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— Abstract

Linear rank-width is a graph width parameter, which is a variation of rank-width by restricting its tree to a caterpillar. As a corollary of known theorems, for each k, there is a finite set \mathcal{O}_k of graphs such that a graph G has linear rank-width at most k if and only if no vertex-minor of Gis isomorphic to a graph in \mathcal{O}_k . However, no attempts have been made to bound the number of graphs in \mathcal{O}_k for $k \geq 2$. We construct, for each k, $2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ pairwise locally non-equivalent graphs that are excluded vertex-minors for graphs of linear rank-width at most k. Therefore the number of graphs in \mathcal{O}_k is at least double exponential.

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1 Introduction

Linear rank-width is a width parameter of graphs motivated by rank-width of graphs by Oum and Seymour [11]. A vertex-minor relation is a graph containment relation such that rank-width and linear rank-width cannot increase when taking vertex-minors of a graph. Two graphs G, H are called *locally equivalent* if H is a vertex-minor of G and |V(H)| = |V(G)|. The definitions can be found in Section 2.

Oum [10] proved that for every infinite sequence G_1, G_2, \ldots of graphs of bounded rankwidth, there exist i < j such G_i is isomorphic to a vertex-minor of G_j . As a corollary, we immediately obtain the following theorem.

▶ **Theorem 1** (Oum [10]). For every vertex-minor closed class C of graphs of bounded rankwidth, there is a finite list of graphs G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_m such that a graph is in C if and only if it does not have a vertex-minor isomorphic to G_i for some i.

Because the rank-width of a graph is less than or equal to the linear rank-width of the graph, we deduce the following.

▶ Corollary 2. For a fixed k, there is a finite set \mathcal{O}_k of graphs G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_m such that a graph has linear rank-width at most k if and only if it does not have a vertex-minor isomorphic to G_i for some $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$.

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Figure 1 Graphs in \mathcal{O}_1 .

However, Theorem 1 does not produce an explicit upper or lower bound on the number of graphs in \mathcal{O}_k for Corollary 2. We aim to provide a lower bound on $|\mathcal{O}_k|$.

Our main result is the following.

▶ **Theorem 3.** Let $k \ge 2$ be an integer. Then $|\mathcal{O}_k| \ge 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$. In other words, there are at least $2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ pairwise locally non-equivalent graphs that are vertex-minor minimal with the property that they have linear rank-width larger than k.

When C is the set of all graphs having rank-width at most k, Theorem 1 implies that there are finitely many graphs G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_m such that a graph has rank-width at most kif and only if it has no vertex-minor isomorphic to G_i for some i. Again Theorem 1 does not provide a lower or upper bound on m for graphs of rank-width at most k. However, for the upper bound, Oum [9] proved that $|V(G_i)| \leq (6^{k+1} - 1)/5$ for each i. No analogous result is known for linear rank-width.

Characterizing graphs of linear rank-width at most k in terms of forbidden vertex-minors seems hard. So far only 1 case is known. For k = 1, Adler, Farley, and Proskurowski [1] characterized the graphs of linear rank-width at most 1 by a set \mathcal{O}_1 of three graphs in Figure 1. A structural characterization of graphs of linear rank-width 1 was given by Ganian [6].

There have been similar results on the number of forbidden minors for various graph width parameters; for instance, path-width [12], linear-width [13], tree-width [8], branch-width [7], tree-depth [5].

The paper is organized as follows. We present the definitions of linear rank-width and vertex-minor. In Section 3, we construct a set Δ_k of graphs for every non-negative integer k, and prove that every graph in Δ_k has linear rank-width k + 1 but every proper vertex-minor has linear rank-width at most k. Roughly speaking, $\Delta_0 = \{K_2\}$ and for $k \ge 1$, the set Δ_k consists of all graphs obtained from a disjoint union of three graphs in Δ_{k-1} by connecting them with a triangle. In Section 4, we show that no two graphs in Δ_k are locally equivalent. At last, we show that the size of Δ_k is $2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ in Section 5, and we conclude that $|\mathcal{O}_k| \ge 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$.

2 Preliminaries

In this paper, graphs have no loops and parallel edges. Let G be a graph. For $S \subseteq V(G)$, G[S] denotes the subgraph of G induced on S. For $S \subseteq V(G)$, $N_G(S)$ denotes the set of vertices of $V(G) \setminus S$ adjacent to a vertex in S. And for $v \in V(G)$, we let $N_G(v) = N_G(\{v\})$. A vertex v in G is a *leaf* if $|N_G(v)| = 1$. A graph G is a *star* if G is isomorphic to $K_{1,n}$ for some $n \geq 1$.

For an $X \times Y$ matrix M and subsets $A \subseteq X$ and $B \subseteq Y$, M[A, B] denotes the $A \times B$ submatrix $(m_{i,j})_{i \in A, j \in B}$ of M. If A = B, then M[A] = M[A, A] is called a *principal submatrix* of M.



Figure 2 Pivoting an edge *ab*.

Vertex-minors.

The local complementation at a vertex v of a graph G = (V, E) is an operation to obtain a graph G * v from G by replacing the subgraph $G[N_G(v)]$ with the complementary subgraph of $G[N_G(v)]$. The graph obtained from G by *pivoting* an edge uv is defined by $G \wedge uv = G * u * v * u$.

To see how we obtain the resulting graph by pivoting an edge uv, let $V_1 = N_G(u) \cap N_G(v)$, $V_2 = N_G(u) \setminus N_G(v) \setminus \{v\}$, and $V_3 = N_G(v) \setminus N_G(u) \setminus \{u\}$. One can easily verify that $G \wedge uv$ is identical to the graph obtained from G by complementing adjacency of vertices between distinct sets V_i and V_j , and swapping the vertices u and v [9]. See Figure 2 for an example.

A graph H is a *vertex-minor* of G if H can be obtained from G by applying a sequence of vertex deletions and local complementations. A graph H is *locally equivalent* to G if Hcan be obtained from G by applying a sequence of local complementations.

A vertex-minor H of G is elementary if |V(H)| = |V(G)| - 1. A vertex-minor H of G is proper if |V(H)| < |V(G)|. A graph G is an excluded vertex-minor for a vertex-minor closed set C of graphs if $G \notin C$ and $H \in C$ for every proper vertex-minor H of G.

Linear rank-width.

The adjacency matrix of a graph G, which is a (0, 1)-matrix over the binary field, will be denoted by A(G). The *cut-rank* function $\operatorname{cutrk}_G : 2^V \to \mathbb{Z}$ of a graph G = (V, E) is defined by

 $\operatorname{cutrk}_G(X) = \operatorname{rank}(A(G)[X, V \setminus X]).$

A linear layout L of G is a sequence $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{|V(G)|})$ of V(G). For a linear layout L of G and $a, b \in V(G)$, we denote $a \leq_L b$ if a = b or a appears before b in L. For two sequences $L_1 = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ and $L_2 = (w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m)$, we define $L_1 \oplus L_2 = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_m)$.

The width of a linear layout L in G, denoted by $\operatorname{lrw}_L(G)$, is defined as the maximum over all $\operatorname{cutrk}_G(\{w : w \leq_L v\})$ for $v \in V(G)$. The *linear rank-width* of G, denoted by $\operatorname{lrw}(G)$, is the minimum width of all linear layouts of G. The next proposition shows the relation between the cut-rank function and local complementation.

▶ Proposition 4 (Oum [9]). Let G be a graph and $v \in V(G)$. Then for every $X \subseteq V(G)$,

 $\operatorname{cutrk}_G(X) = \operatorname{cutrk}_{G*v}(X).$

By Proposition 4, $\operatorname{lrw}(G) = \operatorname{lrw}(G * v)$ for every $v \in V(G)$. Thus, we immediately obtain that if H is locally equivalent to G, then $\operatorname{lrw}(H) = \operatorname{lrw}(G)$. And if a graph H is a vertex-minor of a graph G, then $\operatorname{lrw}(H) \leq \operatorname{lrw}(G)$.



Figure 3 All graphs in Δ_2 .

3 Excluded vertex-minors for graphs of bounded linear rank-width

To prove Theorem 3, for each non-negative integer k, we construct a set Δ_k of graphs such that every graph in Δ_k has linear rank-width k + 1 but every proper vertex-minor has linear rank-width at most k.

A delta composition G of graphs G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 is a graph obtained from the disjoint union of G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 by adding a triangle $v_1v_2v_3$ where $v_i \in V(G_i)$ for i = 1, 2, 3. We call $v_1v_2v_3$ the main triangle of G. For a non-negative integer k, we define Δ_k as follows.

- 1. $\Delta_0 = \{K_2\}.$
- **2.** For $i \ge 1$, Δ_i is the set of all delta compositions of 3 graphs in Δ_{i-1} .

The main theorem of this section is as follows.

▶ **Theorem 5.** Let k be a non-negative integer. Every graph in Δ_k is an excluded vertex-minor for graphs of linear rank-width at most k.

First, we prove that every graph in Δ_k has linear rank-width k+1.

▶ Proposition 6. Let k be a non-negative integer and $G \in \Delta_k$. Then G has linear rank-width k + 1. Moreover, for $w \in V(G)$, there is a linear layout of G having width k + 1 such that the first vertex of the linear layout is w.

Proof. We use induction on k. If k = 0, then $G = K_2$. If $V(G) = \{x, y\}$, then both (x, y) and (y, x) are linear layouts of G having width 1. Hence, the statements are true. We may assume that $k \ge 1$. Since $G \in \Delta_k$, G is a delta composition of G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 in Δ_{k-1} . Let $v_1v_2v_3$ be the main triangle of G such that $v_i \in V(G_i)$ for i = 1, 2, 3.

We first show that $\operatorname{lrw}(G) \geq k + 1$. Suppose that G has linear rank-width at most k. Since $G_1 \in \Delta_{k-1}$, by induction hypothesis, G_1 has linear rank-width k. Since $\operatorname{lrw}(G) \geq \operatorname{lrw}(G_1) = k$, G has linear rank-width k. Let L be a linear layout of G having width k. And for a vertex v in G, we define $S_v = \{x \in V(G) : x \leq_L v\}$ and $T_v = V(G) \setminus S_v$.

Let a and b be the first and the last vertices in L such that $\operatorname{cutrk}_G(S_a) = \operatorname{cutrk}_G(S_b) = k$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\{a, b\} \subseteq V(G_2) \cup V(G_3)$. We want to show that G_1 has linear rank-width at most k - 1. If it is true, then we obtain a contradiction because $\operatorname{lrw}(G_1) = k$. Let L_{G_1} be the subsequence of L whose elements are the vertices of G_1 .

We claim that L_{G_1} is a linear layout of G_1 having width at most k-1. Let $v \in V(G_1)$. It is sufficient to show that $\operatorname{cutrk}_{G_1}(S_v \cap V(G_1)) \leq k-1$. Note that $v \neq a$ and $v \neq b$. If $v <_L a$ or $v >_L b$, then

$$\operatorname{cutrk}_{G_1}(S_v \cap V(G_1)) \le \operatorname{cutrk}_G(S_v)$$

 $\le k - 1.$

So we may assume that $a <_L v <_L b$. Note that one of $S_v \cap V(G_1)$ and $T_v \cap V(G_1)$ does not have a neighbor in $G \setminus V(G_1)$ because v_1 is the unique vertex in G_1 which has a neighbor in $G \setminus V(G_1)$. And since $G[V(G_2) \cup V(G_3)]$ is connected and $a \in S_v$ and $b \notin S_v$, there is an edge u_1u_2 in $G \setminus V(G_1)$ such that $u_1 \in S_v$ and $u_2 \notin S_v$. So $A(G)[S_v \setminus V(G_1), T_v \setminus V(G_1)]$ is a non-zero matrix. Depending on whether $v_1 \in S_v \cap V(G_1)$ or $v_1 \in T_v \cap V(G_1)$,

$$\operatorname{cutrk}_{G}(S_{v}) = \operatorname{rank} \begin{pmatrix} T_{v} \cap V(G_{1}) & T_{v} \setminus V(G_{1}) \\ S_{v} \cap V(G_{1}) & \underbrace{ \ast & | & 0 \\ S_{v} \setminus V(G_{1}) & \underbrace{ \ast & | & \ast } \end{pmatrix} \\ \geq \operatorname{rank} \left(A(G)[S_{v} \cap V(G_{1}), T_{v} \cap V(G_{1})] \right) + \operatorname{rank} \left(A(G)[S_{v} \setminus V(G_{1}), T_{v} \setminus V(G_{1})] \right)$$

or

respectively. Thus, we have

$$\operatorname{cutrk}_{G_1}(S_v \cap V(G_1)) = \operatorname{rank} \left(A(G)[S_v \cap V(G_1), T_v \cap V(G_1)] \right)$$

$$\leq \operatorname{cutrk}_G(S_c) - \operatorname{rank} \left(A(G)[S_v \setminus V(G_1), T_v \setminus V(G_1)] \right)$$

$$\leq \operatorname{cutrk}_G(S_v) - 1 \leq k - 1.$$

So L_{G_1} is a linear layout of G_1 having width at most k-1, which is a contradiction. Hence, $lrw(G) \ge k+1$.

Now we show that there is a linear layout of G having width k + 1 with a given starting vertex. Let $v \in V(G)$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $v \in V(G_1)$. By induction hypothesis, there is a linear layout L_1 of G_1 having width k such that the first vertex of L_1 is v. And, for j = 2, 3, there is a linear layout L_j of G_j having width k such that the first vertex of L_j is v_j . It is easy to check that $L_1 \oplus L_2 \oplus L_3$ is a linear layout of G having width at most k + 1. Since this linear layout starts at v, we conclude the result.

Of course, for $v \in V(G)$, there is also a linear layout having width k + 1 such that the last vertex of the linear layout is v. Let $v \in V(G)$. A vertex $w, w \neq v$, in G is a *twin* of v if $N_G(w) \setminus v = N_G(v) \setminus w$. A twin w of v is a *false twin* if w is not adjacent to v. And a twin w of v is a *true twin* if w is adjacent to v.

Now we prove that every elementary vertex-minor of G in Δ_k has linear rank-width k. To prove it, we will use the following lemmata.

▶ Lemma 7 (Bouchet [2]). Let G be a graph, $v \in V(G)$, and H be a vertex-minor of G such that $V(G) \setminus V(H) = \{v\}$. If w is an arbitrary neighbor of v, then H is locally equivalent to either $G \setminus v$, $G * v \setminus v$, or $G \wedge vw \setminus v$.

▶ Lemma 8 (Oum [9]). Let G be a graph and $vv_1, vv_2 \in E(G)$. Then $v_1v_2 \in E(G \land vv_1)$ and $G \land vv_1 \land v_1v_2 = G \land vv_2$.

▶ Lemma 9. Let k be a positive integer. Let G_1 , $G_2 \in \Delta_{k-1}$, and let G_3 be a graph having linear rank-width at most k-1. Then every delta composition of G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 has linear rank-width k. Also, if a graph is obtained from the disjoint union of G_1 and G_2 by adding an edge w_1w_2 where $w_1 \in V(G_1)$ and $w_2 \in V(G_2)$, then it has linear rank-width k.

▶ Lemma 10. Let k be a non-negative integer. Let $G \in \Delta_k$, $v \in V(G)$, and H be a graph obtained from G by adding a twin w of v. Then there is a linear layout L of H having width k + 1 such that the first vertex of L is v and the last vertex of L is w.

We are ready to prove the main combinatorial result in this paper.

▶ Proposition 11. Let k be a non-negative integer and $G \in \Delta_k$. Then every elementary vertex-minor of G has linear rank-width k.

Proof. Note that for $v \in V(G)$ and $S \subseteq V(G)$, $\operatorname{cutrk}_{G \setminus v}(S \setminus v) \ge \operatorname{cutrk}_G(S) - 1$ because exactly one column or one row of $A(G)[S, V(G) \setminus S]$ is removed. Thus by Proposition 6, if His an elementary vertex-minor of G, then $\operatorname{lrw}(H) \ge \operatorname{lrw}(G) - 1 = (k+1) - 1 = k$. Therefore, it is sufficient to prove that every elementary vertex-minor of G in Δ_k has linear rank-width at most k.

We use induction on k. If k = 0, then $G = K_2$ and every elementary vertex-minor of G is isomorphic to K_1 , so it has linear rank-width 0. We assume that $k \ge 1$. Since $G \in \Delta_k$, G is a delta composition of G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 in Δ_{k-1} . Let $v_1v_2v_3$ be the main triangle of G such that $v_i \in V(G_i)$ for i = 1, 2, 3. Let H be an elementary vertex-minor of G and $V(G) \setminus V(H) = \{v\}$. By Lemma 7, for a neighbor w of v, H is locally equivalent to one of three graphs $G \setminus v$, $G * v \setminus v$, and $G \wedge vw \setminus v$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $v \in V(G_1)$. Since $G_1 \in \Delta_{k-1}$, by induction hypothesis, $G_1 \setminus v$ has linear rank-width at most k - 1. Thus, by Lemma 9, $G \setminus v$ has linear rank-width k. What remains to be proved is that for a neighbor w of v, $G * v \setminus v$ and $G \wedge vw \setminus v$ have linear rank-width at most k.

First, suppose that $v \neq v_1$. If $N_G(v) = \{v_1\}$, then $G * v \setminus v = G \setminus v$ and $G \wedge vv_1 \setminus v$ is isomorphic to $G \setminus v_1$. Therefore, by Lemma 9, they have linear rank-width k. If v has a neighbor w other than v_1 , then

$$(G*v)[V(G_2)\cup V(G_3)\cup \{v_1\}] = (G\wedge vw)[V(G_2)\cup V(G_3)\cup \{v_1\}] = G[V(G_2)\cup V(G_3)\cup \{v_1\}].$$

Hence, both $G * v \setminus v$ and $G \wedge vw \setminus v$ are delta compositions of two graphs in Δ_{k-1} and one graph having linear rank-width at most k-1. Thus, by Lemma 9, they have linear rank-width k.



 $G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \qquad G'_1 = (G * v \setminus v)[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \qquad \qquad G'_1 * v_2$

Figure 4 The case $G * v \setminus v$ where $v = v_1$.



Figure 5 The case $G \wedge vw \setminus v$ where $v = v_1$.

Now we consider $v = v_1$. Let w be a neighbor of v in G_1 . By Proposition 6, there is a linear layout L_{G_2} of G_2 having width k such that the end vertex of L_{G_2} is v_2 , and there is a linear layout L_{G_3} of G_3 having width k such that the first vertex of L_{G_3} is v_3 . We denote $G'_1 = (G * v \setminus v)[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)]$ and $G''_1 = (G \wedge vw \setminus v)[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)]$.

We first show that $G * v \setminus v$ has linear rank-width at most k. To prove it, we will find a linear layout L' of G'_1 having width k such that the first vertex of L' is v_2 and the last vertex of L' is v_3 . In Figure 4, we can observe that $N_{G_1}(v) = N_{G'_1 * v_2}(v_2) = N_{G'_1 * v_2}(v_3)$ and $A(G)[N_{G_1}(v)] = A(G'_1 * v_2)[N_{G_1}(v)]$. Hence, the graph $G'_1 * v_2$ is isomorphic to the graph obtained from G_1 by adding a false twin of v. By Proposition 10, there is a linear layout L'of $G'_1 * v_2$ having width k such that the first vertex of L' is v_2 and the last vertex of L' is v_3 . Let L_{G_1} be the sequence obtained from L' by deleting v_2 and v_3 .

We show that $L = L_{G_2} \oplus L_{G_1} \oplus L_{G_3}$ is a linear layout of $G * v \setminus v$ having width at most k. If $x \in V(G_2) \cup V(G_3)$, then clearly $\operatorname{cutrk}_{G*v \setminus v}(\{y : y \leq_L x\}) \leq k$. If $x \in V(G_1) \setminus v$, then by Proposition 4,

$$\operatorname{cutrk}_{G*v\setminus v}(\{y: y \leq_L x\}) = \operatorname{cutrk}_{G'_1}(\{y: y \leq_{L'} x\})$$
$$= \operatorname{cutrk}_{G'_1*v_2}(\{y: y \leq_{L'} x\}) \leq k.$$

Therefore, $G * v \setminus v$ has linear rank-width at most k.

Now we show that $G \wedge vw \setminus v$ has linear rank-width at most k. By the same argument in the previous case, it is sufficient to prove that there is a linear layout L'' of G''_1 having width k such that the first vertex is v_2 and the last vertex is v_3 . We claim that $G''_1 \wedge v_2w =$ $G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge vv_2 \setminus v$. Note that

$$G_1'' \wedge v_2 w = (G \wedge vw \setminus v)[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge v_2 w$$

= $G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge vw \setminus v \wedge v_2 w$
= $G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge vw \wedge v_2 w \setminus v.$

And by Lemma 8,

$$G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge vw \wedge v_2w \setminus v = G[\{v_2, v_3\} \cup V(G_1)] \wedge vv_2 \setminus v.$$

In Figure 5, we can observe that $G''_1 \wedge v_2 w$ is isomorphic to the graph obtained from G_1 by adding a true twin of v. Thus, by Proposition 10, there is a linear layout L'' of $G''_1 \wedge v_2 w$ having width k such that the first vertex of L'' is v_2 and the last vertex of L'' is v_3 . Also, for $x \in V(G_1) \setminus v$,

$$\operatorname{cutrk}_{G''_1}(\{y: y \leq_{L''} x\}) = \operatorname{cutrk}_{G''_1 \land vv_2}(\{y: y \leq_{L''} x\}) \leq k.$$



Figure 6 A split-decomposition D of a graph G, and $D * v_2$. The marked edges of D are depicted as wavy edges, and the desendants of the vertex v_2 in D is a and f. Note that $D * v_2$ is a split decomposition of $G * v_2$.

Therefore, we conclude that $G \wedge vw \setminus v$ has linear rank-width at most k.

Proof of Theorem 5. Let $G \in \Delta_k$. By Proposition 6, G has linear rank-width k + 1. And by Proposition 11, every elementary vertex-minor of G has linear rank-width k. So every proper vertex-minor of G has linear rank-width at most k. Therefore, G is an excluded vertex-minor for graphs of linear rank-width at most k.

4 No two graphs in Δ_k are locally equivalent.

In this section, we show that no two graphs in Δ_k are locally equivalent.

▶ **Theorem 12.** Let k be a non-negative integer and $G, H \in \Delta_k$. If G and H are locally equivalent, then G and H are isomorphic.

To prove it, we will use the canonical split-decompositions of graphs in Δ_k .

Split-decomposition.

Let G be a graph. A partition (A, B) of V(G) is a *split* if $|A| \ge 2$, $|B| \ge 2$, and for every $v \in N_G(B)$ and $w \in N_G(A)$, $vw \in E(G)$. If G has no split and $|V(G)| \ge 5$, then we call G a prime graph. If G has a split (A, B), then we define a graph G', called a simple decomposition of G, as the graph obtained from G by deleting all edges between $N_G(A)$ and $N_G(B)$, and adding two vertices w_1, w_2 and adding edges $\{w_1w_2\} \cup \{vw_1 : v \in N_G(B)\} \cup \{w_2v : v \in N_G(A)\}$. We call w_1w_2 a marked edge of G'. A graph is a marked graph if it has marked edges, and for a marked graph D, we define M(D) as the set of marked edges of D. A split-decomposition of G is recursively defined to be either G or a marked graph obtained from a split-decomposition D by replacing a component H of $D \setminus M(D)$ with a simple decomposition of H. Two components C_1 and C_2 of $D \setminus M(D)$ are neighbors if there exist $v_1 \in V(C_1)$, $v_2 \in V(C_2)$ such that $v_1v_2 \in M(D)$. A split-decomposition D of a graph is canonical if it satisfies the following:

- (i) each component of $D \setminus M(D)$ is either a prime graph or a star or a complete graph,
- (ii) no two complete components are neighbors,
- (iii) if two star components are neighbors, then two ends of the marked edge are both centers or both leaves of each components.

Two split-decompositions D_1 and D_2 of a graph G are *equivalent* if there is a graph isomorphism f from D_1 to D_2 such that f preserves the marked edges and $f|_{V(G)}$ is an identity function. We need the following result.

▶ Lemma 13 (Cunningham [4]). Canonical split-decompositions of a graph are equivalent.

Let D be the canonical split-decomposition of G and $C(D) = \{C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_n\}$ be the components of $D \setminus M(D)$. A tree T_G is a canonical tree of G if $V(T_G) = \{v_{C_1}, v_{C_2}, \ldots, v_{C_n}\}$ and v_{C_i} is adjacent to v_{C_j} if and only if two components C_i and C_j are neighbors in D. We call f the canonical map from T_G to D if it is the bijection from $V(T_G)$ to C(D) such that $f(v_{C_k}) = C_k$.

For $v \in V(G) \subseteq V(D)$, a vertex w in D is a *descendant* of v if either w = v or w is the end of a path starting from v, whose successive edges are alternatively non-marked and marked edges, and the last edge is marked. Note that each component of $D \setminus M(D)$ has at most 1 descendant of a vertex because every marked edge in D is a cut-edge. For $v \in V(G)$, we define D * v as the marked graph obtained from D by replacing each component H of $D \setminus M(D)$ having a descendant w of v by H * w.

▶ Lemma 14 (Bouchet [3]). If D is a canonical split-decomposition of a graph G and $v \in V(G)$, then D * v is a canonical split-decomposition of the graph G * v.

By Lemma 14, if G and H are locally equivalent, then G and H have isomorphic canonical trees. Hence, it is sufficient to prove that for $G, H \in \Delta_k$, if G and H have isomorphic canonical trees, then G is isomorphic to H. To show this, we explicitly describe the canonical decompositions of graphs in Δ_k .

Clearly, K_2 has itself as a canonical split-decomposition. Let $k \ge 1$ and $G \in \Delta_k$. Note that for a non-leaf vertex v in G, v is incident with exactly one cut-edge and meets at least one triangles. For a non-leaf vertex v in G, let l_v be the star on the vertex set $V(l_v) =$ $\{v, a^v, b^v_{C_1}, b^v_{C_2}, \ldots, b^v_{C_m}\}$ with the center v, where v is incident with a cut-edge e and meets trianges C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_m . And for each triangle C in G, let t_C be the triangle on the vertex set $\{d^a_C, d^b_C, d^c_C\}$ where $V(C) = \{a, b, c\}$. We define the graph D_G as the graph obtained from the disjoint union of all graphs in $\{l_v : v \text{ is a non-leaf vertex in } G\} \cup \{t_C : C \text{ is a triangle in } G\}$ by adding the marked edge set $M(D_G)$ which consists of

- (i) $b_C^v d_C^v$ if v meets a triangle C,
- (ii) $a^{v}a^{w}$ if vw is a cut-edge of G and both v and w are not leaves of G.

We can verify that the marked graph D_G with $M(D_G)$ of the third graph G in Figure 3 is the first graph in Figure 7. In general, we can show that for $G \in \Delta_k$, D_G with the marked edge set $M(D_G)$ is indeed a canonical split-decomposition of G.

▶ Lemma 15. Let k be a non-negative integer and $G \in \Delta_k$. The graph D_G is a canonical split-decomposition of G with the set $M(D_G)$ of marked edges.

We can observe the following.

▶ Lemma 16. Let k be a non-negative integer and $G \in \Delta_k$. Let T_G be a canonical tree of G and f be the canonical map from T_G to D_G . Let B be the set of vertices of T_G mapped by f to a complete graph. Then the following are true.

- (i) If $v \in B$, then $N_{T_G}(v) \cap B = \emptyset$ and $|N_{T_G}(v)| = 3$.
- (ii) Every component of $T_G[V(T_G) \setminus B]$ has at most 2 vertices.
- (iii) If $w \in V(T_G) \setminus B$, then the component f(w) is a star, and the center of f(w) is a non-leaf vertex in G, say u. Suppose that u meets m triangles in G. Then u is adjacent with m + 1 vertices in f(w).



Figure 7 The canonical split-decomposition D_G and the canonical tree T_G of the third graph G in Figure 3. The black vertices in T_G are the vertices mapped by the canonical map to a triangle of D_G .

▶ Proposition 17. Let k be a non-negative integer and $G, H \in \Delta_k$. If G, H have isomorphic canonical trees, then G is isomorphic to H.

Proof. Let T be a canonical tree of both G and H. Let f_G be the canonical map from T to D_G , and let B_G be the set of vertices mapped by f_G to a complete graph of D_G . Similarly, let f_H be the canonical map from T to D_H , and let B_H be the set of vertices mapped by f_H to a complete graph in D_H .

We first show that $B_G = B_H$. Suppose that $B_G \neq B_H$. Since G and H have the same number of triangles, $|B_G| = |B_H|$. So we can choose $v_1 \in B_G \setminus B_H$ and a maximal path $P = v_1 v_2 \dots v_n$ in T such that

- (i) P contains vertices from B_G and from $V(T) \setminus B_G$, alternatively, and
- (ii) P also contains vertices from $V(T) \setminus B_H$ and from B_H , alternatively.

Suppose v_n is not a leaf. By the symmetry, we assume that $v_n \in B_G$ and $v_n \in V(T) \setminus B_H$. Since $v_n \in B_G$, by Lemma 16, v_n has 3 neighbors in T, which are contained in $V(T) \setminus B_G$. And since $v_n \in V(T) \setminus B_H$, by Lemma 16, v_n has at most 1 neighbor of $V(T) \setminus B_H$. Hence, there exists a vertex in $(N_T(v_n) \setminus V(P)) \cap B_H$, say v_{n+1} . Thus, $v_{n+1} \in V(T) \setminus B_G$ and $v_{n+1} \in B_H$, and $v_1v_2, \ldots, v_nv_{n+1}$ is also a path in T satisfying (i) and (ii). It contradicts to the maximality of P. Thus, v_n is a leaf in T. But if v_n is a leaf in T, neither $f_G(v_n)$ nor $f_H(v_n)$ is a triangle, so it is a contradiction. Therefore, $B_G = B_H$, and we call this set B.

Clearly, for $v \in B$, $f_G(v)$ and $f_H(v)$ are triangles. And by Lemma 16, for $v \in V(T) \setminus B$, the components $f_G(v)$ and $f_H(v)$ are uniquely determined by the neighbors of v in T_G . Therefore, the graphs D_G and D_H are isomorphic, and G is isomorphic to H.

Proof of Theorem 12. Since G and H are locally equivalent, there is a sequence v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m of V(G) such that $G * v_1 * v_2 \ldots * v_m = H$. By Lemma 14, G and $G * v_1 * v_2 \ldots * v_m$ have isomorphic canonical trees. And since $G * v_1 * v_2 \ldots * v_m = H$, by Lemma 13, $G * v_1 * v_2 \ldots * v_m$ and H have isomorphic canonical trees. Thus G and H have isomorphic canonical trees. Since $G, H \in \Delta_k$, by Proposition 17, G is isomorphic to H.

5 The size of Δ_k is $2^{\Omega(3^k)}$

In this section, we determine the number of graphs in Δ_k for each non-negative integer k. The main theorem of this section is as follows.

▶ Theorem 18. Let $k \ge 2$ be an integer. The size of Δ_k is $2^{\Omega(3^k)}$.

For graphs G, G' and $v \in V(G)$ and $v' \in V(G')$, two pairs (G, v) and (G', v') are isomorphic if there exists a graph isomorphism ϕ from G to G' such that $\phi(v) = v'$. To prove Theorem 18, for a positive integer k, we partition Δ_k into A_k, B_k , and C_k as follows:

- (i) $G \in A_k$ if (G_1, v_1) , (G_2, v_2) , and (G_3, v_3) are isomorphic,
- (ii) $G \in B_k$ if only two of (G_1, v_1) , (G_2, v_2) , (G_3, v_3) are isomorphic,
- (iii) $G \in C_k$ otherwise,

where G is a delta composition of G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 in Δ_{k-1} , and $v_1v_2v_3$ is the main triangle of G such that $v_i \in V(G_i)$ for i = 1, 2, 3. If p_k is the number of non-isomorphic pairs (G, v)where $G \in \Delta_k$ and $v \in V(G)$, we can easily verify that

$$|A_k| = p_{k-1}, \quad |B_k| = p_{k-1}(p_{k-1}-1), \quad |C_k| = \frac{1}{6}p_{k-1}(p_{k-1}-1)(p_{k-1}-2).$$

We will give a lower bound of p_k from $|A_k|$, $|B_k|$, $|C_k|$, and obtain a recurrence relation.

For a graph G and $v, w \in V(G)$, we denote $v \simeq_G w$ if (G, v) and (G, w) are isomorphic. We consider the equivalent classes $V(G)/\simeq_G$. We denote [v] as an element of $V(G)/\simeq_G$. For a non-negative integer k, let $P_k = \{(G, [v]) : G \in \Delta_k, [v] \in V(G)/\simeq_G\}$ and $p_k = |P_k|$. Then p_k is exactly the number of all non-isomorphic pairs (G, v) where $G \in \Delta_k$ and $v \in V(G)$. It is obvious that $p_0 = 1$, $p_1 = 2$. And we can see that $p_2 = 24$ in Figure 3. We need the following lemma.

▶ Lemma 19. Let k be a positive integer and $G \in \Delta_k$.

- 1. If $G \in A_k$, then $|V(G)/\simeq_G| \ge 2^k$. 2. If $G \in B_k$, then $|V(G)/\simeq_G| \ge 2 \cdot 2^k$.
- **3.** If $G \in C_k$, then $|V(G)/\simeq_G| \ge 3 \cdot 2^k$.

Proof of Theorem 18. By Lemma 19,

$$p_k = \sum_{G \in A_k \cup B_k \cup C_k} |V(G)/\simeq_G| \ge 2^k |A_k| + 2 \cdot 2^k |B_k| + 3 \cdot 2^k |C_k|.$$

Since $|A_k| = p_{k-1}$, $|B_k| = p_{k-1}(p_{k-1}-1)$ and $|C_k| = \frac{1}{6}p_{k-1}(p_{k-1}-1)(p_{k-1}-2)$, we obtain the following recurrence relation,

$$|A_{k+1}| = p_k \ge 2^k |A_k| + 2 \cdot 2^k |B_k| + 3 \cdot 2^k |C_k|$$
$$\ge 2^{k-1} |A_k|^3$$

and $|A_2| = 2$.

This means $|A_k| = 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ for $k \ge 3$. Because $|\Delta_2| = 4$ and $|\Delta_k| \ge |A_k| = 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ for $k \ge 3$, we conclude that $|\Delta_k| = 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$ for $k \ge 2$.

Proof of Theorem 3. By Theorems 5 and 12, $|\mathcal{O}_k| \ge |\Delta_k|$. And by Theorem 18, $|\Delta_k| \ge 2^{\Omega(3^k)}$.

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