On the existence of combinatorial configurations

Maria Bras-Amorós       Klara Stokes

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Abstract

A \((v, b, r, k)\) combinatorial configuration is a \((r, k)\)-biregular bipartite graph with \(v\) vertices on the left and \(b\) vertices on the right and with no cycle of length 4. Combinatorial configurations have become very important for some cryptographic applications to sensor networks and to peer-to-peer communities. Configurable tuples are those tuples \((v, b, r, k)\) for which a \((v, b, r, k)\) combinatorial configuration exists. It is proved in this work that the set of configurable tuples with fixed \(r\) and \(k\) has the structure of a numerical semigroup. The semigroup is completely described whenever \(r = 2\) or \(r = 3\). For the remaining cases some bounds are given on the multiplicity and the conductor of the numerical semigroup. This leads to some concluding results on the existence of configurable tuples.

Keywords: Combinatorial block design, combinatorial configuration, numerical semigroup, user-private information retrieval

1 Introduction

Combinatorial configurations are a particular case of block designs which have been recently used for defining peer-to-peer communities for preserving privacy of users in front of search engines \([1, 2]\). Other applications of configurations related to sensor networks can be found in \([10]\).

A set \(X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_v\}\) and a set \(A\) of \(b\) blocks, each block being a subset of \(X\) of length \(k\), form a \((v, b, r, k)\)-configuration if each element in \(X\) is exactly in \(r\) blocks of \(A\) and no two elements in \(X\) meet in more than one block of \(A\). There is a natural bijection between combinatorial configurations and connected bipartite biregular graphs with girth larger than 5. Observe that since these graphs are bipartite, the girth is always even and therefore larger than or equal to 6. In the present work we will treat configurations as such graphs.

One problem when using configurations is the limited number of known configurations, specially for large \(v\) and \(b\). We refer the reader to \([5]\) for tables...
of parameters for which it is known that configurations do exist and for which it is known that they do not exist.

Particular constructions have been given with \( b = v = q^2 + q + 1, r = k = q + 1 \), for any power of prime \( q \). It is the case of projective planes as described in finite geometry. See [12] for an analysis of the optimality of projective planes in their applications to peer-to-peer communities. They are usually constructed using two-coordinate points. See for instance [6]. But they can also be defined with no reference to any coordinate system. Although the value \( q^2 + q + 1 \) can be as large as desired by taking large powers of a prime, this puts a significant restriction on \( b \) and \( v \).

In [2] an alternative construction is described where the only requirement is that \( b \) and \( v \) be of the form \( b' + b'' \) and \( v' + v'' \), where a \((v', b', r, k)\) and a \((v'', b'', r, k)\) configuration exist. This allows us to obtain configurations with large number of blocks from configurations with small number of blocks.

A numerical semigroup is a subset of \( \mathbb{N}_0 \) that contains 0, is closed under addition and has finite complement in \( \mathbb{N}_0 \).

Fix \( r > 1, k > 1 \). We will show that the set of all tuples \((v, b, r, k)\) such that there exists a \((v, b, r, k)\) configuration has the structure of a numerical semigroup. This semigroup can be explicitly described if \( r = 2 \) or \( r = 3 \). For the general case we give bounds on the multiplicity and the conductor of the numerical semigroup. The new results on the existence of configurable tuples deduced from this work are summarized in Theorem 28.

2 The semigroup of combinatorial configurations

2.1 Previous results on the existence of configurations

In this subsection we summarize the previous results regarding the existence of combinatorial configurations. All the results are based on [5].

In the following we will suppose that \( v \leq b \). This can be done without loss of generality, since if \( v > b \) then we can take the dual configuration.

In [5] one can find the next results.

**Proposition 1.** The conditions \( vr = bk \) and \( v \geq r(k - 1) + 1 \) are necessary for a non-trivial configuration \((v, b, r, k)\) to exist [5].

For some values of \( r \) and \( k \), more is known.

**Theorem 2.** For \( k = 3 \) the necessary conditions of Proposition 1 are sufficient [4].

There has not been found any example on parameters \( v, b, r, s \), such that a \((v, b, r, s)\) configuration fails to exist as long as the parameters satisfy the necessary conditions. Regarding symmetric configurations, that is, \( v_k \) configurations, for which \( r = k \) and \( v = b \), it is known that for \( r = k = 4 \) they all exist for \( v \geq 13 \).

The necessary conditions are not always sufficient. One example is \( k = 5 \), since there is no configuration \( 22_5 \).
| $k$ | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|-----|---|---|---|
| 215 | $-$ | 316 | $-$ |
| 235 | 35 | 45 | $-$ |
| 245 | 36 | $-$ | 48 |
| 255 | 37 | 49 | 50 |
| 265 | 38 | 51 | 52 |
| 275 | 39 | 53 | 54 |
| 285 | 40 | 55 | 56 |
| 295 | 41 | 57 | 58 |
| 305 | 42 | 59 | 60 |
| 315 | 43 | 61 | 62 |

Table 1: Existence of configurations $v_k$ for $5 \leq k \leq 7$ and $d \leq 10$. $v_k$ means configuration exists, $-$ means configuration does not exist, $?$ means existence is unknown. The notation $v_k$—configuration is used to denote a $(v, v, k, k)$—configuration.

For symmetric configurations, existence for some parameters are listed in Table 1 also from [5] and [3]. We see there that also for small values of $k$ and $v$ the existence of $v_k$—configurations is sometimes unknown, for example it is not known whether or not there exists a $336$—configuration.

2.2 The set of $(r, k)$—configurable tuples

Definition 3. We say that the tuple $(v, b, r, k)$ is configurable if a $(v, b, r, k)$—configuration exists.

As we saw in Proposition 1 if $(v, b, r, k)$ is configurable then $vr = bk$ and consequently there exists $d$ such that $v = d \frac{k}{\gcd(r, k)}$ and $b = d \frac{r}{\gcd(r, k)}$. So, to each configurable tuple $(v, b, r, k)$ we can assign an integer $d$. Two different configurable tuples $(v, b, r, k)$ will have different integers $d$. Let us call $D_{r,k}$ the set of all possible integers $d$ corresponding to configurable tuples $(v, b, r, k)$. That is,

$$D_{r,k} = \left\{ d \in \mathbb{N}_0 : \left( d \frac{k}{\gcd(r, k)}, d \frac{r}{\gcd(r, k)}, r, k \right) \text{ is configurable} \right\}.$$  

Our aim is to study $D_{r,k}$. We will consider the empty graph to be also a configuration and consequently $0 \in D_{r,k}$ for all pair $r, k$. Obviously $D_{r,k} = D_{k,r}$ and $D_{1,k} = \{0, k\}$. First we will give a complete description of $D_{2,k}$ and a complete description of $D_{3,k}$ and then we will study the general case.

2.3 The case $r = 2$

There is a natural bijection between $(v, b, 2, k)$—configurations and $k$—regular connected graphs with $b$ vertices and $v$ edges. Two vertices in the graph share an edge if and only if the corresponding nodes in the configuration share a neighbor and viceversa.

Lemma 4. Let $k$ be an even positive integer. A connected $k$—regular graph with $b$ vertices exists if and only if $b \geq k + 1.$
Proof. By definition, any $k$-regular graph must have a number of vertices at least $k + 1$.

Conversely, suppose $b \geq k + 1$. Consider a set of vertices $x_1, \ldots, x_b$. Put an edge between $x_i$ and $x_j$, with $i \leq j$, if $j - i \leq k/2$ or $i + b - j \leq k/2$. This gives a connected $k$-regular graph with $b$ vertices.

The construction in this last proof is illustrated in Figure 2.

From the natural bijection between $(v, b, 2, k)$-configurations and $k$-regular connected graphs with $b$ vertices and $v$ edges, we get the following corollary.

Corollary 5. If $k$ is an even positive integer then

$$D_{2,k} = < k + 1, k + 2, \ldots, 2k + 1 >.$$ 

Lemma 6. Let $k$ be an odd positive integer. A connected $k$-regular graph with $b$ vertices exists if and only if $b$ is even and $b \geq k + 1$.

Proof. By definition, any $k$-regular graph must have a number of vertices at least $k + 1$. Now, since the number of edges is $kb/2$ this means that $kb$ must be even and since $k$ is odd $b$ must be even. Conversely, suppose $b$ is even and $b \geq k + 1$. Consider a set of vertices $x_1, \ldots, x_b$. Put an edge between $x_i$ and $x_j$, with $i \leq j$, if $j - i \leq (k - 1)/2$ or $i + b - j \leq (k - 1)/2$. Put also edges between $x_i$ and $x_{i+b/2}$ for $i$ from 1 to $b/2$. This gives a connected $k$-regular graph with $b$ vertices.

The construction in this last proof is illustrated in Figure 2.

From the natural bijection between $(v, b, 2, k)$-configurations and $k$-regular connected graphs with $b$ vertices and $v$ edges, we now get the following corollary.
Figure 2: Construction of a connected 5-regular graph with 10 vertices

Corollary 7. If \( k \) is an odd positive integer then

\[
D_{2,k} = < \frac{k+1}{2}, \frac{k+1}{2} + 1, \frac{k+1}{2} + 2, \ldots, k > .
\]

2.4 The case \( r = 3 \)

Because of Theorem 2 the case \( r = 3 \) is much simpler. It is stated in the next theorem.

Theorem 8. Suppose \( k > 1 \) then

\[
D_{3,k} = \begin{cases} 
\{0, 2k + 1, 2k + 2, \ldots\} & \text{if } k \equiv 0 \mod 3 \\
\{0, \frac{2k+1}{3}, \frac{2k+2}{3}, \ldots\} & \text{if } k \equiv 1 \mod 3 \\
\{0, \frac{2k+2}{3}, \frac{2k+3}{3}, \ldots\} & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \mod 3 
\end{cases}
\]

Proof. By Theorem 2 (by swapping the role of \( b \) and \( v \)) we know that any tuple \((v, b, 3, k)\) with \( b \neq 0 \) is configurable if and only if \( 3v = bk \) and \( b \geq k(3-1)+1 = 2k+1 \). In particular, the non-zero values \( b \) for which there exists a configurable tuple \((v, b, 3, k)\) are exactly those integers \( b \geq 2k+1 \) such that \( \frac{3b}{3} \) is an integer.

If \( k \equiv 0 \mod 3 \) then the only condition is \( b \geq 2k+1 \) which results in

\[
d = \frac{b \gcd(3, k)}{3} = \frac{3b}{3} = b \geq 2k + 1
\]

and this proves the result in this case.

Otherwise, we need \( b \geq 2k+1 \) and \( b \) be a multiple of 3. If \( k \equiv 1 \mod 3 \) this is equivalent to \( b \in \{2k+1, 2k+4, 2k+7, \ldots\} \) and so \( d = \frac{b \gcd(3, k)}{3} = \frac{b}{3} \) is in

\[
\left\{ \frac{2k+1}{3}, \frac{2k+4}{3} + 1, \frac{2k+7}{3} + 2, \ldots \right\}.
\]
If \( k \equiv 2 \mod 3 \) this is equivalent to \( b \in \{2k + 2, 2k + 5, 2k + 8, \ldots\} \) and so \( d = \frac{b \gcd(3, k)}{3} = \frac{b}{3} \) is in \( \left\{ \frac{2k + 2}{3}, \frac{2k + 2}{3} + 1, \frac{2k + 2}{3} + 2, \ldots \right\} \).

\[
\]

\section{2.5 The general case}

We want to prove that \( D_{r,k} \subset \mathbb{N}_0 \) is a numerical semigroup. The following results on semigroups will be helpful.

\textbf{Proposition 9.} A set of integers generate a numerical semigroup if and only if they are coprime.

The proof of this proposition can be found in [11].

Proposition 9 says that in order to prove that a set is a numerical semigroup it is enough to prove that the set is a submonoid of the natural numbers with coprime elements. This means that we need to prove that

- \( 0 \in D_{r,k} \),
- \( D_{r,k} \) is closed under addition,
- at least two elements (and therefore all of the elements) of \( D_{r,k} \) are coprime.

The two first conditions ensure that the subset \( D_{r,k} \) of the natural numbers is a monoid. The operation of the monoid is addition. The last condition ensures that the monoid is a numerical semigroup. Since the case \( r \leqslant 3 \) has been proved earlier, in this section we will suppose that \( r, k > 3 \).

\subsection{2.5.1 The set of configurable tuples is a submonoid of the natural numbers}

We first observe that since we consider the empty configuration a configuration, \( 0 \in D_{r,k} \).

We will now prove that the set \( D_{r,k} \) is closed under addition.

\textbf{Lemma 10.} If \( (v, b, r, k) \) and \( (v', b', r, k) \) are configurable tuples, so is \( (v + v', b + b', r, k) \).

\textbf{Proof.} Suppose we have a \( (v, b, r, k) \)-configuration with vertices \( \{x_1, \ldots, x_v\}, \{y_1, \ldots, y_b\} \) and a \( (v', b', r, k) \)-configuration with vertices \( \{x'_1, \ldots, x'_{v'}\}, \{y'_1, \ldots, y'_{b'}\} \). Consider the graph with vertices \( \{x_1, \ldots, x_v\} \cup \{x'_1, \ldots, x'_{v'}\}, \{y_1, \ldots, y_b\} \cup \{y'_1, \ldots, y'_{b'}\} \) and all the edges in the original configurations. We can assume without loss of generality that the edges \( x_1 y_1, x_v y_b, x'_1 y'_1, x'_{v'} y'_{b'} \) belong to the original configurations.

Swap the edges \( x_v y_b \) and \( x'_1 y'_1 \) for \( x_v y'_1 \) and \( x'_1 y_b \). This gives a \( (v + v', b + b', r, k) \) configuration [2]. An example of this construction is illustrated in Figure 3. \( \square \)
Since
\[ d = v \gcd(r, k) / k = b \gcd(r, k) / r \]
and
\[ d' = v' \gcd(r, k) / k = b' \gcd(r, k) / r \]
there exists a
\[ d'' = (v + v') \gcd(r, k) / k = (b + b') \gcd(r, k) / r = d + d'. \]

Hence if \( d, d' \in \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \), then \( d + d' \in \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \), or in other words \( \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \subseteq \mathbb{N}_0 \) is closed under addition. Together with the fact that \( 0 \in \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \) we get the result we were looking for.

**Proposition 11.** \( \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \) is a submonoid of the natural numbers.

### 2.5.2 The submonoid contains two coprime elements

We start by proving that given any pair of natural numbers \((r, k)\), there exists at least one element in \( \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \). We do this by constructing a \((v, b, r, k)\)-configuration.

For the construction we need a graph of girth at least 5. In [8] a family of graphs of girth 5 is constructed, which can be used for our purposes. The existence of this graph is given in the following theorem.

**Theorem 12.** Let \( q \geq 13 \) be an odd prime power and let \( n \leq q + 3 \). Then there exists an \( n \)-regular graph with girth 5 and with \( 2(n - 2)(q - 1) \) vertices \([8, \text{Theorem 17}]\).

Now we can construct the \( r, k \) biregular graph of girth at least 5 which gives us the \((v, b, r, k)\) configuration we are looking for.

**Proposition 13.** For any pair of integers \( r > 1, k > 1 \), there exists at least one non-zero integer in \( \mathbb{D}_{r,k} \).

**Proof.** The cases in which \( r \leq 3 \) or \( k \leq 3 \) have already been proved. We can therefore suppose that \( r > 3 \) and \( k > 3 \).

Consider the complete bipartite graph \( K_{r,k} \), with edge set \( E \) and vertex set \( V \). We consider one spanning tree \( T_{r,k} \) of \( K_{r,k} \). Then \( T_{r,k} \) has vertex set \( V \), but edge set \( E' \subseteq E \) with \( |E'| = r + k - 1 \).

The number of edges in \( K_{r,k} \) outside \( T_{r,k} \), that is in \( E - E' \), is \( n = rk - r - k + 1 \). Hence \( n \geq 3 \) if \( n \geq 3 \).

From Theorem [12] we know that there exists (at least) a \( n \)-regular graph of girth (at least) 5. We take one of these graphs and call it \( G \).

Now we will construct a bipartite \((r, k)\)-biregular graph of girth at least 5, using \( G \). Associate to each of the vertices of \( G \) a copy of the complete bipartite graph \( K_{r,k} \). For all edges \( ab \) in \( G \), consider its end vertices \( a \) and \( b \) and let \( A \) and \( B \) be the copies of \( K_{r,k} \) associated to these vertices. Also let \( T_A \) and \( T_B \) be the corresponding spanning trees in \( A \) and \( B \). Now choose one edge \( x_{\alpha y_A} \)
Figure 3: Construction of a \((v + v', b + b', r, k)\) configuration from a \((v, b, r, k)\) configuration and a \((v', b', r, k)\) configuration.
in A, but not in T_A and one edge x_B y_B in B, but not in T_B and swap them so that we instead get two edges x_A y_B and x_B y_A. Since G is n−regular and n is the number of edges in K_{r,k} that are not in its spanning tree, we can choose different edges x_A y_A and x_B y_B for every edge in G.

In this way we get a bipartite, (r, k)−biregular graph of girth at least 5, from a n−regular graph of girth at least 5, with n = rk − r − k + 1.

We will now construct a second element of D_{r,k}, also different from 0, such that the element we already have and the new one are coprime. In order to do so we need the following lemma.

**Lemma 14.** Suppose we have a (v, b, r, k)-configuration with r ≥ 3. There exist three edges in the configuration such that the six ends are all different.

**Proof.** It is easy to prove, by the property that no cycle of length 4 exists, that there exists a path with four edges with the five ends being different. Three of these ends will be in one partition of the graph while the other two will be in the other partition. Take the vertex at the end of the path. It must be one of the three in the same partition. Since its degree is at least 3, then it will have one neighbor not in the path. So, by adding the edge from the end of the path to this additional vertex, we obtain a new path with 5 edges with all its vertices being different. By taking the first, third, and fifth edges of this new path we obtain the result.

This lemma tells us that the vertices \{x_1, \ldots, x_v\}, \{y_1, \ldots, y_b\} in a (v, b, r, k)-configuration with r ≥ 3 can be arranged in a way such that the edges x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2 and x_v y_b belong to the configuration.

We are now ready to prove the existence of two coprime elements of D_{r,k}.

**Proposition 15.** D_{r,k} contains two elements m ≠ 0 and sm + 1, with s = rk / gcd(r, k), so that the two are coprime.

**Proof.** Because of the results in the previous sections we can assume that r and k are larger than 3. By Proposition 13 and since D_{r,k} ⊆ \mathbb{N}_0, there is a minimal non-zero element m in D_{r,k}. Let us call

\[ v = mk / \gcd(r, k) \]

and

\[ b = mr / \gcd(r, k). \]

Select a (v, b, r, k) configuration. Take

\[ s = rk / \gcd(r, k) \]

copies of this configuration. Let us call the vertices of the \textit{i}th copy

\[ x_1^{(i)}, \ldots, x_v^{(i)}, y_1^{(i)}, \ldots, y_b^{(i)}. \]

By Lemma 14 we can assume that
\(x_1^{(i)}y_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)}y_2^{(i)}\) and \(x_v^{(i)}y_b^{(i)}\) belong to the \(i\)th copy. Consider \(k/\gcd(r, k)\) further vertices \(x_1', \ldots, x_{k/\gcd(r, k)}'\) and \(r/\gcd(r, k)\) further vertices \(y_1', \ldots, y_{r/\gcd(r, k)}'\).

Now perform the following changes to the edge set of the graph defined by the union of all parts previously mentioned. It may be clarifying to contemplate Figure 4. In the figure the edges to be removed are dashed, while the edges to add are thick lines.

- For all \(i < s\) replace the edges \(x_v^{(i)}y_b^{(i)}\) and \(x_1^{(i-1)}y_1^{(i-1)}\) by \(x_v^{(i)}y_1^{(i-1)}\) and \(x_1^{(i-1)}y_b^{(i)}\).

- Also, remove the edges \(x_2^{(i)}y_2^{(i)}\) for all \(i \leq s\).

- Add the edges

\[
x_1'^{(1)}y_2^{(1)}, x_1'^{(2)}y_2^{(2)}, \ldots, x_1'^{(r)}y_2^{(r)},
\]

\[
x_2'^{(r+1)}y_2^{(r+1)}, x_2'^{(r+2)}y_2^{(r+2)}, \ldots, x_2'^{(2r)}y_2^{(2r)},
\]

\[
\vdots
\]

\[
x_{k/\gcd(r, k)}'^{(s-r+1)}y_2^{(s-r+1)}, \ldots, x_{k/\gcd(r, k)}'^{(s)}y_2^{(s)}
\]

and

\[
x_2^{(1)}y_1^{(1)}, x_2^{(2)}y_1^{(2)}, \ldots, x_2^{(k)}y_1^{(k)},
\]

\[
x_2^{(k+1)}y_2^{(k+1)}, x_2^{(k+2)}y_2^{(k+2)}, \ldots, x_2^{(2k)}y_2^{(2k)},
\]

\[
\vdots
\]

\[
x_{2^{(s-k+1)}}y_2^{(s-k+1)}, \ldots, x_2^{(s)}y_2^{(s)}
\]

As can be verified, the construction gives a new configuration with parameters

\[
(v', b', r, k) = (sv + k/\gcd(r, k), sb + r/\gcd(r, k)), (r, k)
\]

\[
= (smk/\gcd(r, k) + k/\gcd(r, k), smr/\gcd(r, k) + r/\gcd(r, k)), (r, k)
\]

\[
= ((sm + 1)k/\gcd(r, k), (sm + 1)r/\gcd(r, k), (r, k))
\]

and so \(sm + 1 \in D_{r,k}\). \(\Box\)
Figure 4: Construction of a \((sv + k/gcd(r, k), sb + r/gcd(r, k), r, k)\)–configuration from \(s (v, b, r, k)\) configurations and \(\alpha + \beta = k/gcd(r, k) + r/gcd(r, k)\) extra vertices.
From Proposition 15 we deduce that $D_{r,k}$ contains two coprime elements, so that they generate a numerical semigroup and this semigroup is contained in $D_{r,k}$. So the complement of $D_{r,k}$ in $\mathbb{N}_0$ is finite and $D_{r,k}$ is a numerical semigroup.

**Theorem 16.** For every pair of integers $r, k \geq 2$, $D_{r,k}$ is a numerical semigroup.

Observe that $D_{2,k}$ as well as $D_{3,k}$ for $k > 1$ are ordinary, that is, all their gaps are in a row. However, there are pairs $r, k$ for which $D_{r,k}$ is not ordinary. For example the multiplicity of $D_{5,5}$ is 21, but 22 is a gap, as can be deduced from Table 1. Also, while the multiplicity of $D_{6,6}$ is 31, we have that $33 \not\in D_{6,6}$ (see [9]).

### 3 Bounds on configurable tuples

#### 3.1 A lower bound on the multiplicity of the numerical semigroup $D_{r,k}$

The multiplicity of a numerical semigroup is its smallest non-zero element. Observe that bounds on the multiplicity are bounds regarding the size of the smallest configuration for a given pair of $r$ and $k$.

For the cases $r = 2$ and $r = 3$, since we know the actual structure of the semigroup we can precise the multiplicity exactly.

**Proposition 17.** For $k > 1$ the multiplicity of $D_{2,k}$ is

$$\begin{cases} 
  k + 1 & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\
  \frac{k+1}{2} & \text{if } k \text{ is odd}
\end{cases}$$

For $k > 1$ the multiplicity of $D_{3,k}$ is

$$\begin{cases} 
  2k + 1 & \text{if } k \equiv 0 \mod 3 \\
  \frac{2k+1}{3} & \text{if } k \equiv 1 \mod 3 \\
  \frac{2k+2}{3} & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \mod 3
\end{cases}$$

The proof follows from Corollary 5, Corollary 7, and Theorem 8.

In the next lemma we give a lower bound for the multiplicity of $D_{r,k}$. It is a consequence of Proposition 11.

**Lemma 18.** If $d \in D_{r,k}$ and $d \neq 0$ then $d \geq (rk - r + 1) \frac{\gcd(r,k)}{k}$ and, by symmetry, $d \geq (rk - k + 1) \frac{\gcd(r,k)}{r}$.

For certain $r = k$, the bound is tight. An example is seen in the next proposition.

**Proposition 19.** For $r = k = q + 1$ with $q$ a power of a prime, the multiplicity of the numerical semigroup $D_{r,k}$ is $r^2 - r + 1$. 

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Proof. There exists a finite projective plane for every power of a prime $q$. The projective plane is a $(q^2 + q + 1, q^2 + q + 1, q + 1, q + 1)$-configuration. We have that
\[ q^2 + q + 1 = (r - 1)^2 + r - 1 + 1 = r^2 - r + 1. \]

3.2 An upper bound on the multiplicity of the numerical semigroup $D_{r,k}$

In Proposition 13 we proved that $D_{r,k}$ contains at least one element for every pair $(r, k)$. Counting the points and blocks of the configuration constructed in the proof of Proposition 13 we get an upper bound on the multiplicity of $D_{r,k}$.

The graph $G$ from the proof of Proposition 13 has $2(n - 2)(q - 1)$ vertices, for an odd prime power $q \geq n - 3$, $q \geq 13$ and $n = rk - r - k + 1$. In the final graph, constructed from $G$, every vertex of $G$ is replaced by the vertices of the $r, k$-complete graph. Therefore in the final graph, the total number of vertices is $2(n - 2)(q - 1)(r + k)$ and the numbers of points and lines in the corresponding configuration are $2(n - 2)(q - 1)r$ and $2(n - 2)(q - 1)k$ respectively.

A bound on the existence of a prime power

In order to get an exact bound we need a bound on the existence of the prime power $q$. However, we will not care about prime powers of higher exponents and instead use a famous bound on the existence of primes. The density of prime powers of exponent greater than 1 is small compared with the density of primes.

Proposition 20. The number of squares, cubes, \ldots of primes up to $x$ does not exceed
\[ x^{\frac{1}{2}} + x^{\frac{1}{3}} + x^{\frac{1}{4}} + \cdots = O(x^{\frac{1}{2}} \ln x). \]

When it comes to prime numbers, their density is described in the 'Prime number theorem'.

Theorem 21. Prime number theorem

Let $\pi(x)$ be the function counting the number of prime numbers up to $x$. Then we have
\[ \pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\ln x} \]

The function $x^{\frac{1}{2}} \ln x$ grows much slower than a function containing $x$ like the latter, so that the function counting all prime powers, including those of exponent 1, behaves asymptotically like the prime counting function. For more details on this see [7].

Therefore, when we look for a power of a prime $\geq n - 3$, we are more likely to find a prime $p$ than a power of a prime $p^m$, and it is enough to apply the Bertrand’s Postulate in order to get a good bound.
**Theorem 22. Bertrand’s Postulate**

If \( m > 3 \) is an integer, then there always exists at least one prime number \( p \) with \( m < p < 2m - 2 \).

Using this, since we want our prime to be greater or equal to \( n - 3 \), we get that there exists at least one prime number in the interval

\[
[n - 3, 2(n - 4) - 3] = [n - 3, 2n - 11].
\]

Therefore we get the following upper bound on the multiplicity of \( D_{r,k} \).

**Proposition 23.** For \( r, k > 3 \) the multiplicity \( m \) of \( D_{r,k} \) satisfies

\[
m \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2(rk - r - k) - 10) \gcd(r, k).
\]

**Proof.** Since \( r, k > 3 \), we have \( n = rk - r - k + 1 > 7 \) and so \( n - 4 > 3 \). Because of the construction of the configuration in Proposition 13 and Bertrand’s postulate, we get the following bound on the number of points in the configuration.

\[
v = 2(n - 2)(q - 1)k \leq 2(n - 2)(2n - 11 - 1)k = 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2(rk - r - k) - 10)k
\]

We have

\[
v = d \frac{k}{\gcd(r,k)}
\]

and therefore

\[
d = \frac{v \gcd(r,k)}{k}
\]

This means that in this particular configuration

\[
d = \frac{v \gcd(r,k)}{k} \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2(rk - r - k) - 10) \gcd(r, k)
\]

If we had used the bound on the number of lines in the configuration instead, we would have arrived at the same conclusion, simply replacing \( k \) by \( r \).

\( \square \)

### 3.3 An upper bound on the conductor of the numerical semigroup \( D_{r,k} \)

**Definition 24.** A gap of a numerical semigroup \( S \) is an element of \( \mathbb{N}_0 \) that does not pertain to \( S \).

The largest gap of a numerical semigroup \( S \) is called the Frobenius number of \( S \). From Proposition 13 we get the following result.
Proposition 25. Two coprime positive integers \(a, b\) generate a numerical semigroup whose Frobenius number is \((a - 1)(b - 1) - 1\).

Definition 26. The conductor of a numerical semigroup is the smallest element such that all subsequent natural numbers belong to the semigroup.

Hence if the Frobenius number is \(f\), then \(c = f + 1\). By bounding the conductor upwards, we get a value from which all subsequent integers give configurable tuples. This is equivalent to giving values \(v_0\) and \(b_0\) such that all tuples \((v, b, r, k)\) with \(vr = bk\), \(v \geq b_0\) and \(b \geq b_0\) are configurable.

As before, for the cases \(r = 2\) and \(r = 3\) we know exactly the conductor of \(D_{r,k}\). Indeed, in these semigroups the conductor is equal to the multiplicity (see Corollary 5, Corollary 7 and Theorem 8) and the multiplicity is given in Proposition 17.

Proposition 27. Suppose \(r, k > 1\) and let \(t = rk - r - k - 1\). The conductor \(c\) of the numerical semigroup \(D_{r,k}\) satisfies

\[
c \leq rk((4t^2 - 16t)^2 \gcd(r, k) - 4t^2 + 16t).
\]

Proof. By Proposition 25 the multiplicity of \(D_{r,k}\) satisfies \(m \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2rk - r - k - 10)\gcd(r, k)\). Now, because of Proposition 15 \(sm + 1 \in D_{r,k}\), with \(s = rk/\gcd(r, k)\), and \(sm + 1\) and \(m\) are coprime. Therefore Proposition 25 says that \((m - 1)sm - 1\) is the Frobenius element of a numerical semigroup contained in \(D_{r,k}\). We have

\[
(m - 1)sm - 1 \leq (2(rk - r - k - 1)(2rk - r - k - 10)\gcd(r, k) - 1)2(rk - r - k - 1)(2rk - r - k - 10)rk - 1
\]

and therefore the conductor is bounded by

\[
c \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2rk - r - k - 10)\gcd(r, k) - 1)2(rk - r - k - 1)(2rk - r - k - 10)rk.
\]

With \(t = rk - r - k - 1\) we get

\[
c \leq 2t(2t - 8)\gcd(r, k) - 1)2t(2t - 8)\gcd(r, k) - 4t^2 + 16t).
\]

| \(r\) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4    | 13 | 17/5 | 7 | 25/7 | 29/2 |
| 5    | 21 | 13/3 | 31/7 | 9/2 |
| 6    | 31 | 37/7 | 43/4 |
| 7    | 43 | 25/4 |
| 8    | 57 |

Table 2: Lower bounds for the multiplicity of the numerical semigroup \(D_{r,k}\)
|       | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  |
|-------|----|----|----|----|----|
| $r = 4$ | 336 | 240 | 936 | 768 | 4560 |
| 5      | 2800 | 1008 | 1584 | 2288 |
| 6      | 10488 | 2688 | 7656 |
| 7      | 28560 | 5760 |
| 8      | 64672  |

Table 3: Upper bounds for the multiplicity of the numerical semigroup $D_{r,k}$

|       | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  |
|-------|----|----|----|----|----|
| $r = 4$ | 450240 | 1147200 | 10501920 | 16493568 | 166312320 |
| 5      | 39186000 | 30451680 | 87761520 | 209306240 |
| 6      | 659925936 | 303351552 | 1406560320 |
| 7      | 5709515280 | 1857623040 |
| 8      | 33459223296 |

Table 4: Upper bounds for the conductor of the numerical semigroup $D_{r,k}$

3.4 Results

The upper bounds on the multiplicity and the conductor of $D_{r,k}$ are both huge, while the lower bound on the multiplicity is quite small. In Table 3, Table 4 and Table 5 one can see some examples of the values the bounds take for some $r$ and $k$. We leave it as an open problem to find better bounds.

3.5 Concluding results

We are ready to collect our results in a final theorem.

Theorem 28. For any pair of integers $r, k$, both larger than 1,

1. There exist infinitely many configurable tuples $(v, b, r, k)$;

2. There exists at least one configurable tuple $(v, b, r, k)$ with

   \[
   v \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2(rk - r - k) - 10)k
   \]

   and

   \[
   b \leq 2(rk - r - k - 1)(2(rk - r - k) - 10)r;
   \]

3. All tuples $(v, b, r, k)$ with $vr = bk$,

   • $v \geq d_0 k / \gcd(r, k)$, and

   • $b \geq d_0 r / \gcd(r, k)$,
are configurable for a certain $d_0$;

4. If $r = 2$ then

$$d_0 = \begin{cases} 
  k + 1 & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\
  \frac{k+1}{2} & \text{if } k \text{ is odd}
\end{cases}$$

If $r = 3$ then

$$d_0 = \begin{cases} 
  2k + 1 & \text{if } k \equiv 0 \mod 3 \\
  2k + 1 & \text{if } k \equiv 1 \mod 3 \\
  2k + 2 & \text{if } k \equiv 2 \mod 3
\end{cases}$$

5. If $r, k > 3$ then $d_0 \geq rk((4t^2 - 16t)^2 \gcd(r, k) - 4t^2 + 16t)$, where $t = rk - r - k - 1$.

Proof. 1. This is a result of the fact that for any $(r, k)$, $D_{r,k}$ is a numerical semigroup.

2. This was proven in Proposition 23.

3. This is because a numerical semigroup has a conductor $d_0$, so that every element greater or equal to $d_0$ pertains to $D_{r,k}$.

4. This is a consequence of Proposition 17 and the fact that for the semigroups $D_{2,k}$ and $D_{3,k}$ the multiplicity equals the conductor.

5. This is the bound on the conductor from Proposition 27.

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