# Hamiltonian Decompositions of Complete Multipartite Graphs with Specified Leaves 

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#### Abstract

For any 2-regular spanning subgraph $G$ and $H$ of the complete multipartite graph $K$ with $p$ parts each of size $m$, conditions are found which guarantee the existence of a 2 factorization of $K$ or of $K-I$ (for some 1-factor $I$ ) in which 1. the first and second 2-factors are isomorphic to $G$ and $H$ respectively, and 2. each other 2-factor is a hamilton cycle.

These conditions are necessary and sufficient when $m$ is odd, and solve the problem when $m$ is even providing that $m$ and $p$ are each at least 6 .


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## Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 History

One of the challenging problems over the past 30 years has been the Oberwolfach problem and its natural generalizations. The original problem requires one to find a 2 factorization of $K_{n}$ in which all the cycles have the same length; this problem was solved over a decade ago $[2,8]$. A much studied generalization of this problem is to simply require that each of the 2-factors be isomorphic to each other. To solve this would be an amazing feat, as so many possible 2 -factors exist. Some progress has been made, including a complete solution when $n \leq 17$ [1], and in many cases where each 2 -factor contains just two cycle lengths (see [5] for a survey of results).

Another direction in which research has developed is to allow a small number of the 2-factors to be anything, but then stipulate that the remaining 2-factors be hamilton cycles. Extending a result of Buchanan [6], in 2004 Bryant [4] found necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of 2-factorizations of $K_{n}$ and of $K_{n}-I$, where $K_{n}-I$ is the complete graph on $n$ vertices with a 1-factor $I$ removed, in which the cycle lengths in up to three of the 2 -factors are freely specified, and all remaining 2 -factors are hamilton cycles. Independently, Rodger [10] used a similar observation to settle the existence of 2-factorizations of all complete multipartite graphs, and of all complete multipartite graphs with a 1-factor removed, in which one 2-factor is freely specified and the rest of the 2-factors are hamilton cycles. One can think of this as the existence of a hamilton decomposition of the graph formed from $K(m, p)$ (the complete multipartite graph with $m$ vertices in each of $p$ parts) or from $K(m, p)-I$ by removing any 2 -factor. Thought of in this way, the result has a relative in the world of matchings, where Plantholt [9] showed that the removal of any set
of $x$ edges from $K_{2 x+1}$ results in a graph whose edges can be partioned into $2 x$ matchings ( $2 x+1$ matchings are needed if fewer edges are removed).

In this paper, we extend the result of Rodger, finding necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of a hamilton decomposition of the graph $K(m, p)$ by removing the edges of any two 2 -factors. More formally, for any two 2 -regular graphs $G$ and $H$ of order $m p$, when $m$ is odd we find necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of a 2 -factorization, $\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{\lfloor m(p-1)\rfloor / 2}\right\}$, of $K(m, p)$ such that $G \cong F_{1}, H \cong F_{2}$, and $F_{i}$ is a hamilton cycle for $3 \leq i \leq\lfloor m(p-1)\rfloor / 2$.

### 1.2 Preliminary Results

Before we can get to the results, some notation, lemmas, and theorems must be introduced. In this paper we use $Z_{n}$ to denote the vertex set of a graph on $n$ vertices. This allows us to define the difference of the edge $\{i, j\}$ to be $d(i, j)=\min \{j-i, n-(j-i)\}$ where $i<j$; thus $n / 2 \geq d(i, j)>0$. Let $\left\langle d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{x}\right\rangle_{n}$ be the subgraph induced by the edges with differences in $\left\{d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{x}\right\}$. Bermond et al [[3]] proved the following useful result that shows when the edges of two differences can be used to form two edge-disjoint hamilton cycles. If $A$ is a set of positive integers, let $\operatorname{gcd}(A)$ denote the greatest common divisor of the elements of $A$. A hamilton cycle decomposition of the graph $G$ is a 2 -factorization of $G$, each 2-factor in which is a hamilton cycle.

Theorem 1.1. [3] Let $s, t, n$ be positive integers with $s<t<n / 2$. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\{s, t, n\})=1$ then the graph $\langle s, t\rangle_{n}$ has a hamilton cycle decomposition.

The next lemma was proven separately by both Bryant and Rodger. It provides a key method used to prove our results.

Lemma 1.2. $[4,10]$ Let $n \geq 5$ and let $F^{\prime}$ be any 2-regular graph of order $n$. If $\operatorname{gcd}(\{x, n\})=1$ then the subgraph $\langle x, 2 x\rangle_{n}$ of $K_{n}$ has a 2-factorization $\{F, H\}$ such that $H$ is a hamilton cycle and $F^{\prime} \cong F$. (See Figure 1.1)


Figure 1.1: Referring to Lemma 1.2 with $F^{\prime}=C_{4} \cup C_{5}$ and $x=1$

Now, we will introduce some specific results that will be used to clear up some of the cases we will encounter. Presented first is the result from Bryant's paper previously alluded to; one might also see the related results in $[1,7]$.

Theorem 1.3. [4] Let $n \geq 7$ be odd and let $F_{1}^{\prime}, F_{2}^{\prime}$, and $F_{3}^{\prime}$ be any three 2-regular graphs of order $n$. Then there exists a 2 -factorization $\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{(n-1) / 2}\right\}$ of $K_{n}$ in which $F_{1} \cong F_{1}^{\prime}$, $F_{2} \cong F_{2}^{\prime}, F_{3} \cong F_{3}^{\prime}$, and $F_{i}$ is a hamilton cycle for $4 \leq i \leq(n-1) / 2$, except that when $\left(n, F_{1}^{\prime}, F_{2}^{\prime}, F_{3}^{\prime}\right) \in\left\{\left(7, C_{3} \cup C_{4}, C_{3} \cup C_{4}, C_{7}\right),\left(9, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}\right),\left(9, C_{3} \cup\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{6}\right),\left(9, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{4} \cup C_{5}\right)\right\}$ no such two factorization exists.

Next we present Rodger's result.

Theorem 1.4. [10] Let $p \geq 3$ and $m \geq 1$. Let $H$ be any 2 -factor in $K(m, p)$. There exists a partition of the edge set of $K(m, p)$, one set in which induces a graph isomorphic to $H$, if $m(p-1)$ is odd then one set induces a 1-factor, and each other set induces a hamilton cycle.

The rest of the dissertation is organized as follows:

## Chapter 2

The Case when $m p$ is Odd
In this chapter we settle the existence of the specified 2 -factorization when $m p$ is odd. The proof relies heavily on Theorem 1.1, but in the case where $(m, p)=(5,3)$ several small cases must be considered in another way; this is accomplished by using a neat switching method.

Theorem 2.1. Let $m$ be odd. Let $G$ and $H$ be any two 2-regular graphs of order $m p$. There exists a 2 -factorization $\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{\lfloor m(p-1)\rfloor / 2}\right\}$ of $K(m, p)$ such that $F_{1} \cong G, F_{2} \cong H, F_{i}$ is a hamilton cycle for $3 \leq i \leq\lfloor m(p-1)\rfloor / 2$, if and only if

1. $p$ is odd, and
2. $(m, p, G, H) \notin\left\{\left(1,7, C_{3} \cup C_{4}, C_{3} \cup C_{4}\right),\left(3,3, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}\right),\left(3,3, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.C_{3}, C_{3} \cup C_{6}\right),\left(3,3, C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}, C_{4} \cup C_{5}\right)\right\}$.

Proof. If $K(m, p)$ is to have a 2-factorization, all vertices must have even degree, so $m(p-1)$ must be even, so the first condition is necessary since we are assuming that $m$ is odd. Once one observes that the edges removed from $K_{9}$ to form $K(3,3)$ can be thought of as the edges in $C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3}$, Theorem 1.3 clearly proves the four cases described in the second condition cannot be obtained. So we now turn to a proof of the sufficiency.

Since $K(m, p)$ is an $m(p-1)$-regular graph, and since it is assumed to contain at least two 2 -factors, we know that $m(p-1) \geq 4$. So, since we also know that $p$ is odd, clearly $p \geq 3$.

Notice that if we let the $j^{\text {th }}$ part of $K(m, p)$ be $\left\{i p+j \mid i \in Z_{m}\right\}$ for $j \in Z_{p}$ then the edges of $K(m, p)$ are the same as the edges of the complete graph $K_{m p}$ with edges of difference $i p, 1 \leq i \leq\lfloor m / 2\rfloor$ removed. Therefore we will partition the edges of $K(m, p)$ by their
differences, namely by the differences in the difference set $D=\{1,2, \ldots,\lfloor(m p) / 2\rfloor\} \backslash\{i p \mid$ $1 \leq i \leq\lfloor m / 2\rfloor\}$. We now consider several cases in turn.

Case 1: Suppose $m p \geq 21$. Then $\{1,2,4,8\} \subset D$. By Lemma 1.2, $\langle 1,2\rangle_{m p}$ and $\langle 4,8\rangle_{m p}$ each have a 2 -factorization consisting of any 2 -factor and a hamilton cycle; so we can choose the two 2 -factors to be isomorphic to $G$ and $H$ respectively. It remains to partition the remaining edges into sets that induce hamilton cycles. We consider 4 subcases in turn.

Case 1(a): Suppose that $p \geq 9$. By pairing all except possibly the last of the differences in $D \backslash\{1,2,4,8\}=D^{\prime}$ in increasing order (that is, form pairs $\{3,5\},\{6,7\}, \ldots$ ) we produce pairs of the form either $\{d, d+1\}$ or $\{d, d+2\}$, for some $d \in D^{\prime}$.

Since $\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p,(d+1)-d\})=\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p, 1\})=1$, it follows that $\operatorname{gcd}(\{d, d+1, m p\})=1$. Also, since $m p$ is odd, $\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p,(d+2)-d\})=\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p, 2\})=1$ means that $\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p, d+$ $2, d\})=1$. Also, if $|D|$ is odd, then the last difference, $(m p-1) / 2$, is not paired, but since $\operatorname{gcd}(\{m p,(m p-1) / 2\})=1$, the edges with difference $(m p-1) / 2$ form a hamilton cycle. Therefore, by Theorem 1.1, there exists a hamilton cycle decomposition of the subgraph induced by the remaining edges.

Case 1(b): Suppose that $p=7$. If $m=3$ then the result follows from Theorem 1.3 , since we can choose each component in $F_{3}^{\prime}$ to be a 3 -cycle, then remove these edges to form the independent vertices in the parts of $K(3,7)$. In all other cases (so $m p>21$ ), first form the pairs $\{3,5\},\{6,10\}$, and $\{9,11\}$ in turn (these exist since $m p>21$ ). Notice that: $\operatorname{gcd}(3,5, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}(5-3, m p)=1$ since $m p$ is odd; the $\operatorname{gcd}(6,10, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}(10-6, m p)=1$ since $m p$ is odd; and, similarly, $\operatorname{gcd}(9,11, m p)=1$. All other pairs are of the form $\{d, d+1\}$ or $\{d, d+2\}$. Therefore we can apply Theorem 1.1 to each pair in turn to form sets of edges that induce hamilton cycles.

Case 1(c): Suppose that $p=5$. If $m p \geq 35$ then apply Theorem 1.1 to each of the pairs $\{3,7\},\{6,14\},\{12,13\}$, and $\{9,11\}$ in turn. Pair the remaining differences in order and proceed as in Case 1a.

If $m p<35$ then $m p=25$. Apply Theorem 1.1 to each of the pairs $\{3,6\},\{7,9\}$, and $\{11,12\}$ in turn.

Case 1(d): Suppose that $p=3$. Pair the remaining differences in order and proceed as in Case 1a.

Case 2: Suppose $m p \leq 20$ and $(m, p) \neq(5,3)$. If $m=1$ then $K(1, p)$ is just the complete graph $K_{p}$, so the result follows from Theorem 1.3. If $m=3$ then $p \in\{3,5\}$ so the result also follows from Theorem 1.3, since when $m=3$, the edges one removes from $K_{m p}$ to form $K(m, p)$ induce the 2 -factor consisting of $p 3$-cycles; consider this to be the third specified 2-factor.

Case 3: Suppose $(m, p)=(5,3)$. This case takes substantial effort to settle. It is too small to be able to apply Lemma 1.2 twice and be left with a difference that induces a hamilton cycle. The set of available differences is $\{1,2,4,5,7\}$, and Lemma 1.2 could be applied to the graphs $\langle 1,2\rangle_{15}$ and $\langle 4,8\rangle_{15}$ (since difference 7 is the same as difference 8 ), but that leaves difference 5 that induces five 3 -cycles. So we do apply Lemma 1.2 to $\langle 4,8\rangle_{15}$ to obtain $F_{1}$, then obtain $F_{2}$ from $\langle 1,2,5\rangle_{15}$ in such a way that the edges left over form two hamilton cycles. We consider the various possible cycle lengths, $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{x}$ of the $x$ components of $F_{2}$ in turn, written as $l=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{x}\right)$.

We begin with the cases in which all the cycle lengths in $F_{2}$ are divisible by 3. To construct the required cycles, we always include the hamilton cycle $\langle 2\rangle_{15}$, then swap edges in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ to fuse components in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$. In each case, we begin with $l$, then describe how to form $F_{2}$.
$(3,3,3,3,3):\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ and $\langle 2\rangle_{15}$ are hamilton cycles, and difference 5 induces $F_{2}$. $(3,3,3,6)$ : Swap edges $\{0,1\}$ and $\{5,6\}$ in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges $\{0,5\}$ and $\{1,6\}$ in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ to produce the hamilton cycle $(0,5,4,3,2,1,6,7, \ldots, 14)$ and the graph consisting of the cycles $(0,1,11,6,5,10),(2,7,12),(3,8,13)$, and $(4,9,14)$ respectively. The next few cases proceed similarly, so we simply present the edges to be swapped. (Refer to Figure 2.1.)
$(3,3,9)$ : Swap edges $\{0,1\},\{5,6\},\{6,7\}$, and $\{11,12\}$ in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges $\{0,5\},\{1,6\},\{6,11\}$, and $\{7,12\}$ in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ (so just switch two more edges from the $(3,3,3,6)$ case).
$(3,12)$ : Swap edges $\{0,1\},\{2,3\},\{5,6\},\{6,7\},\{7,8\}$, and $\{11,12\}$ in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges $\{0,5\},\{1,6\},\{2,7\},\{3,8\},\{6,11\}$, and $\{7,12\}$ in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ (so just switch two more edges from the $(3,3,9)$ case).
$(3,6,6)$ : Swap edges $\{0,1\},\{5,6\},\{7,8\}$, and $\{12,13\}$ in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges $\{0,5\},\{1,6\},\{7,12\}$, and $\{8,13\}$ in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ (so just switch two more edges from the (3, 3, 3, 6) case).
$(6,9)$ : Swap edges $\{0,1\},\{3,4\},\{5,6\},\{6,7\},\{8,9\}$, and $\{11,12\}$ in $\langle 1\rangle_{15}$ with edges $\{0,5\},\{1,6\},\{3,8\},\{4,9\},\{6,11\}$, and $\{7,12\}$ in $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ (so just switch two more edges from the $(3,3,9)$ case).


Figure 2.1: $K(m, p)$, using differences of 1 and 5 to produce a $C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{6}$ and a hamilton cycle

All but one of the remaining cases are obtained by producing $F_{2}$ using Lemma 1.2, then switching edges between the resulting hamilton cycle and $\langle 5\rangle_{15}$ to obtain 2 hamilton cycles.

Since it is more complicated to describe, we simply provide the resulting decompositions of $\langle 1,2,5\rangle_{15}$.
$(3,4,4,4):(0,1,14,13),(2,3,5,4),(6,7,8),(9,10,12,11)$,
$(0,5,10,8,3,13,12,7,2,1,11,6,4,9,14)$,
$(0,2,12,14,4,3,1,6,5,7,9,8,13,11,10)$.
$(3,3,4,5):(4,5,6),(11,12,13),(7,8,10,9),(0,2,3,1,14)$,
$(0,10,12,2,7,5,3,8,6,1,11,9,4,14,13)$,
$(0,5,10,11,6,7,12,14,9,8,13,3,4,2,1)$.
$(5,5,5):(0,2,3,1,14),(4,6,8,7,5),(9,10,12,13,11)$,
$(0,5,10,11,6,1,2,12,7,9,14,4,3,8,13)$,
$(0,10,8,9,4,2,7,6,5,3,13,14,12,11,1)$.
$(4,5,6):(10,11,13,12),(5,6,8,9,7),(0,2,4,3,1,14)$, $(0,1,11,9,4,6,7,2,12,14,13,3,8,10,5)$,
$(0,10,9,14,4,5,3,2,1,6,11,12,7,8,13)$.
$(4,4,7):(6,8,9,7),(10,12,13,11),(0,2,4,5,3,1,14)$
$(0,5,7,2,12,14,4,6,1,11,9,10,8,3,13)$,
$(0,10,5,6,11,12,7,8,13,14,9,4,3,2,1)$.
$(3,5,7):(11,12,13),(6,7,9,10,8),(0,2,4,5,3,1,14)$,
$(0,5,7,2,1,6,11,10,12,14,4,9,8,3,13)$,
$(0,10,5,6,4,3,2,12,7,8,13,14,9,11,1)$.
$(3,4,8):(0,5,10),(1,2,7,6),(3,4,14,9,11,12,13,8)$,
$(0,1,3,2,4,5,6,11,10,9,8,7,12,14,13)$,
$(0,2,12,10,8,6,4,9,7,5,3,13,11,1,14)$.
$(5,10):(0,2,4,6,8,7,5,3,1,14),(9,11,13,12,10)$,
$(0,5,4,14,9,8,13,3,2,12,7,6,1,11,10)$,
$(0,1,2,7,9,4,3,8,10,5,6,11,12,14,13)$.
$(4,11):(0,2,4,6,8,9,7,5,3,1,14),(10,12,13,11)$,
$(0,5,4,14,12,2,7,6,1,11,9,10,8,3,13)$,
$(0,1,2,3,4,9,14,13,8,7,12,11,6,5,10)$.

## Chapter 3

The Case when $p$ is Even

### 3.1 A Number Theoretic Result

We begin this chapter with a general number theoretic result that will be used extensively in Section 3.2. The rest of this chapter deals with the case where $p$ is even.

Lemma 3.1. Let $m, p \in Z^{+}$with $p \neq 1$. Then there exists an $f \in Z$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=$ $1, f \equiv-1(\bmod p)$, and $0<f<m p$.

Proof. Define $Q=\{q \mid q$ prime, $q$ divides $m, q$ does not divide $p\}$. For each $q \in Q$, choose $1 \leq a_{q} \leq q-1$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there exists a unique $f \in Z$ satisfying

1. $f \equiv-1(\bmod p)$ and
2. $f \equiv a_{q}(\bmod q)$ for each $q \in Q$
with $0 \leq f<p D$, where $D$ is the product of all the elements of $Q$. Obviously, $f \neq 0$ since $p \geq 2$. Also, $m p \geq p D$ since $D$ is a product of primes dividing $m$, so $D$ divides $m$. Since there are $q-1$ for each $a_{q}$, there are $\phi(D)$ such $f$ in each of the ranges $t p D<f<(t+1) p D$ for each $0 \leq t<\frac{m}{p}$.

Corollary 3.2. In Lemma 3.1, there are $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D}$ such $f$ 's, where $D$ is the product of all primes which divide $m$ but do not divide $p$, and $\phi$ is the Euler $\phi$-function.

Proof. Referring to the proof of Lemma 3.1, each $a_{q}$ can be chosen in $q-1$ ways, so the family of $a_{q}$ 's can be chosen in a total of $\Pi_{q \in Q}(q-1)=\phi(D)$ ways. This gives $\phi(D) f$ 's $(\bmod p D)$, and the interval from 0 to $m p$ contains $\frac{m}{D}$ copies of the integers $(\bmod p D)$.

Corollary 3.3. For $p$ even, $p \geq 6, m \geq 5, \frac{\phi(D) m}{D} \geq 4$.

Proof. Let us consider the possible value of $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D}$ being 1, 2, or 3 in turn. First notice that, by definition, $2 \notin Q$ since $p$ is even. Also, notice that $\phi(D)=1$ if and only if $Q=\{2\}$, by definition of $Q$.

1. $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D}=1$ if and only if both $\phi(D)$ and $\frac{m}{D}$ are 1 . But we just showed that $\phi(D) \neq 1$.
2. $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D}=2$ if and only if $\phi(D)=2$ and $\frac{m}{D}=1$ or $\phi(D)=1$ and $\frac{m}{D}=2$. The second option is not possible since $\phi(D) \neq 1$. If $\phi(D)=2$ then either $Q=\{2,3\}$ or $Q=\{3\}$. Since $2 \notin Q, Q=\{3\}$. Therefore $D=3$. This implies that $m$ is also 3 since $\frac{m}{D}=1$. This contradicts the assumption that $m \geq 6$.
3. $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D}=3$ if and only if $\phi(D)=3$ and $\frac{m}{D}=1$ or $\phi(D)=1$ and $\frac{m}{D}=3$. The second option is not possible since $\phi(D) \neq 1$. Also, since $\phi(D)=\Pi_{q \in Q}(q-1)$, where each $q$ is strictly prime, $\phi(D) \neq 3$.

Thus, $\frac{\phi(D) m}{D} \geq 4$.

### 3.2 The Case when $p$ is Even

We now use Lemma 3.1 and Theorem 1.1 to settle the case when $p$ is even, and $m$ is odd or even. When $m$ is odd we will have the half-difference (1-factor), $I$.

Theorem 3.4. Let $p$ be even, $p \geq 6, m \geq 5$, and suppose that $G$ and $H$ are any two 2-factors of $K(m, p)$. Then there exists a 2-factorization $S=\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{\lfloor m(p-1) / 2\rfloor}\right\}$ of $K(m, p)$ when $m$ is even and a 2 -factorization of $K(m, p)-I$ when $m$ is odd, such that $F_{1} \cong G, F_{2} \cong H$, and $F_{i}$ is a hamilton cycle for $3 \leq i \leq\lfloor m(p-1) / 2\rfloor$.

Proof. Notice that if we let the $j^{\text {th }}$ part of $K(m, p)$ be the vertex set $\left\{i p+j \mid i \in Z_{m}\right\}$ for $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ then $K(m, p)$ is isomorphic to the subgraph of $K_{m p}$ formed by removing the edges of difference $i p, 1 \leq i \leq\lfloor m / 2\rfloor$. Therefore we will partition the edges of $K(m, p)$ by their differences in $K_{m p}$, namely by the differences in the difference set $D=\{1,2, \ldots, m p / 2\} \backslash\{i p \mid$ $1 \leq i \leq\lfloor m / 2\rfloor\}$. (Refer to Figure 3.1.)


Figure 3.1: $K(3,3)$ represented as a $K_{9}$ with edges of difference 3 removed

We define

$$
[f]=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
f & \text { if } f<m p / 2, \text { and } \\
m p-f & \text { if } f>m p / 2
\end{array}\right.
$$

so $\langle f\rangle_{m p}=\langle[f]\rangle_{m p}$. This special difference $f$ will be chosen from $D$ such that

1. $f \equiv-1(\bmod p)$,
2. $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$,
3. $0<f<m p$, and
4. $f \notin\{m p / 2-1, m p-1\}$.

Since property 4 excludes two possible values of $f$ described in Lemma 3.1, by Corollary 3.3 there are at least two choices for $f$. In most cases, just one value is used, but in Case 2, both will be needed.

By Lemma 1.2, $\langle 1,2\rangle_{m p}$ and $\langle f, 2 f\rangle_{m p}$ each have a 2-factorization consisting of any 2factor and a hamilton cycle; so we can choose the two 2-factors to be isomorphic to $G$ and $H$ respectively. It remains to partition the remaining edges (differences) into sets that will induce hamilton cycles by applying Theorem 1.1. If $m$ is odd the half difference, $m p / 2$, will induce the 1-factor, $I$. We now consider several cases in turn.

Case 1: Suppose that $p \equiv 0,1$, or $3(\bmod 4)$ or $m \equiv 0,1$, or $2(\bmod 4)$. Define $D^{\prime}=D \backslash\{1,2, f, 2 f, m p / 2\}$. So either
i: $\left|D^{\prime}\right|$ is even or
ii: $\left|D^{\prime}\right|$ is odd and $m p / 2-1$ is odd.
In the latter case, $\langle m p / 2-1\rangle_{m p}$ induces a hamilton cycle which will be placed in $S$; so, in this case, further modify $D^{\prime}$ by removing the difference $m p / 2-1$. So in both cases, $\left|D^{\prime}\right|$ is even. If there are an odd number of differences in $D^{\prime}$ that are less than $f$ or $[f]$, then modify $D^{\prime}$ to form $D^{\prime \prime}$ as follows.

Case 1(a): If 3 does not divide $m$ or if 3 does not divide $f-1$ then remove the pair $\{d, d+3\}$ from $D^{\prime}$ where
i: $d=f-1$ if $f<m p / 2$
ii: $d=[f]-2$ if $f>m p / 2$.
Case 1(b): If 3 divides $m$ and 3 divides $f-1$ then remove the pair $\{d, d+9\}$ from $D^{\prime}$ where
i: $d=f-3$ if $f<m p / 2$
ii: $d=[f]-4$ if $f>m p / 2$.
Consider this new set $D^{\prime \prime}$ (possibly $D^{\prime}=D^{\prime \prime}$ ). Now pair the differences in $D^{\prime \prime}$ in increasing order. We now show that Theorem 1.1 can be applied to each of the defined pairs. That is, we will show that for each pair $\pi=\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}, \operatorname{gcd}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, m p\right)=1$.

We consider each of the possible pairs $\pi$ of differences in turn.

1. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+1\rangle$ for some $d \in D^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+1, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}((d+1)-$ $(d), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(1, m p)=1$.
2. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+2\rangle$ for some $d \in D^{\prime \prime}$. Notice that such a pair only occurs when $d+1$ is a multiple of $p$, is $2 f$, is $2[f]$, or is [2[f]]. So, in each case, $d$ and $d+2$ are both odd. Thus, $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+2, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}((d+2)-(d), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(2, m p) \in\{1,2\}$. So, since $d$ is odd, $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+2, m p)=1$.
3. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+3\rangle$. Such pairs only occur in case $1(\mathrm{a})$. So, we consider the situations in turn.

- 1(a)i: In this case $d=f-1$, so we need to consider $\operatorname{gcd}(f-1, f+2, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}((f+2)-(f-1), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(3, m p) \in\{1,3\}$. Recall that in this case 3 does not divide $m$ or 3 does not divide $f-1$. If 3 does not divide $f-1$ then the $\operatorname{gcd}(f-1, f+2, m p)=1$. Otherwise, 3 does not divide $m$ and 3 divides $f-1$; so 3 does not divide $p$ since $f \equiv-1(\bmod p)$. Thus, 3 does not divide $m p$. So, $\operatorname{gcd}(f-1, f+2, m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(3, m p)=1$.
- 1(a)ii: Here we have that $d=[f]-2$. We must consider $\operatorname{gcd}([f]-2,[f]+$ $1, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}(([f]+1)-([f]-2)), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(3, m p) \in\{1,3\}$. Since $[f]-2 \equiv-1(\bmod p), 3$ cannot divide both $[f]-2$ and $p$, so the only way for $\operatorname{gcd}([f]-2,[f]+1, m p)=3$ is if 3 divides both $[f]-2$ and $m$. But $[f]-2=$ $m p-f-2 \equiv m p-(f-1(\bmod 3)$ so then 3 would divide $f-1$, contradicting the assumption that either 3 does not divide $m$ or 3 does not divide $f-1$. Thus, $\operatorname{gcd}([f]-2,[f]+1, m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(3 h, m p)=1$.

4. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+9\rangle$. Such pairs only occur in case $1(\mathrm{~b})$. So, we consider the cases in turn.

- 1 (b)i: In this case $d=f-3$, so we need to consider $\operatorname{gcd}(f-3, f+6, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}((f+6)-(f-3), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(9, m p) \in\{1,3,9\}$. Recall that in this case 3 divides $m, 3$ divides $f-1$, and $f \equiv-1(\bmod p)$. So 3 does not divide $f-3$. Thus, $\operatorname{gcd}(f-3, f+6, m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(9, m p)=1$.
- 1(b)ii: Here we have that $d=[f]-4$. So we must consider $\operatorname{gcd}([f]-4,[f]+5, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}(([f]+5)-([f]-4), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(9, m p) \in\{1,3,9\}$. Notice that $[f]-4=m p-f-4=m p-(f-1)-5$. In this case, 3 divides $m$ and 3 divides $(f-1)$; so if 3 divides $([f]-4)$ then 3 divides -5 , a contradiction. Thus 3 does not divide $[f]-4$, so the $\operatorname{gcd}([f]-4,[f]+5, m p)=1$.

Case 2: If $p \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $m \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then $m p / 2-1$ is even. Thus $\langle m p / 2-1\rangle_{m p}$ is not a hamilton cycle. Consider a difference, $g$, defined in the same way as $f$. That is, by Lemma 3.1 there exists a $g \in Z_{m p}$ with $g \equiv-1(\bmod p), \operatorname{gcd}(g, m p)=1, g \neq m p-1$, and $g \neq f$. Then $\langle g\rangle_{m p}$ is a hamilton cycle. Remove this difference as well from $D$; so in this case define our new difference set $D^{\prime}=D \backslash\{1,2, f, 2 f, m p / 2, g\}$. In the following situations we will modify $D^{\prime}$ to form $D^{\prime \prime}$ as follows.

- (a):
- i: If $[f]=g+2$, then remove $\{3, g+3\}$ from $D^{\prime}$.
- ii: If $[g]=f+2$, then remove the pair $\{3, f+3\}$ from $D^{\prime}$.
- (b): If $2 f=g-1$, then remove the pair $\{g-2, g+2\}$ from $D^{\prime}$.

Consider this new set $D^{\prime \prime}$. Differences in $D^{\prime \prime}$ are now paired in increasing order and Theorem 1.1 applied to each pair. We now show that for each possible pair $\pi=\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$, $\operatorname{gcd}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, m p\right)=1$.

1. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+1\rangle$ for some $d \in D^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+1, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}((d+1)-$ $(d), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(1, m p)=1$.
2. Suppose $\pi=\langle d, d+2\rangle$ for some $d \in D^{\prime \prime}$. Notice that such a pair only occurs when $d+1$ is a multiple of $p$, is $2 f$, is $2[f]$, or is [2[f]]. In each situation, $d$ and $d+2$ are both odd. Thus, $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+2, m p)$ divides $\operatorname{gcd}((d+2)-(d), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(2, m p) \in\{1,2\}$. So, since $d$ is odd, $\operatorname{gcd}(d, d+2, m p)=1$.
3. Suppose $\pi=\langle 3, d+3\rangle$. Such pairs occur in case 2(a). So, we consider the situations in turn.

- (Case 2i): In this case $d=g$, so we need to consider $\operatorname{gcd}(3, g+3, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}((g+3)-3, m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(g, m p)$. By definition of $g, \operatorname{gcd}(g, m p)=1$.
- (Case 2ii): In this case $d=f$, so we need to consider $\operatorname{gcd}(3, f+3, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}((f+3)-3, m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)$. By definition of $f, \operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$.

4. Suppose $\pi=\langle g-2, g+2\rangle$. This pair occurs in case $2(b)$. We need to consider $\operatorname{gcd}(g-2, g+2, m p)$ which divides $\operatorname{gcd}((g+2)-(g-2), m p)=\operatorname{gcd}(4, m p) \in\{1,2,4\}$. Notice that in this case $g-2$ is odd since $g$ is odd, thus $\operatorname{gcd}(g-2, g+2, m p)$ is odd. So, $\operatorname{gcd}(g-2, g+2, m p)=1$.

Thus every pair of differences induces two hamilton cycles to be placed into $S$. In some cases, the difference $m p / 2-1$ or $g$ is used alone to form a hamilton cycle. The sets $\langle 1,2\rangle_{m p},\langle f, 2 f\rangle_{m p}$ induce $G$ and $H$ and two hamilton cycles in $S$. If the half-difference, $m p / 2$, is present in $D$, it induces the 1-factor, $I$. So the required 2-factorization has been constructed in all cases.

## Chapter 4

Another Number Theoretic Result

In this section a result is obtained that was, early in the research, thought to be pivotal. However, it was concluded that a simpler approach could be used. By adopting a different approach in the proof of Theorem 3.4, it turns out that Lemma 4.1 was not needed. Nevertheless it is a result that may be of some consequence in future endeavors. For example, it could be a useful tool in attacking results that would generalize Theorem 3.4.

Lemma 4.1. Let $m \geq 5$. If $m, p \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$and $p$ even, then there exists an $f \in Z$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1, f \equiv p-1(\bmod 2 p)$, and $0 \leq f<m p$.

Proof. Let $m, p \in Z^{+}$and let $p$ be even. Let $Q=\left\{q_{i} \mid q_{i}\right.$ is prime, $q_{i}$ divides $m$, and $q_{i}$ does not divide $p\}$. Notice that the $\operatorname{gcd}\left(q_{i}, 2 p\right)=1$ for each $q_{i} \in Q$ since $p$ is even. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there exists a unique solution modulo $2 p \prod_{q_{i} \in Q} q_{i}$ to the system of congruences:

1. $f \equiv p-1(\bmod 2 p)$
2. $f \equiv 1$ or $2\left(\bmod q_{i}\right)$ for each $q_{i} \in Q$.

Notice that $0 \leq f<2 p \prod_{q_{i} \in Q} q_{i} .\left({ }^{*}\right)$ We first check that $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$. Let $r \in Z$ be a prime such that $r$ divides $f$ and $r$ divides $m p$. We consider two cases in turn.

Case 1: $r$ divides $f$ and $r$ divides $p$
By (1), $f=2 p x+p-1$ for some $x \in Z$. Then, $r$ divides $2 p x, r$ divides $p$, and $r$ divides $f$, so $r$ divides -1 . This implies that $r=1$, so $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$.

Case 2: $r$ divides $f, r$ divides $m$, but $r$ does not divide $p$
We can assume that $r=q_{i}$ for some $q_{i} \in Q$. By (2), $f=r y+1$ or $f=r z+2$ for $y, z \in Z$.

If $f=r y+1$, then $r$ divides 1 , so $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$. If $f=r z+2$, then $r$ divides 2 , which implies that $r$ divides 1 since $q_{i} \neq 2$, so $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$.

Now that we have an $f$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$ and $f \equiv p-1(\bmod 2 p)$, and clearly, by (1) and (2), $0<f<2 m p$, it just remains to show that $f$ can be chosen so that $f<m p$. We consider two cases in turn.

Case 1: Suppose $m$ is not square free; say $q_{1}^{2}$ divides $m$. Then, by $\left({ }^{*}\right) f<2 p \prod_{q_{i} \in Q} q_{i} \leq$ $2 p m \div q_{1} \leq m p$. So, $f<m p$ as required.

Case 2: If $m$ is square free, $m \geq 5$, and $\operatorname{gcd}(m, p)=1$, then $2 p \prod q_{i}=2 m p$. An obvious problem since we need $f<m p$, not just $f<2 m p$.

We know that $f=2 p x+p-1$ for some $x \in Z$, and $\operatorname{gcd}(f, p)=1$. We need $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m)=1$. Since $0 \leq f<2 m p$, we have $0 \leq x \leq m-1$. These $m$ values for $x$ form a complete residue class modulo $m$. Then, since $\operatorname{gcd}(m, 2 p)=1$, the resulting $m$ values of $f$ are a complete residue class modulo $m$. Notice, because $m$ is odd, there are $m+1 / 2$ possible values between 0 and $m p$, and $m-1 / 2$ values between $m p$ and $2 m p$. Thus, we have slighly more candidates for $f$ 's in the desired range, $[0, m p)$. We need to show that one of these values satisfies $\operatorname{gcd}(f, m p)=1$.

Define two functions, $g, h: Z \rightarrow Z^{+}$, where $g(x)=\operatorname{gcd}(x, m)$ and $h(x)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p x+$ $p-1, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(f, m)$.

We will now show that for some fixed $y \in Z, h(x+y)=g(x)$ for all $x \in Z_{m}$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(2 p, m)=1$, we can find an integer $t$ satisfying $2 p t \equiv 1(\bmod m)$. Let $y=t(1-p)$.

Then:
$h(x+y)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p(x+y)+p-1, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p x+2 p y+p-1, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p x+2 p t(1-p)+$ $p-1, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p x+1-p+p-1, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(2 p x, m)=\operatorname{gcd}(x, m)=g(x)$.

Since $g(-1)=g(1)=g((m-1) / 2)=g((m+1) / 2)-1$, it follows that if we evaluate $h$ at each of the values, $-1+y(\bmod m), 1+y(\bmod m)$,
$(m-1) / 2+y(\bmod m)$, and $(m+1) / 2+y(\bmod m)$, we get 1 in each case; and clearly at least one of these four values, say $x^{k}$, must be at most $(m-1) / 2$. So, let $f=2 p x^{k}+p-1 \leq$ $2 p((m-1) / 2)+p-1<m p$.

## Chapter 5

## Conclusion

This dissertation shows the existence of the cases where $m p$ is odd and is settled in Theorem 2.1. However, there are many smaller cases where $p$ is even that need to be considered, namely, when either $p \leq 5$ or $m \leq 4$. The method used when settling the existence problem when $m p$ is small and odd may be able to be adapted for these unsettled cases. Because we are looking for two 2-factors, the degree of each vertex must be at least 4 , thus $m(p-1) \geq 4$. So to obtain a complete solution to this problem it suffices to consider the following cases:

1. $m=2$ and $p \geq 3$
2. $m=3, p \geq 4$, and $p$ is even
3. $m=4$ and $p \geq 2$
4. $p=2$ and $m \geq 5$
5. $p=3, m \geq 6$, and $m$ is even
6. $p=4$ and $m \geq 5$
7. $p=5, m \geq 6$, and $m$ is even.

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