# Column planarity and partial simultaneous geometric embedding 

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# Column Planarity and Partial Simultaneous Geometric Embedding 

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#### Abstract

We introduce the notion of column planarity of a subset $R$ of the vertices of a graph $G$. Informally, we say that $R$ is column planar in $G$ if we can assign $x$-coordinates to the vertices in $R$ such that any assignment of $y$-coordinates to them produces a partial embedding that can be completed to a plane straight-line drawing of $G$. Column planarity is both a relaxation and a strengthening of unlabeled level planarity. We prove near tight bounds for column planar subsets of trees: any tree on $n$ vertices contains a column planar set of size at least $14 n / 17$ and for any $\epsilon>0$ and any sufficiently large $n$, there exists an $n$-vertex tree in which every column planar subset has size at most $(5 / 6+\epsilon) n$. We also consider a relaxation of simultaneous geometric embedding (SGE), which we call partial SGE (PSGE). A PSGE of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ allows some of their vertices to map to two different points in the plane. We show how to use column planar subsets to construct $k$-PSGEs in which $k$ vertices are still mapped to the same point. In particular, we show that any two trees on $n$ vertices admit an 11n/17-PSGE, two outerpaths admit an $n / 4-$ PSGE, and an outerpath and a tree admit a $11 n / 34-\mathrm{PSGE}$.


## 1 Introduction

A graph $G=(V, E)$ on $n$ vertices is unlabeled level planar (ULP) if for all injections $\gamma: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists an injection $\rho: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, so that embedding each $v \in V$ at $(\rho(v), \gamma(v))$ results in a plane straight-line embedding of G. Estrella-Balderrama, Fowler and Kobourov [10] originally introduced ULP graphs and characterized ULP trees in terms of forbidden subgraphs. Fowler and Kobourov [12] extended this characterization to general ULP graphs. ULP

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Fig. 1. (a) A graph $G=(V, E)$ with $R=\{a, d, e, f\}$ which is $\rho$-column planar for $\rho=\{d \mapsto 1, a \mapsto 2, e \mapsto 3, f \mapsto 4\}$. (b-c) Two assignments of $y$-coordinates to the vertices $R$ and corresponding plane straight-line completions of $G$.
graphs are exactly the graphs that admit a simultaneous geometric embedding with a monotone path: this was the original motivation for studying them.

In this paper we introduce the notion of column planarity of a subset $R$ of the vertices $V$ of a graph $G=(V, E)$. Informally, we say that $R$ is column planar in $G$ if we can assign $x$-coordinates to the vertices in $R$ such that any assignment of $y$-coordinates to them produces a partial embedding that can be completed to a plane straight-line drawing of $G$. Column planarity is both a relaxation and a strengthening of unlabeled level planarity. It is a relaxation since it applies only to a subset $R$ of the vertices and a strengthening since the requirements on $R$ are more strict than in the case of unlabeled level planarity.

More formally, for $R \subseteq V$, we say that $R$ is column planar in $G=(V, E)$ if there exists an injection $\rho: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $\rho$-compatible injections $\gamma: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists a plane straight-line embedding of $G$ where each $v \in R$ is embedded at $(\rho(v), \gamma(v))$. Injection $\gamma$ is $\rho$-compatible if the combination of $\rho$ and $\gamma$ does not embed three vertices on a line. Clearly, if $R$ is column planar in $G$ then any subset of $R$ is also column planar in $G$. We say that $R$ is $\rho$-column planar when we need to emphasize the injection $\rho$ (see Fig. 1 for an example). If $R=V$ is column planar in $G$ then $G$ is ULP since column planarity implies the existence of one assignment of $x$-coordinates to vertices that will produce a planar embedding for all assignments of $y$-coordinates, while to be a ULP graph the $x$-coordinate assignment may depend on the $y$-coordinate assignment. In this sense, column planarity of $V$ is strictly more restrictive than unlabeled level planarity of $G$. Di Giacomo et al. [8] study column planarity under a different name. Specifically, they define EAP graphs as the graphs $G=(V, E)$ where $V$ is column planar in $G$. They consider a family of graphs called fat caterpillars and prove that these are exactly the EAP graphs.

As mentioned above, the study of ULP was originally motivated by simultaneous geometric embedding, a concept introduced by Brass et al. [4]. Formally, given two graphs $G_{1}=\left(V, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V, E_{2}\right)$ on the same set of $n$ vertices, they defined a simultaneous geometric embedding (SGE) of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ as an injection $\varphi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that the straight-line drawings of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ induced by $\varphi$ are both plane. With slight abuse of notation, we refer to these drawings as $\varphi\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $\varphi\left(G_{2}\right)$. Fig. 2c depicts an SGE of the graphs in Fig. 2a and Fig. 2b.


Fig. 2. (a-b) Two graphs on the same vertex set. (c) An SGE of these graphs. (d) A 3-PSGE of these graphs.

Bläsius et al. [2] give an excellent survey of the subsequent papers on SGE with a comprehensive list of results. On the positive side, Brass et al. [4] prove that two paths, cycles or caterpillars always admit an SGE. Cabello et al. [5] prove that a matching and a tree or outerpath (a type of outerplanar graph) always admit an SGE. On the negative side, Brass et al. [4] prove that three paths sometimes do not admit an SGE. Erten and Kobourov [9] prove that a planar graph and a path may not admit an SGE. Frati, Kaufmann and Kobourov [13] strengthen this result to the case where the planar graph and the path do not share any edges. Geyer, Kaufmann and Kobourov [14] describe two trees that do not admit an SGE. Angelini et al. [1] close a long-standing open question by describing a tree and a path that admit no SGE. Finally, Estrella-Balderrama et al. [11] show that the decision problem for SGE is NP-hard.

In light of the restrictiveness of simultaneous geometric embedding, several other variations on the abstract problem have been studied. Cappos et al. [6] consider a version of SGE where edges are embedded as circular arcs or with bends. Di Giacomo et al. [7] consider matched drawings: a version of SGE where the location of a vertex in the drawing of $G_{1}$ need only have the same $y$-coordinate as its location in the drawing of $G_{2}$.

In this paper we consider a variant on SGE which we call partial simultaneous geometric embedding (PSGE). We do not require every vertex to map to a single point in the plane. Instead, some vertices can have a "split personality" and map to two different locations, one associated with $G_{1}$ and one associated with $G_{2}$. Specifically, given two graphs $G_{1}=\left(V, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V, E_{2}\right)$ on the same set of $n$ vertices, a $k$-partial simultaneous geometric embedding ( $k$-PSGE) of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is a pair of injections $\varphi_{1}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\varphi_{2}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that (i) the straight-line drawings $\varphi_{1}\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $\varphi_{2}\left(G_{2}\right)$ are both plane; (ii) if $\varphi_{1}\left(v_{1}\right)=\varphi_{2}\left(v_{2}\right)$ then $v_{1}=v_{2}$ and; (iii) $\varphi_{1}(v)=\varphi_{2}(v)$ for at least $k$ vertices $v \in V$. An $n$-PSGE is simply an SGE. Fig. 2d depicts a 3-PSGE of the graphs in Fig. 2a and Fig. 2b.

PSGE is related to the notion of planar untangling: Given a straight-line drawing of a planar graph, change the embedding of as few vertices as possible in order to obtain a plane drawing. Goaoc et al. [15] describe an improvement of a result by Bose et al. [3] to show that $\sqrt[4]{(n+1) / 2}$ vertices can always be kept in their original positions. Since we can simply take any plane embedding of $G_{1}$, use the same embedding for $G_{2}$ and then untangle $G_{2}$, it immediately follows that every two planar graphs on $n$ vertices admit a $\sqrt[4]{(n+1) / 2}$-PSGE.

Results and Organization. In Section 2, we study column planarity for subsets of trees. We prove that every tree on $n$ vertices contains a column planar subset of size $14 n / 17$ and we show that there exist trees where every column planar subset has size at most $5 n / 6$. In Section 3, we establish the relation between column planarity and PSGE. We show that every two trees admit an $11 n / 17$ PSGE, that every tree and ULP graph admit a $14 n / 17-\mathrm{PSGE}$, that every two outerpaths admit an $n / 4$-PSGE, and that every outerpath and a tree admit an 11n/34-PSGE.

## 2 Column planar sets in trees

In this section, we show how to find large column planar sets in trees. Let $p(v)$ be the parent of vertex $v$ in a rooted tree $T$, and let $r(T)$ be the root of $T$. Given a subset $R$ of the vertices of $T$, let $C_{R}(v)$ be the non-leaf children of $v$ in $R$ and let $C_{R}^{+}(v)$ be those vertices in $C_{R}(v)$ with at least one child in $R$. We first prove that subsets of $T$ satisfying certain conditions are always column planar and next that every tree contains a large such subset.

Lemma 1. For a rooted tree $T, R$ is column planar in $T$ if for all $v \in R$, either (1) $p(v) \in R$, the number of non-leaf children of $v$ in $R$ is at most two, and at most one of these children has a child in $R\left(\right.$ i.e. $C_{R}(v) \leq 2$ and $\left.C_{R}^{+}(v) \leq 1\right)$; or (2) $p(v) \notin R$, the number of non-leaf children of $v$ in $R$ is at most four, and at most two of these children have a child in $R$ (i.e. $C_{R}(v) \leq 4$ and $C_{R}^{+}(v) \leq 2$ ).

Proof. We will embed $T$ recursively. The $x$-coordinates of $V$ will be fixed in such a way that any assignment $\gamma: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of $y$-coordinates to $R$ can be accommodated by embedding the vertices of $V \backslash R$ with $y$-coordinates much larger than $\max \gamma$ or much smaller than $\min \gamma$. Thus, the edges between $V \backslash R$ and $R$ are embedded as near-vertical line segments. In the figures that accompany this proof, such edges will be drawn as curves.

For a subtree $T^{\prime}$ of $T$, let $p\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ be the parent of $r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. If $r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ is the root of $T$ then $p\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, though it does not exist, is viewed as not in $R$. Our embedding will have the following properties for each subtree $T^{\prime}$ : (i) if $r\left(T^{\prime}\right) \notin R$ or $\left\{r\left(T^{\prime}\right), p\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right\} \subseteq R$, then $r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ has either the smallest or largest $x$-coordinate among all vertices in $T^{\prime}$; (ii) if $r\left(T^{\prime}\right) \notin R$, then $r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ has either the smallest or largest $y$-coordinate among all vertices in $T^{\prime}$; and (iii) no almost-vertical ray from $r\left(T^{\prime}\right)$ intersects any edge from $T^{\prime}$.

Let $T$ be the rooted tree we want to embed. Let $r=r(T)$. If $r \in R$, then recursively generate embeddings of all non-leaf children of $r$. Scale each such embedding horizontally to width 1 . Suppose first that $p(T) \in R$. See Fig. 3a.

Embed $r$ at $x=1$ and its $\ell$ leaf children at $x=2, \ldots, \ell+1$. (Their $y$ coordinates are determined by $\gamma$.) Suppose $C_{R}(v) \subseteq\left\{r_{1}, s_{1}\right\}$ and $C_{R}^{+}(v) \subseteq\left\{r_{1}\right\}$. Embed $r_{1}$ and its subtree recursively and scale its $x$-coordinates to lie in $[\ell+3, \ell+$ 4]. By (i), and possibly after mirroring the embedding of the subtree rooted at $r_{1}$ horizontally, the edge $\left\{r, r_{1}\right\}$ does not cross edges in the subtree rooted at $r_{1}$.


Fig. 3. Embedding a tree with a column planar set. The column planar vertices are black .

Embed $s_{1}$ at $x=\ell+2$. Let $T_{1}, \ldots, T_{k}$ be the child subtrees of $s_{1}$. Embed $T_{i}$ recursively and scale its $x$-coordinates to lie in $[\ell+3+2 i, \ell+4+2 i]$ for all $1 \leq i \leq k$. Vertex $s_{1}$ will be above $\left\{r, r_{1}\right\}$ for some $\gamma$ and below $\left\{r, r_{1}\right\}$ for other $\gamma$. If it is above, let $r\left(T_{1}\right), \ldots, r\left(T_{k}\right)$ have progressively larger $y$-coordinates (by scaling up and mirroring vertically if necessary). If it is below, let them have progressively smaller $y$-coordinates. Then none of the edges $\left\{s_{1}, r\left(T_{i}\right)\right\}$ cross $\left\{r, r_{1}\right\}$ and the edge $\left\{s_{1}, r\left(T_{i}\right)\right\}$ does not cross any edges in $T_{i}$ by (i) and (ii).

Recursively, embed the remaining child subtrees $T_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, T_{t}^{\prime}$ (none of whose roots are in $R$ ) with $x$-coordinates in $[\ell+3+2 k+2 i, \ell+4+2 k+2 i]$ for all $1 \leq i \leq t$ such that $r\left(T_{1}^{\prime}\right), \ldots, r\left(T_{t}^{\prime}\right)$ have progressively larger $y$-coordinates. The edge $\left\{r, r\left(T_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ does not cross any edges in $T_{i}^{\prime}$ by (ii). In the completed drawing, note that $r$ has the lowest $x$-coordinate, and thus (i) is satisfied. Properties (ii) and (iii) are trivially satisfied.

Suppose that $p(T) \notin R$. Proceed first as in the previous case. Suppose $C_{R}(v) \subseteq\left\{r_{1}, r_{2}, s_{1}, s_{2}\right\}$ and $C_{R}^{+}(v) \subseteq\left\{r_{1}, r_{2}\right\}$. Mirror the recursive embedding of the subtree rooted at $r_{2}$ horizontally and scale it to have $x$-coordinates in $[-3,-2]$. Embed the subtree rooted at $s_{1}$ as in the previous case. For $s_{2}$, proceed similarly but embed $s_{2}$ and its subtree to the left of $r$. See Fig. 3b. Properties (i)-(iii) are trivially satisfied.

Finally, suppose that $r=r(T) \notin R$. Embed its child subtrees $T_{1}, \ldots, T_{t}$ to have $x$-coordinates in $[2 i, 2 i+1]$ for all $1 \leq i \leq t$, starting with the ones rooted at a vertex in $R$. Embed $r$ sufficiently high on the line $x=1$. For subtrees $T_{i}$ with $r\left(T_{i}\right) \in R$, note that the edge $\left\{r, r\left(T_{i}\right)\right\}$ does not cross any edges of $T_{i}$ due to (iii). For the other ones, $\left\{r, r\left(T_{i}\right)\right\}$ does not cross edges of $T_{i}$ due to (i) and (ii). See Fig. 3c. Properties (i-iii) are satisfied.

It remains to show that every tree contains a subset that satisfies the conditions imposed by Lemma 1 . We show that every tree on $n$ vertices contains such a subset of size at least $14 n / 17$ and that there are trees with no column planar subset of size larger than $5 n / 6$. Note that $14 / 17 \approx 5 / 6-0.01$, and thus our results are almost tight.

Lemma 2. Let $T$ be a tree on $n$ vertices rooted at any vertex $r(T)$. Let $c_{i}$ be the number of vertices with exactly $i$ children. Then $c_{0}=\left(n+1+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(i-2) c_{i}\right) / 2$.

Proof. The number of edges in $T$ is $n-1$ and also equals the degree sum divided by two. Thus, $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i}(i+1)=2(n-1)+1=2 n-1$. Since $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i}=n$, $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i}(i-2)+3 n=2 n-1$, and $-2 c_{0}=-n-1-\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_{i}(i-2)$. The lemma follows.

Theorem 1. A tree $T$ on $n$ vertices contains a column planar set of size at least $14 n / 17$.

Proof. Root $T$ at an arbitrary non-leaf vertex $r(T)$. Orient every edge towards the root and topologically sort $T$ to obtain an order $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$. We will greedily add vertices to $R$ in this order. More precisely, let $R_{0}=\emptyset$ and let $R_{i}:=R_{i-1} \cup$ $\left\{v_{i}\right\}$ if $R_{i-1} \cup\left\{v_{i}\right\}$ satisfies Lemma 1 and let $R_{i}:=R_{i-1}$ otherwise. Let $R=R_{n}$ be our final subset of $T$.

We say that a vertex is marked if it is in $R$. Consider a vertex $v=v_{i} \notin R$. The reason that $v$ is not in $R$ is that $R_{i-1} \cup\{v\}$ does not satisfy the condition in Lemma 1 for $v$ or a child $u$ of $v$ (or both). More precisely, $v$ is contained in exactly one of the following sets:

$$
\begin{aligned}
X_{a} & =\{v \in T \backslash R: & & \left.\left|C_{R}^{+}(v)\right|>2\right\} \\
X_{b} & =\left\{v \in T \backslash R \backslash X_{a}:\right. & & \left.\left|C_{R}(v)\right|>4\right\} \\
X_{c} & =\left\{v \in T \backslash R \backslash X_{a} \backslash X_{b}:\right. & & \left.\left|C_{R}^{+}(u)\right|>1\right\} \\
X_{d} & =\left\{v \in T \backslash R \backslash X_{a} \backslash X_{b} \backslash X_{c}:\right. & & \left.\left|C_{R}(u)\right|>2\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

We associate with each such $v$ a witness tree $W(v)$ as follows (see Fig. 4). If $v \in X_{a}$, then let $W(v)$ be $v$, three vertices of $C_{R}^{+}(v)$ and a marked child of each of them (which must exist by definition of $C_{R}^{+}(v)$ ). If $v \in X_{b}$, then let $W(v)$ be $v$ and five marked children of $v$. If $v \in X_{c}$, then let $W(v)$ be $v, u$, two vertices of $C_{R}^{+}(u)$ and a marked child of each of them. If $v \in X_{d}$, let $W(v)$ be $v, u$ and three marked children of $u$. Note that $W(v)$ and $W\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ are disjoint for $v, v^{\prime} \in T \backslash R$ with $v \neq v^{\prime}$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|X_{a}\right|+\left|X_{b}\right|+\left|X_{c}\right|+\left|X_{d}\right|+|R|=n \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$



Fig. 4. The witness tree $W(v)$ when $v$ is in $X_{a}, X_{b}, X_{c}$ or $X_{d}$. The marked vertices are black. Dotted line segments indicate that a vertex has at least one child.

Let $L_{t}$ and $I_{t}$ be the set of marked vertices of $\bigcup_{v \in X_{t}} W(v)$ that are leaves and internal vertices in $T$, respectively, for $t=a, b, c, d$. We have

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left|I_{a}\right|+\left|L_{a}\right|=6\left|X_{a}\right| & \left|L_{a}\right| \leq 3\left|X_{a}\right| \\
\left|I_{b}\right|+\left|L_{b}\right|=5\left|X_{b}\right| & \left|L_{b}\right|=0 \\
\left|I_{c}\right|+\left|L_{c}\right|=5\left|X_{c}\right| & \left|L_{c}\right| \leq 2\left|X_{c}\right| \\
\left|I_{d}\right|+\left|L_{d}\right|=4\left|X_{d}\right| & \left|L_{d}\right|=0
\end{array}
$$

Since $R$ always contains all leaves of $T$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|R| \geq c_{0}+\left|I_{a}\right|+\left|I_{b}\right|+\left|I_{c}\right|+\left|I_{d}\right| \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{i}$ is the number of vertices with exactly $i$ children in $T$. Note that $W(v)$ contains a vertex with at least three children if $v \in X_{a} \cup X_{b} \cup X_{d}$. Hence, by Lemma 2,

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{0}>\frac{n-c_{1}+\sum_{i=3}^{n-1} c_{i}}{2} \geq \frac{n-c_{1}+\left|X_{a}\right|+\left|X_{b}\right|+\left|X_{d}\right|}{2} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In addition, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{0} \geq\left|L_{a}\right|+\left|L_{b}\right|+\left|L_{c}\right|+\left|L_{d}\right| \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Before we bound $|R|$, consider the set $S$ formed by all leaves and all vertices with one child. Then $S$ is column planar by Lemma 1 and $|S|=c_{0}+c_{1}$. Whenever the greedily chosen $R$ has size less than $c_{0}+c_{1}$, we choose $R=S$ instead. Thus, we may assume

$$
\begin{equation*}
|R| \geq c_{0}+c_{1} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equations (7) and (9) yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
|R|>n-c_{0}+\left|X_{a}\right|+\left|X_{b}\right|+\left|X_{d}\right| \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

equations (2) and (8) yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{0} \geq 6\left|X_{a}\right|-\left|I_{a}\right|+\left|L_{c}\right| ; \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and equations (3), (4), (5), and (6) yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
|R| \geq c_{0}+5\left|X_{b}\right|+5\left|X_{c}\right|+4\left|X_{d}\right|-\left|L_{c}\right|+\left|I_{a}\right| \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

To eliminate $c_{0}$, we combine equation (10) with two times (11) and three times (12) to obtain $4|R|>n+13\left|X_{a}\right|+16\left|X_{b}\right|+15\left|X_{c}\right|+13\left|X_{d}\right|-\left|L_{c}\right|+\left|I_{a}\right|$. With equation (4), this gives $4|R|>n+13\left|X_{a}\right|+16\left|X_{b}\right|+13\left|X_{c}\right|+13\left|X_{d}\right|+\left|I_{a}\right| \geq$ $n+13\left(\left|X_{a}\right|+\left|X_{b}\right|+\left|X_{c}\right|+\left|X_{d}\right|\right)$. Together with equation (1), this yields the desired bound of $|R|>14 n / 17$.

The greedy algorithm achieves exactly this amount on the tree depicted in Fig. 5. Note that also $|S|=c_{0}+c_{1}=14 n / 17$ in this tree. In general, Theorem 1 is close to best possible:


Fig. 5. A tree for which $|R|=|S|=14 n / 17$. The set $R$ is colored black.

Theorem 2. For any $\epsilon>0$ and any $n>2 / \epsilon+5$, there exists a tree $T$ with $n$ vertices in which every column planar subset in $T$ has at most $(5 / 6+\epsilon) n$ vertices.

Proof. Let $p=\lfloor n / 6\rfloor$. Let $T$ be $p$ copies, $T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{p}$, of the tree shown in Fig. 6a in which the root of $T_{i+1}$ is made a child of the rightmost leaf of $T_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, p-1$. Suppose there is a column planar set $R$ of marked vertices in $T$ with $|R| / n>5 / 6+\epsilon$. Then in some sequence of at most $k=\lceil 1 /(3 \epsilon)\rceil$ subtrees $T_{i}, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_{j}$ there must be at least two trees with 6 marked vertices and the other trees with 5 marked vertices. If not, since each subtree has 6 vertices, the average fraction of marked vertices per tree is less than $\frac{5 k+2}{6 k}<5 / 6+\epsilon$.

Let $T_{i}, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_{j}$ be such a sequence. By possibly deleting a prefix of the sequence, we can assume that $T_{i}$ has 6 marked vertices. Let $\ell>i$ be the smallest index such that the root of $T_{\ell}$ is marked. Since $T_{i}, T_{i+1}, \ldots, T_{j}$ contains at least two trees with 6 marked vertices, $T_{\ell}$ exists. Let $H$ be the subtree induced by the root of $T_{\ell}$ and the vertices in $T_{i} \cup T_{i+1} \cup \cdots \cup T_{\ell-1}$. By definition, the unmarked vertices in $H$ are exactly the roots of the subtrees $T_{i+1}, T_{i+2}, \ldots, T_{\ell-1}$. We claim that the marked vertices are not column planar in $H$.

To simplify notation, let $H_{1}, H_{2}, \ldots, H_{q-1}$ be the sequence of subtrees in $H$ and let $r_{q}$ be the (marked) root of $T_{\ell}$. Label the vertices of $H_{i}$ as in Fig. 6a subscripted by $i$. See Fig. 6b. Let $R^{\prime}$ be the marked vertices in $H$ and suppose $R^{\prime}$ is $\rho$-column planar in $H$. For an edge $\{a, b\}$ in $H$ with $a, b \in R^{\prime}$, let $\rho(a, b)=$ [ $\rho(a), \rho(b)]$ be the $x$-interval of edge $\{a, b\}$. For two edges $\{a, b\}$ and $\{c, d\}$ in $H$ where $a, b, c$, and $d$ are distinct vertices in $R^{\prime}, \rho(a, b) \cap \rho(c, d)=\emptyset$ : otherwise, by choosing $\gamma$ appropriately we can cause the edges to intersect within their shared $x$-interval. This implies, for example, that the $x$-interval spanned by marked vertices in one subtree does not intersect that of a different subtree.


Fig. 6. (a) The tree $T_{i}$ and (b) $H$ used in the proof of Theorem 2.


Fig. 7. An example of how $\gamma$ is chosen in the proof of Theorem 2 where $q=5$. Note that forcing $r_{5}$ (bottom left) below the $x$-axis causes the edge $\left\{w_{4}, r_{5}\right\}$ to intersect another edge.

For $H_{1}$, since $\rho\left(s_{1}, t_{1}\right) \cap \rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)=\emptyset$ and $\rho\left(t_{1}, u_{1}\right) \cap \rho\left(r_{1}, s_{1}\right)=\emptyset, \rho\left(t_{1}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(r_{1}, s_{1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ (meaning either $\rho\left(r_{1}, s_{1}\right)<\rho\left(t_{1}\right)<\rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ or $\rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)<\rho\left(t_{1}\right)<\rho\left(r_{1}, s_{1}\right)$, where $A<B$ if for all $a \in A$ and $\left.b \in B, a<b\right)$. By similar reasoning, $\rho\left(w_{1}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ or between $\rho\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(r_{1}, s_{1}\right)$. Let us assume, by renaming vertices if necessary, that $\rho\left(w_{1}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$. See Fig. 7.

The basic idea is to choose $\gamma$ so that vertices in $R$ are close to the $x$-axis (with $\gamma\left(u_{i}\right)<\gamma\left(s_{i}\right)<0=\gamma\left(w_{i}\right)<\gamma\left(t_{i}\right)<\gamma\left(v_{i}\right)$ for all $i$ except when mentioned otherwise) and so that unmarked vertices are forced to be above the $x$-axis. We set $\gamma\left(u_{1}\right)$ to be negative and $\gamma\left(v_{1}\right)$ to be positive (so $w_{1}$ lies in the triangle $\left.t_{1} u_{1} v_{1}\right)$. This, together with the fact that $r_{2}$ is connected to $s_{2}$, forces the edge from $w_{1}$ to $r_{2}$ to be upward and thus $r_{2}$ to be above the $x$-axis.

Consider the order of $\rho\left(s_{2}\right), \rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$. If $\rho\left(s_{2}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$, then setting $\gamma$ so that the path $t_{2}, u_{2}, v_{2}$ is above $s_{2}\left(\gamma\left(t_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(v_{2}\right)<\right.$ $\left.0<\gamma\left(s_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(u_{2}\right)\right)$ causes the path to intersect $\left\{r_{2}, s_{2}\right\}$. Note that $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ cannot be between $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(s_{2}\right)$ since $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right) \cap \rho\left(s_{2}, t_{2}\right)=\emptyset$. Hence, $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(s_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$. Now let us consider the possible positions of $\rho\left(w_{2}\right)$. If $\rho\left(s_{2}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(w_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$, then setting $\gamma$ so that the path $u_{2}, t_{2}, w_{2}$ is above $s_{2}\left(\gamma\left(w_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(u_{2}\right)<0<\gamma\left(s_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(t_{2}\right)\right)$ causes the path to intersect $\left\{r_{2}, s_{2}\right\}$. Note that $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ cannot be between $\rho\left(w_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ since $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right) \cap \rho\left(t_{2}, w_{2}\right)=\emptyset$. Hence, $\rho\left(w_{2}\right)$ is between $\rho\left(s_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ or between $\rho\left(t_{2}\right)$ and $\rho\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$. In the first case, we set $\gamma\left(s_{2}\right)<0=\gamma\left(w_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(t_{2}\right)$ so the edge from $w_{2}$ to $r_{3}$ is forced upward to avoid intersecting path $r_{2}, s_{2}, t_{2}$. In the second case, we set $\gamma$ so that the path $t_{2}, u_{2}, v_{2}$ is below $w_{2}\left(\gamma\left(u_{2}\right)<0=\gamma\left(w_{2}\right)<\right.$ $\left.\gamma\left(t_{2}\right)<\gamma\left(v_{2}\right)\right)$ and the edge from $w_{2}$ to $r_{3}$ is forced upward. By repeating this argument, we force all the unmarked vertices as well as $r_{q}$ to be above the $x$-axis. Since $r_{q}$ is marked, we derive a contradiction by setting $\gamma\left(r_{q}\right)<0$.

## 3 Partial simultaneous geometric embedding

The relation between column planarity and PSGE is expressed by the following theorem, which relates the size of column planar sets to PSGE.


Fig. 8. (a) Graph $G_{1}$ with $R_{1}=\{a, d, e, f\}$ and $\rho_{1}=\{d \mapsto 1, a \mapsto 2, e \mapsto 3, f \mapsto 4\}$. (b) Graph $G_{2}$ with $R_{2}=\{a, b, f\}$ and $\rho_{2}=\{a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 2, f \mapsto 3\}$. (c) A 2-PSGE of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ where vertex set $R=R_{1} \cap R_{2}=\{a, f\}$ is shared.

Theorem 3. Consider planar graphs $G_{1}=\left(V, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V, E_{2}\right)$ on $n$ vertices. If $R_{1}$ is column planar in $G_{1}, R_{2}$ is column planar in $G_{2}$ and $\left|R_{1}\right|+$ $\left|R_{2}\right|>n$, then $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ admit a $\left(\left|R_{1}\right|+\left|R_{2}\right|-n\right)$-PSGE.

Proof. Fig. 8 illustrates the construction. The set $R=R_{1} \cap R_{2}$ has size at least $\left|R_{1}\right|+\left|R_{2}\right|-n>0$ and is column planar in both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$. More specifically, there exist injections $\rho_{1}: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\rho_{2}: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $R$ is $\rho_{1}$-column planar in $G_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$-column planar in $G_{2}$. By exchanging the roles of the $x$ and $y$-coordinates in the definition of column planar in $G_{2}$, we see that for all injections $\gamma: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists a plane straight-line embedding of $G_{2}$ that embeds each $v \in R$ at $\left(\gamma(v), \rho_{2}(v)\right)$. In particular, we may choose $\gamma=\rho_{1}$.

Two trees. Combining Theorem 3 and Theorem 1 immediately yields the following lower bound on the size of a PSGE of two trees.

Corollary 1. Every two trees on a set of $n$ vertices admit an 11n/17-PSGE.
There are two trees $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ on 226 vertices that do not admit an SGE [14]. Thus, an upper bound on the size of the common set in a PSGE of $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ is 225 . Root $T_{1}$ arbitrarily and let $T_{1}^{k}$ be the result of taking $k$ copies of $T_{1}$ and connecting their roots with a path. Define $T_{2}^{k}$ similarly. Then an upper bound on the size of the common set in a PSGE of $T_{1}^{k}$ and $T_{2}^{k}$ is $225 k$. It follows that there exist two trees on a set of $n$ vertices that admit no $k$-PSGE for $k>225 n / 226$.
Tree and ULP graph. If one of the two graphs in our PSGE is ULP, then the size of the common set depends only on how large a column planar set we can find in the other graph:

Lemma 3. Consider a planar graph $G_{1}=\left(V, E_{1}\right)$ and a ULP graph $G_{2}=$ $\left(V, E_{2}\right)$ on $n$ vertices. If $R$ is column planar in $G_{1}$, then $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ admit a $|R|-P S G E$.

Proof. By exchanging the roles of $x$ - and $y$-coordinates in the definition of column planar, we see that for all injections $\gamma: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists a plane straight-line embedding of $G_{1}$ with $v \in R$ at $(\gamma(v), \rho(v))$. Since $G_{2}$ is a ULP
graph, for all injections $y: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists an injection $x: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that placing $v \in V$ at $(x(v), y(v))$ results in a straight-line embedding of $G_{2}$. Thus, placing the vertices $v \in R$ at $(x(v), \rho(v))$ permits both a straight-line embedding of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$.

Combining this with Theorem 1 yields
Corollary 2. A tree and a ULP graph admit a $14 n / 17-P S G E$.
Two outerpaths \& outerpath and tree. An outerplanar graph is a planar graph that admits an embedding (called the outerplane embedding) that places all its vertices on the unbounded face. An outerpath is an outerplanar graph whose weak dual (the graph obtained from the dual graph by deleting the vertex corresponding to the unbounded face) is a path. A maximal outerpath has exactly two vertices of degree two: these vertices are on the faces that correspond to the terminal vertices of the dual path. Consider a maximal outerpath $G=(V, E)$. The outer cycle of $G$ is the Hamiltonian cycle of $G$ that bounds the unbounded face in the outerplane embedding of $G$. Denote by $C(G)$ the vertices of degree two in $G$. Deleting $C(G)$ from $G$ partitions the outer cycle of $G$ into two connected components whose vertices we refer to as $A(G)$ and $B(G)$. Note that $A(G) \cup B(G) \cup C(G)=V$. It is easy to see that:

Lemma 4. Given a maximal outerpath $G=(V, E)$, the subsets $A(G) \cup C(G)$ and $B(G) \cup C(G)$ are column planar.

Unlike in the tree setting, Theorem 3 does not immediately give a lower bound on the size of a PSGE of two outerpaths, since we might have $|A(G)|=|B(G)|=$ $n / 2-1$. Fortunately, this is easily resolved:

Theorem 4. Every two outerpaths on a set of $n$ vertices admit an n/4-PSGE.
Proof. Consider outerpaths $G_{1}=\left(V, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V, E_{2}\right)$. Without loss of generality, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are maximal. Let $X_{i}^{+}:=X\left(G_{i}\right) \cup C\left(G_{i}\right)$ for $X=A, B$ and $i=1,2$. Then by Theorem 3 and Lemma $4, G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ admit a $\max \left\{\mid A_{1}^{+} \cap\right.$ $A_{2}^{+}\left|,\left|A_{1}^{+} \cap B_{2}^{+}\right|,\left|B_{1}^{+} \cap A_{2}^{+}\right|,\left|B_{1}^{+} \cap B_{2}^{+}\right|\right\}$-PSGE. Since the union of these four sets is again $V$, the maximum of their cardinalities must be at least $n / 4$.

Since $|C(G)|+\max \{|A(G)|,|B(G)|\} \geq n / 2+1$, Theorem 1 and 3 yield:
Corollary 3. An outerpath and a tree on $n$ vertices admit a $11 n / 34-P S G E$.

## 4 Discussion and Open Problems

Our results leave several directions for future research. The tree drawings produced by Theorem 1 may have exponential area. It would be interesting to see whether polynomial area is sufficient. Further research could be directed towards closing the gap between the lower and upper bound on the size of column planar sets for trees and on developing bounds for such sets in general planar graphs.

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