# 國立交通大學 

## 資訊科學與工程硏究所

## 碩 士 論 文

三正則及連通圖中漢米爾頓性質之連線需冰數目的研究

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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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## 摘要

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 $R$ 且 $|R| \leq k$ ，則圖 $G$ 稱為 $k$－漢米爾頓需求邊。我們定義圖 $G$ 的漢米爾頓需求邊且 $k$ 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壤邊 $F$ 且 $|F| \leq k$ ，則圖 $G$ 稱為 $k$－漢米爾頓容錯邊。我們定義圖 $G$的漢米爾頓容錯邊且 $k$ 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 $h_{f}(G) \leq 1 \circ$ 如果圖 $G$ 為三正則漢米爾頓圖且 $h_{f}(G)=1$ ，則 $1 \leq h_{r}(G) \leq 3$ 。我們將介紹一些 $h_{f}(G)=1$ 且 $h_{r}(G)=i$ 其中 $i=1,2,3$ 的 3 －連通漢米爾圖 $G$ ，以及一些 $h_{f}(G)=0$ 且 $h_{r}(G)=1$ 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 $F$ with $|F| \leq k$. 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 graphs $G$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=i$ for $i=1,2$, 3, a 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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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 4
2 Preliminaries ..... 7
3 Examples ..... 18
3.1 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=1$ ..... 18
3.2 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=2$ ..... 21
3.3 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=3$ ..... 24
3.4 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=0$ and $h_{r}(G)=0$ ..... 28
3.5 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=0$ and $h_{r}(G)=1$ ..... 35

## List of Figures

2.1 The graphs (a) $G$, (b) $K_{4}$, and (c) $J(G, x)$ ..... 9
2.2 The graphs (a) $\mathrm{P}(7,2)$ and (b) $\mathrm{P}(9,3)$ ..... 13
2.3 The graphs (a) $\mathrm{P}(7)$, (b) $\mathrm{P}(13)$, (c) $\mathrm{P}(9)$, and (d) $\mathrm{P}(15)$ ..... 14
2.4 The graphs (a) $\operatorname{PJ}(8)$, (b) $\mathrm{PJ}(10)$ ..... 16
2.5 The graphs (a) $\mathrm{L}(5)$, (b) $\mathrm{L}(6)$ ..... 17
1896
3.1 Illustrations for Theorem 1 . ..... 19
3.2 Illustrations for Theorem 2. ..... 20
3.3 Illustrations for Theorem 3.3. ..... 23
3.4 Illustrations for Theorem 3.4. ..... 26
3.5 The graph $M$. ..... 28
3.6 A hamiltonian cycle in $M$. ..... 29
3.7 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case A1 ..... 29
3.8 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case A2 ..... 30
3.9 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B1 ..... 31
3.10 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B2 ..... 32
3.11 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.1 ..... 32
3.12 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.1 ..... 33
3.13 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.2 ..... 34
3.14 Illustration for Theorem 7, Case B3.2.3 ..... 34
3.15 The graph $N$. ..... 35

## 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 $\{(u, v) \mid(u, v)$ is an unordered pair of $V\}$. We say that $V$ is the vertex set and $E$ is the edge set Two vertices $w$ and $v$ are adjacent if $(u, v) \in E$, vertex $u($ or $v)$ is said to be incident with edge $(u, v), w$ and $v$ are called the ends of edge $(u, v)$. Suppose that $V^{\prime}$ is a subset of $V$. The subgraph of $G$ whose vertex set is $V-V^{\prime}$ and whose edge set is the set of those edges of $G$ that have both ends in $V-V^{\prime}$ is called the subgraph of $G$ induced by $V-V^{\prime}$ and is denoted by $G-V^{\prime}$. Suppose that $E^{\prime}$ is a subset of $E$. The subgraph of $G$ whose vertex set is the set of ends of edges in $E-E^{\prime}$ and whose edge set is $E-E^{\prime}$ is called the subgraph of $G$ induced by $E-E^{\prime}$ and is denoted by $G-E^{\prime}$. 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 $x \in V, \operatorname{deg}_{G}(x)$ denotes its degree in $G$. A graph $G$ is cubic if $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(x)=3$ for any vertex $x$ in $G$. A graph $G$ is 3 -connected if $G-V^{\prime}$ is still connected for every vertex set $V^{\prime} \subseteq V$ and $\left|V^{\prime}\right| \leq 2$. A path $P$ in $G$ is represented by $\left\langle v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\rangle$, a sequence of distinct vertices of $G$, where every $\left(v_{i}, v_{i+1}\right)$ belongs to $E$ for $0 \leq i \leq k-1$. We can write path $P=\left\langle v_{0}, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\rangle$ as $\left\langle v_{0}, \cdots, v_{i}, P^{\prime}, v_{j}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\rangle$ or
$\left\langle v_{0}, \cdots, v_{i}\right\rangle \cup P^{\prime} \cup\left\langle v_{j}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\rangle$, where $P^{\prime}=\left\langle v_{i}, v_{i+1}, \cdots, v_{j}\right\rangle$ 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 eycle. 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 $\geq 3$ ). 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 $h_{r}\left(Q_{n}\right)=2 n-3$ 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 $k$-edge-fault-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 $h_{f}\left(Q_{n}\right)=n-2[3,10]$.

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 $\Omega$ 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 $\Omega$. Moreover, $1 \leq h_{r}(G)$ if $G$ is in $\Omega$ and $h_{f}(G)=1$. Furthermore, $h_{f}(G)=1$ if $G$ is in $\Omega$ and $h_{r}(G) \geq 2$. Thus, we would like to know the existence of graph in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=i$ for $i=1,2,3$. For this reason, we give examples of graphs in $\Omega$ 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 $\Omega$ 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 $\Omega$ 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 $\Omega$.

Proof. Suppose that $G=(V, E)$ is a graph in $\Omega$. Let $x$ be any vertex in $G$ and $N_{G}(x)=\{u, v, w\}$. We set $F=\{(x, u),(x, v)\}$. Obviously, $\operatorname{deg}_{G-F}(x)=1$. Hence, there is no hamiltonian cycle in $G-F$. Therefore, $h_{f}(G) \leq 1$.

## 1896

Let $N_{G}(x)=\{u, v, w\}, N_{G}(u) \stackrel{H}{=}\left\{x, u_{1}, u_{2}\right\}$ and $N_{G}(v)=\left\{x, v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$. We set the required edge set $R=\left\{\left(u, u_{1}\right),\left(u, u_{2}\right),\left(v, v_{1}\right),\left(v, v_{2}\right)\right\}$. Thus, $(x, u)$ and $(x, v)$ is not on any hamiltonian cycle including the set $R$. Obviously, $\operatorname{deg}_{G-\{(x, u),(x, v)\}}(x)=1$. Hence, there is no hamiltonian cycle in $G-\{(x, u),(x, v)\}$. Therefore, $h_{r}(G) \leq 3$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma $2 h_{r}(G) \geq 1$ if $G$ is a graph in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$.

Proof. Suppose that $G=(V, E)$ is a graph in $\Omega$ 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, $\operatorname{deg}_{G-F}(x)=2$. Thus, $(x, u)$ is in $C$. Therefore, $h_{r}(G) \geq 1$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma $3 h_{f}(G)=1$ if $G$ is a graph in $\Omega$ with $h_{r}(G) \geq 2$.

Proof. Suppose that $G=(V, E)$ is a graph in $\Omega$ and $h_{r}(G) \geq 2$. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_{f}(G) \leq 1$. Now, we want to show that $h_{f}(G) \neq 0$. Let $(x, u)$ be any edge of $G$ and $N_{G}(x)=\{u, v, w\}$. We set a required edge set $R=\{(x, v),(x, w)\}$. Since $h_{r}(G) \geq 2$, 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 $\Omega$ with $V(G) \cap V\left(K_{4}\right)=\emptyset$ where $K_{4}$ is a complete graph with four nodes. Note that $K_{4}$ is node symmetric. Let $x \in V(G)$ and $k \in V\left(K_{4}\right)$. Let $N(x)=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ be an ordered set of the neighbors of $x$ and $N(k)=\left\{k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3}\right\}$ 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 $V(J(G, x))=(V(G)-\{x\}) \cup\left(V\left(K_{4}\right)-\{k\}\right)$ and $E(J(G, x))=\left(E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{i}\right) \mid\right.\right.$ $1 \leq i \leq 3\}) \cup\left(E\left(K_{4}\right)-\left\{\left(k, k_{i}\right) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 3\right\}\right) \cup\left\{\left(x_{i}, k_{i}\right) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 3\right\}$. 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 $\Omega$ if $G$ is in $\Omega$. See Figure 2.1 for an illustration.

Lemma $4 h_{f}(J(G, x))=h_{f}(G)$ if $G$ is a graph in $\Omega$.


Figure 2.1: The graphs (a) $G$, (b) $K_{4}$, and (c) $J(G, x)$

Proof. Let $G$ is a graph in $\Omega$. Let $x \in V(G)$ and $k \in V\left(K_{4}\right)$. Assume that the neighbors of node $x$ in $G$ are $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$, the neighbors of node $k$ in $K_{4}$ are $\left\{k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3}\right\}$. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_{f}(G) \leq 1$ and $h_{f}(\vec{J}(G, x)) \leq 1$.

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 $F^{\prime}$ with $\left|F^{\prime}\right|=1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $C^{\prime}$ in $J(G, x)-F^{\prime}$.

Case 1. $F^{\prime}=\left\{\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right)\right\},\left\{\left(x_{2}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(x_{3}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $F^{\prime}=\left\{\left(x_{3}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$. Since $h_{f}(G)=1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}\right.$ $, Q\rangle$ in $G-\left\{\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$ where $P$ and $Q$ be two paths of $G$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $J(G, x)-\left\{\left(x_{3}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$.

Case 2. $F^{\prime}=\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$, $\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(k_{2}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $F^{\prime}=\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$. Since $h_{f}(G)=1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}\right.$ , $Q\rangle$ in $G-\left\{\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $J(G, x)-\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$.

Case 3. $F^{\prime}=(u, v) \subseteq E(G)-\left\{\left(x_{i}, k_{i}\right) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 3\right\}-\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{2}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$. Since $h_{f}(G)=1$, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $G-\{(u, v)\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $J(G, x)-\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$.

Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle in $J(G, x)-F^{\prime}$ with $\left|F^{\prime}\right|=1$. 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. $e=\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right)\right\},\left\{\left(x, x_{2}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $e=\left\{\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$. Assume that $h_{f}(J(G, x))=1$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $J(G, x)-\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $G-e$. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_{f}(J(G, x))=0$.

## 1896

Case 2. $e \in E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right),\left(x, x_{2}\right),\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$. Assume that $h_{f}(J(G, x))=1$, then we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $J(G, x)-e$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ in $G-e$. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_{f}(J(G, x))=0$.

The lemma is proved.

Lemma $5 h_{r}(J(G, x))=\min \left\{2, h_{r}(G)\right\}$ if $G$ is a graph in $\Omega$.

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

Case 1. $h_{r}(G)=0$. Let $R \in E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right),\left(x, x_{2}\right),\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$ 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 $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ including $R$ in $J(G, x)$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ including $R$ in $G$. We get a contradiction. Therefore, $h_{f}(J(G, x))=0$.

Case 2. $h_{r}(G)=1$. Let $R \in E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right),\left(x, x_{2}\right),\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$ 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 $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ including $R$ in $J(G, x)$. Hence, we can find a hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ 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. $R=\left\{\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\} \in E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right),\left(x, x_{2}\right),\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$. We can find a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set $R$ in $G$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\left\langle x_{1}, x, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ be the hamiltonian cycle in $G$. And we assume that $\left\langle k_{1}, k, k_{2}, k_{3}\right\rangle$ be the hamiltonian cycle in $k_{4}$. Obviously, $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set $R$ in $J(G, x)$. Hence, $h_{f}(J(G, x))=2$.

Case 3.2. $R=\left\{\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\} \in\left\{\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, k_{2}\right),\left(x_{3}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right),\left(k_{2}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{4}\right)\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $R=\left\{\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, k_{2}\right)\right\}$ or $\left\{\left(k_{1}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{2}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$ or $\left\{\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right),\left(x_{1}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set $R$ in $J(G, x)$. Hence, $h_{f}(J(G, x))=2$.

Case 3.3. $R=\left\{\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\}$. Let $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) \in E(G)-\left\{\left(x, x_{1}\right),\left(x, x_{2}\right),\left(x, x_{3}\right)\right\}$ and $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right) \in\left\{\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right),\left(x_{2}, k_{2}\right),\left(x_{3}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{2}\right),\left(k_{2}, k_{3}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{4}\right)\right\}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $R=\left\{\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right),\left(x_{1}, k_{1}\right)\right\}$ or $\left\{\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right),\left(k_{1}, k_{3}\right)\right\}$ and assume the path $P$
or the path $Q$ including $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$. Obviously, $\left\langle x_{1}, k_{1}, k_{3}, k_{2}, x_{2}, P, x_{3}, Q\right\rangle$ 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 $V_{l}=\{V(G)-V(x)\}, V_{r}=\left\{V\left(K_{4}\right)-V(x)\right\}$, edge cut set $S=\left\{\left(x_{i}, k_{i}\right) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 3\right\}$. 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 $k, n \geq 3$ and $1 \leq k<n$. The generalized Petersen graph $P(n, k)$ is the graph with vertex set $\{i \mid 0 \leq i<n\} \cup\left\{i^{\prime} \mid 0 \leq i<n\right\}$ and edge set $\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \leq i<$ $n\} \cup\left\{\left(i^{\prime},(i \oplus k)^{\prime}\right) \mid 0 \leq i<n\right\} \cup\left\{\left(i^{\prime}, i^{\prime}\right) \mid 0 \leq i \leq n\right\}$ 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 $\Omega$. 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 $n \neq 5$ $(\bmod 6)$.

Lemma $6 h_{f}(P(n, 1))=1$ if $n$ is a positive integer with $n \geq 3$.

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 $F=\{(0,1)\}$, $\left\{\left(0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(0,0^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle 1,2, \ldots, n-1,0,0^{\prime},(n-1)^{\prime}, \ldots, 1^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(n, 1)-F$ if $F=\{(0,1)\}$ or $\left\{\left(0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\langle 2,3, \ldots, 1,1^{\prime}, 0^{\prime}, \ldots, 2^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(n, 1)-F$ if $F=\left\{\left(0,0^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Hence, $h_{f}(P(n, 1)) \geq 1$.


Figure 2.2: The graphs (a) $\mathrm{P}(7,2)$ and (b) $\mathrm{P}(9,3)$

The lemma is proved.

Lemma $7 h_{f}(P(n, 2))=1$ if $n$ is even integer with $n \geq 6$.

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 $F=\{(0,1)\}$, $\left\{\left((n-1)^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(2,2^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle 0,0^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, \ldots,(n-2)^{\prime}, n-2, n-3, \ldots, 1,1^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}, \ldots,(n-\right.$ $\left.1)^{\prime}, n-1\right\rangle$ 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 $n=1,3(\bmod 6)$ 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 $|F|=1, N_{k}=\left\langle k^{\prime},(k+2)^{\prime}, k+2, k+3, k+4,(k+4)^{\prime}\right\rangle$, and $M_{k}=\left\langle\left[k^{\prime}\right]_{n},\left[(k+2)^{\prime}\right]_{n},[k+\right.$ $\left.2]_{n},[k+3]_{n},[k+4]_{n},\left[(k+4)^{\prime}\right]_{n}\right\rangle$. 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, $n=1(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 7$. By the symmetric property of $P(n, 2)$, we may assume that $F=\{(0, n-1)\},\left\{\left(\frac{n-1}{2},\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(0^{\prime},(n-2)^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle 1^{\prime}, 1,0,0^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, 2,3,4,4^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}, 6,5,5^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(7,2)-F$ and $\left\langle 1^{\prime}, 1,0, N_{0}, N_{6}, \ldots, N_{n-7},(n-1)^{\prime}, n-1, n-2,(n-2)^{\prime}, N_{n-4}, N_{n-10}, \ldots, N_{9}, 3^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(n, 2)-F$ when $n>7$. Hence, $h_{f}(P(n, 2)) \geq 1$ when $n=1 \quad(\bmod 6)$ with $n \geq 7$. (See Figure 2.3(a) and 2.3(b) for an illustration of the case $n$ is odd, $n=1$ $(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 7$.

Case 2. $n$ is odd, $n=3(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 9$. By the symmetric property of $P(n, 2)$, we may assume that $F=\left\{\left(0,0^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, $\{(1,2)\}$, or $\left\{\left((n-1)^{\prime}, 1\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle M_{0}, M_{6}, \ldots, M_{n-3}, M_{3}, M_{9}, \ldots, M_{n-6}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{n}}$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(n, 2)-F$ when $n \geq 9$. Hence, $h_{f}(P(n, 2)) \geq 1$ when $n=3(\bmod 6)$ with $n \geq 9$. (See Figure 2.3(c) and 2.3(d) for an illustration of the case $\bar{n}$ is odd, $n=3(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 9$.)

The lemma is proved.

## 1896

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

Lemma $9 h_{f}(P J(n))=1$.

Proof. By Lemma 1, we know that $h_{f}(P J(n)) \leq 1$. Let $F$ be any edge set of $P J(n)$


Figure 2.4: The graphs (a) PJ(8), (b) PJ(10)
with $|F|=1$. By the symmetric property of $\operatorname{PJ}(n)$, 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 $P J(n)-F$ if $F=\{(0,1)\}$ and $\langle 2,3, \ldots, n+1,1,0, n-1\rangle,, n+2\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P J(n)-F$ if $F=\{(0, n)\}$. Hence, $h_{f}(P J(n)) \geq 1$.

The lemma is proved.

For integer $n \geq 2$, the ladder graph $L(n)$ is the graph with vertex set $\{i \mid 0 \leq i \leq 2 n-1\}$ and edge set $\{(i, 2 n-i) \mid 1 \leq i<n\} \cup\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \leq i \leq 2 n-1\} \cup\{(0, n)\}$ 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 $\Omega$. 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 $F=\{(0, n)\}$, $\{(1,2 n-1)\},\{(2,2 n-2)\}, \ldots,\{(n-\overline{\mathrm{I}}, \boldsymbol{n}+1)\},\{(1,2)\},\{(3,4)\}, \ldots$, or $\{(2 n-1,0)\}$. Obviously, $\langle 0,1,2, \ldots, 2 n-1\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $L(n)-F$ if $F=\{(0, n)\},\{(1,2 n-$ 1) $\}$, $\{(2,2 n-2)\}, \ldots$, or $\{(n-1, n+1)\},\langle 0,1,2 n-1,2, \ldots, n-2, n+2, n+1, n\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $L(n)-F$ if $n$ is odd and $F=\{(1,2)\},\{(3,4)\}, \ldots,\{(2 n-1,0)\}$, and $\langle 0,1,2 n-1,2, \ldots, n+2, n-2, n-1, n\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $L(n)-F$ if $n$ is even and $F=\{(1,2)\},\{(3,4)\}, \ldots,\{(2 n-1,0)\}$. Therefore, $h_{f}(P J(n)) \geq 1$.

The lemma is proved.

## Chapter 3

## Examples

### 3.1 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ 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 $n \geq 3$.

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 $R=\{(0,1)\},\left\{\left(0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right)\right\}$, or $\left\{\left(0,0^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Obviously, $\left\langle 0,1, \ldots, n-1,(n-1)^{\prime},(n-2)^{\prime}, \ldots, 0^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle including the required edge set $R$. Hence, $h_{r}(P(n, 1)) \geq 1$ if $n$ is odd and $n \geq 3$. Now we prove that $h_{r}(P(n, 1)) \leq 1$ for $n$ is odd and $n \geq 3$. Let the required edge set $R=\left\{\left(1,1^{\prime}\right),\left(n-1,(n-1)^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. 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. $\left(0,0^{\prime}\right) \notin C$. Thus, the edge set $\left\{(0,1),(0, n-1),\left(0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right),\left(0^{\prime},(n-1)^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ are contained in $C$. We got a cycle $\left\langle 0,1,1^{\prime}, 0^{\prime},(n-1)^{\prime}, n-1\right\rangle$. Thus, there is no such

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 3.1: Illustrations for Theorem 1.
hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.1(b) for an illustration of the case $n=7$.)

Case 2. $\left(0,0^{\prime}\right) \in C$. 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 $\left\langle n-1,(n-1)^{\prime}, 0^{\prime}, 0,1,1^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, 2,3,3^{\prime}\right.$ $\left., \ldots,(n-3)^{\prime}, n-3, n-2,(n-2)^{\prime}\right\rangle$ Note that $\left(n-1,(n-1)^{\prime}\right) \notin E(P(n, 1))$. 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 $n \geq 3$.

The theorem is proved.

Theorem $2 h_{r}(P J(n))=1$ and $h_{f}(P J(n))=1$ when $n$ is even and $n \geq 2$.

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


Figure 3.2: Illustrations for Theorem 2.
cycle including the required edge set $R$. Hence, $h_{r}(P J(n)) \geq 1$ when $n$ is even and $n \geq 2$. Now we prove that $h_{r}(P J(n)) \leq 1$ when $n$ is even and $n \geq 2$. Let the required edge set $R=\{(1, n+1),(n-1,2 n-1)\}$. We want to prove there is no hamiltonian cycle $C$ of $P J(n)$ including the edge set $\underline{R}$. (See Figure 3.2(a) for an illustration of the case $n=10$.) 1896

We have the following two cases:

Case 1. $(0, n) \notin C$. The edge set $\{(0,1),(0,2 n-1),(n-1, n),(n, n+1)\}$ are contained in $C$. We got a cycle $\langle 0,1, n+1, n, n-1,2 n-1\rangle$. 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 $\{(0,2 n-1),(n, n+1)\} \in C$ or $\{(0,1),(n, n-1)\} \in$ $C$. Without loss of generality, we assume $\{(0,2 n-1),(n, n+1)\} \in C$. Then $C$ include the path $\langle 1, n+1, n, 0,2 n-1, n-1, n-2,2 n-2,2 n-3, \ldots, 2, n+2\rangle$. 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, $h_{r}(P J(n))=1$ if $n$ is even. The lemma is proved.

### 3.2 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ 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 $n=5$ $(\bmod 6)$.

Theorem $3 h_{r}(P(n, 2))=2$ and $h_{f}(P(n, 2))=1$ if $n=1,3(\bmod 6)$.

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

## 1896

Case 1. $n$ is odd, $n=1 \quad(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geqq 7^{\prime} \cdot$ Obviously, $\left\langle 1^{\prime}, 1,0,0^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, 2,3,4,4^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}, 6,5,5^{\prime}\right.$, $\left.3^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(7,2)$ and $\left\langle 1^{\prime}, 1,0, N_{0}, N_{6}, \ldots, N_{n-7},(n-1)^{\prime}, n-1, n-2,(n-\right.$ $\left.2)^{\prime}, N_{n-4}, N_{n-10}, \ldots, N_{9}, 3^{\prime}\right\rangle$ 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 $n=1 \quad(\bmod 6)$ with $n \geq 7$. (See Figure 2.3(a) and 2.3(b) for an illustration of the case $n$ is odd, $n=1 \quad(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 7$.

Case 2. $n$ is odd, $n=3(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 9$. Obviously, $\left\langle M_{0}, M_{6}, \ldots, M_{n-3}, M_{3}, M_{9}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.M_{n-6}\right\rangle$ is a hamiltonian cycle of $P(n, 2)$ when $n \geq 9$. It is easy to check that any two edge can be on the hamiltonian cycle. Hence, $h_{r}(P(n, 2))=2$ when $n=3(\bmod 6)$
with $n \geq 9$. (See Figure 2.3(c) and 2.3(d) for an illustration of the case $n$ is odd, $n=3$ $(\bmod 6)$ and $n \geq 9$.

Now we prove that $h_{r}(P(n, 2))=3$ for $n=1,3(\bmod 6)$. Let $M\left(v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}, v_{5}\right)$ is $H$ that the path $P_{0}=\left\langle v_{0}, x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{i}, v_{1}\right\rangle, P_{1}=\left\langle v_{2}, y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{j}, v_{3}\right\rangle, P_{2}=\left\langle v_{4}, z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.z_{k}, v_{5}\right\rangle$, and one method link the vertex $\left(v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}, v_{5}\right)$ can give a hamiltonian cycle in $P(n, 2)$ if $n=1,3 \quad(\bmod 6)$.

Suppose the $P(9,2)$ have a hamiltonian cycle. Let the required edge set $R=\{(1,2),(2$, $3),(3,4)\}$. Because the edges $\left(2,2^{\prime}\right),\left(3,3^{\prime}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(1^{\prime}, 3^{\prime}\right),\left(3^{\prime}, 5^{\prime}\right),\left(0^{\prime}\right.$, $\left.2^{\prime}\right)$, $\operatorname{and}\left(2^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}\right)$ are in $C$. And we can use $M\left(1,4,1^{\prime}, 5^{\prime}, 0^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}\right)$ to give a hamiltonian cycle in $P(9,2)$. We can construct a hâmiltonian cycle form $P(9,2)$ to $P(11,2)$, which insert two vertex $x$ and $y$ between 2 and 3 and insert two vertex $x^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ between $2^{\prime}$ and $3^{\prime}$. 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 $n=1,3$ $(\bmod 6)$. Therefore, $h_{r}(P(n, 2)) \neq 3$ for $n=1,3 \quad(\bmod 6)$. The theoerm 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 $A=\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \leq i \leq 2 n-1\}, B=\{(i, 2 n-i) \mid 1 \leq i<n\}$, 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, $\langle 0,1$, S. $2 n-2,2 n-1\rangle$ forms a hamiltonian cycle including $R$. (See Figure 3.3(a) for anjllustration of the case $n=5$.)

## 1896

Case 2. $\{p, q\} \subseteq B \cup C$. Suppose that $n$ is odd. Obviously, cycle $C_{1}=\langle 0,1,2 n-$ $1,2 n-2,2, \ldots, n-2, n+2, n+1, n-1, n\rangle$ including $R$. Suppose that $n$ is even. Cycle $C_{2}=\langle 0,1,2 n-1,2 n-2,2, \ldots, n+2, n-2, n-1, n+1, n\rangle$ 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 $0 \leq i \leq n-1$. When $n$ is even, cycles $C_{1}=\langle 0,1,2 n-1,2 n-2,2, \ldots, n+2, n-$ $2, n-1, n+1, n\rangle$ or $C_{2}=\langle 0,2 n-1,1,2,2 n-2, \ldots, n-2, n+2, n+1, n-1, n\rangle$ including $R$. When $n$ is odd, cycles $C_{3}=\langle 0,1,2 n-1,2 n-2,2, \ldots, n-2, n+2, n+1, n-1, n\rangle$ or $C_{4}=\langle 0,2 n-1,1,2,2 n-2, \ldots, n+2, n-2, n-1, n+1, n\rangle$ including $R$. (See Figure
$3.3(\mathrm{~d}),(\mathrm{e}),(\mathrm{f})$, and (g) for an illustration of the case $n=5$ and 6.$)$

Hence, $h_{r}(L(n)) \geq 2$.

Assume that there exists a hamiltonian cycle $C$ including the required edge set $R^{\prime}=$ $\{(0,1),(0,2 n-1),(2,2 n-2)\}$. Thus, the edge set $\{(1,2),(2 n-2,2 n-1)\}$ are contained in $C$. We got a cycle $\langle 0,1,2,2 n-2,2 n-1\rangle$. 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 $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=1$ and $h_{r}(G)=3$ <br> 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 $A=\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \leq i \leq n-1\} \cup\left\{\left(i^{\prime},(i \oplus 1)^{\prime}\right) \mid 1 \leq i<n-1\right\}$ and $B=\left\{\left(i, i^{\prime}\right) \mid 1 \leq i<n\right\}$. 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), $\left.\left(0^{\prime},(n-1)^{\prime}\right)\right\}=\emptyset$. The hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle 0,1,2, \ldots, n-1,(n-1)^{\prime},(n-2)^{\prime}, \ldots, 1^{\prime}, 0^{\prime}\right\rangle$ 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 $r=\left(0,0^{\prime}\right)$. We have the following subcases:

Case 2.1. $\{p, q\} \cap\left\{(0,1),\left(0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}\right)\right\}=\emptyset$. The hamiltonian cycle $\left\langle 1,2, \ldots, n-1,0,0^{\prime},(n-\right.$ $\left.1)^{\prime},(n-2)^{\prime}, \ldots, 1^{\prime}\right\rangle$ including the required edge set $R$.

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

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

1896

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 $\left\langle 0,0^{\prime}, 1^{\prime}, 1,2,2^{\prime}, \ldots, n-2,(n-2)^{\prime},(n-1)^{\prime}, n-1\right\rangle$ including the required edge set $R$.

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

Hence, $h_{r}(P(n, 1))=3$ when $n$ is even. The theorem is proved.

Theorem $6 h_{r}(P J(n))=3$ and $h_{f}(P J(n))=1$ when $n$ is odd.


Figure 3.4: Hlustrations for Theorem 3.4.

Proof. By Lemma 11, we know that $\hbar_{f}(P J(n))=1$. By Lemma 1, we know $h_{r}(P J(n)) \leq 3$. 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 $A=\{(i, i \oplus 1) \mid 0 \leq i \leq 2 n-1\}$ and $B=\{(i, i+n) \mid 1 \leq i<n\}$. Obviously, $E(P J(n))=A \cup B$. We have the following cases:

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


Figure 3.5: The graph $M$.
case $n=5$.)

Hence, $h_{r}(P J(n))=3$ when $n$ is odd. The theorem is proved.

### 3.4 Examples of graph $G$ in $\Omega$ 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 $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(M)=0$ and $h_{r}(M)=0$.

Theorem 7 Graph $M$ is in $\Omega . h_{f}(M)=0$ 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 $\Omega$.

By Lemma 1, we know that $h_{f}(M) \leq 1$. Let the fault edge set $F=\left\{\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\}$. We want to show that there is no any hamiltonian cycle in $M-F$. Let the node set $V_{l}=\left\{u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{9}\right\}, V_{r}=\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{9}\right\}$, edge cut set $S=\left\{\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(v_{0}, u_{5}\right),\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)\right\}$.


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 $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right)$, and $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ in $C$ or not in the following cases.

Case A1. $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right) \in C$. Because the edge $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ is not in $C$, we implies that the edges $\left(u_{2}, u_{3}\right),\left(u_{2}, u_{7}\right),\left(u_{1}, u_{0}\right)$, and $\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. And then $\left(u_{3}, u_{4}\right)$ and $\left(u_{4}, u_{9}\right)$ are in $C$. Therefore, $\left(u_{5}, u_{7}\right)$ and $\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right)$ 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 $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right)$ and $\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right)$ are in $C$. (See Figure 3.7 for an illustration.)

Case A2. $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) \in C$ or $\left.\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right) ;, u_{4}, v_{1}\right) \in C$. Without loss of generality, we consider $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right) \in C$. Because the edge $\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right)$ is not in $C$, we implies that the edges $\left(u_{2}, u_{3}\right),\left(u_{2}, u_{7}\right),\left(u_{5}, u_{7}\right),\left(u_{5}, u_{8}\right),\left(u_{3}, u_{4}\right)$ arè in $C$. And then $\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right)$ and $\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. Thus, $\left(u_{6}, u_{8}\right)$ 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 $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right)$ 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 $R=\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ 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 $M$ including the required edge set $R$. Let the cut edge set $S=\left\{\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\}$. 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 $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right)$, and $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ in $C$ or not in the following cases.

Case B1. $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right) \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right),\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right),\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right),\left(u_{5}, u_{7}\right),\left(u_{5}, u_{8}\right)$ are in $C$. And then $\left(u_{6}, u_{8}\right),\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right)$ are in C. Hence, $\left(u_{2}, u_{7}\right),\left(u_{4}, u_{9}\right)$ 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 $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ and $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ are in $C$. (See Figure 3.9 for an illustration.) Whrman

Case B2. $\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right) \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(v_{2}, v_{7}\right),\left(v_{2}, v_{3}\right),\left(v_{5}, v_{7}\right),\left(v_{5}, v_{8}\right)$ are in $C$. And then the edges $\left(v_{1}, v_{6}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{4}, v_{3}\right)$ are in $C$. Thus, $\left(v_{6}, v_{8}\right)$ 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 $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ and $\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right)$ are in $C$. (See Figure 3.10 for an illustration.)

Case B3. $\left\{\left(u_{5}, v_{0}\right),\left(u_{0}, v_{5}\right),\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)\right\} \in C$. 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. $\left\{\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right)\right\} \in C$ or $\left\{\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right)\right\} \in C$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\left\{\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right)\right\} \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right)$ and $\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right)$ are not in $C$, the edges $\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right),\left(u_{6}, u_{8}\right),\left(u_{4}, u_{9}\right),\left(u_{4}, u_{3}\right)$ are in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(u_{5}, u_{8}\right)$ and $\left(u_{3}, u_{2}\right)$ 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. $\left\{\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right),\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right)\right\} \notin C$. Hence, the edges $\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right)$ and $\left(v_{1}, v_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. We have the following subcases:


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

Case B3.2.1. $\left\{\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right),\left(v_{6}, v_{9}\right)\right\} \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right),\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. And then the edges $\left(u_{8}, u_{5}\right),\left(u_{8}, u_{3}\right),\left(v_{8}, v_{5}\right),\left(v_{8}, v_{3}\right)$ are in C. Thus, $\left(u_{7}, u_{2}\right),\left(u_{7}, u_{9}\right),\left(v_{7}, v_{2}\right),\left(v_{7}, v_{9}\right)$ are in $C$. Now, we got a cycle $\left\langle u_{1}, u_{6}, u_{9}, u_{7}, u_{2}, y_{2}, v_{7}, v_{9}, v_{6}, v_{1}\right\rangle$ in $M$. Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.12 for an illustration.)

Case B3.2.2. $\left\{\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right),\left(v_{6}, v_{8}\right)\right\}$ or $\left\{\left(u_{6}, u_{8}\right),\left(v_{6}, v_{9}\right)\right\} \in C$. Without loss of generality, we consider $\left\{\left(u_{6}, u_{9}\right),\left(v_{6}, v_{8}\right)\right\} \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right),\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. And then the edges $\left(u_{8}, u_{5}\right),\left(u_{8}, u_{3}\right),\left(v_{9}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{9}, v_{7}\right)$ are in $C$. Thus, $\left(u_{7}, u_{2}\right),\left(u_{7}, u_{9}\right),\left(v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(v_{3}, v_{8}\right)$ are in $C$. Now, we got a cycle $\left\langle u_{1}, u_{6}, u_{9}, u_{7}, u_{2}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{8}, v_{6}, v_{1}\right\rangle$ in $M$. Thus, there is no such hamiltonian cycle. (See Figure 3.13 for an illustration.)

Case B3.2.3. $\left\{\left(u_{6}, u_{8}\right),\left(v_{6}, v_{8}\right)\right\} \in C$. Because the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{1}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{1}\right)$ are not in $C$. Thus, the edges $\left(u_{0}, u_{4}\right),\left(u_{1}, u_{6}\right),\left(v_{0}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{1}, v_{6}\right)$ are in $C$. And then the edges $\left(u_{9}, u_{4}\right),\left(u_{9}, u_{7}\right),\left(v_{9}, v_{4}\right),\left(v_{9}, v_{7}\right)$ are in $C$. Thus, $\left(u_{3}, u_{2}\right),\left(u_{3}, u_{8}\right),\left(v_{3}, v_{2}\right),\left(v_{3}, v_{8}\right)$ 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 $\left\langle u_{1}, u_{6}, u_{8}, u_{3}, u_{2}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{8}, v_{6}, v_{1}\right\rangle$ 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 $R=\left\{\left(1,1^{\prime}\right)\right\}$. Therefore, $h_{r}(M)=0$.

Theorem 8 Graph $J(M, x)$ is in $\Omega . h_{f}(J(M, x))=0$ 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 $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(G)=0$ and $h_{r}(G)=1$ <br> 1896

In this section, we will prove the the graph $\mathcal{N}^{\prime}$ in Figure 3.15 is in $\Omega$ with $h_{f}(N)=0$ and $h_{r}(N)=1$.

Theorem 9 Graph $N$ is in $\Omega$ 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 $10 \operatorname{Graph} J(N, x)$ is in $\Omega . h_{f}(J(N, x))=0$ 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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