# **Planarity**

October 29, 2024

- Planar graphs are a major link between graph theory and geometry/-topology.
- There are three easily identifiable milestones in planar graph theory.
- **3** A formula of Euler that V E + F = 2 for any convex polyhedron with V vertices/corners, E edges and F faces
- A deep characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski.
- The 4-color-theorem of Appel, Haken and Koch.

- Planar graphs are a major link between graph theory and geometry/-topology.
- 2 There are three easily identifiable milestones in planar graph theory.
- 3 A formula of Euler that V E + F = 2 for any convex polyhedron with V vertices/corners, E edges and F faces.
- A deep characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski.
- The 4-color-theorem of Appel, Haken and Koch.

- Planar graphs are a major link between graph theory and geometry/-topology.
- There are three easily identifiable milestones in planar graph theory.
- 3 A formula of Euler that V E + F = 2 for any convex polyhedron with V vertices/corners, E edges and F faces.
- A deep characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski.
- The 4-color-theorem of Appel, Haken and Koch.

- Planar graphs are a major link between graph theory and geometry/-topology.
- 2 There are three easily identifiable milestones in planar graph theory.
- 3 A formula of Euler that V E + F = 2 for any convex polyhedron with V vertices/corners, E edges and F faces.
- A deep characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski.
- The 4-color-theorem of Appel, Haken and Koch.

- Planar graphs are a major link between graph theory and geometry/-topology.
- There are three easily identifiable milestones in planar graph theory.
- 3 A formula of Euler that V E + F = 2 for any convex polyhedron with V vertices/corners, E edges and F faces.
- A deep characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski.
- 5 The 4-color-theorem of Appel, Haken and Koch.

- Colorings of planar graphs made their first appearance in a problem of map coloring.
- Recent applications of planar graphs in the design of chips and VLSI have further boosted the current research on planar graphs.

- Colorings of planar graphs made their first appearance in a problem of map coloring.
- Recent applications of planar graphs in the design of chips and VLSI have further boosted the current research on planar graphs.

# Planar graphs

#### **Definition**

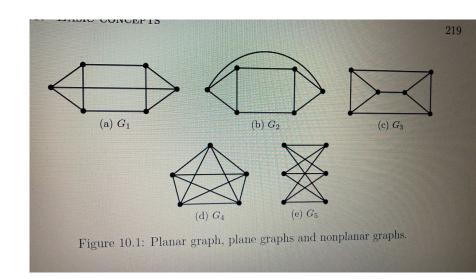
- A graph G is said to be planar or embeddable in the plane if it can be drawn in the plane so that no two edges intersect except (possibly) at their end vertices; otherwise it is said to be a nonplanar graph.
- 2 A planar graph embedded in the plane is called a plane graph.

# Planar graphs

#### **Definition**

- A graph *G* is said to be planar or embeddable in the plane if it can be drawn in the plane so that no two edges intersect except (possibly) at their end vertices; otherwise it is said to be a nonplanar graph.
- 2 A planar graph embedded in the plane is called a plane graph.

### Example



# Questions

- Find necessary and sufficient conditions for a graph to be planar.
- 2 How to test a given graph for planarity?
- Design a (polynomial time) algorithm to draw a given planar graph as a plane graph.

### Questions

- Find necessary and sufficient conditions for a graph to be planar.
- 2 How to test a given graph for planarity?
- Design a (polynomial time) algorithm to draw a given planar graph as a plane graph.

### Questions

- Find necessary and sufficient conditions for a graph to be planar.
- 2 How to test a given graph for planarity?
- Design a (polynomial time) algorithm to draw a given planar graph as a plane graph.

### Possible Solutions

- The first problem was solved by Kuratowski in 1930.
- His characterization uses the hereditary nature of planar graphs.
- A graph theoretic property P is said to be hereditary if a graph has property P then all its subgraphs too have property P.
- Clearly, acyclicity, bipartiteness and planarity are hereditary properties.
- Kuratowski's characterization has lead to the design of many "good" (= polynomial time) algorithms to check whether a given graph is planar, and if it is planar to draw it as a plane graph.

### Possible Solutions

- The first problem was solved by Kuratowski in 1930.
- His characterization uses the hereditary nature of planar graphs.
- A graph theoretic property P is said to be hereditary if a graph has property P then all its subgraphs too have property P.
- Clearly, acyclicity, bipartiteness and planarity are hereditary properties.
- 5 Kuratowski's characterization has lead to the design of many "good" (= polynomial time) algorithms to check whether a given graph is planar, and if it is planar to draw it as a plane graph.

### Possible Solutions

- The first problem was solved by Kuratowski in 1930.
- His characterization uses the hereditary nature of planar graphs.
- 3 A graph theoretic property *P* is said to be hereditary if a graph has property *P* then all its subgraphs too have property *P*.
- Clearly, acyclicity, bipartiteness and planarity are hereditary properties.
- S Kuratowski's characterization has lead to the design of many "good" (= polynomial time) algorithms to check whether a given graph is planar, and if it is planar to draw it as a plane graph.

### Jordan Curve

#### **Definition**

- Given any two points a and b in the plane, any non-self-intersecting continuous curve from a to b is called a Jordan curve and it is denoted by J[a, b].
- If a = b, then J is called a closed Jordan curve.

### Jordan Curve

#### **Definition**

- Given any two points a and b in the plane, any non-self-intersecting continuous curve from a to b is called a Jordan curve and it is denoted by J[a, b].
- If a = b, then J is called a closed Jordan curve.

### Jordan Curve Theorem

#### **Theorem**

- Any closed Jordan curve J partitions the plane into 3 parts namely, interior of J (int J), exterior of J (ext J) and J.
- If J is a closed Jordan curve, s ∈ int J and t ∈ ext J, then any Jordan curve J'[s, t] contains a point of J (that is, J' intersects J).

### Jordan Curve Theorem

#### **Theorem**

- Any closed Jordan curve J partitions the plane into 3 parts namely, interior of J (int J), exterior of J (ext J) and J.
- If J is a closed Jordan curve,  $s \in int J$  and  $t \in ext J$ , then any Jordan curve J'[s,t] contains a point of J (that is, J' intersects J).

# Jordan curve and Plane graph

- If *G* is a plane graph, then any path in *G* is identified with a Jordan curve.
- 2 Similarly, any cycle is identified with a closed Jordan curve.
- In particular, an edge e(u, v) of G is a Jordan curve from u to v.

### Jordan curve and Plane graph

- If *G* is a plane graph, then any path in *G* is identified with a Jordan curve.
- 2 Similarly, any cycle is identified with a closed Jordan curve.
- In particular, an edge e(u, v) of G is a Jordan curve from u to v.

### Jordan curve and Plane graph

- If *G* is a plane graph, then any path in *G* is identified with a Jordan curve.
- 2 Similarly, any cycle is identified with a closed Jordan curve.
- In particular, an edge e(u, v) of G is a Jordan curve from u to v.

#### **Definition**

- **I** G partitions the plane into several regions. These regions are called the faces of G. The set of all faces of G is denoted by F(G).
- Except one face, every other face is a bounded region. The exceptional face is called the exterior face and other faces are called interior faces of G.
- The exterior face is unbounded and interior faces are bounded (:= area is finite).

#### **Definition**

- **I** G partitions the plane into several regions. These regions are called the faces of G. The set of all faces of G is denoted by F(G).
- Except one face, every other face is a bounded region. The exceptional face is called the exterior face and other faces are called interior faces of G.
- The exterior face is unbounded and interior faces are bounded (:= area is finite).

#### **Definition**

- **I** G partitions the plane into several regions. These regions are called the faces of G. The set of all faces of G is denoted by F(G).
- Except one face, every other face is a bounded region. The exceptional face is called the exterior face and other faces are called interior faces of G.
- The exterior face is unbounded and interior faces are bounded (:= area is finite).

#### **Definition**

- The boundary of a face f is the set of all edges of G which are incident with f. It is denoted by  $b_G(f)$  or b(f).
- The degree of a face f in a plane graph G is the number of edges in the boundary of f with cut-edges counted twice.
- The degree of f is denoted by  $deg_G(f)$  or deg(f) or d(f).

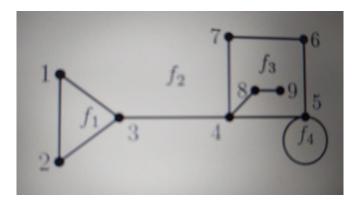
#### **Definition**

- The boundary of a face f is the set of all edges of G which are incident with f. It is denoted by  $b_G(f)$  or b(f).
- The degree of a face f in a plane graph G is the number of edges in the boundary of f with cut-edges counted twice.
- **3** The degree of f is denoted by  $deg_G(f)$  or deg(f) or d(f).

#### **Definition**

- The boundary of a face f is the set of all edges of G which are incident with f. It is denoted by  $b_G(f)$  or b(f).
- 2 The degree of a face f in a plane graph G is the number of edges in the boundary of f with cut-edges counted twice.
- **3** The degree of f is denoted by  $deg_G(f)$  or deg(f) or d(f).

### Example



 $f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4$ - Faces of G  $b(f_1) = \{12, 23, 13\}, d(f_1) = 3, b(f_1) \text{ is a cycle.}$   $b(f_2) = \{12, 23, 13, 34, 45, 55, 56, 67, 74\}, d(f_2) = 10.$  Note that 34 is counted twice and that  $b(f_2)$  does not form a cycle.

# Consequences of Jordan Curve Theorem

- A cyclic edge belongs to two faces.
- 2 A cut-edge belongs to only one face.
- A plane graph G is acyclic if and only if |F(G)| = 1

# Consequences of Jordan Curve Theorem

- A cyclic edge belongs to two faces.
- 2 A cut-edge belongs to only one face.
- A plane graph G is acyclic if and only if |F(G)| = 1

### Consequences of Jordan Curve Theorem

- A cyclic edge belongs to two faces.
- 2 A cut-edge belongs to only one face.
- 3 A plane graph G is acyclic if and only if |F(G)| = 1

### Euler's Formula

#### **Theorem**

For a connected plane graph G,

$$V - E + F = 2$$

### Proof

We discuss two possible cases:

- I G is acyclic.
- 2 G is cyclic.



### Euler's Formula

#### **Theorem**

For a connected plane graph G,

$$V - E + F = 2$$

### Proof.

We discuss two possible cases:

- I G is acyclic.
- 2 G is cyclic.

## Euler's Formula

#### **Theorem**

For a connected plane graph G,

$$V - E + F = 2$$

## Proof.

We discuss two possible cases:

- G is acyclic.
- 2 G is cyclic.

## Euler's Formula

#### **Theorem**

For a connected plane graph G,

$$V - E + F = 2$$

### Proof.

We discuss two possible cases:

- G is acyclic.
- 2 G is cyclic.



## Proof.

- ☐ G is connected, acyclic and has n vertices.
- 2 G is a tree and has n-1 edges.
- **3** *G* has only one face (unbounded one).

$$V - E + F = n - (n - 1) + 1 = 2.$$



## Proof.

- ☑ G is connected, acyclic and has n vertices.
- $\bigcirc$  *G* is a tree and has n-1 edges.
- *G* has only one face (unbounded one).
- V E + F = n (n 1) + 1 = 2.



### Proof.

- ☑ G is connected, acyclic and has n vertices.
- **2** G is a tree and has n-1 edges.
- *G* has only one face (unbounded one).
- 4 V E + F = n (n 1) + 1 = 2.



### Proof.

- ☑ G is connected, acyclic and has n vertices.
- **2** G is a tree and has n-1 edges.
- **3** *G* has only one face (unbounded one).
- 4 V E + F = n (n 1) + 1 = 2.



### Proof.

- **I** G is connected, acyclic and has n vertices.
- **2** G is a tree and has n-1 edges.
- **3** *G* has only one face (unbounded one).

$$V - E + F = n - (n - 1) + 1 = 2.$$



## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- 2 Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- 4 Hence, V E + F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with *m* edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.



## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- 4 Hence, V E + F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with m edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.

## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- 3 Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- 4 Hence, V E + F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with m edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.

## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- 3 Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- 4 Hence, V E + F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with m edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.



## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- **3** Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- **4** Hence, V E + F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with m edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.



## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- 3 Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- **4** Hence, V E + F = 2.
- **5** Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with *m* edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.



## Proof.

- Proof by induction on the number of edges in the graph.
- **2** Base Case :  $E = 3 (K_3)$ .
- Then, v = 3 and F = 2.
- Induction Hypothesis: Assume true for all connected graphs with *m* edges.
- Now consider a graph G with m + 1 edges.



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- 3 Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- 4 Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2.



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- 3 Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- $\blacksquare$  Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2.



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- 3 Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- 4 Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- 3 Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- $\blacksquare$  Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- **3** Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- **1** Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2.



## Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- **3** Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- **1** Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2



### Proof.

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- 3 Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- **1** Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2.



### *Proof.*

- Let G be a connected cyclic graph with m + 1 edges.
- 2 Let C be a cycle of G.
- **3** Let  $e \in E(C)$ .
- **1** Then, G e is connected.
- 5 V(G-e) = V(G), E(G-e) = E-1 and F(G-e) = F-1.
- Note that V(G e) E(G e) + F(G e) = 2 (By induction if G e is cyclic, and by Case 1 if G e is a tree).
- V(G) E(G) + F(G) = V(G e) E(G e) 1 + F(G e) + 1 = 2.



#### **Theorem**

If G is a simple connected planar graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V - 6$ .

### Proof.

- **I** G has no bounded face.
- 2 G has a bounded face.



#### **Theorem**

If G is a simple connected planar graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V - 6$ .

### Proof.

- G has no bounded face.
- 2 G has a bounded face.

#### **Theorem**

If G is a simple connected planar graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V - 6$ .

#### Proof.

- G has no bounded face.
- 2 G has a bounded face.



#### **Theorem**

If G is a simple connected planar graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V - 6$ .

#### Proof.

- **I** G has no bounded face.
- **2** *G* has a bounded face.



## Proof.

- ✓ Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .

## Proof.

- Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .

## Proof.

- I Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .

## Proof.

- I Since G is connected, G is a tree.
- 2 Then, |E| = |V| 1
- 3 Since  $|V| \ge 3$ ,  $|E| = |V| 1 \le 2|V| 4 \le 3|V| 6$ .
- 4 Also, |F| = 1,  $|E| \ge 2$ .
- 5 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- **3** Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- **3** Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E.$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



## Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- 3 Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



### Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- 3 Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



### Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- 3 Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- 5 Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



### Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- 3 Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- 5 Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- 6 By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E.$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



#### Proof.

- G contains a cycle.
- Then,  $deg(f) \ge 3$  (Number of edges in the boundary of a face)
- 3 Each edge is in the boundary of two faces.
- **5** Combining the above two, we have, Since  $3|F| \le 2|E| \Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}F \le E$ .
- 6 By Euler's formula,  $F = 2 - V + E \Rightarrow 3F = 6 - 3V + 3E \le 2E.$
- 7 Hence,  $\frac{3}{2}F \le E \le 3V 6$ .



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- 2 Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4 6  $|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- A contradiction.
- Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- 2 Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4 6  $|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- 6 Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- **2** Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4 6  $|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- 6 Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- **2** Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- **3** By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4 6  $|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- 6 Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- **2** Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- **3** By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4 6  $|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- 6 Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- **2** Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- **3** By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4  $6|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

If G is a connected planar graph, G has a vertex of degree less than six.

- This is clearly true if |V(G)| = 1 or 2.
- **2** Let  $|V| \ge 3$ .
- **3** By contradiction, suppose  $deg(v) \ge 6$  for all  $v \in V(G)$ .
- 4  $6|V| \le \sum deg(v) = 2|E| \le 2(3v 6) = 6V 12$ .
- 5 A contradiction.
- Hence there is a vertex with degree less than six.



### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
  - Let G be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \implies 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$



#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \Rightarrow 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$

#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg $(f) \geq 4$ .
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \Rightarrow 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$

#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \Rightarrow 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$



#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \implies 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$



#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \Rightarrow 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$



#### Corollary

Let G be a connected planar triangle-free graph with  $|V| \ge 3$ , then  $|E| \le 2|V| - 4$ .

- We have already proved the case when *G* has no bounded face earlier.
- 2 Let *G* be triangle-free and has atleast one bounded face.
- $\Rightarrow$  deg(f)  $\geq$  4.
- 5  $2|E| = \sum deg(f) \ge 4|F| \Rightarrow 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 6 |V| |E| + |F| = 2 (Euler's formula)  $\implies$   $2|E| 2|V| + 4 = 2|F| \le |E|$ .
- 7 Hence,  $|E| \le 2|V| 4$



# Example

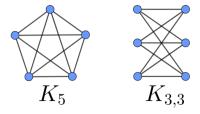


Figure: Kuratowski's graph

#### **Theorem**

K<sub>5</sub> and K<sub>3,3</sub> are non-planar.

- $1 K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.
- | 3|V| 6 = 15 6 = 9 < 10 = |E|.
- $\blacksquare$  Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- $K_{3,3}$  has 6 vertices, 9 edges and triangle-free.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- **6** Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

- I  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.
- | 3|V| 6 = 15 6 = 9 < 10 = |E|.
- 3 Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- $K_{3,3}$  has 6 vertices, 9 edges and triangle-free.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- 6 Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

### Proof.

I  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.

2 
$$3|V| - 6 = 15 - 6 = 9 < 10 = |E|$$
.

- 3 Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- $K_{3,3}$  has 6 vertices, 9 edges and triangle-free.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- 6 Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

- K<sub>5</sub> has 5 vertices and 10 edges.
- 2 3|V|-6=15-6=9<10=|E|.
- $\blacksquare$  Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- $K_{3,3}$  has 6 vertices, 9 edges and triangle-free.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- 6 Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

### Proof.

I  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.

2 
$$3|V| - 6 = 15 - 6 = 9 < 10 = |E|$$
.

- 3 Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.

5 But, 
$$|E| = 9 \le 2|V| - 4 = 12 - 4 = 8$$
.

6 Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

### Proof.

I  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.

2 
$$3|V| - 6 = 15 - 6 = 9 < 10 = |E|$$
.

- $\blacksquare$  Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- 6 Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

#### **Theorem**

 $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar.

### Proof.

I  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges.

2 
$$3|V|-6=15-6=9<10=|E|$$
.

- $\blacksquare$  Hence,  $K_5$  in non-planar.
- 5 But,  $|E| = 9 \le 2|V| 4 = 12 4 = 8$ .
- **6** Hence,  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.





- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- 5 Kuratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- 7 The letter *K* being for Kuratowski.

- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Kuratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- 7 The letter *K* being for Kuratowski.

- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Kuratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- 7 The letter *K* being for Kuratowski.

- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Kuratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- The letter K being for Kuratowski.

- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Muratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- The letter K being for Kuratowski.

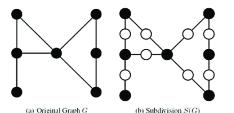
- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Muratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- The letter *K* being for Kuratowski.

- Both are regular graphs.
- 2 Both are nonplanar.
- Removal of one edge or a vertex makes each a planar graph.
- Kuratowski's first graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of vertices.
- Kuratowski's second graph is the nonplanar graph with the smallest number of edges.
- Thus both are the simplest nonplanar graphs.
- 7 The letter *K* being for Kuratowski.

### Subdivision

### **Definition**

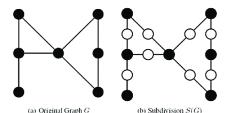
- The subdivision of an edge  $e(u, v) \in E(G)$  is the operation of replacing e by a path (u, w, v), where w is a new vertex.
- 2 So, to get a subdivision of *e* introduce a new vertex *w* on *e*.
- A graph *H* is said to be a subdivision of *G* if *H* can be obtained from *G* by a sequence of edge subdivisions. (By definition, *G* is a subdivision of *G*.)



### Subdivision

#### **Definition**

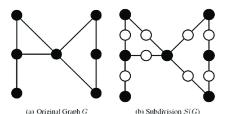
- The subdivision of an edge  $e(u, v) \in E(G)$  is the operation of replacing e by a path (u, w, v), where w is a new vertex.
- 2 So, to get a subdivision of *e* introduce a new vertex *w* on *e*.
- A graph *H* is said to be a subdivision of *G* if *H* can be obtained from *G* by a sequence of edge subdivisions. (By definition, *G* is a subdivision of *G*.)



### Subdivision

#### **Definition**

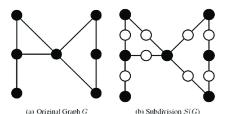
- The subdivision of an edge  $e(u, v) \in E(G)$  is the operation of replacing e by a path (u, w, v), where w is a new vertex.
- 2 So, to get a subdivision of *e* introduce a new vertex *w* on *e*.
- 3 A graph *H* is said to be a subdivision of *G* if *H* can be obtained from *G* by a sequence of edge subdivisions. (By definition, *G* is a subdivision of *G*.)



## Subdivision

### **Definition**

- The subdivision of an edge  $e(u, v) \in E(G)$  is the operation of replacing e by a path (u, w, v), where w is a new vertex.
- 2 So, to get a subdivision of *e* introduce a new vertex *w* on *e*.
- 3 A graph *H* is said to be a subdivision of *G* if *H* can be obtained from *G* by a sequence of edge subdivisions. (By definition, *G* is a subdivision of *G*.)



## Remarks

- **1** Any subdivision of G is denoted by S(G).
- 2 Note that S(G) is not unique.
- In fact, there are infinite number of subdivisions of any graph with at least one edge.

## Remarks

- **1** Any subdivision of G is denoted by S(G).
- 2 Note that S(G) is not unique.
- In fact, there are infinite number of subdivisions of any graph with at least one edge.

## Remarks

- **1** Any subdivision of G is denoted by S(G).
- 2 Note that S(G) is not unique.
- In fact, there are infinite number of subdivisions of any graph with at least one edge.

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- $\supseteq H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- G is planar  $\Longrightarrow S(G)$  is planar.
- 4 G is nonplanar  $\implies S(G)$  is nonplanar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- **2**  $H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- G is planar  $\Longrightarrow S(G)$  is planar.
- 4 G is nonplanar  $\implies S(G)$  is nonplanar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- **2**  $H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- **3** G is planar  $\implies S(G)$  is planar.
- 4 G is nonplanar  $\implies S(G)$  is nonplanar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- **2**  $H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- G is planar  $\implies S(G)$  is planar.
- G is nonplanar  $\implies S(G)$  is nonplanar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- **2**  $H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- G is planar  $\implies S(G)$  is planar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- **1**  $H \subseteq G$ ; G is planar  $\implies H$  is planar.
- **2**  $H \subseteq G$ ; H is nonplanar  $\implies G$  is nonplanar.
- G is planar  $\implies S(G)$  is planar.
- **4** G is nonplanar  $\implies S(G)$  is nonplanar.
- $S(K_5)$  and  $S(K_{3,3})$  are nonplanar.
- 6 G is planar  $\implies S(K_5), S(K_{3,3}) \nsubseteq G$ .

- The two example non-planar graphs  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  weren't picked randomly.
- 2 Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph must contain a subgraph closely related to one of these two graphs.

### Theorem

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph that is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  or  $K_5$ .

Petersen graph non-planar.

- The two example non-planar graphs  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  weren't picked randomly.
- 2 Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph must contain a subgraph closely related to one of these two graphs.

### Theorem

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph that is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  or  $K_5$ .

Petersen graph non-planar.

- The two example non-planar graphs  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  weren't picked randomly.
- Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph must contain a subgraph closely related to one of these two graphs.

### **Theorem**

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph that is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  or  $K_5$ .

Petersen graph non-planar.

- The two example non-planar graphs  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  weren't picked randomly.
- 2 Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph must contain a subgraph closely related to one of these two graphs.

### **Theorem**

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph that is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  or  $K_5$ .

## Petersen graph non-planar.

- The two example non-planar graphs  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  weren't picked randomly.
- 2 Kuratowski proved that any non-planar graph must contain a subgraph closely related to one of these two graphs.

### **Theorem**

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph that is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  or  $K_5$ .

Petersen graph non-planar.

Planar maps and Planar graphs first appeared in a problem called the four color conjecture (1850).

#### Theorem

- solved by K. Appel, W. Haken and J. Koch (1977).
- Their proof techniques involved making of a large number of cases by a computer. (700 pages)
- A shorter, independent proof was constructed by Robertson et al. (1996) and Thomas (1998).(100 pages)

Planar maps and Planar graphs first appeared in a problem called the four color conjecture (1850).

#### **Theorem**

- solved by K. Appel, W. Haken and J. Koch (1977).
- Their proof techniques involved making of a large number of cases by a computer. (700 pages)
- A shorter, independent proof was constructed by Robertson et al. (1996) and Thomas (1998).(100 pages)

Planar maps and Planar graphs first appeared in a problem called the four color conjecture (1850).

#### **Theorem**

- solved by K. Appel, W. Haken and J. Koch (1977).
- Their proof techniques involved making of a large number of cases by a computer. (700 pages)
- A shorter, independent proof was constructed by Robertson et al. (1996) and Thomas (1998).(100 pages)

Planar maps and Planar graphs first appeared in a problem called the four color conjecture (1850).

#### **Theorem**

- solved by K. Appel, W. Haken and J. Koch (1977).
- Their proof techniques involved making of a large number of cases by a computer. (700 pages)
- A shorter, independent proof was constructed by Robertson et al. (1996) and Thomas (1998).(100 pages)

Planar maps and Planar graphs first appeared in a problem called the four color conjecture (1850).

#### **Theorem**

- solved by K. Appel, W. Haken and J. Koch (1977).
- Their proof techniques involved making of a large number of cases by a computer. (700 pages)
- A shorter, independent proof was constructed by Robertson et al. (1996) and Thomas (1998).(100 pages)