. There are computable constants ${ }^{2} \vartheta_{0}, c_{1}, c_{2}$ and $C$, which only depend on $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ and $h$, such that the width of the funnel does not exceed $\left(c_{1} \vartheta+c_{2} w\right) e^{C M T}$, provided $\vartheta \leq \vartheta_{0}$. In particular, this width is at most $\varepsilon$ if $c_{1} \vartheta+c_{2} w \leq \varepsilon e^{-C M T}$.

## 6. CONSTRUCTING THE MS-COMPLEX

### 6.1 The algorithm

The construction of the MS-complex of $h$ is a rather straightforward application of the preceding results. It uses a parameter $M$, the (a priori unknown) number of transitions (at $\varepsilon$-boxes) between quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts of a funnel. Let $T$ be the edge length of a bounding square of the domain $\mathbb{D}$ of $h$. Then the algorithm performs the following steps.
Step 1. Construct certified isolating boxes $\mathbb{B}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathbb{B}_{m}^{\prime}$ for the singularities of $\nabla h$ (cf Section 3).
Step 2. Let $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ be the closure of $\mathbb{D} \backslash\left(B_{1}^{\prime} \cup \cdots \cup \mathbb{B}_{m}^{\prime}\right)$. Compute the constants $\vartheta_{0}, c_{1}, c_{2}$ and $C$, which depend only on $h$ and $\mathbb{D}^{*}$. Set $\varepsilon$ to the minimum of the width of the source-, sink- and saddle-boxes.
Step 3. Let $\vartheta$ and $w$ be such that $w \leq \frac{\vartheta}{2 C_{0} \sqrt{2}}, \vartheta \leq$ $\min \left(\frac{\pi}{40}, \vartheta_{0}\right)$, and $c_{1} \vartheta+c_{2} w \leq \varepsilon e^{-C M T}$ (cf Lemma 6). Subdivide $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ until all gridboxes have maximum width $w$. For each saddle box, compute four separatrix intervals on its boundary, of width at most $w$.
Step 4. For each stable and unstable separatrix interval do the following. Start the computation of a funnel for a separatrix by setting $M$ to a small number $M_{0}$ (say 4). Compute the fences $L_{-\vartheta}$ and $L_{\vartheta}$, keeping track of the width of the enclosed funnel under construction and of the number $m$ of transitions between quasihorizontal and quasivertical parts of this funnel.

If the width of the funnel exceeds $\varepsilon$ or the number of transitions $m$ exceeds $M$, then abort the computation of the current funnel, discard all funnels constructed so far, set $M$ to twice its current value and goto Step 3.

If the funnel intersects an already constructed funnel, or a source- or sinkbox on which it does not terminate (i.e., if only one of its fences intersects this box, as in the leftmost part of Figure 6, or it encloses such a box, as in the middle part), then set $\varepsilon$ to half its current value, discard all funnels constructed so far, and goto Step 3.

If the funnel intersects a saddlebox $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$, then decrease the size of $\mathbb{B}_{i}^{\prime}$ by a factor of two via subdivision, discard all funnels constructed so far, set $\varepsilon$ to half its current value, and goto Step 2. (Note that $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ gets larger, so the constants in Step 2 have to be recomputed.)

Otherwise, the fences end on the same component of the boundary of $\partial \mathbb{D}^{*}$, and the enclosed funnel is simply connected, and does not intersect any of the funnels constructed so far. See the rightmost part of Figure 6. Add the funnel

[^1]to the output, and reset $M$ to $M_{0}$ (and repeat until all separatrices have been processed).

### 6.2 Termination

Since the gradient field $\nabla h$ is a $2 D$ Morse-Smale system, its separatrices are disjoint. Their intersections with $\mathbb{D}^{*}$ are compact, and have positive distance (although this distance is not known a priori). In the main loop of the algorithm, the maximal funnel width $\varepsilon$ is bisected if funnels intersect, and saddleboxes intersected by the funnel are subdivided, so after a finite number of iterations of the main loop its value is less than half the minimum distance between any pair of distinct separatrices, and funnels stay clear from saddleboxes (apart from the one containing the origin or destination of the enclosed separatrix).

Separatrices that intersect $\partial \mathbb{D}$ do so transversally, cf. the remark at the end of Section 1.2. Therefore, after a finite number of subdivision steps, both fences around such separatrices will intersect $\partial \mathbb{D}$ transversally. Hence, eventually all funnels become disjoint, at which point the algorithm terminates after returning a topologically correct MS-complex for $\nabla h$.

## 7. IMPLEMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The algorithm has been implemented using the Boost library [1] for IA. All experiments have been performed on a 3 GHz Intel Pentium 4 machine under Linux with 1 GB RAM using the g++ compiler, version 3.3.5. Figures 1(a)(b) and 7(a)-(b) depict the output of our algorithm, for several Morse-Smale functions. In our implementation the parameter $\vartheta$, used in the construction of separatrix-funnels, is $\frac{\pi}{30}$, which is larger than the theoretical bound given by Lemma 6. The algorithm halves this angle several times, depending on the input, until the funnels are simply connected, mutually disjoint, and connect a saddle-box to a source-box (for stable separatrices) or sink-box (for unstable separatrices), in which case a topologically correct MScomplex has been computed. Each of the funnels with deep black boundaries contains an unstable separatrix, whereas a funnel with light black boundaries contains a stable separatrix. The CPU-time for computing a MS-system increases with the number of critical points and the complexity of the vector field, as indicated in the captions of the figures.

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(a) Contour plot (left) and MS-Complex (right) of $h(x, y)=-10 x^{2}+x^{4}+10 y^{2}-y^{4}+x+x y^{2}$, on the box $[-4,3.5] \times[-4,3.5]$. CPU-time: 11 seconds.

(b) Contour plot (left) and MS-complex (right) of a product of seven linear functions, on the box $[-7,7] \times[-7,7]$. CPU-time: 11.5 minutes.

Figure 7: Contour plots of MS-functions and their Morse-Smale complexes.
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## APPENDIX

## A. MATHEMATICAL BACKGROUND

Morse functions. A function $h: \mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a Morse function if all its critical points are non-degenerate. The Morse lemma [18] states that near a non-degenerate critical point $a$ it is possible to choose local co-ordinates $x, y$ in which $h$ is expressed as $h(x, y)=h(a) \pm x^{2} \pm y^{2}$. Existence of these local co-ordinates implies that non-degenerate critical points are isolated. The number of minus signs is called the index $i_{h}(a)$ of $h$ at $a$. Thus a two variable Morse function has three types of non-degenerate critical points: minima (index 0 ), saddles (index 1) and maxima (index 2).
Integral curves. An integral curve $\mathbf{x}: I \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ passing through a point $p_{0}$ on $\mathcal{D}$ is a unique maximal curve satisfying: $\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)=\nabla h(\mathbf{x}(t)), \quad \mathbf{x}(0)=p_{0}$, for all $t$ in the interval $I$.


Figure 8: Morse-Smale complex

Integral curves corresponding to the gradient vector field of a smooth function $h: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ have the following properties:

1. Two integral curves are either disjoint or same.
2. The integral curves cover all the points of $\mathcal{D}$.
3. The integral curves of the gradient vector field of $h$ form a partition of $\mathcal{D}$.
4. The integral curve $\mathbf{x}(t)$ through a critical point $p_{0}$ of $h$ is the constant curve $\mathbf{x}(t)=p_{0}$.
5. The integral curve $\mathbf{x}(t)$ through a regular point $p$ of $h$ is injective, and if $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}(t)$ or $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} x(t)$ exists, it is a critical point of $h$. This implies integral curves corresponding to gradient vector field are never closed curves.
6 . The function $h$ is strictly increasing along the integral curve of a regular point of $h$.
6. Integral curves are perpendicular to the regular level sets of $h$.

Stable and unstable manifolds. Consider the integral curve $x(t)$ passing through a point $p$. If the limit $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{x}(t)$ exists, it is called the $\omega$-limit of $p$ and is denoted by $\omega(p)$. Similarly, $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \mathbf{x}(t)$ is called the $\alpha$-limit of $p$ and is denoted by $\alpha(p)$ - again provided this limit exists. The stable manifold of a singular point $p$ is the set $W^{s}(p)=\{q \in \mathcal{D} \mid$ $\omega(q)=p\}$. Similarly, the unstable manifold of a singular point $p$ is the set $W^{u}(p)=\{q \in \mathcal{D} \mid \alpha(q)=p\}$. Here we note that both $W^{s}(p)$ and $W^{u}(p)$ contain the singular point $p$ itself [13].

Now, the stable and unstable manifolds of a saddle point are 1-dimensional manifolds. A stable manifold of a saddle point consists of two integral curves converging to the saddle point. Each of these integral curves (not including the saddle point) are called the stable separatrices of the saddle point. Similarly, an unstable manifold of a saddle point consists of two integral curves diverging from the saddle point and each of these integral curves (not including the saddle point) are called the unstable separatrices of the saddle point.

The Morse-Smale complex. A Morse function on $\mathcal{D}$ is called a Morse-Smale (MS) function if its stable and unstable separatrices are disjoint. In particular, a Morse-Smale function on a two-dimensional domain has no integral curve connecting two saddle points, since in that case a stable separatrix of one of the saddle points would coincide with an unstable separatrix of the other saddle point. The MS-complex associated with a MS-function $h$ on $\mathcal{D}$ is the subdivision of $\mathcal{D}$ formed by the connected components of the intersections $W^{s}(p) \cap W^{u}(q)$, where $p, q$ range over all singular points of $h$. If $\mathcal{D}=\mathbb{R}^{2}$, then, according to the Quadrangle Lemma [9],
each region of the MS-complex is a quadrangle with vertices of index $0,1,2,1$, in this order around the region.

Stability of equilibrium points. We note that a gradient vector field of a MS-function $h: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ can have three kinds of equilibria or singular points, namely, sinks (corresponding to maxima of $h$ ), saddles (saddles of $h$ ) and sources (corresponding to minima of $h$ ). These singular points can be distinguished based on the local behavior of the integral curves around those points. Locally, a sink has a neighborhood, which is a stable 2-manifold. Similarly, locally a source has a neighborhood, which is an unstable 2-manifold. Locally, a saddle has a stable 1-manifold and an unstable 1-manifold crossing each other at the saddle point. A sink is called a stable equilibrium point, where as a source or a saddle is called unstable equilibrium point. We note that, a source corresponding to a MS-function $h$ is a sink corresponding to the function $-h$.

## B. THE CONSTANTS IN LEMMA 6

A gridbox is called quasihorizontal (quasivertical) if it contains a point at which $\nabla h$ is quasihorizontal (quasivertical). Again, a gridbox may be both quasihorizontal and quasivertical.

An integral curve of $\nabla h$ in a quasihorizontal gridbox $\left[x_{0}, x_{1}\right] \times$ [ $\left.y_{0}, y_{1}\right]$ is the graph of a function $x \mapsto y(x)$, where $y(x)$ is a solution of the ODE $y^{\prime}(x)=F(x, y(x))$, with $y\left(x_{0}\right)=y_{0}$, where $F(x, y)=\frac{h_{y}(x, y)}{h_{x}(x, y)}$. Here $x$ ranges over the full interval $\left[x_{0}, x_{1}\right]$ if $y_{0} \leq y(x) \leq y_{1}$. Otherwise, the range of $x$ is restricted to a suitable maximal subinterval $\left[\xi_{0}, \xi_{1}\right]$, such that $\left(\xi_{0}, y\left(\xi_{0}\right)\right)$ and $\left(\xi_{1}, y\left(\xi_{1}\right)\right)$ are points on the boundary of the gridbox. Similarly, a trajectory of $X_{\vartheta}$ in a quasihorizontal gridbox $\left[x_{0}, x_{1}\right] \times\left[y_{0}, y_{1}\right]$ is the graph of a function $x \mapsto y(x)$, where $y(x)$ is a solution of the ODE
$\frac{d y}{d x}=F_{\vartheta}(x, y)$, with $F_{\vartheta}=\frac{h_{x} \sin \vartheta+h_{y} \cos \vartheta}{h_{x} \cos \vartheta-h_{y} \sin \vartheta}$.
The next result provides an upper bound for the growth of the funnel width along a quasihorizontal part of its bounding polylines. We assume that the funnel runs from left to right, so its initial points are on the line with smallest $x$ coordinate. If the funnel runs from right to left, a similar result is obtained.

Lemma 7. Let $y_{\vartheta, w}, y_{-\vartheta, w}:[a, b] \rightarrow[c, d]$ be the piecewise linear functions the graphs of which are quasihorizontal parts of the polylines $L_{\vartheta}$ and $L_{-\vartheta}$ for a grid with edge length $w$, respectively. Let $\Delta$ be an upper bound for the distance of the initial points of these polylines, i.e., $\mid y_{\vartheta, w}(a)-$ $y_{-\vartheta, w}(a) \mid \leq \Delta$. The width of the fence bounded by $L_{\vartheta}$ and $L_{-\vartheta}$ is bounded:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|y_{\vartheta, w}(x)-y_{-\vartheta, w}(x)\right| \leq \Delta e^{C_{2}(x-a)}+ \\
& \quad\left(C_{0} w+C_{1} \sin \vartheta\right) \frac{e^{C_{2}(x-a)}-1}{C_{2}},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $C_{0}, C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are computable constants determined by $F$ and its first derivatives on the union of all quasihorizontal gridboxes.
A similar result holds for quasivertical trajectories.
Transitions: bounded increase of funnel width. Transition from a quasihorizontal to a quasivertical, or from a quasivertical to a quasihorizontal part of the funnel takes
place at an $\varepsilon$-box. If the width of the funnel at the 'entry' of the box is less than the width $w$ of a grid box, then the width may increase, but it will not be greater than $2 w$ at the exit. This is made more precise by the following result.

Lemma 8. Let $\mathbb{J}$ be a $\varepsilon$-box, where, moreover, the initial points $p$ and $q$ of $L_{\vartheta} \cap \mathbb{J}$ and $L_{-\vartheta} \cap \mathbb{J}$, respectively, are on the boundary of the gridboxes containing the vertices of edge $e$ of $\mathbb{J}$. If the distance between $p$ and $q$ is at least $w$, then the distance between the terminal points $\bar{p}$ and $\bar{q}$ of $L_{\vartheta} \cap \mathbb{J}$ and $L_{-\vartheta} \cap \mathbb{J}$, respectively, is less than the distance of $p$ and $q$. If the distance between $p$ and $q$ is less than $w$, then the distance of $\bar{p}$ and $\bar{q}$ is at most $2 w$.

Proof. Assume that the first edge of $L_{\vartheta}$ is quasivertical, but not quasihorizontal. Edge $e$ of $\mathbb{J}$ is then vertical. Assume that this polyline consists of a single edge, namely the line segment $p \bar{p}$. Let $\beta_{+}$be the angle between $p \bar{p}$ and edge $e$, then


Figure 9: The distance between the two polylines upon entry and exit of a box. Left: If the distance $d$ between the initial points $p$ and $q$ of the polylines is less than the edge-length $w$ of a grid box, then the distance $\bar{d}$ between the terminal points $\bar{p}$ and $\bar{q}$ is less than $2 w$. Right: Otherwise, the distance $\bar{d}$ between the terminal points is less than $d$.
$\arctan \frac{1}{2} \leq \beta_{+} \leq \vartheta+\arctan \frac{1}{2}$. Let $\beta_{-}$be the angle between the line segment $q \bar{q}$ and edge $e$, then $\beta_{-}$is in between the smallest and largest slope of any edge of $L_{-\vartheta}$. Since the angle variation of $X$ over $\mathbb{J}$ is less than $\frac{\pi}{20}$, the angle $\beta_{-}$ is greater than $\beta_{+}-\frac{\pi}{20}$. Let $a$ be the distance of $p$ to the nearest vertex of $e$, then $a \leq w$. If $d \geq w$, the distance $\bar{d}$ between $\bar{p}$ and $\bar{q}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\bar{d} & =(d+a) \tan \beta_{-}-a \tan \beta_{+} \\
& \leq d \tan \left(\beta_{+}+\frac{\pi}{20}\right)+a\left(\tan \left(\beta_{+}+\frac{\pi}{20}\right)-\tan \beta_{+}\right) \\
& <\frac{3}{4} d+\frac{1}{4} a \leq d
\end{aligned}
$$

since $a \leq w \leq d$. Here we used $\tan \beta_{+} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ to get

$$
\tan \left(\beta_{+}+\frac{\pi}{20}\right)=\frac{\tan \beta_{+}+\tan \frac{\pi}{20}}{1-\tan \beta_{+} \tan \frac{\pi}{20}} \leq \frac{\frac{1}{2}+\tan \frac{\pi}{20}}{1-\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{\pi}{20}} \leq \frac{3}{4}
$$

Since $\arctan \frac{1}{2}-\frac{\pi}{40} \leq \arctan \frac{1}{2}-\vartheta \leq \beta_{+} \leq \arctan \frac{1}{2}$, a short computation shows that $\tan \left(\beta_{+}+\frac{1}{20} \pi\right)-\tan \beta_{+}<\frac{1}{4}$.

If $d<w$, then $q$ lies in the same gridbox as $p$, or in a gridbox adjacent to it. Then it is easy to see that $\bar{p}$ lies in the same grid box as $p$, and $\bar{q}$ also lies in this box, or in a box adjacent to it. Therefore, $\bar{d} \leq 2 w$ in this case. If $L_{-\vartheta}$ consists of a single edge, then the argument is similar.

Lemmas 7 and 8 provide the necessary tools for the proof of Lemma 6. We refer to the full version [7] for a proof.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Appendix A for additional details.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ See Appendix B for a precise definition of these constants, and for a sketch of the proof of Lemma 6.

