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Title	Common Developments of Three Incongruent Boxes of Area 30
Author(s)	Xu, Dawei; Horiyama, Takashi; Shirakawa, Toshihiro; Uehara, Ryuhei
Citation	Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 9076: 236-247
Issue Date	2015-05-18
Type	Journal Article
Text version	author
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/10119/13757
Rights	This is the author-created version of Springer, Dawei Xu, Takashi Horiyama, Toshihiro Shirakawa and Ryuhei Uehara, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, 9076, 2015, 236-247. The original publication is available at www.springerlink.com, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-17142-5_21
Description	Theory and Applications of Models of Computation, 12th Annual Conference, TAMC 2015, Singapore, May 18-20, 2015, Proceedings

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Common Developments of Three Incongruent Boxes of Area 30

Dawei Xu[1], Takashi Horiyama[2], Toshihiro Shirakawa, and Ryuhei Uehara[1]

[1] School of Information Science,
Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Japan
{xudawei,uehara}@jaist.ac.jp
[2] Information Technology Center,
Saitama University, Japan
horiyama@al.ics.saitama-u.ac.jp

Abstract. We investigate common developments that can fold into plural incongruent orthogonal boxes. Recently, it was shown that there are infinitely many orthogonal polygons that folds into three boxes of different size. However, the smallest one that folds into three boxes consists of 532 unit squares. From the necessary condition, the smallest possible surface area that can fold into two boxes is 22, which admits to fold into two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 5$ and $1 \times 2 \times 3$. On the other hand, the smallest possible surface area for three different boxes is 46, which may admit to fold into three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 11$, $1 \times 2 \times 7$, and $1 \times 3 \times 5$. For the area 22, it has been shown that there are 2,263 common developments of two boxes by exhaustive search. However, the area 46 is too huge for search. In this paper, we focus on the polygons of area 30, which is the second smallest area of two boxes that admits to fold into two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. Moreover, when we admit to fold along diagonal lines of rectangles of size 1×2, the area may admit to fold into a box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$. That is, the area 30 is the smallest candidate area for folding three different boxes in this manner. We perform two algorithms. The first algorithm is based on ZDDs, zero-suppressed binary decision diagrams, and it computes in 10.2 days on a usual desktop computer. The second algorithm performs exhaustive search, however, straightforward implementation cannot be run even on a supercomputer since it causes memory overflow. Using a hybrid search of DFS and BFS, it completes its computation in 3 months on a supercomputer. As results, we obtain (1) 1,080 common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and (2) 9 common developments of three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$.

1 Introduction

Since Lubiw and O'Rourke posed the problem in 1996 [10], polygons that can fold into a (convex) polyhedron have been investigated in the area of computational

Fig. 1. Cubigami.

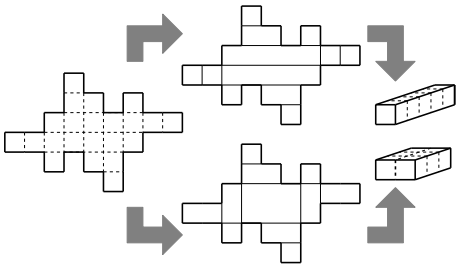

Fig. 2. A polygon folding into two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 5$ and $1 \times 2 \times 3$ in [12].

geometry. In general, we can state the development/folding problem as follows:

Input : A polygon P and a polyhedra Q
Output: Determine whether P can fold into Q or not

When Q is a tetramonohedron (a tetrahedron with four congruent triangular faces), Akiyama and Nara gave a complete characterization of P by using the notion of tiling [2, 3]. Except that, we have quite a few results from the mathematical viewpoint. Hence we can tackle this problem from the viewpoint of computational geometry and algorithms.

From the viewpoint of computation, one natural restriction is that considering the orthogonal polygons and polyhedra which consist of unit squares and unit cubes, respectively. Such polygons have wide applications including packaging and puzzles, and some related results can be found in the books on geometric folding algorithms by Demaine and O'Rourke [6, 14]. However, this problem is counterintuitive. For example, the puzzle "cubigami" (Fig. 1) is a common development of all tetracubes except one (since the last one has surface area 16, while the others have surface area 18), which is developed by Miller and Knuth. One of the many interesting problems in this area asks whether there exists a polygon that folds into plural incongruent orthogonal boxes. This folding problem is very natural but still counterintuitive; for a given polygon that consists of unit squares, and the problem asks are there two or more ways to fold it into simple convex orthogonal polyhedra (Fig. 2). Biedl et al. first gave two polygons that fold into two incongruent orthogonal boxes [5] (see also Figure 25.53 in the book by Demaine and O'Rourke [6]). Later, Mitani and Uehara constructed infinite families of orthogonal polygons that fold into two incongruent orthogonal boxes [12]. Recently, Shirakawa and Uehara extended the result to three boxes in a nontrivial way; that is, they showed infinite families of orthogonal polygons that fold into three incongruent orthogonal boxes [16]. However, the smallest polygon by their method contains 532 unit squares, and it is open if there exists much smaller polygon of several dozens of squares that folds into three (or more) different boxes.

$2(ab+bc+ca)$	$a \times b \times c$
22	$1 \times 1 \times 5$, $1 \times 2 \times 3$
30	$1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$
34	$1 \times 1 \times 8$, $1 \times 2 \times 5$
38	$1 \times 1 \times 9$, $1 \times 3 \times 4$
46	$1 \times 1 \times 11$, $1 \times 2 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 5$
54	$1 \times 1 \times 13$, $1 \times 3 \times 6$, $3 \times 3 \times 3$
58	$1 \times 1 \times 14$, $1 \times 2 \times 9$, $1 \times 4 \times 5$
62	$1 \times 1 \times 15$, $1 \times 3 \times 7$, $2 \times 3 \times 5$
64	$1 \times 2 \times 10$, $2 \times 2 \times 7$, $2 \times 4 \times 4$
70	$1 \times 1 \times 17$, $1 \times 2 \times 11$, $1 \times 3 \times 8$, $1 \times 5 \times 5$
88	$1 \times 2 \times 14$, $1 \times 4 \times 8$, $2 \times 2 \times 10$, $2 \times 4 \times 6$

Table 1. A part of possible size $a \times b \times c$ of boxes and its common surface area $2(ab+bc+ca)$.

It is easy to see that two boxes of size $a \times b \times c$ and $a' \times b' \times c'$ can have a common development only if they have the same surface area, i.e., when $2(ab+bc+ca) = 2(a'b'+b'c'+c'a')$ holds. We can compute small surface areas that admit to fold into two or more boxes by a simple exhaustive search. We show a part of the table for $1 \leq a \leq b \leq c \leq 50$ in Table 1. From the table, we can say that the smallest surface area is at least 22 to have a common development of two boxes, and their sizes are $1 \times 1 \times 5$ and $1 \times 2 \times 3$. In fact, Abel et al. have confirmed that there exist 2,263 common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 5$ and $1 \times 2 \times 3$ [1]. On the other hand, the smallest surface area that may admit to fold into three boxes is 46, which may fold into three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 11$, $1 \times 2 \times 7$, and $1 \times 3 \times 5$. However, the number of polygons of area 46 seems to be too huge to search. This number is strongly related to the enumeration and counting of polyominoes, namely, orthogonal polygons that consist of unit squares [7]. The number of polyominoes of area n is well investigated in the puzzle society, but it is known up to $n = 45$, which is given by the third author (see the OEIS (https://oeis.org/A000105) for the references). Since their common area consists of 46 unit squares, it seems to be hard to enumerate all common developments of three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 11$, $1 \times 2 \times 7$, and $1 \times 3 \times 5$.

One natural step is the next one of the surface area 22 in Table 1. The next area of 22 in the table is 30, which admits to fold into two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. When Abel et al. had confirmed the area 22 in 2011, it takes around 10 hours. Thus we cannot use the straightforward way in [1] for the area 30. We first employ a nontrivial extention of the method based on a zero-suppressed binary decision diagram (ZDD) used in [4], which is so-called frontier-based search algorithm for enumeration [9]. Our first algorithm based on ZDD runs in around 10 days on an ordinary PC. To perform double-check, we also use supercomputer (CRAY XC30). We note that we cannot use the same way as one for area 22 shown in [1] since it takes too huge memory even on a supercomputer. Therefore, we use a hybrid search of the breadth first search and

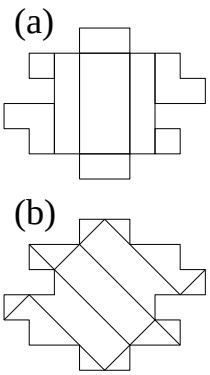

Fig. 3. The common development shown in [5]. (a) It folds into a box of size $1 \times 2 \times 4$ and (b) it also folds into a box of size $\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2} \times 3\sqrt{2}$.

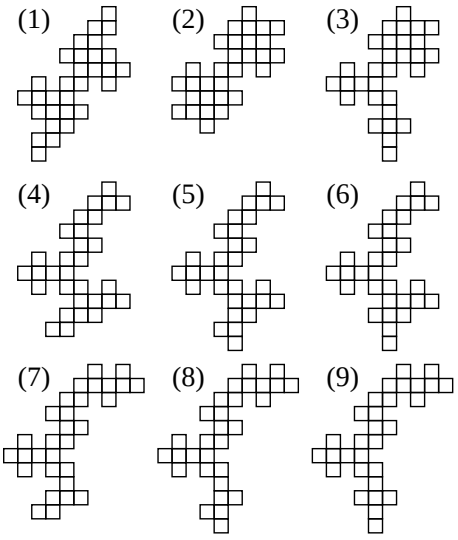

Fig. 4. Nine polygons that fold into three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$. The last one can fold into the third box in two different ways (Fig. 5).

the depth first search. Our first result is the number of common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$, which is 1,080.

Based on the obtained common developments, we next change the scheme. In [5], they also considered folding along 45 degree lines, and showed that there was a polygon that folded into two boxes of size $1 \times 2 \times 4$ and $\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2} \times 3\sqrt{2}$ (Fig. 3). In this context, we can observe that the area 30 may admit to fold into another box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ by folding along the diagonal lines of rectangles of size 1×2. This idea leads us to the problem that asks if there exist common developments of three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ among the common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$.

We remark that this is a special case of the development/folding problem above. In our case, P is one of the 1,080 polygons that consist of 30 unit squares, and Q is the cube of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$. We note that we can use a pseudopolynomial time algorithm for Alexandrov's Theorem proposed in [8], however, it runs in $O(n^{456.5})$ time, and it is not practical. Therefore, we develop the other efficient algorithm specialized in our case that checks if a polyomino P of area 30 can fold into a cube Q of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$. Using the algorithm, we check if these common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$ can also fold into the third box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$, and give an affirmative answer. We find that nine of 1,080 common developments of two boxes can fold into the third box (Fig. 4). Moreover, one of the nine common developments of three boxes has another way of folding. Precisely, the last one (Fig. 4(9)) admits to

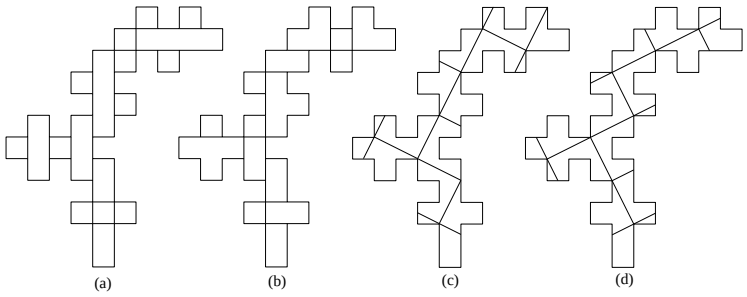

Fig. 5. The unique polygon folds into three boxes of size (a) $1 \times 1 \times 7$, (b) $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and (c)(d) $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ in four different ways.

fold into the third box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ in two different ways. These four ways of folding are depicted in Fig. 5.

We summarize the main results in this paper:

Theorem 1. *(1) There are 1,080 polyominoes of area 30 that admit to fold (along the edges of unit squares) into two boxes of size* $1 \times 1 \times 7$ *and* $1 \times 3 \times 3$. *(2) Among the above 1,080, nine polyominoes can fold into the third box of size* $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ *if we admit to fold along diagonal lines (Fig. 4). (3) Among these nine polyominoes, one can fold into the third box in two different ways (Fig. 5).*

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Problem Definitions

Demaine and O'Rourke [6, Chap. 21] give a formal definition of the *development* of a polyhedron as the *net*[1]. Briefly, the development is the unfolding obtained by slicing the surface of the polyhedron, and it forms a single connected simple polygon without self-overlap. The *common development* of two (or more) polyhedra is the development that can fold into both (or all) of them. We only consider connected orthogonal polygons that consist of unit squares, which are called *polyominoes* [7], as developments. Polyominoes obtained from a development by removing some unit squares are called *partial developments* of it. We call a convex orthogonal polyhedron (folded from a polyomino) a *box*.

The cut edges of an edge development of a convex polyhedron form a spanning tree of the 1-skeleton (i.e., the graph formed by the vertices and the edges) of the polyhedron (See e.g., [6, Lemma 22.1.1]). Fig. 6(a) and (b) are the 1-skeleton of a cube and its spanning tree, respectively. In our problem, given a box of size $a \times b \times c$, we divide the faces into unit squares, and cut the surface along edges of the unit squares. We call such a development a *unit square development*. In

[1] Since the word "net" has several meaning, we use "development" instead of it to make clear.

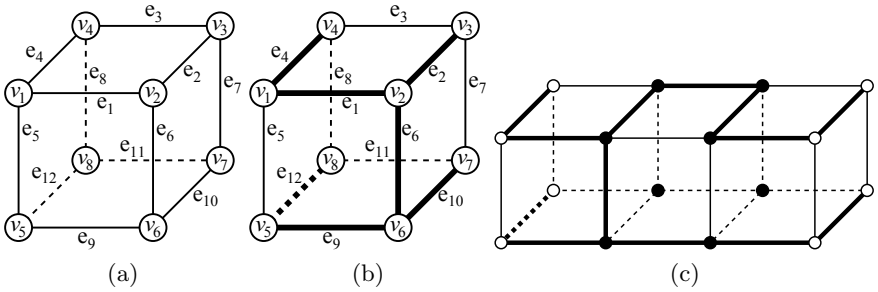

Fig. 6. 1-skeletons and spanning trees of a cube and a box of size $1 \times 1 \times 3$.

Fig. 6(c), we regard the eight vertices (colored in white) as special, where the angle sum at each corner is 270°. We call them *corners*. The 1-skeleton of a box is given as $G = (V_c \cup V_o, E)$, where V_c and V_o denote the sets of eight corners and others, respectively, and E denote the set of edges of unit length. The cut edges of a unit square development form a tree spanning to the eight corners.

Now, we go back to the common development. It is easy to see that two boxes of size $a \times b \times c$ and size $a' \times b' \times c'$ have a common unit square development only if they have the same surface area, i.e., $2(ab+bc+ca) = 2(a'b'+b'c'+c'a')$. Such 3-tuples (a, b, c) can be computed by a simple enumeration for small areas (Table 1), but it seems that we have many corresponding 3-tuples for large area. In fact, this intuition can be proved as follows:

Theorem 2. *([13]) We say two 3-tuples* (a, b, c) *and* (a', b', c') *are* distinct *if and only if* $a \neq a'$, $b \neq b'$, *or* $c \neq c'$. *For any positive integer* p, *there are* p *distinct 3-tuples* (a_i, b_i, c_i) *for* $i = 1, 2, \ldots, p$ *such that* $a_ib_i + b_ic_i + c_ia_i = a_jb_j + b_jc_j + c_ja_j$ *for any* $1 \leq i, j \leq p$.

Proof. For a given p, we let $a_i = 2^i - 1$, $b_i = 2^{2p-i} - 1$, $c_i = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, p$. Then we have $a_ib_i+b_ic_i+c_ia_i = (2^{2p}-2^i-2^{2p-i}+1)+(2^{2p-i}-1)+(2^i-1) = 2^{2p}-1$ for any i. It is easy to see that all 3-tuples (a_i, b_i, c_i) are distinct. Thus we have the theorem. □

By Theorem 2, we can consider any number of boxes that may share the common developments.

2.2 Enumeration by Zero-Suppressed Binary Decision Diagrams

A *zero-suppressed binary decision diagram (ZDD)* [11] is directed acyclic graph that represents a family of sets. As illustrated in Fig. 7, it has the unique source node[2], called *the root node*, and has two sink nodes 0 and 1, called *the 0-node* and *the 1-node*, respectively (which are together called the constant nodes). Each of the other nodes is labeled by one of the variables $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$, and has exactly two outgoing edges, called *0-edge* and *1-edge*, respectively. On every path from

[2] We distinguish *nodes* of a ZDD from *vertices* of a graph (or a 1-skeleton).

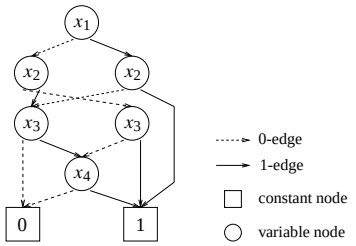

Fig. 7. A ZDD representing $\{\{1,2\},\{1,3,4\},\{2,3,4\},\{3\},\{4\}\}$.

the root node to a constant node in a ZDD, each variable appears at most once in the same order. The size of a ZDD is the number of nodes in it.

Every node v of a ZDD represents a family of sets $\mathcal{F}_v$, defined by the subgraph consisting of those edges and nodes reachable from v. If node v is the 1-node (respectively, 0-node), $\mathcal{F}_v$ equals to $\{\{\}\}$ (respectively, $\{\}$). Otherwise, $\mathcal{F}_v$ is defined as $\mathcal{F}_{0\text{-}succ(v)} \cup \{S \mid S = \{var(v)\} \cup S', S' \in \mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}succ(v)}\}$, where 0-$succ(v)$ and 1-$succ(v)$, respectively, denote the nodes pointed by the 0-edge and the 1-edge from node v, and $var(v)$ denotes the label of node v. The family $\mathcal{F}$ of sets represented by a ZDD is the one represented by the root node. Fig. 7 is a ZDD representing $\mathcal{F} = \{\{1,2\},\{1,3,4\},\{2,3,4\},\{3\},\{4\}\}$. Each path from the root node to the 1-node, called *1-path*, corresponds to one of the sets in $\mathcal{F}$.

Now, we focus on the enumeration of developments by ZDDs. As denoted in Section 2.1, the cut edges of an edge development form a spanning tree of the 1-skeleton (e.g., edges $\{e_1, e_2, e_4, e_7, e_6, e_9, e_{10}\}$ in Fig.6(b)). This conditions can be interpreted as follows:

Property 1. Given the 1-skeleton $G = (V, E)$ of a polyhedron, the cut edges of its edge development is the set of edges E_d ($\subseteq E$) satisfying: (1) E_d has no cycle. (2) Subgraph of G induced by E_d has only one connected component. (3) Each vertex in V is adjacent to at least one edge in E_d.

Algorithm 1 [4] gives the frontier-based search [9] to construct a ZDD representing a family of spanning trees. It can be considered as one of DP-like algorithms. Each search node in the algorithm corresponds to a subgraphs of the given graph G. The search begins with $\text{node}_{\text{root}}$ (i.e., the root node of the resulting ZDD) corresponding to $(V, \{\})$. In the search, we check whether we can adopt edge e_i or not, in the order of $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, where m is the number of edges in G. In Line 4 of Algorithm 1, current search node is $\hat{n}$, and in case $x = 1$ (respectively, $x = 0$), we adopt (respectively, do not adopt) e_i. Search node n' corresponds to the resulting graph, and is pointed by the x-edge of $\hat{n}$ in Line 13.

The key is to share nodes of the constructing ZDD (in Lines 9 and 10) by simple "knowledge" of subgraphs, and not to traverse the same subproblems more than once. Each search node $\hat{n}$ in the algorithm has an array $\hat{n}.\text{comp}[\,]$ as an knowledge, where $\hat{n}.\text{comp}[v_j]$ indicates the ID of the connected component v_j belonging to. We can reduce the size of knowledge by maintaining the values

Algorithm 1: Construct ZDD

```
   Input  : Graph G = (V, E) with n vertices and m edges
   Output: ZDD representing a family of spanning trees in G
 1 N_1 := {node_root}. N_i := {} for i = 2, 3, ..., m + 1
 2 for i := 1, 2, ... m do
 3     foreach n̂ ∈ N_i do
 4         foreach x ∈ {0, 1} do                    // 0-edge and 1-edge
 5             n' := CheckTerminal(n̂, i, x)         // returns 0, 1, or nil
 6             if n' = nil then                     // n' is neither 0 nor 1
 7                 Copy n̂ to n'
 8                 UpdateInfo(n', i, x)
 9                 if there exists n'' ∈ N_{i+1} that is identical to n' then
10                     n' := n''
11                 else
12                     N_{i+1} := N_{i+1} ∪ {n'}
13             Create the x-edge of n̂ and make it point at n'
```

of $\hat{n}$.comp[ ] just for vertices incident to both a processed and an unprocessed edges. Such set of vertices are called the i-th *frontier* F_i ($\in V$), which is formally defined as $F_i = (\cup_{j=1,\ldots,i} e_j) \cap (\cup_{j=i+1,\ldots,m} e_j)$, $F_0 = F_m = \{\}$. We check whether the subgraph corresponding to the search node $\hat{n}$ consists a spanning tree in Procedure CheckTerminal. For more detail, see [9] and Appendix A.

3 Algorithms for the first two boxes of size 1x1x7 and 1x3x3

3.1 Algorithm based on ZDDs

We first denote how to obtain all common unit cube developments of two incongruent boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$ by ZDDs. The strategy is simple: We enumerate unit cube developments for each box, and then obtain developments that appears in common. The important thing is to enumerate developments efficiently. For unit cube developments, we generalize the algorithm given in Section 2.2. Once a ZDD is obtained, its 1-paths represent sets of cut edges. By traversing the ZDD, we can obtain sets of cut edges, and thus obtain the shapes of developments (i.e., polyominoes). The difference between the enumeration of developments in Section 2.2 and that in our problem can be seen in Fig. 6(b) and (c). In our problem, faces of our boxes are divided into unit squares, and we need to make a tree spanning to the eight corners. The cut edges of a unit square development of our box has the following property:

Property 2. Given the 1-skeleton $G = (V_c \cup V_o, E)$ of a box, the cut edges of its unit square development is the set of edges E_d ($\subseteq E$) satisfying: (1) E_d has no

cycle. (2) Subgraph of G induced by E_d has only one connected component of size greater than 1. (3) Each vertex in V_c is adjacent to at least one edge in E_d. (4) No vertex in V_o is adjacent to exactly one edge in E_d.

Conditions (1) and (2) are essentially equivalent to those in Property 1. Condition (3) is to flatten the corners of the box into a plane. Conditions (2) and (3) guarantees that all vertices in V_c are connected. Condition (4) is to avoid a vertex in V_o adjacent to exactly one edge in E_d. (If there exists such an edge, we can eliminate it from E_d.) Conditions (2) and (4) guarantees that all vertices in V_o adjacent to two or more edges are connected to the vertices in V_c. Thus, we have a tree spanning the vertices in V_c.

To check the above conditions, we modify Procedures UpdateInfo and CheckTerminal. For counting the number of adopted edges adjacent to v_j and the size of connected component v_j belonging to, we prepare two arrays $\hat{n}$.deg[ ] and $\hat{n}$.size[ ]. In Procedures UpdateInfoRevised, we initialize $\hat{n}.\mathrm{deg}[v_j] := 0$ (i.e., the number of adopted edges in E_d adjecent to v_j is 0) and $\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_j] := 1$ (i.e., vertex v_j is a singleton) in Line 3. If edge $e_i = (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2})$ is adopted to E_d (i.e., $x = 1$), we update the degrees of v_{i_1} and v_{i_2}, and the size of their connected components in Lines 8, 9 and 12.

In Procedure CheckTerminalRevised, Condition (1) is checked in Lines 2–4. If vertex v_j leaves from the frontier, we have no chance to adopt its adjecent edges, which means the degree of v_j does not change. Thus, we check Conditions (3) and (4) in Lines 8 and 9, respectively. At the same time, we have no chance to grow the size of v_j's connected components. Thus, we check whether we have two or more connected components in Lines from 14 to 16, and terminate the search if it holds. Otherwise, we have only one connected component, and hence we cannot adopt any edges in the remaining search. Thus, we check Conditions (3) and (4) in Lines from 17 to 22, and returns the result.

3.2 Algorithm based on exhaustive search

Here we describe the exhaustive algorithm for generating all common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. The basic idea is similar to one in [1]: Let L_i be the set of all common partial developments of area i of two boxes. Then L_1 consists of a unit square, and each L_i with $i > 1$ is a subset of polyominoes of size i that can be computed from L_{i-1} by the breadth first search. Each L_i is maintained by a huge hash table, which means that we use $O(\max_i\{i|L_i| + (i-1)|L_{i-1}|\})$ space for the computation of step i.

This simple idea works up to 22 for two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 5$ and $1 \times 2 \times 3$ in [1] since the maximum number of $|L_i \cup L_{i-1}|$ takes 1.01×10^7 when $i = 18$. However, for the surface area 30, it does not work even on a supercomputer (CRAY XC30) due to memory overflow when $i = 22$.

Thus we divide the computation into two phases. In the first phase, we compute L_i for each $i = 2, \ldots, 16$. As a result, we have L_{16} that consists of 7,486,799 common partial developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. In the second phase, we partition L_{16} into 75 disjoint subsets L_{16}^j with $1 \leq j \leq 75$. For

Procedure CheckTerminalRevised($\hat{n}, i, x$)

Let (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}) denote $e_i \in E$
if $x = 1$ **then**
  if $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_1}] = \hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_2}]$ **then** // v_{i_1}, v_{i_2} are in the same component
    return 0 // we have a cycle by adding e_i
Copy $\hat{n}$ to n'
UpdateInfo(n', i, x)
foreach $v_j \in \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}\}$ *satisfying* $v_j \notin F_i$ **do** // v_j is leaving from the frontier
  // Check the degree constraints for v_j
  if (v_j *is in* V_c) *and* ($\hat{n}.\deg[v_j] = 0$) **then** return 0
  if (v_j *is in* V_o) *and* ($\hat{n}.\deg[v_j] = 1$) **then** return 0
  if ($\forall v_k \in F_i$ $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] \neq \hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_k]$) **then**
    // v_j's connected component cannot connect to any other components
    if ($\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_j] > 1$) **then**
      if ($\exists v_\ell \in F_i$ ($\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_\ell] > 1$)) **then**
        // we have two or more connected components of size > 1
        return 0
      else // We cannot adopt any edges
        foreach $v_{j'} \in \cup_{i'=i+1,\ldots,m} e_{i'}$ **do**
          // Check the degree constraints for remaining vertices
          if ($v_{j'}$ *is in* V_c) *and* ($\hat{n}.\deg[v_{j'}] = 0$) **then** return 0
          if ($v_{j'}$ *is in* V_o) *and* ($\hat{n}.\deg[v_{j'}] = 1$) **then** return 0
        return 1
  $F_i := F_i \setminus \{v_j\}$
return *nil*

Procedure UpdateInfoRevised($\hat{n}, i, x$)

Let (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}) denote $e_i \in E$
foreach $v_j \in \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}\}$ *such that* $v_j \notin F_{i-1}$ **do** // v_j is entering the frontier
  $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] := j$ // The initial component ID is the index of v_j
  $\hat{n}.\deg[v_j] := 0$, $\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_j] := 1$
if $x = 1$ **then** // Merge two components of v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}
  $c_{\min} := \min\{\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_1}], \hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_2}]\}$
  $c_{\max} := \max\{\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_1}], \hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_{i_2}]\}$
  $\hat{n}.\deg[v_{i_1}] := \hat{n}.\deg[v_{i_1}] + 1$, $\hat{n}.\deg[v_{i_2}] := \hat{n}.\deg[v_{i_2}] + 1$
  $s = \hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_{i_1}] + \hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_{i_2}]$
  foreach $v_j \in F_i$ **do**
    if $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] = c_{\max}$ **then** $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] := c_{\min}$
    if ($\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] = c_{\min}$) *or* ($\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j] = c_{\max}$) **then** $\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_j] := s$
foreach $v_j \in \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}\}$ *such that* $v_j \notin F_i$ **do** // v_j is leaving the frontier
  Forget $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j]$, $\hat{n}.\deg[v_j]$ and $\hat{n}.\mathrm{size}[v_{i_2}]$

each L_{16}^j, we independently compute up to L_{30}^j in parallel by the BFS algorithm again. In the final step, we merge L_{30}^j with $1 \leq j \leq 75$, remove duplicates, and obtain L_{30}.

4 Algorithm for the third box

Let L_{30} be the set of all common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. We here note that if we can compute L_{30} efficiently, we can check in the same manner; that is, we generate all developments of the cube of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ by cutting along the line of unit squares, and check if each one appears in L_{30} or not. Thus, in the first method based on ZDDs, we can use the same way again; we construct all developments of the cube of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ based on the connection network on unit squares, and check if each one appears in L_{30} or not. In the second method based on the exhaustive search for two boxes, we use a completely different way. The details can be found in Appendix B, and omitted here.

The program of the first method based on ZDDs runs on a usual desktop computer with Intel Xeon E5-2643 and 128 GB memory. It takes 0.10 and 71.53 seconds for obtaining the sets of cut edges of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$, respectively, and 7.7 days for converting the cut edges into the shapes of developments and for obtaining the common developments. For the third box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$, It takes 354.64 seconds for obtaining cut edges, and 2.5 days for obtaining the the common developments of the three boxes. It takes 10.2 days in total. The program of the second method runs, in total, in 3 months on the supercomputer (CRAY XC30), and we obtain 1,080 common developments in L_{30} of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$[3]and 9 common developments of three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$ and $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$.

5 Concluding remarks

Recently, Shirakawa and Uehara showed infinite families of orthogonal polygons that fold into three incongruent orthogonal boxes [16]. However, the smallest polygon contains 532 unit squares. In this paper, we show that there exist orthogonal polygons of 30 unit squares that fold into three incongruent orthogonal boxes if we allow us to fold along slanted lines. In the original framework in [16], the smallest possible surface area that may fold into three different boxes is 46, which may produce three boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 11$, $1 \times 2 \times 7$, and $1 \times 3 \times 5$. We conjecture that there exists an orthogonal polygon of 46 unit squares that admits to fold these three boxes. Some nontrivial properties in Figures 4 and 5 may help to find it.

There are many future work in this area. For example, does there exist a polyomino that folds into four or more boxes? Is there some upper bound of the number of boxes which can be folded from one polyomino? We remind that

[3] We note that the maximum number of partial developments is given when $j = 24$.

Theorem 2 says that we have no upper bound by the constraint of the surface areas. But it is hard to imagine that one polyomino can fold into, say, 10,000 different boxes. General development/folding problems are also remained open. For example, Shirakawa et al. found a common development of a unit cube and an almost regular tetrahedron (with relative error $< 2.89200 \times 10^{-1796}$) [15], however, a common development of two Platonic solids are still open.

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A Frontier-based Search

The key of the frontier-based search [4, 9] is to share nodes of the constructing ZDD (in Lines 9 and 10 of Algorithm 1) by simple "knowledge" of subgraphs, and not to traverse the same subproblems more than once. Each search node $\hat{n}$ in the algorithm has an array $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[\,]$ as an knowledge, where $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[v_j]$ indicates the ID of the connected component v_j belonging to. The ID for $v_j \in G$ is set to j in the beginning (Lines 2 and 3 of Procedure UpdateInfo). If we adopt $e_i = \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}\}$ (i.e., in case $x = 1$), we merge the two connected components of v_{i_1} and v_{i_2} by updating the ID's of v_j in the components (Lines 4–8 of Procedure UpdateInfo). We maintain the values of $\hat{n}.\mathrm{comp}[\,]$ just for vertices incident to both a processed and an unprocessed edges. We call a set of these vertices i-th frontier F_i ($\in V$), which is formally defined as $F_i = (\cup_{j=1,\ldots,i} e_j) \cap (\cup_{j=i+1,\ldots,m} e_j)$, $F_0 = F_m = \{\}$.

We check whether the subgraph corresponding to the search node $\hat{n}$ consists a spanning tree in Procedure CheckTerminal. A set of edges consists a spanning tree if and only if (1) we have no cycle and (2) we have only one connected component. In case we are adding $e_i = \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}\}$ and v_{i_1} and v_{i_2} belong to the same connected component, we have a cycle. In this case, we have no chance to obtain a spanning, and hence we terminate the search (Lines 2–4). The later half of Procedure CheckTerminal is devoted to check the number of connected components. If v_j is leaving from the i-th frontier F_i, and no other vertices in F_i belong to the same connected component with v_j, from the definition of the frontier, we have no chance to connected v_j with other vertices in F_i. This is why we terminate the search in Line 14. The only one exception is the case when we are processing the last edge $e_m = \{v_{m_1}, v_{m_2}\}$. In this case, two vertices v_{m_1} and v_{m_2} leave the frontier, and no vertices remain in the frontier. Therefore, if v_{m_1} and v_{m_2} belong to the same connected component, all vertices are connected, and thus return 1, i.e., we have found a spanning tree (Line 12). Otherwise, we we terminate the search.

Procedure UpdateInfo($\hat{n}, i, x$)

```
1  Let (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}) denote e_i ∈ E
2  foreach v_j ∈ {v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}} such that v_j ∉ F_{i-1} do // v_j is entering the frontier
3      n̂.comp[v_j] := j                  // The initial component ID is the index of v_j
4  if x = 1 then // Merge two components of v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}
5      c_min := min{n̂.comp[v_{i_1}], n̂.comp[v_{i_2}]}
6      c_max := max{n̂.comp[v_{i_1}], n̂.comp[v_{i_2}]}
7      foreach v_j ∈ F_i do
8          if n̂.comp[v_j] = c_max then n̂.comp[v_j] := c_min
9  foreach v_j ∈ {v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}} such that v_j ∉ F_i do // v_j is leaving the frontier
10     Forget n̂.comp[v_j]
```

Procedure CheckTerminal($\hat{n}, i, x$)

```
1  Let (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}) denote e_i ∈ E
2  if x = 1 then
3      if n̂.comp[v_{i_1}] = n̂.comp[v_{i_2}] then    // v_{i_1}, v_{i_2} are in the same component
4          return 0                                  // we have a cycle by adding e_i
5  Copy n̂ to n'
6  UpdateInfo(n', i, x)
7  foreach v_j ∈ {v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}} satisfying v_j ∉ F_i do  // v_j is leaving from the frontier
8      if (∀v_k ∈ F_i  n̂.comp[v_j] ≠ n̂.comp[v_k]) then
9          // v_j's connected component cannot connect to any other components
10         if (i = m) and (n̂.comp[v_{i_1}] = n̂.comp[v_{i_2}]) then
11             // we have checked all edges in E, and all vertices are connected
12             return 1
13         else // we have two or more connected components
14             return 0
15     F_i := F_i \ {v_j}
16 return nil
```

B Folding the third box

Let L_{30} be the set of all common developments of two boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$ and $1 \times 3 \times 3$. In this section, we describe the algorithm that checks if each development in L_{30} can fold into the third box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ or not. Hereafter, for short, we call the third box of size $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ the *cube* of size $\sqrt{5}^3$, and each common development in L_{30} a *pentomino* of area 30. We assume that each pentomino consists of 30 unit squares that are placed on the xy-plane such that the coordinates of each vertex of unit squares are positive integers. Let P be any pentomino in L_{30} and Q the cube of size $\sqrt{5}^3$.

We first have the following lemma:

Lemma 1. *(C.f. [6, Sec. 22.1.3]) If a pentomino P can fold into the cube Q of size $\sqrt{5}^3$, all vertices of Q are on the boundary of P.*

Proof. If some vertex of Q is obtained by gluing with some point p inside of P, the vertex already has the degree 360° by p, which contradicts that the vertex has the degree 270° in total on Q.

Lemma 1 holds for a general convex polyhedron. We moreover can guarantee that the vertices are on integer points on P in our case:

Theorem 3. *If a pentomino P can fold into the cube Q of size $\sqrt{5}^3$, the coordinates of every vertex of Q on the boundary of P are integers on the xy-plane.*

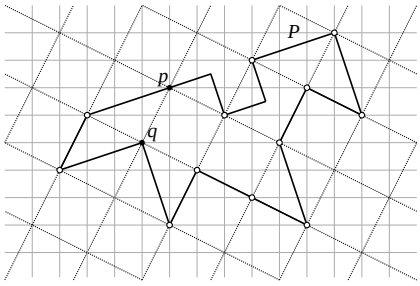

Fig. 8. An example of a development P of a cube Q. For a polygon P, once we fix the edge pq of Q on P, the points p and q on the boundary of P will become the vertices on Q. Then the square grid induced by pq (dotted lines) gives the crease pattern on P. Moreover, the intersection points (white circles) of the square grid induced by pq on the boundary of P give the vertices of Q.

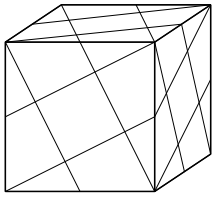

Fig. 9. The shape of the cube of size $\sqrt{5}^3$ folded from a pentomino in L_{30}.

Proof. Let $p = (x_p, y_p)$ be any point on the boundary of P such that it becomes a (part of) vertex on Q. We suppose that at least one of x_p and y_p is not an integer. Let $q = (x_q, y_q)$ be a point on the boundary of P such that the distance between p and q is $\sqrt{5}$. Then it is easy to see that $q = (x_q, y_q)$ is one of $(x_p + 2, y_p + 1)$, $(x_p + 1, y_p + 2)$, $(x_p + 2, y_p - 1)$, $(x_p + 1, y_p - 2)$, $(x_p - 1, y_p + 2)$, $(x_p - 2, y_p + 1)$, $(x_p - 1, y_p - 2)$, and $(x_p - 2, y_p - 1)$. Since we will fold P into Q, one of such points q will become another vertex of Q. Then, Lemma 1 with this observation implies that the line pq determines an edge of Q (or a crease line of P), and all vertices of Q are on the intersection points on the square grid defined by pq on P. In other words, once we fix the points pq on P and its corresponding square grid, the folding lines are given by this square grid (one example is depicted in Fig. 8).

Now at least one of x_p and y_p is not an integer. Then, all intersection points on the square grid on the boundary of P have angle 180° since P consists of unit squares. Thus we cannot fold into any vertex of Q by gluing these 180° materials since the angle at the vertex is 270°, which is a contradiction. Therefore, every vertex on Q should be mapped to some points of integer coordinates on P.

By Theorem 3, the resulting cube Q folded from P can be depicted as in Fig. 9 or its mirror image. Thus 30 unit squares of P are partitioned into two groups. One consists of 6 unit squares, and each square in this group is located at the center of one of six square faces of Q. The other group consists of 24 unit squares, and each square is folded along the line as in the figure. When one unit square is in the second group, the number of possible ways of folding is eight (at each of four corners, we have two choices to fold). Once we fix the way of folding of a unit square, we can determine the square grid defined by the folding line, which completely gives the crease lines to fold Q. For a fixed unit square s

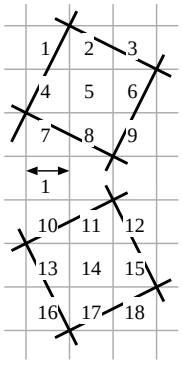

Fig. 10. There are 18 choices for letting a unit square s with respect to the square grid of size $\sqrt{5}$.

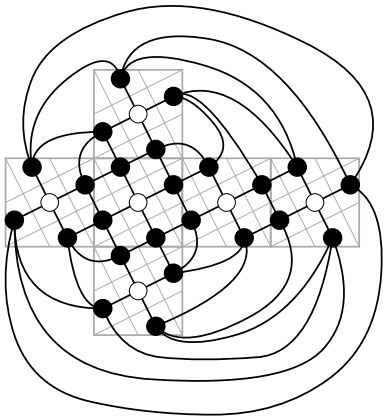

Fig. 11. The graph $G(Q)$ induced by the cube Q. White and black circles are vertices, and black lines are edges in $G(Q)$. Two vertices are adjacent if and only if the corresponding squares share an edge on the cube.

in P, carefully counting (Fig. 10), we have 18 choices of the situation of s with respect to the square grid in total, which give us the way of folding for a given polyomino P. The outline of our algorithm to check if P can fold into Q is in Algorithm 2. The correctness of the algorithm follows from the above discussion, and the implementation is straightforward except the last step.

Algorithm 2: Outline of the check

Input : Polyomino P in L_{30}
Output: Determine if P folds into the cube Q of size $\sqrt{5}^3$

```
1 fix any unit square s in P;
2 for i = 1, 2, ..., 18 do
3     choose the ith square grid with respect to s;
4     put P on the square grid;
5     if P contains an intersection point of the grid inside of P then output
      "No" output "Yes" if we can obtain Q by folding P along the lines given by
      the square grid;
```

Now we suppose that P contains no intersection point for the fixed square grid of size $\sqrt{5}$. Since P is connected and consists of 30 unit squares, we have some intersection points of the square grid on the boundary of P. Then the last step of Algorithm 2 can be considered as a kind of the graph isomorphism problem as follows.

First, we construct a graph $G(P) = (V_P, E_P)$ from P as follows; V_P is the set of unit squares in P, and E_P consists of edges $\{u, v\}$ if and only if two squares u and v in V_P share an edge in P. Next we construct the similar graph $G(Q) = (V_Q, E_Q)$ from the cube Q in the same manner: V_Q is the set of unit square on Q, and two unit squares are joined by an edge if and only if two unit squares share an edge on Q. The graph $G(Q)$ is illustrated in Fig. 11.

Once we fix the square grid of size $\sqrt{5}$ on P, we can partition the unit squares in P into two groups. Now pick one square in P which is one of the six squares located at the center of a square of the cube Q. (In Fig. 11, they are depicted by white vertices.) From there, we stick each unit square in P one by one on Q along the edges in $G(P)$. Each edge in E_P is matched to the corresponding edge in E_Q, and it is not difficult to check if $G(P)$ is a subgraph of $G(Q)$ with keeping their geometric relationship. If two vertices in V_P in $G(P)$ come to the same vertex in $G(Q)$, the corresponding unit squares in P are overlapping on Q. If every vertex in $G(Q)$ is matched by exactly one vertex in $G(P)$ in this manner, we can decide P can fold into Q in this way of folding given by the current square grid. The implementation is not hard, and the program runs in a minute since there are only 1076 polyominoes P of area 30 in L_{30}.

As a result, we obtain nine polyominoes that fold into three different boxes of size $1 \times 1 \times 7$, $1 \times 3 \times 3$, and $\sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5} \times \sqrt{5}$ (Fig. 4), and one of them admits two different ways of folding into the cube of size $\sqrt{5}^3$ (Fig. 5).