# Publikációs lista 

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# An Estimation of the Size of Non-Compact Suffix Trees 

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#### Abstract

A suffix tree is a data structure used mainly for pattern matching. It is known that the space complexity of simple suffix trees is quadratic in the length of the string. By a slight modification of the simple suffix trees one gets the compact suffix trees, which have linear space complexity. The motivation of this paper is the question whether the space complexity of simple suffix trees is quadratic not only in the worst case, but also in expectation.


## 1 Introduction

A suffix tree is a powerful data structure which is used for a large number of combinatorial problems involving strings. Suffix tree is a structure for compact storage of the suffixes of a given string. The compact suffix tree is a modified version of the suffix tree, and it can be stored in linear space of the length of the string, while the non-compact suffix tree is quadratic (see [11, 14, 18, 19]).

The notion of suffix trees was first introduced by Weiner [19], though he used the name compacted bi-tree. Grossi and Italiano mention that in the scientific literature, suffix trees have been rediscovered many times, sometimes under different names, like compacted bi-tree, prefix tree, PAT tree, position tree, repetition finder, subword tree etc. [10] .

Linear time and space algorithms for creating the compact suffix tree were given soon by Weiner [19], McCreight [14], Ukkonen [18], Chen and Sciferas [4] and others.

The statistical behaviour of suffix trees has been also studied. Most of the studies consider improved versions.

The average size of compact suffix trees was examined by Blumer, Ehrenfeucht and Haussler [3]. They proved that the average number of nodes in the compact suffix tree is asymptotically the sum of an oscillating function and a small linear function.

An important question is the height of suffix trees, which was answered by Devroye, Szpankowski and Rais [6], who proved that the expected height is logarithmic in the length of the string.

[^0]The application of suffix trees is very wide. We mention but only a few examples. Apostolico et al. [2] mention that these structures are used in text searching, indexing, statistics, compression. In computational biology, several algorithms are based on suffix trees. Just to refer a few of them, we mention the works of Höhl et al. [12], Adebiyi et al. [1] and Kaderali et al. [13].

Suffix trees are also used for detecting plagiarism [2], in cryptography [15, 16], in data compression $[7,8,16]$ or in pattern recognition [17].

For the interested readers further details on suffix trees, their history and their applications can be found in [2], in [10] and in [11], which sources we also used for the overview of the history of suffix trees.

It is well-known that the non-compact suffix tree can be quadratic in space as we referred before. In our paper we are setting a lower bound on the average size, which is also quadratic.

## 2 Preliminaries

Before we turn to our results, let us define a few necessary notions.
Definition 1. An alphabet $\Sigma$ is a set of different characters. The size of an alphabet is the size of this set, which we denote by $\sigma(\Sigma)$, or more simply $\sigma$. A string $S$ is over the alphabet $\Sigma$ if each character of $S$ is in $\Sigma$.

Definition 2. Let $S$ be a string. $S[i]$ is its ith character, while $S[i, j]$ is a substring of $S$, from $S[i]$ to $S[j]$, if $j \geq i$, else $S[i, j]$ is the empty string. Usually $n(S)$ (or $n$ if there is no danger of confusion) denotes the length of the string.

Definition 3. The suffix tree of $S$ is a rooted directed tree with $n$ leaves, where $n$ is the length of $S$.

Its structure is the following:
Each edge $e$ has a label $\ell(e)$, and the edges from a node $v$ have different labels (thus, the suffix tree of a string is unique). If we concatenate the edge labels along a path $\mathcal{P}$, we get the path label $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P})$.

We denote the path from the root to the leaf $j$ by $\mathcal{P}(j)$. The edge labels are such that $\mathcal{L}(j)=\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}(j))$ is $S[j, n]$ and a sign at the end. The definition becomes more clear if we check the example on 1 and 2.

A naive algorithm for constructing the suffix tree is the following:
Notice that in 2 a leaf always remain a leaf, as $\$$ (the last edge label before a leaf) is not a character in $S$.

Definition 4. The compact suffix tree is a modified version of the suffix tree. We get it from the suffix tree by compressing its long branches.

The structure of the compact suffix tree is basically similar to that of the suffix tree, but an edge label can be longer than one character, and each internal node (i.e. not leaf) must have at least two children. For an example see 2.

With a regard to suffix trees, we can define further notions for strings.


Figure 1: Suffix tree of string $a a b c c b$

Definition 5. Let $S$ be a string, and $\mathcal{T}$ be its (non-compact) suffix tree.
A natural direction of $\mathcal{T}$ is that all edges are directed from the root towards the leaves. If there is a directed path from $u$ to $v$, then $v$ is a descendant of $u$ and $u$ is an ancestor of $v$.

We say that the growth of $S$ (denoted by $\gamma(S)$ ) is one less than the shortest distance of leaf 1 from an internal node $v$ which has at least two children (including leaf 1), that is, we count the internal nodes on the path different from $v$. If leaf $j$ is a descendant of $v$, then the common prefix of $S[j, n]$ and $S[1, n]$ is the longest among all $j$ 's.

If we consider the string $S=a a b c c b$, the growth of $S$ is 5 , as it can be seen on 1.

An important notion is the following one.
Definition 6. Let $\Omega(n, k, \sigma)$ be the number of strings of length $n$ with growth $k$ over an alphabet of size $\sigma$.

Observe that the connection between the growth and the number of nodes in a suffix tree is the following:

Observation 1. If we construct the suffix tree of $S$ by using 2, we get that the sum of the growths of $S[n-1, n], S[n-2, n], \ldots, S[1, n]$ is a lower bound to the number of nodes in the final suffix tree. In fact, there are only two more internal nodes, the root vertex, the only node on the path to leaf n, and we have the leaves.

In the proofs we will need the notion of period and of aperiodic strings.
$\overline{\text { Let } S \text { be a string of length } n \text {. Let } j=1 \text { and } T \text { be a tree of one vertex } r \text { (the root }}$ of the suffix tree).

Step 1: Consider $X=S[j, n]+\$$. Set $i=0$, and $v=r$.
Step 2: If there is an edge $v u$ labelled $X[i+1]$, then set $v=u$ and $i=i+1$.
Step 3: Repeat Step 2 while it is possible.
Step 4: If there is no such an edge, add a path of $n-j-i+2$ edges from $v$, with labels corresponding to $S[j+i, n]+\$$, consecutively on the edges. At the end of the path, number the leaf with $j$.

Step 5: Set $j=j+1$, and if $j \leq n$, go to Step 1 .


Figure 2: Compact tree of string $a a b c c b$

Definition 7. Let $S$ be a string of length $n$. We say that $S$ is periodic with period $d$, if there is a $d \mid n$ for which $S[i]=S[i+d]$ for all $i \leq n-d$. Otherwise, $S$ is aperiodic.

The minimal period of $S$ is the smallest $d$ with the property above.
Definition 8. $\mu(j, \sigma)$ is the number of $j$-length aperiodic strings over an alphabet of size $\sigma$.

A few examples for the number of aperiodic strings are given in 1.

| $\sigma$ | $\mu(1, \sigma)$ | $\mu(2, \sigma)$ | $\mu(3, \sigma)$ | $\mu(4, \sigma)$ | $\mu(5, \sigma)$ | $\mu(6, \sigma)$ | $\mu(7, \sigma)$ | $\mu(8, \sigma)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 2 | 6 | 12 | 30 | 54 | 126 | 240 | 504 |
| 3 | 3 | 6 | 24 | 72 | 240 | 696 | 2184 | 648 |
| 4 | 4 | 12 | 60 | 240 | 1020 | 4020 | 16380 | 65280 |
| 5 | 5 | 20 | 120 | 600 | 3120 | 15480 | 78120 | 390000 |

Table 1: Number of aperiodic strings for small alphabets. $\sigma$ is the size of the alphabet, and $\mu(j, \sigma)$ is the number of aperiodic strings of length $j$

## 3 Main results

Our main results are formulated in the following theorems.
Theorem 2. On an alphabet of size $\sigma$ for all $n \geq 2 k, \Omega(n, k, \sigma) \leq \phi(k, \sigma)$ for some function $\phi$.

Theorem 3. There is a $c>0$ and an $n_{0}$ such that for any $n>n_{0}$ the following is true. Let $S^{\prime}$ be a string of length $n-1$, and $S$ be a string obtained from $S^{\prime}$ by adding a character to its beginning chosen uniformly random from the alphabet. Then the expected growth of $S$ is at least $c \cdot n$.

Theorem 4. There is a $d>0$ that for any $n>n_{0}$ (where $n_{0}$ is the same as in 3) the following holds. On an alphabet of size $\sigma$ the simple suffix tree of a random string $S$ of length $n$ has at least $d \cdot n^{2}$ nodes in expectation.

## 4 Proofs

Proof. (4)
Considering 1 we have that the expected size of the simple suffix tree of a random string $S$ is at least

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E} \sum_{m=1}^{n}(\gamma(S[n-m, n])) \geq \sum_{m=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\gamma(S[n-m, n])) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $m \leq n_{0}, 3$ is obvious. If $m>n_{0}$, we can divide the sum into two parts:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{m=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\gamma(S[n-m, n]))=\sum_{m=1}^{n_{0}} \mathbb{E}(\gamma(S[n-m, n]))+\sum_{m=n_{0}+1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\gamma(S[n-m, n])) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first part of the sum is a constant, while the second part can be estimated with 3 :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{m=n_{0}+1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\gamma(S[n-m, n])) \geq \sum_{m=n_{0}+1}^{n} c n=d \cdot n^{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This proves 4.

First, we show a few lemmas about the number of aperiodic strings. 1 can be found in [9] or in [5], but we give a short proof also here.

Lemma 1. For all $j>0$ integer and for all alphabet of size $\sigma$ the number of aperiodic strings is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu(j, \sigma)=\sigma^{j}-\sum_{\substack{d \mid j \\ d \neq j}} \mu(d, \sigma) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. $\mu(1, \sigma)=\sigma$ is trivial.
There are $\sigma^{j}$ strings of length $j$. Suppose that a string is periodic with minimal period $d$. This implies that its first $d$ characters form an aperiodic string of length $d$, and there are $\mu(d, \sigma)$ such strings. This finishes the proof.

Specially, if $p$ is prime, then $\mu(p, \sigma)=\sigma^{p}-\sigma$.
Corollary 1. If $p$ is prime and $t \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\mu\left(p^{t}, \sigma\right)=\sigma^{p^{t}}-\sigma^{p^{t-1}}$ for all alphabet of size $\sigma$.

Proof. We count the aperiodic strings of length $p^{t}$. There are $\sigma^{p^{t}}$ strings. Consider the minimal period of the string, i.e. the period which is aperiodic. If we exclude all minimal periods of length $k$, we exclude $\mu(k, \sigma)$ strings. This yields the following equality:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu\left(p^{t}, \sigma\right)=\sigma^{p^{t}}-\sum_{1 \leq s<t} \mu\left(p^{s}, \sigma\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

With a few transformations and using 1 , we have that (5) is equal to
$\sigma^{p^{t}}-\mu\left(p^{t-1}, \sigma\right)-\sum_{1 \leq s<t-1} \mu\left(p^{s}, \sigma\right)=\sigma^{p^{t}}-\sigma^{p^{t-1}}+\sum_{1 \leq s<t-1} \mu\left(p^{s}, \sigma\right)-\sum_{1 \leq s<t-1} \mu\left(p^{s}, \sigma\right)$,
which is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{p^{t}}-\sigma^{p^{t-1}} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 2. For all $j>1$ and for all alphabet of size $\sigma, \mu(j, \sigma) \leq \sigma^{j}-\sigma$.
Proof. From 1 we have $\mu(j, \sigma)=\sigma^{j}-\sum_{\substack{d \mid j \\ d \neq j}} \mu(d, \sigma)$. Considering $\mu(d, \sigma) \geq 0$ and $\mu(1, \sigma)=\sigma$, we get the claim of the lemma.

Lemma 3. For all $j \geq 1$, and for all alphabet of size $\sigma$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu(j, \sigma) \geq \sigma(\sigma-1)^{j-1} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. We prove by induction. For $j=1$ the claim is obvious, as $\mu(1, \sigma)=\sigma$.
Suppose we know the claim for $j-1$. Consider $\sigma(\sigma-1)^{j-2}$ aperiodic strings of length $j-1$. Now, for any of these strings there is at most one character by appending that to the end of the string we receive a periodic string of length $j$. Therefore we can append at least $\sigma-1$ characters to get an aperiodic string, which gives the desired result.

Observation 5. Observe that if the growth of $S$ is $k$, then there is a $j$ such that $S[1, n-k]=S[j+1, j+n-k]$. For example, if the string is abcdefabcdab $(n=12)$, one can check that the growth is 8 (the new branch in the suffix tree which ends in leaf 1 starts after abcd), and with $j=6$ we have $S[1,4]=S[7,10]=a b c d$.

The reverse of this observation is that if there is a $j<n$ such that $S[1, n-k]=$ $S[j+1, j+n-k]$, then the growth is at most $k$, as $S[j+1, n]$ and $S[1, n]$ shares a common prefix of length $n-k$, thus, the paths to the leaves $j+1$ and $n$ share $n-k$ internal nodes, and at most $k$ new internal nodes are created.

Proof. (2) For proving the theorem we count the number of strings with growth $k$ for $n \geq 2 k$.

First, we fix $j$, and then count the number of possible strings where the growth occurs such that $S[1, n-k]=S[j+1, j+n-k]$ for that fixed $j$. Note that by this way, we only have an upper bound for this number, as we might found an $\ell$ such that $S[1, n-k+1]=S[\ell+1, \ell+n-k+1]$.

We know that $j \leq k$, otherwise $S[j+1, j+n-k]$ does not exist.
If $j=k$, then we know $S[1, n-k]=S[k+1, n]$.
$S[1, k]$ must be aperiodic. Suppose the opposite and let $S[1, k]=p \ldots p$, where $p$ is the minimal period, and its length is $d$. Then $S[k+1, n]=p \ldots p$. Obviously, in this case $S[1, n-d]=S[d+1, n]$, which by 5 means that the growth would be at most $d$. See also 3 .

Therefore this case gives us at most $\mu(k)$ strings of growth $k$.


Figure 3: Proof of 2 , case $j=k$
If $j<k$, then we have $S[1, n-k]=S[j+1, j+n-k]$.
First, we note that $S[1, j]$ must be aperiodic. Suppose the opposite and let $S[1, j]=p \ldots p$, where $p$ is the minimal period, and its length is $d$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
S[j+1,2 j]=S[2 j+1,3 j]=\ldots=p \ldots p, \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

which means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S\left[1,\left\lfloor\frac{k}{j}\right\rfloor \cdot j\right]=S\left[j+1, j+\left\lfloor\frac{k}{j}\right\rfloor \cdot j\right]=p \ldots p \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

This implies that $S[1, j+n-k]=p \ldots p p^{\prime}$, where $p^{\prime}$ is a prefix of $p$. However, $S[1, j+n-k-d]=S[d, j+n-k]$ is true, and using 5 , we have that $\gamma(S) \leq$ $n-(j+n-k)+d=k-j+d<k$, which is a contradiction.

Further, $S[j+n-k+1]$ must not be the same as $S[k+1]$, which means that this character can be chosen $\sigma-1$ ways.

Therefore this case gives us at most $\mu(j)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1}$ strings of growth $k$ for each $j$.

By summing up for each $j$, we have


Figure 4: Proof of 2, case $j<k$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(k, \sigma)=\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \mu(j, \sigma)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1}+\mu(k, \sigma) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

This completes the proof.
Proof. (3)
According to $2, \mu(j, \sigma) \leq \sigma^{j}-\sigma($ if $j>1)$.
In the proof of 2 at (11) we saw for $k \geq 1$ and $n \geq 2 k-1$ that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(k, \sigma)=\mu(k, \sigma)+\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \mu(j, \sigma)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can bound the right hand side of (12) from above as it follows:
$\mu(k, \sigma)+\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \mu(j, \sigma)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1}=\mu(k, \sigma)+\mu(1, \sigma)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-2}+\sum_{j=2}^{k-1} \mu(j, \sigma)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1}$,
which is by 2 at most
$\sigma^{k}-\sigma+\sigma(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-2}+\sum_{j=2}^{k-1}\left(\sigma^{j}-\sigma\right)(\sigma-1) \sigma^{k-j-1} \leq \sigma^{k}+\sigma^{k}+\sum_{j=2}^{k-1} \sigma^{j} \sigma \sigma^{k-j-1} \leq k \sigma^{k}$.
Thus, $\phi(k, \sigma) \leq k \sigma^{k}$, which means

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{m} \phi(k, \sigma) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{m} k \sigma^{k} \leq(m+1) \sigma^{m+1} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The left hand side of 15 is an upper bound for the strings of growth at most $m$. Let $m=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$.
As $\sigma^{n} \gg \frac{n}{2} \sigma^{\frac{n}{2}}$, this implies that in most cases the suffix tree of $S$ has at least $\frac{n}{2}$ more nodes than the suffix tree of $S[1, n-1]$.

Thus, a lower bound on the expectation of the growth of $S$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}(\gamma(S)) \geq \frac{1}{\sigma^{n}}\left(\frac{n}{2} \sigma^{\frac{n}{2}}+\left(\sigma^{n}-\frac{n}{2} \sigma^{\frac{n}{2}}\right)\left(\frac{n}{2}+1\right)\right), \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\sigma^{n}}\left(\frac{n+2}{2} \sigma^{n}+\left(\frac{n}{2}-\frac{n(n+2)}{4}\right) \sigma^{\frac{n}{2}}\right)=c n \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

with some $c$, if $n$ is large enough.

With this, we have finished the proof and gave a quadratic lower bound on the average size of suffix trees.

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## Note

# On the bipartite graph packing problem 

CrossMark

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#### Abstract

The graph packing problem is a well-known area in graph theory. We consider a bipartite version and give almost tight conditions.


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## 1. Notation

We consider only simple graphs. Throughout the paper we use common graph theory notations: $d_{G}(v)$ (or briefly, if $G$ is understood from the context, $d(v)$ ) is the degree of $v$ in $G$, and $\Delta(G)$ is the maximal and $\delta(G)$ is the minimal degree of $G$, and $e(X, Y)$ is the number of edges between $X$ and $Y$ for $X \cap Y=\emptyset$. For any function $f$ on $V$ let $f(X)=\sum_{v \in X} f(v)$ for every $X \subseteq V$. $\pi(G)$ is the degree sequence of $G$.

## 2. Introduction

Let $G$ and $H$ be two graphs on $n$ vertices. We say that $G$ and $H$ pack if and only if $K_{n}$ contains edge-disjoint copies of $G$ and $H$ as subgraphs.

The graph packing problem can be formulated as an embedding problem, too. $G$ and $H$ pack if and only if $H$ is isomorphic to a subgraph of $\bar{G}(H \subseteq \bar{G})$.

A classical result in this field is the following theorem of Sauer and Spencer.
Theorem 1 (Sauer, Spencer [14]). Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be graphs on $n$ vertices with maximum degrees $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$, respectively. If $\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2}<\frac{n}{2}$, then $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ pack.

Many questions in graph theory can be formulated as special packing problems, see [9].
We study the bipartite packing problem as it is formulated by Catlin [3], Hajnal and Szegedy [7] and was used by Hajnal for proving deep results in complexity theory of decision trees [6]. We are not going to state what Hajnal and Szegedy proved in [7], since it is technically involved. However, we present two previous results in bipartite packing, as in certain cases our main theorem is stronger than those.

Let $G_{1}=\left(A, B ; E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(S, T ; E_{2}\right)$ be bipartite graphs with $|A|=|S|=m$ and $|B|=|T|=n$. Sometimes, we use only $G(A, B)$ if we want to say that $G$ is a bipartite graph with classes $A$ and $B$. Let $\Delta_{A}\left(G_{1}\right)$ be the maximal degree of $G_{1}$ in $A$. We use $\Delta_{B}\left(G_{1}\right)$ similarly.

[^1]The bipartite graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ pack in the bipartite sense (i.e. they have a bipartite packing) if there are edge-disjoint copies of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ in $K_{m, n}$.

The bipartite packing problem can be also formulated as a question of embedding. The bipartite graphs $G_{1}=(A, B ; E)$ and $G_{2}$ pack if and only if $G_{2}$ is isomorphic to a subgraph of $\widetilde{G}_{1}$, which is the bipartite complement of $G_{1}$, i.e. $\widetilde{G}_{1}=(A, B ;(A \times B)-E)$.

First, we present the result of Wojda and Vaderlind. Before formulating their theorem, we need to introduce three families of graph pairs which they use [17].

Let $\Gamma_{1}$ be the family of pairs $\left\{G(L, R), G^{\prime}\left(L^{\prime}, R^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ of bipartite graphs that $G$ contains a star (i.e. one vertex in $L$ is connected to all vertices of $R$ ), and in $\delta_{L^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right) \geq 1$.

Let $\Gamma_{2}$ be the family of pairs $\left\{\bar{G}(L, R), G^{\prime}\left(L^{\prime}, R^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ of bipartite graphs such that $L=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$, and $d_{G}\left(a_{1}\right)=d_{G}\left(a_{2}\right)=2$; and $L^{\prime}=\left\{a_{1}^{\prime}, a_{2}^{\prime}\right\}, d_{G^{\prime}}\left(a_{1}^{\prime}\right)=|R|-1, d_{G^{\prime}}\left(a_{2}^{\prime}\right)=0$, finally, $\Delta_{R}(G)=\Delta_{R}\left(G^{\prime}\right)=1$.

The family $\Gamma_{3}$ is the pair $\left\{G, G^{\prime}\right\}$, where $G=K_{2,2} \cup \overline{K_{1,1}}$, and $G^{\prime}$ is a one-factor.
Theorem $2([17])$. Let $G=(L, R ; E)$ and $G^{\prime}=\left(L^{\prime}, R^{\prime} ; E^{\prime}\right)$ be two bipartite graphs with $|L|=\left|L^{\prime}\right|=p \geq 2$ and $|R|=\left|R^{\prime}\right|=q \geq 2$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(G)+e\left(G^{\prime}\right) \leq+q+\varepsilon\left(G, G^{\prime}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varepsilon\left(G, G^{\prime}\right)=\min \left\{p-\Delta_{R}(G), p-\Delta_{R^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right), q-\Delta_{L}(G), q-\Delta_{L^{\prime}}\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right\}$.
Then $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ pack unless either
(i) $\varepsilon\left(G, G^{\prime}\right)=0$ and $\left\{G, G^{\prime}\right\} \in \Gamma_{1}$, or
(ii) $\varepsilon\left(G, G^{\prime}\right)=1$ and $\left\{G, G^{\prime}\right\} \in \Gamma_{2} \cup \Gamma_{3}$.

Another theorem in this field is by Wang.
Theorem 3 ([15]). Let $G(A, B)$ and $H(S, T)$ be two $C_{4}$-free bipartite graphs of order $n$ with $|A|=|B|=|S|=|T|=n$, and $e(G)+e(H) \leq 2 n-2$. Then there is a packing of $G$ and $H$ in $K_{n+1, n+1}$ (i.e. an edge-disjoint embedding of $G$ and $H$ into $K_{n+1, n+1}$ ), unless one is a union of vertex-disjoint cycles and the other is a union of two-disjoint stars.

For more results in this field, we refer the interested reader to the monograph on factor theory of Yu and Liu [18].
The main question of extremal graph theory is that at most how many edges a $G$ graph might have (or what is its minimum degree) if there is an excluded subgraph $H$.

Let us formulate our main result in the following theorem as an embedding problem.
Theorem 4. For every $\varepsilon \in\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ there is an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\varepsilon)$ such that if $n>n_{0}$, and $G(A, B)$ and $H(S, T)$ are bipartite graphs with $|A|=|B|=|S|=|T|=n$ and the following conditions hold, then $H \subseteq G$.
Condition 1: $\quad d_{G}(x)>\left(\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon\right) n$ holds for all $x \in A \cup B$
Condition 2: $\quad d_{H}(x)<\frac{\varepsilon^{4}}{100} \frac{n}{\log n}$ holds for all $x \in S$,
Condition 3: $d_{H}(y)=1$ holds for all $y \in T$.
We prove Theorem 4 in the next section. First we indicate why we have the bounds in Conditions 1 and 2.
The following two examples show that it is necessary to make an assumption on $\delta(G)$ (see Condition 1 ) and on $\Delta_{S}(H)$ (see Condition 2).

First, let $G=K_{\frac{n}{2}+1, \frac{n}{2}-1} \cup K_{\frac{n}{2}-1, \frac{n}{2}+1}$. Clearly, $G$ has no perfect matching. This shows that the bound in Condition 1 is close to being best possible.

For the second example, we choose $G=G(n, n, 0.6)$ to be a random bipartite graph. Standard probability reasoning shows that with high probability, $G$ satisfies Condition 1 . However, $H$ cannot be embedded into $G$, where $H(S, T)$ is the following bipartite graph: each vertex in $T$ has degree 1 . In $S$ all vertices have degree 0 , except $\frac{\log n}{c}$ vertices with degree $\frac{c n}{\log n}$. The graph $H$ cannot be embedded into $G$, what follows from the example of Komlós et al. [10].

Remark 5. There are graphs which can be packed using Theorem 4, though Theorem 2 does not imply that they pack.
For instance, let $G(A, B)$ and $H(S, T)$ be bipartite graphs with $|A|=|B|=|S|=|T|=n$. Choose $H$ to be a 1-factor, and $G$ to be a graph such that all vertices in $A$ have degree $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{100}\right) n$. This pair of graphs obviously satisfies the conditions of Theorem 4, thus, $H$ can be embedded into $G$, which means that $H$ can be packed with the bipartite complement of $\widetilde{G}$.

Now, we check the conditions of Theorem 2 for the graphs $\widetilde{G}$ and $H$. We know that $e(H)=n$, as $H$ is a 1 -factor. Furthermore, in $\widetilde{G}$ each vertex in $A$ has degree $\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{100}\right) n$, which means that the number of edges is approximately $\frac{n^{2}}{4}$. As $\varepsilon(H, \widetilde{G}) \leq n$, the condition of Theorem 2 is obviously not satisfied.

Remark 6. There are graphs which can be packed using Theorem 4, though Theorem 3 does not imply that they pack. Let $G$ be the union of $\frac{n}{3}$ disjoint copies of $C_{6}$ 's and $H$ be a 1 -factor. Obviously, $H$ is $C_{4}$-free, but the condition of Theorem 3 is not satisfied for $G$ and $H$, as $e(G)+e(H)=3 n$.

However, our theorem can give an embedding of $H$ into $\widetilde{G}$, as all conditions of Theorem 4 are satisfied with these graphs. This provides a packing of $H$ and $G$.

## 3. The proof of Theorem 4

We will use the following lemma, which was formulated by Gale [5] and Ryser [13]. We present the lemma in the form as discussed in Lovász, Exercise 16 of Chapter 7 [11].

First, we need the following definition. We say that a sequence $\pi=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ is bigraphic, if and only if there is a bipartite graph $G(A, B)$ with vertices $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m} ; y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}$ such that $d_{G}\left(x_{i}\right)=\pi\left(a_{i}\right)$ for each $x_{i} \in A$ and $d_{G}\left(y_{i}\right)=\pi\left(b_{i}\right)$ for each $y_{i} \in B$ [16]. In this case, we say that $\pi$ is a fixed order realization of the bipartite degree sequence $d_{G}$. Note that this notion is different from the usual degree sequence notion, which contains only an ordered list of the degrees, which are not connected to specific vertices.

Lemma 7 (Lovász [11]). Let $G(A, B)$ be a bipartite graph and $\pi$ a bigraphic sequence on $(A, B)$. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in X} \pi(x) \leq e_{G}(X, Y)+\sum_{y \in \bar{Y}} \pi(y) \quad \forall X \subseteq A, \forall Y \subseteq B \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\pi$ can be embedded into $G$.
We formulate the key technical result for the proof of Theorem 4 in the following lemma.
Lemma 8. Let $\varepsilon \in(0,0.5)$ and $c$ as stated in Theorem 4. Let $G(Z, W)$ and $H\left(Z^{\prime}, W^{\prime}\right)$ be bipartite graphs with $|Z|=\left|Z^{\prime}\right|=z$ and $|W|=\left|W^{\prime}\right|=n$, respectively, with $z>\frac{2}{\varepsilon}$.

Suppose that
Condition 1a: $d_{G}(x)>\left(\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon\right) n$ for all $x \in Z$,
Condition 1b: $d_{G}(y)>\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) z$ for all $y \in W$,
Condition 2: There is an $M \in \mathbb{N}$ and a $0<\delta \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{10}<\frac{1}{20}$ such that

$$
M \leq d_{H}(x) \leq M(1+\delta) \text { for all } x \in Z^{\prime}
$$

and
Condition 3: $d_{H}(y)=1$ for all $y \in W^{\prime}$.
Then there is an embedding of $H$ into $G$.
Proof. We show that the conditions of Lemma 7 are satisfied.
First, assign to the vertices of $Z^{\prime}$ and $W^{\prime}$. Then, let $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq Z$ and $\emptyset \neq Y \subseteq W$. Let $\bar{X}=Z-X$ and $\bar{Y}=W-Y$. We distinguish five cases depending on the sizes of $X$ and $Y$.

In all cases we will use the obvious inequality $M z \leq n$, as $d_{H}\left(Z^{\prime}\right)=d_{H}\left(W^{\prime}\right)$.
Case (a) $|X| \leq \frac{z}{2(1+\delta)}$ and $|Y| \leq \frac{n}{2}$.
We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{H}(X) \leq M(1+\delta)|X| \leq M(1+\delta) \frac{z}{2(1+\delta)}=\frac{M z}{2} \leq \frac{n}{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n}{2} \leq|\bar{Y}|=d_{H}(\bar{Y}) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, $d_{H}(X) \leq d_{H}(\bar{y})+e_{G}(X, Y)$.
Case (b) $|X| \leq \frac{z}{2(1+\delta)}$ and $|Y|>\frac{n}{2}$.
Let $\phi=\frac{|Y|}{n}-\frac{1}{2}$, so $|Y|=\left(\frac{1}{2}+\phi\right) n$. Obviously, $0 \leq \phi \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
Therefore, $d_{H}(\bar{Y})=|\bar{Y}|=\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right) n$.
We have $d_{H}(X) \leq \frac{n}{2}$, as we have seen in Case (a).
Besides this, using Condition 1a, we know that $d_{G}(X)>\left(\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon\right) n|X|$. As $|\bar{Y}|=\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right) n$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{G}(X, Y) \geq d_{G}(X)-|\bar{Y}||X|>\left(\frac{1}{2}+\varepsilon\right) n|X|-\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right) n . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{G}(X, Y)>(\varepsilon+\phi) n|X| \geq(\varepsilon+\phi) n, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain $d_{H}(X) \leq d_{H}(\bar{Y})+e_{G}(X, Y)$.

Case (c) $\frac{z}{2} \geq|X|>\frac{z}{2(1+\delta)}$ and $|Y| \leq \frac{n}{2}$.
Let $\psi=\frac{|X|}{z}-\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}$, hence, $|X|=\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right) z$.
Let $\psi_{0}=\frac{\delta}{2(1+\delta)}=\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}$, so $\psi \leq \psi_{0}$. This means that $|X|=\left(\frac{1}{2}-\psi_{0}+\psi\right) z$.
As $0<\delta \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{10}$, we have $\psi_{0}<\frac{\delta}{2} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{20}$.
Let $\phi=\frac{1}{2}-\frac{|Y|}{n}$, so $|Y|=\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right) n$. As $|Y| \leq \frac{n}{2}$, this gives $0 \leq \phi \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
We have the following bounds:
(1) $d_{H}(\bar{Y})=|\bar{Y}|=n\left(\frac{1}{2}+\phi\right)$
(2) As above, $d_{H}(X) \leq M(1+\delta)|X|=M z(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right) \leq n(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right)$.
(3) We claim that $e_{G}(X, Y) \geq|Y|\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\psi_{0}+\psi\right) z$. Indeed, the number of neighbours of a vertex $y \in Y$ in $X$ is at least $\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\psi-\psi_{0}\right) z$, considering the degree bounds of $W$ in $G$.

We have to show that $d_{H}(X) \leq e_{G}(X, Y)+d_{H}(\bar{Y})$. We estimated each term, hence it is enough to prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right) \leq n\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\psi_{0}+\psi\right) z+n\left(\frac{1}{2}+\phi\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi+\delta \psi \leq z\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\psi-\psi_{0}\right)+\phi \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The left hand side of ( 8 ) is at most $\psi_{0}+\delta \psi_{0} \leq \frac{\delta}{2}+\frac{\delta^{2}}{2} \leq \delta$, as $\delta \leq \varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
If $\phi>\delta$, (8) holds, since $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\psi-\psi_{0} \geq 0$, using $\psi_{0} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{20}$.
Otherwise, if $\phi \leq \delta$, the right hand side of (8) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
z\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\psi-\psi_{0}\right) \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}-\delta\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\frac{\delta}{2}\right) z \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can bound each factor: $\frac{1}{2}-\delta>\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{20}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\frac{\delta}{2}>\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{20}$, and $z>\frac{2}{\varepsilon}$.
Using these bounds for (9), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{2}-\delta\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\frac{\delta}{2}\right) z>\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{20}\right)\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon}{20}\right) \frac{2}{\varepsilon}=\frac{81}{200}>\frac{1}{20}>\delta \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

This completes the proof of this case.
Case (d) $|X|>\frac{z}{2}$ and $|Y| \leq \frac{n}{2}$. We have
(1) $d_{H}(\bar{X})=d_{H}(Z)-d_{H}(\bar{X})=n-d_{H}(\bar{X}) \leq n-M|\bar{X}|$,
(2) $d_{H}(\bar{Y})=n-|Y|$ and
(3) $e_{G}(X, Y) \geq|Y|\left(|X|-\frac{z}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon z}{2}\right)$, using the degree bound on $Y$.

We have to show that $d_{H}(X) \leq e_{G}(X, Y)+d_{H}(\bar{Y})$. Using the estimations of the terms, all we have to check whether

$$
\begin{equation*}
n-M|\bar{X}| \leq n-|Y|+|Y|\left(|X|-\frac{z}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon z}{2}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leq|Y|\left(|X|-\frac{z}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon z}{2}-1\right)+M(z-|X|) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know that $|X|>\frac{z}{2}$, and $\frac{\varepsilon z}{2}-1>0$, and $z-|X|>0$, which gives that 7 is true. This case is also finished.
Case (e) $|X|>\frac{z}{2(1+\delta)}$ and $|Y|>\frac{n^{2}}{2}$.
Let $\psi=\frac{|X|}{z}-\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}$, hence, $|X|=z\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right)$. Let $\psi_{0}=\frac{\delta}{2(1+\delta)}$, as it was defined in Case (c). Again, $\psi_{0} \leq \frac{\delta}{2}$.
We have $0 \leq \psi \leq \frac{1}{2}+\psi_{0} \leq \frac{1+\delta}{2}$.
Let $\phi=\frac{|Y|}{n}-\frac{1}{2}$, hence, $|Y|=n\left(\frac{1}{2}+\phi\right)$.
We have
(1) $d_{H}(X) \leq z M(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right) \leq n(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right)$,
(2) $d_{H}(\bar{Y})=n\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right)$ and
(3) $e_{G}(X, Y) \geq z\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right)(\phi+\varepsilon) n$.

We have to show again that $d_{H}(X) \leq e_{G}(X, Y)+d_{H}(\bar{Y})$. Using the estimation of the terms it is sufficient to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n(1+\delta)\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right) \leq n\left(\frac{1}{2}-\phi\right)+z\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)+\psi}\right)(\phi+\varepsilon) n \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi(1+\delta) \leq-\phi+z\left(\frac{1}{2(1+\delta)}+\psi\right)(\phi+\varepsilon) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using $\psi \leq \frac{1+\delta}{2}$ and $\delta \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{10}$, the left hand side of (14) is at most

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1+\delta}{2}(1+\delta) \leq \frac{1+\frac{1}{20}}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{20}\right)<\frac{3}{5} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $\varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$.
The right hand side of (14) is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi \frac{z-2(1+\delta)}{2(1+\delta)}+\frac{z}{2(1+\delta)} \varepsilon+z \psi(\phi+\varepsilon) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first and the last term of (16) is always positive.
The middle term can be easily bounded since $z \varepsilon>2$, and $\frac{1}{1+\delta}>\frac{1}{1+1 / 20}=\frac{20}{21}$.
This means that (16) is at least $\frac{20}{21}$, which is more than $\frac{3}{5}$. This finishes the proof of this case.
Proof (Theorem 4). First, form a partition $C_{0}, C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$ of $S$ in the graph $H$. For $i>0$ let $u \in C_{i}$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\varepsilon^{4}}{100} \frac{n}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^{i-1}} \geq d_{H}(u)>\frac{\varepsilon^{4}}{100} \frac{n}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^{i}} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\delta=\frac{\varepsilon}{10}$. Let $C_{0}$ be the class of the isolated points in $S$. Note that the number of partition classes, $k$ is $\log _{1+\delta} n=\log _{1+\frac{\varepsilon}{10}} n=$ $\frac{\log n}{\log \left(1+\frac{\varepsilon}{10}\right)}=c \log n$.

Now, we embed the partition of $S$ into $A$. Take a random ordering of the vertices of $A$. Say this is $\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$. The first $\left|C_{1}\right|$ vertices of $A$ form $A_{1}$, the vertices $\left|C_{1}\right|+1$ st, $\ldots,\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{2}\right|$ th form $A_{2}$ etc., while $C_{0}$ maps to the last $\left|C_{0}\right|$ vertices. Obviously, $C_{0}$ can be always embedded, as it contains only isolated vertices.

We say that a partition class $C_{i}$ is small if $\left|C_{i}\right| \leq \frac{16}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log n$.
We claim that the total size of the neighbourhood in $B$ of small classes is at most $\frac{\varepsilon n}{4}$.
The size of the neighbourhood of $C_{i}$ is at most

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\varepsilon^{4}}{100} \frac{n}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^{i-1}} \cdot \frac{16}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log n \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we sum up, we have that the total size of the neighbourhood of small classes is at most

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\varepsilon^{4}}{100} \frac{n}{\log n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^{i-1}} \cdot \frac{16}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log n=\frac{4}{25} \varepsilon^{2} n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^{i}} \\
& \quad \leq \frac{4}{25} \varepsilon^{2} n \frac{1+\delta}{\delta} \leq \frac{4}{25} \varepsilon^{2} n \frac{3 / 20}{\varepsilon / 10} \leq \frac{\varepsilon n}{4} \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

The vertices of the small classes can be dealt with using a greedy method: if $v_{i}$ is in a small class, choose randomly $d_{H}\left(v_{i}\right)$ of its neighbours, and fix these edges. After we finished fixing these edges, the degrees of the vertices of $B$ are still larger than $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) n$.

Continue with the large classes $C_{i_{1}}, \ldots, C_{i_{\ell}}$ and form a random partition $E_{1}, \ldots, E_{\ell}$ of the unused vertices in $B$ such that $\left|E_{j}\right|=\sum_{u \in C_{i_{j}}} d_{H}(u)$. We will consider the pairs ( $\left.C_{i_{j}}, E_{j}\right)$.

We will show that the conditions of Lemma 8 are satisfied for $\left(C_{i_{j}}, E_{j}\right)$, then we apply Lemma 8 with $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ instead of $\varepsilon$, and we get an embedding in each pair $\left(C_{i j}, E_{j}\right)$, which gives an embedding of $H$ into $G$.

Conditions 2 and 3 are immediate.
For Conditions 1a and 1b we have to show that for any $j$ every vertex $y \in E_{j}$ has at least $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{4}\right) z$ neighbours in $D_{i}$ and every vertex $x \in C_{i_{j}}$ has at least $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) z$ in $E_{j}$.

For this, we will use the martingale technique (see [1]).
Let $\left|C_{i_{j}}\right|=z$. We know $z>\frac{16}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log n$, as $C_{i_{j}}$ is large.
Let $y \in E_{j}$ be fixed. Consider the random variable $\mathcal{X}=\left|N(y) \cap C_{i_{j}}\right|$.

Define the following chain: $\mathcal{Z}_{0}=\mathbb{E} \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Z}_{1}=\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{X} \mid v_{1}\right], \mathcal{Z}_{2}=\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{X} \mid v_{1}, v_{2}\right] ;$ in general, $\mathcal{Z}_{k}=\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{X} \mid v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right]$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. In other words, $\mathcal{Z}_{k}$ is the expectation of $\mathcal{X}$ with the condition that we already know $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}$. This chain of random variables define a martingale (see Chapter 8.3 of the book of Matoušek and Vondrák [12]) with martingale differences $\mathcal{Z}_{k}-\mathcal{Z}_{k-1} \leq 1$.

According to the Azuma-Hoeffding inequality $[2,8]$ we have the following lemma:
Lemma 9 (Azuma [2]). If $\mathcal{Z}$ is a martingale with martingale differences at most 1 , then for any $j$ and $t$ the following holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{Z}_{j} \geq \mathbb{E} \mathcal{Z}_{j}-t\right) \geq 1-e^{-\frac{t^{2}}{2 j}} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

The conditional expected value $\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{Z}_{z} \mid \mathcal{Z}_{0}\right)$ is $\mathbb{E} \mathcal{Z}_{z}=\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{3 \varepsilon}{4}\right) z$.
Lemma 9 shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{Z}_{z} \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) z\right) \geq 1-e^{-\frac{\varepsilon^{2} z^{2} / 4}{2 z}}=1-e^{-\varepsilon^{2} z / 8} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

We say that a vertex $v \in E_{j}$ is bad, if it has less than $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) z$ neighbours in $C_{i j}$. Lemma 9 means that a vertex $v$ is bad with probability at most $e^{-\varepsilon^{2} z / 8}$. As we have $n$ vertices in $B$, the probability of the event that any vertex is bad is less than

$$
\begin{equation*}
n \cdot e^{-\varepsilon^{2} z / 8}<\frac{1}{n} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $z>\frac{16}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log n$.
Then we have that with probability $1-\frac{1}{n}$ no vertex in $E_{j}$ is bad. Thus, Condition (ii) of Lemma 8 is satisfied with probability 1 for any pair $\left(C_{i j}, E_{j}\right)$.

Using Lemma 9, we can also show that each $x \in C_{i_{j}}$ has at least $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)\left|E_{j}\right|$ neighbours in $E_{j}$ with probability 1.
Thus, the conditions of Lemma 8 are satisfied, and we can embed $H$ into $G$. The proof of Theorem 4 is finished.

## 4. Remark

In the bipartite discrete tomography problem we are given two bigraphic sequences $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ on the vertex set $(A, B)$, where $|A|=|B|=n$. The goal is to colour the edges of $K(A, B)$ by red, blue and grey such that for each $v \in A \cup B$ the blue degree of $v$ is $\pi_{1}(v)$, its red degree is $\pi_{2}(v)$, and its grey degree is $n-\pi_{1}(v)-\pi_{2}(v)$.

A previous result in this field is the following theorem.
Theorem 10 (Diemunsch et al. [4]). Let $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ be bigraphic sequences with parts of sizes $r$ and $s$, and $\Delta_{i}=\Delta\left(\pi_{i}\right)$ and $\delta_{i}=\delta\left(\pi_{i}\right)$ for $i=1,2$ such that $\Delta_{1} \leq \Delta_{2}$ and $\delta_{1} \geq 1$. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{1} \Delta_{2} \leq \delta_{1} \frac{r+s}{8} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ pack.
In Theorem 4, we study an "ordinary" packing problem. However, inspecting the proof one obtains the following result in discrete tomography.

Assume the conditions of Theorem 4. Let $\pi_{1}$ be the bipartite degree sequence of $\widetilde{G}$, and $\pi_{2}$ be the bipartite degree sequence of $H$. Consider a fixed order realization $\tilde{\pi_{1}}$ and $\tilde{\pi}_{2}$ of them, where $\tilde{\pi}_{1}$ is an arbitrary, and $\tilde{\pi}_{2}$ is a random realization. Then, with probability tending to $1, \tilde{\pi}_{1}$ and $\tilde{\pi}_{2}$ pack.

Hence, in certain cases for most orderings we can improve the bounds of Theorem 10.

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# On embedding degree sequences 

## [Extended Abstract]

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#### Abstract

Assume that we are given two graphic sequences, $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. We consider conditions for $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ which guarantee that there exists a simple graph $G_{2}$ realizing $\pi_{2}$ such that $G_{2}$ is the subgraph of any simple graph $G_{1}$ that realizes $\pi_{1}$.


## Categories and Subject Descriptors

G.2.2 [Graph theory]: Extremal graph theory; Matchings and factors; Graph coloring

## General Terms

Graph theory

## Keywords

degree sequence, embedding, extremal graph theory

## 1. INTRODUCTION

All graphs considered in this paper are simple. We use standard graph theory notation, see for example [4]. Let us provide a short list of a few perhaps not so common notions, notations. Given a bipartite graph $G(A, B)$ we call it balanced if $|A|=|B|$. This notion naturally generalizes for $r$-partite graphs with $r \in \mathbb{N}, r \geq 2$.

If $S \subset V$ for some graph $G=(V, E)$, then the subgraph spanned by $S$ is denoted by $G[S]$. Moreover, let $Q \subset V$ so that $S \cap Q=\emptyset$, then $G[S, Q]$ denotes the bipartite subgraph of $G$ on vertex classes $S$ and $Q$, having every edge of $G$ that connects a vertex of $S$ with a vertex of $Q$. The number of edges of a graph is denoted by $e(G)$. The chromatic number of a graph $G$ is $\chi(G)$. The complete graph on $n$ vertices is denoted by $K_{n}$, the complete bipartite graph with vertex class sizes $n$ and $m$ is denoted by $K_{n, m}$.

[^2]A finite sequence of natural numbers $\pi=\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ is a graphic sequence or degree sequence if there exists a graph $G$ such that $\pi$ is the (not necessarily) monotone degree sequence of $G$. Such a graph $G$ realizes $\pi$. The largest value of $\pi$ is denoted by $\Delta(\pi)$. We sometimes refer to the value of $\pi$ at vertex $v$ as $\pi(v)$.

Let $G$ and $H$ be two graphs on $n$ vertices. They pack if there exist edge-disjoint copies of $G$ and $H$ in $K_{n}$. Two degree sequences $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2} p a c k$, if there are graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ realizing $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$, respectively, such that $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ pack. Equivalently, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ pack if and only if $G_{1} \subset \bar{G}_{2}$, that is, $G_{1}$ can be embedded into $\bar{G}_{2}$, where $\bar{G}$ denotes the complement of $G$.

It is an old an well-understood problem in graph theory to tell whether a given sequence of natural numbers is a degree sequence or not. We consider a generalization of it, which is remotely related to the so-called discrete tomography [3] (or degree sequence packing) problem as well ${ }^{\ddagger}$. The question whether a sequence $\pi$ of $n$ numbers is a degree sequence can be formulated as follows: Does $K_{n}$ have a subgraph $H$ such that the degree sequence of $H$ is $\pi$ ? The question becomes more general if $K_{n}$ is replaced by some (simple) graph $G$ on $n$ vertices. If the answer is yes, we say that $\pi$ can be embedded into $G$, or equivalently, $\pi$ packs with $\bar{G}$. In order to state our main result let $\delta(G)$ and $\Delta(G)$ denote the minimum and maximum degree of $G$, respectively. We prove the following.

Theorem 1. For every $\varepsilon>0$ and $D \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\varepsilon, D)$ such that for all $n>n_{0}$ if $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq \frac{n}{2}+\varepsilon n$ and $\pi$ is a degree sequence of length $n$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$, then $\pi$ is embeddable into $G$.

We also state Theorem 1 in an equivalent complementary form, as a packing problem.

Theorem 2. For every $\varepsilon>0$ and $D \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\varepsilon, D)$ such that for all $n>n_{0}$ if $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ are graphic sequences of length $n$ satisfying $\Delta\left(\pi_{1}\right)<\left(\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon\right) n$ and $\Delta\left(\pi_{2}\right) \leq D$ then there exists a graph $G_{2}$ that realizes $\pi_{2}$ and packs with any $G_{1}$ realizing $\pi_{1}$.

It is easy to see that Theorem 1 is sharp up to the $\varepsilon n$ additive term. For that let $n$ be an even number, and sup-

[^3]pose that every element of $\pi$ is 1 . Then the only graph that realizes $\pi$ is the union of $n / 2$ vertex disjoint edges. Let $G=K_{n / 2-1, n / 2+1}$ be the complete bipartite graph with vertex class sizes $n / 2-1$ and $n / 2+1$. Clearly $G$ does not have $n / 2$ vertex disjoint edges.

## 2. PROOF OF THEOREM 1

We are going to construct a 3-colorable graph $H$ that realizes $\pi$ and has the following properties. There exists $A \subset V=$ $V(H)$ such that
(1) $|A| \leq 5 \Delta^{3}(\pi)$,
(2) the components of $H[V-A]$ are balanced complete bipartite graphs, each having size at most $2 \Delta(\pi)$,
(3) $\chi(H[A])=3$ if $A$ is non-empty, and
(4) $e(H[A, V-A])=0$.

In order to construct $H$ we will use two types of "gadgets". Type 1 gadgets are balanced complete bipartite graphs on $2 k$ vertices, where $k \in\{1, \ldots, \Delta(\pi)\}$, these are the components of $H[V-A]$. Type 2 gadgets are composed of at least two type 1 gadgets and at most two other vertices, these are the components of $H[A]$.

We find type 1 gadgets with the following algorithm.
Algorithm 3. Assign the elements of $\pi$ arbitrarily to $V$. Set every vertex active. Let $k=1$.

Step 1 If there are at least $2 k$ active vertices with degree $k$, then take any $2 k$ such vertices, create a balanced complete bipartite graph on these $2 k$ vertices, and then unactivate them.

Step 2 If the number of active vertices with degree $k$ drops below $2 k$, set $k=k+1$.

Step 3 If $k \leq \Delta(\pi)$, then go to Step 1. Else stop the algorithm.

This way we obtain several components, each being a balanced complete bipartite graph. These are type 1 gadgets. It is easy to see that for every $k \in\{1, \ldots, \Delta(\pi)\}$ at most $2 k-1$ vertices are left out from the union of type 1 gadgets, a total of at most $\Delta^{2}(\pi)-2 \Delta(\pi)$ vertices. Furthermore, if a vertex $v$ belongs to some type 1 gadget, then its degree is exactly $\pi(v)$.

Let $R$ denote the set of vertices that are uncovered by the above set of type 1 gadgets. As we noted earlier $|R| \leq$ $\Delta(\pi)^{2}-2 \Delta(\pi)$. In order to get the right degrees for the vertices of $R$ we construct type 2 gadgets, using some type 1 gadgets as well.

Notice first that the sum of the degrees of the vertices of $R$ must be an even number, hence, $R_{o}$, the subset of $R$ containing the odd degree vertices, has an even number of elements. Find $\left|R_{o}\right| / 2$ disjoint pairs in $R_{o}$, and join vertices by a new edge that belong to the same pair. With this we get that every vertex of $R$ misses an even number of edges.

We construct the type 2 gadgets using the following algorithm.

Algorithm 4. Set every type 1 gadget unmarked and every vertex in $R-R_{o}$ uncolored.

Step 1 Choose an uncolored vertex $v$ from $R-R_{o}$ and color it.

Step 2 Choose a type 1 unmarked gadget $K$ and mark it.
Step 3 Choose an arbitrary perfect matching $M_{K}$ in $K$ ( $M_{K}$ exists since $K$ is a balanced complete bipartite graph).

Step 4 Choose an arbitrary $x y$ edge in $M_{K}$.
Step 5 Replace the edge $x y$ with the new edges $v x$ and $v y$.
Step 6 If $v$ is still missing edges, then if $M_{K}$ is not empty, go to Step 4, else go to Step 2.

Step 7 If $v$ reaches its desired degree and there are still uncolored vertices in $R-R_{o}$, then go to Step 1, else stop the algorithm

It is easy to see that in $\pi(v) / 2$ steps $v$ reaches its desired degree, while the degrees of vertices in the marked type 1 gadgets have not changed. It is straightforward to use this algorithm for vertices in $R_{o}$, since each of these miss an even number of edges.

Figure 1 shows examples of type 2 gadgets. Let $F \subset H$ denote the subgraph containing the union of all type 2 gadgets, thus $F=H[A]$. Observe that type 2 gadgets of $F$ are 3 -chromatic, and all have less than $5 \Delta^{2}(\pi)$ vertices. This easily implies the following claim.

Claim 5. We have that $|V(F)| \leq 5 \Delta^{3}(\pi)$.
We are going to show that $H \subset G$. For that we first embed the 3 -chromatic part $F$ using the following strengthening of the Erdős-Stone theorem proved by Chvátal and Szemerédi [1].

Theorem 6. Let $\varphi>0$ and assume that $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices where $n$ is sufficiently large. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}, r \geq 2$. If

$$
|E(G)| \geq\left(\frac{r-2}{2(r-1)}+\varphi\right) n^{2}
$$

then $G$ contains a $K_{r}(t)$, i.e. a complete $r$-partite graph with $t$ vertices in each class, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t>\frac{\log n}{500 \log \frac{1}{\varphi}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\delta(G) \geq n / 2+\varepsilon n$, the conditions of Theorem 6 are satisfied with $r=3$ and $\varphi=\varepsilon / 2$, hence, $G$ contains a balanced complete tripartite subgraph $T$ on $\Omega(\log n)$ vertices. Using Claim 5 and the 3 -colorability of $F$ this implies that $F \subset T$.


Figure 1: Type 2 gadgets of $H$ with a 3-coloring

Observe that after embedding $F$ into $G$ every uncovered vertex still has at least $\delta(G)-v(F)>n / 2+\varepsilon n / 2$ uncovered neighbors. Denoting the uncovered subgraph of $G$ by $G^{\prime}$ we obtain that $\delta\left(G^{\prime}\right)>n / 2+\varepsilon n / 2$.

We need a definition from [2].

Definition 7. [2] A graph $H$ on $n$ vertices is well-separable, if it has a subset $S \subset V(H)$ of size $o(n)$ such that all components of $H-S$ are of size $o(n)$.

In order to prove that $H-F \subset G^{\prime}$ we will apply a special case of the main theorem of [2], which is as follows:

ThEOREM 8. [2] For every $\gamma>0$ and positive integer $D$ there exists an $n_{0}$ such that for all $n>n_{0}$ if $J$ is a bipartite well-separable graph on $n$ vertices, $\Delta(J) \leq \Delta$ and $\delta(G) \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}+\gamma\right) n$ for a graph $G$ of order $n$, then $J \subset G$.

Since $H-F$ has bounded size components, we can apply Theorem 8 for $H-F$ and $G^{\prime}$, with parameter $\gamma=\varepsilon / 2$. With this we finished proving what was desired.

## 3. A GENERALIZATION

While Theorem 1 is best possible up to the $\varepsilon n$ additive term, if $\pi$ has a special property, one can claim much more as Theorem 9 shows below. Let us call a bipartite graph $H(A, B)$ $u$-unbalanced if $|A|=u|B|$ for some $u \in \mathbb{N}$. A bipartite degree sequence $\pi$ is $u$-unbalanced if $\pi$ can be realized by a $u$-unbalanced bipartite graph. We need the notion of edit distance of graphs: the edit distance between two graphs on the same labeled vertex set is defined to be the size of the symmetric difference of the edge sets.

A generalization of Theorem 1 is the following:

Theorem 9. For every $\varepsilon>0$ and $D, u \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist an
$n_{0}=n_{0}(\varepsilon, u)$ and a $K=K(\varepsilon, D, u)$ such that if $n \geq n_{0}, \pi$ is a u-unbalanced degree sequence of length $n$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$, $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq \frac{n}{u+1}+\varepsilon n$, then there exists a graph $G^{\prime}$ on $n$ vertices so that the edit distance of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ is at most $K$, and $\pi$ is embeddable into $G^{\prime}$.

Hence, if $\pi$ is unbalanced, the minimum degree requirement of Theorem 1 can be substantially decreased, what we pay for this is the "almost embedding" of $\pi$. For example, if $\pi$ is a 10 -unbalanced bounded degree sequence of length $n$ and $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices having $\delta(G) \geq n / 11+\varepsilon n$ for some $\varepsilon>0$, then after deleting/adding a constant number (i.e. a function of $\varepsilon^{\S}$ ) of edges, we obtain a graph $G^{\prime}$ from $G$ into which $\pi$ can be embedded.

In another direction, one can also show that if $\pi$ has little less elements than the number of vertices in $G$, then $\pi$ can be embedded into $G$ under very similar conditions.

Theorem 10. For every $\varepsilon>0$ and $D, u \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\varepsilon, u)$ and an $M=M(\varepsilon, D, u)$ such that if $n \geq$ $n_{0}, \pi$ is a u-unbalanced degree sequence of length $n$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D, G$ is a graph on $n+M$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq$ $\frac{n+M}{u+1}+\varepsilon(n+M)$, then $\pi$ is embeddable into $G$.

The proofs of Theorem 9 and Theorem 10 are much more involved than that of Theorem 1, they are given in the full version of the paper. Let us note that the conditions for $\delta(G)$ are best possible in the above theorems up to the $\varepsilon n$ additive term.

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[^4]
# On embedding degree sequences 

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Assume that we are given two graphic sequences, $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. We consider conditions for $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ which guarantee that there exists a simple graph $G_{2}$ realizing $\pi_{2}$ such that $G_{2}$ is the subgraph of any simple graph $G_{1}$ that realizes $\pi_{1}$.
Povzetek:

## 1 Introduction

All graphs considered in this paper are simple. We use standard graph theory notation, see for example [16]. Let us provide a short list of a few perhaps not so common notions, notations. Given a bipartite graph $G(A, B)$ we call it balanced if $|A|=|B|$. This notion naturally generalizes for $r$-partite graphs with $r \in \mathbb{N}, r \geq 2$.

If $S \subset V$ for some graph $G=(V, E)$ then the subgraph spanned by $S$ is denoted by $G[S]$. Moreover, let $Q \subset V$ so that $S \cap Q=\emptyset$, then $G[S, Q]$ denotes the bipartite subgraph of $G$ on vertex classes $S$ and $Q$, having every edge of $G$ that connects a vertex of $S$ with a vertex of $Q$. The number of vertices in $G$ is denoted by $v(G)$, the number of its edges is denoted by $e(G)$. The degree of a vertex $x \in V(G)$ is denoted by $d e g_{G}(x)$, or if $G$ is clear from the context, by $\operatorname{deg}(x)$. The number of neighbors of $x$ in a subset $S \subset V(G)$ is denoted by $d e g_{G}(x, S)$, and $\delta(G)$ and $\Delta(G)$ denote the
minimum and maximum degree of $G$, respectively. The complete graph on $n$ vertices is denoted by $K_{n}$, the complete bipartite graph with vertex class sizes $n$ and $m$ is denoted by $K_{n, m}$.

A finite sequence of natural numbers $\pi=$ $\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ is a graphic sequence or degree sequence if there exists a graph $G$ such that $\pi$ is the (not necessarily) monotone degree sequence of $G$. Such a graph $G$ realizes $\pi$. For example, the degree sequence $\pi=(2,2, \ldots, 2)$ can be realized only by vertex-disjoint union of cycles.

The largest value of $\pi$ is denoted by $\Delta(\pi)$. Often the positions of $\pi$ will be identified with the elements of a vertex set $V$. In this case, we write $\pi(v)(v \in V)$ for the corresponding component of $\pi$.

The degree sequence $\pi=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}\right.$; $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{l}$ ) is a bigraphic sequence if there exists a simple bipartite graph $G=G(A, B)$ with $|A|=k,|B|=l$ realizing $\pi$ such that the de-
grees of vertices in $A$ are $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$, and the degrees of the vertices of $B$ are $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{l}$.

Let $G$ and $H$ be two graphs on $n$ vertices. We say that $H$ is a subgraph of $G$, if we can delete edges from $G$ so that we obtain an isomorphic copy of $H$. We denote this relation by $H \subset G$. In the literature the equivalent complementary formulation can be found as well: we say that $H$ and $\bar{G}$ pack if there exist edgedisjoint copies of $H$ and $\bar{G}$ in $K_{n}$. Here $\bar{G}$ denotes the complement of $G$.

It is an old an well-understood problem in graph theory to tell whether a given sequence of natural numbers is a degree sequence or not. We consider a generalization of it, which is remotely related to the so-called discrete tomography ${ }^{1}$ (or degree sequence packing) problem (see e.g. [5]) as well. The question whether a sequence of $n$ numbers $\pi$ is a degree sequence can also be formulated as follows: Does $K_{n}$ have a subgraph $H$ such that the degree sequence of $H$ is $\pi$ ? The question becomes more general if $K_{n}$ is replaced by some (simple) graph $G$ on $n$ vertices. If the answer is yes, we say that $\pi$ can be embedded into $G$, or equivalently, $\pi$ packs with $\bar{G}$.

Let us mention two classical results in extremal graph theory.

Theorem 1 (Dirac, [6]). Every graph $G$ with $n \geq 3$ vertices and minimum degree $\delta(G) \geq \frac{n}{2}$ has a Hamilton cycle.

Theorem 2 (Corrádi-Hajnal, [3]). Let $k \geq 1$, $n \geq 3 k$, and let $H$ be an n-vertex graph with $\delta(H) \geq 2 k$. Then $H$ contains $k$ vertex-disjoint cycles.

[^5]Observe, that Dirac's theorem implies that given a constant 2 degree sequence $\pi$ of length $n$ and any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices having minimum degree $\delta(G) \geq n / 2, \pi$ can be embedded into $G$. One can interprete the Corrádi-Hajnal theorem similarly, but here one may require more on the structure of the graph that realizes $\pi$ and in exchange a larger minimum degree of $G$ is needed.

One of our main results is the following.
Theorem 3. For every $\eta>0$ and $D \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\eta, D)$ such that for all $n>n_{0}$ if $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq\left(\frac{1}{2}+\eta\right) n$ and $\pi$ is a degree sequence of length $n$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$, then $\pi$ is embeddable into $G$.

It is easy to see that Theorem 3 is sharp up to the $\eta n$ additive term. For that let $n$ be an even number, and suppose that every element of $\pi$ is 1 . Then the only graph that realizes $\pi$ is the union of $n / 2$ vertex disjoint edges. Let $G=$ $K_{n / 2-1, n / 2+1}$ be the complete bipartite graph with vertex class sizes $n / 2-1$ and $n / 2+1$. Clearly $G$ does not have $n / 2$ vertex disjoint edges.

In order to state the other main result of the paper we introduce a new notion.

Definition 4. Let $q \geq 1$ be an integer. $A$ bipartite graph $H$ with vertex classes $S$ and $T$ is $q$-unbalanced, if $q|S| \leq|T|$. The degree sequence $\pi$ is $q$-unbalanced, if it can be realized by a q-unbalanced bipartite graph.

Theorem 5. Let $q \geq 1$ be an integer. For every $\eta>0$ and $D \in \mathbb{N}$ there exist an $n_{0}=$ $n_{0}(\eta, q)$ and an $M=M(\eta, D, q)$ such that if $n \geq n_{0}, \pi$ is a $q$-unbalanced degree sequence of length $n-M$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D, G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq\left(\frac{1}{q+1}+\eta\right) n$, then $\pi$ can be embedded into $G$.

Hence, if $\pi$ is unbalanced, the minimum degree
requirement of Theorem 3 can be substantially decreased, what we pay for this is that the length of $\pi$ has to be slightly smaller than the number of vertices in the host graph.

## 2 Proof of Theorem 3

Proof. First, we find a suitable realization $H$ of $\pi$, our $H$ will consists of components of bounded size. Second, we embed $H$ into $G$ using a theorem by Chvátal and Szemerédi and a result on embedding so called well-separable graphs. The details are as follows.

We construct $H$ in several steps. At the beginning, let $H$ be the empty graph and let all degrees in $\pi$ be active. While we can find $2 i$ active degrees of $\pi$ with value $i$ (for some $1 \leq i \leq \Delta(\pi)$ ) we realize them with a $K_{i, i}$ (that is, we add this complete bipartite graph to $H$, and the $2 i$ degrees are "inactivated"). When we stop we have at most $\sum_{i=1}^{\Delta(\pi)}(2 i-1)$ active degrees. This way we obtain several components, each being a balanced complete bipartite graph. These are the type 1 gadgets. Observe that if a vertex $v$ belongs to some type 1 gadget, then its degree is exactly $\pi(v)$. Observe further that if there are no active degrees in $\pi$ at this point then the graph $H$ we have just found is a realization of $\pi$.

Assume that there are active degrees left in $\pi$. Let $R=R_{\text {odd }} \cup R_{\text {even }}$ be the vertex set that is identified with the active vertices $\left(v \in R_{o d d}\right.$ if and only if the assigned active degree is odd). Since $\sum_{v \in R} d(v)$ must be an even number we have that $\left|R_{\text {odd }}\right|$ is even. Add a perfect matching on $R_{\text {odd }}$ to $H$. With this we achieved that every vertex of $R$ misses an even number of edges.

Next we construct the type 2 gadgets using the following algorithm. In the beginning every type 1 gadget is unmarked. Suppose that $v \in$
$R$ is an active vertex. Take a type 1 gadget $K$, mark it, and let $M_{K}$ denote an arbitrarily chosen perfect matching in $K$ ( $M_{K}$ exists since $K$ is a balanced complete bipartite graph). Let $x y$ be an arbitrary edge in $M_{K}$. Delete the $x y$ edge and add the new edges $v x$ and $v y$. While $v$ is missing edges repeat the above procedure with edges of $M_{K}$, until $M_{K}$ becomes empty. If $M_{K}$ becomes empty, take a new unmarked type 1 gadget $L$, and repeat the method with $L$. It is easy to see that in $\pi(v) / 2$ steps $v$ reaches its desired degree and gets inactivated. Clearly, the degrees of vertices in the marked type 1 gadgets have not changed.


Figure 1: Type 2 gadgets of $H$ with a 3 -coloring

Figure 1 shows examples of type 2 gadgets. In the upper one two vertices of $R_{\text {odd }}$ were first connected by an edge and then two type 1 gadgets were used so that they could reach their desired degree, while in the lower one we used three type 1 gadgets for a vertex of $R$. The numbers at the vertices indicate the colors in the 3 -coloring of $H$.

Let $A \subset V(H)$ denote the set of vertices containing the union of all type 2 gadgets. Observe that type 2 gadgets are 3 -colorable and all have less than $5 \Delta^{2}(\pi)$ vertices. Let us summarize our knowledge about $H$ for later reference.

Claim 6. (1) $|A| \leq 5 \Delta^{3}(\pi)$,
(2) the components of $H[V-A]$ are balanced complete bipartite graphs, each having size at most $2 \Delta(\pi)$,
(3) $\chi(H[A]) \leq 3$, and
(4) $e(H[A, V-A])=0$.

We are going to show that $H \subset G$. For that we first embed the possibly 3 -chromatic part $H[A]$ using the following strengthening of the Erdős-Stone theorem proved by Chvátal and Szemerédi [2].

Theorem 7. Let $\varphi>0$ and assume that $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices where $n$ is sufficiently large. Let $r \in \mathbb{N}, r \geq 2$. If

$$
e(G) \geq\left(\frac{r-2}{2(r-1)}+\varphi\right) n^{2}
$$

then $G$ contains a $K_{r}(t)$, i.e. a complete $r$ partite graph with $t$ vertices in each class, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t>\frac{\log n}{500 \log \frac{1}{\varphi}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\delta(G) \geq(1 / 2+\eta) n$, the conditions of Theorem 7 are satisfied with $r=3$ and $\varphi=\eta / 2$, hence, $G$ contains a balanced complete tripartite subgraph $T$ on $\Omega(\log n)$ vertices. Using Claim 6 and the 3 -colorability of $H[A]$ this implies that $H[A] \subset T$.

Observe that after embedding $H[A]$ into $G$ every uncovered vertex of $G$ still has at least $\delta(G)-v(F)>(1 / 2+\eta / 2) n$ uncovered neighbors. Denoting the subgraph of the uncovered vertices of $G$ by $G^{\prime}$ we obtain that $\delta\left(G^{\prime}\right)>$ $(1 / 2+\eta / 2) n$.

In order to prove that $H[V-A] \subset G^{\prime}$ we first need a definition.

Definition 8. A graph $F$ on $n$ vertices is wellseparable if it has a subset $S \subset V(F)$ of size
$o(n)$ such that all components of $F-S$ are of size $o(n)$.

We need the following theorem.
Theorem 9 ([4]). For every $\gamma>0$ and positive integer $D$ there exists an $n_{0}$ such that for all $n>n_{0}$ if $F$ is a bipartite well-separable graph on $n$ vertices, $\Delta(F) \leq D$ and $\delta(G) \geq$ $\left(\frac{1}{2}+\gamma\right) n$ for a graph $G$ of order $n$, then $F \subset$ $G$.

Since $H[V-A]$ has bounded size components by Claim 6, we can apply Theorem 9 for $H[V-$ $A]$ and $G^{\prime}$, with parameter $\gamma=\eta / 2$. With this we finished proving what was desired.

## 3 Further tools for Theorem 5

When proving Theorem 3, we used the Regularity Lemma of Szemerédi, but implicitly, via the result on embedding well-separable graphs. When proving Theorem 5 we will apply this very powerful result explicitly, hence, below we give a very brief introduction to the area. The interested reader may consult with the original paper by Szemerédi [15] or e.g. with the survey paper [10].

### 3.1 Regularity Lemma

The density between disjoint sets $X$ and $Y$ is defined as:

$$
d(X, Y)=\frac{e(X, Y)}{|X||Y|}
$$

We will need the following definition to state the Regularity Lemma.

Definition 10 (Regularity condition). Let $\varepsilon>0$. A pair $(A, B)$ of disjoint vertex-sets in $G$ is $\varepsilon$-regular if for every $X \subset A$ and $Y \subset B$, satisfying

$$
|X|>\varepsilon|A|,|Y|>\varepsilon|B|
$$

we have

$$
|d(X, Y)-d(A, B)|<\varepsilon .
$$

This definition implies that regular pairs are highly uniform bipartite graphs; namely, the density of any reasonably large subgraph is almost the same as the density of the regular pair.

We will use the following form of the Regularity Lemma:

Lemma 11 (Degree Form). For every $\varepsilon>0$ there is an $M=M(\varepsilon)$ such that if $G=(W, E)$ is any graph and $d \in[0,1]$ is any real number, then there is a partition of the vertex set $V$ into $\ell+1$ clusters $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$, and there is a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ with the following properties:

- $\ell \leq M$,
- $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq \varepsilon|W|$,
- all clusters $W_{i}, i \geq 1$, are of the same size $m\left(\leq\left\lfloor\frac{|W|}{\ell}\right\rfloor<\varepsilon|W|\right)$,
- $\operatorname{deg}_{G^{\prime}}(v)>\operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)-(d+\varepsilon)|W|$ for all $v \in W$,
- $\left.G^{\prime}\right|_{W_{i}}=\emptyset$ ( $W_{i}$ is an independent set in $G^{\prime}$ ) for all $i \geq 1$,
- all pairs $\left(W_{i}, W_{j}\right), 1 \leq i<j \leq \ell$, are $\varepsilon$-regular, each with density either 0 or greater than $d$ in $G^{\prime \prime}$.

We call $W_{0}$ the exceptional cluster, $W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$ are the non-exceptional clusters. In the rest of the paper we will assume that $0<\varepsilon \ll d \ll 1$.

Here $a \ll b$ means that $a$ is sufficiently smaller than $b$.

Definition 12 (Reduced graph). Apply Lemma 11 to the graph $G=(W, E)$ with parameters $\varepsilon$ and $d$, and denote the clusters of the resulting partition by $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$ ( $W_{0}$ being the exceptional cluster). We construct a new graph $G_{r}$, the reduced graph of $G^{\prime}$ in the following way: The non-exceptional clusters of $G^{\prime \prime}$ are the vertices of the reduced graph $G_{r}$ (hence $v\left(G_{r}\right)=\ell$ ). We connect two vertices of $G_{r}$ by an edge if the corresponding two clusters form an $\varepsilon$-regular pair with density at least d.

The following corollary is immediate:
Corollary 13. Apply Lemma 11 with parameters $\varepsilon$ and d to the graph $G=(W, E)$ satisfying $\delta(G) \geq \gamma n \quad(v(G)=n)$ for some $\gamma>0$. Denote $G_{r}$ the reduced graph of $G^{\prime}$. Then $\delta\left(G_{r}\right) \geq(\gamma-\theta) \ell$, where $\theta=2 \varepsilon+d$.

The (fairly easy) proof of the lemma below can be found in [10].

Lemma 14. Let $(A, B)$ be an $\varepsilon$-regular-pair with density $d$ for some $\epsilon>0$. Let $c>0$ be a constant such that $\varepsilon \ll c$. We arbitrarily divide $A$ and $B$ into two parts, obtaining the non-empty subsets $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime}, B^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Assume that $\left|A^{\prime}\right|,\left|A^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq c|A|$ and $\left|B^{\prime}\right|,\left|B^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq c|B|$. Then the pairs $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$, $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime \prime}\right),\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime}\right)$ are all $\varepsilon / c^{-}$ regular pairs with density at least $d-\varepsilon / c$.

### 3.2 Blow-up Lemma

Let $H$ and $G$ be two graphs on $n$ vertices. Assume that we want to find an isomorphic copy of $H$ in $G$. In order to achieve this one can apply a very powerful tool, the Blow-up Lemma of Komlós, Sárközy and Szemerédi [8, 9]. For stating it we need a new notion, a stronger
one-sided property of regular pairs.
Definition 15 (Super-Regularity condition). Given a graph $G$ and two disjoint subsets of its vertices $A$ and $B$, the pair $(A, B)$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-super-regular, if it is $\varepsilon$-regular and furthermore,

$$
\operatorname{deg}(a)>\delta|B|, \text { for all } a \in A
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{deg}(b)>\delta|A|, \text { for all } b \in B
$$

Theorem 16 (Blow-up Lemma). Given a graph $R$ of order $r$ and positive integers $\delta, \Delta$, there exists a positive $\varepsilon=\varepsilon(\delta, \Delta, r)$ such that the following holds: Let $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ be arbitrary positive parameters and let us replace the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{r}$ of $R$ with pairwise disjoint sets $W_{1}, W_{2}, \ldots, W_{r}$ of sizes $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ (blowing up $R$ ). We construct two graphs on the same vertex set $V=\cup_{i} W_{i}$. The first graph $F$ is obtained by replacing each edge $v_{i} v_{j} \in E(R)$ with the complete bipartite graph between $W_{i}$ and $W_{j}$. A sparser graph $G$ is constructed by replacing each edge $v_{i} v_{j}$ arbitrarily with an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-super-regular pair between $W_{i}$ and $W_{j}$. If a graph $H$ with $\Delta(H) \leq \Delta$ is embeddable into $F$ then it is already embeddable into $G$.

## 4 Proof of Theorem 5

Let us give a brief sketch first. Recall, that $\pi$ is a $q$-unbalanced and bounded degree sequence with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$. In the proof we first show that there exists a $q$-unbalanced bipartite graph $H$ that realizes $\pi$ such that $H$ is the vertex disjoint union of the graphs $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{k}$, where each $H_{i}$ graph is a bipartite $q$-unbalanced graph having bounded size. We will apply the Regularity lemma to $G$, and find a special substructure (a decomposition into vertex-disjoint stars) in the reduced graph of $G$. This substructure can then be used to
embed the union of the $H_{i}$ graphs, for the majority of them we use the Blow-up lemma.

### 4.1 Finding $H$

The goal of this subsection is to prove the lemma below.

Lemma 17. Let $\pi$ be a q-unbalanced degree sequence of positive integers with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$. Then $\pi$ can be realized by a $q$-unbalanced bipartite graph $H$ which is the vertex disjoint union of the graphs $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{k}$, such that for every $i$ we have that $H_{i}$ is $q$-unbalanced, moreover, $v\left(H_{i}\right) \leq 4 D^{2}$.

Before starting the proof of Lemma 17, we list a few necessary notions and results.

We call a finite sequence of integers a zerosum sequence if the sum of its elements is zero. The following result of Sahs, Sissokho and Torf plays an important role in the proof of Lemma 17.

Proposition 18. [14] Assume that $K$ is a positive integer. Then any zero-sum sequence on $\{-K, \ldots, K\}$ having length at least $2 K$ contains a proper nonempty zero-sum subsequence.

The following result, formulated by Gale [7] and Ryser [13], will also be useful. We present it in the form as discussed in Lovász [11].

Lemma 19. [11] Let $G=(A, B ; E(G))$ be a bipartite graph and $f$ be a nonnegative integer function on $A \cup B$ with $f(A)=f(B)$. Then $G$ has a subgraph $F=(A, B ; E(F))$ such that $d_{F}(x)=f(x)$ for all $x \in A \cup B$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X) \leq e(X, Y)+f(\bar{Y}) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $X \subseteq A$ and $Y \subseteq B$, where $\bar{Y}=B-Y$.
We remark that such a subgraph $F$ is also
called an $f$-factor of $G$.
Lemma 20. If $f=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s} ; b_{1}, \ldots, b_{t}\right)$ is a sequence of positive integers with $s, t \geq$ $2 \Delta^{2}$, where $\Delta$ is the maximum of $f$, and $f(A)=f(B)$ with $A=\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{s}\right\}$ and $B=\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{t}\right\}$ then $f$ is bigraphic.

Proof. All we have to check is whether the conditions of Lemma 19 are met if $G=K_{s, t}$.

Suppose indirectly that there is an $(X, Y)$ pair for which (2) does not hold. Choose such a pair with minimal $|X|+|Y|$. Then $X=\emptyset$ or $Y=\emptyset$ are impossible, as in those cases (2) trivially holds. Hence, $|X|,|Y| \geq 1$. Assuming that (2) does not hold, we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X) \geq e(X, Y)+f(\bar{Y})+1 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X) \geq|X||Y|+f(\bar{Y})+1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $G$ is a complete bipartite graph. Furthermore, using the minimality of $|X|+|Y|$, we know that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X-a) \leq|X-a||Y|+f(\bar{Y}) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $a \in X$. (5) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X)-f(a) \leq|X||Y|-|Y|+f(\bar{Y}) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (4) and (6) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(a)-1 \geq|Y| \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $a \in X$, which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta>|Y| \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The same reasoning also implies that $\Delta>|X|$ whenever $(X, Y)$ is a counterexample. Therefore we only have to verify that (2) holds in
case $|X|<\Delta$ and $|Y|<\Delta$. Recall that $f(B) \geq t$, as all elements of $f$ are positive. Hence, $f(X) \leq \Delta|X| \leq \Delta^{2}$, and $f(\bar{Y})=$ $f(B)-f(Y) \geq t-\Delta^{2}$, and we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(X) \leq \Delta^{2} \leq t-\Delta^{2} \leq f(\bar{Y}) \leq f(\bar{Y})+e_{G}(X, Y) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds, since $t \geq 2 \Delta^{2}$.

Proof. (Lemma 17) Assume that $J=$ $(S, T ; E(J))$ is a $q$-unbalanced bipartite graph realizing $\pi$. Hence, $q|S| \leq|T|$. Moreover, $|T| \leq D|S|$, since $\Delta(\pi) \leq D$. We form vertex disjoint tuples of the form $\left(s ; t_{1}, \ldots, t_{h}\right)$, such that $s \in S, t_{i} \in T, q \leq h \leq D$, and the collection of these tuples contains every vertex of $S \cup T$ exactly once. We define the bias of the tuple as

$$
\zeta=\pi\left(t_{1}\right)+\cdots+\pi\left(t_{h}\right)-\pi(s)
$$

Obviously, $-D \leq \zeta \leq D^{2}$. The conditions of Proposition 18 are clearly met with $K=D^{2}$. Hence, we can form groups of size at most $2 D^{2}$ in which the sums of biases are zero. This way we obtain a partition of $(S, T)$ into $q$-unbalanced set pairs which have zero bias. While these sets may be small, we can combine them so that each combined set is of size at least $2 D^{2}$ and has zero bias. By Lemma 20 these are bigraphic sequences. The realizations of these small sequences give the graphs $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{k}$. It is easy to see that $v\left(H_{i}\right) \leq 4 D^{2}$ for every $1 \leq i \leq k$. Finally, we let $H=$ $\cup_{i} H_{i}$.

### 4.2 Decomposing $G_{r}$

Let us apply the Regularity lemma with parameters $0<\varepsilon \ll d \ll \eta$. By Corollary 13 we have that $\delta\left(G_{r}\right) \geq \ell /(q+1)+\eta \ell / 2$.

Let $h \geq 1$ be an integer. An $h$-star is a $K_{1, h}$. The center of an $h$-star is the vertex of degree
$h$, the other vertices are the leaves. In case $h=1$ we pick one of the vertices of the 1 -star arbitrarily to be the center.

Lemma 21. The reduced graph $G_{r}$ has a decomposition $\mathcal{S}$ into vertex disjoint stars such that each star has at most $q$ leaves.

Proof. Take a partial star-decomposition of $G_{r}$ that is as large as possible. Assume that there are uncovered vertices in $G_{r}$. Let $U$ denote those vertices that are covered (so we assume that $U$ has maximal cardinality), and let $v$ be an uncovered vertex. Observe that $v$ has neighbours only in $U$, otherwise, if $u v \in E\left(G_{r}\right)$ with $u \notin U$, then we can simply add $u v$ to the star-decomposition, contradicting to the maximality of $U$. See Figure 2 for the possible neighbors of $v$.
a) If $v$ is connected to a 1 -star, then we can replace it with a 2 -star.
b) If $v$ is connected to the center $u$ of an $h$ star, where $h<q$, then we can replace this star with an $h+1$-star by adding the edge $u v$ to the $h$-star.
c) If $v$ is connected to a leaf $u$ of an $h$-star, where $2 \leq h \leq q$, then replace the star with the edge $u v$ and an $(h-1)$-star (i.e., delete $u$ from it).

We have not yet considered one more case: when $v$ is connected to the center of a $q$ star. However, simple calculation shows that for every vertex $v$ at least one of the above three cases must hold, using the minimum degree condition of $G_{r}$. Hence we can increase the number of covered vertices. We arrived at a contradiction, $G_{r}$ has the desired stardecomposition.


Figure 2: An illustration for Lemma 21

### 4.3 Preparing $G$ for the embedding

Consider the $q$-star-decomposition $\mathcal{S}$ of $G_{R}$ as in Lemma 21. Let $\ell_{i}$ denote the number of ( $i-1$ )-stars in the decomposition for every $2 \leq$ $i \leq q+1$. It is easy to see that

$$
\sum_{i=2}^{q+1} i \ell_{i}=\ell
$$

First we will make every $\varepsilon$-regular pair in $\mathcal{S}$ super-regular by discarding a few vertices from the non-exceptional clusters. Let for example $\mathcal{C}$ be a star in the decomposition of $G_{r}$ with center cluster $A$ and leaves $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{k}$, where $1 \leq k \leq q$. Recall that the ( $A, B_{i}$ ) pairs has density at least $d$. We repeat the following for every $1 \leq i \leq k$ : if $v \in A$ such that $v$ has at most $2 d \mathrm{~m} / 3$ neighbors in $B_{i}$ then discard $v$ from $A$, put it into $W_{0}$. Similarly, if $w \in B_{i}$ has at most $2 d \mathrm{~m} / 3$ neighbors in $A$, then discard $w$ from $B_{i}$, put it into $W_{0}$. Repeat this process for every star in $\mathcal{S}$. We have the following:

Claim 22. We do not discard more than qعm vertices from any non-exceptional cluster.

Proof. Given a star $\mathcal{C}$ in the decomposition $\mathcal{S}$ assume that its center cluster is $A$ and let $B$ be one of its leaves. Since the pair $(A, B)$ is $\varepsilon$-regular with density at least $d$, neither $A$, nor $B$ can have more than $\varepsilon m$ vertices that
have at most $2 d \mathrm{~m} / 3$ neighbors in the opposite cluster. Hence, during the above process we may discard up to $q \varepsilon m$ vertices from $A$. Next, we may discard vertices from the leaves, but since no leaf $B$ had more than $\varepsilon m$ vertices with less than $(d-\varepsilon) m$ neighbors in $A$, even after discarding at most $q \varepsilon m$ vertices of $A$, there can be at most $\varepsilon m$ vertices in $B$ that have less than $(d-(q+1) \varepsilon) m$ neighbors in $A$. Using that $\varepsilon \ll d$, we have that $(d-(q+1) \varepsilon)>2 d / 3$. We obtained what was desired.

By the above claim we can make every $\varepsilon$ regular pair in $\mathcal{S}$ a $(2 \varepsilon, 2 d / 3)$-super-regular pair so that we discard only relatively few vertices. Notice that we only have an upper bound for the number of discarded vertices, there can be clusters from which we have not put any points into $W_{0}$. We repeat the following for every non-exceptional cluster: if $s$ vertices were discarded from it with $s<q \varepsilon m$ then we take $q \varepsilon m-s$ arbitrary vertices of it, and place them into $W_{0}$. This way every nonexceptional cluster will have the same number of points, precisely $m-q \varepsilon m$. For simpler notation, we will use the letter $m$ for this new cluster size. Observe that $W_{0}$ has increased by $q \varepsilon m \ell$ vertices, but we still have $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq 3 d n$ since $\varepsilon \ll d$ and $\ell m \leq n$. Since $q \varepsilon m \ll d$, in the resulting pairs the minimum degree will be at least $d m / 2$.

Summarizing, we obtained the following:
Lemma 23. By discarding a total of at most qहn vertices from the non-exceptional clusters we get that every edge in $\mathcal{S}$ represents a ( $2 \varepsilon, d / 2$ )-super-regular pair, and all nonexceptional clusters have the same cardinality, which is denoted by $m$. Moreover, $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq 3 d n$.

Since $v(G)-v(H)$ is bounded above by a constant, when embedding $H$ we need almost every vertex of $G$, in particular those in the exceptional cluster $W_{0}$. For this reason we will assign the vertices of $W_{0}$ to the stars in $\mathcal{S}$.

This is not done in an arbitrary way.
Definition 24. Let $v \in W_{0}$ be a vertex and $(Q, T)$ be an $\varepsilon$-regular pair. We say that $v \in T$ has large degree to $Q$ if $v$ has at least $\eta|Q| / 4$ neighbors in $Q$. Let $S=\left(A, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{k}\right)$ be a star in $\mathcal{S}$ where $A$ is the center of $S$ and $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{k}$ are the leaves, here $1 \leq k \leq q$. If $v$ has large degree to any of $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{k}$, then $v$ can be assigned to $A$. If $k<q$ and $v$ has large degree to $A$, then $v$ can be assigned to any of the $B_{i}$ leaves.

Observation 25. If we assign new vertices to a $q$-star, then we necessarily assign them to the center. Since before assigning, the number of vertices in the leaf-clusters is exactly $q$ times the number of vertices in the center cluster, after assigning new vertices to the star, $q$ times the cardinality of the center will be larger than the total number of vertices in the leaf-clusters. If $S \in \mathcal{S}$ is a $k$-star with $1 \leq k<q$, and we assign up to cm vertices to any of its clusters, where $0<c \ll 1$, then even after assigning new vertices we will have that $q$ times the cardinality of the center is larger than the total number of vertices in the leaf-clusters.

The following lemma plays a crucial role in the embedding algorithm.

Lemma 26. Every vertex of $W_{0}$ can be assigned to at least $\eta \ell / 4$ non-exceptional clusters.

Proof. Suppose that there exists a vertex $w \in$ $W_{0}$ that can be assigned to less than $\eta \ell / 4$ clusters. If $w$ cannot be assigned to any cluster of some $k$-star $S_{k}$ with $k<q$, then the total degree of $w$ into the clusters of $S_{k}$ is at most $k \eta m / 4$. If $w$ cannot be assigned to any cluster of some $q$-star $S_{q}$, then the total degree of $w$ into the clusters of $S_{q}$ is at most $m+q \eta m / 4$, since every vertex of the center cluster could be adjacent to $w$. Considering that $w$ can be assigned to at most $\eta \ell / 4-1$ clusters and that
$d\left(w, W-W_{0}\right) \geq n /(q+1)+\eta n / 2$, we obtain the following inequality:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{n}{q+1}+\frac{\eta n}{2} \leq d\left(v, W-W_{0}\right) \leq \eta \frac{\ell m}{4}+ \\
\sum_{k=1}^{q-1}(k+1) \eta \frac{\ell_{k+1} m}{4}+q \eta \frac{\ell_{q+1} m}{4}+\ell_{q+1} m
\end{gathered}
$$

Using $m \ell \leq n$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{q}(k+1) \ell_{k+1}=\ell$, we get

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{m \ell}{q+1}+\frac{\eta m \ell}{2} \leq \eta \frac{\ell m}{4}+\left(\ell-\ell_{q+1}\right) \frac{\eta m}{4}+ \\
q \eta \frac{\ell_{++1} m}{4}+\ell_{q+1} m
\end{gathered}
$$

Dividing both sides by $m$ and cancellations give

$$
\frac{\ell}{q+1} \leq q \frac{\eta \ell_{q+1}}{4}+\left(1-\frac{\eta}{4}\right) \ell_{q+1}
$$

Noting that $(q+1) \ell_{q+1} \leq \ell$, one can easily see that we arrived at a contradiction. Hence every vertex of $W_{0}$ can be assigned to several non-exceptional clusters.

Lemma 26 implies the following:
Lemma 27. One can assign the vertices of $W_{0}$ so that at most $\sqrt{d} m$ vertices are assigned to non-exceptional clusters.

Proof. Since we have at least $\eta \ell / 4$ choices for every vertex, the bound follows from the inequality $\frac{4\left|W_{0}\right|}{\eta \ell} \leq \sqrt{d} m$, where we used $d \ll \eta$ and $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq 3 d n$.

Observation 28. A key fact is that the number of newly assigned vertices to a cluster is much smaller than their degree into the opposite cluster of the regular pair since $\sqrt{d} m \ll$ $\eta m / 4$.

### 4.4 The embedding algorithm

The embedding is done in two phases. In the first phase we cover every vertex that belonged to $W_{0}$, together with some other vertices of the non-exceptional clusters. In the second phase we are left with super-regular pairs into which we embed what is left from $H$ using the Blowup lemma.

### 4.4.1 The first phase

Let $(A, B)$ be an $\varepsilon$-regular cluster-edge in the $h$-star $\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{S}$. We begin with partitioning $A$ and $B$ randomly, obtaining $A=A^{\prime} \cup A^{\prime \prime}$ and $B=B^{\prime} \cup B^{\prime \prime}$ with $A^{\prime} \cap A^{\prime \prime}=B^{\prime} \cap B^{\prime \prime}=\emptyset$. For every $w \in A$ (except those that came from $W_{0}$ ) flip a coin. If it is heads, we put $w$ into $A^{\prime}$, otherwise we put it into $A^{\prime \prime}$. Similarly, we flip a coin for every $w \in B$ (except those that came from $W_{0}$ ) and depending on the outcome, we either put the vertex into $B^{\prime}$ or into $B^{\prime \prime}$. The proof of the following lemma is standard, uses Chernoff's bound (see in [1]), we omit it.

Lemma 29. With high probability, that is, with probability at least $1-1 / n$, we have the following:

- $\left|\left|A^{\prime}\right|-\left|A^{\prime \prime}\right|\right|=o(n)$ and $\left|\left|B^{\prime}\right|-\left|B^{\prime \prime}\right|\right|=$ $o(n)$
- $\operatorname{deg}\left(w, A^{\prime}\right), \operatorname{deg}\left(w, A^{\prime \prime}\right)>\operatorname{deg}(w, A) / 3$ for every $w \in B$
- $\operatorname{deg}\left(w, B^{\prime}\right), \operatorname{deg}\left(w, B^{\prime \prime}\right)>\operatorname{deg}(w, B) / 3$ for every $w \in A$
- the density $d\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right) \geq d / 2$

It is easy to see that Lemma 29 implies that $\left(A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ is a $(5 \varepsilon, d / 6)$-super-regular pair having density at least $d / 2$ with high probability.

Assume that $v$ was an element of $W_{0}$ before
we assigned it to the cluster $A$, and assume further that $\operatorname{deg}(v, B) \geq \eta m / 4$. Since $(A, B)$ is an edge of the star-decomposition, either $A$ or $B$ must be the center of $\mathcal{C}$.

Let $H_{i}$ be one of the $q$-unbalanced bipartite subgraphs of $H$ that has not been embedded yet. We will use $H_{i}$ to cover $v$. Denote $S_{i}$ and $T_{i}$ the vertex classes of $H_{i}$, where $\left|S_{i}\right| \geq q\left|T_{i}\right|$. Let $S_{i}=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{s}\right\}$ and $T_{i}=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{t}\right\}$.

If $A$ is the center of $\mathcal{C}$ then the vertices of $T_{i}$ will cover vertices of $A^{\prime}$, and the vertices of $S_{i}$ will cover vertices of $B^{\prime}$. If $B$ is the center, $S_{i}$ and $T_{i}$ will switch roles. The embedding of $H_{i}$ is essentially identical in both cases, so we will only discuss the case when $A$ is the center. ${ }^{2}$

In order to cover $v$ we will essentially use a well-known method called Key lemma in [10]. We will heavily use the fact that

$$
0<\varepsilon \ll d \ll \eta
$$

The details are as follows. We construct an edge-preserving injective mapping $\varphi: S_{i} \cup$ $T_{i} \longrightarrow A^{\prime} \cup B^{\prime}$. In particular, we will have $\varphi\left(S_{i}\right) \subset B^{\prime}$ and $\varphi\left(T_{i}\right)-v \subset A^{\prime}$. First we let $\varphi\left(y_{1}\right)=v$. Set $N_{1}=N(v) \cap B^{\prime}$. Using Lemma 29 we have that $\left|N_{1}\right| \geq \eta m / 12 \gg \varepsilon m$.

Next we find $\varphi\left(y_{2}\right)$. Since $\left|N_{1}\right| \gg \varepsilon m$, by $5 \varepsilon$ regularity the majority of the vacant vertices of $A^{\prime}$ will have at least $d\left|N_{1}\right| / 3$ neighbors in $N_{1}$. Pick any of these, denote it by $v_{2}$ and let $\varphi\left(y_{2}\right)=v_{2}$. Also, set $N_{2}=N_{1} \cap N\left(v_{2}\right)$.

In general, assume that we have already found the vertices $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots, v_{i}$, their common neighborhood in $B^{\prime}$ is $N_{i}$, and

$$
\left|N_{i}\right| \geq \frac{\eta d^{i-1}}{3^{i-2} \cdot 36} m \gg \varepsilon m
$$

By $5 \varepsilon$-regularity, this implies that the majority of the vacant vertices of $A^{\prime}$ has large degree into $N_{i}$, at least $d \cdot\left|N_{i}\right| / 3$, and this, as

[^6]above, can be used to find $v_{i+1}$. Then we set $\varphi\left(y_{i+1}\right)=v_{i+1}$. Since $\eta$ and $d$ is large compared to $\varepsilon$, even into the last set $N_{t-1}$ many vacant vertices will have large degrees.

As soon as we have $\varphi\left(y_{1}\right), \ldots, \varphi\left(y_{t}\right)$, it is easy to find the images for $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{t}$. Since $\left|N_{t}\right| \gg$ $\varepsilon m \gg s=\left|S_{i}\right|$, we can arbitrarily choose $s$ vacant points from $N_{t}$ for the $\varphi\left(x_{j}\right)$ images.

Note that we use less than $v\left(H_{i}\right) \leq 4 D^{2}$ vertices from $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ during this process. We can repeat it for every vertex that were assigned to $A$, and still at most $\sqrt{d} 2 D^{2} m$ vertices will be covered from $A^{\prime}$ and from $B^{\prime}$.

Another observation is that every $h$-star in the decomposition before this embedding phase was $h$-unbalanced, now, since we were careful, these have become $h^{\prime}$-balanced with $h^{\prime} \leq h$.

Of course, the above method will be repeated for every $(A, B)$ edge of the decomposition for which we have assigned vertices of $W_{0}$.

### 4.4.2 The second phase

In the second phase we first unite all the randomly partitioned clusters. For example, assume that after covering the vertices that were coming from $W_{0}$ the set of vacant vertices of $A^{\prime}$ is denoted by $A_{v}^{\prime}$. Then we let $A_{v}=A_{v}^{\prime} \cup A^{\prime \prime}$, and using analogous notation, let $B_{v}=B_{v}^{\prime} \cup B^{\prime \prime}$.

Claim 30. All the $\left(A_{v}, B_{v}\right)$ pairs are (3 $\varepsilon, d / 6)$-super-regular with density at least $d / 2$.

Proof. The $3 \varepsilon$-regularity of these pairs is easy to see, like the lower bound for the density, since we have only covered relatively few vertices of the clusters. For the large minimum degrees note that by Lemma 29 every vertex of $A$ had at least $d m / 6$ neighbors in $B^{\prime \prime}$, hence,
in $B_{v}$ as well, and analogous bound holds for vertices of $B$.

At this point we want to apply the Blow-up lemma for every star of $\mathcal{S}$ individually. For that we first have to assign those subgraphs of $H$ to stars that were not embedded yet. We need a lemma.

Lemma 31. Let $K_{a, b}$ be a complete bipartite graph with vertex classes $A$ and $B$, where $|A|=a$ and $|B|=b$. Assume that $a \leq b=h a$, where $1 \leq h \leq q$. Let $H^{\prime}$ be the vertex disjoint union of $q$-unbalanced bipartite graphs:

$$
H^{\prime}=\bigcup_{j=1}^{t} H_{j}
$$

such that $v\left(H_{j}\right) \leq 2 D^{2}$ for every $j$. If $v\left(H^{\prime}\right) \leq$ $a+b-4(2 q+1) D^{2}$, then $H^{\prime} \subset K_{a, b}$.

Observe that if we have Lemma 31, we can distribute the $H_{i}$ subgraphs among the stars of $\mathcal{S}$, and then apply the Blow-up lemma. Hence, we are done with proving Theorem 5 if we prove Lemma 31 above.

Proof. The proof is an assigning algorithm and its analysis. We assign the vertex classes of the $H_{j}$ subgraphs to $A$ and $B$, one-by-one. Before assigning the $j$ th subgraph $H_{j}$ the number of vacant vertices of $A$ is denoted by $a_{j}$ and the number of vacant vertices of $B$ is denoted by $b_{j}$.

Assume that we want to assign $H_{k}$. If $h a_{k}-$ $b_{k}>0$, then the larger vertex class of $H_{k}$ is assigned to $A$, the smaller is assigned to $B$. Otherwise, if $h a_{k}-b_{k} \leq 0$, then we assign the larger vertex class to $B$ and the smaller one to $A$. Then we update the number of vacant vertices of $A$ and $B$. Observe that using this assigning method we always have $a_{k} \leq b_{k}$.

The question is whether we have enough room for $H_{k}$. If $h a \geq 4 h D^{2}$, then we must have
enough room, since $b_{k} \geq a_{k}$ and every $H_{j}$ has at most $2 D^{2}$ vertices. Hence, if the algorithm stops, we must have $a_{k}<4 D^{2}$. Since $b_{k}-$ $h a_{k} \leq 2 D^{2}$ must hold, we have $b_{k}<(2 h+$ 1) $2 D^{2}<(2 q+1) 2 D^{2}$. From this the lemma follows.

## 5 Remarks

One can prove a very similar result to Theorem 5, in fact the result below follows easily from it. For stating it we need the notion of graph edit distance which is detailed e.g. in [12]: the edit distance between two graphs on the same labeled vertex set is defined to be the size of the symmetric difference of the edge sets

Theorem 32. Let $q \geq 1$ be an integer. For every $\eta>0$ and $D \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\eta, q)$ and a $K=K(\eta, D, q)$ such that if $n \geq n_{0}, \pi$ is a $q$-unbalanced degree sequence of length $n$ with $\Delta(\pi) \leq D, G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $\delta(G) \geq\left(\frac{1}{q+1}+\eta\right) n$, then there exists a graph $G^{\prime}$ on $n$ vertices such that the edit distance of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ is at most $K$, and $\pi$ can be embedded into $G^{\prime}$.

Here is an example showing that Theorem 5 and 32 are essentially best possible.

Example 33. Assume that $\pi$ has only odd numbers and $G$ has at least one odd sized component. Then the embedding is impossible. Indeed, any realization of $\pi$ has only even sized components, hence, $G$ cannot contain it as a spanning subgraph.

Note that this example does not work in case $G$ is connected. In Theorem 3 the minimum degree $\delta(G) \geq(1 / 2+\eta) n$, hence, $G$ is connected, and in this case we can embed $\pi$ into $G$.

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# On the relation of separability and bandwidth 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we show the existence of bounded degree bipartite graphs with a small separator and large bandwidth. We also prove that under certain conditions these graphs can be embedded into graphs with minimum degree slightly over $n / 2$.


## 1 Introduction

One of the most basic questions in graphs theory is, given graphs $H$ and $G$, whether $H$ is a subgraph of $G$. If so, we also say that $H$ can be embedded into $G$. Observe that embedding problems can be formulated as packing problems. In a packing problem one has two graphs, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, on $n$ vertices and the question is whether there is an edge-disjoint placement of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ into the complete graph $K_{n}$. Letting $G_{1}=H$ and $G_{2}=G$ (that is, $G_{2}$ is the complement of $G$ ) one can turn the embedding question into a packing one.

Many seemingly unrelated problems can be translated to the language of embedding/packing, for a (non-complete) list see for example [12]. Therefore, it is not surprising that in general many embedding/packing problems are open. In order to prove meaningful results one usually imposes condition on the graphs in question.

In this paper we consider bounded degree bipartite graphs that have a small separator and large bandwidth, and prove that under reasonable conditions these are spanning subgraphs of $n$-vertex graphs that have minimum degree just slightly larger than $n / 2$. We also show that using earlier methods such graphs cannot be embedded in general into host graphs with such small minimum degree.

The structure of the paper is as follows. First we give an overview of the area with a list of our new results. Next we define an infinite class of bounded degree graphs having small separators and very large bandwidth.

Finally, we embed such graphs using the Regularity lemma - Blow-up lemma method.

## 2 Overview of the area and our new results

In this paper we consider only simple graphs. We use standard graph theory notation.

The famous Bollobás-Eldridge-Catlin conjecture [3, 7] below is among the most important conjecture in the area:

Conjecture 1 (Bollobás, Eldridge; Catlin). If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are graphs on $n$ vertices with maximum degree $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$, respectively, and

$$
\left(\Delta_{1}+1\right)\left(\Delta_{2}+1\right) \leq n+1,
$$

then $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ pack.
Since the above conjecture is open in general, we impose further conditions for $H$ and $G$ in order to be able to solve special cases of the problem. One possibility is to consider only bounded degree $H$ graphs to be embedded. The BEC conjecture was solved in case $\Delta(H)=2[1], \Delta(H)=3$ [10], and when $\Delta(H)$ is bounded and $H$ is bipartite [8]. There is an approximation result in which $\left(\Delta_{1}+1\right)\left(\Delta_{2}+1\right) \leq 0.6 n[12]$.

One may impose other restrictions on $H$ still obtaining hard (but somewhat easier) problems. For example one may upper bound the so called bandwidth of $H$, this guarantees that $H$ is "far from being an expander".

Definition 2. Let $H(V, E)$ be a graph. Let $\mathcal{F}=\{f: V \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, n\}\}$ be a family of bijective functions on $V$. The bandwidth of $H$ is

$$
\varphi(H)=\min _{f \in \mathcal{F}} \max _{v_{i} v_{j} \in E}\left\{\left|f\left(v_{i}\right)-f\left(v_{j}\right)\right|\right\} .
$$

Note that a Hamilton path has bandwidth 1, a Hamilton cycle has bandwidth 2. Expander graphs have large, linear bandwidth, a star on $n$ vertices has bandwidth $n / 2$, a complete graph has bandwidth $n-1$. One of the important open problems of the area was the following conjecture by Bollobás and Komlós.

Conjecture 3 (Bollobás, Komlós). For every $D, k, \varepsilon$ there exists $\beta$ such that the following holds. Every n-vertex graph $G$ of minimum degree at least ( $1-1 / k+\varepsilon$ ) $n$ contains all $k$-chromatic $n$-vertex graphs of maximum degree at most $D$ and bandwidth at most $\beta n$ as subgraphs.

This conjecture was proved by Böttcher, Schacht and Taraz [6] using deep tools, in particular the proof of the celebrated Pósa-Seymour conjecture by Komlós, Sárközy and Szemerédi [15].

In [4] and [5] Böttcher and Böttcher et al. go further and explore relations of bandwidth with other notions, like separability. Separability plays an important role in this paper. We say that an $n$-vertex graph $H$ is $\gamma$-separable if there exists a separator set $S \subset V(H)$ with $|S| \leq \gamma n$ such that every component of $H-S$ has at most $o(n)$ vertices. Böttcher et al. [5] observed that bandwidth and separability are closely related: they proved the Sublinear Equivalence Theorem. This states that, roughly speaking, sublinear bandwidth implies the existence of a sublinear sized separating set and vice versa.

One of our main results shows that when the separating set has linear (small, but not very small) size, the bandwidth can be very large even for bounded degree graphs.

Theorem 4. Let $r \geq 35$ and $t \geq 2$ be integers and set $\gamma=\gamma(r)=1 /\left(8 r 2^{r}\right)$. Then there exists an infinite class of graphs $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ such that every element $H$ of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ has a separator set of size $\leq \gamma v(H)$, has bandwidth at least $0.3 n /(2 t+4)$, moreover, $\Delta(H)=O(1 / \gamma)$.

It is easy to see that there are bounded degree graphs having linearly large bandwidth since it is well-known that a random $l$-regular graph with $l \geq 3$ has large bandwidth with positive probability. However, such random graphs do not have small separators.

Knox and Treglown [13] embedded bounded degree graphs with sublinear bandwidth into so called robust expanders. Let $0<\nu \leq \mu<1$. Assume that $G$ is a graph of order $n$ and $S \subset V(G)$. The $\nu$-robust neighborhood $R N_{\nu, G}(S)$ of $S$ is the set of vertices $v \in V(G)$ such that $|N(v) \cap S| \geq \nu n$. We say that $G$ is a robust $(\nu, \mu)$-expander if $\left|R N_{\nu, G}(S)\right| \geq|S|+\nu n$ for every $S \subset V(G)$ such that $\tau n \leq|S| \leq(1-\tau) n$.

We will also show that elements of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ cannot be embedded into arbitrary robust expanders. However, if an $n$-vertex graph $G$ has minimum degree slightly larger than $n / 2$, then it contains the elements of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ as spanning subgraphs. We will prove the following.

Theorem 5. Let $r \geq 35$ and $t \geq 2$ be integers and set $\gamma=\gamma(r)=1 /\left(8 r 2^{r}\right)$. Then there exists an $n_{0}=n_{0}(\gamma)$ such that the following holds. Assume that $n \geq n_{0}$ and $G$ is an n-vertex graph having minimum degree $\delta(G) \geq$ $\left(1 / 2+2 \gamma^{1 / 3}\right) n$. If $H \in \mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ is a graph on $n$ vertices, then $H \subset G$.

The proof of Theorem 5 will rely heavily on the proof method of [9]. Let us remark that in [9] the size of the separator set was $o(n)$, and therefore the
bandwidth was also $o(n)$. This time the separator set is quite large compared to previous results. This is why the minimum degree bound for $G$ contains $\gamma$, unlike in the main result of [9], although we still need only slightly larger $\delta(G)$, than $n / 2$. The latter is the bound, for example, when we want to tile $G$ with vertex disjoint copies of a fixed bipartite graph.

## 3 Construction of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ and proof of Theorem 4

In order to exhibit the infinite family of graphs $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ we first need to construct certain kind of bipartite expander graphs. We begin with defining a bipartite graph $F$ with vertex classes $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ such that $\left|V_{1}\right|=\left|V_{2}\right|=k$ and $F$ has relatively good expansion properties. Our construction of $F$ relies on the existence of so called Ramanujan graphs: an $r$-regular (nonbipartite) graph $U$ is a Ramanujan graph if $\lambda \leq 2 \sqrt{r-1}$, where $\lambda$ is the second largest in absolute value of the eigenvalues of $U$ (since $U$ is $r$-regular, the largest eigenvalue is $r$ ). Lubotzky, Phillips and Sarnak [17], and independently Margulis [18], constructed for every $r=p+1$ where $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ infinite families of $r$ regular graphs with second largest eigenvalues at most $2 \sqrt{r-1}$. We need a fact about these graphs, a lower bound for the number of edges between subsets of $U$.

Lemma 6. Let $U$ be a graph as above. Then for every two subsets $A, B \subset$ $V(U)$ where $|A|=a k$ and $|B|=b k$ we have

$$
|e(A, B)-a b r k| \leq 2 \sqrt{r-1} \sqrt{a b} k
$$

The proof of Lemma 6 can be found for example in [2].
Corollary 7. Let $U$ be an $r$-regular Ramanujan graph on $k$ vertices with $r \geq 35$. Let us assume that $A, B \subset V(U)$ with $|A|=|B|=k / 3$ and $A \cap B=\emptyset$. Then $e(A, B) \geq 1$.

Proof. It is easy to see that the expression of Lemma 6 gives a lower bound for $e(A, B)$ which is monotone increasing in $r$. Hence it is sufficient to apply Lemma 6 with $r=35$ and $a=b=1 / 3$. Straightforward computation gives what was desired.

We are ready to discuss the details of the construction of $F$. Given an $r$-regular Ramanujan graph $U$ with $r \geq 35$ the vertex classes of $F$ will be copies of $V(U)$ : for every $x \in V(U)$ we have two copies of it, $x_{1} \in V_{1}$ and $x_{2} \in V_{2}$. For every $x y \in E(U)$ we include the edges $x_{1} y_{2}$ and $x_{2} y_{1}$ in $E(F)$. Finally, for every $x \in V(U)$ we will also have the edge $x_{1} x_{2}$ in $E(F)$. Observe
that $F$ is an $(r+1)$-regular bipartite graph. The following claims are crucial for the construction of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$.

Claim 8. Let $A \subset V_{1}$ and $B \subset V_{2}$ be arbitrary such that $|A|=|B|=k / 3$. Then $e(A, B) \geq 1$.

Proof. If there exists $x \in V(U)$ such that $x_{1} \in A$ and $x_{2} \in B$ then we are done since every $x_{1} x_{2}$ edge is present in $F$. If there is no such $x \in V(U)$ then we can apply Corollary 7 and obtain what is desired.

Claim 9. For every $A \subset V_{1}$ we have $|N(A)| \geq|A|$. Analogous statement holds for any subset $B \subset V_{2}$.

Proof. The claim easily follows from the fact that we included a perfect matching in $F$ when we added every $x_{1} x_{2}$ edge to $E(F)$.

Observe that we have a bipartite graph $F$ with $v(F)=2 k$ whenever there exists a Ramanujan graph $U$ with $v(U)=k$, for the latter we also assume that $r \geq 35$. Thus, there exists an infinite sequence of $\left\{F_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ graphs on increasing number of vertices, say, $F_{i}$ has $2 k_{i}$ vertices.

We are ready to define $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$. Each graph from this class is $\gamma$-separable where $\gamma=\gamma(r)$ can be relatively small as we will see soon. Still, the bandwidth of each of them is very large. Hence, $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ demonstrates that in spite of sublinear equivalence of separability and bandwidth, there is no linear equivalence.

The construction of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ is somewhat specific, we do it with foresight as our goal is not only to further explore the relation of separability and bandwidth but also to be able embed the elements of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ later.

Definition 10. Let $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $\gamma=\gamma(r)=1 /\left(8 r 2^{r}\right)$. Let $F_{i}$ be the bipartite graph as above on $2 k_{i}$ vertices which is $(r+1)$-regular such that $k_{i}$ is the largest for which $\gamma n \geq 2 k_{i}$. The elements of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ are constructed as follows. Given $n$ we let $H=(A, B ; E) \in \mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ to be the following bipartite graph.

1. $||A|-|B|| \leq 1$, and $|V|=|A \cup B|=n$,
2. let $S=S_{A} \cup S_{B}$ such that $\left|S_{A}\right|=\left|S_{B}\right|=k_{i}$,
3. $H[S]=F$ and $E\left(H\left[S_{A}\right]\right)=E\left(H\left[S_{B}\right]\right)=\emptyset$,
4. $D=\Delta(H)=O\left(r 2^{r}\right)$,


Figure 1: The graph $H$
5. for every point $x \in S$ we have a unique path $P_{x}$ of length $t$ starting at $x$ and ending at $z$, and $z$ has $D$ neighbors such that each has degree 1 except one that precedes $z$ in $P_{x}$.

Note that $S$ is a separator set of $H$ with $|S|=2 k_{i} \approx \gamma n$, every component of $H-S$ has less than $t+D$ vertices. From this one can easily obtain the bound $D<3 n / k_{i}$. The following lemma is crucial for bounding the bandwidth of $H \in \mathcal{H}_{r, t}$.

Lemma 11. Let $H$ be an element of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ on $n$ vertices. Assume that $X, Y \subset$ $V(H)$ with $|X|,|Y| \geq 0.35 n$ and $X \cap Y=\emptyset$. Then there exists an $x \in X$ and a $y \in Y$ such that the distance of $x$ and $y$ is at most $2 t+4$.

Proof. Denote the vertices of $H-S$ closer to $S_{A}$ by $A^{*}$, and analogously, the vertices of $H-S$ closer to $S_{B}$ by $B^{*}$. By the construction of $H$ we have $\left|A^{*}\right|=\left|B^{*}\right|=(1-\gamma) n / 2$. Note that $\gamma<0.01$ since $r \geq 35$. Hence we have that $|X-S| \geq 0.34 n$ and $|Y-S| \geq 0.34 n$. Thus, either $\left|X \cap A^{*}\right| \geq\left|A^{*}\right| / 3$ or $\left|X \cap B^{*}\right| \geq\left|B^{*}\right| / 3$. Without loss of generality, suppose the former. This also implies that at least $1 / 3$ of the components of $A^{*}$ have vertices in $X$.

It is useful to introduce the notations $X_{A}$ for $N_{S_{A}}(X), Y_{A}$ for $N_{S_{A}}(Y)$ and $Y_{B}$ for $N_{S_{B}}(Y)$. Using these notations we have that $\left|X_{A}\right| \geq k / 3$ and either $\left|Y_{A}\right| \geq k / 3$, or $\left|Y_{B}\right| \geq k / 3$.

If $\left|Y_{B}\right| \geq k / 3$, then by Claim 8 there is an edge $s q$ between $X_{A}$ and $Y_{B}$, and therefore we have a path $x v_{r} \ldots v_{1} s q u_{1} \ldots u_{r} y$ of length $2 t+3$, where $x \in X, y \in Y, v_{i} \in A^{*}, s \in X_{A}, q \in Y_{B}, u_{i} \in B^{*}$.

If $Y_{B}<\frac{k}{3}$, then $\left|Y_{A}\right| \geq k / 3$. Let $Y_{B}^{\prime}=N_{S_{B}}\left(Y_{A}\right)$. Claim 9 implies that $\left|Y_{B}^{\prime}\right| \geq\left|Y_{A}\right| \geq k / 3$, so by Claim $8 H$ has an edge between $Y_{B}^{\prime}$ and $X_{A}$. Thus,
we have a path $x v_{r} \ldots v_{1} s_{1} q s_{2} u_{1} \ldots u_{r} y$ of length $2 t+4$, where $x \in X, y \in$ $Y, v_{i} \in A^{*}, u_{i} \in B^{*}, s_{1} \in X_{A}, s_{2} \in Y_{A}$ and $q \in Y_{B}^{\prime}$.

Corollary 12. Let $H$ be an element of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ on $n$ vertices. Then the bandwidth of $H$ is at least $\frac{0.3 n}{2 t+4}$.

Proof. Take an arbitrary ordering $\mathcal{P}$ of the vertices of $H$. Let $X$ be the first $0.35 n$ vertices, while $Y$ be the last $0.35 n$ vertices of $\mathcal{P}$. Using Lemma 11 there is an $x \in X$ and an $y \in Y$ such that the distance of $x$ and $y$ is at most $2 t+4$. Their distance in $\mathcal{P}$ is at least $0.3 n$. Thus at least one of the edges of the shortest path between $x$ and $y$ must have "length" at least $\frac{0.3 n}{2 t+4}$, from which the bound for the bandwidth follows immediately.

With this we proved Theorem 4. Note that choosing $t=2$ results in graphs having bandwidth at least $3 n / 80$ while being $\gamma$-separable.

As we mentioned in the introduction Knox and Treglown [13] embedded spanning subgraphs of sublinear bandwidth into robust expanders. Recall the notion of robust expanders. The following example shows that graphs of $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ not only have very large bandwidth, these graphs are not necessarily subgraphs of robust expanders. Hence, in the theorem of Knox and Treglown one cannot replace small bandwidth by $\gamma$-separability, unless $\gamma$ is very small.

Let us construct a robust expander. Set $\alpha=0.002^{*}$ and let $G=(V, E)$ be the following graph on $n$ vertices. The vertex set of $G$ is $V=A_{0} \dot{\cup} A_{1} \cup \cdots \dot{\cup} A_{400}$, where $\left|A_{i}\right|=(1+\alpha)^{i} \frac{n}{1000}$ for every $0 \leq i<400$ and $A_{400}$ contains the remainder of the vertices. The edges of $G$ are defined as follows: $E(G)$ contains the edges $v_{i} v_{i+1}$ for every $v_{i} \in A_{i}$ and $v_{i+1} \in A_{i+1}$ for $0 \leq i<400$, and $G\left[A_{400}\right]$ is the complete graph on $\left|A_{400}\right|$ vertices. It is easy to see that $G$ is a ( $1 / 1000,1 / 1000$ )-robust expander.

Lemma 13. Let $H$ be a graph from $\mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ on $n$ vertices and let $G$ be as above. Then $H \not \subset G$ if $t \leq 47$.

Proof. First we give an upper bound for $n-\left|A_{400}\right|$ :

$$
n-\left|A_{400}\right|=\left|\bigcup_{i=0}^{399} A_{i}\right|=\sum_{i=0}^{399}(1+\alpha)^{i} \frac{n}{1000}=\frac{n}{1000} \cdot \frac{1.002^{400}-1}{0.002}<0.62 n
$$

so $\left|A_{400}\right|>0.35 n$. Let $B=\bigcup_{i=0}^{300} A_{i}$. We have $|B|=\frac{n}{1000} \cdot \frac{1.002^{301}-1}{0.002}>0.35 n$.
The shortest path between $B$ and $A_{400}$ is of length 100. This means that $H$ cannot be packed into $G$, as in $H$ there is a path of length $2 t+4 \leq 98$ between any two disjoint sets of size at least $0.35 n$.

[^7]
## 4 Proof of Theorem 5

The proof of Theorem 5 is very similar to the proof of the main result of [9]. Hence, we will first sketch the proof of the latter one in an itemized list, and then discuss the differences we will make when proving our main result. First let us state a special case of the main theorem of [9] for embedding bipartite graphs with small separators.

Theorem 14. For every $\epsilon>0$ and positive integer $D$ there exists an $n_{0}=$ $n_{0}(\epsilon, D)$ such that the following holds. Assume that $H$ is a bipartite graph on $n \geq n_{0}$ vertices which has a separator set $S$ such that $|S|=o(n)$, and every component of $H-S$ has o( $n$ ) vertices. Assume further that $\Delta(H) \leq D$. Let $G$ be an n-vertex graph such that $\delta(G) \geq(1 / 2+\epsilon) n$. Then $H \subset G$.

One can observe the similarities with Theorem 5. The main difference is that in Theorem 5 the separator set can be very large compared to the separator set in the above result.

### 4.1 Main tools for the proof

Definition 15. The density between two disjoint vertex sets $X$ and $Y$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(X, Y)=\frac{e(X, Y)}{|X||Y|} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 16. We call a pair $(A, B)$ of disjoint vertex sets in $G \varepsilon$-regular, if for every $X \subset A$ and $Y \subset B$ we have $|d(X, Y)-d(A, B)|<\varepsilon$, whenever $|X|>\varepsilon|A|$ and $|Y|>\varepsilon|B|$.

We say that a vertex partition $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$ is $\varepsilon$-regular, if $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq \varepsilon n$, and $\left|W_{i}\right|=m$ for each $i \geq 1$, and all but at most $\varepsilon \ell^{2}$ pairs $\left(W_{i}, W_{j}\right)(1 \leq i<$ $j \leq k$ ) are $\varepsilon$-regular.

The Regularity Lemma is as it follows:
Lemma 17. For every $\varepsilon>0$ and $t$ there is an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and a $T \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for every $n \geq N$ every $n$-vertex graph has an $\varepsilon$-regular partition $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$ with $t \leq \ell \leq T$.

We will use its degree form:
Lemma 18. For every $\varepsilon>0$ there is an $M=M(\varepsilon)$ such that if $G=(V, E)$ is any graph and $d \in[0,1]$, then there is a partition of the vertex set $V$ into $\ell+1$ clusters $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$ and there is a subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ such that

- $\ell \leq M$,
- $\left|W_{0}\right| \leq \varepsilon|V|$,
- All clusters $W_{i}, i \geq 1$ are of the same size $m$
- $d_{G^{\prime}}(v)>d_{G}(v)-(d+\varepsilon)|V|$ for all $v \in V$,
- $W_{i}$ is an independent set in $G^{\prime}$ for all $i \geq 1$,
- All pairs $\left(W_{i}, W_{j}\right)(1 \leq i<j \leq \ell)$ are $\varepsilon$-regular, each with density either 0 or at least $d$ in $G^{\prime}$.

We call $W_{0}$ the exceptional cluster.
Definition 19. If we apply Lemma 17 to the graph $G=(V, E)$ with parameters $\varepsilon$ and set a new parameter $d$, we can construct a new graph $G_{r}$. Its vertices are the non-exceptional clusters, and two vertices are connected if the corresponding clusters form an $\varepsilon$-regular pair with density at least $d$. We call $G_{r}$ the reduced graph.

Definition 20. We say that the pair of disjoint vertex sets $(A, B)$ is $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ -super-regular, if it is $\varepsilon$-regular, and $d(a)>\delta|B|$ for all $a \in A$, and $d(b)>\delta|A|$ for all $b \in B$.

Remark 21. If $(A, B)$ is an $\varepsilon$-regular pair, and we add $c \varepsilon|A|$ new vertices to $A$ resulting $A^{\prime}$, where $c$ is a constant, then the new pair $\left(A^{\prime}, B\right)$ is $\varepsilon^{\prime}$-regular, where $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ is somewhat larger than $\varepsilon$, depending on $c$.

Remark 22. If $(A, B)$ is an $\varepsilon$-regular pair with density d, then for any $Y \subset B,|Y|>\varepsilon|B|$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\{x \in A: d(x, Y) \leq(d-\varepsilon)|Y|\}| \leq \varepsilon|A| . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We also need an important lemma:
Theorem 23 (Blow-up Lemma, [14]). Given a graph $R$ of order $r$ and positive parameters $\delta, \Delta$, there exists a positive $\varepsilon=\varepsilon(\delta, \Delta, r)$ such that the following holds: Let $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ be arbitrary positive integers and replace the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{r}$ of $R$ with pairwise disjoint sets $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots, V_{r}$ of sizes $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$ (blowing up). We construct two graphs on the same vertex set $V=\cup V_{i}$. The first graph $F$ is obtained by replacing each edge $v_{i} v_{j}$ of $R$ with the complete bipartite graph between $V_{i}$ and $V_{j}$. A sparser graph $G$ is constructed by replacing each edge $v_{i} v_{j}$ arbitrarily with an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-super-regular pair between $V_{i}$ and $V_{j}$. If a graph $H$ with $\Delta(H) \leq \Delta$ is embeddable into $F$, then it is also embeddable into $G$.

Theorem 24 (Strengthening the Blow-up Lemma [14]). Assume that $n_{i} \leq$ $2 n_{j}$ for every $1 \leq i, j \leq r$. Then we can strengthen the lemma: Given $c>0$ there are positive numbers $\varepsilon=\varepsilon(\delta, \Delta, r, c)$ and $\alpha=\alpha(\delta, \Delta, r, c)$ such that the Blow-up Lemma remains true if for every $i$ there are certain vertices $x$ to be embedded into $V_{i}$ whose images are a priori restricted to certain sets $T_{x} \subset V_{i}$ provided that each $T_{x}$ within $a V_{i}$ is of size at least $c\left|V_{i}\right|$, and the number of such restrictions within $a V_{i}$ is not more than $\alpha\left|V_{i}\right|$.

Another very important tool for us is the following result by Fox and Sudakov [11].

Theorem 25. Let $H$ be a bipartite graph with $n$ vertices and maximum degree $\Delta \geq 1$. If $\rho>0$ and $G$ is a graph with $N \geq 8 \Delta \rho^{-\Delta} n$ vertices and at least $\rho\binom{\bar{N}}{2}$ edges, then $H \subset G$.

We are going to apply Theorem 25 in the special case $\rho=1 / 2$.

### 4.2 Sketch of the proof of Theorem 14

The Regularity lemma of Szemerédi [19] and the Blow-up lemma [14] plays a very important role in the proof. The interested reader may consult with the survey paper by Komlós and Simonovits [16] also. Below we assume familiarity with these important tools and related notions.

Step 1: Apply the Degree form of the Regularity lemma with parameters $0<$ $\varepsilon \ll d \ll 1$ in order to obtain a partition of $V(G)$ into the clusters $W_{0}, W_{1}, \ldots, W_{\ell}$, where $W_{0}$ is the exceptional cluster.

Step 2: Construct the reduced graph $G_{r}$ on the non-exceptional clusters, in which two clusters are adjacent if and only if they form an $\varepsilon$-regular pair with density at least $d$.

Step 3: Find a maximum matching $M$ in $G_{r}$. Using the minimum degree condition, the vertex set of $M$ may not contain at most one cluster - its vertices are put into $W_{0}$.

Step 4: Make the edges of $M$ super-regular. At most $2 \varepsilon n$ vertices are put into $W_{0}$ at this point.

Step 5: Distribute the vertices of $W_{0}$ among the non-exceptional clusters while keeping super-regularity.

Step 6: Assign the vertices of $H$ to clusters of $G_{r}$ so that the following holds: whenever $x y \in E(H)$ for $x, y \in V(H)$, then $C(x) C(y) \in E\left(G_{r}\right)$, where $C(x)$, (respectively, $C(y))$ denotes the cluster to which $x$ (respectively, $y)$ is assigned to. This is done in two steps: first randomly distribute the components of $H-S$ and $S$, then in the second step a few vertices may get reassigned in order to satisfy the above requirement for every edge of $H$.

Step 7: At this point it is possible that there are more (or less) vertices assigned to a cluster than its size. A procedure very similar to the one used in Step 5. helps in finding the balance.

Step 8: Applying the Blow-up lemma finishes the proof.
Readers familiar with the Regularity lemma - Blow-up lemma method may observe that the first seven steps are essentially a preparation for being able to apply the Blow-up lemma.

### 4.3 Proof of Theorem 5

As we indicated above, the proof of Theorem 5 is very similar to the proof of Theorem 14. Hence, below we will concentrate on the differences of the two.

Assume that $H \in \mathcal{H}_{r, t}$ has $n$ vertices. Denote the separator set of $H$ by $S$. Then we have $|S| \leq \gamma n$. Observe that we can apply the deep result of Fox and Sudakov, Theorem 25 for finding a copy of $H[S]$ in $G$, since $\delta(G)>n / 2$. Let us call the uncovered part of $G$ by $\tilde{G}$ after embedding $H[S]$. Note that $\delta(\tilde{G}) \geq\left(1 / 2+\gamma^{1 / 3}\right) n$.

Next we apply the Degree form of the Regularity lemma for $\tilde{G}$ with parameters $\varepsilon$ and $d=\sqrt{\gamma}$. We form the reduced graph $\tilde{G}_{r}$, and then find an (almost) perfect matching $M$ in $\tilde{G}_{r}$. Then we make the edges of $M$ superregular, and then distribute the vertices of $W_{0}$ among the non-exceptional clusters so that the pairs in $M$ remain super-regular. These steps are in fact identical to the corresponding ones (Step 1 - Step 5) in the proof of Theorem 14.

Next we assign the components of $H-S$ to the non-exceptional clusters. We do it using a random procedure (randomness is not necessary here, but a simple chooice), the components are assigned randomly to edges of $M$. This immediately implies that whenever $x, y$ belong to the same component and are adjacent, then $C(x) C(y)$ is an edge of $M$. Still, there could be vertices $x, y \in H$ such that $x y \in E(H)$ but $C(x) C(y) \notin E\left(\tilde{G}_{r}\right)$. This can happen only in case $x \in S$ and $y \in V(H)-S$. In such a case we repeat the procedure from the proof of Theorem 14 mentioned in Step 6.

There is an important difference of the two proofs at this point, so we provide more details here. Assume that $x \in S$ is mapped onto $v \in V(G)$ in the beginning. Let $L$ denote those clusters in which $v$ has at least $\sqrt{m}$ neighbors. Let $C(y) W_{i}$ denote the edge of $M$ to which the component of $y$ was assigned. Then we locate a cluster $W_{j} \in L$ such that $W_{j}$ is adjacent to $W_{i}$ in $\tilde{G}_{r}$. Then we reassign $y$ to $W_{j}$. This way $v$ will have many neighbors in the cluster of $y$ and the cluster of $y$ will be adjacent to the cluster of the neighbors of $y$ in its component. Observe that if we locate the $W_{j}$ clusters as evenly as possible then we can achieve that at most about $\gamma^{2 / 3} m$ vertices are reassigned to a particular cluster. Here we used that the set of vertices to be reassigned are neighbors of $S$, and there are less than $n / D$ such vertices.

Next we repeat the procedure of Step 7. The method we use for balancing is essentially the same we discussed above. Say, that $W_{s}$ has more vertices assigned to it than $\left|W_{s}\right|$. Then there must be a cluster $W_{i}$ to which we assigned less than $\left|W_{i}\right|$ vertices of $H$. Let $W_{j}$ denote the neighbor of $W_{s}$ in the matching $M$. If $W_{j} W_{i}$ is an edge in $\tilde{G}_{r}$ then we pick a vertex $x$ such that $C(x)=W_{j}$ and $d(x)=D-1$ (using the random distribution there are many choices for $x$ ). We reassign some of the leaves that are adjacent to $x$, the right number will be assigned to $W_{i}$.

If $W_{j} W_{i}$ is not an edge, then there exists a cluster $W_{q}$ such that $W_{q} W_{i}$ and $W_{j} W_{p}$ are edges in $\tilde{G}_{r}$, and $W_{p} W_{q}$ is an edge in $M$. Then the above procedure is done in two steps: first we reassign some vertices from $W_{s}$ to $W_{p}$ and then from $W_{p}$ to $W_{i}$. Note that the same computation works as above: at most $\gamma^{2 / 3} m$ vertices are reassigned at every cluster.

Since the density of the $\varepsilon$-regular pairs is at least $\sqrt{\gamma}$, and at most $\gamma^{2 / 3} m$ vertices are reassigned at every cluster, we are able to apply the Blow-up lemma. This finishes the proof of Theorem 5 .

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[^3]:    ${ }^{\ddagger}$ This relation is discussed in the full version of the paper

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ Unfortunately, it can be a tower function of $1 / \varepsilon$

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ In the discrete tomography problem we are given two degree sequences of length $n, \pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$, and the questions is whether there exists a graph $G$ on $n$ vertices with a red-blue edge coloration so that the following holds: for every vertex $v$ the red degree of $v$ is $\pi_{1}(v)$ and the blue degree of $v$ is $\pi_{2}(v)$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{2}$ Recall that if $h<q$ then we may assigned $v$ to a leaf, so in such a case $B$ could be the center.

[^7]:    *We remark that we did not look for optimal constants here.

