

Ch.6 - Planar graphs

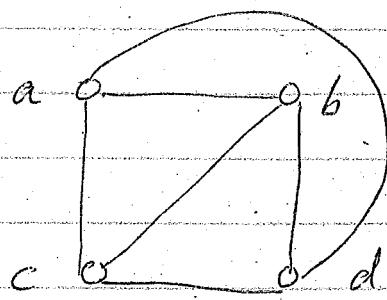
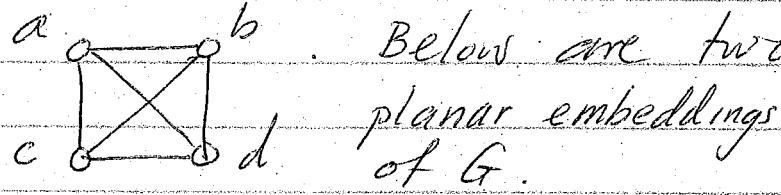
(1)

§1 Euler's Planarity formula & other properties of planar graphs

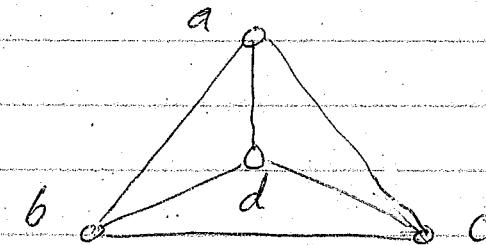
Recall that a multi-graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ can be represented geometrically as a subset of the plane \mathbb{R}^2 by using small disks for the vertices in V and arcs joining two disks to represent the edges of E .

Def. A ^{multi-}graph G is said to be planar if we can find a representation of it in the plane in which no two edges intersect. Such a representation $E(G)$ is called a planar embedding of G .

Ex. 1 let $G = K_4 = \begin{array}{c} a \\ o \\ \square \\ o \\ b \end{array}$. Below are two



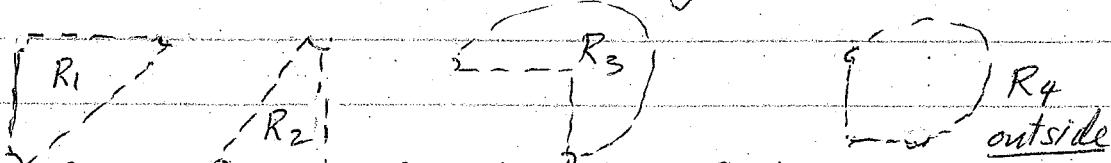
$E_1(G)$



$E_2(G)$

Def. Let $E(G)$ be a planar embedding of G . Then $\mathbb{R}^2 - E(G)$ will be a union of a finite number of connected open subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 . Each of these open connected subsets is called a region of $E(G)$.

Ex. 2



The four regions of $E_1(G)$ from Ex. 1.

Although the size and orientation of the regions depend on the embedding $E(G)$, the number of regions depends only on G and not on the particular embedding, as we will shortly see. (2)

Theorem 1 (Euler's planarity formula):

Let $r_E(G)$ = the number of regions into which the planar embedding $E(G)$ partitions \mathbb{R}^2 . If G is connected, then $r_E(G) = |E(G)| + 2 - |V(G)|$, for any E .

Proof: We will prove the result by parametrized induction on $q = |E(G)|$. First fix $p = |V(G)|$. Since G is connected, $q \geq p-1$.

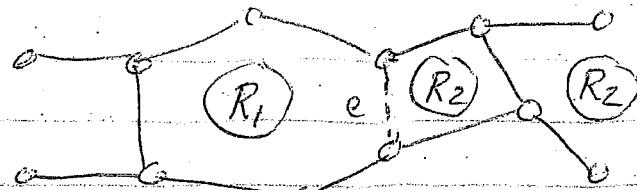
Basis: If $q = p-1$, then G is a connected multi-graph with $p-1$ edges. So G must be a tree and hence $r_E(G) = 1$, for any planar embedding $E(G)$. Since

$$1 = (p-1) + 2 - p$$

it follows that $r_E(G) = |E(G)| + 2 - |V(G)|$. So the result is true for $q = p-1$ and for any E .

Ind. Step. Suppose the result is true for all multi-graphs with q edges (where $q \geq p-1$) and for any E . Let G be a connected graph with $q+1$ edges and $E(G)$ be any planar embedding of G . Since G has $q+1$ edges & $q \geq p-1$, G cannot be a tree. So G must have at least one cycle, C say. Let e be any edge in C and put $G' = G - \{e\}$. Since the removal of e will reduce the number of regions

$E(G)$:



(3)

of $E(G)$, we have $r_E(G') = r_E(G) - 1$ & $|E(G')| = |E(G)| - 1$.
Also $V(G) = V(G')$ & $r_E(G') = |E(G')| + 2 - V(G')$ by
the induction hypothesis. So

$$\begin{aligned}r_E(G) &= r_E(G') + 1 \\&= \{|E(G')| + 2 - |V(G')|\} + 1 \\&= \{|E(G)| - 1\} + 2 - \{|V(G)|\} + 1 \\&= |E(G)| + 2 - |V(G)|.\end{aligned}$$

So, if the result is true for q , it will be true for $q+1$. Hence by the Principle of Mathematical Induction, the result is true for all q . Since p was arbitrary, it is also true for all p .
Hence the result is true for all planar multi-graphs.

Notation: Since $r_E(G)$ does not depend on the particular embedding $E(G)$ that we use, we will denote it by just $r(G)$. We will also use $g(G)$ for $|E(G)|$ and $p(G)$ for $|V(G)|$.

Corollary 2 (Euler's Generalized Planarity formula.)

Let G be any planar graph & k = number of connected components of G . Then:

$$r(G) = g(G) + (k+1) - p(G).$$

Proof: Let G_1, \dots, G_k be the k connected components of G and $E(G)$ be any planar embedding of G .

Then for each $i=1, \dots, k$ $r(G_i) = g(G_i) + 2 - p(G_i)$.

$$\text{So } \sum_{i=1}^k r(G_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k q(G_i) + \sum_{i=1}^k 2 - \sum_{i=1}^k p(G_i). \quad (4)$$

But the infinite region is counted k times (instead of just once) in the sum $\sum_{i=1}^k r(G_i)$. So

$$r(G) + (k-1) = q(G) + 2k - p(G)$$

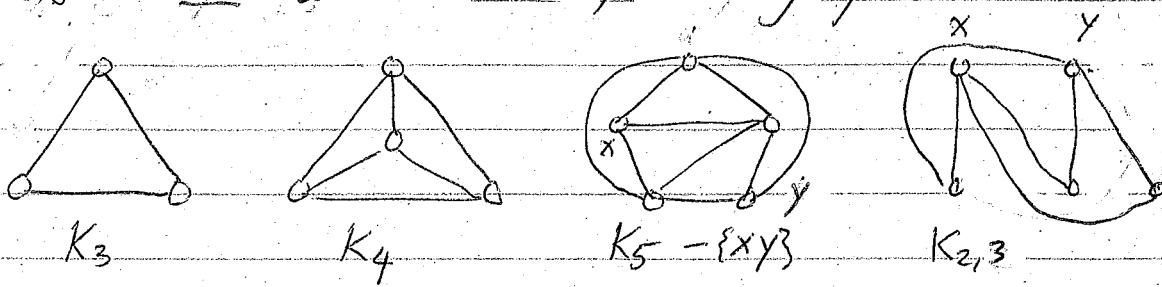
$$\text{Hence } r(G) = q(G) + (k+1) - p(G).$$

Def. A maximal planar graph is any planar graph G such that $G \vee \{xy\}$ is non-planar for any pair of non-adjacent vertices x & y in G .

Ex. 3(a) K_3 & K_4 are maximal planar graphs.

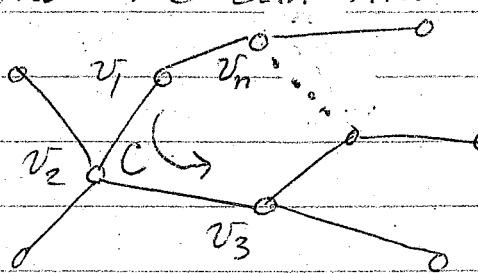
(b) $K_5 - \{\text{any edge}\}$ is a maximal planar graph

(c) $K_{2,3}$ is not a maximal planar graph.



Prop. 3 Let G be a maximal planar graph with $p \geq 3$ vertices and $E(G)$ be any planar embedding of G . Then each region of $E(G)$ is bounded by 3 edges.

Proof: Suppose $E(G)$ has a region which is bounded by ≥ 4 edges. Then we can find a region



which is bounded by a cycle $C = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_n, v_1 \rangle$.

(5)

There are two cases:

Case (i) $v_1, v_3 \in E(G)$. In this case the embedding of the edge v_1, v_3 must be outside the cycle C . But this means that v_1, v_2 is prevented from being an edge in $E(G)$. So we can embed the edge v_1, v_2 inside the cycle C and hence contradict the fact that G is maximal planar.

Case (ii) $v_1, v_3 \notin E(G)$. In this case v_1, v_3 are non-adjacent vertices and we can embed v_1, v_3 inside the cycle C — thereby contradicting the fact that G is maximal planar again. Hence every region of $E(G)$ is bounded by 3 edges.

Prop. 4 Let G be any graph with $p \geq 3$ & $q = |E(G)|$.

- (a) If G is maximal planar, then $q = 3p - 6$.
- (b) If G is planar, then $q \leq 3p - 6$.

Proof (a) Suppose G is maximal planar. Let $E(G)$ be any planar embedding of G & $r = r(G)$. Let A_1, \dots, A_r be the regions of $E(G)$. Since each region of A_i is bounded by 3 edges,

$3r = e(A_1) + \dots + e(A_r) = \text{number of edges counted} = 2q$, because each edge was counted exactly 2 times.

So $3r = 2q$. But $r = q + 2 - p$ by Euler's planarity formula. Hence $3(q + 2 - p) = 2q$.

$$\therefore 3q + 6 - 3p = 2q \Rightarrow q = 3p - 6.$$

(b) Let G be a planar graph. If we add edges, one at a time to G , we will get a maximal planar graph G' . So $q' (= q(G)) \leq q(G') = 3p(G') - 6 = 3p(G) - 6 \therefore q \leq 3p - 6$.

82. Non-planar graphs & Kuratowski's theorem. (6)

Corollary 5 K_5 is a non-planar graph.

Proof: Suppose K_5 was planar. Then by Prop 4(b) we will get $g(K_5) \leq 3p(K_5) - 6$. Since K_5 has 10 edges and 5 vertices, this means that $10 \leq 3(5) - 6$. So $10 \leq 9$ which is a contradiction. Hence K_5 is non-planar.

Prop. 6: If G is a ^{connected} planar bi-partite graph, then $g(G) \leq 2p(G) - 4$.

Proof: Let $E(G)$ be a planar embedding of G and $r = r(G)$. Since G is a bipartite graph, each cycle of G must have an even number of edges. Since G is a graph, we need at least 3 edges to form a cycle. So each region of $E(G)$ will be bounded by a cycle with at least 4 edges. Let A_1, \dots, A_r be the regions of $E(G)$. Then $e(A_i) \geq 4$ for each i .

$$\text{So } 4r \leq 4 + 4 + \dots + 4 \quad (\text{r times})$$

$$\leq e(A_1) + e(A_2) + \dots + e(A_r)$$

$$= \text{number of edges counted} = 2g.$$

$$\text{So } 4r \leq g. \quad \text{But } r = g + 2 - p. \quad \text{Hence}$$

$$2(g+2-p) \leq g \Rightarrow 2g + 4 - 2p \leq g \Rightarrow g \leq 2p - 4,$$

Corollary 7: $K_{3,3}$ is a non-planar graph.

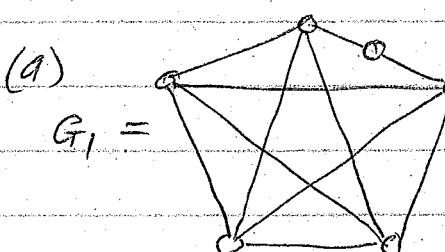
Proof: Suppose $K_{3,3}$ was planar. Then by Prop 6, $g(K_{3,3}) \leq 2p(K_{3,3}) - 4$. So $9 \leq 2(6) - 4$, i.e., $9 \leq 8$ which is a contradiction. Hence $K_{3,3}$ is non-planar.

Ques. When exactly is a graph non-planar? (7)

Ans. We know that if $g(G) > 3p(G) - 6$, then G is non-planar. Also if G is bipartite & $g(G) > 2p(G) - 4$, then G is also non-planar. But if $g(G) \leq 3p(G) - 6$, it does not follow that G is planar. Also if G is bipartite & $g(G) \leq 2p(G) - 4$, it does not follow that G is planar.

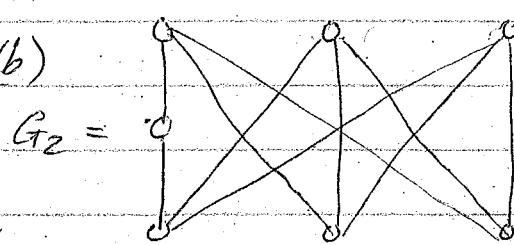
Ex.

(a)



$$G_1 =$$

(b)

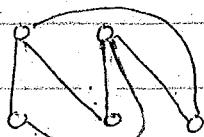


$$G_2 =$$

$$g(G_1) = 11 \leq 3(6) - 6 = 3p(G_1) - 6 \quad g(G_2) = 10 \leq 2(7) - 4 = 2p(G_2) - 4.$$

It is easy to see that if G_1 & G_2 were planar then K_5 & $K_{3,3}$ will be also be planar. So G_1 & G_2 are non-planar.

Since K_5 & $K_{3,3}$ are non-planar, any graph G that contains K_5 or $K_{3,3}$ as a subgraph (or something that "amounts" to being a subgraph) will be non-planar. So K_6, K_7, K_8, \dots and $K_{3,4}, K_{3,5}, \dots, K_{4,4}, K_{4,5}, \dots, K_{5,5}$ are all non-planar.



Ques. 2

(a) Is $K_{2,3}$ planar?

Yes.

(b) Is $K_{2,2,2}$ planar?

Yes. Do for H.W.

(c) Is $K_{2,2,3}$ planar?

No. $16 \not\leq 3(7) - 6$

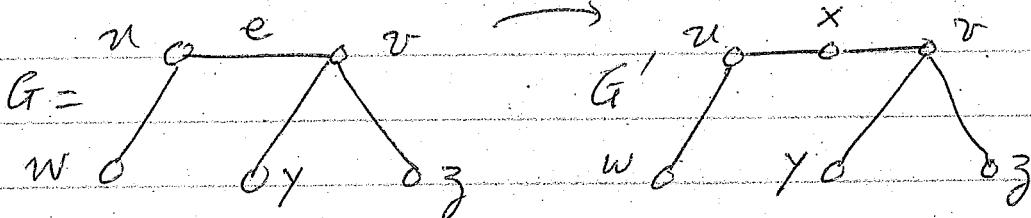
(d) Is $K_{2,2,2,2}$ planar?

No. $24 \not\leq 3(8) - 6$

(8)

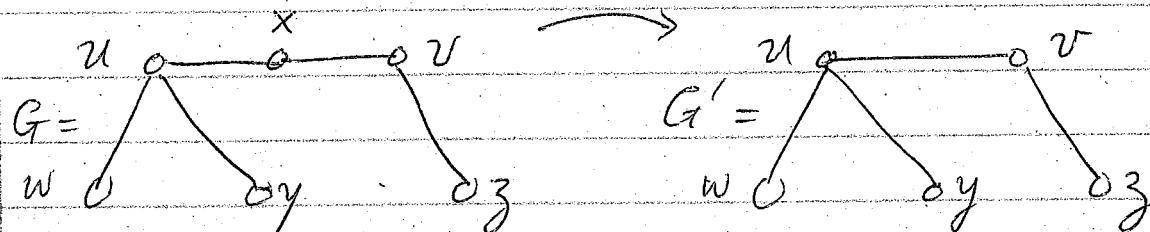
Def. Let $e=uv$ be an edge in a graph G . Then we can create a vertex of degree 2 on the edge e by adding a new vertex x to G , by adding the edges ux & xv , and by deleting the edge uv from G .

Ex.2

Def.

Let x be a vertex of degree 2 in a graph G . Then we can merge out the vertex x from G by deleting the vertex x and by adding a new edge between the two vertices that were adjacent to x in G .

Ex.3

Def.

Two graphs G & H are homeomorphic if we can transform G into H by creating vertices of degree 2 on certain edges of G or by merging out certain vertices of degree 2 in G .

Theorem 8 (Kuratowski's planarity theorem). G is planar
 $\Leftrightarrow G$ has no subgraph which is homeomorphic to K_5 or $K_{3,3}$.

Proof: (\Rightarrow) Suppose G is planar. Then G cannot contain any subgraph which is homeomorphic to K_5 or $K_{3,3}$ (otherwise K_5 or $K_{3,3}$ would be planar). (\Leftarrow): hard - see textbook

(9)

§3. The Demoucron, Malgrange & Pertuiset Planarity Algorithm

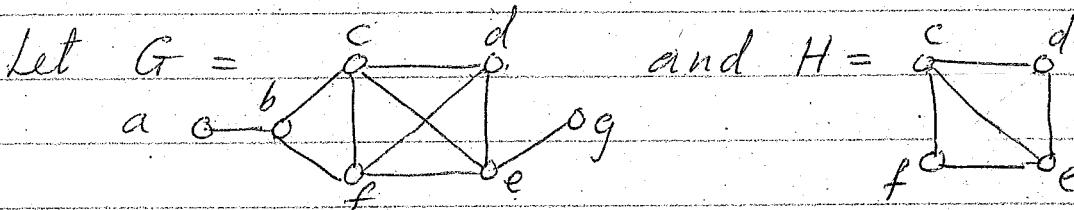
Def. Let G be a graph and H be a subgraph of G .

A piece of G relative to H is either

- (a) an edge $e = uv$ with $e \notin E(H)$ & $u, v \in V(H)$, or
- (b) a component C of $G - V(H)$ plus all the edges joining vertices of C to vertices of H .

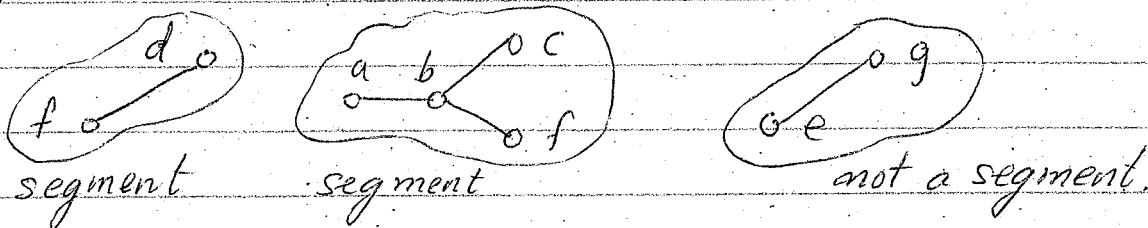
Def. Let P be a piece of G relative to H . If $v \in V(P) \cap V(H)$, we say that v is a contact vertex of P . If the piece P has 2 or more contact vertices, we say that P is a segment of G relative to H .

Ex. 1



Then $G - V(H) =$ So the

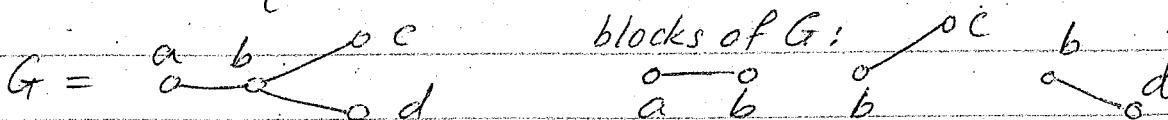
pieces of G relative are as shown below.

Def.

Recall that a cut-vertex of G is any vertex v of a connected graph such that $G - \{v\}$ is disconnected.

A connected graph with no cut-vertex is called a block (or connected block).

Ex. 2



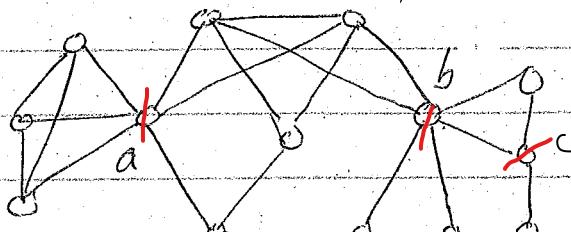
(10)

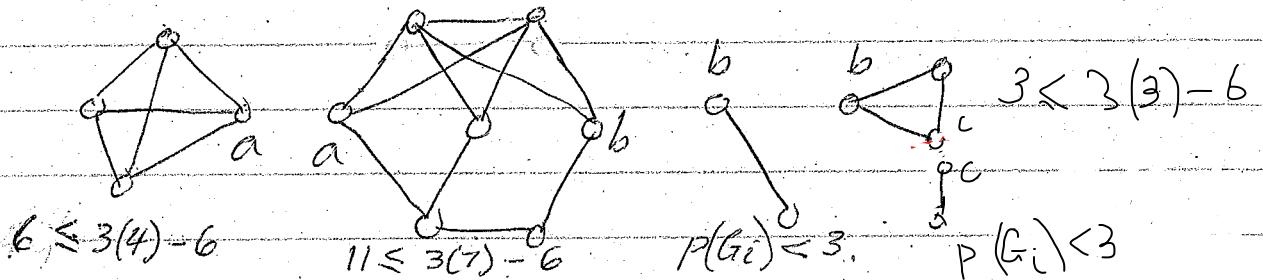
The DMP Planarity algorithm will take a connected block as input. So before we apply the algorithm we must first pre-process the graph, we are testing for planarity.

Pre-processing G for the DMP Planarity Algorithm

1. If G is not connected, then consider each component separately.
2. If a connected component has cut-vertices, then split the cut-vertices to get a set of blocks of G .
3. If $q(G_i) > 3p(G_i) - 6$ for any block (G_i) with $p(G_i) \geq 3$, then that block is non-planar & so G is non-planar.

Ex. 3

Let $G =$  Then the 5 blocks of G are shown below.



Algorithm 1 (The DMP Planarity algorithm)

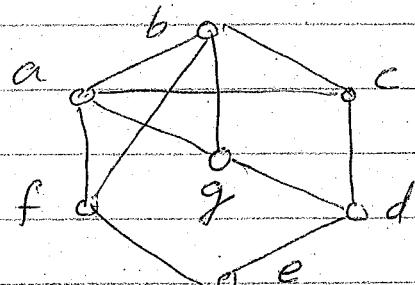
INPUT : A pre-processed block $G = \langle V, E \rangle$

OUTPUT : { A planar embedding of G , if G is planar
 { NON-PLANAR , if G is non-planar.

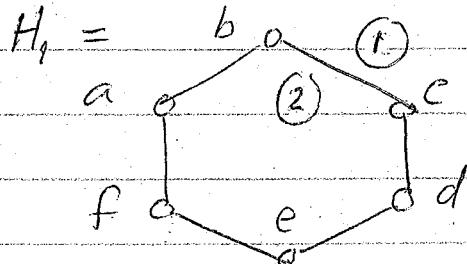
1. If G has no cycles, then G must be the tree K_2 and $\circ - \circ$ is a planar embedding of G & we are done.
 Otherwise, choose any cycle C in G . Let $i \leftarrow 1$, $r \leftarrow 2$, and $H_i \leftarrow$ a planar embedding of C .

- (11)
2. If $E(H_i) = E(G)$, STOP. Otherwise, find all the segments of G relative to H_i and for each segment S , let $R_i(S) \leftarrow$ the set of regions of H_i into which S can be compatibly embedded.
 3. If there is a segment S such that $R_i(S) = \emptyset$, then say NON-PLANAR and STOP;
If there is a segment S such that $|R_i(S)| = 1$, then let $R \leftarrow$ the unique region in $R_i(S)$;
Otherwise, choose any segment S and let $R \leftarrow$ any one of the regions in $R_i(S)$.
 4. Choose any path L in S which connects two contact vertices of S . Then let $H_{i+1} \leftarrow H_i \cup \{ \text{the embedding of } L \text{ in the region } R \}$, $i \leftarrow i+1$, $r \leftarrow r+1$, and go to step 2.

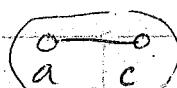
Ex. 3. Determine whether or not the graph on the right is planar.



Sol



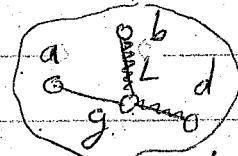
Segments of G relative to H_i



$$R_1(S) : \{1, 2\}$$

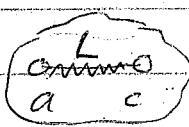
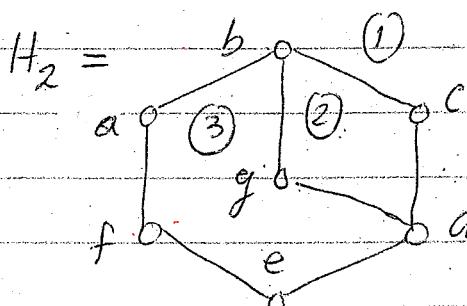


$$\{1, 2\}$$



$$\{1, 2\}$$

$\uparrow R$



$$R_2(S) : \{1\}$$



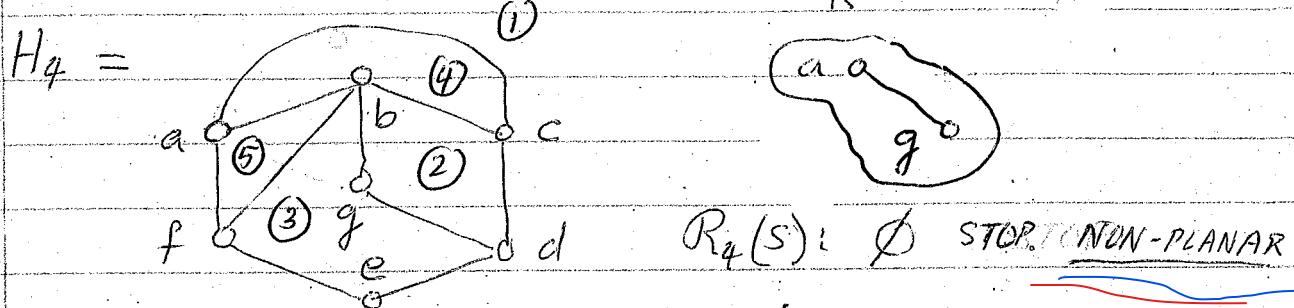
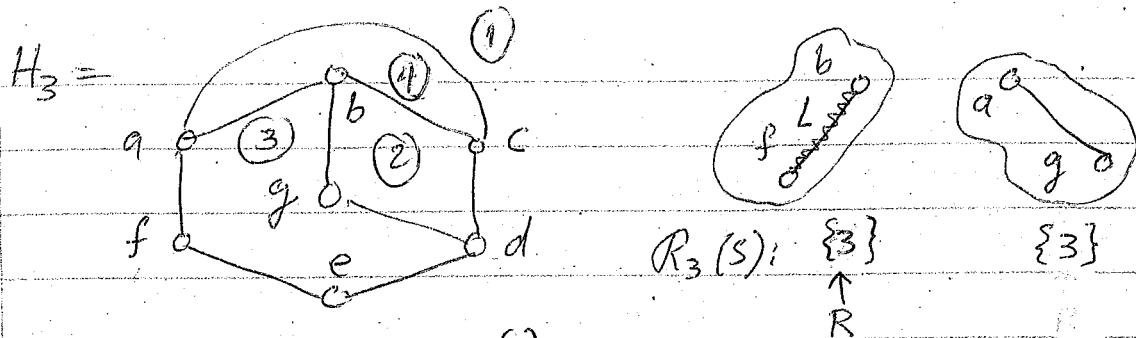
$$\{1, 3\}$$



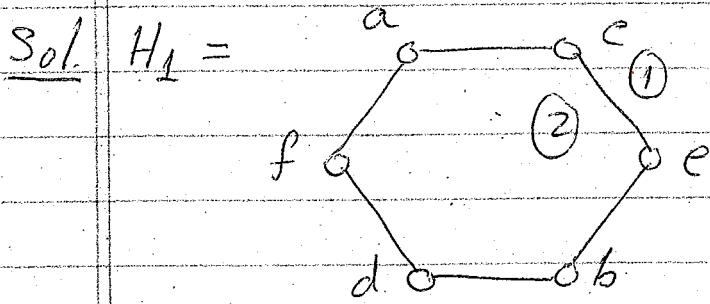
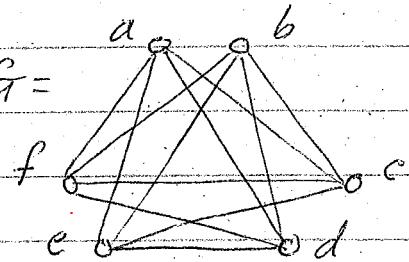
$$\{3\}$$

$\uparrow R$

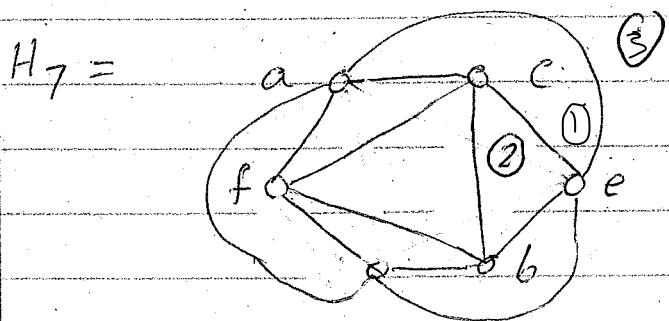
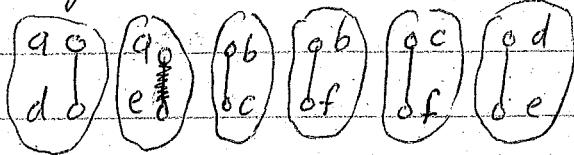
(12)



Ex. 4 Determine whether or not $K_{2,2,2}$ is planar.



Segments of G rel. to H_1



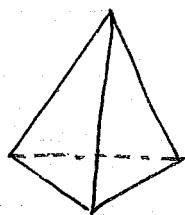
So $K_{2,2,2}$ is planar

§4. Polyhedral graphs & the geometric dual

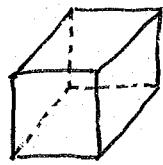
(13)

A polyhedron is a solid figure with plane polygonal faces that can be continuously distorted (transformed) into a solid sphere.

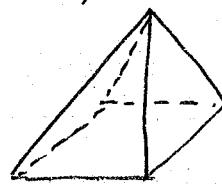
Ex.1 Some polyhedra (some textbooks call these simple polyhedra)



tetrahedron

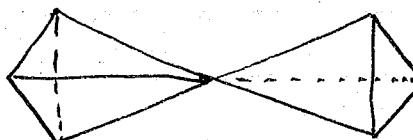


cube

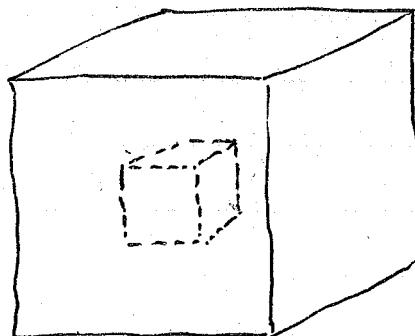


square based pyramid

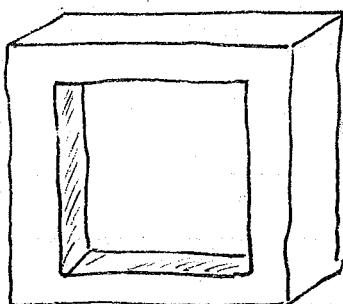
Ex.2 Some solids that are not polyhedra



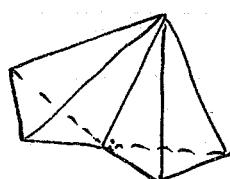
two tetrahedra joined at a vertex.



Large cube with a smaller cube hollowed out in the center.



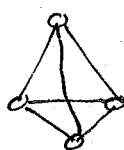
The picture frame.
(Solid cube with a hole drilled through front to back face)



Two tetrahedra welded together along an edge.

A polyhedral graph is any graph that can be obtained by considering the vertices and edges of a polyhedron as the vertices and edges of a graph.

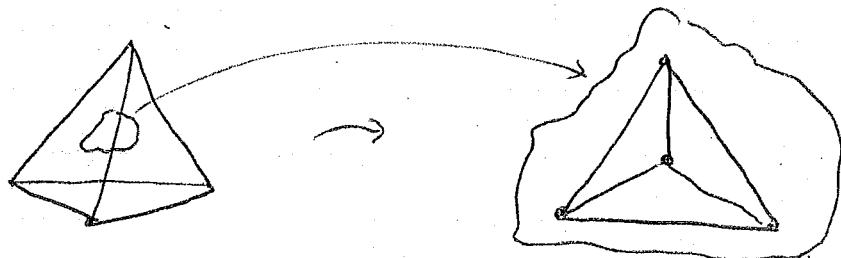
Ex 3



tetrahedral graph.

Prop 8 If G is a polyhedral graph, then G is planar and obviously connected

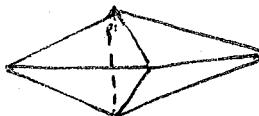
If G is a polyhedral graph, consider the polyhedron from which G was obtained. If we imagine that the polyhedron is hollow and we make a hole in one face and stretch the polyhedron onto the plane, we will get a planar embedding of G .



Def. A regular polyhedron is one in which each face is a fixed regular polygon and in which each vertex has the same no. of edges incident to it.

Ex 4. The tetrahedron and cube are regular.

Qu: Is



a regular polyhedron?

(15)

(assume each face is an equilateral triangle) - (NO)

Is it even a polyhedron? (YES)

Theorem 9: There are exactly 5 regular polyhedra.

Proof: Suppose P is a regular polyhedron. Then each face of P is a ^{fixed} regular polygon with k edges, say.

Let A_1, \dots, A_r be the faces of P . Then

$$e(A_1) + \dots + e(A_r) = 2g.$$

So $k \cdot r = 2g \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$

Also each vertex has a fixed number, l say, of edges incident to it. So the degree of each vertex is l . Now by the first theorem of graph Th., sum of degrees = 2 (no. of edges)

So $l \cdot p = 2g \quad \dots \dots \dots (2)$

Also by Euler's formula $r = g + 2 - p \quad \dots \dots \dots (3)$

Now from (1) we have $r = 2g/k$, and from (2) we have $p = 2g/l$. Substituting in (3) we get

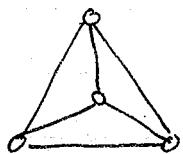
$$\frac{2g}{k} = g + 2 - \frac{2g}{l}$$

So $\frac{2g}{k} + \frac{2g}{l} = \frac{2g}{2} + \frac{2g}{g}$

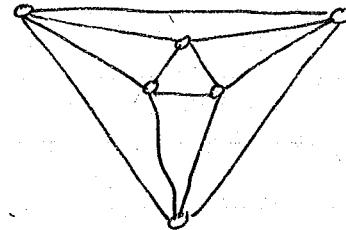
Hence $\frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{l} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{g} \quad \dots \dots \dots (4)$

Now we know that $k \geq 3$ (a polygon can't have less than 3 edges) and $l \geq 3$ (for the figure to be solid we need at least 3 edges at each vertex), and from (4) we get $\frac{k+l}{2} > \frac{5}{2}$. So the only possible values of k and l are given in the table below.

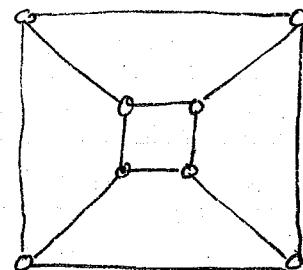
k	l	q	P	r	
3	3	6	4	4	tetra- hedron
3	4	12	6	8	octa - "
3	5	30	12	20	icosa - "
4	3	12	8	6	hexa - " = cube
5	3	30	20	12	dodeca - "



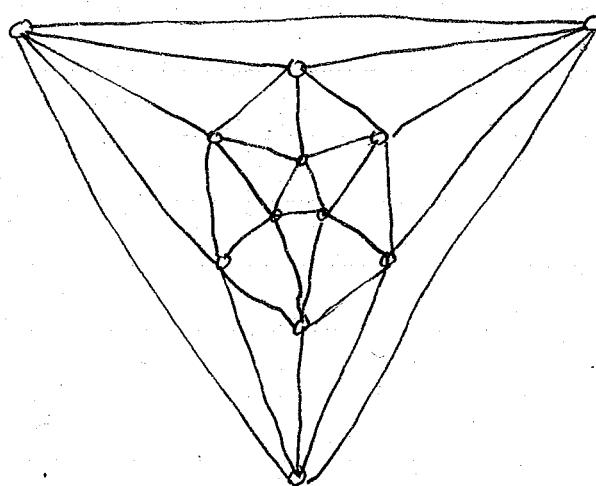
tetra -



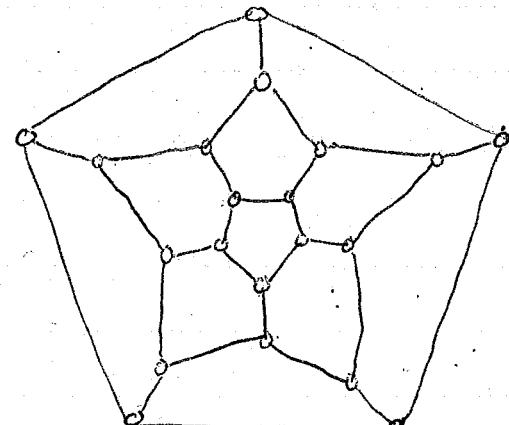
octa -



hexa -



icoso -



dodeca -

§5. The geometric dual & graphs on other surfaces

Def.

Let $E(G)$ be a planar embedding of a planar graph G . We define the geometric dual G_E^* of G by

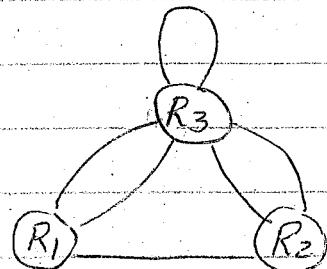
(a) $V(G_E^*)$ = set of the regions into which $E(G)$ partitions the plane \mathbb{R}^2 .

(b) For each edge e in $E(G)$ that is a common boundary of the regions R_1 & R_2 , we get an edge between R_1 & R_2 in G_E^* .

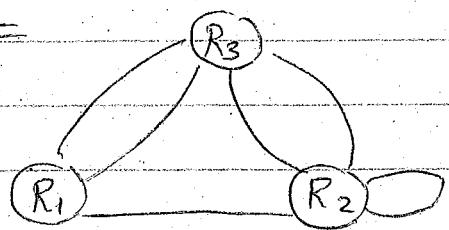
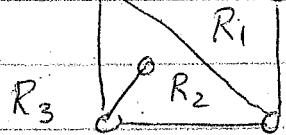
Ex. 1(a) Let $E(G) =$



Then $G_E^* =$



(b) Let $E'(G) =$



Note

From Ex. 1, it is clearly that G_E^* depends on the particular embedding of G that is selected.

In general, G_E^* will be a multi-pseudo-graph.

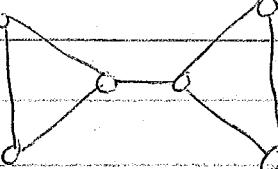
Qu. 1

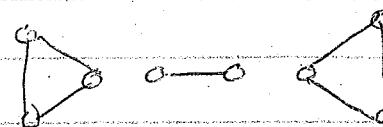
When is G_E^* independent of the embedding E ?

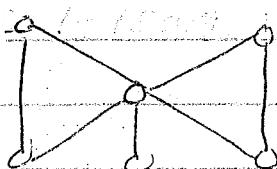
2. When is G_E^* guaranteed to be a graph?

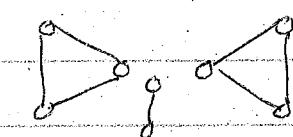
Def.

The graph G is 1-isomorphic to H if we can split G into blocks (by splitting its cut-vertices) and refit the blocks (by identifying pairs of vertices) to get H .

Ex.2 Let $G =$  . Blocks of G :

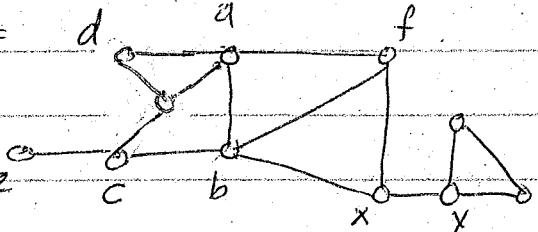


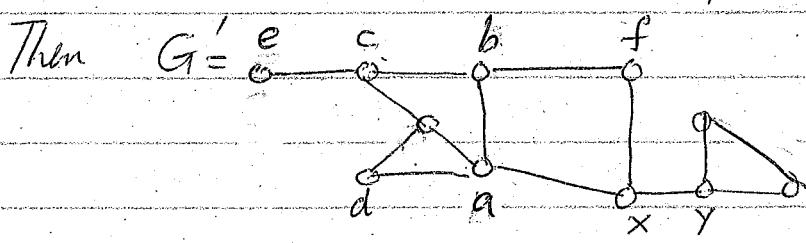
& $H =$  . Blocks of H :

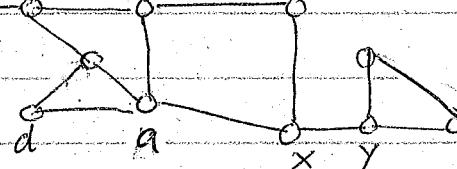


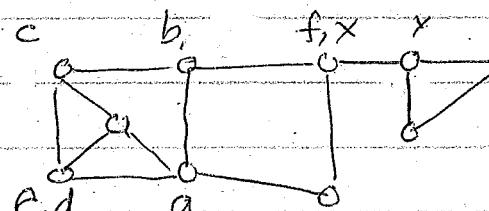
Then G is 1-isomorphic to H .

Def. The graph G is 2-isomorphic to H if by flipping around ~~any~~ portions of G (which can be separated by splitting two vertices), we can get a graph G' which is 1-isomorphic to H .

Ex3 Let $G =$  .



Then $G' =$ 

& if $H =$  , then G is 2-isomorphic to H .

Theorem 10: If G is a planar graph with $k_v(G) \geq 3$, then

- (a) G_E^* will be independent of the embedding E
- (b) G_E^* will always be a graph, See p. 11
- (c) $(G_E^*)^* \cong G$.

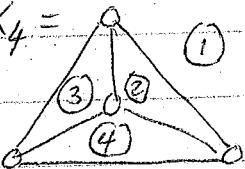
Def.

Let G be a graph with $\text{kr}(G) \geq 3$. Then G^* does not depend on E . So we will denote G^*_E by G^* . We say that G^* is self-dual if $G^* \cong G$.

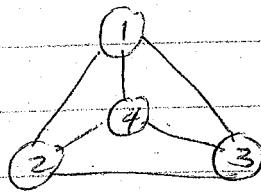
(19)

Ex.4

Let $G = K_4 =$



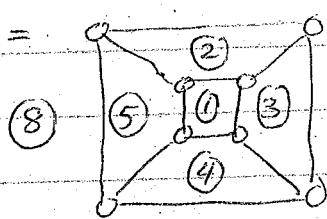
Then $G^* =$



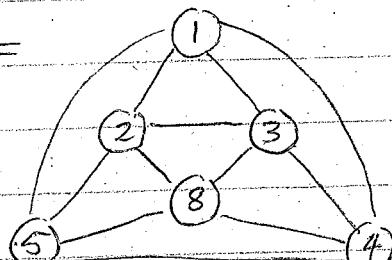
So K_4 is self-dual.

Ex.5

Let $G =$



Then $G^* =$



and $(G^*)^* \cong G$. So the geometrical dual of the cube graph is the octahedral graph & the geometrical dual of the octahedral graph is the cube graph.

Ex.6

Show that (icosahedral graph) $^* =$ dodecahedral graph and (dodecahedral graph) $^* =$ icosahedral graph.

Graphs on other surfaces

1.

A graph that can be embedded (with no edges crossing) on the surface of a sphere is called a spheroidal graph.

Fact 11 G is spheroidal $\Leftrightarrow G$ is planar

2.

A graph that can be embedded (with no edges crossing) on the surface of a torus is called a toroidal graph.

Fact 12: K_5 , $K_{3,3}$, $K_{3,4}$, K_6 & K_7 are all toroidal graphs.

Extra H.W. 1. Find the dual polyhedron to the hexahedron on p.15
2. Find two more self-dual planar graphs.