# Inserting an Edge Into a Planar Graph 

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#### Abstract

Computing a crossing minimum drawing of a given planar graph $G$ augmented by an additional edge $e$ in which all crossings involve $e$, has been a long standing open problem in graph drawing. Alternatively, the problem can be stated as finding a planar combinatorial embedding of a planar graph $G$ in which the given edge $e$ can be inserted with the minimum number of crossings. Many problems concerned with the optimization over the set of all combinatorial embeddings of a planar graph turned out to be NP-hard. Surprisingly, we found a conceptually simple linear time algorithm based on SPQR-trees, which is able to find a crossing minimum solution.


## 1 Introduction

Crossing minimization is among the most challenging problems in graph theory and graph drawing. Although, there is a vast amount of literature on this NP-hard problem (for a survey see, e.g., [13], NPhardness is shown in [5]), so far no practically efficient exact algorithm for crossing minimization is known. Currently, the best known approach for crossing minimization is based on planarization. Here, in a first step, the minimum number of edges is deleted so that the resulting graph is planar. Then, the edges are iteratively reinserted into the planar subgraph so that the number of crossings is minimized. So far, this is done in the following way: Fix an arbitrary combi-

[^0]natorial embedding $\Pi$ of the planar subgraph $P$ and reinsert the first deleted edge $e_{1}$. This is done by solving a shortest path problem in the augmented (geometrical) dual graph of $P$ associated with $\Pi$, since every crossing of $e_{1}$ and an edge $f$ corresponds to using an edge in the dual graph. Then, the crossings are substituted by artificial vertices, yielding a planar graph again. Now, the next edge can be inserted, and so on.
One criticism of the planarization method was that when choosing a "bad" embedding in the edge reinsertion phase, the number of crossings may get much higher than necessary [8]. Hence, the question arose if there is a polynomial time algorithm for inserting an edge into the planar subgraph $P$ so that the number of crossings is minimized. Thereby, the task is to optimize over the set of all possible combinatorial embeddings of $P$.

While it is possible to compute an arbitrary combinatorial embedding for a planar graph in linear time $[10,4]$, it is often hard to optimize over the set of all possible combinatorial embeddings. E.g., the problem of bend minimization can be solved in polynomial time for a fixed combinatorial embedding [14], while it is NP-hard over the set of all combinatorial embeddings [6]. When a linear function of polynomial size is defined on the cycles of a graph, it is NP-hard to find the embedding that maximizes the value of the cycles that are face cycles in the embedding $[12,11]$. Note that the number of combinatorial embeddings of a planar graph may be exponential.
This paper shows that the edge reinsertion problem can be solved in polynomial time, thus solving a long standing open problem in graph drawing. We present a conceptually simple linear time algorithm based on SPQR-trees which is able to solve the edge reinsertion problem to optimality.

A graph is planar if it can be drawn in the plane without any edge crossings. (Combinatorial) embeddings are equivalence classes of planar drawings which can be defined by the sequence of the edges around each vertex in a drawing. We consider two drawings of the same graph equivalent, if the circular sequences of the adjacent edges around each node in clockwise order is the same. We say that they realize the same combinatorial embedding.

Figure 1 shows a simple case where the choice of the combinatorial embedding of the planar subgraph has an impact on the number of crossings produced when inserting the dashed edge. When choosing the embedding of Figure 1(a) for the planar subgraph (without the dashed edge), we get two crossings, while the optimal crossing number over the set of all combinatorial embeddings is one (see Fig. 1(b)).

Formally, we define the edge insertion problem as follows: Given a planar graph $G=(V, E)$ and a pair of vertices $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ in $G$, find an embedding $\Pi$ of $G$ such that we can add the edge $e=\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ to $\Pi$ with the minimum possible number of crossings among all embeddings of $G$. We will present an algorithm that is able to solve the problem in linear time.

Note that the solution produced by our algorithm does not necessarily lead to a drawing of the graph $G^{\prime}=(V, E \cup\{e\})$ with the minimum number of crossings. The reason is that there may not always be a drawing with the minimum number of crossings in which a maximum planar subgraph is drawn without crossings.

In Section 2, we give a brief overview of SPQRtrees and define a few concepts we need. Section 3 contains the algorithm for solving our problem for biconnected graphs and mentions briefly the extension of the algorithm for general planar graphs. We also prove the correctness and discuss the running time. Section 4 gives our computational experiments on a set of benchmark graphs. They show that our algorithm produces significant improvements compared with the state-of-the-art insertion method. The last section addresses an interesting open problem.


Figure 1: The number of crossings when inserting an edge highly depends on the chosen embedding

## 2 Preliminaries

In this section, we give a brief overview of the SPQRtree data structure for biconnected graphs. A connected graph is biconnected if it contains no vertex whose removal splits the graph into two or more components. SPQR-trees have been suggested by Di Battista and Tamassia [3]. They represent a decomposition of a biconnected graph into triconnected components. A connected graph is triconnected, if there is no pair of vertices in the graph whose removal splits the graph into two or more components.

The structure of the SPQR-tree $T$ for a graph $G$ is determined by the split pairs of $G$. These are
pairs of vertices that are either connected by an edge or whose removal splits the graph into components. These components are called the split components of the split pair.

An SPQR-tree has four types of nodes and with each node is associated a biconnected graph which is called the skeleton of that node. This graph can be seen as a simplified version of the original graph and its vertices are vertices of the original graph. If $(u, v)$ is and edge in a skeleton of a node in the SPQR-tree $T$ of a graph $G$, then the vertices $u$ and $v$ are a split pair of $G$ and the edge ( $u, v$ ) represents one or several split components of the split pair $(u, v)$.

1. $Q$-node: The skeleton consists of two vertices connected by two edges. One of the edges represents an edge of the original graph and the other one the rest of the graph. There is exactly one $Q$ node for each edge in the graph and these nodes are the leaves of the SPQR-tree (the nodes with degree one).
2. $S$-node: The skeleton is a simple cycle with at least 3 vertices (see Fig. 2(a)).
3. $P$-node: The skeleton consists of two vertices connected by at least three edges (see Fig. 2(b)).
4. $R$-node: The skeleton is a triconnected graph with at least four vertices (see Fig. 2(c)).

Except for the edges in the skeletons of $Q$-nodes that represent an edge of the original graph, all edges in the skeletons correspond to exactly one edge in the SPQR-tree and each edge in the SPQR-tree corresponds to exactly one edge in each of the the two skeletons of the nodes that it connects. These two edges in the two skeletons of adjacent nodes are called twin edges because they correspond to the same edge in the SPQR-tree and they connect the same vertices. As a consequence, every vertex of the original graph is contained in at least three skeletons (it is contained in at least two $Q$-node skeletons because every vertex in a biconnected graph has at least degree two and in at least one skeleton of an inner node of the SPQR-tree). For each vertex $v$ in the original graph, we call all nodes in the SPQR-tree whose skeletons


Figure 2: The skeletons of the three inner node types of SPQR-trees and how there edges correspond to subgraphs
contain $v$ the allocation nodes of $v$. They will play an important role in our algorithm.

When we see the SPQR-tree as an unrooted tree, then it is unique for each biconnected planar graph. Another important property of these trees is that their size (including the skeletons) is linear in the size of the original graph and that they can be constructed in linear time [7].

As described in [3], SPQR-trees can be used to represent all combinatorial embeddings of a biconnected planar graph. This is done by choosing embeddings for the skeletons of the nodes in the tree. The skeletons of $S$ - and $Q$-nodes are simple cycles, so they have only one embedding. Therefore, we only have to look at the skeletons of $R$ - and $P$-nodes. The skeletons of $R$-nodes are triconnected graphs. Our definition of combinatorial embeddings distinguishes between two combinatorial embeddings of a tricon-
nected graph, which are mirror-images of each other (the circular order of the edges around each vertex in clockwise order is reversed in the second embedding). The number of different embeddings of a $P-$ node skeleton is $(k-1)$ ! where $k$ is the number of edges in the skeleton.
Every combinatorial embedding of the original graph defines a unique combinatorial embedding for each skeleton of a node in the SPQR-tree. Conversely, when we define an embedding for each skeleton of a node in the SPQR-tree, we define a unique embedding for the original graph.
In this paper, we describe an algorithm for solving the following problem: Given a planar graph $G$ and two non-adjacent vertices, find an optimal edge insertion path and a corresponding embedding $\Pi$ of $G$ for this path. So first we have to define what is meant by the term edge insertion path.

Definition 1 Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be two non-adjacent vertices in a planar graph $G$ and $\Pi$ a combinatorial embedding of $G$. Let $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ be the dual graph of $G$ with respect to $\Pi$. By $\bar{e}$, we denote the edge in $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ corresponding to edge $e$ in $G$. With $\bar{f}$ we denote the vertex in $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ corresponding to face $f$ in $\Pi$. Then the list $L=\left(e_{1}, \ldots, e_{k}\right)$ of edges in $G$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $G$ with respect to $\Pi$ if the following conditions are satisfied:

1. There is a face in $\Pi$ with $e_{1}$ and $v_{1}$ on its boundary.
2. There is a face in $\Pi$ with $e_{k}$ and $v_{2}$ on its boundary.
3. $\bar{L}=\left(\overline{e_{1}}, \ldots, \overline{e_{k}}\right)$ represents a path in $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$.

This basically means that we can add the edge $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ to $\Pi$ with $k$ crossings, each involving edge $e_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and the edge $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$. We call an edge insertion path an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, when there is no shorter edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to any combinatorial embedding of the graph.
Figure 3 shows three different edge insertion paths for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to the embedding realized by the drawing. The three paths are the empty path,


Figure 3: Three different edge insertion paths for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$
the path $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}\right)$ and the path $\left(e_{4}, e_{5}, e_{6}\right)$. In this case, the empty path is the only optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$.

In the description of our algorithm we will need the notation of the expansion graph of an edge $e=$ $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ in a skeleton of a node $v$ in an SPQR-tree $T$. As already stated, each skeleton edge is associated with a tree edge. We can produce the expansion graph of $e$ as follows: We remove the tree edge $e_{T}=(v, w)$ associated with $e$ from $T$ splitting $T$ into two trees $T_{1}$ (the part containing $v$ ) and $T_{2}$. Now we transform $T_{2}$ into an SPQR-tree $T_{2}^{\prime}$ by adding a $Q$-node to $T_{2}$ adjacent to $w$. This new $Q$-node represents $e$. The biconnected graph whose SPQR-tree is $T_{2}^{\prime}$ is called the expansion graph of $e$.

## 3 The algorithm

We will first present the algorithm for biconnected graphs, proof its correctness and optimality and then briefly mention its extension for connected planar graphs and general planar graphs. One term we will use in our algorithm is the augmentation of a dual graph with two vertices.

Definition 2 Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be two vertices in the planar graph $G$ and $\Pi$ be an embedding of $G$. Let $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ be the dual graph of $G$ with respect to embedding
П. We say the graph ${\overline{G_{\Pi}}}^{\prime}$ has been obtained by augmenting $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ with $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, if it was constructed by adding $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ to $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ and inserting edges from $v_{i}$ to all vertices in $\overline{G_{\Pi}}$ representing faces in $\Pi$ with $v_{i}$ on their boundary for $i \in\{1,2\}$.

Algorithm 1 computes an optimal edge insertion path for a biconnected planar graph and two nonadjacent vertices in this graph. As already mentioned in section 2, the term allocation node of a vertex $v$ in a graph $G$ used in the algorithm refers to a node in the SPQR-tree $T$ of $G$ with $v$ in its skeleton. We say an edge $e$ in a skeleton represents a vertex $v$ of $G$ if $v$ is contained in its expansion graph. By expanding an edge $e$ in a skeleton, we mean replacing this edge by its expansion graph where we have removed the edge $e$. Expanding all edges in a skeleton results in the original graph.

We use the fact that any embedding of $G$ is uniquely defined by the embedding of every skeleton in $T$. Our algorithm solves the problem of finding an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $G$ by finding optimal edge insertion paths in the skeletons of certain nodes in the SPQR-tree $T$ of $G$ where we expanded certain edges and then concatenating them. We only have to do this for nodes of $T$ that lie on the shortest path $P$ in $T$ connecting an allocation node of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$. Note that this path is uniquely defined because $T$ is a tree.

We don't have to consider the nodes in the SPQRtree that are not on $P$ because their embedding does not influence the length of a shortest edge insertion path. If we look at two embeddings $\Pi_{1}$ and $\Pi_{2}$ of $G$ that only differ in the embedding of the SPQR-nodes that are not on $P$, then for every optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to $\Pi_{1}$ there exists an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to $\Pi_{2}$ that contains the same edges (though the sequence may differ) and vice versa. This is shown in the proof of theorem 2.

For each of the nodes $v$ on $P$ with skeleton $S$, each of the vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is either present in $S$ or represented by an edge. If the latter is the case, we split this edge by inserting an artificial vertex. So there will always be a representative for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in the resulting graph. Then we compute an optimal edge

## Algorithm 1: Algorithm OptimalBlockInserter for computing an optimal edge insertion path for a pair of non-adjacent nodes in a biconnected planar graph <br> Input: A biconnected planar graph $G$, and two non-adjacent vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $G$.

Result: An optimal edge insertion path $L$ for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to some embedding $\Pi$ of $G$

## begin

Compute the SPQR-tree $T$ of $G$;
$L \leftarrow() ;$
Determine arbitrary allocation nodes $\mu_{1}$ of $v_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ of $v_{2}$;
Find the path $P_{1}$ in $T$ starting at $\mu_{1}$ and ending at $\mu_{2}$;
Delete nodes from the start and end of $P_{1}$ until we have produced the shortest path $P_{2}$ in $T$ from an allocation node of $v_{1}$ to an allocation node of $v_{2}$;
Delete all nodes from $P_{2}$ except the $R$-nodes, producing the list $P_{3}$ of nodes in $T$;

## while $P_{3}$ is not empty do

Pop the first node $v$ from $P_{3}$ and let $S$ be its skeleton;
if $v_{1}$ is in $S$ then
$x_{1} \leftarrow v_{1} ;$
else
Split the edge representing $v_{1}$ in $S$ by inserting a new vertex $y_{1}$;
Mark the two edges produced by the split;
$x_{1} \leftarrow y_{1}$;
if $v_{2}$ is in $S$ then
$x_{2} \leftarrow v_{2} ;$

## else

Split the edge representing $v_{2}$ in $S$ by inserting a new vertex $y_{2}$;
Mark the two edges produced by the split;
$x_{2} \leftarrow y_{2} ;$
Expand all unmarked edges in $S$;
Compute an arbitrary embedding $\Pi$ for S;
Compute the dual graph $\overline{S_{\Pi}}$;
Augment $\overline{S_{\Pi}}$ with $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$;
Compute the shortest path $L^{\prime}$ in $\overline{S_{\Pi}}$ from $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$;
Delete the first and the last edge in $L^{\prime}$;
Replace every dual edge in $L^{\prime}$ by its pri-
mal counterpart;
Append $L^{\prime}$ to $L$;
end
insertion path connecting the two representatives in the graph that we get by expanding all edges in the skeleton except the ones that we have split. It is not hard to see that such an optimal edge insertion path will always be empty if $v$ is a $P$ - or $S$-node. So our algorithm only has to deal with the $R$-nodes on $P$.
Computing such an optimal edge insertion path in an $R$-node skeleton where edges have been expanded is not hard since the skeletons of $R$-nodes are triconnected graphs. Therefore, they have only two different combinatorial embeddings that are mirror images of each other. If we compute an optimal edge insertion path for one embedding, it will also be an optimal edge insertion path for the other embedding. We can compute the edge insertion path for a fixed embedding using a shortest path algorithm on the dual graph. The embedding we choose for the expansion graphs does not matter for the length of a shortest edge insertion path. This is shown in the proof of theorem 2.
Algorithm 1 only computes an edge insertion path $L$ for the two vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, but there is a simple way for finding an embedding $\Pi$ such that $L$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to $\Pi$. We just split every edge in $L$ by introducing new vertices and connect these vertices with edges to form a path starting at $v_{1}$ and ending at $v_{2}$. Since $L$ is an edge insertion path, the graph $G^{\prime}$ generated by this operation is planar. Therefore, we can compute a combinatorial embedding $\Pi^{\prime}$ for $G^{\prime}$ in linear time. When we replace all the split edges in $\Pi^{\prime}$ with the original edges, we get a combinatorial embedding $\Pi$ for $G$ with the property that $L$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to $\Pi$.
We show correctness of the algorithm in two parts.
Theorem 1 Given a planar biconnected graph $G$ and two non-adjacent vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $G$, Algorithm 1 computes a list of edges $L$ such that $L$ represents an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ with respect to some embedding $\Pi$ of $G$.
Proof (sketch) The proof centers on the nodes of $T$ on path $P_{2}$. The reason for not using $P_{3}$ (the set of nodes that the algorithm works on) is that the task of the algorithm is to compute the edge insertion path $L$, while in this proof, we have to compute an embed-
ding $\Pi$ and show that the edge insertion path computed by the algorithm is valid for the embedding. To compute the edge insertion path, we don't have to look at all the skeletons in $T$ but if we want to define an embedding, we have to define an embedding for every skeleton.

Let $P_{2}$ be given by the sequence $P_{2}=\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right)$ of nodes in $T . p_{1}$ is an allocation node of $v_{1}$ and $p_{k}$ is an allocation node of $v_{2}$. So the skeleton of $p_{1}$ contains $v_{1}$ and the skeleton of $p_{k}$ contains $v_{2}$ (note that $p_{1}$ and $p_{k}$ might be identical). By the construction of $P_{2}$, none of the nodes $p_{i}$ with $1<i<k$ has the vertex $v_{1}$ or $v_{2}$ in its skeleton.

The case $k=1$ is not hard to verify, so assume $k>1$. For $i=1, \ldots, k-1$, let $G_{i}$ be the graph obtained from the skeleton of $p_{i}$ by expanding all skeleton edges except for the representative $e_{2}$ of $v_{2}$ and then replacing $e_{2}$ by a path of length two linked by the new node $r_{i}$. Furthermore, let $G_{k}=G$ and $r_{k}=v_{2}$. We will show by induction that for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ there is a combinatorial embedding $\Pi_{i}$ of $G_{i}$ such that the edges in $L$ which are also contained in $G_{i}$ form a prefix $L_{i}$ of $L$ and $L_{i}$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $r_{i}$ with respect to $\Pi_{i}$. Thus, $\Pi_{k}$ is an embedding for $G$ and $L_{k}=L$ is an edge insertion path for $G$ with respect to $\Pi_{k}$. So $\Pi_{k}$ is the embedding $\Pi$ of the theorem.

We construct $\Pi_{k}$ iteratively. The construction is done in $k$ stages. We build graph $G_{i}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ and for each of these graphs we construct an embedding $\Pi_{i}$. Each graph $G_{i}$ for $1 \leq i<k$ can be constructed from $G_{i+1}$ by replacing a subgraph with a path of two edges. The inner vertex of this path is $r_{i}$.

We prove that for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, k-1\}$, the prefix $L_{i}$ of $L$ with the property that all edges of $L_{i}$ are contained in $G_{i}$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $r_{i}$ with respect to $\Pi_{i}$ and that the suffix of $L$ following $L_{i}$ does not contain any edges from $G_{i}$. Each $L_{i}$ with $i \in\{1, \ldots, k-1\}$ is a prefix of $L_{i+1}$ (see Fig. 4).

We only show the induction step: Assume that we have already constructed the graph $G_{l-1}$ and the embedding $\Pi_{l-1}$ and we want to construct graph $G_{l}$ and the embedding $\Pi_{l}$. To do this, we start with the skeleton of $p_{l}$ and construct the graph $G_{l}^{\prime}$ by expanding all the skeleton edges whose expansion graph contains


Figure 4: The graph $G_{i}$ of stage $i$ in the proof for Theorem 1
neither $v_{1}$ nor $v_{2}$ (if we expanded all the edges, we would produce the original graph $G$ ). The edge $e_{1}$ whose expansion graph contains $v_{1}$ forms the link to $G_{l-1}$ and the edge $e_{2}$ with $v_{2}$ in the expansion graph forms the link to $G_{l+1}^{\prime}$ (in the case $l=k, e_{2}$ does not exist because $v_{2}$ is a vertex in the skeleton of $p_{k}$ ).

We replace $e_{1}$ with a path of two edges connected by vertex $r_{l-1}$ and, if $l<k, e_{2}$ with a path of two edges connected by vertex $r_{l}$. We claim that the subsequence $S$ of $L$ containing only edges in $G_{l}^{\prime}$ is an edge insertion path for $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$ with respect to some embedding $\Pi_{l}^{\prime}$ of $G_{l}^{\prime}$. If $p_{l}$ is an $S$ - or $P$-node, Algorithm 1 has not added any edges contained in $G_{l}^{\prime}$ to $L$, so $S$ is empty. In the first case, the removal of $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$ will disconnect $G_{l}^{\prime}$ and so any embedding of $G_{l}^{\prime}$ has the property that we can insert the edge ( $r_{l-1}, r_{l}$ ) without crossings (see Fig. 5(a)). In the second case, it is easy to construct an embedding in which $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$ are on the boundary of the same face (see Fig 5(b)). If $p_{l}$ is an $R$-node, we have computed an edge insertion path for $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$ in Algorithm 1 and this edge insertion path works for both embeddings of $G_{l}^{\prime}$ because they are mirror images of each other.

Now we need to combine the embedding $\Pi_{l}^{\prime}$ with the embedding $\Pi_{l-1}$ computed in the previous steps to produce embedding $\Pi_{l}$ of $G_{l}$. When we do this correctly (omitted), we can afterwards guarantee that a prefix $L_{l}$ of $L$ is an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $r_{l}$ in $G_{l}$ with respect to embedding $\Pi_{l}$.

Theorem 2 Algorithm 1 computes an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$.

(a)

(b)

Figure 5: The cases where $p_{l}$ is an $S$ - or $P$-node

Proof (sketch) We have already seen that Algorithm 1 computes an edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, so let $L$ be the computed path with respect to embedding $\Pi$. We need to show that each edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ has length at least $|L|$. Let $L^{\prime}$ be an arbitrary edge insertion path with respect to some embedding $\Pi^{\prime}$.
Let $G_{i}$ be the graph we get by expanding all edges in the skeleton of node $p_{i}$ on $P_{2}$ except the representatives of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$. If we assume $\left|L^{\prime}\right|<|L|$, then there must be at least one $R$-node $p_{l}$ on $P_{2}$ with the property that the path $P^{\prime}$ in the dual of $G_{l}$ defined by $L^{\prime}$ is shorter then the path $P$ defined by $L$.
We consider the skeleton $S_{l}$ of $p_{l}$. We have computed $G_{l}$ by expanding all edges except for the ones
whose expansion graph contains $v_{1}$ or $v_{2}$ (the representatives of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ ) and replacing the representatives with paths of two edges linked by the vertices $r_{l-1}$ an $r_{l}$. The important observation is that the embedding we choose for the expansion graphs has no influence on the length of a shortest edge insertion path for $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$.
Intuitively this can be seen as follows: An edge insertion path $P$ in $G_{l}$ defines an edge insertion path $P_{S}$ in $S_{l}$. When $P_{S}$ does not include some edge $e$ of the skeleton, the embedding of the expansion graph $X(e)$ of $e$ is obviously irrelevant, because $P$ does not cross any of the edges in $X(e)$. Now we assume that $P_{S}$ includes $e$. So $P_{S}$ connects the face $F_{1}$ left of $e$ with the face $F_{2}$ right of $e$ by crossing $e$. In a corresponding embedding of $G_{l}, P$ must connect the face left of $X(e)$ with the face right of $X(e)$. Therefore it must traverse the graph $X(e)$. An optimal path for traversing $X(e)$ will produce the same number of crossings no matter how $X(e)$ is embedded, only the sequence of the crossed edges changes. This can be shown by structural induction on the SPQR-tree.
An embedding of $G_{l}$ is determined by the embedding of $S_{l}$ and the embeddings of the expansion graphs. The embeddings of the expansion graphs are irrelevant and there are only two embeddings of $S_{l}$ which are mirror images of each other. Therefore, we can choose an arbitrary embedding of $G_{l}$ to compute the edge insertion path. So there can be no shorter edge insertion path $P^{\prime}$ for $r_{l-1}$ and $r_{l}$ in $G_{l}$ and our algorithm must compute an optimal edge insertion path.

The linear running time is not hard to see: A planar graph with $n$ vertices has at most $3 n-6$ edges (if we assume that there are no multi-edge and no self loops). We can compute an SPQR-tree in linear time and the size of the tree including the skeletons is also linear. Thus we can compute the paths $P_{1}, P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ in linear time. Two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ computed in the while-loop of Algorithm 1 share at most two vertices and are (except for a constant number of nodes and edges) subgraphs of the original graph. Computing arbitrary embeddings and computing a shortest path in the dual graph with breadth first search can be done in linear time so the running time
of the while-loop is linear in the size of the original graph.

To deal with connected planar graphs, we use algorithm 1 as a subroutine. We use a data structure called the block tree. This tree has two types of nodes: The $B$-nodes correspond to biconnected components of the original graph $G$ and the $V$-nodes to the vertices. The $B$-nodes contain the SPQR-trees of the biconnected component they represent. There are only edges between $V$ - and $B$-nodes. An edge is present between a $V$-node and a $B$-node, if the corresponding vertex is contained in the component represented by the $B$-node.

Our algorithm first computes the path $P$ in the block tree $B$ of $G$ connecting $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$. For each $B$-node $b$ on this path, the two representatives of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ are computed. The representative of vertex $v_{i}$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$ is either $v_{i}$ itself if it is contained in the biconnected component $c$ represented by $b$ or the vertex represented by the next $V$-node on the path from $b$ to $v_{i}$. Using algorithm 1 , an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $c$ is computed. The result of the algorithm is the concatenation of all the edge insertion paths computed for all $B$-nodes on $P$.

In the proof of the correctness of the algorithm (which is omitted here because of space considerations), we first show that an optimal edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ will not cross any edge in a biconnected component of $G$ that is not represented by a $B$-node on $P$. We show that for any edge insertion path that crosses edges of components not represented on $P$, we can construct a shorter edge insertion path by deleting a subpath of the edge insertion path. Using the correctness and optimality of algorithm 1, we then proof by contradiction that there can be no shorter edge insertion path for $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $G$ than the one computed by our algorithm.

It is easy to extend the algorithm to planar graphs that are not connected. If the two vertices we want to connect by an edge are contained in the same connected component, we can use the algorithm for connected graphs. Otherwise, we can always connect the edges without introducing a crossing.

## 4 Computational experiments

We have implemented our algorithm using AGD [1], a library of algorithms for graph drawing, which contains a state-of-the-art implementation of crossing minimization using planarization and a linear time implementation of SPQR-trees [7]. In our tests, we use the 8249 non-planar graphs from a benchmark set collected by Di Battista et al. [2] ranging from 10 to 100 vertices. The planar subgraph is computed using the AGD implementation of [9]. In $10.1 \%$ ( 831 graphs) of our benchmark graphs the planar subgraphs resulted from deleting a single edge. In these instances, our algorithm is direct applicable. In the remaining cases, we insert the edges iteratively (see Section 1) applying our new algorithm. It is not hard to show that the resulting graphs $G_{i}$ after every iteration $i$ satisfy the following property: In every combinatorial embedding of $G_{i}$ all artificial vertices represent real crossings.

We compare the number of crossings produced by our approach with the number of crossings produced by the standard algorithm described in the introduction. Notice that, since we insert the edges iteratively in the second phase of the planarization method, the impact of optimally inserting one edge is not obvious.

Figure 6 visualizes the tremendous improvement achieved by our new algorithm. It displays for each graph the relative improvement $I_{R}$ of the number of crossings in percent. Let $c_{s}$ denote the number of crossings by the standard algorithm and $c_{n}$ denote our new edge insertion algorithm, then $I_{R}=$ $\frac{c_{s}-c_{n}}{c_{s}} 100 \%$.
${ }^{c_{s}}$ For $68 \%$ out of the 8249 tested non-planar graphs, the crossing number was smaller using our new method and for only $8 \%$ it was greater. The average relative improvement was $14.42 \%$ in total. The maximum improvement was $85.71 \%$. This happened for a graph with 39 vertices and 56 edges. The standard algorithm produced 7 crossings whereas our new algorithm only 1 . The maximum negative improvement was $-100 \%$ for a graph with 65 vertices and 76 edges. Here, the standard algorithm produced 2 crossings and the new algorithm 4 crossings. The average number of crossings produced by the standard algorithm grows from 1.29 for graphs with 11 ver-
tices to 57.86 for graphs with 100 vertices, whereas the numbers grow from 1.29 to 49.83 for our new algorithm.

The two figures 7 and 8 show the running time of the reinsertion step of the planarization method when the algorithm presented in this paper is used. In Fig. 7, we computed the average time needed for reinserting all edges for all graphs with the same number of vertices, while in Fig. 8, we computed the average time needed for the reinsertion step for all graphs where the same number of edges had to be reinserted. It seems that the time needed for the reinsertion step grows cubic with the number of nodes and almost quadratic with the number of edges that have to be reinserted.
The reason for these two facts is that the number of edges we have to reinsert grows roughly linear with the number of vertices in the graphs of our test suit and that whenever we reinsert one edge, the reinsertion of the next edge takes more time because the graph where we have to reinsert the edge is larger than before. Each reinsertion adds at least two edges and one vertex to the graph. The reason is that we can not reinsert the edge without producing at least one crossing, so we have to add at least one artificial vertex to make the graph planar again. So the insertion of a single edge is done in linear time with respect to the size of the graph where its is inserted, but the graph grows linearly with every reinserted edge.

## 5 Open problems

Our algorithm computes the optimum embedding of a planar graph for inserting an additional edge with respect to the number of crossings. It may be interesting to explore the connection of this problem with the general crossing minimization problem.
An interesting question is the following: Consider a graph with skewness one, i.e., a non-planar graph that can be made planar by deleting a single edge. All maximum planar subgraphs of the graph can be found in quadratic time by testing planarity of each subgraph constructed by deleting one edge. If we take the maximum planar subgraphs and apply our algo-
rithm to reinsert the deleted edge with the minimum number of crossings, do we always produce a drawing of the original graph with the minimum number of crossings?

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Figure 6: Relative improvement for each graph


Figure 7: Average time needed for reinserting the edges in the planarization method using the optimal method for inserting an edge into a planar graph


Figure 8: Average time needed for reinsertion when the average is computed for all graphs where the same number of edges have to be reinserted


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