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ALGORITHMS FOR FLOWS AND DISJOINT PATHS IN PLANAR GRAPHS

BY

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DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

In this dissertation we describe several algorithms for computing flows, connectivity, and disjoint paths in planar graphs. In all cases, the algorithms are either the first polynomial-time algorithms or are faster than all previously-known algorithms.

First, we describe algorithms for the maximum flow problem in directed planar graphs with integer capacities on both vertices and arcs and with multiple sources and sinks. The algorithms are the first to solve the problem in near-linear time when the number of terminals is fixed and the capacities are polynomially bounded. As a byproduct, we get the first algorithm to solve the vertex-disjoint $S - T$ paths problem in near-linear time when the number of terminals is fixed but greater than 2. We also modify our algorithms to handle real capacities in near-linear time when they are three terminals.

Second, we describe algorithms to compute element-connectivity and a related structure called the reduced graph. We show that global element-connectivity in planar graphs can be found in linear time if the terminals can be covered by $O(1)$ faces. We also show that the reduced graph can be computed in subquadratic time in planar graphs if the number of terminals is fixed.

Third, we describe algorithms for solving or approximately solving the vertex-disjoint paths problem when we want to minimize the total length of the paths. For planar graphs, we describe: (1) an exact algorithm for the case of four pairs of terminals on a single face; and (2) a k -approximation algorithm for the case of k pairs of terminals on a single face.

Fourth, we describe algorithms and a hardness result for the ideal orientation problem. We show that the problem is NP-hard in planar graphs. On the other hand, we show that the problem is polynomial-time solvable in planar graphs when the number of terminals is fixed, the terminals are all on the same face, and no two of the terminal pairs cross. We also describe an algorithm for serial instances of a generalization of the ideal orientation problem called the k -min-sum orientation problem.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Computer scientists have been trying to develop algorithms for planar and near-planar graphs since the 1950s for two reasons. First, such graphs have substantial structure, and as a result often admit algorithms that are faster and simpler than algorithms for general graphs. Second, such graphs arise often in applications, especially in transportation, geographical routing, computer vision, and VLSI design. Specific problems in planar graphs that have applications include the maximum flow problem, the minimum cut problem, the shortest path problem, and the disjoint paths problem. For example, road networks can be modeled as planar graphs if we ignore bridges and tunnels, and so it is useful to find shortest paths in planar graphs. In computer vision, pixels in images are often arranged in a two-dimensional grid, and they need to be partitioned into clusters using minimum-cut algorithms. In VLSI design, we need to pack components onto a chip so that the wires connecting the components do not cross each other, so it is useful to find disjoint paths.

This thesis is concerned with two classes of problems: *connectivity problems* and *disjoint path problems*. In connectivity problems, we are given, say, two vertices called *terminals* in a graph, and we want to find the minimum number of graph components that we need to remove in order to disconnect the two terminals. The set of removed components is called a *cut*. Here a “component” can mean a vertex, or an edge, or something called an *element* [1, 2, 3]; depending on what we consider to be a component, we get different variations of the problem. We also get different variations depending on whether the input graph is directed or undirected, and whether or not the components of the graph are weighted. (If the components are weighted, then we want to minimize the total weight of the removed components instead of the number of removed components.) In another variation, there may be more than two terminals. In this case, we may be interested in disconnecting any pair of terminals, or we may designate some terminals to be sources and some to be sinks, in which case we are only interested in disconnecting the sources from the sinks.

Theorems by Karl Menger [4] and by Lester R. Ford Jr. and Delbert R. Fulkerson [5] show that there is an intimate connection between connectivity and *maximum flows* in graphs, which are ways of routing commodities through graphs. In many cases, our best algorithms for computing connectivity actually compute flows and then extract connectivity values from those flows. Network flow problems are themselves an important class of problems studied in operations research and computer science. They were first formulated in the 1950s by Theodore E. Harris and Frank S. Ross, who were studying the Soviet rail network in Eastern Europe [6]. Specifically, Harris and Ross wanted to compute how much of certain commodi-

ties the network could transport from certain cities to other cities. Soon afterwards, Ford and Fulkerson described an algorithm for this problem (and thus for network flow problems in general) [5]. Since then, network flow has found further applications in transportation, logistics, telecommunications, and scheduling [7].

The second class of problems that this thesis is concerned with are disjoint-paths problems. In disjoint-paths problems, we are given a set of k pairs of vertices called *terminals*, and we want to find k pairwise-disjoint paths such that the i -th path connects the i -th pair of terminals. Here “pairwise-disjoint” can mean either edge-disjoint [8], vertex-disjoint [9], non-crossing [10], or something a bit less standard called *nonconflicting* [11]. *Shortest* disjoint paths problems are defined similarly, but we also want the k paths to be “short” in some sense; for example, we may require that each path be a shortest path connecting its endpoints [12], or that the sum of the lengths of the k paths be minimized [9, 13], or that the length of the longest of the k paths be minimized [9]. As in the case of connectivity problems, we also get different variations depending on whether the input graph is directed or undirected, and whether the graph is weighted or unweighted. In still another variation, we want to connect as many terminal pairs as possible via disjoint paths [14].

Disjoint paths problems are an important class of problems in graph theory, with applications in VLSI design [15, 16] and network routing [17, 18]. Both maximum-flow problems and the disjoint paths problem are special cases of multicommodity flow problems. Specifically, the maximum flow problem is a fractional multicommodity flow problem with only a single commodity, while the edge-disjoint paths problem is an integral multicommodity flow problem where each edge has unit capacity and each terminal pair has unit demand. In addition, the version of the shortest edge-disjoint paths problem where we wish to minimize the sum of the lengths of the paths is an integral *minimum-cost* multicommodity flow problem where each edge has unit capacity, each terminal pair has unit demand, and each edge has cost equal to its length.

In this thesis we study two connectivity problems and two shortest disjoint paths problems in planar graphs: the maximum flow problem with vertex capacities; the element connectivity problem; the minimum-sum shortest disjoint paths problem; and the *ideal orientation problem* [19], in which we are asked to find nonconflicting paths that are also shortest paths. These problems will be defined more precisely in section 2. All of them involve finding paths, flows, or cuts that are optimal in some sense. For the two connectivity problems, polynomial-time algorithms are already known [3, 20], and the primary open question is whether or not the algorithms can be sped up in planar graphs, ideally to near-linear time. The two shortest-disjoint-path problems are solvable in very special cases [9, 12] and are NP-hard in general [19, 21], but many cases in between still have unknown complexity, even

in planar graphs.

This thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2 we define the key concepts that will be used in the rest of the thesis. In Chapter 3 we investigate flow in directed planar graphs with vertex capacities and multiple sources and sinks. First, we show that for unit capacities (equivalently, bounded integer capacities), maximum flows can be found in $O(\min\{k^2n, n \log^3 n + kn\})$ time, where k is the number of terminals. Second, we show that for integer capacities, maximum flows can be found in $O(k^5n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time, where U is the maximum capacity of a single vertex or arc. Third, we show that for three terminals, we can find maximum flows in $O(n \log n)$ time, even when the capacities are non-negative reals. All three results are obtained by extending Kaplan and Nussbaum's algorithm for finding maximum flows in directed planar graphs with vertex capacities and a single source and sink [22]; the second result also uses an algorithm of Borradaile et al. for finding maximum flows in k -apex graphs [23].

In Chapter 4, we investigate element connectivity in planar graphs. We show that the global element connectivity can be found in $O(bn)$ time if the terminals can be covered by b faces. In addition, we show that the reduced graph of a planar graph can be found in $O(kn^{5/3} \log^{4/3} n)$ time, where k is the number of terminals.

In Chapter 5, we describe our results for the minimum-sum vertex-disjoint paths problem. We show that for four terminal pairs on the same face of a planar graph, the problem can be solved in $O(kn^6)$ time. In addition, we describe a k -approximation algorithm for the case where there are k terminal pairs on the same face of a planar graph.

In Chapter 6, we describe our results for the orientation problem in planar graphs. We describe four results: (1) an $O(n \log n)$ -time algorithm for the ideal orientation problem when all terminals are on the outer face in a certain order we call *serial order*; (2) a polynomial-time algorithm for the ideal orientation problem when all terminals are on the outer face and *non-crossing*, and the number of terminals is fixed; (3) a proof that the ideal orientation problem is NP-hard in planar graphs if the terminals are allowed to be on any face and the number of terminals is part of the input; and (4) an $O(kn^5)$ -time algorithm for the minimum-sum orientation problem (in which the nonconflicting paths need not be shortest paths but must have minimum total length) when all the terminals are on the outer face in serial order.

CHAPTER 2: PRELIMINARIES

2.1 GRAPHS

In this thesis, G is a simple plane graph with vertex set $V(G)$, edge or arc set $E(G)$, and face set $F(G)$. When there is no risk of confusion, we will write V for $V(G)$, E for $E(G)$, or F for $F(G)$. The graph G can be either directed or undirected; we will specify when we need G to be one or the other. The graph G is also weighted; depending on the context, the weight function is either a capacity function c or a length function ℓ . Let n be the number of vertices in G ; it is well known that Euler's formula implies $|E(G)| = O(n)$. For any vertex $v \in V(G)$, let $\deg_G(v)$ denote the degree of v in G . If G is a graph and $W \subseteq V(G)$, then $G \setminus W$ is the induced subgraph of G with vertex set $V(G) \setminus W$. For any integer N , let $[N] = \{1, \dots, N\}$.

Walks, paths, incoming arcs, outgoing arcs. We use uv or (u, v) to denote an arc or directed edge that is directed from u to v , and $\{u, v\}$ to denote an undirected edge connecting u and v . A nontrivial *walk* is a sequence of arcs $((u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_p, v_p))$ such that $v_i = u_{i+1}$ for all $i \in [1, p-1]$. Such a walk *starts* at u_1 and *ends* at v_p . If in addition $v_p = u_1$ then P is a *cycle*. We can also have *trivial walks* that consist of no arcs; such walks start and end at the same vertex. In a slight abuse of terminology, we will say that the walk W *uses* the (undirected) edges $\{u_0, v_0\}, \dots, \{u_p, v_p\}$. The directed walk W is in an undirected graph G if $\{u_i, v_i\}$ is an edge in G for all $i \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$. A walk W contains a vertex v if one of the arcs of W has v as an endpoint. Thus we will sometimes view paths and cycles as sets of vertices or as sets of arcs instead of as sequences of arcs. The walk $((u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_p, v_p))$ is a *path* if u_1, \dots, u_p, v_p are all distinct. For any $v \in V$, let $\text{in}(v) = \{(u, v) \mid (u, v) \in E(G)\}$ be the set of *incoming arcs* of v , and let $\text{out}(v) = \{(v, u) \mid (v, u) \in E(G)\}$ be the set of *outgoing arcs* of v . Similarly, if W is a set of vertices, then $\text{in}(W) = \{(u, v) \in E(G) \mid u \notin W, v \in W\}$ and $\text{out}(W) = \{(u, v) \in E(G) \mid u \in W, v \notin W\}$.

Touching, subpaths, concatenation. Two walks *meet* or *touch* if they have at least one vertex in common. Two regions *touch* or *meet* if their closures have non-empty intersection. For any path P and any vertices u and v on that path, we write $P[u, v]$ to denote the subpath of P from u to v . Similarly, let $P[u, v)$ denote the subpath of P from u to the predecessor of v , let $P(u, v]$ denote the subpath of P from the successor of u to v , and let $P(u, v)$ denote the subpath of P from the successor of u to the predecessor of v ; these subpaths could be

empty. The concatenation of two paths P and P' is denoted $P \circ P'$.

Predecessors, reversals, k -apex graphs. If u appears before vertex v on the walk P , then we write $u \prec_P v$; we will only use this notation when there is no risk of ambiguity. The *reversal* of any arc (u, v) , denoted $\text{rev}((u, v))$, is (v, u) . We may assume without loss of generality that if $e \in E(G)$, then $\text{rev}(e) \in E(G)$, and both e and $\text{rev}(e)$ are embedded together. If P is a path (e_1, \dots, e_p) , then the *reversal* of P , denoted $\text{rev}(P)$, is $(\text{rev}(e_p), \dots, \text{rev}(e_1))$. A graph G_a is a *k -apex graph* if there are k vertices whose removal from the graph would make G_a planar. These k vertices are called *apices*.

Boundary and degree. For any plane graph G , we write ∂G to denote the boundary of the outer face of G ; we also informally call ∂G the boundary of G . In Chapter 5, we will assume without loss of generality that ∂G is a simple cycle. We write $\deg(v)$ to denote the degree of a vertex v .

Orientations and crossing. An *orientation* of an undirected graph G is a directed graph H that is formed by replacing each edge $\{u, v\} \in E(G)$ with exactly one of the arcs uv or vu . If four terminals s_i, t_i, s_j, t_j are on a common face, then we say that the terminal pairs *cross* if their cyclic order (either clockwise or counterclockwise) on the face is s_i, s_j, t_i, t_j ; otherwise, the terminals are *noncrossing*. Similarly, two embedded paths P_1 and P_2 *cross* at a vertex v if there are four arcs or edges of $P_1 \cup P_2$ incident to v and these edges or arcs alternate between P_1 and P_2 in cyclic order around v .

Duality. If G is a plane graph, the *dual graph* G^* of G has a vertex h^* for every face h of G , and an arc e^* for every arc e of G . The arc e^* is directed from the vertex of G^* corresponding to the face in G on the left side of e , to the vertex of G^* corresponding to the face in G on the right side of e . If e is undirected, then so is e^* . Any undirected edge $\{u, v\}$ can be represented by two directed arcs (u, v) and (v, u) , each with the same weight as $\{u, v\}$. We put lengths $\ell(e^*)$ on the arcs e^* of G^* as follows: $\ell(e^*) = c(e)$ for every $e \in E(G)$.

2.2 FLOWS AND CONNECTIVITY

2.2.1 Maximum flows

Suppose that G is a directed planar graph such that two disjoint subsets of $V(G)$ are special: S is a set of *sources* and T is a set of *sinks*. In the context of maximum flow,

vertices that are in either S or T are called *terminals*, and k is the number of terminals. Suppose further that each arc e has a non-negative capacity $c(e)$ and each non-terminal vertex v has a positive capacity $c(v)$. In this case we say that G is a *flow network*.

f^{in} , f^{out} , **flows, feasibility.** Let $f : E(G) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$. To lighten notation, in this thesis we will write $f(u, v)$ instead of $f((u, v))$ for any arc (u, v) . For each vertex v , let

$$f^{in}(v) = \sum_{e \in \text{in}(v)} f(e) \quad \text{and} \quad f^{out}(v) = \sum_{e \in \text{out}(v)} f(e). \quad (2.1)$$

Similarly, if W is a set of vertices, then let

$$f^{in}(W) = \sum_{e \in \text{in}(W)} f(e) \quad \text{and} \quad f^{out}(W) = \sum_{e \in \text{out}(W)} f(e). \quad (2.2)$$

The function f is a *flow in G* if it satisfies the following *flow conservation constraints*:

$$f^{in}(v) = f^{out}(v) \quad \forall v \in V(G) \setminus (S \cup T) \quad (2.3)$$

A flow is *feasible* if in addition it satisfies the following two types of constraints:

$$0 \leq f(e) \leq c(e) \quad \forall e \in E(G) \quad (2.4)$$

$$f^{in}(v) \leq c(v) \quad \forall v \in V(G) \setminus (S \cup T) \quad (2.5)$$

Constraints of the first type are *arc capacity constraints* and those of the second type are *vertex capacity constraints*. A flow f routes $f(e)$ units of flow through the arc e . An arc $e \in \text{in}(v)$ carries flow into v if $f(e) > 0$, and an arc $e' \in \text{out}(v)$ carries flow out of v if $f(e') > 0$. We assume that $\min\{f(e), f(\text{rev}(e))\} = 0$ for every arc e .

Maximum flow problem. In the *maximum flow problem*, we are trying to find a feasible flow f with maximum *value*, where the value $|f|$ of a flow f is defined as

$$|f| = \sum_{s \in S} (f^{out}(s) - f^{in}(s)). \quad (2.6)$$

When all arc capacities are 1 and vertex capacities are infinite, the maximum flow problem becomes the *arc-disjoint S - T paths problem*, and the value of the maximum flow is the maximum number of arc-disjoint paths from vertices in S to vertices in T . Similarly, when all the vertex and arc capacities are 1, the maximum flow problem becomes the *vertex-disjoint*

S-T paths problem. In addition, we can define an undirected version of the maximum flow problem by requiring $c(\text{rev}(e)) = c(e)$ for all edges e in undirected graphs. When G is undirected and all edge capacities are 1 and vertex capacities are infinite, the maximum flow problem becomes the *edge-disjoint paths problem*.

Note that capacities may be infinite, and we can assume without loss of generality that terminals have infinite capacity: if a source s has finite capacity c , then we can add a node s' , an arc (s', s) of capacity c , replace s with s' in S , and let s' have infinite capacity, all while preserving planarity. A similar reduction eliminates finite capacities on the sinks. Furthermore, we may assume without loss of generality that none of the sources have incoming arcs and none of the sinks have outgoing arcs.

val(G) and circulations. Let $\text{val}(G)$ be the value of the maximum flow in a flow network G (which may have vertex capacities). A *circulation* is a flow of value 0. A circulation g is *simple* if $g^{\text{in}}(v) = g^{\text{out}}(v)$ for every terminal v . Non-simple circulations only exist if there are more than two terminals. A flow f has a *flow cycle* C if C is a cycle and $f(e) > 0$ for every arc e in C , and f is *acyclic* if it has no flow cycles. A flow cycle C of a flow f is *unit* if $f(e) = 1$ for every arc e in C . A flow f *saturates* an arc e if $f(e) = c(e)$. A flow is a *path-flow* if its support is a path.

Basic operations. We will often add two flows f and g together to obtain a flow $f + g$, or multiply a flow f by some constant c to get a flow cf . These operations are defined in the obvious way: for every arc e , we have

$$(f + g)(e) = \max\{0, f(e) + g(e) - f(\text{rev}(e)) - g(\text{rev}(e))\} \quad (2.7)$$

$$(cf)(e) = c \cdot f(e) \quad (2.8)$$

The graph G_{st} . Given a flow network with multiple sources and sinks, we can reduce the maximum flow problem to the single-source, single-sink case by adding a supersource s , supersink t , infinite-capacity arcs (s, s_i) for every $s_i \in S$, and infinite-capacity arcs (t_i, t) for every $t_i \in T$. Call the resulting flow network G_{st} . Finding a maximum flow in the original network G is equivalent to finding a maximum flow from s to t in G_{st} . The graph G_{st} is not necessarily planar but is a 2-apex graph. In this thesis, we will work in G_{st} instead of G when we want circulations to be unions of flow cycles; in G , circulations can consist of source-to-source or sink-to-sink paths.

The flow graph f_G . Given a flow f in a flow network G , the *flow graph* of f is a graph f_G that contains all the vertices of G but only contains the arcs of G that carry non-zero flow; furthermore, each arc e in f_G has weight $f(e)$. Depending on the context, we will interpret these arc weights as either capacities or flow.

The extended graph G° . Given a flow network G with vertex capacities, Kaplan and Nussbaum [22] defined the *extended graph* G° based on constructions of Khuller and Naor [24], Zhang, Liang, and Jiang [25], and Zhang, Liang, and Chen [26]. Starting with G_{st} , we replace each finitely capacitated vertex $v \in V(G_{st})$ with an undirected cycle of d vertices v_1, \dots, v_d , where $d = |\text{in}(v)| + |\text{out}(v)|$ is the degree of v . Each edge in the cycle has capacity $c(v)/2$. (An undirected edge e with capacity $c(e)$ can be viewed as two arcs e and $\text{rev}(e)$, each with capacity $c(e)$, so G° can be viewed as a directed flow network.) We make every arc that was incident to v incident to some vertex v_i instead, such that each arc is connected to a different vertex v_i , the clockwise order of the arcs is preserved, and the graph remains planar. We also identify the new arc (u, v_i) or (v_i, u) with the old arc (u, v) or (v, u) and denote the cycle replacing v by C_v . The resulting graph G° has $O(n)$ vertices and arcs. See Figure 2.1.

This idea of eliminating vertex capacities in planar graphs by replacing each vertex with a cycle has also been used in the context of finding shortest vertex-disjoint paths in planar graphs [13].

The graph \overline{G} . Given a flow network G with vertex capacities, let \overline{G} be the flow network obtained as follows: Starting with G_{st} , replace each capacitated vertex v with two vertices v^{in} and v^{out} , and add an arc of capacity $c(v)$ directed from v^{in} to v^{out} . All arcs that were directed into v are directed into v^{in} instead, and all arcs that were directed out of v are directed out of v^{out} instead. See Figure 2.1. It is well known that every feasible flow in G_{st} corresponds to a feasible flow in \overline{G} of the same value, and vice versa. The graph \overline{G} has $O(n)$ vertices and arcs.

Restrictions and extensions. Suppose G and H are flow networks such that every arc in G is also an arc in H . If f' is a flow in H , then the *restriction* of f' to G is the flow f in G defined by $f(e) = f'(e)$ for all arcs $e \in E(G)$. Conversely, if f is a flow in G , then an *extension* of f to H is any flow f' in H such that $f(e) = f'(e)$ for every arc $e \in E(G)$.

Every arc in G or G_{st} is an arc in both \overline{G} and G° . Every feasible flow in \overline{G} has a feasible restriction in G . Conversely, every feasible flow f in G has a feasible extension \overline{f} in \overline{G} , by defining $\overline{f}(v^{in}, v^{out}) = f^{in}(v)$. Every feasible flow in G° has a restriction in G ; this restriction is a flow but is not necessarily feasible. On the other hand, we have the following lemma:

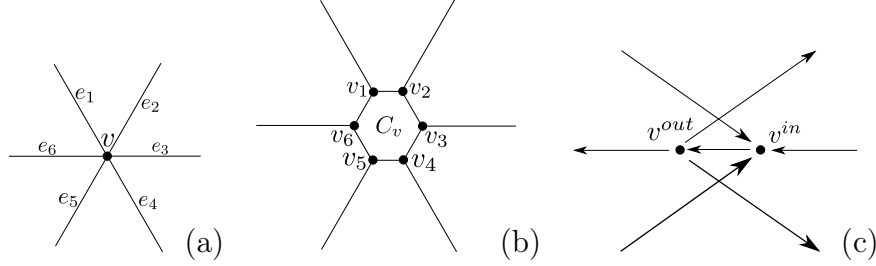


Figure 2.1: (a) capacitated vertex $v \in G$ with capacity $c(v)$ (b) corresponding cycle C_v in G° ; each edge in C_v has capacity $c(v)/2$ (c) corresponding arc (v^{in}, v^{out}) in \overline{G} with capacity $c(v)$

Lemma 2.1. Every feasible flow f in G has an extension f° that is feasible in G° . Furthermore, we can find f° in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time.

Proof. To show that f° exists, we use the well-known flow decomposition theorem, which states that any flow f in G can be decomposed into a sum of flows f_1, \dots, f_m such that for each i , the support of f_i is either a cycle or a path from a source to a sink. For each $i \in [m]$, let p_i be the support of f_i and let $u_i = |f_i|$.

For each capacitated vertex $w \in G$, we define f° on the cycle C_w in G° as follows: for each $i \in [m]$, if some arc in p_i carries u_i units of flow into a vertex x on C_w and another arc in p_i carries u_i units of flow out of a vertex x' on C_w , then we route $u_i/2$ units of flow clockwise along C_w from x to x' and $u_i/2$ units of flow counter-clockwise along C_w from x to x' . It is easy to see that f° satisfies conservation constraints. Since $f^{in}(C_w) \leq c(w)$, no arc on C_w carries more than $c(w)/2$ units of flow, so f° is feasible.

We now describe how to find f° . We must define $f^\circ(e) = f(e)$ for all arcs $e \in E(G)$. We reduce the problem of finding f° on all other arcs to finding a flow in a planar flow network H . Let H be the subgraph of G° consisting of all cycles C_v where v is a capacitated vertex in G ; it suffices to define f° on the arcs of H . Recall that for all $v \in V(G)$, the vertices in C_v are v_1, \dots, v_d in clockwise order, where $d = \deg_G(v)$. For each vertex v_i in H , let $e_{i,v}$ be the unique arc in G incident to v_i . When it is clear what vertex v is, we will write e_i instead of $e_{i,v}$. For each $v \in V(G)$ and $i \in [\deg_G(v)]$, let

$$\text{demand}(v_i) = \begin{cases} -f(e_i) & \text{if } e_i \in \text{in}(v_i) \\ f(e_i) & \text{if } e_i \in \text{out}(v_i) \end{cases} \quad (2.9)$$

That is, $\text{demand}(v_i)$ is the net amount of flow that f° carries out of v_i using only arcs in $E(G)$. For each vertex v_i such that $\text{demand}(v_i)$ is negative, let v_i be a source in H ; similarly, if $\text{demand}(v_i)$ is positive, let v_i be a sink in H . For each $v \in V(G)$, $\sum_{i=1}^{\deg_G(v)} \text{demand}(v_i) = 0$.

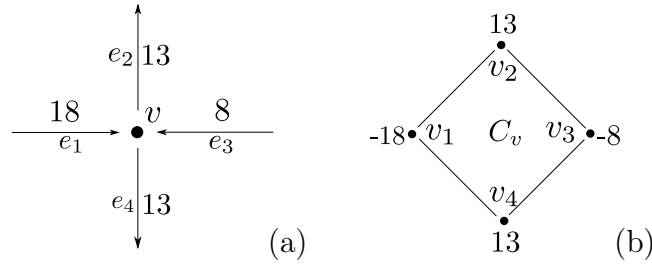


Figure 2.2: Extending a flow from G to G° . (a) An example of f at v ; arcs are labeled with their flow values (b) H at C_v with terminals labeled with their demand values; v_1 and v_3 are sources; v_2 and v_4 are sinks

See Figure 2.2.

Since f° exists, there exists a flow f_H in H such that $f_H^{out}(v_i) = -\text{demand}(v_i)$ for every source v_i and $f_H^{in}(v_i) = \text{demand}(v_i)$ for every sink v_i . To actually find f_H , we do the following. For each source v_i in H , we add a vertex v'_i that will be a source instead of v_i , and we add an arc (v'_i, v_i) with capacity $-\text{demand}(v_i)$; similarly, for each sink v_j in H , we add a vertex v'_j that will be a sink instead of v_j , and we add an arc (v_j, v'_j) with capacity $\text{demand}(v_j)$. Then f_H is an acyclic maximum flow in the resulting network. The restriction of f_H to H is exactly f° on the arcs of H . Finding f_H requires finding a maximum flow in a union of disjoint “suns” with multiple sources and sinks, where a sun is a cycle in which each vertex has a pendant arc appended to it. This can be done in, say, $O(n \log^3 n)$ time using the algorithm of Borradaile et al. [23]. Simpler and more intuitive algorithms exist but are not necessary, as this will not be the bottleneck when we use it. QED.

Thus given a flow in G we can easily compute a corresponding flow in G° , and vice versa.

The residual graph. If f is a flow in a flow network G with capacity function c and without vertex capacities, then the *residual capacity* of an arc e with respect to f and c , denoted $c_f(e)$, is $c(e) - f(e) + f(\text{rev}(e))$. The *residual graph of G with respect to f and c* (or just the *residual graph of G with respect to f* when c is the capacity function given as input) has the same vertices and arcs as G , but each arc e has capacity $c_f(e)$. A *residual arc* of G with respect to f is an arc with positive residual capacity, a *residual path* is a path made up of residual arcs, and a *residual cycle* is a cycle made up of residual arcs. It is well known that a flow f is a maximum flow in a graph G if the residual graph of G with respect to f does not have any residual paths from a source to a sink.

Fractional and integer flows. A flow f° in G° is an *integer flow* if $f^\circ(e)$ is an integer for every arc e in G ; otherwise, f° is *fractional*. A flow in \overline{G} is *integer* if it is integer-valued

on all arcs of \overline{G} and is *fractional* otherwise.

We now prove the following lemma:

Lemma 2.2. Let f° be a fractional flow in G° such that $|f^\circ|$ is an integer. Then there exists an integer flow f_1° in G° of the same value as f° such that $(f_1^\circ)^{in}(C_v) \leq \lceil (f^\circ)^{in}(C_v) \rceil$ for every vertex $v \in V(G)$. Furthermore, we can find f_1° in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time.

First let f be the restriction of f° to G , and let \overline{f} be the extension of f to \overline{G} . Since \overline{G} has $O(n)$ arcs, results by Lee et al. [27] and by Kang and Payor [28] imply the following.

Lemma 2.3. Let \overline{f} be a fractional flow in \overline{G} such that $|\overline{f}|$ is an integer. Then there exists an integer flow \overline{f}_1 in \overline{G} of the same value as \overline{f} such that $\overline{f}_1(e) \leq \lceil \overline{f}(e) \rceil$ for every arc e in \overline{G} . Furthermore, we can find \overline{f}_1 in $O(n \log n)$ time.

Compute \overline{f}_1 as in Lemma 2.3 and let f_1 be the restriction of \overline{f}_1 to G . Finally, we define f_1° to be an extension of f_1 to G° ; by Lemma 2.1, we can do this in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time.

We need to show that f_1° is the desired integer flow. Since \overline{f}_1 is an integer flow in \overline{G} , f_1° is an integer flow in G° . Also, we have $|f_1^\circ| = |f_1| = |\overline{f}_1| = |\overline{f}| = |f| = |f^\circ|$. Lemma 2.3 implies that for every $v \in V(G)$, we have

$$\overline{f}_1(v^{in}, v^{out}) \leq \lceil \overline{f}(v^{in}, v^{out}) \rceil \quad (2.10)$$

$$\implies f_1^{in}(v) \leq \lceil f^{in}(v) \rceil \quad (2.11)$$

$$\implies (f_1^\circ)^{in}(C_v) \leq \lceil (f^\circ)^{in}(C_v) \rceil. \quad (2.12)$$

Thus we have described how to convert a fractional flow f° in G° to an integer flow f_1° in G° of the same value, such that for each $v \in V(G)$, the flow going into C_v under f_1° is at most the flow going into C_v under f° (assuming that $|f^\circ|$ is an integer and G° has integer arc capacities).

Canceling flow-cycles. We implicitly use three algorithms that allow us to assume without loss of generality that certain flows are acyclic. The first is by Kaplan and Nussbaum [22]:

Lemma 2.4. Suppose we are given a feasible flow f° in G° . By canceling flow-cycles, we can compute in $O(n)$ time another feasible flow of the same value as f° whose restriction to G is feasible and acyclic.

We describe this algorithm in more detail in Section 2.2.2. Using this first algorithm, we can assume that whenever we compute a flow in G° , the restriction of that flow to G is acyclic. The second algorithm we use implicitly is also by Kaplan and Nussbaum. Using the algorithm of Lemma 2.4, they show the following [22]:

Lemma 2.5. Suppose we are given a feasible flow in any planar graph. By canceling flow-cycles, we can compute in $O(n)$ time an acyclic flow of the same value as that of the given flow.

Using this second algorithm, we can assume that any flow we compute in a planar graph is acyclic. The third algorithm that we use implicitly is by Sleator and Tarjan [29]:

Lemma 2.6. Given a flow in a flow network with $O(n)$ vertices and arcs, we can compute another flow of the same value that is acyclic in $O(n \log n)$ time by canceling flow-cycles.

Using this third algorithm, we may assume that if we compute a flow in a graph with $O(n)$ arcs in $\Omega(n \log n)$ time, then that flow is acyclic.

2.2.2 Proof sketch of Lemma 2.4

The purpose of this subsection is to describe the algorithm of Lemma 2.4. This is needed for the proof of Lemma 3.11. We will not prove the correctness of the algorithm, as that has been done elsewhere [22] [30].

The algorithm has three steps and is based on an algorithm of Khuller, Naor, and Klein [30] that finds a circulation without clockwise residual cycles in a directed planar graph in $O(n)$ time.

Finding a circulation without clockwise residual cycles. We describe the algorithm of Khuller, Naor, and Klein that finds a circulation g in G° without clockwise residual cycles [30].

The graph $G^\circ \setminus \{s, t\}$ is planar. Let h_∞ be the infinite face of $G^\circ \setminus \{s, t\}$, and let h_∞^* be its dual vertex. Using the algorithm of Henzinger et al. [31], compute the shortest path tree rooted at h_∞^* in $(G^\circ \setminus \{s, t\})^*$ in $O(n)$ time. For every face h of G , let $\Phi(h)$ be the distance in $(G^\circ \setminus \{s, t\})^*$ from h_∞^* to h^* . For any arc $e \in E(G^\circ \setminus \{s, t\})$, we define $g(e)$ as follows. Let h_ℓ be the face on the left of e and h_r be the face on the right of e . If $\Phi(h_r) \geq \Phi(h_\ell)$, then set $g(e) = \Phi(h_r) - \Phi(h_\ell)$. Otherwise, set $g(e) = 0$ (and $g(\text{rev}(e))$ will automatically be set to $\Phi(h_\ell) - \Phi(h_r)$). Khuller, Naor, and Klein [30] proved that the resulting flow function g is a simple circulation in G° such that G° has no clockwise residual cycles with respect to g .

Finding a flow without clockwise residual cycles. Let f° be a feasible flow in G° . We describe an algorithm due to Kaplan and Nussbaum [22] that computes a flow f_1° in G° with the same value as f° and without clockwise residual cycles. A symmetric algorithm can

then compute a flow in G° with the same value as f° and without counterclockwise residual cycles.

Let G_f° be the residual graph of G° with respect to f° . Using the algorithm of step 1, find a circulation g in G_f° such that G_f° does not have clockwise residual cycles with respect to g . Now define $f_1^\circ = f^\circ + g$. Computing f_1° takes $O(n)$ time. Kaplan and Nussbaum showed that f_1° is a feasible flow in G° with the same value as f° and without clockwise residual cycles [22].

Finding an acyclic flow. Finally, let f° be a feasible flow in G° . We describe the algorithm due to Kaplan and Nussbaum [22] that computes a flow of the same value as f° whose restriction to G is acyclic. We will do this by first eliminating counterclockwise flow-cycles to get a flow f_1° ; a symmetric algorithm then eliminates clockwise flow-cycles.

Define a new capacity function c_1 on the arcs of G° by first setting $c_1(e) = f^\circ(e)$ for $e \in E(G)$. This will ensure that we do not increase the flow along any arc of G . All other arcs in G° are in C_v for some vertex v ; for these arcs e we set $c_1(e) = c(e) = c(v)/2$. Now we apply the previous algorithm to G° and c_1 to find a flow f_1° with the same value as f° such that there are no clockwise residual cycles in G° with respect to f_1° and c_1 . Kaplan and Nussbaum [22] showed that the restriction of f_1° to G does not contain counterclockwise flow-cycles.

We now repeat the previous procedure symmetrically, by defining a new capacity c_2 that restricts the flow on every arc e of G to be at most $f_1^\circ(e)$, and finding a circulation in G° without counterclockwise residual cycles. This way we get from f_1° a flow f_2° of the same value whose restriction to G does not contain clockwise flow-cycles in G . For every $e \in E(G)$, we have $f_2^\circ(e) \leq f_1^\circ(e) \leq f^\circ(e)$, so we did not create any new flow-cycles when going from f° to f_1° to f_2° . Thus f_2° is a feasible flow in G° with the same value as f° whose restriction to G is feasible and acyclic.

2.2.3 Element-connectivity

Suppose we are given an undirected graph G with two vertices s and t . The maximum number of pairwise edge-disjoint paths from s to t is called the *edge-connectivity* between s and t in G , and we denote it by $\lambda_G(s, t)$. This quantity $\lambda_G(s, t)$ can be computed by any maximum flow algorithm. By the edge-connectivity version of Menger's theorem, $\lambda_G(s, t)$ is the minimum number of edges whose removal from the graph would disconnect s from t in G [4]. The maximum number of pairwise vertex-disjoint paths from s to t is called the *vertex-connectivity* between s and t in G , and we denote it by $\kappa_G(s, t)$. If there is no edge

connecting s and t , then $\kappa_G(s, t)$ is the minimum number of vertices other than s and t whose removal would disconnect s from t .

Element connectivity. Again suppose G is an unweighted, undirected graph. Let $T \subset V(G)$ be a set of *terminals*, and in this context let $k = |T|$. Vertices not in T are called *non-terminals*, and an *element* is an edge or a non-terminal. Let $\kappa'(u, v)$ denote the *element-connectivity* between two terminals u and v ; this is the minimum number of elements whose removal would disconnect u from v , which by Menger's theorem is equal to the maximum number of element-disjoint paths between u and v [4]. Finally, the *global element-connectivity* $\kappa'(T)$ is $\min_{u, v \in T} \kappa'(u, v)$. This is the minimum number of elements whose deletion separates some pair of terminals.

By subdividing each edge between terminals using a new non-terminal, we can assume that T is an independent set. In this case, $\kappa'(u, v)$ becomes the minimum number of non-terminals whose removal would disconnect u from v . Element-connectivity is related to edge-connectivity and vertex-connectivity as follows. If we set $T = V$, then element-connectivity becomes edge-connectivity. Also, if $|T|$ contains exactly two vertices s and t , then $\kappa'_G(s, t) = \kappa_G(s, t)$.

The element-connectivity between u and v is equal to the value of the maximum flow between u and v if every edge and non-terminal has unit capacity. Khuller and Naor [24] showed that when there is a single source and sink, one can eliminate vertex capacities while preserving the maximum-flow value and planarity by replacing each vertex of capacity $c(v)$ with a cycle of $\deg(v)$ bi-directed edges, each with capacity $c(v)/2$. Previously, we defined this new graph to be G° . See Figure 2.1. The reduction shows that finding element-connectivity values in planar graphs reduces to finding edge-connectivity values in planar graphs.

The reduced graph. Element connectivity has applications in packing disjoint Steiner trees and forests because of a structure called the *reduced graph*, which we now describe. The reduced graph is known to exist because of the following theorem due to Chekuri and Korula [2].

Theorem 2.1. Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph and $T \subseteq V$ be a set of terminals. Let e be any edge whose endpoints are non-terminals. Now let $G_1 = G \setminus e$ and $G_2 = G/e$. Then at least one of the following holds:

- For all $u, v \in T$, we have $\kappa'_G(u, v) = \kappa'_{G_1}(u, v)$.
- For all $u, v \in T$, we have $\kappa'_G(u, v) = \kappa'_{G_2}(u, v)$.

By repeatedly applying the theorem, we get:

Corollary 2.1. Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph and $T \subseteq V$ be a set of terminals. There is a minor $H = (V', E')$ of G such that $T \subseteq V'$; both T and $V' \setminus T$ are independent sets in H ; and $\kappa'_H(u, v) = \kappa'_G(u, v)$ for all terminals u, v .

This graph H is the reduced graph.

2.3 DISJOINT PATHS AND ORIENTATIONS

Suppose each edge $e \in E(G)$ has a non-negative length $\ell(e)$. The length of a walk w in G , which we denote with $\ell(w)$, is the sum of the lengths of its edges, with appropriate multiplicity if w is not a simple path. The total length of any set of walks \mathcal{W} , which we denote with $\ell(\mathcal{W}) = \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}} \ell(w)$, is just the sum of their lengths. The distance from a vertex u to a vertex v in a graph G is the length of a shortest walk from u to v and is denoted by $d_G(u, v)$; this walk will be a simple path.

In an abuse of terminology, we say that two directed paths are edge-disjoint if their underlying undirected paths are edge-disjoint (we assume each arc uv is embedded together with its reversal vu).

In the *vertex-disjoint paths problem*, we are given a graph G along with k vertex pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$, and we want to find k pairwise vertex-disjoint paths connecting each node s_i to the corresponding node t_i . In this context, the vertices $s_1, \dots, s_k, t_1, \dots, t_k$ are called *terminals*. The problem is NP-hard [32] and is not to be confused with the previously-defined vertex-disjoint $S - T$ paths problem, which is a special case of the maximum flow problem and thus polynomial-time solvable. The *edge-disjoint paths problem* or *arc-disjoint paths problem* are defined similarly, except that we require the paths to be pairwise edge-disjoint or arc-disjoint, respectively, not vertex-disjoint. Note that for the vertex-disjoint paths problem, we may assume without loss of generality that the terminals are distinct, because otherwise the desired paths do not exist.

2.3.1 Shortest disjoint paths

In the *k -min-sum vertex-disjoint paths problem*, we are given a graph G , in which every edge e has a non-negative real length $\ell(e)$, and k pairs of vertices $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$, and our goal is to compute vertex-disjoint paths P_1, \dots, P_k , where each path P_i is a path from s_i to t_i , and the total length $\sum_{i=1}^k \ell(P_i)$ is as small as possible. (Here $\ell(P_i) = \sum_{e \in P_i} \ell(e)$.) The

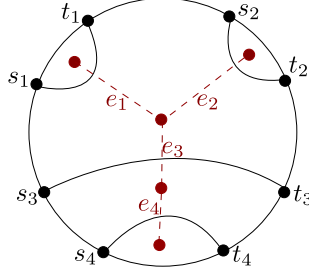


Figure 2.3: An example where $k = 4$ and the order of the terminals on the outer face is $s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, t_3, t_4, s_4, s_3$. The solid black graph is $G_D \cup \partial G$, and the dashed red graph is the demand tree T . Non-terminal vertices on ∂G have not been drawn. Edges e_1, \dots, e_4 are red and dashed.

k-min-min problem is similar but requires us to minimize $\min_{i=1}^k \ell(P_i)$, while the *k*-min-max problem requires us to minimize $\max_{i=1}^k \ell(P_i)$.

Given an instance of the *k*-min-sum problem with all terminals on the outer face of G , we define the *demand graph* G_D to be the graph whose vertices are the terminals of G and that has an edge between s_i and t_i for all i ; furthermore, the vertices of G_D should be embedded in the same places as they are embedded in G , and the edges of G_D should be embedded inside ∂G . We then define the *demand tree* T as $T = (G_D \cup \partial G)^* \setminus (\partial G)^*$. Here, the union of two graphs (V, E) and (V', E') is $(V \cup V', E \cup E')$, G^* is the dual graph of G , and $(\partial G)^*$ denotes the cocycle in $(G_D \cup \partial G)^*$ corresponding to the cycle ∂G in $G_D \cup \partial G$. Each demand pair (s_i, t_i) corresponds to an edge $s_i t_i$ in G_D and an edge in T , which we denote by e_i . Two demand pairs (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) are *adjacent* if their corresponding edges e_i and e_j in T are incident to a common vertex. If the demand tree T is rooted, then a demand pair (s_i, t_i) is a *child* of the demand pair (s_j, t_j) if e_i and e_j are adjacent and both endpoints of e_i are descendants of both endpoints of e_j ; in this case (s_j, t_j) is the *parent* of (s_i, t_i) . See Figure 2.3.

In Chapter 5, we will describe an algorithm that solves a 4-min-sum problem. We will assume that our given instance of 4-min-sum and every instance of 2-min-sum and 3-min-sum considered by our algorithm has a unique solution. If necessary, these uniqueness assumptions can be enforced with high probability using the isolation lemma of Mulmuley, Vazirani, and Vazirani [33]:

Lemma 2.7 (Isolation Lemma). Let n and N be positive integers, and let \mathcal{F} be an arbitrary family of subsets of the universe $[n]$. Suppose each element $x \in [n]$ receives an integer weight $w(x)$, each of which is chosen independently and uniformly at random from $[N]$. With probability at least $1 - n/N$, there is a unique set in \mathcal{F} that has minimum total weight among all sets of \mathcal{F} .

To enforce uniqueness, we define a new length function $\ell'(e) = \ell(e) + \varepsilon \cdot w(e)$, where ε is a formal infinitesimal, and $w(e)$ is chosen uniformly at random from $[N]$. Equivalently, we consider lengths of edges—and by extension, lengths of paths—to be ordered pairs (ℓ, w) , which we add as vectors and compare lexicographically. Now two (sets of) paths have equal perturbed length only if their actual lengths are equal *and* their infinitesimal perturbation terms are equal.

In our application of the isolation lemma, \mathcal{F} is the family of vertex-disjoint paths connecting corresponding terminals in some k -min-sum instance. Our algorithm computes the solutions to $O(n^5)$ k -min-sum subproblems (each with $k \leq 3$). Thus, if we set $N = O(n^6)$, the Isolation Lemma implies that with probability at least $1 - \Omega(1/n)$, *all* feasible solutions to *all* such subproblems have distinct perturbation terms, which implies that all such subproblems have unique optimal solutions. In fact, however, we only require a constant number of these subproblems to have unique solutions, so it suffices to set $N = \Theta(n^2)$.

2.3.2 Orientation

In orientation problems, G is a simple undirected plane graph, each edge $e \in E(G)$ has a positive length $\ell(e) > 0$, and $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$ are k pairs of vertices in G . As usual, the vertices $s_1, t_1, \dots, s_k, t_k$ are called *terminals*. An *orientation* of G is a directed graph that is formed by assigning a direction to each edge in G . For any orientation H of G , let $d'(u, v)$ be the distance from u to v in H . In the *orientation problem*, we want to find an orientation H of G such that for all $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, t_i is reachable from s_i in H . In the *ideal orientation problem*, we want to find an orientation G' of G such that for all i , $d(s_i, t_i) = d'(s_i, t_i)$.

Nonconflicting paths. It is possible to reformulate the ideal orientation problem in terms of finding *nonconflicting* shortest paths; we will use this reformulation in Chapter 6. Two directed walks P and Q in G *conflict* if there is an edge $\{u, v\}$ in G such that uv is an arc in P and vu is an arc in Q . Two walks are *nonconflicting* if they do not conflict. The ideal orientation problem then asks us to find pairwise nonconflicting directed walks P_1, \dots, P_k such that P_i is a shortest path from s_i to t_i for all $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. We call the set of such paths a *solution* to the instance.

k -min-sum, k -min-max, and k -min-min problems. In the *k -min-sum orientation problem*, the input is the same as the input to the ideal orientation problem, and we still want to find paths P_1, \dots, P_k such that P_i connects s_i to t_i , but now our goal is to minimize the sum of the lengths of the paths P_i instead of insisting that each P_i be a shortest path.

The k -min-sum orientation problem is at least as hard as the ideal orientation problem. The k -min-max orientation problem is the same as the k -min-sum orientation problem except that we want to minimize the length of the longest path P_i instead of the sum of the lengths of the paths, the k -min-min orientation problem requires us to minimize the length of the shortest path P_i .

2.3.3 Partially edge-disjoint noncrossing paths

In the partially vertex-disjoint paths problem (PVPP), we are given a directed planar graph H , vertices $u_1, v_1, \dots, u_h, v_h$; subgraphs H_1, \dots, H_h of H ; and a set S of pairs $\{i, j\}$ from $\{1, \dots, h\}$. We wish to find directed paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h such that

- Q_i connects u_i to v_i for all i ,
- Q_i is in H_i for all i , and
- for all i, j , if $\{i, j\} \in S$ then Q_i and Q_j are vertex-disjoint.

Note that we do not require the paths to be shortest paths; in fact the graph H is unweighted. Schrijver [34] solved the partially vertex-disjoint paths problem for fixed h in polynomial time. He does not state the running time of the algorithm, but it appears to be $\text{poly}(|V(H)|)^{h^2}$.

Partially noncrossing edge-disjoint paths problem (PNEPP). PNEPP is the same as PVPP except that if $\{i, j\} \in S$, then we require the directed paths Q_i and Q_j to be noncrossing edge-disjoint paths instead of vertex-disjoint paths. (Recall that by “edge-disjoint” we mean that if Q_i uses e then Q_j can use neither e nor $\text{rev}(e)$.)

Reduction. We now describe a polynomial-time reduction from PNEPP to PVPP. Suppose we are given an instance H of PNEPP with terminal pairs $(u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_h, v_h)$ and a set S of pairs of indices of terminals, and subgraphs H_1, \dots, H_h . We construct an instance H' of PVPP by replacing each non-terminal vertex v with a $2h \times 2h$ grid g_v of bidirected edges, where $n = |V(G)|$. (The grid can be made smaller, say $p_v \times p_v$ where $p_v = \max\{k, \deg(v)\}$, but this suffices for our purposes.) Every arc that was incident to vertex v in H is instead incident to a vertex on the boundary of g_v ; furthermore, we can make it so that no two arcs in H share endpoints in H' . See Figure 2.4. The subgraphs H_1, \dots, H_h and the terminals $s_1, t_1, \dots, s_h, t_h$ are the same in H' and H . To show that this reduction is correct we need to prove the following lemma:

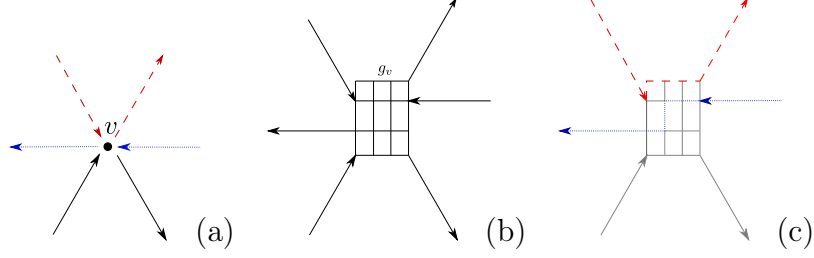


Figure 2.4: (a) a dashed red path and a dotted blue path going through a vertex v in G (b) corresponding grid g_v in H with $k = 2$. (c) routing the dashed red path and dotted blue path through g_v , in the proof of Lemma 2.8

Lemma 2.8. The following two statements are equivalent:

1. In G , there exist paths P_1, \dots, P_h such that P_i connects u_i to v_i , P_i is in H_i for all i , and if $\{i, j\} \in S$ then P_i and P_j are noncrossing and edge-disjoint.
2. In H , there exist paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h such that Q_i connects u_i to v_i , Q_i is in H_i for all i , and if $\{i, j\} \in S$ then Q_i and Q_j are vertex-disjoint.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose that noncrossing partially edge-disjoint paths P_1, \dots, P_h exist in G . We construct paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h as follows. For any arc e in P_i , we add e to Q_i . This defines the portions of the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h outside the grids g_v ; these portions are vertex-disjoint because by construction the endpoints of G are all distinct.

To find the portions of Q_1, \dots, Q_h inside a single grid g_v , we need to solve the following problem. Suppose k' of the paths P_1, \dots, P_h went through v in G . Re-index the paths such that $P_1, \dots, P_{k'}$ go through v and $P_{k'+1}, \dots, P_h$ do not. We are given a subgraph g of the $n \times n$ bidirected grid with k' pairs of noncrossing terminals $(w_1, x_1), \dots, (w_{k'}, x_{k'})$ on the boundary of g , and we want to find pairwise vertex-disjoint paths in g such that the i -th path π_i connects w_i to x_i . To solve this problem, we route the paths one by one as follows. List the terminals $w_1, x_1, \dots, w_{k'}, x_{k'}$ in cyclic order around the outer face of g ; there must be some i such that the two vertices w_i and x_i appear consecutively in this list. Terminals w_i and x_i split the boundary of g into two segments; we let π_i be the portion of the boundary that does not contain any other terminals. Remove the vertices of π_i from g and recursively compute the other paths $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_{i-1}, \pi_{i+1}, \dots, \pi_{k'}$.

Routing π_i is possible as long as g is connected. Each time we recurse, the outerplanarity index of the g goes down by at most 1. Initially, g is the $2h \times 2h$ grid, so the outerplanarity index of g starts at $h \geq k'$. Thus our recursive algorithm is able to connect all the pairs $(x_1, w_1), \dots, (x_{k'}, w_{k'})$.

\Leftarrow : Suppose partially vertex-disjoint paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h exist in H . Trivially, the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_h are noncrossing partially edge-disjoint too. Each path P_i can be defined to be the “projection” of Q_i into G in the obvious way: an arc e of G is in P_i if and only if e was in the original path Q_i .

The paths P_1, \dots, P_k are noncrossing because the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k are noncrossing. We now show that the paths P_1, \dots, P_k are pairwise edge-disjoint. Suppose for the sake of argument that P_i and P_j share an arc uv . Arc uv is in the original graph G , so it must connect the grid g_u to the grid g_v . Since there is only one edge in H that connects g_u to g_v , this means that Q_i and Q_j both use this arc, and so are not vertex-disjoint. QED.

The reduction clearly runs in polynomial time.

CHAPTER 3: MAXIMUM FLOW WITH VERTEX CAPACITIES

As noted in the introduction, the maximum flow problem was introduced in the 1950s by Harris and Ross [6], who were studying the Soviet rail network in Eastern Europe and wanted to compute how much of certain commodities the network could transport from certain cities to other cities. They modeled the rail system as a directed graph: the rail lines become edges and the interchanges become vertices. The quantity they wanted to compute was how much traffic (or flow) the network could handle. Ford and Fulkerson gave an algorithm that solved this problem, and also proved a duality theorem for the maximum flow problem called the *max-flow min-cut theorem* [5]. Given a flow network G with a single source s and single sink t , we define a *cut* to be a set of edges, arcs, and vertices whose removal from G would destroy all paths from s to t , and the *capacity of a cut* is the sum of the capacities of the edges, arcs, and vertices in that cut. The *minimum cut* is the cut with minimum capacity. The max-flow min-cut theorem says that the value of the maximum flow is always equal to the capacity of the minimum cut. A special case of this theorem is the arc-connectivity version of *Menger's theorem* [4], which states that the maximum number of arc-disjoint paths connecting s to t in a directed graph is equal to the minimum number of arcs whose removal would destroy all paths from s to t .

Since Ford and Fulkerson, many researchers have worked on finding fast algorithms for the maximum flow problem, some of which we use in this thesis. Ford and Fulkerson themselves described an augmenting-path algorithm computing maximum flows in general directed graphs with integer capacities in $O(mU^*)$ time, where m is the number of arcs in the flow network and U^* is the value of the maximum flow. Currently, the fastest algorithms for general graphs run in $O(mn)$ time for real capacities [20], $\tilde{O}(m^{10/7})$ time for unit capacities [36], and $O(m \min(n^{2/3}, \sqrt{m}) \log \frac{n^2}{m} \log U)$ time for integer capacities [37], where U is the maximum capacity in G . (Here and in the rest of this proposal, m is the number of edges or arcs in the input graph and n is the number of vertices.)

For planar graphs, even faster algorithms are known; we first list some results for the case where there are no vertex capacities. Maximum flows can be found in $O(n)$ time if G is directed *st*-planar, meaning that s and t are on the same face [31]. They can be found in $O(n)$ time if G is directed planar with unit arc capacities [38, 39] (more generally, in $O(nU)$ time if the capacities are integers bounded by U). They can be found in $O(n \log \log n)$ time if G is undirected planar [40], in $O(n \log n)$ time if G is directed planar [41], and in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time if G is directed planar and has multiple sources and sinks [23]. In surface graphs of

The results in this chapter appeared in SODA 2019 [35].

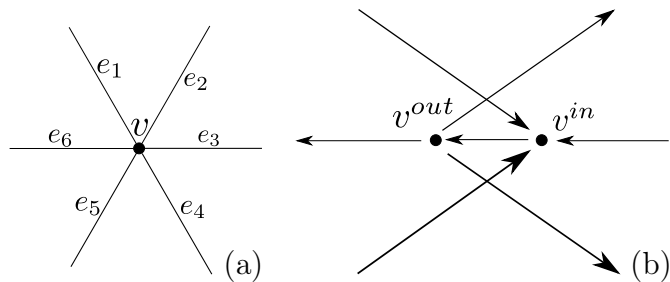


Figure 3.1: (a) before Ford and Fulkerson’s reduction eliminating capacity of v [5] (b) after reduction

genus g , they can be found in $g^{O(g)}n^{3/2}$ time for real capacities and $O(g^8n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time for integer capacities, where again U is the maximum capacity [42]. They can be found in $O(\alpha^3n \log^3 n)$ if G is an α -apex graph (i.e., a graph that can become planar after the removal of α vertices) [23]. They can be found in $O(\beta^3n \log n)$ time if G is the union of β planar graphs with β shared vertices [43]. Furthermore, in graphs with multiple sources and sinks, they can be found with a simple pair of nested for-loops: For all sources s_i , for all sinks t_j , compute the maximum flow from s_i to t_j in the current residual graph [44]. Combining this with previously mentioned algorithms ([38] [39] [41]) yields algorithms for maximum flows in directed planar graphs with multiple sources and sinks that run in $O(k^2nU)$ time for integer weights bounded by U and in $O(k^2n \log n)$ time for real weights. Finally, finding flows in undirected graphs reduces to finding flows in directed graphs because each undirected edge $\{u, v\}$ of capacity c can be modeled as two directed arcs uv and vu of capacity c .

The results in the previous paragraph solve the maximum flow problem when there are only edge or arc capacities. In this chapter we are concerned with the case where vertices of the graph also have capacities, which limit the amount of commodity that can go through that vertex. In general directed graphs, adding capacities to the vertices does not make the problem any harder because of a reduction first suggested by Ford and Fulkerson [5]. For each vertex v with finite capacity c , we do the following. Replace v with two vertices v^{in} and v^{out} , and add an arc of capacity c directed from v^{in} to v^{out} . All arcs that were directed into v are directed into v^{in} instead, and all arcs that were directed out of v are directed out of v^{out} instead. See Figure 3.1. Unfortunately, this reduction does not preserve planarity. Consider the complete directed graph on four vertices. This graph is planar, but if we apply the reduction of Ford and Fulkerson on any single vertex, we get a graph whose underlying undirected graph is K_5 , which is not planar by Kuratowski’s Theorem.

When there are vertex capacities, prior work has only been able to exploit planarity in the cases where there is a single source and sink or when the number of vertices with capacities

is fixed. Khuller and Naor [24] were the first to consider the case where there is a single source and sink. Currently, the best known algorithm for this case is due to Kaplan and Nussbaum [22], who described an algorithm for maximum flow in directed planar graphs with vertex capacities that runs in $O(n \log n)$ time. In doing so, they fixed a flaw in a paper of Zhang, Liang and Chen [26]. They also give an algorithm that runs in $O(n)$ time when all vertex and arc capacities are unit, solving the vertex-disjoint paths problem in directed planar graphs with a single source and sink. This extended a result by Ripphausen-Lipa, Wagner, and Weihe that only applied to undirected graphs [45]. Zhang, Liang, and Chen [26] described an algorithm that finds maximum flows in undirected st -planar graphs with vertex capacities in $O(n)$ time.

In the case of multiple sources and sinks, Borradaile et al. give an algorithm that runs in $O(\alpha^3 n \log^3 n)$ time, where α is the number of vertex capacities [23]. For arbitrary numbers of terminals and vertex capacities, the best-known algorithm prior to the results described in this chapter uses the Ford-Fulkerson reduction described earlier to eliminate vertex capacities, connects a super-source to all sources, connects all sinks to a supersink, and then in the resulting graph applies either Mądry's algorithm [36] for finding maximum flows in unit-capacity networks, Goldberg and Rao's algorithm [37] for finding maximum flows in integer-capacity networks, or Orlin's algorithm [20] for finding maximum flows in sparse real-capacity networks. The resulting algorithm runs in $\tilde{O}(n^{10/7})$ time for unit capacities, $O(n^{3/2} \log n \log U)$ time for integer capacities where U is the largest capacity, and $O(n^2 / \log n)$ time for real capacities. Since the work in this chapter first appeared, Liu and Sidford [46] have sped up Mądry's algorithm; thus they are able to compute maximum flows in planar graphs with unit capacities and vertex capacities in $O(n^{4/3+o(1)})$ time.

Maximum flows in directed planar graphs *without* vertex capacities can be computed in near-linear time [23], and one expects to be able to achieve the same time bound even when the graph has arbitrarily many vertex capacities. However, doing so seems to be difficult. The techniques for computing flows in planar graphs without vertex capacities rely heavily on the use of residual graphs, which do not exist when there are vertex capacities. The only tool we have for dealing with vertex capacities in planar graphs is Kaplan and Nussbaum's reduction, but that reduction fails when there are multiple sources and sinks because of *saddles*, which we explain in section 3.1. Even for the case where there are two sources and one sink and all vertex capacities are unit, no near-linear-time algorithms were previously known.

In this chapter, we extend Kaplan and Nussbaum's algorithm to directed planar graphs with integer capacities and a fixed number of sources and sinks. The key observation is that when there are multiple sources and sinks, applying their algorithm results in a flow

that is infeasible at only $k - 2$ vertices, where k is the number of terminals. For each of these infeasible vertices, we define the excess of the vertex to be the amount by which it is infeasible, and we show that the sum of the excesses of all the infeasible vertices is at most $(k - 2)U$. This means that when U is small, the flow returned by Kaplan and Nussbaum's algorithm is close to feasible. We exploit this observation to obtain the following:

Theorem 3.1. Let G be a directed planar graph with k terminals and with integer capacities on both arcs and vertices. If all capacities are bounded by a constant, then we can find a maximum flow in G in $O(\min\{k^2n, n \log^3 n + kn\})$ time.

Thus when k is fixed, we can solve the vertex-disjoint paths problem in directed planar graphs with multiple sources and sinks in near-linear time.

Our second algorithm deals with the case where U may be unbounded. The basic idea is a scaling algorithm. First we guess the value of the maximum flow using binary search; this increases the running time of the algorithm by a factor of $O(\log(nU))$. Starting with a flow with $k - 2$ infeasible vertices, we find a way to improve the flow that decreases the maximum excess of the vertices by some factor that depends only on k . The improved flow has the same value as the original flow. We show that after $O(k \log(kU))$ improvement phases, each infeasible vertex has $O(k)$ excess. As in the first algorithm, we exploit this observation to obtain the following:

Theorem 3.2. Let G be a directed planar graph with k terminals and with integer capacities on both arcs and vertices. If U is the maximum capacity of a single vertex or arc, then we can find a maximum flow in G in $O(k^5n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time.

Our third algorithm deals with the special case where $k = 3$. In this case, the fact that there is only one infeasible vertex considerably simplifies the problem, since we can just focus on decreasing the excess of this one vertex without worrying about trade-offs. (Roughly speaking, if there is more than one infeasible vertex, we have to consider that decreasing the excess of one vertex could increase the excess of another vertex.) We show that we can modify our second algorithm such that only one improvement phase is necessary. This third algorithm works even if the capacities are arbitrary real numbers instead of integers.

Theorem 3.3. Given a directed planar graph G with three terminals and with capacities on both arcs and vertices, we can find a maximum flow in G in $O(n \log n)$ time.

The outline of this chapter is as follows. In Section 3.1, we prove the structural properties that show that Kaplan and Nussbaum's algorithm almost works when there are multiple sources and sinks. In section 3.2, we describe our algorithm for the case where capacities are

integers bounded by a constant. In Section 3.3, we use this algorithm to solve the case of arbitrary integer capacities. In Section 3.4, we describe the modifications to the algorithms that are necessary for the case when $k = 3$ and the capacities are arbitrary reals.

3.1 SADDLES AND EXCESS

Suppose f° is a feasible flow in G° whose restriction f to G is acyclic. It is easy to see that f satisfies conservation and arc capacity constraints. In this section, we show that f violates at most $|S| + |T| - 2$ vertex capacity constraints.

Let f_G be the flow graph of f . For any vertex v in f_G , the *alternation number* of v , denoted by $\alpha(v)$, is the number of direction changes (i.e., from in to out or vice versa) of the arcs incident to v as we examine them in clockwise order. Thus $\alpha(u) = 0$ for all terminals u , and the alternation number of any vertex is even. A vertex v is a *saddle in f* if $\alpha(v) \geq 4$. We let $\text{index}(v)$ denote the *index* of v and define it by $\text{index}(v) = \alpha(v)/2 - 1$.

Since f_G is a plane directed acyclic graph, a result of Guattery and Miller [47] implies the following:

Lemma 3.1. If f_G has k_1 sources and k_2 sinks, then the sum of the indices of the saddles in f_G is at most $k_1 + k_2 - 2$. In particular, a vertex in f_G is a saddle if and only if it has positive index, so f_G has at most $k - 2$ saddles.

Proof. First we need a few definitions. For any face ϕ in f_G , let $\alpha(\phi)$ denote the alternation number of ϕ ; $\alpha(\phi)$ is the number of times the arcs on the boundary of ϕ change direction as we traverse this boundary. Thus $\alpha(\phi) = 0$ if the arcs on the boundary of ϕ form a directed cycle. We use $\text{index}(\phi)$ to denote the index of a face ϕ , which is defined by $\text{index}(\phi) = \alpha(\phi)/2 - 1$.

Now we can proceed with the proof. See Figure 3.2. If at each vertex v in f_G we cycle through its incident arcs in order according to the embedding of f_G , each transition from one arc e to the next arc e' results in exactly one alternation either for v or for the face on whose boundary the two arcs e and e' lie. Thus

$$2E = \sum_{v \in V(f_G)} \alpha(v) + \sum_{\phi \in F(f_G)} \alpha(\phi) \quad (3.1)$$

$$\implies E = \sum_{v \in V(f_G)} (\text{index}(v) + 1) + \sum_{\phi \in F(f_G)} (\text{index}(\phi) + 1) \quad (3.2)$$

$$\implies E = V + F + \sum_{v \in V(f_G)} \text{index}(v) + \sum_{\phi \in F(f_G)} \text{index}(\phi) \quad (3.3)$$

$$\implies -2 = \sum_{v \in V(f_G)} \text{index}(v) + \sum_{\phi \in F(f_G)} \text{index}(\phi) \quad (3.4)$$

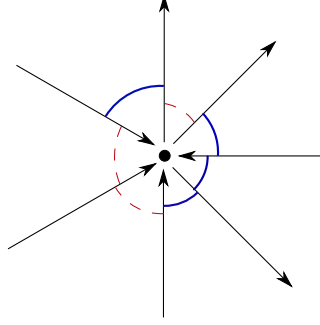


Figure 3.2: Proof of Lemma 3.1. Solid blue transitions contribute one alternation to a vertex; dashed red transitions contribute one alternation to a face.

where in the last line we have used Euler's formula $V(f_G) - E(f_G) + F(f_G) = 2$. Since f_G is acyclic, $\text{index}(\phi) \geq 0$ for each face ϕ , so $-2 \geq \sum_{v \in V(f_G)} \text{index}(v)$. Finally, $\text{index}(v) = -1$ for each terminal v , so

$$k_1 + k_2 - 2 \geq \sum_{v: \text{index}(v) \geq 1} \text{index}(v). \quad (3.5)$$

A vertex v is a saddle if and only if $\text{index}(v) \geq 1$, so this shows that the sum of the indices of the saddles in f_G is at most $k_1 + k_2 - 2$. QED.

A vertex $v \in V(G)$ is *infeasible* under the flow f if $f^{\text{in}}(v) > c(v)$ and is *feasible* otherwise. For any vertex $v \in V(G)$, let $\text{ex}(f^\circ, v)$ and $\text{ex}(f, v)$ denote the *excess* of the vertex v under f° or f :

$$\text{ex}(f^\circ, v) = \text{ex}(f, v) = \max\{0, f^{\text{in}}(v) - c(v)\} \quad (3.6)$$

The excess of a vertex is positive if and only if the vertex is infeasible. We also define $\text{ex}(f^\circ) = \text{ex}(f) = \max_{v \in V(G)} \text{ex}(f, v)$. We say that f has excess $\text{ex}(f, v)$ on v .

Lemma 3.2. Let $\text{index}(v)$ be defined for each vertex v in G using the flow graph f_G of f . For each vertex v in f_G , we have $\text{ex}(f, v) \leq \text{index}(v)c(v)$.

Proof. Let f_G° be the flow graph of f° . We have $\alpha(v) = 2 \cdot \text{index}(v) + 2$. Thus, if we examine the arcs in f_G incident to v in clockwise order, there are $\text{index}(v) + 1$ groups of consecutive incoming arcs. Consider such a group of consecutive incoming arcs $(u_i, v), \dots, (u_j, v)$ in f_G . We can view these as arcs $(u_i, v_i), \dots, (u_j, v_j)$ in f_G° , where v_i, \dots, v_j are consecutive vertices in C_v . In f_G° , the only two arcs in $\text{out}(\{v_i, \dots, v_j\})$ are (v_i, v_{i-1}) and (v_j, v_{j+1}) , which have total capacity $c(v)$. Thus, for each vertex v in f_G , each group of consecutive incoming arcs in f_G has total weight at most $c(v)$. This shows that $f^{\text{in}}(v) \leq (\text{index}(v) + 1)c(v)$ for any vertex v , from which the lemma follows. QED.

Combining Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, we see that the sum of the excesses of all vertices under f is at most $(k - 2)U$. Lemma 3.2 implies that f is only infeasible at saddles of f_G .

3.2 BOUNDED-INTEGER-CAPACITY CASE

Suppose that all vertex and arc capacities are integers less than some constant U . Let f° be an integral maximum flow in G° , and let f be its restriction to G . By Lemma 2.4 we may assume without loss of generality that f is acyclic. Since the capacities of G° are integers and half-integers bounded by U , computing f takes $O(n \log^3 n)$ time using the algorithm of Borradaile et al. [23] or $O(k^2 n U)$ time using $O(k^2)$ invocations of the algorithm of Brandes and Wagner [38] or of Eisenstat and Klein [39]. The flow f may be infeasible at up to $k - 2$ vertices x_1, \dots, x_{k-2} . By Lemma 3.1 and 3.2, the sum of the excesses of the infeasible vertices is at most $(k - 2)U$. After finding f , the algorithm has two steps.

Step 1. In this step, we remove $\text{ex}(f, x_i)$ units of flow through each infeasible vertex x_i to get a feasible flow f_1 in G . The flow f_1 will have lower value than f . To do this, let f_G be the flow graph of f . The graph f_G is a directed acyclic graph; let v_1, \dots, v_n be a topological ordering of f_G . To remove all of the excess flow through an infeasible vertex x_i , we do the following:

- Push $\text{ex}(f, x_i)$ units of flow back from x_i to the sources of f_G , as follows. Process the vertices in f_G in the order v_n, \dots, v_1 . To process a vertex v_j , check whether there is too much flow going through v_j (either because $v_j = x_i$ or because flow conservation is violated at v_j). If so, then decrease the flow on incoming arcs of v_j in f_G until there is no longer too much flow going into v_j (i.e., until the flow going into v_j is at most $c(v_j)$ if $v_j = x_i$, or until flow is conserved at v_j if $v_j \neq x_i$).
- Pull $\text{ex}(f, x_i)$ units of flow back to x_i from the sinks of f_G , using a similar algorithm as in the previous bullet point.

Let f_1 be the resulting feasible flow. Removing excess flow through a vertex x_i takes $O(n)$ time, so step 1 takes $O(kn)$ time.

Step 2. Let $\overline{f_1}$ be the extension of f_1 to \overline{G} . In this step, we do the following:

- Compute a maximum flow $\overline{f_2}$ in the residual graph of \overline{G} with respect to $\overline{f_1}$ using the classical Ford-Fulkerson algorithm.

- Return the restriction of $\overline{f_1} + \overline{f_2}$ to G .

Since $\overline{f_2}$ is a maximum flow in the residual graph of \overline{G} with respect to $\overline{f_1}$, we see that $\overline{f_1} + \overline{f_2}$ is a maximum flow in \overline{G} . It follows that the restriction of $\overline{f_1} + \overline{f_2}$ to G is a maximum flow in G , as desired.

We have $\text{val}(\overline{G}) \leq \text{val}(G^\circ) = |f| \leq |f_1| + (k-2)U$. Thus the value of $\overline{f_2}$ is at most $(k-2)U$, so computing $\overline{f_2}$ takes $O(knU)$ time. Hence step 2 takes $O(knU)$ time. Thus if U is bounded by a constant, the entire algorithm runs in $O(\min\{k^2n, n \log^3 n + kn\})$ time.

3.3 INTEGER CAPACITIES

Suppose all vertex and arc capacities are integers. Let $\lambda^* = \text{val}(G)$. The basic structure of the algorithm is as follows:

- Guess λ^* via binary search.
 1. Suppose we guess the value of the maximum flow of G to be λ . Find a flow f° in G° of value λ . By Lemma 2.4, we may assume that the restriction f of f° to G is acyclic.
 2. While $\text{ex}(f) > 2k$, improve f .
 3. Fix f using the algorithm from section 3.2.

One can see that the algorithm has three main steps which we call *phases*. In phase 2, improving f means that we find a flow f_2 of the same value as f such that

$$\text{ex}(f_2) \leq \left\lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \right\rceil. \quad (3.7)$$

We then set f to be the new flow f_2 . We will eventually show that a single improvement of f can be done in $O(k^4n \log^3 n)$ time. In phase 3, fixing f means that we remove $\text{ex}(f, x)$ units of flow through each infeasible vertex x to get flow f' , extend f' to a flow $\overline{f'}$ in \overline{G} , and then use the Ford-Fulkerson algorithm to find a maximum flow $\overline{f''}$ in the residual graph of \overline{G} with respect to $\overline{f'}$; we then set f to be the restriction of $\overline{f'} + \overline{f''}$ to G . To do the binary search, we use the fact that $\lambda \leq \lambda^*$ if the result of phase 3 is a feasible flow of value λ , and $\lambda > \lambda^*$ if either phase 2 fails or if the flow that results from phase 3 has value less than λ .

Before we describe how phase 2 is implemented, let us analyze the running time of the algorithm. If U is the maximum capacity of a single vertex, then $\lambda^* \leq nU$, so the binary search for λ^* only requires $O(\log(nU))$ guesses. Computing f° in phase 1 takes $O(n \log^3 n)$

time using the algorithm of Borradaile et al. [23]. By Lemma 3.2, at the beginning of phase 2, $\text{ex}(f) \leq (k-2)U$. The following lemma shows that phase 2 takes $O(k^5 n \log^3 n \log(kU))$ time:

Lemma 3.3. After $O(k \log(kU))$ iterations of the while-loop in phase 2, $\text{ex}(f, x) \leq 2k$ for every vertex $x \in V(G)$.

Proof. After each iteration, $\text{ex}(f)$ decreases roughly by a factor $1 + 1/(k-1) \geq 1 + 1/k$. Thus we only require $O(\log_{1+1/k}(kU)) = O(\frac{\ln(kU)}{\ln(1+1/k)})$ iterations. For $k \geq 1$ we have

$$e^{1/2} < (1 + 1/k)^k < e \quad (3.8)$$

$$\implies 1/2 < k \ln(1 + 1/k) < 1 \quad (3.9)$$

$$\implies \frac{1}{2k} < \ln(1 + 1/k) < \frac{1}{k}. \quad (3.10)$$

This means that $O(k \log kU)$ iterations suffice. QED.

In phase 3, the same reasoning as in Section 3.2 shows that computing $\overline{f'} + \overline{f''}$ takes $O(k^2 n)$ time. The total running time of the algorithm is thus

$$O(\log(nU)[n \log^3 n + k^5 n \log^3 n \log(kU) + k^2 n]) = O(k^5 n \log^3 n \log kU \log nU) \quad (3.11)$$

$$= O(k^5 n \text{polylog}(nU)). \quad (3.12)$$

The rest of this section describes one iteration of the while-loop in phase 2. Specifically, given a feasible flow f° whose restriction f to G has at most $k-2$ infeasible vertices, we compute a flow f_2° in G° whose restriction f_2 to G has at most $k-2$ infeasible vertices, each of which has excess at most $\lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \rceil$. Let X be the set of infeasible vertices under f , and for each $x \in X$, define $\text{ex}_x = \text{ex}(f, x)$. The procedure that finds f_2° has three stages. In stage 1, we find a circulation g° such that $f^\circ + g^\circ$ is feasible in G° and $(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{\text{in}}(C_x) \leq c(x)$ for every $x \in X$. However, the restriction of $f^\circ + g^\circ$ to G may have large excesses on vertices not in X . To fix this, in stage 2 we use g° to compute a feasible flow f_1° in G° satisfying $\text{ex}(f_1^\circ) \leq \lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \rceil$. Intuitively, f_1° approximates $f^\circ + g^\circ/k$ while being an integer circulation. In stage 3, we use Lemma 2.4 on f_1° to get a flow f_2° of the same value whose restriction to G is acyclic and has at most $k-2$ infeasible vertices. If $\lambda > \lambda^*$, then g° may not exist and stage 1 may fail; if $\lambda \leq \lambda^*$, then g° exists and all three stages will work.

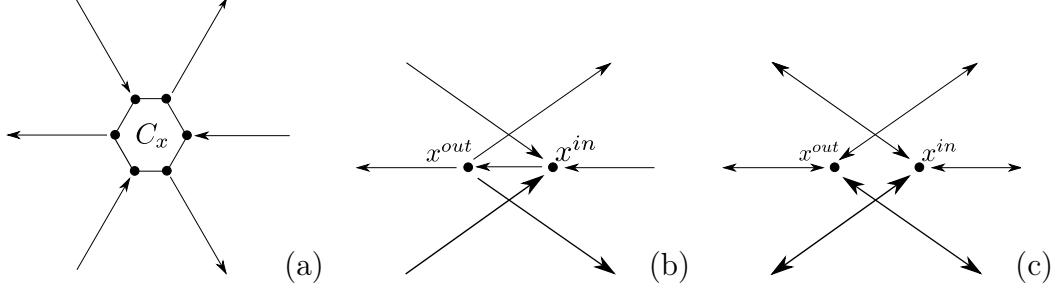


Figure 3.3: (a) C_x in G° if $x \in X$ (b) x^{in} and x^{out} in G^\times (c) source x^{in} and sink x^{out} in H_i if $x = x_i$

3.3.1 Stage 1

To get g° , we first convert f° to a feasible flow f^\times of the same value in a flow network G^\times such that the restrictions of f° and f^\times to G are equal. Then, we find a circulation g^\times in G^\times such that the restriction of $f^\times + g^\times$ to G has no excesses on the vertices of X . Finally, we convert $f^\times + g^\times$ to a feasible flow $f^\circ + g^\circ$ in G° , from which we get g° .

We construct G^\times as follows. Starting with G° , we do the following for each vertex $x \in X$:

- Replace C_x with an arc (x^{in}, x^{out}) of capacity $c(x)$.
- Every arc of a capacity c going from a vertex u to a vertex in the cycle C_x is now an arc (u, x^{in}) of capacity c .
- Every arc of a capacity c going from a vertex in the cycle C_x to a vertex x is now an arc (x^{out}, u) of capacity c .

In a slight abuse of terminology, we say that a flow in G° is an extension of a flow in G^\times if the two flows have the same restriction to G . Similarly, a flow in G^\times is a restriction of a flow in G° if the two flows have the same restriction to G . See Figure 3.3. To define f^\times , let $f^\times(u, v) = f^\circ(u, v)$ for all arcs $(u, v) \in E(G^\times) \cap E(G^\circ)$, and let $f^\times(x^{in}, x^{out}) = (f^\circ)^{in}(C_x)$ for all $x \in X$. It is easy to see that f^\times is a flow from s to t whose only infeasible arcs are (x^{in}, x^{out}) for all $x \in X$. Furthermore, $(f^\times)^{out}(x^{out}) = (f^\times)^{in}(x^{in}) = f^{in}(x)$ for all $x \in X$. We have the following lemma:

Lemma 3.4. For each $x \in X$, let $\omega_x \geq 0$. The following two statements are equivalent:

1. There exists a feasible circulation g° in the residual graph of G° with respect to f° such that

$$(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (f^\circ + g^\circ)^{out}(C_x) = f^{in}(x) - \omega_x \quad (3.13)$$

for all $x \in X$.

2. There exists a circulation g^\times in G^\times such that $f^\times + g^\times$ has a feasible extension in G° , $f^\times + g^\times$ is feasible in G^\times except at arcs (x^{in}, x^{out}) for all $x \in X$, and

$$(f^\times + g^\times)^{in}(x^{in}) = (f^\times + g^\times)(x^{in}, x^{out}) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{out}(x^{out}) = f^{in}(x) - \omega_x \quad (3.14)$$

for all $x \in X$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose (1) holds. Let g^\times be the circulation in G^\times defined by $g^\times(e) = g^\circ(e)$ for each $e \in E(G^\circ) \cap E(G^\times)$ and $g^\times(x^{in}, x^{out}) = (g^\circ)^{in}(C_x)$ for all $x \in X$. That is, g^\times is the restriction of g° to G^\times . The circulation g^\times satisfies conservation constraints at x^{out} because $(g^\times)^{in}(x^{out}) = g^\times(x^{in}, x^{out}) = (g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (g^\circ)^{out}(C_x) = (g^\times)^{out}(x^{out})$; a similar argument shows that g^\times satisfies conservation constraints at x^{in} . Also, g^\times satisfies conservation constraints at all other vertices because g° does.

Since $(f^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (f^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$ and $(g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (g^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$, we have $(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$. A symmetric argument shows that $(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{out}(C_x) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{out}(x^{out})$. Flow conservation implies $(f^\times + g^\times)^{in}(x^{in}) = (f^\times + g^\times)(x^{in}, x^{out})$. The flow $f^\times + g^\times$ is feasible at all arcs in $E(G^\times) \cap E(G^\circ)$ because $f^\circ + g^\circ$ is.

(2) \Rightarrow (1): Suppose (2) holds. There is a feasible extension h° of $f^\times + g^\times$ to G° . Let g° be the circulation in G° such that $f^\circ + g^\circ = h^\circ$. Since $f^\circ + g^\circ$ is feasible in G° , g° is feasible in the residual graph of G° with respect to f° . It is easy to see that g° is an extension of g^\times .

Since $(f^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (f^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$ and $(g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (g^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$, we have $(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{in}(C_x) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{in}(x^{in})$. A symmetric argument shows that $(f^\circ + g^\circ)^{out}(C_x) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{out}(x^{out})$. QED.

If $\lambda \leq \lambda^*$, then there exists a feasible flow f_λ in G of value λ that can be extended to feasible flows f_λ^\times in G^\times and f_λ° in G° . Thus statement (1) of Lemma 3.4 holds for the circulation $f_\lambda^\circ - f^\circ$ in G° and for some choices of ω_x where $\omega_x \geq ex_x$ for all $x \in X$. Lemma 3.4 then implies that there exists a circulation g^\times in G^\times such that $(f^\times + g^\times)^{in}(x^{in}) = (f^\times + g^\times)(x^{in}, x^{out}) = (f^\times + g^\times)^{out}(x^{out}) \leq c(x)$ for all $x \in X$, meaning that $f^\times + g^\times$ is feasible in G^\times . If $\lambda > \lambda^*$, then g^\times may not exist and its computation may fail. Let g be the restriction of g^\times to G .

We will compute the circulation g^\times as the sum of $k - 2$ circulations $\phi_1^\times, \dots, \phi_{k-2}^\times$. Let x_1, \dots, x_{k-2} be an arbitrary ordering of the vertices in X . For all $i \in [k - 2]$, let $\gamma_i^\times = \phi_1^\times + \dots + \phi_i^\times$, and let γ_i be the restriction of γ_i^\times to G . In particular, γ_0^\times is the zero flow and $\gamma_{k-2}^\times = g^\circ$. We will find the circulations $\phi_1^\times, \dots, \phi_{k-2}^\times$ one by one, and we will choose ϕ_i^\times to satisfy the following property:

Lemma 3.5. For all $i \in [k-2]$, $f^\times + \gamma_i^\times$ is a flow in G^\times that is feasible except at some arcs (x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) where $j > i$. Furthermore, the restriction of $f^\times + \gamma_i^\times$ to G has at most $\text{ex}(f)$ excess on x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{k-2} and at most $i \cdot \text{ex}(f)$ excess on vertices in $V(G) \setminus X$.

Intuitively, the lemma states that ϕ_i^\times gets rid of the excess on x_i without increasing any of the excesses on x_1, \dots, x_{i-1} above 0, without increasing any of the excesses on x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{k-2} above $\text{ex}(f)$, and without increasing any other excesses by more than $\text{ex}(f)$.

We now describe how to find ϕ_i^\times inductively. Suppose $h^\times = f^\times + \gamma_{i-1}^\times$ is a feasible flow in G^\times whose restriction h to G has no excess on x_1, \dots, x_{i-1} , at most $\text{ex}(f)$ excess on x_i, \dots, x_{k-2} , and at most $(i-1) \cdot \text{ex}(f)$ excess on all vertices in $V(G) \setminus X$. Our goal is to find a circulation ϕ_i^\times in G^\times such that $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ is a feasible flow in G^\times satisfying Lemma 3.5. Finding ϕ_i^\times reduces to finding a flow $\phi_{i,H}$ in an $O(k)$ -apex graph H_i , and we construct H_i as follows: Starting with the residual graph of G^\times with respect to h^\times , delete arcs (x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) and (x_i^{out}, x_i^{in}) . Let the source be x_i^{in} and the sink be x_i^{out} . For all $j > i$, the arc (x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) has capacity $c(x_j) + \text{ex}(f) - h^\times(x_j^{in}, x_j^{out})$ and the arc (x_j^{out}, x_j^{in}) has capacity $h^\times(x_j^{in}, x_j^{out})$. See Figure 3.3. We have the following lemma:

Lemma 3.6. Let $\omega \geq 0$. For all $i \in [k-2]$, the following two statements are equivalent:

1. There exists a circulation ϕ_i^\times in G^\times such that $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ is feasible in G^\times except possibly at arcs (x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) for all $j > i$, where $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) \leq c(x_j) + \text{ex}(f)$. Also,

$$(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)^{in}(x_i^{in}) = (h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = (h^\times + \phi_i^\times)^{out}(x_i^{out}) = h^{in}(x_i) - \omega. \quad (3.15)$$

2. There exists a feasible flow $\phi_{i,H}$ in H_i of value ω .

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) : Suppose (1) holds. Let $\phi_{i,H}$ be the restriction of ϕ_i^\times to H_i . The flow $\phi_{i,H}$ is feasible in H_i by the definition of H_i .

Since $(h^\times)(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = (h)^{in}(x_i)$ and $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = h^{in}(x_i) - \omega$, we have that $\phi_i^\times(x_i^{out}, x_i^{in}) = \omega$. Since x_i^{in} is not a source in G^\times , flow conservation at x_i^{in} implies that $(\phi_i^\times)^{out}(x_i^{in}) = \omega$. This means that $|\phi_{i,H}| = \phi_{i,H}^{out}(x_i^{in}) = \omega$.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) : Suppose (2) holds. Define an extension ϕ_i^\times of $\phi_{i,H}$ to a circulation in G^\times by setting $\phi_i^\times(x_i^{out}, x_i^{in}) = \omega$. It is easy to see that g^\times satisfies conservation constraints. The arc capacities in H_i ensure $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ is feasible in G^\times except possibly at arcs (x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) with $j > i$, where $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) \leq c(x_j) + \text{ex}(f)$.

Since $h^\times(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = h^{in}(x_i)$ and $\phi_i^\times(x_i^{out}, x_i^{in}) = \omega$, we have $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = h^{in}(x_i) - \omega$. On the other hand, x_i^{in} and x_i^{out} are not terminals in G^\times , so flow conservation implies $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)^{in}(x_i^{in}) = (h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_i^{in}, x_i^{out}) = (h^\times + \phi_i^\times)^{in}(x_i^{out})$. QED.

By the existence of g^\times , we know that there exists a circulation ϕ_i^\times such that $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ is feasible in G^\times , so statement (1) in Lemma 3.6 holds for some $\omega \geq \text{ex}(h, x_i)$. By Lemma 3.6, there must exist a flow $\phi_{i,H}$ of value $\text{ex}(h, x_i)$ in H_i . We compute $\phi_{i,H}$ as follows: Starting with H_i , we add a vertex x^s that will be the source instead of x_i^{in} , and we add an arc (x^s, x_i^{in}) with capacity $\text{ex}(h, x_i)$; similarly, we add a vertex x^t that will be the sink instead of x_i^{in} , and an arc (x_i^{out}, x^t) with capacity $\text{ex}(h, x_i)$. The resulting graph has an acyclic maximum flow that saturates every arc incident to a terminal and so has value $\text{ex}(h, x_i)$, and the restriction of this flow to H_i is $\phi_{i,H}$. We have assumed (by induction) that $\text{ex}(h^\times, x_i) \leq \text{ex}(f)$, so $|\phi_{i,H}| \leq \text{ex}(f)$.

We need to show that our choice of ϕ_i^\times satisfies Lemma 3.5. By Lemma 3.6, the flow $\phi_{i,H}$ corresponds to a circulation ϕ_i^\times in G^\times such that $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ has no excess on x_1, \dots, x_i and is feasible in G^\times except possibly at arcs (x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) for all $j > i$, where $(h^\times + \phi_i^\times)(x_j^{in}, x_j^{out}) \leq c(x_j) + \text{ex}(f)$. The restriction of $h^\times + \phi_i^\times$ to G is thus feasible at x_1, \dots, x_i and has at most $\text{ex}(f)$ excess at x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{k-2} . If $\lambda > \lambda^*$, then $\phi_{i,H}$ may not exist and might have value strictly less than $\text{ex}(h, x_i)$ when we try to compute it. If this happens, then the restriction of $h^\times + \gamma_i^\times$ to G will have positive excess on x_i .

Let ϕ_i be the restriction of ϕ_i^\times to G . Let v be any vertex in $V(G) \setminus X$. Since $\phi_{i,H}$ is acyclic, ϕ_i sends at most $|\phi_{i,H}|$ units of flow through v . Thus for all $v \in V(G) \setminus X$, we have

$$\text{ex}(h + \phi_i, v) \leq \text{ex}(h, v) + |\phi_{i,H}| \tag{3.16}$$

$$\leq (i - 1) \cdot \text{ex}(f) + \text{ex}(f) \tag{3.17}$$

$$\leq i \cdot \text{ex}(f). \tag{3.18}$$

This proves Lemma 3.5.

When $i = k - 2$, we get that $f^\times + \gamma_i^\times = f^\times + g^\times$ is a feasible flow in G^\times where $\text{ex}(f + g, v) \leq (k - 2)\text{ex}(f)$ for all $v \in V(G) \setminus X$. The flow $f^\times + g^\times$ has no excess on the vertices of X , so the proof of Lemma 2.1 implies that $f^\times + g^\times$ has an extension in G° . Lemma 3.4 then implies that g^\times corresponds to a circulation g° in G° such that $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, x) = 0$ for all $x \in X$ and $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, v) \leq (k - 2)\text{ex}(f)$ for all $v \in V(G) \setminus X$; we can compute g° in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time. We have proved the following lemma:

Lemma 3.7. For any vertex $x \in X$, $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, x) = 0$. For any vertex $v \in V(G) \setminus X$, $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, v) \leq (k - 2)\text{ex}(f)$.

Computing ϕ_i^\times requires us to compute a maximum flow in a graph with $O(k)$ apices (these are s, t , and x^{in} and x^{out} for all $x \in X$), which takes $O(k^3 n \log^3 n)$ time using the algorithm of Borradaile et al. [23]. Since we need to compute $k - 2$ such flows, computing g° takes

$O(k^4 n \log^3 n)$ time.

3.3.2 Stage 2

Having found an integer circulation g° in G° , we construct the fractional circulation g°/k in G° . Then, using the algorithm of Lemma 2.2, we let f_1° be an integer flow in G° such that

$$(f_1^\circ)^{in}(C_v) \leq \lceil (f^\circ + g^\circ/k)^{in}(C_v) \rceil \implies \text{ex}(f_1^\circ, v) \leq \lceil \text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ/k, v) \rceil. \quad (3.19)$$

for every vertex $v \in V(G)$.

Lemma 3.8. For any vertex $v \in V(G)$, $\text{ex}(f_1^\circ, v) \leq \lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \rceil$.

Proof. If $x \in X$, then we have $\text{ex}(f^\circ, x) \leq \text{ex}(f)$ and $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, x) = 0$ by Lemma 3.7. Thus

$$\text{ex}(f_1^\circ, x) \leq \lceil \text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ/k, x) \rceil \leq \left\lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \right\rceil. \quad (3.20)$$

If $v \in V(G) \setminus X$, we have $\text{ex}(f^\circ, v) = 0$ and $\text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ, v) \leq (k-2)\text{ex}(f)$ by Lemma 3.7. Thus

$$\text{ex}(f_1^\circ, v) \leq \lceil \text{ex}(f^\circ + g^\circ/k, v) \rceil \leq \left\lceil \frac{k-2}{k} \text{ex}(f) \right\rceil. \quad (3.21)$$

QED.

Using the algorithm of Lemma 2.2, computing f_1° takes $O(n \log^3 n)$ time.

3.3.3 Stage 3

In this stage, we finally get f_2° . Using Lemma 2.4, we find a flow f_2° of the same value as f_1° such that the restriction f_2 of f_2° to G is acyclic. By Lemma 3.1, f_2° has at most $k-2$ infeasible vertices. Since $f_2^\circ(e) \leq f_1^\circ(e)$ for all arcs e , we still have $\text{ex}(f_2^\circ, v) \leq \text{ex}(f_1^\circ, v) \leq \lceil \frac{k-1}{k} \text{ex}(f) \rceil$ for all vertices $v \in V(G)$. Stage 3 takes $O(n)$ time, so the total running time of stages 1-3 is $O(k^4 n \log^3 n)$.

3.4 THREE TERMINALS WITH REAL CAPACITIES

In the case of three terminals, we can find a maximum flow in $O(n \log n)$ time even if G has arbitrary real capacities. Without loss of generality, we may assume that there are two sources and one sink. Let f° be a maximum flow in G° . We can compute f° in $O(n \log n)$

time by using the algorithm of Borradaile and Klein [41]: first find a maximum flow f_1° from s_1 to t , and then find a maximum flow f_2° from s_2 to t in the residual graph of G° with respect to f_1° . The desired flow f° is just $f_1^\circ + f_2^\circ$. By Lemma 2.4 we may assume without loss of generality that the restriction f of f° to G is acyclic. By Lemma 3.1, the flow graph f_G of f has at most one saddle x , and has index 1. If f is feasible at x , then f is the maximum flow in G and we are done, so assume f is infeasible at x .

3.4.1 Almost-feasible flows

Let $\delta = \text{val}(G^\circ) - \text{val}(G)$. Suppose f_δ° is a maximum flow in G° whose restriction f_δ to G is acyclic and has a single infeasible vertex x_δ . Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2 guarantee that x_δ has excess at most $c(x_\delta)$, but this excess might still be greater than δ . If it turns out that $\text{ex}(f_\delta, x_\delta) = \delta$, then f_δ° and f_δ are *almost feasible*. Given an almost-feasible flow f_δ in G , we can remove δ units of flow through x_δ to get a maximum flow in G . This can be done in $O(n)$ time using an algorithm similar to that of Step 1 in Section 3.2. In this subsection, we show that almost-feasible flows exist.

Lemma 3.9. There exists a maximum flow f_δ° in G° such that the restriction f_δ of f_δ° to G is acyclic and has a single infeasible vertex x with $\text{ex}(f_\delta, x) = \delta$.

Proof. Let f_{max} be a maximum flow in G , and let f_{max}° be an extension of f_{max} to G° . In the residual graph of G° with respect to f_{max}° , find an acyclic maximum flow g° . Let $(f')^\circ = f_{max}^\circ + g^\circ$ and let f' be the restriction of $(f')^\circ$ to G . Since g° is acyclic with a single sink and has value δ , it can be decomposed into arc-disjoint paths whose total flow value is δ . Therefore, for every vertex v in G , the flow through v in f' is larger than the flow through v in f_{max} by at most δ . Hence, the excess of every vertex under f' is at most δ . By Lemma 2.4, there is a flow f_δ° with the same value as $(f')^\circ$ whose restriction f_δ to G does not contain flow-cycles.

Since g° is a maximum flow in the residual graph of G° with respect to f° , $(f')^\circ$ and f_δ° are maximum flows in G° . Since $f_\delta(e) \leq f'(e)$ for every arc e , we have $\text{ex}(f_\delta) \leq \delta$. Since f_δ is acyclic, Lemma 2.4 implies that f_δ has at most one infeasible vertex x .

If $\text{ex}(f_\delta, x) < \delta$, then, starting with f_δ , we can remove $\text{ex}(f_\delta, x)$ units of flow through x to get a feasible flow in G with value strictly higher than $|f_\delta| - \delta = \text{val}(G)$, a contradiction. Thus $\text{ex}(f_\delta, x) = \delta$. QED.

3.4.2 Getting an almost-feasible flow

It remains to show how to compute an almost-feasible flow. We will describe an algorithm that finds a circulation g° in G° such that the restriction of $f^\circ + g^\circ$ to G is almost feasible. Let $ex_x = \text{ex}(f)$.

Construct the flow network G^\times the same way as in Section 3.3.1, and construct H in the same way as H_i is constructed in section 3.3.1 for $i = 1$. In other words, H is constructed as follows. Starting with the residual graph of G° with respect to f° , we do the following:

- Replace C_x with vertices x^{in} and x^{out} .
- Every arc of capacity c going from a vertex u to a vertex in the cycle C_x is now an arc from (u, x^{in}) of capacity c
- Every arc of capacity c going from a vertex in the cycle C_x to a vertex u is now an arc (x^{out}, u) of capacity c .
- Let x^{in} be the source instead of s and x^{out} be the sink instead of t . (Recall from the definition of G_{st} in section 2 that s is a supersource connected to the original two sources s_1 and s_2 .)

Lemmas 3.4 and 3.6 both apply for $H = H_1$. Thus our goal is now to find a maximum flow g_H in H that can be extended to a circulation in the residual graph of G° with respect to f° .

We will now show that we can make two simplifications to H . The goal of these simplifications is to eliminate the apices s, x^{in} , and x^{out} so that H becomes planar. First, since we are ultimately trying to find a flow in H from x^{in} to x^{out} , we may assume without loss of generality that arcs of the form (u, x^{in}) and (x^{out}, v) do not exist in H . As a result, the only arcs in H that are incident to x^{in} are arcs of the form (x^{in}, u) where $f(u, x) > 0$. If we consider these arcs as arcs in G , then, since x has index 1, these arcs form two intervals in the cyclic order around x . Therefore, we can replace x^{in} with two sources x_1^{in} and x_2^{in} , replacing arcs (x^{in}, u) in the first interval with (x_1^{in}, u) and arcs (x^{in}, u) in the second interval with arcs (x_2^{in}, u) . A similar simplification eliminates x^{out} . See Figure 3.4. (We could not perform this simplification in Section 3.3.1 because the desired flow in H could send flow from x^{in} to some $(x')^{in}$ to x^{out} .) One effect of this simplification is that every flow g_H in H automatically extends to a circulation g° in the residual graph of G° with respect to f° . This is because f has an extension f° in G° and $(f + g_H)(e) \leq f(e)$ for any arc e incident to x in G , so $f + g_H$ has an extension to G° .

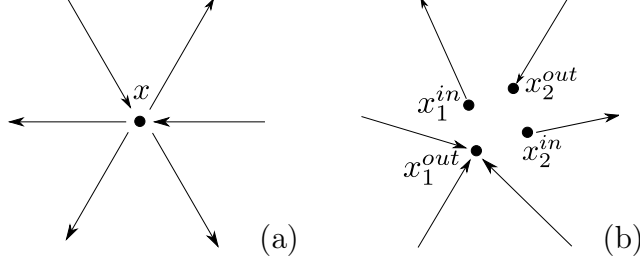


Figure 3.4: (a) The flow graph of f at the unique infeasible vertex (b) sources and sinks of H after eliminating apices

Second, we show that we can delete the arcs (s, s_1) and (s, s_2) . This eliminates the apex s .

Lemma 3.10. If there is an augmenting path π in H (i.e., a path from a source to a sink in H) containing s , then there is an augmenting path π' in H not containing s .

Proof. See Figure 3.5. In this proof, we say that an arc e carries flow if $f(e) > 0$, and a path carries flow if all of its arcs carry flow. Consider two arcs e, e' carrying flow out of x such that as we cyclically traverse the arcs incident to x in clockwise order, some arc between e and e' carries flow into x , and some arc between e' and e carries flow into x . There must be a path P from x to t starting with e that carries flow. Similarly, there must be a path P' from x to t starting with e' that carries flow. Without loss of generality, assume P and P' do not cross. Let u be the first vertex on P after x that also appears on P' . The vertex u must also be the first vertex on P' after x that also appears on P , because otherwise f has flow-cycles. Let Q be the prefix of P that ends at the arc of P that goes into u , and let Q' be the prefix of P' that ends at the arc of P' that goes into u . These prefixes are well-defined because f is acyclic. Since both Q and Q' go from x to u , their union partitions the plane into two regions. Denote the inner region by R and the outer region by R' .

Since there are arcs in both R and R' carrying flow into x and f is acyclic, one source must be in R and the other must be in R' . Furthermore, there is some path Q_s from s_2 to x carrying flow, and there is some path from s_1 to x carrying flow.

Without loss of generality, suppose the augmenting path π in H starts in x^{in} , goes to $s_1 \in R$, uses arcs (s_1, s) and (s, s_2) , and ends by going from $s_2 \in R'$ to x^{out} . We can replace it by an augmenting path π' that starts at x^{in} , follows $\text{rev}(Q_s)$ to s_2 , and then follows π from s_2 to x^{out} . The augmenting path π' does not contain s .

QED.

Let g_H be the maximum flow in H and let g° be its extension to G° . We apply Lemma 2.4 to find a flow f_3° with the same value as $f^\circ + g^\circ$ whose restriction f_3 has no flow-cycles.

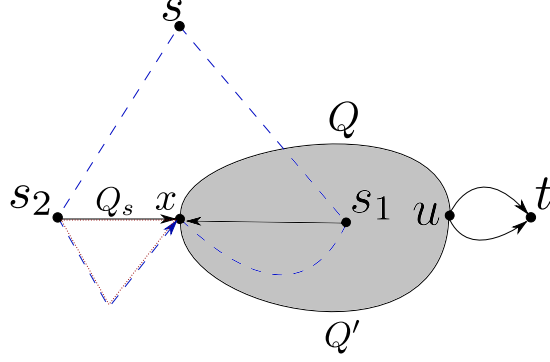


Figure 3.5: H in the proof of Lemma 3.10 with all terminals merged into the vertex x . The dashed blue path is π . The dotted red path is π' . Note that π and π' overlap. The shaded region is R .

By Lemma 3.1, the flow f_3° is infeasible at a single vertex y . If $y = x$, then f_3° must be almost feasible. This is because Lemma 3.4 implies that if g_H is a maximum flow in H , then $f^\circ + g^\circ$ is a maximum flow in G° that minimizes the excess of x . Furthermore, $f_3(e) \leq (f^\circ + g^\circ)(e)$, so f_3 is a maximum flow in G° that minimizes the excess of x .

If $y \neq x$, then we define a function $F : E(G) \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for each arc $e \in G$. $F(e, \beta)$ is defined as follows. We apply Lemma 2.4 to $f^\circ + \beta g^\circ$ to get a flow f_β° whose restriction f_β to G is acyclic. We then define $F(e, \beta) = f_\beta(e)$. For all arcs $e \in E(G)$, we have $F(e, 0) = f(e)$ and $F(e, 1) = f_3(e)$.

Clearly, $F(\cdot, \beta)$ has an extension that is feasible in G° for all β , and $F(e, \cdot)$ is continuous for any arc $e \in E(G)$. Consider how $F(\cdot, \beta)$ changes as β increases from 0 to 1. We start with excess on x and no other vertices, and end with excess on y but no other vertices. Moreover, no matter what β is, there is at most one infeasible vertex. Thus, at some point, say when $\beta = \beta_0$, we must have no infeasible vertices. Since $F(\cdot, \beta_0)$ is a maximum flow in G° , it must be a maximum flow in G .

To compute β_0 , we need the following lemma.

Lemma 3.11. For every fixed arc $e \in E(G)$, $\frac{\partial F(e, \beta)}{\partial \beta}$ is constant.

Proof. The proof requires understanding the details of the algorithm of Lemma 2.4, which can be found in Section 2.2.2. Here we summarize how the flow $F(\cdot, \beta)$ is computed:

1. Compute $f_\beta^\circ = f^\circ + \beta g^\circ$. Define a capacity function c' by $c'(e) = f_\beta^\circ(e)$ for all $e \in E(G)$ and $c'(e) = c(e)$ for all $e \notin E(G)$. Construct the residual graph G_β° of G° with respect to f_β° and c' . Let h_∞ be the infinite face of $G^\circ \setminus \{s\}$. For each face h of $G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\}$, let $\Phi(h)$ be the distance of h^* from h_∞^* in $(G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$. For each arc e in $G^\circ \setminus \{s\}$, let h_ℓ be the face on the left of e and let h_r be the face on the right. Let $g_\beta(e) = \Phi(h_r) - \Phi(h_\ell)$

for each arc e in $G^\circ \setminus \{s\}$; g_β is a simple circulation. Finally, let $f_\gamma^\circ = f_\beta^\circ + g_\beta$, and let f_γ be the restriction of f_γ° to G . The flow f_γ has no counter-clockwise flow-cycles.

2. Define a new capacity function $c''(e) = f_\gamma^\circ(e)$ for $e \in E(G)$ and $c''(e) = c(e)$ for $e \notin E(G)$. Construct the residual graph G_γ° of G° with respect to c'' and f_γ° . For each face h of $G_\gamma^\circ \setminus \{s\}$, let $\Phi(h)$ be the distance of h^* from h_∞^* in $(G_\gamma^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$. Let $g_\gamma(e) = \Phi(h_\ell) - \Phi(h_r)$. Finally, $F(\cdot, \beta)$ is the restriction of $f_\gamma^\circ + g_\gamma$ to G .

It suffices to show that the shortest path trees T_β in $(G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$ and T_γ in $(G_\gamma^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$ rooted at h_∞^* do not change as β increases. Suppose for the sake of argument that T_β changes as β increases. Then, there exist vertices u^* and v^* in $(G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$ and two internally disjoint paths P_1^* and P_2^* from u^* to v^* in $(G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$ whose lengths are changing at different rates as β increases. Let H be the region bounded by P_1^* and P_2^* , and suppose that $P_1 \circ \text{rev}(P_2)$ is a clockwise cycle. The change in the length of P_1^* in $(G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\})^*$ is the change in the capacity of the cut P_1 in $G_\beta^\circ \setminus \{s\}$, which is the change in the amount of flow $f^\circ + \beta g^\circ$ sends out of H through the arcs of P_1 . Similarly, the change in the length of P_2^* is the change in the amount of flow $f^\circ + \beta g^\circ$ sends into H through the arcs of P_2 . This means that the net amount of flow that $f^\circ + \beta g^\circ$ carries into H is changing as β increases, but this is impossible, since g° is a simple circulation. We conclude that T_β does not increase as β increases. A similar argument shows that since g_β is a simple circulation and $f_\gamma^\circ = f^\circ + \beta g^\circ + g_\beta$, T_γ does not change as β increases.

QED.

Lemma 3.11 implies that $\frac{d}{d\beta} \text{ex}(F(\cdot, \beta), x)$ is constant, and we can find it because

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} \text{ex}(F(\cdot, \beta), x) = \text{ex}(F(\cdot, 1), x) - \text{ex}(F(\cdot, 0), x) \quad (3.22)$$

$$= \text{ex}(f_3, x) - \text{ex}(f, x), \quad (3.23)$$

We then let

$$\beta_0 = -\frac{\text{ex}(F(\cdot, 0), x)}{\frac{d}{d\beta} \text{ex}(F(\cdot, \beta), x)}. \quad (3.24)$$

and $F(\cdot, \beta_0)$ is a maximum flow in G .

The algorithm takes $O(n \log n)$ time to compute f° . It takes $O(n \log n)$ time to compute g_H , from which we can obtain g° , f_3° , and f_3 in linear time. If $y = x$, then we have an almost-feasible flow that can be turned into a maximum flow in G in linear time. If $y \neq x$, then we can compute β_0 and $F(\cdot, \beta_0)$ in linear time. The entire algorithm takes $O(n \log n)$ time.

3.5 OPEN PROBLEMS

When it comes to finding flow in planar graphs with vertex capacities, three main open problems remain: (1) eliminate the dependence on k in the running times of the algorithms of Sections 3.2 and 3.3; (2) generalize our algorithms to graphs with real capacities and more than three terminals; and (3) generalize any of our algorithms to surface-embedded graphs. Unfortunately, the first two open problems seem difficult. For the first problem, all of our algorithms relies on Lemma 3.1, so designing an algorithm whose running time does not depend on the number of terminals will probably require completely new techniques. For the second problem, we can either try to generalize the algorithm of Section 3.3 to handle real capacities or try to generalize the algorithm of Section 3.4 to handle more than three terminals. The difficulty with generalizing the algorithm of Section 3.3 is that this algorithm is fundamentally a scaling algorithm, which can only handle integer capacities. If we apply the algorithm to a graph with real capacities, then the flow could keep approaching the maximum flow without ever getting to it. The difficulty with generalizing the algorithm of Section 3.4 to the case where $k > 3$ is as follows. Suppose that $k = 4$. We can define a maximum flow in G° as being almost feasible if we can remove δ units of flow to get a feasible flow in G , where again $\delta = \text{val}(G^\circ) - \text{val}(G)$. We can prove that almost-feasible flows always exist. The main problem seems to be that there is no easy way of characterizing or getting an almost-feasible flow. For example, minimizing the sum of the excesses of the two infeasible vertices x and x' does not necessarily work. Suppose there is one flow where the infeasible vertices both have excesses of 10, and another flow where the vertices both have excesses of 7. If $\delta = 10$, then it could be the case that the first flow is almost feasible because removing a unit of flow through x may simultaneously remove a unit of flow through x' (i.e., we can decompose the first flow into paths and cycles such that some paths pass through both x and x'), while the second flow is not almost feasible because removing a unit of flow through x does not simultaneously remove a unit of flow through x' , and vice versa.

The third open problem – generalizing an algorithm to surface graphs – may be easier. Consider the algorithm of Section 3.3. This algorithm exploits planarity in four ways. First, it relies on Lemma 3.1, which bounds the number of saddles, uses the fact that the graph is planar. However, the lemma can be easily generalized to surface graphs as follows:

Lemma 3.12. Any directed acyclic graph embedded on an orientable surface of genus g with k_1 sources and k_2 sinks has at most $k_1 + k_2 - 2 + 2g$ saddles.

Second, our algorithm needs to compute “lifts” of feasible flows in G into a supergraph G° in near-linear time. If G is planar, this reduces to computing a flow in a planar graph that

is just the union of disjoint cycles. If G has genus g , then we need to compute flows in a surface-embedded graph that is just the union of cycles. Clearly such a graph is still planar, so no changes in the algorithm are needed.

Third, our algorithm uses an algorithm by Borradaile et al. [23] that computes flows in $O(k)$ -apex graphs in $O(k^3 n \log^3 n)$ time. (An $O(k)$ -apex graph is a graph that can become a planar graph with the removal of $O(k)$ vertices.) If G is a graph of genus g , then instead we need to compute integer flows in graphs that become *surface* graphs with the removal of $O(k)$ vertices. Currently, no such algorithm is known. However, we may be able to construct one using the same strategy that Borradaile et al. use. Essentially, they Hochstein and Weihe's algorithm [43] to their own $O(n \log^3 n)$ -time algorithm for multiple-source multiple-sink maximum flow in planar graphs. The result is an algorithm for $O(k)$ -apex graphs with multiple sources and sinks that runs in $O(k^3 n \log^3 n)$ time. In other words, adding k vertices arbitrarily to the graph increases the running time by a factor $O(k^3)$. Now in our case, we have algorithms that can compute integer flows in surface graphs with a single source and sink in $O(g^8 n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time [42]. We can generalize this to multiple sources and sinks in $O(k^2 g^8 n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time by computing flows from each source to each sink while updating the residual graph [44]. Thus, it seems we can use Hochstein and Weihe's algorithm to get an algorithm that finds integer flows in graphs that become a surface graphs with the removal of $O(k)$ vertices in $O(k^5 g^8 n \text{ polylog}(nU))$ time.

Fourth, our algorithm uses a subroutine by Kaplan and Nussbaum that cancels cycles in planar flows in a particular way in $O(n)$ time. Roughly speaking, the subroutine first cancels clockwise cycles, and then cancels counterclockwise cycles. However, in surface graphs, cycles can be neither clockwise nor counterclockwise. Thus, generalizing the subroutine of Kaplan and Nussbaum appears to be the main technical barrier to generalizing our algorithm to surface graphs. Specifically, given a surface graph and a homotopy or homology class, we would like to be able to find a circulation in the graph such that the resulting residual graph contains no cycles in the class, in near-linear time. Even for unit-capacity flow networks embedded in the torus, no polynomial-time algorithms are known. A related problem is the following: given a maximum flow in a surface graph, compute an acyclic maximum flow in the surface graph. Currently, the fastest algorithm known takes $O(m \log n)$ time for general graphs and thus $O((n + g) \log n)$ time for surface graphs [29], but Kaplan and Nussbaum showed that $O(n)$ time is achievable in planar graphs [22]. Are there faster algorithms that exploit the topology of surface graph? More generally, are there algorithms that can compute acyclic flows in near-planar graphs faster than $O(m \log n)$ time?

CHAPTER 4: ELEMENT CONNECTIVITY

In this chapter, G is an undirected, unweighted graph, $T \subset V(G)$ is a set of terminals, and $k = |T|$. In the preliminaries, we defined the element-connectivity $\kappa'(u, v)$ between two terminals u and v . Element-connectivity was first defined by Jain et al. [1].

Chekuri, Rukkanchanunt, and Xu [3] proved that element-connectivity admits a structure called a *Gomory-Hu tree*. This is a tree τ whose vertices are the terminals of G ; furthermore, for any two terminals u and v , $\kappa'(u, v)$ is the weight of the lightest edge on the path between u and v in τ . The existence of this tree implies that there are only $k - 1$ distinct element-connectivity values. They used this to show that the element-connectivity between every pair of terminals can be computed in $O(k \text{ MF}(n, m))$ time, where $\text{MF}(n, m)$ is the time required to compute a maximum flow in a unit-capacitated graph. In general graphs, it is known that $\text{MF}(n, m) = O(\sqrt{nm})$ [48], while in planar graphs we have $\text{MF}(n, m) = O(n)$ [39] and in surface graphs of genus g we have $\text{MF}(n, m) = O(g^8 n \log^4 n)$ [42]. Thus we can compute all element-connectivity values in $O(kn)$ time in planar graphs and $O(kg^8 n \log^4 n)$ time in surface graphs. Alternatively, Borradaile et al. [49] showed that Gomory-Hu trees in surface graphs can be computed in $2^{O(g^2)} n \log^3 n$ time. The algorithm can be easily modified to find the element-connectivity between every pair of terminals in surface graphs in $2^{O(g^2)} n \log^3 n$ time. Chekuri et al. [3] also gave an algorithm that will compute the reduced graph in $O(kmn)$ time. Applying that algorithm to planar graphs gives us a running time of $O(kn^2)$.

In this chapter we describe some minor optimizations to the results mentioned in the previous paragraph. First, we show that the global element connectivity of a planar graph can be computed in $O(bn)$ time when the terminals can be covered by b faces. This is an improvement over previous results when $b \in o(k)$. Second, we show that the reduced graph of a planar graph can be found in $O(kn^{5/3} \log^{4/3} n)$ time.

4.1 GLOBAL ELEMENT CONNECTIVITY

Suppose G is planar and all the terminals can be covered by b faces. We show how to find the global element-connectivity in $O(bn)$ time. As mentioned earlier, global element-connectivity in G reduces to global edge-connectivity in G° , so we will assume that we are finding global edge-connectivity, which is just the capacity of the minimum cut in G° that separates two terminals.

First we consider $b = 1$; we may assume that all terminals are on the outer face F . Let $(G^\circ)^*$ denote the dual of G° ; each terminal in G° becomes a terminal face in $(G^\circ)^*$, and face

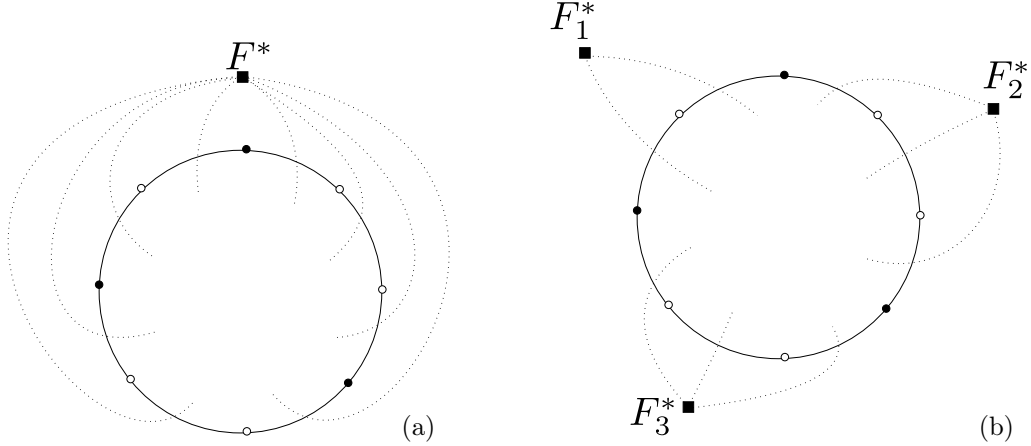


Figure 4.1: Solid edges and circular vertices are primal; dotted edges and square vertices are dual. Circles with black interiors are terminals.

F becomes a dual vertex F^* . We are looking for the minimum cut in G° that separates two terminals; this is equivalent to the shortest cycle C in $(G^\circ)^*$ that separates two terminal faces. Clearly C must go through F^* . Split F^* into k vertices F_1^*, \dots, F_k^* , as shown in Figure 4.1. The global edge-connectivity is then just the shortest distance between F_i^* and F_j^* , where $i \neq j$ and i and j range over $\{1, \dots, k\}$. We can solve this problem in $O(n)$ time by simultaneously growing k breadth-first-search trees rooted at F_1^*, \dots, F_k^* , and stopping when two of these trees meet. Alternatively, Borradaile [50] showed how to find this shortest distance in $O(n)$ time even when the graph is weighted.

Now suppose $b > 1$. The minimum cut that separates two terminals either separates two terminals on the same face or it separates two of the b faces that cover the terminals. We can take care of the first case in $O(bn)$ time using the algorithm for the $b = 1$ case b times. To take care of the second case, go through each of the b faces that cover the terminals and for each face arbitrarily pick one of the terminals on the face as a representative. While there exist two unseparated representative terminals, find the minimum cut separating them that does not cross any previously-computed minimum cut. (Two cuts cross if their dual cycles cross). Computing a single such cut can be done in $O(n)$ time using the algorithm of Eisenstat and Klein [39]. We can compute $b - 1$ cuts in this way before all representatives are separated. Thus this second case takes $O(bn)$ total time. We conclude:

Theorem 4.1. In planar graphs where the terminals can be covered by b faces, global element-connectivity can be found in $O(bn)$ time.

4.2 THE REDUCED GRAPH

In Section 2.2.3 we defined the reduced graph of G . The naive algorithm for computing the reduced graph when the input graph is planar (or of bounded genus) proceeds as follows. First, we compute the Gomory-Hu tree for element-connectivity in $O(n \log^3 n)$ time [49]. Then, we iterate over the edges of G . For each edge e , we either contract or delete e , whichever action preserves element-connectivity values between the endpoints of each of the $k - 1$ edges of the Gomory-Hu tree. Checking whether or not a single element-connectivity value is preserved reduces to recomputing a maximum flow in a graph with vertex capacities when an edge is deleted or contracted; this takes $O(n)$ time. Thus the algorithm takes $O(kn^2)$ time.

We can improve this naive algorithm in planar graphs. First, recall that maximum flow values in G are equal to maximum flow values in G° , which has no vertex capacities. To improve the naive algorithm, we use a result of Italiano et al. [40], who described a dynamic maximum-flow algorithm in undirected planar graphs (without vertex capacities) that is able to insert edges, delete edges and answer maximum-flow value queries between any pair of vertices. Their algorithm computes an r -division and runs in

$$O\left(\frac{T_1}{r} + T_2 + r + \frac{n}{\sqrt{r}} \log^2 n\right) \quad (4.1)$$

time per operation, where T_1 is the time required to compute an r -division, and T_2 is the time required to compute a dense distance graph on r vertices. We have $T_1 = O(n)$ by results of Goodrich [51] and of Klein, Mozes, and Sommer [52], and in unit-capacitated graphs we have $T_2 = O(r)$ by an algorithm of Eisenstat and Klein [39]. Setting $r = n^{2/3} \log^{4/3} n$, we see that dynamic maximum-flow can be solved in G° in $O(n^{2/3} \log^{4/3} n)$ time per operation. Furthermore, a single contraction or deletion of an edge in G can be simulated by a constant number of insertions and deletions of edges in G° . We conclude

Theorem 4.2. We can compute the reduced graph in $O(kn^{5/3} \log^{4/3} n)$ time if G is planar.

4.3 OPEN PROBLEMS

Several open problems exist. First, we showed that if all the terminals are on a single face, then the global (i.e., smallest) element connectivity can be computed in $O(n)$ time. How fast can we compute all $k - 1$ element connectivity values? $O(kn)$ -time algorithms are known, but it would be nice to get an $O(n + k)$ -time algorithm.

Next, there is the question of computing a reduced graph faster. One idea might be to speed up the algorithm for computing dynamic maximum flows, since we are not adding any edges to G and we are only interested in the case of unweighted graphs. Thus, every time we delete or contract an edge in G , we know that each maximum flow value either remains the same or decreases by exactly 1. On the other hand, even for unweighted graphs, there may be some lower bounds to keep in mind. Specifically, Abboud and Dahlgaard [53] showed the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3. No algorithm can solve the dynamic shortest path problem in unit weight planar graphs on N nodes with amortized query time $O(N^{1/3-\epsilon})$ and update time $O(N^{1/3-\epsilon})$ for any $\epsilon > 0$ unless the OMv conjecture is false. (In the online boolean matrix-vector multiplication problem, we are given an $n \times n$ matrix M and n column-vectors v_1, \dots, v_n of size n , one by one. We need to compute Mv_i before we are allowed to see v_{i+1} . The OMv conjecture says that no algorithm can solve this problem in $O(n^{3-\epsilon})$ time.)

We can modify this reduction to apply to dynamic maximum flow in unit-weight planar graphs. The idea is that a shortest path is a shortest cycle if the endpoints of the path are the same, and the shortest cycle in a planar graph corresponds to a minimum cut or maximum flow in its dual.

Another potential idea for computing the reduced graph is the following. Recall from Theorem 2.1 that each edge connecting two non-terminals can be either contracted or deleted without affecting the element-connectivity between any two terminals. Say an edge between two non-terminals is *contractible* if it can be contracted without affecting any element-connectivity values, and say the edge is *deletable* if it can be deleted without affecting any such values; some edges can be both contractible and deletable. We can view the element-connectivity between two vertices u and v as the capacity of the minimum cut separating u and v , where a cut can contain edges and non-terminals. Note that an edge in any minimum cut between two terminals must be contracted, because deleting the edge would decrease the capacity of the cut. Conversely, any edge that is not in any minimum cut can be deleted; since the graph is unweighted, their deletion would not decrease any minimum cut values between terminals. Now it would seem that all we need to do is to compute all minimum cuts between the terminals by computing the Gomory-Hu tree, and then every edge between two non-terminals can be classified as either contractible or deletable. We can contract all contractible edges at once because after contracting a single edge, all other contractible edges remain contractible. The main issue with this idea is that we cannot delete all deletable edges at once: after deleting an edge, some edges that were deletable may no longer be deletable, since some cuts that were not minimum before become minimum.

CHAPTER 5: SHORTEST DISJOINT PATHS

The vertex-disjoint paths problem is a special case of multicommodity flows. This problem is NP-hard [32], even if G is undirected planar [55] or if G is directed and $k = 2$ [21]. On the other hand, it can be solved in polynomial time if G is undirected and k is bounded [56, 57] or if G is directed acyclic and k is bounded [21]. Furthermore, the problem is fixed-parameter tractable with respect to the parameter k in directed planar graphs [58, 59]. Other related results can be found in the survey by Naves and Sebő [60].

The k -min-sum problem has been previously considered in the context of network routing, where the goal is to minimize the amount of energy required to send packets [17, 18]. Middendorf and Pfeiffer [55] proved that the k -min-sum problem is NP-hard when the parameter k is part of the input, even in undirected 3-regular plane graphs. However, surprisingly little is known about the complexity of the planar k -min-sum when k is fixed. In fact, no non-trivial algorithms or hardness results are known for either the 2-min-sum problem in directed planar graphs or the 5-min-sum problem in undirected planar graphs, even when all terminals are required to lie on a single face.

Polynomial-time algorithms for the planar k -min-sum problem are known for *arbitrary* k when all $2k$ terminals lie on a single face, in one of two patterns. In a *parallel* instance, the terminals appear in cyclic order $s_1, \dots, s_k, t_k, \dots, t_1$, and in a *serial* instance, the terminals appear in cyclic order $s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, \dots, s_k, t_k$. Even in directed planar graphs, parallel instances of k -min-sum can be solved using a straightforward reduction to minimum-cost flows [61] in $O(kn)$ time. A recent algorithm of Borradaile, Nayyeri, and Zafarani [62] solves any serial instance of k -min-sum in an undirected planar graph in $O(kn^5)$ time.

If we allow arbitrary patterns of terminals, fast algorithms are known for only very small values of k . Kobayashi and Sommer [9] describe two algorithms, one running in $O(n^3 \log n)$ time when $k = 2$ and all four terminals are covered by at most two faces, the other running in $O(n^4 \log n)$ time when $k = 3$ when all terminals are incident to a single face. Colin de Verdière and Schrijver [13] describe an $O(kn \log n)$ -time algorithm for directed planar graphs where all sources s_i lie on one face and all targets t_i lie on another face. Finally, if $k \leq 3$, every planar instance of k -min-sum with all terminals on the same face is either serial or parallel.

Zafarani [63] proved an important structural result for the planar k -min-sum problem. Consider an undirected edge-weighted plane graph G with terminals $s_1, t_1, \dots, s_k, t_k$ on its outer face, and suppose s_k and t_k are adjacent in cyclic order of the terminals. (The other

This chapter is based on joint work with Prof. Jeff Erickson [54].

$2k - 2$ terminals can appear in any order.) Let Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_k be the shortest vertex-disjoint paths in G connecting all k terminal pairs, and let P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{k-1} be the shortest vertex-disjoint paths in G connecting every pair except s_k, t_k , where the subscript on each path indicates which terminals it connects. Zafarani’s Structure Theorem states that if two paths P_i and Q_j cross, then $i = j$.

Finally, Datta *et al.* [64] recently proved that the k -min-sum problem in *unweighted* plane graphs, with all terminals on the outer face, can be solved in polynomial time for arbitrary fixed k and arbitrary terminal patterns. Specifically, they described a randomized algorithm that runs in $O(4^k n^{\omega+1})$ expected time, and a deterministic algorithm that runs in $O(4^k n^\omega)$ time where $O(n^\omega)$ is the time for fast matrix multiplication. Their algorithms rely on subtle inclusion-exclusion techniques that appear difficult to generalize to weighted graphs.

Both the k -min-min and k -min-max problems appear to be harder than the k -min-sum problem. Van der Holst and de Pina [61] proved that k -min-max is strongly NP-hard when k is not fixed, when all terminals lie on the outer face. Yang, Zheng, and Lu [65] proved that the problem is NP-hard when $k = 2$ and all terminals can be covered by two faces, and Yang, Zheng, and Katukam [66] showed that vertex-disjoint k -min-min is NP-hard in general graphs when $k = 2$ and both paths share the same pair of endpoints.

In this chapter, we describe three results. First, we describe the first polynomial-time algorithm to solve the 4-min-sum problem in undirected edge-weighted planar graphs with all eight terminals on a common face. If the given instance is parallel or serial, it can be solved using existing algorithms; otherwise, the terminals can be labeled $s_4, s_3, s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, t_3, t_4$ in cyclic order around their common face. To solve these instances, our algorithm first computes a solution to the 3-min-sum problem for the terminal pairs $s_1 t_1, s_2 t_2, s_4 t_4$, using an existing algorithm [9, 62]. We identify a small set of key *anchor* vertices where the 3-min-sum solution intersects the 4-min-sum solution we want to compute. For each possible choice of anchor vertices, our algorithm connects these vertices to the terminals by solving parallel min-sum problems in three carefully constructed subgraphs of G . Overall, our algorithm runs in $O(n^6)$ time.

Second, we sketch a method of extending our 4-min-sum algorithm to larger values of k when the terminals appear in order $s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, t_3, \dots, t_k, s_k, \dots, s_1$ along the outer face. Our extended algorithm runs in polynomial time for any fixed k .

Third, we describe a k -approximation for the k -min-sum vertex-disjoint paths when all k terminal pairs are on the outer face of a planar graph. In this algorithm, we construct an integer program for the problem, solve a linear program relaxation of this integer program, and then round the resulting fractional solution.

Our algorithms search for pairwise vertex-disjoint *walks* with minimum total length that

connect corresponding terminals, rather than explicitly seeking simple paths. Because all edge lengths are non-negative, the shortest set of walks will of course consist of simple paths.

This chapter is organized as follows. Sections 5.1- 5.4 deal with our 4-min-sum algorithm. In Section 5.1 we describe the algorithm for solving parallel instances of the k -min-sum problem. This algorithm is not new but is included for completeness. In Sections 5.2 and 5.3 we prove several structural properties that will be used in our 4-min-sum algorithm. In Section 5.4 we describe the 4-min-sum algorithm. In Section 5.5 we describe our slight extension of the 4-min-sum algorithm. In section 5.6 we describe the k -approximation algorithm; this section does not rely on any of the previous sections in this chapter.

5.1 ALGORITHM FOR PARALLEL INSTANCES

Our 4-min-sum algorithm relies on a black-box subroutine to solve parallel instances of 2-min-sum and 3-min-sum. Van der Holst and de Pina [61] observed that any parallel instance of k -min-sum can be solved in polynomial time by reduction to minimum-cost flow problem. In fact, these instances can be reduced in $O(n)$ time to a *planar* instance of minimum-cost flow, by replacing each vertex with a clockwise directed unit-capacity cycle, as described by Colin de Verdière and Schrijver [13] and Kaplan and Nussbaum [67]. The resulting minimum-cost flow problem can then be solved $O(kn)$ time by performing k iterations of the classical successive shortest path algorithm [68, 69, 70], using the $O(n)$ -time shortest-path algorithm of Henzinger *et al.* [31] at each iteration.

Lemma 5.1. Any parallel planar instance of the k -min-sum problem can be solved in $O(kn)$ time.

Proof. Let G denote the input plane graph, without loss of generality embedded so that all $2k$ terminals lie on the outer face ∂G . We assume G is directed; otherwise, replace every undirected edge with two oppositely oriented directed edges with equal length.

First, we convert the input graph G into a planar flow network G' with vertex capacities as follows. We add a new source vertex \hat{s} , with unit-capacity edges to each terminal s_i , and a new target vertex \hat{t} , with unit capacity edges from each terminal t_i . Finally, we assign every edge of G unit capacity and cost equal to its length, and we assign each vertex of G capacity 1.

Now we need to compute a minimum-cost flow in G' from \hat{s} to \hat{t} with value k . If no such flow exists, the given instance of k -min-sum is infeasible. Otherwise, the minimum-cost flow decomposes into k vertex-disjoint paths from \hat{s} to \hat{t} , each carrying one unit of flow. Removing

the new vertices \hat{s} and \hat{t} leaves us with k vertex-disjoint paths in G , each connecting some terminal s_i to the corresponding terminal t_j .

To compute the minimum-cost flow quickly, we further reduce G' to a planar flow network H with only *edge* capacities, by replacing each vertex v (except \hat{s} and \hat{t}) with a clockwise cycle C_v of $\deg(v)$ directed edges, each with unit capacity and zero cost. We also redirect the edges incident to v to distinct vertices of C_v , so that the resulting graph remains planar. We then compute a minimum-cost flow in H in $O(kn)$ time by performing k iterations of the classical successive shortest path algorithm [68, 69, 70], using the $O(n)$ -time shortest-path algorithm of Henzinger *et al.* [31] at each iteration. Finally, we project the resulting flow back to G' by contracting each cycle C_v to its original vertex v .

It remains only to prove that the algorithm is correct. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k\}$ be the set of k paths that comprise a minimum-cost flow with value k in H . Because each edge in H has unit capacity, the paths in \mathcal{P} are pairwise edge-disjoint. Without loss of generality, the i th path P_i contains the edges $\{\hat{s}, s_i\}$ and $\{t_i, \hat{t}\}$.

The paths in \mathcal{P} partition the bounded faces of G into $k + 1$ regions, each of which is bounded by at most two paths in \mathcal{P} . If a path P_i runs clockwise along the boundary of a region, then we say that P_i is the *left border* of every face in the region. Every bounded face of H has at most one left border path. In particular, for any vertex v in G , the face of H bounded by C_v has at most one path as its left border; on the other hand, any path in \mathcal{P} that uses edges in C_v must be the left border of C_v . Thus, at most one path in \mathcal{P} uses edges in C_v .

We conclude that the set of paths in G corresponding to \mathcal{P} is a feasible solution to the k -min-sum problem. Conversely, any set of k vertex-disjoint paths in G can be transformed into a feasible flow in H with value k . QED.

5.2 STRUCTURE

Let G be an undirected plane graph with non-negative edge lengths, and let $s_4, s_3, s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, t_3, t_4$ be eight distinct vertices in clockwise order around the outer face, as shown in Figure 5.1. Let $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_4\}$ denote the unique optimal solution to this 4-min-sum instance, where each path Q_i connects s_i to t_i , and let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, P_2, P_4\}$ denote the unique optimal solution to the induced 3-min-sum problem that omits the demand pair s_3t_3 , where again each path P_i connects s_i to t_i . We can compute \mathcal{P} in $O(n^4 \log n)$ time using the algorithm of Kobayashi and Sommer [9], or in $O(n^5)$ time using the more general algorithm of Borradaile *et al.* [62].

We assume without loss of generality that the paths in \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} do not use edges on the

outer face. If necessary to enforce this assumption, we can connect the terminals using an outer cycle of eight infinite-weight edges.

The paths in \mathcal{P} divide G into four regions, as shown in Figure 5.1(a). Let X be the unique region adjacent to all the paths in \mathcal{P} . For each index $i \neq 3$, let C_i denote the subpath of ∂G from s_i to t_i that shares no edges with X , let R_i denote the closed region bounded by P_i and C_i , and let R_i° denote the half-open region $R_i \setminus P_i$.

5.2.1 Envelopes

Fix a reference point z on the boundary path C_4 . Let π be some path from s_i to t_i , for some index i . We say that a point $x \notin \pi$ lies *below* π if x lies on the same side of π as the point z , and *above* π otherwise.

Now fix two indices $i \leq j$. Let π be an arbitrary path from s_i to t_i , and let ρ be an arbitrary path from s_j to t_j ; these two paths may intersect arbitrarily. If $i = j$, let D be the path in ∂G from s_i to t_i that lies above π and E be the path in ∂G from s_j to t_j that lies below ρ . Otherwise, let D and E be the unique disjoint paths in ∂G from s_i to t_i and from s_j to t_j , respectively. The paths π and ρ divide the interior of G into connected regions. Let U be the unique region with the entire path D on its boundary, and let L be the unique region with the entire path E on its boundary. Finally, let $U(\pi, \rho) = \partial U \setminus D$ and $L(\pi, \rho) = \partial L \setminus E$.

Intuitively, for most choices of i and j , $U(\pi, \rho)$ is the “upper envelope” of π and ρ , and $L(\pi, \rho)$ is the “lower envelope” of π and ρ . However, when $i = 1$ and $j = 2$, the path $U(\pi, \rho)$ is better thought of as the “left envelope” (because it lies *below* ρ), and $L(\pi, \rho)$ is better thought of as the “right envelope” (because it lies *above* ρ); fortunately, this exception arises only in the proof of Lemma 5.3.

Lemma 5.2. For any terminal-to-terminal paths π and ρ , we have $\ell(U(\pi, \rho)) + \ell(L(\pi, \rho)) \leq \ell(\pi) + \ell(\rho)$.

Proof. Each component of $U(\pi, \rho) \setminus \pi$ is an open subpath of ρ that lies entirely above π and therefore is disjoint from $L(\pi, \rho)$. It follows that every edge in $U(\pi, \rho) \cap L(\pi, \rho)$ is an edge of π . Similarly, every edge in $U(\pi, \rho) \cap L(\pi, \rho)$ is an edge of ρ . QED.

5.2.2 How the paths in \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} intersect

We begin by proving several structural properties of the 4-min-sum solution \mathcal{Q} that will help us compute it quickly once we know the 3-min-sum solution \mathcal{P} . Our structural observations are summarized in the following theorem:

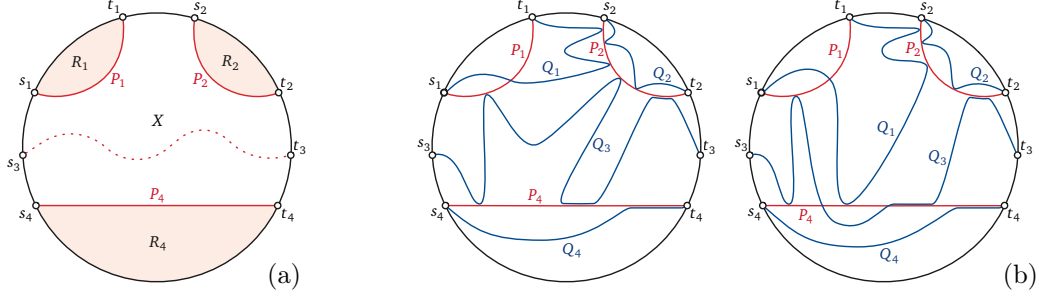


Figure 5.1: (a) Terminals, paths in \mathcal{P} , and the regions they define. (b) Typical structures for \mathcal{Q} .

Theorem 5.1. If Q_i crosses P_j , then either $i = j = 1$, or $i = j = 2$, or $i = 3$ and $j = 4$. Moreover, either $Q_1 \subset R_1$ or $Q_2 \subset R_2$ or both, and $Q_4 \subset R_4$.

Figure 5.1(b) shows two typical structures for \mathcal{Q} that are consistent with this theorem. We prove Theorem 5.1 using a series of exchange arguments, with the following high-level structure. Suppose some pair of paths P_i and Q_j cross, in violation of Theorem 5.1. By considering upper and lower envelopes of various paths in \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} , we construct new sets \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{Q}' of vertex-disjoint paths. Then we argue, usually via Lemma 5.2, that $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) \geq \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} .

Lemma 5.3. Q_1 does not cross P_2 , and Q_2 does not cross P_1 .

Proof. Suppose for the sake of argument that Q_1 crosses P_2 . Let P'_2 be the “right envelope” $L(Q_1, P_2)$ and let Q'_1 be the “left envelope” $U(Q_1, P_2)$. By definition, P'_2 is a path from s_2 to t_2 , and Q'_1 is a path from s_1 to t_1 . Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P_1, P'_2, P_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q_4\}$.

The path P_2 separates P'_2 from both P_1 and P_4 , so the paths in \mathcal{P}' are vertex-disjoint. Similarly, Q_1 separates Q'_1 from Q_2, Q_3 , and Q_4 , so the paths in \mathcal{Q}' are vertex-disjoint.

Lemma 5.2 implies that $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) \geq \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. However, the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} implies $\ell(\mathcal{P}) < \ell(\mathcal{P}')$, and the unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, so we have a contradiction. We conclude that Q_1 does not cross P_2 .

A symmetric argument implies that Q_2 does not cross P_1 . QED.

Lemma 5.4. Q_1 and Q_2 do not cross P_4 .

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 5.3. Suppose for the sake of argument that Q_1 crosses P_4 . Let $P'_4 = L(Q_1, P_4)$ and $Q'_1 = U(Q_1, P_4)$. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q_4\}$. P_4 separates P'_4 from P_1 and P_2 , so the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. Q_1 separates Q'_1 from Q_2, Q_3 , and Q_4 , so the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

The optimality of \mathcal{P} implies $\ell(\mathcal{P}) < \ell(\mathcal{P}')$, and the optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. On the other hand, $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) \geq \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, a contradiction.

A symmetric argument implies that Q_2 does not cross P_4 . QED.

Lemma 5.5. Q_3 crosses neither P_1 nor P_2 .

Proof. We prove that Q_3 does not cross P_1 ; the proof for the other statement is symmetric.

Suppose for the sake of argument that Q_3 crosses P_1 . Let $P'_1 = U(P_1, Q_3)$, $P'_2 = U(P_2, Q_3)$, and $P'_4 = U(P_4, Q_4)$. Let $Q'_3 = L(P_1, L(P_2, Q_3))$ and $Q'_4 = L(P_4, Q_4)$. Finally, let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P'_1, P'_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q'_3, Q'_4\}$. As in the previous proofs, we claim that \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{Q}' are sets of *vertex-disjoint* paths.

P_1 separates P'_1 from P'_2 . Suppose for the sake of argument that P'_1 meets P'_4 at a vertex x . Since x is on P'_1 , it is inside R_1 and it is on or above Q_3 . Since x is on P'_4 , it is either on P_4 or Q_4 . If x is on P_4 , then since x is inside R_1 , P_1 touches P_4 . If x is on Q_4 , then since x is on or above Q_3 , Q_3 touches Q_4 . In both cases we obtain a contradiction. A similar argument shows that P'_2 does not meet P'_4 , so the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

Q_1 and Q_2 are trivially disjoint, and Q_3 separates Q_1 and Q_2 from Q'_3 and Q'_4 . Suppose Q'_3 intersects Q'_4 at a vertex x . Since x is on Q'_4 , it is inside R_4 and on or below Q_4 . Because x is on Q'_3 , it is either in P_1 , P_2 , or Q_3 . If x is on Q_3 , then because x is on or below Q_4 , Q_3 crosses below Q_4 . If x is on P_1 or P_2 , then since x is in R_4 , either P_1 or P_2 touches P_4 . In all cases we obtain a contradiction, so the paths in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

Each component of $Q'_3 \setminus Q_3$ is an open subpath of P_1 or P_2 that lies entirely below Q_3 and therefore is not contained in P'_1 or P'_2 . Similarly, each component of $P'_1 \setminus P_1$ is an open subpath of Q_3 that lies entirely above P_1 and therefore is not contained in P'_2 or Q'_3 , and each component of $P'_2 \setminus P_2$ is an open subpath of Q_3 that lies entirely above P_2 and therefore is not contained in P'_1 or Q'_3 .

It follows that $\ell(P'_1) + \ell(P'_2) + \ell(Q'_3) \leq \ell(P_1) + \ell(P_2) + \ell(Q_3)$, and therefore $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) \geq \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . QED.

Corollary 5.1. Q_4 does not meet P_1 or P_2 .

Lemma 5.6. Q_4 lies entirely in R_4 .

Proof. For the sake of argument, suppose Q_4 leaves R_4 . Define two new paths $P'_4 = U(P_4, Q_4)$ and $Q'_4 = L(P_4, Q_4)$. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q'_4\}$.

Corollary 5.1 implies that P'_4 does not meet P_1 or P_2 , so the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. On the other hand, Q_4 separates Q'_4 from Q_1 , Q_2 , and Q_3 , so the paths in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. Lemma 5.2 implies $\ell(P'_4) + \ell(Q'_4) \leq \ell(P_4) + \ell(Q_4)$, and therefore $\ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}') \leq \ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q})$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . QED.

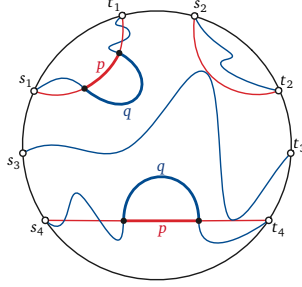


Figure 5.2: An impossible configuration of optimal paths, for the proofs of Lemmas 5.6 and 5.8.

To complete the proof of Theorem 5.1, we must consider two cases, depending on whether or not Q_3 crosses P_4 . Typical solutions for these two cases are illustrated in Figure 5.1(b).

The case where Q_3 does not cross P_4 .

Lemma 5.7. If Q_3 does not cross P_4 , then Q_1 and Q_2 do not meet P_4 .

Proof. Q_3 separates s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2 from s_4 and t_4 . Thus, Q_3 separates Q_1 and Q_2 from P_4 . QED.

Lemma 5.8. If Q_3 does not cross P_4 , then every component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1^\circ$ meets P_2 , and every component of $Q_2 \setminus R_2^\circ$ meets P_1 .

Proof. Suppose some component q of $Q_1 \setminus R_1^\circ$ does not meet P_2 , as shown at the top of Figure 5.2. We can derive a contradiction using a similar exchange argument to Lemma 5.6.

The endpoints x and y of q must lie on P_1 ; let p denote the subpath $P_1[x, y]$. Define two new paths $P'_1 = P_1 \setminus p \cup q$ and $Q'_1 = Q_1 \setminus q \cup p$. Clearly P'_1 and Q'_1 are both walks from s_1 to t_1 . Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P'_1, P_2, P_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q'_1, Q_2, Q_3, Q_4\}$. Lemma 5.7 and our assumption that q does not meet P_2 imply that the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. On the other hand, p lies in the disk enclosed by $P'_1 \cup C_1$, which implies that the walks in \mathcal{Q} are also pairwise vertex-disjoint. The optimality of \mathcal{P} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{P}) < \ell(\mathcal{P}')$, and the optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, but clearly $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, so we have a contradiction.

A symmetric argument implies every component of $Q_2 \setminus R_2^\circ$ meets P_1 . QED.

Lemma 5.9. If Q_3 does not cross P_4 , then either $Q_1 \subset R_1$ or $Q_2 \subset R_2$ or both.

Proof. For the sake of argument, suppose Q_1 leaves R_1 and Q_2 leaves R_2 . Let S_1 be the closed region bounded by $Q_1 \cup C_1$ and let S_2 be the closed region bounded by $Q_2 \cup C_2$. We call each component of $S_1 \setminus R_1^\circ$ a *left finger*, and each component of $S_2 \setminus R_2^\circ$ a *right finger*.

Lemma 5.8 and the Jordan curve theorem imply that each finger is a topological disk that intersects both P_1 and P_2 . Thus, the fingers can be linearly ordered by their intersections with P_1 from s_1 to t_1 (from bottom to top in Figure 5.3). Because Q_1 is a simple path, the fingers intersect Q_1 in the same order. Without loss of generality, suppose the last finger in this order is a right finger. Let s be the last left finger, and let s' be the right finger immediately after s .

Let w be the last node of P_1 (closest to t_1) that lies in s , and let y be the last node of P_2 (closest to t_2) that that lies in s' . We define four subpaths $p_1 = P_1[w, t_1]$, $q_1 = Q_1[w, t_1]$, $p_2 = P_2[s_2, y]$, and $q_2 = Q_2[s_2, y]$, as shown on the left of Figure 5.3. (Paths p_2 and q_2 could enclose more than one right finger.)

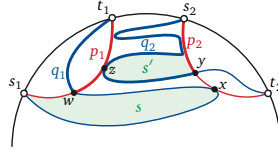


Figure 5.3: Another impossible configuration, for the proof of Lemma 5.9.

Now exchange the subpaths $p_1 \leftrightarrow q_1$ and $p_2 \leftrightarrow q_2$ to define four new walks $P'_1 = P_1 \setminus p_1 \cup q_1$, $Q'_1 = Q_1 \setminus q_1 \cup p_1$, $P'_2 = P_2 \setminus p_2 \cup q_2$, and $Q'_2 = Q_2 \setminus q_2 \cup p_2$. Finally, let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P'_1, P'_2, P_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, Q'_2, Q_3, Q_4\}$. As in previous lemmas, we argue that \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{Q}' are sets of vertex-disjoint walks.

Lemma 5.5 implies that Q_3 does not cross P_1 or P_2 , and trivially Q_3 does not cross Q_1 . Thus, none of the paths Q_3, P_4, Q_4 touches any of the paths p_1, q_1, p_2, q_2 . It follows that P_4 does not touch either P'_1 or P'_2 , and similarly, Q_3 and Q_4 does not touch either Q'_1 or Q'_2 .

We define two more auxiliary nodes x and z , as shown on the right in Figure 5.3. Let x be the first vertex of P_2 also on Q_1 . Vertex y must precede x on P_2 , because $x \in s$ and $y \in s'$. Let z be the first vertex of P_1 also on q_2 . Vertex w must precede z on P_1 , because $w \in s$ and $z \in s'$.

Trivially, q_1 does not meet q_2 , and $P_1 \setminus p_1$ does not meet $P_2 \setminus p_2$. Any left finger formed from q_1 must succeed s . Because s is the last left finger, q_1 does not form any left fingers and does not touch P_2 . By definition, z is the first node of P_1 also on q_2 . On the other hand, all vertices of $P_1 \setminus p_1$ (except w) precede w on P_1 , which in turn strictly precedes z on P_1 , so $P_1 \setminus p_1$ is disjoint from q_2 . We conclude that P'_1 does not meet P'_2 , implying that the walks in \mathcal{P}' are vertex-disjoint:

Trivially, p_1 does not meet p_2 , and $Q_1 \setminus q_1$ does not meet $Q_2 \setminus q_2$. Since q_1 does not meet P_2 , x is the first vertex of P_2 also on $Q_1 \setminus q_1$. On the other hand, all vertices of p_2 (except y) precede y on P_2 , which in turn strictly precedes x on P_2 , so $Q_1 \setminus q_1$ is disjoint from p_2 . Any

right finger whose boundary contains a subpath of $Q_2 \setminus q_2$ must precede s' , and any right finger that meets p_1 must succeed s . Because no right fingers lie strictly between s and s' , the path $Q_2 \setminus q_2$ does not form any right fingers that meet p_1 . We conclude that Q'_1 does not meet Q'_2 , which implies that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are vertex-disjoint.

Finally, we clearly have $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . QED.

The case where Q_3 crosses P_4 .

Lemma 5.10. If Q_3 crosses P_4 , then every component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ meets P_2 or P_4 or both, and every component of $Q_2 \setminus R_2$ meets P_1 or P_4 or both.

Proof. The proof is the same as that of Lemma 5.8. QED.

Lemma 5.11. If Q_3 crosses P_4 , then either Q_1 or Q_2 (or both) touches P_4 .

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 5.3. Suppose for the sake of argument that Q_1 and Q_2 do not touch P_4 .

Let q be a maximal component of $Q_3 \cap R_4$, and let a and b be the endpoints of q . Let $p = P_4[a, b]$, and define two new paths $P'_4 = P_4 \setminus p \cup q$ and $Q'_3 = Q_3 \setminus q \cup p$. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q'_3, Q_4\}$.

P_4 separates P_1 and P_2 from q , so P_1 and P_2 are disjoint from P'_4 and the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. By assumption, Q_1 and Q_2 do not touch p , so Q_1 and Q_2 are disjoint from Q'_3 . Also, P'_4 separates p from Q_4 , so Q'_3 is disjoint from Q_4 . It follows that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

The unique optimality of \mathcal{P} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{P}') < \ell(\mathcal{P})$, and the unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}') < \ell(\mathcal{Q})$, but clearly $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, a contradiction. QED.

In the rest of this subsection we assume without loss of generality that Q_1 touches P_4 . Our goal is to show that $Q_2 \subset R_2$. Let u be the last vertex on $Q_1 \cap P_4$, and let b be the first vertex on $P_4[u, t_4]$ that is on Q_3 , as shown in Figure 5.4(a) and (b) below.

Lemma 5.12. If vertex u precedes vertex v in P_4 , then either u precedes v in Q_3 , or $P_4[u, v] = \text{rev}(Q_3[v, u])$.

Proof. Suppose for the sake of argument that u precedes v in P_4 , v precedes u in Q_3 , and $P_4[u, v] \neq \text{rev}(Q_3[v, u])$. Without loss of generality, assume that none of the vertices in $Q_3(v, u)$ are on P_4 . Let $q_3 = Q_3[v, u]$ and $p_4 = P_4[u, v]$. Define P'_4 by removing all cycles from $P_4 \setminus p_4 \cup \text{rev}(q_3)$, and define Q'_3 by removing all cycles from $Q_3 \setminus q_3 \cup \text{rev}(p_4)$. This

means that Q'_3 is a simple path from s_3 to t_3 that does not cross Q_3 , and P'_4 is a simple path from s_4 to t_4 that does not cross P_4 . Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q'_3, Q_4\}$.

If $Q_3(v, u) \subseteq R_4$, then p_4 does not meet Q_4 by Lemma 5.6, and Q_3 separates Q'_3 from Q_1 and Q_2 . It follows that the walks in \mathcal{Q} are pairwise vertex-disjoint. Path P_4 separates q_3 from P_1 and P_2 , so the paths in \mathcal{P} are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

If $Q_3(v, u) \cap R_4 = \emptyset$, then p_4 does not meet Q_1 or Q_2 by Lemma 5.4, and Q_3 separates Q'_3 from Q_4 . It follows that the walks in \mathcal{Q} are pairwise vertex-disjoint. Walk $P_4[s_4, u] \cup Q_3[u, t_3]$ separates q_3 from P_1 and P_2 , so the paths in \mathcal{P} are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

The optimality of \mathcal{P} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{P}') < \ell(\mathcal{P})$, and the optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}') < \ell(\mathcal{Q})$, but clearly $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. QED.

Lemma 5.13. Suppose Q_3 crosses P_4 and Q_1 touches P_4 . If u and b are defined as above, then Q_2 does not touch $P_4[u, b]$.

Proof. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that Q_2 touches $P_4[u, b]$. We define six special vertices v, y, z, w, x , and a , as shown in Figure 5.4(a):

- Vertex v is the first vertex on $Q_2 \cap P_4$. By assumption, v is on $P_4[u, b]$.
- If $Q_3[s_3, b]$ touches P_1 , then y is the last vertex in their intersection. Otherwise, $y = s_1$.
- If $Q_3[b, t_3]$ touches P_2 , then z is the first vertex in their intersection. Otherwise, $z = t_2$.
- Vertex w is the first vertex on $P_1[y, t_1]$ that is also on Q_1 .
- Vertex x is the last vertex on $P_2[s_2, z]$ that is also on Q_2 .
- Vertex a is the first vertex on $Q_3[y, t_3]$ that is also on P_4 .

Let $p_1 = P_1[w, t_1]$, $q_1 = Q_1[w, t_1]$, $p_2 = P_2[s_2, x]$, $q_2 = Q_2[s_2, x]$, $q_3 = Q_3[a, b]$, and $p_4 = P_4[a, b]$. Let $P'_1 = P_1 \setminus p_1 \cup q_1$, $Q'_1 = Q_1 \setminus q_1 \cup p_1$, $P'_2 = P_2 \setminus p_2 \cup q_2$, and $Q'_2 = Q_2 \setminus q_2 \cup p_2$. Let $P'_4 = L(P_4, P_4 \setminus p_4 \cup q_3)$ and $Q'_3 = U(Q_3, Q_3 \setminus q_3 \cup p_4)$. Finally, let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P'_1, P'_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, Q'_2, Q'_3, Q_4\}$.

$Q_1[u, t_1] \cup P_4$ separates $P_1 \setminus p_1$ from q_2 , and $Q_2[s_2, v] \cup P_4$ separates $P_2 \setminus p_2$ from q_1 . It follows that P'_1 and P'_2 are disjoint. Any vertex on both P'_1 and P'_4 must lie on q_1 , because $P'_4 \subset R_4$, but Q_3 separates q_1 from P'_4 . It follows that P'_1 and P'_4 are disjoint. A symmetric argument implies that P'_2 and P'_4 are disjoint. We conclude that the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

$Q_1[u, t_1] \cup P_4$ separates $Q_1 \setminus q_1$ from p_2 , and $Q_2[s_2, v] \cup P_4$ separates $Q_2 \setminus q_2$ from p_1 , so Q'_1 and Q'_2 are disjoint. The definition of w implies that $Q_3[s_3, b]$ does not meet p_1 , and

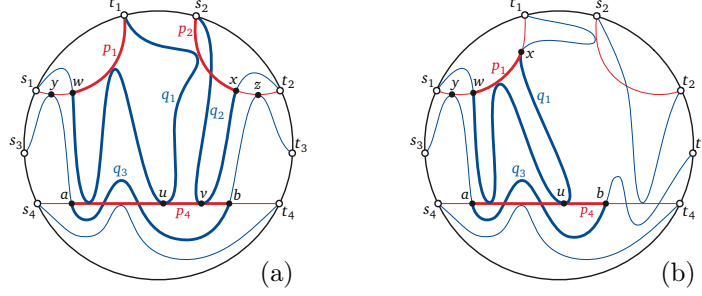


Figure 5.4: More impossible configurations, for the proofs of (a) Lemma 5.13 and (b) Lemma 5.15.

the Jordan Curve Theorem implies that $Q_3[b, t_3]$ does not meet p_1 . Thus, p_1 and Q_3 are disjoint, which implies that Q'_1 and Q_3 are disjoint. It follows that if Q'_1 and Q'_3 share a vertex c , we must have $c \in Q'_4 \setminus Q_3 \subseteq p_4$ and therefore $c \in Q_1 \setminus q_1$. But this is impossible, because $Q_3[s_3, y] \cup P_1[y, w] \cup Q_1[w, t_1]$ separates $Q_1 \setminus q_1$ from p_4 . A similar argument shows that Q'_2 is disjoint from Q'_3 . Finally, Q_3 separates Q'_3 from Q_4 . We conclude that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. One can show that $\ell(P'_4) + \ell(Q'_3) \leq \ell(P_4) + \ell(Q_3)$; for details, see Lemma 5.14. It follows that $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) \leq \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . QED.

Lemma 5.14. In the proof of Lemma 5.13, we have $\ell(P'_4) + \ell(Q'_3) \leq \ell(P_4) + \ell(Q_3)$.

Proof. Suppose e is an edge in P'_4 and $Q'_3 \setminus Q_3$. The edge e is strictly above Q_3 and on p_4 . Thus e is not in $P_4 \setminus p_4 \cup q_3$ and must be strictly below it. But Lemma 5.12 implies that $e \in p_4$ cannot be both strictly above Q_3 and strictly below $P_4 \setminus p_4 \cup q_3$. It follows that any edge in P'_4 and Q'_3 must be in Q_3 . A similar argument shows that any edge in P'_4 and Q'_3 must be in P_4 . It follows that $\ell(P'_4) + \ell(Q'_3) \leq \ell(P_4) + \ell(Q_3)$. QED.

Lemma 5.15. If Q_3 crosses P_4 and Q_1 touches P_4 , then some component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ touches both P_2 and P_4 .

Proof. Lemma 5.13 implies that Q_2 does not touch $P_4[u, b]$. Suppose for the sake of argument that no component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ touches both P_4 and P_2 . We define four special vertices y , w , x , and a , as shown in Figure 5.4(b):

- If $Q_3[s_3, b]$ touches P_1 , then y is the last vertex in their intersection. Otherwise, $y = s_1$.
- Vertex w is the first vertex on $P_1[y, t_1]$ that is also on Q_1 .
- Vertex x is the first vertex on $Q_1[u, t_1]$ that is also on P_1 .
- Vertex a is the first vertex on $Q_3[y, t_3]$ that is also on P_4 .

Let $p_1 = P_1[w, x]$, $q_1 = Q_1[w, x]$, $p_4 = P_4[a, b]$, and $q_3 = Q_3[a, b]$. Let $P'_1 = P_1 \setminus p_1 \cup q_1$ and $Q'_1 = Q_1 \setminus q_1 \cup p_1$. Define $P'_4 = L(P_4, P_4 \setminus p_4 \cup q_3)$ and $Q'_3 = U(Q_3, Q_3 \setminus q_3 \cup p_4)$. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P'_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, Q_2, Q'_3, Q_4\}$.

An argument similar to the proof of Lemma 5.13 shows that \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{Q}' are each sets of pairwise disjoint walks; see Lemma 5.16 for details. The same argument as Lemma 5.14 implies that $\ell(P'_4) + \ell(Q'_3) \leq \ell(P_4) + \ell(Q_3)$. As usual, it follows that $\ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}') \leq \ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q})$, contradicting the unique optimality of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . QED.

Lemma 5.16. In the proof of Lemma 5.15, \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{Q}' are each sets of disjoint walks.

Proof. By assumption, q_1 is disjoint from P_2 , so P'_1 is disjoint from P_2 . The same argument as in the proof of Lemma 5.13 shows that P'_1 is disjoint from P'_4 . Additionally, P_4 separates P_2 from P'_4 . It follows that the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

$P_1[x, t_1] \cup Q_1[x, u] \cup P_4$ separates p_1 from Q_2 , so Q'_1 is disjoint from Q_2 . Suppose for the sake of argument that Q'_1 and Q'_3 meet at c . The definition of y implies that $Q_3[s_3, b]$ does not meet p_1 , while the definition of x implies that $Q_3[b, t_3]$ does not meet p_1 . Thus, $c \in Q'_3$ implies $c \in p_4$, and $c \in Q'_1$ implies $c \in Q_1 \setminus q_1$. But $Q_1[x, t_1]$ doesn't meet p_4 by the definition of x , and $Q_3[s_3, y] \cup P_1[y, w] \cup Q_1[w, t_1]$ separates $Q_1[s_1, w]$ from p_4 , so we have a contradiction. By assumption, p_4 and Q_2 are disjoint, so Q_2 and Q'_3 are disjoint. Q_3 separates Q'_3 from Q_4 . We have shown that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. QED.

Lemma 5.17. If Q_3 crosses P_4 and Q_1 touches P_4 , then Q_2 does not touch P_4 .

Proof. Define a *far-reaching subpath* to be a component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ that touches both P_4 and P_2 or a component of $Q_2 \setminus R_2^\circ$ that touches both P_4 and P_1 . Lemma 5.15 says that some component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ is a far-reaching subpath. Symmetrically, if Q_2 were to touch P_4 , then some component of $Q_2 \setminus R_2$ would also be a far-reaching subpath, but the Jordan Curve Theorem implies that we cannot have both a far-reaching subpath of $Q_1 \setminus R_1$ and a far-reaching subpath of $Q_2 \setminus R_2$. It follows that Q_2 does not touch P_4 . QED.

Lemma 5.18. If Q_3 crosses P_4 and Q_1 touches P_4 , then $Q_2 \subset R_2$.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 5.9. By Lemma 5.15 and 5.17, there exists a component of $Q_1 \setminus R_1^\circ$ that touches both P_2 and P_4 , and Q_2 does not touch P_4 . We will show that $Q_2 \subset R_2$. As in the proof of Lemma 5.9, define S_1 to be the closed region bounded by $Q_1 \cup C_1$, define S_2 to be the closed region bounded by $Q_2 \cup C_2$, call each component of $S_1 \setminus R_1^\circ$ intersecting both P_1 and P_2 a *left finger*, and call each component of $S_2 \setminus R_2^\circ$ a *right finger*. Let f be the unique left finger that touches both P_2 and P_4 .

The proof of Lemma 5.9 shows that no left fingers exist after the last right finger, and no right fingers exist after the last left finger. Repeatedly applying this observation shows that no fingers exist except for the first finger f . Since no right fingers exist, Q_2 does not touch P_1 . Additionally, Q_2 does not touch P_4 , so Lemma 5.10 implies that $Q_2 \subset R_2$. QED.

Corollary 5.2. If Q_3 crosses P_4 , then either $Q_1 \subset R_1$ or $Q_2 \subset R_2$.

The proof of Theorem 5.1 is now complete.

5.3 SUBGRAPH SOLUTIONS

Our algorithm solves several parallel instances of k -min-sum inside certain subgraphs of G . To prove that our algorithm is correct, we need to argue that the subgraph solutions coincide exactly with portions of the desired global solution. As an intermediate step, we first show that the subgraph solutions interact with the global solution in a limited way. Unlike the structural results in the previous section, the following lemma applies to planar k -min-sum instances for *arbitrary* k .

Lemma 5.19. Let $(G, \{s_i, t_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq k\})$ be a planar instance of k -min-sum, with all terminals s_i and t_i on ∂G , whose unique solution is $\mathcal{Q} = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_k\}$. Let S be a subset of $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ such that the induced planar min-sum instance $(G, \{s_i, t_i \mid i \in S\})$ is parallel. Let H be a subgraph of G such that

- (1) $Q_i \cap H \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $i \in S$, and
- (2) for all distinct $i, j \in S$, no component of $Q_i \cap H$ separates components of $Q_j \cap H$ from each other in H .

For each index $i \in S$, let u_i and v_i be vertices of $Q_i \cap \partial H$ such that $Q_i[u_i, v_i] \subseteq H$. Finally, suppose $(H, \{u_i, v_i \mid i \in S\})$ is a parallel planar min-sum instance, whose unique solution is $\Pi = \{\pi_i \mid i \in S\}$. Then for all indices $i, j \in S$, if $i \neq j$, then π_i does not cross Q_j .

Proof. First we establish some notation and terminology. Let $\kappa = |S|$, and re-index the terminals so that $S = \{1, 2, \dots, \kappa\}$ and the counterclockwise order of terminals around the outer face of H is $u_1, \dots, u_\kappa, v_\kappa, \dots, v_1$. Fix an index i such that $1 \leq i < \kappa$, and consider the paths Q_i and π_{i+1} .

Let C (“ceiling”) denote the path in ∂G from s_i to t_i that does not contain s_{i+1} or t_{i+1} , and let A be the closed region bounded by C and Q_i . A point in G is *above* Q_i if it lies in $A \setminus Q_i$ and *below* Q_i if it does not lie in A .

Similarly, let F (“floor”) denote the path in ∂H from u_{i+1} to v_{i+1} that does not contain u_i or v_i , and let B be the closed region bounded by F and π_{i+1} . A point in H is *below* π_{i+1} if it lies in $B \setminus \pi_{i+1}$ and *above* π_{i+1} if it does not lie in B .

Paths Q_i and π_{i+1} also divide the interior of G into connected regions, exactly one of which has the entire path C on its boundary; call this region U . Finally, let Q'_i denote the unique path in G from s_i to t_i such that $C \cup Q'_i$ is the boundary of U . Every point on Q'_i lies on or above Q_i , and our assumption (2) implies that every point in $Q'_i \cap H$ lies on or above π_{i+1} . Thus, intuitively, Q'_i is the “upper envelope” of Q_i and π_{i+1} . In particular, $Q'_i = Q_i$ if and only if Q_i and π_{i+1} are disjoint.

Similarly, paths Q_i and π_{i+1} divide the interior of H into closed connected regions, exactly one of which contains F on its boundary; call this region L . Let π'_{i+1} denote the unique path in H from u_{i+1} to v_{i+1} such that $D \cup \pi'_{i+1}$ is the boundary of L . Assumption (2) implies that every point on π'_{i+1} lies on or below both π_{i+1} and Q_i . Thus, intuitively, π'_{i+1} is the “lower envelope” of Q_i and π_{i+1} . In particular, $\pi'_{i+1} = \pi_{i+1}$ if and only if Q_i and π_{i+1} are disjoint.

Each component of $Q'_i \setminus Q_i$ is an open subpath of π_{i+1} that lies entirely above Q_i and therefore is not contained in π'_{i+1} . Similarly, every component of $\pi'_{i+1} \setminus \pi_{i+1}$ is an open subpath of $Q_i \cap H$ that lies entirely below π_{i+1} and therefore is not contained in Q'_i . It follows that $\ell(Q'_i) + \ell(\pi'_{i+1}) \leq \ell(Q_i) + \ell(\pi_{i+1})$.

Finally, let $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q'_1, \dots, Q'_{\kappa-1}, Q_\kappa, \dots, Q_k\}$ and $\Pi' = \{\pi_1, \pi'_2, \dots, \pi'_\kappa\}$; see Figure 5.1 for an example of our construction.

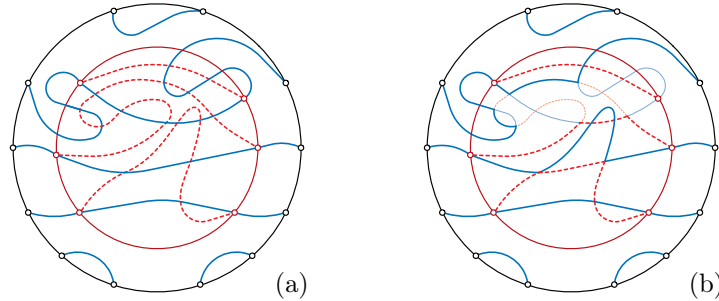


Figure 5.5: Proof of Lemma 5.19. The inner red circle is ∂H . (a) The original paths \mathcal{Q} (solid blue) and Π (dashed red). (b) The transformed paths \mathcal{Q}' (solid blue) and Π' (dashed red).

Now suppose for the sake of argument that Q_i crosses π_{i+1} for some index i , or equivalently, that $\mathcal{Q}' \neq \mathcal{Q}$ and $\Pi' \neq \Pi$. As usual, to derive a contradiction, we need to show that \mathcal{Q}' and Π' are sets of disjoint walks. The following case analysis implies that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise disjoint:

- None of the paths $Q_{\kappa+1}, \dots, Q_k$ intersect H . On the other hand, for all $i < \kappa$, $Q'_i \setminus Q_i$ is a subset of π_{i+1} and therefore lies in H . Trivially, $Q_{\kappa+1}, \dots, Q_k$ are disjoint from

Q_1, \dots, Q_κ . Thus, paths $Q'_1, \dots, Q'_{\kappa-1}, Q_\kappa$ are disjoint from paths $Q_{\kappa+1}, \dots, Q_k$.

- Q_κ lies entirely below $Q_{\kappa-1}$ and therefore entirely below $Q'_{\kappa-1}$.
- Now consider any point $x \in Q'_i$, for any index $1 \leq i < \kappa - 1$. Point x lies on or above Q_i (because every point in Q'_i lies on or above Q_i), and therefore lies above Q_{i+1} . So we must have $x \in \pi_{i+2}$ and therefore $x \in H$. But because $x \in Q'_i \cap H$, x lies either on or above π_{i+1} , and therefore lies above π_{i+2} . So x cannot lie on Q'_{i+1} . We conclude that Q'_i and Q'_{i+1} are disjoint.

Similar case analysis implies that the walks in Π' are pairwise disjoint:

- π_1 lies entirely above π_2 and therefore entirely above π'_2 .
- Now consider any point $x \in \pi'_{i+1}$, for any index $1 < i < \kappa$. Point x lies on or below Q_i , and therefore below Q_{i-1} . On the other hand, x lies on or below π_{i+1} , and therefore lies below π_i . So x cannot lie in π'_i . We conclude that π'_i and π'_{i+1} are disjoint.

The unique optimality of Π and \mathcal{Q} implies $\ell(\Pi) < \ell(\Pi')$ and $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. On the other hand, we immediately have

$$\ell(\Pi) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\pi_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} (\ell(Q_i) + \ell(\pi_{i+1})) + \sum_{i=\kappa}^k \ell(Q_i) \quad (5.1)$$

$$\leq \ell(\pi_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa-1} (\ell(Q'_i) + \ell(\pi'_{i+1})) + \sum_{i=\kappa}^k \ell(Q_i) \quad (5.2)$$

$$= \ell(\Pi') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}'), \quad (5.3)$$

giving us a contradiction.

We conclude that π_i does not cross Q_{i-1} for any index i . It follows immediately that π_i does not cross (in fact, does not *touch*) any Q_j such that $j < i - 1$. A symmetric argument implies that π_i does not cross any Q_j such that $j > i$. QED.

5.4 4-MIN-SUM ALGORITHM

Now we are finally ready to describe our algorithm for computing \mathcal{Q} given \mathcal{P} . By Theorem 5.1, we can assume without loss of generality that $Q_2 \subset R_2$. We define five **anchor vertices** as follows; see Figure 5.6.

- If Q_1 meets P_2 , then a is the first vertex of Q_1 that is also on P_2 , and b is the first vertex in the suffix $P_2(a, t_2]$ that is also on Q_2 ; otherwise, $a = t_1$ and $b = s_2$.

- If Q_3 meets P_2 , then c is the first vertex in their intersection; otherwise, $c = t_3$.
- If P_4 meets the prefix $Q_3[s_3, c)$, then d is the last vertex of P_4 in their intersection; otherwise, $d = s_4$.
- Finally, e is the first vertex of the suffix $P_4(d, t_4]$ that is also on Q_4 .

We also split each path Q_i into a prefix Q_i^s and a suffix Q_i^t that meet at a single vertex. Specifically, we split Q_1 at a , we split Q_2 at b , we split Q_3 at c , and we split Q_4 at e . Thus, for example, $Q_1^s = Q_1[s_1, a]$ and $Q_1^t = Q_1[a, t_1]$.

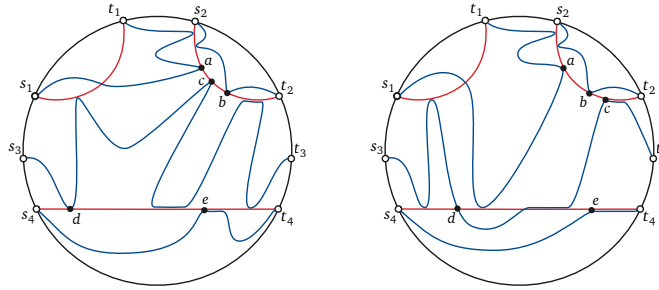


Figure 5.6: Anchor vertices a, b, c, d, e .

Now suppose we know the locations of the anchor vertices a, b, c, d , and e . (Our final k -min-sum algorithm actually enumerates all $O(n^5)$ possible locations for these vertices.) Our algorithm computes \mathcal{Q} in three phases; each phase solves a parallel instance of the k -min-sum problem (with $k = 2$ or $k = 3$) in a subgraph of G in $O(n)$ time, via minimum-cost flows. The subpaths of \mathcal{Q} computed in each phase are shown in Figure 5.7.

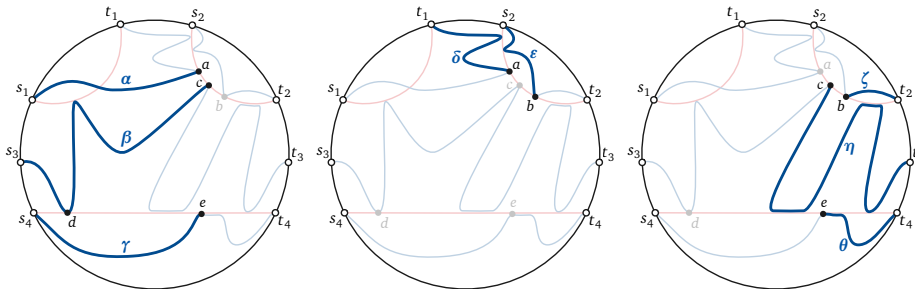


Figure 5.7: Subpaths of \mathcal{Q} computed by the three phases of our algorithm.

- Let H_1 be the subgraph of G obtained by deleting every vertex in R_2 except a and c , every edge incident to s_4 or e outside of R_4 , and every vertex of $P_4(d, t_4]$ except e . The first phase of our algorithm computes the shortest set of vertex-disjoint paths in H_1 from s_1 to a , from s_3 to c , and from s_4 to e . Call these paths α, β , and γ , respectively.

- If Q_1 and P_2 are disjoint, let $\delta = t_1$ and $\varepsilon = s_2$. Otherwise, let H_2 be the subgraph of G obtained by deleting every vertex of $P_2(a, t_2]$ except b , all edges incident to b that leave R_2 , and every vertex of α except a . The second phase of our algorithm computes the shortest vertex-disjoint paths in H_2 from t_1 to a and from s_2 to b . Call these paths δ and ε , respectively.
- Finally, let H_3 be the subgraph of G obtained by deleting all vertices in $\alpha \cdot \text{rev}(\delta)$, all vertices in $\beta[s_3, b)$, all vertices in $\gamma[s_4, e)$, and all vertices in $\varepsilon[s_2, b)$. The last phase of our algorithm computes the shortest vertex-disjoint paths in H_3 from b to t_2 , from c to t_3 , and from e to t_4 . Call these paths ζ , η , and θ , respectively.

Lemma 5.20. Q_3^t does not cross P_4 .

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 5.3. The lemma is obvious if $c = t_3$, so assume Q_3 touches P_2 .

Suppose Q_3^t crosses P_4 . Let q be any component of $Q_3^t \cap R_4$. The endpoints x and y of q must lie on P_4 ; let p denote the subpath $P_4[x, y]$. Define two new paths $Q'_3 = Q_3 \setminus q \cap p$ and $P'_4 = P_4 \setminus p \cup q$. Let $\mathcal{P}' = \{P_1, P_2, P'_4\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q_1, Q_2, Q'_3, Q_4\}$.

P_4 separates P_1 and P_2 from P'_4 , so the walks in \mathcal{P}' are pairwise vertex-disjoint. On the other hand, $Q_3^s \cup P_2$ separates Q_1 from p , and Q_2 does not touch $P_4 \supseteq p$. Furthermore, subpath p lies outside the disk enclosed by $P'_4 \cup C_4$, so by Lemma 5.6, Q_4 does not meet p . It follows that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are also pairwise vertex-disjoint.

The unique optimality of \mathcal{P} implies $\ell(\mathcal{P}) < \ell(\mathcal{P}')$, and the unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. But $\ell(\mathcal{P}) + \ell(\mathcal{Q}) = \ell(\mathcal{P}') + \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, so we have a contradiction. QED.

Lemma 5.21. $\alpha = Q_1^s$, $\beta = Q_3^s$, and $\gamma = Q_4^s$.

Proof. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \neq (Q_1^s, Q_3^s, Q_4^s)$, and define a new set of walks $\mathcal{Q}' := \{\alpha \circ Q_1^t, Q_2, \beta \circ Q_3^t, \gamma \circ Q_4^t\}$. The following exhaustive case analysis shows that the paths of \mathcal{Q}' are vertex-disjoint.

- Paths α , β , and γ are disjoint by definition.
- Similarly, Q_1^t, Q_2, Q_3^t, Q_4^t are subpaths of paths in \mathcal{Q} and thus are disjoint by definition.
- P_2 separates Q_2 from α , β , and γ .
- Lemma 5.19 implies that β and γ do not cross Q_1^s , and therefore do not touch Q_1^t .
- Lemma 5.19 also implies that α does not cross Q_3^s , and therefore does not touch Q_3^t .

- Lemma 5.19 also implies that α and β do not cross Q_4^s , and therefore do not touch Q_4^t .
- Finally, if $d = s_4$, then the definition of H_1 implies that γ does not leave R_4^s except at s_4 and e , so Lemma 5.20 implies that γ is disjoint from Q_3^t . If $d \neq s_4$, then Lemma 5.19 implies that γ does not cross $Q_3[s_3, d]$; on the other hand, Q_3^t does not meet $Q_3[s_3, d]$. The definition of H_1 implies that γ does not cross the path $P_4[d, t_4]$ and only meets it at d or e ; on the other hand, neither d nor e are on Q_3^t . Because $Q_3[s_3, d] \circ P_4[d, t_4]$ separates γ from Q_3^t , we conclude that Q_3^t and γ are disjoint.

Because the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are vertex-disjoint, the unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$. On the other hand, the lemmas in Section 5.2.2 and the definitions of the anchor vertices imply that Q_1^s , Q_3^s , and Q_4^s are indeed paths in H_1 between the appropriate terminals. Moreover, Q_1^s , Q_3^s , and Q_4^s are vertex-disjoint, because they are subpaths of the disjoint paths in \mathcal{Q} . Thus, the unique optimality of $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ implies that $\ell(\alpha) + \ell(\beta) + \ell(\gamma) < \ell(Q_1^s) + \ell(Q_3^s) + \ell(Q_4^s)$. It follows that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}') < \ell(\mathcal{Q})$, giving us the desired contradiction. QED.

Lemma 5.22. $rev(\delta) = Q_1^t$ and $\varepsilon = Q_2^s$.

Proof of Lemma 5.22. The lemma is obvious if Q_1 and P_2 are disjoint, so assume otherwise.

For the sake of argument, suppose $(rev(\delta), \varepsilon) \neq (Q_1^t, Q_2^s)$, and let $\mathcal{Q}' = \{Q_1^s \circ rev(\delta), \varepsilon \circ Q_2^t, Q_3, Q_4\}$. The following exhaustive case analysis implies that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise disjoint.

- δ and ε are disjoint by definition.
- Q_1^s , Q_2^t , Q_3 , and Q_4 are disjoint by definition of \mathcal{Q} .
- Lemma 5.19 implies that δ does not cross Q_2^s , and therefore does not touch Q_2^t .
- The path $\alpha \circ P_2[a, t_2]$ separates δ and ε from Q_3 and therefore from Q_4 .
- Lemma 5.21 implies that $Q_1^s \cap V(H_2) = \{a\}$. It follows that ε does not touch Q_1^s .

The unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} now implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$.

On the other hand, the lemmas in Section 5.2.2 and the definitions of the anchor vertices imply that Q_1^t and Q_2^s are vertex-disjoint paths in H_2 between the appropriate terminals. Thus, the unique optimality of $\{\delta, \varepsilon\}$ implies that $\ell(Q_1^t) + \ell(Q_2^s) > \ell(\delta) + \ell(\varepsilon)$, and therefore $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) > \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, giving us the desired contradiction. QED.

Lemma 5.23. $\zeta = Q_2^t$, $\eta = Q_3^t$, and $\theta = Q_4^t$.

Proof of Lemma 5.23. Suppose, for the sake of argument, that $(\zeta, \eta, \theta) \neq (Q_2^t, Q_3^t, Q_4^t)$, and let $\mathcal{Q}' := \{Q_1, Q_2^s \circ \zeta, Q_3^s \circ \eta, Q_4^s \circ \theta\}$. As usual, exhaustive case analysis implies that the walks in \mathcal{Q}' are pairwise disjoint. Several cases rely on Lemmas 5.21 and 5.22, which imply that $\alpha \circ \text{rev}(\delta) = Q_1$, $\beta = Q_3^s$, $\gamma = Q_4^s$, and $\varepsilon = Q_2^s$.

- ζ, η , and θ are disjoint by definition.
- Q_1, Q_2^s, Q_3^s , and Q_4^s are disjoint by definition of \mathcal{Q} .
- Q_1 is disjoint from H_3 and thus disjoint from ζ, η , and θ .
- $Q_2^s \cap H_3 = \{b\}$, so Q_2^s is disjoint from η and θ .
- $Q_3^s \cap H_3 = \{c\}$, so Q_3^s is disjoint from ζ and θ .
- $Q_4^s \cap H_3 = \{e\}$, so Q_4^s is disjoint from ζ and η .

The unique optimality of \mathcal{Q} now implies that $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) < \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$.

On the other hand, Q_2^t, Q_3^t , and Q_4^t are paths between appropriate terminals in H_3 . Thus, the unique optimality of $\{\zeta, \eta, \theta\}$ implies that $\ell(Q_2^t) + \ell(Q_3^t) + \ell(Q_4^t) > \ell(\zeta) + \ell(\eta) + \ell(\theta)$, and therefore $\ell(\mathcal{Q}) > \ell(\mathcal{Q}')$, giving us the desired contradiction. QED.

Finally, we describe our overall 4-min-sum algorithm. First, in a preprocessing phase, we compute \mathcal{P} using the algorithm of Kobayashi and Sommer [9]. Then for all possible choices for the anchor vertices a, b, c, d, e , we compute the paths $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta$ as described above, first under the assumption that $Q_2 \subset R_2$, and then under the symmetric assumption that $Q_1 \subset R_1$ (mirroring the definitions of the anchor vertices and the paths). The previous lemmas imply that for the correct choice of anchor vertices, and the correct assumption $Q_1 \subset R_1$ or $Q_2 \subset R_2$, the resulting walks $Q_1 = \alpha \circ \text{rev}(\delta)$, $Q_2 = \varepsilon \circ \zeta$, $Q_3 = \beta \circ \eta$, and $Q_4 = \gamma \circ \theta$ comprise the optimal solution for the given instance of the 4-min-sum problem.

Altogether, our algorithm solves $O(n^5)$ parallel instances of 2-min-sum and 3-min-sum, each in $O(n)$ time, via minimum-cost flows. Thus, the overall running time of our algorithm is $O(n^6)$.

5.5 EXTENSION OF 4-MIN-SUM ALGORITHM

Here we briefly describe how to extend the algorithm to instances where the cyclic order of the terminals is $s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, t_3, \dots, t_k, s_k, \dots, s_3$. In this case, Lemma 5.1 becomes

Lemma 5.24. Let $P_1, \dots, P_\ell, P_{\ell+2}, \dots, P_k$ be the solution to the $(k-1)$ -min-sum instance where we omit the terminal pair $s_{\ell+1}t_{\ell+1}$ and P_i connects s_i to t_i . Let Q_1, \dots, Q_k be the paths in the desired k -min-sum solution, where Q_i connects s_i to t_i . For all $i \neq 3$, the path P_i divides G into two regions; let R_i be the region containing neither s_3 nor t_3 .

- If Q_i crosses P_j , then either $i = j = 1$, or $i = j = 2$, or $i = 3$ and $j = 4$.
- Either $Q_1 \subset R_1$ or $Q_2 \subset R_2$ or both. Furthermore, $Q_i \subset R_i$ for $i \geq 4$.

Instead of defining five anchor vertices, we need to define $2k - 3$ anchor vertices. If we assume the anchor vertices are known, then solving the k -min-sum problem reduces to solving two parallel instances of the $(k-1)$ -min-sum problem and one parallel instance of 2-min-sum. Each of these instances can be solved in $O(kn)$ time. Since we need to try all possible sets of anchor vertices, the resulting algorithm runs in kn^{2k-2} time.

5.6 K-APPROXIMATION ALGORITHM

In this section we describe a k -approximation of the k -min-sum problem when all terminals are on a common face. That is, the algorithm computes a set of pairwise vertex-disjoint paths whose combined length is within a factor k of optimal, assuming that a set of pairwise vertex-disjoint paths exists.

5.6.1 (2k-2)-approximation

First we describe a $(2k-2)$ -approximation algorithm based on linear programming; later we will show how to modify the algorithm to get a k -approximation. We treat G as a directed graph by replacing each edge $\{u, v\}$ with the arcs (u, v) and (v, u) ; we assume that (u, v) and (v, u) are embedded together. The k -min-sum problem is a special case of the minimum-cost multicommodity flow problem. Thus for each $i \in [k]$ and arc $(u, v) \in E(G)$, we construct variables $x_i(v, u)$ and $x_i(u, v)$, representing the flow for the i -th commodity through (v, u) and (u, v) , respectively. We have the following integer program \mathcal{I} for the k -min-sum problem:

$$\min \sum_{i \in [k], e \in E(G)} x_i(u, v) \ell(e) \tag{5.4}$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{i \in [k], (u, v) \in E(G)} x_i(u, v) \leq 1 \quad \forall v \in V(G) \tag{5.5}$$

$$\sum_{i \in [k], (v,w) \in E(G)} x_i(v,w) \leq 1 \quad \forall v \in V(G) \quad (5.6)$$

$$\sum_{(u,v) \in E(G)} x_i(u,v) = \sum_{(v,w) \in E(G)} x_i(v,w) \quad \forall i \in [k], v \in V(G) \setminus \{s_i, t_i\} \quad (5.7)$$

$$1 + \sum_{(u,s_i) \in E(G)} x_i(u,s_i) = \sum_{(s_i,w) \in E(G)} x_i(s_i,w) \quad \forall i \in [k] \quad (5.8)$$

$$\sum_{(u,t_i) \in E(G)} x_i(u,t_i) = 1 + \sum_{(t_i,w) \in E(G)} x_i(t_i,w) \quad \forall i \in [k] \quad (5.9)$$

$$x_i(u,v) \in \{0,1\} \quad \forall i \in [k]; \forall u,v \in V(G) \quad (5.10)$$

Note that in any solution to \mathcal{I} , constraint (5.10) forces the left side of constraint (5.8) to be at least 1, so the right side of (5.4) is at least 1. Constraint (5.6) then implies that the right side of (5.8) is exactly 1; furthermore, for any $i \in [k]$, commodity i has unit flow exiting s_i , and no other commodities have flow exiting s_i . Constraints (5.7) and (5.8) then imply that for any $i \in [k]$, no commodity has flow entering s_i . A symmetric argument shows that for any solution to \mathcal{I} and for any $i \in [k]$, commodity i is the only commodity with flow entering t_i , and no commodity has flow exiting t_i . In other words, the flow for any single commodity does not enter any of the terminals for any other commodity.

We define the linear program relaxation \mathcal{L} by replacing the constraints $x_i(u,v) \in \{0,1\}$ in \mathcal{I} with constraints $0 \leq x_i(u,v) \leq 1$. The program \mathcal{L} has $O(kn^2)$ variables and $O(kn^2)$ constraints, so we can solve \mathcal{L} in polynomial time using, say, the ellipsoid algorithm of Khachiyan [71]. If \mathcal{L} is infeasible, then the original instance G of the k -min-sum problem did not have a solution. Otherwise, let \mathbf{x} be the assignment of values to the variables in the solution to \mathcal{L} , and let ℓ^* be the optimal value of the objective function of \mathcal{L} .

For each $i \in [k]$, the variables $x_i(u,v)$ form a flow f_i of value 1 from s_i to t_i . By the flow decomposition theorem, we can in polynomial time decompose this flow into a set \mathcal{P}_i of flows such that the flows in \mathcal{P}_i sum to f_i and the support of each flow in \mathcal{P}_i is either a cycle or a path from s_i to t_i . In fact, we may assume without loss of generality that the support of each flow in \mathcal{P}_i is a path and that all of these paths are pairwise noncrossing.

For each $i \in [k]$, we now have a set \mathcal{P}_i of flow-paths whose values sum to 1. Furthermore, for each vertex v , the sum of the flow-values through v is at most 1. The rest of the algorithm finds a way to round the flow-path values such that the resulting objective function has value at most $(2k-2)\ell^*$. This suffices for a $(2k-2)$ -approximation because ℓ^* is at most the optimal value of the objective function of \mathcal{I} . To distinguish between the values of flow-paths and the value of the objective function, we will call the value of a flow-path p its *weight* and denote it by $w(p)$.

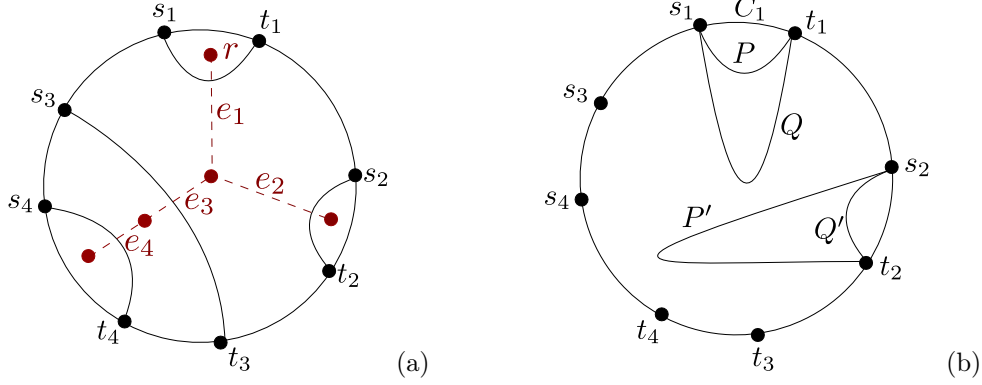


Figure 5.8: (a) A possible re-indexing of the terminal pairs after rooting the demand tree at r . The dashed red graph is T and the solid black graph is $G_D \cup \partial G$. Edges e_1, \dots, e_4 are in T . (b) An example where P is above Q , and P' is above Q' . Here C_2 is the portion of ∂G from s_2 to t_2 containing all other terminals.

Pick an arbitrary leaf r in the demand tree T and root T at r . Now re-index the terminal pairs such that if (s_i, t_i) is an ancestor of (s_j, t_j) , then $i < j$. Note that e_1 is now the unique edge in T that is incident to r . See Figure 5.8(a).

We let C_1 be the portion of the boundary between s_1 and t_1 and containing no other terminals, and for all $i > 1$, we let C_i be the portion of the boundary between s_i and t_i containing C_1 . Given two distinct paths P, Q , both with endpoints s_i and t_i on ∂G , we say that P is *above* Q if P lies completely on or inside $C_i \circ Q$. See Figure 5.8(b).

For each pair (s_i, t_i) , we partition the set of flow-paths \mathcal{P}_i into $2k - 2$ parts $\mathcal{P}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathcal{P}_{i,2k-2}$ of equal weight (i.e., each part is made up of flow-paths of total weight $1/(2k - 2)$), such that for all $j \in [2k - 3]$, the paths in $\mathcal{P}_{i,j}$ are all on or above the paths in $\mathcal{P}_{i,j+1}$. In order to do this, we may need to split a flow-path p of weight α into two flow-paths with the same support as p and combined weight α . See Figure 5.9(a) for an example of a partition where no splitting of paths is required. Then, for each pair (s_i, t_i) , we pick the shortest path Q_i in $\mathcal{P}_{i,k+i-2}$. Finally, return \mathcal{Q}_a , the set of picked paths. See Figure 5.9(b).

This completes the description of the algorithm. To show that the algorithm is correct, we need to show that the paths in \mathcal{Q}_a have combined length at most $(2k - 2)\ell^*$, and that the paths in \mathcal{Q}_a are pairwise vertex-disjoint.

Lemma 5.25.

$$\sum_{i \in [k], e \in \mathcal{Q}_a} x_i(u, v) \ell(e) \leq (2k - 2)\ell^* \quad (5.11)$$

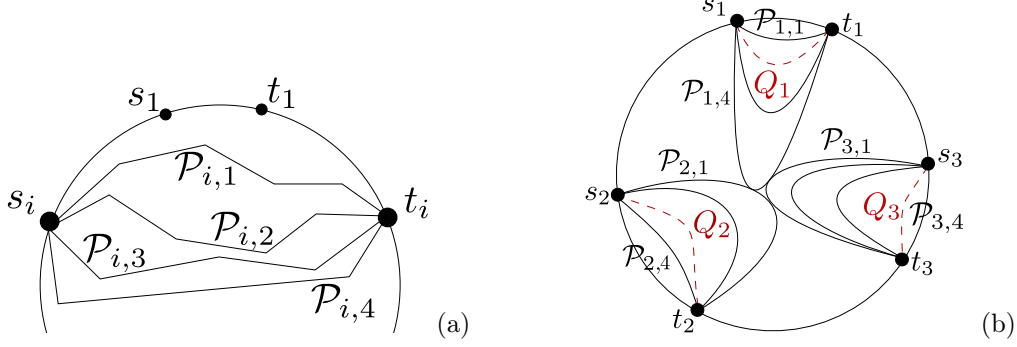


Figure 5.9: (a) Example of $\mathcal{P}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathcal{P}_{i,4}$ if $k = 3$ and \mathcal{P}_i is made up of four pairwise vertex-disjoint paths, each of weight $1/4$. (b) Example where $k = 3$ and $\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2$, and \mathcal{P}_3 are each made up of four paths of equal weight. The algorithm returns the dashed red paths Q_1, Q_2 , and Q_3 . Note that $\mathcal{P}_{3,4} = \{Q_3\}$.

Proof. We have

$$\ell(Q_i) = (2k - 2) \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_{i,k+i-2}} w(p) \ell(Q_i) \quad (5.12)$$

$$\leq (2k - 2) \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_{i,k+i-2}} w(p) \ell(p) \quad (5.13)$$

$$\leq (2k - 2) \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_i} w(p) \ell(p) \quad (5.14)$$

(Note that for the last inequality we use the fact that edges in G have non-negative length.)

This implies

$$\sum_{i \in [k], e \in \mathcal{Q}_a} x_i(u, v) \ell(e) = \sum_{i \in [k]} \ell(Q_i) \leq (2k - 2) \sum_{i \in [k]} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_i} w(p) \ell(p) = (2k - 2) \ell^*. \quad (5.15)$$

QED.

This shows that the sum of the lengths of the paths of \mathcal{Q}_a is within a factor $2k - 2$ of optimal.

Lemma 5.26. The paths in \mathcal{Q}_a are vertex-disjoint.

Proof. Suppose for the sake of argument that $i < j$ and picked paths Q_i and Q_j intersect at vertex v . It suffices to consider the cases where (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) are adjacent, because if paths connecting adjacent terminal pairs are vertex-disjoint, then all paths are pairwise vertex-disjoint. That is, it suffices to consider the cases where (s_i, t_i) is a parent of (s_j, t_j) and where (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) have a common parent. In Figure 5.9(b), (s_1, t_1) is a parent

of (s_2, t_2) , while (s_2, t_2) and (s_3, t_3) have a common parent. The need to balance these two cases is where the $2k - 2$ comes from.

Suppose (s_i, t_i) is a parent of (s_j, t_j) , so that $i < j$. In \mathcal{P}_i , all of the flow-paths below Q_i also go through v . Similarly, in \mathcal{P}_j , all of the flow-paths above Q_j also go through v . Thus we know that in \mathcal{P}_i , flow-paths of combined weight strictly more than $(k - i)/(2k - 2)$ go through v , and in \mathcal{P}_j , flow-paths of combined weight strictly more than $(k + j - 3)/(2k - 2)$ go through v . Thus under \mathcal{P}_i and \mathcal{P}_j , the sum of the weights of the flow-paths going through v is strictly greater than $((k - i) + (k + j - 3))/(2k - 2) \geq 1$, which is impossible. See Figure 5.9(b), where the paths in $\mathcal{P}_{1,3}, \mathcal{P}_{1,4}, \mathcal{P}_{2,1}$, and $\mathcal{P}_{2,2}$ have combined weight 1, so red paths Q_1 and Q_2 must be vertex-disjoint.

Now suppose (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) have a common parent. Since $i, j > 1$, we have $i + j \geq 4$. In \mathcal{P}_i , all of the flow-paths above Q_i also go through v . Similarly, in \mathcal{P}_j , all of the flow-paths above Q_j also go through v . Thus we know that in \mathcal{P}_i , flow-paths of combined weight strictly more than $(k + i - 3)/(2k - 2)$ go through v , and in \mathcal{P}_j , flow-paths of combined weight strictly more than $(k + j - 3)/(2k - 2)$ go through v . Thus under \mathcal{P}_i and \mathcal{P}_j , the sum of the weights of the flow-paths going through v is strictly greater than $((k + i - 3) + (k + j - 3))/(2k - 2) \geq 1$, which is impossible. See Figure 5.9(b), where the paths in $\mathcal{P}_{2,2}, \mathcal{P}_{2,1}, \mathcal{P}_{3,1}, \mathcal{P}_{3,2}$, and $\mathcal{P}_{3,2}$ have combined weight greater than 1, so the red paths Q_2 and Q_3 must be vertex-disjoint. QED.

This completes the proof of correctness for the $(2k - 2)$ -approximation.

5.6.2 k -approximation

To turn the $(2k - 2)$ -approximation algorithm into a k -approximation algorithm, note that we can modify the $(2k - 2)$ -approximation to give us a $(2d - 2)$ -approximation, where d is the height of the demand tree T . Solve the linear program relaxation and arbitrarily root T . For each pair (s_i, t_i) , let $h(i)$ be the number of edges in the path from e_i to the root in the T . That is, $h(1) = 1$, and for each child e_j of e_i we have $h(j) = h(i) + 1$. Note that $h(i) \leq d$ for all $i \in [k]$.

Now instead of partitioning the set of flow-paths \mathcal{P}_i into $2k - 2$ parts $\mathcal{P}_{i,1}, \dots, \mathcal{P}_{i,2k-2}$ of equal weight, we partition it into $2d - 2$ parts of equal weight. Likewise, for each pair (s_i, t_i) , instead of picking the shortest path in $\mathcal{P}_{i,k+i-2}$, we pick the shortest path in $\mathcal{P}_{i,d+h(i)-2}$. These are the only changes to the algorithm. The result is a $(2d - 2)$ -approximation algorithm. The proof of correctness is almost the same as that of the $(2k - 2)$ -approximation and is omitted.

Now we use the $(2d - 2)$ -approximation to get a k -approximation as follows. The demand

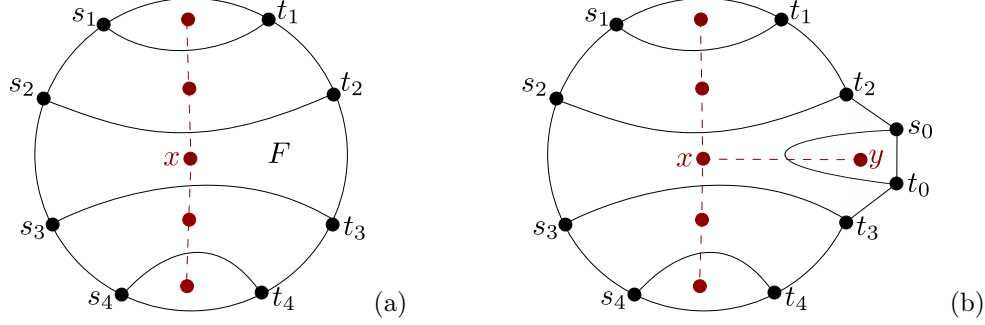


Figure 5.10: An example where x is not a leaf. (a) The solid black graph is $G_D \cup \partial G$, and the dashed red graph is T (b) The solid black graph is $H_D \cup \partial H$, and the dashed red graph is T_H . Here $u = t_2$ and $v = t_3$. Edges $\{t_2, s_0\}$ and $\{t_0, t_3\}$ have infinite length, and edge $\{s_0, t_0\}$ has zero length.

tree T consists of k edges. If T is a path, then G is a parallel instance and can be solved exactly using min-cost flow, as described in Section 5.1. Otherwise, there is some vertex x in T that is within $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor$ hops of every other vertex in T .

If x is a leaf in T , then we can root T at x and apply the $(2d - 2)$ -approximation. Since $d \leq k/2$, the $(2d - 2)$ -approximation is a $(k - 2)$ -approximation.

If x is not a leaf, then we first construct a graph H by adding vertices and edges to G as well as a terminal pair, as follows. The tree vertex x corresponds to a face F in $G_D \cup \partial G$, where G_D is the demand graph. Since x is not a leaf, F is incident to at least four terminals. See Figure 5.10(a). Let u and v be two terminals that are incident to F , appear consecutively in the cyclic order of the terminals on ∂G , and are not part of the same terminal pair. We add a new pair of terminals (s_0, t_0) , embedding both terminals in the infinite face of G . Furthermore, we add an edge $\{u, s_0\}$ of infinite length, an edge $\{s_0, t_0\}$ of length 0, and an edge $\{t_0, v\}$ of infinite length. The resulting graph H is a planar instance of the $(k + 1)$ -min-sum problem where all terminals are on ∂H . See Figure 5.10(b). (Strictly speaking, the construction of H is not necessary, but it allows us to directly apply the $(2d - 2)$ -approximation.)

Let T_H be the demand tree corresponding to H , and let y be the unique leaf of T_H incident to the edge of T_H that corresponds to (s_0, t_0) . If we root T_H at y , then T_H has height $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor + 1$. Applying the $(2d - 2)$ -approximation algorithm to H then gives us a k -approximation for H . Note that both the optimal solution to H and the solution given by the k -approximation for H use the zero-length edge $\{s_0, t_0\}$ to connect s_0 to t_0 , and this edge is vertex-disjoint from G . Thus the k -approximation for H also gives us a k -approximation for G .

5.7 OPEN PROBLEMS

Obviously we would like to extend our 4-min-sum algorithm to more terminal pairs and more general arrangements of the terminals on the outer face. However, this seems to be difficult. A potentially more promising idea is to improve the approximation ratio of our approximation algorithm. We have described a k -approximation algorithm for the k -min-sum vertex-disjoint paths problem when all terminals are on a common face. For the most part, the algorithm is based on solving a linear program relaxation and then rounding the solution. We suspect that LP-based algorithms may actually lead to constant-factor approximations, perhaps even a 2-approximation. In this subsection, we give several pieces of circumstantial evidence for this.

Parallel instances. Assume that the optimal solution in the k -min-sum instance is unique. In this case, the problem reduces to a min-cost flow problem, as shown in Section 5.1. Solving this min-cost flow problem is in fact equivalent to solving the linear program relaxation that our approximation algorithm solves. Thus by omitting the rounding step our approximation algorithm solves parallel instances exactly. This is not a new result, since parallel instances can be solved faster using min-cost flow algorithms, but is an indication that LP-based algorithms can be useful for this problem.

Serial instances. We have already described a $(2d - 2)$ -approximation for k -min-sum; this is a 2-approximation for serial instances. Again, this is not a new result, since serial instances can be solved faster using the algorithm of Borradaile, Nayyeri, and Zafarani [62], but is an indication that LP-based algorithms can be useful for this problem.

Integrality gap. The integrality gap of a minimization problem is defined to be the ratio of the minimum of the integer program to the minimum of the linear program relaxation. Intuitively, a low integrality gap (i.e., a gap close to 1) means that the relaxation captures the original integer program well, so solving the relaxation gives a solution close to that of the original problem. We do not know what the integrality gap of \mathcal{I} is, but Figure 5.11 shows that it is at least $4/3$. On the other hand, we have been unable to come up with instances with higher gaps. Note that our k -approximation is a $3/2$ -approximation for this instance.

Conditional 2-approximation. Consider the following algorithm. First, we solve the linear program relaxation. For each $i \in [k]$, we now have a set \mathcal{P}_i of flow-paths whose values sum to 1. Each flow-path has a weight, and we round every weight to the nearest integer.

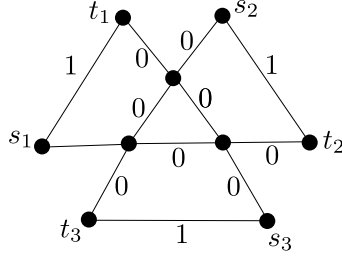


Figure 5.11: Our integrality gap instance. The optimal integer solution has value 2, while the optimal fractional solution has value $3/2$ (every edge has weight $1/2$)

Paths with weight exactly $1/2$ do not get their weights rounded. Call this half-integral solution \mathcal{H} . Note that for each vertex v , at most one path going through v gets its weight rounded up; furthermore, if a path going through v gets its weight rounded up, then all other paths going through v get their weights rounded down. It follows that at the end of the rounding procedure, the total weights of the paths going through v is still at most 1, and so there are at most two paths going through v . Furthermore, each pair $i \in [k]$ has at most two paths connecting s_i to t_i .

Pick an arbitrary leaf in the demand tree T and root T at this leaf. Re-index the terminal pairs such that (s_i, t_i) is the root in T . We let C_1 be the portion of ∂G between s_1 and t_1 and containing no other terminals, and for all $i > 1$, we let C_i be the portion of ∂G between s_i and t_i containing C_1 . Given two paths P and Q with endpoints s_i and t_i , we say that P is *lower than* Q if Q is inside $C_i \circ Q$. Recall that each pair $i \in [k]$ has at most two paths connecting s_i to t_i . For each i , we simply pick the lower of the two paths connecting s_i to t_i ; let Q_i be the picked path. If there is only one path connecting s_i to t_i , then we pick that path.

We claim that the picked paths are vertex-disjoint. Suppose Q_i and Q_j share a vertex v , where e_j is a parent of e_i in the demand tree. Then in the half-integral solution, there must have been paths of total weight $3/2$ going through v , which is impossible.

We also claim that if the algorithm computes a feasible solution, then the solution is a 2-approximation. In the first rounding step (where we obtain a half-integral solution), we at most double the weight on every path, and weight of every path with weight $1/2$ remains the same. In the second step (where we pick lower paths), we at most double the weight of paths with weight $1/2$, but all other path weights remain the same or decrease. As a result, throughout the algorithm, the weight of any path at most doubles. This shows that the value of the solution the algorithm computes is at most twice the minimum of the linear program relaxation.

The only potential problem with this algorithm is that one of the sets of paths \mathcal{P}_i may

contain more than two paths. Then in the rounding step, the algorithm may round the weights of all the paths in \mathcal{P}_i down. As a result, the solution returned by the algorithm will not have any paths connecting s_i to t_i . Curiously, though, we have been unable to construct instances in which for some i , \mathcal{P}_i must contain at least three paths, each with weight strictly less than $1/2$. We conjecture that no such instances exist. If we assume this conjecture holds and k -min-sum instances have unique solutions, then we have a 2-approximation for the k -min-sum problem when all terminals are on the outer face.

CHAPTER 6: ORIENTATION PROBLEMS

In this chapter, G is an undirected graph, and $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$ are k pairs of vertices (terminals) in G . We wish to find an orientation, an ideal orientation, or a k -min-sum orientation for G .

Ito et al. [72] suggest the following application of the orientation problem. Suppose we have to assign one-way restrictions to aisles in, say, an industrial factory, while maintaining reachability between several sites. This corresponds to the orientation problem. We may also want to maintain the distances of routes between the sites in order to keep transit time low and productivity high; this corresponds to the ideal orientation problem.

The orientation problem was first studied by Hassin and Megiddo [19], and they gave the following algorithm that works in general graphs. Without loss of generality, assume that G is connected. First, compute the bridges of G . (A bridge is an edge whose removal would disconnect G). For each i , pick an arbitrary path from s_i to t_i , and orient the bridges on this path in the direction that they appear on this path. If a bridge is forced to be oriented in both directions, then no orientation preserving reachability exists. Otherwise, such an orientation does exist: in the rest of G each component is a 2-connected component and can be oriented to be strongly connected, by Robbins' theorem [73].

By contrast, much less is known about the ideal orientation problem and generalizations like the k -min-sum orientation problem. Hassin and Megiddo showed that the ideal orientation problem is polynomially-time solvable when $k = 2$ but is NP-hard for general k . Eilam-Tzoref [12] extended Hassin and Megiddo's algorithm when $k = 2$ to find an ideal orientation minimizing the number of shared arcs in the paths realizing the distances in H . She also solved the generalization when $k = 2$ and we only require the shorter distance in H to be a distance in G . The complexity of the ideal orientation problem for fixed $k > 2$ remains open.

Fenner, Lachish, and Popa [11] considered the min-sum orientation problem in general graphs when $k = 2$. They give a PTAS and reduce the 2-min-sum orientation problem to the 2-min-sum edge-disjoint paths problem. (In the 2-min-sum edge-disjoint paths problem, we need to find edge-disjoint paths from s_1 to t_1 and from s_2 to t_2 of minimum total length.) It remains unknown whether the 2-min-sum orientation problem or the 2-min-sum edge-disjoint paths problem can be solved in polynomial time. However, for unweighted graphs, Bjorklund and Husfeldt showed that the 2-min-sum edge-disjoint paths problem can be solved in polynomial time [74].

Ito et al. [72] considered the k -min-sum and k -min-max orientation problems. They proved

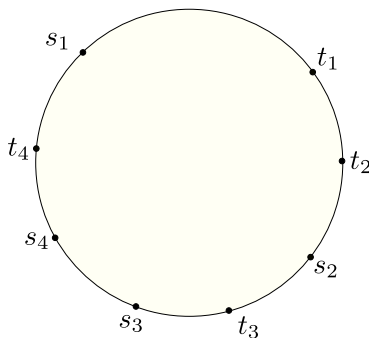


Figure 6.1: a serial instance where $k = 4$

that both problems are NP-hard in planar graphs, and that the k -min-sum orientation problem is solvable in $O(nk^2)$ time if G is a cactus graph and $O(n + k^2)$ time if G is a cycle. They showed that the k -min-max orientation problem is NP-hard in cacti, even when $k = 2$, but solvable in cycles in $O(n + k^2)$ time. For the k -min-max orientation problem, they also give a 2-approximation in cacti and a fully polynomial-time approximation scheme for fixed k in cacti. It remains an open question whether k -min-sum or k -min-max orientation problems can be solved or approximated in classes of graphs more general than cacti.

In this chapter we present four results, three of which deal with the ideal orientation problem and one of which deals with the k -min-sum problem. First, we solve the ideal orientation problem for *serial* instances, even if k is part of the input. An instance of any orientation problem is *serial* if the terminals are all on a single face in cyclic order $u_1, v_1, \dots, u_k, v_k$, where for each i we have either $(u_i, v_i) = (s_i, t_i)$ or $(u_i, v_i) = (t_i, s_i)$. See Figure 6.1. The algorithm is simple and relies on the fact that we can assume that the paths realizing the s_i -to- t_i distances are pairwise noncrossing.

Theorem 6.1. We can solve any serial instance of the ideal orientation problem in $O(n \log n)$ time.

The algorithm uses Klein’s algorithm for finding multiple-source shortest paths [75], which computes an implicit representation of the solution. If an explicit orientation is desired, then a solution takes $O(n^2)$ time to compute.

Second, we solve the ideal orientation problem in planar graphs for a fixed number of terminals when all terminals are on a single face and no terminal pairs cross. Two pairs of terminals (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) cross if all four terminals are on a common face and the cyclic order of the terminals is s_i, s_j, t_i, t_j . The algorithm relies on an algorithm of Schrijver that finds partially vertex-disjoint paths in directed planar graphs [34].

Theorem 6.2. If k is fixed and all terminals are on the outer face and no terminals cross, then we can solve the ideal orientation problem in polynomial time.

The restriction that the terminals be noncrossing may seem arbitrary, but can be motivated in the following way. Recall that the demand graph G_D is the graph with the same vertices as G but with an edge $\{s_i, t_i\}$ for each i . Define $G + G_D$ to be the graph with the same vertices as G (or G_D) and whose edge set is $E(G) \cup E(G_D)$. The case of noncrossing terminals is then exactly the case where $G + G_D$ is planar.

Third, we show that the ideal orientation problem is NP-hard in planar graphs. The reduction is from planar 3-SAT and is inspired by reductions by Middendorf and Pfeiffer [8] and by Eilam-Tzoref [12], who showed that finding disjoint paths and disjoint shortest paths are NP-hard in planar graphs. Since the min-sum, min-max, and min-min orientation problem are all generalizations of the ideal orientation problem, this reduction shows that the min-sum, min-max, and min-min problems are also NP-hard. This is stronger than Ito et al.'s result because the ideal orientation problem is a special case of the k -min-sum orientation problem.

Theorem 6.3. If k is part of the input, then the ideal orientation problem is NP-hard in unweighted planar graphs.

Fourth, we solve the k -min-sum orientation problem for serial instances. To do this, we classify each terminal pair as clockwise or counterclockwise, and we break up the instance into two sub-instances, one of which consists only of clockwise pairs and the other of which consists only of counterclockwise pairs. It turns out that solving each sub-instance reduces to solving serial instances of a shortest vertex-disjoint paths problem, which can be done using an algorithm of Borradaile, Nayyeri, and Zafarani [62]. Finally, after solving the two sub-instances independently, we show that the two sub-solutions can be easily combined to solve the original instance.

Theorem 6.4. Any serial instance of the k -min-sum orientation problem can be solved in $O(kn^5)$ time.

Our algorithms search for pairwise nonconflicting directed walks that are shortest paths connecting corresponding terminals, rather than explicitly seeking simple paths. Because all edge lengths are positive, the set of shortest walks will end up consisting of simple paths. Note that given a directed walk P that conflicts with itself, we can repeatedly remove directed cycles from P to obtain a simple directed path P' such that P' has the same starting and ending vertices as P , P' is no longer than P , and P' does not conflict with itself. Thus we do not have to worry about directed walks conflicting with themselves.

We assume without loss of generality that the paths in any solution do not use edges on the outer face. If necessary to enforce this assumption, we can connect the terminals using

an outer cycle of $2k$ infinite-weight edges. We also assume that the $2k$ terminals are all distinct. (If two terminals, say s_i and s_j , are not distinct, then we add new terminals s'_i and s'_j that will be terminals instead of s_i and s_j , respectively, and we add new arcs $s'_i s_i$ and $s'_j s_j$. If s_i and s_j were on a common face then we can ensure s'_i and s'_j still are.)

This chapter is organized as follows. In section 6.1, we prove various structural results. In section 6.2 we prove Theorem 6.1, in section 6.3 we prove Theorem 6.2, in section 6.4 we prove Theorem 6.3, and in section 6.5 we prove Theorem 6.4.

6.1 STRUCTURE

Let a, b, c , and d be four vertices on the outer face of G . Let P be a directed walk from a to b and let Q be a directed walk from c to d . Walks P and Q are *opposite* if the cyclic order of their four endpoints around ∂G is a, b, c, d . P and Q are *parallel* if the order is a, b, d, c , and we denote this by $P \sim Q$. We define each path to be parallel to itself. Note that if P is parallel to Q , then Q is parallel to P . We have the following two lemmas.

Lemma 6.1. Suppose G has positive edge weights, and suppose P and Q are opposite nonconflicting shortest paths. If a vertex x precedes a vertex y on P , then x does not precede y in Q . In particular, P and Q are edge-disjoint.

Proof. Suppose for the sake of argument that P and Q are opposite nonconflicting shortest paths, and vertex x precedes vertex y on both P and Q . By the Jordan curve theorem, there exists a vertex z on $P \cap Q$ such that either z precedes x on Q and y precedes z on P , or y precedes z on Q and z precedes x on P . Suppose the first case holds. See Figure 5.1a. Since P and Q are shortest paths, we have

$$\ell(P[z, x]) = \ell(Q[x, z]) = \ell(Q[x, y]) + \ell(Q[y, z]) \quad (6.1)$$

$$\text{and } \ell(P[z, x]) + \ell(P[x, y]) = \ell(P[z, y]) = \ell(Q[y, z]). \quad (6.2)$$

This is impossible because $\ell(P[x, y]) = \ell(Q[x, y]) > 0$.

Now suppose the second case holds. See Figure 5.1b. Similar to the first case, we have

$$\ell(P[y, z]) = \ell(Q[z, y]) = \ell(Q[z, x]) + \ell(Q[x, y]) \quad (6.3)$$

$$\text{and } \ell(P[x, y]) + \ell(P[y, z]) = \ell(P[x, z]) = \ell(Q[z, x]), \quad (6.4)$$

which is impossible because $\ell(Q[x, y]) = \ell(P[x, y]) > 0$.

QED.

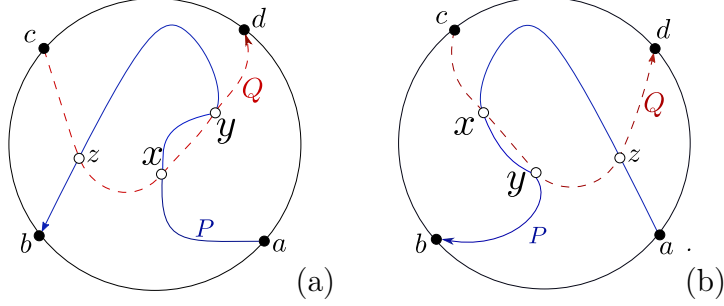


Figure 6.2: Impossible configurations in the proof of Lemma 6.1. The solid blue path is P and the dashed red path is Q (a) $z \prec_Q x$ and $y \prec_P z$ (b) $z \prec_P x$ and $y \prec_Q z$

Lemma 6.2. Suppose G has positive edge weights, and suppose P and Q are parallel shortest paths. If a vertex x precedes a vertex y in P , then y does not precede x in Q . In particular, P and Q do not conflict.

Proof. This is just Lemma 6.1 with Q replaced by $\text{rev}(Q)$. QED.

This lemma immediately suggests an algorithm for a special case of the ideal orientation problem. Suppose G is an instance where the terminals all appear on the outer face in clockwise order $s_1, \dots, s_k, t_k, \dots, t_1$. Lemma 6.2 implies that the shortest paths from s_i to t_i are nonconflicting, so we just need to find a shortest path from s_i to t_i for all i . Steiger [76] showed how to find a representation of these paths in $O(n \log \log k)$ time.

The following two lemmas are trivial when shortest paths are unique. In the ideal orientation problem, we cannot assume that shortest paths are unique because then the problem becomes trivial: just find the (unique) shortest paths and check if they conflict.

Lemma 6.3. Let G be any planar instance of the ideal orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If a solution \mathcal{P} exists, then a solution \mathcal{P}' exists in which for every pair of parallel paths P_i and P_j in \mathcal{P} , P_i and P_j are noncrossing.

Proof. This was proved by Liang and Lu [77]. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be a solution to the ideal orientation problem.

Suppose P_i and P_j are parallel paths that cross each other. Let x be the first vertex of P_i on P_j and let y be the last. see Figure 6.3.

Now we construct two alternate solutions \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{P}'' to the ideal orientation problem. To construct \mathcal{P}' , we exchange $P_i[x, y]$ for $P_j[x, y]$. In other words, let $P'_i = P_i[s_i, x] \circ P_j[x, y] \circ P_i[y, t_i]$, and let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus \{P_i\} \cup \{P'_i\}$. Since $P_i[x, y]$ and $P_j[x, y]$ are shortest paths, P'_i is still a shortest path connecting s_i to t_i . Since P'_i only uses arcs in P_i and P_j , P'_i does not conflict with any other path in \mathcal{P}' . Thus \mathcal{P}' is another set of k nonconflicting shortest paths. Furthermore, paths P'_j and P'_i are noncrossing.

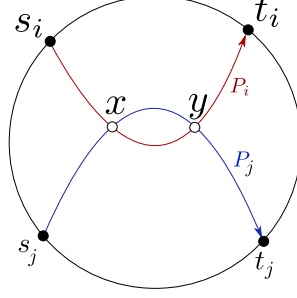


Figure 6.3: Uncrossing P_i and P_j : replace P_i with $P_i[s_i, x] \circ P_j[x, y] \circ P_i[y, t_i]$ or replace P_j with $P_j[s_j, x] \circ P_i[x, y] \circ P_j[y, t_j]$

To construct \mathcal{P}'' , we exchange $P_j[x, y]$ for $P_i[x, y]$. In other words, let $P_j'' = P_j[s_j, x] \circ P_i[x, y] \circ P_j[y, t_j]$, and let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus \{P_j\} \cup \{P_j''\}$. Since $P_i[x, y]$ and $P_j[x, y]$ are shortest paths, P_j'' is still a shortest path connecting s_j to t_j . Since P_i'' only uses arcs in P_i and P_j , P_i'' does not conflict with any other path in \mathcal{P}'' . Thus \mathcal{P}'' is another set of k nonconflicting shortest paths. Furthermore, paths P_j'' and P_i'' are noncrossing.

Let $\text{cr}(\mathcal{P})$ be the number of pairs of paths in \mathcal{P} that cross each other. We have

$$2\text{cr}(\mathcal{P}) \geq (\text{cr}(\mathcal{P}') + 1) + (\text{cr}(\mathcal{P}'') + 1) \quad (6.5)$$

where the two instances of “+1” on the right side come from the fact that P_j' and P_i' do not cross, and P_j'' and P_i'' do not cross. Thus at least one of \mathcal{P}' and \mathcal{P}'' have strictly fewer pairs of crossing paths than \mathcal{P} . We have thus found a way to reduce the number of pairs of crossing paths while maintaining optimality.

The exchange procedure strictly reduces the number of parallel paths that cross each other, so we can keep repeating the procedure until no two parallel paths cross each other. QED.

Lemma 6.4. Let G be any planar instance of the ideal orientation problem with noncrossing terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If there exists a solution \mathcal{P} in which parallel paths do not cross, then there exists a solution \mathcal{P}' such that (1) parallel paths do not cross; (2) for every pair of parallel paths P_i and P_j in \mathcal{P}' , $P_i \cap P_j$ is connected; and (3) the number of crossings between paths of \mathcal{P}' is no more than the number of crossings between paths of \mathcal{P} .

Proof. Suppose there exists a solution $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ in which parallel paths do not cross. We show how to make property (2) hold while ensuring that parallel paths remain noncrossing and the total number of crossings between opposite paths does not increase.

Suppose P_i and P_j are parallel paths such that $P_i \cap P_j$ consists of at least two paths. There exist vertices x and y on $P_i \cap P_j$ such that $P_i[x, y]$ and $P_j[x, y]$ intersect only at x and y . Let \mathcal{I} be the set of paths in \mathcal{P} that contain $P_i[x, y]$ as a subpath, and let \mathcal{J} be the

set of paths in \mathcal{P} that contain $P_j[x, y]$. Note that $P_i \in \mathcal{I}$ and $P_j \in \mathcal{J}$. The region $B_{ij}[x, y]$, bounded by $P_i[x, y]$ and $P_j[x, y]$, is a bigon. We will assume without loss of generality that the bigon $B_{ij}[x, y]$ is minimal, in the sense that no other bigon is contained in $B_{ij}[x, y]$. Note that this ensures that no path parallel to any of the paths in \mathcal{I} or \mathcal{J} enters $B_{ij}[x, y]$, by Lemma 6.1 and our assumption that parallel paths in \mathcal{P} do not cross. This implies that any path that crosses $P_i[x, y]$ or $P_j[x, y]$ must be opposite to all paths in \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} . There are two cases:

1. Suppose $P_i[x, y]$ crosses at least as many paths as $P_j[x, y]$ does. Then we exchange $P_i[x, y]$ for $P_j[x, y]$, as follows. For each path $P_p \in \mathcal{I}$, let $P'_p = P_p[s_p, x] \circ P_j[x, y] \circ P_p[y, t_p]$, and let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{I} \cup \{P'_p | P_p \in \mathcal{I}\}$. Since $P_j[x, y]$ is a shortest path, P'_p is a shortest path from s_p to t_p for any $P_p \in \mathcal{I}$. Since no paths parallel to P_p enter the interior of $B_{ij}[x, y]$, P'_p does not cross any paths parallel to it, for any $P_p \in \mathcal{I}$. Finally, for any $P_p \in \mathcal{P}$, the number of paths opposite to P_p or P_j that P'_p crosses is at most the number of paths opposite to P_p or P_j that P_p crosses, since $P_j[x, y]$ crosses at most as many paths as $P_i[x, y]$ does.
2. Suppose $P_i[x, y]$ crosses fewer paths than $P_j[x, y]$. Then we can exchange $P_j[x, y]$ for $P_i[x, y]$. That is, for any path $P_p \in \mathcal{J}$, define $P'_p = P_p[s_p, x] \circ P_i[x, y] \circ P_p[y, t_p]$, and let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{J} \cup \{P'_p | P_p \in \mathcal{J}\}$. Analogous to the previous case, one can show that the number of crossings does not increase and that parallel paths still do not cross. Furthermore, the resulting solution is still made up of shortest paths and is thus still a solution.

As long as there exist two parallel paths whose intersection is not a single subpath, we can perform the exchange. Each time we perform the exchange, the number of crossings does not increase, parallel paths are still pairwise noncrossing, and the sum of the number of components of $P_i \cap P_j$ decreases, where the sum is taken over all pairs of parallel paths P_i and P_j . Thus the procedure will terminate. QED.

6.2 SERIAL CASE FOR IDEAL ORIENTATIONS

Recall that an instance of the ideal orientation problem is *serial* if the terminals all appear on the outer face in clockwise order $u_1, v_1, \dots, u_k, v_k$, where for each $i \in [k]$ we have $(u_i, v_i) = (s_i, t_i)$ or $(u_i, v_i) = (t_i, s_i)$. For all i , if $(u_i, v_i) = (s_i, t_i)$, then we say that (s_i, t_i) and any path from s_i to t_i are *clockwise*; otherwise (s_i, t_i) and any path from s_i to t_i are *counterclockwise*. Note that a clockwise and a counterclockwise path are parallel, while two clockwise paths

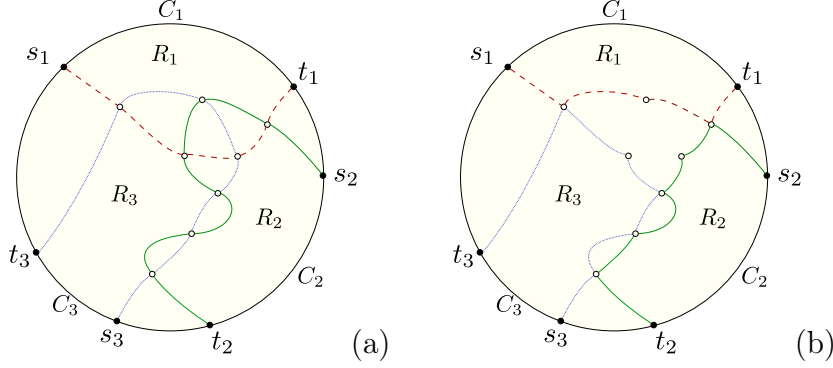


Figure 6.4: All paths are directed from s_i to t_i . (a) We have $\Pi = \{\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3\}$, where the dashed red path is π_1 , solid green path is π_2 , and dotted blue path is π_3 (b) The dashed red path is $L(1, \Pi)$, solid green path is $L(2, \Pi)$, and dotted blue path is $L(3, \Pi)$

(or two counterclockwise paths) are opposite. In this section, we describe an algorithm that solves serial instances of the ideal orientation problem in $O(n^2)$ time even when k is part of the input. First we prove the following lemmas:

6.2.1 Envelopes

Suppose G is a serial instance with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. Suppose we have a set Π of arbitrary directed paths π_1, \dots, π_k such that π_i connects s_i to t_i and no path touches ∂G ; the paths may intersect arbitrarily. Let C_i be the portion of ∂G that connects s_i to t_i without containing any other terminals. The paths in π_1, \dots, π_k divide the interior of G into connected regions. Let R_i be the unique region with C_i on its boundary. Finally, we define $L(i, \Pi)$ to be the directed path from s_i to t_i whose set of edges is $\partial R_i \setminus C_i$. Intuitively, $L(i, \Pi)$ is the “lower envelope” of π_1, \dots, π_k if we draw G such that s_i and t_i are on the bottom. See Figure 6.4

For any arc e in L_i , either e or $\text{rev}(e)$ must be an arc in one of π_1, \dots, π_k . Thus $L(i, \Pi)$ does not contain any edges on ∂G . Also, the walks $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ are pairwise noncrossing.

Lemma 6.5. Suppose G is serial and $\Pi = \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k\}$ is a set of paths such that π_i connects terminal s_i to terminal t_i for all i . If π_1, \dots, π_k are pairwise nonconflicting, then $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ are also pairwise nonconflicting.

Proof. We prove the contrapositive. Suppose $L(i, \Pi)$ and $L(j, \Pi)$ conflict at an edge e . Then the regions R_i and R_j touch each other at e . Since π_i and π_j do not use any boundary arcs, the Jordan Curve Theorem implies that π_i and π_j also conflict at e . QED.

Lemma 6.6. Suppose G is serial and $\Pi = \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k\}$ is a set of pairwise nonconflicting paths such that π_i connects terminal s_i to terminal t_i for all i . Then we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \ell(\pi_i) \geq \sum_{i=1}^k \ell(L(i, \Pi)). \quad (6.6)$$

In particular, if π_1, \dots, π_k are shortest paths, then so are $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$.

Proof. Because the walks $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ are pairwise noncrossing, the Jordan Curve Theorem implies that each arc e can be used by at most one of the walks $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$. By Lemma 6.5, arc $\text{rev}(e)$ can only be used by one of the walks $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ if e is not used by any of those walks. It follows that each edge of G is used by at most one of the walks $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$. In addition, every edge used by one of $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ must be used by at least one of π_1, \dots, π_k . The lemma follows. QED.

6.2.2 Algorithm

Lemma 6.7. Let G be a serial instance of the ideal orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If a solution exists, then a solution exists in which the paths P_1, \dots, P_k are pairwise noncrossing.

Proof. This is straightforward using envelopes. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be a solution to the serial instance G of the ideal orientation problem, where P_i connects s_i to t_i . Then the walks $L(1, \mathcal{P}), \dots, L(k, \mathcal{P})$ are pairwise noncrossing. By Lemma 6.5, the walks are pairwise nonconflicting, and by Lemma 5.2 they are shortest paths, so they constitute a solution. QED.

A path from s_i to t_i is the *outermost* shortest path from s_i to t_i if it is outside all other shortest paths from s_i to t_i . The following lemma states that finding outermost shortest paths is sufficient:

Lemma 6.8. Let G be a serial instance of the ideal orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If a solution $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ exists, then a solution exists in which P_i is the outermost shortest path from s_i to t_i for all i .

Proof. Suppose we have a solution $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ where the paths in \mathcal{P} are pairwise noncrossing and some path P_i is not the outermost shortest path from s_i to t_i . Then we can exchange P_i for the outermost shortest path. That is, let P'_i be the outermost shortest path from s_i to t_i , and let $\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus \{P_i\} \cup \{P'_i\}$. The new path P'_i is in R_i so it does not cross

with any other path in \mathcal{P}' ; in particular, P'_i does not conflict with any other path in \mathcal{P}' , so \mathcal{P}' is a solution. We can keep doing this exchange until we get a solution where every path is the outermost shortest path. QED.

So the algorithm is to find all outermost shortest paths. If the outermost paths conflict, then there is no solution. Computing the outermost paths explicitly takes $O(n)$ time per path and thus $O(n^2)$ time [31]. Alternatively, Klein's algorithm computes an implicit representation of the paths in $O(n \log n)$ time [75].

6.3 FIXED NUMBER OF TERMINALS AND NONCROSSING PAIRS

In this section we describe an algorithm to solve the ideal orientation problem in planar graphs where all terminals are on a single face, the number of terminals is fixed, and none of the terminal pairs cross. (Recall that two terminal pairs (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) cross if the four terminals are on a common face and their cyclic order on that face is s_i, s_j, t_i, t_j .) For simplicity, call such instances one-face noncrossing instances. We will first show that the number of crossings between the paths in a solution is a function bounded only by k . This allows us to guess all crossing points and then reduce the problem to the partially noncrossing edge-disjoint paths problem (PNEPP). As described in section 2.3.3, this reduces to the partially vertex-disjoint paths problem, which has been solved by Schrijver [34]. The algorithm is inspired by a result of Bérczi and Kobayashi [78].

We saw in the previous section that in the serial instances of the ideal orientation problem we can assume that the paths in the solution are noncrossing. This is unfortunately not true for general one-face noncrossing instances. See Figure 6.5a for an example. On the other hand, we can prove that the number of crossings is small when k is small. Specifically, we have the following lemma:

Lemma 6.9. Suppose G is a one-face noncrossing instance of the ideal orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If a solution exists, then a solution $\{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ exists in which for all i and j , path P_i crosses P_j a total of $O(k)$ times.

We will prove this lemma at the end of the section. For now, we will just assume the lemma is true and describe the algorithm for one-face noncrossing instances. Let G be a one-face noncrossing instance of the ideal orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. Suppose $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ is a solution with the fewest crossings. Our algorithm first guesses all the crossing points; by Lemma 6.9, there are $O(k^3)$ such points.

Next, inspired by Erickson and Nayyeri [10], we define the overlay graph $H_{\mathcal{P}}$, whose vertices are the crossing points and terminals, and whose edges are the subwalks between

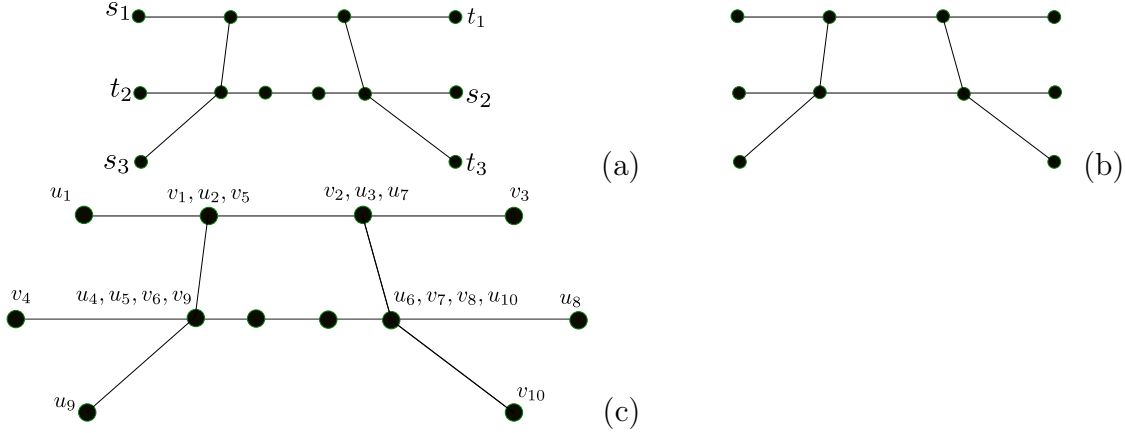


Figure 6.5: (a) An instance of the ideal orientation problem where the unique solution has the path from s_2 to t_2 crossing the path from s_3 to t_3 . All edges have unit weight. (b) overlay graph corresponding to the unique solution (c) instance of PNEPP corresponding to the overlay graph. Here $S = \{\{i, j\} | i \in \{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10\}, j \in \{4, 6, 8\}\}$

consecutive crossing points and terminals. The graph $H_{\mathcal{P}}$ has a natural embedding. Our algorithm guesses the overlay graph. Given the set of $O(k^3)$ crossing points, there are $2^{O(k^6)}$ possible such graphs. See Figure 6.5b.

The $O(k^3)$ crossing points split up P_1, \dots, P_k into pairwise noncrossing directed subpaths. By Lemma 6.1, subpaths of opposite paths are edge-disjoint (there is no analogous restriction for parallel paths). Furthermore, every directed subpath is a shortest path between its endpoints. Let $\{p_1, \dots, p_\beta\}$ be the set of these directed subpaths.

To compute these subpaths, we construct an instance of PNEPP as follows. The directed graph H is just G where every undirected edge $\{u, v\}$ is replaced with two arcs uv and vu . The terminal pairs in G are no longer terminal pairs in H . For each subpath p_i in \mathcal{P} , we construct a pair of terminals u_i, v_i that are just the endpoints of p_i . Thus the constructed terminals will not necessarily be distinct. The set S consists of all pairs $\{i, j\}$ such that p_i and p_j are subpaths of opposite paths in G . For all $i \in \{1, \dots, \beta\}$, the subgraph H_i is the union of all shortest paths from u_i to v_i in H . Each H_i is a directed acyclic graph.

We then solve the instance H of PNEPP to find subpaths Q_i connecting the u_i to the v_i , and we check if the concatenations of the appropriate found subpaths are indeed shortest paths connecting corresponding terminals in G . (In Figure 6.5c, we would need to check, for example, that the concatenation of Q_1, Q_2 , and Q_3 is indeed a shortest path from $s_1 = u_1$ to $t_1 = v_3$.) If the concatenations are indeed shortest paths in G , then they form a solution to the instance G of the ideal orientation problem. Clearly, if we take any solution of G , the subpaths formed by the crossing points are noncrossing and nonconflicting. The following lemma implies that the algorithm is correct.

Lemma 6.10. Let G be a one-face noncrossing instance of the ideal orientation problem. The following statements are equivalent

- There exists a solution to G with crossing points v_1, \dots, v_h and overlay graph $H_{\mathcal{P}}$.
- There exist crossing points v_1, \dots, v_h , an overlay graph whose vertices are the crossing points and the terminals of G , and a set of shortest noncrossing partially edge-disjoint subpaths connecting the crossing points in accordance with the overlay graph, such that the paths formed from concatenating the appropriate subpaths are shortest paths. (Here when we say that two sub-paths are partially edge-disjoint we mean that they are edge-disjoint if they correspond to subpaths of opposite paths in the overlay graph.)

Proof. \Rightarrow : Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be a solution to the instance G of the ideal orientation problem. Split the paths in \mathcal{P} into subpaths using the crossing points. The subpaths are noncrossing by construction. We just need to show that the subpaths are partially disjoint. In fact we will show that the paths in \mathcal{P} are partially disjoint. If P_i and P_j are parallel, then there is nothing to prove. If P_i and P_j are opposite, then they are edge-disjoint by Lemma 6.1.

\Leftarrow : Concatenate the subpaths and assume the concatenations are shortest paths. Since the subpaths are noncrossing, We just need to show that they are nonconflicting. Suppose P_1, \dots, P_k are the resulting paths after concatenation. If P_i and P_j are parallel, then by Lemma 6.2 they are nonconflicting. If P_i and P_j are opposite, then by construction each subpath of P_i is edge-disjoint from each subpath of P_j . This means that P_i and P_j are edge-disjoint, so they don't conflict. QED.

To summarize, we first guess the crossing points, then guess an overlay graph on these crossing points and the original terminals, and finally use the overlay graph to construct and solve an instance of PNEPP. The number of possible sets of crossing points and overlay graphs depends only on k , while PNEPP can be solved in polynomial time for fixed k (equivalently, fixed β) by reducing to PVPP and using Schrijver's algorithm [34]. Furthermore, constructing the instance of PNEPP takes polynomial time. Thus, our algorithm runs in polynomial time for fixed k .

6.3.1 The crossing bound

In this subsection we prove Lemma 6.9. Suppose $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ is a solution to a one-face noncrossing instance G of the ideal orientation problem, where P_i connects s_i to t_i . By Lemmas 6.3 and 6.4, we may assume that for every pair of parallel paths in \mathcal{P} , the paths

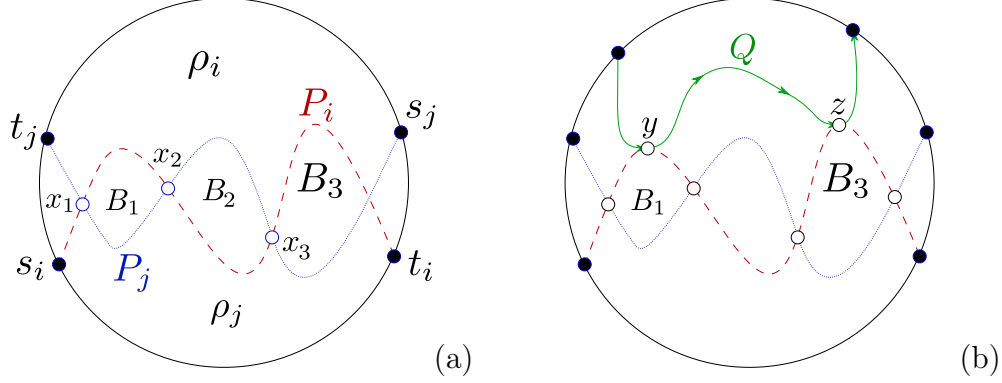


Figure 6.6: The dashed red path is P_i and the dotted blue path is P_j . (a) Three bigons B_1 , B_2 , and B_3 formed by P_i and P_j . (b) An impossible configuration in the proof of Lemma 6.11. Here Q is the solid green path, $p = 1$, and $q = 3$

do not cross and their intersection consists of at most one subpath; of all such solutions, we may assume without loss of generality that \mathcal{P} is the solution with the fewest crossings. It suffices to show that for all i, j , path P_i crosses path P_j at most $2k$ times.

Let h be the number of times P_i and P_j cross; we want to show that $h \leq 2k$. Since terminal pairs (s_i, t_i) and (s_j, t_j) are noncrossing, h is even. Parallel paths in \mathcal{P} do not cross, so assume that P_i and P_j are opposite. The path P_i divides the interior of G into two regions; let ρ_i be the region containing s_j and t_j , and define a path to be *above* P_i if it lies in ρ_i . Likewise, the path P_j divides the interior of G into two regions; let ρ_j be the region containing s_i and t_i , and define a path to be *below* P_j if it lies in ρ_j . Let x_1, \dots, x_h be the vertices at which P_i and P_j cross, in order along P_i ; by Lemma 6.1, this is exactly the reverse of their order along P_j . Split the region $\rho_i \cap \rho_j$ into $h - 1$ pairwise internally disjoint *bigons*, denoted by B_1, \dots, B_{h-1} ; the bigon B_p consists of the region bounded by the two subpaths $P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}]$ and $P_j[x_{p+1}, x_p]$. Note that under our definition, $P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}]$ and $P_j[x_{p+1}, x_p]$ may touch but they may not cross. A bigon B_p is *odd* if p is odd and *even* if p is even. Note that any odd bigon is below P_i and above P_j , and any even bigon is below P_j and above P_i . See Figure 6.6a.

For any vertex x , let $\text{pred}_i(x)$ denote the predecessor of x on P_i , $\text{succ}_i(x)$ denote the successor of x on P_i , $\text{pred}_j(x)$ denote the predecessor of x on P_j , and $\text{succ}_j(x)$ denote the successor of x on P_j . Suppose a path Q is parallel to P_i . Path Q and a bigon B_p *partially overlap* each other if Q shares edges with $P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}]$ and Q does not contain $P_i[\text{pred}_i(x_p), \text{succ}_i(x_{p+1})]$. Likewise, suppose a path Q' is parallel to P_j . Path Q' and a bigon B_p *partially overlap* each other if Q' shares edges with $P_j[x_{p+1}, x_p]$ but Q' does not contain $P_j[\text{pred}_j(x_{p+1}), \text{succ}_j(x_p)]$.

For the rest of this subsection we will say “overlap” when we mean “partially overlap.”

Lemma 6.9 follows if we can prove the following two lemmas:

Lemma 6.11. Each path in \mathcal{P} overlaps at most two different bigons.

Lemma 6.12. Each bigon overlaps some path (different bigons could overlap different paths).

Lemmas 6.11 and 6.12 together imply that there must be at most $2(k-1)$ bigons, and thus at most $2k$ crossings between P_i and P_j .

Proof of Lemma 6.11. There are three cases. For the first case, suppose Q is a path parallel to P_i that overlaps some bigons formed by P_i and P_j . We will show that Q overlaps at most two bigons. See Figure 6.6b. Let B_p be the first bigon along P_i that Q overlaps and let B_q be the last, so that Q contains some vertex y on $P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}]$ and some vertex z on $P_i[x_q, x_{q+1}]$. We have assumed that the intersection of any two parallel paths in \mathcal{P} consists of exactly one subpath. Since P_i and Q are parallel, this implies that Q contains the subpath $P_i[y, z]$. In particular, Q contains each of $P_i[x_{p+1}, x_{p+2}], \dots, P_i[x_{q-1}, x_q]$, so Q does not overlap any of the bigons B_{p+1}, \dots, B_{q-1} . It follows that Q overlaps at most two bigons.

For the second case, a symmetric argument shows that if Q is parallel to P_j then Q overlaps at most two bigons. For the third case, if Q is opposite to both P_i and P_j , then by Lemma 6.1, Q is edge-disjoint from both P_i and P_j , and so does not overlap any bigons. QED.

Proof of Lemma 6.12. Suppose for the sake of argument that B_p is an odd bigon that does not overlap any path. The bigon B_p is below P_i and above P_j . Specifically, it is bounded by $P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}] \cup P_j[x_{p+1}, x_p]$. To lighten notation, let $A = P_i[x_p, x_{p+1}]$ and let $B = P_j[x_{p+1}, x_p]$. Our goal is to reduce the number of crossings in \mathcal{P} via an exchange procedure similar to those used in previous lemmas. Roughly speaking, we will do this by reversing the orientations of A and B and by modifying the paths that enter B_p so that they no longer do so.

First we describe how to reverse the orientations of A and B . By assumption, all paths in \mathcal{P} that use edges in A must contain A , and all paths in \mathcal{P} that use edges in B must contain B . Let \mathcal{Q}_L be the set of paths that contain A and let \mathcal{Q}_R be the set of paths that contain B . By Lemma 6.1, all paths in \mathcal{Q}_L are parallel to P_i and all paths in \mathcal{Q}_R are parallel to P_j . Now we simply let

$$P'_l = P_l[s_l, x_p] \circ \text{rev}(B) \circ P_l[x_{p+1}, t_l] \tag{6.7}$$

for any path $P_l \in \mathcal{Q}_L$, and let

$$P'_r = P_r[s_r, x_{p+1}] \circ \text{rev}(A) \circ P_r[x_p, t_r] \tag{6.8}$$

for any path $P_r \in \mathcal{Q}_R$. Let $\mathcal{Q}'_L = \{P'_l | P_l \in \mathcal{Q}_L\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}'_R = \{P'_r | P_r \in \mathcal{Q}_R\}$. Note that $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}_L$ and $P_j \in \mathcal{Q}_R$, so we have described how to modify P_i and P_j .

Now we describe how to modify the paths that enter B_p . This is necessary so that the paths do not cross with the paths P'_l and P'_r described in the previous paragraph. By Lemma 6.1, A only crosses paths parallel to P_j , and B only crosses paths parallel to P_i . Let \mathcal{Q}_A be the set of paths that cross A , and let \mathcal{Q}_B be the set of paths that cross B . For each path $P_a \in \mathcal{Q}_A$, let u_a be the first vertex (of P_a) at which P_a touches A and let v_a be the last. We define

$$P'_a = P_a[s_a, u_a] \circ A[u_a, v_a] \circ P_a[v_a, t_a]. \quad (6.9)$$

Note that P'_a conflicts with A but does not conflict with $\text{rev}(A)$. Furthermore, P'_a no longer crosses A . Similarly, for each path $P_b \in \mathcal{Q}_B$, let u_b be the first vertex (of P_b) at which P_b crosses B , let v_b be the last vertex at which P_b crosses B , and let

$$P'_b = P_b[s_b, u_b] \circ B[u_b, v_b] \circ P_b[v_b, t_b]. \quad (6.10)$$

Let $\mathcal{Q}'_A = \{P'_a | P_a \in \mathcal{Q}_A\}$ and $\mathcal{Q}'_B = \{P'_b | P_b \in \mathcal{Q}_B\}$. This finishes the description of how to modify \mathcal{P} to reduce the number of crossings. That is, let

$$\mathcal{P}' = \mathcal{P} \setminus (\mathcal{Q}_L \cup \mathcal{Q}_R \cup \mathcal{Q}_A \cup \mathcal{Q}_B) \cup (\mathcal{Q}'_L \cup \mathcal{Q}'_R \cup \mathcal{Q}'_A \cup \mathcal{Q}'_B). \quad (6.11)$$

We need to show that \mathcal{P}' is a solution with fewer crossings than \mathcal{P} . Paths A and B are shortest paths, so all subpaths of A and B are shortest paths and all paths in \mathcal{P}' are shortest paths. All paths in \mathcal{P}' use the edges of A in the reverse direction (i.e., from x_{p+1} to x_p), if at all. Similarly, all paths in \mathcal{P}' use the edges of B in the reverse direction (i.e., from x_p to x_{p+1}), if at all. All arcs used by \mathcal{P}' that are not used by \mathcal{P} are in A or B , so this implies that the paths in \mathcal{P}' are nonconflicting. During the exchange procedure, we replace subpaths in or on B_p with subpaths of the boundary of B_p , such that no paths in \mathcal{P}' enter B_p . Tedious casework implies that no crossings are added when we go from \mathcal{P} to \mathcal{P}' ; for details, see the proof of Lemma 6.13. Without increasing the number of crossings in \mathcal{P}' , we can also use the procedure in the proof of Lemma 6.4 to modify the paths in \mathcal{P}' so that the intersection of any pair of parallel paths consists of a single subpath. On the other hand, given any pair of paths $P_l \in \mathcal{Q}_L$ and $P_r \in \mathcal{Q}_R$, P'_l and P'_r have strictly fewer crossings than P_l and P_r ; for details, see the proof of Lemma 6.13 again. This contradicts the fact that \mathcal{P} has the fewest crossings out of all solutions that satisfy Lemma 6.4. We have thus proved the lemma for odd bigons. A symmetric argument proves the lemma for even bigons. QED.

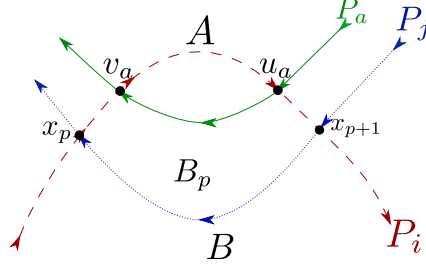


Figure 6.7: Paths before the exchange procedure, in the proof of Lemma 6.12. The dashed red path is P_i , the dotted blue path is P_j , and the solid green path is P_a . B_p is bounded by A and B

Lemma 6.13. In the proof of Lemma 6.12, the paths in \mathcal{P}' have no more crossings than the paths in \mathcal{P} .

Proof. We need to extend the definitions of “below” and “above” introduced in subsection 6.3.1. Suppose P and Q are paths in G whose endpoints are on ∂G . Suppose further that the endpoints of any two of P, Q , and P_i do not cross. Let C_i be the portion of ∂G from s_i to t_i that does not contain s_j or t_j . There are two cases.

1. Suppose the endpoints of Q are not in C_i . The path Q divides the interior of G into two regions. If P lies entirely in the region whose closure contains s_i and t_i , then P is below Q .
2. Suppose the endpoints of Q are in C_i . The path Q divides the interior of G into two regions. If P lies entirely in the region whose closure does not contain s_j and t_j , then P is below Q .

Now let P and Q be paths in \mathcal{P} . To simplify notation, let $P' = P$ if $P \notin \mathcal{Q}_L \cup \mathcal{Q}_R \cup \mathcal{Q}_A \cup \mathcal{Q}_B$, so that $\mathcal{P}' = \{p' | p \in \mathcal{P}\}$.

First we will show that P' and Q' do not cross more times than P and Q cross. There are eight different cases (not counting symmetric cases). For the first four cases, suppose P and Q are both parallel to P_j , so that P and Q do not cross by Lemma 6.3:

1. Suppose $P \notin \mathcal{Q}_L \cup \mathcal{Q}_R \cup \mathcal{Q}_A \cup \mathcal{Q}_B$. We have $P' = P$. By Lemma 6.3, none of the edges of P' are in B_p or on A . By Lemma 6.1, none of the edges of P' are in B , so none of the edges of P are on the boundary of B_p . On the other hand, $Q' \oplus Q$ consists only of edges in B_p or on its boundary. It follows that if P is below Q , then P' is below Q' . Similarly, if P is above Q , then P' is above Q' . In both cases, P' and Q' do not cross.

2. Suppose $P, Q \in \mathcal{Q}_L$. In both P and Q we replace A with $\text{rev}(B)$ to get P' and Q' . It follows that if P is below Q , then P' is below Q' . Similarly, if P is above Q , then P' is above Q' . In both cases P' and Q' do not cross.
3. Suppose $P \in \mathcal{Q}_L, Q \in \mathcal{Q}_B$. In P , we replace A with $\text{rev}(B)$ to get P' . On the other hand, Q must be below P . Since B is below P and $Q' \setminus Q$ consists of edges in B , we see that Q' is below P as well. By construction, Q' is also on or below B , so Q' is below P' and does not cross it.
4. Suppose $P, Q \in \mathcal{Q}_B$, and suppose without loss of generality that P is below Q . Let u be the first vertex at which P crosses B and let v be the last. Let s_P and t_P be the endpoints of P . Then $P[s_P, u]$ and $P[v, t_P]$ are below Q' , so P' is below Q' .

For the remaining four cases, suppose P is left-to-right but Q is right-to-left. We need to show that P' and Q' do not cross each other more than P and Q cross each other:

5. Suppose $P \notin \mathcal{Q}_L \cup \mathcal{Q}_R \cup \mathcal{Q}_A \cup \mathcal{Q}_B$. We have $P' = P$. As in case 1, none of the edges of P are in B_p or on the boundary of B_p . On the other hand, $Q' \oplus Q$ consists only of edges in B_p or on its boundary. It follows that P' and Q' do not cross each other more than P and Q do.
6. Suppose $P \in \mathcal{Q}_L$ and $Q \in \mathcal{Q}_R$. Path P replaces A with $\text{rev}(B)$ to get P' , and Q replaces B with $\text{rev}(A)$ to get Q' . Path P contains A , so Lemma 6.1 implies that P does not cross B and so does not enter the interior of B_p . Similarly, Q contains B but does not enter the interior of B_p . This means that when we replace P and Q with P' and Q' , the only vertices that could become crossing points or stop being crossing points are x_p and x_{p+1} . But in fact P contains $P_i[\text{pred}_i(x_p), \text{succ}_i(x_{p+1})] \supseteq A$ and Q contains $P_j[\text{pred}_j(x_{p+1}), \text{succ}_j(x_p)] \supseteq B$, so both x_p and x_{p+1} are points at which P and Q cross and P' and Q' do not cross. Furthermore, no new crossings are added when we replace P and Q with P' and Q' .
7. Suppose $P \in \mathcal{Q}_L, Q \in \mathcal{Q}_A$. Note that Q is above P_j , and so is $A \supset Q' \setminus Q$, so Q' is above P_j . On the other hand, $P' \setminus P$ consists of edges in $\text{rev}(B)$, which is a subpath of P_j . Thus no new crossings are added when we replace P and Q with P' and Q' .
8. Suppose $P \in \mathcal{Q}_B, Q \in \mathcal{Q}_A$. As in the previous case, Q and Q' are above P_j , On the other hand, $P' \setminus P$ consists of edges in $\text{rev}(B)$, which is a subpath of P_j . Thus no new crossings are added when we replace P and Q with P' and Q' .

All other cases are symmetric to these eight cases. Note that in case 6, P' and Q' cross each other fewer times than P and Q , which is part of what we wanted to show. QED.

6.4 NP-HARDNESS OF IDEAL ORIENTATIONS

In this section we show that the ideal orientation problem is NP-hard in unweighted planar graphs when k is part of the input. The reduction is from planar 3-SAT and is similar to reductions by Middendorf and Pfeiffer [8] and by Eilam-Tzoref [12]. Planar 3-SAT is the special case of 3-SAT where a certain bipartite graph $G(y)$ is planar, defined as follows. Given an instance y of 3-SAT, each variable of y is a vertex, and each clause of y is also a vertex. For every variable x_i and every clause c_j , we add an edge between x_i and c_j if either x_i or \bar{x}_i appears in c_j . The resulting graph $G(y)$ is bipartite; if it is planar, then y is an instance of planar 3-SAT. Lichtenstein showed that planar 3-SAT is still NP-hard [79].

Suppose we are given an instance y of planar 3-SAT. As noted by Middendorf and Pfeiffer [8], we may assume that each variable appears in three clauses. To see this, fix a planar embedding of $G(y)$, and let vC_1, \dots, vC_k be the edges incident to a variable v in clockwise order. Introduce new variables v_1, \dots, v_k and clauses $v_k \vee \neg v_1$ and $v_i \vee \neg v_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, k-1\}$. In addition, replace the occurrence of v in C_i with v_i . If we do this for all variables v , we get an instance y' of planar 3-SAT that is satisfiable if and only if y is satisfiable, and every variable in y' appears in exactly three clauses.

We use y to construct an instance of the ideal orientation problem. We will construct a clause gadget for each clause and a variable gadget for each variable. The clause gadget for a clause C is shown in Figure 6.8. There are three terminals pairs (s_C, t_C) , (s'_C, t'_C) , and (s''_C, t''_C) . Let us note some key properties of G_C . We have $d(s_C, t_C) = d(s''_C, t''_C) = 3$ and $d(s'_C, t'_C) = 4$. There are two shortest paths from s_C to t_C , three shortest paths from s'_C to t'_C , and two shortest paths from s''_C to t''_C . There exist pairwise nonconflicting shortest paths connecting (s_C, t_C) , (s'_C, t'_C) , and (s''_C, t''_C) in G_C . These paths must use at least one of the edges $ab = e_{vC}$, $cd = e_{wC}$, and $ef = e_{xC}$. Furthermore, three such nonconflicting shortest paths exist even when two of the three edges are not to be used.

The edges e_{vC} , e_{wC} , and e_{xC} are part of the clause gadget associated with C and will also each be in variable gadgets associated with v , w , and x , respectively. Before defining the variable gadgets, we need to fix some terminology regarding the orientations of the three edges. Each of the three edges can be oriented *forward* or *backward* as follows. The forward orientation of e_{vC} is from a to b , the forward orientation of e_{wC} is from c to d , and the forward orientation of e_{xC} is from e to f . The backward orientation of an edge is simply the reverse of the forward orientation. Intuitively, an edge must be oriented forward in order to be used in some shortest path connecting a pair of terminals; furthermore, orienting an edge e_{vC} forward means that the literal v or $\neg v$ (whichever one appears in C) is set to True.

We also give each of the three edges a *true* and a *false* orientation depending on whether

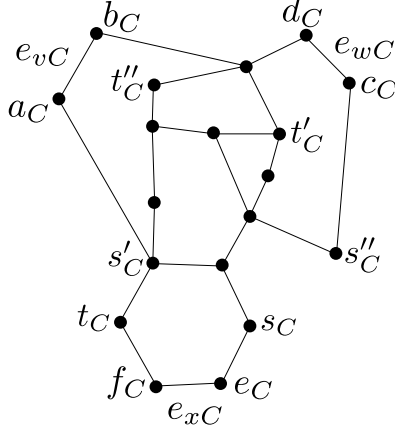


Figure 6.8: Clause gadget G_C for a clause C containing variables v, w, x . All edges are unweighted.

the literals in C are positive or negative. If v is a literal in the clause C , then the true orientation of e_{vC} is the forward orientation of e_{vC} and the false orientation of e_{vC} is the backward orientation. If $\neg v$ is a literal in C , then the true orientation of e_{vC} is the backward orientation and the false orientation is the forward orientation. True and false orientations for e_{wC} and e_{xC} are defined analogously. Intuitively, the true orientation of an edge e_{vC} is the direction that it would be oriented in if the variable v were assigned to true.

Finally, each of the three edges has a *clockwise* orientation and a *counterclockwise* orientation. The clockwise orientation of e_{vC} is its forward orientation, the clockwise orientation of e_{xC} is its forward orientation, and the clockwise orientation of e_{wC} is its *backward* orientation. The counterclockwise orientation of an edge is the reverse of its clockwise orientation. Intuitively, an edge oriented clockwise goes clockwise around its clause gadget, and an edge oriented counterclockwise goes counterclockwise around its clause gadget. However, somewhat confusingly, we will construct the variable gadgets such that a clockwise-oriented edge goes *counterclockwise* around its *variable* gadget and a counterclockwise-oriented edge goes *clockwise* around its *variable* gadget.

For each variable v , we construct a variable gadget G_v as follows. Suppose v appears in clauses C, D , and E ; suppose further that vC, vD , and vE are the edges incident to v in clockwise order in $G(y)$. For each of the three edges e_{vC}, e_{vD} , and e_{vE} (in the clause gadgets), we check whether or not the true orientation of the edge is the counterclockwise orientation of that edge. There are four cases:

- If for each of the three edges the true orientation is the counterclockwise orientation, then we construct the variable gadget in Figure 6.9a.
- If for exactly two of the three edges (without loss of generality, (v, C) and (v, D)) the

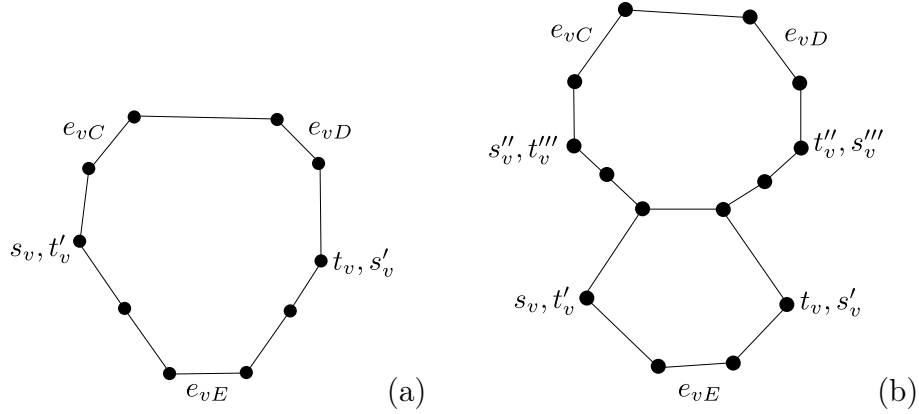


Figure 6.9: possible variable gadgets G_v for a variable v appearing in three clauses C, D , and E

true orientation is the counterclockwise orientation, then we construct the variable gadget in Figure 6.9b.

- If for exactly one of the three edges (without loss of generality, (v, E)) the true orientation is the counterclockwise orientation, then again we still construct the variable gadget in Figure 6.9b.
- If for each of the three edges the true orientation is the clockwise orientation, then we still construct the variable gadget in Figure 6.9a.

Finally, for every variable v and every clause C we identify the edge e_{vC} in both G_v and G_C . The resulting graph is still planar and is $G_1(y)$.

G_v is constructed so that there are only two ways to orient the edges. In one orientation, all edges vC, vD , and vE are oriented in the true direction, and in the other orientation, the three edges are oriented in the false direction. Orienting the three edges in the true direction corresponds to setting the variable to True, and orienting them in the false direction corresponds to setting them to False. The reduction clearly takes polynomial time, and the following lemma implies its correctness.

Lemma 6.14. A planar 3-SAT formula y is satisfiable if and only if there exists an ideal orientation in $G_1(y)$.

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose y is satisfiable, and fix a satisfying assignment. For each clause C , we orient the edges in G_C as follows. For each of the three literals, we do the following. Let v or $\neg v$ be some literal in C . Orient the edge e_{vC} forwards if v or $\neg v$ is in C and set to True; otherwise, the edge is oriented backwards. We know that exactly one of the three edges

e_{vC}, e_{wC}, e_{xC} is oriented forwards. It is possible to orient the rest of the edges in G_C such that distances between the terminal pairs $(s_C, t_C), (s'_C, t'_C),$ and (s''_C, t''_C) are preserved.

In each variable gadgets $G_v,$ we orient the edges as follows. If v is set to True, then each of e_{vC}, e_{vD}, e_{vE} are oriented in the true direction; otherwise, the three edges are oriented in the false direction. It is possible to orient the rest of the edges in G_v such that the distances between the terminal pairs $(s_v, t_v), (s'_v, t'_v), (s''_v, t''_v),$ and (s'''_v, t'''_v) (if they exist) are preserved. To show that orientations are consistent, recall that in the clause gadgets, there are four cases:

- v appears in C and is set to True. Then e_{vC} is oriented forward and so is oriented in the true direction.
- $\neg v$ appears in C and v is set to False. Then e_{vC} is oriented forward and in the false direction.
- v appears in C and is set to False. Then e_{vC} is oriented backward and so is oriented in the false direction.
- $\neg v$ appears in C and v is set to True. Then e_{vC} is oriented backward and so is oriented in the true direction.

In all cases we see that the orientation in the clause gadget is consistent with the orientation in the variable gadget. \Leftarrow : Suppose an ideal orientation exists. If $e_{vC}, e_{vD},$ and e_{vE} are all oriented in the true direction, then set v to True; otherwise they are all oriented in the false direction and we set v to False. We need to show that this is a satisfying assignment. Consider a clause $C.$ Since an ideal orientation exists, at least one of the edges $e_{vC}, e_{wC},$ and e_{xC} must be oriented forward. Say e_{vC} is oriented forward. This means that either e_{vC} is oriented in the true direction with v appearing positively, or e_{vC} is oriented in the false direction with v appearing negatively. In the first case, v is set to True, so C is satisfied. In the second case, v is set to False, so C is satisfied. QED.

6.5 SERIAL CASE FOR K-MIN-SUM ORIENTATIONS

In this section, we describe an algorithm to solve serial instances of the k -min-sum orientation problem. Recall that every terminal pair (s_i, t_i) is either clockwise (i.e., a clockwise traversal of the outer face will visit s_i and then immediately visit t_i) or counterclockwise. Given a set Π of arbitrary directed paths π_1, \dots, π_k such that π_i connects s_i to $t_i,$ we define “lower envelopes” $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ in the same way as in section 6.2. To simplify our

presentation, we assume that our given instance has a unique solution, if it exists. If necessary, this uniqueness assumptions can be enforced with high probability using the isolation lemma of Mulmuley, Vazirani, and Vazirani [33].

Before we describe the algorithm, we prove an analog of Lemma 6.7.

Lemma 6.15. Let G be a serial instance of the k -min-sum orientation problem with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. If a solution exists, then the paths in the solution are pairwise noncrossing.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 6.7. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be the unique solution to the serial instance G of the k -min-sum orientation problem, where P_i connects s_i to t_i . The walks $L(1, \mathcal{P}), \dots, L(k, \mathcal{P})$ are pairwise noncrossing. By Lemma 6.5 they are pairwise nonconflicting. By Lemma 5.2 and our uniqueness assumption, their total length is strictly less than that of the paths in \mathcal{P} . This contradicts the fact that \mathcal{P} was the optimal solution to G . QED.

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$ be the unique solution to the instance G of the k -min-sum solution. By the Jordan Curve Theorem, noncrossing opposite paths must be edge-disjoint. This suggests the following algorithm, which occurs in two phases.

1. In the first phase, we re-index the terminals so that $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_\alpha, t_\alpha)$ are clockwise and $(s_{\alpha+1}, t_{\alpha+1}), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$ are counterclockwise. We split the instance of the k -min-sum problem into two sub-instances. One of the sub-instances consists of the original graph G with the clockwise terminal pairs, while the other sub-instance consists of G with the counterclockwise terminal pairs. We solve each sub-instance separately. In the clockwise sub-instance, we are finding α noncrossing edge-disjoint directed paths of minimum total length such that the i -th path connects s_i to t_i for $i \in \{1, \dots, \alpha\}$ (We will describe later how to find such paths). Likewise, in the counterclockwise sub-instance we are finding $k - \alpha$ noncrossing edge-disjoint directed paths of minimum total length such that the $(i - \alpha)$ -th path connects s_i to t_i for $i \in \{\alpha + 1, \dots, k\}$. We then let $\Pi = \{\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k\}$ be the set of all k paths, where π_i connects s_i to t_i . By Lemma 6.15, the sum of the lengths of π_1, \dots, π_k is at most the sum of the lengths of the paths in \mathcal{P} .
2. Any two opposite paths in Π are edge-disjoint and so are nonconflicting. However, parallel paths (i.e., a clockwise path and a counterclockwise path) found by the first phase may conflict with each other; the purpose of phase 2 is to remove these conflicts. In phase 2, we simply output $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$. By Lemma 6.15, the sum of the

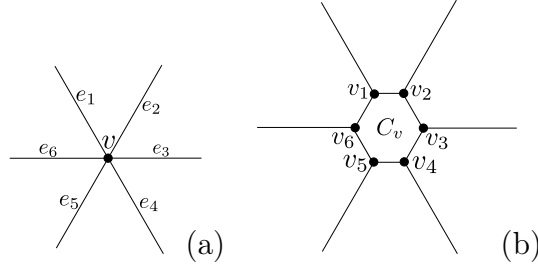


Figure 6.10: (a) vertex $v \in V(G)$ with incident edges e_1, \dots, e_6 (b) corresponding cycle C_v in G° ; each edge in C_v has zero length

lengths of the output paths is no greater than the sum of the lengths of the paths in \mathcal{P} . Since the output paths are envelopes, they noncrossing; the Jordan Curve Theorem then implies that two output paths can conflict only if they are opposite. On the other hand, Lemma 6.5 implies that opposite paths are nonconflicting. Thus the output paths are indeed nonconflicting paths of minimum total length that connect the terminals.

To finish the description of the algorithm we just need to show how to find the noncrossing edge-disjoint directed paths in Phase 1. Before doing this, we define the *k-min-sum noncrossing edge-disjoint paths problem (k-NEPP)* and the *k-min-sum vertex-disjoint paths problem (k-VPP)* as follows. In *k-NEPP* we are given a plane graph G with k pairs of terminals $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$, and we wish to find k paths P_1, \dots, P_k such that P_i connects s_i to t_i and the k paths are pairwise noncrossing and edge-disjoint. (Note that under our definition of “edge-disjoint,” finding edge-disjoint directed paths in undirected graphs is the same as finding edge-disjoint undirected paths in undirected graphs. Thus for the rest of this section all paths will be undirected.) *k-VPP* is similar except that the paths P_1, \dots, P_k are to be vertex-disjoint instead of noncrossing edge-disjoint. It is known that *k-VPP* can be solved in serial instances in $O(kn^5)$ time when edge lengths are non-negative [62].

In order to find the paths in Phase 1 we need to solve serial instances of *k-NEPP*. We will solve such instances by reducing to serial instances of *k-VPP*; this will finish the description of the algorithm for serial instances of the *k-min-sum orientation problem*.

The reduction is as follows. Starting with G , we replace each vertex v in G with an undirected cycle C_v of $\deg(v)$ vertices $v_1, \dots, v_{\deg(v)}$. Each edge in the cycle has length zero. We make every edge that was incident to v incident to some vertex v_i instead, such that each edge is connected to a different vertex v_i , the clockwise order of the edges is preserved, and the graph remains planar. The resulting graph G° has $O(n)$ vertices and arcs. See Figure 6.10. Furthermore, if G has all terminals on the outer face, then so does G° .

Lemma 6.16. Suppose G is serial instance with terminal pairs $(s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$. The following statements are equivalent:

1. There exist pairwise noncrossing edge-disjoint paths P_1, \dots, P_k of total length L in G such that P_i connects s_i and t_i for all i .
2. There exist pairwise vertex-disjoint paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k of total length L in G° such that Q_i connects s_i and t_i for all i .

Proof. \Rightarrow : Suppose there exist pairwise noncrossing edge-disjoint paths P_1, \dots, P_k of total length L in G such that P_i connects s_i and t_i . We construct the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k as follows. For any edge e in P_i , we add e to Q_i . This defines the portions of the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k outside the cycles C_v ; these portions are vertex-disjoint because by construction the endpoints of edges of G are all distinct in G° .

We route the portions of Q_1, \dots, Q_k inside the cycles C_v in G° as follows. Let v be a vertex of G , and suppose P_i go through v . Suppose the cyclic order of the edges around v is e_1, \dots, e_d , where $d = \deg(v)$. Say P_i goes into v through e_x and leaves through e_y , where $x < y$. By the Jordan Curve Theorem, either no other path uses e_{x+1}, \dots, e_{y-1} or no other path uses $e_{y+1}, \dots, e_d, e_1, \dots, e_{x-1}$. Suppose the first case holds (the second case is symmetric). Route the path Q_i through vertices v_x, \dots, v_y . The resulting paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k are vertex-disjoint from because none of the paths P_1, \dots, P_k use e_{x+1}, \dots, e_{y-1} (except possibly P_i). Clearly Q_1, \dots, Q_k have the same length as P_1, \dots, P_k .

\Leftarrow : Suppose there exist pairwise vertex-disjoint paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k of total length L in G° . Trivially, the paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k are pairwise noncrossing edge-disjoint too. Each path P_i can be defined by “projecting” Q_i into G in the obvious way: an edge of G is in P_i if and only if e was in the original path Q_i . The resulting paths P_1, \dots, P_k are pairwise noncrossing because the original paths Q_1, \dots, Q_k were pairwise noncrossing. By similar reasoning as in the second half of the proof of Lemma 2.8, we can see that the paths P_1, \dots, P_k are pairwise noncrossing and edge-disjoint. Clearly P_1, \dots, P_k are the same length as Q_1, \dots, Q_k . QED.

We can use the algorithm of Borradaile, Nayyeri, and Zafarani [62] to solve serial instances of k -min-sum vertex-disjoint paths. Since G° has k pairs of terminals and $O(n)$ vertices and edges, the algorithm of Borradaile, Nayyeri, and Zafarani still takes $O(kn^5)$ time to compute Π . Given Π , computing the envelopes $L(1, \Pi), \dots, L(k, \Pi)$ takes $O(n)$ time, so our entire algorithm still takes $O(kn^5)$ time.

6.6 OPEN PROBLEMS

Very little is known about the ideal orientation problem or the k -min-sum orientation problem, and so there are many open problems. Here we list three that we find particularly interesting. First, we do not know whether or not the ideal orientation problem can be solved in planar graphs when all terminals are on a single face (and we allow some pairs to cross). In fact, this problem is open even if $k = 3$. Second, we do not know if the ideal orientation problem in planar graphs can be solved when for each $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, s_i and t_i are on the same face (different pairs could be on different faces), and no two pairs on the same face cross each other. Again, this is open even if $k = 3$. If k is fixed, then we may be able to solve this problem using an algorithm similar to the one in Section 6.3. Finally, we do not know if the k -min-sum problem can be solved in outerplanar graphs, even if $k = 2$.

CHAPTER 7: REFERENCES

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