# A Simpler and Faster Torus Embedding Algorithm 

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## Abstract

A graph is embeddable on a surface $S$ if it can be drawn on $S$ with no crossing edges. A topological obstruction for a surface $S$ is a graph $G$ that does not embed on $S$, but for all edges $e$ in $G, G-e$ embeds on $S$. A minor order obstruction has the additional property that, for all edges $e, G \cdot e$ ( $G$ contract $e$ ) also embeds on $S$. Solving the well-studied problem of finding a complete set of obstructions for the torus is facilitated by having a large database of torus obstructions. With this in mind, we have designed a new exponential torus embedding algorithm inspired by Demoucron's $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ planar embedding algorithm. Although theoretically practical algorithms for torus embedding exist, they have not yet been successfully implemented. Our implementation of our new algorithm is faster than implementations of previous exponential algorithms that have been used to find torus obstructions.

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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

Graph theory can be used to model many tangible or abstract problems that involve connections between objects. In chemistry, for example, graphs have been used to model carbon molecules known as Fullerenes; in sociology, a graph can be used to model patterns of relationships within a population; and in electronic engineering, graphs model electronic circuitry. Whatever the application, it is frequently visually appealing and useful to see a drawing of the graph model that has few or, preferably, no edges that cross.

Graphs that can be drawn, or embedded, on the plane with no crossing edges are not only visually appealing: there are graph theory problems which are hard in the general case but have efficient solutions for planar graphs. Further, the interest in graph embedding is not limited to the plane. There are infinitely many surfaces for which we can find the "embeddable" graphs and knowledge of these graphs has the potential to further research in the field. In this thesis, we focus on the surface known as the torus, which is shaped like a doughnut.

Several efficient and practical algorithms for embedding graphs on the plane and at least one for the projective plane have been implemented. For the torus, however, although theoretically efficient algorithms exist, they are complex and as of yet only exponential algorithms which have practical limitations have been completely implemented. We introduce a new algorithm for embedding graphs on the torus that has been implemented and tested in a variety of ways. Although this new algorithm has exponential running time in the worst case, in comparison to previous algorithms it is conceptually simpler as well as faster in practice. It is feasible that this algorithm
and the insights gained during its development will play a role in finally concluding the search for all of the torus obstructions - a well-studied yet still open problem which would be a major breakthrough in topological graph theory.

### 1.1 Overview of Thesis

In Chapter 2 we provide definitions and concepts necessary for understanding the material and we present a more in-depth history of the relevant and related research that motivated this work. We introduce a generic embedding framework for embedding graphs on surfaces in Chapter 3. The new torus embedding algorithm that is the main subject of this thesis was inspired by the quadratic algorithm of Demoucron, Malgrange, and Pertuiset for embedding graphs on the plane [13]. Also in chapter 3, therefore, as a preface to the presentation of our algorithm, we explain how their algorithm fits into the generic framework.

In Chapter 4 we discuss the details of our new torus embedding algorithm, why it is more complex than the algorithm of Demoucron, Malgrange, and Pertuiset, why it has exponential instead of quadratic running time, and why it is correct. Chapter 5 presents timing comparisons between our new algorithm and a previous exponential algorithm that show significant improvements. Finally, Chapter 6 concludes this thesis by outlining possible approaches to enhancing our algorithm and using it to find all of the torus obstructions.

## Chapter 2

## Background

Elementary concepts and definitions in graph theory and their proofs can be found in introductory texts by West [35] and Bondy and Murty [7]. Archdeacon's survey of topological graph theory gives an excellent introduction to the study of graph embeddings [3]. More in-depth discussions can be found in Henle's book A Combinatorial Introduction to Topology [18] and in Mohar's and Thomassen's book Graphs on Surfaces [26]. Here we present basic definitions and key concepts pertinent to understanding the material presented in this thesis followed by a history of related and relevant work that provided motivation for this research.

### 2.1 Basic Graph Theory Definitions

A graph $G=\{V, E\}$ consists of a finite set $V$ of vertices and a finite set $E$ of edges where each edge $e=(u, v)$ of $E$ is associated with an unordered pair of vertices $u$ and $v$ from $V$. Vertices $u$ and $v$ are the endpoints of edge $e=(u, v)$ and edge $e$ is incident to a vertex $u$ if and only if $u$ is an endpoint of $e$. The neighbours of a vertex $u$ are the vertices $v$ such that $(u, v) \in E$. The degree of a vertex $u$ in a graph is the number of edges that are incident to $u$. The minimum degree of a graph $G$ is the minimum among the degrees of all of the vertices of $G$. An $r$-regular graph has only vertices with degree $r$. For this thesis, we consider only simple graphs which do not have multiple edges (more than one edge with the same pair of endpoints) or loops (edges of the form $(u, u)$ ). For conciseness throughout this thesis we let $n$ denote the number of vertices, or the order, of a graph and $m$ denote the number of edges, or the size, of a graph. When discussing running times we do so in terms of $n$, the number
of vertices. Thus $O(n)$ is linear time, $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is quadratic time, and so on.
To delete a vertex $v$ from a graph $G(\operatorname{denoted} G-v)$ is to remove $v$ and all edges incident to $v$ from $G$. To delete an edge $e=(u, v)$ from a graph $G(\operatorname{denoted} G-e)$ is to remove $e$ from $G$. To contract an edge $e=(u, v)$ in a graph $G$ (denoted $G \cdot e$ ) is to remove $e$ from $G$, replace vertices $u$ and $v$ by a single vertex $w$, and replace any edges $(u, x)$ incident to $u$ and $(v, y)$ incident to $v$ by $(w, x)$ and $(w, y)$ respectively. Contracting an edge can create multiple copies of an edge $(w, x)$ if $u$ and $v$ were both adjacent to some vertex $x$. Since we are only interested in simple graphs any multiple edges are removed when an edge is contracted.

Subdividing an edge $(u, v)$ of a graph means replacing $(u, v)$ by a vertex $w$ and two edges $(u, w)$ and $(w, v)$. A graph $H$ is homeomorphic to a graph $G$ if $H$ can be obtained from $G$ by a series of edge subdivisions; graph $H$ is a homeomorph of graph $G$. A graph $H=\left\{V^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right\}$ is a subgraph of a graph $G=\{V, E\}$ if $V^{\prime} \subseteq V$ and $E^{\prime} \subseteq E$.

A complete graph on $n$ vertices, $K_{n}$, is a graph $G=\{V, E\}$ with $|V|=n$ and $E=\{(u, v) \mid u, v \in V$ and $u \neq v\}$. A bipartite graph $G=\left\{V \cup V^{\prime}, E\right\}$ is a graph whose vertices can be partitioned into two sets $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ such that there are no edges between vertices in the same set. A complete bipartite graph on $x+y$ vertices, $K_{x, y}$, is a bipartite graph $G=\left\{V \cup V^{\prime}, E\right\}$ such that $|V|=x$ and $\left|V^{\prime}\right|=y$ and $E=\left\{(u, v) \mid u \in V\right.$ and $\left.v \in V^{\prime}\right\}$. This thesis often refers to the presence in a graph $G$ of a subgraph $H$ homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$. The vertices of $H$ that have degree greater than or equal to three are referred to as main vertices of $H$ and the other vertices are referred to as non-main vertices of $H$. Figures 2.1 and 2.2 show $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$, respectively, and a graph homeomorphic to each.

A walk in a graph $G=\{V, E\}$ is a finite alternating sequence of vertices and edges of the form

$$
v_{0},\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right), v_{1},\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right), \ldots, v_{k-2},\left(v_{k-2}, v_{k-1}\right), v_{k-1}
$$



Figure 2.1: $K_{5}$, the complete graph on 5 vertices, is shown on the left. On the right is a graph homeomorphic to $K_{5}$.


Figure 2.2: $K_{3,3}$, the complete bipartite graph on $3+3$ vertices, is shown on the left. On the right is a graph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$. The vertices in one set have been shaded and in the other they remain white.
where $v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k-1} \in V$ and $\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{k-2}, v_{k-1}\right) \in E$; we say that such a walk is between vertices $v_{0}$ and $v_{k-1}$, and $v_{0}$ and $v_{k-1}$ are the endpoints of the walk. A closed walk is a walk in which $v_{0}=v_{k-1}$. A path in $G$ is a walk with no repeated vertices and a cycle in $G$ is a closed walk with no repeated vertices (except $v_{0}=v_{k-1}$ ). A graph $G$ is a path of length $n$ if it consists of $n$ vertices $v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ and the edges $\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{n-2}, v_{n-1}\right)$. A graph $G$ is a cycle of length $n$ if it consists of $n$ vertices $v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n-1}$ and the edges $\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{n-2}, v_{n-1}\right),\left(v_{n-1}, v_{0}\right)$.

A graph $G$ is connected if there is a path between every pair of vertices in $G$. A 2-vertex cut, $\{a . b\}$, in a graph $G$ is a pair of vertices $a$ and $b$ from $G$ such that if we remove vertices $a$ and $b$ and all edges incident to $a$ and $b$ from $G$, the resulting graph is not connected. A connected component of a graph $G$ is a maximal connected
subgraph of $G$.
A bridge $B$ with respect to a subgraph $H$ of a graph $G$ is either
Type 1: a connected component $C$ of $G-H$ along with the edges $(u, v)$ such that $u \in C$ and $v \in H$ and the vertices $v \in H$ that are endpoints of these edges, or

Type 2: an edge $(u, v)$ and its endpoints where $(u, v) \in G$ and $u \in H$ and $v \in H$ but $(u, v) \notin H$.

The vertices that are in both $B$ and $H$ are called attachment vertices of $B$. The vertices that are in $B$ but not in $H$ (i.e. the vertices in $B$ that are not attachment vertices) are called internal vertices of $B$. A bisecting path in a bridge $B$ is a path $P$ that contains only vertices in $B$ and $v \in P$ is an attachment vertex of $B$ if and only if $v$ is an endpoint of $P$.

### 2.2 Graphs and Surfaces

Topologically, a surface can be uniquely defined by its genus (pl. genera) (the number of handles in the orientable case or crosscaps in the nonorientable case - see [26] for the definitions of these terms) and whether it is orientable or non-orientable (whether or not it has a well-defined sense of clockwise). The orientable surfaces are the plane, or equivalently the sphere, which is the only surface of genus zero, and the $k$-handled-torus $(k>0)$, which has genus $k$. The 1-handled torus is usually referred to simply as the torus and can be envisioned as a doughnut-shaped surface. The nonorientable surfaces of genus one and two are called the projective plane (equivalent to a disk with antipodal points identified) and the Klein bottle respectively.

### 2.2.1 Embedding Graphs on Surfaces

A graph $G$ is embeddable on a surface $S$ if it can be drawn on $S$ such that no pair of edges of $G$ cross. Graphs that are embeddable on the plane (or sphere), projective
plane, and torus are called planar, projective planar and toroidal respectively. An embedding of a graph on a surface $S$ is a description of how it can be embedded on $S$. An orientable combinatorial embedding for a graph $G$ on an orientable surface $S$ is an adjacency list for $G$ with the neighbours of each vertex ordered cyclically based on the embedding of $G$ on $S$. Additional information is required for a non-orientable combinatorial embedding; we omit description of it here as it is not relevant to the subject of this thesis.

For the purpose of graph embedding, we consider two combinatorial embeddings to be equivalent if one can be transformed into the other by either

- a cyclic rotation of the adjacency list for any vertex or
- the reversal of the adjacency lists for all vertices.

Thus, in Figure 2.3, the three combinatorial embeddings of $K_{4}$ on the plane are all equivalent. Notice that the first two embeddings in the figure have identical pictures, but the third is a reflection of the first two about the edge $(0,3)$.


Figure 2.3: Three equivalent combinatorial embeddings of $K_{4}$ on the plane.

The genus of a combinatorial embedding can be defined combinatorially by the formula in Theorem 2.2.1, commonly known as Euler's formula.

Theorem 2.2.1. [18] For an orientable surface $S$, the genus of an orientable combinatorial embedding on $S$ of a connected graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges, and $f$ faces is equal to

$$
\frac{2-n+m-f}{2}
$$

Topologically, the orientable (non-orientable) genus of a graph $G$ is the minimum of the genera of the orientable (non-orientable) surfaces on which $G$ is embeddable. As graph theorists rather than topologists, we find it more useful to define the genus of a graph combinatorially. The orientable (non-orientable) genus of a graph $G$ is the minimum of the genera of the orientable (non-orientable) combinatorial embeddings of $G$.

For the remainder of this thesis we refer only to orientable surfaces unless otherwise specified. Thus, a combinatorial embedding will be an orientable combinatorial embedding and the genus of a graph or an embedding will be its orientable genus.

### 2.2.2 Drawing Graphs on the Torus

Since this thesis focuses on embedding graphs on the torus, and figures will be used as an aid to understanding throughout, it is useful to explain a simple way to draw graphs embedded on the torus on paper. Figure 2.4 shows the process by which we transform the torus from a 3-dimensional doughnut shape to a 2-dimensional rectangle shape. We first cut vertically through the torus to form a cylinder and then cut horizontally through the cylinder to form a rectangle. As shown by the arrows on the arcs of the rectangle, points on the left- and right-hand arcs are identified, and points on the top and bottom arcs are identified. So when a graph is drawn on the rectangle representation of the torus, an edge which exits the rectangle through one arc, enters at the corresponding point on the opposite arc.


Figure 2.4: Cutting the torus to simplify drawings of graphs embedded on the torus.

Figure 2.5 shows a toroidal graph $K_{3,3}$ and one of its embeddings drawn on the rectangular representation of the torus. Note that if an edge leaves at a corner of the rectangle, it returns at the diagonally opposite corner.

Henle's book A Combinatorial Introduction to Topology describes how to draw pictures of graphs on orientable and non-orientable surfaces of arbitrary genus $[18$, pages $109 \& 112]$.

### 2.2.3 Faces and How to Find Them

Given a surface $S$ and an embedding of a graph $G$ on $S$, a face of the embedding is a closed walk of $G$ that bounds a maximal contiguous region of $S$. More formally, given


Figure 2.5: $K_{3,3}$ and one of its embeddings on the torus.
a combinatorial embedding $\Pi$ of graph $G$, let $\Pi_{v}(u)$ be the vertex which follows vertex $u$ in the cyclic list of neighbours for vertex $v$. Then a face of $\Pi$ is a minimal closed walk, $v_{0},\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right), v_{1},\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(v_{k-1}, v_{0}\right)$, such that $\Pi_{v_{i}}\left(v_{(i-1) \bmod k}\right)=v_{(i+1) \bmod k}$ for $i=0 \ldots k-1$.

Figure 2.6 shows an embedding of $K_{3,3}$ on the torus (a different embedding from that of Figure 2.5), with the vertices labelled arbitrarily, and the three faces of the embedding. The ten-vertex face illustrates why we must define a face as a closed walk and not a cycle: vertices $1,3,4$, and 6 are repeated on this face. We call the faces with repeated vertices ugly faces.

A face $f$ is admissible for a bridge $B$ if all of the attachment vertices of $B$ are in $f$. A bridge $B$ is embeddable in a face $f$ if

- $f$ is admissible for $B$, and
- there is a way to draw $B$ on the contiguous region bounded by $f$ such that no two edges intersect.

Two bridges $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ hinder each other with respect to a face $f$ if

- $f$ is admissible for $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$, and


Figure 2.6: An embedding of $K_{3,3}$ and its three faces.

- it is not possible to draw both $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ on the contiguous region bounded by $f$ such that no two edges intersect.

In other words, $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ hinder each other with respect to $f$ if they are not embeddable in $f$ at the same time.

If $f$ is an ugly face, the choice of which copies of the attachment vertices of bridge $B$ can be crucial to $B$ being embeddable in $f$. For example, suppose a face $f$ has a repeated vertex $v$ and is admissible for a bridge $B$. If $v$ is one of the attachment vertices of $B$, it is possible that $B$ must connect to both copies of $v$ in order to be embeddable in $f$. Figure 2.7 shows a bridge that is not embeddable in face $f$ unless both copies of two repeated vertices of $f$ are used ( $f$ is Face 1 of Figure 2.6).

There is a simple algorithm for finding the faces of a combinatorial embedding. First, since each edge should be used once in each direction, assign two records, $[a, b]$


Figure 2.7: Using repeated vertices to embed a bridge in a face.
and $[b, a]$, to each edge $(a, b)$ in $G$ and initialize these records to be unvisited. Then, as long as at least one unvisited record remains, choose some unvisited record $[a, b]$ and walk around the face that begins with that record as follows. Until a visited record is reached (at which point we have finished with this face), proceed to the next record, $[b, c]$, where $c=\Pi_{b}(a)$, marking each record as visited along the way. Algorithm 2.1 gives pseudocode for the face walking algorithm and Myrvold and Roth provide a more in depth discussion of this algorithm [32] including how to modify it for non-orientable surfaces.

### 2.2.4 Obstructions

A topological obstruction for a surface $S$ is a graph $G$ with minimum degree three that is not embeddable on $S$ but for all edges $e$ of $G, G-e$ ( $G$ with edge $e$ removed) is embeddable on $S$. A minor order obstruction for a surface $S$ is a graph $G$ that is a topological obstruction for $S$ with the additional property that for all edges $e$ of $G$, $G \cdot e(G$ with edge $e$ contracted) is embeddable on $S$.

Suppose we are given an algorithm Torus_Embed(graph $G$ ) that answers the question "Is $G$ embeddable on the torus?". We can easily design another algorithm Torus_Obstruction(graph $G$ ) to answer the question "Is $G$ a torus obstruction?".

```
Algorithm 2.1 FaceWalk(graph \(G\), combinatorial embedding \(\Pi(G)\) )
    Let \(f=0\) be the number of faces seen so far.
    for all edges \((a, b)\) in \(G\) do
        Create two records \([a, b]\) and \([b, a]\).
    end for
    for all Records \([a, b]\) do
        if \([a, b]\) is not visited then
            \(f=f+1\)
            while \([a, b]\) is not visited do
            Mark \([a, b]\) as visited.
            Add \([a, b]\) to face \(f\).
            Let \(c=\Pi_{b}(a)\).
            Set \(a=b\) and \(b=c\).
            end while
        end if
    end for
```

First, if $G$ is toroidal then it is obviously not a torus obstruction. Otherwise if $G-e$ is toroidal for every edge $e$ then $G$ is a topological torus obstruction. Further, if $G \cdot e$ is also toroidal for every edge $e$ then $G$ is a minor order torus obstruction. Algorithm 2.2 gives simple pseudocode for this algorithm, assuming that Torus_Embed(graph $G$ ) returns true if $G$ is toroidal and false if $G$ is not toroidal.

### 2.3 History and Motivation

Many complex linear time algorithms for embedding graphs on the plane exist, including those of Hopcroft and Tarjan (this was the first, developed in 1974) [19], Booth and Lueker [8], Fraysseix and Rosentiehl [12], Williamson [36, 37], and Boyer and Myrvold [9]. Less complex are the $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ algorithms of Klotz [23] and of Demoucron, Malgrange, and Pertuiset [13]. The latter of these provided the inspiration for the torus embedding algorithm presented in this thesis. For embedding graphs on the projective plane, there is a complex linear time algorithm designed by Mohar [25], and a less complex $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ algorithm designed and implemented by Myrvold and

```
Algorithm 2.2 Torus_Obstruction(graph \(G\) )
    if \(G\) has minimum degree less than three then
        Halt: \(G\) has minimum degree less than three and is therefore not a torus ob-
        struction.
    end if
    if Torus_Embed \((G)\) returns true then
        Halt: \(G\) is toroidal and therefore not a torus obstruction.
    end if
    for all edges \(e\) in \(G\) do
        if Torus_Embed \((G-e)\) returns false then
            Halt: \(G\) is not a torus obstruction because \(G-e\) is not toroidal.
        end if
    end for
    for all edges \(e\) in \(G\) do
        if Torus_Embed \((G \cdot e)\) returns false then
            Halt: \(G\) is a topological obstruction but not a minor order obstruction be-
            cause \(G \cdot e\) is not toroidal.
        end if
    end for
    Halt: \(G\) is a minor order obstruction.
```

Roth [32].

For the torus, there currently is no known implementation of an efficient embedding algorithm. Mohar proposed a linear time algorithm for embedding graphs on the torus [21] and Juvan and Mohar simplified the linear time algorithm to create an $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ variant [22]. Neither of these algorithms has yet been successfully implemented and it is possible that their complexity will be prohibitive to their practicality [27]. An exponential torus embedding algorithm was developed by Myrvold and Neufeld [30, 29] and enhanced by Chambers [10], and is practical for small graphs. Filotti also presented a specialized algorithm for embedding only 3-regular graphs on the torus [14] which he claimed to have polynomial running time, but Myrvold and Kocay proved that it is incorrect [28]. Myrvold and Kocay also discuss critical design issues in finding a polynomial time algorithm for embedding graphs on the torus [28].

In addition to the graph embedding problem in general, the research in this thesis was inspired by the problem of finding the complete set of obstructions for surfaces, and, more specifically, the problem of finding the complete set of torus obstructions. Kuratowski proved that there are there are two (minor order [34]) obstructions for the plane, $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$ [24], and gave Theorem 2.3.1, now known as Kuratowski's Theorem.

Theorem 2.3.1. [24, 34] Kuratowski's Theorem A graph is planar if and only if it does not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$.

That the number of obstructions is finite for any surface of fixed genus was proved by Bodendiek and Wagner for orientable surfaces [6], by Archdeacon and Huneke for non-orientable surfaces [2], and independently by Robertson and Seymour for both orientable and non-orientable surfaces [31]. This fact leads to Theorem 2.3.2, a generalization of Kuratowski's Theorem to surfaces other than the plane.

Theorem 2.3.2. [6, 2, 31] Generalization of Kuratowski's Theorem A graph is embeddable on a surface $S$ if and only if it does not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to one of a finite number of obstructions for $S$.

To date the only surface other than the plane for which the complete obstruction set is known is the projective plane; Glover, Huneke, and Wang listed 103 topological obstructions and 35 minor-order obstructions for the projective plane [17] and Archdeacon proved that this is a complete list [1]. Archdeacon also found the complete set of 21 3-regular topological obstructions for the spindle, the surface formed by identifying two points on the sphere [4].

Finding the complete obstruction set for the torus is a natural next step in this field of research. The exponential torus embedding algorithm of Myrvold and Neufeld is practical enough to have found all torus obstructions on up to ten vertices by exhaustive search, as well as some larger ones [30, 29]. Almost ten years later, Chambers
used this algorithm to find all torus obstructions on up to eleven vertices and all 3regular torus obstructions on up to 24 vertices by exhaustive search. He also used a "Split-Delete" approach on known small obstructions to generate a collection of larger obstructions [10]. Further, Juvan found the complete set of 270 projective planar torus obstructions [20] and Chambers, Gagarin and Myrvold found the complete set of torus obstructions which do not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ [11]. Obviously the sets of obstructions found by researchers overlap in some cases, but each provided significant contributions to the knowledge base about this problem. In all, 239,451 topological obstructions have been found for the torus of which 16,683 are minor order obstructions.

Completing the search for torus obstructions would have important theoretical and algorithmic implications. The known obstruction sets for the plane and projective plane have been used in proofs of theorems in topological graph theory. The complete set of torus obstructions could yield similar types of results. As a side-effect, it is hoped that the complete set of torus obstructions and the insights gained in finding it will provide inspiration for a faster and simpler torus embedding algorithm. Such an algorithm could be verified by ensuring that what it purports to be a minimal non-toroidal subgraph is in fact in the database of torus obstructions. Having a fast and correct torus embedding algorithm, in turn, has algorithmic implications as there are computationally intractable problems that can be solved in polynomial time for toroidal graphs (e.g. [16, 33]).

## Chapter 3

## The Generic and Planar Embedding Algorithms

In this chapter, we first present a generic backtracking approach for embedding graphs on orientable surfaces. Then, we describe the modifications to this generic algorithm made by Demoucron, Malgrange, and Pertuiset [13] to create a linear time planar embedding algorithm which was the inspiration for our new torus embedding algorithm.

### 3.1 Generic Embedding Algorithm on an Orientable Surface

Algorithms 3.1a and 3.1b present pseudocode for a generic graph embedding algorithm that can be used to find out if any graph $G$ of genus greater than or equal to $g$ can be embedded on an orientable surface $S$ of genus $g$. The algorithm begins by finding a subgraph $H$ of $G$ such that all embeddings of $H$ on $S$ divide $S$ into faces that are homeomorphic to a planar disk or, in other words, faces that do not have holes. One possible choice for $H$ when embedding a graph on a surface of genus $g>0$ is an obstruction to a surface of genus $g-1$.

The algorithm maintains an an embedding $\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ of a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$. For each embedding $\Pi(H)$ of $H$, it initializes $G^{\prime}=H$ and $\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\Pi(H)$ and then finds the faces of $\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ and the bridges of $G$ with respect to $G^{\prime}$. If there are no bridges then the algorithm must have discovered an embedding of $G$ on $S$. If there is a bridge with no admissible faces, the algorithm must backtrack as $\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ cannot lead to an embedding of $G$. Otherwise, the algorithm chooses a bisecting path $P$ from some bridge $B$ and, for each admissible face $f$ for $B$, embeds $P$ across $f$ in all possible ways (recall from section 2.2.3 that $f$ may have repeated vertices). For each way of
embedding $P$, we recursively try to embed the rest of $G$.

```
Algorithm 3.1a StartGeneric(graph \(G\), surface \(S\), genus \(g(S)\) )
    if \(G\) has genus \(<g(S)\) then
        Halt: an embedding of \(G\) on a surface with genus \(<g(S)\) is also an embedding
        of \(G\) on \(S\).
    end if
    Choose a subgraph \(H\) of \(G\) that always embeds on \(S\) by dividing \(S\) into faces
    homeomorphic to a planar disk.
    for all labelled embeddings \(\Pi(H)\) of \(H\) do
        \(\operatorname{Generic}(G, H, \Pi(H))\)
    end for
```

```
Algorithm 3.1b Generic(graph \(G\), graph \(G^{\prime}\), embedding \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) )
    Use Algorithm 2.1 to find the faces of \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
    Find the bridges of \(G\) with respect to \(G^{\prime}\).
    if there are no bridges remaining then
        Halt: we have an embedding of \(G\).
    else if there is a bridge with no admissible faces then
        Backtrack: \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) cannot lead to an embedding of \(G\).
    end if
    Choose a bridge \(B\) of \(G\).
    for all admissible faces \(f\) for \(B\) do
        Choose a bisecting path \(P\) of \(B\).
        for all ways of embedding \(P\) in \(f\) do
            Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
            \(\operatorname{Generic}\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)\)
            Remove \(P\) from \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
        end for
    end for
```


### 3.2 Demoucron's Planar Embedding Algorithm

The planar embedding algorithm of Demoucron, Malgrange and Pertuiset [13] (which we hereafter refer to as Demoucron's algorithm) inspired the development of our new torus embedding algorithm. Thus, explaining how it differentiates from the
generic algorithm will likely ease understanding of our new torus embedding algorithm in the next chapter.

First, if a graph has no subgraphs that are cycles, then it is obviously planar. A graph that is a cycle has exactly two equivalent embeddings on the plane. So Demoucron's algorithm first finds a subgraph $H$ of $G$ that is a cycle and then proceeds to embed the bridges of $G$ as described for the generic algorithm with the following modification. The authors showed that as long as bridges that have only one admissible face are chosen first, it is sufficient to choose a single admissible face $f$ for $B$ and embed a bisecting path from $B$ in $f$ without trying the other admissible faces for $B$. Demoucron's algorithm is given in pseudocode in Algorithms 3.2a and 3.2b.

```
Algorithm 3.2a StartDemoucron(graph \(G\) )
    if \(G\) has no subgraphs that are cycles then
        Halt: \(G\) is obviously planar.
    end if
    Choose a subgraph \(H\) of \(G\) that is a cycle.
    Let \(\Pi(H)\) be an embedding of \(H\) on the plane.
    Demoucron \((G, H, \Pi(H))\)
```

```
Algorithm 3.2b Demoucron(graph \(G\), graph \(G^{\prime}\), embedding \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) )
    Use Algorithm 2.1 to find the faces of \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
    Find the bridges of \(G\) with respect to \(G^{\prime}\).
    if there are no bridges remaining then
        Halt: we have an embedding of \(G\).
    else if there is a bridge with no admissible faces then
        Halt: \(G\) is not planar.
    end if
    Choose a bridge \(B\) of \(G\) with a minimum number of admissible faces.
    Choose a bisecting path \(P\) of \(B\).
    Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
    \(\operatorname{Demoucron}\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)\)
```

For ease of understanding and consistency, Algorithm 3.3 recomputes the faces
and bridges from scratch at each recursive call. It is easy, however, to update both of these each time $\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ is modified - only the chosen bridge $B$ and the face in which the path $P$ is embedded change. If the latter is incorporated, we need only use the $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ face walking algorithm once to find the faces of the initial embedding of $H$. The algorithm would then have $O(m)$ or, equivalently, $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ running time. Obviously it is not necessary for Demoucron's algorithm to be recursive; Algorithm 3.3 gives non-recursive, $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ pseudocode for Demoucron's algorithm.

```
Algorithm 3.3 Demoucron_NR(graph \(G\) )
    if \(G\) has no subgraphs that are cycles then
        Halt: \(G\) is obviously planar.
    end if
    Choose a subgraph \(G^{\prime}\) of \(G\) that is a cycle.
    Let \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) be an embedding of \(G^{\prime}\) on the plane.
    Use Algorithm 2.1 to find the faces of \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
    Find the bridges of \(G\) with respect to \(G^{\prime}\).
    while there are bridges remaining do
        if there is a bridge with no admissible faces then
            Halt: \(G\) is not planar.
        end if
        Choose a bridge \(B\) of \(G\) with a minimum number of admissible faces.
        Choose a bisecting path \(P\) of \(B\).
        Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\), updating the bridges and faces.
    end while
    Halt: we have an embedding of \(G\).
```


## Chapter 4

## The New Torus Embedding Algorithm

As does Demoucron's planar embedding algorithm, our new torus embedding algorithm follows the simple outline of the generic embedding framework. In this chapter we discuss the details and ways to further modify the generic framework to improve efficiency. Then we provide pseudocode for the algorithm and explain why it is correct.

### 4.1 Choice of Subgraph

First, if a graph is planar then it is obviously also toroidal and a planar embedding of such a graph is also an embedding on the torus. We can use a planar embedding algorithm such as Demoucron's algorithm described in Section 3.2 to find out if a graph is planar and, if it is, find a planar embedding.

Recall from Theorem 2.3.1 that every non-planar graph (and thus every graph our torus embedding algorithm examines) must contain a subgraph homeomorphic to either $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$. Once we have established that our graph $G$ is not planar, then, the first step in our new torus embedding algorithm is to search for some subgraph $H$ of $G$ homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$. We can use a planar embedding algorithm to find such a subgraph as shown by the pseudocode in Algorithm 4.1.

### 4.1.1 The Embeddings of $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$

On the torus, $K_{5}$ has 231 different labelled embeddings, and $K_{3,3}$ has 20 different labelled embeddings. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show all of the unlabelled embeddings of $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$ which, when labels are added in all non-isomorphic ways and equivalent

```
Algorithm 4.1 Find_K5_or_K33(graph \(G\) )
    Let \(H=G\)
    for all edges \(e\) in \(H\) do
        if \(H-e\) is not planar then
            \(H=H-e\)
        end if
    end for
```

copies are removed, yield the 251 non-isomorphic, non-equivalent labelled embeddings of these graphs. All of these embeddings divide the torus into faces that are homeomorphic to a planar disk.

### 4.2 Problems that Lead to Exponential Time

At first glance, it would appear that once we have divided the torus into faces by embedding a subgraph of $G$ homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ we should be able to proceed as with Demoucron's algorithm and find out whether the graph is embeddable on the torus in $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time per embedding. There are two reasons why this is not the case.

First, unlike in Demoucron's algorithm, we cannot choose just one admissible face in which to embed a path from a bridge. This is intuitively and informally explained by Myrvold, Chambers, and Kocay as follows [28]. Given a planar embedding of a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of a graph $G$, if two bridges $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ of $G$ with respect to $G^{\prime}$ both have admissible faces $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ and hinder each other with respect to $f_{1}$ then they must also hinder each other with respect to $f_{2}$. Thus no matter which face we choose for $B_{1}$, we decrease the number of possibilities for bridge $B_{2}$. On the torus, however, this argument does not hold. Figure 4.3 illustrates this: the dotted lines represent two bridges $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ that hinder each other with respect to $f_{1}$ but not with respect to $f_{2}$. So, to avoid missing possible torus embeddings, after choosing a bridge $B$, we will embed a bisecting path from $B$ in all of the admissible faces for $B$.

The second reason we cannot proceed in $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time per embedding with this


Figure 4.1: Unlabelled embeddings of $K_{5}$ on the torus.
approach is the presence of ugly faces in some of the embeddings of $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$. To illustrate the ugly faces of the $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$ embeddings, we can arbitrarily label the vertices of each of the unlabelled embeddings these graphs and use Algorithm 2.1 to find the faces. One of the unlabelled $K_{3,3}$ embeddings and four of the unlabelled $K_{5}$ embeddings yield labelled embeddings with ugly faces as shown in Figures 4.4 and 4.5.

Notice that some of the ugly faces of the $K_{5}$ and $K_{3,3}$ embeddings contain repeated


Figure 4.2: Unlabelled embeddings $K_{3,3}$ on the torus.
edges as well as repeated vertices. In Figure 4.5 for example, edges $(1,6)$ and $(3,4)$ are repeated. Subdividing these repeated edges creates more repeated vertices on the ugly face. Thus the embeddings of graphs homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ might have ugly faces with more repeated vertices than the corresponding $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ embedding.

Because of the presence of repeated vertices on the ugly faces, there might be more than one way to connect the internal vertices of a bridge $B$ to its attachment vertices if we are embedding $B$ in an ugly face. Figure 2.7 showed a bridge that was only embeddable in an ugly face $f$ if both copies of two repeated vertices of $f$ were used. Also, it is possible for two bridges to hinder each other with respect to ugly face $f$ if one combination of attachment vertices is chosen, and not hinder each other with respect to $f$ if another combination of attachment vertices is chosen. The left-hand side of Figure 4.6 shows an embedding of a graph containing a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$, and two bridges that are both embedded in the ugly face, $f$,


Figure 4.3: An embedding of a $K_{3,3}$ homeomorph and its three faces, along with two bridges that hinder each other with respect to $f 1$ but not with respect to $f 2$.
of the $K_{3,3}$. The right-hand side of Figure 4.6 shows that the two bridges hinder one another if the wrong copy of vertex 3 is chosen to attach to vertex $v$. If the solid edge between vertices $v$ and 3 were replaced by the dotted one, the two bridges would no longer hinder one another.

Although there is no limit on the number of repeated vertices on the ugly face of an embedding of a graph homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$, it is clear that each repeated vertex can occur at most twice on such a face. Further, the maximum number of times a vertex is repeated on some face cannot increase when a bisecting path is embedded across a face. Therefore, there can be at most four possible ways to embed a bisecting path from a bridge in a face. In fact, if $a$ and $b$ are the endpoints of a bisecting path $P$ from a bridge $B$, and $x_{a}$ and $x_{b}$ equal the number of times $a$ and $b$, respectively, occur on a face $f$ that is admissible for $B$, then $P$ can be embedded
$x_{a} \cdot x_{b}$ ways in $f$.

### 4.3 Choosing a Bridge

At each stage of recursion, the choice of the bridge from which we will embed a bisecting path can significantly reduce the size of the recursion tree. It is fairly obvious, for example, that if we could determine that there is only one way to embed a bridge that we should choose this bridge and embed it. In doing so, we might eliminate some (possibly large) branches of the recursion tree of our algorithm. To assist our algorithm in making a sensible choice of bridge, then, we define a penalty $P(B)$ for each bridge $B$ as follows. For each admissible face $f$ for $B$ :

- let $x_{i}$ be the number of times attachment vertex $i$ of $B$ appears on $f$, and
- choose two different attachment vertices $u_{f}$ and $v_{f}$ of $B$ such that $x_{u_{f}} \cdot x_{v_{f}}$ is minimized.

Now,

$$
P(B)=\sum_{f \text { is admissible for } B} x_{u_{f}} \cdot x_{v_{f}} .
$$

Now, our algorithm can easily decide which bridge to choose at each stage of recursion. If there is a bridge $B$ with $P(B)=0$, it must backtrack as there is a bridge that has no admissible faces. Otherwise, it chooses a bridge $B$ with minimum penalty. Further, for each admissible face $f$ for $B$ we can choose a bisecting path between the vertices $u_{f}$ and $v_{f}$ that were chosen when computing the penalty for $B$. Such a path can be embedded $x_{u_{f}} \cdot x_{v_{f}}$ ways in $f$ and this must be minimum over all paths in $B$ because of the way $u_{f}$ and $v_{f}$ were chosen. In this way we choose a bridge that minimizes the number recursive calls at each stage of recursion and, in most cases, significantly improve the running time of our algorithm.

### 4.4 Pseudocode for the New Algorithm

Algorithms 4.2a and 4.2b give pseudocode for the new algorithm.

```
Algorithm 4.2a StartTorusEmbed(graph \(G\) )
    if \(G\) is planar then
        Halt: a planar embedding of \(G\) is also a torus embedding of \(G\).
    else
        Choose a subgraph \(H\) of \(G\) that is homeomorphic to either \(K_{5}\) or \(K_{3,3}\).
        for all non-isomorphic, non-equivalent labelled embeddings \(\Pi(H)\), of \(H\) do
            TorusEmbed \((G, H, \Pi(H))\)
        end for
    end if
```


### 4.5 Correctness

It is not difficult to see that our new algorithm correctly determines if a graph is toroidal and as such no complicated proof is necessary. By Theorem 2.3.1 it is clear that any graph $G$ that is not planar contains a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ homeomorphic to either $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ (or both). The algorithm considers all possible embeddings of $G^{\prime}$ on the torus and all possible ways of embedding the bridges in each embedding. Our algorithm finds an embedding of $G$ if and only if $G$ is toroidal.

### 4.6 Bad Input Graphs: An Afterthought

Initial timing studies of our algorithm led us to discover graphs which caused our algorithm to be very slow. Analysis of the structure of such graphs revealed that the slowness was a result of having multiple ways to embed some bridges when the graph had one or more 2-vertex cuts. It is possible, however, because of theorem 4.6.1, to preprocess these graphs to avoid the slow running time when they are given as input to our algorithm.

```
Algorithm 4.2b TorusEmbed(graph \(G\), graph \(G^{\prime}\), embedding \(\Pi(G)\) )
    Use Algorithm 2.1 to find the faces of \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
    Find the bridges of \(G\) with respect to \(G^{\prime}\) and the penalty \(P(B)\) for each bridge.
    if there are no bridges remaining then
        Halt: we have an embedding of \(G\).
    end if
    if there is a bridge \(B\) with \(P(B)=0\) then
        Backtrack: \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) cannot lead to an embedding of \(G\).
    end if
    Choose a bridge \(B\) with minimum \(P(B)\).
    for all admissible faces, \(f\), for \(B\) do
        Choose a bisecting path \(P\) from \(B\) with endpoints \(u_{f}\) and \(v_{f}\) (see Section 4.3).
        Let \(u_{f 2}\) and \(v_{f 2}\) be the second copies of vertices \(u_{f}\) and \(v_{f}\) on face \(f\), respectively,
        if they exist.
        Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) using endpoints \(u_{f}\) and \(v_{f}\).
        TorusEmbed \(\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi(G)\right)\)
        Remove \(P\) from \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
        if vertex \(u_{f}\) is repeated on face \(f\) then
            Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) using endpoints \(u_{f 2}\) and \(v_{f}\).
            TorusEmbed \(\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi(G)\right)\)
            Remove \(P\) from \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
        end if
        if vertex \(v_{f}\) is repeated on face \(f\) then
            Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) using endpoints \(u_{f}\) and \(v_{f 2}\).
            TorusEmbed \(\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi(G)\right)\)
            Remove \(P\) from \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
        end if
        if vertices \(u_{f}\) and \(v_{f}\) are both repeated on face \(f\) then
            Embed \(P\) in \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\) using endpoints \(u_{f 2}\) and \(v_{f 2}\).
            TorusEmbed \(\left(G, G^{\prime}, \Pi(G)\right)\)
            Remove \(P\) from \(\Pi\left(G^{\prime}\right)\).
        end if
    end for
```

Theorem 4.6.1. Let $B$ be a bridge of a graph $G$ with respect to a 2-vertex cut $\{a, b\}$ in $G$. If $B+(a, b)$ is planar, then $G$ embeds on $S$ if and only if

$$
G-\{v \mid v \text { is an internal vertex of } B\}+(a, b)
$$

(removing duplicate edges) embeds on $S$.
Proof. Given an embedding of

$$
G-\{v \mid v \text { is an internal vertex of } B\}+(a, b),
$$

we can replace $(a, b)$ with a planar embedding of $B$ or, if $(a, b)$ is an edge in $G$, replace $(a, b)$ with a planar embedding of $B+(a, b)$.

We created a preprocessor to reduce to a single edge $(a, b)$ any bridge $B$ with respect to some 2 -vertex cut $\{a, b\}$ such that $B+(a, b)$ is planar. This significantly reduced the running time on input graphs containing such bridges.


Figure 4.4: Ugly faces of four of the $K_{5}$ embeddings.


Figure 4.5: Ugly face of one of the $K_{3,3}$ embeddings.


Figure 4.6: Two possibilities for a pair of bridges in the ugly face of $K_{3,3}$.

## Chapter 5

## Computational Results

We implemented our new torus embedding algorithm in C and have performed several timing comparisons with the previous torus embedding algorithm of Myrvold and Neufeld [30, 29], also implemented in C. Unfortunately, some of their code for preprocessing the graphs and quickly detecting nontoroidal graphs was not available to us. However, since this preprocessor could have been added to our algorithm as well, the timing comparisons presented here are still "fair".

The following sections present these comparisons. Both pieces of code were run on the same computer with an Intel Pentium 4 processor at 3.6 GHz , and the times reflect the user time taken to process the graphs, not the real time. The timings are given in milliseconds and insignificant times - below 1 millisecond - are indicated by a 0 in the tables.

### 5.1 Known Obstructions

Algorithm 2.2 shows how a torus embedding algorithm can be used to check if a graph is a topological or minor order torus obstruction. If the input graph $G$ is a torus obstruction, it is in some sense "almost" toroidal, since $G-e$ (and $G \cdot e$ in the case of a minor order obstruction) is toroidal for any edge $e$ in $G$. Thus it seems intuitively possible that a torus embedding algorithm would have to work harder to find that these graphs are not toroidal; of course this depends on the structure of the graph and how efficient the algorithm is for graphs with such structure. Further, since we know that $G-e$ (and $G \cdot e$ in the case of a minor order obstruction) is toroidal for every edge $e$ in $G$, the torus embedding algorithm is called at least $m+1$ times for a

|  | Old Algorithm |  |  |  | New Algorithm |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $n$ | $\#$ | Min | Max | Avg | Total | Min | Max | Avg | Total |
| 8 | 3 | 250 | 2,370 | 1,240 | 3,720 | 80 | 170 | 113 | 340 |
| 9 | 48 | 10 | 4,070 | 1,012 | 48,610 | 0 | 320 | 93 | 4,510 |
| 10 | 660 | 0 | 7,420 | 933 | 616,330 | 0 | 540 | 81 | 53,620 |
| 11 | 4,923 | 0 | 16,450 | 648 | $3,193,680$ | 0 | 3,270 | 61 | 300,700 |
| 12 | 18,458 | 0 | 4,330 | 452 | $8,355,160$ | 0 | 2,390 | 47 | 883,180 |
| 13 | 38,466 | 0 | 3,430 | 320 | $12,320,510$ | 0 | 3,160 | 38 | $1,499,550$ |
| 14 | 61,343 | 30 | 2,520 | 255 | $15,647,490$ | 0 | 920 | 32 | $2,002,480$ |
| 15 | 57,434 | 50 | 1,940 | 214 | $12,322,840$ | 0 | 540 | 30 | $1,723,770$ |
| 16 | 35,672 | 40 | 1,920 | 199 | $7,128,940$ | 10 | 420 | 28 | $1,026,830$ |
| 17 | 15,564 | 60 | 1,160 | 204 | $3,189,690$ | 10 | 300 | 31 | 497,750 |
| 18 | 5,168 | 60 | 1,050 | 232 | $1,200,740$ | 20 | 260 | 35 | 183,910 |
| 19 | 1,390 | 100 | 1,210 | 283 | 393,550 | 20 | 210 | 39 | 55,310 |
| 20 | 224 | 110 | 690 | 315 | 70,750 | 30 | 60 | 39 | 8,920 |
| 21 | 68 | 240 | 530 | 343 | 23,380 | 30 | 60 | 43 | 2,970 |
| 22 | 24 | 260 | 450 | 353 | 8,480 | 40 | 60 | 47 | 1,140 |
| 23 | 4 | 310 | 410 | 370 | 1,480 | 40 | 50 | 47 | 190 |
| 24 | 2 | 330 | 350 | 340 | 680 | 50 | 60 | 55 | 110 |
| $8-24$ | 239,451 | 0 | 16,450 | 269 | $64,526,030$ | 0 | 3,270 | 34 | $8,245,280$ |

Table 5.1: Results of using the 239,451 known torus obstructions as input.
topological obstruction with $m$ edges and $2 m+1$ times for a minor order obstruction with $m$ edges.

We timed the two algorithms using the 239,451 known torus obstructions as input. These graphs have $8 \leq n \leq 24$ and $\lceil 3 n / 2\rceil \leq m \leq 3 n+1$. Table 5.1 shows the results. On average, the new algorithm was approximately eight times faster than the old algorithm to decide that a graph is a topological obstruction and whether or not it is also a minor order torus obstruction.

### 5.2 Random Large Graphs

To test the efficiency of our new algorithm on larger graphs, we implemented a random graph generator to create toroidal and non-toroidal graphs with a desired number of vertices. The generator begins by randomly choosing an embedding of either $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ on the torus and then repeatedly and randomly chooses one of the
following graph updates until the desired order is reached.
Update 1: Choose two different edges $(a, b)$ and $(c, d)$ on the same face $f$ of the embedding. Subdivide each edge to create the edges $(a, x),(x, b),(c, y)$, and $(y, d)$ and remove the edges $(a, b)$ and $(c, d)$. Then add the edge $(x, y)$ thereby splitting $f$ into two faces. This increases the number of vertices by two.

Update 2: Choose one edge $(a, b)$ and one vertex $c$ on the same face $f$ such that $a!=b$ and $a!=c$. Subdivide $(a, b)$ to create the edges $(a, x)$ and $(x, b)$, and remove the edge $(a, b)$. Then add the edge $(x, c)$ thereby splitting $f$ into two faces. This increases the number of vertices by one.

Update 3: Choose two different vertices $a$ and $b$ on the same face $f$ such that $(a, b)$ is not already an edge of the graph. Then add the edge $(a, b)$ thereby splitting $f$ into two faces. This does not increase the number of vertices.

Once we have the desired number of vertices in the graph, we either output the graph as a random toroidal graph, or randomly add edges to the graph until it is not toroidal (using our new algorithm to test this) and then output the graph as a random non-toroidal graph.

In these ways, 100 toroidal graphs for $n=10,20, \ldots, 200$ and 100 nontoroidal graphs for $n=10,20, \ldots, 140$ were generated giving 2000 random toroidal graphs and 1400 random nontoroidal graphs. The timing data for the two algorithms using these graphs as input is given in Tables 5.2 and 5.3. On average, the new algorithm was approximately three times faster for toroidal graphs and 465 times faster for nontoroidal graphs.

| $n$ | \# | Old Algorithm |  |  |  | New Algorithm |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Min | Max | Avg | Total | Min | Max | Avg | Total |
| 10 | 100 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 40 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 10 |
| 20 | 100 | 0 | 40 | 4 | 490 | 0 | 10 | 1 | 100 |
| 30 | 100 | 0 | 150 | 22 | 2,210 | 0 | 20 | 3 | 390 |
| 40 | 100 | 0 | 1,340 | 90 | 9,000 | 0 | 70 | 10 | 1,010 |
| 50 | 100 | 0 | 2410 | 248 | 24,860 | 0 | 230 | 19 | 1,910 |
| 60 | 100 | 10 | 2,360 | 449 | 44,920 | 0 | 410 | 31 | 3,140 |
| 70 | 100 | 10 | 4,840 | 703 | 70,340 | 10 | 2,010 | 69 | 6,970 |
| 80 | 100 | 30 | 26,480 | 1,656 | 165,600 | 20 | 3,480 | 92 | 9,250 |
| 90 | 100 | 50 | 64,720 | 3,679 | 367,950 | 20 | 77,810 | 923 | 92,380 |
| 100 | 100 | 70 | 57,050 | 3,529 | 352,930 | 30 | 1,390 | 145 | 14,540 |
| 110 | 100 | 80 | 276,180 | 8,579 | 857,930 | 40 | 11,650 | 351 | 35,150 |
| 120 | 100 | 130 | 89,110 | 7,814 | 781,440 | 40 | 4,060 | 361 | 36,100 |
| 130 | 100 | 110 | 119,460 | 10,722 | 1,072,200 | 70 | 17,860 | 891 | 89,140 |
| 140 | 100 | 220 | 110,060 | 15,996 | 1,599,680 | 80 | 36,480 | 1,205 | 120,590 |
| 150 | 100 | 250 | 392,970 | 21,015 | 2,101,530 | 100 | 4,790 | 544 | 54,420 |
| 160 | 100 | 190 | 846,200 | 34,873 | 3,487,380 | 110 | 30,230 | 1,460 | 146,010 |
| 170 | 100 | 290 | 2,298,510 | 57,860 | 5,786,050 | 120 | 1,084,040 | 11,946 | 1,194,660 |
| 180 | 100 | 450 | 530,000 | 61,183 | 6,118,390 | 170 | 3,193,980 | 37,474 | 3,747,470 |
| 190 | 100 | 600 | 1,254,340 | 81,236 | 8,123,660 | 210 | 5,532,240 | 69,239 | 6,923,960 |
| 200 | 100 | 510 | 1,253,850 | 82,029 | 8,202,930 | 190 | 378,110 | 12,586 | 1,258,690 |
| 10-200 | 2,000 | 0 | 2,298,510 | 19,584 | 39,169,530 | 0 | 5,532,240 | 6,867 | 13,735,890 |

Table 5.2: Results using small randomly generated toroidal graphs as input.

|  | Old Algorithm |  |  |  |  | New Algorithm |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $n$ | $\#$ | Min | Max | Avg | Total | Min | Max | Avg | Total |
| 10 | 100 | 70 | 2,870 | 702 | 70,290 | 0 | 20 | 3 | 370 |
| 20 | 100 | 50 | 1,290 | 309 | 30,980 | 0 | 30 | 4 | 410 |
| 30 | 100 | 130 | 5,790 | 821 | 82,130 | 0 | 90 | 8 | 850 |
| 40 | 100 | 370 | 13,840 | 2,272 | 227,230 | 0 | 100 | 14 | 1,490 |
| 50 | 100 | 650 | 41,680 | 4,057 | 405,780 | 0 | 290 | 29 | 2,900 |
| 60 | 100 | 850 | 99,440 | 12,929 | $1,292,950$ | 10 | 820 | 56 | 5,680 |
| 70 | 100 | 3,050 | 608,680 | 33,144 | $3,314,440$ | 10 | 340 | 52 | 5,200 |
| 80 | 100 | 4,500 | 424,300 | 46,550 | $4,655,060$ | 20 | 9,470 | 194 | 19,490 |
| 90 | 100 | 6,710 | 434,460 | 70,732 | 7073270 | 20 | 750 | 107 | 10,700 |
| 100 | 100 | 10,410 | $1,194,340$ | 128,281 | $12,828,120$ | 30 | 3,380 | 259 | 25,980 |
| 110 | 100 | 15,980 | $3,262,680$ | 290,312 | $29,031,280$ | 40 | 1,630 | 233 | 23,320 |
| 120 | 100 | 16,050 | $6,022,320$ | 366,148 | $36,614,890$ | 40 | 108,510 | 2244 | 224,440 |
| 130 | 100 | 26,360 | $9,279,460$ | 493,267 | $49,326,740$ | 70 | 24,640 | 872 | 87,210 |
| 140 | 100 | 44,470 | $10,815,250$ | 737,345 | $73,734,570$ | 50 | 9,290 | 649 | 64,920 |
| $10-140$ | 1,400 | 50 | $10,815,250$ | 156,205 | $218,687,730$ | 0 | 108,510 | 337 | 472,960 |

(Times in Milliseconds)

Table 5.3: Results using small randomly generated nontoroidal graphs as input.

## Chapter 6

## Conclusions and Future Research

In this thesis, we have presented a new exponential algorithm for embedding graphs on the torus that was inspired by Demoucron's $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ algorithm for embedding graphs on the plane. We explained the differences in our approach for the torus that lead to its exponential running time but gave results to show that, although it is exponential, it is faster in practice than a previous exponential algorithm that was used to find many torus obstructions. In this final section, we discuss two ways in which the running time of our algorithm might be improved and we revisit the problem of searching for torus obstructions that provided motivation for developing our new algorithm.

### 6.1 Enhancing Our Algorithm

Since there are 231 non-isomorphic labelled embeddings of $K_{5}$ and only 20 nonisomorphic labelled embeddings of $K_{3,3}$ on the torus, it would be preferable if the subgraph which our algorithm initially embeds on the torus were homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$. Given an input graph $G$ and a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ it is possible to either:

- find a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ in $G$, if one exists, or
- perform a small constant number of planarity tests to determine if $G$ is toroidal if $G$ has no subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ [15].

The "transformation" of $K_{5}$ to $K_{3,3}$ can be done in linear time using the method of Asano [5]. As such, incorporating this transformation into our algorithm would not improve upon its exponential running time. However, we expect that it would
decrease the running time in practice in most cases where it initially finds a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{5}$ in $G$. The cases where this might not be true include:

- when an embedding could be found using one of the first twenty embeddings of $K_{5}$ that would have been considered, and
- when the invalid embeddings of the $K_{5}$ would have been quickly rejected.

In the cases where the graph does not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ and therefore the transformation is not successful, according to Gagarin and Kocay, the test for toroidality can be performed in linear time using a linear time planar embedding algorithm [15]. Modifying our algorithm to take their approach when the input graph does not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$, then, would make our algorithm run in linear time for these graphs. Given the importance of the search for a complete set of torus obstructions in motivating the development of our algorithm, it is necessary to point out that in an exhaustive search for more torus obstructions, we do not need to consider graphs that do not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$. This is because all torus obstructions with this property have already been found [11].

Our algorithm would also likely be more efficient if it separated the two copies of repeated vertices on ugly faces as often and as early as possible. More formally, suppose that we have embedded a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of graph $G$ and that the embedding has some ugly face $f$ with $k$ repeated vertices. Consider a bridge $B$ of $G$ with respect to $G^{\prime}$ for which $f$ is admissible and let $k^{\prime}$ and $k^{\prime \prime}$ be the number of repeated vertices on the two faces that result from embedding some bisecting path $P$ in $f$. Currently, for face $f$, our algorithm chooses as endpoints of $P$ attachment vertices $u_{f}$ and $v_{f}$ that minimize the value of $x_{u_{f}} \cdot x_{v_{f}}$ (as defined in section 4.3). The efficiency of our algorithm could be improved in many cases if it also chose, from among the pairs of vertices $u$ and $v$ that minimize $x_{u} \cdot x_{v}$, a pair of vertices $u_{f}$ and $v_{f}$ that minimize
the value of $k^{\prime}+k^{\prime \prime}$. Efficiency could be further improved if, from among the bridges that have minimum penalty, we chose a bridge that would minimize $k^{\prime}+k^{\prime \prime}$. To illustrate this, in Figure 6.1, the graph on the left-hand side shows the ugly face of an embedding and one bridge. The two right-hand graphs show the resulting faces if a bisecting path is embedded between vertices 2 and 5 (in which case neither of the faces has a repeated vertex) and between vertices 2 and 7 (in which case one face has two repeated vertices and the other has none). It would clearly be better to embed the path between vertices 2 and 5 in this example.


Figure 6.1: Using repeated vertices to embed a bridge in a face.

### 6.2 Searching for Torus Obstructions

As mentioned in the introduction, finding the complete set of obstructions to the torus would be a major breakthrough in topological graph theory. Currently, the major bottleneck in achieving the overall goal is a lack of stopping criteria for a computer search; we do not yet have an upper bound on the number of vertices a torus obstruction can have.

Even when we know torus obstructions of order $n$ exist, there are values of $n$ for which there are simply too many graphs to be able to do an exhaustive search for obstructions without much faster torus embedding code or a way of limiting the
structure of the graphs that are obstruction candidates. As discussed in Section 2.3 of this thesis, attempts to design and implement a fast enough torus embedding algorithm to do such exhaustive searches have not been fruitful. So it seems we must turn our attention to reducing the number of candidate graphs so that the algorithm presented in this thesis can complete the search.

Having a large database of known torus obstructions provides the opportunity to analyze the structure of these graphs and make and prove conjectures about the structure of the complete set. Since all torus obstructions are non-planar and all projective planar torus obstructions have been found [20], one approach is to examine the structure of known torus obstructions with respect to a subgraph which is an obstruction for the plane or projective plane. This technique has already led to successful characterization of the torus obstructions which do not contain a subgraph homeomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ (as mentioned in section 6.1) [11]. Another approach is to choose some subclass of the known obstructions and analyze their structure with the aim of characterizing all of the obstructions that belong to that class. The obstructions that have a 2 -vertex cut form a promising choice of subclass for this approach.

We hope that these theoretical analyses and characterizations eventually lead us to determine an upper bound $N$ on the order of a torus obstruction. If the set of torus obstructions still has not been proved complete at this point, we believe that sufficient structural characterizations can limit the number of obstruction candidates enough to perform exhaustive searches using our torus embedder on graphs of orders twelve through $N$. Alternatively, structural characteristics might be used to define ways of generating all torus obstructions from scratch. In any case, despite the daunting number of torus obstructions and other complications, that have already been found, we believe that there are methods to finish the search for the complete set.

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