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圖消圈數的研究
Decycling Number on Graphs and Digraphs


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## 摘要

所謂的消圈集或反镍點集，是無向圖或有向圖裡的一個點集合，滿足扣掉這個點集合後，圖上沒有圈。一個圖的消圈數是最小的消圈集的數目。

決定一個一般圖的消圈數已經被證明是 NP 完備（NP－ complete），甚至在平面圖，二部圖以及完美圖中，找它們的消圈數的複雜度也不會降低。

在圖上破壞圈的問題，一開始是應用在組合設計電路。接著也發現可以應用在作業系統中預防死結，約束補償問題，人工智慧上的貝斯推論•完全控制同步分散式系統，在光學網路上布置變波器，以及在超大型積體電路的晶片設計。

在這篇論文中，我們討論了在有向圖及無向圖的消圈數。在無向圖中，我們考慮了外部平面圖和格子圖。對於第一類圖，我們利用圈包裝數來刻劃消圈數，對於格子圖，我們改善了已知結果，使得上下界更靠近，在某些群組中，我們得到了消圈數的確切值。在有向圖中，我們考慮了廣義考茨有向圖以及廣義迪布恩有向圖，我們給了一個有系統的方法來獲得消圈集，進而得到消圈數的上界，這個方法對所有的有向圖都是可行的。

## Abstract

A set of vertices of a graph or an digraph whose removal induces an acyclic graph is referred as a decycling set, or a feedback vertex set, of the graph. The minimum cardinality of a decycling set of a graph $G$ is referred to as the decycling number of $G$.

The problem of determining the decycling number has been proved to be $N P$-complete for general graphs, which also shows that even for planar graphs, bipartite graphs and perfect graphs, the computation complexity of finding their decycling numbers is not reduced.

The problem of destroying all cycles in a graph by deleting a set of vertices originated from applications in combinatorial circuit design. Also, it has found applications in deadlock prevention in operating systems, the constraint satisfaction problem and Bayesian inference in artificial intelligence, monopolies in synchronous distributed systems, the converters' placement problem in optical networks, and VLSI chip design.

In this thesis, we study the decycling number of graphs and also digraphs. The graphs we consider are outerplanar graphs and grid graphs $P_{m} \square P_{n}$. For the first class of graphs, we char-
acterize their decycling number by way of the cycle packing number and for grid graphs, we improve the known results to obtain either tight bounds or exact values. On digraphs, we consider generalized Kautz digraphs and generalized de Bruijn digraphs. Mainly, we use a novel idea in which we find a sequence of subsets of vertex set satisfying certain conditions and then obtain a decycling set. This provides an upper bound of the decycling number of digraphs we consider. Note that this idea can be applied to find the decycling set of general digraphs.


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## Chapter 1

## Introduction and Preliminaries

### 1.1 Motivation

A set of vertices of a graph or an digraph, whose removal leaves an acyclic graph, is referred as a decycling set [3], or a feedback vertex set [37], of the graph. The minimum cardinality of a decycling set of a graph $G$ is referred to as the decycling number of $G$.

The problem of destroying all cycles in a graph by deleting a set of vertices originated from applications in combinatorial circuit design [19]. Also, it has found applications in deadlock prevention in operating systems [34,37], the constraint satisfaction problem and Bayesian inference in artificial intelligence [1], monopolies in synchronous distributed systems [28, 29], the converters placement problem in optical networks [22], and VLSI chip design [16]. ITITI!

In 1986, Erdös, Saks and Sós [14] considered the problem of finding a maximum subset of $G$ that would induce a tree. Meanwhile, the more general problem of finding the size of maximum subset of $G$ that would induced a forest was also beginning to receive attention. Determining the decycling number of a graph $G$ is equivalent to finding the maximum induced forest of $G$, since the sum of these two numbers are equal to the number of vertices of $G$.

The problem of determining the decycling number has been proved to be $N P$-complete for general graphs [20], which also shows that even for planar graphs, bipartite graphs and perfect graphs, the computation complexity of finding their decycling numbers is not
reduced.
Besides searching for the value (or an upper bound) of the decycling number in the order of a graph, another parameter that is closely related to the decycling number is the cycle packing number, which is the maximum number of vertex-disjoint cycles. A trivial relation between the decycling number and the cycle packing number is the decycling number is not less than the cycle packing number. Moreover, the investigation of the decycling number and cycle packing number on graphs and digraphs is closed related to learn the structure of the studied graphs. The above facts motivate us to make a careful study.

### 1.2 Graphs

First, we introduce the terminologies and definitions of graphs. For details, the readers may refer to the book "Introduction to Graph Theory" by D. B. West [39].

A graph $G$ is a triple consisting of a vertex set $V(G)$, ancedge set $E(G)$ and a relation that associate each edge with two vertices called its endpoints. The size of the vertex set $V(G),|V(G)|$, is called the order of $G$, and the size of the edge set $E(G),|E(G)|$, is called the size of $G$. In this section, we focus on the undirected graphs in which all the edges have no directions. MTIII

A loop is an edge whose endpoints are equal. Multiple edges are edges having the same pair of endpoints. A simple graph is a graph having no loops and multiple edges. We specify a simple graph by its vertex set and edge set as a set of unordered pairs of vertices and writing $e=u v$ (or $e=v u$ ) as an edge $e$ with endpoints $u$ and $v$.

If $e=u v$ is an edge of $G$, then $e$ is said to be incident to $u$ and $v$. We also say that $u$ and $v$ are adjacent. For each $v \in V(G), N(v)$ denotes the neighbors of $v$; that is, all vertices of $N(v)$ are adjacent to $v$. The degree of $v$ in a graph $G$, written $d_{G}(v)$ or $d(v)$, is the number of edges incident to $v$. For the sake of brevity, a vertex of degree $d$ is denoted by a $d$-vertex. The maximum degree is $\Delta(G)$ and the minimum degree is $\delta(G)$. Moreover,
$G$ is regular if $\Delta(G)=\delta(G)$, and it is said to be $k$-regular if the common degree is $k$.



Figure 1.1: Degree, neighborhood and regularity

An independent set in a graph is a set of pairwise nonadjacent vertices.
A path is a simple graph whose vertices can be ordered so that two vertices are adjacent if and only if they are consecutive in the list. A path with $n$ vertices is denoted by $P_{n}$. A graph $G$ is connected if each pair of vertices in $G$ belongs to a path; otherwise, $G$ is disconnected.

A subgraph of a graph $G$ is a graph $H$ such that $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$ and the assignment of endpoints to edges in $H$ is the same as in $G$. A spanning subgraph of $G$ is a subgraph with vertex set $V(G)$. Given $\mathcal{S}$ be a subset of vertex set $V(G)$, the induced subgraph determined by $S$, denoted by $G[S]$, is a subgraph of $G$ such that for any $u, v \in S, u$ is adjacent to $v$ in $G[S]$ if $u$ is adjacent to $v$ in $G$.

The components of a graph $G$ are its maximal connected subgraph. We use $c(G)$ to denote the number of components of $G$. An isolated vertex is a vertex of degree 0 .

A cycle is a graph with an equal number of vertices and edges whose vertices can be placed around a circle so that two vertices are adjacent if and only if they appear consecutively along the circle. A cycle with $n$ vertices is denoted by $C_{n}$.

A graph is called triangle-free if it contains no $C_{3}$ as its subgraph.
In contrast, a graph with no cycle is acyclic. A forest is an acyclic graph. A tree is a connected acyclic graph.

A separating set or vertex cut of a graph $G$ is a set $S \subseteq V(G)$ such that $G-S$ has more than one component. The connectivity of $G$, written $\kappa(G)$, is the minimum size of vertex
set $S$ such that $G-S$ is disconnected or has only one vertex. A graph is $k$-connected if its connectivity is at least $k$.

In a graph $G$, a subdivision of an edge $u v$ is the operation of replacing $u v$ with a path $u, w, v$ through a new vertex $w$. A subdivision of $H$ is a graph obtained from a graph $H$ by successive subdivision of edges. Two graphs $G_{1}, G_{2}$ are homeomorphic if $G_{1}$ can be transformed into $G_{2}$ via a finite sequence of subdivisions.

The cartesian product of $G$ and $H$, written $G \square H$, is the graph with vertex set $V(G) \times$ $V(H)$ specified by putting $(u, v)$ adjacent to $\left(u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if (1) $u=u^{\prime}$ and $v v^{\prime} \in$ $E(H)$, or $(2) v=v^{\prime}$ and $u u^{\prime} \in E(G)$.

The $k$-dimensional cube or hypercube $Q_{k}$ is the simple graph whose vertices are the $k$ tuples with entries in $\{0,1\}$ and whose edges are the pair of $k$-tuples that differ in exactly one position.


Figure 1.2: Hypercube $Q_{k}$ for $k=1,2,3$

A graph is planar if it has a drawing in the plane without any edge crossing. Such a drawing is a planar embedding of $G$. The faces of a planar graph are the maximal regions of the plane that contain no point used in the embedding. A face $f$ of a planar graph is a circuit that surrounds a region bounded by edges; let $\ell_{f}$ denote the length of $f$, i.e., the number of surrounding edges. For a planar graph $G$, let $F(G)$ be the set of faces of the embedding. A finite planar graph $G$ has one unbounded face (also called the outer face).

Euler's formula states that for every plane graph $G$,

$$
|V(G)|-|E(G)|+|F(G)|=2
$$

A graph is outerplanar if it has an embedding with every vertex on the boundary of the unbounded face.

(a)

(b)

Figure 1.3: (a) planar, not outerplanar (b) outerplanar

An isomorphism from a graph $G$ to a graph $H$ is a bijection $f: V(G) \rightarrow V(H)$ such that $u v \in E(G)$ if and only if $f(u) f(v) \in E(H)$. We say " $G$ is isomorphic to H ", written $G \cong H$, if there is an isomorphism from $G$ to $H$.


Figure 1.4: Two isomorphic graphs

### 1.3 Directed Graphs

A directed graph or digraph $D$ is a triple consisting of a vertex set $V(D)$, an edge set $E(D)$ and a function assigning each edge an ordered pair of vertices. The first vertex of the ordered pair is the tail of the edge and the second is the head; together, they are endpoints. The terms "head" and "tail" come from an arrow used to draw directed graphs. As with graphs, we assign each vertex a point in the plane and each edge a curve joining its
endpoints. When drawing a directed graph, the direction of a curve is from the tail to the head. Figure 1.5 shows a directed graph $D$ with vertex set $V(D)=\{0,1, \cdots, 7\}$ and edge set $E(D)=\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,2),(1,3),(2,4),(2,5),(3,6),(3,7),(4,0),(4,1),(5,2),(5,3)$, $(6,4),(6,5),(7,6),(7,7)\}$.


Figure 1.5: A directed graph $G_{B}(2,8)$

In a directed graph, a loop is an edge whose endpoints are equal, such as $(0,0),(7,7)$ in Figure 1.5. Multiple edges are edges having the same ordered pair of endpoints. A directed graph is simple if each ordered pair of vertices have at most one edge; one loop may be present at each vertex. Therefore, Figure 1.5 is a simple directed graph.

In a simple directed graph, we write $u v$ for an edge with tail $u$ and head $v$. If there is an edge from $u$ to $v$, then $v$ is a successor of $u$ and $u$ is a predecessor of $v$. We write $u \rightarrow v$ for "there is an edge from $u$ to $v$ ".

A directed graph is a path if it is a simple directed graph whose vertices can be linearly ordered so that there is an edge with tail $u$ and head $v$ if and only if $v$ is immediately follows $u$ in the vertex ordering. A cycle is defined similarly using an ordering of the vertices on a circle.

Let $v$ be a vertex in a digraph. The outdegree $d^{+}(v)$ is the number of edges with tail $v$. The indegree $d^{-}(v)$ is the number of edges with head $v$. The out-neighborhood or successor set $N^{+}(v)$ is $\{x \in V(D): v \rightarrow x\}$. The in-neighborhood or predecessor set $N^{-}(v)$ is $\{x \in V(D): x \rightarrow v\}$.

### 1.4 Notations and Definitions

A set of vertices of a graph or an digraph whose removal leaves an acyclic graph is referred to as a decycling set of the graph. The minimum cardinality of a decycling set of $G$ denoted by $\nabla(G)$, is referred to as the decycling number of $G$.

An acyclic coloring of a graph $G$ is a coloring of its vertices, satisfying the following two rules:
(1) No two neighboring vertices are assigned the same color (this is also denoted as proper coloring).

## MII

(2) Let $V_{a} \subseteq V(G)$ be the set of vertices of $G$ that are assigned color $a$. Then for any $a \neq b$, the induced subgraph $G\left[V_{a} \cup V_{b}\right]$ must be acyclic.

The minimum number of colors necessary to color $G$ is called the acyclic chromatic number of $G$, and is denoted $a(G)$.

The cycle packing number $\nu(G)$ is the maximum number of vertex disjoint cycles.
The grid $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ has vertex set $V\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \rightleftharpoons\left\{v_{i, \bar{p}}: 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\right\}$ and edge set $E\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)=\left\{\left(v_{i, j}, v_{i+1, j}\right): 1 \leq i \leq m-1,1 \leq j \leq n\right\} \cup\left\{\left(v_{i, j}, v_{i, j+1}\right): 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq\right.$ $j \leq n-1\}$.

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Figure 1.6: $P_{8} \square P_{8}$

A $k$-dimension butterfly is a graph $B_{k}=(V, E)$ composed of $(k+1) 2^{k}$ vertices organized in $k+1$ levels of $2^{k}$ vertices each, where $v_{i, j}$ denotes the $j$ th vertex at level $i$, with $0 \leq i \leq k$
and $0 \leq j \leq 2^{k}-1$. For $i>0, v_{i, j}$ is connected with the two vertices $v_{i-1, j}$ and $v_{i, j_{i}}$, where $j_{i}$ denotes the integer whose binary representation differs from that of $j$ in only the $i$ th position from right.


Figure 1.7: Butterfly $B_{2}$

For convenience, we use $[a, b]=[a, a+1, \ldots, b]$ for $a \leq b$ and $Z_{d}$ for the representation of $\{0,1, \cdots, d-1\}$.

For $X, Y \subseteq V(G)$, an $X, Y$-path is a path having one endpoint in $X$, the other one in $Y$, and no other vertices in $X \cup Y$ A $\{v\}, Y$-path is simply written as a $v, Y$-path. Similarly, we use $u, v$-path to represent a path from $u$ to $v$ in $G$.

For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the floor $\lfloor x\rfloor$ is the greatest integer less or equal to $x$. The ceiling $\lceil x\rceil$ is the smallest integer greater than or equal to $x: 896$

A $q$-nary code $C$ of length $n$ is a set of $q$-nary $n$-tuples and the Hamming distance between two strings of equal length (codewords) is the number of positions at which the corresponding symbols are different.

Let $n$ and $l$ be two positive integers with $n \geq 2 l$. For any two numbers $i, j$ where $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, we define a function (difference) $\chi$ by

$$
\chi(i-j)= \begin{cases}|i-j| & \text { if }|i-j| \leq \frac{n}{2}, \\ n-|i-j| & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

A circular graph $G=C(n, l)$ of order $n$ is one spanned by $n$-cycle $C_{n}=(1,2, \cdots, n)$ together with the chords $(i, j) \in E(G)$ if and only if $\chi(i-j)=l(l>1)$.

The Euler totient function $\varphi(n)$ is the number of integers less than $n$ that are relatively prime to $n$.

## 1.5 de Bruijn Digraphs, de Bruijn Undirected Graphs and Generalized de Bruijn Digraphs

Graphs are widely used in the design and analysis of parallel computer network systems. A vertex in the graph denotes a node (or processor) in the corresponding network, and an edge represents a communication link between two nodes. We will not discuss the difference between network and graph in this thesis.

The de Bruijn interconnection network is modeled by the de Bruijn digraph, which is named after N. G. de Bruijn for his work in counting $d$-ary sequences of maximal period [5]. The de Bruijn digraph was widely studied as a communication network model, and was proposed as a suitable processor interconnection network for VLSI implementation [33].

The de Bruijn digraphs have good properties such as it is regular, eulerian, hamiltonian, and has small diameter, nearly optimal connectivity, simple recursive structure, simple routing algorithm, contains some other useful topologies as its subgraphs (see [40]) and, thus, been thought of as a good candidate for the next generation of parallel system architectures, after the hypercube network [6].

The de Bruijn digraphs $B(d, n)(d \geq 2, n \geq 1)$ is defined as follows. The de Bruijn digraph has vertex set
$V(B(d, n))=\left\{x_{1} x_{2} \cdots, x_{n}: x_{i} \in\{0,1, \cdots, d-1\}, 1 \leq i \leq n\right\}$
and a directed edge set $E(B(d, n))$, where $x=x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}, y=y_{1} y_{2} \cdots y_{n} \in V(B(d, n))$, $x y \in E(B(d, n))$ if and only if $y_{i}=x_{i+1}$ for $i=1,2, \cdots n-1$. Figure 1.8 is the de Bruijn digraphs $B(2,3)$.

The de Bruijn undirected graph, denoted by $U B(d, n)$, is an undirected graph obtained from $B(d, n)$ by deleting the orientation of all edges and omitting multiple edges.

However, one of the disadvantage of $B(d, n)$ is the restriction on the number of vertices [12]. From $B(d, n)$ to $B(d+1, n)$, the number of vertices will increase from $d^{n}$ to $d^{n+1}$. As $d$ or $n$ increased, the gap between $d^{n}$ and $d^{n+1}$ becomes larger and larger, which also


Figure 1.8: A de Bruijn digraph $B(2,3)$
poses the problem of smooth expansion. Therefore, this increases the difficulty for its applications.

In 1981, Imase and Itoh [17] propsed a generalization of de Bruijn digraphs to include any number of vertices. Reddy, Pradhadn and Kuhl [32] also proposed the same graph independently in 1980. We use $G_{B}(d, n)$ to denote the generalized de Bruijn graphs.

For $n \geq d \geq 2$, the generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(d, n)$ is defined by congruence equations as follows: $V\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)=\{0,1,2, \cdots, n-1\}$ and $A\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)=\{(x, y) \mid y \equiv$ $d x+i(\bmod n), 0 \leq i<d\}$. Figure 1.9 shows the generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(2,7)$. Clearly, if $n=d^{D}, G_{B}(d, n)$ is the de Bruijn digraph $B(d, D)$. Figure 1.10 represent the generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(2,8)$. Figure 1.8 and Figure 1.10 show that $B(2,3) \cong$ $G_{B}(2,8)$.


Figure 1.9: A generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(2,7)$


Figure 1.10: A generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(2,8)$

### 1.6 Kautz Digraphs, Kautz Undirected Graphs and Generalized Kautz Digraphs

In this section, we will introduce the Kautz digraphs and generalized Kautz digraphs. The Kautz digraphs are also an important class of intersection networks first proposed by Kautz in 1969 [21].

Structurally, Kautz networks are very similar to de Bruijn networks, and thus contain as many desirable properties as those of de Bruijn networks (see [40]). Moreover, Kautz networks are an improvement over de Bruijn networks, and have also been thought of as good candidates for the next generation of parallel system architectures, after the hypercube networks [6].

For two given integers $d \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$, the Kautz digraph $K(d, n)$ is defined as follows. The vertex set of $K(d, n)$ is $\square \square \square$
$V(K(d, n))=\left\{x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}: x_{i} \in\{0,1, \cdots, d\}, x_{i} \neq x_{i+1}, 1 \leq i \leq n-1\right\}$
and the edge set $E(K(d, n))$ consists of all edges from $x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}$ to $d$ other vertices $x_{2} x_{3} \cdots x_{n} \alpha$ where $\alpha \in\{0,1, \cdots, d\}$ and $\alpha \neq x_{n}$. Figure 1.11 is a Kautz digraph $K(2,2)$.

The Kautz undirected graph, denoted by $U K(d, n)$, is an undirected graph obtained from $K(d, n)$ by deleting the orientation of all edges and omitting multiple edges.

Similarly the Kautz digraphs have the same restriction on the number of vertices as de Bruijn digraphs. Imase and Itoh [17, 18] generalized the Kautz digraphs in 1981. The generalization removes the restrict on the cardinality of vertex and retains all of the properties of graphs. Thus, these graphs are also good networks for the next generation


Figure 1.11: A Kautz digraph $K(2,2)$

Figure 1.12: A Kautz undirected graph $U K(2,2)$
of parallel system architecture.


02

For $n>d \geq 2$, the generalized Kautz digraph $G_{K}(d, n)$ is defined by congruence 1896 equations as follows:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)=\{0,1,2, \cdots, n-1\} \\
A\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)=\{(x, y) \mid y \equiv-d x-i \quad(\bmod n), 1 \leq i \leq d\} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

In particular, $K(d, D) \cong G_{K}\left(d, d^{D}+d^{D-1}\right)$.


Figure 1.13: A generalized Kautz digraph $G_{K}(2,5)$

In this thesis, we study the decycling number on graphs and digraphs, and the thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we make a survey of all the known results which


Figure 1.14: A generalized Kautz digraph $G_{K}(2,6)$
are related to the classes of graphs we focus on. Then, in Chapter 3, we consider the decycling number of outerplanar graphs and grid graph $P_{m} \square P_{n}$. The main results on digraphs will be discussed in Chapter 4. The digraphs we consider are generalized Kautz digraphs and generalized de Bruin digraphs. Finally, we have a conclusion and a novel idea about total decycling number will be proposed.


## Chapter 2

## Known Results

From the literatures, there are many studies which focus on determining the decycling number of graphs. In this chapter, we will give an overview of these results.

### 2.1 In Graphs

In the beginning of this section, we present the general lower bound of graph $G$.

Lemma 2.1.1. [3] Let $G$ be a connected graph with $p$ vertices and $q$ edges, and degrees $d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{p}$ in non-decreasing order. If $\nabla(G)=s$, then
$\sum_{i=1}^{s}\left(d_{i}-1\right) \geq q-p+1$
As an indication of how this result can be used, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 2.1.2. [3] If $G$ is a connected graph with $p$ vertices, $q$ edges, and maximum degree d, then

$$
\nabla(G) \geq \frac{q-p+1}{d-1}
$$

In the following, we present the results about outerplanar graphs. Bau et al. [2] found formulas of decycling number for maximal outerplanar graphs.

Theorem 2.1.3. [2] If $G$ is a maximal outerplanar graph of order $n$, then

$$
1 \leq \nabla(G) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{3}\right\rfloor .
$$

In 2002, Fertin, Godard and Raspaud [15] proved the same result by the acyclic coloring argument. They proved the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1.4. [15] Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph of order $|V|=N$. If $a(G) \leq k$, then $\nabla(G) \leq \frac{k-2}{k} N$, where $a(G)$ is the acyclic chromatic number of $G$.

Lemma 2.1.4 combined with the following theorem in [35] can also get Theorem 2.1.3.

Theorem 2.1.5. [35] For any outerplanar graph $G, a(G) \leq 3$.

Similarly, Bordin[4] given the acyclic chromatic number of planar graph.

Theorem 2.1.6. [4] Every planar graph is acyclically 5-colorable.

Lemma 2.1.4 combined with Theorem 2.1.6 can obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1.7. [15] For any planar graph $G$ of order $N, \nabla(G) \leq \frac{3}{5} N$.
For hypercube, Beineke [3] and Pike [30] gave the results as follows.

Theorem 2.1.8. [3]
(1) $\nabla\left(Q_{3}\right)=3$.

(2) $\nabla\left(Q_{4}\right)=6$.
(3) $\nabla\left(Q_{5}\right)=14$.
(4) $\nabla\left(Q_{6}\right)=28$.
(5) $\nabla\left(Q_{7}\right)=56$.
(6) $\nabla\left(Q_{8}\right)=112$.

Theorem 2.1.9. $[30] \nabla\left(Q_{n}\right) \leq 2^{n-1}-A(n, 4)$ where $A(n, 4)$ denotes the size of maximum binary code of length $n$ with minimum Hamming distance 4.

Theorem 2.1.10. [30] $\nabla\left(Q_{n}\right)=2^{n-1}-A(n, 4)$ if and only if there exists a minimum decycling set $S$ in $Q_{n}$ that is also an independent set.

For circular graphs, Wei et al. [38] provided the following theorems.

Theorem 2.1.11. [38] $\left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil \leq \nabla(C(n, l)) \leq \frac{n}{2}$.

Theorem 2.1.12. [38] $\nabla(C(n, l))=\left\lceil\frac{l+1}{2}\right\rceil$ where $l \geq 2$ and $n=2 l$.
Theorem 2.1.13. [38]

$$
\nabla(C(n, 2))=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil+1 & \text { if } n \equiv 2 \\
\left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}(\bmod 6),\right.
$$

where $n \geq 5$.

$$
\nabla(C(n, 3))= \begin{cases}\left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil+1 & \text { if } n=3 k+2 \text { and } k \text { is odd, } \\ \left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

where $n \geq 7$.
where $n \geq 9$.
$\nabla(C(n, 4))= \begin{cases}{\left[\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil+1} & \text { if } n=3 k+2 \text { and } k \text { is positive integer, } \\ \left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$
$\geq 9$.
Theorem 2.1.14. [38] Suppose $n=3 k, l=3 m-9$ and $(k, m)=1$ or 2 where $k \geq 3 m$. Then $\nabla(C(n, l))=k+1=\left\lceil\frac{n+1}{3}\right\rceil$.

Luccio [26] proved the lower and upper bounds of decycling number in both grids and butterflies in 1998.

Theorem 2.1.15. [26] If $m, n \geq 2$, then

$$
\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil \leq \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{m n}{3}+\frac{m+n}{6}+o(m, n)\right\rfloor .
$$

Theorem 2.1.16. [26] For $k$-dimensional butterfly,

$$
2^{k-1}\left\lfloor\frac{k+1}{2}\right\rfloor \leq \nabla\left(B_{k}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{\left(k+\frac{1}{3}\right) 2^{k}+\frac{1}{3}}{3}\right\rfloor .
$$

Secondly, Caragiannis, Kaklamanis and Kanellopoulos improved the bounds.

Theorem 2.1.17. [8] $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{m n}{3}-\frac{m+n-5}{6}\right\rfloor$

Theorem 2.1.18. [8] For $k$-dimensional butterfly,

$$
\left\lceil\frac{(k-1) 2^{k}+1}{3}\right\rceil \leq \nabla\left(B_{k}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{\left(k+\frac{1}{2}\right) 2^{k}}{3}\right\rfloor .
$$

Subsequently. Chang et al. [9] both improved Luccio's analysis of decycling number in butterflies and exhibited an algorithm which constructed a decycling set in $B_{k}$.

Theorem 2.1.19. [9] For $k$-dimensional butterfly $B_{k}$,

$$
\nabla\left(B_{k}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{(3 k+1) 2^{k}+1}{9}\right\rfloor-\frac{2^{k}-1}{3}
$$

if $k$ is even. Otherwise,

$$
\nabla\left(B_{k}\right) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{(3 k+1) 2^{k}+1}{9}\right\rfloor-\frac{2^{k}-2^{\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil}-2^{\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor+1}}{3}
$$

Finally, Madelaine and Stewart [27] construct new decycling sets in grids so that for certain number of pairs $(m, n)$, the size of decycling set in the grid $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ matches the best lower bound $\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil$, and for all other pairs the size of decycling set is at most this lower bound plus 2. We use Table 2.1 to represent Madelaine and Stewart's result.

Theorem 2.1.20. [27]

| M |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m | O | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 0 | B | A | B | B | A | B |
| 1 | A | A | A | A | A | A |
| 2 | B | A | B | B | A | B |
| 3 | B | A | B | B | A | C |
| 4 | A | A | A | A | A | A |
| 5 | B | A | B | C | A | C |

Table 2.1: Madelaine and Stewart's result

In Table 2.1, $A: \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)=F_{m, n}, B: \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq F_{m, n}+1, C: \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq$ $F_{m, n}+2$ where $F_{m, n}=\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil$.

Pike and Zou [31] determined the decycling number of $C_{m} \square C_{n}$ for all $m$ and $n$. And they also yield a maximum induced tree in $C_{m} \square C_{n}$.

Theorem 2.1.21. [31] Let $m \geq 3$ and $n \geq 3$ be integers. Then

$$
\nabla\left(C_{m} \square C_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\left\lceil\frac{3 n}{2}\right\rceil & \text { if } m=4, \\ \left\lceil\frac{3 m}{2}\right\rceil & \text { if } n=4, \\ \left\lceil\frac{m n+2}{3}\right\rceil & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Královič et al.[24] determined the decycling number in certain graphs, such as de Bruijn undirected graphs $U B(2, n)$ and Kautz undirected graphs $U K(2, n)$.

Theorem 2.1.22. $[24] \nabla(U B(2, n))=\left\lceil\frac{1}{3}\left(2^{n}-2\right)\right\rceil$.
Theorem 2.1.23. $[24] \nabla(U K(2, n))=2^{n-1} . \square / \square$
The following theorems show the upper and lower bounds of $U B(d, n)$ and $U K(d, n)$.
Theorem 2.1.24. [44] For any $d \geq 3$ and $n \geq 1$,

$$
\left\lceil\frac{d^{n+1}-d-\frac{d(d-1)}{2}-d^{n}+1}{2 d-1}\right\rceil \leq \nabla(U B(d, n)) \leq d^{n}\left(1-\left(\frac{d}{d+1}\right)^{d-1}\right)+\binom{n+d-2}{d-2}
$$

Theorem 2.1.25. [45] For $d \geq 2$ and $n \geq 3$, the following holds:

$$
\left\lceil\frac{d^{n+1}-d^{n-1}-\frac{d(d+1)}{2}+1}{2 d-1}\right\rceil \leq \nabla(U K(d, n)) \leq d^{n}-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{d^{2}}{4}\right\rfloor+1\right) d^{n-2} .
$$

In the following, we present the results on digraphs.
Theorem 2.1.26. [43] For $d \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$,

$$
\nabla(B(d, n))= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \mid n} d^{i} \varphi\left(\frac{n}{i}\right) & \text { for } 2 \leq n \leq 4 \\ \frac{d^{n}}{n}+O\left(n d^{n-4}\right) & \text { for } n \geq 5\end{cases}
$$

where $i \mid n$ means $i$ divides $n$, and $\varphi(i)$ is the Euler totient function.

Theorem 2.1.27. [41] For $d \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$,

$$
\nabla(K(d, n))= \begin{cases}d & \text { for } n=1 \\ \frac{(\varphi \odot \theta)(n)}{n}+\frac{(\varphi \odot \theta)(n-1)}{n-1} & \text { for } 2 \leq n \leq 7, \\ \frac{d^{n}}{n}+\frac{d^{n-1}}{n-1}+O\left(n d^{n-4}\right) & \text { for } n \geq 8\end{cases}
$$

where $(\varphi \odot \theta)(n)=\sum_{i \mid n} \varphi(i \theta(n / i)), \theta(i)=d^{i}+(-1)^{i} d, \varphi(1)=1$ and $\varphi(i)=i \prod_{j=1}^{r}(1-$ $1 / p_{j}$ ) for $i \geq 2$ and $p_{1}, p_{2}, \cdots, p_{r}$ are the distinct prime factors of $i$, not equal to 1 .

Theorem 2.1.28. [42] For $d \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$,

$$
\nabla\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right) \leq\left\{\begin{array}{c}
4+7 m+\left\lfloor\frac{5 t+3}{8}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor-\left\lfloor\frac{5 t}{8}\right\rfloor-\left\lfloor\frac{t+1}{2}\right\rfloor, \\
\quad m=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{3}\right\rfloor, n \equiv t \quad(\bmod 32), \text { for } d=2 . \\
4+6 m+\left\lfloor\frac{7 t}{9}\right\rfloor-\left\lfloor\frac{t+1}{3}\right\rfloor, \\
m=\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{18}\right\rfloor, n \equiv t \quad(\bmod 18), \text { for } d=3 .\right. \\
2+t+d(2 d-3) m+\left\lceil\frac{(d+1) t+t-1}{d^{2}}\right\rceil-\left\lceil\frac{t}{d}\right\rceil, \\
m=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d(2 d+3)}\right\rfloor, n \equiv t \quad(\bmod d(2 d+3)), \text { for } d \geq 4 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

### 2.2 Relation with Cycle Packing Number

Review that the cycle packing number of a graph $G, \nu(G)$, is the maximum number of vertex-disjoint cycles in $G$. Therefore, $\nabla(G) \geq \nu(G)$ for every graph $G$. Dirac and Gallai wondered if there is any inverse relation between $\nabla(G)$ and $\nu(G)$. Define $\nabla(k)=$ $\max \{\nabla(G) \mid \nu(G)=k\}$. Bollobas [7] proved that $\nabla(1)=3$ and the complete graph of five vertices shows that this bound is sharp. Later, Voss [36] showed that $\nabla(2)=6$ and $9 \leq \nabla(3) \leq 12$.
Erdös and Pósa [13] proved the following.
Theorem 2.2.1. [13] There are absolute constants $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$ such that


Kloks, Lee and Liu [23] in 2002 conjectured following.

Conjecture 2.2.2. [23] For every planar graph $G, \nabla(G) \leq 2 \nu(G)$.

And they also proved the following theorems by greedy algorithm.

Theorem 2.2.3. [23] Let $G$ be an outerplanar graph. Then $\nabla(G) \leq 2 \nu(G)$.

Theorem 2.2.4. [23] Let $G$ be a planar graph. Then $\nabla(G) \leq 5 \nu(G)$.

Subsequently, Chen, Fu and Shih [11] improved this bound for planar graphs by discharging method. First, they give a lemma.

Lemma 2.2.5. [11] Every 2 -edge-connected triangle-free planar graph $G$ with minimum degree at least three has either a $C_{4}$ containing a 3 -vertex or a $C_{5}$ containing at least four 3 -vertices.

Then, they use the following algorithm to prove the main result. The algorithm starts with an empty set $\mathcal{F}$ and goes step by step as follows.
A. Remove all vertices and edges not lying on any cycle. Notice that the resulting graph will be 2-edge-connected. Once no vertex exists, then the process stops and outputs $\mathcal{F}$.
B. Repeatedly remove from the resulting graph 2 -vertices (vertices of degree 2) that have nonadjacent neighbors and connect an edge between these two neighbors. Go to the next step.

C. If there is a $C_{3}$, then take these three vertices into $\mathcal{F}$ and remove them from the remaining graph, and go back step A. Otherwise, do the next step.

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D. Remark that the process enters this step only when all vertices are of degree at least 3 and no $C_{3}$ exists. By Lemma 2.2.5, there must be either a $C_{4}$ containing a 3 -vertex or a $C_{5}$ containing at least four 3 -vertices. In the former case, take the three vertices other than the 3 -vertex into $\mathcal{F}$ and remove them, then go back step A. In the later case, there must be at least two 3 -vertices that are nonadjacent in the $C_{5}$. Take the other three vertices into $\mathcal{F}$ and remove them, then go back step A.

Theorem 2.2.6. [11] For every planar graph $G, \nabla(G) \leq 3 \nu(G)$.

## Chapter 3

## Decycling Number of Graphs

### 3.1 Outerplanar Graphs

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Theorem 2.2.3, Kloks, Lee and Liu [23] proved that $\nabla(G) \leq 2 \nu(G)$ for every outerplanar graph $G$. Since $\nu(G) \leq \nabla(G)$, it is nature to determine when these bounds are in fact equalities.

An outerplanar graph $G$ is called lower-extremal if $\nabla(G)=\nu(G)$ and upper-extremal if $\nabla(G)=2 \nu(G)$. In this section, we provide a necessary and sufficient condition for an outerplanar graph being upper-extremal. On the other hand, we provide a sufficient condition for an outerplanar graph being lower-extremal. We find a class $\mathcal{S}$ of outerplanar graphs none of which is lower-extremal and show that if $G$ has no subdivision of $S$ for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, then $G$ is lower-extremal. $\square \square \square \square$

We start by presenting an upper-extremal graph with simplest structure.

Definition 3.1.1. $S_{k}$ is a graph with vertex set $V=\{0,1, \cdots, 2 k-1\}$ and edge set $E=\{i(i+1): 0 \leq i \leq 2 k-1\} \cup\{i(i+2): i$ is even $\}$ (the indices are under modulo $2 k$ ).

Then $\nabla\left(S_{k}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil$ and $\nu\left(S_{k}\right)=\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor . S_{3}$ is clearly an upper-extremal graph; indeed, its subdivisions are the only 2 -edge-connected outerplanar graphs that are upper-extremal and have cycle packing number one. We define the simplified graph of a graph $G$ to be the graph obtained from $G$ by continuously deleting vertices of degree one until there is no more degree one vertex and denote it by $\lfloor G\rfloor$.

Let $F(G)$ denote the outer face of an outerplanar $G$. An edge $u v$ is called a basic edge of $G$ if $u v$ and some $u, v$-path on the boundary of $F(G)$ form the boundary of a face of $G$. Then, we have

Lemma 3.1.2. For an outerplanar graph $G$ with $\nu(G)=1, G$ is upper-extremal if and only if $\lfloor G\rfloor$ is an $S_{3}$-subdivision.

Proof. It suffices to prove the necessity. If $\lfloor G\rfloor$ has a cut-vertex $v$, then $v$ belongs to two blocks of $\lfloor G\rfloor$, say $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, and $\lfloor G\rfloor-v$ has a cycle which is vertex-disjoint with $G_{1}$ or $G_{2}$. Then $\lfloor G\rfloor$ has two vertex-disjoint cycles, a contradiction. Thus $\lfloor G\rfloor$ is 2-connected. Any two basic edges of $[G]$ have a common vertex; otherwise, we can find two vertex-disjoint cycles. This implies that $\lfloor G\rfloor$ has at most three basic edges. Then $\lfloor G\rfloor$ has exactly three basic edges; otherwise we can decycle it by deleting one vertex. Hence it is an $S_{3}$-subdivision.

To characterize the upper-extremal graphs, we first define a class of special upperextremal graphs - $S_{3}$-trees. A graph is an $S_{3}$-tree of order $t$ if it has exactly $t$ vertexdisjoint $S_{3}$-subdivisions and every edge not on these $S_{3}$-subdivisions belongs to no cycle (see Figure 3.1 for an example).


Figure 3.1: An $S_{3}$-tree $G$ of order 3, where $\nabla(G)=6=2 \nu(G)$.

It is easy to verify that any $S_{3}$-tree of order $t$ has exactly $t$ vertex-disjoint cycles, and to decycle an $S_{3}$-tree, we have to delete two vertices from each $S_{3}$-subdivision. Hence, all $S_{3^{-}}$ trees are upper-extremal. We will show that there is no other upper-extremal outerplanar graph.

Lemma 3.1.3. An outerplanar graph $G$ comprised of a connected $S_{3}$-tree $H$ of order $t$ and two internally disjoint $v, V(H)$-paths has $t+1$ vertex-disjoint cycles for $v \notin V(H)$.

Proof. Suppose that $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V(H)$ are the endpoints of these two $v, V(H)$-paths. Let $C$ be the cycle comprised of these two $v, V(H)$-paths and the $v_{1}, v_{2}$-path in $H$ such that $C$ is the boundary of some face of $G$. Then the intersection (vertex and edge) of $C$ and any $S_{3}$-subdivision $S$ in $H$ is either an edge on the boundary of the outer face of $S$ or a vertex of $S$; otherwise, there would be a subdivision of $K_{2,3}$ or $K_{4}$, a contradiction. Hence, we can easily find a cycle in every $S_{3}$-subdivision that is vertex-disjoint with $C$.

Theorem 3.1.4. An outerplanar graph $G$ is upper-extremal if and only if $G$ is an $S_{3}$-tree.

Proof. It suffices to consider the necessity. We prove it by induction on $\nu(G)$. The statement is clearly true for $G$ if $\overline{\nu(G)}=0$. Let $G$ be an upper-extremal graph. Then we can find a maximal induced path $P$ with some endpoints $u$ and $v$ such that $u v$ is an edge of $G(u \neq v$ since $G$ is upper-extremal). Then $G \backslash\{u, v\}$ must be upper-extremal and $\nu(G \backslash\{u, v\}) \leq \nu(G)-1$. Thus we can-assume that $G \backslash\{u, v\}$ is an $S_{3}$-tree of order $t$. Then $\nu(G) \geq t+1$. Since $\nabla(G) \leq 2 t+2$ and $G$ is upper-extremal, $\nu(G)=t+1$ and thus $\nabla(G)=2 t+2$.

Define $G^{*}:=\lfloor G \backslash\{x: x$ is on some cycle of $G \backslash\{u, v\}\}\rfloor$. Then $\nu\left(G^{*}\right)=1$. If $\nabla\left(G^{*}\right)=2$, then by Lemma 3.1.2 $G^{*}$ is an $S_{3}$-tree of order one. This implies that $G$ contains $t+1$ vertex-disjoint $S_{3}$-subdivisions. By Lemma 3.1.3, there exists at most one path between any two $S_{3}$-subdivisions and thus $G$ is an $S_{3}$-tree. Now, we consider w.l.o.g. that $G^{*}-u$ is acyclic. Let $V^{*}:=V\left(G^{*}\right)$. Then $G$ is a graph comprised of $G^{*},\left\lfloor G \backslash V^{*}\right\rfloor$, and some internally disjoint $V^{*}, V\left(\left\lfloor G \backslash V^{*}\right\rfloor\right)$-paths. Notice that there is at most one $w, V^{*}$-path if $w \in V\left(\left\lfloor G \backslash V^{*}\right\rfloor\right)$ is not on any $S_{3}$-subdivision. We classify the vertices in $V^{*} \backslash V(P)$ into two disjoint sets $A$ and $B$ where $A$ is the union of the vertex sets of components of $G^{*}-u$ except the one containing $v$. Let $V^{\prime}$ be the vertex set of a component of $\left\lfloor G \backslash V^{*}\right\rfloor$. Then each component of $G[A]$ has at most one path to $V^{\prime}$ and there is at
most one $B, V^{\prime}$-path; otherwise, by Lemma 3.1.3 $\nu(G) \geq t+2$ (see Figure $3.2(a)$ ), a contradiction. We consider the following cases.

(a)

(b)


Figure 3.2: Gray edges form some vertex-disjoint cycles.

Case 1: $G^{*}$ has a cycle containing u but notv. Then there is at most one $v, V^{\prime}$-path; otherwise, $\nu(G) \geq t+2$. For the remaining case we have to deal with is that there is exactly one $B, V^{\prime}$-path and one $u, V^{\prime}$-path. Let $x, y$ be the endpoints of these two paths in $V^{\prime}$. Then at least one of $x$ and $y$ is on an $S_{3}$-subdivision in $G\left[V^{\prime}\right]$ and thus we can decycle $G$ by deleting $u$ and a minimum decycling set of $G \backslash\{u, v\}$ including it, contradicting the fact that $\nabla(G)=2 t+2$.

Case 2: Every cycle of $G^{*}$ contains both $u$ and $v$. Then $G^{*}-v$ is also acyclic. Suppose that $V_{u} \subseteq V^{\prime}$ is the set of vertices as the endpoints of some $u, V^{\prime}$-paths and $V_{v} \subseteq V^{\prime}$ is the set of vertices as the endpoints of some $B \cup\{v\}, V^{\prime}$-paths. If $\min \left(\left|V_{u}\right|,\left|V_{v}\right|\right) \geq 2$ and $\max \left(\left|V_{u}\right|,\left|V_{v}\right|\right) \geq 3$, then by Lemma 3.1.3 $\nu(G) \geq t+2$ (see Figure 3.1.3 (b) for an example), a contradiction. Thus $\left|V_{u}\right|=2=\left|V_{v}\right|$ or $\left|V_{u}\right|=1$ or $\left|V_{v}\right|=1$. If $\left|V_{u}\right|=1$ (or $\left|V_{v}\right|=1$ ), and therefore $G$ can be decycled by deleting $v$ (or $u$ ) and a minimum
decycling set of $G \backslash\{u, v\}$, contradicting that $\nabla(G)=2 t+2$. It remains to consider that $\left|V_{u}\right|=2=\left|V_{v}\right|$. If $V_{u} \cap V_{v}=\emptyset$, then $\nu(G) \geq t+2$ (see Figure $3.2(c)$ for an example), a contradiction. Suppose that $V_{u} \cap V_{v}=\{w\}$. Then $w$ must be on some $S_{3}$-subdivision. Therefore, we can decycle $G$ by deleting $u$ and a minimum decycling set of $G \backslash\{u, v\}$ with $w$ included (see Figure 3.2 (d) for an example), again a contradiction.

To prove that a property is sufficient for a graph being lower-extremal, we will use induction. In order to facilitate the proof of the induction step, we need a hereditary graph property. A graph property is called monotone if it is closed under removal of vertices. We provide the following general result that is applicable to all graphs.

Lemma 3.1.5. Suppose that a 2-connected graph is lower-extremal provided that it satisfies a monotone property $\mathcal{P}$. Then $G$ is lower-extremal if $G$ satisfies $\mathcal{P}$.

Proof. We prove the statement by induction on $|G|$. The statement is true for graphs with $\nu(G)=0$ or $|V(G)|=1$. For a graph $G$ of connectivityOne, let $G_{1}$ be a leaf block of $G$ and $v$ be the cut-vertex of $G$ in $V\left(G_{1}\right)$. Let $G_{2}=G \backslash V\left(G_{1}-v\right)$. Then $\nu(G)$ is either $\nu\left(G_{1}\right)+\nu\left(G_{2}\right)$ or $\nu\left(G_{1}\right)+\nu\left(G_{2}\right)-1$, and $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla\left(G_{1}\right)+\nabla\left(G_{2}\right)$. Thus suppose to the contrary that $\nabla(G)>\nu(G)$. Then $\nu(G)=\nu\left(G_{1}\right)+\nu\left(G_{2}\right)-1$ and $\nabla(G)=\nabla\left(G_{1}\right)+\nabla\left(G_{2}\right)$. The first equality shows that every maximum set of vertex-disjoint cycles of $G_{i}$ must contain a cycle with $v$ for $i=1,2$, and thus $\nu\left(G_{i}-v\right)<\nu\left(G_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$. The second equality shows that $v$ does not belong to any minimum decycling set of $G^{*}$ where $G^{*}=G_{1}$ or $G_{2}$ and thus $\nabla\left(G^{*}-v\right)=\nabla\left(G^{*}\right)$. Thus by the monotonicity of $\mathcal{P}$ and the induction hypothesis, $\nu\left(G^{*}-v\right)=\nabla\left(G^{*}-v\right)=\nabla\left(G^{*}\right)=\nu\left(G^{*}\right)$, a contradiction.

To introduce a sufficient condition for a graph being lower-extremal, we first classify all edges of an outerplanar graph. For a 2-connected outerplanar graph $G$, let $E_{0}(G)$ and $E_{1}(G)$ be the set of edges on the boundary of $F(G)$ and the set of basic edges of $G$, respectively. For $k \geq 2$, define $E_{k}(G)$ to be the set of basic edges of $G \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} E_{i}(G)$. For an edge $u v \in E_{k}(G)$, we use $C(u v)$ to denote a cycle generated by $u v$ and a $u, v$-path on
the boundary of $F(G)$ such that the cycle is the boundary of a face of $G \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} E_{i}(G)$. We also call it a basic cycle of the graph $G \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} E_{i}(G)$ generated from edge $u v$.

Lemma 3.1.6. If $G$ is a 2 -connected outerplanar graph with no $S_{k}$-subdivision for all odd number $k$, then $G$ is lower-extremal.

Proof. We prove the statement by induction on $|E(G)|$. It is easy to verify that the statement is true for graphs with at most three edges. It suffices to prove that there exists a 2-connected subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ that has fewer number of edges and no $S_{k}$-subdivision for all odd number $k$ and satisfies $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla\left(G^{\prime}\right)\left(\right.$ then $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\nu\left(G^{\prime}\right) \leq \nu(G)$ ).

The statement is clearly true for $G$ with $\left|E_{2}(G)\right|=0$. Suppose $\left|E_{2}(G)\right| \geq 1$ (and thus $\left.\left|E_{1}(G)\right| \geq 1\right)$. Take an edge $e=x y \in E_{2}(G)$ and a basic cycle $C(e)$ of $G \backslash E_{1}(G)$. Let $E \subseteq E_{1}(G)$ be the set of edges with both endpoints on $C(e)$. We consider the following cases.

Case 1: $E$ induces an $x, y$-path of $G$, say $x v_{1} v_{2} \cdots v_{t} y$. Here, $t$ must be even since $G$ contains an $S_{t+2}$-subdivision. Let $D$ be a minimum decycling set of $G-e$. If $D$ contains $x$ or $y$, then $D$ is also a decycling set of $G$ and thus $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla(G-e)$. Suppose $x, y \notin D$. W.l.o.g., we can assume that $D \cap C(e)$ contains only vertices of degree larger than two. Then $|D \cap C(e)| \geq(t+2) / 2$. Let $D^{\prime}=(D \backslash C(e)) \cup\left\{x, v_{2}, v_{4}, \cdots, v_{t}\right\}$. Then $D^{\prime}$ is a decycling set of $G$ of size at most $\nabla(G-e)$. Thus, $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla(G-e)$.

Case 2: E generates a maximal path that contains none of $x$ and $y$, say $v_{1} v_{2} \cdots v_{t}$. We let $G^{\prime}$ to denote $G \backslash V(C(e)-x-y)$ if $E=\left\{v_{i} v_{i+1}: i=1, \cdots, t-1\right\}$ and $G \backslash$ $\left\{v_{i} v_{i+1}: i=1, \cdots, t-1\right\}$ otherwise. Then $G^{\prime}$ is clearly 2 -connected. Thus we have $\nabla(G) \leq \nabla\left(G^{\prime}\right)+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{2}\right\rfloor=\nu\left(G^{\prime}\right)+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{2}\right\rfloor=\nu(G)$.

Case 3: E induces at most two components which are paths as $x v_{1} v_{2} \cdots v_{t}$ and $y u_{1} u_{2} \cdots u_{t^{\prime}}$. Suppose $t$ (or $t^{\prime}$ ) is odd. Let $D$ be a minimum decycling set of $G-e$. Similar to the argument in Case 1 , suppose that $x, y \notin D$. Then $\left|D \cap\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{t}\right\}\right| \geq(t+1) / 2$ and thus $\left(D \backslash\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{t}\right\}\right) \cup\left\{x, v_{2}, v_{4}, \cdots, v_{t-1}\right\}$ is a decycling set of $G$. Hence $\nabla(G) \leq$ $\nabla(G-e)$. It remains to consider that $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ are even. Let $G^{\prime}=G \backslash(V(C(e)-x-y))$ and
$D$ be a minimum decycling set of $G^{\prime}$. Then $D \cup\left\{v_{1}, v_{3}, \cdots, v_{t-1}\right\} \cup\left\{u_{1}, u_{3}, \cdots, u_{t^{\prime}-1}\right\}$ is a decycling set of $G$ of size $\nabla\left(G^{\prime}\right)+\left(t+t^{\prime}\right) / 2$. Since $G[V(C(e))]$ has $\left(t+t^{\prime}\right) / 2$ vertex-disjoint cycles that do not contain $x$ and $y, \nabla(G) \leq \nabla\left(G^{\prime}\right)+\left(t+t^{\prime}\right) / 2=\nu\left(G^{\prime}\right)+\left(t+t^{\prime}\right) / 2 \leq \nu(G)$. This concludes the proof.

The property of being without $S_{k}$-subdivision is monotone. Therefore, by Lemma 3.1.5 and Lemma 3.1.6, we have

Theorem 3.1.7. For an outerplanar graph $G$, if $G$ has no $S_{k}$-subdivision for all odd number $k$, then $G$ is lower-extremal.

We remark here that the results obtained in this section have been included in a joint work with Chang and Fu [10].

## $3.2 \quad P_{m} \square P_{n}$

Reviewing that the decycling number of the grid $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ shown by Luccio is at most $\left\lfloor\frac{m n}{3}+\frac{m+n}{6}+o(m, n)\right]$ and at least $\left[\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right]$ [26]. Subsequently, in [8], Caragiannis, Kaklamanis and Kanellopoulos improved the upper bound. They showed that the decycling number of the grid $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ is at most $\left\lfloor\frac{m n}{3}-\frac{m+n-5}{6}\right\rfloor$. Finally, Madelaine and Stewart [27] construct new decycling sets in grids so that for certain number of pairs $(m, n)$, the size of decycling set in the grid $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ matches the best lower bound $\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil$, and for all other pairs the size of decycling set is at most this lower bound plus 2 .

In this section, we further improve both the lower and upper bounds of $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)$ for several classes of $(m, n)$ such that for more $(m, n)$ the decycling number of $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ matches the lower bound and for all others it differs from the known lower bound by at most 1 .

Theorem 2.1.15 showed $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \geq\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil$.
For convenience, we use $F_{m, n}$ and $f_{m, n}$ to denote $\left\lceil\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil$ and $\frac{(m-1)(n-1)+1}{3}$ respectively. The following proposition is implicit in the proof of Theorem 2.1.15.

Proposition 3.2.1. If $m \geq 5$ and $f_{m, n}$ is an integer, then each decycling set $S$ of size $f_{m, n}$ satisfies the following two properties:
(1) $S$ contains exactly one vertex of degree 3 and contains no vertex of degree 2 ; and
(2) $S$ induces a subgraph of $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ with no edges.

Now, we have a result on the lower bound of $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)$.

Theorem 3.2.2. If $m \geq 5$, $m n$ is even and $f_{m, n}$ is an integer, then $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \geq$ $f_{m, n}+1=F_{m, n}+1$.

Proof. Suppose not. Assume that $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)=f_{m, n}=F_{m, n}$ and $S$ is a decycling set with size $f_{m, n}$. By Proposition 3.2.1, we may let $v_{i, 1}$ be the vertex of $S$ with degree 3 where $2 \leq i \leq\left\lfloor\frac{m}{2}\right\rfloor$. Since $S$ is a decycling set and indûces no edges in $P_{m} \square P_{n}$, $v_{m-1,2} \in S$ and $v_{m-1,3} \notin S$. For otherwise, we have a 4 -cycle $\left(v_{m-1,1}, v_{m-1,2}, v_{m, 2}, v_{m, 1}\right)$ or $v_{m-1,2}, v_{m-1,3}$ is an edge in $\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)[S]$. Following this observation, we conclude that $S$ contains $v_{m-1,2}, v_{m-1,4}, \cdots, v_{m-1, n-1}$ since $S$ has no other vertices on the boundary of $P_{m} \square P_{n}$. Hence, $n-1$ is even and $n$ is odd. Similarly, $v_{m-3, n-1}, v_{m-5, n-1}, \cdots, v_{2, n-1}$ are contained in $S$ and therefore, $m$ is also odd. This contradicts to the assumption and we have the proof.

Corollary 3.2 .3 . For $m \geq 5$, if $m \equiv 0(\bmod 6)$ and $n \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$ or $(m, n) \equiv$ $(3,2)(\bmod 6), \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \geq F_{m, n}+1$.

Proof. By direct checking, $f_{m, n}$ is an integer and $m \cdot n$ is even.
Using this fact, we can estimate $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)$ for more pairs $(m, n)$ by using the Theorem 2.1.20 which was obtained by Madelaine and Stewart.

Now, combining Theorem 2.1.20 with Corollary 3.2.3, we have

Theorem 3.2.4. For $m \geq 5$, if $(m, n) \equiv(0,2),(0,5),(3,2),(2,0),(5,0),(2,3)(\bmod 6)$, then $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)=F_{m, n}+1$.

In what follows, we prove that for cases in class "C" mentioned in Table $2.1 \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq$ $F_{m, n}+1$ for $m \geq 6$. Before we go any further, we need to introduce a couple of new notations. We shall use $P_{m} \square P_{r} \mid P_{m} \square P_{k}$ to represent that $P_{m} \square P_{r+k-1}$ can be separated into $P_{m} \square P_{r}$ and $P_{m} \square P_{k}$ with a common vertical path $P_{m}$ (see Figure 3.3(a)). Similarly, we use $\frac{P_{r} \square P_{n}}{P_{k} \square P_{n}}$ to represent that $P_{r+k-1} \square P_{n}$ can be separated into $P_{r} \square P_{n}$ and $P_{k} \square P_{n}$ and they overlap a horizontal path $P_{n}$ (see Figure 3.3(b) for an example).


Figure 3.3: (a) $P_{6} \square P_{6}=P_{6} \square P_{4} \mid P_{6} \square P_{3}$; (b) $P_{6} \square P_{6}=\frac{P_{4} \square P_{6}}{P_{3} \square P_{6}}$
In order to prove the main theorem, we need the following three smaller cases.

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Lemma 3.2.5. For $(m, n)=\{(6,6),(6,8),(8,8)\}, \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq F_{m, n}+1$.

Proof. Beineke and Vandell [3] have already proved the first two cases. By direct checking, the third one is also true. For clearness, we include a decycling set of $P_{8} \square P_{8}$ in Figure 3.4.


Figure 3.4: A decycling set of $P_{8} \square P_{8}$.

Lemma 3.2.6. [3] If $G$ and $H$ are homeomorphic graphs, then $\nabla(G)=\nabla(H)$.

Theorem 3.2.7. For $m, n \geq 6, \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq F_{m, n}+1$.

Proof. By Theorem 2.1.20, Lemma 3.2.5 and the symmetry of the graph, it suffices to consider the following 2 cases.

Case 1. $m \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ and $n \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$.
Let $X_{6 k+5,6 r+5}=\left\{v_{i, j}: i\right.$ and $j$ are even, $\left.1 \leq i \leq 6 k+5,1 \leq j \leq 6 r+5\right\}$. Then $P_{6 k+5} \square P_{6 r+5} \backslash X_{6 k+5,6 r+5}$ is homeomorphic to the graph $P_{3 k+3} \square P_{3 r+3}$. By Lemma 3.2.6, for $k, r \geq 0, \nabla\left(P_{6 k+5} \square P_{6 r+5}\right) \leq(3 k+2)(3 r+2)+\left\lceil\frac{(3 k+2)(3 r+2)+1}{3}\right\rceil+1=$ $F_{6 k+5,6 r+5}+1$.

Case 2. $m \equiv 3(\bmod 6)$ and $n \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$. First, we can find a decycling set-of $P_{9} \square P_{11}$ directly. (See Figure 3.5, $\nabla\left(P_{9} \square P_{11}\right) \leq$ $28=F_{9,11}+1$.) Then, we partition this case into 3 subcases and apply the case $m \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ in $[27]$ to solve the following.


Figure 3.5: Decycling set (black vertices) of $P_{9} \square P_{11}$.

Subcase 2.1. $m=9$ and $n \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$.
Separate $P_{9} \square P_{6 k+5}$ into $P_{9} \square P_{6(k-1)+1} \mid P_{9} \square P_{11}$. We can find a set of vertices $X_{9,6(k-1)+1}$ in $P_{9} \square P_{6(k-1)+1}$ by using Madelaine and Stewart's method [27].

Define $X_{9,6(k-1)+1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left\{v_{i, j}: 5 \leq i \leq 7, i \text { is odd, } 3 \leq j \leq 6(k-1)+1, j \equiv 3,5(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, j}: 5 \leq i \leq 8, i \text { is even, } 2 \leq j \leq 6(k-1), j \equiv 0,2(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{5, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(k-1)+1, j \equiv 1(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{8, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(k-1)+1, j \equiv 4(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{2, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(k-1), j \text { is even }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{3, j}: 3 \leq j \leq 6(k-1)+1, j \text { is odd }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{4,2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

And we find $X_{9,11}$ in $P_{9} \square P_{11}$ by letting $X_{9,11}$


Figure 3.6: Decycling set of $P_{9} \square P_{17}$.

We claim that $X_{9,6 k+5}$ is a decycling set. Observe that if there is a cycle in $P_{9} \square P_{6 k+5} \backslash X_{9,6 k+5}$, then the cycle must use the perimeter vertices of $P_{9} \square P_{6(k-1)+1}$ excluding $\left\{v_{i, 6 k-5}: 3 \leq 7\right\}$ and a ( $v_{2,6 k-5}, v_{8,6 k-5}$ ) -path in $P_{9} \square P_{11} \backslash X_{9,11}$. However, there is no ( $v_{2,6 k-5}, v_{8,6 k-5}$ ) -path in $P_{9} \square P_{11} \backslash X_{9,11}$. Hence, $X_{9,6 k+5}$ is a decycling set of $P_{9} \square P_{6 k+5}$. Since $v_{3,6(k-1)+1}$ belongs to both
$X_{9,6(k-1)+1}$ and $X_{9,11}$, the size of $X_{9,6 k+5}$ is

$$
\left\lceil\frac{8 \cdot 6(k-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil+28-1=\left\lceil\frac{8(6 k+4)+1}{3}\right\rceil+1 .
$$

Subcase 2.2. $m \equiv 3(\bmod 6)$ and $n=11$.

Similar to Subcase 2.1, we let $P_{6 k+3} \square P_{11}=\frac{P_{6(k-1)+1} \square P_{11}}{P_{9} \square P_{11}}$ and let $X_{6(k-1)+1,11}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left\{v_{i, j}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 0,2(\bmod 6), 2 \leq j \leq 7, j \text { is even }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, j}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 3,5(\bmod 6), 2 \leq j \leq 7, j \text { is odd }\right\} \\
& \cup\left\{v_{i, 7}: 2 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 1(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, 2}: 2 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 4(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, 10}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1), i \text { is even }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, 9}: 3 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \text { is odd }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{2,8}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We use a different construction to find $X_{9,11}$ in $P_{9} \square P_{11}$, where $X_{9,11}=\left\{v_{i, j}\right.$ : $6(k-1)+1 \leq i \leq 6 k+3, i$ is even, $1 \leq j \leq 11, j$ is even $\} \backslash\left\{v_{6 k-5,9}, v_{6 k-3,3}\right.$, $\left.v_{6 k-3,5}, v_{6 k-1,1}, v_{6 k-1,9}, v_{6 k+1,3}, v_{6 k+1,7}, v_{6 k+3,9}\right\}$.

Define $X_{6 k+3,11}=X_{6(k-1)+1,11} \cup X_{9,11}$. The construction of $X_{15,11}$ can be visualized as in Figure 3.7. The argument is similar to Subcase 3.1 which yields that $X_{6 k+3,11}$ is a decycling set of $P_{6 k+3} \square P_{11}$. Since $v_{6(k-1)+1,9}$ belongs to both $X_{6(k-1)+1,11}$ and $X_{9,11}$, the size of $X_{6 k+3,11}$ is

$$
\left\lceil\frac{6(k-1) 10+1}{3}\right\rceil+28-1=\left\lceil\frac{(6 k+2) 10+1}{3}\right\rceil+1 .
$$

Subcase 2.3. $m \equiv 3(\bmod 6)$ and $n \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ and $m>9, n>11$.
Let $P_{6 k+3} \square P_{6 r+5}$ be $\frac{P_{6(k-1)+1} \square P_{6 r+5}}{P_{9} \square P_{6(r-1)+1} \mid P_{9} \square P_{11}}$. We note that the labeling of each vertex in the following is the same as the labeling used in the original grid. Now, define


Figure 3.7: Decycling set of $P_{15} \square P_{11}$.
$X_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+5}$ in $P_{6(k-1)+1} \square P_{6 r+5}$ as $\square \square$

$$
\begin{array}{ll} 
& \left\{v_{i, j}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 0,2(\bmod 6), 2 \leq j \leq 6 r+1, j \text { even }\right\} \\
\cup & \left\{v_{i, j}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 3,5(\bmod 6), 2 \leq j \leq 6 r+1, j \text { odd }\right\} \\
\cup & \left\{v_{i, 6 r+1}: 2 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 1(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
\cup & \left\{v_{i, 2}: 2 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i \equiv 4(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
\bigcup & \left\{v_{i, 6 r+4}: 1 \leq i \leq 6(k-1), i \text { even }\right\} \\
\bigcup & \left\{v_{i, 6 r+3}: 3 \leq i \leq 6(k-1)+1, i\right. \text { odd } \\
\cup & \left\{v_{2,6 r+2}\right\} .
\end{array}
$$

Define $X_{9,6(r-1)+1}$ in $P_{9} \square P_{6(r-1)+1}$ as following. $X_{9,6(r-1)+1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left\{v_{i, j}: 6 k-1 \leq i \leq 6 k+1, i \text { odd, } 3 \leq j \leq 6 r-5, j \equiv 3,5(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{i, j}: 6 k-1 \leq i \leq 6 k+2, i \text { even, } 2 \leq j \leq 6 r-6, j \equiv 0,2(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{6(k-1)+5, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(r-1)+1, j \equiv 1(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{6 k+2, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(r-1)+1, j \equiv 4(\bmod 6)\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{6(k-1)+2, j}: 2 \leq j \leq 6(r-1), j \text { even }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{6(k-1)+3, j}: 3 \leq j \leq 6(r-1)+1, j \text { odd }\right\} \\
& \bigcup\left\{v_{6(k-1)+4,2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Define $X_{9,11}$ in $P_{9} \square P_{11}$ as the following Figure 3.8, the size of $X_{9,11}$ is 30 .


Figure 3.8: Decycling set of $P_{9} \square P_{11}$ (Different from Figure 3.5).

Define $X_{6 k+3,6 r+5}=X_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+5} \cup X_{9,6(r-1)+1} \cup X_{9,11}$. The construction is illustrated for $P_{15} \square P_{17}$ in Figure 3.9.


Figure 3.9: Decycling set of $P_{15} \square P_{17}$.

We claim that $X_{6 k+3,6 r+5}$ is a decycling set. Observe that if there is a cycle in $P_{6 k+3} \square P_{6 r+5} \backslash X_{6 k+3,6 r+5}$ then the cycle must use the perimeter vertices of $P_{6(k-1)+1} \square P_{6 r+5}$ excluding $\left\{v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+j}: j=1,2,3\right\}$ and a $\left(v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r}\right.$, $\left.v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+4}\right)$-path in $\left(P_{9} \square P_{6(r-1)+1} \mid P_{9} \square P_{11}\right) \backslash\left(X_{9,6(r-1)+1} \cup X_{9,11}\right)$. By directly checking, there is no path from the right boundary of $P_{9} \square P_{11}$ to the left boundary of $P_{9} \square P_{11}$. There is no ( $v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r}, v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+4}$ ) -path in $\left(P_{9} \square P_{6(r-1)+1} \mid P_{9} \square P_{11}\right) \backslash\left(X_{9,6(r-1)+1} \cup X_{9,11}\right)$. Hence $X_{6 k+3,6 r+5}$ is a decycling set of $P_{6 k+3} \square P_{6 r+5}$. Since $v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+1}, v_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+3} \in X_{9,11} \cap X_{6(k-1)+1,6 r+5}$ and $v_{6(k-1)+3,6(r-1)+1}, v_{6(k-1)+5,6(r-1)+1} \in X_{9,11} \cap X_{9,6(r-1)+1}$, the size of $X_{6 k+3,6 r+5}$

$$
\text { is }\left\lceil\frac{6(k-1)(6 r+4)+1}{3}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{8 \cdot 6(r-1)+1}{3}\right\rceil+30-4=\left\lceil\frac{(6 k+2)(6 r+4)+1}{3}\right\rceil+1
$$

We complete the proof.

We use Table 3.1 to represent the improvement of Madelaine and Stewart's results.


In Table 3.1, A: $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)=F_{m, n}, \mathrm{~B}: \nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq F_{m, n}+1$, C: $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right) \leq$ $F_{m, n}+2$.

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Again, we remark that the results obtained in this section have been included in a joint work with Fu and Shih which is to appear in Discrete Math., Alg. and Appl. [25].

## Chapter 4

## Decycling Number of Digraphs

In this chapter, we study $\nabla\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)$ and $\nabla\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)$ for $n \geq d \geq 2$.

### 4.1 Generalized Kautz Digraphs

First, we presents a systematie-approach of finding a decycling set in a digraph. It is the key idea in the following.

Lemma 4.1.1. Let $S$ be a set of vertices in a digraph $G$. Then $S$ is a decycling set of $G$ if and only if we can find a sequence of subsets of $V(G), S=S_{0}, S_{1}, \cdots, S_{t}=V(G)$ such that
(1) $S_{i} \subseteq S_{i+1}$; and
(2) $N^{+}\left(S_{i+1} \backslash S_{i}\right) \subseteq S_{i}$ for $i=0,1, \cdots, t-1$. $\quad$.

Proof. First, we prove the necessity. Since $S$ is a decycling set, $G-S$ is acyclic. Thus, there exists at least one vertex $v$ that $d_{G-S}^{+}(v)=0$. Now, we can partition $V(G \backslash S)$ into $V_{1}, V_{2}, \cdots, V_{t}$ by the following construction. For convenience, we denote $G_{0}=G[V(G) \backslash S]$. Define $V_{i}=\left\{v \in V\left(G_{i-1}\right) \mid d_{G_{i-1}}^{+}(v)=0\right\}$ where $G_{i}=G\left[V(G) \backslash\left(S \cup \cup_{j=1}^{i-1}\right)\left(V_{j}\right)\right]$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, t$. Let $S_{0}=S, S_{1}=S_{0} \cup V_{1}, S_{i}=S_{i-1} \cup V_{i}$ for $i=1,2, \cdots, t$. It can be easily checked that $S_{i} \subseteq S_{i+1}$ and $N^{+}\left(S_{i+1} \backslash S_{i}\right) \subseteq S_{i}$ for $i=0,1, \cdots, t-1$.

Subsequently, we consider the sufficiency. Suppose not. Assume that there exists a directed cycle $C=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \cdots, x_{k}\right)$ in $G-S$. Since $S_{t}=V(G), x_{i} \in S_{j} \backslash S_{j-1}$ for $i \in\{0,1, \cdots, k\}$ and $j \in\{1,2, \cdots, t\} .\left(x_{i} \notin S_{0}\right.$ for all $i$, otherwise C does not exist.) Let
$m=\min \left\{j \mid x_{i} \in S_{j} \backslash S_{j-1}, i=0,1, \cdots, k\right\}$ and $x_{l} \in S_{m} \backslash S_{m-1}$. Since $x_{l+1} \in N^{+}\left(x_{l}\right)$, $x_{l+1} \in S_{m-1}$ by (2). This contradicts the assumption that $m$ is minimum. Therefore, there is no directed cycle in $G$. We complete the proof.

Now, we are ready to deal with $\nabla\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)$. Recall that the generalized Kautz digraph $G_{K}(d, n)$ is defined as follows:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)=\{0,1,2, \cdots, n-1\} ; \\
A\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)=\{(x, y) \mid y \equiv-d x-i \quad(\bmod n), 1 \leq i \leq d\} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

By definition, for each $\alpha \in V\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)$, the set of out-neighbors of $\alpha$ in $V\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)$ is $\{-d \alpha-i(\bmod n), 1 \leq i \leq d\}$, denoted by $N^{+}(\alpha)$. Subsequently, for $S \subseteq V\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right)$, we let $N^{+}(S)=\bigcup_{v \in S} N^{+}(v)$. Then, it is easy to check $N^{+}([a, b])=\{-d b-d,-d b-$ $d+1, \cdots,-d a-1\}(\bmod n)$. For example, if $d=3$ and $n=10$, then $N^{+}(\{2\})=$ $\{-9,-8,-7\}=[1,3]$ and $N^{+}([1,4])=\{-15,-14, \cdots,-4\}=[0,9]$.

Now we consider the decycling set of $G_{K}(d, n)$ for $n \geq d \geq 2$.
Theorem 4.1.2. Let $n=(d+1) m+t$, where $0 \leq t \leq d$ and $S_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{d} A_{i}$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} & =[0, m] ; \\
A_{2} & =\left[\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor, 2 m+1\right] ; \text { and } \\
A_{i} & =\left[\left\lfloor\frac{(i-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(i-1) n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor, i m+(i-1)\right], \text { for } i=3,4, \cdots d .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $S_{0}$ is a decycling set of $G_{K}(d, n)$.

Proof. It suffices to construct a sequence satisfying the conditions in Lemma 4.1.1.
Step 1. Let $S_{1}=S_{0} \cup W_{1} \cup X_{1} \cup Y_{1}$, where $W_{1}=\left[m+1,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right], X_{1}=\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right]$ and $Y_{1}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.

It's routine to check
$N^{+}\left(W_{1}\right)=\left[n-d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor, m-(d-t)-1\right] \subseteq S_{0}$,
$N^{+}\left(X_{1}\right)=\left[0, d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{0} \cup W_{1}$ and
$N^{+}\left(Y_{1}\right)=\left[2 n-d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor-d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor, 2 n-d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{0} \cup W_{1} \cup X_{1}$.
Now, we have $S_{1}=[0,2 m+1] \cup\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=3}^{d} A_{i}$.

Step 2. Now, we add more vertices to $S_{1}$.
Let $S_{2}=S_{1} \cup W_{2} \cup X_{2} \cup Y_{2}$, where $W_{2}=\left[2 m+2,\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right], X_{2}=\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$ and $Y_{2}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor,\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.

It's easy to check
$N^{+}\left(W_{2}\right)=\left[2 n-d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor, 2 m-2(d-t)-1\right] \subseteq S_{1}$,
$N^{+}\left(X_{2}\right)=\left[d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{1} \cup W_{2}$ and
$N^{+}\left(Y_{2}\right)=\left[3 n-d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor-d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor, 3 n-d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{1} \cup W_{2} \cup X_{2}$.
After this step, $S_{2}=[0,3 m+2] \cup\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=4}^{d} A_{i}$.

Step k. For $d \geq k \geq 3$, let $S_{k}=S_{k-1} \cup W_{k} \cup X_{k} \cup Y_{k}$, where $S_{k-1}=[0, k m+(k-1)] \cup[n-$ $\left.\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right\rfloor \cup \bigcup_{i=k+1}^{d} A_{i}, W_{k}=\left\lfloor k m+k,\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right\rfloor, X_{k}=\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$ and $Y_{k}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor,\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.
We can check that $N^{+}\left(W_{k}\right)=\left[k n-d\left[\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor, k m-k(d-t)-1\right] \subseteq$ $N^{+}\left(X_{k}\right)=\left[d\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{k-1} \cup W_{k}$ and $N^{+}\left(Y_{k}\right)=\left[(k+1) n-d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor-d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor,(k+1) n \omega_{0}^{d}\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{k-1} \cup W_{k} \cup X_{k}$. $S_{k}=[0,(k+1) m+k] \cup\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=k+2}^{d} A_{i}$.
This concludes the proof.

Corollary 4.1.3. Let $d \geq 2$ and $n \equiv t(\bmod d+1)$. Then $\nabla\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right) \leq\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{d-1}{2 d^{2}}\right) n+$ $\frac{d}{2}(d-t+5)-2$.

Proof. Let $n=(d+1) m+t$. Then by Theorem 4.1.2,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right) & \leq \sum_{i=1}^{d}\left|A_{i}\right| \\
& =(m+1)+\left[(2 m+1)-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right]+\cdots \\
& +\left[(k m+(k-1))-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right]+\cdots \\
& +\left[(d m+(d-1))-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By the facts, $\frac{k n}{d}-1 \leq\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor \leq \frac{k n}{d}$ and $\frac{k n}{d^{3}}-1 \leq\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{3}}\right\rfloor \leq \frac{k n}{d^{3}}$, we conclude that $\nabla\left(G_{K}(d, n)\right) \leq$ $\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{d-1}{2 d^{2}}\right) n+\frac{d}{2}(d-t+5)-2$.

When $d$ is smaller we can get a better bound by refining the decycling set.
Theorem 4.1.4. Let $n=36 m+t$, where $0 \leq t \leq 35$ and $S_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{3} A_{i}$ where

Then $S_{0}$ is a decycling set of $G_{K}(2, n)$.


Proof. It suffices to construct a sequence satisfying the conditions in Lemma 4.1.1.
(1) Let $S_{1}=W_{1} \cup S_{0}$, where $W_{1}=[0,4 m-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{1}\right)=[28 m+t, n-1] \subseteq S_{0}$.
Now, we have $S_{1}=[0,4 m-1] \cup A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.
(2) Let $S_{2}=W_{2} \cup S_{1}$, where $W_{2}=[16 m+t, 22 m-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{2}\right)=[28 m+2 t, n-1] \cup[0,4 m-t-1] \subseteq S_{1}$.
Now, $S_{2}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[16 m+t, 22 m-1] \cup A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.
(3) Let $S_{3}=W_{3} \cup S_{2}$, where $W_{3}=[7 m+t, 10 m-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{3}\right)=[16 m+t, 22 m-t-1] \subseteq S_{2}$.
Therefore, $S_{3}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[7 m+t, 10 m-1] \cup[16 m+t, 22 m-1] \cup A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.
(4) Let $S_{4}=W_{4} \cup S_{3}$, where $W_{4}=[25 m+t, 28 m-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{4}\right)=[16 m+2 t, 22 m-1] \subseteq S_{3}$.
Hence, $S_{4}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[7 m+t, 10 m-1] \cup[16 m+t, 22 m-1] \cup[25 m+t, n-1] \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.
(5) Let $k=\left\lceil\log _{2} m\right\rceil$, then $k \geq \log _{2} m, 2^{k} \geq m$ and let $S_{5}=S_{5 k} \cup\{24 m-1\} \cup\{24 m+t\}$, where $S_{5 k}$ is defined as follows.
(5-1) Let $S_{51}=S_{4} \cup L_{51} \cup R_{51}$, where $L_{51}=\left[22 m, 24 m-2^{k-1}-1\right]$ and $R_{51}=$ $\left[24 m+2^{k-1}+t, 25 m+t-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(L_{51}\right)=\left[24 m+2^{k}+2 t, 28 m+2 t-1\right] \subseteq S_{4}$, since $24 m+2^{k}+2 t \geq 25 m+t$.
$N^{+}\left(R_{51}\right)=\left[22 m, 24 m-2^{k}-1\right] \subseteq S_{4} \cup L_{51}$.
$S_{51}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[7 m+t, 10 m-1] \cup\left[16 m+t, 24 m-2^{k-2}-1\right] \cup\left[24 m+2^{k-1}+\right.$ $t, n-1] \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.
(5-2) Let $S_{52}=S_{51} \cup L_{52} \cup R_{52}$, where $L_{52}=\left[24 m-2^{k-1}, 24 m-2^{k-2}-1\right]$ and $R_{52}=\left[24 m+2^{k-2}+t, 24 m+2^{k-1}+t-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(L_{52}\right)=\left[24 m+2^{k-1}+2 t, 24 m+2^{k}+2 t-1\right] \subseteq S_{51}$ and
$N^{+}\left(R_{52}\right)=\left[24 m-2^{k}, 24 m-2^{k-1}-1\right] \subseteq S_{51} \cup L_{52}$.
$S_{52}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[7 m+t, 10 m-1] \cup\left[16 m+t, 24 m-2^{k-2}-1\right] \cup\left[24 m+2^{k-2}+\right.$ $t, n-1] \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3}$.

Continuing in this way, we have $S_{5(i+1)}=S_{5 i} \cup L_{5(i+1)} \cup R_{5(i+1)}$ where $L_{5(i+1)}=$ $\left[24 m-2^{k-i}, 24 m-2^{k-i-1}-1\right], R_{5(i+1)}=\left[24 m+2^{k-i-1}+t, 24 m+2^{k-i}+t-1\right]$ for $i=2,3, \cdots, k-1$, and $N^{+}\left(L_{5(i+1)}\right) \subseteq S_{5 i}, N^{+}\left(R_{5(i+1)}\right) \subseteq S_{5 i} \cup L_{5(i+1)}$. Since $N^{+}(\{24 m-1\}) \subseteq S_{5 k}$ and $N^{+}(\{24 m+t\}) \subseteq S_{5 k} \cup\{24 m-1\}$.

We have $S_{5}=[0,4 m-1] \cup[7 m+t, 10 m-1] \cup[16 m+t, n-1] \cup A_{3}$.
(6) Let $S_{6}=W_{6} \cup S_{5}$, where $W_{6}=[4 m, 7 m+t-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{6}\right)=[22 m-t, 28 m+t-1] \subseteq S_{5}$.
Hence, $S_{6}=[0,10 m-1] \cup[16 m+t, n-1] \cup A_{3}$.
(7) Let $S_{7}=W_{7} \cup S_{6}$, where $W_{7}=[13 m+t, 16 m+t-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{7}\right)=[4 m-t, 10 m-t-1] \subseteq S_{6}$.
Hence, $S_{7}=[0,10 m-1] \cup[13 m+t, n-1] \cup A_{3}$.
(8) Let $k=\log _{2} m$ and $S_{8}=S_{8(k+1)}$, where $S_{8(k+1)}$ is defined as follows.
(8-1) Let $S_{81}=S_{7} \cup L_{81} \cup R_{81}$, where $L_{81}=\left[10 m, 12 m-2^{k}-1\right]$ and $R_{81}=$ $\left[12 m+2^{k}+t, 13 m+t-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(L_{81}\right)=\left[12 m+2^{k+1}+t, 16 m+t-1\right] \subseteq S_{7}$, since $12 m+2^{k+1}+t \geq 13 m+t$.
$N^{+}\left(R_{81}\right)=\left[10 m-t, 12 m-2^{k+1}-t-1\right] \subseteq S_{7} \cup L_{81}$.
Now, $S_{81}=\left[0,12 m-2^{k}-1\right] \cup\left[12 m+2^{k}+t, n-1\right] \cup A_{3}$.
(8-2) Let $S_{82}=S_{81} \cup L_{82} \cup R_{82}$, where $L_{82}=\left[12 m-2^{k}, 12 m-2^{k-1}-1\right]$ and $R_{82}=\left[12 m+2^{k}-1+t, \overline{12 m}+2^{k}+t-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(L_{82}\right)=\left[12 m+2^{k}+t, 12 m+2^{k+1}+t-1\right] \subseteq S_{81}$ and
$N^{+}\left(R_{82}\right)=\left[12 m-2^{k+1}-t, 12 m-2^{k}-t-1\right] \subseteq S_{81} \cup L_{82}$.
Consequently, $S_{82}=\left[0,12 m-2^{k-1}-1\right] \cup\left[12 m+2^{k-1}+t, n-1\right] \cup A_{3}$.
Continuing in this way, we have $S_{8(i+1)}=S_{8 i} \cup L_{8(i+1)} \cup R_{8(i+1)}$ where $L_{8(i+1)}=$ $\left[12 m-2^{k-i+1}, 12 m-2^{k-i}-1\right], R_{8(i+1)}=\left[12 m+2^{k-i}+t, 12 m+2^{k-i+1}+t-1\right]$ for $i=2,3, \cdots, k-1$, and $N^{+}\left(L_{8(i+1)}\right) \subseteq S_{8 i}, N^{+}\left(R_{8(i+1)}\right) \subseteq S_{8 i} \cup L_{8(i+1)}$.

Finally, we have $S_{8}=[0, n-1]$. This completes the proof.

Corollary 4.1.5. For $n \geq 2$ and $n \equiv t(\bmod 36), \nabla\left(G_{K}(2, n)\right) \leq \frac{2}{9} n+3 t+1$.
Proof. Let $n=36 m+t$. Then by Theorem 4.1.4

$$
\nabla\left(G_{K}(2, n)\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{3}\left|A_{i}\right|=8 m+3 t+1 \leq \frac{2}{9} n+3 t+1
$$

Theorem 4.1.6. Let $n=36 m+t$, where $0 \leq t \leq 35$ and $S_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{4} A_{i}$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} & =[0,6 m+t] ; \\
A_{2} & =\left[12 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{3}\right\rceil, 18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil\right] ; \\
A_{3} & =\left[9 m-1,9 m+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor\right] ; \text { and } \\
A_{4} & =\left[27 m, 27 m+\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $S_{0}$ is a decycling set of $G_{K}(3, n)$.

Proof. It suffices to construct a sequence satisfying the conditions in Lemma 4.1.1.
(1) Let $S_{1}=W_{1} \cup S_{0}$, where $W_{1}=\left[10 m, 12 m+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor \_-1\right]$. $N^{+}\left(W_{1}\right)=\left[t-3\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor, 6 m+t-1\right] \subseteq S_{0}$.

Now, we have $S_{1} \Leftarrow A_{1} \cup\left[10 m, 18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right]\right] \cup A_{3} \cup A_{4}$.
(2) Let $S_{2}=W_{2} \cup S_{1}$, where $W_{2}=[6 m+t+1,8 m-1]$. $N^{+}\left(W_{2}\right)=[12 m+t, 18 m-2 t-4] \subseteq S_{1}$.

Now, $S_{2}=[0,8 m-1] \cup\left[10 m, 18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right]\right] \circlearrowright A_{3} \cup A_{4}$.
(3) Let $k=\left\lceil\log _{3} m+t\right\rceil$ and $S_{3}=S_{3(k-1)}$, where $S_{3(k-1)}$ is defined as follows.
(3-0) Let $S_{30}=S_{2} \cup R_{30} \cup L_{30}$, where $R_{30}=\left[9 m+\left\lfloor\frac{m}{3}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,10 m-1\right]$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.L_{30}=\left[8 m, 8 m+\left\lfloor\frac{2 m}{3}\right\rfloor-1\right]\right] . \\
& N^{+}\left(R_{30}\right)=\left[6 m+t, 9 m-3\left\lfloor\frac{m}{3}\right\rfloor+t-\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor-4\right] \subseteq S_{2} . \\
& N^{+}\left(L_{30}\right)=\left[12 m-3\left\lfloor\frac{2 m}{3}\right\rfloor+t, 12 m+t-1\right] \subseteq S_{2} \cup R_{30} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { Hence, } S_{30}=\left[0,8 m+\left\lfloor\frac{2 m}{3}\right\rfloor-1\right] \cup\left[9 m+\left\lfloor\frac{m}{3}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil\right] \cup A_{3} \cup A_{4} \text {. }
$$

(3-1) Let $S_{31}=S_{30} \cup R_{31} \cup L_{31}$, where $R_{31}=\left[9 m+3^{k-2}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,9 m+3^{k-1}\right]$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L_{31}=\left[9 m-3^{k-1}-1,9 m-3^{k-2}-1\right] . \\
& N^{+}\left(R_{31}\right)=\left[9 m-3^{k}+t-3,9 m-3^{k-1}+t-3\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor-4\right] \subseteq S_{30} . \\
& N^{+}\left(L_{31}\right)=\left[9 m+3^{k-1}+t, 9 m+3^{k}+t+2\right] \subseteq S_{30} \cup R_{31} . \\
& S_{31}=\left[0,9 m-3^{k-2}-1\right] \cup\left[9 m+3^{k-2}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil\right] \cup A_{3} \cup A_{4} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(3-2) Let $S_{32}=S_{31} \cup R_{32} \cup L_{32}$, where $R_{32}=\left[9 m+3^{k-3}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,9 m+3^{k-2}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor\right\rfloor$ and $L_{32}=\left[9 m-3^{k-2}, 9 m-3^{k-3}-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(R_{32}\right)=\left[9 m-3^{k-1}+t-3\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor-3,9 m-3^{k-2}+t-3\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor-4\right] \subseteq S_{31}$ and
$N^{+}\left(L_{32}\right)=\left[9 m+3^{k-2}+t, 9 m+3^{k-1}+t-1\right] \subseteq S_{31} \cup R_{32}$.
Then, $S_{32}=\left[0,9 m-3^{k-3}-1\right] \cup\left[9 m+3^{k-3}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil\right] \cup A_{3} \cup A_{4}$.
Continuing in this way, we have $S_{3 i}=S_{3(i-1)} \cup R_{3 i} \cup L_{3 i}$ where $R_{3 i}=\left[9 m+3^{k-i-1}+\right.$
$\left.\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor+1,9 m+3^{k-i}+\left\lfloor\frac{t}{3}\right\rfloor\right], L_{3 i}=\left[9 m-3^{k-i}, 9 m-3^{k-i-1}-1\right\rfloor$ for $i=3, \cdots, k-1$ and $N^{+}\left(R_{3 i}\right) \subseteq S_{3(i-1)}, N^{+}\left(L_{3 i}\right) \subseteq S_{3(i-1)} \cup R_{3 i}$.

Now, we have $S_{3}=\left[0,18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil\right] \cup A_{4}$.
(4) Let $S_{4}=W_{4} \cup S_{3}$, where $W_{4}=\left[18 m+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil+1,20 m\right\rceil$. $N^{+}\left(W_{4}\right)=\left[12 m+2 t-3,18 m+2 t-3\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil-4\right] \subseteq S_{3}$. Hence, $S_{4}=[0,20 m] \cup A_{4}$.
(5) Let $S_{5}=W_{5} \cup \bar{S}_{4}$, where $W_{5}=\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor, n-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{5}\right)=\left[0,3\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{4}$.
Hence, $S_{5}=[0,20 m] \cup A_{4} \cup\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor, n-1\right]$.
(6) Let $S_{6}=W_{6} \cup S_{5}$, where $W_{6}=[20 m+1,26 m-1]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{6}\right)=[30 m+3 t, n-1] \cup[0,12 m+2 t-4] \subseteq S_{5}$.
Hence, $S_{6}=[0,26 m-1] \cup A_{4} \cup\left[n-\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor, n-1\right]$.
(7) Let $S_{7}=W_{7} \cup S_{6}$, where $W_{7}=\left[28 m+t, n-\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{7}\right)=\left[3\left\lfloor\frac{20 m}{3}\right\rfloor, 24 m-1\right] \subseteq S_{6}$.
Hence, $S_{7}=[0,26 m-1] \cup A_{4} \cup[28 m+t, n-1]$.
(8) Let $k=\left\lceil\log _{3} m+t\right\rceil$ and $S_{8}=S_{8(k+1)} \cup\{27 m-1\}$, where $S_{8(k+1)}$ is defined as follows.

Let $S_{81}=S_{7} \cup R_{81} \cup L_{81}$, where $R_{81}=\left[27 m+3^{k}+t, 27 m+3^{k+1}\right]$ and $L_{81}=$ $\left[27 m-3^{k+1}-1,27 m-3^{k}-1\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(R_{81}\right)=\left[27 m-3^{k+2}+3 t-3,27 m-3^{k+1}-1\right] \subseteq S_{7}$, since $27 m-3^{k+1}-1 \leq$ $26 m-1$.
$N^{+}\left(L_{81}\right)=\left[27 m+3^{k+1}+3 t, 27 m+3^{k+2}+3 t+2\right] \subseteq S_{7} \cup R_{81}$.
Now, $S_{81}=\left[0,27 m-3^{k}-1\right] \cup\left[27 m+3^{k}+t, n-1\right] \cup A_{4}$.
Continuing in this way, we have $S_{8 i}=S_{8(i-1)} \cup R_{8 i} \cup L_{8 i}$ where $R_{8 i}=[27 m+$ $\left.3^{k+1-i}+t, 27 m+3^{k+2-i}+t-1\right], L_{8 i}=\left[27 m-3^{k+2-i}-1,27 m-3^{k+1-i}-1\right]$ for $i=2,3, \cdots, k+1$, and $N^{+}\left(R_{8 i}\right) \subseteq S_{8(i-1)}, N^{+}\left(L_{8 i}\right) \subseteq S_{8(i-1)} \cup R_{8 i}$. It's easy to check $N^{+}(\{27 m-1\})=[27 m+3 t, 27 m+3 t+2] \subseteq S_{8(k+1)}$. We have $S_{8}=\left[0,27 m+\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor\right] \cup[27 m+t+1, n-1]$.
(9) Let $S_{9}=W_{9} \cup S_{8}$, where $W_{9}=\left[27 m+\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor+1,27 m+t\right]$.
$N^{+}\left(W_{9}\right)=\left[27 m-3,27 m+3 t-3\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor-4\right] \subseteq S_{8}$.
Now, $S_{9}=V\left(G_{K}(3, n)\right)$. This concludes the proof.

Corollary 4.1.7. For $n \geq 2$ and $n=t(\bmod 36), S\left(G_{K}(3, n)\right) \leq \frac{n}{3}+\frac{9}{4} t+6$.
Proof. Let $n=36 m+t$. Then by Theorem 4.1.6,


$$
\nabla\left(G_{K}(3, n)\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{4}\left|A_{i}\right|=12 m+t+\left\lceil\frac{t}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lfloor\frac{3 t}{4}\right\rfloor+5 \leq 12 m+\frac{9}{4} t+6 \leq \frac{n}{3}+\frac{9}{4} t+6
$$

### 4.2 Generalized de Bruijn Digraphs

In this section, we give an upper bound that improves the best known result. Recall that the the generalized de Bruijn digraph $G_{B}(d, n)$ is defined by congruence equations as follows: $V\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)=\{0,1,2, \cdots, n-1\}$ and $A\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)=\{(x, y) \mid y \equiv d x+i$ $(\bmod n), 0 \leq i<d\}$. By definition, for each $\alpha \in V\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)$, the set of out-neighbors of $\alpha$ in $V\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right)$ is $\{d \alpha+i(\bmod n), 0 \leq i<d\}$ denoted by $N^{+}(\alpha)$. That is easy to check
$N^{+}([a, b])=\{d a, d a+1 \cdots, d b+(d-1)\}(\bmod n)$. For example, if $d=3$ and $n=10$, then $N^{+}(\{2\})=\{6,7,8\}=[6,8]$ and $N^{+}([1,3])=\{3,4, \cdots, 11\}=[0,1] \cup[3,9]$.

Now we consider the decycling set of $G_{B}(d, n)$ for $n \geq d \geq 2$.

Theorem 4.2.1. For $n \geq d \geq 2$ and $S_{0}=\bigcup_{i=1}^{d} A_{i}$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A_{1}=\left[0,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor\right] ; \\
& A_{i}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{(i-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(i-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor,\left\lfloor\frac{\text { in }}{d}\right\rfloor\right], \text { for } i=2,3, \cdots d-1 ; \text { and } \\
& A_{d}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor, n-1\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $S_{0}$ is a decycling set of $G_{B}(d, n)$. $\quad$ I/

Proof. It suffices to construct a sequence satisfying the conditions in Lemma 4.1.1.
Step 1. Let $S_{1}=S_{0} \cup W_{1}$, where $W_{1}=\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+1,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.
It is routine to check $N^{+}\left[W_{1}\right]=\left[d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+d, d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+d\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{0}$.
Now, we have $S_{1}=\left[0,\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=3}^{d} A_{i}$

Step 2. Find $S_{2}$.

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Let $S_{2}=S_{1} \cup W_{2}$, where $W_{2}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor+1,\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.
It's easy to check $N^{+}\left(W_{2}\right)=\left[d\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor+d, d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor+d\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{1}\right.$.
After this step, $S_{2}=\left[0,\left\lfloor\frac{3 n}{d}\right\rfloor\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=4}^{d} A_{i}$.
Step k. For $d \geq k \geq 3$, let $S_{k}=S_{k-1} \cup W_{k}$, where $S_{k-1}=\left[0,\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=k+1}^{d} A_{i}$ and $W_{k}=\left[\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor+1,\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right]$.

We can check $N^{+}\left(W_{k}\right)=\left[d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor+d, d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor+d\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor-1\right] \subseteq S_{k-1}$.
$S_{k}=\left[0,\left\lfloor\frac{k+1}{n}\right\rfloor\right] \cup \bigcup_{i=k+2}^{d} A_{i}$.
This concludes the proof.

Proposition 4.2.2. For $G_{B}(d, n), d \geq 2$, we have $\nabla\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right) \leq\left(\frac{d+1}{2 d}\right) n+2(d-1)$.

Proof. By Theorem 4.2.1,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{d}\left|A_{i}\right|= & \left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+1\right)+\left[\left\lfloor\frac{2 n}{d}\right\rfloor-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right]+\cdots \\
& +\left[\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d}\right\rfloor-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(k-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right]+\cdots \\
& \left.+[(n-1))-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d}\right\rfloor+\left\lfloor\frac{(d-1) n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor\right)+1\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

By the facts that $\frac{k n}{d^{2}}-1 \leq\left\lfloor\frac{k n}{d^{2}}\right\rfloor \leq \frac{k n}{d^{2}}$, we conclude that $\nabla\left(G_{B}(d, n)\right) \leq\left(\frac{d+1}{2 d}\right) n+2(d-1)$.
By considering the order of $n$ with respect to $d$, the upper bound we obtained asymptotically approaches $\frac{d+1}{2 d} n$, which is better (smaller) than $\frac{2 d-3}{2 d+3} n$ for $d \geq 6$ obtained by Xu et al. [42].


## Chapter 5

## Conclusion and Remarks

The problem of finding the decycling number has been extensively studied and has been proved to be NP-complete for general graphs, eyen for elementary graphs. In this thesis, we provide the following results.

First, we provide a necessary and sufficient condition for an outerplanar graphs been upper-extremal, and given a sufficient condition for an outerplanar graph been lowerextremal. We find a class $\mathcal{S}$ of outerplanar graphs none of which is lower-extremal and show that if $G$ has no subdivision of $S$ for all $S \in \mathcal{S}$, then $G$ is lower-extremal.

Second, we improve both the lower and upper bounds of $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)$ for several classes of $(m, n)$ such that for more $(m, n)$ the decycling number of $P_{m} \square P_{n}$ matches the lower bound and for all others it differs from the known lower bound by at most 1 .

Finally, we give a systematic approach of finding a decycling set in a digraph. We give the bound generalized Kautz digraphs. And improve the best known bound of generalized be Bruijn digraphs.

Continuing our work in this thesis, we shall focus on the followings.

Problem 1. For every planar graph $G$, prove that $\nabla(G) \leq 2 \nu(G)$ (Conjecture 2.2.2).

Problem 2. Determine the $\nabla\left(P_{m} \square P_{n}\right)$ for unsettled $(m, n)$.

Problem 3. For a directed graph $G$, find the general lower bound of $\nabla(G)$.

In this thesis, we only consider the decycling number of graphs on unweighted ver-
sion. The weighted version is looking for a minimum-weight set of vertices so that the remaining graph is acyclic. The problem is known to be NP-complete [20]. In contrast, the problem of finding a minimum-weight set of edges containing at least one edge of any cycle is equivalent to finding a maximum spanning tree, which has been shown solvable in polynomial time. These two problems motivate us to consider a new version of decycling set, namely total decycling set of graphs .

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph, $w: V(G) \cup E(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{+} \cup\{\infty\}$ be a weight function on $V(G) \cup E(G)$. The total decycling set $S$ of $G$ is a subset of $V \cup E$ such that $G-S$ is acyclic. The weight of total decycling set is $\sum_{x \in V \cup E} w(x)$ and a minimum total decycling set of a weighted graph is a total decyeling set of $G$ of minimum weight. The minimum weight of a total decycling set of $G$ is the total decycling number of $G$, denoted by $\nabla_{T}(G)$.

Problem 4. Determine $\nabla_{T}(G)$ for any weighted graph $G$.

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