P. Danziger

1 Factors and Factorizations

Definition 1

- 1. A <u>factor</u> is a spanning subgraph, H of a graph G. Note that V(H) = V(G) and $E(H) \subseteq V(G)$.
- 2. A k-factor is a spanning subgraph H of G in which every member of H has degree k.
- 3. A k-factorization of a graph G is a set of k-factors H_1, \ldots, H_ℓ such that $G = H_1 \cup \ldots, H_\ell$ and $E(\overline{H_i}) \cap E(\overline{H_j}) = \emptyset$. So every edge of G is in exactly one of the k-factors H_1, \ldots, H_k .

Notes

- 1. A 1-factor almost the same as a perfect matching. The subtle difference is that a perfect matching is a collection of edges, but a 1-factor is a graph.
- 2. A 1-factorization is a partition of the edge set of G into 1-factors (perfect matchings).
- 3. A 2–factor is a collection of cycles.

Note The sizes of the cycles may vary in each factor, and across factors.

A special case is when the size of the 2-factor is n - the number of vertices in G. In this case a 2-factor is a Hamiltonian cycle.

Theorem 2 In order for a graph to have a ℓ -factorization it must be k-regular where ℓ divides k.

Proof: Each vertex must appear in every ℓ -factor. Each time it appears in a ℓ -factor it uses j of its incident edges.

Note that there are k-regular graphs which do not have a ℓ -factorization. i.e. this condition is necessary, but not sufficient. For example the Peterson graph does not have a 1-factorization.

Theorem 3 Every k-regular bipartite graph has a 1-factorization.

Theorem 4 A graph G has a 2-factorization if and only if G is k-regular for some even k.

Proof: (\Rightarrow) Necessity follows from Theorem 2. (\Leftarrow) Let G be a 2k-regular graph, with $V(G) = \{v_1, \ldots v_n\}$. Since every vertex has even degree G has an Eulerian cycle C. This cycle uses every edge, but may visit vertices more than once. We now use C to construct a new bipartite graph H as follows: The parts of H are $X = \{u_1 \ldots u_n\}$ and $Y = \{v_1 \ldots v_n\}$. There is an edge between u_i to w_j if and only if v_i and v_j are adjacent in the Eulerian cycle C.

Now H is k-regular since each point appears k times in the cycle C. Thus H is bipartite and k-regular and so has a 1-factorization by Theorem 3. Let $\{F_1, \ldots, F_r\}$ be the 1-factorization. Consider F_1 , if $u_i w_j \in F_1$ this means that $v_i v_j$ are successive in C. Further, since F is X-saturating every point of V(G) has a successive point.

Thus the 1-factor F_1 of H corresponds to a 2-factor of G.

2 Decompositions

Definition 5 Given two graphs G and H, an <u>H-decomposition</u> of G is a collection of graphs, $\{H_1, \ldots, H_k\}$, all isomorphic to H, on the vertex set of G with isolated points removed such that every edge of G appears exactly once in the collection.

i.e. $E(H_i) \cap E(H_j) = \emptyset \ (i \neq j)$ and $\bigcup_{i=1}^k E(H_i) = E(G)$.

Definition 6 (Kirkman 1847, Steiner 1853) A decomposition of K_n into triangles (C_3) is called a Steiner Triple System STS(n).

Theorem 7 (Kirkman 1847, Riess 1859) A Steiner Triple System STS(n) exists if and only if $n \equiv 1, 3 \mod 6$.

Definition 8 (Kirkman 1847) A Factorization of K_n into triples (C₃) is called a Kirkman Triple System, KTS(n).

Theorem 9 (Ray-Chaudhuri, Wilson 1972) A Kirkman Triple System KTS(n) exists if and only if $n \equiv 3 \mod 6$.

Theorem 10 (Alspach, Schellenberg 1991)) For a given $k \ge 3$ a factorization of K_n into C_k exists if and only if n is even.

Note that all the cycles in the decomposition must have the same size.

Öberwolfach problem Given a set of cycle sizes $C_{m_1}, \ldots, C_{m_\ell}$ for a given $n = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} r_i m_i$ for some integers r_1, \ldots, r_ℓ find a decomposition of K_n into r_1 cycles of size m_1, \ldots, m_ℓ cycles of size r_ℓ .

3 Algorithms

3.1 Backtrack

We wish to find a decomposition of a graph G = (V, E) into triples. There are n vertices and m edges.

Since each triple uses 3 edges There will be m/3 triples in total.

We denote the set of triples by \mathcal{B} .

Assume that we have a total order \leq on V

$$v_1 \leq v_2 \leq \ldots \leq v_n$$

We may use this ordering to induce an ordering on the k-sets of V lexicographically. Given k-sets $A, B \subseteq V$,

$$A = \{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_n}\}, \ B = \{v_{j_1}, v_{j_2}, \dots, v_{j_n}\}.$$

Where the elements within the sets are ordered from least to greatest. $A \leq B$ if and only if $\exists p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall q < p, v_{i_q} = v_{j_q}$ and $v_{i_p} \leq v_{j_p}$.

Example 11

1. $\{0,1\} \le \{0,2\} \le \{1,1\} \le \{1,2\}$ etc.

2. $\{0, 1, 2\} \le \{0, 1, 3\} \le \{0, 2, 3\} \le \{0, 5, 6\} \le \{1, 2, 3\}$ etc.

The Algorithm

Input: A graph G = (V, E)

<u>Initialization</u>: $\mathcal{B} = \emptyset$

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\begin{array}{ll} \underline{\operatorname{Recursion}} & (\mathcal{B} = \operatorname{triples} \ \mathrm{so} \ \mathrm{far}, \ E = \operatorname{edges} \ \mathrm{remaining}) \\ \\ \operatorname{Search}(\mathcal{B}, \ E) \\ & \operatorname{If} \ |\mathcal{B}| = m/3 \ \operatorname{return} \ (\operatorname{success} \ \mathcal{B}) \\ & \operatorname{Find} \ \operatorname{the} \ \leq \ \operatorname{first} \ \mathrm{unused} \ \operatorname{pair} \ v_i \ v_j \in E \ (\not\in B \in \mathcal{B}) \\ & \operatorname{For} \ \operatorname{each} \ v_k \ \operatorname{in} \ \leq \ \operatorname{order} \ \operatorname{s.t.} \ v_i \ v_k \ \& \ v_j \ v_k \in E, \ (v_i < v_j < v_k) \\ & \operatorname{If} \ \operatorname{Search}(\mathcal{B} \cup \{v_i, v_j, v_k\}, \ E - (\{v_i \ v_j\} \cup \{v_i \ v_k\} \cup \{v_j \ v_k\})) \\ & \operatorname{Return} \ (\operatorname{success} \ \mathcal{B} \cup \{v_i, v_j, v_k\}) \\ & \operatorname{If} \ \operatorname{no} \ \operatorname{such} \ v_k \ \operatorname{return} \ \operatorname{Fail} \end{array}
```

If we only want existence Search exists on success, otherwise this algorithm will enumerate all instances of a triple system.

Pros ● Will find every possible solution exactly once.

- Easily generalizable.
- If there is no solution will report this.

Cons

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very . . .
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very . . .

very . . .

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very . . .
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The algorithm may range over all m/3-sets of 3-sets from V. There are over 10^{10} STS(19), and those are only the ones that work.

Example 12

Searching for an STS(9): 012 034 056 078 135146 147 17X 168236237238245247 24824524624824524627X25825726725825X26725737X 37X 36X 368 36X 367 458

Solution: 012, 034, 056, 078, 135, 147, 168, 238, 246, 257, 367, 458

3.2 Hill Climb - Random Algorithms

3.2.1 Idea

Hill Climbs are good for solving optimization problems where the minimum *cost* is known. Given a set Σ of feasible solutions and for each $S \in \Sigma$ we have an associated cost function $c : \Sigma \to \mathbb{R}$. We would like to minimize the cost c over all instances of $S \in \Sigma$ ie. Find $S \in \Sigma$ such that $c(S) = \min_{R \in \Sigma} (c(R))$

We are also given a set of transformations $T_i: \Sigma \to \Sigma$ which are such that $c(T_i(S)) \leq C(S)$.

Definition 13 Given $S \in \Sigma$:

- The neighborhood of $S \ N(S) = \{R \in \Sigma \mid R = T_i(S) \text{ for some } i\}$
- S is a <u>local minimum</u> if $\forall R \in N(S), c(S) \leq c(R)$
- S is a global minimum if $\forall R \in \Sigma, c(S) \leq c(R)$

The key to finding a good Hill climb is to find a good set of non-decreasing transformations T_i . Hill climbs need the random element, if the set of choices is too constrained it will get stuck.

3.2.2 Algorithm

```
If c(S) = \min, return S
End while Return Fail
```

Idea is we start with a random $S \in \Sigma$. We randomly move to a neighboring point. The new point will always have a cost less than or equal to the cost of S. Thus cost always either decreases or stays the same.

Problem is that we can get stuck in a local minimum. To avoid this we abandon the search if too many *sideways* moves have been made.

Calling routine then tries a certain number of times before finally giving up.

Main()

While Count < Max Count If Hill() Return Success!

Thus hill climbs are characterized by two parameters:

Max sideways The maximum number of sideways moves before abandoning this search Max Count The maximum number of times Hill is called before giving up.

3.2.3 1-Factors

Input is an even order k-regular graph G = (V, E). We will build up partial factors F_1, F_2, \ldots, F_k edge by edge, initially the partial factors are empty $F_i = (V, \emptyset)$. As we add edges to the partial factors we ensure that no edges within a factor meet and that no edge of G is used more than once. A factor F_i is called *live* if it contains unsaturated points (so is not yet a 1-factor), note that if F_i is live it must contain at least 2 unsaturated points. An edge $e \in E$ is *live* if it has not been placed in any of the factors F_i . We say a vertex $x \in V$ is used in a factor F_i if it appears in an edge of F_i . Σ is the set of possible arrangements of the edges within the partial factors, subject to the conditions that no edges within a factor meet and that no edge of G is used more than once. c is the number of edges of G placed into partial factors.

We have the following algorithm for moving within Σ , without decreasing c(T).

```
\begin{array}{l} A_1:\\ \text{Pick a live factor }F_i\\ \text{Pick }x\in V \text{ st }x \text{ not used in }F_i\\ \text{Pick }y\in V \text{ st }y \text{ not used in }F_i\\ \text{Add }xy \text{ to }F_i\\ \text{If }xy \text{ is already used in another factor, }F_j\\ \text{ Delete }xy \text{ from }F_j\\ \text{Return 1}\\ \text{Return 0} \end{array}
```

There is a slight variation one can make:

```
A_2

Pick a factor F_i

Pick x \in V st x \notin F_i

Pick y \in V st xy is live (not used)

Add xy to F_i

If y \in F_i (so y appears ewith z say)

Delete yz \in F_i.

Return 1

Return 0
```

It turns out that the best performance is obtained when we randomly choose A_1 or A_2 at each iteration:

Note that this algorithm may fail even if G has a 1-factorization, but in practice this is extremely rare.

3.2.4 Triple Systems

For triple systems $\Sigma = \{ any partial design \} = \{ any collection of triples such that each pair appears at most once \}.$

 $c(S) = v(v-1)/6 - |\mathcal{B}| = m/3 - |\mathcal{B}|$

Hill climbing for triple systems is very effective, so we can effectively set Max Sideways $= \infty$ and Max Tries = 0. However if we are searching for a more complex object we may require these parameters.

E is the set edges to be covered.

By Choose we mean choose a point at random subject to the given conditions.

```
Hill()

\mathcal{B} = \emptyset
While |\mathcal{B}| < m/3

Choose x \in V with d(x) > 0

Choose y \in V with x y \in E

Choose z \in V with x z \in E

If x z \notin E (\Rightarrow \exists a \in V, \{x, z, a\} \in \mathcal{B})

\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B} - \{x, z, a\}

\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B} \cup \{x, y, z\}
```

Pros

Very effective for existence.

Very fast. Can find an STS(303) in 1 second on a PC.

Cons

Random algorithm - may fail to find an answer even though there is one.

Cannot do enumeration.

Not easily generalizable - Good T_i are hard to find.

For example there is no known way to generalize this method to find KTS(v) (Factorizations into triples).