

Graph Drawing Algorithms

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Contents

1	Tree Drawing Algorithms	2
1.1	Motivation	2
1.2	Tree Drawing as a Linear Program – Supowit and Reingold (1981)	2
1.2.1	The Problem of Narrow Trees	2
1.2.2	Aesthetic Trees	2
1.2.3	Formal Description	3
2	Force Directed Algorithms	4
2.1	Introduction	4
2.1.1	Notation	4
2.2	Eades’ Spring System	5
2.3	Tutte’s Barycenter Method	6
2.3.1	Fixed Vertices	6
2.3.2	Linear Model	6
2.3.3	Example: Hypercube	7
2.3.4	Algorithms	8
2.3.5	Case Study: Prism Graph	9
2.4	Appendix	15
2.4.1	Barycenter Method: Petersen Graph	15

Chapter 1

Tree Drawing Algorithms

1.1 Motivation

Many types of graphs are used in computer science, and one of the most common is the tree—especially binary trees. Binary trees—trees with at most two nodes—form the basis for many data structures in computer science. For example, when many people thinking of storing a collection of items to be searched later, the naive solution is to store them in a list. When checking to see if an item is part of this collection, a naive solution is to simply iterate through the list, comparing our item against each element of the list. In other words, for a collection of n items, we have to perform n comparisons.

However, a binary search tree is constructed such that for every node, every child node on its left is less than the value at the root, and vice versa for the right side. Hence, when searching for an item, if our item is less than the value at the current node, then we only need to keep searching in the left subtree. As a result, we can find an item we want with on average just $\log_2 n$ comparisons. As a result of the many implementations of trees in computers, many have discussed ways of visualizing these data structures.

1.2 Tree Drawing as a Linear Program – Supowit and Reingold (1981)

1.2.1 The Problem of Narrow Trees

Unfortunately, as shown earlier (note to self: show earlier), locally minimizing the width of every subtree does not achieve the goal of a minimum width drawing. Sometimes in order to draw a tree as narrow as possible, some subtrees have to be drawn non-optimally.

1.2.2 Aesthetic Trees

In the algorithm below, the problem of drawing a tree is formulated as a linear program. The problem is drawing a tree can be described as finding the narrowest possible drawing such that it matches several aesthetics:

1. **Layering** All nodes at the same level (number of edges between a node and the root) share the same y-coordinate
2. **Child Positioning** Each left child is placed strictly to the left of its parent, and each right child is placed strictly to the right of its parent
3. **Separation** For any two nodes at the same level, they must be placed at least 2 units apart.
4. **Centering** If a parent has two children, then it must be centered over them
5. **Planarity** No two tree edges may be drawn such that they intersect, unless they share a common vertex
6. **Isomorphic Trees Drawn Similarly** If two subtrees are isomorphic, they must be drawn identically (minus a translation)

It should be noted that aesthetic 1 and 3 imply 5.

1.2.3 Formal Description

First, define f to be a mapping from a tree's vertex set to \mathbb{R}^2 . Trivially, we can satisfy Aesthetic 1 by defining $f_y(n) = -i$ where i is the level of node n . Then, we use a linear program to determine the value of $f_x(n)$. We will introduce two auxiliary variables x_{max} and x_{min} which give the left and right bounds for the x-coordinates of our drawing respectively. Hence, our goal of creating the narrowest possible drawing may be expressed as

$$\min x_{max} - x_{min}$$

subject to:

$$\begin{array}{ll} f_x(n) - f_x(\text{left child}(n)) \geq 1 & \text{For all } n \text{ with left children (Aesthetic 2)} \\ f_x(\text{right child}(n)) - f_x(n) \geq 1 & \text{For all } n \text{ with right children (Aesthetic 2)} \\ |f_x(n) - f_x(m)| \geq 2 & \text{For all } m, n \text{ at level } i \text{ (Aesthetic 3)} \\ f_x(\text{right child}(n)) - f_x(\text{left child}(n)) & \text{(Aesthetic 4)} \end{array}$$

The sixth aesthetic is very difficult to implement, so I will leave it for a later report.

Chapter 2

Force Directed Algorithms

2.1 Introduction

Force directed algorithms attempt to draw graphs by relating them to some physical analogy. For example, we may view vertices as steel balls and the edges between them as springs. One of the earlier force directed algorithms, Tutte's Barycenter Algorithm, attempts to place a graph's nodes along it's "center of mass."

2.1.1 Notation

Although there are plenty of force-directed algorithms, they all have the final result of mapping the vertices of a graph to \mathbb{R}^2 . Hence, we saw that each vertex v in a graph gets mapped to some point $p_v = (x_v, y_v)$.

2.2 Eades' Spring System

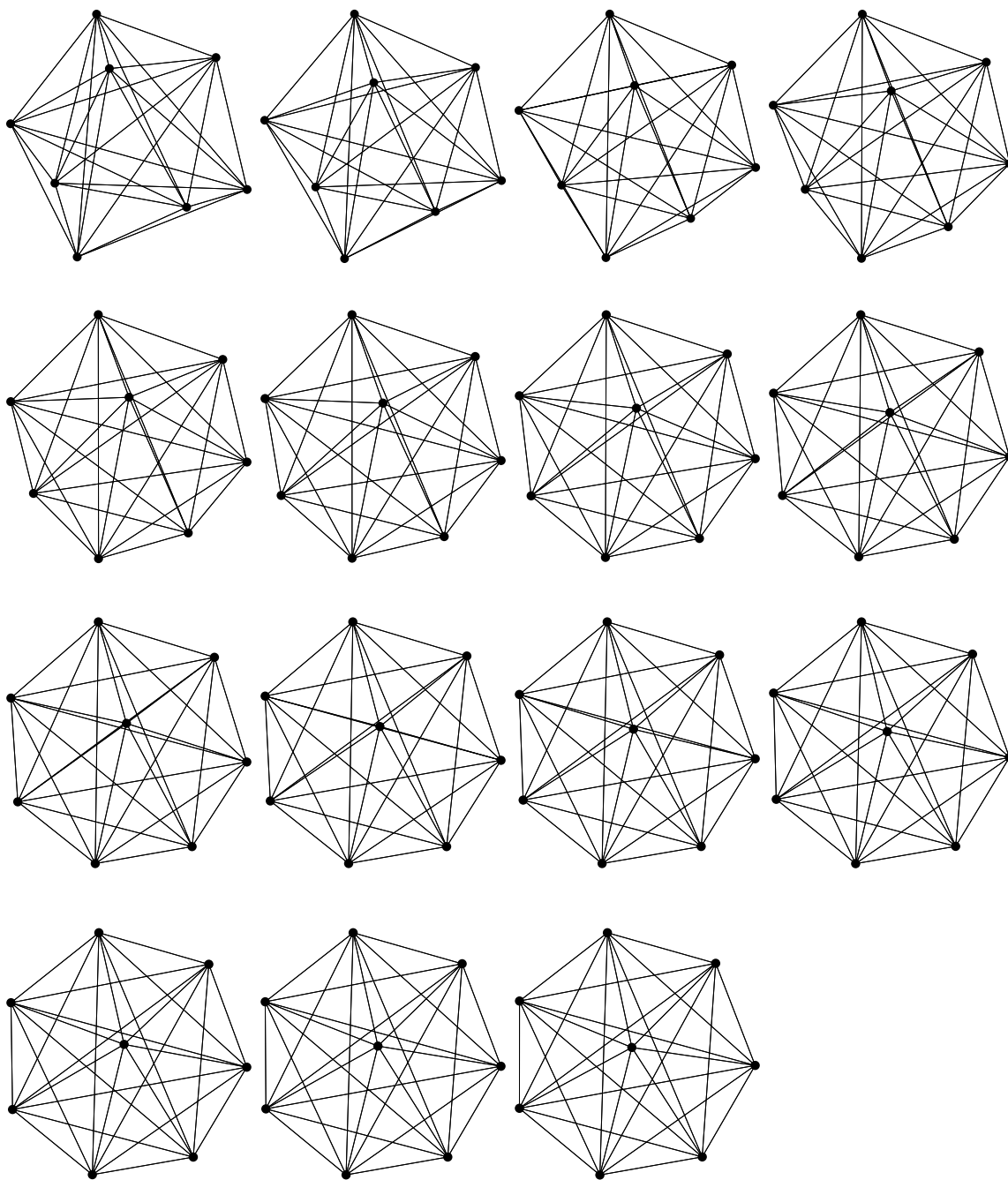


Figure 2.1: The complete graph K_8

2.3 Tutte's Barycenter Method

An early force directed drawing method was Tutte's Barycenter Method. In this method, the force on every vertex v is given by

$$F(v) = \sum_{(u,v) \in E} (p_u - p_v) \quad (2.1)$$

Hence, splitting (2.1) across the x and y dimensions we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(u,v) \in E} (x_u - x_v) &= 0 \\ \sum_{(u,v) \in E} (y_u - y_v) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

2.3.1 Fixed Vertices

However, notice the system in (2.2) has the trivial solution $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ for all vertices, which gives a very poor drawing! Hence, we take $n \geq 3$ vertices such that they form a convex polygon, and fix them.

In this paper's implementation of the algorithm, the fixed vertices are positioned as n equally spaced points along a circle of radius equal to half the width of the final image, centered at the origin.

2.3.2 Linear Model

Suppose for some free vertex v , we denote the set of fixed neighbors as N_0 , and the set of free neighbors as N_1 . Then, we may rewrite the above equations as

$$\begin{aligned} \deg(v)x_v - \sum_{u \in N_1(v)} x_u &= \sum_{w \in N_0(v)} x_w^* \\ \deg(v)y_v - \sum_{u \in N_1(v)} y_u &= \sum_{w \in N_0(v)} y_w^* \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

Hence, for every free vertex, there is a pair of equations (one for x, and one for y). These equations are linear, and after labeling the free vertices v_1, \dots, v_n , we may rewrite them as the matrix multiplications described in (5) and (6) below. Notice the M is an $n \times n$ diagonally dominant matrix. The first fact can be observed by inspecting 2.3, and the second occurs because the diagonal consists of vertex degrees, while the other entries M_{ij} are either -1's (if x_i and x_j are neighbors) or 0's if they aren't.

$$M_{ij} = \begin{cases} \deg(v) & \text{if } i = j \\ -1 & \text{if adjacent} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \deg(v) & & & * \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ * & & & \deg(v) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

We may find the x coordinates of the free vertices by solving

$$M \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{w \in N_0(x_1)} x_w^* \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{w \in N_0(x_n)} x_w^* \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.5)$$

and the y coordinates by solving

$$M \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{w \in N_0(y_1)} y_w^* \\ \vdots \\ \sum_{w \in N_0(y_n)} y_w^* \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

2.3.3 Example: Hypercube

A simple example for which Tutte's method gives aesthetically pleasing results is the hypercube.

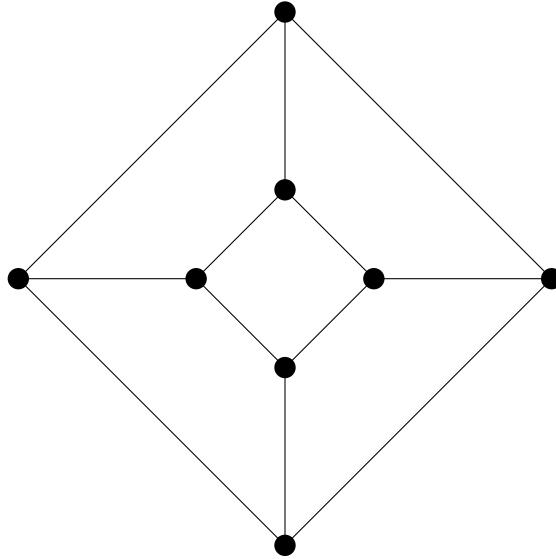


Figure 2.2: The hypercube Q_3

In Figure ?? the hypercube is placed in 500 x 500 pixel grid. The grid is governed by a simple Cartesian coordinate system, where the top left and bottom right corners have coordinates $(-250, 0)$ and $(250, 250)$ respectively. Four vertices are fixed and laid out into a circle of radius 250 centered at the origin. Hence, the bulk of the work performed algorithm is done in placing the center four free vertices. Labeling the free vertices as x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , we may represent the task of laying out the free vertices with this matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 250 \\ 0 \\ -250 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution to this matrix is given by $x_1 = x_3 = 0, x_2 = \frac{250}{3}, x_4 = -\frac{250}{3}$.

2.3.4 Algorithms

Newton-Raphson Iteration

The below Newton-Raphson Iteration is easy to code and is reasonably fast. However, it is not as fast as solving Algorithm 2 below with a linear algebra package. The idea behind the algorithm is that we simply keep iterating until the x, y values of each vertex converges. However, this implies we need to define convergence in a way dumb enough for a computer to understand.

Definition 2.3.1 (Convergence). *Let p_{i-1}, p be the placement of some vertex v during the $i - 1$ and i^{th} iteration of the Newton-Raphson Iteration. We say that p has converged if $|p - p_{i-1}| < \epsilon$. (In practice, we can define ϵ to be a very small positive number like 0.01).*

Algorithm 1 Barycenter Layout (Newton-Raphson)

```

1: procedure BARYCENTER( $t$ )
2:   Place each fixed vertex  $u \in V_0$  at a vertex of  $P$  and each free vertex at the origin.
3:    $converge \leftarrow false$ 
4:   while  $\neg converge$  do
5:      $converge \leftarrow true$ 
6:     for each free vertex  $v$  do
```

$$x_v = \frac{1}{\deg v} \sum_{(u,v) \in E} x_u$$

$$y_v = \frac{1}{\deg v} \sum_{(u,v) \in E} y_u$$

```

7:       // If this does not execute at any point in the for loop, then while loop exists
8:       if  $p$  did not converge then
9:          $converge \leftarrow false$ 
10:      end if
11:    end for
12:  end while
13: end procedure
```

Linear System

Of course, with a computer linear algebra package, one can also solve the corresponding linear system directly. In practice, this tends to be significantly faster than the previous

algorithm.

Algorithm 2 Barycenter Layout (Linear Algebra)

- 1: **procedure** BARYCENTER(t)
 - 2: Layout n fixed vertices in a convex polygon
 - 3: Construct a matrix M as described by (2.4)
 - 4: Construct a vector of x -coordinates for free vertices and another for fixed vertices.
 Along with M , use these to solve (2.5)
 - 5: Construct a vector of y -coordinates for free vertices and another for fixed vertices.
 Along with M , use these to solve (2.6)
 - 6: **end procedure**
-

2.3.5 Case Study: Prism Graph

The prism graph Π_n is a 3-connected graph constructed by taking the vertices and edges of an n -prism. From the perspective of this drawing algorithm, it allows us to investigate the symmetry and resolution properties. In this paper, and the proofs below, Π_n will be drawn by using n fixed vertices (equally spaced on the perimeter of a circle).

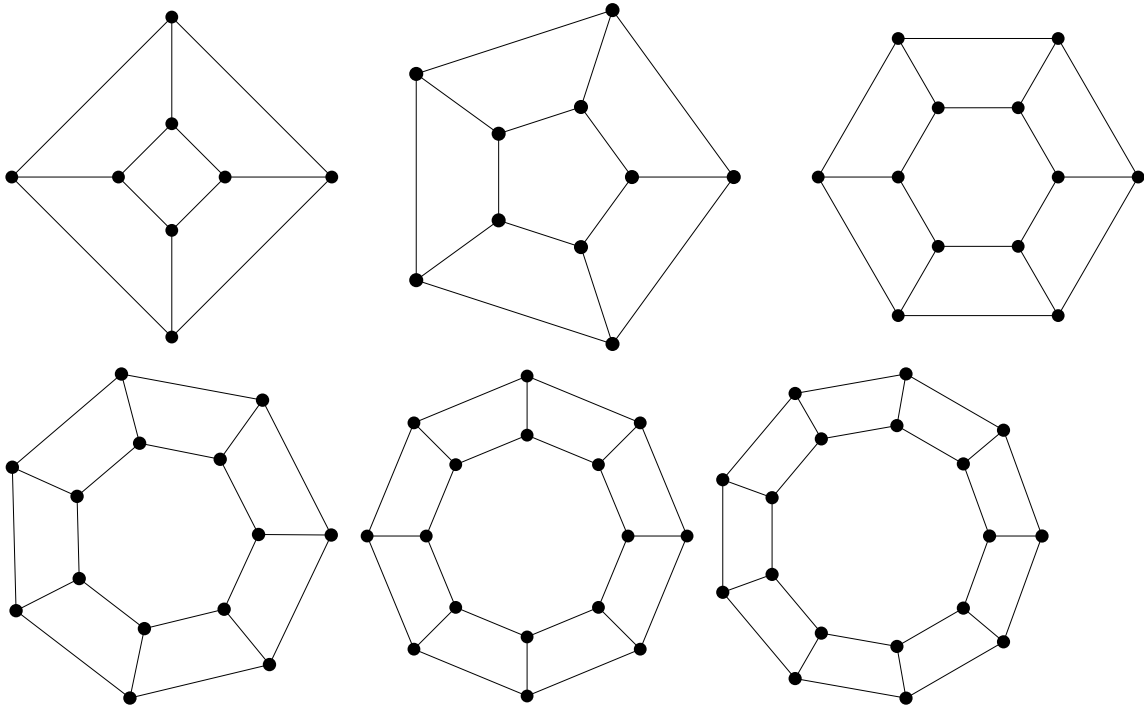


Figure 2.3: Π_4 through Π_9 as drawn by Tutte's algorithm. Notice that Π_4 is isomorphic to the hypercube Q_3

Symmetry

Under certain conditions, the barycenter method produces drawings which preserve symmetry.

Theorem 2.3.1 (Eigenvectors of the Prism Graph). *Consider the linear system governing the coordinates of the free vertices of the prism graph Π_n . Now, take its corresponding matrix M and starting at $(1, 0)$, place n points equally along the perimeter of the unit circle. If we create vectors $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$, where x_i is the x -coordinate of the i^{th} unit circle point (and similarly for y), then x, y are eigenvectors for M with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_x = \lambda_y = 3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}$.*

Proof. First, let us prove that this is true for x . Notice by the distributivity of linear maps that $Mx = (3I + N)x = 3Ix + Nx$, where N is a matrix composed of all of the -1 's in M (and is zero everywhere else). Hence, $N\vec{x}$ is of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos 0 \\ \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \\ \vdots \\ \cos \frac{2\pi(n-2)}{n} \\ \cos \frac{2\pi(n-1)}{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Clearly, any vector is an eigenvector of the identity map, so we just have to show that x is an eigenvector of N . By the above matrix, showing that $Nx = \lambda_0 x$ is equivalent to showing that the following holds for some $\lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{cases} -\cos \frac{2\pi}{n} - \cos \frac{2\pi(n-1)}{n} = \lambda_0 \cos 0 & \text{Equation for the first row} \\ -\cos \frac{2\pi(i-2)}{n} - \cos \frac{2\pi i}{n} = \lambda_0 \cos \frac{2\pi(i-1)}{n} & \text{Equation for the } i^{\text{th}} \text{ row} \end{cases}$$

Now, the first equation implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 &= - \left[\cos \frac{2\pi}{n} + \cos \frac{2\pi n - 2\pi}{n} \right] \\ &= -2 \left[\cos \frac{2\pi + 2\pi n - 2\pi}{2n} \cos \frac{2\pi - 2\pi n + 2\pi}{2n} \right] && \text{Using sum-product identity} \\ &= -2 \left[\cos \frac{2\pi n}{2n} \cos \frac{4\pi - 2\pi n}{2n} \right] \\ &= -2 \left[\cos \pi \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} - \pi \right] \\ &= 2 \left[\cos \pi - \frac{2\pi}{n} \right] && \cos \text{ is an even function} \\ &= -2 \cos -\frac{2\pi}{n} = -2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} && \text{Supplementary angles} \end{aligned}$$

implying that $\lambda_x = 3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}$ as desired. Now, we just need to show the equation for the i^{th} row holds. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}
& - \left[\cos \frac{2\pi(i-2)}{n} + \cos \frac{2\pi i}{n} \right] \\
&= -2 \left[\cos \frac{2\pi(i-2) + 2\pi i}{2n} \cos \frac{2\pi(i-2) - 2\pi i}{2n} \right] \quad \text{Sum-product identity} \\
&= -2 \left[\cos \frac{\pi i - 2\pi + \pi i}{n} \cos \frac{\pi i - 2\pi - \pi i}{n} \right] \\
&= -2 \left[\cos \frac{\pi i - 2\pi + \pi i}{n} \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \right] \quad \cos \frac{-2\pi}{n} = \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \\
&= \lambda_0 \cos \frac{2\pi(i-1)}{n}
\end{aligned}$$

as desired.

Now, let us prove that this is true for y . The proof is very similar to the proof for x . Here, $N\vec{y}$ is of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sin 0 \\ \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} \\ \vdots \\ \sin \frac{2\pi(n-2)}{n} \\ \sin \frac{2\pi(n-1)}{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Equivalently, we want to show that the following holds for some $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\begin{cases} -\sin \frac{2\pi}{n} - \sin \frac{2\pi(n-1)}{n} = \lambda_1 \sin 0 & \text{Equation for the first row} \\ -\sin 0 - \sin \frac{2\pi \cdot 2}{n} = \lambda_1 \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} & \text{Equation for the second row} \\ -\sin \frac{2\pi(i-2)}{n} - \sin \frac{2\pi i}{n} = \lambda_1 \sin \frac{2\pi(i-1)}{n} & \text{Equation for the } i^{th} \text{ row} \end{cases}$$

Note that here, we'll fix λ_1 by using the equation for the 2nd row since in the first row, the right hand side is equal to 0. Now, the second equation implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
\lambda_1 \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} &= - \left(\sin 0 + \sin \frac{4\pi}{n} \right) \\
&= - \sin \frac{4\pi}{n} \\
&= -2 \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \quad \text{Double angle identity}
\end{aligned}$$

Simplifying we get $\lambda_1 = -2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}$, implying $\lambda_y = 3I - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}$ as desired. Now, we just need to show that the equation for the i^{th} row holds. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}
& - \left[\sin \frac{2\pi(i-2)}{n} + \sin \frac{2\pi i}{n} \right] \\
& = -2 \left[\sin \frac{2\pi(i-2) + 2\pi i}{2n} \cos \frac{2\pi(i-2) - 2\pi i}{2n} \right] \quad \text{Sum-product identity} \\
& = -2 \left[\sin \frac{\pi i - 2\pi + \pi i}{n} \cos \frac{\pi i - 2\pi - \pi i}{n} \right] \\
& = -2 \left[\sin \frac{2\pi(i-1)}{n} \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \right] \quad \cos \frac{-2\pi}{n} = \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \\
& = \lambda_1 \sin \frac{2\pi(i-1)}{n}
\end{aligned}$$

as desired. Hence, we have shown that our vectors x, y of points along the unit circle are eigenvectors for M indeed. \square

Corollary 2.3.1 (Reflectional Symmetry). *The barycenter method gives a reflectionally symmetric drawing of the prism graph.*

Proof. From the theorem above, because the equally spaced points of a circle form an eigenvector of the linear system for the prism graph, each free vertex is a scalar multiple of some fixed vertex lying on said circle. Hence, the axes of symmetry lie on a line between each fixed vertex and its associated free vertex. Because the edges of connecting each fixed vertex to its associated free vertex also lie on these axes of symmetry, the barycenter method gives a symmetric drawing as required. \square

Resolution

One the the main drawbacks of this algorithm is potentially poor resolution, i.e. the more edges and vertices we add to our graph, the harder it becomes to distinguish the different features of our graph. This is demonstrated best by the prism graph.

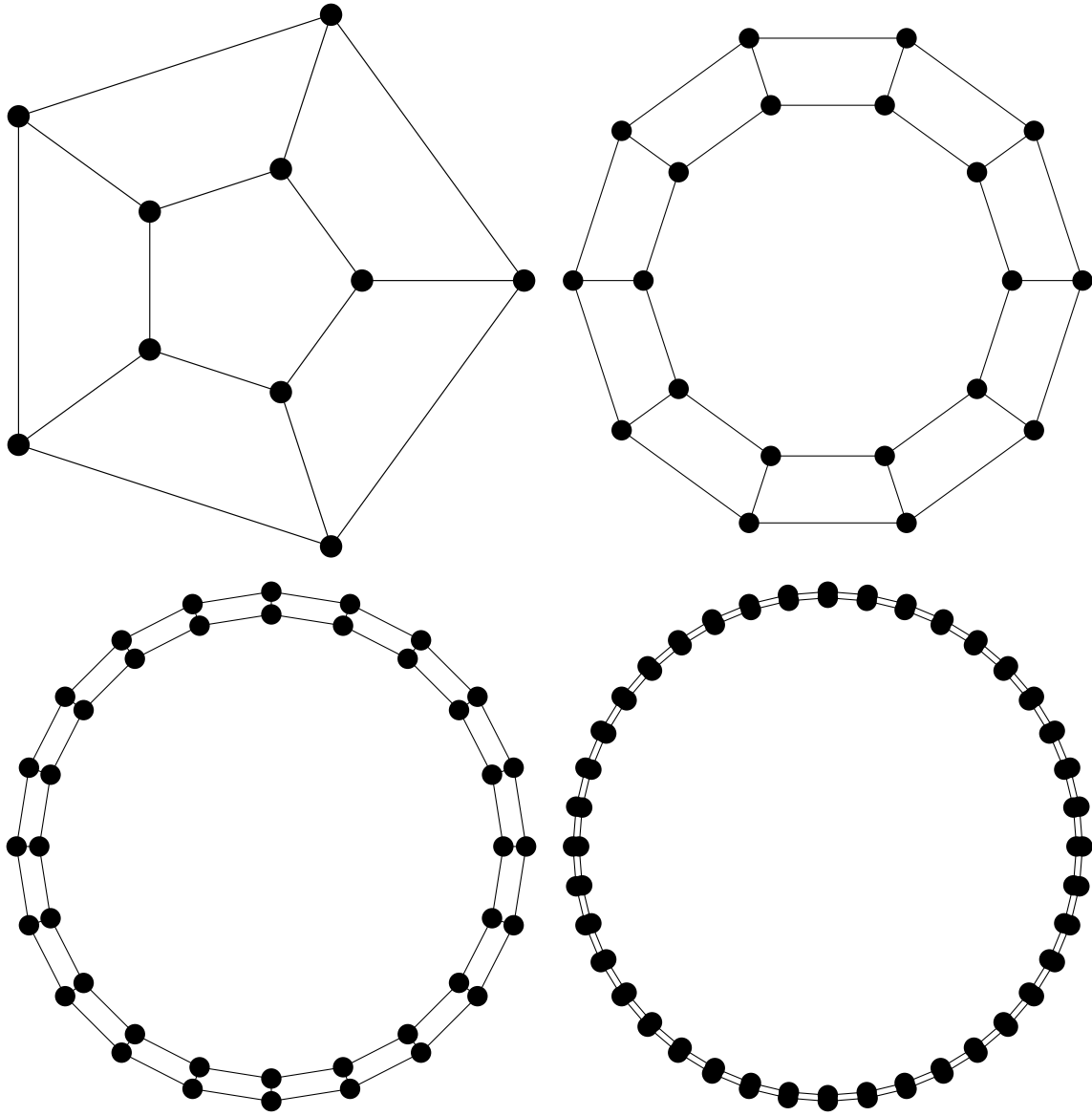


Figure 2.4: $\Pi_5, \Pi_{10}, \Pi_{20}$ and Π_{40} as drawn by Tutte's algorithm

Theorem 2.3.2 (Poor Resolution of the Prism Graph). *For every fixed vertex u in the prism graph Π_n , the distance between it and its adjacent free vertex v tends to 0 as n becomes large.*

Proof. From the theorem above, we know that

$$v = u \cdot \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{dist}(u, v) &= \sqrt{\left(u_x - u_x \cdot \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2 + \left(u_y - u_y \cdot \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2} \\
&= \sqrt{\left[u_x \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)\right]^2 + \left[u_y \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)\right]^2} \\
&= \sqrt{u_x^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2 + u_y^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Using the fact that u is a point on the unit circle,

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{dist}(u, v) &= \sqrt{(u_x^2 + u_y^2) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2} \\
&= \sqrt{(u_x^2 + u_y^2)} \cdot \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}\right)^2} \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}
\end{aligned}$$

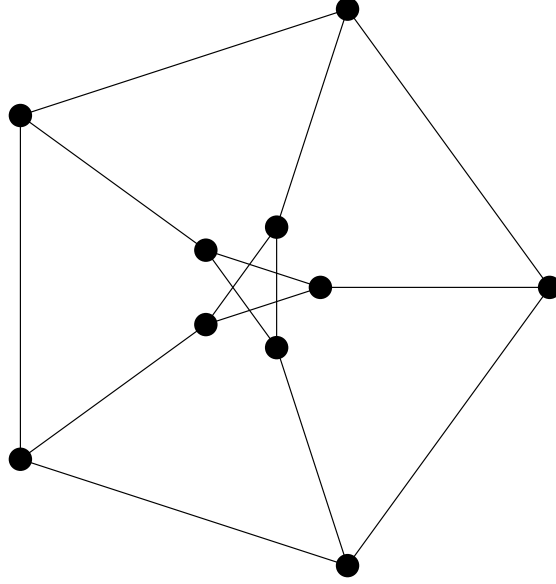
If we take the limit as n goes to infinity, we get

$$\text{dist}(u, v) = 1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2 \cos 0} = 1 - \frac{1}{3 - 2} = 0$$

□

2.4 Appendix

2.4.1 Barycenter Method: Petersen Graph



In this image above, the x-coordinates are governed by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 250 \\ 77.25 \\ -202.25 \\ -202.25 \\ 77.25 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the y-coordinates are governed by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ y_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 237.76 \\ 146.95 \\ -146.95 \\ -237.76 \end{bmatrix}$$

with

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 54.14 \\ 16.73 \\ -43.8 \\ -43.8 \\ 16.73 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ y_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0 \\ 51.49 \\ 31.82 \\ -31.82 \\ -51.49 \end{bmatrix}$$