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碩士論文



The Edge-Required-Hamiltonicity of the Cubic 3-Connected Hamiltonian Graphs

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三正則及連通圖中漢米爾頓性質之連線需求數目的研究 The Edge-Required-Hamiltonicity of the Cubic 3-Connected Hamiltonian Graphs

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三正則及連通圖中漢米爾頓性質之連線需求數目的研究

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給一個圖G = (V, E)以及邊集合 $R \subseteq E$,其中R的邊為獨立路徑。如果一個圖G包含 漢米爾頓迴路以及含有任何的需求邊 $R \perp /R / \le k$,則圖G稱為k-漢米爾頓需求邊。 我們定義圖G的漢米爾頓需求邊Lk為最大時,稱為 $h_r(G)$ 。如果一個圖G-F包含 漢米爾頓但不包含壞邊 $F \perp /F / \le k$,則圖G稱為k-漢米爾頓容錯邊。我們定義圖G的漢米爾頓容錯邊Lk為最大時,稱為 $h_f(G)$ 。在這篇論文中,我們要證明如果圖 G為三正則漢米爾頓圖,則 $h_f(G) \le 1$ 。如果圖G為三正則漢米爾頓圖 $Lh_f(G) = 1$, 則 $1 \le h_r(G) \le 3$ 。我們將介紹一些 $h_f(G) = 1$ $Lh_r(G) = i$ 其中i = 1, 2, 3 的 3-連通漢 米爾圖G,以及一些 $h_f(G) = 0$ $Lh_r(G) = 1$ 的 3-連通漢米爾圖G。

關鍵字:漢米爾頓、漢米爾頓連結。

The Edge-Required-Hamiltonicity of the Cubic 3-Connected Hamiltonian Graphs

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Given a graph G = (V,E) and edge set $R \subseteq E$, where the edges of R form independent paths. A graph G is k-edge-required-hamiltonian if it contains a hamiltonian cycle including any R whenever $|R| \leq k$. We define edge-required hamiltonicity of G, denoted by $h_r(G)$, to be the maximum of such k. A graph G is k-edge-fault-tolerant-hamiltonian if G - F is hamiltonian for any faulty edge set Fwith $|F| \leq k$. We define edge-fault-tolerant hamiltonicity of G, denoted by $h_f(G)$, to be the maximum of such k. In this thesis, we prove that $h_f(G) \leq 1$ if G is a cubic hamiltonian graph, $1 \leq h_r(G) \leq 3$ if G is a cubic hamiltonian graph with $h_f(G) = 1$. We present some cubic 3-connected hamiltonian graph G with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 0$, and a cubic 3-connected hamiltonian graph G with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 1$.

Keywords : hamiltonian, hamiltonian connected.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

For the graph definition and notation we follow [2]. G = (V, E) is a graph if V is a finite set and E is a subset of $\{(u, v) \mid (u, v) \text{ is an unordered pair of } V\}$. We say that V is the vertex set and E is the edge set. Two vertices u and v are adjacent if $(u, v) \in E$, vertex u(or v) is said to be incident with edge (v, v), u and v are called the ends of edge (u, v). Suppose that V' is a subset of V. The subgraph of G whose vertex set is V - V' and whose edge set is the set of those edges of G that have both ends in V - V' is called the subgraph of G induced by V - V' and is denoted by G - V'. Suppose that E' is a subset of E. The subgraph of G whose vertex set is the set of ends of edges in E - E' and whose edge set is E - E' is called the subgraph of G induced by E - E' and is denoted by G - E'. For any vertex $u \in V$, the neighborhood N(u) of u is the set $\{v \mid (u, v) \in E\}$, and is called the neighborhood of u. For any vertex $x \in V$, $deg_G(x)$ denotes its degree in G. A graph G is cubic if $deg_G(x) = 3$ for any vertex x in G. A graph G is 3-connected if G - V' is still connected for every vertex set $V' \subseteq V$ and $|V'| \leq 2$. A path P in G is represented by $\langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle$, a sequence of distinct vertices of G, where every (v_i, v_{i+1}) belongs to E for $0 \leq i \leq k - 1$. We can write path $P = \langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle$ as $\langle v_0, \dots, v_i, P', v_j, \dots, v_k \rangle$ or $\langle v_0, \dots, v_i \rangle \cup P' \cup \langle v_j, \dots, v_k \rangle$, where $P' = \langle v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_j \rangle$ is a subpath of P. A cycle is nearly a path of length at least three with a difference that the first and the last vertices of this sequence are the same. A hamiltonian cycle of G is a cycle that traverses every vertex of G exactly once and a graph is hamiltonian if it contains a hamiltonian cycle. A path of G is hamiltonian path if its vertices span V(G), i.e., the path runs through all vertices once.

When searching a hamiltonian cycle (or path), we may ask the cycle to traverse several predetermined edges. These predetermined edges are called *required edges*. The idea of searching such kind of hamiltonian cycle is the motivation of this article. Proposed by William Hamilton, the original hamiltonian problem is a puzzle on the graph of the dodecahedron in which a path of length four is specified and the player is asked to extend the given path to a spanning cycle. This classical game can be treated as a special case of searching a hamiltonian cycle including required edges. Let us denote R the set of required edges and it must be *reasonable* to avoid creating any short cycle or *branch point* (a vertex of degree ≥ 3). In other words, a reasonable R is an edge set of independent paths.

A graph G is k-edge-required-hamiltonian if it contains a hamiltonian cycle including any reasonable R whenever $|R| \leq k$. We define edge-required hamiltonicity of G, denoted by $h_r(G)$, to be the maximum of such k. Those graphs G with $h_r(G) \geq 1$ is also known as edge-hamiltonian graphs [14]. Most of the previous studies of the edge-required hamiltonicity were concentrated on sufficient conditions [5, 7]. Recently, it is proved that $h_r(Q_n) = 2n - 3$ where Q_n is the n-dimensional hypercube with $n \geq 3$. A dual concept to "required edges" is "faulty edges". Fault-tolerance is one of the most important properties for computer or network structures. A graph G is k-edgefault-tolerant-hamiltonian if G - F is hamiltonian for any faulty edge set F with $|F| \leq k$. Similarly, the edge-fault-tolerant hamiltonicity of G, denoted by $h_f(G)$, is defined to be the maximum of such k. There are some studies on edge-fault-tolerant hamiltonicity [15]. In particular, it is proved that $h_f(Q_n) = n - 2$ [3, 10].

We believe that the first step on studying edge-required-hamiltonicity is working on the family of cubic hamiltonian graphs. To exclude trivial cases, we further restricted our attention on cubic 3-connected hamiltonian graphs. In the following, we use Ω to denote the set of cubic 3-connected hamiltonian graphs.

In the following section, we will proved that $h_f(G) \leq 1$ and $h_r(G) \leq 3$ if G is in Ω . Moreover, $1 \leq h_r(G)$ if G is in Ω and $h_f(G) = 1$. Furthermore, $h_f(G) = 1$ if G is in Ω and $h_r(G) \geq 2$. Thus, we would like to know the existence of graph in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$ and $h_r(G) = i$ for i = 1, 2, 3. For this reason, we give examples of graphs in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$ and $h_r(G) = i$ for i = 1, 2, 3 in sections 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3. Again, we are interested in the existence of graphs in Ω with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 0$. An example is given in section 3.4. Finally, we are interested in the existence of graphs in Ω with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 1$. An example is given in section 3.5.

Chapter 2

Preliminaries

Lemma 1 $h_f(G) \leq 1$ and $h_r(G) \leq 3$ if G is a graph in Ω .

Proof. Suppose that G = (V, E) is a graph in Ω . Let x be any vertex in G and $N_G(x) = \{u, v, w\}$. We set $F = \{(x, u), (x, v)\}$. Obviously, $deg_{G-F}(x) = 1$. Hence, there is no hamiltonian cycle in G - F. Therefore, $h_f(G) \leq 1$.

Let $N_G(x) = \{u, v, w\}$, $N_G(u) = \{x, u_1, u_2\}$ and $N_G(v) = \{x, v_1, v_2\}$. We set the required edge set $R = \{(u, u_1), (u, u_2), (v, v_1), (v, v_2)\}$. Thus, (x, u) and (x, v) is not on any hamiltonian cycle including the set R. Obviously, $deg_{G-\{(x,u),(x,v)\}}(x) = 1$. Hence, there is no hamiltonian cycle in $G - \{(x, u), (x, v)\}$. Therefore, $h_r(G) \leq 3$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma 2 $h_r(G) \ge 1$ if G is a graph in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$.

Proof. Suppose that G = (V, E) is a graph in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$. Let (x, u) be any edge of G and $N_G(x) = \{u, v, w\}$. We set that $F = \{(x, v)\}$ be the faulty edge set. Since

 $h_f(G) = 1$, there exists a hamiltonian cycle C in G - F. Obviously, $deg_{G-F}(x) = 2$. Thus, (x, u) is in C. Therefore, $h_r(G) \ge 1$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma 3 $h_f(G) = 1$ if G is a graph in Ω with $h_r(G) \ge 2$.

Proof. Suppose that G = (V, E) is a graph in Ω and $h_r(G) \ge 2$. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(G) \le 1$. Now, we want to show that $h_f(G) \ne 0$. Let (x, u) be any edge of Gand $N_G(x) = \{u, v, w\}$. We set a required edge set $R = \{(x, v), (x, w)\}$. Since $h_r(G) \ge 2$, there exists a hamiltonian cycle C including the edge set R. Obviously, $(x, u) \notin C$. Hence, $h_f(G) = 1$.

The lemma is proved.



Let G and K_4 be two graphs in Ω with $V(G) \cap V(K_4) = \emptyset$ where K_4 is a complete graph with four nodes. Note that K_4 is node symmetric. Let $x \in V(G)$ and $k \in V(K_4)$. Let $N(x) = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ be an ordered set of the neighbors of x and $N(k) = \{k_1, k_2, k_3\}$ be the neighbors of k. The 3-join of G and K_4 at x and k, denoted by J(G, x), is the graph with $V(J(G, x)) = (V(G) - \{x\}) \cup (V(K_4) - \{k\})$ and $E(J(G, x)) = (E(G) - \{(x, x_i) \mid 1 \le i \le 3\}) \cup (E(K_4) - \{(k, k_i) \mid 1 \le i \le 3\}) \cup \{(x_i, k_i) \mid 1 \le i \le 3\}$. A graph H is called a 3-join of G and K_4 if H = J(G, x) for some vertices $x \in V(G)$. It is easy to know that J(G, x) is in Ω if G is in Ω . See Figure 2.1 for an illustration.

Lemma 4 $h_f(J(G, x)) = h_f(G)$ if G is a graph in Ω .



Figure 2.1: The graphs (a) G, (b) K_4 , and (c) J(G, x)

Proof. Let G is a graph in Ω . Let $x \in V(G)$ and $k \in V(K_4)$. Assume that the neighbors of node x in G are $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$, the neighbors of node k in K_4 are $\{k_1, k_2, k_3\}$. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(G) \leq 1$ and $h_f(J(G, x)) \leq 1$.

Suppose that $h_f(G) = 1$. We can find a hamiltonian cycle in G - F for any faulty edge set F with |F| = 1. Now, we want to show that for any faulty edge set F' with |F'| = 1, we can find a hamiltonian cycle C' in J(G, x) - F'.

Case 1. $F' = \{(x_1, k_1)\}, \{(x_2, k_2)\}, \text{ or } \{(x_3, k_3)\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $F' = \{(x_3, k_3)\}$. Since $h_f(G) = 1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $G - \{(x, x_3)\}$ where P and Q be two paths of G. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $J(G, x) - \{(x_3, k_3)\}$.

Case 2. $F' = \{(k_1, k_2)\}, \{(k_1, k_3)\}, \text{ or } \{(k_2, k_3)\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $F' = \{(k_1, k_2)\}$. Since $h_f(G) = 1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $G - \{(x, x_3)\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $J(G, x) - \{(k_1, k_2)\}$.

Case 3. $F' = (u, v) \subseteq E(G) - \{(x_i, k_i) \mid 1 \le i \le 3\} - \{(k_1, k_2), (k_1, k_3), (k_2, k_3)\}$. Since $h_f(G) = 1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $G - \{(u, v)\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $J(G, x) - \{(k_1, k_2)\}$.

Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle in J(G, x) - F' with |F'| = 1. Therefore, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 1$ when $h_f(G) = 1$.

Suppose that $h_f(G) = 0$. Hence, there are not any hamiltonian cycle in G - e for some edge e.

Case 1. $e = \{(x, x_1)\}, \{(x, x_2)\}, \text{ or } \{(x, x_3)\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $e = \{(x, x_3)\}$. Assume that $h_f(J(G, x)) = 1$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in $J(G, x) = \{(k_1, k_2)\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in G - e. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 0$. **Case 2.** $e \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$. Assume that $h_f(J(G, x)) = 1$, then

Case 2. $e \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$. Assume that $h_f(J(G, x)) = 1$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in J(G, x) - e. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ in G - e. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 0$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma 5 $h_r(J(G, x)) = \min\{2, h_r(G)\}$ if G is a graph in Ω .

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_r(G) \leq 3$. We have the following cases.

Case 1. $h_r(G) = 0$. Let $R \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$ be the required edge set of

J(G, x) with |R| = 1. Assume that $h_r(J(G, x)) = 1$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ including R in J(G, x). Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ including R in G. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 0$.

Case 2. $h_r(G) = 1$. Let $R \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$ be the required edge set of J(G, x) with |R| = 2. Assume that $h_r(J(G, x)) = 2$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ including R in J(G, x). Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ including R in G. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 1$.

Case 3. $h_r(G) = 2$. We have the following subcases:

Case 3.1. $R = \{(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2)\} \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$. We can find a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set R in G. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\langle x_1, x, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ be the hamiltonian cycle in G. And we assume that $\langle k_1, k, k_2, k_3 \rangle$ be the hamiltonian cycle in k_4 . Obviously, $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set R in J(G, x). Hence, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 2$.

Case 3.2. $R = \{(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2)\} \in \{(x_1, k_1), (x_2, k_2), (x_3, k_3), (k_1, k_2), (k_2, k_3), (k_1, k_4)\}.$ Without loss of generality, we may assume that $R = \{(x_1, k_1), (x_2, k_2)\}$ or $\{(k_1, k_3), (k_2, k_3)\}$ or $\{(x_1, k_1), (x_1, k_3)\}.$ Obviously, $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set R in J(G, x). Hence, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 2$.

Case 3.3. $R = \{(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2)\}$. Let $(u_1, v_1) \in E(G) - \{(x, x_1), (x, x_2), (x, x_3)\}$ and $(u_2, v_2) \in \{(x_1, k_1), (x_2, k_2), (x_3, k_3), (k_1, k_2), (k_2, k_3), (k_1, k_4)\}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $R = \{(u_1, v_1), (x_1, k_1)\}$ or $\{(u_1, v_1), (k_1, k_3)\}$ and assume the path P

or the path Q including (u_1, v_1) . Obviously, $\langle x_1, k_1, k_3, k_2, x_2, P, x_3, Q \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set R in J(G, x). Hence, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 2$.

Case 4. $h_r(G) = 3$. Let the node set $V_l = \{V(G) - V(x)\}, V_r = \{V(K_4) - V(x)\},$ edge cut set $S = \{(x_i, k_i) | 1 \le i \le 3\}$. Assume that we can find a hamiltonian cycle C in J(G, x). It is easy to know that $|C \cup S| = 2$. Hence, $h_f(J(G, x)) = 2$.

The lemma is proved.

For integers n and $k, n \ge 3$ and $1 \le k < n$. The generalized Petersen graph P(n, k) is the graph with vertex set $\{i \mid 0 \le i < n\} \cup \{i' \mid 0 \le i < n\}$ and edge set $\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i < n\} \cup \{(i', (i \oplus k)') \mid 0 \le i < n\} \cup \{(i, i') \mid 0 \le i < n\}$ where \oplus denotes addition in integer modulo n, Z_n . It is known that P(n, k) is cubic, 3-connected, and hamiltonian. Hence, P(n, k) is in Ω . The generalized Petersen graphs P(7, 2) and P(9, 3) are illustrated in Figure 2.2. In [1], the author had shown that P(n, 2) is hamiltonian if and only if $n \ne 5$ (mod 6).

Lemma 6 $h_f(P(n,1)) = 1$ if n is a positive integer with $n \ge 3$.

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(P(n,1)) \leq 1$. Let F be any edge set of P(n,1)with |F| = 1. By the symmetric property of P(n,1), we may assume that $F = \{(0,1)\}$, $\{(0',1')\}$, or $\{(0,0')\}$. Obviously, $\langle 1, 2, \ldots, n-1, 0, 0', (n-1)', \ldots, 1' \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n,1) - F if $F = \{(0,1)\}$ or $\{(0',1')\}$ and $\langle 2, 3, \ldots, 1, 1', 0', \ldots, 2' \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n,1) - F if $F = \{(0,0')\}$. Hence, $h_f(P(n,1)) \geq 1$.



Figure 2.2: The graphs (a) P(7,2) and (b) P(9,3)

The lemma is proved.

Lemma 7 $h_f(P(n,2)) = 1$ if n is an even integer with $n \ge 6$.

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(P(n,2)) \leq 1$. Let F be any edge set of P(n,2) with |F| = 1. By the symmetric property of P(n,2), we may assume that $F = \{(0,1)\}$, $\{((n-1)', 1')\}$, or $\{(2, 2')\}$. Obviously, $\langle 0, 0', 2', \dots, (n-2)', n-2, n-3, \dots, 1, 1', 3', \dots, (n-1)', n-1 \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n,2) - F. Hence, $h_f(P(n,2)) \geq 1$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma 8 $h_f(P(n,2)) = 1$ if $n = 1,3 \pmod{6}$ with n > 6.

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(P(n,2)) \leq 1$. Let *F* be any edge set of P(n,2)with |F| = 1, $N_k = \langle k', (k+2)', k+2, k+3, k+4, (k+4)' \rangle$, and $M_k = \langle [k']_n, [(k+2)']_n, [k+2]_n, [k+3]_n, [k+4]_n, [(k+4)']_n \rangle$. We have the following cases.



Figure 2.3: The graphs (a) P(7), (b) P(13), (c) P(9), and (d) P(15)

Case 1. n is odd, $n = 1 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 7$. By the symmetric property of P(n,2), we may assume that $F = \{(0, n-1)\}, \{(\frac{n-1}{2}, (\frac{n-1}{2})')\}, \text{ or } \{(0', (n-2)')\}.$ Obviously, (1', 1, 0, 0', 2', 2, 3, 4, 4', 6', 6, 5, 5', 3') is a hamiltonian cycle of P(7, 2) - F and $\langle 1', 1, 0, N_0, N_6, \dots, N_{n-7}, (n-1)', n-1, n-2, (n-2)', N_{n-4}, N_{n-10}, \dots, N_9, 3' \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n,2) - F when n > 7. Hence, $h_f(P(n,2)) \ge 1$ when $n = 1 \pmod{6}$ with $n \ge 7$. (See Figure 2.3(a) and 2.3(b) for an illustration of the case n is odd, n = 1(mod 6) and $n \ge 7$.)

Case 2. n is odd, $n = 3 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 9$. By the symmetric property of P(n,2), we may assume that $F = \{(0,0')\}, \{(1,2)\}, \text{ or } \{((n-1)',1)\}$. Obviously, $\langle M_0, M_6, \ldots, M_{n-3}, M_3, M_9, \ldots, M_{n-6} \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n, 2) - F when $n \ge 9$. Hence, $h_f(P(n,2)) \ge 1$ when $n = 3 \pmod{6}$ with $n \ge 9$. (See Figure 2.3(c) and 2.3(d) for an illustration of the case n is odd, $n = 3 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 9$.) 1896

The lemma is proved.

For integer $n \ge 2$, the project plane PJ(n) is the graph with vertex $\{i \mid 0 \le i < 2n\}$ and edge set $\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i < 2n\} \cup \{(i, i+n) \mid 0 \le i < n\}$ where \oplus denotes addition in integer modulo $2n, Z_{2n}$. It is known that PJ(n) is cubic, 3-connected, and hamiltonian. Hence, PJ(n) is in Ω . The project plane graphs PJ(8) and PJ(10) are illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Lemma 9 $h_f(PJ(n)) = 1.$

By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(PJ(n)) \leq 1$. Let F be any edge set of PJ(n)Proof.



Figure 2.4: The graphs (a) PJ(8), (b) PJ(10)

with |F| = 1. By the symmetric property of PJ(n), we may assume that $F = \{(0,1)\}$ or $\{(0,n)\}$. Obviously, $\langle 1, 2, \ldots, n, 0, n-1, \ldots, n+1 \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of PJ(n) - F if $F = \{(0,1)\}$ and $\langle 2, 3, \ldots, n+1, 1, 0, n-1, \ldots, n+2 \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of PJ(n) - F if $F = \{(0,n)\}$. Hence, $h_f(PJ(n)) \ge 1$. The lemma is proved.

For integer $n \ge 2$, the ladder graph L(n) is the graph with vertex set $\{i \mid 0 \le i \le 2n-1\}$ and edge set $\{(i, 2n - i) \mid 1 \le i < n\} \cup \{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i \le 2n - 1\} \cup \{(0, n)\}$ where \oplus denotes addition in integer modulo n, Z_n . It is known that L(n) is cubic, 3-connected, and hamiltonian. Hence, L(n) is in Ω . The ladder graphs L(5) and L(6) are illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Lemma 10 $h_f(L(n)) = 1.$



Figure 2.5: The graphs (a) L(5), (b) L(6)

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(L(n)) \leq 1$. Let F be any edge set of L(n)with |F| = 1. By the symmetric property of L(n), we may assume that $F = \{(0,n)\}$, $\{(1, 2n - 1)\}, \{(2, 2n - 2)\}, \ldots, \{(n - 1, n + 1)\}, \{(1, 2)\}, \{(3, 4)\}, \ldots, \text{ or } \{(2n - 1, 0)\}.$ Obviously, $\langle 0, 1, 2, \ldots, 2n - 1 \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of L(n) - F if $F = \{(0, n)\}, \{(1, 2n - 1)\}, \{(2, 2n - 2)\}, \ldots, \text{ or } \{(n - 1, n + 1)\}, \langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2, \ldots, n - 2, n + 2, n + 1, n \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of L(n) - F if n is odd and $F = \{(1, 2)\}, \{(3, 4)\}, \ldots, \{(2n - 1, 0)\},$ and $\langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2, \ldots, n + 2, n - 2, n - 1, n \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of L(n) - F if n is even and $F = \{(1, 2)\}, \{(3, 4)\}, \ldots, \{(2n - 1, 0)\}.$ Therefore, $h_f(PJ(n)) \geq 1$.

The lemma is proved.

Chapter 3

Examples

3.1 Examples of graph G in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$ and $h_r(G) = 1$

Theorem 1 $h_r(P(n,1)) = 1$ and $h_f(P(n,1)) = 1$ if *n* is odd and $n \ge 3$.

Proof. By Lemma 6, we know that $h_f(P(n, 1)) = 1$. Let R be any required edge set of P(n, 1) with |R| = 1. By the symmetric property of P(n, 1), we may assume that $R = \{(0, 1)\}, \{(0', 1')\}, \text{ or } \{(0, 0')\}$. Obviously, $(0, 1, \ldots, n - 1, (n - 1)', (n - 2)', \ldots, 0')$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set R. Hence, $h_r(P(n, 1)) \ge 1$ if n is odd and $n \ge 3$. Now we prove that $h_r(P(n, 1)) \le 1$ for n is odd and $n \ge 3$. Let the required edge set $R = \{(1, 1'), (n - 1, (n - 1)')\}$. We want to prove there is no hamiltonian cycle C of P(n, 1) including R. (See Figure 3.1(a) for an illustration of the case n = 7.)

We have the following two cases:

Case 1. $(0,0') \notin C$. Thus, the edge set $\{(0,1), (0,n-1), (0',1'), (0',(n-1)')\}$ are contained in *C*. We got a cycle (0,1,1',0',(n-1)',n-1). Thus, there is no such



Figure 3.1: Illustrations for Theorem 1.

hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.1(b) for an illustration of the case n = 7.)

Case 2. $(0,0') \in C$. Obviously, either $(0,1) \in C$ or $(0, n-1) \in C$. Without loss of generality, we assume $(0,1) \in C$. Then C include the path $(n-1, (n-1)', 0', 0, 1, 1', 2', 2, 3, 3', \dots, (n-3)', n-3, n-2, (n-2)')$. Note that $(n-1, (n-1)') \notin E(P(n,1))$. Therefore, there is no such cycle. (See Figure 3.1(c) for an illustration of the case n = 7.)

Therefore, there is no hamiltonian cycle contains the required edge set R. Hence, $h_r(P(n, 1)) = 1$ when n is odd and $n \ge 3$.

The theorem is proved.

Theorem 2 $h_r(PJ(n)) = 1$ and $h_f(PJ(n)) = 1$ when n is even and $n \ge 2$.

Proof. By Lemma 11, we know that $h_f(PJ(n)) = 1$. Let R be any required edge set of PJ(n) with |R| = 1. By the symmetric property of PJ(n), we may assume that $R = \{(0,1)\}, \text{ or } \{(0,n)\}$. Obviously, $\langle 0, 1, \ldots, n-1, 2n-1, 2n-2, \ldots, n \rangle$ is a hamiltonian



Figure 3.2: Illustrations for Theorem 2.

cycle including the required edge set R. Hence, $h_r(PJ(n)) \ge 1$ when n is even and $n \ge 2$. Now we prove that $h_r(PJ(n)) \le 1$ when n is even and $n \ge 2$. Let the required edge set $R = \{(1, n + 1), (n - 1, 2n - 1)\}$. We want to prove there is no hamiltonian cycle C of PJ(n) including the edge set R. (See Figure 3.2(a) for an illustration of the case n = 10.)

We have the following two cases:

Case 1. $(0,n) \notin C$. The edge set $\{(0,1), (0,2n-1), (n-1,n), (n,n+1)\}$ are contained in C. We got a cycle (0,1,n+1,n,n-1,2n-1). Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.2(b) for an illustration of the case n = 10.)

Case 2. $(0,n) \in C$. Obviously, either $\{(0,2n-1), (n,n+1)\} \in C$ or $\{(0,1), (n,n-1)\} \in C$. Without loss of generality, we assume $\{(0,2n-1), (n,n+1)\} \in C$. Then C include the path $\langle 1, n+1, n, 0, 2n-1, n-1, n-2, 2n-2, 2n-3, \ldots, 2, n+2 \rangle$. Therefore, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.2(c) for an illustration of the case n = 10.)

Therefore, there is no hamiltonian cycle contains R. Hence, $h_r(PJ(n)) = 1$ if n is even. The lemma is proved.

3.2 Examples of graph G in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$ and $h_r(G) = 2$

Lemma 11 [16] A petersen graph P(n, 2) is not hamiltonian if and only if $n = 5 \pmod{6}$.

Theorem 3 $h_r(P(n,2)) = 2$ and $h_f(P(n,2)) = 1$ if $n = 1,3 \pmod{6}$.

Proof. By Lemma 8, we know that $h_f(P(n, 2)) = 1$. Now we prove that $h_r(P(n, 2)) = 2$ for $n = 1, 3 \pmod{6}$. Let R be any required edge set of P(n, 2) with |R| = 2. We have the following cases:

Case 1. $n \text{ is odd}, n = 1 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 7$. Obviously, $\langle 1', 1, 0, 0', 2', 2, 3, 4, 4', 6', 6, 5, 5', 3' \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(7, 2) and $\langle 1', 1, 0, N_0, N_6, \dots, N_{n-7}, (n-1)', n-1, n-2, (n-2)', N_{n-4}, N_{n-10}, \dots, N_9, 3' \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n, 2) when n > 7. It is easy to check that any two edge can be on the hamiltonian cycle. Hence, $h_r(P(n, 2)) = 2$ when $n = 1 \pmod{6}$ with $n \ge 7$. (See Figure 2.3(a) and 2.3(b) for an illustration of the case $n \text{ is odd}, n = 1 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 7$.)

Case 2. $n \text{ is odd}, n = 3 \pmod{6}$ and $n \ge 9$. Obviously, $\langle M_0, M_6, \ldots, M_{n-3}, M_3, M_9, \ldots, M_{n-6} \rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of P(n, 2) when $n \ge 9$. It is easy to check that any two edge can be on the hamiltonian cycle. Hence, $h_r(P(n, 2)) = 2$ when $n = 3 \pmod{6}$

with $n \ge 9$. (See Figure 2.3(c) and 2.3(d) for an illustration of the case n is odd, n = 3 (mod 6) and $n \ge 9$.)

Now we prove that $h_r(P(n,2)) = 3$ for $n = 1, 3 \pmod{6}$. Let $M(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5)$ is H that the path $P_0 = \langle v_0, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_i, v_1 \rangle$, $P_1 = \langle v_2, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_j, v_3 \rangle$, $P_2 = \langle v_4, z_0, z_1, \dots, z_k, v_5 \rangle$, and one method link the vertex $(v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5)$ can give a hamiltonian cycle in P(n, 2) if $n = 1, 3 \pmod{6}$.

Suppose the P(9, 2) have a hamiltonian cycle. Let the required edge set $R = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4)\}$. Because the edges (2, 2'), (3, 3') are not in C. Thus, the edges (1', 3'), (3', 5'), (0', 2'), and(2', 4') are in C. And we can use M(1, 4, 1', 5', 0', 4') to give a hamiltonian cycle in P(9, 2). We can construct a hamiltonian cycle form P(9, 2) to P(11, 2), which insert two vertex x and y between 2 and 3 and insert two vertex x' and y' between 2' and 3'. The P(13, 2) also have a hamiltonian cycle, but we know the P(13, 2) have not a hamiltonian cycle. This is contradiction. It is easy to check that $h_r(P(n, 2)) \neq 3$ for n = 1, 3 (mod 6). Therefore, $h_r(P(n, 2)) \neq 3$ for n = 1, 3 (mod 6). The theorem is proved.

Theorem 4 $h_r(L(n)) = 2$ and $h_f(L(n)) = 1$.

Proof. By Lemma 10, $h_f(L(n)) = 1$. Now, we prove $h_r(L(n)) = 2$.

Let us divide the edge set E(L(n)) into three sets A, B, and C where the edge sets $A = \{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i \le 2n - 1\}, B = \{(i, 2n - i) \mid 1 \le i < n\}, and C = \{(0, n)\}.$ Obviously, $E(L(n)) = A \cup B \cup C$. Let the required edge set $R = \{p, q\}$. We have the following cases:



Figure 3.3: Illustrations for Theorem 3.3.

Case 1. $\{p,q\} \subseteq A$. Obviously, $\langle 0, 1, \ldots, 2n - 2, 2n - 1 \rangle$ forms a hamiltonian cycle including R. (See Figure 3.3(a) for an illustration of the case n = 5.)

Case 2. $\{p,q\} \subseteq B \cup C$. Suppose that n is odd. Obviously, cycle $C_1 = \langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2n - 2, 2, \ldots, n - 2, n + 2, n + 1, n - 1, n \rangle$ including R. Suppose that n is even. Cycle $C_2 = \langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2n - 2, 2, \ldots, n + 2, n - 2, n - 1, n + 1, n \rangle$ including R. (See Figures 3.3(b) and (c) for an illustration of the case n = 5 and 6.)

Case 3. $p \in A$ and $q \in B \cup C$. Without loss of generality, we assume that edge q = (i, i+1)where $0 \le i \le n-1$. When *n* is even, cycles $C_1 = \langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2n - 2, 2, ..., n + 2, n - 2, n - 1, n + 1, n \rangle$ or $C_2 = \langle 0, 2n - 1, 1, 2, 2n - 2, ..., n - 2, n + 2, n + 1, n - 1, n \rangle$ including *R*. When *n* is odd, cycles $C_3 = \langle 0, 1, 2n - 1, 2n - 2, 2, ..., n - 2, n + 2, n + 1, n - 1, n \rangle$ or $C_4 = \langle 0, 2n - 1, 1, 2, 2n - 2, ..., n + 2, n - 2, n - 1, n + 1, n \rangle$ including *R*. (See Figure 3.3(d),(e),(f), and (g) for an illustration of the case n = 5 and 6.)

Hence, $h_r(L(n)) \ge 2$.

Assume that there exists a hamiltonian cycle C including the required edge set $R' = \{(0,1), (0,2n-1), (2,2n-2)\}$. Thus, the edge set $\{(1,2), (2n-2,2n-1)\}$ are contained in C. We got a cycle (0,1,2,2n-2,2n-1). Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. Hence, $h_r(L(n)) \leq 2$.

Therefore, $h_r(L(n)) = 2$. The theorem is proved.

3.3 Examples of graph G in Ω with $h_f(G) = 1$ and $h_r(G) = 3$

Theorem 5 $h_r(P(n,1)) = 3$ and $h_f(P(n,1)) = 1$ when n is even.

Proof. By Lemma 6, we know that $h_f(P(n, 1)) = 1$. Now, we want to show that $h_r(P(n, 1)) = 3$. Let us divide the edge set E(P(n, 1)) into two sets A and B where the edge sets $A = \{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i \le n - 1\} \cup \{(i', (i \oplus 1)') \mid 1 \le i < n - 1\}$ and $B = \{(i, i') \mid 1 \le i < n\}$. Obviously, $E(P(n, 1)) = A \cup B$. Let the required edge set $R = \{p, q, r\}$. We have the following cases:

Case 1. $\{p, q, r\} \subseteq A$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\{p, q, r\} \cap \{(0, n - 1), (0', (n-1)')\} = \emptyset$. The hamiltonian cycle (0, 1, 2, ..., n-1, (n-1)', (n-2)', ..., 1', 0') including the required edge set R.

Case 2. $\{p,q\} \subseteq A$ and $\{r\} \subseteq B$. Without loss of generality, we assume that the edge r = (0, 0'). We have the following subcases:

Case 2.1. $\{p,q\} \cap \{(0,1), (0',1')\} = \emptyset$. The hamiltonian cycle (1, 2, ..., n-1, 0, 0', (n-1)', (n-2)', ..., 1') including the required edge set R.

Case 2.2. $\{p,q\} = \{(0,1), (0',1')\}$. The hamiltonian cycle $(0,1,\ldots,n-1, (n-1)', (n-2)', \ldots, 1', 0')$ including the required edge set R.

Case 2.3. $\{p,q\} \cap \{(0,1), (0',1')\} = \{(0,1)\}$ or $\{(0',1')\}$. Without loss of generality, we set p = (0,1). The hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0,1,2,\ldots,n-1,(n-1)',(n-2)',\ldots,1',0'\rangle$ including the required edge set R when $q \neq (0',(n-1)')$. And the hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0,1,1',2',2,\ldots,n-2,n-1,(n-1)',0'\rangle$ including the required edge set R when q = (0',(n-1)').

Case 3. $\{p\} \subseteq A$ and $\{q, r\} \subseteq B$. Without loss of generality, we assume that the edge p = (0, n - 1). The hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0, 0', 1', 1, 2, 2', \dots, n - 2, (n - 2)', (n - 1)', n - 1 \rangle$ including the required edge set R.

Case 4. $\{p,q,r\} \subseteq B$. The hamiltonian cycle $(0,0',1',1,2,2',\ldots,n-2,(n-2)',(n-1)',n-1)$ including the required edge set R.

Hence, $h_r(P(n, 1)) = 3$ when n is even. The theorem is proved.

Theorem 6 $h_r(PJ(n)) = 3$ and $h_f(PJ(n)) = 1$ when n is odd.



Proof. By Lemma 11, we know that $h_f(PJ(n)) = 1$. By Lemma 1, we know $h_r(PJ(n)) \leq 3$. Now, we want to prove that for any required edge set $R = \{p, q, r\}$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle including the edges R.

Let the edge sets $A = \{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \le i \le 2n - 1\}$ and $B = \{(i, i + n) \mid 1 \le i < n\}$. Obviously, $E(PJ(n)) = A \cup B$. We have the following cases:

Case 1. $\{p, q, r\} \subseteq A$. There is a hamiltonian cycle $(0, 1, \dots, 2n - 2, 2n - 1)$ including R. (See Figure 3.4(a) for an illustration of the case n = 5.)

Case 2. $\{p,q\} \subseteq A$ and $r \in B$. Without loss of generality, we set edge r = (0, n).

Case 2.1. $\{p,q\} \cap \{(0,1), (n,n+1)\} = \emptyset$. There is a hamiltonian cycle (1, 2, ..., n, 0, 2n - 1, ..., n + 1) including R. (See Figure 3.4(b) for an illustration of the case n = 5.)

Case 2.2. $\{p,q\} \cap \{(0,1), (n,n+1)\} = \{(0,1)\}$. Without loss of generality, we set p = (0,1). There is a hamiltonian cycle $(0,1,\ldots,n-1,2n-1,2n-2,\ldots,n)$ including R when $q \neq (n-1,n)$. And there is a hamiltonian $(0,1,n+1,n+2,2,3,n+3,n+4,\ldots,2n-2,2n-1,n-1,n)$ including R when q = (n-1,n). (See Figure 3.4(c) and Figure 3.4(e) for an illustration of the case n = 5)

Case 2.3. $\{p,q\} \cap \{(0,1), (n,n+1)\} = \{(n,n+1)\}$. Without loss of generality, we set p = (n, n+1). There is a hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0, 1, \ldots, n-1, 2n-1, 2n-2, \ldots, n \rangle$ including R when $q \neq (0, 2n-1)$. And there is a hamiltonian $\langle 0, n, n+1, 1, n+2, n+3, 3, 4, \ldots, n-2, n-1, 2n-1 \rangle$ including R when q = (0, 2n-1). (See Figure 3.4(d) and Figure 3.4(e) for an illustration of the case n = 5)

Case 2.3. $\{p,q\} = \{(0,1), (n,n+1)\}$. There is a hamiltonian cycle $(0,1,\ldots,n-1,2n-1,2n-2,\ldots,n)$ including R. (See Figure 3.4(e) for an illustration of the case n = 5.)

Case 3. $p \in A$ and $\{q, r\} \subseteq B$. Without loss of generality, we set p = (0, 1). There is a hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0, 1, n+1, n+2, 2, 3, n+3, n+4, \dots, 2n-2, 2n-1, n-1, n \rangle$ including R. (See Figure 3.4(c) for an illustration of the case n = 5.)

Case 4. $\{p,q,r\} \subseteq B$. There is a hamiltonian cycle $\langle 0, 1, n+1, n+2, 2, 3, n+3, n+4, \ldots, 2n-2, 2n-1, n-1, n \rangle$ including R. (See Figure 3.4(c) for an illustration of the



Figure 3.5: The graph M.

case n = 5.)

Hence,
$$h_r(PJ(n)) = 3$$
 when n is odd. The theorem is proved.

3.4 Examples of graph G in Ω with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 0$

In this section, we will prove the the graph M in Figure 3.5 is in Ω with $h_f(M) = 0$ and $h_r(M) = 0$.

Theorem 7 Graph M is in Ω . $h_f(M) = 0$ and $h_r(M) = 0$.

Proof. It is easy to check that $\kappa(M) = 3$. In Figure 3.6, we give a hamiltonian cycle indicated by redden edges. Therefore, M is in Ω .

By Lemma 1, we know that $h_f(M) \leq 1$. Let the fault edge set $F = \{(u_2, v_2)\}$. We want to show that there is no any hamiltonian cycle in M - F. Let the node set $V_l = \{u_0, u_1, \dots, u_9\}, V_r = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_9\}$, edge cut set $S = \{(u_0, v_5), (v_0, u_5), (u_1, v_1)\}$.



Figure 3.6: A hamiltonian cycle in M.



Figure 3.7: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case A1

Assume that we can find a hamiltonian cycle C in M - F. It is easy to know that $|C \cap S| = 2$. Now, we consider the edges (u_0, v_5) , (u_5, v_0) , and (u_1, v_1) in C or not in the following cases.

Case A1. $(u_0, v_5), (u_5, v_0) \in C$. Because the edge (u_1, v_1) is not in C, we implies that the edges $(u_2, u_3), (u_2, u_7), (u_1, u_0)$, and (u_1, u_6) are in C. And then (u_3, u_4) and (u_4, u_9) are in C. Therefore, (u_5, u_7) and (u_6, u_9) are in C. We got a path joining nodes u_0 and u_5 in M_{V_l} but we lost node u_8 . Hence, we can not find any hamiltonian cycle C in M - F



Figure 3.8: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case A2

with edges (u_0, v_5) and (u_5, v_0) are in C. (See Figure 3.7 for an illustration.)

Case A2. $(u_0, v_5), (u_1, v_1) \in C$ or $(u_5, v_0), (u_1, v_1) \in C$. Without loss of generality, we consider $(u_0, v_5), (u_1, v_1) \in C$. Because the edge (u_5, v_0) is not in C, we implies that the edges $(u_2, u_3), (u_2, u_7), (u_5, u_7), (u_5, u_8), (u_3, u_4)$ are in C. And then (u_0, u_4) and (u_1, u_6) are in C. Thus, (u_6, u_8) is in C. We got a path joining nodes u_0 and u_1 in M_{V_l} but we lost node u_9 . Hence, we can not find any hamiltonian cycle C in M - F with edges (u_0, v_5) and (u_1, v_1) are in C but (u_5, v_0) is not in C. (See Figure 3.8 for an illustration.)

Hence, we can not find a hamiltonian cycle in M - F. Therefore, $h_f(M) = 0$.

By Lemma 3, we know that $h_r(M) \leq 1$. Let $R = (u_1, v_1)$ be the required edge set of M with |R| = 1. We want to show that we can not find any hamiltonian cycle in M including the required edge set R. Assume that C be the hamiltonian cycle in Mincluding the required edge set R. Let the cut edge set $S = \{(u_0, v_5), (u_5, v_0), (u_2, v_2)\}$. It is easy to know that $|C \cap S| = 1$ or 3, because edge (u_1, v_1) is in C. We consider the



Figure 3.9: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B1

edges (u_0, v_5) , (u_5, v_0) , and (u_2, v_2) in C or not in the following cases.

Case B1. $(u_2, v_2) \in C$. Because the edges (u_5, v_0) , (u_0, v_5) are not in C. Thus, the edges (u_0, u_1) , (u_0, u_4) , (u_5, u_7) , (u_5, u_8) are in C. And then (u_6, u_8) , (u_6, u_9) are in C. Hence, (u_2, u_7) , (u_4, u_9) are in C. Now, we got a path joining nodes u_1 and u_2 but we lost node u_3 . Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle C with edges (u_1, v_1) and (u_2, v_2) are in C. (See Figure 3.9 for an illustration.)

Case B2. $(u_5, v_0) \in C$. Because the edges (u_0, v_5) , (u_2, v_2) are not in C. Thus, the edges (v_2, v_7) , (v_2, v_3) , (v_5, v_7) , (v_5, v_8) are in C. And then the edges (v_1, v_6) , (v_0, v_4) , (v_4, v_3) are in C. Thus, (v_6, v_8) is in C. Now, we got a path joining nodes v_0 and v_1 but we lost node v_9 . Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle C with edges (u_1, v_1) and (u_5, v_0) are in C. (See Figure 3.10 for an illustration.)

Case B3. $\{(u_5, v_0), (u_0, v_5), (u_2, v_2)\} \in C$. We have the following subcases:



Figure 3.10: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B2



Figure 3.11: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.1

Case B3.1. $\{(u_0, u_1)\} \in C$ or $\{(v_0, v_1)\} \in C$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\{(u_0, u_1)\} \in C$. Because the edges (u_1, u_6) and (u_0, u_4) are not in C, the edges (u_6, u_9) , (u_6, u_8) , (u_4, u_9) , (u_4, u_3) are in C. Thus, the edges (u_5, u_8) and (u_3, u_2) are in C. We got a path joining node u_5 and u_2 but we lost node u_7 . Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle C. (See Figure 3.11 for an illustration.)

Case B3.2. $\{(u_0, u_1), (u_0, u_1)\} \notin C$. Hence, the edges (u_1, u_6) and (v_1, v_6) are in C. We have the following subcases:



Figure 3.12: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.1

Case B3.2.1. $\{(u_6, u_9), (v_6, v_9)\} \in C$. Because the edges $(u_0, u_1), (v_0, v_1)$ are not in *C*. Thus, the edges $(u_0, u_4), (u_1, u_6), (v_0, v_4), (v_1, v_6)$ are in *C*. And then the edges $(u_8, u_5), (u_8, u_3), (v_8, v_5), (v_8, v_3)$ are in *C*. Thus, $(u_7, u_2), (u_7, u_9), (v_7, v_2), (v_7, v_9)$ are in *C*. Now, we got a cycle $\langle u_1, u_6, u_9, u_7, u_2, v_2, v_7, v_9, v_6, v_1 \rangle$ in *M*. Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.12 for an illustration.)

Case B3.2.2. $\{(u_6, u_9), (v_6, v_8)\}$ or $\{(u_6, u_8), (v_6, v_9)\} \in C$. Without loss of generality, we consider $\{(u_6, u_9), (v_6, v_8)\} \in C$. Because the edges $(u_0, u_1), (v_0, v_1)$ are not in *C*. Thus, the edges $(u_0, u_4), (u_1, u_6), (v_0, v_4), (v_1, v_6)$ are in *C*. And then the edges $(u_8, u_5), (u_8, u_3), (v_9, v_4), (v_9, v_7)$ are in *C*. Thus, $(u_7, u_2), (u_7, u_9), (v_3, v_2), (v_3, v_8)$ are in *C*. Now, we got a cycle $\langle u_1, u_6, u_9, u_7, u_2, v_2, v_3, v_8, v_6, v_1 \rangle$ in *M*. Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.13 for an illustration.)

Case B3.2.3. $\{(u_6, u_8), (v_6, v_8)\} \in C$. Because the edges $(u_0, u_1), (v_0, v_1)$ are not in C. Thus, the edges $(u_0, u_4), (u_1, u_6), (v_0, v_4), (v_1, v_6)$ are in C. And then the edges $(u_9, u_4), (u_9, u_7), (v_9, v_4), (v_9, v_7)$ are in C. Thus, $(u_3, u_2), (u_3, u_8), (v_3, v_2), (v_3, v_8)$ are in



Figure 3.13: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.2



Figure 3.14: Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.3

C. Now, we got a cycle $\langle u_1, u_6, u_8, u_3, u_2, v_2, v_3, v_8, v_6, v_1 \rangle$ in M. Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.14 for an illustration.)

Hence, we can not find any hamiltonian cycle in M including the required edge set $R = \{(1, 1')\}$. Therefore, $h_r(M) = 0$.

Theorem 8 Graph J(M, x) is in Ω . $h_f(J(M, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(M, x)) = 0$.



Figure 3.15: The graph N.

Proof. By Lemma 4 and Lemma 5, we know that $h_f(J(G, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(G, x)) = 0$. Hence, $h_f(J(M, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(M, x)) = 0$.

3.5 Examples of graph G in Ω with $h_f(G) = 0$ and $h_r(G) = 1$

In this section, we will prove the the graph N in Figure 3.15 is in Ω with $h_f(N) = 0$ and $h_r(N) = 1$.

Theorem 9 Graph N is in Ω such that $h_f(N) = 0$ and $h_r(N) = 1$.

Proof. It is proved in [11] that graph $N - \{(0, 1)\}$ is not hamiltonian. Hence, $h_f(N) = 0$.

By Lemma 3, we know that $h_r(N) \leq 1$. Let C be the hamiltonian cycle indicated by darken edges in N as shown in Figure 3.15. It is easy to check that any edge can be on the hamiltonian cycle. Hence, $h_r(N) = 1$. **Theorem 10** Graph J(N, x) is in Ω . $h_f(J(N, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(N, x)) = 1$.

Proof. By Lemma 4 and Lemma 5, we know that $h_f(J(G, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(G, x)) = 1$. Hence, $h_f(J(N, x)) = 0$ and $h_r(J(N, x)) = 1$.



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