

Pacific Journal of Mathematics

PREASSIGNING THE SHAPE OF A FACE

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THEOREM. Let G be a 3-connected planar graph, F a nonseparating n -circuit of G with nodes A_1, \dots, A_n (in a cyclic order of F), and let F' be a convex n -gon with vertices A'_1, \dots, A'_n (in cyclic order). Then there exists a 3-polytope P which realizes G , such that F' is a face of P and that the vertex A'_i of P corresponds to the node A_i of G for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

A remarkable theorem of Steinitz (see [2, p. 77], [3, p. 192], [1, p. 235]) asserts that a graph G is realizable by a 3-polytope (i.e., isomorphic to the graph of the vertices and edges of a 3-dimensional convex polytope P) if and only if G is planar and 3-connected. Moreover, this realization is unique up to combinatorial equivalence of the 3-polytopes, the boundaries of the 2-faces of each polytope realizing G being determined by nonseparating circuits in G . (The regions of the plane determined in any imbedding of G in the plane by the nonseparating circuits of G will be called *faces* of G .)

Combinatorially equivalent polytopes may—intuitively speaking—have various shapes. Among the different problems concerning the freedom of choice of 3-polytopes realizing a given graph G , one may ask whether the shape of one n -gonal 2-face F of P can be required to be any preassigned (convex) n -gon F' (see [1, p. 244]). The solution of this problem is trivially affirmative if F is a triangle or a quadrangle, since in this case there exists an affine, respectively permissible for P projective transformation of any realization P of G carrying F onto any predetermined F' . However, the problem ceases to be trivial already for a pentagonal face F .

It is the aim of the present note to establish the affirmative solution of the above problem for any face F . More precisely, we shall prove the theorem enunciated at the outset. By the remark made above, we shall without loss of generality assume that $n \geq 5$.

The proof of the theorem consists mainly of a repetition of the proof of Steinitz's theorem as given in [1, pp. 236–242], with modifications resulting from the desire to interfere with F as little as possible and, if such interference is unavoidable, to conduct it under special precautions. Since a repetition of the whole argument would lead to a needless duplication, we shall restrict ourselves to a summary of the proof of Steinitz's theorem, indicating the main ideas and the necessary changes in the argumentation. We shall use the terminology and notation employed in [1].

The proof of Steinitz's theorem proceeds by induction on the

number of edges of G , and two cases have to be considered. In each case, the graph G is “reduced” to a 3-connected planar graph G^* by a change of such a nature that from each realization of G^* by a 3-polytope P^* a realization of G by a 3-polytope P may be constructed. The “reductions” needed for the proof are indicated in Figure 1.

Case 1. The graph contains a nonseparating circuit with three edges (i.e., a triangular face, or *triangle*) one node of which has valence 3. Then one of the reductions η_1, η_2, η_3 may be applied, yielding a G^* with 1, 2, or 3 edges less than G . In the proof of Steinitz’s theorem, there is nothing to be added in this case, since induction takes over. In the proof of our theorem one has to require that G^* be realized by a 3-polytope P^* having F' as a face, unless the circuit F contains one of the edges—marked by one, two, or three stars in Figure 1—of the triangle in question. In those exceptional cases the circuit F^* of G^* (corresponding to the circuit F of G , and having also n edges in cases denoted by one star, $n - 1$ edges in cases denoted by two stars, and $n + 1$ edges in cases denoted by three stars) has to correspond in P^* to a face $F^{*'}$ with vertices A_1^*, A_2^*, \dots different from F' . The construction of the polygon $F^{*'}$ from F' is indicated

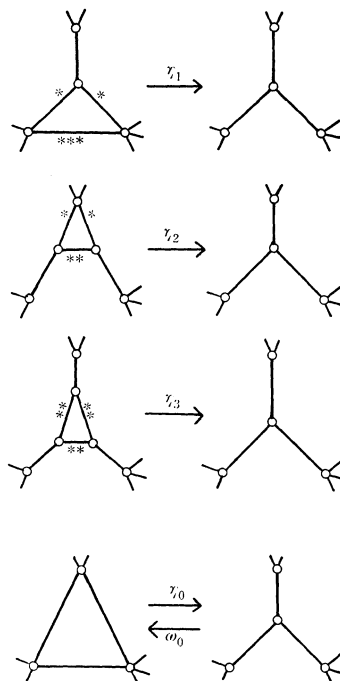


FIGURE 1

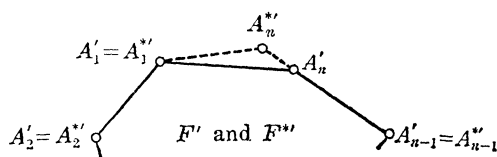
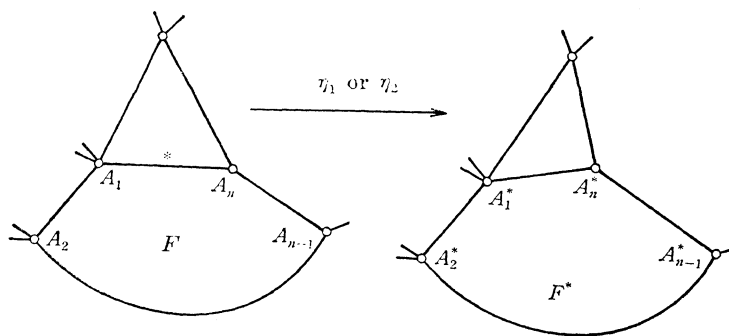


FIGURE 2

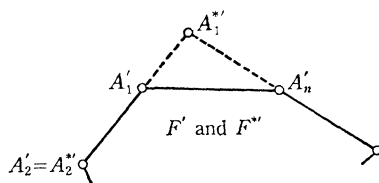
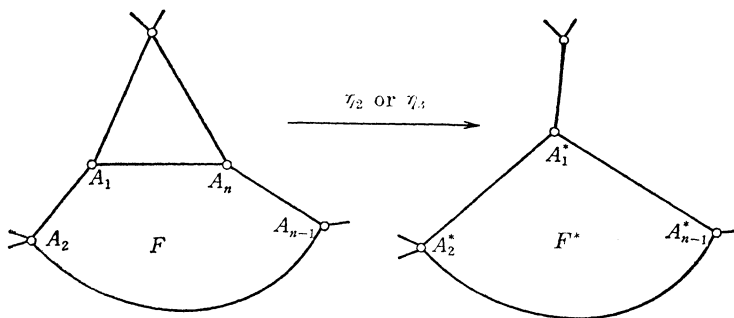


FIGURE 3

in Figures 2 and 3 for the first two cases; in case of the edge denoted by three stars, $F^{*'}$ may be any $(n + 1)$ -gon obtained as the convex hull of F' and a point $A_{n+1}^{*'}$ near the edge $A'_n A'_1$. (Note that in the case represented in Figure 3 it may be necessary to start not with F' itself but—in order to guarantee the existence of $F^{*'}$ —with a suitable projective transformation of F' . However, this does not impair the construction since a suitable inverse projective transformation of the polytope realizing G will restore F' as a face of P' .)

This completes the proof in Case 1.

Case 2. Now we assume that G contains no triangle possessing at least one 3-valent node. Since in any case Euler's relation implies that G contains either a triangle, or a 3-valent vertex, it follows that now one of the reductions ω_0 or η_0 may be applied to G . However, those reductions do not reduce the number of edges and may thus be deemed useless. The depth of Steinitz's proof lies in establishing that by a judicious choice of a finite sequence of ω_0 or η_0 reductions (not exceeding in total number the number of edges of G) one may transform G into a graph \tilde{G} which is covered by Case 1. In order to prove our theorem we shall show that there is enough freedom in the choice of the ω_0 and/or η_0 reductions to reach \tilde{G} without interfering (in any of the stages) with the circuit F of G (or the corresponding circuits in the intermediate stages). The derived realization of \tilde{G} and of all the intermediate graphs will still have F' as the preassigned polygon.

Before proving those assertions, we have to introduce a number of notions. For each 3-connected planar graph G , we define a graph $I(G)$ as follows. The vertices of $I(G)$ correspond to edges of G ; two vertices of $I(G)$ are connected by an edge if and only if the corresponding edges of G have a common node and belong to the same nonseparating circuit. (In Figure 4, a graph G is shown by heavy lines, while $I(G)$ is indicated by thin lines.) It is easily seen that $I(G)$ is planar and 3-connected. Note that $I(G)$ is 4-valent, and that each n -gonal region of $I(G)$ corresponds either to an n -gonal region of G or to an n -valent vertex of G . A "geodesic arc" in $I(G)$ is a path in $I(G)$ in which each two adjacent edges separate the other two edges of $I(G)$ issuing from their common node. A "lens" of $I(G)$ is

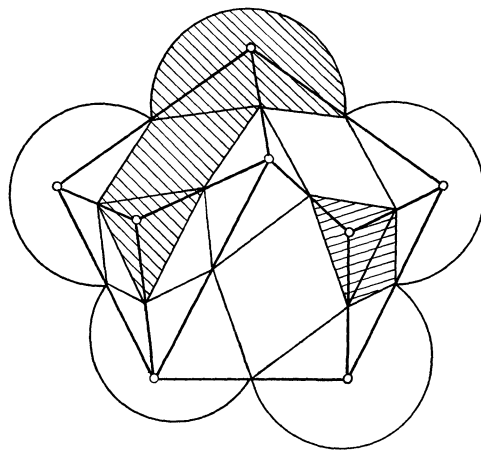


FIGURE 4

a region of plane having as boundary two geodesic arcs of $I(G)$, such that at their common endpoints (the "poles" of the lens) the remaining two edges of $I(G)$ do not belong to the lens. (For example, each of the shaded regions in Figure 4 is a lens, one with poles A and B , the other with poles C and D ; the second lens is clearly the simplest possible type, consisting of only two triangles; we shall denote it by L_0 .)

An important role is played by "irreducible lenses", that is, lenses which do not contain any proper sublenses. The relevant facts about irreducible lenses are (see [1, pp. 239-242]):

(1) Each region of the plane which has a boundary consisting either of a (closed) geodesic arc, or of two geodesic arcs, contains an irreducible lens. This implies, among other consequences, the existence of irreducible lenses in each $I(G)$.

(2) Each irreducible lens contains at least two triangles incident to the boundary of the lens; unless the lens is L_0 , they have no edge in common.

(3) If an irreducible lens $L \neq L_0$ of $I(G)$ is given, and if an ω_0 or η_0 reduction is performed on a 3-valent node or on a triangle of G corresponding to a triangle of L having an edge in the boundary of L , the resulting graph G^* has the following property: There is a lens (and hence, by (1), an irreducible lens L^*) of $I(G^*)$ having fewer faces than L , *such that its faces correspond to some of the faces of L .*

Combining (1), (2) and (3) the proof of Steinitz's theorem is completed by starting from any region bounded by one or two geodesic arcs, finding an irreducible lens L in it, and applying a suitable ω_0 or η_0 reduction. Since L contains only finitely many faces, by repeated application of (3) we necessarily reach a graph G containing a lens of type L_0 . But the presence of such a lens in $I(G)$ means that G contains a triangle with a trivalent node; hence to G the Case 1 is applicable. (In the proof of Steinitz's theorem L is chosen to contain the least number of faces among all lenses of $I(G)$, hence there is no necessity to use the italicized part of (3); however, this part of (3) is evident from the proof of the first part [1, p. 242].)

In view of the above, in order to complete the proof of our theorem it is sufficient to exhibit, for each G which is not covered by Case 1, a region R bounded by one or two geodesic arcs of $I(G)$ and such that at most one of the triangles of R corresponds to a node of G belonging to F . Indeed, this property will be inherited by any irreducible lens L contained in R , and hence L will contain at least one other triangle such that the 3-valent node, or triangle, of G corresponding to it is disjoint from F . Thus an appropriate reduction ω_0 or η_0 will be applicable without interference with F , and F' may be chosen as the preassigned face of a 3-polytope realizing the reduced

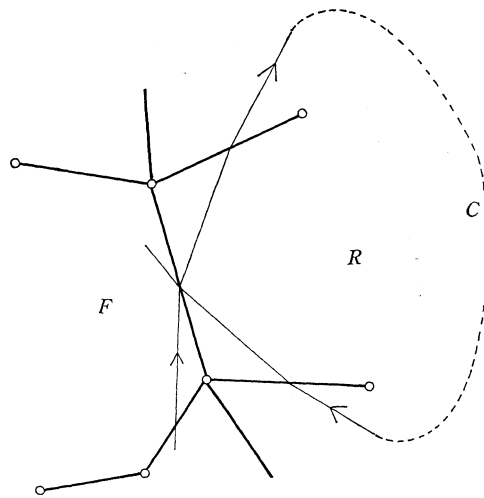


FIGURE 5

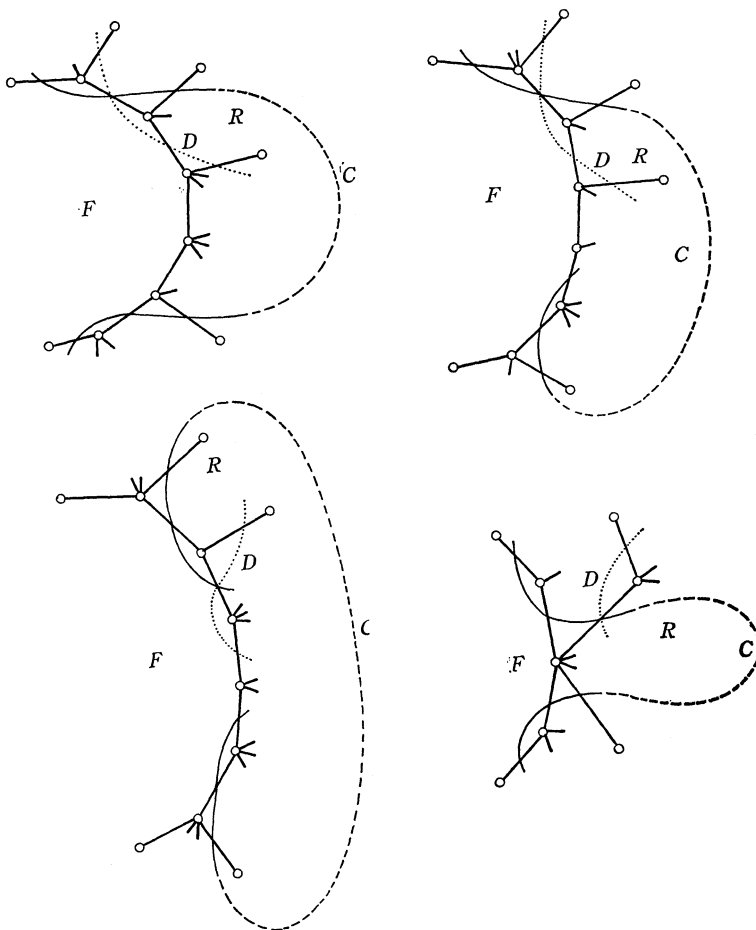


FIGURE 6

graph.

But the existence of a region R of the type required is easy to establish. Proceeding on any geodesic arc (starting with an edge of $I(G)$ having both endpoints on edges of F) we note that if C intersects itself prior to its return to F , or if it self-intersects while reentering F , that region enclosed by C which does not contain F may be taken as R . (Compare the schematic drawing in Figure 5.) Hence we are left only with the case in which each geodesic arc is free of self-intersections outside F . Among all the (simple) geodesic arcs of $I(G)$ having endpoints at edges of F , we choose one bridging the smallest possible number of edges of F and denote it by C . The possible situations are schematically indicated in Figure 6. In the first three cases the minimality of C prevents D from returning to F before meeting C again, and thus parts of C and D will determine a region R of the type required. In the fourth case D is any geodesic arc crossing C at a relatively interior point, and D either meets C before meeting F , or it meets C and F at the same vertex, again producing a region of the type required.

This completes the proof in Case 2, and with it the proof of the theorem.

REMARK 1. *As an easy corollary of the theorem we have:*

If P is a 3-polytope and if C is a simple closed circuit of edges of P such that no facet of P meets two edges of C , there exists a polytope P' combinatorially equivalent to P such that the circuit of P' corresponding to C is in a plane.

2. By an obvious application of duality, it follows from the theorem that the shape of one vertex-figure of a 3-polytope may be arbitrarily prescribed. Probably, more elements of a 3-polytope may be arbitrarily prescribed; however, it is easy to see that it is not always possible to preassign the shape of two faces having a common edge. (For example, the two quadrilaterals of Figure 7 may not appear in any 3-sided prism.) It would be interesting to investigate the following

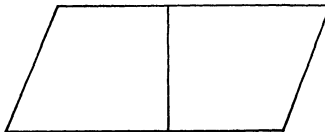


FIGURE 7

CONJECTURE. For any family $\{F_1, \dots, F_n\}$ of disjoint faces of a 3-polytope P , and for any family $\{F'_1, \dots, F'_n\}$ of polygons, F'_i being

of the same type as F_i , there exists a 3-polytope P' combinatorially equivalent to P , such that every face of P' corresponding to one of the faces F_i is projectively equivalent to F'_i .

3. It would be very interesting to determine to what extent the theorem holds in higher dimensions. The only known result in this direction seems to be M.A. Perles' example of an 8-dimensional polytope P with 12 vertices such that the shape of one of its 7-dimensional faces (with 10 vertices) may not be arbitrarily chosen within its combinatorial type ([1, p. 96, Exercise 3]). It may be conjectured that a similar failure of the theorem occurs already in four dimensions.

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