

Thesis

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1 Types of triangulations and their properties

1.1 Preliminaries

All graphs are presumed simple and have a fixed planar embedding. In this thesis paths and cycles are always simple while walks are not necessarily simple.

The *degree* of a face is the number of vertices it is incident to. By a *cycle* we will mean a simple cycle. That is a cycle without repetition of edges or vertices. By Jordan's curve theorem a cycle splits the plane into two parts, one bounded and one unbounded. We will call the bounded part the *interior* of this cycle and the unbounded part the *exterior* of this cycle.

We will call a cycle *separating* if there are vertices in both its interior and exterior. We will use *k-cycle* to denote a cycle of length k . Moreover a *triangle* is simply a cycle of length 3 (i.e. a 3-cycle).

1.2 Plane triangulations

Definition (Plane triangulation). A graph with only faces of degree 3.

Definition (Maximal planar graph). A graph such that adding any one edge leaves it non-planar.

Theorem 1. *Any graph G is a plane triangulation if and only if it is maximal planar*

Proof. We will prove the equivalence of the negations.

Suppose that G is not maximally planar. Then there is a face F to which we can add an edge, however this face must then have degree larger than 4. Hence G is also not a plane triangulation.

Suppose that G is not a plane triangulation. Then there must be a face F of degree larger than 3. This face will thus admit an extra edge without violating planarity and hence G is not maximally planar. \square

1.2.1 Connectedness

Theorem 2. *Any plane triangulation T is 3-connected.*

Proof. Suppose that T is not 3-connected. Then there must be a 2-cutset S , given by the vertices x and y . Removing this cutset splits the graph into at least two connected components C_i and all components are incident to all cutvertices otherwise we would have found a 1-cutset.

Since S is a cutset, there can't be any edges incident to both C_1 and C_2 . But then the edge xy should be separating the 2 components on both sides. This is impossible since we can only draw this edge once. \square

Definition (Irreducible triangulation). We call a triangulation irreducible if it has no separating triangles

Theorem 3. *Any irreducible plane triangulation T is 4-connected.*

Proof. Note that any plane triangulation is 3-connected by Theorem

Suppose that T is not 4-connected. Then there must be some 3-cutset (since it is 3-connected) let us denote the vertices of this cutset by x, y and z . Removing this cutset splits the graph into at least two connected components C_i and all components are incident to all cutvertices otherwise we would have found a 2- or 1-cutset.

However, now xy must be an edge in the triangulation T otherwise the graph is not maximal planar (There can't be an edge incident to both C_1 and C_2 because that would negate x, y, z being a cutset.). In the same way yz and xz are edges of T . But then xyz is a separating triangle. This is a contradiction and thus T is 4-connected \square

1.3 Triangulations of the k -gon

Definition (Triangulation of the k -gon). We call a graph a triangulation of the k -gon if the outer face has degree k and all interior faces have degree 3.

Vertices bordering the outer face are *outer vertices* while all other vertices are *interior vertices*. Furthermore the cycle formed by all vertices outer vertices is the *outer cycle*.

Sometimes such triangulations of the k -gon are called *(plane) triangulated graphs*.

Definition (Irreducible triangulation of the k -gon). We call a triangulation of the k -gon irreducible if it has no separating triangles.

Note that triangulation of the n -gon $n \geq 4$ is not maximally planar and thus not plane triangulation.

The *completion* of a triangulation of the k -gon $G = (V, E)$. Is the graph $G' = (V', E')$ with vertex set $V' = V \cup \{s\}$ and edge set $E' = E \cup \{sv | v \text{ is a outer vertex}\}$

The completion is plane triangulation. Since the interior of the outer cycle of G always consisted of faces of degree 3. The exterior of the outer cycle consisted of one face of degree k (the outer face) but the completion has turned this into k faces of degree 3.

Theorem 4. *A triangulation of the k -gon G is 2-connected.*

Proof. Suppose that G has a cutvertex v . Then the set $\{s, v\}$ is a 2-cutset of the completion G' of G . This however is in contradiction to Theorem

Theorem 5. *A irreducible and chordless triangulation of the k -gon is 3-connected.*

Proof. Writers note: Will be provided if this statement turns out to be interesting. Will go via the fact that the completion is a irreducible triangulation. Chordless outer cycle is important, because a chord will form a separating triangle in G' . \square

Theorem 6. *Any irreducible triangulation T of the 4-gon with $n \geq 5$ is 3-connected.*

Writers note: This proof could be a corollary of the above theorem

One can now easily check that there is no 2cut set with only exterior vertices. However, a cutset with 1 or 2 interior vertices leads to at least one cycle of degree greater than 3

Hence no 2-cutset of T can't exist and T is 3-connected. \square

Theorem 7. *For every interior vertex v of a triangulation of the k -gon G is connected by at least 3 vertex disjoint paths to different outer vertices.*

Proof. By Theorem

Writers note: We can sharpen this to 4 if we have a irreducible and chordless triangulation of the k -gon

Theorem 8. *Every interior vertex of a triangulation of the n -gon has degree at least 3.*

Proof. Suppose an interior vertex v has degree 1 then clearly the face surrounding v can't have degree 3. Now suppose that an interior vertex v has degree 2. We then let u and w denote its neighbours and F and F' the face incident to v . See also Figure

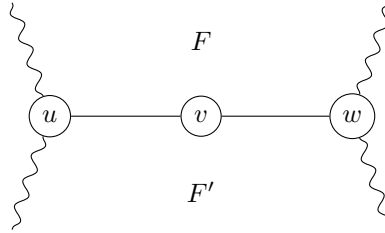


Figure 1: The notation as described in the proof

Writers note: If we forbid irreducible triangulations every interior vertex is of degree 4 since the neighbourhood of any internal vertex v looks like a set of triangles.

Writers note: This theorem is currently (17-09) unused.

2 Rectangular duals

In this section we will explain what we mean with the rectangular dual of a graph. We will prove some simple properties of graphs and their duals.

We define a *rectangular layout* (or simply *layout*) \mathcal{L} to be a partition of a rectangle into finitely many interiorly disjoint rectangles.

We will assume that no four rectangles meet in one point.

We will then look at the *dual graph of a layout* \mathcal{L} and denote this graph by $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{L})$. That is, we represent each rectangle by a vertex and we connect two vertices by an edge exactly when their rectangles are adjacent. Note that this graph is not the same as the *graph dual* of \mathcal{L} when we view it as a graph (namely we don't represent the outer face of \mathcal{L} by a vertex).

So $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{L})$ is the dual graph of a layout \mathcal{L} . In the reverse direction we say a layout \mathcal{L} is a *rectangular dual* of a graph \mathcal{G} if we have that $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{L})$.

A plane triangulated graph \mathcal{G} does not necessarily have a rectangular dual nor is this dual necessarily unique.

2.1 Extended graphs

A *extended graph* \bar{G} of G is a augmentation of G with 4 vertices (which we will call it's *poles*). Such that

1. every interior face has degree 3 and the exterior face has degree 4.
2. all poles are incident to the outer face
3. \bar{G} has no separating triangles (i.e separating 3-cycles).

We sometimes call an extended graph \bar{G} of G an *extension* of G .

Such a extended graph does not necessarily exist and is not necessarily unique. However we have the following result due to

Theorem 9 (Existence of a rectangular dual). *A plane triangulated graph \mathcal{G} has a rectangular dual if and only if it has an extension $\bar{\mathcal{G}}$*

Proof. Kozminski & kinnen and ungar, See siAM paper □

We call any (plane triangulated) graph G that has an extension a *proper* graph.

A proper graph G can have more then one extensions. Each such extension fixes which of the rectangles are in the corners of the rectangular dual \mathcal{L} . Hence sometimes such an extension is called a *corner assignment*.

2.2 Regular edge labeling

A regular edge labelling of \bar{G} corresponds to a rectangular dual \mathcal{L} of G with some *corner assignment* fixed.

Or regular edge labelling of a graph.

An *interior edge* of a cycle is an edge on the interior of the cycle (when the cycle is viewed as Jordan curve).

2.2.1 Being onesided in terms of REL

2.2.2 Being psudeo-onesided in terms of REL

3 Fixing a extension

In our explorations to find a lower bound on what kind of *psuedo one-sidedness* is possible we will find it very useful to fix one particular extension \bar{G} of G . Unfortunately if there is no rectangular dual that's (k, l) -sided using the *corner assignment* provided by some extension \bar{G} . This does not imply that G is not (k, l) -sided. There might be another extension of G such that under the corner assignment corresponding to this extension G has a (k, l) -sided rectangular dual.

Fortunately for us however we can view $\bar{G} = H$ as a graph in it's own right, then G is the interior of a separating 4-cycle of H and we will show this implies that G (as induced sugraph) has to be coloured according to the extension \bar{G} .

Remark 10. *Let \mathcal{C} be a separating 4-cyle of G with interior I . Then in any rectangular dual of G the region enclosed by the rectangles dual to the vertices in \mathcal{C} is a rectangle.*

Remark 11. *Two disjoint rectangles are at most adjacent on one side.*

Lemma 12. *Let $\mathcal{C} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ be a separating 4-cyle of \bar{G} with interior I . Then all interior edges incident to a, b, c and d respectively are red, blue, red and blue or blue, red, blue and red.*

Proof. By Remark

Furthermore a, b, c, d are all adjacent to a different side of I since I has four sides that need to be covered and it is only adjacent to four rectangles. If we then apply the rules of a regular edge labelling we see that if the interior edges of a are one color, those incident to b and d should have the second color. Then of course the interior edges incident to c are again coloured with the first color. \square

This lemma implies that any *alternating 4-cycle* is either *left-alternating* or *right-alternating* in the terminology of Fusy

Furthermore the above Lemma is also very useful in that it allows us to fix a extension \bar{G} of G by building a *scaffold*. Suppose we want to investigate some extension \bar{G} of G with poles N, E, S and W then we can consider the graph $\bar{G} = H$ as a graph in it's own right. H is a proper graph since it has no irreducible triangles in it's interior (because \bar{G} had none) and it admits a valid extension \bar{H} by connecting the new poles NE, SE, SW and NW to $N, E, SE, NW, S, E, NE, SW, S, W, SE, NW$ and N, W, NE, SW respectively. See Figure

Theorem 13. *We can fix an extension, if we want.*

The graph H can have more then one extension but they all contain the separating 4-cycle $\mathcal{C} = NESW$ thus by Lemma

3.1 An aplication: There are graphs that are $(2, \infty)$ -sided

We will show this by providing an example graph G with a fixed extension \bar{G} which we can do according to Theorem

The only edge for which we have freedom to choose a color is the diagonal edge of G . However, if we color this edge blue we get a red $(2, \infty)$ cycle and if we color this edge red we get a blue $(2, \infty)$ cycle. In both cases we will thus obtain a $(2, \infty)$ -sided segment in our dual.

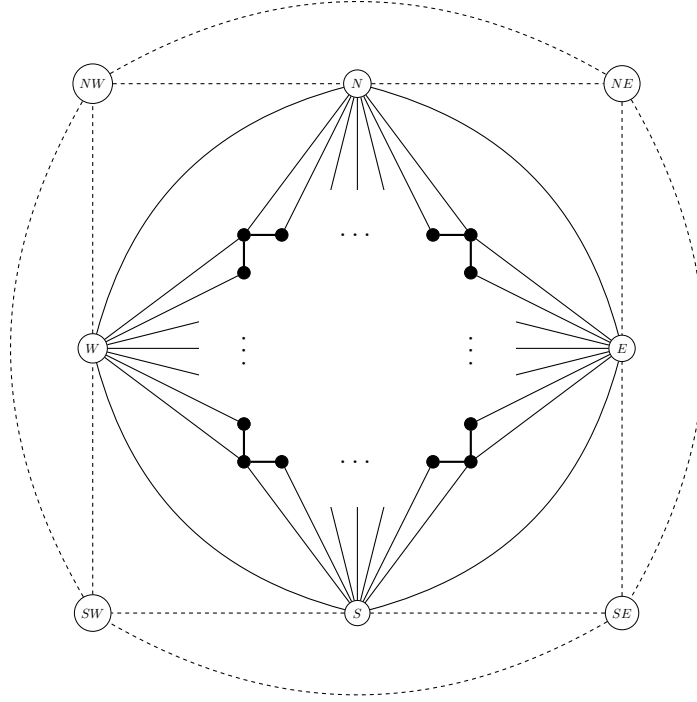


Figure 2: The construction of a scaffold. G is displayed in thick lines and with closed vertices. An arbitrary extension $\bar{G} = H$ is then drawn with thin lines and open vertices. An extension of H is then drawn with dashed edges and open vertices.

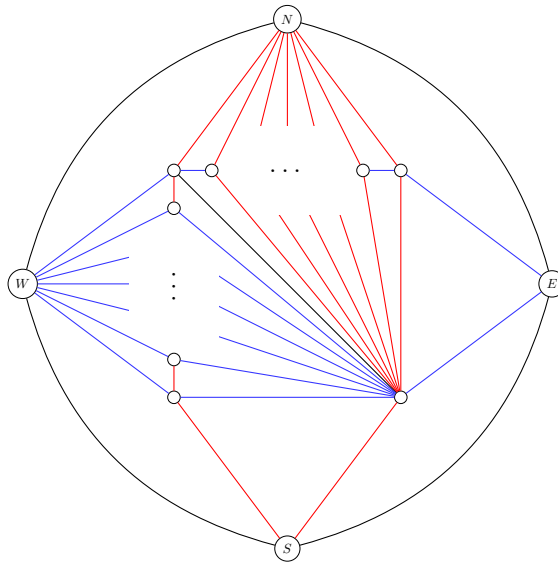


Figure 3: The fixed extension \bar{G}