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A lower bound on the tree-width of graphs with irrelevant vertices

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Abstract

For their famous algorithm for the disjoint paths problem, Robertson and Seymour proved that there is a function f such that if the tree-width of a graph Gwith k pairs of terminals is at least f(k), then G contains a solution-irrelevant vertex (Graph Minors. XXII., JCTB 2012). We give a single-exponential lower bound on f. This bound even holds for planar graphs.

Keywords: disjoint paths problem, irrelevant vertex, vital linkage, unique linkage, planar graph, tree-width

1. Introduction

The DISJOINT PATHS PROBLEM is one of the famous classical problems in the area of graph algorithms. Given a graph G, and k pairs of terminals, $(s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$, it asks whether G contains k vertex-disjoint paths P_1, \ldots, P_k such that P_i connects s_i to t_i , (for $i = 1, \ldots, k$). Karp proved that the problem is NP-hard in general [4] and Lynch proved that it remains NP-hard on planar graphs [6]. Robertson and Seymour showed that it can be solved in time $g(k) \cdot |V(G)|^3$ for some computable function g, i.e. the problem is fixedparameter tractable (and, in particular, solvable in polynomial time for fixed k). For a recursive step in their algorithm ((10.5) in [11]), they prove [13] that there is a function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that if a graph G with k pairs of terminals has tree-width at least f(k), then G contains a vertex that is *irrelevant* to the solution, i.e. G contains a non-terminal vertex v such that G has a solution if and only if the graph G - v (with the same terminals) has a solution.

In this paper we give a lower bound on f, showing that $f(k) \ge 2^k$, even for planar graphs. For this we construct a family of planar input graphs $(G_k)_{k\ge 2}$, each with k pairs of terminals, such that the tree-width of G_k is $2^k - 1$, and every member of the family has a unique solution to the DISJOINT PATHS PROBLEM,

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where the paths of the solution use all vertices of the graph. Hence no vertex of G_k is irrelevant. As a corollary, we obtain a lower bound of $2^k - 1$ on the tree-width of graphs having *vital linkages* (also called *unique linkages*) [12] with k components.² Our result contrasts the polynomial upper bound in a related topological setting [7], where two systems of curves are untangled on a sphere with holes.

For planar graphs, an upper bound of $f(k) \leq 72\sqrt{2}k^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot 2^k$ was given in [1]. An elementary proof for a bound of $f(k) \leq (72k \cdot 2^k - 72 \cdot 2^k + 18) \lceil \sqrt{2k+1} \rceil$ was provided later [5] as well as a slightly improved bound of $f(k) \leq 26k \cdot 2^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot 2^k$ requiring a slightly more involved proof [2]. Our lower bound shows that this is asymptotically optimal. Recently, an explicit upper bound on f on graphs of bounded genus [3] was found, then refined into one that is single exponential in k and the genus [8]. The exact order of growth of f on general graphs is still unknown.

2. Preliminaries

Let \mathbb{N} denote the set of all non-negative integers. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we let $[k] := \{1, \ldots, k\}$. For a set S we let 2^S denote the power set of S. A graph G = (V, E) is a pair of a set of vertices V and a set of edges $E \subseteq \{e \mid e \in 2^V, |e| = 2\}$, i.e. graphs are undirected and simple. For an edge $e = \{x, y\}$, the vertices x and y are called endpoints of the edge e, and the edge is said to be between its endpoints. For a graph G = (V, E) let V(G) := V and E(G) := E. Let H and G be graphs. The graph H is a subgraph of G (denoted by $H \subseteq G$), if $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$. For a set $X \subseteq V(G)$, the subgraph of G induced by X is the graph $G[X] := (X, \{e \in E(G) \mid e \subseteq X\})$ and we let $G - v := G[V(G) \setminus \{v\}]$.

A path P in a graph G = (V, E) is a sequence $n_0, \ldots, n_k \in V$ of pairwise distinct vertices of G, such that for every $i \in \{0, \ldots, k-1\}$ there is an edge $\{n_i, n_{i+1}\} \in E$. The vertices n_0 and n_k are called *endpoints* of P. The path P is called a path from n_0 to n_k (i.e. paths are simple). We sometimes identify the path P in G with the subgraph $(\{n_0, \ldots, n_k\}, \{\{n_0, n_1\}, \ldots, \{n_{k-1}, n_k\}\})$ of G. A graph G is called *connected*, if it has at least one vertex and for any two vertices $x, y \in V(G)$, there is a path from x to y in G. The inclusion-maximal connected subgraphs of a graph are called *connected components* of the graph. For $A, B \subseteq V(G)$, a set $S \subseteq V(G)$ separates A from B, if there is no path from a vertex in A to a vertex in B in the subgraph of G induced by $V(G) \smallsetminus S$. A *tree* is a non-empty graph T, such that for any two vertices $x, y \in V(T)$ there is exactly one path from x to y in T.

²This result appeared in the last section of a conference paper [1]. While the main focus of the paper [1] was a single exponential upper bound on f on planar graphs, it only sketches the lower bound. Here we provide the full proof of the lower bound. A longer proof of the lower bound can also be found in the thesis [5].

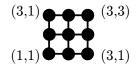


Figure 1: (3×3) -grid

Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. The $(m \times n)$ -grid is a graph H = (V, E) with $V := [m] \times [n]$ and $E := \{\{(y, x), (w, z)\} \mid (y, x) \in V, (w, z) \in V, |x - z| + |y - w| = 1\}$. In case of a square grid where m = n, we say that n is the size of the grid. An edge $\{(y, x), (w, z)\}$ in the grid is called *horizontal*, if y = w, and *vertical*, if x = z. See Figure 1 for the (3×3) -grid.

A drawing of a graph G is a representation of G in the Euclidean plane \mathbb{R}^2 , where vertices are represented by distinct points of \mathbb{R}^2 and edges by simple curves joining the points that correspond to their endpoints, such that the interior of every curve representing an edge does not contain points representing vertices. A planar drawing (or embedding) is a drawing, where the interiors of any two curves representing distinct edges of G are disjoint. A graph G is planar, if G has a planar drawing (See [10] for more details on planar graphs). A plane graph is a planar graph G together with a fixed embedding of G in \mathbb{R}^2 . We will identify a plane graph with its image in \mathbb{R}^2 . Once we have fixed the embedding, we will also identify a planar graph with its image in \mathbb{R}^2 .

Definition 1 (Disjoint Paths Problem (DPP)). Given a graph G and k pairs of terminals $(s_1, t_1) \in V(G)^2, \ldots, (s_k, t_k) \in V(G)^2$, the DISJOINT PATHS PROB-LEM is the problem of deciding whether G contains k vertex-disjoint paths P_1, \ldots, P_k such that P_i connects s_i to t_i (for $i \in [k]$). If such paths P_1, \ldots, P_k exist, we refer to them as a solution. We denote an instance of DPP by $G, (s_1, t_1), (s_2, t_2), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$.

Let $G, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ be an instance of DPP. A non-terminal vertex $v \in V(G)$ is *irrelevant*, if $G, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ has a solution if and only if $G - v, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ has a solution.

A tree-decomposition of a graph G is a pair (T, χ) , consisting of a tree T and a mapping $\chi: V(T) \to 2^{V(G)}$, such that for each $v \in V(G)$ there exists $t \in V(T)$ with $v \in \chi(t)$, for each edge $e \in E(G)$ there exists a vertex $t \in V(T)$ with $e \subseteq \chi(t)$, and for each $v \in V(G)$ the set $\{t \in V(T) \mid v \in \chi(t)\}$ is connected in T. The width of a tree-decomposition (T, χ) is

$$w(T,\chi) := \max\left\{ \left| \chi(t) \right| - 1 \mid t \in V(T) \right\}.$$

If T is a path, (T, χ) is also called a *path-decomposition*. The tree-width of G is

 $\operatorname{tw}(G) := \min \left\{ \operatorname{w}(T, \chi) \mid (T, \chi) \text{ is a tree-decomposition of } G \right\}.$

The path-width of G is

 $pw(G) := \min \{ w(T, \chi) \mid (T, \chi) \text{ is a path-decomposition of } G \}.$

Obviously, every graph G satisfies $pw(G) \ge tw(G)$. Every tree has treewidth at most 1 and every path has path-width at most 1. It is well known that the $(n \times n)$ -grid has both tree-width and path-width n. Moreover, if $H \subseteq G$, then $tw(H) \le tw(G)$ and $pw(H) \le pw(G)$.

Theorem 1 (Robertson and Seymour [13]). There is a function $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that if $tw(G) \ge f(k)$, then $G, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ has an irrelevant vertex (for any choice of terminals $(s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ in G).

A *linkage* in a graph G is a subgraph $L \subseteq G$, such that each connected component of L is a path. The *endpoints* of a linkage L are the endpoints of these paths, and the *pattern* of L is the matching on the endpoints induced by the paths, i.e. the pattern is the set

 $\{\{s,t\} \mid L \text{ has a connected component that is a path from } s \text{ to } t\}$.

A linkage L in a graph G is a vital linkage in G, if V(L) = V(G) and there is no other linkage $L' \neq L$ in G with the same pattern as L.

Theorem 2 (Robertson and Seymour [13]). There are functions $g, h: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ such that if a graph G has a vital linkage with k components then $\operatorname{tw}(G) \leq g(k)$ and $\operatorname{pw}(G) \leq h(k)$.

3. The lower bound

Our main result is the following.

Theorem 3. Let $f, g, h: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be as in Theorems 1 and 2. Then $f(k) \ge 2^k$, $g(k) \ge 2^k - 1$, and $h(k) \ge 2^k - 1$. Moreover, this holds even if we consider planar graphs only.

In our proof we construct a family of graphs $G_k, k \ge 1$, of tree-width and path-width $\ge 2^k - 1$, and with a vital linkage with k components. Figure 2 shows the graph G_4 .

Definition 2 (The graph G_k). Let $k, p \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. We inductively define an instance $G_k, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ of DPP as follows.

The Graph $G_{1,p}$ is the path x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p with p vertices, $s_1(G_{1,p}) := x_1$, $t_1(G_{1,p}) := x_p$. The bottom row and the top row of $G_{1,p}$ are the graph $G_{1,p}$ itself.

We define the graph $G_{k+1,p}$ by adding a path y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_p with p vertices to $G_{k,2p}$ as follows. Let x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{2p} be the bottom row of $G_{k,2p}$ and let z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_{2p} be the top row of $G_{k,2p}$. Let

$$V(G_{k+1,p}) := V(G_{k,2p}) \cup \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_p\},$$

$$E(G_{k+1,p}) := E(G_{k,2p}) \cup \{\{y_i, y_{i+1}\} \mid 1 \le i < p\} \cup \{\{y_i, x_i\}, \{y_i, x_{2p-i+1}\} \mid 1 \le i \le p\}.$$

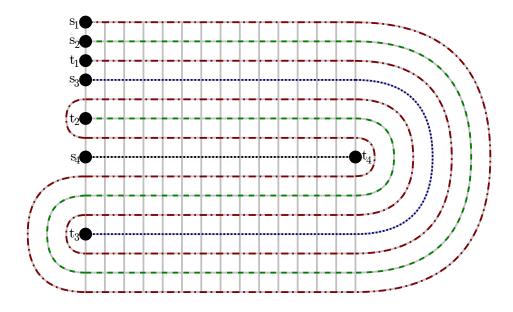


Figure 2: $G_4, (s_1, t_1), (s_2, t_2), (s_3, t_3), (s_4, t_4)$ with solution.

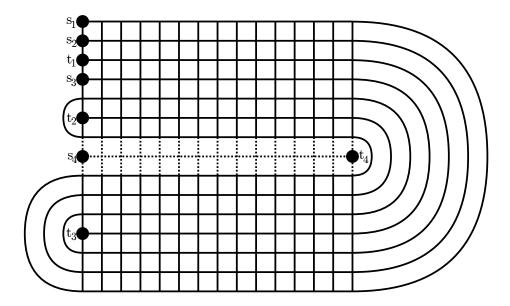


Figure 3: The construction of $G_4 = G_{4,15}$ from $G_{3,30}$.

We set $s_{k+1}(G_{k+1,p}) := y_1$, $t_{k+1}(G_{k+1,p}) := y_p$ and $s_i(G_{k+1,p}) := s_i(G_{k,p})$, $t_i(G_{k+1,p}) := t_i(G_{k,p})$ for $1 \le i \le k$. The top row of $G_{k+1,p}$ is z_1, \ldots, z_p and the bottom row of $G_{k+1,p}$ is z_{2p}, \ldots, z_{p+1} .

Let $G_k := G_{k,2^k-1}$. We define the DPP instance $G_k, (s_1, t_1), \dots, (s_k, t_k)$ as $G_k, (s_1(G_k), t_1(G_k)), \dots, (s_k(G_k), t_k(G_k))$.

Figure 3 shows the construction of $G_4 = G_{4,15}$ from $G_{3,30}$.

Remark 1. By construction, the graph G_k contains a $((2^k - 1) \times (2^k - 1))$ -grid as a subgraph. The tree-width and path-width of G_k are thus at least $2^k - 1$.

Remark 2. By construction, the graph G_k contains a linkage (because in each step we add a path linking a new terminal pair).

We will now show that this linkage is vital by considering a topological version.

Definition 3 (Topological DPP). Given a subset X of the plane and k pairs of terminals $(s_1, t_1) \in X^2, \ldots, (s_k, t_k) \in X^2$ the TOPOLOGICAL DISJOINT PATHS PROBLEM is the problem of deciding whether there are k pairwise disjoint curves in X, such that each curve P_i is homeomorphic to [0, 1] and its ends are s_i and t_i . If such curves P_1, \ldots, P_k exist, we refer to them as a solution. We denote an instance of the topological Disjoint Paths Problem by $X, (s_1, t_1), (s_2, t_2), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$.

A disc-with-edges is a subset X of the plane containing a closed disc D such that the connected components of $X \\ D$, called *edges*, are homeomorphic to open intervals (0, 1). We now define a family $(X_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N} \\ \{0\}}$ of discs-with-edges together with terminals. These will be used as instances of the topological DPP. Figure 4 illustrates the construction.

Definition 4 (X_k) . Let D be a closed disc in the plane and $k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. We start by inductively defining points s_k , t_k on the boundary ∂D of D. (These will be used as terminals and to confine the way the edges are added to D.) Let s_1, t_1 be two distinct points on ∂D , and let $C_1 := \partial D \setminus \{s_1, t_1\}$. Hence C_1 is the union of two curves, each homeomorphic to the open interval (0, 1). Call one of the curves S_1 and the other T_1 . Assume that s_k , t_k , C_k , S_k , and T_k are already defined, and assume that T_k is a curve adjacent to t_k and s_1 . Place a new point s_{k+1} on S_k and a new point t_{k+1} on T_k , let $C_{k+1} := C_k \setminus \{s_{k+1}, t_{k+1}\}$, let T_{k+1} be the component of C_{k+1} adjacent to t_{k+1} and s_1 , and let S_{k+1} be the component of C_{k+1} adjacent to t_{k+1} and t_k .

Now let $X_1 := D$ and $E_1 := \emptyset$. Assume the space X_k and the set E_k are already defined. We define X_{k+1} by adding a planar matching of $2^k - 1$ edges to X_k . We call the set of these edges E_{k+1} . The edges are pairwise disjoint and disjoint from X_k . They are added such that each end is adjacent to a point on ∂D and no two edges are adjacent to the same point on ∂D . Each edge has one end adjacent to a point on the component of C_{k+2} between t_k and s_{k+1} , and the other end adjacent to a point on the component of C_{k+2} between t_k and s_{k+2} . Finally, let $X_{k+1} := X_k \cup E_{k+1}$.

In this way we obtain a family X_k , $(s_1, t_1), (s_2, t_2), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ of instances to the topological DPP.

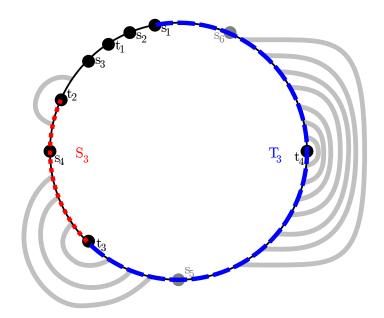


Figure 4: The construction of $X_4, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_4, t_4)$, for the topological DPP. Note that s_5 and s_6 are only used to place E_4 correctly.

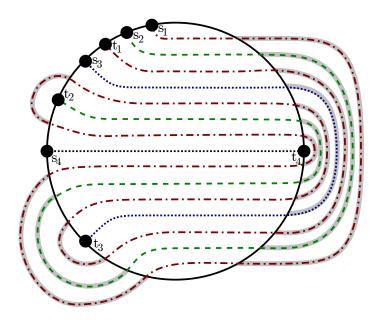


Figure 5: A solution of the topological DPP from Figure 4.

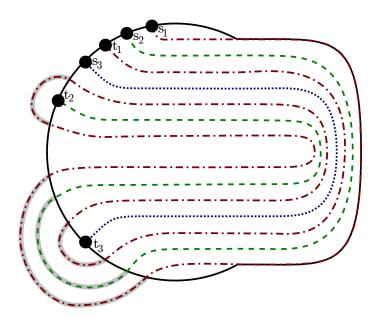


Figure 6: The solution on $X'_3, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_3, t_3)$ induced by the solution on $X_4, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_4, t_4)$.

Remark 3. The embedding of G_k (as shown in Figure 2 for G_4) corresponds to the space X_k . Thus by Remark 2 the topological DPP on X_k , $(s_1, t_1), (s_2, t_2), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ has a solution.

For an instance of the topological DPP on X_4 , this solution can be seen in Figure 5.

Lemma 1. For $k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ the topological DPP instance $X_k, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ has a unique solution P_1, \ldots, P_k (up to homeomorphism). The solution uses all edges $\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} E_i$.

Proof. For k = 1 this is true because $E_1 = \emptyset$. Inductively assume that the lemma holds for k. Let P_1, \ldots, P_{k+1} be any solution to $X_{k+1}, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_{k+1}, t_{k+1})$. This solution induces a solution of the topological DPP $X_k, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$ as follows. Every edge $e \in E_{k+1}$ together with the segment of ∂D that connects the ends of e and contains t_{k+1} bounds a disc D_e . The space $X'_k := X_{k+1} \cup \bigcup_{e \in E_{k+1}} D_e$ is homeomorphic to X_k and the paths P_1, \ldots, P_k form a solution of $X'_k, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$. Figure 6 illustrates this for k = 3. By induction, this solution is unique up to homeomorphism and the paths P_1, \ldots, P_k use all edges in $\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} E_i$. Let Q_1, \ldots, Q_k be the solution obtained by embedding the graph G_k (cf. Remark 3). By uniqueness, for each $i \in [k]$, the edges of $\bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq k} E_i$ used by P_i are the same as for Q_i , and the order of their appearance

on P_i when walking from s_i to t_i is also the same as on Q_i . Hence the solution P_1, \ldots, P_k on X'_k restricted to the closed disc D of X'_k is a planar matching of curves (the curves in $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} P_i \setminus \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$) between pairs of points on ∂D (and the same pairs of points are obtained by restricting Q_1, \ldots, Q_k to D). These pairs of points also have to be matched in X_{k+1} .

We now claim that in the solution P_1, \ldots, P_{k+1} on X_{k+1} , each curve in $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} P_i \setminus \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$ uses an edge of E_{k+1} . If not, then there is a curve

$$p \in \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} P_i \smallsetminus \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$$

that avoids all edges in E_{k+1} . Since the edges of $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$ are already used, p is routed within D. By construction of X_{k+1} and the fact that all edges of $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$ are already used, this means that p separates s_{k+1} from both t_{k+1} and the endpoints of the edges in E_{k+1} , a contradiction to P_{k+1} being a path in the solution. Hence p uses an edge of E_{k+1} .

Since the sets $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} P_i \setminus \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$ and E_{k+1} have equal size, it follows that each curve of the matching

$$\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} P_i \smallsetminus \bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$$

uses precisely one edge of E_{k+1} . Since the endpoints of the matching are fixed, they induce an order on the matching curves which determines precisely which edge of E_{k+1} is used by which curve.

Altogether, this shows that the solution to $X_{k+1}, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_{k+1}, t_{k+1})$ is unique up to homeomorphism and uses all edges $\bigcup_{1 \le i \le k} E_i$.

q. e. d.

Remark 4. In a topological DPP instance, the number of edges around the terminals is crucial. Even just relaxing the conditions on X_k by having 2 edges instead of 1 edge around terminal t_2 allows a quite different solution to the topological DPP. This solution uses no edge around t_k , one edge around each of $t_3, t_3, \ldots, t_{k-1}$, and the two edges around t_2 (Figure 7 shows this for k = 4).

Theorem 4. Let $k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. The graph G_k contains a vital linkage.

Proof. Let P_1, \ldots, P_k be the linkage from Remark 2. We argue that it is vital. For k = 1 and k = 2, one can easily verify that G_k has a unique embedding. For $k \ge 2$, contracting an edge at s_1 suffices to make G_k 3-connected. Since 3-connected planar graphs have unique embeddings [14], the graph G_k also has a unique embedding, and it suffices to consider our previous embedding of G_k (cf. Figure 2). Let D be the minimal disc containing the grid in G_k . The disc Dtogether with $E(G_k)$ is the space X_k . The paths P_1, \ldots, P_k thus give a solution to the topological DPP instance $X_k, (s_1, t_1), \ldots, (s_k, t_k)$, which by Lemma 1 is unique and uses all edges in E_k . Thus any linkage P'_1, \ldots, P'_k with the same pattern as P_1, \ldots, P_k can differ from P_1, \ldots, P_k only inside the grid. Thus for

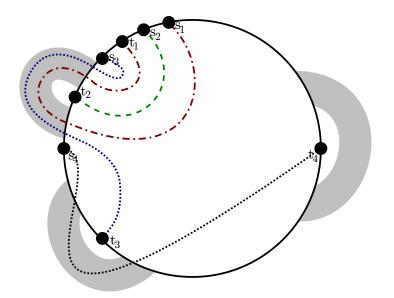


Figure 7: The number of edges around the terminals is crucial (cf. Remark 4).

each $y \in [2^k - 1]$ there is a subpath Q'_y of some path of the solution P'_1, \ldots, P'_k , such that the endpoints of Q'_y are (y', 1) and $(y, 2^k - 1)$ for some $y' \in [2^k - 1]$. Hence the family $(Q'_y)_{y \in [2^k - 1]}$ is a linkage between the first column and the last column of the grid.

Suppose that P'_1, \ldots, P'_k indeed differs from P_1, \ldots, P_k . Then at least one path Q'_y contains a vertical edge e in the grid. Hence the column of e contains at most $2^k - 3$ vertices that are not used by Q'_y and, by Menger's Theorem [9], the remaining $2^k - 2$ paths of the family cannot be routed, a contradiction.

q. e. d.

Proof of Theorem 3 Theorem 3 immediately follows from Theorem 4 and Remark 1. q. e. d.

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