# Adding One Edge to Planar Graphs Makes Crossing Number Hard* 

Sergio Cabello<br>Department of Mathematics<br>IMFM and FMF, University of Ljubljana<br>Slovenia<br>sergio.cabello@fmf.uni-lj.si

Bojan Mohar ${ }^{\dagger}$<br>Department of Mathematics<br>Simon Fraser University<br>Burnaby, B.C. V5A 1S6<br>mohar@sfu.ca


#### Abstract

A graph is near-planar if it can be obtained from a planar graph by adding an edge. We show that it is NP-hard to compute the crossing number of near-planar graphs. The main idea in the reduction is to consider the problem of simultaneously drawing two planar graphs inside a disk, with some of its vertices fixed at the boundary of the disk. This approach can be used to prove hardness of some other geometric problems. As an interesting consequence we obtain a new, geometric proof of NP-completeness of the crossing number problem, even when restricted to cubic graphs. This resolves a question of Hliněný.


## Categories and Subject Descriptors

F.2.2 [Analysis of Algorithms and Problem Complexity]: Nonnumerical algorithms and problems-Geometric problems and computations; Computations on discrete structures; G.2.2 [Discrete Mathematics]: Graph theoryGraph algorithms

## General Terms

Algorithms, Theory

## Keywords

Topological graph theory, planar graphs, crossing number, NP-hard, graph drawing, graph embedding

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A drawing of a graph $G$ in the plane is a representation of $G$ where vertices are represented by distinct points of

[^0]$\mathbb{R}^{2}$, edges are represented by simple polygonal arcs in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ joining points that correspond to their endvertices, and the interior of every arc representing an edge contains no points representing the vertices of $G$. A crossing of a drawing $\mathcal{D}$ is a pair $\left(\left\{e, e^{\prime}\right\}, p\right)$, where $e$ and $e^{\prime}$ are distinct edges and $p \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is a point that belongs to the interiors of both arcs representing $e$ and $e^{\prime}$ in the drawing $\mathcal{D}$. The number of crossings of a drawing $\mathcal{D}$ is denoted by $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})$ and is called the crossing number of the drawing. The crossing number $\operatorname{cr}(G)$ of a graph $G$ is the minimum $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})$ taken over all drawings $\mathcal{D}$ of $G$. A drawing $\mathcal{D}$ with $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})=0$ is called an embedding of $G$.

A graph is near-planar if it can be obtained from a planar graph $G$ by adding an extra edge $x y$ between vertices $x$ and $y$ of $G$. We denote such near-planar graph by $G+x y$. (The term almost planar has also been used for the same concept $[10,13]$.) Near-planarity is a very weak relaxation of planarity, and hence it is natural to study the crossing number of near-planar graphs. Graphs embeddable in the torus and apex graphs are a superfamily of near-planar graphs. We show that it is NP-hard to compute the crossing number of near-planar graphs. This result is not only surprising but also fundamental. It provides evidence that computing crossing numbers is an extremely challenging task, even for the simplest families of non-planar graphs.

Our reduction is based on considering the following optimization problem: draw two planar graphs inside a disk with some of its vertices at prescribed positions of the boundary, so as to minimize the number of crossings in the drawing. We show that this problem is NP-hard using a reduction from satisfiability (SAT). The reduction is inspired by the work of Werner [16], although the details in our proof are essentially different. We can then use a technique from [13] to provide NP-hardness of computing the crossing number of near-planar graphs.

Our approach can be used to prove hardness of some other geometric problems. As an interesting consequence we obtain a new, geometric proof of NP-completeness of the crossing number problem, even when restricted to cubic graphs. Hardness of the crossing number problem for cubic graphs was established by Hliněný [9], who asked if one can prove this result by a reduction from an NP-complete geometric problem instead of the Linear Arrangement problem used in his proof.

Related work. It has been known for quite some time that it is NP-hard to compute crossing numbers of graphs. Pre-
vious proofs involved reductions from the problem Linear Arrangement $[6,9,14]$. The spirit of our reduction is completely different from previous proofs and hence of interest in its own right. In particular, we provide an alternative proof that computing crossing numbers is NP-hard (even when restricted to cubic graphs). Our NP-hardness proof is more complicated, but it provides the additional bonus of having control over the structure of the graph and henceforth working for near-planar graphs.

The study of crossing numbers for near-planar graphs was initiated by Riskin [15], who showed that if $G$ is a planar 3connected cubic graph, then the crossing number of $G+x y$ is equal to the length of a shortest path in the geometric dual graph of the planar subgraph $G-x-y$. A consequence of his result it that the crossing number of a 3 -connected cubic near-planar graph can be computed in polynomial time. Riskin asked if a similar result holds in more general situations. This was disproved by Mohar [13] and Gutwenger, Mutzel, and Weiskircher [8]. In fact, the result cannot be extended even assuming 5-connectivity.

For near-planar graphs of maximum degree $\Delta$, Hliněný and Salazar [10] provided a $\Delta$-approximation algorithm for the crossing number. Later, we [2] improved the approximation factor of this algorithm to $\lfloor\Delta / 2\rfloor$ using combinatorial bounds that relate the crossing number of $G+x y$ to the number of vertex-disjoint and edge-disjoint cycles in $G$ that separate $x$ and $y$. This separation has to be defined in a certain strong sense over all planar embeddings of $G$. Approximation algorithms for the crossing number have been provided for some superfamilies of near-planar graphs [3, 4, 11]. However, it should be noted that it was not known if computing the crossing number in any of those families is NP-hard. Combinatorial bounds have also been studied in $[1,5]$.

Our previous paper [2] contained a closely related result: namely, we showed that computing the crossing number of near-planar graphs is NP-hard for weighted graphs. Unfortunately, our reduction was from Partition, and hence required weights that are not polynomially bounded in the size of the graph. Moreover, the planarizing edge $x y$ needed large weight, so $G+x y$ could not be transformed into an unweighted near-planar graph. See the discussion below. In this paper we use completely different techniques.

Kawarabayashi and Reed [12], improving upon a result of Grohe [7], have shown that for each constant $k_{0}$ there is a linear-time algorithm that decides if the crossing number of an input graph is at most $k_{0}$. Hence, it is clear that in our reduction the crossing number has to be an increasing function in the number of vertices.

Weighted vs. unweighted edges. Our discussion will be simplified by using weighted edges. When each edge $e$ of $G$ has a weight $w_{e} \in \mathbb{N}$, the crossing number of a drawing $\mathcal{D}$ is defined as $\sum w_{e} \cdot w_{e^{\prime}}$, the sum taken over all crossings ( $\left\{e, e^{\prime}\right\}, p$ ) in $\mathcal{D}$. The crossing number of $G$ is then defined again as the minimum $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})$ taken over all drawings $\mathcal{D}$ of $G$.

Let $G$ be a weighted graph. Consider the unweighted graph $H_{G}$ with $V\left(H_{G}\right)=V(G)$, in which there are $w_{u v}$ subdivided "parallel" edges between $u$ and $v$ in $H_{G}$, for each edge $u v \in E(G)$. It is easy to see that $\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{G}\right)=\operatorname{cr}(G)$. If the weights of $G$ are polynomially bounded in $|V(G)|$, then $H_{G}$ can be constructed in polynomial time. Hence, in
our reduction it will be enough to describe a weighted planar graph $G$ whose weights are polynomially bounded, and then describe which extra edge $x y$ we add. The resulting unweighted near-planar graph is $H_{G}+x y$. The additional edge $x y$ that we add must have unit weight, as otherwise the resulting graph $H_{G+x y}$ would not be near-planar.

Anchored graphs. The main idea in our proof is considering a concept of anchored graphs, and studying the corresponding crossing numbers. We are not aware of any previous work considering this concept.

An anchored graph is a triple $\left(G, A_{G}, \pi_{G}\right)$, where $G$ is a graph, $A_{G}$ is a subset of vertices of $G$, and $\pi_{G}$ is a circular ordering of $A_{G}$. For reasons that will become evident soon, we call the vertices $A_{G}$ anchors. With a slight abuse of notation, we will sometimes use $G$ to denote an anchored graph when the anchor set $A_{G}$ and the ordering $\pi_{G}$ are implicit.

Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}$ be a topological disk whose boundary is a closed polygonal line. An anchored drawing of an anchored graph $\left(G, A_{G}, \pi_{G}\right)$ is a drawing of $G$ in $\Omega$ such that the vertices of $A_{G}$ are represented by points on the boundary of the disk $\Omega$, and the ordering of the anchors $A_{G}$ along the boundary of $\Omega$ is $\pi_{G}$. An anchored drawing without crossings is an anchored embedding. An anchored planar graph is an anchored graph that has an anchored embedding. The anchored crossing number $\operatorname{acr}\left(G, A_{G}, \pi_{G}\right)$, or simply $\operatorname{acr}(G)$, of an anchored graph $G$ is the minimum number of crossings over all anchored drawings of $G$.

Let $\left(G, A_{G}, \pi_{G}\right)$ be an anchored graph. Any subgraph $H$ of $G$ naturally defines the anchored subgraph $\left(H, A_{H}, \pi_{H}\right)$, where $A_{H}=A_{G} \cap V(H)$ and $\pi_{H}$ is the restriction of $\pi_{G}$ to the vertices in $A_{H}$. We say that an anchored graph ( $G, A_{G}, \pi_{G}$ ) can be decomposed into two anchored graphs if there are anchored subgraphs $\left(R, A_{R}, \pi_{R}\right)$ and $\left(B, A_{B}, \pi_{B}\right)$ such that $R \cup B=G$ and $E(R) \cap E(B)=\emptyset$. The decomposition is vertex-disjoint when $V(R) \cap V(B)=\emptyset$. For helping the exposition we will refer to $R$ as "red" graph and to $B$ as "blue" graph.

## 2. ANCHORED CROSSING NUMBER IN A DISK

The problem of minimizing the number of crossings in drawings of anchored graphs is of independent interest. In this section we show that computing the crossing number of anchored graphs is hard even in a very special case when the anchored graph is decomposed into two vertex-disjoint planar anchored subgraphs.

Theorem 1. Computing the anchored crossing number of anchored graphs is NP-hard, even if the input graph is decomposed into two vertex-disjoint planar anchored subgraphs (and the decomposition is part of the input).

The rest of this section is devoted the proof of Theorem 1. We will use the notation $[m]=\{0,1, \ldots, m\}$. The reduction will be from the decision problem of satisfiability:

## SAT.

Input: A set of $n$ variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and a set of $m$ disjunctive clauses $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}$. Output: Can we assign boolean values $T / F$ to the variables such that the formula $C_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge C_{m}$ is satisfied?

Consider an instance $I$ to SAT. Henceforth, we will use $n$ to denote the number of variables and use $m$ to denote the number of clauses. Let $w=30 \mathrm{~nm}$. It is convenient to think of $w$ as a sufficiently large weight to make the reduction work. Let $k=(6 n m+6 n+2 m+1) w^{3}-m\left(w^{2}+w-1\right)$. The upper bound $k<(6 n m+6 n+2 m+1) w^{3} \leq 15 n m w^{3}<$ $\left(w^{2}-1\right)^{2}$ will be useful in our discussion.

We next provide an overview of our reduction. Our aim at this point is to provide intuition. An example showing how the whole reduction works is given in Figure 1. It may help getting the global picture through the discussion. We will describe an anchored blue planar graph $B=B(I)$ and an anchored red planar graph $R=R(I)$. The graphs $B$ and $R$ will be vertex-disjoint. We will then construct an anchored graph $G=G(I)$ that has a decomposition into $R$ and $B$; the graph $G$ is determined by $R, B$ and by specifying the circular ordering of the anchors $A_{B} \cup A_{R}$. It will turn out from the construction that the anchored crossing number of $G$ is at least $k$, and that it is equal to $k$ if and only if the instance $I$ can be satisfied.

The blue graph $B$ has a grid-like structure. In an optimal drawing there are no blue-blue crossings. The weights of the blue edges are used to encode the clauses of the instance $I$. The red graph has the following structure. For each variable $x_{i}$ there is a pair of 'vertical paths' in the red graph; they connect anchor $r\left(x_{i}\right)$ to anchor $r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$ in Figure 1. The construction will enforce that in an optimal drawing such a pair will be drawn either to the left or to the right of the middle line, i.e. either in the gray or in the black region as shown in the left part of Figure 3. Each such option correspond to an assignment of the variable as $T$ or $F$. For each clause $C_{j}$ there is a 'horizontal path'; it connects anchor $r_{(0, j)}$ to anchor $r_{(2 n+1, j)}$ in Figure 1. Such path must cross a 'horizontal line' of the blue grid once. The number of crossings with such horizontal path depends on where it crosses the 'blue line', and tells if the clause is satisfied with the assignment of the variables or not.

We next proceed with the formal proof. The blue graph $B=B(I)$ is constructed as follows; see Figure 2:
(i) Take a grid-like graph with vertices $b_{(\alpha, \beta)},(\alpha, \beta) \in$ $[2 n+2] \times[2 m+3]$, and an edge between vertices $b_{(\alpha, \beta)}$ and $b_{\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right)}$ if and only if $\left|\alpha-\alpha^{\prime}\right|+\left|\beta-\beta^{\prime}\right|=1$.
(ii) Remove the vertices $b_{(2 i, 0)}$ and $b_{(2 i, 2 m+3)}$ for each $i \in$ $[n+1]$.
(iii) Define as anchors the vertices $b_{(2 i+1,0)}$ and $b_{(2 i+1,2 m+3)}$ for each $i \in[n]$, and the vertices $b_{(0, \beta)}$ and $b_{(2 n+2, \beta)}$ for each $\beta \in[2 m+2] \backslash\{0\}$.
(iv) Remove the edges between any two anchors.
(v) The weights of the edges are defined as follows:

- each edge adjacent to an anchor has weight $w^{4}$;
- if the literal $x_{i}$ appears in clause $C_{j}$, then the edge $b_{(2 i-1,2 j)} b_{(2 i, 2 j)}$ has weight $w^{2}-1$;
- if the literal $\neg x_{i}$ appears in clause $C_{j}$, then the edge $b_{(2 i, 2 j)} b_{(2 i+1,2 j)}$ has weight $w^{2}-1$;
- the edge $b_{(2 i-1,2 m+2)} b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)}$ has weight $w^{2}+$ $\mid\left\{j \mid\right.$ literal $x_{i}$ appears in $\left.C_{j}\right\} \mid$;
- the edge $b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)} b_{(2 i+1,2 m+2)}$ has weight $w^{2}+$ $\mid\left\{j \mid\right.$ literal $\neg x_{i}$ appears in $\left.C_{j}\right\} \mid$;
- all other edges have weight $w^{2}$.

Note that each edge in the blue graph $B$ has weight at least $w^{2}-1$. Hence, independently of the red graph $R$ to be defined below, a drawing of $B$ with crossing number at most $k<\left(w^{2}-1\right)^{2}$ has to be an embedding of $B$. Henceforth, we will assume that $B$ is anchored embedded. Note that the graph $B$ has a unique combinatorial embedding with anchors because of 3 -connectivity. For each variable $x_{i}$, we define two columns; see Figure 3. The column $C_{i}^{T}$ is the region of the disk enclosed between the curves

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{(2 i-1,0)} b_{(2 i-1,1)} \ldots b_{(2 i-1,2 m+3)} \quad \text { and } \\
& b_{(2 i+1,0)} b_{(2 i+1,1)} b_{(2 i, 1)} b_{(2 i, 2)} \ldots \\
& \quad \ldots b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)} b_{(2 i+1,2 m+2)} b_{(2 i+1,2 m+3)}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the column $C_{i}^{F}$ is the region of the disk enclosed between the curves

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{(2 i+1,0)} b_{(2 i+1,1)} \ldots b_{(2 i+1,2 m+3)} \quad \text { and } \\
& b_{(2 i-1,0)} b_{(2 i-1,1)} b_{(2 i, 1)} b_{(2 i, 2)} \ldots \\
& \quad \ldots b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)} b_{(2 i-1,2 m+2)} b_{(2 i-1,2 m+3)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The blue edges of the form $b_{(\alpha, \beta)} b_{(\alpha+1, \beta)}$ are called horizontal. The blue edges of the form $b_{(\alpha, \beta)} b_{(\alpha, \beta+1)}$ are called vertical. The weights of the horizontal edges $b_{(2 i-1,2 j)} b_{(2 i, 2 j)}$ and $b_{(2 i-1,2 m+2)} b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)}$ contained in the column $C_{i}^{T}$ have been chosen so that they add up to $2(m+1) w^{2}$ : each time we have a -1 in the weight of $b_{(2 i-1,2 j)} b_{(2 i, 2 j)}$ we have a +1 in the weight of $b_{(2 i-1,2 m+2)} b_{(2 i, 2 m+2)}$. The same holds for the column $C_{i}^{F}$.

For each clause $C_{j}$, we define two rows; see Figure 3. The upper row $U_{j}$ is the region of the disk enclosed between the curves

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{(0,2 j)} b_{(1,2 j)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 j)} \quad \text { and } \\
& b_{(0,2 j+1)} b_{(1,2 j+1)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 j+1)},
\end{aligned}
$$

and the lower row $L_{j}$ is the region of the disk enclosed between the curves

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{(0,2 j-1)} b_{(1,2 j-1)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 j-1)} \quad \text { and } \\
& b_{(0,2 j)} b_{(1,2 j)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 j)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

There is an additional row, called enforcing row and denoted by $R_{\text {enf }}$, which is the region of the disk enclosed between the curves

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{(0,2 m+1)} b_{(1,2 m+1)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 m+1)} \quad \text { and } \\
& b_{(0,2 m+2)} b_{(1,2 m+2)} \ldots b_{(2 n+2,2 m+2)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The role of the enforcing row $R_{\text {enf }}$ is to reduce the number of possible drawings to a well-structured subset of drawings. We will use the columns and the rows as some sort of coordinate system to tell where some red vertices go. For example, we may refer to the face $C_{i}^{T} \cap L_{j}$.

The red graph $R=R(I)$ is constructed as follows; see Figure 4:
(i) Take a grid-like graph with vertices $r_{(\alpha, \beta)},(\alpha, \beta) \in$ $[2 n+1] \times[m+2]$, and an edge between vertices $r_{(\alpha, \beta)}$ and $r_{\left(\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right)}$ if and only if $\left|\alpha-\alpha^{\prime}\right|+\left|\beta-\beta^{\prime}\right|=1$.
(ii) Remove the four vertices $r_{(0,0)}, r_{(0, m+2)}, r_{(2 n+1,0)}$, and $r_{(2 n+1, m+2)}$.


Figure 1: Example of the resulting reduction for the formula on 4 variables $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}$ and clauses $\neg x_{1} \vee \neg x_{3} \vee x_{4}$, $\neg x_{2} \vee \neg x_{4}, x_{2} \vee \neg x_{3}, x_{1} \vee x_{2}$. The optimal drawing in the figure corresponds to the boolean assignment $x_{1}=x_{2}=T$ and $x_{3}=x_{4}=F$.
(iii) For each variable $x_{i}$, identify the vertices $r_{(2 i-1,0)}$ and $r_{(2 i, 0)}$ into a new vertex called $r\left(x_{i}\right)$, and identify the vertices $r_{(2 i-1, m+2)}$ and $r_{(2 i, m+2)}$ into a new vertex called $r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$. For each variable $x_{i}$, the vertices $r\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$ are anchors for $R$. The vertices $r_{(0, j)}$ and $r_{(2 n+1, j)}$ are also anchors for $R$, for every $j \in[m+1] \backslash$ $\{0\}$.
(iv) Remove the edges between any two anchors.
(v) The weights of the edges are defined as follows:

- for each variable $x_{i}$ the edge $r_{(2 i-1, m+1)} r_{(2 i, m+1)}$ has weight $w^{4}$;
- for each variable $x_{i}$ and each clause $C_{j}$ the edge $r_{(2 i-1, j)} r_{(2 i, j)}$ has weight $w-1$;
- all other edges have weight $w$.

For each variable $x_{i}$ the following two vertical paths are
important:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r\left(x_{i}\right) r_{(2 i-1,1)} r_{(2 i-1,2)} \ldots r_{(2 i-1, m+1)} r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) \quad \text { and } \\
& r\left(x_{i}\right) r_{(2 i, 1)} r_{(2 i, 2)} \ldots r_{(2 i, m+1)} r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We will use $V_{i}$ to denote their union. For each clause $C_{j}$, we will consider the horizontal path $H_{j}$ defined by

$$
r_{(0, j)} r_{(1, j)} \ldots r_{(2 n+1, j)}
$$

We also define the horizontal enforcing path $H_{\mathrm{enf}}$ as

$$
r_{(0, m+1)} r_{(1, m+1)} \cdots r_{(2 n+1, m+1)}
$$

The role of the horizontal enforcing path $H_{\text {enf }}$ will be to reduce the number of possible drawings to a well-structured subset of drawings.

It is important to note that the paths

$$
V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots, V_{n}, H_{1}, H_{2} \ldots, H_{m}, H_{\mathrm{enf}}
$$

form a partition of the edge set of the red graph $R$. Hence, we can add the number of crossings that each of them con-


Figure 2: The graph $B=B(I)$. Anchors of the red graph are included to show the cyclic ordering of $A_{B} \cup A_{R}$.



Figure 3: Left: columns $C_{i}^{T}$ (lighter shading) and $C_{i+1}^{F}$ (darker shading). Right: the upper row $U_{j}$ (darker shading) and the lower row $L_{j}$ (lighter shading).


Figure 4: The graph $R=R(I)$. Anchors of the blue graph are also included to show the cyclic order of $A_{B} \cup A_{R}$.
tributes separately to obtain the crossing number of a drawing. Note also, that the intersection of a vertical pair of paths $V_{i}$ and a horizontal path $H_{j}$ (or $H_{\text {enf }}$ ) always consists of two vertices.

Let $G=G(I)$ be the anchored graph obtained by joining the red graph $R$ and the blue graph $B$. The (clockwise) circular ordering of the anchors along the boundary of the disk as follows:

- For each clause $C_{j}$ we have the sequence of anchors

$$
b_{(0,2 j-1)}, r_{(0, j)}, b_{(0,2 j)}, b_{(0,2 j+1)},
$$

and the sequence

$$
b_{(2 n+2,2 j+2)}, b_{(2 n+2,2 j+1)}, r_{(2 n+1, j)}, b_{(2 n+2,2 j)} .
$$

Hence, the anchor $r_{(0, j)}$ is in the lower row $L_{j}$ and anchor $r_{(2 n+1, j)}$ is in the upper row $U_{j}$.

- For each variable $x_{i}$, the anchor $r\left(x_{i}\right)$ is between anchors $b_{(2 i-1,0)}$ and $b_{(2 i+1,0)}$, and the anchor $r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$ is between $b_{(2 i-1,2 m+3)}$ and $b_{(2 i+1,2 m+3)}$. Hence, $r\left(x_{i}\right)$ and $r^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)$ are in both columns $C_{i}^{T}$ and $C_{i}^{F}$.
- Anchor $r_{(0, m+1)}$ is between $b_{(0,2 m+1)}$ and $b_{(0,2 m+2)}$, anchor $r_{(2 n+1, m+1)}$ is between anchors $b_{(2 n+2,2 m+2)}$ and $b_{(2 n+2,2 m+1)}$. Hence, anchors $r_{(0, m+1)}$ and $r_{(2 n+1, m+1)}$ are in the enforcing row $R_{\text {enf }}$.
- Anchor $b_{(0,1)}$ comes immediately after $b_{(1,0)}$, anchor $b_{(1,2 m+3)}$ comes immediately after $b_{(0,2 m+2)}$, anchor $b_{(2 n+2,2 m+2)}$ comes immediately after $b_{(2 n+1,2 m+3)}$, anchor $b_{(2 n+1,0)}$ comes immediately after $b_{(2 n+2,1)}$.

This finishes the description of the graph $G$. We first show the easy direction of the proof, which will also give an idea of how the reduction works. Recall that we have defined $k=(6 n m+6 n+2 m+1) w^{3}-m\left(w^{2}+w-1\right)$.

Lemma 1. If the instance I is satisfiable, then there is an anchored drawing of $G$ with $k$ crossings.

Proof. We draw the blue graph $B$ without crossings. The corresponding embedding is unique. The red graph $R$ is also going to be drawn without crossings. Hence, it is enough to describe in which face of $B$ is each red vertex and (when not obvious) where the red edges cross the blue edges. See Figure 1 for a particular example. Let $b_{i} \in\{T, F\}$ be an assignment for each variable $x_{i}$ of $I$ that satisfies all clauses. We draw the two red vertical paths of $V_{i}$ inside the column $C_{i}^{b_{i}}$. For each clause $C_{j}$ we proceed as follows. Let $x_{t}$, where $t=t(j)$, be a variable whose value $b_{t}$ makes the clause $C_{j}$ true. We then draw the horizontal path $H_{j}$ as follows: the subpath of $H_{j}$ between $r_{(0, j)}$ and $r_{(2 t-1, j)}$ is drawn in the lower row $L_{j}$, the edge $r_{(2 t-1, j)} r_{(2 t, j)}$ crosses from $L_{j}$ to $U_{j}$ through the blue edge in $L_{j} \cap U_{j} \cap C_{t}^{b t}$, and the subpath of $H_{j}$ between $r_{(2 t, j)}$ and $r_{(2 n+1, j)}$ is drawn in the upper row $U_{j}$. The path $H_{\text {enf }}$ is drawn inside the row $R_{\text {enf }}$. Note that this description implicitly assigns to each non-anchor vertex of $R$ a face of $B$. The drawing can be extended to a planar embedding of $R$ in such a way that no red edge crosses twice any blue edge.

Let us now compute the crossing number of the drawing we have described. There are no monochromatic crossings in the construction; hence we only need to count the red-blue crossings. Each of the two paths in $V_{i}$ contributes $2(m+$

1) $w^{3}$ to the crossing number of the drawing: edges in $V_{i}$ have weight $w$, and each path in $V_{i}$ crosses all the horizontal blue edges contained in $C_{i}^{b_{i}}$, whose weights add to $2(m+$ 1) $w^{2}$. Each horizontal path $H_{j}$ contributes $(2 n+1) w^{3}+(w-$ 1) $\left(w^{2}-1\right)$ to the crossing number of the drawing: the edges on the horizontal path $H_{j}$ connecting $V_{i}$ to $V_{i+1}$ have weight $w$ and cross $2 n+1$ blue vertical edges whose weight is $w^{2}$; there is only one red edge in $H_{j}$, namely $r_{(2 t(j)-1, j)} r_{(2 t(j), j)}$ with weight $w-1$, that crosses the boundary between rows $L_{i}$ and $U_{i}$, namely at the edge of $L_{j} \cap U_{j} \cap C_{t}^{b_{t}}$ with weight $w^{2}-1$ because the corresponding literal $x_{i}$ or $\neg x_{i}$ makes $C_{j}$ satisfied. The horizontal path $H_{\text {enf }}$ contributes $(2 n+1) w^{3}$ to the crossing number of the drawing: the edges of $H_{j}$ connecting $V_{i}$ to $V_{i+1}$ have weight $w$ and cross $2 n+1$ blue edges whose weight is $w^{2}$.

The crossing number of the drawing is thus
$n \cdot 2 \cdot 2(m+1) w^{3}+m \cdot\left((2 n+1) w^{3}+(w-1)\left(w^{2}-1\right)\right)+(2 n+1) w^{3}$ which is

$$
(6 n m+6 n+2 m+1) w^{3}-m\left(w^{2}+w-1\right)=k
$$

We next have to show the reverse implication: if the anchored crossing number of $G$ is at most $k$, then the formula $I$ is satisfiable. Henceforth, let us assume for the rest of this section that $\operatorname{acr}(G) \leq k$, and let us fix an anchored drawing $\mathcal{D}$ of $G$ with at most $k$ crossings. As mentioned before, $\mathcal{D}$ cannot have any blue-blue crossing because otherwise $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})>k$. In principle, $\mathcal{D}$ could contain red-red crossings; we will show below that in fact this is not possible, and hence all crossings are red-blue. It will be convenient to look at the number of red-blue crossings without taking into account the weights. We refer to such crossings as unweighted crossings. Simple arithmetic shows the following two properties.

Lemma 2. The drawing $\mathcal{D}$ has at most $6 n m+6 n+2 m+1$ unweighted red-blue crossings.

Lemma 3. (i) For each clause $C_{j}$, the horizontal path $H_{j}$ is inside the rows $U_{j} \cup L_{j}$ and crosses precisely $2 n+2$ blue edges.
(ii) The horizontal path $H_{\mathrm{enf}}$ is drawn inside the row $R_{\mathrm{enf}}$.
(iii) For each variable $x_{i}$, both vertical paths of $V_{i}$ are inside the column $C_{i}^{T}$ or both are inside the column $C_{i}^{F}$.

Lemma 4. If $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D}) \leq k$, then the instance $I$ is satisfiable. Moreover, the restriction of the drawing $\mathcal{D}$ to $R$ or to $B$ is an embedding.

Proof. By Lemma 3, in the drawing $\mathcal{D}$ both paths in $V_{i}$ are contained either in $C_{i}^{T}$ or $C_{i}^{F}$. Consider the assignment where variable $x_{i}$ gets value $b_{i}=T$ if the two paths of $V_{i}$ are contained in $C_{i}^{T}$, and $b_{i}=F$ otherwise. We will show that this assignment satisfies the formula $C_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge C_{m}$ of the instance $I$.

We will use in our analysis the properties of $\mathcal{D}$ obtained in Lemma 3. For a red subgraph $X$, let $\operatorname{cr}(X)$ denote the crossing number of the subdrawing of $\mathcal{D}$ induced by $X$ and the blue graph $B$.

All the edges in $V_{i}$ have weight $w$. The weights of the horizontal blue edges contained in $C_{i}^{b_{i}}$ add to $2(m+1) w^{2}$.

Furthermore, note that each of those blue horizontal edges is crossed by each of the two paths in $V_{i}$. Therefore we have $\operatorname{cr}\left(V_{i}\right)=2 \cdot(2 m+2) w^{3}$, and thus $\mathrm{cr}\left(\bigcup_{i} V_{i}\right)=(4 n m+4 n) w^{3}$. We next look at $H_{\text {enf }}$. All the edges from the path $H_{\text {enf }}$ have weight $w$ or $w^{4}$, and hence only edges from $H_{\text {enf }}$ with weight $w$ may cross the vertical blue edges contained in the row $R_{\text {enf }}$. Inside the row $R_{\text {enf }}$ there are $2 n+1$ vertical blue edges of weight $w^{2}$, and thus $\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{\text {enf }}\right)=(2 n+1) w^{3}$. Since $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D}) \leq k$ and the paths $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{n}, H_{1}, \ldots H_{m}, H_{\text {enf }}$ form an edge-disjoint partition of the edges of $R$, we have $\operatorname{cr}\left(\bigcup_{j} H_{j}\right)+\operatorname{cr}\left(\bigcup_{i} V_{i}\right)+\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{\text {enf }}\right) \leq k$, and therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{cr}\left(\bigcup_{j} H_{j}\right) & \leq k-(4 n m+2 n) w^{3}-(2 n+1) w^{3}  \tag{1}\\
& =m\left((2 n+2) w^{3}-\left(w^{2}+w-1\right)\right) . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

The edges of $H_{j}$ have weight $w$, if they connect a vertex in $V_{i} \cap H_{j}$ to a vertex in $V_{i+1} \cap H_{j}$ for some $i$, or weight $w-1$ if they connect both vertices of $V_{i} \cap H_{j}$ for some $j$. Because of Lemma 3, the edges with weight $w-1$ are always within the column $C_{i}^{b_{i}}$ for some $i$. This means that the boundary any column $C_{i}^{T}$ or $C_{i}^{F}$, which has weight $w^{2}$, is always crossed by a red edge of $H_{j}$ with weight $w$. Let $\partial_{j}$ denote the boundary between the lower row $L_{j}$ and the upper row $U_{j}$. This boundary $\partial_{j}$ must also be crossed by an edge of $H_{j}$, and that crossing contributes weight at least $(w-1)\left(w^{2}-1\right)$ to $\mathrm{cr}\left(H_{j}\right)$. We conclude that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{j}\right) & \geq(2 n+1) \cdot w \cdot w^{2}+(w-1)\left(w^{2}-1\right) \\
& =(2 n+2) w^{3}-\left(w^{2}+w-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if the crossing between $H_{j}$ and $\partial_{j}$ contributes exactly $(w-1)\left(w^{2}-1\right)$ to the crossing number. Combining with equations (1)-(2), we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{j}\right)=(2 n+2) w^{3}-\left(w^{2}+w-1\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for each clause $C_{j}$. Therefore, the boundary $\partial_{j}$ must be crossed at a blue edge $b_{(t, j)} b_{(t+1, j)}$ of weight $w^{2}-1$ by a red edge $r_{(2 i-1, j)} r_{(2 i, j)}$ of weight $w-1$. It may be that $t=2 i-1$ or $t=2 i$. Consider first the case when $t=2 i-1$. By the construction of the blue graph $B$, the edge $b_{(t, j)} b_{(t+1, j)}$ has weight $w^{2}-1$ because the literal $x_{i}$ appears in the clause $C_{j}$ of $I$. Moreover, the endpoints of $r_{(2 i-1, j)} r_{(2 i, j)}$ must be in the column $C_{i}^{T}$ since they are part of the vertical paths $V_{i}$. Hence, the clause $C_{j}$ is satisfied by the assignment $x_{i}=b_{i}=$ $T$ we defined at the beginning of the proof. The case when $t=2 i$ is alike, but in this case the literal $\neg x_{i}$ appears in the clause $C_{j}$ of $I$, and we took the assignment $x_{i}=b_{i}=F$.

Finally, note that our analysis shows that in $\mathcal{D}$ there are exactly $k$ red-blue crossings, and therefore there cannot be any red-red crossings. Hence the restriction of the drawing $\mathcal{D}$ to the red graph is an embedding.

Note that the graph $G$ can be constructed in polynomial time and that it has weights that are polynomially bounded in $n$ and $m$. Thus, in polynomial time we can replace in $G$ each edge $e$ by $w_{e}$ parallel edges that are subdivided once, and the resulting graph has the same anchored crossing number as $G$; see the discussion in the introduction. Then Theorem 1 follows from Lemmas 1 and 4 .

## 3. HARDNESS OF CROSSING NUMBER FOR NEAR-PLANAR GRAPHS

Theorem 2. Computing the crossing number of nearplanar graphs is NP-hard.

Proof. Consider an (unweighted) anchored graph $G$ that is decomposed into two planar anchored graphs $R$ and $B$ that are vertex-disjoint. Let $m$ denote the number of edges of $G$.

Consider the weighted graph $G^{\prime}$, without anchors, obtained from $G$ as follows: we start with $G$ and assign weight $2 m$ to each of its edges. For every two consecutive anchors $a$ and $a^{\prime}$ of $G$ in the cyclic ordering $\pi_{G}$, we introduce in $G^{\prime}$ an edge $a a^{\prime}$ with weight $5 \mathrm{~m}^{4}$. The set of added edges defines a cycle, which we denote by $C$. Finally, we choose an arbitrary vertex $r$ of $R$ that is not an anchor, an arbitrary vertex $b$ of $B$ that is not an anchor, and add the edge $r b$ to $G^{\prime}$ with unit weight. (If all vertices of $R$ are anchors we just subdivide an edge and take $r$ as the new vertex. A similar procedure can be done with $B$.) This completes the description of $G^{\prime}$.

Firstly, we show that $G^{\prime}$ is a near-planar graph. The graph $G^{\prime}-r b$ consists of the cycle $C$ connecting consecutive anchors of $G$, and two planar anchored graphs $R$ and $B$. We can thus embed $G^{\prime}-x y$ taking an embedding of $C$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, embedding $R$ in the disk bounded by $C$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, and embedding $B$ in the exterior of the disk. Note that the embeddings of $R$ and $B$ exist because they are planar anchored graphs. Since the weight of the edge $r b$ of $G^{\prime}$ is one, it follows that $G^{\prime}$ is a near-planar graph, even when replacing each edge distinct from $r b$ by the corresponding number of subdivided parallel edges.

We claim that $\operatorname{acr}(G)=\left\lfloor\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right) /\left(4 m^{2}\right)\right\rfloor$. Consider an optimal anchored drawing $\mathcal{D}$ of $G$ in a topological disk $\Omega$ with $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})=\operatorname{acr}(G)$. We then extend the drawing $\mathcal{D}$ to obtain a drawing $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ of $G^{\prime}$ as follows. Pushing the interior of the edges inside $\Omega$, we may assume that $\mathcal{D}$ touches the boundary $\partial \Omega$ of $\Omega$ only at the anchors. We then draw the edges $a a^{\prime}$ of $G^{\prime}$ between consecutive anchors along the boundary of the disk $\Omega$. Finally, we draw the edge $r b$ so as to minimize the number of crossings it contributes. Each crossing of $\mathcal{D}$ contributes $(2 m)^{2}$ crossings to $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$. The edge $r b$ can cross each edge of $G^{\prime}$ at most once in the drawing $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ because of optimality of $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ and the drawing of $r b$. Therefore $\operatorname{cr}\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}\right) \leq \operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D}) \cdot 4 m^{2}+2 m^{2}$, and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\lfloor\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right) / 4 m^{2}\right\rfloor & \leq\left\lfloor\operatorname{cr}\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}\right) / 4 m^{2}\right\rfloor \\
& \leq\left\lfloor\operatorname{acr}(G)+1 / 2 m^{2}\right\rfloor \\
& =\operatorname{acr}(G)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ be a drawing of $G^{\prime}$ in the plane such that no edge crosses itself and no two edges cross more than once. If the cycle $C$ is embedded and no edge of $C$ is involved in a crossing, then each pair of edges not in $C$ can cross at most once, and hence $\operatorname{cr}\left(D^{\prime}\right)$ is upper bounded by $\binom{m}{2} 2 m$. $2 m+1 \cdot m \cdot 2 m<5 m^{4}$. If the restriction of $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ to $C$ is not an embedding or some edge of $C$ participates in a crossing, then $\operatorname{cr}\left(D^{\prime}\right) \geq 5 \mathrm{~m}^{4}$. It follows that in every optimal drawing $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ of $G^{\prime}$, the cycle $C$ is embedded and no edge crosses $C$.

Consider now an optimal drawing $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ of $G^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{cr}\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}\right)=$ $\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. Let $\Omega$ be the disk bounded by the image of $C$ in $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$. Since no edge of $G^{\prime}$ can cross an edge of $C$, the drawing $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ is contained in the closure of $\Omega$. If in $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ we remove the image of $C$ and the image of the edge $r b$, then we obtain an
anchored drawing of $G$, which we shall denote by $\mathcal{D}$. Note that $\operatorname{cr}(\mathcal{D})$ is equal to $\operatorname{cr}\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}\right)$ minus the number of crossings contributed by $r b$ and scaled down by $(2 m)^{2}$ because of the weights introduced in $G^{\prime}$. We thus have

$$
\operatorname{acr}(G) \leq \operatorname{acr}(\mathcal{D}) \leq \operatorname{cr}\left(\mathcal{D}^{\prime}\right) /\left(4 m^{2}\right)=\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right) /\left(4 m^{2}\right)
$$

and we may take the floor on the right-hand side because the value is an integer. This finishes the proof of the claim $\operatorname{acr}(G)=\left\lfloor\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right) / 4 m^{2}\right\rfloor$.

The graph $G^{\prime}$ can be constructed from $G$ in polynomial time. Moreover, since the weights of $G^{\prime}$ are polynomially bounded, we can also replace each edge by parallel subdivided edges to obtain an unweighted graph $H_{G^{\prime}}$, as described in the introduction, that satisfies $\operatorname{cr}\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{G^{\prime}}\right)$. Since the graph $H_{G^{\prime}}$ is near-planar and $\operatorname{acr}(G)=\left\lfloor\operatorname{cr}\left(H_{G^{\prime}}\right) / 4 m^{2}\right\rfloor$, the result follows.

## Extensions.

Our NP-hardness proof in Section 2 has the following additional property: we know the local rotation of the edges around each vertex in any optimal anchored drawing. This essentially follows from Lemma 4 because $R$ and $B$ have a unique anchored embedding. Hence, it is NP-hard to compute the anchored crossing number restricted to drawings that have a prescribed local rotation system in each vertex. We can also make the anchored crossing number with rotation systems to be the usual crossing number with rotation systems by taking large enough weight on the edges of the cycle $C$ connecting the anchors, as we did in the proof of Theorem 2. Hence, it follows that computing the crossing number for graphs with prescribed rotation systems is NP-hard. This has been shown recently in [14] using a reduction from Linear Arrangement. It is then possible to replace each vertex by a 3 -regular grid where the edges are attached preserving the local rotation; the techniques is detailed in [14]. Hence, we provide an alternative, geometric proof that crossing number of cubic graphs is NP-hard. This settles a question of Hliněný [9], who asked if one can prove this result by a reduction from an NP-complete problem with geometric flavor, instead of reducing from Linear Arrangement.

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    $\dagger$ On leave from IMFM \& FMF, Department of Mathematics, University of Ljubljana, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia.

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