# CMPSCI 575/MATH 5 I3 Combinatorics and Graph Theory 

Lecture \#4: Graph Planarity
(Tucker Section I.4)
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14 September 2016

## Graph Planarity

- Definitions and Motivation
- Coloring Maps and Graphs
- The Circle/Chord Method
- Kuratowski's Theorem: $\mathrm{K}_{5}$ and $\mathrm{K}_{3,3}$
- Euler's Theorem: $\mathrm{r}=\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{v}+2$
- Planar Graphs have e $\leq 3 v-6$
- Bipartite Planars have e $\leq 2 v-4$


## Definitions and Motivation

- A planar embedding of a graph is a diagram in the plane where no two edges cross.
- A planar graph is a graph for which some planar embedding exists. (A planar graph may have other drawings that do cross edges.)
- An electrical circuit is a graph, and for engineering reasons we don't want wires to cross in our design. Proving things about the class of planar graphs tells us about many naturally occurring graphs.


## Coloring Maps and Graphs

- To color a map, we pick a color for each region so that no two adjacent regions have the same color.
- We can convert this to a graph problem by making a node for each region and an edge for each boundary.



## Coloring Graphs

- We'll discuss later how 19th century mathematicians conjectured that every planar graph (and hence every map) can be 4-colored.
- We've already seen that a graph can be 2colored (is bipartite) if and only if it has no oddlength circuit.
- Testing 3-colorability is an NP-complete problem, either for general graphs or for planar graphs.


## Testing Planarity

- There are fast algorithms to input a graph, determine whether it is planar, and provide a planar embedding if it is. But they're a bit complicated for this course.
- Here we'll look at a method that suffices in practice to do this for small graphs. We'll also see two famous theorems about planarity, and prove one of them.


## The Circle/Chord Method

- Many of the graphs we want to consider have a circuit that contains all the vertices, also called a Hamiltonian circuit.
- If a graph with such a circuit has a planar embedding, then it must be possible to draw the graph with that circuit as a circle.
- Every other edge of the graph must then be a chord, connecting two vertices on the circle either inside it or outside.


## A Circle-Chord Example

- Here is a graph with 8 nodes and 12 edges. It has a Hamilton circuit a-f-c-h-d-g-b-e-a, in black.
- Redrawing the graph, we now have to place the four red edges.
We can put bf and cg in, and ah and ed out.



## Another Example

- This graph, called $K_{3,3}$, has 6 nodes and 9 edges. Hamilton circuit a-e-c-f-b-d is in black.

- But now we can't place the three red edges without crossing. If af goes in, cd must be out, and there is no place for be either in or out.



## Kuratowski's Theorem

- We've just seen that $K_{3,3}$ is a non-planar graph. In the same way we can show that $K_{5}$, the complete graph on five nodes, is non-planar.
- Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph "contains" either $K_{3,3}$ or $K_{5}$ in a certain way.
- A $K_{3,3}$ configuration is a $K_{3,3}$ where the edges have been subdivided into paths, and similarly for $K_{5}$ configurations. "Containing" $K_{3,3}$ means having a $K_{3,3}$ configuration as a subgraph.


## Kuratowski's Theorem

- Thus if we can find a $K_{3,3}$ or $K_{5}$ configuration in the graph, we know it is non-planar. In practice, most small non-planar graphs contain a $\mathrm{K}_{3,3}$ configuration, and the circlechord method is often able to find it.
- Exhaustively searching for such configurations gives a polynomial-time algorithm to test planarity, though there are better ones.


## Euler's Theorem: $\mathrm{r}=\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{v}+2$

- A cube has 6 faces, 8 vertices, and 12 edges. A dodecahedron has 12 faces, 20 vertices, and 30 edges. A tetrahedron has 4 faces, 4 vertices, and 6 edges. All satisfy the equation $r=e-v+2$, where $r$ is the number of faces.
- This rule works for any polyhedron (suitably defined) and, as we'll now see, for any planar embedding of a connected graph.
- Lakatos' Proofs and Refutations goes into the definition of a polyhedron starting from this theorem, in dialogue form.


## Proof of Euler's Theorem

- We'll prove the theorem by induction on the number of edges in the planar graph.
- The base case is $e=0$, forcing $v=I$ and $r=I$, since the whole plane is a region. This works because I = 0-I + 2 .
- If we add a new edge to a degree-I node, we add $I$ to $v$ and $e$ without changing $r$.
- If we connect two existing nodes by an edge, we add $I$ to $r$ and $e$ without changing $v$.


## $e \leq 3 v-6$ for Planar Graphs

- Define the degree of a region to be the number of edges surrounding it, counting an edge twice if the region is on both sides.
- Once we have more than one edge in a connected planar graph, every region (including the one outside the graph) must have degree at least 3. (No loops or parallel edges.)
- So $3 r \leq 2 e$, and $r \leq 2 e / 3$ together with $r=e-$ $v+2$ gives us $2 e / 3 \geq e-v+2$, or $e / 3 \leq v-2$, or finally e $\leq 3 \mathrm{v}-6$.

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e \leq 3 v-6
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- This tells us right away that $\mathrm{K}_{5}$ cannot be planar, since there $v=5$ and $e=10$, and $5>$ 3-5-6.
- But it doesn't rule out $K_{3,3}$ being planar, because there $v=6$ and $e=9$, and $9 \leq 3 \cdot 6$ 6 is true.
- It does justify our earlier claim that many natural graphs are sparse, since all planar graphs have $O(n)$ rather than $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ edges.


## Bipartite Planar Graphs

- Suppose now that we have a bipartite connected planar graph. Assuming we have more than one edge, the minimum degree of a region is now 4 , since the boundary of a region is a circuit and must have even length.
- So now $4 r \leq 2 e$, and $r=e-v+2$ gives us $e / 2$
$\geq e-v+2, e / 2 \leq v-2$, and $e \leq 2 v-4$.
- And now we see that $K_{3,3}$ cannot be planar because $v=6, e=9$, and $9>2 \cdot 6=4$.

