

# Node Overlap Removal by Growing a Tree

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## Abstract

Node overlap removal is a necessary step in many scenarios including laying out a graph, or visualizing a tag cloud. Our contribution is a new overlap removal algorithm that iteratively builds a Minimum Spanning Tree on a Delaunay triangulation of the node centers and removes the node overlaps by “growing” the tree. The algorithm is simple to implement, yet it produces high quality layouts. According to our experiments it runs several times faster than the current state-of-the-art methods.

## 1 Introduction

In a drawing of a graph the nodes are typically rendered as shapes of specific sizes. Some graph layout algorithms (such as Sugiyama’s scheme [25, 4]) respect the node sizes, while others (such as Multidimensional Scaling [17] and many versions of Force Directed layouts) disregard the node sizes and treat all nodes as points. Algorithms of the later type produce drawings where nodes might overlap and hide important visual attributes. To remedy the problem, an overlap removal algorithm is necessary. The task of an overlap removal algorithm is to remove the overlap while keeping the layout similar to the original one.

We propose a novel overlap removal algorithm which we call *Growing Tree*, or *GTree*. The main idea of GTree is to resolve the overlap by “growing” a special tree which is built on graph nodes. We compared GTree with PRISM [6], which is considered to be the state-of-the-art overlap removal algorithm.

GTree is the default overlap removal algorithm in MSAGL<sup>1</sup>, and PRISM is the default in Graphviz<sup>2</sup>. To make a fair comparison we implemented GTree in Graphviz, and PRISM in MSAGL, and then we ran comparisons by using both tools.

## 2 Related Work

In the extensive literature on overlap removal, apparently the first paper on the problem (which the authors called *layout adjustment*) was by Misue *et al.* [22].

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/Microsoft/automatic-graph-layout>

<sup>2</sup><http://www.graphviz.org/>

36 They presented several algorithms including *force scan* where spring forces be-  
37 tween nodes are applied in vertical and horizontal scans. The layout adjustment  
38 algorithms in [22] aim to preserve the “mental map” of the layout.

39 A simple solution of the node overlap removal is to scale up the drawing with  
40 a minimum scale factor, which works if no two node centers coincide. While the  
41 shape of the layout is preserved in this method, it may produce huge drawings.

42 Marriott *et al.* [21] explored a scaling method with two scale factors, one  
43 for  $x$ -coordinates and one for  $y$ -coordinates. The disadvantage of this method  
44 is that it produces drawings with extreme aspect ratios.

45 Some force-directed methods [5] have been extended to take the node sizes  
46 into account [19, 18, 26], but it is difficult to guarantee overlap-free layouts  
47 without increasing the repulsive forces excessively. Dwyer *et al.* [2] show how  
48 to avoid node overlaps with Stress Majorization [7]. This method can remove  
49 node overlaps during the layout step, but it needs an initial state that is overlap  
50 free; sometimes such a state is not available.

51 In Cluster Busting [20, 8] the nodes are iteratively moved towards the centers  
52 of their Voronoi cells. The process has the disadvantage of distributing the nodes  
53 uniformly in a given bounding box.

54 Imamichi *et al.* [15] approximate the node shapes by circles and minimize a  
55 function penalizing the circle overlaps.

56 Starting from the center of a node, RWorldle [24] removes the overlaps by  
57 discovering the free space around a node by using a spiral curve and then uti-  
58 lizing this space. The approach requires a large number of intersection queries,  
59 which are time consuming. This idea is extended by Strobel *et al.* [23] to  
60 discover available space by scanning the plane with a line or a circle.

61 Another set of algorithms focuses on the idea of defining pairwise node con-  
62 straints and translating the nodes to satisfy the constraints [22, 11, 21, 13].  
63 These methods consider horizontal and vertical problems separately, which of-  
64 ten leads to a distorted aspect ratio [6]. A Force-transfer-algorithm is introduced  
65 by Huang *et al.* [14]; horizontal and vertical scans of overlapped nodes create  
66 forces moving nodes vertically and horizontally; the algorithm takes  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  steps,  
67 where  $n$  is the number of the nodes. Gomez *et al.* [9] develop Mixed Integer  
68 Optimization for Layout Arrangement to remove overlaps in a set of rectangles.  
69 The paper discusses the quality of the layout, which seems to be high, but not  
70 the effectiveness of the method, which relies on a mixed integer problem solver.

71 The ProjSnippet method [10] generates good quality layouts. The method  
72 requires  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  amount of memory, at least if applied directly as described in  
73 the paper, and the usage of a nonlinear problem solver.

74 In PRISM [6, 12], a Delaunay triangulation on the node centers is used as the  
75 starting point of an iterative step. Then a stress model for node overlap removal  
76 is built on the edges of the triangulation and the stress function (expressing the  
77 energy of the spring system) of the model is minimized

$$\sum_{(i,j) \in E_P} w_{ij} (\|x_i - x_j\| - d_{ij})^2, \quad (1)$$

78 where  $d_{ij} = s_{ij} \|x_i^0 - x_j^0\|$  is the ideal distance for the edge  $(i, j)$ ,  $(x_i^0, y_i^0)$  is the  
 79 current position of the node  $i$ ,  $s_{ij}$  is a scaling factor,  $w_{ij} = 1/d_{ij}$  is a weighting  
 80 factor, and  $E_P$  is the set of edges of the Delaunay triangulation or, in general,  
 81 a proximity graph  $(V, E_P)$ .

82 Dwyer et al. [3] reduce the overlap removal to a quadratic problem and solve  
 83 it efficiently in  $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$  steps. According to Gansner and Hu [6], PRISM is  
 84 superior to this method in quality and speed.

85 In general, PRISM is considered the current state-of-the-art. We will com-  
 86 pare GTree with PRISM. Like PRISM, GTree also begins by building the De-  
 87 launay triangulation as PRISM, but then the algorithms diverge.

88 We remark that a somewhat similar tree-growing procedure appears in the  
 89 remarkable sampling algorithm for branched polymers of Kenyon and Winkler  
 90 [16].

91 We continue below with the description of GTree.

### 92 3 GTree Algorithm

93 Input to GTree is a set of nodes  $V$ , where each node  $i \in V$  is represented by  
 94 an axis-aligned rectangle  $B_i$  with the center  $p_i$ . We assume that for different  
 95  $i, j \in V$  the centers  $p_i, p_j$  are different too. If this is not the case, we randomly  
 96 shift the nodes by tiny offsets. We denote by  $D$  a Delaunay triangulation of the  
 97 set  $\{p_i : i \in V\}$ , and let  $E$  be the set of edges of  $D$ .

98 On a high level, our method proceeds as follows. First we calculate the  
 99 triangulation  $D$ , then we define a cost function on  $E$  and build a minimum cost  
 100 spanning tree on  $D$  for this cost function. Finally, we let the tree “grow”. The  
 101 steps are repeated until there are no more overlaps. The last several steps are  
 102 slightly modified. Now we explain the algorithm in more detail.

103 First we define cost function  $c$  on  $E$ , following the definition in PRISM.

104 Namely, let  $(i, j)$  be an edge of  $E$ . If rectangles  $B_i$  and  $B_j$  do not overlap  
 105 (their interiors do not intersect), then  $c(i, j) = \text{dist}(B_i, B_j)$ , which is the min-  
 106 imum of distances between a point in  $B_i$  and a point in  $B_j$ . Otherwise, for a  
 107 real number  $t$  let us denote by  $B_j(t)$  the rectangle obtained from  $B_j$  by shifting  
 108 it to the new center at  $p_i + t(p_j - p_i)$ . There is a unique  $t_{ij} > 1$  such that  
 109 the rectangles  $B_i$  and  $B_j(t_{ij})$  touch each other. Let  $s = \|p_j - p_i\|$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$   
 110 denotes the Euclidean norm. We set  $c(i, j) = -(t_{ij} - 1)s$ . One can see, that the  
 111 cost is negative for an edge connecting overlapped nodes. See Figure 1 for an  
 112 illustration.

113 Now we have a weighted Delaunay graph with cost function  $c$ , and we com-  
 114 pute a minimum spanning tree  $T$  on this graph. In our implementation we use  
 115 Prim’s algorithm to find  $T$ .

116 In the next step, we create a rooted tree from  $T$  by selecting a root vertex  
 117 in  $T$  randomly. Then GTree proceeds by growing the rooted tree, similar to  
 118 the growth of a tree in nature. The tree growing procedure can be described as  
 119 follows. Let  $i$  be a vertex of the rooted tree. For each child  $j$  of  $i$  we compute  
 120 the new position of  $j$ . If the rectangles of nodes  $i$  and  $j$  do not overlap, we

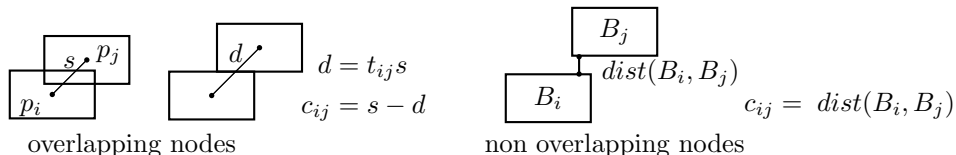


Figure 1: Cost function  $c_{ij}$  for edges of the Delaunay triangulation. For overlapping nodes  $-c_{ij}$  is equal to the minimal distance that is necessary to shift the boxes along the edge direction so they touch each other.

121 keep the vector from  $i$  to  $j$  unchanged. Otherwise, we keep the direction of this  
 122 vector constant but increase its length, by moving  $j$  further away from  $i$ , until  
 123 the rectangles stop overlapping. Vertex  $i$  is chosen by the depth-first search  
 124 algorithm starting from the root. This process is described in Algorithm 1.

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**Algorithm 1:** Growing  $T$

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**Input:** Current center positions  $p$  and root  $r$

**Output:** New center positions  $p'$

```

1  $p'_r = p_r$ 
2 GrowAtNode ( $r$ )
3 function GrowAtNode ( $i$ )
4   foreach  $j \in \text{Children}(i)$  do
5      $p'_j = p'_i + t_{ij}(p_j - p_i)$ 
6     GrowAtNode ( $j$ );
```

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125 The number  $t_{ij}$  in line 5 of Algorithm 1 is the same as in the definition of  
 126 the cost of the edge  $(i, j)$  when nodes  $B_i$  and  $B_j$  overlap, and is 1 otherwise.

127 The algorithm does not update all positions for the child sub-tree nodes  
 128 immediately, but updates only the root of the sub-tree. Using the initial posi-  
 129 tions of a parent and a child, and the new position of the parent, the algorithm  
 130 obtains the new position of the child in line 5. In total, Algorithm 1 works in  
 131  $O(|V|)$  steps. The choice of the root of the tree does not matter. Different roots  
 132 produce the same results modulo a translation of the plane by a vector. Indeed  
 133 it can be shown that after applying the algorithm, for any  $i, j \in V$  the vector  
 134  $p'_j - p'_i$  is defined uniquely by the path from  $i$  to  $j$  in  $T$ .

135 While an overlap along any edge of the triangulation exists, we iterate, start-  
 136 ing from finding a Delaunay triangulation, then building a minimum spanning  
 137 tree on it, and finally running Algorithm 1. See Figure 2 for an example.

138 When there are no overlaps on the edges of the triangulation, as noticed  
 139 by Gansner and Hu [6], overlaps are still possible. We follow the same idea as  
 140 PRISM and modify the iteration step. In addition to calculating the Delaunay  
 141 triangulation we run a sweep-line algorithm to find all overlapping node pairs  
 142 and augment the Delaunay graph  $D$  with each such a pair. As a consequence,  
 143 the resulting minimum spanning tree contains non-Delaunay edges catching the

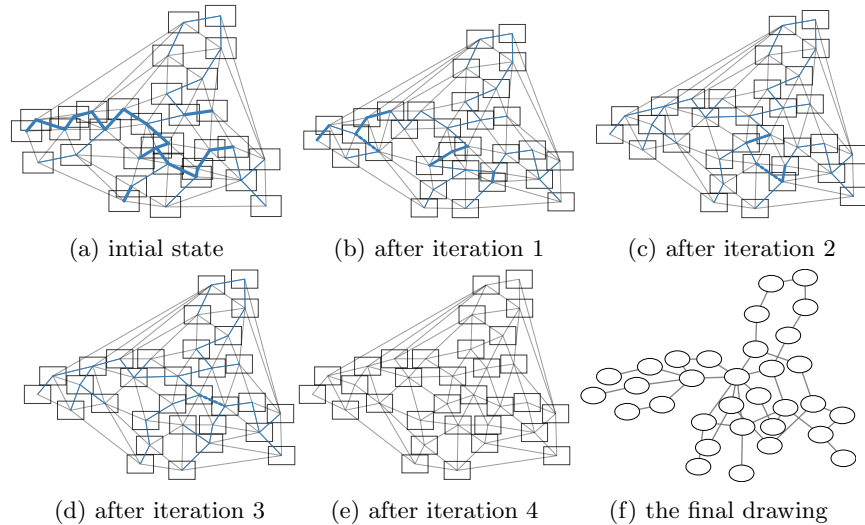


Figure 2: *GTree* iterations. The lines connecting the rectangle centers represent  $E$ . The blue edges form tree  $T$ . The edges of  $T$  connecting overlapped nodes are thick. A few edges of  $T$  are in addition dashed: They correspond to new created overlaps. In this run an edge representing overlap, such an edge is thick and blue, is elongated by not more than 1.5 times. Surprisingly, the overlap is removed in four iterations.

144 overlaps, and the rest of the overlaps are removed. This stage usually requires  
 145 much less time than the previous one.

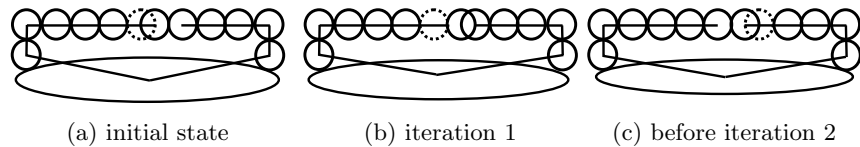


Figure 3: In this configuration each pair of neighboring ellipses touch each other, except of two that overlap. The solid straight lines display the minimum spanning tree that is used by *GTree*. The ellipse with the dashed border plays a role of the tree root. By unfortunate choosing the tree edges we can bring the algorithm to cycle. As we see, after applying the algorithm at c) we again arrive to a), the initial state. The cycling will be broken when at least one of the edges adjacent to the centers of three bottom ellipses is left out of the tree.

146 One can view our *GTree* algorithm as a minimization of the stress function  
 147 from Equation (1) when the proximity graph  $(V, E_p)$  is a tree.

148 It is possible to create an example where the algorithm will not remove all  
 149 overlaps, see Figure 3. However, such examples are extremely rare and have

150 not been seen yet in practice of using MSAGL or in our experiments. MSAGL  
 151 applies random tiny changes to the initial layout which prevents GTree from  
 152 cycling.

153 In the following paragraphs we describe some situations when GTree prov-  
 154 ably converges.

155 Observe first that, if all nodes are boxes of the same size with centers be-  
 156 longing to the same straight line, then GTree removes the overlap using just one  
 157 iteration. Furthermore, in this situation GTree preserves the node order  
 158 along the line. Example 4 with nodes on two horizontal lines shows that one iteration  
 159 of GTree is not sufficient.

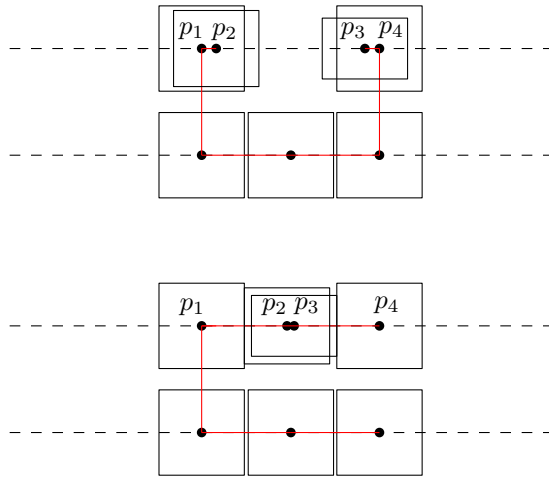


Figure 4: There could be more than one iteration of the algorithm GTree for a layout in two lines. The rectangles  $B_2$  and  $B_3$  are shown using different heights for clarity. The minimum spanning trees of GTree are shown in red.

160 We show that, for some layouts, GTree converges to overlap-free layouts  
 161 while preserving some properties of the initial layout.

162 **Theorem 1** *Suppose that*

- 163 1. *the centers of the nodes in  $V$  are located on horizontal lines such that the*  
 164 *distance between any two lines is at least  $d$ , and*
- 165 2. *all nodes are closed rectangles  $B_i, i = 1, \dots, n$  having the same width and*  
 166 *height, and height less than  $d$ .*

167 *Then GTree removes all node overlaps and finds an overlap-free layout of  $G$  in*  
 168 *at most  $n$  iterations, while keeping the node positions on the same horizontal*  
 169 *lines.*

170 **Proof:**

171 We define a graph  $F_V$  for a given set of nodes  $V$  and their positions in the  
172 plane as follows. The set of vertices of  $F_V$  is  $V$ . Two nodes  $i$  and  $j$  from  $V$  are  
173 connected by an edge if and only if

- 174 (i)  $i$  and  $j$  have their centers on the same horizontal line,
- 175 (ii) no other center on the same horizontal line lies between the centers of  $i$   
176 and  $j$ ,
- 177 (iii) and the rectangles of  $i$  and  $j$  intersect each other;  $B_i \cap B_j \neq \emptyset$ .

178 It is straightforward to check that  $F_V$  is a subgraph of a minimum spanning  
179 tree produced by GTree. At each step the number of connected component in  
180  $F_V$  cannot increase. If it remains the same, then after the step there are no  
181 overlaps. Since the initial number of components is at most  $n$ , this concludes  
182 the proof.  $\square$

183 **Corollary 2** *The conclusion of Theorem 1 still holds if the widths of the rect-*  
184 *angles on the same line are the same, and the projections to y-axis of any two*  
185 *rectangles on different lines are disjoint.*

## 186 4 Comparing PRISM and GTree by Measuring 187 Layout Similarity, Quality, and Run Time

188 Our data includes the same set of graphs that was used by the authors of  
189 PRISM to compare it with other algorithms [6]. The set is available in the  
190 Graphviz open source [package](http://www.graphviz.org)<sup>3</sup>. We also used a small collection of random  
191 graphs and a collection of about 10,000 files residing [here](#)<sup>4</sup>. For the experiments  
192 we use a modified version of Dot, where we can invoke either GTree or Prism  
193 for the overlap removal step, and we also used MSAGL, where we implemented  
194 PRISM and GTree. MSAGL was used only to obtain the quality measures. We  
195 ran the experiments on a PC with Linux, 64bit and an Intel Core i7-2600K  
196 CPU@3.40GHz with 16GB RAM.

197 Some of resulting layouts can be seen in Figures 5,7,8. In Figure 5, we see  
198 that the layouts of PRISM have less drawing area but the nodes are uniformly  
199 condensed within this area. This tendency can be seen in almost all drawings  
200 of PRISM. On the other hand, the layouts produced by GTree usually occupy  
201 larger area but the “structure” of the initial layout is preserved better, helping to  
202 maintain the “mental map”. It can be seen especially on drawings with clusters.  
203 The main reason explaining this phenomenon is that the proximity graph in  
204 PRISM includes *all* Delaunay edges. Some of these edges belong to the boundary  
205 of the initial layout and, according to the stress function from Equation (1),  
206 PRISM attempts to preserve their length and, therefore, the perimeter of the  
207 layout. Also Delaunay triangulation may have long edges that do not correspond

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<sup>3</sup><http://www.graphviz.org>

<sup>4</sup><https://github.com/Microsoft/automatic-graph-layout/>

208 to an overlap. PRISM again tries to preserve their length in the stress function  
 209 which constricts overlap removal for other edges. In contrast, the minimum  
 210 spanning tree used in GTree has fewer those kind of edges.

211 We consider the *area* of the final layout as one of the quality measures.  
 212 Usually PRISM produces a smaller area than GTree, see Table 1.

213 In addition to comparing the areas, we compare some other layout properties.  
 214 Following Gansner and Hu [6], we look at *edge length dissimilarity*, denoted as  
 215  $\sigma_{\text{edge}}$ . This measure reflects the relative change of the edge lengths of a Delaunay  
 216 Triangulation on the node centers of the original layout.

217 The other measure, which is denoted by  $\sigma_{\text{disp}}$ , is the Procrustean similar-  
 218 ity [1]. It shows how close the transformation of the original graph is to a  
 219 combination of a scale, a rotation, and a shift transformation. PRISM and  
 220 GTree perform similar in the last two measures as Table 1 shows.

221 To distinguish the methods further, we measure the change in the set of  $k$   
 222 closest neighbors of the nodes. Namely, let  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  be the positions of the  
 223 node centers, and let  $k$  be an integer such that  $0 < k \leq n$ . Let  $I = \{1, \dots, n\}$   
 224 be the set of node indices. For each  $i \in I$  we define  $N_k(i) \subset I \setminus \{i\}$ , such that  
 225  $|N_k(p, i)| = k$ , and for every  $j \in I \setminus N_k(p, i)$  and for every  $j' \in N_k(p, i)$  holds  
 226  $\|p_j - p_i\| \geq \|p_{j'} - p_i\|$ . In other words,  $N_k(p, i)$  represents a set of  $k$  closest  
 227 neighbors of  $i$ , excluding  $i$ . Let  $p'_1, \dots, p'_n$  be transformed node centers. To  
 228 see how much the layout is distorted nearby node  $i$ , we intersect  $N_k(p, i)$  and  
 229  $N_k(p', i)$ . We measure the distortion as  $(k - m)^2$ , where  $m$  is the number of  
 230 elements in the intersection. If a node preserves its  $k$  closest neighbors then the  
 231 distortion is zero.

232 Our experiments for  $k$  from 8 to 12 show that under this measure GTree  
 233 produced a smaller error, showing less distortion, on 8 graphs from 14, and on  
 234 the rest PRISM produced a better result, see Table 2. GTree produced smaller  
 235 error on all small random graphs.

Table 1: Similarity to the initial layout (left) and number of iterations for different graph sizes and different initialization methods (right). PR stands for PRISM ( $\sigma_{\text{edge}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{disp}}$ ) and the final layout area.

Graph	PR		GTree		PR		GTree		init. layout:		neato		SFDP		
	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	Graph	$ V $	$ E $	PR	GTree	PR	GTree
dpd	0.34	0.28	0.37	0.36	0.82	0.84			dpd	36	108	4	7	3	6
unix	0.22	0.19	0.24	0.20	2.38	2.38			unix	41	49	3	4	12	5
rowe	0.29	0.26	0.23	0.24	0.68	0.73			rowe	43	68	5	4	13	7
size	0.39	0.37	0.24	0.26	1.09	1.28			size	47	55	7	3	9	5
ngk10.4	0.30	0.30	0.27	0.30	0.00	0.00			ngk10.4	50	100	6	3	14	7
NaN	0.56	0.44	0.73	0.51	4.03	4.34			NaN	76	121	8	3	24	6
b124	0.55	0.53	0.97	0.83	5.52	6.22			b124	79	281	14	4	30	12
b143	0.67	0.70	1.12	0.93	3.62	3.88			b143	135	366	21	6	37	12
mode	0.54	0.50	0.59	0.53	1.53	2.29			mode	213	269	37	8	11	6
b102	0.71	0.77	1.43	1.27	4.50	6.62			b102	302	611	60	24	113	19
xx	0.75	0.70	1.65	1.42	6.21	9.57			xx	302	611	83	18	50	19
root	1.09	1.19	2.89	2.45	34.58	91.87			root	1054	1083	95	18	99	22
badvoro	0.88	0.92	2.27	2.42	25.68	47.43			badvoro	1235	1616	40	20	50	23
b100	0.84	0.98	3.08	3.14	20.64	37.38			b100	1463	5806	80	24	136	28

236 We ran tests on the graphs from [a subdirectory of MSAGL called Andy-](#)



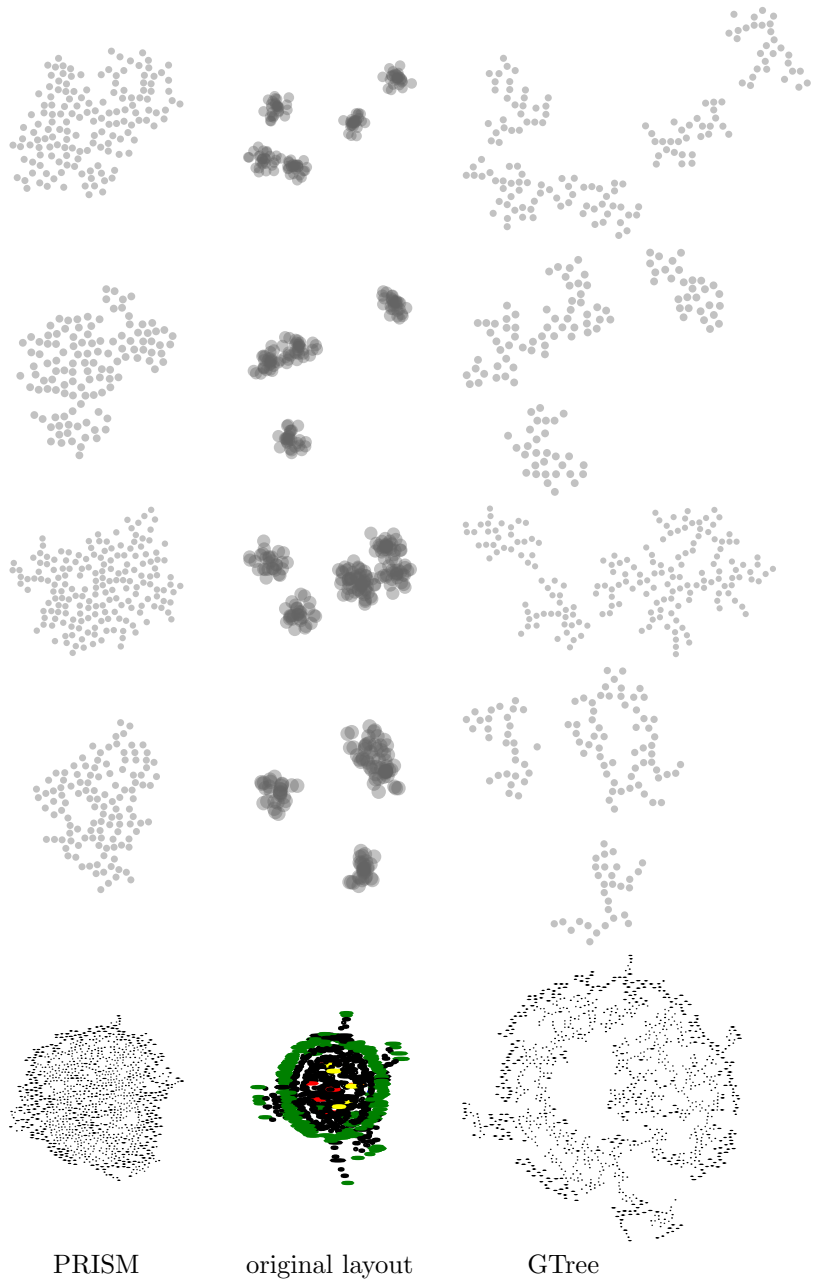


Figure 5: Comparison between PRISM, original, and GTree layouts. In four top rows the initial layouts were generated randomly. At the bottom are the drawings of nodes of graph “root” which was initially laid out by the Multi Dimensional Scaling algorithm of MSAGL. In our opinion, the initial structure is more preserved in the right column, containing the results of GTree.

Table 2: k closest neighbors error, the Multi Dimensional Scaling algorithm of MSAGL was used for the initial layout. PR stands for PRISM.

Graph	k = 8		k = 9		k = 10		k = 11		k = 12	
	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	PR	GTree	PR	GTree
dpd	7.75	6.06	9.61	7.36	9.5	8	10.14	8.5	9.97	7.64
unix	8.56	7.05	10.51	8.8	10.95	10.02	11.66	10.54	13	11.41
rowe	6.28	8.09	7.09	9.95	7.49	10.49	9.12	11.4	11.05	12.51
size	4.68	6.09	5.47	6.47	6.28	7.57	6.89	8.13	8.26	10.02
ngk10.4	6.76	7.4	7.52	9.26	8.28	11.38	10.72	13.74	11.92	14.66
NaN	11.83	8.95	14.46	11.5	17.32	13.88	19.88	16.37	22.17	19.7
b124	11.03	11.44	13.22	13.56	14.76	15.54	15.91	17.32	18.23	20.04
b143	13.49	12.39	16.31	14.99	19.49	17.93	23.11	21.04	26.53	24.43
mode	16.91	11.46	20.58	13.95	24.68	16.85	29.54	19.92	34.48	22.56
b102	15.99	14.62	19.61	18.78	23.38	22.77	27.28	26.77	32.15	31.45
xx	15.68	15.65	19.01	19.45	23.05	23.37	26.98	27.35	31.29	32.47
root	17.09	15.7	20.89	19.36	25.48	23.3	30.48	27.66	35.74	32.83
badvoro	16.18	15.15	20.16	18.98	24.37	23.28	29.18	28.03	34.29	33.29
b100	18	19.25	22.11	23.65	26.79	28.69	32.03	34.46	37.44	40.5

237 [Files<sup>5</sup>](#). Let us call this set of graphs collection  $A$ . Each graph from  $A$  represents  
 238 the control flow of a method from a version of the .NET framework.  $A$  contains  
 239 10077 graphs. The graph sizes do not exceed several thousands. We used the  
 240 Multi Dimensional Scaling algorithms of MSAGL for the initial layout in this  
 test. The results of the run are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Statistics on collection  $A$ . Here k-cn stands for k-closest neighbors, and “iters” stands for the number of iterations. Each cell contains the number of graphs for the measure on which the method performed better. We can see that PRISM produced a layout of smaller area than the one of GTree on 8498 graph, against 1579 graphs where GTree required less area. From the other side, GTree gives better results on all other measures. The columns of k-cn and “iters” do not sum to 10077, the number of graphs in  $A$ , because some of the results were equal for PRISM and GTree.

Method	k-cn	$\sigma_{\text{edge}}$	$\sigma_{\text{disp}}$	area	iters	time
PRISM	3237	4741	4114	8498	46	7
GTree	4088	5336	5963	1579	9986	10070

241

## 242 Runtime Comparison

243 Both methods remove the overlap iteratively using the proximity graph. How-  
 244 ever, while PRISM needs  $\mathcal{O}(|V| \cdot \sqrt{|V|})$  time to solve the stress model, GTree  
 245 needs only  $\mathcal{O}(|V|)$  time per iteration with the growing tree procedure. There-  
 246 fore, GTree is asymptotically faster in a single iteration. In addition, as Table 1  
 247 (right) shows, GTree usually needs fewer iterations than PRISM, especially on  
 248 larger graphs. The overall runtime can be seen in Figure 6.

249 In addition, we ran experiments on large random graphs. For  $n = 10000$   
 250 and  $n = 100000$  we created a set of  $n$  circles with a radius 66 and a random

<sup>5</sup><https://github.com/Microsoft/automatic-graph-layout/>

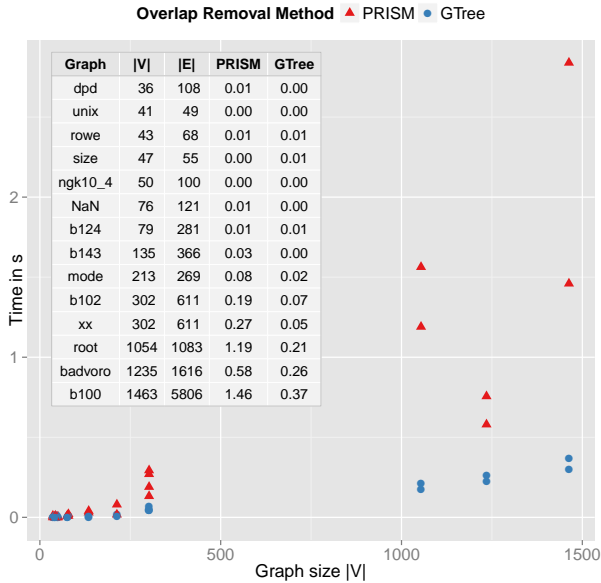


Figure 6: Running times for PRISM and GTree.

251 chosen center inside of a square with a side of length 1000. Then we removed  
 252 the overlaps by running PRISM and GTree and repeated this experiment 10  
 253 times. For  $n = 10000$  PRISM required from 50 to 65 iterations for, while GTree  
 254 required from 19 to 24. For  $n = 100000$  PRISM required between 77 and 100,  
 255 while GTree required from 25 to 29 iterations. It shows that GTree outperforms  
 256 PRISM on larger graphs.

257 In Figure 7 we experiment with the way we expand the edges. Instead of  
 258 the formula  $p'_j = p'_i + t_{ij}(p_j - p_i)$ , which resolves the overlap between the nodes  
 259  $i$  and  $j$  immediately, we use the update  $p'_j = p'_i + \min(t_{ij}, 1.5)(p_j - p_i)$ . As a  
 260 result, the algorithm runs a little bit slower but produces layouts with smaller  
 261 area.

## 262 5 Conclusion & Future Work

263 We proposed a new overlap removal algorithm that uses the minimum spanning  
 264 tree. We compared the algorithm with PRISM, which is the current state-of-  
 265 the-art method of overlap removal. We found out that GTree is asymptotically  
 266 faster, and in general faster than PRISM. We applied four quality measures to  
 267 the results. GTree was better in every measure except one; GTree drawings  
 268 usually require more area. GTree is much simpler and easier to implement than  
 269 PRISM. We hope that GTree will be used widely.

270 Although we introduced our approach in the context of graph visualization,  
 271 one can notice that we never used the edges of the original graph. GTree can be

272 used for any other purpose where overlap needs to be resolved while maintaining  
273 the initial layout.

274 Finding a measure of how well an overlap removal algorithm preserves clus-  
275 ters of the initial layout seems to be an interesting challenge.

276 One of the directions for future work could be exploring other families of  
277 proximity graphs  $(V, E_P)$  and analyze how they affect the final layout.

278 One issue concerns breaking ties between edges of equal cost when construct-  
279 ing the spanning tree. In particular, the example in Figure 3 shows that if ties  
280 are broken arbitrarily then the algorithm may not converge (at least in contrived  
281 instances). To address this, we propose breaking ties at random: at each step,  
282 any set of edges with equal costs are assigned a uniformly random order, which  
283 is used to select edges for the spanning tree. With this method, it is straight-  
284 forward to show that the example in Figure 3 converges in expected number of  
285 steps  $\Theta(|V|)$  (although we believe that typical instances converge much faster).

286 **Conjecture 3** *Suppose that, in choosing the spanning tree in the GTree algo-*  
287 *rithm, we break ties between edges of equal cost uniformly at random. Then the*  
288 *algorithm stops with probability one.*

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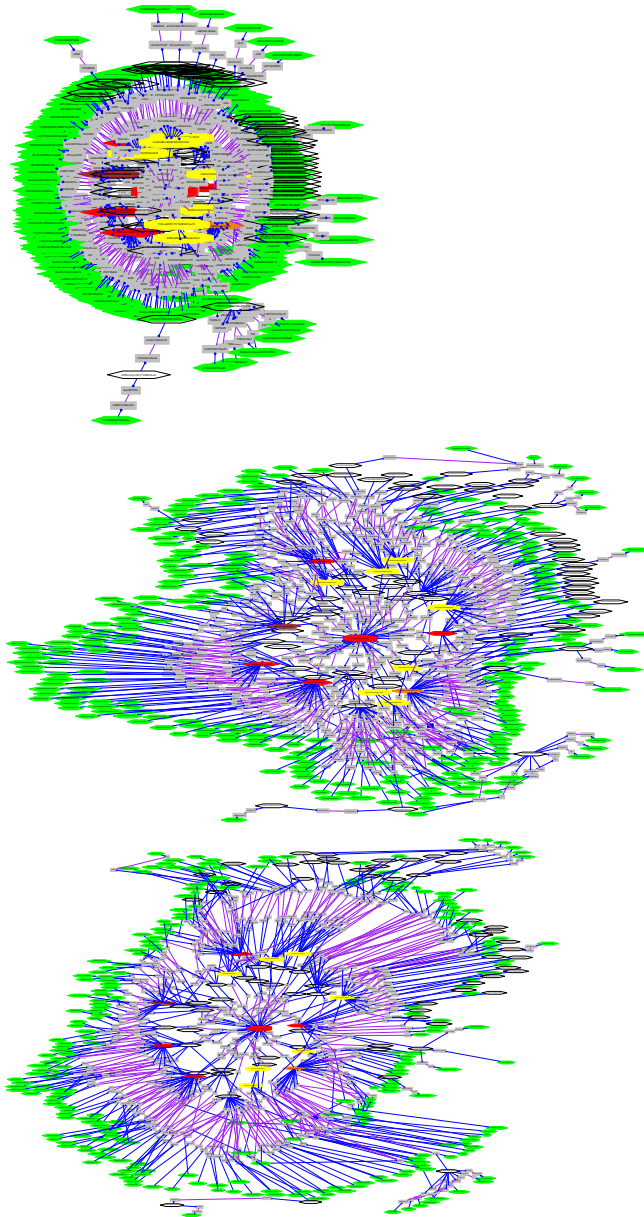


Figure 7: root graph with 1054 nodes and 1083 edges. (a) initial layout with NEATO, (b) applying PRISM, (c) applying GTree.

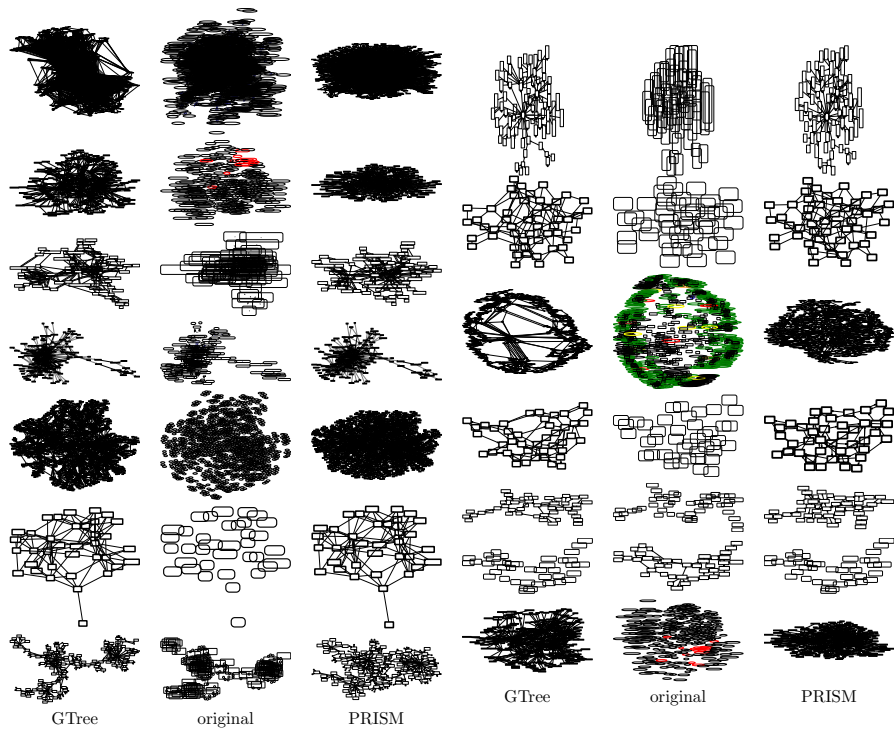


Figure 8: Results for GTree and PRISM initialized with SFDP. From top to bottom and left to right: b100, b102, b124, b143, badvoro, dpd, mode, - NaN, ngk10\_4, root, rove, size, unix, and xx. To make the original drawings more readable they have been changed; In most cases the nodes were diminished and the edges removed. The drawings were scaled differently.