Edge Decompositions of Hypercubes by Paths and by Cycles

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Abstract

If H is isomorphic to a subgraph of G, we say that H divides G if there exist embeddings $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_k$ of H such that

 $\{\{E(\theta_1(H)), E(\theta_2(H)), \dots, E(\theta_k(H))\}\$

is a partition of E(G). For purposes of simplification we will often omit the embeddings, saying that we have an edge decomposition by copies of E(H).

Many authors have studied this notion for various subgraphs of hypercubes. We continue such a study in this paper.

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1 Introduction and Preliminary Results

Definition 1 If H is isomorphic to a subgraph of G, we say that H divides G if there exist embeddings $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_k$ of H such that

$$\{\{E(\theta_1(H)), E(\theta_2(H)), \dots, E(\theta_k(H))\}\}$$

is a partition of E(G).

Ramras [8] has defined a more restrictive concept.

Definition 2 A fundamental set of edges of a graph G is a subset of E(G)whose translates under some subgroup of the automorphism group of G partition E(G).

Edge decompositions of graphs by subgraphs have a long history. For example, there is a Steiner triple system of order n if and only if the complete graph K_n has an edge-decomposition by K_3 . In 1847 Kirkman [5] proved that for a Steiner triple system to exist it is necessary that $n \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ or $n \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$. In 1850 he proved the converse holds also [6].

Theorem 1 A Steiner system of order $n \ge 3$ exists if and only if $n \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ or $n \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$.

In more modern times (1964) G. Ringel [11] stated the following conjecture, which is still open.

Conjecture 1 If T is a fixed tree with m edges then K_{2m+1} is edge-decomposable into 2m + 1 copies of T.

By Q_n we mean the *n*-dimensional hypercube. We regard its vertex set, $V(Q_n)$, as $\mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, \ldots, n\})$, the set of subsets of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. Two vertices x and y are considered adjacent (so $\langle x, y \rangle \in E(Q_n)$) if $|x\Delta y| = 1$, where Δ denotes the symmetric difference of the two subsets x and y. $(V(Q_n), \Delta)$ is isomorphic as a group to $(\mathbb{Z}_2^n, +)$. Occasionally, when convenient, we shall use the vector notation for vertices; thus \vec{x} and \vec{y} are adjacent precisely when they differ in exactly one component. Note that for $k < n, \mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, \ldots, k\}) \subset$ $\mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, \ldots, n\})$ so that $V(Q_k) \subset V(Q_n)$. In fact, from the definition of adjacency, it follows that Q_k is an induced subgraph of Q_n .

Beginning in the early 1980's, interest in hypercubes (and similar hypercubelike networks such as "cube-connected cycles" and "butterfly" networks) increased dramatically with the construction of massively parallel-processing computers, such as the "Connection Machine" whose architecture is that of the 16-dimensional hypercube, with $2^{16} = 65,536$ processors as the vertices. Problems of routing message packets simultaneously along paths from one processor to another led to an interest in questions of edge decompositions of $E(Q_n)$ by paths. An encyclopedic discussion of this and much more can be found in [7].

In [8] we have shown that if \mathcal{G} is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(Q_n)$ and for all $g \in \mathcal{G}$, with $g \neq id$ (where *id* denotes the identity element), $g(E(H)) \cap E(H) = \emptyset$, then there is a packing of these translates of E(H) in Q_n , *i.e.* they are pairwise disjoint. If, in addition, $|E(H)| \cdot |\mathcal{G}| = n \cdot 2^{n-1} = |E(Q_n)|$, then the translates of E(G) by the elements of \mathcal{G} yield an edge decomposition of Q_n . In [8] it is shown that every tree on n edges can be embedded in Q_n as a fundamental set. (This result for edge decompositions was obtained independently by Fink [3]). In [9] this is extended to certain trees and certain cycles on 2n edges. Decompositions of Q_n by k-stars are proved for all $k \leq n$ in [2]. Recently, Wagner and Wild [12] have constructed, for each value of n, a tree on 2^{n-1} edges that is a fundamental set for Q_n . The structure of $\operatorname{Aut}(Q_n)$ is discussed in [8]. For each subset A of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, the complementing automorphism σ_A is defined by $\sigma_A(x) = A\Delta\{x\}$. Another type of automorphism arises from the group of permutations \mathcal{S}_n of $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. For $x = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m\} \subseteq \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ and $\theta \in \mathcal{S}_n$ we denote by $\rho_{\theta(x)}$ the vertex $\{\theta(x_1), \theta(x_2), \ldots, \theta(x_m)\}$. The mapping $\rho_{\theta} : V(Q_n) \longrightarrow V(Q_n)$ defined in this way is easily seen to belong to $Aut(Q_n)$. Every automorphism in $\operatorname{Aut}(Q_n)$ can be expressed uniquely in the form $\sigma_A \circ \rho_{\theta}$, where this notation means that we first apply ρ_{θ} . Note: $\rho_{\theta} \circ \sigma_A = \sigma_{\theta(A)} \circ \rho_{\theta}$.

To avoid ambiguity in what follows we make this definition:

Definition 3 By P_k , the "k-path", we mean the path with k edges.

Questions

(1) For which k dividing $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$ does P_k divide Q_n ?

(2) For which k dividing $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$ does C_k , the cycle on k edges, divide Q_n ?

(3) For those k for which the answer to either (1) or (2) is "yes", is the edge set used in the decomposition a fundamental set for Q_n ?

We begin this introductory section with some examples. In later sections we prove a variety of results relating to these questions, and in the final section we summarize our findings.

Example 1

Let T be the 2-star (= the 2-path) contained in Q_3 with center 000, and leaves 100, 010. Then $\mathcal{G} = \{id, \sigma_{123}, \sigma_1\rho_{(123)}, \sigma_{12}\rho_{(132)}, \sigma_3\rho_{(132)}, \sigma_{23}\rho_{(123)}\}$ is a (cyclic) subgroup of Aut(Q_3) of order 6, and the 6 translates of T under \mathcal{G} yield an edge decomposition of Q_3 .

Note, however, that \mathcal{G} does not work for the 2-star T', whose center is 000 and whose leaves are 100 and 001. The subgroup which works for this 2-star is $\mathcal{G}' = \{id, \sigma_{123}, \sigma_1\rho_{(132)}, \sigma_{13}\rho_{(123)}, \sigma_2\rho_{(123)}, \sigma_{23}\rho_{(132)}\}.$

Example 2

 P_6 does not divide Q_3 . For since Q_3 has 12 edges, if P_6 did divide Q_3 then Q_3 would have an edge-decomposition consisting of 2 copies of P_6 . The degree sequence (in decreasing order) of each P_6 is 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 0, whereas Q_3 , of course, is 3-regular. Thus the vertex of degree 0 in one P_6 would require a degree of 3 in the other, which is impossible.

Example 3

 P_4 does not divide Q_3 . Since P_4 has 4 edges, we would need 3 copies of P_4 for an edge-decomposition of Q_3 . Call the three copies of $P_4 P^{(1)}, P^{(2)}$, and $P^{(3)}$. At each vertex v of $Q_3, \sum_{1 \le i \le 3} \deg_{P^{(i)}}(v) = 3$. Label the vertices of Q_3 (v_1) to (v_8) such that the degree sequence of $P^{(1)}$, is decreasing. Consider the 3×8 array $\deg_{P^{(i)}}(v_j)$. The first row is thus 2 2 2 1 1 0 0 0. In the second and third rows, in order for the column sums to be 3, there must be exactly 3 1's (and 3 0's) in the first 3 columns. Similarly, in the last 3 columns there must be exactly 3 1's (and 3 0's). Thus in the second and third rows we have at least 6 1's, and so at least one of these rows must have at least 3 1's. But each row is a permutation of the first, which has only 2 1's. Contradiction. Hence P_4 does not divide Q_3 .

Example 4

Since Q_3 is 3-regular, the 4-star is not a subgraph. The *other* tree on 4 edges *does* divide Q_3 . Let T be the 3-star centered at 000 union the edge $\langle 001, 101 \rangle$. Let $\mathcal{G} = \langle \sigma_{23}\rho_{(123)} \rangle$, which is a cyclic subgroup of Aut (Q_3) of order 3. A straight-forward calculation shows that the translates of T under \mathcal{G} form an edge decomposition of Q_3 .

Proposition 1 For $k \geq 3$, P_{2^k} does not divide Q_{2k+1} .

Proof. Suppose that $k \geq 3$, and suppose that P_{2^k} divides Q_{2k+1} . The matrix (a_{iv}) formed by the degree sequences of copies of P_{2^k} has 2^{2k+1} columns, and

$$(2k+1) \cdot 2^{2k}/2^k = (2k+1)2^k$$

rows. Then since each row has exactly two 1's, the entire matrix has $(2k + 1)2^{k+1}$ 1's. But since each vertex of Q_{2k+1} has degree 2k + 1, each column sum is 2k + 1, and thus each column has at least one 1. Thus there must be at least 2^{2k+1} 1's in the matrix. Therefore, $(2k + 1)2^{k+1} \ge 2^{2k+1}$. This is equivalent to $2k + 1 \ge 2^k$. But for $k \ge 3$ this is clearly false. Thus for $k \ge 3$, P_{2^k} does not divide Q_{2k+1} .

We will prove in Section 3 that for $k = 2, P_{2^k}$ does divide Q_{2k+1} .

The next result is Proposition 8 of [9].

Proposition 2 Let n be odd, and suppose that P_k divides Q_n . Then $k \leq n$.

Lemma 1 "Divisibility" is transitive, i.e. if G_1 divides G_2 and G_2 divides G_3 , then G_1 divides G_3 .

Proof. This follow immediately from the definition of "divides". \Box

Corollary 1 If k divides n then P_k divides Q_n .

Proof. By [8], Theorem 2.3, T divides Q_n for every tree T on n edges. In particular, then, P_n divides Q_n . Clearly, if k divides n then P_k divides P_n . Hence, by Lemma 1, P_k divides Q_n .

We have the following partial converse.

Proposition 3 If P_k divides Q_n and k is odd, then k divides n.

Proof. Since P_k divides Q_n , k divides $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$. But since k is odd, this means that k divides n. \Box

Definition 4 If G_1 and G_2 are graphs then by $G_1 \Box G_2$ we mean the graph that is the Cartesian product of G_1 and G_2 .

Lemma 2 If H divides G_1 and H divides G_2 then H divides $G_1 \Box G_2$.

Proof. This is obvious because $E(G_1 \square G_2)$ consists of $|V(G_1)|$ copies of $E(G_2)$ and $|V(G_2)|$ copies of $E(G_1)$. \square

Proposition 4 If k divides n then Q_k divides Q_n .

Proof. Let n = mk. We argue by induction on m. The statement is obvious for m = 1. Now let m > 1 and assume the statement is true for m - 1. The desired result follows from Lemma 2 and the fact that $Q_{(m-1)k} \Box Q_k \simeq Q_{(m-1)k+k} = Q_{mk}$. \Box

The converse to Proposition 4 follows easily from the next lemma.

Lemma 3 Suppose that the subgraph H of G edge-divides G. If G is n-regular and H is k-regular, then k divides n.

Proof. Since the copies of E(H) form an edge-partition of E(G), each vertex v of H must belong to exactly n/k copies of H and so k divides n. \Box

Corollary 2 If Q_k divides Q_n then k divides n.

Proof. Since Q_k is k-regular and Q_n is n-regular, this follows immediately from Lemma 3.

Combining Proposition 4 and Corollary 2 we obtain

Proposition 5 Q_k divides Q_n if and only if k divides n.

As an immediate consequence of Lemma 1 and Proposition 4 we have

Corollary 3 If k divides n and if P_j divides Q_k then P_j divides Q_n .

We have a more general consequence.

Corollary 4 If k divides n and T is any tree on k edges, then there is an embedding of T which divides Q_n .

Proof. By [8], Theorem 2.3, by mapping any given vertex of T to \emptyset and assigning distinct labels $1, 2, \ldots, k$ to the edges of T we get a subtree of Q_k isomorphic to T that divides Q_k . Hence by Lemma 1 and Proposition 4, T divides Q_n .

Proposition 6 If n is even, and j < n then P_{2^j} divides Q_n .

Proof. It is proved in [1] that the cycle C_{2^n} divides Q_n . The Hamiltonian cycle C_{2^n} is divisible by any path P_q , as long as q divides 2^n and $q < 2^n$. Thus C_{2^n} is divisible by P_{2^j} provided j < n. The result now follows from Lemma 1.

Proposition 7 If n is even, and C is the 2n-cycle with initial vertex \emptyset , and edge direction sequence $(1, 2, ..., n)^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{\equiv} (1, 2, ..., n, 1, 2, ..., n)$, then Q_n is edge-decomposed by the copies of C under the action of $\mathcal{G} = \{\sigma_A | A \subset \{1, 2, ..., n-1\}, |A| \text{ even}\}$. So E(C) is fundamental for Q_n .

Proof. C consists of the path P, followed by $\sigma_{\{1,2,\ldots,n\}}(P)$, where P is the path with initial vertex \emptyset and edge direction sequence $1, 2, \ldots, n$. Note that for any $B \subseteq \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, for any edge $e, \sigma_B(e) = e$ implies that $B = \emptyset$ or |B| = 1. Now we shall show that for every subset $A \subset \{1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$ with |A| even, $\sigma_A(C) \cap C = \emptyset$. It should be noted that these A's form a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(Q_n)$ of order 2^{n-2} . So suppose that $e = \langle x, y \rangle \in C \cap \sigma_A(C)$. Let the direction of e be i. Then the direction of $\sigma_A(e)$ is i. If $A \neq \emptyset$, then since |A| is even, $\sigma_A(e) \neq e$. The only other edge in C with direction i is $\sigma_{\{1,2,\ldots,n\}}(e)$. So if $\sigma_A(e) \in C$, then $\sigma_A(e) = \sigma_{\{1,2,\ldots,n\}}(e)$. Therefore $\sigma_A \cdot \sigma_{\{1,2,\ldots,n\}}(e) = e, i.e. \sigma_{A\Delta\{1,2,\ldots,n\}}(e) = e$. Since A and $\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ are even, so is $A\Delta\{1,2,\ldots,n\} = \overline{A}$. Hence $A\Delta\{1,2,\ldots,n\} = \emptyset$, i.e. A = $\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$. But $n \notin A$, so we have a contradiction.

Thus we have a group \mathcal{G} of automorphisms of C of order 2^{n-2} , such that for $g \in \mathcal{G}, g \neq id$, $g(E(C)) \cap E(C) = \emptyset$. Furthermore, since |E(C)| = 2n, it follows that $|\mathcal{G}| \cdot |E(C)| = |E(Q_n)|$. Hence by [8], Lemma 1.1, the translates of E(C) via the elements of \mathcal{G} form an edge decomposition of Q_n . \Box

Corollary 5 If n is even, k < n and k divides n, then P_{2k} divides Q_n .

Proof. Since k divides n, 2k divides 2n, and thus since 2k < 2n, P_{2k} divides the 2n-cycle C of Proposition 7. Hence by Proposition 7, P_{2k} divides Q_n . \Box

Corollary 6 If n and k are both even and k divides n, and C is the 2k-cycle with initial vertex \emptyset , and edge direction sequence $(1, 2, ..., k)^2$, then C divides Q_n .

Proof. By the proposition, C divides Q_k , and by Proposition 4, Q_k divides Q_n . The result now follows from Lemma 1.

2 P_4 divides Q_5

If k is odd then by Proposition 3 and Lemma 1 P_k divides Q_n and only if k divides n. Thus the smallest value of k for which Question (1) remains open is k = 4. Corollary 5 settles the matter in the affirmative when n is even and thus we now only need to consider the case of n odd. Example 3 shows that P_4 does not divide Q_3 .

In the next two sections we show that for all odd n with $n \ge 5$, P_4 divides Q_n . We first, in this section, prove the result for n = 5. The strategy is to find a subgraph G of Q_5 , show that G divides Q_5 , and then show that P_4 divides G. In the next section we deduce the general case.

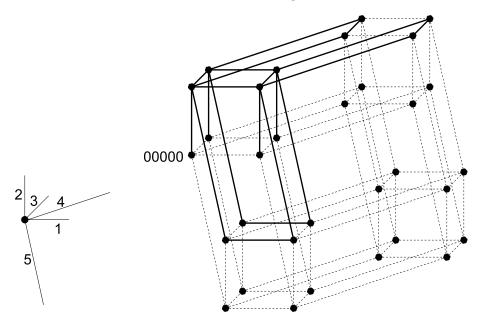


Figure 1: Q_5 and the subgraph G

We define G as follows (see figure 1). First, some notation. For $b, c \in \{0, 1\}, Q_5^{(***bc)}$ denotes the 3-cube induced by the vertices $x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5$ with $x_4 = b$ and $x_5 = c$. If $a \in \{0, 1\}$ $Q_5^{(**abc)}$ is the 2-cube induced by the vertices with $x_3 = a, x_4 = b$, and $x_5 = c$. We take G to be the union of (1) : $Q_5^{(***00)}$, with the edges of $Q_5^{(*0*00)}$ deleted; (2): $Q_5^{(***10)}$ with all edges deleted except for $\langle 01010, 01110 \rangle$ and $\langle 11010, 11110 \rangle$; (3) : $Q_5^{(***01)}$ with all edges deleted except for $\langle 01101, 11101 \rangle$ and $\langle 01001, 11001 \rangle$; (4): the 4 matching

edges between $Q_5^{(*1*00)}$ and $Q_5^{(*1*10)}$; and (5) the 4 matching edges between $Q_5^{(*1*00)}$ and $Q_5^{(*1*01)}$. Thus |E(G)| = 20. Since $|E(Q_5)| = 5 \cdot 2^4 = 80$, we must exhibit 80/20 = 4 copies of E(G) that partition $E(Q_5)$.

Lemma 4 G divides Q_5 . In fact, E(G) is a fundamental set for Q_5 .

Proof. By direct inspection of figure 2 the group of translations $\mathcal{G} = \{id, \sigma_{24}, \sigma_{25}, \sigma_{45}\}$, applied to E(G), partitions $E(Q_5)$.

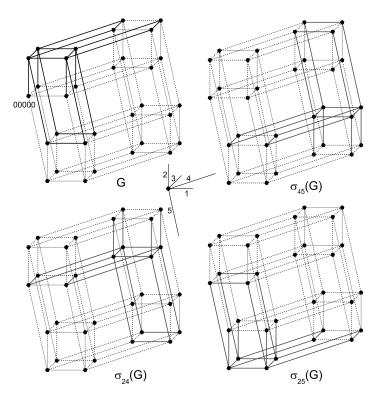


Figure 2: E(G) is a fundamental set for Q_5

Lemma 5 P_4 divides G.

Proof. It is easiest to describe the paths by their starting points and direction sequences (see figure 3).

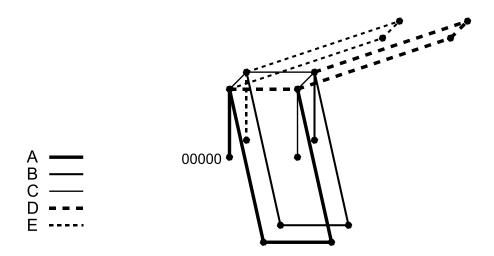


Figure 3: P_4 divides G

Path	Starting Point	Direction Sequence
A	00000	2, 5, 1, 5
B	10100	2, 5, 1, 5
C	10000	2, 3, 1, 3
D	01000	1, 4, 3, 4
E	00100	2, 4, 3, 4

Corollary 7 P_4 divides Q_5 .

Proof. This follows immediately from the previous two lemmas.

3 P_4 divides Q_n , for n odd, $n \ge 5$

Let us write Q_5 as $Q_5 = Q_3 \Box Q_2 = Q_3 \Box C_4$. Let $G_0 = Q_5^{(***00)}, G_1 = Q_5^{(***10)}, G_2 = Q_5^{(***11)}, G_3 = Q_5^{(***01)}$. For $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ let π_i be the canonical mapping from G_i to Q_3 .

* From the decomposition of Q_5 by P_4 we have a coloring $c: Q_5 \longrightarrow \{1, 2, \ldots, 20\}$ of the edges of Q_5 such that for any $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, 20\}$ the set of edges of Q_5 colored *i* induces a P_4 .

* Consider now $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ for some $k \ge 1$. Let $G'_0, \ldots, G'_{4k-1} \simeq Q_3$. Let $\pi'_{i'}$ be the canonical mapping from $G'_{i'} \longrightarrow Q_3$ for $i' \in \{0, 1, \ldots, 4k-1\}$. The edges of $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ are

Case A: the edges of $G'_{i'}$ for any $i' \in \{0, 1, \dots, 4k-1\}$.

Case B: for any $i' \in \{0, 1, \dots, 4k-1\}$ the edges $\langle x', y' \rangle$ for $x' \in G'_{i'}$, $y' \in G'_{j'}$, where $|j'-i'| \equiv 1 \pmod{4k}$ and $\pi_{i'}(x') = \pi_{j'}(y')$.

* Let θ be the mapping from $Q_3 \Box C_{4k} \longrightarrow Q_5$ defined by: for any $x' \in G'_{i'}, \theta(x') = x$ where x is the element of G_i , with $i \equiv i' \pmod{4}$ such that $\pi_i(x) = \pi_{i'}(x')$. (Note that θ is not a one-to-one mapping.)

Proposition 8 If $\langle x', y' \rangle$ is an edge of $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ then $\langle \theta(x'), \theta(y') \rangle$ is an edge of Q_5 .

Proof.

 $\underline{\text{Case } A}$

 $\langle x', y' \rangle \in G'_{i'}$ for some i'. Then let $i \equiv i' \pmod{4}$. By the definition of $\theta, \theta(x') \in G_i, \theta(y') \in G_i$. This implies that $\theta(x')$ and $\theta(y')$ are adjacent.

$\underline{\text{Case B}}$

Assume $x' \in G'_{i'}, y' \in G'_{j'}$ with $|j'-i'| \equiv 1 \pmod{4k}$. We have $\pi'_{i'}(x') = \pi'_{j'}(y')$. Then $\theta(x') \in G_i$ and $\theta(y') \in G_j$ where $|j-i| \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ since $|j'-i'| \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ implies that $|j-i| \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Furthermore

$$\pi_i(\theta(x')) \stackrel{\text{def of}\theta}{=} \pi'_i(x') \stackrel{\text{edge}}{=} \pi'_j(y') \stackrel{\text{def of}\theta}{=} \pi_j(\theta(y')).$$

Thus there exists an edge between $\theta(x')$ and $\theta(y')$

Definition 5 Consider the coloring $E(Q_3 \Box C_{4k}) \xrightarrow{c'} \{1, 2, \ldots, 20\}$ of the edges of $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ defined by $c'(\langle x', y' \rangle) = c(\langle \theta(x'), \theta(y') \rangle)$.

Lemma 6 For any $i \in \{1, 2, ..., 20\}$ the set of edges of $Q_3 \square C_{4k}$ such that c'(x', y') = i is a set of disjoint paths of length 4. Therefore P_4 divides $Q_3 \square C_{4m}$ for all $m \ge 1$.

Proof. By definition of c', for any vertex x' of $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ the number of edges incident to x' colored i by c' is the number of edges incident to $\theta(x')$ colored i by c. Therefore this number is ≤ 2 . Furthermore, there is no cycle colored

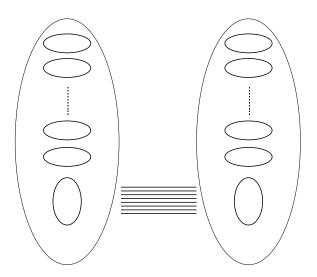


Figure 4: Decomposition of Q_{2k+1}

i in $Q_3 \Box C_{4k}$ because the image by θ of this cycle would be a cycle of Q_5 colored *i* with *c*. Therefore the set of edges colored *i* by *c'* is a forest and more precisely, because of the degree, a set of disjoint paths.

Notice that the image by θ of a path colored *i* is a path of Q_5 of the same length (because of the degree of the endpoints of the paths). Therefore all the paths are of length 4.

Theorem 2 For $n \ge 4$, P_4 divides Q_n .

Proof. If n is even, the result is true by Corollary 5. If n = 5 then we are done by Corollary 7. Consider Q_{2k+3} , for $k \ge 2$. $Q_{2k+3} = Q_{2k+1} \Box Q_2$. $E(Q_{2k})$ can be decomposed into k cycles of length 2^{2k} (Hamiltonian cycles) by Aubert and Schneider [1]. Let D be one of these cycles. The edges of Q_{2k+1} are the edges of the two copies of Q_{2k} and a matching. But every vertex of Q_{2k} appears exactly once in D so $E(Q_{2k+1})$ can be decomposed into 2(k-1)cycles of length 2^{2k} and $D \Box Q_1 \simeq C_{2^{2k}} \Box Q_1$ (see figure 4).

Every vertex of Q_{2k+1} appears once in $D \Box Q_1$, thus, for the same reason, $E(Q_{2k+3})$ can be decomposed into 8(k-1) cycles of length 2^{2k} and $D \Box Q_1 \Box Q_2 \simeq C_{2^{2k}} \Box Q_1 \Box Q_2 \simeq C_{2^{2k}} \Box Q_3$ (see figure 5).

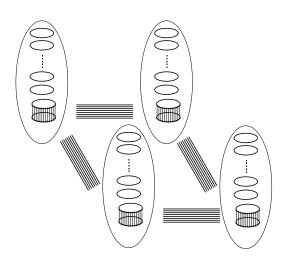


Figure 5: Decomposition of Q_{2k+3}

Since $k \geq 2$, $\frac{2^{2k}}{4}$ is an integer strictly greater than 1 so the cycles of length 2^{2k} are divisible by P_4 . By Lemma 6, P_4 divides $C_{2^{2k}} \square Q_3$, and P_4 divides $E(Q_n)$ for any odd $n \geq 5$. \square

4 Q_{2^k} has a fundamental Hamiltonian cycle.

We shall describe walks in the hypercube by specifying the starting vertex (generally \emptyset) and the sequence of edge directions.

It is well-known that the *n*-dimensional hypercube Q_n is Hamiltonian, and in fact has many Hamiltonian cycles. Aubert and Schneider [1] proved that for *n* even, Q_n has an edge decomposition into Hamiltonian cycles. However, their construction is technical. In contrast, in this last section we shall prove that for $n = 2^k$, there is a single Hamiltonian cycle *C* such that E(C) is a fundamental set for Q_n .

By $G_1 \square G_2$ we denote the Cartesian product of the graphs G_1 and G_2 . We will start with two easy results about Cartesian product of graphs.

Lemma 7 Assume that $\{C^1, C^2, \ldots, C^p\}$ is an edge decomposition in Hamiltonian cycles of a graph G. Then $\{C^1 \Box C^1, C^2 \Box C^2, \ldots, C^p \Box C^p\}$ is an edge decomposition of $G \Box G$.

Proof. Let (x_1, x_2) and (y_1, y_2) be adjacent in $G \square G$. Then either x_1 and

 y_1 are adjacent in G and $x_2 = y_2$ or $x_1 = y_1$ and x_2 and y_2 are adjacent in G. By symmetry, it is sufficient to consider the first case. Let i be such that $\langle x_1, y_1 \rangle \in E(C^i)$. Then since C^i is Hamiltonian $x_2 = y_2 \in V(C^i)$; thus $\langle (x_1, x_2), (y_1, y_2) \rangle \in E(C^i \square C^i)$. Conversely $\langle (x_1, x_2), (y_1, y_2) \rangle \in E(C^j \square C^j)$ implies $\langle x_1, y_1 \rangle \in E(C^j)$ since $x_2 = y_2$; thus j = i. Therefore the $C^j \square C^j$'s are disjoint and the conclusion follows. \square

Lemma 8 Let G_1 and G_2 be any two graphs, and for i = 1, 2 let $\phi_i \in$ Aut (G_i) . Define $(\phi_1, \phi_2) : G_1 \square G_2 \longrightarrow G_1 \square G_2$ by $(\phi_1, \phi_2)((x, y)) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(y))$. Then $(\phi_1, \phi_2) \in$ Aut $(G_1 \square G_2)$.

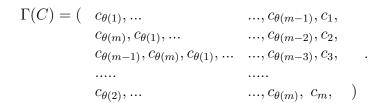
Proof. Let (x_1, x_2) and (y_1, y_2) be adjacent in $G_1 \square G_2$. Then either (1) x_1 and y_1 are adjacent in G_1 and $x_2 = y_2$ or (2) $x_1 = y_1$ and x_2 and y_2 are adjacent in G_2 . We must show that $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(x_1, x_2)$ and $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(y_1, y_2)$ are adjacent in $G_1 \square G_2$. By symmetry, it is sufficient to prove this for case (1). But then since $\phi_1 \in \text{Aut}(G_1)$, $\phi_1(x_1)$ and $\phi_1(y_1)$ are adjacent in G_1 , and since $x_2 = y_2$, $\phi_2(x_2) = \phi_2(y_2)$. Therefore $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(x_1, x_2)$ and $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(y_1, y_2)$ are adjacent in $G_1 \square G_2$. Conversely if $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(x_1, x_2) = (\phi_1(x_1), \phi_2(x_2))$ and $(\phi_1, \phi_2)(y_1, y_2) = (\phi_1(y_1), \phi_2(y_2))$ are adjacent in $G_1 \square G_2$ then $\phi_1(x_1) = \phi_1(y_1)$ or $\phi_2(x_2) = \phi_2(y_2)$. We can assume the first case by symmetry then $x_1 = y_1$ and x_2 is adjacent to y_2 in G_2 . Thus (x_1, x_2) and (y_1, y_2) are adjacent in $G_1 \square G_2$ and $(\phi_1, \phi_2) \in \text{Aut}(G_1 \square G_2)$. \square

The starting point of the theorem of Aubert and Schneider is an earlier result of G. Ringel [10] who proved that for $n = 2^k$, Q_n has an edge decomposition into Hamiltonian cycles. His proof is by induction on k. Let us recall the induction step. Let $m = 2^n$. Let θ be the mapping from $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ to $\{n + 1, \ldots, 2n\}$ defined by $\theta(i) = i + n$. Let C be a Hamiltonian cycle of Q_n then we can construct $\Phi(C)$ and $\Gamma(C)$ two disjoint Hamiltonian cycles of $Q_{2n} = Q_n \Box Q_n$ such that $E(C \Box C) = E(\Phi(C)) \cup E(\Gamma(C))$. Indeed fix an arbitrary vertex (say 0) and represent C by the sequence of directions $C = (c_1, \ldots, c_m)$ then consider

$$\Phi(C) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1, \dots, & \dots, c_{m-1}, c_{\theta(c_1)}, \\ c_m, c_1, \dots, & \dots, c_{m-2}, c_{\theta(c_2)}, \\ c_{m-1}, c_m, c_1, \dots, & \dots, c_{m-3}, c_{\theta(c_3)}, \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ c_2, \dots & \dots, c_m, c_{\theta(c_m)}, \end{pmatrix}$$

and

)



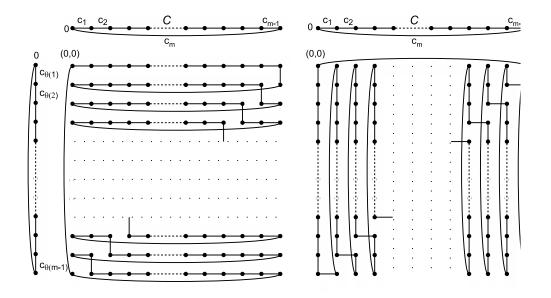


Figure 6: Construction of $\Phi(C)$ and $\Gamma(C)$ from C

It is immediate to check (see figure 6) that $\Phi(C)$ and $\Gamma(C)$ are disjoint and define a partition of the edges of $C \Box C$. For *n* even let p = n/2 and assume that $\{C^1, C^2, \ldots, C^p\}$ is an edge decomposition of Q_n in Hamiltonian cycles then as a consequence of Lemma 7, $\{\Phi(C^1), \Phi(C^2), \ldots, \Phi(C^p)\} \cup$ $\{\Gamma(C^1), \Gamma(C^2), \ldots, \Gamma(C^p)\}$ is an edge decomposition of Q_{2n} in Hamiltonian cycles.

Theorem 3 For any $k \ge 1, Q_{2^k}$ has a Hamiltonian cycle that is a fundamental set. Proof. This is trivial for k = 1 since $Q_2 = C_4$. The desired result follows by induction from Ringel's construction. Indeed let $n = 2^k, k \ge 1$ and assume that there exists an edge decomposition $\{C^1, C^2, \ldots, C^p\}$ of Q_n obtained as the translate of an Hamiltonian cycle C^1 under some subgroup \mathcal{E} of Aut (Q_n) . For any automorphism $\phi \in \text{Aut } (Q_n), (\phi, \phi) \in \text{Aut } (Q_{2n})$ by Lemma 8. Furthermore if $\phi(C^1) = C^i$ then $(\phi, \phi)(\Phi(C^1)) = \Phi(C^i)$ and $(\phi, \phi)(\Gamma(C^1)) = \Gamma(C^i)$. If we consider now the permutation θ on $\{1, \ldots, 2n\}$ defined by $\theta(i) = i + n \mod 2n$ then $\rho_{\theta}(\Phi(C^i)) = \Gamma(C^i)$. The conclusion follows since the subgroup of Aut (Q_{2n}) , isomorphic to $\mathcal{E} \times S_2$, defined by $\mathcal{H} =$ $\{(\phi, \phi); \phi \in \mathcal{E}\} \cup \{\rho_{\theta} \circ (\phi, \phi); \phi \in \mathcal{E}\}$ is such that $\{\Phi(C^1), \Phi(C^2), \ldots, \Phi(C^p)\} \cup$ $\{\Gamma(C^1), \Gamma(C^2), \ldots, \Gamma(C^p)\}$ are the translates of $\Phi(C^1)$ under \mathcal{H} . \Box

Corollary 8 For n and m each a power of 2, with $m \leq n$, there is an *m*-cycle that divides Q_n .

Proof. Let $m = 2^p$. By Theorem 3 Q_m has a fundamental 2^p -cycle, which therefore divides $Q_m = Q_{2^p}$. Since m and n are each powers of two, m divides n. Hence by Proposition 4 and Lemma 1, this cycle divides Q_n .

5 Summary of Results

1. For k odd, if P_k is a path on k edges that divides Q_n , then k divides n. (Proposition 3)

- 2. If k divides n, any tree on k edges divides Q_n . (Corollary 4)
- 3. If k divides n and k < n then P_{2k} divides Q_n . (Corollary 5)

4. If n is even and j < n then P_{2^j} divides Q_n . (Proposition 6)

5. For k = 2n there is a k-cycle which is a fundamental set for Q_n when n is even. (Proposition 7)

6. For n = a power of 2, there is a Hamiltonian cycle which is a fundamental set for Q_n . (Theorem 3)

7. For n = a power of 2 and m = a power of 2, with $m \leq n$, there is an *m*-cycle that divides Q_n . (Corollary 8)

8. For $n \ge 4$, P_4 divides Q_n . (Theorem 2)

9. Q_k is a fundamental set for Q_n if and only if k divides n. (Proposition 5) 10. For $k \ge 3$, P_{2^j} does not divide Q_{2k+1} . (Proposition 1)

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