

# Cycles and matchings in randomly perturbed digraphs and hypergraphs

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## Abstract

We give several results showing that different discrete structures gain certain spanning structures (in particular, Hamilton cycles) after a modest random perturbation. First, we show that adding linearly many random edges to a dense  $k$ -uniform hypergraph ensures the (asymptotically almost sure) existence of a perfect matching or a loose Hamilton cycle. This involves a nonstandard application of Szemerédi’s Regularity Lemma. We next show that digraphs with certain strong expansion properties are pancyclic, and use this to show that adding a linear number of random edges typically makes a dense digraph pancyclic. Finally, we show that perturbing a certain (minimum-degree-dependent) number of random edges in a tournament typically ensures the existence of multiple edge-disjoint Hamilton cycles. All our results are tight.

## 1 Introduction and Results

We say that a graph is *Hamiltonian* if it has a *Hamilton cycle*: a simple cycle containing every vertex in the graph. Hamiltonicity is a central notion in graph theory and has been extensively studied in a wide range of contexts. In particular, due to a seminal paper by Karp [9], it has become a canonical NP-complete problem to determine whether an arbitrary graph is Hamiltonian. There are nevertheless a variety of easily-checkable conditions that guarantee Hamiltonicity. The most famous of these is given by a classical theorem of Dirac [4], which states that any  $n$ -vertex graph ( $n \geq 3$ ) with minimum degree at least  $n/2$  is Hamiltonian.

Dirac’s theorem requires a very strong density condition, but in a certain asymptotic sense “almost all” dense graphs are Hamiltonian. If we fix  $\alpha > 0$  and select a graph uniformly at random among the (labelled) graphs with  $n$  vertices and  $\alpha \binom{n}{2}$  edges, then the degrees will probably each be about  $\alpha n$ . Such a random graph is Hamiltonian with probability  $1 - o(1)$  (we say it is Hamiltonian

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*asymptotically almost surely*, or *a.a.s.*). This follows from a stronger result [18] that gives a *threshold* for Hamiltonicity: a random  $n$ -vertex,  $m$ -edge graph is Hamiltonian a.a.s. if  $m \gg n \log n$ , and fails to be Hamiltonian a.a.s. if  $m \ll n \log n$ . Here and from now on, all asymptotics are as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and we implicitly round large quantities to integers.

In [2], the authors studied the random graph model that starts with a dense graph and adds  $m$  random edges (this model has since been studied in a number of other contexts; see for example [1, 12]). They found that to ensure Hamiltonicity in this model we only need  $m$  to be linear, saving a logarithmic factor over the standard model where we start with nothing. To be precise, [2, Theorem 1] says that for every  $\alpha > 0$  there is  $c = c(\alpha)$  such that if we start with a graph with minimum degree at least  $\alpha n$  and add  $cn$  random edges, then the resulting graph will a.a.s. be Hamiltonian. Note that some dense graphs require a linear number of extra edges to become Hamiltonian (consider the complete bipartite graph with partition sizes  $n/3$  and  $2n/3$ ), so the order of magnitude of this result is tight. We can interpret this theorem as quantifying the “fragility” of the few dense graphs that are not Hamiltonian, by determining the amount of random perturbation that is necessary to make a dense graph Hamiltonian. A comparison can be drawn to the notion of *smoothed analysis* of algorithms introduced in [21], which involves studying the performance of algorithms on randomly perturbed inputs.

Our first contribution in this paper is to generalize the aforementioned theorem to hypergraphs (and to give a corresponding result for perfect matchings, which is nontrivial in the hypergraph setting). Unfortunately, there is no single most natural notion of a cycle or of minimum degree in hypergraphs. A  $k$ -uniform *loose* cycle is a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph with a cyclic ordering on its vertices such that every edge consists of  $k$  consecutive vertices and every pair of consecutive edges intersects in exactly one vertex. The degree of a set of vertices is the number of edges that include that set, and the *minimum  $(k - 1)$ -degree*  $\delta_{k-1}$  is the minimum degree among sets of  $k - 1$  vertices.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $\mathbb{H}_k(n, m)$  be the uniform distribution on  $m$ -edge  $k$ -uniform hypergraphs on the vertex set  $[n]$ . For each  $\alpha > 0$  there is  $c_k = c_k(\alpha)$  such that:*

- (a) *If  $H$  is a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph on  $[kn]$  with  $\delta_{k-1}(H) \geq \alpha n$ , and  $R \in \mathbb{H}_k(kn, c_k n)$ , then  $H \cup R$  a.a.s. has a perfect matching.*
- (b) *If  $H$  is a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph on  $[(k - 1)n]$  with  $\delta_{k-1}(H) \geq \alpha n$ , and  $R \in \mathbb{H}_k((k - 1)n, c_k n)$ , then  $H \cup R$  a.a.s. has a loose Hamilton cycle.*

All the motivation for graphs is still relevant in the hypergraph setting. Dirac’s theorem approximately generalizes to hypergraphs (see [10]): for small  $\varepsilon$  and large  $n$ , if the minimum  $(k - 1)$ -degree of an  $n$ -vertex  $k$ -uniform hypergraph is greater than  $(1/(2(k - 1)) + \varepsilon)n$  then that hypergraph contains a loose Hamilton cycle. Just as for graphs, the threshold for both perfect matchings and loose Hamilton cycles in  $k$ -uniform hypergraphs is  $n \log n$  random edges (see [5] and [8, Corollary 2.6]), so “almost all” dense hypergraphs have Hamilton cycles and perfect matchings.

We will prove Theorem 1, and show that it is tight, in Section 2. The methods usually employed to study Hamilton cycles and perfect matchings in random graphs are largely ineffective in the hypergraph setting, so we need a very different proof. In particular, we cannot easily manipulate paths for Pósa-type arguments, and we do not have an analogue of Hall’s marriage theorem allowing us to deduce the existence of a perfect matching from an expansion property. Our proof involves reducing the theorem to the existence of a perfect matching in a certain randomly perturbed bipartite

graph. The “reason” for a perfect matching in this perturbed graph seems to be quite different depending on the structure of the initial bipartite graph, so we make critical use of the structural description given by Szemerédi’s regularity lemma.

Our second contribution in this paper is a theorem giving a general expansion condition for *pancyclicity*. We say an  $n$ -vertex (di-)graph is pancyclic if it contains cycles of all lengths ranging from 3 to  $n$ .

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $D$  be a directed graph on  $n$  vertices with all in- and out- degrees at least  $8k$ , and suppose for every pair of disjoint sets  $A, B \subseteq V(D)$  with  $|A| = |B| \geq k$ , there is an arc from  $A$  to  $B$ . Then  $D$  is pancyclic.*

We hope this theorem could be of independent interest, but our particular motivation is that it implies a number of results about randomly perturbed graphs and digraphs. In particular it provides very simple proofs of the theorems in [2] concerning Hamiltonicity in randomly perturbed graphs and digraphs, and allows us to extend these theorems to pancyclicity. Most generally, Theorem 2 implies the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $\mathbb{D}(n, m)$  be the uniform distribution on (not necessarily oriented)  $n$ -vertex,  $m$ -arc digraphs. For each  $\alpha > 0$ , there is  $c = c(\alpha)$  such that if  $D$  is a digraph with all in- and out- degrees at least  $\alpha n$ , and  $R \in \mathbb{D}(n, cn)$ , then  $D \cup R$  is a.a.s. pancyclic.*

We will prove Theorems 2 and 3 in Section 3.

Our final theorem concerns randomly perturbed tournaments. The model that starts with a fixed (di-/hyper-)graph and adds random edges is not suitable for studying random perturbation in tournaments, because we want our perturbed tournament to remain a tournament. There are several other models of random perturbation we could consider that do allow us to make sense of randomly perturbed tournaments, or are more natural in certain contexts. However, the types of results in this paper are not sensitive to the model used. We will briefly describe a few different models here.

First, note that for most practical purposes, models that involve the selection of  $m$  random edges are equivalent to models that involve the selection of each edge with independent probability  $p$ , where  $m = pN$  and  $N$  is the total number of possible edges. One perspective or the other can be more intuitive or result in cleaner proofs; we will use both interchangeably as is convenient without further discussion. In all the situations in this paper, equivalence can be proved with standard conditioning and coupling arguments.

As suggested in [20, Definition 1], one possible alternative model is to *change* random edges, instead of adding them. So, for our results so far, instead of taking the union of a fixed dense object with a random sparse object, we would take the symmetric difference. Our results still hold in this alternative model, basically because we can break up such a random perturbation into a phase that deletes edges (this does not destroy denseness), and a phase that adds edges. One undesirable quirk of this model is that it is not “monotonic”: if we change too many edges then we “lose our randomness” and end up at the complement of our original object, which might not be Hamiltonian.

A second alternative model is to start with our fixed object and “make it more random” by interpolating slightly towards the corresponding uniform distribution. For example, in the graph case

we could randomly designate a small number of pairs of vertices for “resampling” and then decide whether the corresponding edges should be present uniformly and independently at random. This is mostly equivalent to the symmetric difference model, and is the model in which we prefer to state our theorem about randomly perturbed tournaments.

It is known that almost all tournaments have a Hamiltonian cycle (see Section 4), so we do not need to restrict our attention to “dense” tournaments. Nevertheless, we can give stronger results for tournaments with large minimum in- and out- degrees. We are also able to show that randomly perturbed tournaments are not just Hamiltonian, but have multiple edge-disjoint Hamilton cycles.

**Theorem 4.** *Consider a tournament  $T$  with  $n$  vertices and all in- and out- degrees at least  $d$ . Independently designate  $m = \omega(d+1)/n$  edges as “random” then choose the orientations of the chosen edges independently and uniformly at random. The resulting perturbed tournament  $P$  a.a.s. has  $q$  arc-disjoint Hamilton cycles, for  $q = O(1)$ .*

We will prove Theorem 4, and show that it is tight, in Section 4.

## 2 Perfect Matchings and Hamilton Cycles in Hypergraphs

We first make some observations about our minimum degree requirement. The *minimum  $q$ -degree*  $\delta_q(H)$  of  $H$  is the minimum degree among all sets of  $q$  vertices. Note that this generalizes the two notions of denseness for graphs: in some contexts, we say graphs are dense if they have many edges (large  $\delta_0$ ), whereas in this paper we need a stronger notion of graph denseness based on minimum degree ( $\delta_1$ ). For a  $k$ -regular hypergraph  $H$ , a double-counting argument shows that if  $q \leq p$  then

$$\delta_q(H) \geq \delta_p(H) \binom{n-q}{p-q} / \binom{k-q}{p-q}.$$

So, imposing that a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph has large  $(k-1)$ -degree ensures that it has large  $q$ -degrees for all  $q$ . In particular, our requirement  $\delta_{k-1}(H) = \Omega(n)$  actually implies  $\delta_q(H) = \Omega(n^{k-q})$  for all  $q$ .

Next, note that Theorem 1 is tight for essentially the same reason as its corresponding theorem for graphs. Consider the dense “complete bipartite hypergraph” which has two parts of sizes  $n$  and  $2kn$ , and has all possible  $k$ -edges that contain at least one vertex from each part. Only  $2n$  of these edges can contribute to a loose Hamilton cycle, so a linear number must be added to complete the necessary  $(2k+1)n/(k-1)$  edges. Similarly, this graph contains only  $n$  out of the  $(2k+1)n/k$  required edges in a perfect matching.

Now we proceed to the proof of Theorem 1, which will follow from a sequence of lemmas. The first step is to show that  $R$  almost gives the structure of interest on its own. Let a *partial-cycle* be a hypergraph which can be extended to a loose Hamilton cycle by adding edges.

**Lemma 5.** *For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $c_k = c_k(\varepsilon)$  such that:*

- (a)  $R^M \in \mathbb{H}_k(kn, c_k n)$  a.a.s. has a matching of  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges.
- (b)  $R^H \in \mathbb{H}_k((k-1)n, c_k n)$  a.a.s. has a partial-cycle with  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges.

*Proof.* First we define a *loose path* by analogy with loose cycles: a  $k$ -uniform loose path is a hypergraph with a vertex ordering such that every edge consists of  $k$  consecutive vertices and every pair of consecutive edges intersects in exactly one vertex. A matching is a collection of loose paths of length 1, and a partial-cycle is any collection of loose paths with enough vertices left over to link them together into a cycle.

We will first prove that for any  $\ell \geq 1$  and  $\gamma > 0$ , there is  $h = h(\ell, \gamma)$  such that the following holds. In a random hypergraph  $R \in \mathbb{H}_k(kn, hn)$ , a.a.s. every set of  $\gamma n$  vertices contains a loose path of length  $\ell$ . Parts (a) and (b) of the Lemma will follow from this fact.

As per the discussion in the introduction, it is equivalent to consider the model for  $R$  where each edge is independently present with probability  $p = hn/\binom{kn}{k} = O(n^{1-k})$ .

The probability a particular pair of edges is present in  $R$  is  $p^2$ . There are  $O(n^2)$  pairs of vertices and for each there are  $O\left(\binom{n-2}{k-2}^2\right) = O(n^{2(k-2)})$  pairs of edges containing both those vertices. So, the expected number of pairs of vertices which are contained in more than one edge (have degree more than one) is  $O(n^2 n^{2(k-2)} p^2) = O(1)$ . By Markov's inequality, there are a.a.s. less than  $\gamma n/2$  such pairs of vertices. So if we delete a set  $D$  containing one member of each of those pairs, then every pair of vertices in the remaining graph has degree at most one.

Let  $d = k\ell$ . For large  $h$ , by the Chernoff bound then the union bound, a.a.s. every set of  $\gamma n/2$  vertices spans at least  $d\gamma n/2$  edges, which is to say that the average 1-degree in the induced subhypergraph is at least  $kd$ . We assume this holds for the remainder of the proof.

Every set  $S$  of  $\gamma n$  vertices includes a set of  $\gamma n/2$  vertices disjoint from  $D$ , which has average 1-degree at least  $kd$ . Deleting a vertex of degree less than  $d$  increases the average degree of the induced subhypergraph, so  $S \setminus D$  includes a set of vertices spanning a subhypergraph  $Q$  of  $R$  with minimum degree at least  $d$ . Let  $P$  be a longest loose path in  $Q$  and let  $v$  be a vertex in one of the extremal edges of  $P$  (which has degree one in  $P$ ). Since  $P$  cannot be extended to a longer path, each of the (at least  $d$ ) edges containing  $v$  also contains another vertex  $u$  of  $P$ . But because  $Q$  contains no vertices from  $D$ , there is at most one edge containing both  $v$  and  $u$ , so  $P$  must have at least  $d$  vertices and therefore has length at least  $\ell$ . This proves our claim.

We now prove Part (a). Consider a matching of maximum size in  $R^M$ . There can be no edge consisting of unmatched vertices because this would allow us to extend the matching, contradicting maximality. Applying our claim with  $\gamma = k\varepsilon$  and  $\ell = 1$ , we can see that if  $c_k$  is large enough then a.a.s. every set of  $k\varepsilon n$  vertices spans at least one edge in  $R$ . This proves there are fewer than  $2\varepsilon n$  vertices unmatched after our maximum matching, hence our matching has at least  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges.

Finally we prove Part (b), using roughly the same idea. It takes  $(k - 2)q$  additional vertices to link  $q$  loose paths together into a loose cycle, and a union of  $q$  disjoint loose paths of length  $\ell \geq 1$  has  $(\ell(k - 1) + 1)q$  vertices. So, such a union of paths is a partial-cycle in  $R^H$  precisely when

$$(k - 2)q + (\ell(k - 1) + 1)q \leq (k - 1)n,$$

which simplifies to the condition  $q(\ell + 1) = n$ . In particular, for large  $\ell(\varepsilon)$ , a union of  $n/(\ell(\varepsilon) + 1)$  length- $\ell(\varepsilon)$  loose paths is a partial-cycle with more than  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges.

Consider a maximum-size collection of disjoint length- $\ell(\varepsilon)$  loose paths in  $R^H$ . With  $\gamma = (k - 2)\varepsilon$  and  $\ell = \ell(\varepsilon)$ , our claim proves that if  $c_k$  is large enough then our maximal collection of loose paths has at least  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges, which means it includes a partial-cycle with at least  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  edges.  $\square$

The second step to prove Theorem 1 is to show that a dense hypergraph plus a large partial structure a.a.s. gives the structure we are looking for. For both theorems, we will be able to reduce this step to the following lemma.

**Lemma 6.** *There is  $\xi = \xi(\alpha) > 0$  such that the following holds. Let  $G$  be a bipartite graph with parts  $A, B$  of equal size  $n$ , and suppose  $\delta(G) \geq \alpha n$ . Let  $\bar{M}$  be a uniformly random perfect matching between  $A$  and  $B$  and let  $M$  be a sub-matching of  $\bar{M}$  with  $(1 - \xi)n$  edges. Then a.a.s.  $G \cup M$  has a perfect matching.*

The immediate naïve approach to prove this lemma would be to show each set of vertices expands, and then to apply the union bound and Hall's marriage theorem. However, the probability of failure to expand is not small enough for this to work. We can gain some insight into the problem by considering two “extremal” cases for  $G$ . First, consider the case where the edges of  $G$  are not evenly-distributed, and are “concentrated” in certain spots. For example, identify sets  $A' \subset A$  and  $B' \subset B$  with  $|A'|, |B'| = \alpha n$ , and let  $G$  contain only those edges incident to a vertex in  $A'$  or  $B'$ . The addition of the near-perfect matching  $M$  gives a near-perfect matching between  $A \setminus A'$  and  $B \setminus B'$ , and we can match the unmatched vertices from  $A$  (respectively  $B$ ) with any element of  $B'$  (respectively  $A'$ ). That is, if our graph is not well-distributed, then the more concentrated parts help us to augment  $M$  into a perfect matching in  $G \cup M$ . On the other extreme, if  $G$  is a random-like, well-distributed dense graph then we cannot augment  $M$  in the same way. But this is not necessary, because a random dense graph  $G$  contains a perfect matching on its own! In order to apply these ideas to prove the lemma for an arbitrary graph  $G$ , we use the structural description of  $G$  provided by Szemerédi's regularity lemma.

For a disjoint pair of vertex sets  $(X, Y)$  in a graph, let its *density*  $d(X, Y)$  be the number of edges between  $X$  and  $Y$ , divided by  $|X||Y|$ . A pair of vertex sets  $(V^1, V^2)$  is said to be  $\varepsilon$ -regular if for any  $U^1, U^2$  with  $U^\ell \subseteq V^\ell$  and  $|U^\ell| \geq \varepsilon|V^\ell|$ , we have  $|d(U^1, U^2) - d(V^1, V^2)| \leq \varepsilon$ .

We will use a bipartite version of the regularity lemma (which can be deduced from say [22, Theorem 2.3] in a similar way to [11, Theorem 1.10]). Let  $\alpha' = \alpha/2$  and let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be a small constant depending on  $\alpha$  that will be determined later (assume for now that  $\varepsilon < \alpha/8$ ). There is a large constant  $K$  depending only on  $\alpha$  such that there exist partitions  $A = V_0^1 \cup \dots \cup V_r^1$  and  $B = V_0^2 \cup \dots \cup V_r^2$  with  $r \leq K$ , in such a way that the following conditions are satisfied. The “exceptional” clusters  $V_0^1$  and  $V_0^2$  both have fewer than  $\varepsilon n$  vertices, and the non-exceptional clusters in  $A$  and  $B$  have equal size:  $|V_i^\ell| = sn$ . There is a subgraph  $G' \subseteq G$  with minimum degree at least  $(\alpha' + \varepsilon)n$  such that each pair of distinct clusters  $V_i^1, V_j^2$  ( $i, j \geq 1$ ) is  $\varepsilon$ -regular in  $G'$  with density zero or at least  $2\varepsilon$ .

Define the cluster graph  $C$  as the bipartite graph whose vertices are the non-exceptional clusters  $V_i^\ell$ , and whose edges are the pairs of clusters between which there is nonzero density in  $G'$ . The fact that  $G$  is dense implies that  $C$  is dense as well: note that in  $G'$  each  $V_i^\ell$  has at least  $(\alpha' + \varepsilon)n|V_i^\ell|$  edges to other clusters. There are at most  $(\varepsilon n)(sn)$  edges to the exceptional cluster  $V_0$  and at most  $(sn)^2$  edges to each other cluster. So,  $d_C(V_i^\ell) \geq ((\alpha' + \varepsilon)n - \varepsilon n)sn/(sn)^2 \geq \alpha'r$  and  $C$  has minimum degree at least  $\alpha'r$ .

*Proof of Lemma 6.* We use Hall's marriage theorem: we need to show that a.a.s.  $|N_{G \cup M}(W)| \geq |W|$  for all  $W \subseteq A$ . If  $|W| \leq \alpha n$ , then  $|N_{G \cup M}(W)| \geq |N_G(W)| \geq \alpha n \geq |W|$  by the degree condition on  $G$ . Similarly, if  $|W| \geq (1 - \alpha)n$  then every  $b \in B$  has an edge to  $W$  in  $G$ , so  $|N_{G \cup M}(W)| = |B| \geq |W|$ . The difficult case is where  $\alpha n \leq |W| \leq (1 - \alpha)n$ .

Apply our version of the regularity lemma. We first want to prove that the edges of  $\bar{M}$  a.a.s. “spread out evenly” between the  $O(1)$  clusters. Fix some  $V_i^1$  and  $V_j^2$ , with  $i, j \geq 1$ . The vertices of each  $V_i^1$  are matched by  $\bar{M}$  to  $sn$  uniformly random vertices of  $B$ . The number of such vertices in  $V_j^2$  is then hypergeometrically distributed, so with probability  $1 - e^{-\Omega(n)}$  (see for example [7, Theorem 2.10]) there are at most  $(s^2 + \varepsilon)n$  edges of  $\bar{M}$  between  $V_i^1$  and  $V_j^2$ . By the union bound, a.a.s. there are at most  $(s^2 + \varepsilon)n$  edges of  $\bar{M}$  between every pair  $V_i^1, V_j^2$ . That is,  $\bar{M}$  typically spreads out evenly between the clusters. We assume this holds for the remainder of the proof.

Consider any  $W \subset A$  with  $\alpha n \leq |W| \leq (1 - \alpha)n$ . For each  $i$  let  $\pi_i = |V_i^1 \cap W|/(sn)$ , and let  $D$  be the set of clusters  $V_i^1$  with  $\pi_i \geq \varepsilon$ . If  $\varepsilon$  is small,  $D$  must be nonempty. Now, if  $V_j^2 \in N_C(D)$  then by  $\varepsilon$ -regularity there are edges in  $G'$  from  $W$  to at least  $(1 - \varepsilon)sn$  vertices of  $V_j^2$ . It follows that if  $|N_C(D)| = r$  (as would occur if  $G$  was well-distributed) then  $|N_{G \cup M}(W)| \geq |N_{G'}(W)| \geq (1 - \varepsilon)(n - |V_0^2|) \geq |W|$  for small  $\varepsilon$ , and we are done.

Otherwise, choose  $F \subseteq N(D)$  with  $|F| = \alpha'r$  and let  $S$  contain the vertices of the clusters in  $F$ . By the same  $\varepsilon$ -regularity argument,  $|N_{G'}(W) \cap S| \geq \alpha'r(1 - \varepsilon)sn \geq (1 - \varepsilon)^2 \alpha'n$ . Since  $|M| = (1 - \xi(\alpha))n$ , each  $V_i^1 \cap W$  has at least  $(\pi_i s - \xi(\alpha))n$  neighbours in  $M$ , and at most  $\alpha'r(s^2 + \varepsilon)n$  of these are in  $S$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned} |N_M(W) \setminus S| &\geq \sum_{V_i^1 \in D} (\pi_i s - \xi(\alpha) - \alpha'r(s^2 + \varepsilon))n \\ &\geq |W| - \varepsilon n - |D|(\xi(\alpha) + \alpha'r(s^2 + \varepsilon))n. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $|N_C(D)| < r$ , there is  $V_j^2$  outside  $N_C(D)$ , and this  $V_j^2$  must have  $\alpha'r$  neighbours outside  $D$  in  $C$ , so  $|D| \leq (1 - \alpha')r$  and therefore  $|D|\alpha'r s^2 \leq (1 - \alpha')\alpha'$ . Since  $r = O(1)$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |N_{G \cup M}(W)| &\geq |N_{G'}(W) \cap S| + |N_M(W) \setminus S| \\ &\geq \alpha'n + |W| - (1 - \alpha')\alpha'n + O(\varepsilon + \varepsilon^2 + \xi(\alpha))n. \end{aligned}$$

If  $\varepsilon$  is chosen to be small enough relative to  $\alpha$  and  $\xi(\alpha)$  chosen to be small enough relative to  $K$ , then this gives  $|N_{G \cup M}(W)| \geq |W|$ .  $\square$

Now we describe the reduction of Theorem 1 to Lemma 6. Consider a  $k$ -uniform hypergraph  $F$ . Suppose  $A$  is a set of  $n$  vertices and  $B$  is a  $(k - 1)$ -uniform hypergraph on the remaining vertices. Then we define a bipartite graph  $G_{A,B}(F)$  as follows. The vertices of  $G_{A,B}(F)$  are the vertices in  $A$ , as well as the edges in  $B$  (we abuse notation and identify the hypergraph  $B$  with its edge set). We put an edge between  $a \in A$  and  $\{b_1, \dots, b_{k-1}\} \in B$  if  $\{a, b_1, \dots, b_{k-1}\}$  is an edge in  $F$ . Basically, the idea is that if  $F$  has a large matching or partial-cycle, then there is  $A$  and  $B$  such that  $G_{A,B}(F)$  has a large matching. Conversely, if  $G_{A,B}(F)$  has a large matching for any  $A$  and  $B$ , then the edges of that matching correspond to a large matching or partial-cycle in  $F$ . Lemma 5 will provide a large matching or partial-cycle in the random hypergraph  $R$ , so there are  $A$  and  $B$  such that  $G_{A,B}(R)$  has a large matching (this matching is itself random). By Lemma 6, the addition of this matching to  $G_{A,B}(H)$  will give a perfect matching in  $G_{A,B}(H) \cup G_{A,B}(R) = G_{A,B}(H \cup R)$ , corresponding to a perfect matching or loose Hamilton cycle in  $H \cup R$ .

We make this precise as follows. For any  $\varepsilon > 0$  depending on  $\alpha$ , if  $c_k(\alpha)$  is large enough, Lemma 5 ensures the a.a.s. existence of a matching or partial-cycle  $Q$  of size  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  in  $R$ . Extend this to a perfect matching or loose Hamilton cycle  $\bar{Q}$  on  $V(R)$ . Note that the distribution of  $R$  is invariant

under relabelling of its vertices so we can relabel its vertices uniformly at random to assume that  $\bar{Q}$  is a uniformly random perfect matching or loose Hamilton cycle.

We describe an alternative way to realize a uniformly random perfect matching or loose Hamilton cycle. In the perfect matching case, choose a uniformly random ordering of  $V(R)$ :

$$a^1, \dots, a^n, b_1^1, \dots, b_{k-1}^1, b_1^2, \dots, b_{k-1}^n.$$

Let  $b^i = \{b_1^i, \dots, b_{k-1}^i\}$ , and let our perfect matching have edges of the form  $\{a^i\} \cup b^i$ . This gives a uniformly random perfect matching, so we can couple our random ordering with  $R$  in such a way that the perfect matching defined by the ordering coincides with  $\bar{Q}$ . Then, let  $A$  consist of the vertices  $a^i$  and let  $B$  be the hypergraph with edges  $b^i$ . Note that  $A$  is a uniformly random  $n$ -vertex set and  $B$  is a uniformly random perfect matching on the remaining vertices. Also, if we condition on  $A$  and  $B$  then  $G_{A,B}(\bar{Q})$  is a uniformly random perfect matching, and  $G_{A,B}(Q)$  is a sub-matching with  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$  of its edges.

The Hamilton cycle case is extremely similar. Choose a uniformly random ordering of  $V(R)$ :

$$a^i, \dots, a^i, b_0, \dots, b_{(k-2)n-1},$$

and let  $b^i = \{b_{(k-2)i}, b_{(k-2)i+1}, \dots, b_{(k-2)(i+1)}\}$  (where the subscripts are interpreted modulo  $(k-2)n$ ). Our loose Hamilton cycle has edges of the form  $\{a^i\} \cup b^i$ , which we couple with  $\bar{Q}$  in the same way as before. Let  $A$  contain the vertices  $a^i$  and let  $B$  contain the edges  $b^i$ . Exactly the same considerations hold:  $A$  is a uniformly random  $n$ -vertex set,  $B$  is a uniformly random loose Hamilton cycle on the remaining vertices, and  $G_{A,B}(Q)$  is a  $(1 - \varepsilon)n$ -edge sub-matching of the uniformly random perfect matching  $G_{A,B}(\bar{Q})$ .

We give one final lemma, establishing that  $G_{A,B}(H)$  is a.a.s. dense if  $H$  is.

**Lemma 7.** *There is  $\beta_k = \beta_k(\alpha) > 0$  such that the following holds.*

- (a) *Let  $H$  satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1(a), let  $A$  be a uniformly random set of  $n$  vertices, and let  $B$  be a uniformly random perfect matching on  $V(H) \setminus A$ . Then a.a.s.  $G_{A,B}(H)$  has minimum degree  $\beta_k n$ .*
- (b) *Let  $H$  satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1(b), let  $A$  be a uniformly random set of  $n$  vertices, and let  $B$  be a uniformly random loose Hamilton cycle on  $V(H) \setminus A$ . Then a.a.s.  $G_{A,B}(H)$  has minimum degree  $\beta_k n$ .*

*Proof of Lemma 7(a).* As in the preceding discussion, it is convenient to realize the uniform distribution of  $A$  and  $B$  via a random ordering of  $V(H)$ . Let

$$a^1, \dots, a^n, b_1^1, \dots, b_{k-1}^1, b_1^2, \dots, b_{k-1}^n.$$

be a uniformly random ordering of  $V(H)$ , with  $A$ ,  $b^i$  and  $B$  defined as before.

First, condition on some  $b \in B$ . Note that  $\Pr(b \cup \{a^1\} \in E(H)) \geq \delta_{k-1}(H)/n$  and more generally

$$\Pr(b \cup \{a^{i+1}\} \in E(H) \mid a^1, \dots, a^i) \geq (\delta_{k-1}(H) - i)/n \geq \alpha/2$$



for  $i \leq \alpha n/2$ . By the Chernoff bound,  $d_{G_H}(b) \geq \alpha^2 n/8$  with probability  $1 - e^{-\Omega(n)}$ . With the union bound, this a.a.s. holds for all  $b$ .

Now,  $\delta_1(H) \geq \alpha' n^{k-1}$  for some  $\alpha' > 0$  depending on  $\alpha$ . Condition on some  $a \in A$ . Each  $b_j^i$  shares at most  $\binom{kn}{k-2}$  edges with  $a_i$ , so if  $j \leq 2\sqrt{\beta_k}n$  for sufficiently small  $\beta_k$  and large  $n$ , then

$$\Pr(\{a\} \cup b^{j+1} \in E(H) \mid b^1, \dots, b^j) \geq \left( \delta_1(H) - (k-1)j \binom{kn}{k-2} \right) / \binom{kn}{k-1} \geq \sqrt{\beta_k}.$$

By the Chernoff bound and the union bound, a.a.s. each  $d_{G_H}(a) \geq \beta_k n$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Lemma 7(b).* We give essentially the same proof as for Lemma 7(a).

$$a^i, \dots, a^i, b_0, \dots, b_{(k-2)n-1},$$

and let  $A, b^i$  and  $B$  be defined as before.

With exactly the same proof as for Lemma 7(a), there is small  $\beta_k$  such that a.a.s.  $d_{G_H}(b) \geq \beta_k n$  for all  $b \in B$ . Next, condition on some  $a \in A$ . For small  $\beta(\alpha)$  and  $j \leq 2\sqrt{\beta_k}n$ ,

$$\Pr(\{a\} \cup b^j \in E(H) \mid b^0, \dots, b^{j-1}) \geq \left( \delta_2(H) - (k-2)j \binom{(k-1)n}{k-3} \right) / \binom{(k-1)n}{k-2} \geq \sqrt{\beta_k},$$

so a.a.s. each  $d_{G_H}(a) \geq \beta_k n$ .  $\square$

We have established that if  $c_k(\alpha)$  is large enough then  $G_{A,B}(H)$  is a.a.s. a bipartite graph with minimum degree  $\beta_k(\alpha)n$ , and  $G_{A,B}(R)$  contains a  $(1 - \xi(\beta_k(\alpha)))n$ -edge sub-matching  $G_{A,B}(Q)$  of the uniformly random perfect matching  $G_{A,B}(\bar{Q})$ . Lemma 6 then ensures the existence of a perfect matching in  $G_{A,B}(H \cup R)$ . This corresponds to a perfect matching or loose Hamilton cycle in  $H \cup R$ .

### 3 Pancyclicity in dense digraphs

In this section we prove Theorems 2 and 3. One motivation to consider pancyclicity instead of just Hamiltonicity is an observation by Bondy (see [3]), that almost all known non-trivial conditions that ensure Hamiltonicity also ensure pancyclicity. He made an informal “metaconjecture” that this was always the case; our Theorem 3 verifies his metaconjecture in the setting of randomly perturbed dense graphs and digraphs.

Theorem 3 obviously implies [2, Theorems 1 and 3]. We do not fight very hard to optimize constants, but we note that if we make some simplifications in the proof of Theorem 3, the resulting values of  $c(\alpha)$  seem to be better than those found in [2], for most values of  $\alpha$ .

We now turn to the proof of Theorem 2, which will follow from the corresponding result for Hamiltonicity.

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $D$  be a directed graph with all in- and out- degrees at least  $4k$ , and suppose for every pair of disjoint sets  $A, B \subseteq V(D)$  with  $|A| = |B| \geq k$ , there is an arc from  $A$  to  $B$ . Then  $D$  is Hamiltonian.*

*Remark 9.* With some effort, the ideas in the proof of Lemma 8 can be used directly to prove Theorem 2 with a weaker degree condition. We do not know whether the condition can be weakened all the way to  $4k$ , as Bondy’s metaconjecture would suggest. The constants in Theorem 2 and Lemma 8 can both be halved for the undirected case, just by simplifying the main argument in the proof of Lemma 8.

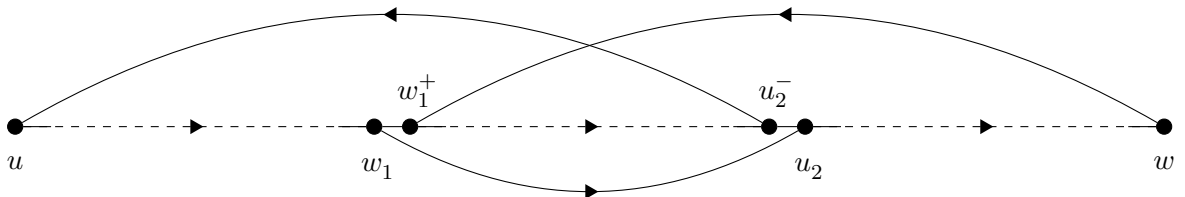
The idea of the proof is to start with a longest path  $P$  and to manipulate it into a cycle  $C$  on the same vertex set. We will show that  $D$  is strongly connected, so if  $C$  were not Hamiltonian, there would be an arc from  $V(C)$  to its complement, which could be combined with  $C$  to give a longer path than  $P$ , contradicting maximality. This type of argument goes back to the proof of Dirac’s theorem [4, Theorem 3]. It also bears some resemblance to the “rotation-extension” idea introduced in [18], and a variation for directed graphs in [6, Section 4.3].

*Proof of Lemma 8.* First we acknowledge some immediate consequences of the condition on  $D$ . Note that if  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint sets with size at least  $k$ , then in fact there are at least  $|A| - k$  vertices of  $A$  with an arc into  $B$ . To see this, note that for any fewer number of such vertices in  $A$ , we can delete those vertices and at least  $k$  will remain, one of which has an arc to  $B$ . Also,  $D$  is strongly connected. To see this, note that for any  $v, w$ , both of  $N^+(v)$  and  $N^-(w)$  have size at least  $4k > k$ . If they intersect then there is a length-2 path from  $v$  to  $w$ ; otherwise there must be an arc from  $N^+(v)$  to  $N^-(w)$  giving a length-3 path.

Let  $P = u, \dots, w$  be a maximum-length directed path in  $D$ . We will use the notation  $v^+$  (respectively  $v^-$ ) for the successor (respectively predecessor) of a vertex  $v$  on  $P$ , and also write  $U^+, U^-$  for the set of successors or predecessors of a set of vertices  $U$ .

By maximality,  $N^+(w) \subset P$  and  $N^-(u) \subset P$ . Let  $U_1$  be the first  $3k$  elements of  $N^-(u)$  on  $P$ , and let  $U_2$  be the last  $k$  (note  $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$ ). Similarly let  $W_1$  be the first  $k$  and  $W_2$  the last  $3k$  elements of  $N^+(w)$ . We will now show that there is a cycle on the vertex set  $V(P)$ .

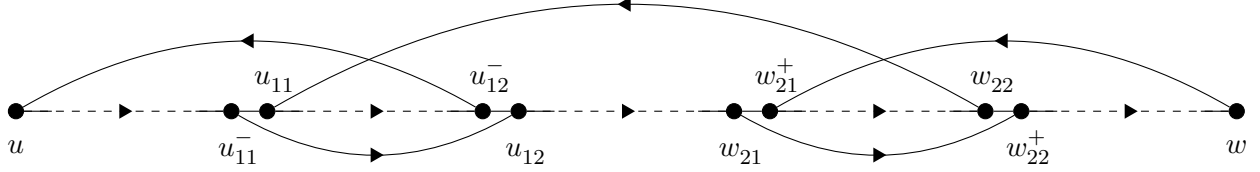
First, consider the case where each vertex of  $W_1$  precedes each vertex of  $U_2$ . If  $wu$  is in  $D$  then we can immediately close  $P$  into a cycle. Otherwise,  $|W_1^-| = |W_1| = |U_2^+| = |U_2| = k$ , so there is an arc  $w_1 u_2$  from  $W_1^-$  to  $U_2^+$ . This is enough to piece together a cycle on  $V(P)$ : start at  $u_2$  and move along  $P$  to  $w$ , from where there is a shortcut back to  $w_1^+$ . Now move along  $P$  from  $w_1^+$  to  $u_2^-$ , from where we can jump back to  $u$ , then move along  $P$  to  $w_1$ , then jump to  $u_2$ . See Figure 1 for an illustration.



**Figure 1.** The case where the vertices of  $W_1$  precede the vertices of  $U_2$ . The horizontal line through the center is  $P$ ; the broken lines indicate subpaths.

Otherwise, each vertex of  $U_1$  precedes each vertex of  $W_2$ . Let  $U_{12}$  contain the  $k$  elements of  $U_1$  furthest down the path. Let  $U_{11}$  be the set of vertices among the first  $2k$  vertices of  $P$  which have

an arc to  $U_{12}^+$ . By the discussion at the beginning of the proof,  $|U_{11}| \geq k$ . Similarly, let  $W_{21}$  contain the  $k$  elements of  $W_2$  first appearing on the path, and let  $W_{22}$  be the set of at least  $k$  vertices among the last  $2k$  on  $P$  which have an arc from  $W_{21}^-$ . By the condition on  $D$ , there is an arc  $w_{22}u_{11}$  from  $W_{22}^-$  to  $U_{11}^+$ . By definition, there is  $u_{12} \in U_{12}^+$  and  $w_{21} \in W_{21}^-$  such that the arcs  $u_{11}^-u_{12}$  and  $w_{21}w_{22}^+$  are in  $D$ . We can piece everything together to get a cycle on the vertices of  $P$ : start at  $u_{11}$ , move along  $P$  until  $u_{12}^-$ , then jump back to  $u$ . Move along  $P$  until  $u_{11}^-$ , then take the shortcut to  $u_{12}$ . Continue along  $P$  to  $w_{21}$ , jump to  $w_{22}^+$ , continue to  $w$ , jump back to  $w_{21}^+$ , and continue to  $w_{22}$ . From here there is a shortcut back to  $u_{11}$ . See Figure 2.



**Figure 2.** The case where the vertices of  $U_1$  precede the vertices of  $W_2$ .

As outlined, the fact that  $D$  is strongly connected, combined with the fact that the vertex set of  $P$  induces a cycle  $C$ , implies that  $C$  is a Hamilton cycle.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 2.* Fix a vertex  $v$ . Let  $U^+$  and  $U^-$  be arbitrary  $k$ -subsets of  $N^+(v)$  and  $N^-(v)$  respectively. There is an arc from  $U^+$  to  $U^-$  which immediately gives a 3-cycle.

Next, let  $W^+$  be the set of (fewer than  $k$ ) vertices with no arc from  $U^+$ , and similarly let  $W^-$  be the set of vertices with no arc into  $U^-$ . Now consider the induced digraph  $D'$  obtained from  $D$  by deleting  $v$  and the vertices in  $U^+, U^-, W^+, W^-$ . Since we have removed fewer than  $4k$  vertices,  $D'$  satisfies the conditions of Lemma 8 so has a Hamilton cycle. In particular, for every  $\ell$  satisfying  $4 \leq \ell \leq n - 4k$ , there is a path  $P_\ell = u_\ell, \dots, w_\ell$  in  $D'$  of length  $\ell - 4$ . By construction, there is an arc from  $U^+$  to  $u_\ell$  and from  $w_\ell$  to  $U^-$ , which we can combine with arcs to and from  $v$  to get a cycle of length  $\ell$ .

Finally, for every  $\ell > n - 4k$ , arbitrarily delete vertices from  $D$  to obtain an induced digraph  $D''$  with  $\ell$  vertices which satisfies the conditions of Lemma 8. Since  $D''$  has a Hamilton cycle,  $D$  has a cycle of length  $\ell$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 3.* In view of the discussion in the introduction, we assume each possible arc is present in  $R$  with probability  $p = cn/(2\binom{n}{2}) \geq c/n$  independently.

If  $A, B \subseteq V(D)$  are disjoint sets with  $|A| = |B| = \alpha n/8$ , the probability that there are no arcs from  $A$  to  $B$  in  $D \cup R$  is at most

$$(1 - p)^{(\alpha n/8)^2} \leq e^{-p\alpha^2 n^2/64} \leq e^{-c\alpha^2 n/64}.$$

The number of choices of such pairs of disjoint sets  $A, B$  is

$$\binom{n}{\alpha n/4} \binom{\alpha n/4}{\alpha n/8} = O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} e^{n(H(\alpha/4) + \alpha H(1/2)/4)}\right),$$

where  $H(\alpha) = -\alpha \log \alpha - (1 - \alpha) \log(1 - \alpha)$  (this can be proved with Stirling's approximation). By the union bound, the probability that  $D \cup R$  does not satisfy the condition of Lemma 8 is at most

$$O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} e^{n(H(\alpha/4) + \alpha H(1/2)/4 - c\alpha^2 n/64 + o(1))}\right).$$

If  $c$  is chosen to be sufficiently large, then this expression converges to zero, which means the digraph  $D \cup R$  is a.a.s. pancyclic, by Lemma 8.  $\square$

*Remark 10.* If we are only interested in Hamiltonicity, we can use Lemma 8 directly in the proof of Theorem 3, which gives a better constant  $c(\alpha)$  than in [2, Theorem 3], for all  $\alpha$ . If we make the adjustment for undirected graphs mentioned in Remark 9, then we also beat the corresponding constant in [2, Theorem 1] except for small values of  $\alpha$ .

## 4 Hamilton cycles in tournaments

There are several seemingly different conditions that are equivalent to Hamiltonicity for tournaments (see [15, Chapters 2-3]). A tournament is Hamiltonian if and only if it is irreducible (cannot be divided into two partitions with all arcs between the two partitions in the same direction), if and only if it is strongly connected (has a directed path from every vertex to every other), if and only if it is pancyclic (contains cycles of all lengths). All tournaments have a Hamilton path, and it was first proved in [16] that a uniformly random tournament is a.a.s. irreducible, hence Hamiltonian.

It was more recently proved in [13] that if a tournament is  $t$ -strongly connected (it remains strongly connected after the deletion of  $t - 1$  vertices), then it has  $\Omega(\sqrt{t}/\log t)$  arc-disjoint Hamilton cycles (this was improved to  $\Omega(\sqrt{t})$  in [17]). It is not difficult to show that a random tournament is a.a.s.  $t$ -connected for fixed  $t$ , which implies that a random tournament contains  $q$  arc-disjoint Hamilton cycles for  $q = O(1)$ . We will use this to prove Theorem 4.

Before we proceed to the proof, we first explain why Theorem 4 is sharp. The “obvious” worst case for  $T$  is a *transitive* tournament (corresponding to a linear order on the vertices). In this case, a superlinear number of edges must be flipped in order to a.a.s. flip one of the arcs pointing away from the least element of the linear order. Actually, the model where random edges are flipped in a transitive tournament has already been studied in [14], by analogy to the evolution of the random graph.

More generally, consider a “transitive cluster-tournament”  $T$  on  $n = rk$  vertices defined as follows. Let  $R$  be a regular tournament on  $2d + 1$  vertices (this means the indegree and outdegree are equal for each vertex). To construct  $T$ , start with  $r$  disjoint copies  $R_1, \dots, R_r$  of  $R$ , then put an arc from  $v$  to  $w$  for every  $v \in R_i$ ,  $w \in R_j$  with  $i < j$ . In order for the perturbed tournament  $P$  to be Hamiltonian, there must be an arc entering  $R_1$ , so one of the  $O(n(d + 1))$  arcs exiting  $R_1$  must be changed. This will not happen a.a.s. unless  $m = \omega(d + 1)/n$ .

We now prove Theorem 4. In accordance with the discussion in the introduction, we will work with the model where each edge is flipped with independent probability  $p$ , where  $2p\binom{n}{2} = m$ . (Designating an edge for resampling with probability  $2p$  is the same as flipping it with probability  $p$ ).

Fix  $t$ ; we will prove that  $P$  is  $t$ -strongly connected. The idea of the proof is to choose a set  $S$  of  $t$  vertices with a large indegree and outdegree, then show that with high probability almost every vertex has many paths to and from each vertex in  $S$ . The probability that a vertex  $v$  has paths from  $S$  is smallest if  $v$  has small indegree, so we need to show that not many vertices can have small indegree.

**Lemma 11.** *In any tournament, there are less than  $k$  vertices with indegree (respectively outdegree) less than  $(k-1)/2$ .*

*Proof.* The sum of indegrees (respectively outdegrees) of a tournament on  $k$  vertices is  $\binom{k}{2}$ , because each arc contributes 1 to this sum. Therefore in every set of  $k$  vertices of a tournament, there is a vertex of outdegree (indegree) at least  $(k-1)/2$  in the induced tournament.  $\square$

A consequence of Lemma 11 is that the set of all vertices with indegree (respectively outdegree) less than  $n/6$  has size smaller than  $n/3$ . So, there are at least  $n/3$  vertices with indegree and outdegree at least  $n/6$ . We can therefore choose a set  $S$  of  $t$  such vertices.

Now, we prove that the random perturbation does not change the in- and -out degrees very much.

**Lemma 12.** *If a vertex  $v$  has outdegree (respectively indegree)  $k$  in  $T$ , then it has outdegree (respectively indegree) at least  $k/3$  in  $P$ , with probability  $e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}$  uniformly over  $k$ .*

*Proof.* We only prove the statement where  $v$  has outdegree  $k$ ; the indegree case is identical. If  $k = 0$  the lemma is trivial, so assume  $k \geq 1$ . First consider the cases where  $k > \sqrt{n}$  or  $p < 1/\sqrt{n}$ . There are  $k$  arcs pointing away from  $v$  in  $T$ , and the Chernoff bound says that the probability more than  $2k/3$  arcs are changed by the perturbation is

$$e^{-\Omega(k^2/\mathbb{E}X)} = e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}.$$

That is, with the required probability,  $k/3$  of the original out-neighbours survive the perturbation.

Otherwise (for large  $n$ ), there is a set of  $n/2$  arcs pointing towards  $v$  in  $T$ . The Chernoff bound says that the probability less than  $k/3$  of these arcs are changed is  $e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})}$ . That is, with the required probability,  $k/3$  new out-neighbours are added by the perturbation.  $\square$

**Lemma 13.** *Suppose  $w$  has outdegree (respectively indegree) at least  $n/6$ , and  $v \neq w$  is a vertex with indegree (respectively outdegree) at least  $k$ . Then with probability  $1 - e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})} - e^{-\Omega(np(k+1))}$  (uniformly over  $k$ ), there are  $t' = 3t$  internally vertex-disjoint paths of length at most 3 from  $w$  to  $v$  (respectively from  $v$  to  $w$ ).*

*Proof.* We will only prove the statement where  $v$  has indegree at least  $k$ ; the outdegree case is identical. By independence, we can condition on the outcome of the perturbation on individual arcs. Condition on the outcome for all arcs adjacent to  $w$ , and let  $N_P^+(w)$  be the set of vertices to which there is an arc from  $w$  in  $P$ . By Lemma 12, we can assume  $|N_P^+(w)| \geq n/18$ .

We first prove the lemma for the case where  $k \leq 12t'$ . There are at least  $n' = n/18 - 1$  arcs between  $N_P^+(w)$  and  $v$ , each of which will be pointing towards  $v$  in  $P$  with independent probability at least  $p$ . By the Chernoff bound, the probability less than  $t'$  arcs will point from  $N_P^+(w)$  to  $v$  in  $P$  is

$$e^{-\Omega(\mathbb{E}Z - t')} = e^{-\Omega(np)} = e^{-\Omega(np(k+1))}.$$

So, with the required probability there are  $t'$  suitable length-2 paths from  $w$  to  $v$ .

We can now assume  $k > 12t'$ . Condition on the result of the perturbation for the arcs adjacent to  $v$  (in addition to the arcs we have conditioned on so far). Let  $N_P^-(v)$  be the set of vertices from which there is an edge into  $v$  in  $P$ ; by Lemma 12, we can assume  $|N_P^-(v)| \geq k/3$ .

Now, if  $|N_P^+(w) \cap N_P^-(v)| \geq t'$  then there are  $t'$  disjoint length-2 paths from  $w$  to  $v$  and we are done. So we can assume  $U^+ = N_P^+(w) \setminus (N_P^-(v) \cup \{v\})$  has at least  $n' = n/18 - t' - 1$  vertices, and  $U^- = N_P^-(v) \setminus (N_P^+(w) \cup \{w\})$  has at least  $k' = k/6 - t' - 1$  vertices (note  $k' \geq t'$  by assumption).

Now, we would like to show that with the required probability there is a set of  $t'$  independent arcs from  $U^+$  into  $U^-$  in  $P$ , which will give  $t'$  suitable length-3 paths. Partition  $U^+$  (respectively  $U^-$ ) into subsets  $U_1^+, \dots, U_{t'}^+$  (respectively  $U_1^-, \dots, U_{t'}^-$ ), such that each  $|U_1^+| > n'/(2t')$  and each  $|U_1^-| > k'/(2t')$ . For each  $i$ , the probability that there is no arc from  $U_i^+$  into  $U_i^-$  after the perturbation is at most

$$(1 - p/2)^{n'k'/(4t')} \leq e^{-\Theta(np(k+1))},$$

so with the required probability there a set of  $t'$  suitable independent arcs, each between a pair  $U_i^+, U_i^-$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 14.** *Fix some  $w \in S$ . In  $P$ , there are a.a.s.  $t$  disjoint paths from  $w$  to each other vertex (respectively, from each other vertex to  $w$ ).*

*Proof.* We only prove there are paths from  $w$  to each other vertex; the reverse case is identical. If there are  $3t$  disjoint paths of length at most 3 from  $w$  to  $v$  then we say  $v$  is *safe*. It follows from Lemma 13 that a vertex with indegree  $k$  is safe with probability  $1 - e^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})} - e^{-\Omega(np(k+1))}$ .

By Lemma 11, there are at most  $(2d+1)$  vertices with outdegree  $d$ , and the vertex with the  $2k$ th smallest outdegree has outdegree at least  $k-1$ . Let  $Q$  be the set of non-safe vertices, and note

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}|Q| &= (2d+1)e^{-\Omega(np(d+1))} + \sum_{k=d+1}^n 2e^{-\Omega(np(k+1))} + ne^{-\Omega(\sqrt{n})} \\ &= e^{-\Omega(np(d+1))} \left( O(d+1) + \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\Omega(np)}} \right) + o(1) \\ &= e^{-\Omega(np(d+1))} O(d+1). \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the geometric series formula, the inequality  $1 - e^{-x} \geq (x \wedge 1)/2$  (for positive  $x$ ) and the fact that  $d+1 = \Omega(1)$ .

By Markov's inequality, a.a.s.  $|Q| \leq \sqrt{e^{-\Omega(np(d+1))}} O(d+1) = o(d+1)$ . If  $d \leq 4t$  then  $|Q| = 0$  for large  $n$ . Otherwise, for large  $n$ ,  $|Q| \leq 3d$ , so every vertex  $v \in Q$  has  $3t$  safe neighbours  $v_1, \dots, v_{3t}$ . Now, fix a maximal set  $M$  of disjoint paths from  $w$  to  $v$ . If  $|M| < t$  then the paths in  $M$  collectively use less than  $3t$  vertices other than  $t$ , so there is some  $v_i$  not in any path of  $M$ , and there is some path from  $w$  to  $v_i$  that does not contain any vertex of  $M$ . But then  $w \dots v_i v$  is a path from  $w$  to  $v$  disjoint with every path in  $M$ , contradicting maximality.  $\square$

It follows from Lemma 14 that a.a.s. every vertex outside  $S$  has  $t$  disjoint paths to and from every vertex in  $S$ . If we delete  $t - 1$  vertices, then there is at least one vertex  $w$  of  $S$  remaining, and  $w$  has at least one path to and from every other vertex. That is,  $P$  is strongly connected. (In fact, we have also proved that  $P$  has diameter at most 8).

## 5 Concluding Remarks

We have determined the amount of random perturbation required to make a tournament, dense digraph or dense uniform hypergraph Hamiltonian. In the process, we have proved a general lemma about pancyclicity in highly connected digraphs, and demonstrated an interesting application of the Szemerédi regularity lemma. There are a few important questions this paper leaves open.

First, we have only studied loose Hamiltonicity. The other most popular notion of a hypergraph cycle is a *tight* cycle, in which every consecutive pair of edges in the cycle intersects in  $k - 1$  vertices. More generally, an  $\ell$ -cycle has consecutive edges intersecting in  $k - \ell$  vertices. Also, we have only studied hypergraphs with high  $(k - 1)$ -degree, which is the strongest density assumption we could make. There are a large variety of Dirac-type theorems for different types of minimum degree and different types of cycles (see [19] for a survey), which would suggest that similar random perturbation results are possible in these settings. In addition, it is possible that our use of Szemerédi’s regularity lemma could be avoided, thereby drastically improving the constants  $c_k(\alpha)$ .

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