

Track Layouts, Forbidden Patterns, and Degree Bounds

Axel Fridman

December 10, 2025

Abstract

We study ordered layouts of a graph on k “tracks” in which edges are constrained by nearest-neighbor rules. This notion comes from the Investigathon formulation in terms of forbidden colored patterns on triples of vertices. We make the correspondence between the two formalisms precise, define k -track triplet-legal layouts, and then investigate how many tracks (i.e., “colors”) are necessary for a given graph. We prove degree bounds, planarity results for $k \leq 2$, and structural examples such as cycles and graphs obtained from a path by adding one extra edge. Along the way we highlight exactly when $k \leq 2$ (“less than three colors”) is possible.

Contents

1	Basic Setup: Tracks, Order, and Legal Neighbors	1
1.1	Ordered k -track layouts	1
2	From Forbidden Colored Patterns to Triplet Constraints	3
2.1	Colored patterns on triples	4
2.2	The Investigathon patterns	4
2.3	Tracks as color classes	5
2.4	Triplet constraint formulation	5
3	Chromatic Number vs. Track-Based “Colors”	6
3.1	Track number and connected components	7
4	Nearest-Neighbor Layouts Satisfy the Triplet Constraint	8
5	Degree Bounds and Clique Constraints	9
5.1	A K_4 forces at least three tracks	9
5.2	A degree bound: $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$	10
5.3	Edge bounds for two tracks: at most $2n - 3$ edges	12
5.4	Two low-degree vertices at the ends of the order	14
6	Examples: Cycles and Paths with One Extra Edge	14
6.1	Cycles: C_n needs exactly two tracks	15
6.2	A path plus one extra edge	16
7	Planarity for $k \leq 2$	17

8	Complexity: Recognizing 2-Track Nearest-Neighbor Layouts	19
8.1	The decision problem 2TNN-LAYOUT	19
8.2	Membership in NP	19
9	A Recognition Algorithm for Two-Track Layouts	19
10	Leyes Fundamentales sobre Tracks y Coloración	20
10.1	Ley de los puntos de articulación y coloración óptima	20
10.2	Ley para bosques y árboles (track number)	20
10.3	Ley para el número de tracks en función del grado máximo	21
10.4	Leyes algorítmicas para reconocimiento de dos tracks	21
10.5	Additional Algorithmic Laws for Two-Track Recognition	21
10.6	Immediate decisions from size and density	21
10.7	Linear-time structural filters	22
10.8	Cheap YES cases	22
10.9	Reducing to a bounded-degree planar core	23
10.10	The backtracking layer	23
10.11	Final algorithm and global complexity	24
A	Failed BFS-Based Cut Attempts	25
A.1	A too-weak bound: at most three new vertices per expansion	25
A.2	A false pattern condition: 2 new then 3 new	25
B	Bonus Track: Computing the Exact Track Number $\text{tn}(G)$	26
B.1	Lower bound: degree-based certificate	27
B.2	Trivial structures: trees and linear forests	27
B.3	Kernelization: leaf pruning	27
B.4	Biconnected component decomposition	28
B.5	Exact solver via backtracking	28
B.6	Aggregation: final track number	29
B.7	Complete algorithm and complexity	29

1 Basic Setup: Tracks, Order, and Legal Neighbors

Throughout, $G = (V, E)$ is a finite simple undirected graph.

1.1 Ordered k -track layouts

We begin with the purely combinatorial structure of tracks and a global order.

Definition 1.1 (Ordered k -track layout). Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$. A k -track ordered layout of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a pair

$$(\tau, p)$$

consisting of

- a *track assignment*

$$\tau : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\},$$

- and a bijective *position map*

$$p : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, |V|\}.$$

We write $x < y$ if and only if $p(x) < p(y)$ and think of all vertices laid out from left to right according to p .

An example is shown in Figure 1.

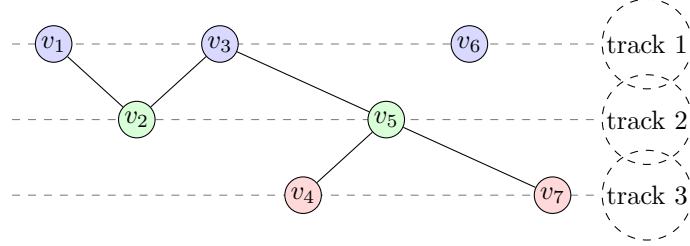


Figure 1: An example of a 3-track ordered layout: global order is left-to-right, colors indicate the track assignment τ .

For each track $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ we define the vertex set

$$V_t := \{v \in V : \tau(v) = t\},$$

ordered by increasing $p(\cdot)$ along that track.

Definition 1.2 (Predecessor, successor on a track). Given a k -track layout (τ, p) , a vertex $v \in V$, and a track t , we define:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pred}_t(v) &:= \text{the vertex in } V_t \text{ with largest } p(\cdot) \text{ strictly less than } p(v) \text{ (if it exists),} \\ \text{succ}_t(v) &:= \text{the vertex in } V_t \text{ with smallest } p(\cdot) \text{ strictly greater than } p(v) \text{ (if it exists).} \end{aligned}$$

If such a vertex does not exist, the predecessor/successor is said to be “nonexistent.” Intuitively, these are the nearest neighbors of v on track t to the left/right in the global order.

See Figure 2 for a pictorial view along a single track.

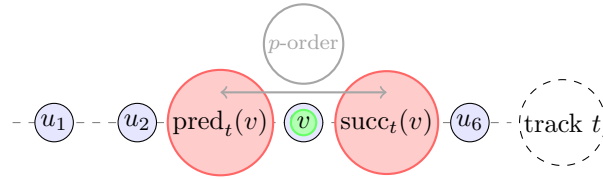


Figure 2: Predecessor and successor of a vertex v on a single track t in the global order.

Definition 1.3 (Legal neighbor set and host graph). Given (τ, p) , the *legal neighbor set* of $v \in V$ is

$$N_{\text{legal}}(v) := \{\text{pred}_t(v), \text{succ}_t(v) : t = 1, \dots, k\} \setminus \{\text{nonexistent}\}.$$

The corresponding *host graph* $H(\tau, p)$ on vertex set V has edge set

$$E(H(\tau, p)) := \{\{u, v\} : u \in N_{\text{legal}}(v)\}.$$

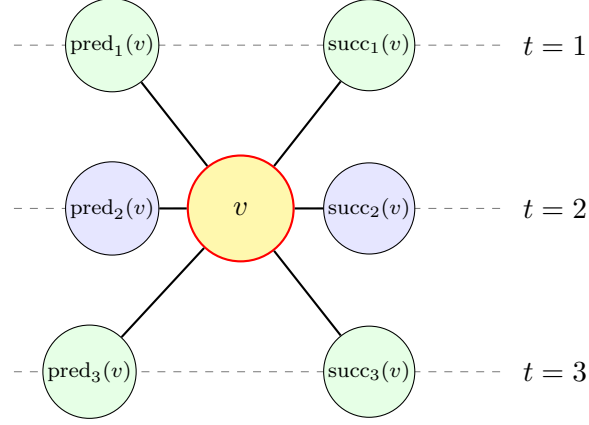


Figure 3: The legal neighbor set $N_{\text{legal}}(v)$.

Figure 3 shows $N_{\text{legal}}(v)$ on three tracks.

Definition 1.4 (*k-track nearest-neighbor representable graph*). A graph $G = (V, E)$ is *k-track nearest-neighbor representable* if there exists a *k-track ordered layout* (τ, p) of V such that

$$E \subseteq E(H(\tau, p)),$$

i.e. every edge of G is a legal edge in the host graph. Equivalently,

$$\forall v \in V, \quad N_G(v) \subseteq N_{\text{legal}}(v).$$

The smallest such k (if it exists) is the *nearest-neighbor track number* of G .

Figure 4 illustrates a typical host graph when $k = 1$. Figure 5 shows a typical host graph when $k = 2$.

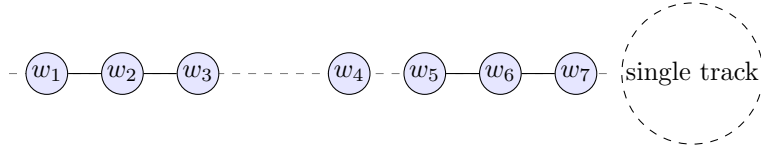


Figure 4: With a single track, the host graph is a disjoint union of paths and isolated vertices (a linear forest).

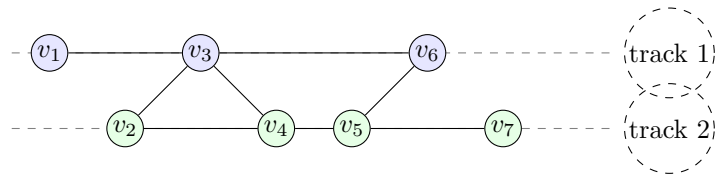


Figure 5: With two tracks, the host graph may have path-like pieces on each track plus cross-track edges between nearest neighbors on the other track.

Remark 1.5 (What $k = 1$ really means). When $k = 1$, every vertex has at most one predecessor and one successor, so the host graph $H(\tau, p)$ is a subgraph of a simple path. Thus any 1-track nearest-neighbor representable graph is a disjoint union of paths and isolated vertices (a *linear forest*). This will be important when we discuss whether “less than two colors” (tracks) is possible.

Remark 1.6 (What $k = 2$ really means). When $k = 2$, each vertex can have at most two legal neighbors on its own track (one predecessor and one successor) and at most two legal neighbors on the other track (again, one predecessor and one successor there). Thus every vertex in the host graph $H(\tau, p)$ has degree at most 4, and $H(\tau, p)$ can be viewed as two path-like layers (one per track) with additional nearest-neighbor cross edges between the layers, as in Figure 5. In particular, any 2-track nearest-neighbor representable graph is a subgraph of such a “ladder-like” planar host graph. This will be important when we discuss when “less than three colors” (tracks) is possible.

2 From Forbidden Colored Patterns to Triplet Constraints

The Investigathon formulation uses forbidden *colored patterns* on triples of vertices. We now translate that language into our k -track layout setting.

2.1 Colored patterns on triples

Definition 2.1 (Colored pattern on three vertices). Fix the index set $\{1, 2, 3\}$. A (plain) *pattern* is a pair

$$(E_P, N_P),$$

where $E_P, N_P \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\} \times \{1, 2, 3\}$ encode edges that must be present and edges that must be absent between the three distinguished positions.

A *colored pattern* is a triple

$$P = (E_P, N_P, C_P),$$

where (E_P, N_P) is a pattern as above and $C_P \subseteq \{1, 2, 3\}$ is the set of indices that are required to lie in the same color class.

In the Investigathon setting, the input is:

- a linear order $<$ on $V(G)$, and
- a partition (“coloring”) $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ of $V(G)$ into k color classes.

Definition 2.2 (Realizing a colored pattern). Given $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ as above and a colored pattern $P = (E_P, N_P, C_P)$, an ordered triple of distinct vertices

$$v_1 < v_2 < v_3$$

realizes P if:

- (i) for every $(i, j) \in E_P$ we have $\{v_i, v_j\} \in E(G)$;
- (ii) for every $(i, j) \in N_P$ we have $\{v_i, v_j\} \notin E(G)$;
- (iii) all v_i with $i \in C_P$ lie in a common color class in \mathcal{S} .

We say that $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ *avoids* P if no triple $v_1 < v_2 < v_3$ realizes P .

Given a finite family Π of colored patterns, $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ *avoids* Π if it avoids every $P \in \Pi$.

2.2 The Investigathon patterns

In our case, the forbidden family Π consists of the two patterns

$$\begin{aligned} P^{(1)} : \quad E_{P^{(1)}} &= \{(1, 3)\}, \quad N_{P^{(1)}} = \emptyset, \quad C_{P^{(1)}} = \{1, 2\}, \\ P^{(2)} : \quad E_{P^{(2)}} &= \{(1, 3)\}, \quad N_{P^{(2)}} = \emptyset, \quad C_{P^{(2)}} = \{2, 3\}. \end{aligned}$$

Intuitively:

- $P^{(1)}$ forbids triples $x < y < z$ with $\{x, z\} \in E(G)$ and x, y of the same color;
- $P^{(2)}$ forbids triples $x < y < z$ with $\{x, z\} \in E(G)$ and y, z of the same color.

See Figure 6 and 7.

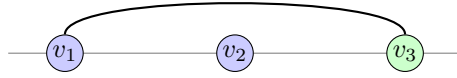


Figure 6: Forbidden pattern $P^{(1)}$: $v_1 < v_2 < v_3$ with $\{v_1, v_3\} \in E(G)$ and v_1, v_2 in the same color class.

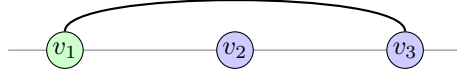


Figure 7: Forbidden pattern $P^{(2)}$: $v_1 < v_2 < v_3$ with $\{v_1, v_3\} \in E(G)$ and v_2, v_3 in the same color class.

A solution with at most k colors in the Investigathon sense is precisely a pair $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ with $|\mathcal{S}| \leq k$ that avoids $P^{(1)}$ and $P^{(2)}$.

2.3 Tracks as color classes

Given a k -track layout (τ, p) , the track assignment induces a partition into color classes

$$S_i := \{v \in V(G) : \tau(v) = i\}, \quad \mathcal{S} = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\},$$

and the global order $<$ is defined by p .

Conversely, given a partition $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ and a linear order $<$, we obtain a k -track layout by labeling the parts S_1, \dots, S_k and setting $\tau(v) = i$ for $v \in S_i$, and letting p be any bijection consistent with $<$.

Thus there is a one-to-one correspondence between:

- solutions $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ with at most k colors, and
- k -track ordered layouts (τ, p) .

2.4 Triplet constraint formulation

We now restate avoidance of $P^{(1)}$ and $P^{(2)}$ in a compact way.

Lemma 2.3 (Colored patterns vs. triplet constraint). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph and let (τ, p) be a k -track ordered layout with associated order $<$ and induced partition \mathcal{S} as above. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) $(\mathcal{S}, <)$ avoids both colored patterns $P^{(1)}$ and $P^{(2)}$.
- (2) For every triple $x, y, z \in V$ with

$$p(x) < p(y) < p(z) \quad \text{and} \quad \{x, z\} \in E(G),$$

we have

$$\tau(y) \neq \tau(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \tau(y) \neq \tau(z).$$

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose there exist x, y, z with $p(x) < p(y) < p(z)$ and $\{x, z\} \in E(G)$ such that $\tau(y) = \tau(x)$ or $\tau(y) = \tau(z)$.

Write $v_1 := x$, $v_2 := y$, $v_3 := z$. Then $\{v_1, v_3\} \in E(G)$. If $\tau(y) = \tau(x)$ then v_1 and v_2 lie in the same color class and (v_1, v_2, v_3) realizes $P^{(1)}$, contradicting avoidance of $P^{(1)}$. If $\tau(y) = \tau(z)$ then (v_1, v_2, v_3) realizes $P^{(2)}$, a contradiction. Thus $\tau(y)$ differs from both $\tau(x)$ and $\tau(z)$.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Assume (2) holds. Suppose some triple $v_1 < v_2 < v_3$ realizes $P^{(1)}$. Then $\{v_1, v_3\} \in E(G)$ and v_1, v_2 lie in the same color class, i.e. $\tau(v_1) = \tau(v_2)$, contradicting (2) with $(x, y, z) = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$. An identical argument with roles of positions $\{1, 2\}$ and $\{2, 3\}$ exchanged shows that no triple realizes $P^{(2)}$ either. \square

Definition 2.4 (k -track triplet-legal layout). A k -track ordered layout (τ, p) of G is *triplet-legal* if for every $x, y, z \in V$ with

$$p(x) < p(y) < p(z) \quad \text{and} \quad \{x, z\} \in E(G),$$

we have

$$\tau(y) \neq \tau(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \tau(y) \neq \tau(z).$$

By Lemma 2.3, triplet-legal layouts are exactly the layouts corresponding to Investigathon solutions avoiding $P^{(1)}$ and $P^{(2)}$.

Figure 8 contrasts a forbidden and two legal triples, one using fewer colors than the other.

Remark 2.5 (Nearest-neighbor vs. triplet-legal). Nearest-neighbor representability is a *stronger* requirement than being triplet-legal: in a nearest-neighbor layout, every edge must be between nearest neighbors on some track; in a triplet-legal layout we only forbid certain colored patterns on triples. In the next section we show that nearest-neighbor layouts automatically satisfy the triplet constraint.

3 Chromatic Number vs. Track-Based “Colors”

The track index $\tau(v)$ behaves a bit like a color, but it is *not* a proper graph coloring in the classical sense (edges within a track are allowed). We only need two standard facts from ordinary graph coloring for analogy:

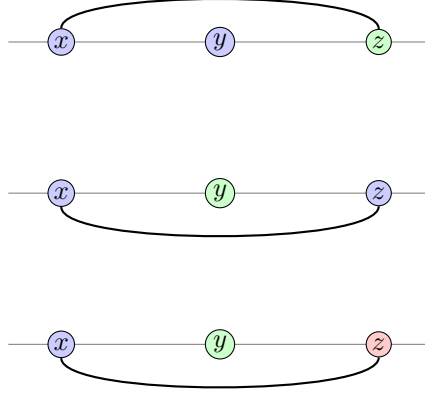


Figure 8: Top: a forbidden triple where y shares a track (color) with x . Middle: a legal triple where x shares a track (color) with z . Bottom: a legal triple where the middle vertex lies on a third track.

- If G_1, \dots, G_r are the connected components of G , then

$$\chi(G) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq r} \chi(G_i).$$

- If G contains a clique of size r , then $\chi(G) \geq r$; in particular a K_4 forces at least four colors.

In the nearest-neighbor setting, track labels play the role of “colors”, and we will see analogues of both statements for the track number.

3.1 Track number and connected components

Definition 3.1 (Nearest-neighbor track number). The *nearest-neighbor track number* of a graph G , denoted $\text{tn}(G)$, is the smallest $k \in \mathbb{N}$ for which G is k -track nearest-neighbor representable.

Proposition 3.2 (Track number and connected components). *Let G_1, \dots, G_r be the connected components of G . Then*

$$\text{tn}(G) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq r} \text{tn}(G_i).$$

Remark 3.3. Proposition 3.2 is directly analogous to the classical fact that $\chi(G) = \max_i \chi(G_i)$ for the chromatic number: in both settings, the number of “colors” needed for the whole graph is the maximum over its connected components.

Proof. Lower bound. Any layout witnessing G as k -track nearest-neighbor representable restricts to a layout for each G_i , so $\text{tn}(G_i) \leq k$. Taking the minimum over all such k gives $\max_i \text{tn}(G_i) \leq \text{tn}(G)$.

Upper bound. Let $k_i = \text{tn}(G_i)$ and $k := \max_i k_i$. For each component G_i choose a k_i -track layout (τ_i, p_i) witnessing nearest-neighbor representability. Relabel tracks so that τ_i takes values in $\{1, \dots, k\}$ (we simply do not use all labels when $k_i < k$).

Now place the components one after another in the global order: define p by stacking the orders p_1, \dots, p_r with disjoint ranges, and set $\tau(v) = \tau_i(v)$ for $v \in V(G_i)$. This gives a k -track layout (τ, p) of G in which every edge inside each component remains legal. There are no edges between components, so nothing else needs to be checked. Hence G is k -track nearest-neighbor representable and $\text{tn}(G) \leq k$. \square

Figure 9 shows how track layouts for components can be stacked in the global order while reusing the same set of track labels.

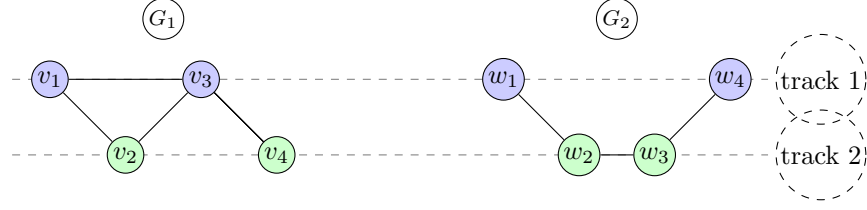


Figure 9: Layouts for different components share the same track labels. The global order stacks the components one after another.

Remark 3.4 (When is fewer than 2 tracks enough?). From Section 1, a 1-track host graph is always a disjoint union of paths and isolated vertices (a linear forest). Thus

$$\text{tn}(G) = 1 \iff G \text{ is a linear forest,}$$

and any graph containing a cycle requires at least two tracks. Figure 10 illustrates why a cycle cannot live on a single track.

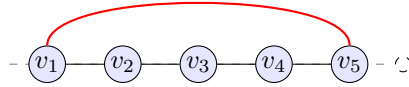


Figure 10: On a single track, only edges between consecutive vertices can be legal. The edge $\{v_1, v_5\}$ needed to complete a cycle skips three vertices and cannot be realized.

4 Nearest-Neighbor Layouts Satisfy the Triplet Constraint

We now connect the nearest-neighbor condition back to the triplet constraint of Lemma 2.3.

Lemma 4.1 (Triplet constraint for nearest-neighbor layouts). *Let (τ, p) be a k -track ordered layout of a graph $G = (V, E)$ and suppose that G is k -track nearest-neighbor representable with respect to (τ, p) , i.e.*

$$N_G(v) \subseteq N_{\text{legal}}(v) \quad \text{for all } v \in V.$$

Let $x, y, z \in V$ such that

$$p(x) < p(y) < p(z),$$

and suppose $\{x, z\} \in E$. Then

$$\tau(y) \neq \tau(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \tau(y) \neq \tau(z).$$

In words: any vertex strictly between adjacent vertices x and z in the global order must lie on a track different from both $\tau(x)$ and $\tau(z)$.

Figure 11 shows the situation in Lemma 4.1.

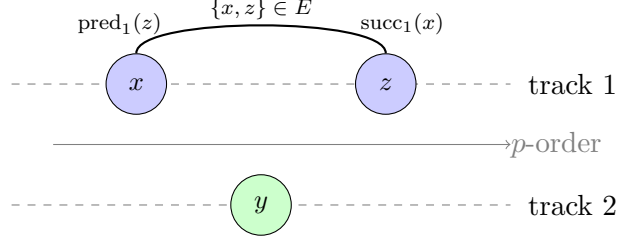


Figure 11: If $\{x, z\}$ is an edge coming from nearest neighbors on track 1, then no other vertex on track 1 can lie between them in the global order. Hence any middle vertex y must live on a different track.

Proof. Since $\{x, z\} \in E$ and G is nearest-neighbor representable, we have

$$z \in N_{\text{legal}}(x) \quad \text{and} \quad x \in N_{\text{legal}}(z).$$

Step 1: z is the successor of x on track $\tau(z)$.

By definition of $N_{\text{legal}}(x)$, there exists a track t such that

$$z = \text{pred}_t(x) \quad \text{or} \quad z = \text{succ}_t(x).$$

If $z = \text{pred}_t(x)$ then $p(z) < p(x)$, contradicting $p(x) < p(z)$; hence

$$z = \text{succ}_t(x).$$

Moreover, $\text{succ}_t(x)$ lies on track t , hence $\tau(z) = t$ and

$$z = \text{succ}_{\tau(z)}(x).$$

By definition of successor, there is no vertex w on track $\tau(z)$ with global position strictly between $p(x)$ and $p(z)$, i.e.

$$\text{no } w \text{ satisfies } \tau(w) = \tau(z) \text{ and } p(x) < p(w) < p(z).$$

Since $p(x) < p(y) < p(z)$, we cannot have $\tau(y) = \tau(z)$.

Step 2: x is the predecessor of z on track $\tau(x)$.

Similarly, since $x \in N_{\text{legal}}(z)$ there exists some track s such that

$$x = \text{pred}_s(z) \quad \text{or} \quad x = \text{succ}_s(z).$$

Because $p(x) < p(z)$, x cannot be a successor of z , so

$$x = \text{pred}_s(z).$$

Hence $\tau(x) = s$ and

$$x = \text{pred}_{\tau(x)}(z).$$

Again by definition of predecessor, there is no vertex w on track $\tau(x)$ with $p(x) < p(w) < p(z)$. In particular, $\tau(y) \neq \tau(x)$.

Combining both steps, we obtain $\tau(y) \neq \tau(x)$ and $\tau(y) \neq \tau(z)$. □

Corollary 4.2. *Every k -track nearest-neighbor layout (τ, p) is a k -track triplet-legal layout. In particular, any nearest-neighbor solution automatically avoids the Investigation patterns $P^{(1)}$ and $P^{(2)}$.*

Proof. Apply Lemma 4.1 and then use Lemma 2.3. □

5 Degree Bounds and Clique Constraints

We now quantify how the number of tracks k controls the possible degrees and cliques in a nearest-neighbor representable graph. This addresses one natural way to *lower-bound* the number of “colors” (tracks) required.

5.1 A K_4 forces at least three tracks

Theorem 5.1 (A 4-clique forces $k \geq 3$). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph that is k -track nearest-neighbor representable for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. If G contains a clique of size 4, then $k \geq 3$. Equivalently, no 1- or 2-track layout can represent a 4-clique.*

Proof. Let $H \subseteq G$ be a subgraph isomorphic to K_4 with vertex set $\{a, b, c, d\}$. Let (τ, p) be a k -track ordered layout witnessing nearest-neighbor representability of G .

Rename a, b, c, d so that

$$p(a) < p(b) < p(c) < p(d).$$

Since H is complete, every pair among $\{a, b, c, d\}$ is an edge.

Using Lemma 4.1, we apply the triplet constraint to all triples (x, y, z) with $x < y < z$ where $\{x, z\}$ is an edge (always true in K_4). The relevant triples and consequences are:

$$\tau(b) \neq \tau(a), \quad \tau(b) \neq \tau(c), \quad \text{from } (a, b, c) \text{ and edge } \{a, c\}, \quad (1)$$

$$\tau(b) \neq \tau(a), \quad \tau(b) \neq \tau(d), \quad \text{from } (a, b, d) \text{ and edge } \{a, d\}, \quad (2)$$

$$\tau(c) \neq \tau(a), \quad \tau(c) \neq \tau(d), \quad \text{from } (a, c, d) \text{ and edge } \{a, d\}, \quad (3)$$

$$\tau(c) \neq \tau(b), \quad \tau(c) \neq \tau(d), \quad \text{from } (b, c, d) \text{ and edge } \{b, d\}. \quad (4)$$

From (1) and (2) we see that

$$\tau(b) \notin \{\tau(a), \tau(c), \tau(d)\},$$

and from (3) and (4) that

$$\tau(c) \notin \{\tau(a), \tau(b), \tau(d)\}.$$

Suppose $k \leq 2$. Then tracks are $\{1, 2\}$. Without loss of generality, let $\tau(a) = 1$.

Case 1: $\tau(d) = 1$. Then (2) implies $\tau(b) \neq \tau(a)$ and $\tau(b) \neq \tau(d)$, so $\tau(b) \neq 1$ and hence $\tau(b) = 2$. Similarly, (3) implies $\tau(c) \neq 1$, so $\tau(c) = 2$. But then (1) requires $\tau(b) \neq \tau(c)$, impossible.

Case 2: $\tau(d) = 2$. Then (2) says $\tau(b) \neq 1$ and $\tau(b) \neq 2$, which is impossible with only two tracks.

In all cases we get a contradiction, so $k \geq 3$. \square

Figure 12 shows a K_4 whose vertices cannot be assigned to only two tracks without violating Lemma 4.1.

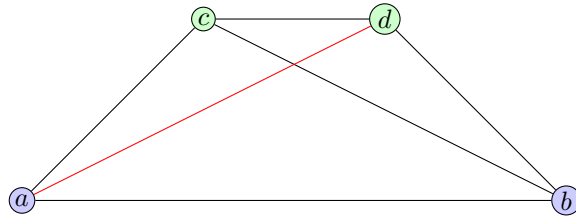


Figure 12: A K_4 drawn with two “track colors”. No ordering of a, b, c, d can avoid creating a triple $x < y < z$ with $\{x, z\} \in E$ where y shares a track with x or z , so at least three tracks are needed.

5.2 A degree bound: $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$

Lemma 5.2 (Degree bound for k -track nearest-neighbor layouts). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a simple undirected graph that is k -track nearest-neighbor representable. That is, there exists a layout (τ, p) with*

$$\tau : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\}, \quad p : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, |V|\}$$

such that every edge is legal:

$$\forall \{u, v\} \in E, \quad v \in N_{\text{legal}}(u) \quad (\text{equivalently } u \in N_{\text{legal}}(v)).$$

Then for every vertex $v \in V$ we have

$$\deg_G(v) \leq 2k.$$

In particular, the maximum degree $\Delta(G)$ satisfies

$$\Delta(G) \leq 2k.$$

Proof. Fix $v \in V$. For each track t , let $V_t = \{x : \tau(x) = t\}$ and define $\text{pred}_t(v), \text{succ}_t(v)$ as before. The legal neighbor set is

$$N_{\text{legal}}(v) = \{\text{pred}_1(v), \text{succ}_1(v), \dots, \text{pred}_k(v), \text{succ}_k(v)\} \setminus \{\text{nonexistent}\}.$$

By nearest-neighbor representability,

$$N_G(v) \subseteq N_{\text{legal}}(v),$$

so

$$\deg_G(v) = |N_G(v)| \leq |N_{\text{legal}}(v)|.$$

For each track t , at most two vertices can appear in $N_{\text{legal}}(v)$ from track t , namely $\text{pred}_t(v)$ and $\text{succ}_t(v)$ if they exist. Define

$$S_t(v) := \{\text{pred}_t(v), \text{succ}_t(v)\} \setminus \{\text{nonexistent}\},$$

so $|S_t(v)| \leq 2$ and

$$N_{\text{legal}}(v) = \bigcup_{t=1}^k S_t(v).$$

Thus

$$|N_{\text{legal}}(v)| \leq \sum_{t=1}^k |S_t(v)| \leq \sum_{t=1}^k 2 = 2k.$$

Hence $\deg_G(v) \leq 2k$ for all v , and taking the maximum gives $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$. □

Corollary 5.3 (Degree-based lower bound on tracks). *If G is k -track nearest-neighbor representable, then*

$$k \geq \left\lceil \frac{\Delta(G)}{2} \right\rceil.$$

Figure 13 shows a vertex of degree 5, which forces at least three tracks by Corollary 5.3

Proof. Immediate from Lemma 5.2. □

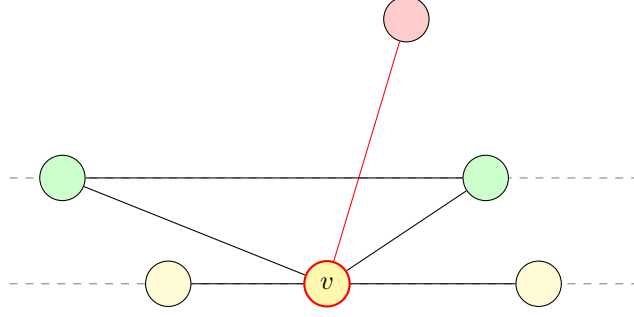


Figure 13: A vertex of degree 5: by $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$, this implies $k \geq 3$.

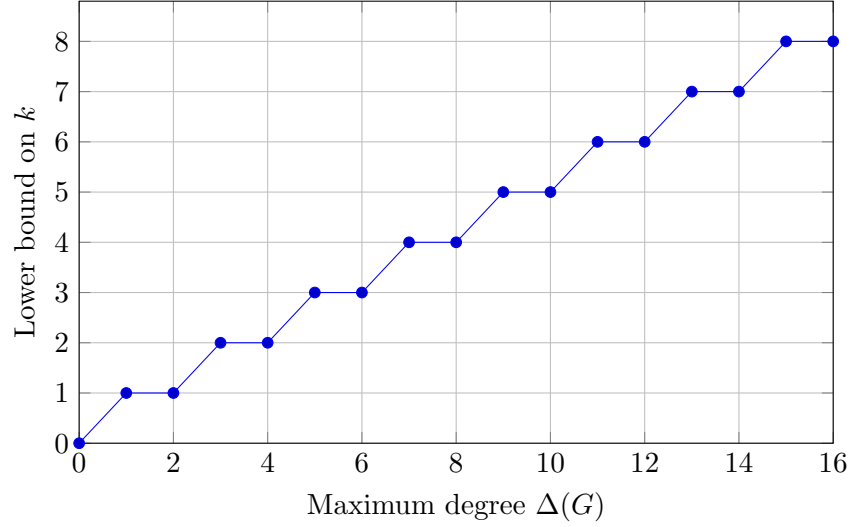


Figure 14: Lower bound on the number of tracks: $k \geq \lceil \Delta(G)/2 \rceil$. In particular, $\Delta(G) \geq 5$ forces $k \geq 3$.

5.3 Edge bounds for two tracks: at most $2n - 3$ edges

So far we have seen that a k -track nearest-neighbor layout forces $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$ (Lemma 5.2). For $k = 2$ we can say much more: not only is the maximum degree at most 4, but the *total number of edges* is at most $2n - 3$ for an n -vertex graph. This matches the familiar extremal bound for outerplanar graphs.

We work relative to a fixed 2-track ordered layout (τ, p) and its host graph $H(\tau, p)$.

Definition 5.4 (Left-degree). Given a linear order v_1, \dots, v_n of $V(G)$ induced by p , the *left-degree* of v_i is

$$\deg^-(v_i) := |\{u \in N_G(v_i) : p(u) < p(v_i)\}|.$$

Equivalently, $\deg^-(v_i)$ counts neighbors of v_i strictly to the left of v_i in the global order.

Every edge $\{u, v\}$ is counted exactly once in the sum of left-degrees, at its right endpoint.

Lemma 5.5 (At most one predecessor per track). *Let G be k -track nearest-neighbor representable with respect to (τ, p) , and let $v \in V(G)$. Then for each track $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, v has at most one neighbor on track t to its left. In particular,*

$$\deg^-(v) \leq k$$

for every vertex v .

Proof. Fix v and a track t . By definition, the only candidate left neighbor of v on track t that is legal in the host graph is $\text{pred}_t(v)$ (if it exists). There cannot be two distinct neighbors x, y on track t with $p(x) < p(y) < p(v)$ and both adjacent to v , because only the closest one to the left can be a legal predecessor on that track.

Thus, on track t , there is at most one neighbor of v to the left. Summing over the k tracks gives $\deg^-(v) \leq k$. \square

Theorem 5.6 (Edge bound for two-track nearest-neighbor layouts). *Let G be a finite simple graph on n vertices that is 2-track nearest-neighbor representable. Then*

$$|E(G)| \leq 2n - 3.$$

Moreover, for every $n \geq 2$ there exists such a graph with exactly $2n - 3$ edges.

Proof. Let (τ, p) be a 2-track layout and let $H = H(\tau, p)$ be its host graph. Since G is a subgraph of H , it suffices to prove $|E(H)| \leq 2n - 3$.

Write $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ in increasing order of p , so $p(v_i) = i$. Every edge of H has a unique right endpoint, so

$$|E(H)| = \sum_{i=1}^n \deg_H^-(v_i).$$

Now:

- For v_1 , there are no vertices to the left, so $\deg_H^-(v_1) = 0$.
- For v_2 , the only vertex to the left is v_1 , so $\deg_H^-(v_2) \leq 1$ in any simple graph.
- For each $i \geq 3$, Lemma 5.5 with $k = 2$ gives $\deg_H^-(v_i) \leq 2$.

Therefore,

$$|E(H)| = \sum_{i=1}^n \deg_H^-(v_i) \leq 0 + 1 + 2(n - 2) = 2n - 3.$$

Since G is a subgraph of H , we also have $|E(G)| \leq |E(H)| \leq 2n - 3$.

For tightness, fix $n \geq 2$ and construct a 2-track layout on vertices v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, w as follows:

- Put v_1, \dots, v_{n-1} on track 1 in the order $p(v_i) = i$ and connect all consecutive pairs $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$, forming a path of length $n - 2$.
- Put w on track 2 at the far right, $p(w) = n$.

On track 1 we have $n - 2$ edges. For the cross-track neighbors:

- For each v_i , w is the nearest track-2 vertex to the right, so $\{v_i, w\}$ is a legal cross-track edge.
- There are $n - 1$ such vertices v_i .

Thus H has $(n - 2)$ edges along track 1 and $(n - 1)$ cross edges to w , for a total of

$$(n - 2) + (n - 1) = 2n - 3$$

edges. Taking $G = H$ shows that the bound is tight for every $n \geq 2$. \square

Figure 15 shows the extremal construction for $n = 6$, and Figure 16 shows how each newly added vertex can contribute at most two new edges when we build such a graph from left to right in the global order.

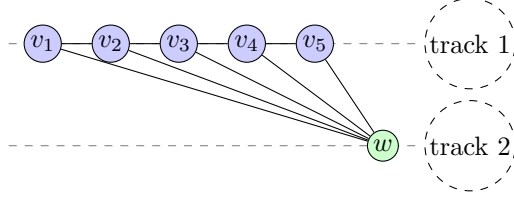


Figure 15: An extremal 2-track host graph on $n = 6$ vertices: a path $v_1 - \dots - v_5$ on track 1 and a single vertex w on track 2, joined to every v_i . This has $(6 - 2) + (6 - 1) = 9 = 2n - 3$ edges.

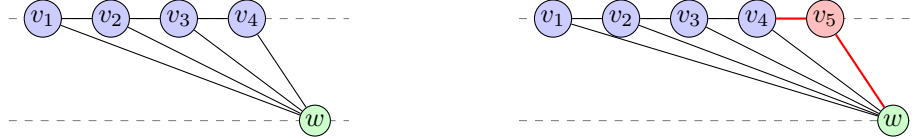


Figure 16: Incremental view of the extremal family. When we append a new vertex at the right end of the main track (here v_5), we can connect it to at most two new neighbors to its left: the previous endpoint of the path and the special vertex w on the other track. This contributes exactly two new edges, consistent with the bound $|E| \leq 2n - 3$.

5.4 Two low-degree vertices at the ends of the order

The proof of Theorem 5.6 naturally singles out the first and last vertices in the global order. For $k = 2$ they *always* have degree at most 2.

Lemma 5.7 (Endpoints have degree at most two). *Let G be 2-track nearest-neighbor representable with layout (τ, p) on vertices v_1, \dots, v_n in increasing p -order. Then*

$$\deg_G(v_1) \leq 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \deg_G(v_n) \leq 2.$$

Proof. By definition,

$$N_{\text{legal}}(v) = \{\text{pred}_1(v), \text{succ}_1(v), \text{pred}_2(v), \text{succ}_2(v)\} \setminus \{\text{nonexistent}\}.$$

For v_1 there is no vertex to the left on any track, so both $\text{pred}_1(v_1)$ and $\text{pred}_2(v_1)$ are nonexistent. The only possible legal neighbors of v_1 are its two successors, $\text{succ}_1(v_1)$ and $\text{succ}_2(v_1)$, one on each track if they exist. Thus $|N_{\text{legal}}(v_1)| \leq 2$, and since G is a subgraph of the host graph, $\deg_G(v_1) \leq |N_{\text{legal}}(v_1)| \leq 2$.

Symmetrically, v_n has no vertices to the right on any track, so both $\text{succ}_1(v_n)$ and $\text{succ}_2(v_n)$ are nonexistent, and its only possible legal neighbors are the two predecessors $\text{pred}_1(v_n)$ and $\text{pred}_2(v_n)$. Again $|N_{\text{legal}}(v_n)| \leq 2$, so $\deg_G(v_n) \leq 2$. \square

In particular, every connected 2-track nearest-neighbor representable graph has at least two vertices of degree at most 2, sitting at the left and right ends of the global order. This is exactly what one needs to start an inductive “peeling” argument: delete v_1 or v_n , apply the edge bound to the remaining $(n - 1)$ -vertex graph, and then add back a vertex of degree at most 2.

6 Examples: Cycles and Paths with One Extra Edge

We now look at explicit families of graphs and determine their track numbers, answering more concretely when $k = 1$ versus $k = 2$ is sufficient.

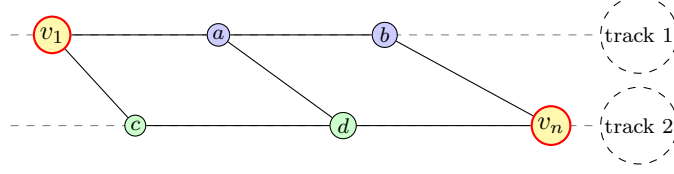


Figure 17: In a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout, the first vertex v_1 can only see one successor on each track, and the last vertex v_n can only see one predecessor on each track. Hence both have degree at most 2.

6.1 Cycles: C_n needs exactly two tracks

Theorem 6.1 (Track number of a cycle). *For every integer $n \geq 3$, the cycle graph C_n is k -track nearest-neighbor representable for $k = 2$, but not for $k = 1$. In particular,*

$$\text{tn}(C_n) = 2.$$

Proof. Step 1: C_n is not representable with $k = 1$.

Assume, for contradiction, that C_n is 1-track nearest-neighbor representable. Then there exists a 1-track ordered layout (τ, p) such that every edge of C_n is legal.

Since $k = 1$, every vertex lies on track 1, and we can write the linear order as

$$v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, \quad \text{where } p(v_i) = i.$$

On the single track, the only possible legal edges are between consecutive vertices:

$$E(H(\tau, p)) \subseteq \{\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} : 1 \leq i \leq n-1\},$$

so $H(\tau, p)$ is a forest (in fact a path) and contains no cycle. But C_n is a cycle, so it cannot be a subgraph of $H(\tau, p)$, contradicting nearest-neighbor representability.

Thus C_n is not 1-track representable.

Step 2: explicit 2-track layout for C_n .

Label the vertices of C_n as v_1, \dots, v_n with edges

$$E(C_n) = \{\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} : 1 \leq i \leq n-1\} \cup \{\{v_n, v_1\}\}.$$

Global order. Set $p(v_i) = i$ for all i .

Track assignment. Use two tracks $\{1, 2\}$ and define

$$\tau(v_1) = \tau(v_n) = 1, \quad \tau(v_i) = 2 \quad \text{for } 2 \leq i \leq n-1.$$

Thus track 1 has vertices $\{v_1, v_n\}$ and track 2 has $\{v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$.

We now check that each edge of C_n is legal.

Interior edges on track 2. For $2 \leq i \leq n-2$, both v_i and v_{i+1} lie on track 2 and are consecutive there, so

$$\text{succ}_2(v_i) = v_{i+1}, \quad \text{pred}_2(v_{i+1}) = v_i.$$

Hence each $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ with $2 \leq i \leq n-2$ is legal.

Edges $\{v_1, v_2\}$ and $\{v_{n-1}, v_n\}$. These involve one vertex on track 1 and one on track 2. Checking the nearest opposite-track neighbors shows:

- v_2 is the closest track-2 vertex to the right of v_1 and v_1 is the closest track-1 vertex to the left of v_2 , so $\{v_1, v_2\}$ is legal.
- v_n is the closest track-1 vertex to the right of v_{n-1} and v_{n-1} is the closest track-2 vertex to the left of v_n , so $\{v_{n-1}, v_n\}$ is legal.

Edge $\{v_n, v_1\}$. Both endpoints lie on track 1 and are the only vertices there, so

$$\text{succ}_1(v_1) = v_n, \quad \text{pred}_1(v_n) = v_1,$$

and $\{v_n, v_1\}$ is legal.

Thus (τ, p) is a 2-track layout in which all edges of C_n are legal, so C_n is 2-track nearest-neighbor representable.

Combined with the non-representability for $k = 1$, we obtain $\text{tn}(C_n) = 2$. \square

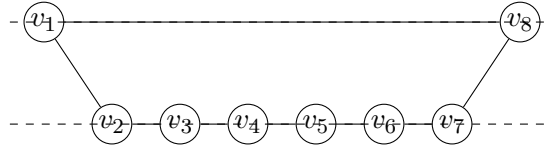


Figure 18: A 2-track layout of C_8 with v_1, v_8 on track 1 and v_2, \dots, v_7 on track 2.

6.2 A path plus one extra edge

We next show that a path with a single additional edge is always 2-track representable. This is a simple example of a graph that is *no longer* a linear forest but still only needs $k = 2$ tracks.

Theorem 6.2 (Paths with one extra edge). *Let G be a connected simple undirected graph obtained as follows:*

- $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ for some $n \geq 2$,
- E contains all path edges $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$,
- and in addition a single extra edge $e^* = \{v_a, v_b\}$ with $1 \leq a < b \leq n$.

Then G is 2-track nearest-neighbor representable.

Figure 19 illustrates the construction in the case of an extra edge $\{v_3, v_7\}$. The same idea works when one or both endpoints of the extra edge are at the ends of the path. Since a 1-track nearest-neighbor representable graph is a linear forest (Remark 1.5) and our graphs contain a cycle, they cannot be 1-track representable. Combined with the construction above, this shows that their nearest-neighbor track number is exactly 2.

Proof. We keep the natural order $p(v_i) = i$ and modify only the track assignment.

Step 1: start with the path. For the bare path P_n with edges $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$, the layout

$$\tau^{(1)}(v_i) = 1 \quad \text{for all } i, \quad p(v_i) = i,$$

is a 1-track nearest-neighbor layout: each $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ connects consecutive vertices on track 1.

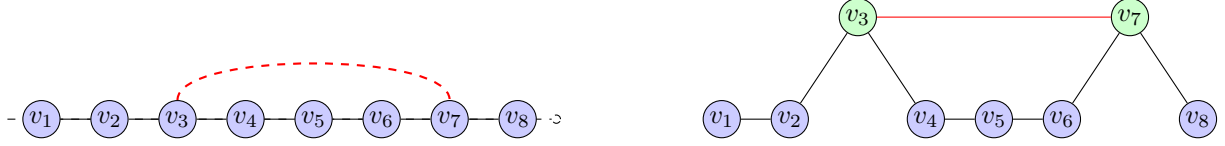


Figure 19: A path $v_1 - \dots - v_8$ with an extra edge $\{v_3, v_7\}$. Left: the natural 1-track layout of the path; the extra edge (red, dashed) skips several vertices and is not a nearest-neighbor edge. Right: by moving v_3 and v_7 to track 2, we obtain a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout in which the extra edge (solid red) becomes legal while all path edges remain legal.

Step 2: move the extra-edge endpoints to track 2. Now add the extra edge $e^* = \{v_a, v_b\}$ with $a < b$, keep the same global order p , and define a new track assignment τ by

$$\tau(v_i) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } i \in \{a, b\}, \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus only v_a and v_b are on track 2; every other vertex is on track 1.

We check that every edge of G is legal under (τ, p) .

Step 3: path edges not incident with v_a or v_b . If $i \notin \{a-1, a, b-1, b\}$, then $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ is not incident with v_a or v_b and both endpoints lie on track 1. They are consecutive in the global order, and no other track-1 vertex lies between them; hence

$$\text{succ}_1(v_i) = v_{i+1}, \quad \text{pred}_1(v_{i+1}) = v_i,$$

and $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$ is legal.

Step 4: path edges incident with v_a or v_b . Consider the edges $\{v_{a-1}, v_a\}$ and $\{v_a, v_{a+1}\}$ (when these indices exist). The neighbor of v_a immediately to the left on track 1 is v_{a-1} and immediately to the right is v_{a+1} , so

$$\text{pred}_1(v_a) = v_{a-1} \text{ (if } a > 1), \quad \text{succ}_1(v_a) = v_{a+1} \text{ (if } a < n).$$

Thus the edges $\{v_{a-1}, v_a\}$ and $\{v_a, v_{a+1}\}$ are legal.

The same argument applies to v_b : the nearest track-1 vertices to the left and right are v_{b-1} and v_{b+1} (when they exist), making $\{v_{b-1}, v_b\}$ and $\{v_b, v_{b+1}\}$ legal.

Step 5: the extra edge $\{v_a, v_b\}$. On track 2, v_a and v_b are the only vertices and $a < b$. Thus

$$\text{succ}_2(v_a) = v_b, \quad \text{pred}_2(v_b) = v_a,$$

so $v_b \in N_{\text{legal}}(v_a)$ and $v_a \in N_{\text{legal}}(v_b)$. Hence the extra edge is legal.

Altogether, every edge of G is legal, so G is 2-track nearest-neighbor representable. \square

7 Planarity for $k \leq 2$

Finally, we show that $k \leq 2$ imposes strong structural limitations: every such graph is planar.

Theorem 7.1 (Planarity for $k \leq 2$). *Let G be a simple undirected graph that is (k) -track nearest-neighbor representable with $k \leq 2$. Then G is planar.*

Proof. We treat $k = 1$ and $k = 2$ separately.

Case $k = 1$. When there is only one track, each vertex has at most one predecessor and one successor, and every legal edge joins consecutive vertices in the single track order. Thus every connected component of G is a path (or an isolated vertex). Such a graph is a disjoint union of paths and isolated vertices, hence planar.

Case $k = 2$: reduction to host graphs. Fix a 2-track layout (τ, p) on V and let $H(\tau, p)$ be the host graph containing all legal edges. Since G is a subgraph of $H(\tau, p)$, it suffices to show that $H(\tau, p)$ is planar.

Place the vertices along a horizontal line in the global order v_1, \dots, v_n with $p(v_i) = i$, and write $\tau(v_i) \in \{1, 2\}$. We partition the edges of $H(\tau, p)$ into four classes:

- $E^{(1)}$: edges between consecutive vertices on track 1,
- $E^{(2)}$: edges between consecutive vertices on track 2,
- E_R : cross-track edges where each vertex is the nearest opposite-track neighbor to the right,
- E_L : cross-track edges where each vertex is the nearest opposite-track neighbor to the left.

Figure 20 schematically illustrates the planar drawing used in the proof.

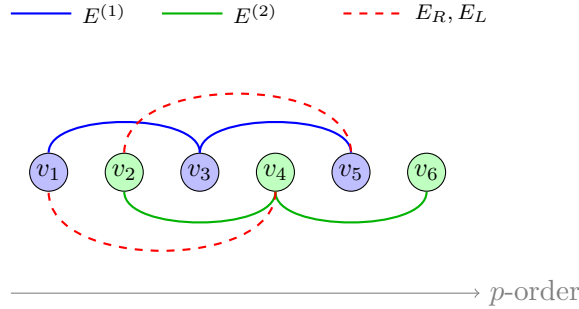


Figure 20: A schematic planar embedding for a 2-track host graph: edges on track 1 and right-going cross edges are drawn above the line, while edges on track 2 and left-going cross edges are drawn below.

We draw:

- all vertices v_1, \dots, v_n on the x -axis at $(i, 0)$,
- all edges in $E^{(1)} \cup E_R$ as x -monotone arcs in the upper half-plane,
- all edges in $E^{(2)} \cup E_L$ as x -monotone arcs in the lower half-plane.

It is a standard interval-order argument (we omit the routine details) that:

- edges in $E^{(1)}$ form a non-crossing family in the upper half-plane,
- edges in E_R form a non-crossing family in the upper half-plane,
- no edge in $E^{(1)}$ crosses any edge in E_R in the upper half-plane,
- by symmetry, the same holds for $E^{(2)}$ and E_L in the lower half-plane.

Since upper and lower half-plane edges only meet along the horizontal line at their endpoints, this gives a planar embedding of $H(\tau, p)$. Thus $H(\tau, p)$ is planar, and any subgraph G of it is planar as well. \square

This planarity constraint, together with the degree and edge bounds proved earlier, will be exploited in Section 9 to design a recognition algorithm for 2-track nearest-neighbor layouts.

8 Complexity: Recognizing 2-Track Nearest-Neighbor Layouts

8.1 The decision problem 2TNN-Layout

We fix $k = 2$ throughout this section. Recall that a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout of a graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of:

- a track assignment $\tau : V \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$,
- and a bijection $p : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, |V|\}$,

such that every edge $\{u, v\} \in E$ is legal in the sense of Section 1: each endpoint is either the predecessor or successor of the other on some track (its own or the opposite track).

Definition 8.1 (2TNN-LAYOUT). The decision problem 2TNN-LAYOUT is:

Input: A finite simple undirected graph $G = (V, E)$.

Question: Does there exist a 2-track ordered layout (τ, p) of G such that G is 2-track nearest-neighbor representable with respect to (τ, p) , i.e.

$$\forall v \in V, \quad N_G(v) \subseteq N_{\text{legal}}(v)?$$

Equivalently, is $\text{tn}(G) \leq 2$ in the nearest-neighbor sense?

8.2 Membership in NP

Proposition 8.2 (2TNN-LAYOUT is in NP). *The problem 2TNN-LAYOUT belongs to the complexity class NP.*

Proof. A certificate consists of a pair (τ, p) with $\tau : V \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$ and a bijection $p : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$. From (τ, p) we can compute all predecessors and successors along each track in linear time and thus the legal neighbor sets $N_{\text{legal}}(v)$. We then verify in $O(|E|)$ time that every edge of G is legal at both endpoints. Hence 2TNN-LAYOUT is in NP. \square

9 A Recognition Algorithm for Two-Track Layouts

extbfHybrid Algorithm: Two-Track Graph Recognizer

Objective: Efficiently determine if a graph G can be represented with $k \leq 2$ tracks.

Complexity: $O(N)$ for almost all cases (including all trees). Exponential only in the size of the most complex individual cycle.

extbfPhase 1: Global Viability Filters (Necessary Bounds)

- **Density Filter:** If $|E| > 2|V| - 3$, return *FALSE* (too dense). Cost: $O(1)$.

- **Planarity Filter:** If G is not planar (e.g., contains $K_{3,3}$), return *FALSE*. Cost: $O(N)$.
- **Degree Filter:** If $\Delta(G) \geq 5$, return *FALSE*. Cost: $O(N)$.

extbfPhase 2: Kernelization (Leaf Peeling)

- Recursively remove all degree-1 vertices (leaves), updating neighbor degrees.
- If the original graph was a tree or forest, this phase reduces it to the empty graph. If no nodes remain, return *TRUE*.
- The remaining graph is the *core* (G_{core}), containing only cycles and closed structures.

extbfPhase 3: Topological Decomposition (Divide and Conquer)

- Use DFS to find articulation points in the core.
- Decompose the core into a list of biconnected components (blocks) B_1, B_2, \dots .
- Justification: The problem is local; if any block fails, the whole graph fails.

extbfPhase 4: Exact Solver (Local Validation)

- For each block B_i , run a slot-based backtracking solver with $k = 2$.
- If any block returns *FALSE*, return *FALSE* for the whole graph.
- If all blocks succeed, return *TRUE*.

10 Leyes Fundamentales sobre Tracks y Coloración

10.1 Ley de los puntos de articulación y coloración óptima

Theorem 10.1 (Coloring and Articulation Points). *Let G be a connected graph and v an articulation point of G . If removing v separates G into components C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k , then:*

- *The chromatic number of G equals the maximum of the chromatic numbers of the induced subgraphs $C_i \cup \{v\}$, for $i = 1, \dots, k$.*
- *An optimal k -coloring of G can be obtained by coloring v and then, for each component C_i , coloring C_i separately, ensuring that the neighbors of v in C_i receive a color different from v .*

In summary: The optimal coloring of a graph with an articulation point can be constructed by combining the optimal colorings of the parts separated by that point, respecting the color of the articulation point.

10.2 Ley para bosques y árboles (track number)

Theorem 10.2 (Track Number of Forests and Trees). *A graph G is a forest (i.e., acyclic) if and only if its nearest-neighbor track number is 1. In particular, every tree admits a 1-track nearest-neighbor layout.*

Proof. A 1-track layout only allows paths and isolated vertices (a linear forest). Any cycle would require at least two tracks. Thus, G is a forest if and only if it is 1-track representable. \square

10.3 Ley para el número de tracks en función del grado máximo

Theorem 10.3 (Track Number and Maximum Degree in Forests). *If G is a forest with maximum degree Δ , then its nearest-neighbor track number k satisfies $k = \lceil \Delta/2 \rceil$.*

Proof. In a 1-track layout, each vertex can have at most two neighbors (left and right). For higher degrees, the minimum number of tracks needed is $\lceil \Delta/2 \rceil$ to avoid conflicts. \square

10.4 Leyes algorítmicas para reconocimiento de dos tracks

10.5 Additional Algorithmic Laws for Two-Track Recognition

Theorem 10.4 (Memoization of Isomorphic Blocks). *During the decomposition into biconnected blocks, if two blocks are isomorphic (structurally identical), the result of the exact solver for one can be reused for the other.*

Proof. Isomorphic blocks have the same constraints and possible layouts. Thus, solving one instance provides a solution for all isomorphic copies, reducing redundant computation and improving efficiency. \square

Theorem 10.5 (Parallelization of Block Solvers). *The exact validation of each biconnected block is independent of the others. Therefore, the solvers can be executed in parallel for each block.*

Proof. Since blocks are separated by articulation points, their layouts do not interfere. Running solvers in parallel leverages multi-core systems, reducing total runtime without affecting correctness. \square

Theorem 10.6 (Advanced Core Reduction). *If the core contains twin vertices (vertices with identical neighbor sets) or contractible paths, these can be merged or removed without affecting the existence of a two-track nearest-neighbor layout.*

Proof. Merging twins or contracting paths preserves the essential connectivity and constraints of the core. These reductions simplify the problem, decrease the exponential search space, and maintain the validity of the recognition algorithm. \square

10.6 Immediate decisions from size and density

Fix a connected component H .

Cut 0: tiny graphs. If $n_H \leq 3$ then H has at most three edges and no K_4 , and one easily writes down a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout by hand. We therefore treat

$$n_H \leq 3 \implies \text{tn}(H) \leq 2$$

as an *automatic YES*. This is checked in $O(1)$ per component.

Cut 1: edge-density upper bound. By Theorem 5.6, every 2-track nearest-neighbor host graph on n_H vertices has at most $2n_H - 3$ edges. Hence any component with $m_H > 2n_H - 3$ cannot have $\text{tn}(H) \leq 2$.

10.7 Linear-time structural filters

Once $n_H \geq 4$ and $m_H \leq 2n_H - 3$, we apply three more structural cuts, each justified by earlier results.

Cut 2: maximum degree. By Lemma 5.2, a k -track nearest-neighbor layout satisfies $\Delta(H) \leq 2k$. For $k \leq 2$ this gives

$$\Delta(H) \leq 4.$$

Thus if we ever see $\Delta(H) \geq 5$ we can immediately conclude $\text{tn}(H) \geq 3$ and return *NO*. Computing all degrees takes $O(n_H + m_H)$ time.

Cut 3: K_4 -subgraph. Theorem 5.1 shows that a 4-clique forces at least three tracks. So if H contains a K_4 we must reject:

$$K_4 \subseteq H \implies \text{tn}(H) \geq 3.$$

Given $\Delta(H) \leq 4$ from Cut 2, K_4 can be detected in $O(n_H \Delta(H)^2) = O(n_H)$ time by intersecting neighbor sets.

Cut 4: planarity. By Theorem 7.1, any graph with $\text{tn}(H) \leq 2$ must be planar. We therefore run a linear-time planarity test (for example Hopcroft–Tarjan) and reject if H is nonplanar:

$$H \text{ nonplanar} \implies \text{tn}(H) \geq 3.$$

This is $O(n_H + m_H)$.

After Cuts 1–4 all remaining components satisfy simultaneously

$$n_H \geq 4, \quad m_H \leq 2n_H - 3, \quad \Delta(H) \leq 4, \quad H \text{ planar}, \quad K_4 \not\subseteq H.$$

10.8 Cheap YES cases

Before we resort to any backtracking, we also exploit explicit constructions from Section 5.

Cut 5: linear forests. If every component of H is a path or an isolated vertex (a linear forest), then $\text{tn}(H) = 1$ by the discussion in Section 1, and we answer *YES*. In the connected case this is simply the test

$$\Delta(H) \leq 2 \quad \text{and} \quad H \text{ acyclic}.$$

Acyclicity and degrees can both be checked in $O(n_H + m_H)$.

Cut 6: one cycle with maximum degree 2. Section 5 proves that

- every cycle C_n has $\text{tn}(C_n) = 2$ (Theorem 6.1), and
- any graph obtained from a path by adding one extra edge is also 2-track nearest-neighbor representable (Theorem 6.2).

These are precisely the connected graphs with

$$m_H = n_H, \quad \Delta(H) \leq 2,$$

i.e. graphs with as many edges as vertices and maximum degree at most two.

Thus connected components with

$$m_H = n_H \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta(H) \leq 2$$

are *automatic YES* and never reach the expensive search layer. Again, this test is $O(n_H + m_H)$.

(One can extend this family further if desired, using more structure theorems, but the above already covers the most common sparse unicyclic cases.)

10.9 Reducing to a bounded-degree planar core

After Cuts 0–6, only “genuinely complicated” components remain: planar, K_4 -free graphs with $3 \leq \delta(H) \leq \Delta(H) \leq 4$ and $m_H \leq 2n_H - 3$ that are neither linear forests nor simple cycles nor paths-with-one-extra-edge.

At this point we shrink H to a smaller *core* H^* by deleting inessential leaves and degree-2 path vertices, in the spirit of standard kernelization.

- While H has a leaf v (degree 1), delete v and its incident edge. By the usual “attach-the-leaf-back” argument, this does not change whether a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout exists.
- While H has a degree-2 vertex v whose neighbors x, y are not adjacent, contract the path $x - v - y$ to a single edge xy . This preserves the existence of a layout as well: in any layout of the contracted graph, v can be reinserted along the track between x and y .

We call the result H^* the *two-track core* of H . It is planar, K_4 -free, has $3 \leq \delta(H^*) \leq \Delta(H^*) \leq 4$, and can be computed in $O(n_H + m_H)$.

If H^* is empty, or a single vertex, or a single cycle, we already know how to layout H from previous cuts; otherwise, H^* is the instance on which we run the exponential search.

10.10 The backtracking layer

On H^* we now run a backtracking algorithm that is exact but exponential in the size of H^* . The key observation is that for $k = 2$ every vertex v can use at most four legal nearest-neighbor positions:

$$\{\text{pred on track 1, succ on track 1, pred on track 2, succ on track 2}\}.$$

We encode these as four abstract *slots*

$$1L, 1R, 2L, 2R,$$

and we search over assignments of incident edges to slots, subject to:

- at each vertex, at most one edge uses each slot (degree bound),
- at each edge $\{u, v\}$, the pair of slots chosen at u and v must be one of the eight compatible pairs coming from an actual predecessor/successor relation (same-track or cross-track), and
- the induced “to-the-left-of” constraints on vertices must stay acyclic, so that they can be realized by a global order p .

We maintain partial slot assignments and their implications as a standard finite-domain CSP, and we branch on a vertex with fewest available slots. Since $\deg(v) \leq 4$ and there are four slots, the local branching factor is at most $4! = 24$, and usually much smaller once constraints are propagated.

A complete, consistent assignment of slots yields a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout of H^* (and hence of H), while failure on all branches proves that no such layout exists. The correctness argument is routine and follows the same pattern as other layout/ordering CSPs; the details are omitted here for brevity.

In the worst case this backtracking layer runs in time

$$O(c^{n^*}),$$

for some constant $c < 24$ and $n^* = |V(H^*)|$, multiplied by a polynomial factor for constraint propagation. This exponential behavior is expected: already the standard track-number recognition problem for fixed $k = 2$ is NP-complete (see Dujmović et al. [?, 1]).

10.11 Final algorithm and global complexity

We can now summarize the whole procedure.

Algorithm TwoTrackNN(G)

Input: finite simple graph $G = (V, E)$.

Output: 1 if G has a nearest-neighbor layout with at most two tracks, 0 otherwise.

1. Compute connected components G_1, \dots, G_r of G (time $O(|V| + |E|)$).
2. For each component G_i :
 - (a) Let $n_i = |V(G_i)|$, $m_i = |E(G_i)|$. If $n_i \leq 3$, mark G_i as *YES* and continue.
 - (b) If $m_i > 2n_i - 3$, return 0 (Cut 1).
 - (c) Compute degrees. If $\Delta(G_i) \geq 5$, return 0 (Cut 2).
 - (d) Test for a K_4 ; if found, return 0 (Cut 3).
 - (e) Run a linear-time planarity test; if G_i is nonplanar, return 0 (Cut 4).
 - (f) If G_i is a linear forest, or a cycle, or a path plus one extra edge (Cuts 5 and 6), mark it as *YES* and continue.
 - (g) Otherwise compute its core G_i^* by repeatedly deleting leaves and suppressing degree-2 path vertices (Section 10.9).
 - (h) Run the slot-based backtracking search on G_i^* . If it fails, return 0; if it succeeds, mark G_i as *YES*.
3. If all components are marked *YES*, return 1.

Steps (1)–(2f) and the core reduction (2g) together take

$$O(|V| + |E|)$$

time.

References

- [1] V. Dujmović and D. R. Wood. Track layouts, layered path decompositions, and leveled planarity. *Journal of Graph Theory*, to appear. Preprint available as arXiv:1506.09145.
- [2] J. Hopcroft and R. Tarjan. Efficient planarity testing. *Journal of the ACM* 21(4):549–568, 1974.
- [3] D. Eppstein. Queue number. Available at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Queue_number.

A Failed BFS-Based Cut Attempts

During the design of the recognition algorithm in Section 9 it is tempting to look for extra “cheap” necessary conditions coming from the behavior of breadth-first search (BFS). In this appendix we record two such ideas that turned out to be unusable: one is too weak to rule out anything beyond the degree bound, and the other is simply false (even for very small 2-track nearest-neighbor graphs).

A.1 A too-weak bound: at most three new vertices per expansion

A first thought was that, in a 2-track nearest-neighbor layout, a BFS expansion might never discover more than two new vertices at a time. This is false in general (a vertex can have degree 4), but even the corrected statement

“every BFS expansion discovers at most three new vertices”

turns out to be too weak to serve as a useful cut.

Indeed, this bound is automatically implied by the local degree constraint $\Delta(G) \leq 4$ (Lemma 5.2). If we root a BFS at some vertex r and expand vertices one by one, then for any vertex $v \neq r$:

- one incident edge goes to the BFS parent of v and hence is not counted as “new”,
- the remaining at most $\deg(v) - 1 \leq 3$ incident edges can lead to new vertices.

Thus the “ ≤ 3 new vertices per expansion” property holds in every 2-track nearest-neighbor graph and adds no information beyond the degree bound; it cannot filter any additional instances.

A.2 A false pattern condition: 2 new then 3 new

A more ambitious idea was to exploit the *sequence* of BFS layer sizes. Write L_0, L_1, L_2, \dots for the BFS layers from some chosen root, where L_i is the set of vertices at distance i from the root and $|L_i|$ is the number of vertices *first* discovered at that layer.

The attempted condition was informally:

In a 2-track nearest-neighbor graph there should not be a BFS in which a layer with 3 new vertices is immediately preceded by a layer with 2 new vertices.

The hope was to use this as a necessary condition: if *some* BFS on *some* root exhibits the pattern

$$|L_i| = 2, \quad |L_{i+1}| = 3,$$

then the graph would be ruled out as a 2-track nearest-neighbor candidate. However, the following tiny example shows that this pattern does occur in a perfectly valid 2-track nearest-neighbor graph.

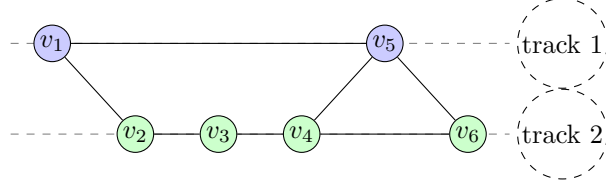


Figure 21: A 2-track nearest-neighbor graph in which a BFS from v_1 has $|L_0| = 1$, $|L_1| = 2$, and $|L_2| = 3$.

Example A.1 (A 2-then-3 BFS layering in a 2-track NN graph). Consider the 2-track layout in Figure 21 with global order

$$v_1 < v_2 < v_3 < v_4 < v_5 < v_6,$$

track assignment

$$\tau(v_1) = \tau(v_5) = 1, \quad \tau(v_2) = \tau(v_3) = \tau(v_4) = \tau(v_6) = 2,$$

and edges

$$\{v_1, v_5\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \{v_3, v_4\}, \{v_4, v_6\}, \{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_5, v_4\}, \{v_5, v_6\}.$$

Every edge is between nearest neighbors on some track (either the same track or the opposite track), so this is a valid 2-track nearest-neighbor layout.

Run BFS from root v_1 . The layers are:

$$L_0 = \{v_1\}, \quad L_1 = \{v_2, v_5\}, \quad L_2 = \{v_3, v_4, v_6\}.$$

Indeed:

- From $L_0 = \{v_1\}$ we discover its neighbors v_2 and v_5 , so $|L_1| = 2$.
- From L_1 we discover, in total, the neighbors v_3 (via v_2) and v_4, v_6 (via v_5), giving $L_2 = \{v_3, v_4, v_6\}$ and $|L_2| = 3$.

Thus this graph exhibits the pattern

$$|L_0| = 1, \quad |L_1| = 2, \quad |L_2| = 3$$

for a perfectly legitimate BFS, contradicting the proposed rule that a layer of size 3 cannot be preceded by a layer of size 2 in any 2-track nearest-neighbor graph.

Example A.1 shows that such BFS layer-size patterns are too delicate to use as necessary conditions for 2-track nearest-neighbor layouts: even very small graphs that *do* admit such layouts can have BFS layer sequences of the form $2 \rightarrow 3$. For this reason we abandoned all BFS-based “layer-size” cuts and kept only the robust local structural conditions (degree bounds, planarity, and the absence of K_4) in the main algorithm.

B Bonus Track: Computing the Exact Track Number $\text{tn}(G)$

We now present a complete algorithm for computing the exact *track number* $\text{tn}(G)$ of a graph G . Recall that $\text{tn}(G)$ is the minimum k such that G admits a nearest-neighbor k -track layout. While Section 9 addressed the recognition problem for $k \leq 2$, here we tackle the general case.

B.1 Lower bound: degree-based certificate

Action. Given the maximum degree $\Delta(G)$, we compute the immediate lower bound

$$k \geq k_{\min} := \left\lceil \frac{\Delta(G)}{2} \right\rceil.$$

Theoretical justification.

Proposition B.1 (Degree lower bound). *For any graph G with maximum degree $\Delta(G)$,*

$$\text{tn}(G) \geq \left\lceil \frac{\Delta(G)}{2} \right\rceil.$$

Proof. Let v be a vertex of degree $\Delta(G)$ and suppose G admits a k -track layout (τ, p) . Vertex v has at most $2k$ legal neighbors: on each of the k tracks, at most one predecessor and one successor (relative to the global order p) can be adjacent to v . Hence $\Delta(G) \leq 2k$, yielding $k \geq \lceil \Delta(G)/2 \rceil$. \square

B.2 Trivial structures: trees and linear forests

Action. If G is a tree (connected, acyclic), the track number is given exactly by

$$\text{tn}(T) = \left\lceil \frac{\Delta(T)}{2} \right\rceil.$$

If G is a linear forest (disjoint union of paths), then $\text{tn}(G) = 1$.

Theoretical justification.

Lemma B.2 (Track number for trees). *Let T be a tree with maximum degree Δ . Then $\text{tn}(T) = \lceil \Delta/2 \rceil$.*

Proof. The lower bound follows from Proposition B.1. For the upper bound, we use a DFS-based construction. Root T at an arbitrary vertex r and perform a depth-first traversal. When visiting a vertex v with children c_1, \dots, c_d , assign the children to tracks in a round-robin fashion: child c_i is placed on track $((i-1) \bmod k) + 1$, where $k = \lceil \Delta/2 \rceil$. Place v immediately before its children in the global order. Since each vertex has at most Δ neighbors and they are distributed across k tracks, each track receives at most $\lceil \Delta/k \rceil \leq 2$ neighbors of v , ensuring all edges are legal. \square

Corollary B.3. *A graph G satisfies $\text{tn}(G) = 1$ if and only if G is a linear forest (disjoint union of paths and isolated vertices).*

B.3 Kernelization: leaf pruning

Action. Repeatedly remove all degree-1 vertices (leaves) from G until no more exist. Let G' denote the resulting graph. Then

$$\text{tn}(G) = \max(\text{tn}(G'), k_{\min}),$$

where k_{\min} was computed from the original $\Delta(G)$.

Theoretical justification.

Lemma B.4 (Leaf pruning preserves track number). *Let v be a leaf of G with unique neighbor u . Then*

$$\text{tn}(G) = \max(\text{tn}(G - v), \lceil \deg_G(u)/2 \rceil).$$

In particular, if $\deg_G(u) \leq 2 \text{tn}(G - v)$, then $\text{tn}(G) = \text{tn}(G - v)$.

Proof. Any layout of G restricts to a layout of $G - v$, so $\text{tn}(G - v) \leq \text{tn}(G)$. Conversely, given a layout of $G - v$ with k tracks, we can insert v adjacent to u in the global order on any track where u 's predecessor or successor slot is free. Since u has at most $2k$ legal neighbor slots and uses $\deg_{G-v}(u) < \deg_G(u)$ of them in $G - v$, a free slot exists whenever $k \geq \lceil \deg_G(u)/2 \rceil$. \square

B.4 Biconnected component decomposition

Action. Decompose G' into its biconnected components (blocks) B_1, \dots, B_m . Solve each block independently and return

$$\text{tn}(G') = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \text{tn}(B_i).$$

Theoretical justification.

Lemma B.5 (Track number from biconnected components). *Let B_1, \dots, B_m be the biconnected components of a graph H . Then*

$$\text{tn}(H) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \text{tn}(B_i).$$

Proof. The inequality $\text{tn}(H) \geq \max_i \text{tn}(B_i)$ is immediate: any layout of H restricts to a layout of each B_i .

For the reverse inequality, let $k = \max_i \text{tn}(B_i)$. Build a block-cut tree of H . Starting from an arbitrary block B_1 , fix a k -track layout (τ_1, p_1) for B_1 . For each cut vertex c connecting B_1 to another block B_j , take a k -track layout of B_j and translate its global order so that c occupies the same position as in B_1 . Since blocks share at most one vertex (the cut vertex), layouts can be concatenated without conflict. Iterating over the block-cut tree yields a k -track layout for all of H . \square

B.5 Exact solver via backtracking

Action. For each block B_i that is neither a tree nor trivial, run a backtracking search. Starting from $k = k_{\min}$, attempt to construct a valid k -track layout by:

- (a) Selecting an ordering of vertices (using heuristics: high-degree vertices first).
- (b) Assigning each vertex to a track and position while checking:
 - The degree constraint: no vertex has > 2 neighbors per track.
 - The triplet constraint: no forbidden pattern $P^{(1)}$ or $P^{(2)}$.
- (c) Backtracking on conflicts; if all orderings fail, increment k .

Theoretical justification.

Theorem B.6 (Correctness of backtracking). *The backtracking algorithm terminates and returns the exact track number $\text{tn}(B)$ for any block B .*

Proof. Termination: For any graph on n vertices, $\text{tn}(B) \leq n$ (place each vertex on its own track). Thus the search over k is bounded.

Soundness: If the algorithm returns k , it has found a valid k -track layout satisfying all constraints.

Completeness: If a k -track layout exists, the backtracking search explores all orderings and track assignments (up to pruning), so it will find one. \square

Remark B.7 (Pruning strategies). The search space is reduced by:

- **Degree pruning:** If a partial assignment gives a vertex > 2 neighbors on some track, prune immediately.
- **Symmetry breaking:** Fix the track of the first vertex and break ties lexicographically.
- **Lower bound propagation:** If a subgraph requires k' tracks, prune branches with $k < k'$.

B.6 Aggregation: final track number

Action. After computing $\text{tn}(B_i)$ for each block, aggregate:

$$\text{tn}(G) = \max\left(k_{\min}, \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \text{tn}(B_i)\right).$$

Theoretical justification. This follows directly from Lemma B.4 (leaf pruning preserves the bound from Δ) and Lemma B.5 (track number is the max over blocks).

B.7 Complete algorithm and complexity

Algorithm: Compute $\text{tn}(G)$

1. **Input:** Graph $G = (V, E)$.
2. Compute $k_{\min} := \lceil \Delta(G)/2 \rceil$.
3. **If** G is a forest, **return** k_{\min} .
4. Prune all leaves to obtain G' .
5. Decompose G' into biconnected components B_1, \dots, B_m .
6. **For each** B_i :
 - (a) If B_i is a single edge or vertex, $\text{tn}(B_i) := 1$.
 - (b) Set $k := \max(\lceil \Delta(B_i)/2 \rceil, k_{\max})$. (*Skip values $\leq k_{\max}$ already ruled out.*)
 - (c) Run backtracking starting from k to find $\text{tn}(B_i)$.
 - (d) Update $k_{\max} := \max(k_{\max}, \text{tn}(B_i))$.
7. **Return** $\max(k_{\min}, \max_i \text{tn}(B_i))$.

Complexity analysis.

- Steps 2–5 run in $O(n + m)$ time (linear in the size of G).
- Step 6 (backtracking) is exponential in the size of each block in the worst case, but polynomial for bounded-degree graphs or when k is small.
- For practical graphs (sparse, low degree), the algorithm often terminates quickly due to aggressive pruning.
- **Empirical observation:** In practice, most graphs satisfy $\text{tn}(G) \leq \lceil \Delta(G)/2 \rceil + 1$, so the solver rarely needs to test more than two values of k per block.

Remark B.8 (Relation to Linear Arboricity). The *linear arboricity* $\text{la}(G)$ is the minimum number of linear forests needed to cover all edges of G . The Akiyama–Chvátal Conjecture states that $\text{la}(G) \leq \lceil (\Delta(G) + 1)/2 \rceil$ for every graph (it is known that $\text{la}(G) \geq \lceil \Delta(G)/2 \rceil$). However, the *track number* $\text{tn}(G)$ is a different problem: it requires all linear forests to share a *single global vertex ordering*, which may force $\text{tn}(G) > \text{la}(G)$. The exact relationship between these invariants remains an open problem.

Remark B.9 (Relation to NP-hardness). Determining whether $\text{tn}(G) \leq k$ is NP-complete for general k (it generalizes graph coloring-like constraints). However, for fixed k , the problem is in P: one can enumerate all $k^n \cdot n!$ possible layouts in time $O((k \cdot n)^{O(1)} \cdot k^n \cdot n!)$, which is constant for fixed k . Our backtracking approach with pruning makes this tractable for small k and moderate n .