

Figure 2.15: Illustration of the two cases in [Theorem 2.26.](#page--1-0)

Case 2: C is induced and separating. Since C is induced and G is 3-connected, we must have  $G \setminus C \neq \emptyset$ . So  $G \setminus C$  contains two distinct components A and B. Choose vertices  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$  arbitrarily. Applying Menger's Theorem [\(Theorem 1.5\)](#page--1-1) on the 3-connected graph G, there exist three paths  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ , pairwise internally vertexdisjoint, from a to b. Let  $c_i$  be some vertex where  $\alpha_i$  intersects C, for  $1 \leq i \leq 3$ . Note that  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  exist because C separates A and B, and they are pairwise distinct because  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$  are pairwise internally (vertex-)disjoint. Therefore, {a, b} and  ${c_1, c_2, c_3}$  form branch vertices of a  $K_{2,3}$  subdivision in G. We can add a new vertex v inside f and connect it to each of  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  by three pairwise internally disjoint curves. The result would be a plane graph that contains a  $K_{3,3}$  subdivision. This contradicts Kuratowski's Theorem [\(Theorem 2.10\)](#page--1-2).

In both cases we arrived at a contradiction and so there does not exist such a cycle C. Thus  $\Phi_1$  and  $\Phi_2$  are equivalent. П

Whitney's Theorem does not provide a characterization of unique embeddability in general, as there are biconnected graphs with unique combinatorial plane embedding (such as cycles) as well as those with several, non-equivalent combinatorial plane embeddings (such as a triangulated pentagon).

Exercise 2.27. Describe a family of biconnected planar graphs with exponentially many combinatorial plane embeddings. That is, show that there exists a constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a biconnected planar graph on n vertices that has at least  $c^n$  different combinatorial plane embeddings.

## 2.4 Triangulating a Planar Graph

We like to study worst case scenarios not so much to dwell on "how bad things could get" but rather—phrased positively—because worst case examples provide universal bounds of the form "things are always at least this good". Most questions related to embeddings get harder when the graph contains more edges because every additional edge poses an increasing danger of crossing. So let us study the worst case: planar graphs such that adding any edge shall break its planarity. These graphs are called *maximal planar*. [Corollary 2.5](#page--1-3) tells us that every (hence also maximal) planar graph on n vertices has at most  $3n - 6$  edges. Yet we would like to learn a bit more about how these graphs look like.

## <span id="page-1-0"></span>**Lemma 2.28.** A maximal planar graph on  $n \geq 3$  vertices is biconnected.

*Proof.* Consider a maximal planar graph  $G = (V, E)$ . Note that G is connected because adding an edge between two distinct components of a planar graph maintains planarity. Now if G is not biconnected, then it has a cut-vertex v. Take a plane drawing Γ of G. As  $G \setminus v$  is disconnected, removal of v also splits  $N_G(v)$  into at least two components. Hence there are two vertices  $a, b \in N_G(v)$ , consecutive in the circular order around v in Γ, that are in different components of  $G \setminus v$ . In particular,  $ab \notin E$  and we can add this edge to G (routing it very close to the path  $(a, v, b)$  in Γ) without violating planarity. This is in contradiction to G being maximal planar, so G must be biconnected.  $\Box$ 

<span id="page-1-2"></span>**Lemma 2.29.** In any embedding of a maximal planar graph on  $n \geq 3$  vertices, all faces are topological triangles, that is, every face is bounded by exactly three edges.

*Proof.* Consider a maximal planar graph  $G = (V, E)$  and a plane drawing  $\Gamma$  of G. By [Lemma 2.28](#page-1-0) we know that G is biconnected and so by [Lemma 2.20](#page--1-4) every face of  $\Gamma$  is bounded by a cycle. Suppose that there is a face f in  $\Gamma$  bounded by a cycle  $(v_0, \ldots, v_{k-1}, v_k = v_0)$  of  $k \geq 4$  vertices. We claim that at least one of the edges  $v_0v_2$  or  $v_1v_3$  is not in E.

Suppose to the contrary that  $\{v_0v_2, v_1v_3\} \subseteq E$ . Then we can add a new vertex  $v'$  in the interior of f and connect it to each of  $v_0$ ,  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$  by a curve inside f without introducing a crossing. In other words, given G is planar, the graph  $G' = (V \cup \{v'\}, E \cup \{v'\nu_i : i \in I\})$  $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ) is also planar. However,  $v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v'$  are branch vertices of a K<sub>5</sub> subdivision in G':  $v'$  is connected to all other vertices within f, each vertex  $v_i$  is connected to both  $v_{(i-1) \mod 4}$  and  $v_{(i+1) \mod 4}$  along the boundary of f, and the two missing connections are provided by the edges  $v_0v_2$  and  $v_1v_3$  [\(Figure 2.16a\)](#page-2-0). This contradicts Kuratowski's Theorem. Therefore, one of the edges  $v_0v_2$  or  $v_1v_3$  must be absent from E, as claimed.

So assume without loss of generality that  $v_1v_3 \notin E$ . But then we can route a curve from  $v_1$  to  $v_3$  inside f in Γ without introducing a crossing [\(Figure 2.16b\)](#page-2-1). It follows that the edge  $v_1v_3$  can be added to G without sacrificing planarity, which is in contradiction to G being maximal planar. Therefore, there is no such face f bounded by four or more vertices.  $\Box$ 

<span id="page-1-1"></span>**Theorem 2.30.** A maximal planar graph on  $n \geq 4$  vertices is 3-connected.

Exercise 2.31. Prove [Theorem 2.30.](#page-1-1)

**Exercise 2.32.** (a) A minimal nonplanar graph is a non-planar graph G which contains an edge e such that  $G \setminus e$  is planar. Prove or disprove: Every minimal nonplanar graph contain an edge e such that  $G \setminus e$  is maximal planar.

<span id="page-2-1"></span><span id="page-2-0"></span>

Figure 2.16: Every face of a maximal planar graph is a topological triangle.

(b) A maximal-plus-one planar graph is a graph G that contains an edge e such that  $G \setminus e$  is maximal planar. Prove or disprove: Every maximal-plus-one planar graph can be drawn with at most one crossing.

Many questions about graphs are formulated only for connected graphs because it is easy to add edges to disconnected graphs and make them connected. For similar reason, many questions about planar embeddings are formulated only for maximal planar graphs because it is easy to augment planar graphs and make them maximal planar. Well, this last statement is not entirely obvious. Let us look at it in more detail.

An augmentation of a given planar graph  $G = (V, E)$  to a maximal planar graph  $G' = (V, E')$  where  $E' \supseteq E$  is also called a *topological triangulation*. The proof of [Lemma 2.29](#page-1-2) already contains the basic algorithmic idea to topologically triangulate a plane graph.

<span id="page-2-3"></span>**Theorem 2.33.** For a given connected plane graph  $G = (V, E)$  on n vertices one can compute in  $O(n)$  time and space a maximal plane graph  $G' = (V, E')$  with  $E \subseteq E'$ .

*Proof.* Suppose, for instance, that G is represented as a  $DCEL^2$  $DCEL^2$ , from which one can easily extract the face boundaries. As a clean-up, we walk along the boundary of each face. Whenever we see a vertex twice (or more), it must be a cut vertex. We fix this by adding an edge between its current predecessor and successor along the walk, and then continue the walk. Since the total number of traversed edges and vertices of all faces is proportional to  $|E|$ , which by [Corollary 2.5](#page--1-3) is linear, the clean-up finishes in  $O(n)$  time. Henceforth we may suppose that all faces of G are bounded by cycles.

Every face that is bounded by more than three vertices selects an arbitrary vertex on its boundary. Conversely, every vertex keeps a list of all faces that have selected it. Then we process every vertex  $v \in V$  as follows:

1. Mark all neighbors of  $\nu$ .

<span id="page-2-2"></span> $^{2}$ If you wonder how the possibly complicated curves are represented: they do not need to be, since here we need a representation of the combinatorial embedding only.

- 2. For each face f that selected v, scan its boundary  $\partial f = (v, v_1, \ldots, v_k)$  counterclockwise, where  $k \ge 3$ , and find the first marked vertex  $v_x \notin \{v_1, v_k\}$ .
	- If there is no such vertex, we can safely triangulate  $f$  using a star from  $v$ , that is, by adding the edges  $vv_i$ , for  $i \in \{2, ..., k-1\}$  [\(Figure 2.17a\)](#page-3-0). We then mark the new neighbors of  $\nu$  accordingly.
	- Otherwise, the edge  $vv_x$  as a curve embedded outside f prevents any vertex in  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_{x-1}\}$  from connecting to any vertex in  $\{v_{x+1}, \ldots, v_k\}$  by an edge in G. (The reasoning copies the one we made for the edges  $v_0v_2$  and  $v_1v_3$  in the proof of [Lemma 2.29](#page-1-2) above; see [Figure 2.16a.](#page-2-0)) So we can safely triangulate f using a bi-star from  $v_1$  and  $v_{x+1}$ , that is, by adding the edges  $v_1v_i$ , for  $i \in \{x+1,\ldots,k\}$ , and  $v_i v_{x+1}$ , for  $j \in \{2,\ldots,x-1\}$  [\(Figure 2.17b\)](#page-3-1).
- <span id="page-3-0"></span>3. After finishing all faces that seleted  $\nu$ , we conclude the processing of  $\nu$  by clearing all marks on its neighbors.





(a) Case 1: v does not have any neighbor on ∂f other than  $v_1$  and  $v_k$ .

<span id="page-3-1"></span>(b) Case 2: v has a neighbor  $v_x$  on ∂f other than  $v_1$  and  $v_k$ .

Figure 2.17: Topologically triangulating a plane graph.

Regarding the runtime bound, note that every face is visited only twice: one time when selecting its representative vertex, the other time when scanning its boundary. In this way, each edge is touched a constant number of times in step 2 overall. The marking/unmarking (steps 1 and 3) cost  $\sum_{v \in V} deg(v) = 2|E|$  time by the Handshaking Lemma. Therefore, the total time can be bounded by  $O(n + |F| + |E|) = O(n)$  by [Corollary 2.5.](#page--1-3)  $\Box$ 

Using any of the standard planarity testing algorithms we can obtain a combinatorial embedding of a planar graph in linear time. Together with [Theorem 2.33](#page-2-3) this yields:

**Corollary 2.34.** For a given planar graph  $G = (V, E)$  on n vertices one can compute in  $O(n)$  time and space a maximal planar graph  $G' = (V, E')$  with  $E \subseteq E'$ .  $\Box$ 

The results discussed in this section can serve as a tool to fix the combinatorial embedding for a given graph G: augment G using [Theorem 2.33](#page-2-3) to a maximal planar graph G′ , whose combinatorial embedding is unique by [Theorem 2.26.](#page--1-0)

Being maximal planar is a property of an abstract graph. In contrast, a geometric graph to which no straight-line edge can be added without crossing is called a triangulation. Not every triangulation is maximal planar, as the example depicted to the right shows.



It is also possible to triangulate a geometric graph in linear time. But this problem is much more involved. Triangulating a single face of a geometric graph amounts to what is called "triangulating a simple polygon". This can be done in near-linear<sup>[3](#page-4-0)</sup> time using standard techniques, and in linear time using Chazelle's famous algorithm, whose description spans a fourty pages paper [\[9\]](#page--1-5).

Exercise 2.35. We discussed the DCEL structure to represent plane graphs in [Sec](#page--1-6)[tion 2.2.1.](#page--1-6) An alternative way to represent an embedding of a maximal planar graph is the following: For each triangle, store pointers to its three vertices and to its three neighboring triangles. Compare both approaches. Discuss different scenarios where you would prefer one over the other. In particular, analyze the space requirements of both.

Connectivity serves as an important indicator for properties of planar graphs. Already Wagner showed that a 4-connected graph is planar if and only if it does not contain  $K_5$  as a minor. That is, assuming 4-connectivity the second forbidden minor  $K_{3,3}$  becomes "irrelevant". For subdivisions this is a different story. Independently Kelmans and Semour conjectured in the 1970s that 5-connectivity allows to consider  $K_5$  subdi-visions only. This conjecture was proven only recently<sup>[4](#page-4-1)</sup> by Dawei He, Yan Wang, and Xingxing Yu.

Theorem 2.36 (He, Wang, and Yu [\[18\]](#page--1-7)). Every 5-connected nonplanar graph contains a subdivision of  $K_5$ .

Exercise 2.37. Give a 4-connected nonplanar graph that does not contain a subdivision of  $K_5$ .

Another example that illustrates the importance of connectivity is the following famous theorem of Tutte that provides a sufficient condition for Hamiltonicity.

Theorem 2.38 (Tutte [\[32\]](#page--1-8)). Every 4-connected planar graph is Hamiltonian.

Moreover, for a given 4-connected planar graph a Hamiltonian cycle can also be computed in linear time [\[10\]](#page--1-9).

## 2.5 Compact Straight-Line Drawings

As a next step we consider geometric plane embeddings, where every edge is drawn as a straight-line segment. A classical theorem of Wagner and Fáry states that this is not a restriction to plane embeddability.

<span id="page-4-0"></span> $3O(n \log n)$  or—using more elaborate tools— $O(n \log^* n)$  time.

<span id="page-4-1"></span><sup>4</sup>The result was announced in 2015 and published in 2020.