# Two generalizations of the metamorphosis definition

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#### Abstract

Let  $B(k, \lambda)$  be the spectrum of integers n such that there exists a  $S_{\lambda}(2, k, n)$ , a balanced incomplete block design of order n, block size k and index  $\lambda$ . Lindner and Rosa [6] introduced the definition of a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  having a metamorphosis into a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$  and proved that the necessary condition  $n \in B(3, \lambda) \cap B(4, \lambda)$  is also sufficient.

The aim of this paper is to present two different generalizations of Lindner and Rosa's idea in order to consider metamorphoses of  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  for  $n \in B(4, \lambda)$  and  $n \notin B(3, \lambda)$ .

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## 1 Introduction

A balanced incomplete block design  $S_{\lambda}(2, k, n)$  is a pair  $(X, \mathcal{B})$ , where X is a n-set and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of k-subsets of X (blocks) such that any 2-

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subset of X is contained in exactly  $\lambda$  blocks. For  $\lambda = 1$  we write S(2, k, n) instead of  $S_1(2, k, n)$ .

A maximum packing of triples  $MPT(n, \lambda)$  is a pair  $(X, \mathcal{C})$ , where X is an *n*-set and  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of 3-subsets of X (blocks) such that: (i) each 2-subset of X is contained in at most  $\lambda$  blocks of  $\mathcal{C}$ , (ii) if  $\mathcal{D}$  is any collection of 3-subsets of X satisfying (i), then  $|\mathcal{C}| \geq |\mathcal{D}|$ .

Let  $(X, \mathcal{C})$  be a  $MPT(n, \lambda)$ ; the leave of  $(X, \mathcal{C})$  is a multigraph  $(X, \mathcal{E})$ where an edge  $\{x, y\} \in \mathcal{E}$  has multiplicity m if and only if the corresponding 2-subset  $\{x, y\}$  is contained in exactly  $\lambda - m$  blocks of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

Let  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  be a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ . If a star is removed from each block of  $\mathcal{B}$ the resulting collection of triangles  $P(\mathcal{B})$  is a partial  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$   $(X, P(\mathcal{B}))$ . If the edges belonging to the deleted stars can be arranged into a collection of triangles  $T(\mathcal{B})$ , then  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$ , called a metamorphosis of the  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$   $(X, \mathcal{B})$ . Lindner and Rosa [6] posed the following spectrum problem: "For every positive integer  $\lambda$ , determine the spectrum of integers n such that there exists a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  having a metamorphosis into a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$ ". The necessary condition for the existence of a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ having a metamorphosis into a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$  is  $n \in B(3, \lambda) \cap B(4, \lambda)$ , where  $B(k, \lambda)$  is the set of the integers n such that there is a  $S_{\lambda}(2, k, n)$ . Lindner and Rosa [6] proved that these necessary conditions are also sufficient. Table 1 summarizes Lindner and Rosa's results.

	Table 1			
$\lambda \pmod{6}$	spectrum of $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ having a metamorphosis into $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$			
0	$n \ge 4$			
1,5	$n \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$			
2,4	$n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$			
3	$n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$			

For  $n \in B(4, \lambda)$  and  $n \notin B(3, \lambda)$ , the following question is natural: How can we generalize the metamorphosis definition in order to construct a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  having a metamorphosis into some design as close as possible to a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$ ? The aim of this paper is to present two different answers.

Metamorphosis of a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  into a minimum  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, v)$ . Let

 $(X, \mathcal{B})$  be a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ . Let v be the minimum integer such that  $v \geq n$ and  $v \in \mathcal{B}(3, \lambda)$ , and let  $V = X \cup Y$  where |Y| = v - n. If a star is removed from each block of  $\mathcal{B}$  the resulting collection of triangles  $P(\mathcal{B})$  is a partial  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$   $(X, P(\mathcal{B}))$ . If the edges belonging to the deleted stars and to graphs  $K_Y$  and  $K_{X,Y}$ , can be arranged into a collection of triples  $T(\mathcal{B})$ , then  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, v)$ , called a metamorphosis of the  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$   $(X, \mathcal{B})$  into the minimum  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, v)$ . Metamorphosis of a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  into a MPT $(n, \lambda)$ . Let  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  be a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ . If a star is removed from each block of  $\mathcal{B}$  the resulting collection of triangles  $P(\mathcal{B})$  is a partial  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$   $(X, P(\mathcal{B}))$ . If the edges belonging to the deleted stars can be arranged into a collection of triangles  $T(\mathcal{B})$  and a collection of edges  $\mathcal{E}$  such that  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is a  $MPT(n, \lambda)$  with leave  $(X, \mathcal{E})$ , then  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is called a metamorphosis of the  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$   $(X, \mathcal{B})$  into a  $MPT(n, \lambda)$ .

It is straightforward to see that both these definitions coincide with Lindner and Rosa's metamorphosis whenever  $n \in B(3, \lambda)$ .

In this paper we solve the spectrum problems related to above definitions, leaving a few open cases in the case of the metamorphosis of a  $S_{\lambda}(2,4,n)$  into a  $MPT(n,\lambda)$ .

## 2 Metamorphosis of a $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ into a minimum $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, v)$

In Table 2 we show the sets  $B(k, \lambda)$  of integers n for which there exists a  $S_{\lambda}(2, k, n)$  for k = 3, 4 [11].

	Table 2		
$\lambda \pmod{6}$	$B(4,\lambda)$	$B(3,\lambda)$	
0	$n \ge 4$	$n \ge 3$	
1,5	$n \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{12}$	$n \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{6}$	
2,4	$n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$	$n\equiv 0,1 \pmod{3}$	
3	$n \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$	$n\equiv 1 \pmod{2}$	

Pairing Tables 1 and 2, we get the necessary conditions for the existence of a  $S_{\lambda}(2,4,n)$  having a metamorphosis into a minimum  $S_{\lambda}(2,3,v)$  (see Table 3). The sufficiency for v = n is proved in [6]. In this section we prove the sufficiency for v > n.

Table 3					
$\lambda \pmod{6}$	n	v - n			
0	$n \ge 4$	0			
1, 5	$1 \pmod{12}$	0			
1, 5	$4 \pmod{12}$	3			
2, 4	$1 \pmod{3}$	0			
3	1 (mod 4)	0			
3	$0 \pmod{4}$	1			

A  $(K, \lambda)$ -GDD (group divisible design of index  $\lambda$ , block sizes in K and order v) is a triple  $(V, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$ , where V is a v-set,  $\mathcal{G} = \{G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_m\}$  is a partition of V into subsets (called groups), and  $\mathcal{B}$  is a collection of subsets (blocks) of V which satisfy the properties:

- 1. If  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  then  $|B| \in K$ .
- 2. Every pair of distinct elements of V occurs in exactly  $\lambda$  blocks or one group, but not both.
- 3.  $|\mathcal{G}| > 1$ .

We say that the  $(K, \lambda)$ -GDD is of type  $v_1^{h_1}v_2^{h_2} \dots v_t^{h_t}$ , if there are  $h_i$  groups of size  $v_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$ . We write  $(k, \lambda)$ -GDD instead of  $(\{k\}, \lambda)$ -GDD.

Let  $(V, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$  be a  $(4, \lambda)$ -GDD. If a star is removed from each block of  $\mathcal{B}$  the resulting collection of triangles  $P(\mathcal{B})$  is a partial  $(3, \lambda)$ -GDD  $(V, \mathcal{G}, P(\mathcal{B}))$ . If the edges belonging to the deleted stars can be arranged into a collection of triangles  $T(\mathcal{B})$ , then  $(V, \mathcal{G}, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is a  $(3, \lambda)$ -GDD, called a metamorphosis of the  $(4, \lambda)$ -GDD  $(V, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{B})$ .

The following result is given by Lindner and Rosa [6].

**Lemma 2.1.** For every integer  $h \ge 5$ , there is a (4,1)-GDD of type  $12^h$  having a metamorphosis into a (3,1)-GDD of type  $12^h$ .

Obviously, only the cases  $\lambda = 1, 3$  must be considered. Starting cases are collected in the following lemma. See [9] for a proof.

- **Lemma 2.2.** 1. A S(2,4,n) having a metamorphosis into a S(2,3,n+3) exists for n = 4, 16, 28, 40, 52.
  - 2. A  $S_3(2, 4, n)$  having a metamorphosis into a  $S_3(2, 3, n + 1)$  exists for n = 4, 8, 12, 16, 28, 32.
  - 3. There exists a S(2, 4, 16) with one hole H of size 4 having a metamorphosis into a partial S(2, 3, 16) whose leave is given by three 1-factors on vertex set  $X \setminus H$ .

**Theorem 2.3.** A S(2, 4, n) having a metamorphosis into a S(2, 3, n + 3) exists for every integer  $n \equiv 4 \pmod{12}$ ,  $n \geq 4$ .

**Proof** For n = 4, 16, 28, 40, 52, see Lemma 2.2. Let n = 4 + 12h,  $h \ge 5$ . By Lemma 2.1, there is a (4, 1)-GDD of type  $12^h$  having a metamorphosis into a (3, 1)-GDD of type  $12^h$ . Denote the groups by  $G_i$ , i = 1, 2, ..., h. Let  $H = \{\infty_1, \infty_2, \infty_3, \infty_4\}$ . Produce a S(2, 4, 16) on vertex set  $G_1 \cup H$  having a metamorphosis into a S(2, 3, 19) on vertex set  $G_1 \cup H \cup \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ . For every i = 2, 3, ..., h, produce a copy of the S(2, 4, 16), given in 3 of Lemma 2.2, on vertex set  $G_i \cup H$  and hole H. This design has a metamorphosis into a partial S(2,3,16) with leave  $F_j^i$ , j = 1, 2, 3. Form the triples  $\{a_j, x, y\}$ ,  $\{x, y\} \in F_j^i$ .  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 2.4.** A  $S_3(2, 4, n)$  having a metamorphosis into a  $S_3(2, 3, n+1)$  exists for every integer  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ ,  $n \geq 4$ .

**Proof** For n = 4, 8, 12, 16, 28, 32, see Lemma 2.2. A PBD of order m with block sizes 5, 9 and 13 exists for all  $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  except for m = 17, 29, 33 [11]. Remove a point to obtain a ( $\{5, 9, 13\}, 1$ )-GDD of order m - 1 with groups whose sizes lie in  $\{4, 8, 12\}$ . Place a solution on each block (see [6]) and on each group.

# 3 Metamorphosis of a $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ into a MPT $(n, \lambda)$

Let  $(X, \mathcal{C})$  be a  $MPT(n, \lambda)$  with leave  $(X, \mathcal{E})$ . If  $\mathcal{E} = \emptyset$ , then  $(X, \mathcal{C})$  is a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 3, n)$  and Lindner and Rosa's metamorphosis works. So we have to find a solution for  $n \equiv 4 \pmod{12}$ , if  $\lambda \equiv 1, 5 \pmod{6}$ , and for  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , if  $\lambda \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$ . So, only  $\lambda = 1, 3$  must be considered. Note that there are different graphs which can be leaves of a MPT(n, 3),  $n \equiv 8 \pmod{12}$  [10]. In this paper we don't consider all possible leaves but only one, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4						
λ	n	leave				
$\equiv 1,5 \pmod{6}$	$\equiv 4 \pmod{12}$	1FY				
$\equiv 3 \pmod{6}$	$\equiv 0 \pmod{12}$	1F				
$\equiv 3 \pmod{6}$	$\equiv 4 \pmod{12}$	1FY				
$\equiv 3 \pmod{6}$	$\equiv 8 \pmod{12}$	$1F_3$				

Here 1F, 1FY and  $1F_3$  are the following graphs.

1F a matching on n vertices;

- 1FY a tripole (matching on n-4 vertices and a tree on 4 vertices with one vertex of degree 3);
- $1F_3$  a matching on n-2 vertices and a triple edge  $\{a, b\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, b\}$ .

Starting cases are collected in the following lemma. See [9] for a proof.

# **Lemma 3.1.** 1. There exists a S(2,4,n) having a metamorphosis into a MPT(16,1).

- 2. There exists a S(2, 4, 16)  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  with one hole H of size 4 having a metamorphosis into a partial S(2, 3, 16)  $(X, \mathcal{C})$  whose leave is one 1-factor on vertex set  $X \setminus H$ .
- 3. A  $S_3(2,4,n)$  having a metamorphosis into a MPT(n,3) (with leave shown in Table 4) there is for n = 8, 12, 20, 24, 32.
- There esists a (4,1)-GDD of type 4<sup>4</sup> having a metamorphosis into a (3,1)-GDD of type 4<sup>4</sup>.
- 5. There exists a  $S_3(2, 4, 32)$   $(X, \mathcal{B})$  such that: (i)  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  embeds a  $S_3(2, 4, 8)$   $(A, \mathcal{A})$  having a metamorphosis into a MPT(8, 3)  $(A, P(\mathcal{A}) \cup T(\mathcal{A}))$ ; (ii)  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  has a metamorphosis into a MPT(32, 3)  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$ ; (iii)  $(A, P(\mathcal{A}) \cup T(\mathcal{A}))$  is embedded into  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$ ; (iv) the leave of  $(A, P(\mathcal{A}) \cup T(\mathcal{A}))$  is a subgraph of the leave of  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** A S(2, 4, n) having a metamorphosis into a MPT(n, 1) exists for every integer  $n \equiv 4 \pmod{12}$ ,  $n \geq 4$ , except possibly for n = 28, 40, 52.

**Proof** The proof for n = 4 is trivial. For n = 16, Lemma 3.1 gives a S(2, 4, 16) having a metamorphosis into a MPT(16, 1) which embeds a MPT(4, 1). Let n = 4 + 12h,  $h \ge 5$ . By Lemma 2.1, there is a (4, 1)-GDD of type  $12^h$  having a metamorphosis into a (3, 1)-GDD of type  $12^h$ . Denote the groups by  $G_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, h$ . Let  $H = \{\infty_1, \infty_2, \infty_3, \infty_4\}$ . As in Lemma 3.1, produce a S(2, 4, 16) on vertex set  $G_1 \cup H$ . For  $i = 2, 3, \ldots, h$ , produce a copy of the S(2, 4, 16) on vertex set  $G_i \cup H$ , having the hole H.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 3.3.** A  $S_3(2,4,n)$  having a metamorphosis into a MPT(n,3) (with leave shown in Table 4) exists for every integer  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ ,  $n \geq 4$ , except possibly for n = 28, 36, 40, 44, 48, 52, 56, 68, 80, 92, 104.

**Proof** For n = 8, 12, 20, 24, 32, see Lemma 3.1. For  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{12}$ ,  $n \geq 60$ , place a copy of the  $S_3(2, 4, 12)$ , given in Lemma 3.1, into each group of the (4, 1)-GDD of Lemma 2.1.

For  $n \equiv 4 \pmod{12}$ ,  $n \geq 4$  and  $n \neq 28, 40, 52$ , paste together a solution of  $\lambda = 1$  (Theorem 3.2) and a solution of  $\lambda = 2$  [6].

Let  $n \equiv 8 \pmod{12}$ ,  $n \geq 116$ . The Handbook of Combinatorial Designs [11] gives a (4, 1)-GDD of type  $6^u$  for every  $u \geq 5$ , and of type  $6^u3$  for every  $u \geq 4$ . Giving weight 4 to all points, we get a (4, 1)-GDD  $(X, \mathcal{G}_1, \mathcal{B}_1)$  of type  $24^u$  and a (4, 1)-GDD  $(X, \mathcal{G}_2, \mathcal{B}_2)$  of type  $24^u12$ , respectively. Let  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_8\}$ . If  $n \equiv 8 \pmod{24}$ , then

• On each block of  $\mathcal{B}_1$  place a copy of the (4, 1)-GDD given in 4 of Lemma 3.1.

- For each group  $G \in \mathcal{G}_1$ , produce a copy of the  $S_3(2, 4, 32)$ , given in 5 of Lemma 3.1, having vertex set  $G \cup A$  and hole A.
- On the hole A place a  $S_3(2,4,8)$  having metamorphosis into a MPT(8,3).

If  $n \equiv 20 \pmod{24}$ , then

- On each block of  $\mathcal{B}_2$  place a copy of the (4, 1)-GDD given in 4 of Lemma 3.1.
- For each group  $G \in \mathcal{G}_2$  such that |G| = 24, produce a copy of the  $S_3(2, 4, 32)$ , given in 5 of Lemma 3.1, having vertex set  $G \cup A$  and hole A.
- On the group of size 20 place a  $S_3(2, 4, 20)$  having metamorphosis into a MPT(20, 3).  $\Box$

#### 4 Open Questions and Remarks

- 1. Remove the possible exceptions in Theorems 3.2 and 3.3.
- 2. For  $\lambda = 3$  and  $n \equiv 8 \pmod{12}$ , find a metamorphosis of a  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$  into a  $MPT(n, \lambda)$  with any possible leave [10].
- 3. Let  $G_1$  be a subgraph of G. Then Lindner and Rosa's metamorphosis can be easily generalized in the following way. Let  $(X, \mathcal{B})$  be a G-decomposition of the multigraph  $\lambda K_n$  [11]. If a graph isomorphic to  $G \setminus G_1$  is removed from each G-block of  $\mathcal{B}$ , the resulting collection of  $G_1$ -blocks  $P(\mathcal{B})$  is a partial  $G_1$ -decomposition of  $\lambda K_n$   $(X, P(\mathcal{B}))$ . If the edges belonging to the deleted subgraphs can be arranged into a collection of  $G_1$ -blocks  $T(\mathcal{B})$ , then  $(X, P(\mathcal{B}) \cup T(\mathcal{B}))$  is a  $G_1$ -decomposition of  $\lambda K_n$ , called a metamorphosis of the G-decomposition  $(X, \mathcal{B})$ . The related spectrum problem has been solved for many pairs of graphs G and  $G_1$  [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8].

Extend both metamorphosis definitions, given in this paper for  $S_{\lambda}(2, 4, n)$ , to *G*-decompositions of  $\lambda K_n$  and solve the related spectrum problems.

4. During the meeting ISGDA (Messina, October 2003) we learnt that the generalization of the metamorphosis definition given in Section 3 is not new. The problem of the metamorphosis of some graph designs of order v and index  $\lambda$  into a  $MPT(v, \lambda)$  is considered by other authors and their papers are not published yet. But, as we know, no other paper studies the same problem of Section 3.

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#### A Partition Problem for Sets of Permutation Matrices

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1 Introduction Consider a set  $\mathcal{P}$  of permutation matrices of order n. What is the smallest integer m such that  $\mathcal{P}$  can be partitioned into subsets  $\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{P}_m$  such that

$$\sum \{P : P \in \mathcal{P}_i\}, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, m)$$

are (0,1)-matrices? Let  $G(\mathcal{P})$  be a graph with vertex set  $\mathcal{P}$  with an edge joining two permutation matrices  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}$  provided P and Q have a 1 in common (that is, a 1 in the same position). The integer m equals the chromatic number  $\chi(G(\mathcal{P}))$ . Natural sets  $\mathcal{P}$  of permutation matrices arise by choosing  $A = [a_{ij}]$  to be a (0, 1)-matrix and

$$\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_A = \{P : P \le A, P \text{ is a permutation matrix}\}.$$
 (1)

(Here the inequality  $P \leq A$  is interpreted entrywise.) In this case the sets  $\mathcal{P}_i$  in the partition must satisfy

 $\sum \{P : P \in \mathcal{P}_i\} \le A.$ 

A more restrictive problem requires that

$$\sum \{P : P \in \mathcal{P}_i\} = A \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, m).$$

$$\tag{2}$$

If (2) holds, then

$$\sum \{P : P \in \mathcal{P}_A\} = mA,$$

and we say that  $\mathcal{P}_A$  has a *perfect partition*. The cardinality of the set  $\mathcal{P}_A$  equals the *permanent* of A defined, as usual, by:

$$\operatorname{per}(A) = \sum_{(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n) \in S_n} a_{1i_1} a_{2i_2} \cdots a_{ni_n},$$

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where the summation is over the symmetric group  $S_n$  of all permutations of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ .

Suppose that  $\mathcal{P}_A$  has a perfect partition. Then there are two consequences for the structure of A. First, there is an integer k such that all row and column sums of A equal k, and this integer k satisfies the equation per(A) = mk. Second, a perfect partition implies that each 1 of A belongs to m permutation matrices  $P \leq A$ , and hence, where A(i, j) denotes the submatrix of A obtained by deleting row i and column j, that

$$\operatorname{per} A(i,j) = m \text{ if } a_{ij} = 1,$$

that is, the permanental minors of the 1's of A all equal the same constant m.

Let  $G_A = G(\mathcal{P}_A)$ . Since the chromatic number of  $G_A$  equals the minimal number of independent sets into which  $\mathcal{P}_A$  can be partitioned, we have

$$\chi(G_A) \ge \frac{\operatorname{per}(A)}{\alpha(G_A)},\tag{3}$$

where  $\alpha(G_A)$  is the maximal size of an independent set of  $G_A$ . We can have equality in (3) only if  $\alpha(G_A)|\text{per}(A)$ . If  $\mathcal{P}_A$  has a *perfect partition*, then the integer m in (2) equals  $\chi(G_A)$ . Since  $\chi(G_A)$  is an integer, (3) implies that

$$\chi(G_A) \ge \left\lceil \frac{\operatorname{per}(A)}{\alpha(G_A)} \right\rceil.$$
(4)

By a theorem of Folkman and Fulkerson [2] (see also Theorem 6.4.3 in [1]), the independence number  $\alpha(G_A)$  equals

$$\min\left\{\frac{\operatorname{sum}(A_{kl})}{k+l-n}: k+l > n\right\}$$

where the minimum is taken over all pairs of integers k and l with  $n < k+l \leq 2n$  and  $k \times l$  submatrices  $A_{kl}$  of A, and  $sum(A_{kl})$  is the sum of the entries of  $A_{kl}$ .

There is a geometrical interpretation of the perfect partition problem. Recall that a necessary condition for the existence of a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_A$  is that the sum of matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_A$  is a multiple of A. Thus, the average of  $\mathcal{P}_A$ , which can also be viewed as the centroid of the convex hull of  $\mathcal{P}_A$ , has the form  $\gamma A$ . Clearly, every element in  $\mathcal{P}_A$  is an extreme point of the convex hull of  $\mathcal{P}_A$ . (To see this, note that every element X in  $\mathcal{P}_A$  has the same Frobenius norm (trace  $XX^t$ )<sup>1/2</sup> and therefore cannot be written as a convex combination of the others.) If A has row sums and column sums all equal to k, then one needs at least k elements in  $\mathcal{P}_A$  whose average (regarded as the centroid of the convex hull of the k elements) is equal to  $\gamma A$ ; if the desired partition is a partition of  $\mathcal{P}_A$  in k-element sets, then each of them has the same average as that of  $\mathcal{P}_A$ .

In the subsequent discussion, let  $J_n$  be the  $n \times n$  matrix of all 1's. In the next section we consider perfect partitions of  $S_n = \mathcal{P}_{J_n}$  (where we now regard  $S_n$  as the set of  $n \times n$  permutation matrices) and the alternating group  $\mathcal{A}_n$  of all  $n \times n$  even permutation matrices (permutation matrices with determinant equal to 1). In Section 3, we consider the set  $\mathcal{D}_n = \mathcal{P}_{J_n-I_n}$  of  $n \times n$  derangement permutation matrices; we present some partial results and open problems. Additional open questions are discussed in the final section.

**2** Partitioning  $S_n$  and  $A_n$  We have  $\alpha(J_n) = n$  and  $per(J_n) = n!$ , and it is easy to show that  $\sum_{X \in S_n} X = (n-1)!J_n$ . Can we partition  $S_n$ into (n-1)! subsets so that the sum of the matrices in each subset is  $J_n$ ? The answer is affirmative.

**Proposition 2.1** The set  $S_n = \mathcal{P}_{J_n}$  is a disjoint union of (n-1)! subsets such that the sum of the matrices in each subset is  $J_n$ . Hence  $S_n$  has a perfect partition.

*Proof.* Let  $H = \{I_n, P, \dots, P^{n-1}\}$  where P is the basic  $n \times n$  circulant matrix

[0]	1	0		0	0		
0	0	1	• • •	0	0		
$\begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\\vdots\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$	÷	:	·.,	0	0		(5)
0	0	0		0	1		
1	0	0		0	0		

Then *H* is a cyclic group with *n* elements whose sum is the matrix  $J_n$ . There are (n-1)! cosets of *H* in  $S_n$ . Each coset has the form  $QH = \{QP^j : j = 0, ..., n-1\}$  for some  $Q \in S_n$ . Clearly, the sum of the matrices in each coset is also the matrix  $J_n$ .

Now we consider the group  $\mathcal{A}_n$  of even permutation matrices. We have  $|\mathcal{A}_n| = n!/2$ , and it is not hard to show that  $\sum_{X \in \mathcal{A}_n} X = [(n-1)!/2]J_n$  if  $n \geq 3$ . Can we partition  $\mathcal{A}_n$  into (n-1)!/2 subsets so that the sum of the matrices in each subset is  $J_n$ ? We have the following result.

**Proposition 2.2** Suppose  $n \ge 3$ . The set  $\mathcal{A}_n$  can be partitioned into (n-1)!/2 subsets so that the sum of the matrices in each subset is  $J_n$ .

*Proof.* We consider three cases according to n.

**Case 1.** If  $n \ge 3$  is odd, then the basic circulant matrix P is in  $\mathcal{A}_n$ . Thus  $H = \langle P \rangle$  is a subgroup of  $\mathcal{A}_n$  with (n-1)!/2 cosets, and the sum of the matrices in each coset is  $J_n$ .

**Case 2.** If n = 4k for some positive integer k, we can prove by induction that:

There is a subgroup H in  $\mathcal{A}_n$  with n elements whose sum equals  $J_n$ , and hence the cosets of the group H will be a desired partition.

When k = 1, let  $H_4$  be the subgroup of  $\mathcal{A}_4$  containing all the elements of order 2 or 0 ( $H_4$  is the 2-Sylow subgroup of  $\mathcal{A}_4$ ). One can readily check that the the sum of the matrices in  $H_4$  sum up to  $J_4$ .

Now, suppose the result is true for n = 4k for some  $k \ge 1$ . Consider the case when n = 4(k + 1). By the induction assumption, there is a group  $H_{4k}$  of  $\mathcal{A}_{4k}$  such that the sum of the matrices in  $H_{4k}$  is  $J_{4k}$ . Let  $H = \{A \otimes B : A \in H_4, B \in H_{4k}\}$ , where  $X \otimes Y = (x_{ij}Y)$  denotes the usual tensor product of two matrices. Then H is a subgroup of  $\mathcal{A}_n$  with n = 4(k+1) elements whose sum is the matrix  $J_n$ . By induction, our claim is proved.

**Case 3.** Let n = 2m for some odd integer m. We consider the subgroup K of  $\mathcal{A}_n$  consisting of matrices of the form  $A \oplus B$ , where A and B are  $m \times m$  permutation matrices. There are  $(m!)^2/2$  such matrices. To see this, if we allow A and B to be arbitrary matrices in  $\mathcal{S}_m$ , there will be  $(m!)^2$  such matrices in  $\mathcal{S}_n$ . Since half of them are odd permutations, we see that K has  $(m!)^2/2$  elements as asserted.

We claim that K can be partitioned into  $m((m-1)!)^2/2$  subsets such that each subset has m elements summing up to  $J_m \oplus J_m$ . To this end, let  $P \in S_m$  be the basic circulant. Let  $G = \langle P \rangle$ , and let  $Q_1G, \ldots, Q_rG$  be the cosets of G in  $S_m$ , where  $r = (m-1)!, Q_1, \ldots, Q_{r/2} \in A_m$  and  $Q_j \notin A_m$  for j > r/2.

For each i, j = 1, ..., r/2, consider the following *m*-element subsets of  $\mathcal{A}_n$ :

$$\mathcal{S}_{ij1} = \{ (Q_i \oplus Q_j) (P \oplus P)^k : k = 0, \dots, m-1 \},\$$

 $\mathcal{S}_{ij2} = \{ X(I_m \oplus P) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}, \quad \mathcal{S}_{ij3} = \{ X(I_m \oplus P^2) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}, \quad \dots,$ 

$$\ldots, \quad \mathcal{S}_{ijm} = \{ X(I_m \oplus P^{m-1}) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}.$$

We get  $m(r/2)^2$  disjoint *m*-element subsets of *K*.

Next, for each  $i, j = r/2 + 1, \ldots, r$ , consider

$$\mathcal{S}_{ij1} = \{ (Q_i \oplus Q_j) (P \oplus P)^k : k = 0, \dots, m-1 \},\$$

 $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_{ij2} &= \{ X(I_m \oplus P) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}, \quad \mathcal{S}_{ij3} = \{ X(I_m \oplus P^2) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}, \quad \dots, \\ &\dots, \quad \mathcal{S}_{ijm} = \{ X(I_m \oplus P^{m-1}) : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ij1} \}. \end{aligned}$ 

We get another  $m(r/2)^2$  disjoint *m*-element subsets of *K*.

Consequently, we get  $mr^2/2 = m((m-1)!)^2/2$  disjoint *m*-element subsets of *K*. Moreover, the matrices in each subset sum up to  $J_m \oplus J_m$  as desired.

Now, consider the matrix R obtained by switching the first two rows of  $\begin{pmatrix} 0_m & I_m \\ I_m & 0_m \end{pmatrix}$ . Then  $R \in \mathcal{A}_m$ . Let

$$H = K \cup \{RX : X \in K\}.$$

One easily checks that H is the subgroup of  $\mathcal{A}_n$  consisting of matrices of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix}$$
 or  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & C \\ D & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Moreover, for each set  $S_{ijk}$  defined above, we may construct

$$T_{ijk} = \mathcal{S}_{ijk} \cup \{RX : X \in \mathcal{S}_{ijk}\}.$$

Then each  $T_{ijk}$  will have n = 2m elements summing up to  $J_n$ , and these  $T_{ijk}$  form a partition of the subgroup H.

Now, let  $H, W_1H, W_2H, \ldots, W_tH$  be the cosets of H in  $\mathcal{A}_n$ , where  $t+1 = |\mathcal{A}_n|/|H|$ . Each coset  $W_sH$  is a disjoint union of  $W_sT_{ijk}$ 's, and each  $W_sT_{ijk}$  has n elements summing up to  $J_n$ .

**Corollary 2.3** The set  $S_n$  has a perfect partition in which each part of the partition consists of all even permutation matrices or all odd permutation matrices.

*Proof.* As in the proof of Proposition 2.1, the coset of odd permutations also can be partitioned into sets summing to  $J_n$ .

3 Partitioning  $\mathcal{D}_n = \mathcal{P}_{J_n-I_n}$ : Partial Result Let  $L_n = J_n - I_n$ . For n = 2, ..., 5 we show that  $\mathcal{D}_n = \mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  can be partitioned into subsets each with n-1 matrices that sum to  $L_n$ .

In the following discussion, we identify a permutation  $\sigma$  in disjoint cycle representation with the corresponding permutation matrix in  $S_n$ . For example, (1,2)(3,4) represents the permutation obtained from the identity matrix by interchanging the first and second rows, and also the third and fourth rows. Then  $\sigma \in S_n$  is a derangement if and only if  $\sigma(i) \neq i$  for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . Moreover, the elements in a set of derangements  $\{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{n-1}\} \subseteq \mathcal{D}_n$  sum to  $L_n$  if and only if  $\sigma_r(i) \neq \sigma_s(i)$  for  $r \neq s$  and for all  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . We have the following partial result for the partition problem of  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$ .

**Proposition 3.1** The set  $\mathcal{D}_n$  has a perfect partition if  $n \leq 5$ .

*Proof.* If n = 2, then  $\mathcal{D}_n = \{L_n\}$  is a singleton. If n = 3, then the members of  $\mathcal{D}_n = \{(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2)\}$  sum to  $L_n$ .

For n = 4, a permutation belongs to  $\mathcal{D}_n$  if and only if it is a 4-cycle or a product of two disjoint transpositions. If

$$F_1 = \{(1, 2)(3, 4), (1, 3, 2, 4), (1, 4, 2, 3)\},\$$
  

$$F_2 = \{(1, 3)(2, 4), (1, 2, 3, 4), (1, 4, 3, 2)\},\$$
  

$$F_3 = \{(1, 4)(2, 3), (1, 2, 4, 3), (1, 3, 4, 2)\},\$$

then  $\mathcal{D}_4 = \bigcup_{k=1}^3 F_k$  and the members of each  $F_k$  sum to  $L_4$ .

For n = 5, a permutation belongs to  $\mathcal{D}_n$  if and only if it is of the form  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$  or  $(i_1, i_2)(i_3, i_4, i_5)$ . Let  $\mathcal{D}'_5 \subset \mathcal{D}_5$  be the set of derangements of the form  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5)$  and let  $\mathcal{D}''_5 \subset \mathcal{D}_5$  be the set of derangements of the form  $(i_1, i_2)(i_3, i_4, i_5)$ . Observe that  $|\mathcal{D}'_5| = 24$  and  $|\mathcal{D}''_5| = 20$ . We show that  $\mathcal{D}'_5$  and  $\mathcal{D}''_5$  can be partitioned into 6 and 5 subsets, respectively, such that the members of each subset sum to  $L_5$ .

Let  $\tau_1 = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), \tau_2 = (1, 2, 3, 5, 4), \tau_3 = (1, 2, 4, 3, 5), \tau_4 = (1, 2, 4, 5, 3), \tau_5 = (1, 2, 5, 3, 4), \text{ and } \tau_6 = (1, 2, 5, 4, 3).$  If  $T_k = \{\tau_k, \tau_k^2, \tau_k^3, \tau_k^4\}$ , then the collection of subsets  $T_1, \ldots, T_6$  forms a partition of  $\mathcal{D}'_5$  such that the members of each  $T_k$  sum to  $L_5$ . Now, consider the following subsets of  $\mathcal{D}'_5$ :

$$R_{1} = \{(1, 2)(3, 4, 5), (1, 3)(2, 5, 4), (1, 4)(2, 3, 5), (1, 5)(2, 4, 3)\}$$

$$R_{2} = \{(2, 1)(3, 5, 4), (2, 3)(1, 4, 5), (2, 4)(1, 5, 3), (2, 5)(1, 3, 4)\}$$

$$R_{3} = \{(3, 1)(2, 4, 5), (3, 2)(1, 5, 4), (3, 4)(1, 2, 5), (3, 5)(1, 4, 2)\}$$

 $R_4 = \{(4,1)(2,5,3), (4,2)(1,3,5), (4,3)(1,5,2), (4,5)(1,2,3)\}$  $R_5 = \{(5,1)(2,3,4), (5,2)(1,4,3), (5,3)(1,2,4), (5,4)(1,3,2)\}.$ 

Then the collection of subsets  $R_1, \ldots, R_5$  forms a partition of  $\mathcal{D}_5''$  such that the members of each  $R_k$  sum to  $L_5$ . This completes the partition of  $\mathcal{D}_5$ .  $\Box$ 

The problem of partitioning  $\mathcal{D}_n$  with  $n \ge 6$  is more difficult. In the following, we describe several different approaches we considered.

First, we divide the set  $\mathcal{D}_n$  into subsets according to different cycle decompositions, and we attempt to show that each of these subsets admits a partition into (n-1)-element subsets with elements summing to  $L_n$ . In particular, when n = 5, the partition was done in this way. When we apply this idea to  $\mathcal{D}_6$ , we get the following subsets:

 $T_1$ : the set of length-6 cycles – 120 elements;

 $T_2$ : the set of permutations obtained by the product of a 2-cycle and a 4-cycle – 90 elements;

 $T_3$ : the set of permutations obtained by the product of two 3-cycles - 40 elements;

 $T_4$ : the set of permutations obtained by the product of three 2-cycles – 15 elements.

For each subset, the sum of its elements (say, denoted by X) will be a multiple of  $L_n$  because all of the diagonal entries of X are zeroes and  $PXP^t = X$  for every permutation matrix P. However, this approach to partitioning  $\mathcal{D}_n$  fails when n = 6. One can check that the set  $T_4$  cannot be partitioned into three 5-element subsets such that the elements in each subset sum up to  $L_6$ .

An alternative idea is to select 15 elements  $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_{15}$  from  $T_1$  and construct disjoint subsets

$$U_i = \{\tau_i^j : j = 1, \dots, 5\}$$

so that each of them has elements summing up to  $L_6$ . Note that each  $U_i$  will have two elements in  $T_1$ , two elements in  $T_3$ , and one element in  $T_4$ . If this is done, then we are left with 90 elements in  $T_1$ , the entire set  $T_2$ , and 10 elements in  $T_3$ .

Another scheme is to select one element in  $T_4$  and four elements in  $T_1$  of the form  $\tau_1, \tau_1^{-1}, \tau_2, \tau_2^{-1}$  to form a set whose elements sum up to  $L_6$ . Here is an example:

(1,2)(3,4)(5,6), (1,3,5,2,6,4), (1,4,6,2,5,3), (1,6,3,2,4,5), (1,5,4,2,3,6).

In fact, one can construct 15 sets of such form and use up the 15 elements in  $T_4$  together with 60 elements in  $T_1$ .

It is also possible to use two elements in  $T_3$  and three elements in  $T_1$  to form a set whose elements sum up to  $L_6$ . Here is an example:

(1, 2, 3)(4, 5, 6), (1, 3, 2)(4, 6, 5), (1, 4, 2, 5, 3, 6), (1, 5, 2, 6, 3, 4), (1, 6, 2, 4, 3, 5).

One can actually construct 20 subsets of this form and use up the 40 elements in  $T_3$  together with 60 elements in  $T_1$ .

One may want to use the two schemes in the last two paragraphs to exhaust the elements in  $T_1$ ,  $T_3$ , and  $T_4$ , but this strategy seems to be impossible. Of course, even if it can be done, one must still partition the elements in  $T_2$  into 18 sets, each of which has elements summing up to  $L_6$ . Here is an example of such a set:

(1, 2)(3, 4, 5, 6), (1, 3)(2, 4, 6, 5), (1, 4)(2, 5, 3, 6), (1, 5)(2, 6, 4, 3), (1, 6)(2, 3, 5, 4).

It is unclear whether one can construct 18 disjoint subsets of  $T_2$  with the desired property.

Thus, the problem of finding a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  seems difficult. We close this section with a statement of the problem and some related questions:

**Problem 3.2** For  $n \ge 6$ , is there a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  or  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n} \cap \mathcal{A}_n$ ? **Problem 3.3** For  $n \ge 6$ , is there a perfect partition for the collection of permutations in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  with some specific cycle decomposition?

For example, can the set of permutations obtained by the product of a 2-cycle and an (n-2)-cycle be partitioned into subsets such that the elements of each subset sum up to  $L_n$ ? The answer is no for n = 4, yes for n = 5, and unknown for  $n \ge 6$ .

4 Additional Problems We continue to use P to denote the basic circulant as defined in (5). Note that  $J_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} P^k$  and  $L_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} P^k$ . For any subsets  $K \subseteq \{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$ , let

$$P_{K} = \sum_{k \in K} P^{k}.$$

A general question is:

**Problem 4.1** Determine  $K \subseteq \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$  so that  $\mathcal{P}_{P_{K}}$  (respectively,  $\mathcal{P}_{P_{K}} \cap \mathcal{A}_{n}$ ) has a perfect partition.

By the results in the previous sections, we see that both problems in Problem 4.1 have affirmative answers if |K| = n. If |K| = 1, then both problems also have affirmative answers trivially. If |K| = 2, then we have the following proposition.

**Proposition 4.2** Let  $A = I_n + P^k$  with 0 < k < n. Then  $\mathcal{P}_A$  admits a perfect partition.

*Proof.* Write  $P^k$  in disjoint cycle notation. There are two cases.

**Case 1.** If (n, k) is relatively prime, then  $P^k$  is just one long cycle, and  $I_n$  and  $P^k$  are the only two elements in  $\mathcal{P}_A$ , which admits a trivial perfect partition.

**Case 2.** If d > 1 is the greatest common divisor of n and k, and m = n/d, then  $P^k$  is the product of d cycles of length m. Now, we can rewrite  $A = I_n + P^k$  as the direct sum of  $d \ m \times m$  matrices, each of which is  $I_m + Q$ , where Q is the  $m \times m$  basic circulant. In this form, one readily checks that  $X \in \mathcal{P}_A$  if and only if  $X = X_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus X_d$  such that  $X_j \in \{I_m, Q\}$ . Thus, there are  $2^d$  matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_A$ . Moreover,  $\mathcal{P}_A$  has a perfect partition consisting of sets of the form  $\{X, A - X\}$  with  $X \in \mathcal{P}_A$ .

If |K| = n - 1, we basically have the  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  problem, and we only have partial results. If |K| = 3, even the necessary condition for a perfect partition may not hold. Here is an example which can be verified readily. **Example 4.3** For n = 5 there are 13 matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_A$  for  $A = I_n + P + P^2$ or  $A = I_n + P^2 + P^3$ . In either case, a perfect partition is impossible.

Note that in general, if |K| = n-2, then  $P_K = J_n - P^r - P^s$ . Replacing  $P_K$  by  $P^j P_K$  for a suitable  $j \in \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ , we may assume that (r, s) = (-l, l) with  $1 \le l \le n/2$ , or (r, s) = (0, 1). For example, for n = 5, we only need to consider the cases in Example 4.3.

If n is even and (r, s) = (-l, l) with  $1 \le l \le n/2$ , then up to a permutation equivalence, i.e., replace A by RAS for some suitable  $R, S \in S_n$ , we can assume that  $P_K = J_n - (I_{n/2} \otimes J_2)$ , which can be viewed as a generalization of  $L_n$ . In general, if n = km, we consider  $L_{n,k} = J_n - (I_m \otimes J_k)$ . We have the following.

**Proposition 4.4** Suppose  $n \ge 4$  and n = km. Then per  $(L_{n,k})$  is a multiple of (n-k). Moreover, if  $n > k \ge 2$ , then  $|\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}} \cap \mathcal{A}_n| = \text{per } (L_{n,k})/2$  is also a multiple of (n-k).

*Proof.* Use Laplace expansion about the first row of  $L_{n,k}$ . Note that all of the submatrices of  $L_{n,k}$  obtained by deleting the first row and *j*th column with  $k < j \leq n$  are permutationally equivalent and have the same permanent, say, *r*. Thus, per  $(L_{n,k}) = (n-k)r$ .

Next, suppose  $n > k \ge 2$ . Then for each  $\sigma \in \mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}}$ , we have  $(1,2)\sigma \in \mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}}$ , and either  $\sigma$  or  $(1,2)\sigma$  is an even permutation. Thus, half of the elements in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}}$  belong to  $\mathcal{A}_n$ . Next, consider the Laplace expansion of per  $(L_{n,k})$  as in the first paragraph of the proof. We claim that r is even. To this end, suppose A is obtained from  $L_{n,k}$  by deleting its first row and (k+1)st column. Note that for any permutation  $\sigma \in \mathcal{P}_A$ , we have  $\sigma(1,2) \in \mathcal{P}_A$ , and either  $\sigma$  or  $\sigma(1,2)$  is an even permutation  $(\text{in } \mathcal{S}_{n-1})$ . Thus,  $|\mathcal{P}_A| = r$  is even. Consequently,  $|\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}} \cap \mathcal{A}_n| = \text{per } (L_{n,k})/2 = (n-k)(r/2)$  is also a multiple of (n-k).

Note that the second assertion of the above proposition is not valid for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$ . As shown in Section 3, the number of even and odd permutations in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n}$  may be different:

n :	3	1	5	6
$ P_{L_n} $ :	2	9	11	265
$ P_{L_n} \cap \mathcal{A}_n $ :	2	3	24	130

Nevertheless, for (n, k) = (3, 1), (4, 1), (5, 1) it is not hard to find a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_n} \cap \mathcal{A}_n$ ; see the results in the last section. In general, we have the following.

**Problem 4.5** Determine whether there is a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}}$  (respectively,  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,k}} \cap \mathcal{A}_n$ ).

Notice that finding a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,n/2}}$  is the same as finding a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_A$  with  $A = J_{n/2} \oplus J_{n/2}$ . Examining Case 3 in the proof of Proposition 2.2, we have the following.

**Proposition 4.6** Suppose *n* is even. There is always a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,n/2}}$  (respectively,  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{n,n/2}} \cap \mathcal{A}_n$ ).

Answering Problem 4.5 for other values of (n, k) is not so easy. For (n, k) = (6, 2), we have an affirmative answer.

**Proposition 4.7** There is a perfect partition for  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $L_{6,2} = (A_{ij})_{1 \le i,j \le 3}$ , where  $A_{ii} = 0_2$  for i = 1, 2, 3, and  $A_{ij} = J_2$  for  $i \ne j$ . We first show that  $|\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}| = 80$ . Every permutation matrix in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  is determined by selecting exactly one nonzero entry from

each row and column of  $L_{6,2}$ . Consider the number of ways to construct a matrix  $X \in \mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  if the 1 in the (1, 3) position of  $L_{6,2}$  is selected to be in X. In the following discussion, a nonzero entry of  $L_{6,2}$  is said to be *available* if no other nonzero entry in its row or column has been selected to be in X. We consider two cases, depending on the nonzero entry selected from the second row of  $L_{6,2}$ .

**Case 1.** If the (2, 4) entry of  $L_{6,2}$  is selected to be in X, then the remaining four nonzero entries of X must be obtained by selecting two nonzero entries each from the  $A_{23}$  and  $A_{31}$  submatrices of  $L_{6,2}$ . The nonzero entries from each of these two submatrices can be selected in one of two ways: either entirely on the submatrix diagonal or entirely off of the submatrix diagonal. Thus, there are  $2 \times 2 = 4$  possible ways to construct X in this case.

**Case 2.** If the (2, 4) entry of  $L_{6,2}$  is not selected, then there are two available nonzero entries in the second row of  $L_{6,2}$  that can be selected; both choices lie in  $A_{13}$ . Each choice sequentially forces the selection of one of two available nonzero entries each from the  $A_{23}$ ,  $A_{21}$ , and  $A_{31}$  submatrices, thereby determining the final selection of the only available nonzero entry from the  $A_{32}$  submatrix. Thus, there are  $2^4 = 16$  ways to construct X in this case.

Combining the two preceding cases, there are 4 + 16 = 20 matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  with a 1 in the (1,3) position. By analogous arguments, one can show that there are 20 matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  with a 1 in the (1, k) position for k = 4, 5, 6. Thus,  $|\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}| = 4 \times 20 = 80$ .

Next, we show that  $P_{L_{6,2}}$  admits a perfect partition. Let  $T_2 \in S_2$  correspond to the permutation (1,2), and let  $R_3 \in S_3$  correspond to the permutation (1,3,2). Let

$$W = \{R_3 \otimes I_2, R_3 \otimes T_2, R_3^t \otimes I_2, R_3^t \otimes T_2\}.$$

Then W, (3,4)W, (5,6)W, and (3,4)(5,6)W are disjoint subsets of  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  such that the matrices in each subset sum up to  $L_{6,2}$ , and each of the four subsets contains exactly one matrix from Case 1 above.

The remaining 64 matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  can be partitioned as follows. Recall that each of the 16 matrices  $X_1, \ldots, X_{16}$  from Case 2 above has exactly one nonzero entry from every  $A_{ij}$  in  $L_{6,2}$  with  $i \neq j$ . Now, we associate each matrix  $X_r$  from Case 2 with three other matrices  $X_{r,2}$ ,  $X_{r,3}$ , and  $X_{r,4}$  in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  as determined in the following manner:

 $X_{r,2}$ : From each nonzero  $A_{ij}$ , select the entry horizontally adjacent to the entry that was selected to be in  $X_r$ .

 $X_{r,3}$ : From each nonzero  $A_{ij}$ , select the entry vertically adjacent to the entry that was selected to be in  $X_r$ .

 $X_{\tau,4}$ : From each nonzero  $A_{ij}$ , select the entry diagonal to the entry that was selected to be in  $X_{\tau}$ .

Then we have 16 disjoint sets of the form  $\{X_{\tau}, X_{\tau,2}, X_{\tau,3}, X_{\tau,4}\}$  such the matrices in each set sum up to  $L_{6,2}$ . For example, the following four matrices in  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$  constitute a set in the partition:

None of the 64 matrices partitioned into sets of the form  $\{X_r, X_{r,2}, X_{r,3}, X_{r,4}\}$  were previously used up in sets of the form  $\sigma W$ , because all matrices belonging to sets of the form  $\sigma W$  in the partition have either two or zero entries from each nonzero  $A_{ij}$  in  $L_{6,2}$ . We thus have a perfect partition of  $\mathcal{P}_{L_{6,2}}$ .

We close the paper with some general questions.

**Problem 4.8** For which  $n \times n$  (0,1)-matrices A does  $\mathcal{P}_A$  have a perfect partition?

Note that such matrices A must be regular, and if k is the constant row and column sum, k must be a factor of the permanent of A. In addition, the permanental minors of the 1's of A are constant.

**Problem 4.9** Determine a good upper bound on the chromatic number  $\chi(G_A)$  of the permutation graph of a regular matrix  $\Lambda$ . More specifically, find a constant  $c_n$  such that

$$\chi(G_A) \leq c_n \left\lceil \frac{\operatorname{per}(A)}{k} \right\rceil.$$

An even more general problem is the following.

**Problem 4.10** Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_i : i \in I\}$  be a set of permutation matrices of order *n*. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a multiset of (0, 1)-matrices of order *n*. When is there a partition of *I* into sets  $I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_m$  such that the matrices  $\sum \{P_j : j \in I_i\}, (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$ , are the matrices in  $\mathcal{A}$ , including multiplicities?

The problem discussed in this paper concerns sets of permutation matrices  $\mathcal{P}_A$  where A is a (0, 1)-matrix and  $\mathcal{A}$  is the multiset consisting of A with a certain multiplicity.

#### References

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