# Federal University of Paraná 

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## NOVEL PROCEDURES FOR GRAPH EDGE-COLOURING

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To Giullia and Arthur,
the colours of my life in an uncoloured world

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Colour is my day-long obsession, joy, and torment.

- Claude Monet


## Abstract

The chromatic index of a graph $G$ is the minimum number of colours needed to colour the edges of $G$ in a manner that no two adjacent edges receive the same colour. By the celebrated Vizing's Theorem, the chromatic index of any simple graph $G$ is either its maximum degree $\Delta$ or it is $\Delta+1$, in which case $G$ is said to be Class 1 or Class 2, respectively. Computing an optimal edge-colouring of a graph or simply determining its chromatic index are important $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard problems which appear in noteworthy applications, like sensor networks, optical networks, production control, and games. In this work we present novel polynomial-time procedures for optimally edge-colouring graphs belonging to some large sets of graphs. For example, let $\mathscr{X}$ be the class of the graphs whose majors (vertices of degree $\Delta$ ) have local degree sum at most $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$ (by 'local degree sum' of a vertex $x$ we mean the sum of the degrees of the neighbours of $x$ ). We show that almost every graph is in $\mathscr{X}$ and, by extending the recolouring procedure used by Vizing's in the proof for his theorem, we show that every graph in $\mathscr{X}$ is Class 1. We further achieve results in other graph classes, such as join graphs, circular-arc graphs, and complementary prisms. For instance, we show that a complementary prism can be Class 2 only if it is a regular graph distinct from the $K_{2}$. Concerning join graphs, we show that if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are disjoint graphs such that $\left|V\left(G_{1}\right)\right| \leqslant\left|V\left(G_{2}\right)\right|$ and $\Delta\left(G_{1}\right) \geqslant \Delta\left(G_{2}\right)$, and if the majors of $G_{1}$ induce an acyclic graph, then the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1. Besides these results on edge-colouring, we present partial results on total colouring join graphs, cobipartite graphs, and circular-arc graphs, as well as a discussion on a recolouring procedure for total colouring.

Keywords: Colouring of graphs and hypergraphs (MSC 05C15). Graph algorithms (MSC 05C85). Graph theory in relation to Computer Science (MSC 68R10). Vertex degrees (MSC 05C07). Graph operations (MSC 05C76)..

## Resumo

O índice cromático de um grafo $G$ é o menor número de cores necessário para colorir as arestas de $G$ de modo que não haja duas arestas adjacentes recebendo a mesma cor. Pelo célebre Teorema de Vizing, o índice cromático de qualquer grafo simples $G$ ou é seu grau máximo $\Delta$, ou é $\Delta+1$, em cujo caso $G$ é dito Classe 1 ou Classe 2, respectivamente. Computar uma coloração de arestas ótima de um grafo ou simplesmente determinar seu índice cromático são problemas $\mathcal{N P}$-difíceis importantes que aparecem em aplicações notáveis, como redes de sensores, redes ópticas, controle de produção, e jogos. Neste trabalho, nós apresentamos novos procedimentos de tempo polinomial para colorir otimamente as arestas de grafos pertences a alguns conjuntos grandes. Por exemplo, seja $\mathscr{X}$ a classe dos grafos cujos maiorais (vértices de grau $\Delta$ ) possuem soma local de graus no máximo $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$ (entendemos por 'soma local de graus' de um vértice $x$ a soma dos graus dos vizinhos de $x$ ). Nós mostramos que quase todo grafo está em $\mathscr{X}$ e, estendendo o procedimento de recoloração que Vizing usou na prova para seu teorema, mostramos que todo grafo em $\mathscr{X}$ é Classe 1. Nós também conseguimos resultados em outras classes de grafos, como os grafos-junção, os grafos arco-circulares, e os prismas complementares. Como um exemplo, nós mostramos que um prisma complementar só pode ser Classe 2 se for um grafo regular distinto do $K_{2}$. No que diz respeito aos grafos-junção, nós mostramos que se $G_{1}$ e $G_{2}$ são grafos disjuntos tais que $\left|V\left(G_{1}\right)\right| \leqslant\left|V\left(G_{2}\right)\right|$ e $\Delta\left(G_{1}\right) \geqslant \Delta\left(G_{2}\right)$, e se os maiorais de $G_{1}$ induzem um grafo acíclico, então o grafo-junção $G_{1} * G_{2}$ é Classe 1. Além desses resultados em coloração de arestas, apresentamos resultados parciais em coloração total de grafos-junção, de grafos arco-circulares, e de grafos cobipartidos, bem como discutimos um procedimento de recoloração para coloração total.

Palavras-chave: Coloração de grafos e hipergrafos (MSC 05C15). Algoritmos de grafos (MSC 05C85). Teoria dos grafos em relação à Ciência da Computação (MSC 68R10). Graus de vértices (MSC 05C07). Operações de grafos (MSC 05C76)..

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## List of Symbols

$\alpha(G) \quad$ independent set number of the graph $G$ (see p. 35)
$B_{G} \quad$ the complete bipartite graph defined by $B_{G}:=G-\left(E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup E\left(G_{2}\right)\right)$, being $G$ the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ (see p. 69)
$B_{G} \quad$ the (not necessarily complete) bipartite graph defined by $B_{G}:=G\left[\partial_{G}\left(V_{1}\right)\right]=$ $G\left[\partial_{G}\left(V_{2}\right)\right]$, being $G$ a cobipartite graph and $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ two disjoint cliques which partition $V(G)$ (see p. 91)
$\chi(G) \quad$ chromatic number of the graph $G$ (see p. 30)
$\chi^{\prime}(G) \quad$ chromatic index of the graph $G$ (see p. 12)
$\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \quad$ total chromatic number of the graph $G$ (see p. 89)
$\operatorname{ch}(G) \quad$ vertex-choosability of the graph $G$ (see p. 90)
$c h^{\prime}(G) \quad$ edge-choosability of the graph $G$ (see p. 90)
$C_{n} \quad$ the $n$-length cycle (see p. 15)
$\operatorname{coN} \mathcal{P} \quad$ class of the complements of the decision problems in $\mathcal{N P}$ (see p. 38)
$\Delta(G) \quad$ maximum degree of the graph $G$ (see p. 15)
$\delta(G) \quad$ minimum degree of the graph $G$ (see p. 15)
$d(G) \quad$ the degree of every vertex in the regular graph $G$ (see p. 15)
$d_{G}(u) \quad$ degree of the vertex $u$ in the graph $G$ (see p. 15)
$\partial_{G}(u) \quad$ set of edges incident to the vertex $u$ in the graph $G$ (see p. 14)
$\partial_{G}(X) \quad$ cut defined by the set $X \subseteq V(G)$ in the graph $G$ (see p. 15)
$E(G) \quad$ set of edges of the graph $G$ (see p. 12)
$\bar{G} \quad$ complement of the graph $G$ (see p. 14)
$G_{1} * G_{2}$ the join of the graph $G_{1}$ with the graph $G_{2}$ (see p. 25)
$G G \quad$ the prism graph obtained from $G$ (see p. 26)
$G \bar{G} \quad$ the complementary prism graph obtained from $G$ (see p. 26)
$G_{M} \quad$ the graph defined by $G_{M}:=\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right)+M$ for the maximal matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, being $G$ the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ (see p. 69)
$\mathscr{G}(n, p)$ the random graph model on $n$ vertices such that the probability that there is an edge between a pair of distinct vertices is $p$ (see p. 25)
$G_{\varphi}[\alpha, \beta]$ the graph on the same vertex set as $G$ whose edges are the edges of $G$ coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$ by the edge-colouring $\varphi$ (see p. 18)
$G[X] \quad$ subgraph of $G$ induced by $X$ (see p. 16)
$K_{n} \quad$ the complete graph on $n$ vertices (see p. 14)
$K_{n_{1}, n_{2}} \quad$ complete bipartite graph with $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ vertices in each part (see p. 16)
$\Lambda[G] \quad$ core of the graph $G$ (see p. 16)
$\mathbf{\Lambda}[G] \quad$ hard core of the graph $G$ (see p. 60)
$\mathbb{\wedge}[G] \quad$ soft core of the graph $G$ (see p. 60)
$A[G] \quad$ semi-core of the graph $G$ (see p. 34)
$\mathbf{A}[G] \quad$ hard semi-core of the graph $G$ (see p. 61)
$L(G) \quad$ line graph of the graph $G$ (see p. 31)
$\mu(\mathcal{G}) \quad$ multiplicity of the multigraph $\mathcal{G}$ (see p. 22)
$v(G) \quad$ matching number of the graph $G$ (see p. 35)
$N_{G}(u) \quad$ set of neighbours of the vertex $u$ in the graph $G$ (see p. 14)
$\mathcal{N P} \quad$ class of the decision problem whose positive instances have polynomiallength certificates which can be verified in polynomial time (see p.37)
$\omega(G) \quad$ clique number of the graph $G$ (see p. 35)
$\mathcal{P} \quad$ class of the decision problems decidable in polynomial time (see p. 37)
$P^{*} \quad$ the Petersen graph minus any vertex (see p. 44)
$P_{n} \quad$ the ( $n-1$ )-length path (see p. 15)
$\psi_{1} \quad$ canonical edge-colouring of a complete graph of odd order (see p. 17)
$\psi_{2} \quad$ canonical edge-colouring of a complete graph of even order (see p. 17)
$\mathrm{T}(G) \quad$ total graph of the graph $G$ (see $p .98$ )
$V(G) \quad$ set of vertices of the graph $G$ (see p. 12)
$\mathscr{X} \quad$ the class of the graphs with maximum degree $\Delta$ whose majors have local degree sum at most $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$ (see p. 24)

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## 1 Introduction

The Wonderland of Graph Theory is full of wonders to be found and explored. In order to map these wonders and catch them all, our fictional character Alice has spread several sensors all over the land. A pair of sensors communicate by radio, sending and receiving messages to and from each other, as long as the distance between them is at most $d$ (see Figure 1.1). A sensor cannot communicate with two other sensors


Figure 1.1: A sample of the sensors (represented by filled triangles) which Alice has spread over the Wonderland of Graph Theory in order to map the wonders on the land (represented by small filled squares). The transmission range of a sensor $S$ is depicted by a dashed circle of radius $d$ centred at $S$. Observe that $\left(S_{1}, S_{4}\right)$ is the only pair of non-adjacent sensors in this sample.
at the same time, otherwise the overlapping messages may become indistinguishable. Therefore, Alice wants to program the sensors to change frequency tuning at every period of time $t$, in a manner that each sensor communicates with its adjacent sensors one at a time and, after a certain amount $k$ of these periods, every pair of adjacent sensors have communicated. Of course, Alice wants $k$ to be as small as possible.

Alice's problem of minimising $k$ is used in this chapter to introduce the subject of our study in this work.

### 1.1 Graphs and edge-colouring

We can model Alice's problem presented above using an abstract structure known as graph. A graph is a mathematical object consisting of vertices and connections between them, called edges ${ }^{1}$. There are several types of graphs, but in this work we concern ourselves mainly with simple graphs, that is, graphs wherein the edges are undirected connections between two distinct vertices. In the example of Alice's problem,

[^0]we represent each sensor by a vertex and we create an edge between two sensors if and only if they can communicate (see Figure 1.2).


Figure 1.2: A graph representing the adjacencies between the sensors depicted in Figure 1.1. Particularly, this graph is known as the diamond graph .

Formally, we can define a graph as a pair $G=(V, E)$, wherein $V$ is the finite set of vertices of $G$ and each element $e$ of $E$ is a set $\{u, v\}$, often simply denoted $u v$, for two distinct $u$ and $v$ in $V$. Whenever the set of vertices and the set of edges of $G$ are not specified, they are simply referred to as $V(G)$ and $E(G)$, respectively. The number of vertices of a graph is referred to as its order.

Considering a graph such as the one shown in Figure 1.2, let us assign to each edge $u v$ of the graph a number $i$, indicating that the sensors represented by the vertices $u$ and $v$ communicate during the $i^{\text {th }}$ period of time $t$ (see Figure 1.3). Observe that,


Figure 1.3: An edge-colouring of the graph of Figure 1.2. Observe that the number of colours used, 3, is minimal, since there are 3 edges incident to $S_{2}$ and each one needs to receive a distinct colour.
for this assignment, only the structure of the graph itself is relevant, regardless of what is being modelled by the vertices and the edges. In fact, many other application problems ${ }^{2}$, from very different contexts, can be viewed as the problem of assigning numbers (hereinafter referred to as colours) to the edges of a graph in a manner that no two adjacent edges are assigned the same colour and the least amount of different colours is used. This is the problem of computing an optimal edge-colouring of a graph.

A $k$-edge-colouring of a graph $G$ is a function $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ such that $\mathscr{C}$ is a set with $k$ colours and $\varphi(e) \neq \varphi(f)$ whenever $e$ and $f$ are distinct adjacent edges. The least $k$ for which $G$ is $k$-edge-colourable is the chromatic index of $G$, denoted $\chi^{\prime}(G)$. For instance, the graph of Figure 1.3 has chromatic index 3, and the graph of Figure 1.4 on the next page has chromatic index 4.

Computing an optimal edge-colouring of a graph or simply computing its chromatic index are very important graph-theoretical problems, leading to open questions which have been studied through the last 50 years. As discussed in Chapter 2, some of these questions are closely related to central problems in Computer Science about the relations between the main computational complexity classes. The present work aims to contribute in gathering more knowledge about these open questions.

[^1]

Figure 1.4: A 4-edge-colouring of the graph which models the constellation of Boötes. Since there are 4 edges incident to the vertex $\boldsymbol{A}$, which represents the giant star Arcturus, this edge-colouring is optimal.

### 1.2 Edge-colouring in real-world applications

In addition to the theoretical motivation behind edge-colouring problems, their importance and relevance are also justified by some real-world applications. Alice's problem described in the beginning of this chapter is actually a simplification of the problem of link scheduling by communication protocols in sensor networks (Gandham et al., 2005). A pair of Alice's sensors can send and receive messages to and from each other at the same time, something that usually cannot happen with real-world sensors. Even so, computing an edge-colouring of the corresponding graph may be an important step to compute a feasible link schedule for a sensor network. For instance, Gandham et al. (2005) present a distributed algorithm which first computes a nearoptimal edge-colouring (note the importance of distributedness for the context of sensor networks). Then, once the edge-colouring has been computed, they show how to obtain a "TDMA MAC schedule which enables two-way communication between every pair of neighbours" (Ibid.) using at most twice as many time slots as the number of colours used if the graph is acyclic, or "approximately twice" if the graph is sparse.

Still in the context of communication protocols, edge-colouring appears interestingly in some challenging problems concerning modern high-performance networks. Consider, for example, the problem of assigning wavelengths to connection requests in optical networks with wavelength-division multiplexing, minimising the total amount of wavelengths used. In this problem, each connection request must be assigned a path between the requesting pair of nodes and a wavelength for the transmission, in a manner that no two connection requests whose paths intersect are assigned the same wavelength. This can be modelled as the graph-theoretical problem of computing an optimal path-colouring of the corresponding graph $G$ (Erlebach and Jansen, 2001), which is equivalent to the problem of computing an optimal edge-colouring of an associated multigraph when $G$ is an undirected tree (Ibid.).

Other applications on scheduling have been explored, like process scheduling in production control (Williamson et al., 1997) and match scheduling in games (Burke
et al., 2004, Sect. 5.6; Skiena, 2008, Sect. 16.8; Januario et al., 2016). As a particular case of the latter, consider the problem of organising a tournament with $n$ teams which are supposed to play against each other pairwise, in a manner that no team can play in more than one match per day and the tournament lasts the least as possible. This problem can be modelled as the problem of edge-colouring complete graphs. The complete graph on $n$ vertices, denoted $K_{n}$, is the $n$-vertex graph wherein all vertices are pairwise adjacent (see Figure 1.5). As it shall be demonstrated in Section 1.4, one of the earliest results on edge-colouring is that $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right)=n-1$ if $n$ is even, or $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right)=n$ if $n$ is odd.


Figure 1.5: The $K_{3}$, also known as triangle

### 1.3 Some basic graph-theoretical concepts

We have already defined in Section 1.2 terms such as graph, vertex, edge, and edge-colouring. Before we can continue our discussion, we briefly introduce some other necessary basic graph-theoretical concepts in this section, which the reader may choose to skip. Other definitions appear in other parts of this document, preferably presented through the text as soon as they are required. It is important to remark that exhaustively covering all classical graph-theoretical concepts is not the purpose of this work. Therefore, terms and notation usage which are not explicitly defined anywhere should always be assumed to follow their meanings in the textbooks of Bondy and Murty (2008) and Diestel (2010).

Although this work deals mainly with simple graphs, in some results we also use multigraphs. In a multigraph, there may be multiple - or parallel - edges between a pair of vertices (see Figure 1.6). The multigraphs considered in this work are always


Figure 1.6: The Shannon multigraph
loopless and undirected, which means that we can define formally a multigraph as a pair $\mathcal{G}=(V, E)$ wherein $V$ is a finite set and $E$ is a finite multiset, being each element of $E$ an edge $u v$ with $u, v \in V$. Throughout this text, we shall use the term graph to refer always to a simple graph, in contrast to the term multigraph. Other graph-theoretical concepts are defined for multigraphs analogously to their corresponding concepts for graphs and follow the same notation.

Let $G$ be a graph. The complement of $G$, denoted $\bar{G}$, is the graph defined by $V(\bar{G}):=V(G)$ and $E(\bar{G}):=\{u v: u, v \in V(G), u \neq v$, and $u v \notin E(G)\}$. Now, let $u \in V(G)$. The set of neighbours of $u$ in $G$ (i.e. the set of vertices adjacent to $u$ in $G$ ) and the set
of edges incident to $u$ in $G$ are denoted $N_{G}(u)$ and $\partial_{G}(u)$, respectively. The number of elements in $\partial_{G}(u)$ is the degree of $u$ in $G$ and is denoted $d_{G}(u)$. Also, for any $\emptyset \neq X \subsetneq V(G)$, the set $\partial_{G}(X):=\{u v \in V(G): u \in X$ and $v \notin X\}$ is the cut induced by $X$ in $G$. If $X=V(G)$, we define $\partial_{G}(X):=\emptyset$, although we do not call this set a cut. The vertex $u$ is said to be universal in $G$ if $N_{G}(u) \cup\{u\}=V(G)$.

The maximum degree of any vertex of a graph $G$ is denoted $\Delta(G)$, or simply $\Delta$ when free of ambiguity. The minimum degree of $G$ is denoted $\delta(G)$, or simply $\delta$. The vertices of degree $\Delta$ in $G$ are the majors of $G$. For example, in the graph of Figure 1.4 (p. 13), the only major is the vertex marked $A$. If all vertices of a graph $G$ have the same degree $d$, then $G$ is said to be $d$-regular, or simply regular, being $d(G):=d$. A graph is said to be cubic if it is 3-regular, like the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7).


Figure 1.7: The Petersen graph
Let $n$ be a positive integer. The path with $n$ vertices, denoted $P_{n}$, is the graph defined by $V\left(P_{n}\right):=\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}\right\}$ and $E\left(P_{n}\right):=\left\{u_{i} u_{i+1}: 0 \leqslant i<n-1\right\}$, in which case we refer to $u_{0}$ and $u_{n-1}$ as the outer vertices of the path, as well as to $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n-2}$ as the inner vertices. The length of the path $P_{n}$ is its number of edges, that is, $n-1$. The cycle of length $n$, denoted $C_{n}$ and defined only if $n \geqslant 3$, is the graph defined by $V\left(C_{n}\right):=\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}\right\}$ and $E\left(C_{n}\right)=\left\{u_{i} u_{(i+1) \bmod n}: 0 \leqslant i \leqslant n-1\right\}$. A cycle is said to be even (resp. odd) if, of course, its length is even (resp. odd).

A homomorphism from a graph $G_{1}$ to a graph $G_{2}$ is a function $\lambda: V\left(G_{1}\right) \rightarrow V\left(G_{2}\right)$ such that $\lambda(u) \lambda(v) \in E\left(G_{2}\right)$ for all $u v \in E\left(G_{1}\right)$. If $\lambda$ is also bijective and $\lambda(u) \lambda(v) \notin E\left(G_{2}\right)$ for all $u v \notin E\left(G_{1}\right)$, then $\lambda$ is said to be an isomorphism between $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, and the graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are said to be isomorphic (see Figure 1.8). If $\lambda$ is an isomorphism


Figure 1.8: A labelling of the vertices of two graphs which identifies their isomorphism
and $G_{1}=G_{2}=: G$, then $\lambda$ is said to be an automorphism on $G$. A graph $G$ is said to be symmetric if, for all $u v$ and all $x y$ in $E(G)$, there is an automorphism $\lambda$ on $G$ such that $\lambda(u)=x$ and $\lambda(v)=y$. The Petersen graph is an example of a symmetric graph.

A graph $H$ is said to be a subgraph of a graph $G$ if $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$. A spanning subgraph of $G$ is a subgraph $H$ of $G$ such that $V(H)=V(G)$. A $\Delta$-subgraph
of $G$ is a subgraph of $G$ with the same maximum degree as $G$. The subgraph of $G$ induced by some $U \subseteq V(G)$, denoted $G[U]$, is the graph defined by $V(G[U]):=U$ and $E(G[U]):=\{u v \in E(G): u, v \in U\}$. The core of $G$, denoted $\Lambda[G]$, is the subgraph of $G$ induced by its majors. The subgraph of $G$ induced by some $F \subseteq E(G)$, denoted $G[F]$, is defined by $E(G[F]):=F$ and $V(G[F]):=\{u \in V(G): u v \in F$ for some $v \in V(G)\}$. An induced $H$ in $G$ is a subgraph of $G$ induced by some $U \subseteq V(G)$ and isomorphic to $H$. The graph $G$ is said to be $H$-free if it has no induced $H$. For example, the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7) is $P_{k}$-free for all $k \geqslant 8$, and all its induced cycles have length 5 or 6 , although it contains non-induced cycles of greater length. When we say that $v_{1} \cdots v_{k}$ is a cycle (path) in $G$, it does not necessarily mean that this cycle (path) is induced.

A clique on a graph $G$ is a set $K \subseteq V(G)$ which induces a complete graph. An independent set on $G$ is a set $I \subseteq V(G)$ which induces an edgeless graph. A graph $G$ is said to be bipartite if $V(G)$ can be partitioned in two non-empty independent sets $A$ and $B$, called the parts of the bipartition. A standard result is that a graph is bipartite if and only if it has no odd cycle (Bondy and Murty, 2008; Diestel, 2010). Given two positive integers $r$ and $s$, the complete bipartite graph $K_{r, s}$ is the bipartite graph with $r$ vertices in $A$ and $s$ in $B$ such that $a b \in E\left(K_{r, s}\right)$ for all $a \in A$ and all $b \in B$. A star is a $K_{1, n}$ for some positive integer $n$.

A graph $G$ with $V(G) \neq \emptyset$ is said to be connected if there is a path between any pair of vertices, and biconnected if $|V(G)|>2$ and if $G$ and $G-u$ are connected for all $u \in V(G)$. The connected components (or simply components) of $G$ are its maximal connected subgraphs. The biconnected components of $G$ are its maximal biconnected subgraphs. If $x \in V(G) \cup E(G)$ and $G-x$ has more components than $G$, then $x$ is said to be: an articulation point (also cut vertex) if $x \in V(G)$; a bridge (also cut edge) if $x \in E(G)$. A tree is a connected graph with no cycles, hence all trees are bipartite. A forest is a disjoint union of trees.

### 1.4 Edge-colouring complete graphs and bipartite graphs

As we further discuss in Chapter 2, computing an optimal edge-colouring of a graph or simply its chromatic index are $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard problems in general (Holyer, 1981). However, when dealing with graphs which satisfy certain properties, the problems may become easy (that is, polynomial). For example, the chromatic index of a complete graph can be determined only by the parity of its order, as Theorem 1.2 establishes. Moreover, an optimal edge-colouring of a complete graph can also be computed efficiently, since the proof of Theorem 1.2 on the next page is constructive and yields a polynomial-time optimal edge-colouring algorithm.

Before we proceed to Theorem 1.2, we make an observation which shall be used in this proof and in other arguments in this text.

Observation 1.1. Any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices has at most $\chi^{\prime}(G)\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ edges.
Proof. For any colour $\alpha$ in a $k$-edge-colouring, if the number of edges coloured $\alpha$ is $t$, then the number of vertices which are ends of an $\alpha$-coloured edge is exactly $2 t$. Therefore, $2 t \leqslant n$, which implies $t \leqslant\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ (because $t$ is an integer). Summing this inequality over all the $k$ colours, we get $|E(G)| \leqslant k\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$.

The following is a standard result on edge-colouring shown, for example, by Behzad et al. (1967), but known much earlier.

Theorem 1.2. The chromatic index of the graph $K_{n}$ is $n-1$, if $n$ is even, or $n$, if $n$ is odd.
Proof. Theorem 1.2 Considering the set of vertices of the $K_{n}$ as the set of labels $V\left(K_{n}\right)=$ $\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$, we first show that the function $\psi_{1}: E\left(K_{n}\right) \rightarrow\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi_{1}(u v):=(u+v) \bmod n \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is an $n$-edge-colouring of the $K_{n}$, regardless of the parity of $n$ (see Figure 1.9). In order to demonstrate this, it suffices to prove, for any $u v$ and any $u w$ in $E\left(K_{n}\right)$ such that $\psi_{1}(u v)=\psi_{1}(u w)$, that $v=w$. But this follows immediately from the fact that $u+v \equiv u+w(\bmod n)$ implies $v=w$ by elementary modular arithmetic.


Figure 1.9: The $n$-edge-colouring of the $K_{n}$ given by the function $\psi_{1}$ in the cases wherein $n$ is (a) 3 and (b) 4. In the former case, the edge-colouring shown is optimal. In the latter, it is not.

We have proved that $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \leqslant n$. Now we shall prove that $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \geqslant n$ in the case wherein $n$ is odd. We know by Observation 1.1 that $\left|E\left(K_{n}\right)\right| \leqslant \chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right)(n-1) / 2$ if $n$ is odd. Since $\left|E\left(K_{n}\right)\right|=n(n-1) / 2$, this implies, as we wanted,

$$
\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \geqslant \frac{2 n(n-1)}{2(n-1)}=n \quad \text { for odd } n .
$$

It remains to show that $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right)=n-1$ when $n$ is even. Since exactly $n-1$ edges are incident to each vertex of the $K_{n}$, we know that $\chi^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \geqslant n-1$. Hence, considering that $n$ is even, it suffices to exhibit an $(n-1)$-edge-colouring of the $K_{n}$. We claim that such an edge-colouring is the function $\psi_{2}: E\left(K_{n}\right) \rightarrow\{0, \ldots, n-2\}$ defined by

$$
\psi_{2}(u v):= \begin{cases}(u+v) \bmod (n-1), & \text { if } u, v \in\{0, \ldots, n-2\}  \tag{1.2}\\ (2 u) \bmod (n-1), & \text { if } v=n-1 \\ (2 v) \bmod (n-1), & \text { if } u=n-1,\end{cases}
$$

In order to prove the claim, we take two edges $u v$ and $u w$ of the $K_{n}$ and we assume $\psi_{2}(u v)=\psi_{2}(u w)$. We shall prove that $v=w$. We have the following cases:

1. if $u, v, w \in\{0, \ldots, n-2\}$, then $u+v \equiv u+w(\bmod (n-1))$, which implies $v=w$;
2. if $u=n-1$, then $v, w \in\{0, \ldots, n-2\}$ and $2 v \equiv 2 w(\bmod (n-1))$, which also implies $v=w$ since $n-1$ is odd;
3. if $v$ or $w$, say $v$, is $n-1$, and if we assume $v \neq w$, then $u, w \in\{0, \ldots, n-2\}$ and $2 u \equiv u+w(\bmod (n-1))$, which implies $w=u$, a contradiction.


Figure 1.10: The canonical edge-colouring of the $K_{4}$

The function $\psi_{1}$ (resp. $\psi_{2}$ ) defined in (1.1) (resp. (1.2)) is hereinafter referred to as the canonical edge-colouring of the $K_{n}$ with $n$ odd (resp. even). Figures 1.9(a) and 1.10 show the canonical edge-colourings of the $K_{3}$ and the $K_{4}$, respectively.

It is clear that $\chi^{\prime}(G) \geqslant \Delta(G)$ for any graph $G$, since each edge incident to a vertex must receive a distinct colour (recall Figure 1.3, p. 12). Moreover, this bound is tight, since many (but not all) graphs satisfy $\chi^{\prime}(G)=\Delta(G)$. The classical result transcribed in Theorem 1.3 brings that this equality holds for all bipartite graphs.

Theorem 1.3 (Kőnig's Theorem (Kőnig, 1916 apud Stiebitz et al., 2012)). The chromatic index of any bipartite graph is equal to its maximum degree.

In the proof of Theorem 1.3, and in many other proofs in this document, being $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ an edge-colouring of any (not necessarily bipartite) graph $G$, we say that some colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ is missing at some $u \in V$, and that $u$ misses $\alpha$, if no edge incident to $u$ is coloured $\alpha$. Also, being $\beta \in \mathscr{C} \backslash\{\alpha\}$, we use $G_{\varphi}[\alpha, \beta]$ (or simply $G[\alpha, \beta]$ when free of ambiguity) to denote the subgraph of $G$ induced only by the edges which have been coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$ by $\varphi$, including as isolated vertices the vertices which miss both $\alpha$ and $\beta$. Each component of $G_{\varphi}[\alpha, \beta]$ is often referred to as an $\alpha / \beta$-component. It is straightforward to verify that an $\alpha / \beta$-component is always a path or an even cycle (see Figure 1.11), since paths and cycles are the connected graphs with $\Delta \leqslant 2$ and, by Observation 1.1, odd cycles are not 2 -edge-colourable. If an $\alpha / \beta$-component is a path (resp. an even cycle), it may be referred to as an $\alpha / \beta$-path (resp. an $\alpha / \beta$-cycle).


Figure 1.11: A 4-edge-colouring of the Petersen graph using the set of colours $\{1,2,3,4\}$ and the $1 / 2-$ components (one path and one cycle) detached. An argument for why the Petersen graph is not 3-edgecolourable shall be discussed in Chapter 2 (Observation 2.2, p. 31).

Proof of Kőnig's Theorem (Theorem 1.3). Let $G$ be a bipartite graph and let $\mathscr{C}$ be a set with $\Delta$ colours. We shall construct an edge-colouring $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ edge by edge.

For each edge $u v$ considered, if there is some $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at both $u$ and $v$, then $u v$ can be coloured $\alpha$ and we proceed to the next edge. However, if no colour of $\mathscr{C}$ is missing at both $u$ and $v$, let $\alpha$ be a colour missing at $u$ and $\beta$ be colour missing at $v$. Since $u$ misses $\alpha$, the $\alpha / \beta$-component to which $u$ belongs is a path $P$, not a cycle, and $u$ is an outer vertex of this path. Furthermore, $v$ cannot be in $P$, otherwise $P$ would be an even-order (odd-length) path with $u$ and $v$ as its outer vertices, and $P+u v$ would thus be an odd cycle in G. Ergo, by exchanging the colours along $P$, we obtain $\beta$ as a colour missing at both $u$ and $v$, then the edge $u v$ can be coloured $\beta$.

### 1.5 Vizing's recolouring procedure

We have shown in Section 1.4 that an optimal edge-colouring of a complete or bipartite graph can be computed efficiently. However, back to Alice's problem described in the beginning of this chapter, it may be the case that her graph $G$, whose edges she wants to colour, is neither complete nor bipartite. In fact, Alice may have no information whatsoever about the structure of $G$. She knows only that $\chi^{\prime}(G) \geqslant \Delta(G)$, since each edge incident to a vertex must receive a distinct colour (recall Figure 1.3, p. 12). Surprisingly, Vizing's Theorem, for which we shall transcribe a proof in the sequel, establishes a breakthrough upper bound for $\chi^{\prime}(G)$ for every (simple) graph $G$.

Theorem 1.4 (Vizing's Theorem (Vizing, 1964 apud Stiebitz et al., 2012)). The chromatic index of a graph $G$ is not greater than $\Delta(G)+1$.

Graphs which have chromatic index equal to its maximum degree $\Delta$, such as the diamond (Figure 1.2, p. 12), the graph of the constellation of Boötes (Figure 1.4, p. 13), and all bipartite graphs (recall Theorem 1.3, p. 18), are called Class 1. On the other hand, graphs which do not admit a $\Delta$-edge-colouring, such as the $K_{n}$ when $n$ is odd (recall Theorem 1.2, p. 17) and the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7, p. 15), have chromatic index equal to $\Delta+1$ and are called Class 2. In view of Vizing's breakthrough, the problem of deciding the chromatic index of a graph is often referred to as the Classification Problem, but we avoid this nomenclature in this work.

Vizing's proof for Theorem 1.4 uses a polynomial-time recolouring procedure to construct a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring of any graph edge by edge. Before discussing Vizing's recolouring procedure in details, we highlight a key aspect about Vizing's proof which substantially distinguishes it from the proofs in Section 1.4.

Recall that the proofs in Section 1.4 also yield polynomial-time algorithms to construct the optimal edge-colourings edge by edge. However, at each edge uv considered to receive a colour, we have enough information about the edge-colouring constructed so far to take advantage of it. In the proof for complete graphs, we know that evaluating a simple modular arithmetic expression will not create colour conflicts. In the proof for bipartite graphs, we know from the non-existence of odd cycles that $u$ and $v$ cannot be in the same $\alpha / \beta$-path for any $\alpha$ missing at $u$ and any $\beta$ missing at $v$.

Differently from the proofs in Section 1.4, Vizing's proof deals with graphs with no particular structure given, wherein almost nothing is known about the edgecolouring $\varphi$ constructed so far while colouring an edge $u v$. This is why a recolouring procedure plays a most important role in Vizing's proof: it shows that no matter how unfavourable the unknown edge-colouring $\varphi$ can be, in every possible case we can recolour some edges of the graph in order to make $\varphi$ favourable. This same principle
is applied in the proofs of our own presented in this thesis when dealing with graphs with not so much structure given, for which we extend Vizing's recolouring procedure.

Definition 1.5 and Lemmas 1.6-1.9 together present Vizing's recolouring procedure. In this definition and in these lemmas, $G=(V, E)$ is a graph and $\varphi: E \backslash\{u v\} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ is an edge-colouring of $G-u v$ for some $u v \in E$.

Definition 1.5. A sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of distinct neighbours of $u$ in $G$ is a Vizing's recolouring fan for $u v$ if $v_{0}=v$ and, for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}, v_{i}$ misses the colour $\alpha_{i}:=$ $\varphi\left(u v_{i+1}\right)$. The fan is said to be complete if $v_{k}$ misses a colour which is also missing at $u$.

It is important to notice that, since the vertices $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of a recolouring fan are all distinct, the colours $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}$ are all distinct colours not missing at $u$.

Lemma 1.6. If there is a complete Vizing's recolouring fan for $u v$, then $G$ admits an edge-colouring using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}$.

Proof. We perform a procedure for $i$ from $k$ down to 0 . At the beginning of each iteration it is invariant that both $u$ and $v_{i}$ miss $\alpha_{i}$. So, we simply assign $\alpha_{i}$ to $u v_{i}$. If $i=0$, we are done. If $i>0$, now $u$ misses $\alpha_{i-1}$, which is still missing at $v_{i-1}$, so we decrement $i$ and continue.

The procedure described in the proof of Lemma 1.6 is referred to as the decay of the colours of the Vizing's recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ (see Figure 1.12),


Figure 1.12: A complete Vizing's recolouring fan before and after the decay of the colours. The dotted lines indicate the colours missing at the vertices, and the dashed line the edge to be coloured.

Lemma 1.7. If there is a Vizing's recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ such that, for some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ and some $\alpha_{k} \in \mathscr{C} \backslash\left\{\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}, \beta\right\}$ missing at $v_{k}$, the vertices $u$ and $v_{k}$ are not in the same $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-component, then $G$ admits an edge-colouring using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}$.

Proof. The $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-component to which $v_{k}$ belongs is a path $P$ which has $v_{k}$ as one of its outer vertices. Exchanging the colours along $P$ brings $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$. Since the colours $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}, \beta$ are all distinct, the colour exchanging operation does not compromise the recolouring fan (see Figure 1.13 on the next page). Hence, the sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is now a complete Vizing's recolouring fan for $u v$, so applying Lemma 1.6 concludes the proof.

Lemma 1.8. If there is a Vizing's recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ such that $v_{k}$ misses the colour $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$, then $G$ admits an edge-colouring using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}$.



Figure 1.13: A recolouring fan under the conditions of Lemma 1.7 before and after the colour exchanging operation along the $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-path $P$, which is depicted as a waved curve. The tiny colour name near $v_{k}$ indicates the colour of the edge of $P$ incident to $v_{k}$.

Proof. First remark that $j<k-1$, since $\alpha_{k-1}=\varphi\left(u v_{k}\right)$. If the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ satisfies Lemma 1.7, we are done. Otherwise, let $\beta$ be a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ and let $P$ (clearly a path) be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component to which $v_{k}$ belongs. We know that $u$ and $v_{j}$ are in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component, which is a path $Q$ disjoint from $P$ having $u$ and $v_{j}$ as outer vertices (see Figure 1.14(a)), otherwise Lemma 1.7 would have been satisfied by $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$. Hence, exchanging the colours of the edges along $P$ yields $\beta$ as a colour

(a)

(b)

Figure 1.14: An illustration for the proof of Lemma 1.8
missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$, and $\alpha_{j}$ as a colour still missing at $v_{j}$ (see Figure 1.14(b)). Because the colours $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}, \beta$ are all distinct, now $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is a complete Vizing's recolouring fan for $u v$, so the proof is concluded by Lemma 1.6.

Lemma 1.9. If all the neighbours of $u$ in $G$ miss at least one colour of $\mathscr{C}$ each, then $G$ admits an edge-colouring using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}$.

Proof. First observe that the unitary sequence $v\left(=: v_{0}\right)$ is a Vizing's recolouring fan for $u v$. If this recolouring fan is complete (that is, if there is some colour missing at both $u$ and $v$ ), we are done by Lemma 1.6. Otherwise, since $u$ has finitely many neighbours, each of which misses at least one colour of $\mathscr{C}$, we can continue to construct the recolouring fan until we reach a fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ such that $v_{k}$ misses some colour also missing at $u$, satisfying Lemma 1.6 , or $v_{k}$ misses $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$, satisfying Lemma 1.8. Then, we apply the corresponding proof in order to colour $u v$.

By Lemma 1.9, Vizing's Theorem follows immediately.
Proof of Vizing's Theorem (Theorem 1.4, p. 19). Let $\mathscr{C}$ be a set with $\Delta+1$ colours. We shall construct an edge-colouring $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ edge by edge. The proof follows by observing that we are using more colours than the degree of any vertex and hence, at each edge $u v$ considered, the edge $u v$ satisfies the condition of Lemma 1.9.

We remark that our exposition of Vizing's recolouring procedure, which deals only with simple graphs, is slightly simpler than Vizing's original exposition, which also considers multigraphs. In fact, with his procedure Vizing showed that the chromatic index of any multigraph $\mathcal{G}$ is not greater than $\Delta(\mathcal{G})+\mu(\mathcal{G})$, being $\mu(\mathcal{G})$ the multiplicity of $\mathcal{G}$, i.e. the largest number of edges with the same pair of end-vertices, is denoted $\mu(\mathcal{G})$. Observe that this upper bound is tight: an example of a multigraph $\mathcal{G}$ with chromatic index exactly $\Delta(\mathcal{G})+\mu(\mathcal{G})$ is the Shannon multigraph (Figure 1.6, p. 14).

### 1.6 Main contribution and structure of this work

We present novel polynomial-time procedures for optimally edge-colouring large sets of graphs. Our main $\Delta$-edge-colourability proofs are based on new recolouring procedures which extend Vizing's recolouring procedure discussed in Section 1.5. We close this introductory chapter by announcing the main results achieved by this work and showing how this document is organised. Along with the main theorems stated in this section, other results can be found in the chapters that follow.

Since Vizing showed that there can be only two possibilities for the chromatic index of any graph, and since Holyer (1981) proved that deciding between these two possibilities is an $\mathcal{N P}$-hard problem for graphs in general, there has been much work aimed at determining the computational complexity of restrictions of the problem. Table 1.1 shows some graph classes in which the problem has been already proved to be polynomial or $\mathcal{N P}$-hard, as well as some graph classes in which the complexity remains open, with only partial results being known.

Table 1.1: Some results from the literature about the computational complexity of the problem of deciding the chromatic index of an $n$-vertex graph belonging to some restricted graph class. For classes wherein the problem remains open, references are provided as long as they contain further partial, but too technical, results than the results listed for the subclasses, if any. Some results are covered by others, but are displayed nevertheless for historical purposes. Classes which are entirely contained in more than one of the listed classes are displayed only once. For example, indifference graphs appear only below chordal graphs, although they are also a subclass of dually chordal graphs.

| Graph class | Complexity | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bipartite graphs | polynomial | Kőnig (1916 apud Stiebitz et al., 2012) |
| clique graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\rightarrow$ line graphs of bipartite graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\checkmark$ dually chordal graphs $\bigsqcup$ with odd $\Delta$ | open polynomial | Figueiredo et al. (1999) |
| cobipartite graphs | open | Machado and Figueiredo (2010) |
| $d$-regular graphs | $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard | see subclasses |
| $\rightarrow$ with odd $n$ | polynomial | standard, see Chapter 2 |
| $\rightarrow$ with $d=3$ | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Holyer (1981) |
| $\square$ which are triangle-free | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991); Koreas (1997) |

Table 1.1: Some results from the literature about the computational complexity of the problem of deciding the chromatic index of an $n$-vertex graph belonging to some restricted graph class (continued)

| Graph class | Complexity | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\checkmark$ with any constant $d \geqslant 3$ | $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard | Leven and Galil (1983) |
| $\bigsqcup$ which are $k$-partite for any constant $k \geqslant 3$ | $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard | Machado et al. (2010) |
| $\bigsqcup$ with girth at least $k$ for any constant $k \geqslant 3$ | $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $d \geqslant n / 2$ | open |  |
| $\rightarrow$ with $d \geqslant(6 / 7) n \geqslant 0.86 n$ | polynomial | Chetwynd and Hilton (1985) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $d \geqslant((\sqrt{7}-1) / 2) n \geqslant 0.83 n$ | polynomial | Chetwynd and Hilton (1989a) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $d \geqslant(1 / 2+\varepsilon) n$ for any $\varepsilon>0$ and sufficiently large $n$ | polynomial | Perkovic and Reed (1997) |
| graphs with $\Delta>n / 3$ | open | Chetwynd and Hilton (1986) <br> Hilton and Johnson (1987) |
| $\checkmark$ with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ | open | Chetwynd and Hilton (1984a) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-3$ | polynomial |  |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-1$ | polynomial | Plantholt (1981) |
| $b$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-2$ and even $n$ | polynomial | Plantholt (1983) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-2$ and odd $n$ | polynomial | Chetwynd and Hilton (1984b) |
| $\downarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-3$ and even $n$ | polynomial | Chetwynd and Hilton (1984a) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant n-3$ and odd $n$ | polynomial | Chetwynd and Hilton (1989b) |
| partial $k$-trees (i.e. graphs with treewidth at most $k$ ) for any constant $k \geqslant 1$ | polynomial | Bodlaender (1990) |
| $\bigsqcup k$-outerplanar graphs for any constant $k \geqslant 1$ | polynomial | Bodlaender (1990) |
| $\checkmark$ series-parallel graphs | polynomial | Johnson (1985) |
| $\checkmark$ cacti (i.e. chordless graphs) | polynomial | Machado et al. (2013) |
| join graphs | open | De Simone and Mello (2006) |
|  |  | De Simone and Galluccio $(2009,2013)$ Machado and Figueiredo (2010) |
| $\checkmark$ which are regular | polynomial | De Simone and Galluccio (2007) |
| line graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| powers of cycles | polynomial | Meidanis (1998) |
| perfect graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\checkmark$ comparability graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\rightarrow$ split-comparability graphs | polynomial | Sousa Cruz et al. (2017) |
| $\checkmark$ which are $d$-regular for any constant $d \geqslant 3$ | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Cai and Ellis (1991) |
| $\checkmark$ cographs | open |  |
| $\rightarrow$ quasi-thresholds | polynomial | Plantholt (1981) |
| $\rightarrow$ complete multipartite graphs | polynomial | Hoffman and Rodger (1992) |
| $\rightarrow$ chordal graphs | open | Figueiredo et al. (2000) |
| $\checkmark$ indifference graphs | open |  |
| $\rightarrow$ with odd $\Delta$ | polynomial | Figueiredo et al. (1997b) |
| $\square$ split-indifference | polynomial | Ortiz Z. et al. (1998) |
| $b$ which are twin-free | polynomial | Figueiredo et al. (2003) |

Table 1.1: Some results from the literature about the computational complexity of the problem of deciding the chromatic index of an $n$-vertex graph belonging to some restricted graph class (continued)

| Graph class | Complexity | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| planar graphs | open |  |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \leqslant 3$ | polynomial | Tait (1880) |
|  |  | Appel and Haken (1977) |
|  |  | Appel et al. (1977) |
| $\checkmark$ with $\Delta \geqslant 7$ | polynomial | Sanders and Zhao (2001) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant 8$ | polynomial | Vizing (1965) |
| unichord-free graphs | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Machado et al. (2010) |
| $b$ which are $C_{4}$-free | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Machado et al. (2010) |
| $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta \geqslant 4$ | polynomial | Machado et al. (2010) |
| $b$ which are $C_{6}$-free | $\mathcal{N P}$-hard | Machado et al. (2010) |
| $\square_{\text {which }}$ are $\left\{C_{4}, C_{6}\right\}$-free | polynomial | Machado et al. (2010) |

The proofs for all polynomiality results in Table 1.1 consist of characterising the chomatic index of the graphs in some given graph class in terms of some polynomialtime verifiable property, showing also a polynomial-time algorithm for $\Delta$-edge-colouring the Class 1 graphs of that class. This leads to a polynomial-time algorithm for optimal edge-colouring all graphs in these graph classes, since for the Class 2 graphs one can use Vizing's algorithm. All constructive $\Delta$-edge-colourability proofs in the works listed in Table 1.1 take advantage of the structural information of the graph classes dealt. It is interesting to observe that in graph classes with a little less structural information, the problem remains open, even with evidences for polynomiality and even in face of the combined effort of so many researches over the last decades.

In order to attack graph classes with not so much structural information, recolouring seems to be a convenient strategy. In fact, the recolouring procedures which we present allows us to construct $\Delta$-edge-colourings even when we do not have much control over them. These procedures are extensions of Vizing's recolouring procedure in the sense that, when constructing a recolouring fan for an edge $u v$, if all vertices in the fan actually miss a colour, then our recolouring procedures behave like Vizing's. However, since we have only $\Delta$ colours available, the construction of the recolouring fan may be led to a neighbour of $u$ which does not actually miss a colour (see Figure 1.15 on the next page). We show how to circumvent this problem if the graphs satisfy the conditions of our theorems.

Theorem 1.10 below is one of the main results which we have achieved with our recolouring procedures. In the statement, referring to the sum of the degrees of the neighbours of a vertex $u$ as the local degree sum of $u$, we define the graph class $\mathscr{X}$, showing that every graph in $\mathscr{X}$ is Class 1.

Theorem 1.10. Let $\mathscr{X}$ be the class of the graphs with maximum degree $\Delta$ whose majors have local degree sum bounded above by $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$. All graphs in $\mathscr{X}$ are Class 1.

Remark that only the local degree sums of the majors are relevant to bound above by $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$, since the local degree sums of the non-majors already satisfy this bound, which implies that graphs with unitary core are trivially in $\mathscr{X}$.

As it is usual in the context of random graphs, we say that almost every graph, under some random graph model, satisfies some property $\mathscr{P}$ if the probability of a


Figure 1.15: A Vizing's recolouring fan $v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ for an edge $u v_{0}$ in a graph $G$ under a $\Delta$-edge-colouring $\varphi$ of $G-u v_{0}$. In this work, we refer to this graph $G$ as the crab claw graph. Remark that the vertex $v_{0}$ misses $\varphi\left(u v_{1}\right)$, the vertex $v_{1}$ misses $\varphi\left(u v_{2}\right)$, the vertex $v_{2}$ misses $\varphi\left(u v_{3}\right)$, but there is no colour missing at $v_{3}$. Hence, despite the crab claw being a Class 1 graph, we cannot continue to construct this fan.
random $n$-vertex graph ${ }^{3}$ to satisfy $\mathscr{P}$ goes to 1 as $n$ goes to $\infty$. In this work, we always consider the $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ random graph model.

Concerning Theorem 1.10, we further show that almost every graph is in $\mathscr{X}$, which means that $\mathscr{X}$ is a large graph class (see Figure 1.16). Actually, we show that


Figure 1.16: The graph class $\mathscr{X}$ and the set of all graphs partitioned according to Vizing's Theorem
almost every $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph is in $\mathscr{X}$ even given that the graph has cycles in the core. The reason why this is relevant is because the core of almost every graph is unitary (Erdős and Wilson, 1977), hence acyclic, and because every graph with acyclic core is already known to be Class 1 (Fournier, 1977).

A join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is the result of the join of two disjoint graphs $G_{1}=\left(V_{1}, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V_{2}, E_{2}\right)$, that is, the graph given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V\left(G_{1} * G_{2}\right):=V_{1} \cup V_{2} \quad \text { and } \\
& E\left(G_{1} * G_{2}\right):=E_{1} \cup E_{2} \cup\left\{v_{1} v_{2}: v_{1} \in V_{1} \text { and } v_{2} \in V_{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 1.17 on the next page depicts two graphs and their join. Another example of a join graph is the diamond (Figure 1.2, p. 12), which is the $K_{2} * \overline{K_{2}}$. Join graphs constitute an important graph class which appears in perfect graph theory (Lovász, 1972) and in efficient algorithms for many optimisation problems (Chvátal, 1975; Möhring, 1985). Moreover, a remarkable subclass of the join graphs are the (connected) $P_{4}$-free graphs (Corneil et al., 1981), mostly referred to as cographs in the literature. The computational

[^2]

Figure 1.17: Two graphs, $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, and the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$
complexity of determining the chromatic index of cographs is one of the open problems listed in the famous David Johnson's $\mathcal{N P}$-completeness column (Johnson, 1985). As shown by Corneil et al. (1985) and Alon and Stav (2008), almost every $n$-vertex graph can be turned into a cograph with no more than $\frac{1}{2}\binom{n}{2}-\frac{1}{5} \eta n^{\frac{1}{2}}$ edge addition or deletion operations (Corneil et al., 1985; Alon and Stav, 2008), being $\eta$ a constant.

There has been a particular interest on edge-colouring join graphs in the last 15 years, because all $n$-vertex join graphs satisfy $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ and, as discussed in Chapter 2, a remarkable on edge-colouring suggests that the chromatic index can be decided in linear time for graphs with $\Delta$ this large (see Section 2.6 for more details). No polynomial-time algorithm is known for determining the chromatic index of a join graph yet, but some sufficient conditions for a join graph to be Class 1 have been found. This work explores more of these conditions, as well as novel decomposition techniques for edge-colouring join graphs. In particular, we propose the following conjecture, for which we present some evidences.

Conjecture 1.11. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be disjoint graphs such that $\left|V\left(G_{1}\right)\right| \leqslant\left|V\left(G_{2}\right)\right|$ without loss of generality. If $\Delta\left(G_{1}\right) \geqslant \Delta\left(G_{2}\right)$ and if the majors of $G_{1}$ induce an acyclic graph, then the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1 .

Some of the evidences presented for Conjecture 1.11 have been found by developing another extended recolouring procedure.

Being $G$ any graph with at least one vertex, the prism $G G$ is the graph obtained from two copies of $G$ by connecting with an edge each vertex in one copy to its corresponding vertex in the other. The complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ is the graph obtained from the graphs $G$ and $\bar{G}$ by connecting with an edge each vertex in $G$ to its corresponding vertex in $\bar{G}$. Figure 1.18 on the next page depicts the prism $K_{3} K_{3}$, also referred to as the triangular prism, and the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7, p. 15) is actually the complementary prism $C_{5} \overline{C_{5}}$. It is easy to see that all prisms are Class 1 and their edges can be optimally coloured in polynomial time, as the following observation clarifies:

Observation 1.12. The prism $G G$ is Class 1 for any graph $G$.
Proof. Using Vizing's Theorem (Theorem 1.4), we construct the same $(\Delta(G)+1)$-edgecolouring for both copies of $G$. Now, for each vertex $u$ in one of the copies, and being $u^{\prime}$


Figure 1.18: The prism graph $K_{3} K_{3}$, often referred to as the triangular prism
the corresponding vertex in the other copy, both $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ miss the same colours, so we can assign one of these colours to the edge $u u^{\prime}$.

We completely solve the edge-colouring problem for of non-regular complementary prisms, that is, we determine the chromatic index of the graphs in this graph class (see Theorem 1.13 below) and our proof is a polynomial-time algorithm to compute an optimal edge-colouring of any non-regular complementary prism.

Theorem 1.13. A complementary prism can be Class 2 only if it is a regular graph distinct from the $K_{2}$.

As argued by Haynes et al. (2009), complementary prisms constitute an important graph class, specially in the context of domination problems, as they generalise the concept of graph products and include important graphs, such as the Petersen graph. To the best of our knowledge, edge-colouring prisms and complementary prisms was not approached by any work in the literature.

This document is organised as follows:

- Chapter 2 discusses further results and theory developments found in the literature which are relevant for this work;
- Chapter 3 presents our first recolouring procedure and the proof for Theorem 1.10, as well as some other related results;
- Chapter 4 presents the evidences for Conjecture 1.11 and the proof for Theorem 1.13, as well as some other results on edge-colouring join graphs whose proofs are also constructive and yield polynomial-time procedures (not necessarily lying on recolouring);
- Chapter 5 presents some secondary results which we have found on the subject of total colouring during the development of our work on edge-colouring;
- Chapter 6 presents concluding remarks and discusses some challenges for future works.

Since we have avoided to concentrate all technical definitions in a single chapter or section, we have prepared a list of symbols in the beginning of the document and a short index in the end, in order to assist the reader in quickly recalling a specific term or notation usage. In the lexicographic sorting of the entries in the list of symbols and in the index, we have considered Greek letters as equivalent to their traditional transliterated counterparts in the Latin alphabet.

## 2 Further preliminaries

This chapter is organised as follows:

- Section 2.1 briefly presents a history of the origins of vertex and edge-colouring problems, relating it with the history of the Four Colour Theorem;
- Section 2.2 presents Vizing's Adjacency Lemma and other classical applications of Vizing's recolouring procedure in the literature;
- Section 2.3 discusses the relation of edge-colouring and matching and presents the classical result by Folkman and Fulkerson (1969) on the equitability property for edge-colourings;
- Section 2.4 briefly presents some computational complexity facts about edgecolouring;
- Section 2.5 defines some graph classes which are relevant for this work (in addition to the classes which have already been defined in Chapter 1) and also discusses some computational complexity aspects of edge-colouring problems when restricted to these graph classes;
- at last, Section 2.6 presents two major conjectures on edge-colouring which have been being subject of many works in the last 30 years, and which are closely related to the results of our own presented in the other chapters.


### 2.1 On the origins of main graph colouring problems

In 1852, the Irish mathematician William Hamilton received a letter from the British mathematician Augustus De Morgan, communicating a problem proposed by the South African mathematician Francis Guthrie. The problem came to De Morgan's knowledge by Guthrie's brother, a student of De Morgan. While trying to colour the map of England in a manner that no two adjacent regions were coloured the same, Guthrie realised that only four colours were necessary and conjectured that no map whatsoever would require more than this amount (see Figure 2.1 on the next page). Guthrie's conjecture (then called the Four Colour Conjecture, now Four Colour Theorem) remained open for over a century, inspiring the collaboration of several mathematicians, originating other problems in Combinatorics, and causing a deep development of many research branches. The first proof for the Four Colour Theorem was presented in 1977 (Appel and Haken, 1977; Appel et al., 1977) and was the first major proof in history to rely on the assistance of a computer, infeasible for a human to check by hand (Swart, 1980). A polynomial-time algorithm for 4-colouring any map was presented by Robertson et al. (1996). More on the history of the Four Colour Theorem can be found e.g. in Kubale (2004, Preface).

Regarding the regions of a map as vertices of a graph, whose edges are defined by the adjacencies between the corresponding regions, we reduce the problem of optimally


Figure 2.1: A 4-colouring of the map of Brazilian states using 4 shades of grey. Borders are depicted thick and white, which should not count as a colour.
colouring maps to the problem of computing an optimal vertex-colouring of a graph. A $k$-vertex-colouring (or simply $k$-colouring) of a graph $G$ is an assignment $\varphi: V(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ of colours from a set $\mathscr{C}$ with $|\mathscr{C}|=k$ to the vertices of $G$ in a manner that no two neighbours are assigned the same colour. The least $k$ for which $G$ is $k$-vertex-colourable is the chromatic number of $G$, denoted $\chi(G)$.

The corresponding graph of a map is clearly a planar graph, that is, a graph which can be embedded in the plane. We say that a graph can be embedded in a surface $S$ if it can be drawn on $S$ in a manner that two edges intersect if and only if they have a common end-vertex and only in that end-vertex. Since with a planar graph $G$ one can also easily obtain at least one map to which $G$ corresponds, the problems of optimally colouring maps and computing optimal vertex-colourings of planar graphs are equivalent. Therefore, the Four Colour Theorem is equivalent to the statement that the chromatic number of a planar graph is at most four.

The problem of deciding if a graph is 3 -vertex-colourable is one of the 21 NP complete problems in the remarkable work by Karp (1972). This problem remains $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete even when restricted to planar graphs Dailey (1980). Recall that deciding if a graph is 2 -vertex-colourable in actually the problem of deciding if a graph is bipartite, which can be standardly solvable in linear time.

In the earliest studies on the Four Colour Theorem (Conjecture, by that time), mathematicians found some very peculiar graphs: the snarks ${ }^{1}$. With this discover lies perhaps the origin of edge-colouring, since a snark is defined as a non-3-edgecolourable connected cubic bridgeless graph. The relevance of the snarks to the Four Colour Theorem comes from the following result by Tait in 1880:

Theorem 2.1 (Tait, 1880). The Four Colour Theorem is equivalent to the statement that no snark is planar.

[^3]The first snark to be found was the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7, p. 15), which, although credited to Petersen (1898), had already appeared in earlier works (Kempe, 1886). The proof for the non-3-edge-colourability of the Petersen graph is actually straightforward, once one knows the graph, and can be derived in many ways (Holton and Sheehan, 1992). It took almost 50 years for other snarks to be found, like the two 18 -vertex snarks by Blanuša (1946 apud Costa et al., 2015) and the 210 -vertex snark by Descartes ${ }^{2}$ (1948). Snarks were so named by Gardner (1976) after the mysterious creature or thing hunted in the nonsense poem The Hunting of the Snark, by Lewis Carroll. The first infinite family of snarks was shown by Isaacs (1975). Later it was also shown that the number of snarks of any even order $n$ is bounded below by $2^{(n-84) / 18}$ (Skupień, 2007).

Observation 2.2 (Petersen, 1898). The Petersen graph is not 3-edge-colourable.
Proof (Naserasr and Škrekovski, 2003). If there is a 3-edge-colouring of the Petersen graph, then in such an edge-colouring no vertex misses a colour, and we shall prove that each one of the three colours appears at least twice in the outer $C_{5}$, a contradiction. Since the $C_{5}$ is not 2-edge-colourable, each colour $\alpha$ in the supposed 3-edge-colouring must appear at least once in the inner $C_{5}$. So, let $u v$ be an $\alpha$-coloured edge of the inner $C_{5}$, and let $u^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ be the neighbour of $u$ and the neighbour of $v$, respectively, in the outer $C_{5}$. Recall that neither $u^{\prime}$ nor $v^{\prime}$ miss $\alpha$. Hence, since $u^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ are not adjacent to each other, there must be at least two $\alpha$-coloured edges in the outer $C_{5}$.

Another relation between vertex and edge-colouring is the fact that any edgecolouring of a graph $G$ can be viewed as a vertex-colouring of the line graph of $G$, and vice-versa. The line graph of $G$, denoted $L(G)$, is the graph whose vertices are the edges of $G$ and whose edges represent the adjacencies between the edges of $G$. Many results on edge-colouring in the literature are stated as results on vertex-colouring line graphs.

### 2.2 Other classical applications of Vizing's recolouring

We dedicate this section to some classical results from the literature which follow directly from Vizing's recolouring procedure, with no need of extending it.

Recall that Lemma 1.9 (p. 21) requires every neighbour of the vertex $u$ (the vertex around which we are constructing a recolouring fan for an edge $u v$ ) to miss a colour, which of course always holds in a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring. However, there are some situations in which we are constructing a $\Delta$-edge-colouring and, because of the structure of the graph, we successfully manage to colour the edges in an appropriate order so that, at each edge $u v$ considered, all neighbours of $u$ miss a colour and thus Lemma 1.9 is satisfied. The proof for Theorem 2.3 below is an example of such an application of Vizing's recolouring procedure.

Theorem 2.3 (Fournier, 1977). Every graph with acyclic core is Class 1.
Proof. Let $G$ be a graph with acyclic core and maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant 2$, since if $\Delta \leqslant 1$ then $G$ is clearly Class 1. Since $\Lambda[G]$ is a forest, we choose for each component of $\Lambda[G]$ (a tree) an arbitrary vertex to be the root of the tree. For all $u \in V(\Lambda[G])$, let $h(u)$ and

[^4]$p(u)$ be the height and the parent of $u$ in its tree, following the usual definitions in the context of rooted trees. In particular, $h(r)=0$ and $p(r)$ is undefined for every root $r$. Now, we take $F:=E(\Lambda[G])$ and, for each trivial tree in $\Lambda[G]$ (i.e. for each tree consisting of a single vertex $u$ ), we choose an arbitrary edge incident to $u$ and add this edge to $F$. This way, we get $\Delta(G-F)<\Delta$, so we can take an $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G-F$ by Vizing's Theorem (see Figure 2.2).


Figure 2.2: A $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring of $G-F$ for a graph $G$ and an edge set $F$ as in the proof of Theorem 2.3. The edges of $F$ are those which appear dashed since they have not been coloured yet, and thicker if they are also in $E(\Lambda[G])$. The vertices of $\Lambda[G]$, also thicker, are those within the dotted rectangle, followed by their heights if they belong to a non-trivial tree in $\Lambda[G]$.

Now we shall colour the edges in $F$. We first consider each edge $u v$ such that $v$ belongs to a unitary component of $\Lambda[G]$ and $u \notin V(\Lambda[G])$. Since $v$ is the only major incident to $u$ and the edge $u v$ is not coloured yet, all neighbours of $u$ miss at least one colour each from the colour set $\mathscr{C}$ used. Therefore, the edge $u v$ satisfies the condition of Lemma 1.9 for Vizing's recolouring procedure and can be assigned a colour from $\mathscr{C}$.

It remains to colour the edges of $E(\Lambda[G])$. For each $i$ from 1 to $\max _{u \in V(\Lambda[G])} h(u)$, we consider all vertices of $V(\Lambda[G])$ with height $i$, one at a time. For each vertex $u$ considered, we shall colour the edge $u p(u)$. For each neighbour $w$ of $u$, we have one of the three following possibilities:

1. $w$ is not a major of $G$, in which case $w$ clearly misses a colour from $\mathscr{C}$;
2. $w$ is a major of $G$ with height greater than $h(u)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because the edge $w u$ has not been coloured yet;
3. $w=p(u)$, in which case $w$ also misses a colour because the edge $u p(u)$ has not been coloured yet.

Ergo, the edge $u v$ also satisfies the condition of Lemma 1.9.
Besides acyclicness, further sufficient conditions related to the core of $G$ for $G$ to be Class 1 have been established e.g. by Cariolaro and Cariolaro (2003), Akbari and Ghanbari (2012), and Akbari et al. (2012).

In the proof of Theorem 2.3, it should be noticed that, although we consider the edges of the core to be coloured one by one according to a breadth-first search order, a depth-first search order would also work ${ }^{3}$. Theorem 2.3 also follows from an earlier classical result, known as Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Lemma 2.4), presented in 1965 by Vizing's second fundamental work on edge-colouring (Vizing, 1965). Vizing's

[^5]Adjacency Lemma is much explored in several works on edge-colouring, e.g. Chetwynd and Hilton (1985, 1986); Hilton and Cheng (1992). In the statement of the lemma, a critical graph is a connected Class 2 graph $G$ with $\chi^{\prime}(G-e)<\chi^{\prime}(G)$ for all $e \in E(G)$. It is clear that every Class 2 graph $G$ has a critical $\Delta$-subgraph ${ }^{4}$.

Lemma 2.4 (Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Vizing, 1965 apud Stiebitz et al., 2012)). For every edge uv of a critical graph $G$, the number of majors adjacent to $u$ in $G$, being $\Delta:=\Delta(G)$, is at least:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta-d_{G}(v)+1, & \text { if } d_{G}(v)<\Delta ; \\
2, & \text { if } d_{G}(v)=\Delta .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Consider the following:
Claim. Let $u v$ be an edge of a graph $G$ such that $\chi^{\prime}(G-u v)=\Delta(G-u v)=\Delta(G)=: \Delta$. If $u$ is adjacent in $G-u v$ to at most $\Delta-d_{G}(v)$ majors of $G$, then $G$ is Class 1.

We show how the lemma straightforwardly follows from the claim. Let $G$ be a critical graph and let $u v$ be any edge of $G$. We know that $\chi^{\prime}(G-u v) \leqslant \Delta$ by the criticality of $G$. We also know that $\Delta(G-u v)=\Delta(G)$ because, otherwise, every vertex of $G-u v$ would miss a colour in any $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring and so we would be able to construct a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring for $G$ by Lemma 1.9. For the sake of contradiction, we assume that the number of majors of $G$ adjacent to $u$ in $G$ is at most:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta-d_{G}(v) & \text { in the case wherein } d_{G}(v)<\Delta ; \\
1, & \text { in the case wherein } d_{G}(v)=\Delta .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark in the case wherein $d_{G}(v)=\Delta$ that the assumption implies that $v$ is the only major adjacent to $u$ in $G$. Remark also that in both cases we have $u$ adjacent in $G-u v$ to at most $\Delta-d_{G}(v)$ majors of $G$. Hence, by the claim, $G$ is Class 1 , contradicting the fact that critical graphs are Class 2 by definition.

Now we shall prove the claim. We start with an edge-colouring $\varphi$ of $G-u v$ using a colour set $\mathscr{C}$ with $\Delta$ colours. In view of Vizing's recolouring procedure (Lemmas 1.61.9, p. 20-21), we shall colour the edge $u v$ with one of the colours of $\mathscr{C}$, possibly causing the recolouring of some of the other edges of $G$.

If $d_{G}(v)=\Delta$, then $u$ is adjacent in $G$ to no other major of $G$ besides $v$ by hypothesis. Since the edge $u v$ has not been coloured yet, every neighbour of $u$ in $G$ misses at least one colour from $\mathscr{C}$ each, so we can apply Lemma 1.9 and we are done.

If $d_{G}(v)<\Delta$, then the numbers of colours of $\mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ is at least one, and at $v=: v_{0}$ is exactly $\Delta-d_{G}(v)+1 \geqslant 2$. If there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ such that $v_{k}$ misses a colour missing at $u$ or a colour missing at $v_{j}$ for some $j<k$, we are done by Lemma 1.6 or Lemma 1.8, respectively. Otherwise, for every maximal recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$, the vertex $v_{k}$ is a major of $G$ and hence misses no colour from $\mathscr{C}$.

Since for each one of the $\Delta-d_{G}(v)+1 \geqslant 2$ colours missing at $v_{0}$ we have at least one distinct maximal recolouring fan for $u v$ starting at $v_{0}$ and ending at a major of $G$, and since $u$ is adjacent to at most $\Delta-d_{G}(v)$ majors of $G$, by the Pigeonhole Principle there must be two distinct maximal recolouring fans $v_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{\ell}$ and $v_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ such

[^6]that $w_{i}=x_{j}$ for some $i \in\{2, \ldots, \ell\}$ and some $j \in\{2, \ldots, r\}$. We assume without loss of generality that $w_{i^{\prime}} \neq x_{j^{\prime}}$ for all $i^{\prime} \in\{1, \ldots, i-1\}$ and all $j^{\prime} \in\{1, \ldots, j-1\}$.

Let $\alpha$ be the colour of the edge $u w_{i}=u x_{j}$, let $\beta$ be a colour missing at $u$, and let $P$ be the $\alpha / \beta$-path to which $u$ belongs. Since $w_{i-1}$ and $x_{j-1}$ are distinct vertices which miss $\alpha$, but at most one of them can be the other outer vertex of $P$, one of them, say $w_{i-1}$, is surely not in $P$. Then, by exchanging the colours along the $\alpha / \beta$-path to which $w_{i-1}$ belongs, we obtain $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $w_{i-1}$. Ergo, $v_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{i-1}$ is now a Vizing's complete recolouring fan, and applying Lemma 1.6 concludes the proof.

From Vizing's Adjacency Lemma follow the facts listed in Theorem 2.5.
Theorem 2.5 (Vizing, 1965 apud Stiebitz et al., 2012). Let $G$ be any Class 2 graph with maximum degree $\Delta$. Then:
(i) the number of majors of $G$ is at least

$$
\max (\{3\} \cup\{\Delta-\delta(H)+2: H \text { critical } \Delta \text {-subgraph of } G\}) .
$$

(ii) the number of edges of $G$ is at least $\left(3 \Delta^{2}+6 \Delta-1\right) / 8$.

Proof. Since $G$ has neither more edges nor more majors than its critical $\Delta$-subgraphs, it suffices to show that if $H$ is a critical $\Delta$-subgraph of $G$ with minimum degree $\delta$, then $H$ has at least $\max \{3, \Delta-\delta+2\}$ majors of $H$ (which are also majors of $G$ ) and at least $\left(3 \Delta^{2}+6 \Delta-1\right) / 8$ edges.

According to Lemma 2.4, every vertex $u$ of $H$ must be adjacent in $H$ to at least two majors, even if $u$ is itself a major, so we have at least three majors in $H$.

Now we shall prove that $H$ has at least $\Delta-\delta+2$ majors. Let $u$ be a vertex of degree $\delta$ in $H$. By Lemma 2.4, we know that $u$ is adjacent in $H$ to at least two majors, so let $v$ be one of these majors. We also know, again by Lemma 2.4, that $v$ is adjacent in $H$ to at least $\Delta-\delta+1$ majors. Therefore, $H$ has at least $\Delta-\delta+2$ majors.

It remains to demonstrate (ii). By the fact that $H$ has at least $\Delta+1$ vertices, amongst which at least $\Delta-\delta+2$ are majors and the others have degree at least $\delta$ in $H$, follows that

$$
2|E(H)|=\sum_{u \in V(H)} d_{H}(u) \geqslant(\Delta-\delta+2) \Delta+(\delta-1) \delta
$$

hence

$$
|E(H)| \geqslant \frac{\delta^{2}-(\Delta+1) \delta+\Delta^{2}+2 \Delta}{2}
$$

Since by differentiation we get

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \delta}\left(\frac{1}{2} \delta^{2}-\frac{1}{2}(\Delta+1) \delta+\frac{1}{2}\left(\Delta^{2}+2 \Delta\right)\right)=\delta-\frac{1}{2}(\Delta+1)
$$

the function $f(\delta):=\left(\delta^{2}-(\Delta+1) \delta+\Delta^{2}+2 \Delta\right) / 2$ reaches its minimum when $\delta=(\Delta+1) / 2$. Ergo,

$$
|E(H)| \geqslant f\left(\frac{\Delta+1}{2}\right)=\frac{3 \Delta^{2}+6 \Delta-1}{8}
$$

Now we show how Theorem 2.3 straightforwardly follows from Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Lemma 2.4).

Alternative prooffor Theorem 2.3. Let $G$ be a graph with acyclic core and assume, for the sake of contradiction, that $G$ is Class 2 . Then $G$ clearly has a critical $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ whose core is also acyclic. Since acyclic graphs must have vertices of degree less than two, all majors of $H$ which have degree one in its core contradict Lemma 2.4.

We close this section with a result which implies that the problem of constructing an optimal edge-colouring of a graph $G$ can be reduced to the problem of constructing an optimal edge-colouring of the semi-core of $G$, that is, the subgraph (which we denote $A[G]$ ) of $G$ induced by its majors and the neighbours of its majors. From the proof follows that, once we have an optimal edge-colouring of the semi-core of $G$, the edges of $G$ not in its semi-core can be coloured in polynomial time with Vizing's recolouring procedure.

Theorem 2.6 (Machado and Figueiredo, 2010). The chromatic index of any graph is equal to the chromatic index of its semi-core.

Proof. Observing that $\Delta(A[G])=\Delta(G)$, let $\varphi$ be an optimal edge-colouring of $A[G]$, being $\mathscr{C}$ the colour set used. Now, we shall colour the edges of $E(G) \backslash E(A[G])$, one at a time. For each edge $u v$ considered, at least one end-vertex of $u v$, say $u$, is not in $V(A[G])$. Hence, all neighbours of $u$ in $G$ are not majors of $G$, so they all miss at least one colour from $\mathscr{C}$ each. The proof is therefore concluded by Lemma 1.9.

### 2.3 Edge-colouring, matchings, and equitability

A matching in a graph $G$ is a set $M \subseteq E(G)$ whose edges are all pairwise nonadjacent. If the set of the vertices of $G$ covered by $M$ (i.e. the set of the ends of the edges in $M$ ) equals $V(G)$, then $M$ is said to be perfect in $G$. If $M$ covers all vertices of $G$ but one, then $M$ is said to be near-perfect. The cardinality of the maximum matching in $G$, also referred to as the matching number of $G$, is denoted $v(G)$ in this work. By the way, amongst other graph parameters which appear in this document are the independent set number (i.e. the size of the maximum independent set in $G$ ), denoted $\alpha(G)$, and the clique number (i.e. the size of the maximum clique in $G$ ), denoted $\omega(G)$, of $G$.

Berge's Lemma, transcribed below, is a classical argument which appears in many results on matchings in graphs. In the statement of the lemma, an $M$-augmenting path in a graph $G$ is a path in $G$ whose edges alternate between edges in and not in $M$, and whose outer vertices are not covered by $M$.

Lemma 2.7 (Berge's Lemma (Berge, 1957)). A matching $M$ in a graph $G$ is maximum if and only if there is no $M$-augmenting path in $G$.

Proof. If there is an $M$-augmenting path in $G$, then $M$ is surely not maximum, since by taking $M^{\prime}:=(M \cup E(P)) \backslash(M \cap E(P))$ we obtain a matching larger than $M$. Therefore, it remains to prove that if there is no $M$-augmenting path in $G$, then $M$ is maximum.

We shall prove the contraposition of the aimed inference. Let $M$ be a nonmaximum matching in $G$. We shall prove that there is an $M$-augmenting path in $G$. Let $W$ be a maximum matching in $G$, and let $M^{\prime}:=M \backslash W$ and $W^{\prime}:=W \backslash M$. Because $M^{\prime}$ and $W^{\prime}$ are disjoint, each component of $G\left[M^{\prime} \cup W^{\prime}\right]$ is clearly a path or an even cycle whose edges alternate between edges in $M^{\prime}$ and in $W^{\prime}$. Furthermore, since $\left|W^{\prime}\right|>\left|M^{\prime}\right|$, at
least one of the components is an odd-length path whose outer vertices are not covered by $M^{\prime}$, that is, an $M$-augmenting path.

Let $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ be an edge-colouring of a graph $G$ and let $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$. It follows by definition that the set of the edges coloured $\alpha$ is a matching. Therefore, a $k$-edgecolouring of a graph $G$ can be equivalently defined as a partition of $E(G)$ in $k$ (disjoint and non-empty ${ }^{5}$ ) matchings. Since a matching can contain at most $\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ edges, this provides another proof for Observation 1.1 (p.16). Recall that not only the set of the edges coloured $\alpha$ is a matching, for any colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$, but also that for any two colours $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $\mathscr{C}$, the subgraph induced by the edges coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$ is a disjoint union of paths and even cycles. This fact brings the following powerful result on edge-colouring. In the statement, an edge-colouring is said to be equitable if, for all two colours $\alpha$ and $\beta$ used in the colouring, the number of edges coloured $\alpha$ differs from the number of edges coloured $\beta$ by at most one.

Theorem 2.8 (Folkman and Fulkerson, 1969). If a graph $G$ admits a $k$-edge-colouring for some integer $k$, then $G$ also admits an equitable $k$-edge-colouring.

Proof. Let $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ be an non-equitable $k$-edge-colouring of $G$ and, for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$, let $m_{\alpha}$ denoted the number of edges coloured $\alpha$. We shall demonstrate how to decrease by one the difference between $m_{\alpha}$ and $m_{\beta}$ for every pair of colours $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $\mathscr{C}$ such that $\left|m_{\alpha}-m_{\beta}\right| \geqslant 2$. Then, we shall be able to obtain an equitable $k$-edge-colouring for $G$ by repeatedly applying this procedure.

Assume without loss of generality that $m_{\alpha}>m_{\beta}$. This can only be possible if one of the components of $G_{\varphi}[\alpha, \beta]$ is an odd-length path $P$ with $\alpha$-coloured edges incident to its outer vertices, since in an even-length path or in an even cycle the number of edges coloured $\alpha$ equals the number of edges coloured $\beta$. Hence, by exchanging the colours along $P$, we simultaneously decrease $m_{\alpha}$ and increase $m_{\beta}$ by one.

It is interesting to comment that the corresponding result on vertex-colourings also holds, but only for $k \geqslant \Delta+1$ (Hajnal and Szemerédi, 1970). This was first conjectured by Paul Erdős in 1964, generalising an earlier result by Corrádi and Hajnal (1963). The proof, far less simple than the proof for Theorem 2.8, came in 1970 by Hajnal and Szemerédi, and the result is now often referred to as the Hajnal-Szemerédi Theorem.

Given that Theorem 2.8 establishes that every graph admits an equitable $k$ -edge-colouring for every $k \geqslant \chi^{\prime}(G)$, one may wonder how inequitable a $k$-edge-colouring can be and if any graph admits a $k$-edge-colouring satisfying the property chosen for the inequitability criterion. No matter which property we choose, we already know that no colour in an edge-colouring of a graph $G$ can be assigned to more than $v(G)$ edges. Hence, it is relevant to ask whether any $k$-edge-colourable graph admits a $k$-edge-colouring wherein there is a colour assigned to exactly $v(G)$ edges. The answer is affirmative when $k \geqslant \Delta(G)+1$. This and other interesting remarks constitute Observation 2.9 below. The net (Figure 2.3) is an example of a Class 1 graph for which no colour in a $\Delta$-edge-colouring can be assigned to $v(G)$ edges.

Observation 2.9. Let $G$ be a graph of maximum degree $\Delta$ and let $k$ be a positive integer. All of the following hold:
(i) if $G$ is a Class 1 graph, then it has a maximum matching which covers all its majors;

[^7]

Figure 2.3: The Class 1 complementary prism $K_{3} \overline{K_{3}}$, often referred to as the net. Since the removal of its unique perfect matching decreases its maximum degree but not its chromatic index, no colour in a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of this graph can be assigned to three edges.
(ii) if $k \geqslant \Delta+1$, then $G$ admits a $k$-edge-colouring in which one of the colours is assigned to $v(G)$ edges.

Proof. (i) Let $G$ be a Class 1 graph and let $M$ be a matching covering all majors of $G$ with the largest number of edges amongst all matchings which cover all majors of $G$. The existence of $M$ follows from the fact that, for every colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ in a $\Delta$-edge-colouring $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$, the set of the edges coloured $\alpha$ is a matching which covers all majors of $G$, since no major misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$. For the sake of contradiction, assume that $M$ is not a maximum matching, which by Berge's Lemma (Lemma 2.7, p. 35) implies the existence of an $M$-augmenting path $P$ in $G$. However, by taking $M^{\prime}:=(M \cup E(P)) \backslash(M \cap E(P))$, we obtain a matching which still covers all majors of $G$, but larger than $M$, contradicting the assumption on the cardinality of $M$.
(ii) In order to prove the statement for $k=\Delta+1$, which suffices, we claim that every graph $G$ has a maximum matching $M$ such that $\chi^{\prime}(G-M) \leqslant \Delta$. If this claim holds, then it is immediate to construct a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring of $G$ reserving one of the colours to the matching $M$. In order to prove the claim, take any maximum matching $M$ in $G$. If $M$ covers all majors of $G$, then $\Delta(G-M) \leqslant \Delta-1$, so $\chi^{\prime}(G-M) \leqslant \Delta$ by Vizing's Theorem (Theorem 1.4, p. 19). On the other hand, if the set $U$ of the majors of $G$ which are not covered by $M$ is not empty, then $U$ must be an independent set, otherwise an edge $u v$ with both $u$ and $v$ in $U$ would bring a matching $M+u v$ larger than $M$. Therefore, $G-M$ is a graph with $\Delta(G-M)=\Delta(G)$ whose core is $G[U]$ and hence edgeless. Ergo, $G-M$ is a Class 1 graph by Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Lemma 2.4).

From Observation 2.9 follows an important remark on our result on edge-colouring complementary prisms stated in Theorem 1.13 (p.27). Although we show that a non-regular complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ is Class 1 , this does not mean that $G \bar{G}$ admits a $\Delta(G \bar{G})$-edge-colouring wherein one of the colours is assigned to the perfect matching between $G$ and $\bar{G}$ (recall Figure 2.3, p.36). This means that our proof cannot rely on the strategy of reserving a colour for the perfect matching between $G$ and $\bar{G}$ and then try to colour $G$ and $\bar{G}$ with $\Delta(G \bar{G})-1=\max \{\Delta(G), \Delta(\bar{G})\}$ colours, since this shall fail whenever the graph with higher maximum degree is a Class 2 graph.

### 2.4 On the hardness of edge-colouring

Let CHRIND be the decision problem defined by:
CHRIND :
Instance: a graph $G$;
Question: Is G Class 1?

This problem is clearly in $\mathcal{N P}$, that is, each positive instance (a Class 1 graph) for the problem has a polynomial-time verifiable polynomial-length certificate (a $\Delta$-edge-colouring) $)^{6}$. The first proof of the $\mathcal{N P}$-completeness of CHRIND was presented by Holyer (1981), which reduced the classical $\mathcal{N P}$-complete problem 3SAT to CHRIND. Since the reduction shown outputs a cubic graph for every 3SAT formula given, the restriction of CHRIND to cubic graphs is also an $\mathcal{N P}$-complete problem.

The $\mathcal{N P}$-completeness of CHRIND relates the problem to one of the most important open question in Computer Science: Is $\mathcal{P}$ (the class of the decision problems which can be decided in polynomial time) equal to $\mathcal{N P}$ (the class of the decision problems whose positive instances have polynomial-length certificates which can be verified in polynomial time)?? This is because the existence of a polynomial-time algorithm for any $\mathcal{N P}$-complete problem would imply $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$. Since it is widely conjectured that $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$ (Aaronson, 2017), a polynomial-time algorithm for CHRIND (and hence for the problem of actually optimal edge-colouring graphs) is unlikely to exist.

Another major open question in Computer Science is: Is $\mathcal{N P}$ equal to coNP? The computational complexity class co $\mathcal{N P}$ consists of the complements of the problems in $\mathcal{N P}$. This means that the problems in co $\mathcal{N P}$ are those whose negative instances have polynomial-length certificates (in this context often referred to as disqualifiers) which can be verified in polynomial time. By the definitions of the classes follows that $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{N P} \cap \operatorname{coNP}$ (see Figure 2.4).


Figure 2.4: The known relations amongst the computational complexity classes $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{N P}$, and $\operatorname{coN} \mathcal{P}$
We know that $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{N P}$ implies $\mathcal{N P}=\operatorname{coN} \mathcal{P}$, but it is still open if the inference also holds in the converse direction (Sipser, 1992; Papadimitriou, 1994). Since it is widely believed that $\mathcal{N P} \neq \operatorname{coN} \mathcal{P}$ (Ibid.), and since the complement of CHRIND (i.e. the problem of deciding if a graph is Class 2) is an co $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problem, it is unlikely that all Class 2 graphs admit polynomial-time verifiable polynomial-length certificates. This can be interpreted as follows: differently from a Class 1 graph (which can be proved to be Class 1 by showing one of its $\Delta$-edge-colourings), no method for proving that a graph is Class 2 is known which works for all Class 2 graphs and which yields polynomial-time verifiable polynomial-length proofs. If such a method were found, then it would imply $\mathcal{N P}=\cos \mathcal{N}$.

As we have mentioned, Holyer (1981) showed that CHRIND is $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete when restricted to cubic graphs, which implies the $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-completeness of CHRIND for general graphs. However, it could be the case that CHRIND is $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete only because it is $\mathcal{N P}$-complete for cubic graphs, being polynomial for $d$-regular graphs with $d>3$

[^8](recall that for $d<3$ the problem is in fact polynomial). But this is not the case. For every constant $d \geqslant 3$, the restriction of CHRIND to $d$-regular graphs remains $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete (Leven and Galil, 1983). On the other hand, if we consider a graph class wherein the maximum degree $\Delta(G)$ is not a constant, but bounded from below by any $\Omega(|V(G)|)$ function (in particular $\varepsilon|V(G)|$, being $\varepsilon>0$ a constant), CHRIND seems to be less hard problem (see Observation 2.10 below) and it is actually conjectured to be in $\mathcal{P}$ for $\Delta(G)>n / 3$ (see Section 2.6).

Observation 2.10 (inspired in Galby et al. (2018)). Being $k \in \mathbb{N}$ a fixed constant, the problem

```
k-CHRIND :
    Instance: a graph G;
    Question: Is G k-edge-colourable?
```

is polynomial when restricted to graphs $G$ with $\Delta(G) \geqslant f(|V(G)|)$, for any $\Omega(|V(G)|)$ function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. Our polynomial algorithm works on a given input graph $G$ as follows:

1. First, the algorithm finds in linear time the maximum degree $\Delta$ of $G$.
2. If $\Delta \neq k$, the algorithm outputs "yes" if $\Delta<k$ or "no" if $\Delta>k$, in view of Vizing's Theorem (Theorem 1.4).
3. If $\Delta=k$, then we know that the number $n$ of vertices of $G$ and the number $m$ of edges of $G$ are at most $k / f(n)$ and $(k / f(n))^{2}$, respectively. Since $1 / f(n)=O(1)$, we have that in this case $k / f(n)$ and $(k / f(n))^{2}$ are both bounded above by a constant which does not depend on the size of the input graph. Therefore, any brute-force search can determine the $k$-edge-colourability of $G$ in constant time. For instance, we can use the set partition algorithm by Björklund et al. (2009), which uses the principle of inclusion-exclusion and, when applied to connected graphs with $m$ edges, yields an $O\left(2^{m} m^{O(1)}\right)$-time exact edge-colouring algorithm. Remark that this is a constant time when $m$ is bounded above by a constant.

Observation 2.11 (Galby et al., 2018). The restrictions of $k$-CHRIND to cographs and to join graphs are polynomial.

Proof. Follows from Observation 2.10 and from the facts that: $n$-vertex join graphs have maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$; every connected component of a cograph is a join graph (Corneil et al., 1981); the chromatic index of any graph is the maximum amongst the chromatic indices of its connected components.

As listed in Table 1.1 (p. 22), Cai and Ellis (1991) showed the $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-completeness of CHRIND when restricted to several graph classes, including the $d$-regular graphs with girth at least $k$ for any constants $d, k \geqslant 3$ (the special case of CHRIND restricted to triangle-free cubic graphs was also proved to be $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete by Koreas (1997), probably without knowing the earlier work by Cai and Ellis (1991)). This implies that, for every graph $H$ containing a cycle, the restriction of CHRIND to $H$-free graphs is $\mathcal{N P}$-complete. In the same work the authors showed that the restriction of CHRIND to $K_{1,3}$-free graphs is also $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete (the complete bipartite graph $K_{1,3}$ is often referred to as the claw, see Figure 2.5). This brings the following:


Figure 2.5: The $K_{1,3}$, also known as the claw

Observation 2.12. Let $H$ be a graph. Then, the restriction of CHRIND to H-free graphs is $\mathcal{N P}$-complete if at least one of the components of $H$ is not a path.

Remark that Observation 2.12 fails to provide a full polynomial dichotomy of CHRIND for $H$-free graphs because the problem is still open in the case wherein $H$ is linear forest (i.e. a disjoint union of paths) with at least one of its components being a $P_{k}$ for $k \geqslant 4$. Recall that the $P_{4}$-free graphs are the cographs. Recall also that the $P_{3}$-free graphs are the disjoint unions of complete graphs, for which CHRIND is already solved (see Theorem 1.2, p. 17). On the other hand, considering now the $k$-CHRIND problem, a full polynomial dichotomy of the problem for $H$-free graphs was recently established:

Theorem 2.13 (Galby et al., 2018). Let $k$ be a positive integer and $H$ be a graph. Then, the restriction of $k$-CHRIND to $H$-free graphs is:
(i) $\mathcal{N P}$-complete, if at least one of the components of $H$ is not a path;
(ii) polynomial, otherwise (that is, if $H$ is a linear forest).

We close this section highlighting that, differently from CHRIND, a polynomial dichotomy for the problem defined by

## CHRNUM :

Instance: a graph $G$ and a positive integer $k$;
Question: Is $G k$-vertex-colourable?
has already been established for $H$-free graphs:
Theorem 2.14 (Král et al., 2001). Let H be a graph. Then, the restriction of CHRNUM to $H$-free graphs is:
(i) polynomial, if $H$ is an induced subgraph of the $P_{4}$ or of the $P_{3} \cup K_{1}$;
(ii) $\mathcal{N P}$-complete, otherwise.

### 2.5 On edge-colouring some other graph classes

We have mentioned in Table 1.1 (p. 22) the results from the literature about the computational complexity of the CHRIND problem when restricted to some graph classes. Amongst the graph classes which appear in the table, some have already been defined in Chapter 1. In this section, we define a few more graph classes which are relevant for this work, highlighting some computational complexity aspects of edgecolouring restricted to these graph classes. For the graph classes which appear in Table 1.1 but are not defined in any chapter of this text, information can be found in the references given in the table.

An important graph class for the history of graph colouring problems is the class of the perfect graphs. A graph $G$ is said to be perfect if, for every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$, the chromatic number of $H$ equals the size of the maximum clique in $H$. As shown for example by Grötschel et al. (1988, Chapter 9), many problems which are $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard for graphs in general are polynomially solvable for perfect graphs using linear programming, such as computing an optimal vertex-colouring and finding a maximum clique or a maximum independent set. A remarkable result on perfect graphs is the Strong Perfect Graph Theorem (Theorem 2.15), which was first conjectured by Berge in 1961 and took over 40 years to be proved.

Theorem 2.15 (Strong Perfect Graph Theorem (Chudnovsky et al., 2006)). A graph $G$ is perfect if and only if neither $G$ nor $\bar{G}$ has an induced odd cycle of length at least five.

A polynomial-time recognition algorithm for perfect graphs was also shown by Chudnovsky et al. (2005).

Although so many hard problems can be efficiently solvable for perfect graphs, the CHRIND problem remains $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete for the class even when restricted to comparability graphs, a subclass of perfect graphs (Cai and Ellis, 1991).

Other interesting subclasses of perfect graphs are the cographs (Corneil et al., 1981) and the chordal graphs (Fulkerson and Gross, 1965). A graph is said to be chordal if it has no induced cycle with length greater than three. The diamond (Figure 1.2, p.12) and the Hajós graph (Figure 2.6) are examples of chordal graphs. A well-known


Figure 2.6: A perfect elimination order $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{6}$ of the Hajós graph
result on chordal graphs is that they can be characterised by a perfect elimination order (Fulkerson and Gross, 1965), as stated in Theorem 2.16. In the statement, a vertex $u$ is said to be simplicial in a graph $G$ if $\{u\} \cup N_{G}(u)$ induces a complete graph.

Theorem 2.16 (Fulkerson and Gross, 1965). An n-vertex graph is chordal if and only if its vertices admit a perfect elimination order $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}$, that is, an order such that, for every $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$, the vertex $u_{i}$ is simplicial in $G\left[\left\{u_{i}, \ldots, u_{n}\right\}\right]$.

Chordal graphs can be recognised in linear time (Rose et al., 1976), and the proof for this relies on a special graph search algorithm which can be used to output a perfect elimination order if the input graph is chordal. This special graph search algorithm is referred to as the lexicographic breadth-first search (shortly, LexBFS) in the literature. Restricted to chordal graphs, the computational complexity of CHRIND is still open, with some partial results achieved, as listed in Table 1.1.

A circular-arc graph $G$ is the intersection graph of a finite set $S$ of arcs of a circle, in which case $S$ is an arc model corresponding to $G$. If there is an arc model corresponding to $G$ wherein no arc properly contains another, then $G$ is said to be a proper circular-arc graph. If there is an arc model corresponding to $G$ wherein all the
arcs have the same length, then $G$ is said to be a unit circular-arc graphs. Homonymous terms are defined for interval graphs analogously, but being the interval model $S$ a finite set of intervals on the real line, instead of a set of arcs of a circle. The classes of the unit interval graphs and of the proper interval graphs are the same Roberts (1969), and these graphs are often referred to as the indifference graphs in the literature. However, the classes of the unit circular-arc graphs and of the proper circular-arc graphs are not the same (see Figure 2.7).


Figure 2.7: A proper non-unit circular-arc graph with a corresponding arc model. Remark that this graph is not chordal.

Interval and circular-arc graphs can be recognised in linear time (Booth and Lueker, 1976; McConnell, 2003). All interval graphs are chordal (Lekkerkerker and Boland, 1962) and clearly circular-arc graphs, but there are circular-arc graphs which are not chordal (the graph of Figure 2.7 is an example of a circular-arc graph which is not chordal). Interestingly, it can be straightforwardly demonstrated that the classes of chordal proper circular-arc graphs and of chordal unit circular-arc graphs are the same.

The vertices of an indifference graph admit an indifference order, that is, a linear order in which vertices belonging to the same maximal clique appear consecutively Looges and Olanu (1993). Analogously, the vertices of a proper circular-arc graph $G$ admit a proper circular-arc order, that is, a circular order $\sigma$ in which, for every edge $\overrightarrow{u v}$ under the clockwise orientation of the edges along $\sigma$, all the vertices clockwise between $u$ and $v$ induce a complete graph in $G$.

Although optimal vertex-colourings for indifference, and even for chordal, graphs can be computed in linear time (Rose et al., 1976), the computational complexity of determining the chromatic index of indifference graphs remains open, as discussed in Section 2.6. On the other hand, computing an optimal vertex-colouring for a circulararc graph is $\mathcal{N P}$-hard (Garey et al., 1980), but polynomial when restricted to proper circular-arc graphs (Orlin et al., 1981). To the best of our knowledge, there was no published work on total or edge-colouring circular-arc graphs in the literature before the results presented in Chapter 5.

### 2.6 The 1-Factorisation and the Overfull Conjectures

An interesting fact which follows from Observation 1.1 (p.16) is that graphs with more than $\Delta\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ edges are clearly Class 2 . This argument has already been used in Chapter 1 to prove that odd cycles and complete graphs of odd order are Class 2. Graphs with more than $\Delta\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ edges are said to be overfull, and were so named by Chetwynd and Hilton (1984a), but the concept was already present in earlier works (e.g. Beineke and Wilson (1973)). A graph G is said to be subgraph-overfull (shortly, SO) if it has an overfull $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ (see Figure 2.8).


Figure 2.8: An overfull $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ of a non-overfull graph $G$ and a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring of $G$

It should be noticed that only odd-order graphs can be overfull (but an evenorder graph can be SO, as the graph of Figure 2.8), since even-order graphs have at most $\Delta n / 2$ edges. In fact, from the definition follows that all regular graphs of odd order are overfull. Moreover, overfull graphs can be equivalently defined as odd-order graphs which are regular or very close to be regular, as precisely specified in the following observation:

Observation 2.17 (Niessen, 1994). An n-vertex graph $G$ is overfull if and only if $n$ is odd and $\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(\Delta(G)-d_{G}(u)\right) \leqslant \Delta(G)-2$.

Proof. Let $\Delta:=\Delta(G)$. Since even-order graphs cannot be overfull, it suffices to show that, when $n$ is odd, the following inequalities are equivalent:

$$
\begin{align*}
|E(G)| & >\Delta\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor  \tag{2.1}\\
\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(\Delta-d_{G}(u)\right) & \leqslant \Delta-2 \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

But this equivalence follows immediately from the elementary fact that $\sum_{u \in V(G)} d_{G}(u)=$ $2|E(G)|$ for every graph $G$ :
(2.2) $\Leftrightarrow \quad \Delta n-2|E(G)| \leqslant \Delta-2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad|E(G)| \geqslant \frac{\Delta(n-1)}{2}+1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad$ (2.1).

Notice that Observation 2.17 implies that if $G$ is an overfull graph, then every major $x$ of $G$ is a proper major, that is, the local degree sum of $x$ in $G$ is at least $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+2$ (or, equivalently, $\sum_{u x \in E}\left(\Delta-d_{G}(u)\right) \leqslant \Delta-2$ ). Therefore, graphs with no proper majors are a special case of non-SO graphs. If the local degree sum of a major $x$ in $G$ is exactly $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+1$ (or, equivalently, if $\sum_{u \in N_{G}(x)}\left(\Delta-d_{G}(u)\right)=\Delta-1$ ), we say that $x$ is a tightly non-proper major. If the local degree sum of $x$ in $G$ is strictly less than $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+1$ (or, equivalently, if $\left.\sum_{u \in N_{G}(x)}\left(\Delta-d_{G}(u)\right) \geqslant \Delta\right)$, we say that $x$ is a strictly non-proper major. The graph class $\mathscr{X}$ introduced in Chapter 1, for which we present one of our main results (Theorem 1.10, p. 24), is the class of the graphs wherein all majors are strictly non-proper. Figure 2.9 extends Figure 1.16 (p.25) showing the relations amongst the class $\mathscr{X}$, the non-SO graphs, and the Class 1 graphs.

As observed by Beineke and Wilson (1973), being SO is clearly a sufficient condition for a graph to be Class 2. For some graph classes, such as graphs with $\Delta \geqslant n-3$ (Plantholt, 1981; Chetwynd and Hilton, 1984b,a, 1989b) and complete multipartite


Figure 2.9: The graph class $\mathscr{X}$ and two partitions of the set of all graphs: according to Vizing's Theorem and according to the subgraph-overfullness property.
graphs (Hoffman and Rodger, 1992), this condition is also necessary ${ }^{8}$. In fact, the necessity is conjectured for all graphs with $\Delta>n / 3$ :

Conjecture 2.18 (Overfull Conjecture (Chetwynd and Hilton, 1984a, 1986; Hilton and Johnson, 1987)). An n-vertex graph with maximum degree $\Delta>n / 3$ is Class 2 if and only if it is subgraph-overfull.

The Overfull Conjecture was first proposed by Chetwynd and Hilton (1984a), but stated for $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$, in the work wherein they show that a graph with $\Delta \geqslant n-3$ and even $n$ is Class 2 if and only if it is $S O$. Two years later, the same authors restated the conjecture for $\Delta \geqslant n / 3$ (Chetwynd and Hilton, 1986), but they soon found a non-SO Class 2 graph with $\Delta=n / 3$ : the $P^{*}$ (Figure 2.10), which is the graph obtained from the Petersen graph (Figure 1.7) by the removal of an arbitrary vertex. Then, in 1987, the


Figure 2.10: The graph $P^{*}$. Remark that, by the symmetry of the Petersen graph, all the graphs obtained from the Petersen graph by the removal of a vertex are isomorphic.
conjecture came to its current form, restricted to $\Delta>n / 3$ (Hilton and Johnson, 1987).
The fact that both the Petersen graph (which has $\Delta=(n-1) / 3$ ) and the $P^{*}$ are Class 2 non-SO graphs is a standard result which can be verified by observing that:

- they are Class 2, as shown in Observations 2.2 (p.31) and 2.19 below;
- no snark can be SO, as shown in Observation 2.20.

Observation 2.19. The graph $P^{*}$ is not 3-edge-colourable.
Proof. For the sake of contradiction, and in view of Theorem 2.8, take an equitable 3 -edge-colouring of the $P^{*}$. Since the $P^{*}$ has exactly 3 vertices of degree 2 and the

[^9]other vertices have degree 3 , each one of the 3 colours is missing at exactly one of the 3 vertices of degree 2. Ergo, if we add a vertex $x$ to the $P^{*}$ connecting it to the 3 vertices of degree 2 , and if for each vertex $u$ of degree 2 in the $P^{*}$ we assign the colour missing at $u$ to the edge $u x$, we obtain a 3-edge-colouring of the Petersen graph, contradicting Observation 2.2.

Observation 2.20. No snark can be SO.
Proof. Since the sum of the degrees of a graph is always an even number, the order of a $d$-regular graph can never be odd if $d$ is odd. Therefore, all snarks have even order and hence cannot be overfull. This implies that if a snark $G$ is $S O$, then it has an overfull subgraph $H$ with $\Delta(H)=3$ and $V(H) \neq V(G)$, and we assume without loss of generality that $H$ is induced by $V(H)=: U$. However, the connectedness of $G$ along with Observation 2.17 bring that $\left|\partial_{G}(U)\right|=|\Delta(H)|-2=1$, which contradicts the fact that snarks are bridgeless.

Remark that the proof for Observation 2.19 can also be used to show that, for any snark $G$ and any $u \in V(G)$, the graph $G-u$ is Class 2 but not SO. However, since all snarks are cubic and the Petersen graph is the smallest snark, the $P^{*}$ is the only such $G-u$ which maximises the ratio $n / \Delta$, wherein $n:=|V(G-u)|$. To the best of our knowledge, no Class 2 non-SO graph with $\Delta>3$ has been presented, even for constant $\Delta$ in function of $n$. In Chapter 4 we show that all Class $2 d$-regular complementary prism (like the Petersen graph, which is the 3-regular complementary prism $C_{5} \overline{C_{5}}$ ) are also non-SO graphs. Moreover, these graphs satisfies $d=(n+2) / 4$, as the Petersen graph also does, and from each of these graphs the removal of any vertex would yield a Class 2 non-SO graph with $\Delta=(n+3) / 4$, like the $P^{*}$.

The equivalence between being Class 2 and being $S O$ is also conjectured for chordal graphs, even for $n$-vertex graphs with maximum degree $\Delta \leqslant n / 3$ (Figueiredo et al., 2000). Actually, the authors conjecture a stronger statement: that all Class 2 chordal graphs are neighbourhood-overfull. A graph $G$ is said to be neighbourhood-overfull (shortly, NO) if there is some $u \in V(G)$ such that $\{u\} \cup N_{G}(u)$ induces an overfull $\Delta$ subgraph of $G$. The conjecture by Figueiredo et al. (2000) has already been demonstrated for some subclasses of chordal graphs, such as split-indifference (Ortiz Z. et al., 1998) and, more recently, split-comparability (Sousa Cruz et al., 2017) graphs. Figueiredo et al. (2000) also showed that all SO indifference graphs are NO.

A $k$-factor of a graph $G$ is a set $F \subseteq E(G)$ which induces a $k$-regular spanning subgraph. In particular, a 1 -factor of $G$ is a perfect matching in $G$. A $k$-factorisation of $G$ is a partition of $E(G)$ into (disjoint) $k$-factors, possible only if $G$ is $k t$-regular for some integer $t$. Clearly, a $d$-regular graph is Class 1 if and only if it is 1 -factorisable. Restricted to $n$-vertex $d$-regular graphs with $d \geqslant n / 2$, the Overfull Conjecture is equivalent to the 1-Factorisation Conjecture, which was stated by Chetwynd and Hilton (1985), but whose origin, according to the authors, may go back to G. A. Dirac in the early 1950s:

Conjecture 2.21 (1-Factorisation Conjecture (Chetwynd and Hilton, 1985)). Every $n$-vertex $d$-regular graph with $d \geqslant n / 2$ and $n$ even is 1 -factorisable.

The equivalence between the restriction of the Overfull Conjecture to $d$-regular graphs with $d \geqslant n / 2$ and the 1-Factorisation Conjecture comes from the fact that no $n$-vertex $d$-regular graph with $d \geqslant n / 2$ and $n$ even can be $S O$ (Hilton, 1984; Niessen and Volkmann, 1990).

Remark that, when restricted to graph classes wherein subgraph-overfullness is a necessary condition for a graph to be Class 2, deciding chromatic index is a problem in $\mathcal{N P} \cap \operatorname{coN} \mathcal{N}$ : a polynomial-length certificate verifiable in polynomial-time for a Class 2 graph in these graph classes can be simply an overfull $\Delta$-subgraph. Moreover, the following results bring that under this restriction the problem is actually in $\mathcal{P}$, and justifies why there has been much work in the last 30 years aimed at identifying classes of graphs wherein all non-SO graphs are Class 1.

Theorem 2.22 (Padberg and Rao, 1982; Niessen, 1994, 2001). The problem of deciding the existence of an overfull $\Delta$-subgraph in a graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta$ graph can be decided in polynomial time (Padberg and Rao, 1982). Moreover:
(i) if $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$, then $G$ has at most one induced overfull $\Delta$-subgraph (Niessen, 1994);
(ii) if $\Delta>n / 3$, then $G$ has at most three induced overfull $\Delta$-subgraphs (Niessen, 2001).

We close this section highlighting that the upper bound in Observation 1.1 (p.16) can be sharpened:

Observation 2.23. Any graph $G$ has at most $\chi^{\prime}(G) v(G)$ edges.
However, although having a $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ with more than $\Delta v(H)$ edges is in fact a sufficient condition for a graph to be Class 2, the following conjecture suggests that the bound $\chi^{\prime}(G) v(G)$ in Observation 2.23 seems to be no sharper than $\chi^{\prime}(G)\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$ for the definition of overfull and SO graphs in the context of the Overfull Conjecture:

Conjecture 2.24. An n-vertex graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta>n / 3$ has a $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ satisfying $|E(H)|>\Delta v(H)$ if and only if $G$ is SO.

We could neither find a proof for Conjecture 2.24 in the literature, nor derive one by ourselves, but we remark that if Conjecture 2.24 does not hold, then neither does the Overfull Conjecture. Observation 2.25 is a straightforward evidence for Conjecture 2.24 in the case wherein $\Delta \geqslant(n-3) / 2$.

Observation 2.25. Every overfull n-vertex graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant(n-3) / 2$ has a near-perfect matching, that is, satisfies $v(G)=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$.

Proof. From Vizing's Theorem (Theorem 1.4) follows that no graph with maximum degree $\Delta$ and matching number $v$ can have more than $(\Delta+1) v$ edges, since in a $(\Delta+1)$ -edge-colouring each colour is assigned to at most $v$ edges. Hence, if $G$ is an $n$-vertex overfull graph with maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant(n-3) / 2$, then $n$ is odd and we have

$$
v(G) \geqslant \frac{|E(G)|}{\Delta+1}>\frac{\Delta}{\Delta+1}\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) \geqslant \frac{n-3}{n-1}\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)=\frac{n-3}{2}
$$

which implies $v(G) \geqslant(n-1) / 2=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$, since $v(G)$ is an integer.

## 3 A recolouring procedure for graphs with bounded local degree sums

In this chapter we present the following result on edge-colouring graphs with bounded local degree sums, as announced in Chapter 1, p. 24:

Theorem 1.10. Let $\mathscr{X}$ be the class of the graphs with maximum degree $\Delta$ whose majors have local degree sum bounded above by $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$. All graphs in $\mathscr{X}$ are Class 1.

This chapter is organised as follows:

- Section 3.1 presents our extension of Vizing's recolouring procedure for $\Delta$-edgecolouring graphs with bounded local degree sums;
- Section 3.2 presents the proof for Theorem 1.10, as well as further applications of our recolouring procedure;
- Section 3.3 closes the chapter with remarks on the time complexity of the algorithms presented in the proofs for the results in Sections 3.1 and 3.2, highlighting their polynomiality.


### 3.1 The recolouring procedure

Recall from Chapter 1 that Vizing's recolouring procedure requires every vertex of the recolouring fan to miss a colour. Although this is always possible in $(\Delta+1)$-edgecolourings, sometimes this is too restrictive when we are trying to use the procedure in the construction of a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of a specific Class 1 graph (recall Figure 1.15, p. 25). The proof for Theorem 2.3 is a successful example of a $\Delta$-edge-colourability proof which considers the edges of the given graph in an appropriate order so that the condition for applying Vizing's recolouring procedure is always satisfied. Unfortunately, for other proofs this seems hard to manage. This section presents a recolouring procedure which extends Vizing's and does not require every vertex of the fan to miss a colour. Some simpler versions of this procedure we have published during during the development of this work. Since the current version completely covers the earlier ones, only the current version is presented in this text.

Throughout this section $G=(V, E)$ is a graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges and $\varphi: E \backslash\{u v\} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ is a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G-u v$ for some $u v \in E$, which is the edge to be coloured by our recolouring procedure.

Definition 3.1 (recolouring fan and virtually missing colours). A sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of distinct neighbours of $u$ in $G$ is a recolouring fan for $u v$ if $v_{0}=v$ and, for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$ :

- either $v_{i}$ actually misses the colour $\alpha_{i}:=\varphi\left(u v_{i+1}\right)$;
- or $v_{i}$ misses the colour $\alpha_{i}:=\varphi\left(u v_{i+1}\right)$ virtually, that is, $i>0$ and $\varphi\left(v_{i} w_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$ for some $w_{i} \in N_{G}\left(v_{i}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{i-1}\right\}$ which actually misses $\alpha_{i-1}$.

The recolouring fan is said to be complete if $v_{k}$ misses, actually or virtually, a colour $\alpha_{k}$ missing at $u$.
Lemma 3.2. If there is a complete recolouring fan for $u v$, then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. We perform a procedure for $i$ from $k$ down to 0 . At the beginning of each iteration it is invariant that both $u$ and $v_{i}$ miss $\alpha_{i}$ (the latter possibly virtually). So, we simply assign $\alpha_{i}$ to $u v_{i}$ and, if $v_{i}$ misses $\alpha_{i}$ virtually (which means that $i>0$ and $\varphi\left(v_{i} w_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$ for some $w_{i} \in N_{G}\left(v_{i}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{i-1}\right\}$ which actually misses $\left.\alpha_{i-1}\right)$, we also assign $\alpha_{i-1}$ to $v_{i} w_{i}$. If $i=0$, we are done. If $i>0$, now $u$ misses $\alpha_{i-1}$, which is still missing (possibly virtually) at $v_{i-1}$, so we can decrement $i$ and continue.

As for Vizing's recolouring procedure, the procedure described in the proof of Lemma 3.2 is referred to as the decay of the colours of the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ (see Figure 3.1).


Figure 3.1: A complete recolouring fan before and after the decay of the colours
The vertices $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of a recolouring fan are all distinct, which implies that $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}$ are all distinct colours not missing at $u$. Nevertheless, a vertex $w_{i}$ may be equal to some vertex $v_{j}$ (except to $v_{i-1}$, otherwise the decay of the colours would fail) or even to some other vertex $w_{j}$. The possibility of coincidences of the first kind emerges from the fact that we are not restricting ourselves to triangle-free graphs. It should also be noticed that, differently from the vertices $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$, the vertex $w_{i}$ is not necessarily defined for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k\}$.

Lemma 3.3. If there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for uv such that, for some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ and some $\alpha_{k} \in \mathscr{C} \backslash\left\{\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}, \beta\right\}$ missing at $v_{k}$ (the latter possibly virtually), either
(i) $u$ and $v_{k}$ do not lie in the same $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-component, or
(ii) $v_{k}$ misses $\alpha_{k}$ virtually and belongs to the same $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-component, clearly a path, as $u$, and $w_{k}$ is closer than $v_{k}$ to $u$ in this path,
then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. If (i) holds, then exchanging the colours along the $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-component $X$ to which $v_{k}$ belongs brings $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$ (the latter virtually if $\alpha_{k}$ was virtually missing at $v_{k}$ ). Since the colours $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}, \beta$ are all distinct, the colour exchanging operation does not compromise the recolouring fan and works even if $X$ is a cycle (possible only if $\alpha_{k}$ was virtually missing at $v_{k}$ ). Now $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is a complete recolouring fan for $u v$, so we apply Lemma 3.2 and we are done.

If (ii) holds, let $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ be the $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-paths starting at $u$ in $G-u v$ and in $G-u v-v_{k} w_{k}$ respectively. Recall that $P^{\prime}$ is a subpath of $P$. Since $w_{k}$ is closer than $v_{k}$ to $u$ in $P$, the outer vertices of $P^{\prime}$ are $u$ and $w_{k}$, and $v_{k}$ is not in $P^{\prime}$. Hence, by temporarily uncolouring the edge $v_{k} w_{k}$, we are back to (i), so we exchange the colours along the $\alpha_{k} / \beta$-path starting at $v_{k}$ and we apply Lemma 3.2. After that, since $w_{k}\left(\neq v_{k-1}\right)$ still misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ and the decay of the colours has transferred $\alpha_{k-1}$ from $u v_{k}$ to $u v_{k-1}$, the uncoloured edge $v_{k} w_{k}$ can be coloured $\alpha_{k-1}$.

Lemma 3.4. Let $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be a recolouring fan for $u v$ and

$$
G^{\prime}:= \begin{cases}G-v_{k-1} w_{k-1}, & \text { if } k>1 \text { and } w_{k-1} \text { is defined, or } \\ G, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

Let also $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ be a colour missing at $u$ and $\alpha_{k} \in \mathscr{C}$ be a colour virtually missing at $v_{k}$. If:
(i) $w_{k} \in N_{G}(u)$, and
(ii) $\gamma:=\varphi\left(u w_{k}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}$ for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$, and
(iii) $w_{k}$ is not in the same $\alpha_{k-1} / \varphi\left(u w_{k}\right)$-component of $G^{\prime}$ as $v_{k-1}$ after exchanging the colours along the $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$-component of $G^{\prime}$ to which $w_{k}$ belongs,
then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. First of all, we check if the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ for $u v$ already satisfies Lemma 3.3, because, if it does, we are done. If it does not, we uncolour the edge $v_{k-1} w_{k-1}$, in the case wherein $w_{k-1}$ is defined. Then, we exchange the colours along the $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$-component $P$ of $G^{\prime}$ to which $w_{k}$ belongs (clearly a path). Since neither $u$ nor $v_{k-1}\left(\neq w_{k}\right)$ is in $P$, otherwise $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ would satisfy Lemma 3.3, we get $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $w_{k}$ (see Figure 3.2(a)).


Figure 3.2: An illustration for the proof of Lemma 3.4. Here and in the next figures, differently from how we have used waved curves in the figures which illustrate Vizing's recolouring procedure in Chapter 1, we do not depict the underlying colour-alternating paths any more, so the illustration can be presented as clean as possible.

Let $X$ be the $\alpha_{k-1} / \gamma$-component to which $u, v_{k}$, and $w_{k}$ belong (not necessarily a path, as we have exchanged the colours along $P$ ). Since, by hypothesis, $v_{k-1}$ is not in $X$ and $\gamma \neq \alpha_{i}$ for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$, exchanging the colours along $X$ makes $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}, w_{k}$ a complete recolouring fan (see Figure 3.2(b)). Then, we apply Lemma 3.2 and assign to the edge $v_{k-1} w_{k-1}$, if any, the colour $\alpha_{k-2}$.

Let $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be a maximal, but not complete, recolouring fan for $u v$. Extending Lemma 1.8 (p.20), we show that if $v_{k}$ misses, actually or virtually, the colour $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$ (which implies $j<k-1$, since $\alpha_{k-1}=\varphi\left(u v_{k}\right)$ ), then $G$ is Class 1. We split the proof into three lemmas, each handling one of the following cases:

1. either $v_{j+1}$ actually misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ or there is some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ such that $w_{j+1}$ is not in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component as $v_{k}$ (Lemma 3.5);
2. the vertices $v_{j+1}$ and $v_{k}$ are neighbours, the vertex $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually, and $v_{k}$ is the neighbour of $v_{j+1}$ which actually misses $\alpha_{j}$ selected for the role of $w_{j+1}$ (Lemma 3.6);
3. the vertex $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually and $w_{j+1}$ is in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component $W$ as $v_{k}$ for all $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ (Lemma 3.7).

Remark that the second case (see Figure 3.3) is a particular case of the third.


Figure 3.3: A recolouring fan in which $v_{k}$ misses $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$, the vertex $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually, and $v_{k}=w_{j+1}$ (possible only if $v_{k}$ actually misses $\alpha_{j}$ ). Here the colours $\alpha_{j}$ and $\alpha_{j+2}$ are actually missing at $v_{j}$ and $v_{j+2}$, respectively, but they could be missing virtually.

Lemma 3.5. If there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ such that $v_{k}$ misses, actually or virtually, the colour $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$, and if:

- either $v_{j+1}$ actually misses $\alpha_{j+1}$,
- or there is some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ such that $w_{j+1}$ is not in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component as $v_{k}$,
then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. Recall that $j<k-1$. We first check if the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ satisfies Lemma 3.3, in which case we are already done. If it does not, we uncolour $v_{k} w_{k}$, in the case wherein $w_{k}$ is defined, leaving this edge to be coloured later. Then, let $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ be a colour missing at $u$ and let $P$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path starting at $v_{k}$. If $w_{k}$ is defined, let $Q$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path starting at $w_{k}$.

We know that $u$ and $v_{j}$ are in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path, otherwise $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ would satisfy Lemma 3.3. Therefore, either both $u$ and $v_{j}$ are in $P$ (possible only if $v_{j}$ misses $\alpha_{j}$ virtually and the outer vertices of $P$ are $u$ and $v_{k}$ ), or none amongst $u$ and $v_{j}$ is in $P$. We have the following cases:

1. If neither $u$ nor $v_{j}$ is in $P$, then exchanging the colours of the edges along $P$ yields $\beta$ as a colour missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$. Hence, we get $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ as a complete recolouring fan for $u v$, even if $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually, in which case $w_{j+1}$ is not in $P$ by hypothesis and still misses $\alpha_{j}$ as desired. So, we apply Lemma 3.2 to colour $u v$. Then, if $w_{k}$ is defined, the edge $v_{k} w_{k}$ can be coloured $\alpha_{k-1}$ and we are done.
2. If both $u$ and $v_{j}$ are in $P$, then $v_{j}$ is closer than $w_{j}$ to $u$ in $P$, otherwise $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ would satisfy Lemma 3.3. Hence, by temporarily uncolouring the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path containing $v_{k}$ becomes a subpath $P^{\prime}$ of $P$ with $v_{k}$ and $w_{j}$ as outer vertices. Exchanging the colours along $P^{\prime}$, we get $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$, thus $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ becomes a complete recolouring fan for $u v$. We apply Lemma 3.2 on this fan and then the temporarily uncoloured edges $v_{j} w_{j}$ and (if $w_{k}$ is defined) $v_{k} w_{k}$ can be coloured $\alpha_{j-1}$ and $\alpha_{k-1}$, respectively.

Remark that the recolouring fan constructed for the edge $u v_{0}$ in the crab claw graph in Figure 1.15 (p. 25), which we could not manage with Vizing's recolouring procedure, can be managed with our recolouring procedure. Furthermore, it satisfies the conditions of Lemma 3.5: the vertex $v_{3}$ has a neighbour $w_{3}$ which misses the colour $\alpha_{2}=\varphi\left(u v_{3}\right)=4$, that is, $v_{3}$ virtually misses the colour $\varphi\left(v_{3} w_{3}\right)=2=\alpha_{1}$, and this colour is actually missing at $v_{1}$ (see Figure 3.4(a)). Observing that the only colour $\beta$ missing at


Figure 3.4: An illustration for the first steps of the proof of Lemma 3.5
$u$ is 3 and that $u$ and $v_{1}$ are in the same $\alpha_{1} / \beta$-path, we perform the proof of the lemma for this recolouring fan:

1. We uncolour the edge $v_{3} w_{3}$ (see Figure 3.4(b)).
2. Being $P=v_{3} a v_{0} w_{3}$ the $\alpha_{1} / \beta$-path starting at $v_{3}$, we fall into the case wherein none amongst $u$ and $v_{1}$ is in $P$. Then, following the proof, we exchange the colours along $P$ (see Figure 3.5(a) on the next page). Remark that after this colour exchanging operation the colour $\alpha_{2}$, not involved in the operation, is still missing at the vertex $w_{3}$, as we need.
3. We apply the decay of the colours to colour $u v_{0}$ and then we assign to the edge $v_{3} w_{3}$ the colour $\alpha_{2}$ (see Figure 3.5(b)).


Figure 3.5: An illustration for the last steps of the proof of Lemma 3.5

Lemma 3.6. If there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ and some $j<k$ such that $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually and $w_{j+1}=v_{k}$, then $G$ is Class 1 .

Proof. First, we verify:

1. if the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ for $u v$ satisfies Lemma 3.3;
2. if the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j+1}$ for $u v$ satisfies Lemma 3.4, observing that $\varphi\left(u w_{j+1}\right)\left(=\alpha_{k-1}\right) \neq \alpha_{i}$ for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, j\}$ already holds.

If the verification above have failed, we uncolour the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, in the case wherein $v_{j}$ misses $\alpha_{j}$ virtually, leaving this edge to be coloured later (see Figure 3.6(a)). Then, let $\beta$ be a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$ and let $P$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path starting at $v_{k}$. Since we have assumed that Lemma 3.3 is not satisfied by $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$, and since the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$ has been uncoloured in the case wherein $v_{j}$ misses $\alpha_{j}$ virtually, we know that neither $u$ nor $v_{j}$ is in $P$. We perform the following steps:


Figure 3.6: An illustration for Step 1 of the proof of Lemma 3.6

Step 1. We exchange the colours along $P$. The colour exchanging operation yields $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$, but now $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is no longer a recolouring fan, since $w_{j+1}\left(=v_{k}\right)$ no longer misses $\alpha_{j}$ (see Figure 3.6(b)).

Step 2. Recall that $u$ and $v_{j}$ are in the same $\alpha_{j} / \alpha_{k-1}$-component, otherwise Lemma 3.4 would have been satisfied by $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j+1}$ at the beginning of the proof. We
perform the decay of the colours described in the proof of Lemma 3.2, starting at the edge $u v_{k}$, but stopping just before the procedure reaches $u v_{j+1}$. Then, we temporarily uncolour $v_{j+1} w_{j+1}$ and assign $\alpha_{j+1}$ to $u v_{j+1}$. Now, the colour $\alpha_{j}$ is missing at both $u$ and $v_{j}$ (see Figure 3.7(a)), but we cannot apply Lemma 3.2 on $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ (yet), because this would leave $v_{j+1} v_{k}$ uncoloured.
Step 3. Let $Q$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \alpha_{k-1}$-path starting at $v_{k}$. Remark that $Q$ cannot end at $v_{j+1}$, otherwise in the beginning of Step 2 the $\alpha_{j} / \alpha_{k-1}$-component containing $u$ would have been a cycle, thus not containing $v_{j}$, a contradiction. Therefore, now, by exchanging the colours along $Q$ we obtain $\alpha_{j}$ missing at $v_{k}$ again and still at $v_{j+1}$, so $v_{j+1} v_{k}$ can be coloured $\alpha_{j}$. If neither $u$ or $v_{j}$ is in $Q$, then $\alpha_{j}$ is still missing at both $u$ and $v_{j}$, so we can apply Lemma 3.2 on $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ (assigning to the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, if any, the colour $\alpha_{j-1}$ ) and we are done. However, it might be the case that one amongst $u$ and $v_{j}$ is the other outer vertex of $Q$, which would make $\alpha_{j}$ not be missing at either $u$ (as in Figure 3.7(b)) or $v_{j}$.


Figure 3.7: An illustration for Steps 2 and 3 of the proof of Lemma 3.6

Step 4. For this step we have the following cases, in each of which we end up with a recolouring fan satisfying the conditions of either Lemma 3.2 or Lemma 3.5. Notice in all the cases that, after applying the corresponding lemma, the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, if any, can be coloured $\alpha_{j-1}$.
(a) If the vertices $u$ and $v_{j}$ still do not lie in the same $\alpha_{j} / \alpha_{k-1}$-component, even after assigning $\alpha_{j}$ to $v_{j+1} v_{k}$ in Step 3, then changing the colours along the component to which one of them belongs yields the same colour missing at both. This way $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ becomes a complete recolouring fan and we are done by Lemma 3.2.
(b) If assigning $\alpha_{j}$ to $v_{j+1} v_{k}$ in Step 3 connected the $\alpha_{j} / \alpha_{k-1}$-component to which $u$ and $v_{j}$ belonged, then the sequence

$$
v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{j}, v_{k-1}, v_{k-2}, \ldots, v_{j+2}, v_{j+1}
$$

becomes a recolouring fan whose last vertex $\left(v_{j+1}\right)$ virtually misses a colour $\left(\alpha_{j}\right)$ which is missing at either $u$ (see Figure 3.8(a) on the next page), satisfying Lemma 3.2, or at another vertex ( $v_{j}$ ) in the fan (see Figure 3.8(b)), satisfying Lemma 3.5. The former or the latter happens if, in Step 3, the other outer vertex of $Q$ beside $v_{k}$ was $v_{j}$ or $u$, respectively.


Figure 3.8: An illustration for Step 4 of the proof of Lemma 3.6

Lemma 3.7. If there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ and some $j<k$ such that $v_{j+1}$ misses $\alpha_{j+1}$ virtually and $w_{j+1}$ is in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component $W$ as $v_{k}$ for all $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$, then $G$ is Class 1 .

Proof. Let $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ be a colour missing at $u$. In view of Lemma 3.6, we assume $w_{j+1} \neq v_{k}$, and also that the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ for $u v$ does not satisfy Lemma 3.3, since otherwise we would already be done. Recall that $W$ is clearly a path.

The proof goes similarly to the proof of Lemma 3.6. We first uncolour $v_{j} w_{j}$, if $w_{j}$ is defined. Then, let $P$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component to which $v_{k}$ belongs. Observe that $P=W$ or $P$ is a subpath of $W$. Since we have assumed that Lemma 3.3 is not satisfied by $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$, and since the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, if any, has been uncoloured, we know that neither $u$ nor $v_{j}$ is in $P$.

It should be noticed that the uncolouring of $v_{j} w_{j}$, if $w_{j}$ is defined, may have led to $v_{k}$ and $w_{j+1}$ not belonging to the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path any more. If that is the case, we proceed exactly as in the proof of Lemma 3.5 and we are done. Otherwise, we perform the following steps:

Step 1. We uncolour the edge $v_{k} w_{k}$, if any, and we exchange the colours along the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path starting at $v_{k}$ (a subpath $Q$ of $P$ ). This yields $\beta$ missing at $u$ and also at $v_{k}$. If $w_{j+1}$ is not in $Q$ (which is possible due to the uncolouring of $v_{k} w_{k}$ ), then $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is a complete recolouring fan, so we apply Lemma 3.2, assigning $\alpha_{k-1}$ to $v_{k} w_{k}$, and we are done. Otherwise, the sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is no longer a recolouring fan, since $w_{j+1}$ is in $P$ and no longer misses $\alpha_{j}$.

Step 2. We perform the decay of the colours starting at $u v_{k}$, but stopping just before $u v_{j+1}$, transferring the colour $\alpha_{j+1}$ from $v_{j+1} w_{j+1}$ to $u v_{j+1}$, assigning $\alpha_{k-1}$ to $v_{k} w_{k}$ (if any), and leaving $v_{j+1} w_{j+1}$ temporarily uncoloured, as in Step 2 of the proof of Lemma 3.6. Now, $\alpha_{j}$ is missing at $u, v_{j}$, and $v_{j+1}$, and $\beta$ is missing at $w_{j+1}$ and possibly virtually at $v_{k}$.

Step 3. Let $P^{\prime}$ be the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-path which starts at $w_{j+1}$ now. If $\beta$ is virtually missing at $v_{k}$ and if $w_{k}$ was closer to $w_{j+1}$ in $P$ than $v_{k}$, then the outer vertices of $P^{\prime}$ are $w_{j+1}$ and $w_{k}$. Otherwise, the outer vertices of $P^{\prime}$ are $w_{j+1}$ and $u$. In neither case can $v_{j}$ or $v_{j+1}$ be in $P^{\prime}$, since they both miss $\alpha_{j}$ and the outer vertices of $P^{\prime}$ both miss $\beta$. So, we exchange the colours along $P^{\prime}$ and assign $\alpha_{j}$ to $v_{j+1} w_{j+1}$. If $u$ is not in $P^{\prime}$, then it still misses $\alpha_{j}$ and $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ fits the conditions of Lemma 3.2. If $u$ is
in $P$, then it now misses $\beta$, whilst $v_{j}$ still misses $\alpha_{j}$, and the sequence

$$
v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{j}, v_{k}, v_{k-1}, \ldots, v_{j+2}, v_{j+1}
$$

becomes a recolouring fan which fits the conditions of Lemma 3.5, with $\alpha_{j}$ virtually missing $v_{j+1}$. After applying the corresponding lemma, the edge $v_{j} w_{j}$, if any, can be coloured $\alpha_{j-1}$.
Lemma 3.8 below concludes the presentation of our recolouring procedure.
Lemma 3.8. If all majors of $G-u v$ adjacent to $u$ in $G$ are strictly non-proper majors of $G$, then $G$ is Class 1.

Proof. Throughout this proof, let $G^{\prime}$ denote the subgraph of $G$ induced by the edges coloured by the moment. Since the vertices $u$ and $v$ are not majors of $G-u v$, each of them actually misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$, meaning that $v_{0}=v$ is by itself a recolouring fan for $u v$. If this recolouring fan already satisfies some amongst Lemmas 3.2-3.7, we are done. Otherwise, we continue its construction, until some of the aforementioned lemmas is satisfied, or until we have reached a maximal recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$. We assume that, in this recolouring fan:

- only majors of $G-u v$ are allowed to virtually miss a colour;
- for all $j<k-1, v_{j}$ does not miss $\alpha_{k-1}$, actually or virtually, otherwise we would be able to replace the current recolouring fan with $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}, v_{k}$.
The only possible reason why the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is maximal and does not satisfy any amongst Lemmas $3.2-3.7$ is if $v_{k}$ is a major of $G-u v$ (thus no colour is actually missing at $v_{k}$ ) and one of the following cases holds:

Case 1. there is a colour $\beta$ actually missing at both $u$ and at some $y \in N_{G^{\prime}}\left(v_{k}\right)$;
Case 2. no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}-v_{k-1}$ actually misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ and no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}-u$ misses $\beta$, for all $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$.

Subroutine for Case 1. In this case, we first check if $y$ is the vertex $v_{k-1}$. If it is, then $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ satisfies Lemma 3.2 and we are done. If $y \neq v_{k-1}$, we know that no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}$, except for $v_{k-1}$ if $v_{k-1} v_{k} \in E$, misses $\alpha_{k-1}$, otherwise either $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ would satisfy some amongst Lemmas 3.2-3.7 or would not be maximal. Let $P$ be the $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$ path starting at $u$. If $v_{k-1}$ is not in $P$, then $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ satisfies Lemma 3.3 and we are done. Otherwise, we have the following subcases:

1. If $y$ is not in $P$, we exchange the colours along $P$. Observe that $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ remains a recolouring fan, because the colour of the edge $u v_{k}(\beta)$ is missing (possibly virtually) at $v_{k-1}$ and, for all $j<k-1$, neither $\alpha_{k-1}$ nor $\beta$ is equal to $\alpha_{j}$. However, now $v_{k}$ has a neighbour ( $y$ ) distinct from $v_{k-1}$ which misses the colour of the edge $u v_{k}(\beta)$, which means that $v_{k}$ virtually misses the colour of the edge $v_{k} y$, with $y$ in the role of $w_{k}$. Remark that if we have not guaranteed that $y \neq v_{k-1}$ then $y$ would not be able to assume the role of $w_{k}$ (recall Definition 3.1). Therefore, being $\alpha_{k}$ be the colour of $v_{k} y$, either the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ satisfies the conditions of some amongst Lemmas 3.2-3.7, or there is some $v_{k+1} \in N_{G^{\prime}}(u)$ such $\alpha_{k}$ is the colour of the edge $u v_{k+1}$. In the former case, we are done. In the latter, the recolouring fan is no longer maximal and we can continue to construct it.
2. If $y$ is in $P$, then $v_{k-1}$ (which is also in $P$ ) misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ virtually and the outer vertices of $P$ are $u$ and $y$. If $w_{k-1}$ is closer than $v_{k-1}$ to $u$ in $P$, then $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ satisfies Lemma 3.3 and we are done. Otherwise:
(a) If $\varphi\left(v_{k} y\right)=\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$ (which implies $j<k-1$ ), we check if $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ satisfies Lemma 3.3. We also check if exchanging the colours along the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component containing $y$ makes $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ satisfy Lemma 3.3. If it does not, we undo this colour exchanging operation and uncolour the edges $v_{k} y$ and $v_{k-1} w_{k-1}$. Now $v_{k}$ actually misses $\alpha_{j}$ and $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ satisfies Lemma 3.5. Since $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ does not satisfy Lemma 3.3, performing the proof of Lemma 3.5 leads to the decay of the colours of the recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$, after which we have $\varphi\left(u v_{k}\right)=\beta$ and $\varphi\left(u v_{k-1}\right)=\alpha_{k-1}$, so $v_{k-1} w_{k-1}$ can be coloured $\alpha_{k-2}$. Then, exchanging the colours along the $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$ component $Q$ which contains $y$ (which may have been modified while we performed the proof of Lemma 3.5) brings $\alpha_{k-1}$ missing at $y$. Since $v_{k}$ is not in $Q$ (otherwise in the beginning the colour exchanging operation on the $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component to which $y$ belonged would have made $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ satisfy Lemma 3.3), the edge $v_{k} y$ can be coloured $\alpha_{k-1}$ and we are done.
(b) If $\varphi\left(v_{k} y\right) \notin\left\{\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1}\right\}$, we pretend that $v_{k}$ misses $\alpha_{k}:=\varphi\left(v_{k} y\right)$ virtually, with $y$ in the role of $w_{k}$, and we continue to construct the recolouring fan, until we get a recolouring fan which satisfies some amongst Lemmas 3.23.7. Performing the proof of the corresponding lemma leads to a decay of colours which may not pass by the edge $u v_{k}$. If that happens, we have nothing to handle. However, if the decay of colours which is to be performed shall pass by $u v_{k}$, we first check if it is still true that $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k-1}$ does not satisfy Lemma 3.3. Then, when the decay of the colours reaches the edge $u v_{k}$, we uncolour $v_{k-1} w_{k-1}$ and exchange the colours along the $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$-path starting at $y$ (which does not end at $v_{k-1}$ ). After that, we proceed normally with the decay, obtaining $\varphi\left(u v_{k}\right)=\alpha_{k}, \varphi\left(v_{k} y\right)=\alpha_{k-1}, \varphi\left(u v_{k-1}\right)=\alpha_{k-1}$, and $\varphi\left(v_{k-1} w_{k-1}\right)=\alpha_{k-2}$.

Subroutine for Case 2. In this case, first observe that, since $v_{k}$ is a strictly non-proper major of $G$ and $u v$ has not been coloured yet, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{y \in N_{G^{\prime}}\left(v_{k}\right)}\left(\Delta-d_{G^{\prime}}(y)\right) \geqslant \Delta+1 . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, by the Pigeonhole Principle, there must be some $\gamma \in \mathscr{C}$ actually missing at two neighbours $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}$. This colour $\gamma$ cannot be $\alpha_{k-1}$ nor $\beta$, by the hypothesis of the case. Further, only one amongst $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$, say $y_{1}$, is possible to be in the $\beta / \gamma$-path which ends at $u$, so we exchange the colours along the $\beta / \gamma$-path starting at $y_{2}$ belongs. We know that $\gamma$ is neither $\alpha_{k-1}$ nor missing at $u$, and that $v_{k-1}$ and $u$ lie in the same $\alpha_{k-1} / \beta$-path. However, it is possible that $y_{2}=v_{j}$ for some $j \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$. If that is the case, we have now $\beta$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{j}$, so $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ is a complete recolouring fan and we are done by Lemma 3.2. Otherwise, we are back to Case 1.

### 3.2 Main result and further applications

Now we are ready to prove our main result on edge-colouring graphs with bounded local degree sums.

Proof of Theorem 1.10 (p.24). With the recolouring procedure which we have developed in Section 3.1, the proof follows straightforwardly by constructing a $\Delta$-edge-colouring $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ edge by edge, applying Lemma 3.8 at each edge $u v$ considered, since in all graphs in $\mathscr{X}$ all majors have local degree sum bounded above by $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$, that is, are strictly non-proper.

In Theorem 3.9 below we show that almost every graph is in $\mathscr{X}$ even given that the graph has cycles in the core, as we have announced in Chapter 1. In the proof, as it is usual in the context of random graphs ${ }^{1}$, when we say that some set $S \subseteq V(G) \cup E(G)$ in an $n$-vertex $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph $G$ almost surely satisfies some property $p(S)$, this means that $\mathbb{P}[p(S)] \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Theorem 3.9. Almost every graph which has cycles in the core and $\Delta>2$ is in $\mathscr{X}$.
Proof. Let $G$ be a $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph. Consider the following:
Claim. There is some constant $k_{0}$ such that:
(i) $G$ almost surely has a vertex of degree at least $k_{0}$;
(ii) for every $u \in V(G)$ such that $d_{G}(u)>k_{0}$, the graph $G$ almost surely does not have a vertex of degree exactly $d_{G}(u)-1$.

If the claim holds and if $u$ is a uniformly sampled vertex from $V(G)$, then $\mathbb{P}\left[d_{G}(u) \leqslant \Delta-2\right] \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if it is given that $\Delta>2$. Furthermore, by linearity of expectation follows that if it is also given that the vertices of some $U \subseteq V(G)$ have degree $\Delta$, then still the vertices of $V(G) \backslash U$ almost surely have degree at most $\Delta-2$. Hence, if it is given that $\Lambda[G]$ has a cycle $C$ and $\Delta>2$, then almost surely $\Lambda[G]=C$ and hence, for each $x \in \Lambda[G]$, all neighbours of $x$ which are not in $C$ almost surely have degree in $G$ at most $\Delta-2$. This brings that almost surely

$$
\sum_{u \in N_{G}(x)} d_{G}(u) \leqslant 2 \Delta+(\Delta-2)^{2} \leqslant \Delta^{2}-\Delta
$$

as we wanted.
Now we shall prove that the claim holds, following the same argument by Erdős and Wilson (1977) used to show that there is some constant $k_{0}$ such that $G$ almost surely has a vertex of degree at least $k_{0}$, but, for every $k>k_{0}$, the graph $G$ almost surely does not have two vertices both of degree $k$. In fact, this was shown by Erdős and Wilson for

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{0}:=\frac{1}{2}((n-1)+(1-\varepsilon) n \ln n)^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any constant $\varepsilon>0$. We shall demonstrate that Erdős and Wilson's proof also works to show that, for every $k>k_{0}$, the graph $G$ almost surely does not have two vertices $u$ and $v$ such that $d_{G}(u)=k$ and $d_{G}(u)=k-1$.

[^10]Given two vertices $u$ and $v$ and two integers $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$, a classical elementary fact on random graphs is that the probability that the events $d_{G}(u)=k_{1}$ and $d_{G}(v)=k_{2}$ both occur, despite their non-independence, is (by the Inclusion-Exclusion Principle)

$$
(1+o(1))\binom{n-1}{k_{1}}\binom{n-1}{k_{2}} 2^{2-2 n}
$$

Therefore, being any $\varepsilon>0$ and $k_{0}$ defined for $\varepsilon$ as in (3.2), the probability of the event $E$ that a labelled $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph $G$ has two vertices $u$ and $v$ such that $d_{G}(u)=k>k_{0}$ and $d_{G}(v)=k-1$ is

$$
\mathbb{P}(E)=(1+o(1)) n^{2} \sum_{k>k_{0}}\binom{n-1}{k}\binom{n-1}{k-1} 2^{2-2 n}=(1+o(1)) n^{2} \sum_{k>k_{0}} \frac{k}{n-k}\binom{n-1}{k}^{2} 2^{2-2 n}
$$

As shown by Erdős and Wilson (1977),

$$
\binom{n-1}{k} 2^{1-n} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad \text { if } k>\frac{1}{2}((n-1)+(1-\varepsilon) n \ln n)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

Hence, $\mathbb{P}(E) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
It remains to demonstrate, being $E^{\prime}$ the event that a unlabelled $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph $G$ has two vertices $u$ and $v$ such that $d_{G}(u)=k>k_{0}$ and $d_{G}(u)=k-1$, that also $\mathbb{P}\left(E^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. But this follows from a classical result in random graph theory according to which every property which holds for almost every labelled graph simultaneously holds for almost every unlabelled graph (Harary and Palmer, 1973, Chapter 9).

In earlier versions of the recolouring procedure presented in Section 3.1, we have restricted ourselves to triangle-free graphs first, until we could manage the many complications originated by allowing triangles and the procedure could thus come to its current version. Of course, all the lemmas in Section 3.1 still hold for the restricted case of triangle-free graphs. Nevertheless, Lemma 3.8 in particular can be stated a slightly stronger for triangle-free graphs:

Lemma 3.10. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a triangle-free graph and $\varphi: E \backslash\{u v\} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ be a $\Delta$-edgecolouring of $G-u v$ for some $u v \in E$. If all majors of $G-u v$ adjacent to $u$ in $G$ are (not necessarily strictly) non-proper majors of $G$, then $G$ is Class 1 .

Proof. The same proof for Lemma 3.8 applies, with a minor modification in Case 2, when we have reached a maximal recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ such that no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}-v_{k-1}$ actually misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ and no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}-u$ misses $\beta$, for all $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$. Remark that, in the case of triangle-free graphs, saying that no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}-v_{k-1}$ actually misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ is the same as saying that no neighbour of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}$ actually misses $\alpha_{k-1}$. From this remark, from $\sum_{y \in N_{G^{\prime}}\left(v_{k}\right)}\left(\Delta-d_{G^{\prime}}(y)\right) \geqslant \Delta$, and from the Pigeonhole Principle, there must be some $\gamma \in \mathscr{C} \backslash\left\{\alpha_{k-1}, \beta\right\}$ actually missing at two neighbours $y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ of $v_{k}$ in $G^{\prime}$, and the rest of the proof follows analogously as the proof for Lemma 3.8.

From Lemma 3.10 follows a stronger version of Theorem 1.10 when restricted to triangle-free graphs:

Theorem 3.11. Every triangle-free graph with no proper majors is Class 1.

Proof. Analogous to proof for Theorem 1.10, but applying Lemma 3.10 instead of Lemma 3.8 at each edge $u v$ considered.

The first application of the earliest version of our recolouring procedure was on edge-colouring triangle-free graphs with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ (see Theorem 3.12), which we show to be Class 1. Although one can derive an alternative and much simpler proof for this fact, without requiring an extended recolouring procedure, we consider that the main contribution in this result is the novel recolouring procedure itself, regardless of the simple application presented.

## Theorem 3.12. Every triangle-free graph with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ is Class 1 .

Proof. We shall construct an edge-colouring of $G$ edge by edge using a set $\mathscr{C}$ with $\Delta$ colours. For each edge $u v$ taken in order to receive a colour, if we define $G^{\prime}$ as the subgraph of $G$ induced by the edges coloured by the moment, we claim that, for every neighbour $x$ of $u$ in $G^{\prime}$ which has degree $\Delta$ in $G^{\prime}$ (and thus miss actually no colour), either no recolouring fan for $u v$ reaches $x$, or there is some $w \in N_{G^{\prime}}(x)$ which actually misses the colour $\alpha$ of the edge $u x$. If this claim holds, it is clear that we can always construct a recolouring fan for $u v$ which satisfies Lemma 3.2 or Lemma 3.5.

Now we shall prove that $\alpha$ is actually missing at some $w \in N_{G^{\prime}}(x)$ in the case wherein $x$ is reachable by a recolouring fan for $u v$, as claimed. Let $F$ (clearly a matching) be the set of all $\alpha$-coloured edges and $k$ be the number of neighbours of $x$ which do not miss $\alpha$. We have the following cases:

1. If there is some $y \in N_{G^{\prime}}(u)$ which actually misses $\alpha$, then $n-1 \geqslant 2|F|$. Further, since $G$ is triangle-free, no edge of $F$ can connect two neighbours of $x$, and thus $|F| \geqslant k$. However, if we assume that every neighbour of $x$ is an end-vertex of an $\alpha$-coloured edge, we have $k=\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ and, by consequence, $n-1 \geqslant 2(n / 2)$, a contradiction.
2. If no neighbour of $u$ in $G^{\prime}$ actually misses $\alpha$ and, again for the sake of contradiction, to every neighbour of $x$ incides an $\alpha$-coloured edge, then $\Delta=n / 2$ and $F$ is a perfect matching on $G$, since $G$ is triangle-free. Because there is a recolouring fan $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$ such that $v_{k}=x$, then $\alpha=\alpha_{k-1}$ and $v_{k-1}$ misses $\alpha$ virtually, implying that some neighbour $w_{k-1}$ of $v_{k-1}$ in $G^{\prime}$ actually misses $\alpha_{k-2}$. Therefore, the component of $G^{\prime}\left[\alpha, \alpha_{k-2}\right]$ to which $w_{k-1}$ belongs is a path $P$. If the number of edges in $P$ is even, then the other outer vertex of $P$ besides $w_{k-1}$ is a vertex at which $\alpha$ is actually missing, contradicting the fact that $F$ is a perfect matching on $G$. On the other hand, if the number of edges in $P$ is odd, then exchanging the colours along $P$ yields an edge-colouring of $G^{\prime}$ in which the colour $\alpha$ is assigned to $n / 2+1$ edges, something impossible to happen.

As we have mentioned, there is an alternative and much simpler proof for Theorem 3.12, without requiring an extended recolouring procedure. It follows immediately from the observation below and from the $\Delta$-edge-colourability of bipartite graphs (Theorem 1.3, p. 18) and graphs with acyclic core (Theorem 2.3, p. 31).

Observation 3.13. Every triangle-free graph with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ is bipartite or its core is edgeless.
Proof. Let $G$ be a triangle-free graph with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ with $E(\Lambda[G]) \neq \emptyset$. We shall prove that $G$ is bipartite. Let $x y \in E(\Lambda[G])$. Observe that $N_{G}(x)$ and $N_{G}(y)$ are disjoint and
each one of them is an independent set, because $G$ is triangle-free. Since $\left|N_{G}(x)\right|$ and $\left|N_{G}(y)\right|$ are both at least $n / 2$, we have $N_{G}(x) \cup N_{G}(y)=V(G)$, which implies that actually $\Delta=n / 2$ and concludes the proof.

We dedicate the remaining of this section to further theorems which follow from the recolouring procedure presented in Section 3.1. These theorems are stronger statements than the theorems presented in Section 2.2. It should be noticed that each one of the following proofs and the corresponding proof in Section 2.2 are quite similar, with the difference that the former uses the recolouring procedure which we have presented in Section 3.1, whilst the latter uses Vizing's recolouring procedure instead.

The first result is a stronger version of Theorem 2.3 (p.31). In the statement, the hard core of a graph $G$, denoted $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$, is the subgraph of $G$ induced by the majors which have local degree sum at least $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+1$, that is, the majors of $G$ which are proper or tightly non-proper. In the proof, we also use $\mathbb{A}[G]$ to denote the soft core of $G$, that is, the subgraph of $G$ induced by its strictly non-proper majors. Clearly, $\Lambda[G]=\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G] \cup \mathbb{A}[G]$.

Theorem 3.14. Every graph whose hard core is acyclic is Class 1.
Proof. Let $G$ be a graph with acyclic hard core and maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant 2$. We assume $V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]) \neq \emptyset$, since otherwise we would already be done by Theorem 1.10. Remark that $V(\mathbb{\Delta}[G]) \neq \emptyset$ also holds, since the vertices of $V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])$ with degree at most one in $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$ must be adjacent to at least one vertex in $V(\mathbb{\wedge}[G])$, otherwise they would have local degree sum not greater than $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$ in $G$. Therefore, if we take $G^{\prime}:=G-E(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])$, then $\Delta\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\Delta$ and, since all the majors of $G^{\prime}$ are strictly non-proper, we can take a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G^{\prime}$ by Theorem 1.10.

Now we shall colour the edges of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$. As in the proof of Theorem 2.3, for each component $T$ (a tree) of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$, we choose an arbitrary vertex to be the root of $T$, defining for all $u \in V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])$ the height and the parent of $u$ in its tree. Recall that, $h(r)=0$ and $p(r)$ is undefined for every root $r$. For each $i=1, \ldots, \max _{u \in V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])} h(u)$, consider each $u \in V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])$ with $h(u)=i$, one at a time. We shall colour the edge $u p(u)$. Let $G^{\prime}$ be the subgraph of $G$ induced by the edges which have already been coloured by the current moment. Each major $w$ of $G$ adjacent to $u$ in $G$ satisfies one of the following:

1. $w$ is a strictly non-proper major of $G$;
2. $w$ is in $V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])$, but either $w=p(u)$, or $w$ has height greater than $h(u)$, with both cases implying that the edge $w u$ has not been coloured yet and, thus, that $w$ actually misses some colour.
Ergo, we can apply Lemma 3.8 on $u p(u)$.
The following result is a stronger form of Theorem 3.14 when restricted to triangle-free graphs:

Theorem 3.15. If $G$ is triangle-free and the set of the proper majors of $G$ induces an acyclic graph, then $G$ is Class 1.

Proof. Analogous to proof for Theorem 3.14, but applying Lemma 3.10 instead of Lemma 3.8 at each edge $u v$ considered.

Theorem 3.16 on the next page highlights the relevance of the result shown in Theorem 3.14. We already know that almost every graph is in $\mathscr{X}$ and thus is covered by

Theorem 1.10. What we show next is that, when we are given that a random graph is not in $\mathscr{X}$, then almost surely its hard core is acyclic, so the graph is covered by Theorem 3.14 (see Figure 3.9).


Figure 3.9: An optimal edge-colouring of a Class 1 graph whose set of majors (filled) can be partitioned into a set which induces an acyclic graph (the hard core, thicker) and a set of strictly non-proper majors (the soft core). Note that the majors in the hard core are proper ( $\{c\}$ ) or tightly non-proper $(\{a, d\})$ and the whole set of majors does not induce an acyclic graph.

Theorem 3.16. Almost every graph with cycles in the core and $\Delta>2$ which is not in $\mathscr{X}$ has acyclic hard core.

Proof. From Theorem 3.9 follows that if $G$ is a $\mathscr{G}(n, 1 / 2)$ graph, then almost surely $\mathbb{\Delta}[G]=\Lambda[G]$, even given that $\Lambda[G]$ has a cycle and $\Delta>2$. Furthermore, if it is also given that $G[X] \neq \Lambda[G]$, the same arguments used in the proof of Theorem 3.9 can be used to verify that almost surely $\Lambda[G]-X$ is unitary, therefore acyclic.

We know that every vertex of a critical graph is adjacent to at least two majors (Vizing, 1965). With our recolouring procedure, we provide a stronger result:

Theorem 3.17. Every vertex of a critical graph is adjacent to at least two majors with local degree sum at least $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+1$.

Proof. We shall first show that every vertex of $G$ is adjacent to at least two vertices of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$. For this it suffices to show that if $u$ is a vertex adjacent to at most one proper or tightly non-proper major in a graph $G$, and if $G-u$ is Class 1, then $G$ is Class 1. In order to see that, we first take a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G-u$. If all neighbours of $u$ in $G$ are not in $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]$, then we apply Lemma 3.8 to colour each edge incident to $u$ and we are done. Otherwise, let $x$ be the neighbour of $u$ in $G$ such that $x$ is a proper or a tightly non-proper major of G. Again, the proof follows by applying Lemma 3.8 to colour each edge incident to $u$ if we simply leave the edge $u x$ to be coloured at last.

Recall that the semi-core of a graph $G$, denoted $A[G]$, is the subgraph induced by $\bigcup_{u \in V(\Lambda[G])}\left\{\{u\} \cup N_{G}(u)\right)$. Analogously, we define the hard semi-core of $G$, denoted $\mathbf{A}[G]$, which is the subgraph induced by $\bigcup_{u \in V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G])}\left(\{u\} \cup N_{G}(u)\right)$. As the problem of computing an optimal edge-colouring can be reduced to the problem of computing an optimal edge-colouring of its semi-core (Theorem 2.6, p. 35), we show the following stronger statement:

Theorem 3.18. If the hard core of a graph $G$ has no vertex, then $G$ is Class 1. Otherwise, the chromatic index of $G$ is equal to the chromatic index of its hard semi-core.

Proof. First, recall that graphs with empty hard core are precisely the graphs in $\mathscr{X}$, which we have already proved to be Class 1 in Theorem 1.10. So, let $G$ be a graph with $V(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}[G]) \neq \emptyset$, which implies that $V(\mathbf{A}[G]) \neq \emptyset$ and $\Delta(\mathbf{A}[G])=\Delta(G)=: \Delta$. Let also $\varphi$ be an optimal edge-colouring of $A[G]$, being $\mathscr{C}$ the colour set used.

We shall colour the edges of $E(G) \backslash E(\mathbf{A}[G])$, one at a time, using only colours of $\mathscr{C}$. For each edge $u v$ considered, at least one end-vertex of $u v$, say $u$, is not in $V(\mathbf{A}[G])$. Hence, all neighbours of $u$ in $G$ are either non-majors or strictly non-proper majors of $G$. Hence, by applying Lemma 3.8 we get a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ to assign to $u v$.

### 3.3 Remarks on time complexity

Theorem 3.19 provides more details on the polynomiality of our recolouring procedure.

Theorem 3.19. For every graph $G$ in the graph class $\mathscr{X}$, an optimal edge-colouring of $G$ can be computed in $O\left(\Delta^{3} n m\right)$ time, being $n:=|V(G)|, m:=|E(G)|$, and $\Delta:=\Delta(G)$.

Proof. By the proof of Theorem 1.10, the $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$ can be constructed edge by edge applying Lemma 3.8 at each edge $u v$ considered. It suffices then to demonstrate that, for each $u v$, the overall time complexity of the algorithm implicit in the proof of Lemma 3.8 is $O\left(\Delta^{3} n\right)$.

First, we show that, being $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ a recolouring fan for $u v$, testing if this recolouring fan satisfies any amongst Lemmas $3.2-3.7$, as well as performing the corresponding constructive proof, can be done in $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ time. Assuming that we have an $O(\Delta n)$-space data structure which, for all $u \in V$ and all $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$, stores which neighbour $x$ of $u$ in $G-u v$ satisfies $\varphi(u x)=\alpha$ (or nil if there is none), the following worst-case time complexities can be straightforwardly verified:

| Lemma | Testing satisfiability | Performing constructive proof |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3.2 | $O(\Delta)$ | $O(\Delta)$ |
| 3.3 | $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ | $O(n)$ |
| 3.4 | $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ | $O(n)$ |
| 3.5 | $O(\Delta)$ | $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ |
| 3.6 | $O(\Delta)$ | $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ |
| 3.7 | $O(\Delta n)$ | $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ |

It should be noticed that, during the construction of the recolouring fan in the proof of Lemma 3.8, the satisfiability of some amongst Lemmas 3.2-3.7 is verified each time a vertex is appended to the fan. Hence, each step of the construction takes $O\left(\Delta^{2} n\right)$ time, which is not asymptotically inferior to the time complexity of performing the subprocedures established in Cases 1 and 2 of the proof for each time the construction gets stuck. Ergo, since at most $\Delta$ vertices are appended to the fan until the colours of the fan decay and the edge $u v$ is coloured, performing the proof of Lemma 3.8 takes $O\left(\Delta^{3} n\right)$ worst-case time.

The complexity analysis described in the proof of Theorem 3.19 yields the following corollaries. In all of them, $G$ is a graph, $n:=|V(G)|, m:=|E(G)|$, and $\Delta:=\Delta(G)$.

Corollary 3.20. If the hard core of $G$ is acyclic, then an optimal edge-colouring of $G$ can be computed in $O\left(\Delta^{3} n m\right)$ time.

Corollary 3.21. If $u$ is a vertex adjacent to at most one proper or tightly non-proper major in $G$, and if $G-u$ is Class 1 for which we already have a $\Delta$-edge-colouring, then a $\Delta$-edge-colouring for $G$ can be obtained in $O\left(d_{G}(u) \Delta^{3} n\right)$ time.

Corollary 3.22. If the hard core of $G$ is not empty and if we already have an optimal edgecolouring of the hard semi-core of $G$, then an optimal edge-colouring of $G$ can be obtained in $O\left((m-|E(\mathbf{\Lambda}[G])|) \Delta^{3} n\right)$ time.

## 4 On edge-colouring complementary prisms and join graphs

In this chapter we present results on edge-colouring complementary prisms and join graphs. In particular, as announced in Chapter 1, we prove that:

Theorem 1.13. A complementary prism can be Class 2 only if it is a regular graph distinct from the $K_{2}$.

Also, we present evidences for the following conjecture:
Conjecture 1.11. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be disjoint graphs such that $\left|V\left(G_{1}\right)\right| \leqslant\left|V\left(G_{2}\right)\right|$ without loss of generality. If $\Delta\left(G_{1}\right) \geqslant \Delta\left(G_{2}\right)$ and if the majors of $G_{1}$ induce an acyclic graph, then the join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1 .

This chapter is organised as follows:

- Section 4.1 presents some preliminary facts on edge-colouring general graphs which shall be useful for the proofs in the sections which follow;
- Section 4.2 briefly presents the state of the art of edge-colouring join graphs and some results of our own which do not lie on an extended recolouring procedure, including a proof for a slightly weaker statement than Conjecture 1.11;
- Section 4.3 presents an extended recolouring procedure which provides further evidences for Conjecture 1.11;
- Section 4.4 presents the proof for Theorem 1.13;
- Section 4.5 closes the chapter discussing a decomposition technique for edgecolouring yielded by the proof of Theorem 1.13, as well as another decomposition technique which leads to a result on chordal graphs.


### 4.1 Preliminaries for the chapter

We start with a fact on the number of non-majors in a graph with acyclic core.
Lemma 4.1. If a graph $G$ has maximum degree $\Delta>1$ and an acyclic core with s vertices, then $G$ has at least

$$
\max \left\{\Delta-1, s-\left\lfloor\frac{s-2}{\Delta-1}\right\rfloor\right\}
$$

vertices of degree less than $\Delta$.
Proof. Consider the set

$$
X:=\left\{(u, e): u \in V(\Lambda[G]) \text { and } e \in \partial_{G}(u)\right\} .
$$

As each $u \in V(\Lambda[G])$ appears in $X$ exactly $d_{G}(u)=\Delta$ times, we have $|X|=s \Delta$. On the other hand, because

$$
\bigcup_{u \in V(\Lambda[G])} \partial_{G}(u)=E(\Lambda[G]) \cup \partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G])),
$$

each edge of $E(\Lambda[G])$ appears in $X$ exactly twice, whereas each edge of $\partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))$ appears in $X$ exactly once, which brings

$$
|X|=2|E(\Lambda[G])|+\left|\partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right|
$$

and $\left|\partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right| \geqslant s(\Delta-2)+2$, since $|E(\Lambda[G])| \leqslant s-1$.
Because for all $u \in V(G) \backslash V(\Lambda[G])$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\partial_{G}(u) \cap \partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right| \leqslant s \quad \text { and } \\
& \left|\partial_{G}(u) \cap \partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right| \leqslant \Delta-1,
\end{aligned}
$$

and since

$$
\left|\partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right|=\sum_{u \in V(G) \backslash V(\Lambda[G])}\left|\partial_{G}(u) \cap \partial_{G}(V(\Lambda[G]))\right|
$$

we have both $(n-s) s$ and $(n-s)(\Delta-1)$ at least $s(\Delta-2)+2$, implying

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n-s \geqslant\left\lceil(\Delta-2)+\frac{2}{s}\right\rceil \geqslant \Delta-1 \quad \text { and } \\
& n-s \geqslant\left\lceil s-\frac{s-2}{\Delta-1}\right\rceil=s-\left\lfloor\frac{s-2}{\Delta-1}\right\rfloor
\end{aligned}
$$

since $n-s$ is an integer and $s>0$.
The bound in Lemma 4.1 is tight, being the diamond (Figure 1.2, p. 12) an example of a graph with acyclic core and $\Delta-1=s-\lfloor(s-2) /(\Delta-1)\rfloor=2$ non-majors.

The following is a standard result implied by Theorem 2.8 (p. 36).
Observation 4.2. Every n-vertex graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta$ has a $(\Delta+1)$-edgecolouring in which at least $\min \{\Delta+1,\lceil n / 2\rceil\}$ colours are missed by at least one vertex each.

Proof. In an equitable ( $\Delta+1$ )-edge-colouring of $G$, whose existence is guaranteed by Theorem 2.8, every colour is assigned to either $\lfloor m /(\Delta+1)\rfloor$ or $\lceil m /(\Delta+1)\rceil$ edges and, thus, is not missing at either $2\lfloor m /(\Delta+1)\rfloor$ or $2\lceil m /(\Delta+1)\rceil$ vertices. Hence, if in such an edge-colouring the number of colours missing at no vertex is $k=0$, we already have $\Delta+1$ colours which are missed by at least one vertex each, so nothing remains to be shown. However, if $k>0$, then $\Delta+1-k$ colours are missing at 2 vertices each. As each vertex misses at least one colour, this brings $2(\Delta+1-k) \geqslant n$ and hence $\Delta+1-k \geqslant\lceil n / 2\rceil$.

Lemma 4.3 below is a classical result on edge-colouring regular graphs which is often referred to as the Parity Lemma in the literature. The proof for this lemma was originally presented by Isaacs (1975) for cubic graphs, but it actually works for $d$-regular graphs for all $d \geqslant 2$, as shown.

Lemma 4.3 (The Parity Lemma (Isaacs, 1975)). Let $G$ be a Class 1 d-regular graph with $d \geqslant 2$ and let $F$ be a cut in $G$. Let also $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be two colours used in a d-edge-colouring of $G$, being $f_{\alpha}$ and $f_{\beta}$ the numbers of edges in $F$ coloured $\alpha$ and coloured $\beta$, respectively. Then

$$
f_{\alpha} \equiv f_{\beta} \quad(\bmod 2)
$$

Proof. Since no colour is missing at any vertex in the $d$-edge-colouring, we know that the subgraph of $G$ induced by the edges coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$ is a disjoint union of even cycles $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$ for some $k \geqslant 1$. Hence, $\left|E\left(C_{i}\right) \cap F\right|$ must be even for each $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$, since $F$ is a cut. Therefore, in each one of these cycles the parity of the number $f_{\alpha}^{(i)}$ of $\alpha$-coloured edges in $E\left(C_{i}\right) \cap F$ must be equal to the parity of the number $f_{\beta}^{(i)}$ of $\beta$-coloured edges in $E\left(C_{i}\right) \cap F$. The proof is concluded by observing that $f_{\alpha}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} f_{\alpha}^{(i)}$ and $f_{\beta}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} f_{\beta}^{(i)}$.

From the Parity Lemma follow interesting facts on edge-colouring regular graphs, such as the standard results stated in Observations 4.4 and 4.5.

Observation 4.4. Every $d$-regular graph $G$ with a bridge is Class 2, for any $d \geqslant 2$.
Proof. If $G$ is a $d$-regular graph with a bridge $e$ and a $d$-edge-colouring $\varphi$, then the parity of the number of edges in $\{e\}$ coloured $\alpha$ is 1 , if $\alpha=\varphi(e)$, or 0 , otherwise. Since $\{e\}$ is a cut, this contradicts the Parity Lemma (Lemma 4.3).
Observation 4.5. If $d$ is an odd integer and $G$ is a Class $2 d$-regular graph on an even number of vertices, then $G-u$ is also Class 2 for any $u \in V(G)$.

Proof. We shall use the Parity Lemma (Lemma 4.3) to show the contraposition of the statement. Let $d$ be an odd integer, let $G$ be a $d$-regular graph such that $G-u$ is Class 1, and take any $d$-edge-colouring of $G-u$. We shall demonstrate how to construct a $d$-edge-colouring of $G$.

From the graph $G-u$ and the $d$-edge-colouring taken, we create the $d$-edgecolourable graph $G^{\prime}$ as follows: for each neighbour $v$ of $u$ in $G$, we add a new pendant vertex $v^{\prime}$ to $G-u v$, connecting it only with $v$ and assigning to the edge $v v^{\prime}$ the only colour which is missing at $v$. Let $F$ be the set of the created edges. Since $F$ is a cut in $G^{\prime}$ with exactly $k$ edges, and since $k$ is odd, the lemma brings that each one of the $k$ colours is assigned to exactly one of the edges in $F$. The proof is concluded by identifying all the $k$ new vertices to the vertex $u$.

Remark that Observation 4.5 does not hold when $d$ is even, being the $K_{3}$ the smallest counterexample of a critical regular graph.

We close this section with an interesting application of the Pigeonhole Principle.
Lemma 4.6 (joint with A. Zorzi). Let $G=(V, E)$ be an $n$-vertex graph with $m \leqslant\lceil\Delta(n-1) / 2\rceil$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then, for all $k \in\{m, \ldots,\lceil\Delta(n-1) / 2\rceil\}$, there is a multigraph $\mathcal{G}$ with $|E(\mathcal{G})|=k, \Delta(\mathcal{G})=\Delta$, and $\chi^{\prime}(\mathcal{G}) \leqslant \Delta+1$ which has $G$ as a spanning subgraph.

Proof. If $k=m$, it suffices to take $\mathcal{G}:=G$. Otherwise, consider a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring of $G$ and let $R$ be the set of all pairs $(\{u, v\}, \alpha)$ such that $u$ and $v$ are any vertices of $G$ and $\alpha$ is a colour missing at both. We must have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u \in V}\left(\Delta-d_{G}(u)\right) \geqslant \Delta+2(k-m) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

otherwise

$$
\Delta n-\sum_{u \in V} d_{G}(u) \geqslant \Delta+2 k-2 m
$$

and, since $\sum_{u \in V} d_{G}(u)=2 m$,

$$
\Delta n-2 k \leqslant \Delta-1
$$

which implies

$$
2 k \geqslant \Delta(n-1)+1
$$

and, since $k$ is an integer,

$$
k \geqslant\left\lceil\frac{\Delta(n-1)+1}{2}\right\rceil>\left\lceil\frac{\Delta(n-1)}{2}\right\rceil,
$$

a contradiction.
Due to (4.1), we claim that we can take some $S \subseteq R$ such that $|S|=k-m$ and no vertex $u$ appears in more than $\Delta-d_{G}(u)$ of the pairs in $S$. Therefore, all we have to do is to add a (possibly multiple) edge $u v$ to $\mathcal{G}$ and colour it $\alpha$, for any such $(\{u, v\}, \alpha) \in S$. In order to prove the claim, observe by the Pigeonhole Principle that there must be some $(\{u, v\}, \alpha) \in R$ with both $d_{G}(u)$ and $d_{G}(v)$ strictly less than $\Delta$, since we have only $\Delta+1$ colours. If we add the edge $u v$ to $\mathcal{G}$ and remove it from $R$, we decrease the sum $\sum_{u \in V}\left(\Delta-d_{\mathcal{G}}(u)\right)$ exactly by 2 . If $k-m>1$, there is again some $\left(\left\{u^{\prime}, v^{\prime}\right\}, \alpha\right) \in R$ with both $d_{\mathcal{G}}\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ and $d_{\mathcal{G}}\left(v^{\prime}\right)$ less than $\Delta$, so we repeat the procedure another $k-m-1$ times.

### 4.2 An introduction to edge-colouring join graphs

Before we start, we remark that some authors, when defining a join graph $G_{1} * G_{2}$, do not assume that $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are disjoint graphs, differently from our definition of join graphs presented in Chapter 1. The two definitions are equivalent, except for the particular case of the $K_{1}$. If we do not assume disjointness, the $K_{1}$ can be considered a join graph (since it could be given by the join of two complete graphs on the same unitary vertex set); otherwise, it cannot be a join graph. Excluding the particular case of the $K_{1}$, which makes no difference in the context of edge-colouring join graphs, the operands $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ can always be assumed disjoint because, if they are not, we can simply replace $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ with the graphs $G_{1}^{\prime}$ and $G_{2}^{\prime}$, respectively, defined by:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
V\left(G_{1}^{\prime}\right)=V\left(G_{1}\right) ; & E\left(G_{1}^{\prime}\right)=E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup\left\{u v: u, v \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \cap V\left(G_{2}\right)\right\} ; \\
V\left(G_{2}^{\prime}\right)=V\left(G_{2}\right) \backslash V\left(G_{1}\right) ; & E\left(G_{2}^{\prime}\right)=E\left(G_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{u v \in E\left(G_{2}\right): u \in V\left(G_{1}\right)\right\} .
\end{array}
$$

Remark that this argument can be used to show that a graph distinct from the $K_{1}$ is a join graph if and only if its complement is disconnected. Hence, join graphs can be recognised in linear time with the algorithms presented by Ito and Yokoyama (1998).

We have presented in Chapter 2 many graph classes for which optimal vertexcolourings can be computed in polynomial time, but for which the complexity of CHRIND is $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete or it is still undetermined. Join graphs seem to break this phenomenon in some sense. Since all $n$-vertex join graphs satisfy $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$, the Overfull Conjecture suggests the existence of a linear-time algorithm for CHRIND when restricted to join graphs, as discussed in Chapter 2. On the other hand, computing optimal vertexcolourings is clearly $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-hard even for graphs with a universal vertex (a subclass of join graphs for which edge-colourings can be computed in polynomial time according to Plantholt (1981), recall Table 1.1 (p. 22)).

Besides graphs with a universal vertex, other subclasses of join graphs for which the Overfull Conjecture has already been proved are the complete multipartite graphs (Hoffman and Rodger, 1992) and the regular join graphs (De Simone and Galluccio, 2007). For the remaining of the class, only partial results are known, mostly sufficient
conditions for a join graph to be Class 1. Theorem 4.7 presents some of these conditions which we have found in the literature. In the statement, and throughout this text, we define, for $i \in\{1,2\}, n_{i}:=\left|V_{i}\right|, m_{i}:=\left|E_{i}\right|$, and $\Delta_{i}:=\Delta\left(G_{i}\right)$.

Theorem 4.7 (De Simone and Mello, 2006; Machado and Figueiredo, 2010; Cunha Lima et al., 2015). The following conditions are sufficient for a join graph $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$ with $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}$ to be Class 1:
(1) $\Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$ (De Simone and Mello, 2006);
(2) $n_{2}-n_{1}>\Delta_{2}$ (Machado and Figueiredo, 2010);
(3) $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are regular graphs and $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is even (De Simone and Galluccio, 2009, 2013).
(4) $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}=$ : $d$ and at least one of the following holds:
(a) both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are Class 1 De Simone and Mello (2006);
(b) each connected component of $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ has at most $d+1$ vertices (De Simone and Mello, 2006; Cunha Lima et al., 2015);
(c) each connected component of $G_{1}$ has at most $d+1$ vertices, $G_{2}$ is bipartite, and either d is odd or $G_{2}$ has no induced $K_{d, d}$ (Cunha Lima et al., 2015);
(d) $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is edgeless (Cunha Lima et al., 2015).

The results in Theorem 4.7 $4 \mathrm{~b}-4 \mathrm{c}$ ) were stated by the authors under $n_{1}=n_{2}$, but we remark that the same proofs provided work with $n_{1}<n_{2}$.

Throughout the remaining of this chapter, when dealing with a join graph $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$, we always assume $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}$ without loss of generality. We present results for the case wherein $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, which implies $\Delta(G)=\Delta_{1}+n_{2}$. In this context, we define $B_{G}:=G-\left(E_{1} \cup E_{2}\right)$, which is a complete bipartite subgraph of $G$. Observe that every maximal matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ covers $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and, if $n_{1}=n_{2}$, then $M$ is actually a perfect matching on $B_{G}$. Since we know that $G$ is Class 1 if $\Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$ (Theorem 4.7(1)), we assume in all the proofs (not in the statements) in this chapter, except for the proof of Lemma 4.17 in p. 74 , that $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}=: d$.

Let $G_{M}:=\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right)+M$ for any maximal matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ and $M(x)$ be the vertex matched to $x$ by $M$ for any $x \in V\left(G_{1}\right)$ (see Figure 4.1).

The proofs of Theorem 4.7(1 and 4) follow from an observation by De Simone and Mello (2006) which provides a decomposition technique for edge-colouring join graphs with $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$. This technique shall be used to prove some of our results.

Observation 4.8 (De Simone and Mello, 2006). If $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$ and $G_{M}$ is Class 1, then $G$ is also Class 1.

Proof. Follows from the facts that: $G=G_{M} \cup\left(B_{G}-M\right), \Delta\left(G_{M}\right)=\Delta_{1}+1$, and $B_{G}-M$ is a bipartite, hence Class 1 (Theorem 1.3, p. 18), graph satisfying $\Delta\left(B_{G}-M\right)=n_{2}-1$. Ergo, in order to obtain a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring for $G$, it suffices to take a $(\Delta+1)$-edge-colouring of $G_{M}$ and a $\left(n_{2}-1\right)$-edge-colouring of $B_{G}-M$ on disjoint sets of colours.

Next, using Vizing's original recolouring procedure, we present a proof for a weaker statement than Conjecture 1.11:


Figure 4.1: The graph $G_{M}$ corresponding to a perfect matching on the graph $B_{G}$ for the join graph of Figure 1.17

Theorem 4.9. If $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$ and $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is acyclic, and if, being $T_{1}, \ldots, T_{k}$ the connected components of $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$,

$$
\left|\left\{u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right): d_{\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]}(u)>1\right\}\right|+\left|\left\{T_{i}:\left|V\left(T_{i}\right)\right|=2\right\}\right| \leqslant n_{2}-\left|V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)\right|,
$$

then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. First note that if $n_{1}<n_{2}$, then $\Lambda[G]=\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is acyclic, and thus $G$ is Class 1 by Theorem 2.3 (p.31). So, the only remaining case is when $n_{1}=n_{2}$ and, by consequence, $\Delta(G)=n_{1}+d=n_{2}+d$.

For each component $T_{i}$ of $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$, observe that $T_{i}$ is a tree and: if $T_{i}$ has more than two vertices, we pick up a vertex with degree in $T_{i}$ greater than one to be the root of $T_{i}$; otherwise, we pick up any vertex of $T_{i}$ to be the root of $T_{i}$. Being $r_{i}$ the chosen root of $T_{i}$, we define for each $u \in V\left(T_{i}\right)$ the height of $u$, denoted $h(u)$, the parent of $u$, denoted $p(u)$, and the children of $u$ as all the neighbours of $u$ distinct from $p(u)$. Furthermore, we define $h\left(T_{i}\right):=\max _{u \in V\left(T_{i}\right)} h(u)$ and the leaves of $T_{i}$ as the vertices of $T_{i}-r_{i}$ without children. Notice that, if $T_{i}$ has only two vertices, one shall be considered the root and the other shall be considered a leaf. Also, if $T_{i}$ is trivial, then its unique vertex shall be considered a root, not a leaf.

Let $M$ be a perfect matching on $B_{G}$ such that every $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ which is not a leaf and does not belong to a trivial $T_{i}$ has at least one child $w$ satisfying $M(w) \notin$ $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)$. Because a vertex $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ is not a leaf and does not belong to a trivial $T_{i}$ if and only if $d_{\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]}(u)>1$ or $u=r_{i}$ for some $T_{i}$ with two vertices, the choice of the matching $M$ does not require more than

$$
\left|\left\{u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right): d_{\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]}(u)>1\right\}\right|+\left|\left\{T_{i}:\left|V\left(T_{i}\right)\right|=2\right\}\right|
$$

non-majors in $G_{2}$, whose existence are guaranteed by hypothesis.
We shall colour the edges of $G_{M}$ using a set $\mathscr{C}$ of $d+1$ colours by performing the following algorithm:

Step 1. For each $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ which is not a leaf and belongs to a non-trivial $T_{i}$, choose one child $w$ of $u$ satisfying $M(w) \notin V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)$ and put the edge $u w$ in an edge set $F$, initially empty. Then, as $\Delta\left(\left(G_{1}-F\right) \cup G_{2}\right)=d$, and thus $\chi^{\prime}\left(\left(G_{1}-F\right) \cup G_{2}\right) \leqslant d+1$, take any edge-colouring of $\left(G_{1}-F\right) \cup G_{2}$ with $\mathscr{C}$.

Step 2. Consider each edge $u v$ of $M$ such that $u \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$. For each neighbour $w$ of $u$ in $G_{M}$, we have one of the following cases:
(i) $w=v$, in which case $w$ misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ because $u v$ is the edge that we are about to colour;
(ii) $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ because $d_{G_{M}}(w)<d+1 ;$
(iii) $w \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because no edge of $M$ incident to a vertex of $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ has been coloured yet.

Since $u v$ satisfies the conditions of Lemma 1.9 , let it receive a colour of $\mathscr{C}$.
Step 3. Then, consider each $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ with $h(u)=0$. For each neighbour $w$ of $u$ in $G_{M}$, we have one of the following cases:
(i) $w$ is $M(u)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ because $u M(u)$ is the edge we are about to colour;
(ii) $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, in which case $w$ clearly misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$;
(iii) $w \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ and $h(w)>0$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because no edge of $M$ incident to vertices of $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ with height greater than zero has been coloured yet.

Ergo, $u M(u)$ satisfies the condition of Lemma 1.9 and receives a colour of $\mathscr{C}$.
Step 4. For $h$ from 1 to $\max _{i=1}^{k} h\left(T_{i}\right)$, perform:
Step 4.1. Consider each $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ with $h(u)=h$. For each neighbour $w$ of $u$ in $G_{M}$, we have one of the following cases:
(i) $w=M(u)$;
(ii) $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$;
(iii) $w \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because either $h(w)>h$ and the edge $w M(w)$ has not been coloured yet, or $w=$ $p(u)$ and, although the edge $w M(w)$ is already coloured, we know that $w$ has a child $v$ (possibly $u$, but not necessarily) such that the edge $w v$ is in $F$ and thus has not been coloured yet.
Therefore, the condition of Lemma 1.9 is satisfied by $u M(u)$.
Step 4.2. Now that all edges of $M$ incident to vertices of $\Lambda$ [ $\left.G_{1}\right]$ with height $h$ have received a colour, we can consider each edge $u p(u) \in F$ such that $h(u)=h$. For each neighbour $w$ of $u$ in $G_{M}$ all the possibilities are:
(i) $w=p(u)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because $u p(u)$ is the edge we are about to colour;
(ii) $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$;
(iii) $w=M(u)$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because, by the manner we have built the set $F, M(u) \notin V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)$;
(iv) $h(w)>h$, in which case $w$ misses a colour because the edge $w M(w)$ has not been coloured yet.
Hence, we also apply Lemma 1.9 to colour $u p(u)$.

The proof is concluded by Observation 4.8.
Next, we present an interesting counting argument for edge-colouring joins of graphs with same order and same number of edges.

Theorem 4.10 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $n_{1}=n_{2}, \Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, and $m_{1}=m_{2}$, then $G$ is Class 1 .
Proof. Let $\mathscr{C}=\{1, \ldots, d+1\}$ and take an equitable edge-colouring for $G_{1}$ and an equitable edge-colouring for $G_{2}$, with $\mathscr{C}$ as the colour set of both edge-colourings (recall Theorem 2.8, p. 36). For each colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ and each $i \in\{1,2\}$, let $m_{G_{i}}(\alpha)$ be the number of $\alpha$-coloured edges in the graph $G_{i}$. We can assume

$$
m_{G_{1}}(1) \leqslant \cdots \leqslant m_{G_{1}}(d+1)
$$

and

$$
m_{G_{2}}(1) \leqslant \cdots \leqslant m_{G_{2}}(d+1),
$$

without loss of generality. Additionally, by the equitability of each edge-colouring taken, if $d+1$ divides $m_{1}\left(=m_{2}\right)$, then

$$
m_{G_{1}}(\alpha)=m_{G_{2}}(\alpha)=\frac{m_{1}}{d+1} \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathscr{C} .
$$

But, if $d+1$ does not divide $m_{1}$, it can also be demonstrated that $m_{G_{1}}(\alpha)=m_{G_{2}}(\alpha)$ for every $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ : if we take the colour $i_{1}$ of $\mathscr{C}$ such that $m_{G_{1}}(j)=\lfloor m /(d+1)\rfloor$ for every $j \leqslant i_{1}$ and $m_{G_{1}}(j)=\lceil m /(d+1)\rceil$ for every $j>i_{1}$, and if we also take the colour $i_{2}$ of $\mathscr{C}$ such that $m_{G_{2}}(j)=\lfloor m /(d+1)\rfloor$ for every $j \leqslant i_{2}$ and $m_{G_{2}}(j)=\lceil m /(d+1)\rceil$ for every $j>i_{2}$, then we must have $i_{1}=i_{2}$, otherwise $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ could not be equal.

Now, if we denote by $\bar{n}_{G_{i}}(\alpha)$ the number of vertices of the graph $G_{i}$ which miss the colour $\alpha$, we can verify for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ that

$$
\bar{n}_{G_{1}}(\alpha)=n-2 m_{G_{1}}(\alpha)=n-2 m_{G_{2}}(\alpha)=\bar{n}_{G_{2}}(\alpha) .
$$

Therefore, we can take a perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ such that, for each edge $u v \in M$, there is a colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at both $u$ and $v$, which we can use to colour $u v$ and thus obtain a $\Delta\left(G_{M}\right)$-edge-colouring of $G_{M}$. By Observation 4.8 , the proof is concluded.

We remark that the proof of Theorem 2.8 (p.36) holds even if the graph has multiple edges. So, the proof for Theorem 4.10 can also be used to prove that $\chi^{\prime}(G)=$ $\Delta(G)$ even in the case wherein $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ has multiple edges, as long as $\chi^{\prime}\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1$.

Still concerning Theorem 4.10, sometimes $m_{1} \neq m_{2}$ but we can create new edges in one of the graphs without modifying its maximum degree in order to get equal number of edges. This is what is stated in Corollary 4.11.

Corollary 4.11 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $n_{1}=n_{2}, \Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}, m_{1} \leqslant m_{2}$, and $G_{1}$ is a spanning subgraph of a multigraph $\mathcal{G}_{1}$ which satisfies $\Delta\left(\mathcal{G}_{1}\right)=\Delta_{1}, \chi^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{G}_{1}\right) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1$, and $\left|E\left(\mathcal{G}_{1}\right)\right|=m_{2}$, then $G$ is Class 1.

Please note the important role of multiple edges in Corollary 4.11. By instance, the graphs $G_{1}:=K_{3} \cup K_{2}$ and $G_{2}:=C_{5}$ satisfy the conditions of Corollary 4.11, but the only edge that we can create in $G_{1}$ without increasing its maximum degree is another edge between the vertices from the $K_{2}$. An example of a join graph with $n_{1}=n_{2}$ and $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}$ in which such edges cannot be created, even when allowing multiple edges, is
the graph $G$ defined by $G_{1}:=\left(K_{3} \cup K_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}:=C_{4}$, which happens to be Class 2 (since $K_{3} * C_{4}$ is an overfull $\Delta(G)$-subgraph of $\left.G\right)$. However, the converse of Corollary 4.11 does not hold, as one might suspect. As a counterexample, take $G_{1}:=K_{7} \cup \overline{K_{3}}$ and $G_{2}$ as any 6 -regular 10-vertex graph. In this case we cannot create 9 edges in $G_{1}$ without increasing its maximum degree or its chromatic index (the only possible 9 edges which can be added to $G_{1}$ without increasing its maximum degree would transform the $\overline{K_{3}}$ in the Shannon multigraph). Nevertheless, $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1:

Observation 4.12 (joint with A. Zorzi). Being $G_{1}:=K_{7} \cup \overline{K_{3}}$ and $G_{2}$ any 6-regular 10vertex graph, the join graph $G:=G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1 .

Proof. Let $x$ be any one of the three isolated vertices of $G_{1}$. In the graph $G^{\prime}:=G-x$, which satisfies $\Delta\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\Delta(G)=16=: \Delta$, the only majors are the vertices of the $K_{7}$ in $G_{1}$, which implies that $A[G]=K_{7} * G_{2}$. In $A[G]$, all the vertices of the $K_{7}$ have local degree sum $226 \leqslant \Delta^{2}-\Delta=240$. Ergo, $A[G]$ is Class 1 by Theorem 2.6 (p. 35) and hence $G^{\prime}$ is Class 1 by Theorem 1.10 (p.24). By the way, the $\Delta$-edge-colourability of $A[G]$ also follows from Theorem 4.18, which shall be presented in p. 75 and whose proof yields a more efficient algorithm than the proof of Theorem 1.10.

Now it remains to colour the edges incident to $x$. Observe that, in $G$, all the vertices of $G_{2}$ are majors of $G$ with local degree sum 238, that is, strictly non-proper majors of $G$. Therefore, each one of the edges incident to $x$ can be coloured applying Lemma 3.8 (p. 55).

The following result is another consequence of Theorem 4.10:
Theorem 4.13 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$ and $m_{1} \leqslant m_{2} \leqslant\left\lceil\Delta_{1}\left(n_{1}-1\right) / 2\right\rceil$, then $G$ is Class 1.

Proof. We assume $n_{1}=n_{2}$ (adding $n_{2}-n_{1}$ isolated vertices to $G_{1}$ if necessary). Using Lemma 4.6, we take a $\left(\Delta_{1}+1\right)$-edge-colourable multigraph $\mathcal{G}$ with $m_{2}$ edges and $G_{1}$ as a subgraph. The rest of the proof follows from Theorem 4.10.

Corollary 4.14 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $n_{1}<n_{2}, \Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, and $m_{1} \geqslant m_{2}$, then $G$ is Class 1.
Proof. Follows immediately from adding $n_{2}-n_{1}$ isolated vertices to $G_{1}$ and interchanging the roles of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ in Theorem 4.13.

Theorem 4.15 below characterises the only possible overfull $\Delta(G)$-subgraph of a join graph $G$ with $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$.

Theorem 4.15 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, then the join graph $G$ has an induced overfull $\Delta(G)$-subgraph $H$ if and only if:

- either $n_{2}-n_{1}=1$ and $H=G$,
- or $n_{1}=n_{2}$, the graph $G$ has a unique vertex $x$ of minimum degree, and $H=G-x$.

Proof. Let $H$ be an induced overfull $\Delta(G)$-subgraph of $G$. Inasmuch as $G$ is Class 1 if $\Delta_{1}>$ $\Delta_{2}$ (Theorem 4.7(1)), hence not $S O$, we must have $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}$. Also, by Observation 2.17 (p. 43), we know that $\sum_{u \in V(H)}\left(\Delta(H)-d_{H}(u)\right) \leqslant \Delta(H)-2$, that $|V(H)|$ is odd, and that $H$ is unique because every $n$-vertex general graph with maximum degree $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ has at most one induced overfull $\Delta$-subgraph. It suffices to prove:
(a) $H=G$ or $H=G-x$ for some $x \in V(G)$, if $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is odd or even, respectively;
(b) $n_{2}-n_{1} \leqslant 1$.

If (a) is false, the set $U:=V(G) \backslash V(H)$ has least 2 vertices if $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is odd, or 3 otherwise. Moreover, all such vertices must be either in $V_{1}$ or $V_{2}$, the latter being possible only if $n_{1}=n_{2}$. So, we assume $|U| \geqslant 2$ and $U \subseteq V_{1}$, which implies $V(\Lambda[H]) \subseteq V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$. As $n_{2} \geqslant n_{1}>\Delta_{1}$, we get a contradiction:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u \in V(H)}\left(\Delta(H)-d_{H}(u)\right) \geqslant \sum_{u \in V_{2}}\left(\Delta(G)-d_{G}(u)+2\right) \geqslant 2 n_{2}>\Delta(H)-2 . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now assume (b) is false. If $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is odd, we know by (a) that $H=G$. As $n_{2}-n_{1} \geqslant 2$, we can again derive the same contradiction in (4.2). On the other hand, if $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is even, we know by (a) that $H=G-x$ for some unique $x \in V_{1}$. Replacing $G_{1}$ by $H$ in the case wherein $n_{1}+n_{2}$ is odd concludes the proof.

Remark that Theorem 4.15 provides an evidence for Conjecture 1.11:
Corollary 4.16. Every join graph $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$ with $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}, \Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, and $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ acyclic is not SO.

Proof. If $n_{1}<n_{2}$, then $\Lambda[G]=\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ and $G$ is Class 1 by Theorem 2.3 (p. 31), hence not $S O$. If $n_{1}=n_{2}$ and if we assume for the sake of contradiction that $G$ is $S O$, then there is a unique vertex $x \in V(G)$ such that $G-x$ is overfull. We know that $x$ cannot be in $G_{1}$, otherwise we would be back to the case wherein $n_{1}<n_{2}$, for which we already know that $G$ is not $S O$. Therefore, $x \in V\left(G_{2}\right)$, but then we have by Lemma 4.1 that

$$
\sum_{u \in V(G-x)}\left(\Delta-d_{G-x}(u)\right) \geqslant n_{1}+d-1=\Delta(G)-1
$$

which contradicts Observation 2.17 (p. 43).
Next, Lemma 4.17 presents a novel decomposition technique for edge-colouring join graphs. Theorem 4.18 uses this technique in order to extend Theorem 4.7(2) when restricted to $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$.

Lemma 4.17 (joint with A. Zorzi). If $n_{1}<n_{2}, \Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, and there are $F \subseteq E\left(B_{G}\right)$ and $R \subseteq E_{2}$ such that all $u \in V_{1}$ satisfy

$$
d_{G_{1}}(u)+1 \leqslant d_{G_{1}}(u)+d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1,
$$

all $u \in V_{2}$ satisfy

$$
d_{G_{2}}(u)-\left(n_{2}-n_{1}-1\right) \leqslant d_{G_{2}-R}(u)+d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1,
$$

and both $G_{F, R}:=\left(G_{1} \cup\left(G_{2}-R\right)\right)+F$ and $G_{\overline{F, R}}:=B_{G}-F+R$ are Class 1, then $G$ is Class 1 .
Proof. It can be verified that the conditions set in the statement imply $G=G_{F, R} \cup G_{\overline{F, R}}$,
$\Delta\left(G_{F, R}\right)=\Delta_{1}+1$ and $\Delta\left(G_{\overline{F, R}}\right)=n_{2}-1$, because

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{G_{F, R}}(u)= \begin{cases}d_{G_{1}}(u)+d_{B_{G}[F]}(u)=\Delta_{1}+1, & \text { if } u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right) ; \\
d_{G_{1}}(u)+d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1, & \text { if } u \in V_{1} \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right) ; \\
d_{G_{2}-R}(u)+d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant \Delta_{1}+1, & \text { if } u \in V_{2} ;\end{cases} \\
& d_{G_{\overline{F, R}}}(u)= \begin{cases}n_{2}-d_{B_{G}[F]}(u)=n_{2}-1, & \text { if } u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right) ; \\
n_{2}-d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant n_{2}-1, & \text { if } u \in V_{1} \backslash V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right) ; \\
\geqslant d_{G_{2}[R]}(u)-\left(n_{2}-n_{1}-1\right) & \\
n_{1}-\overbrace{d_{B_{G}[F]}(u)}+d_{G_{2}[R]}(u) \leqslant n_{2}-1, & \text { if } u \in V_{2} .\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

We obtain a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring of $G$ by using two disjoint sets: one with $\Delta_{1}+1$ colours in order to colour $G_{F, R}$, and the other with $n_{2}-1$ colours in order to colour $G_{\overline{F, R}}$.

Recall that if $n_{2}-n_{1} \geqslant 2$, then $G$ cannot be $S O$ (Theorem 4.15). We show below that these graphs are actually Class 1 .

Theorem 4.18 (joint with A . Zorzi). If $n_{2}-n_{1} \geqslant 2$ and $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, then $G$ is Class 1 .
Proof. We start with $F$ and $R$ empty and, due to Observation 4.2, a ( $d+1$ )-edge-colouring of $G_{F, R}=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ using a colour set $\mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ such that $\left|\mathscr{C}^{\prime *}\right| \geqslant\lceil(d+1) / 2\rceil$, wherein $\mathscr{C}^{* *}$ is the set of all $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ missed by at least one vertex in $G_{1}$ and one in $G_{2}$. Initially, all $u \in V_{1} \cup V_{2}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{G_{F, R}}(u) \leqslant d+1 \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and all $u \in V_{2}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{G_{2}[R]}(u)-d_{B_{G}[F]}(u) \leqslant n_{2}-n_{1}-2 . \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We shall make $G_{F, R}$ fulfil all the requirements of Lemma 4.17. Starting with $U:=V_{1}$, we remove vertices from $U$ until $U=\emptyset$. For each $u$ removed, we choose an edge $u v \in B_{G}$ to be added to $F$, assigning to it a colour of $\mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ and possibly choosing some $v w \in E_{2}$ to be uncoloured and added to $R$. After each such operation, it should be observed that all the vertices in $V_{1}$ still satisfy (4.3) and all in $V_{2}$ still satisfy (4.3) and (4.4). The whole process is done in three phases, described below. Note that the second and the third phases may not even occur, since we only go to the next phase when the condition for the current one does not hold any more. Note also that each $u \in U$ always misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}^{\prime}$.

Phase 1. There is a colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ missing at some $u \in U$ and at some $v \in V_{2}$.
As $v$ satisfies (4.3) strictly, we remove $u$ from $U$ and add $u v$ to $F$, assigning $\alpha$ to $u v$. Observe that this decreases by one the value of $d_{G_{2}[R]}(v)-d_{B_{G}[F]}(v)$.

Phase 2. There is a colour $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ missing at two vertices $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ in $U$.
Since $\alpha$ is not missing at any vertex in $V_{2}$ and $|F|<n_{2}$, there must be an edge $v w \in E_{2} \backslash R$ coloured $\alpha$. Then, we remove $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ from $U$, add $u v$ and $u^{\prime} w$ to $F$, assigning to both the colour $\alpha$, and add $v w$ to $R$, uncolouring it. Note that this does not change the value of $d_{G_{2}[R]}(x)-d_{B_{G}[F]}(x)$ for any $x \in V_{2}$.

Presets for Phase 3. If Phase 2 is over and $U \neq \emptyset$, we choose for each $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{* *}$ some $v_{\alpha} \in V_{2}$ which received an edge of $F$ coloured $\alpha$ in Phase 1. If there is none, we choose any $v_{\alpha} \in V_{2}$ which missed $\alpha$ before Phase 1. This latter case is possible only if some $u \in V_{1}$ which missed $\alpha$ received an edge of $F$ coloured $\beta \in \mathscr{C}^{*} \backslash\{\alpha\}$. As both $u$ and $v_{\alpha}$ still miss $\alpha$, we add the extra edge $u v_{\alpha}$ to $F$ and colour it $\alpha$. Now, for all $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{*}$, let $\mu\left(v_{\alpha}\right)$ denote the number of occurrences of $v_{\alpha}$ in the pairs of the set $X=\left\{\left(v_{\beta}, \beta\right): \beta \in \mathscr{C}^{*}\right\}$. Then $d_{G_{2}[R]}\left(v_{\alpha}\right)-d_{B_{G}[F]}\left(v_{\alpha}\right) \leqslant n_{2}-n_{1}-2-\mu\left(v_{\alpha}\right)$. We claim that $\left.|U|<\Gamma(d+1) / 2\right\rceil \leqslant\left|\mathscr{C}^{* *}\right|=|X|$. In order to see that, let $k:=\left|\left\{v \in V_{2}: d_{G_{F, R}}(v)<d+1\right\}\right|$. It is clear that $k \geqslant|U|+2$, since $n_{2}-n_{1} \geqslant 2$ and in Phases 1 and 2 we add exactly one edge to $F$ by each vertex removed from $U$. On the other hand, as Phase 2 is over and $U \neq \emptyset$, no colour of $\mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ is missing at more than one vertex in $U \cup V_{2}$, so $k+|U| \leqslant d+1$. Therefore, $|U|+2 \leqslant d+1-|U|$, which implies $|U| \leqslant(d+1-2) / 2$.

Phase 3. No colour of $\mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ is missing at more than one vertex in $U \cup V_{2}$.
Remove any $u$ from $U$ and any $\left(v_{\beta}, \beta\right)$ from $X$. There are some $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}^{\prime}$ missing at $u$ and some edge $e$ incident to $v_{\beta}$ coloured $\alpha$. We have two cases:

1. If $e=v_{\beta} w \in E_{2} \backslash R$, then add the edge $u w$ to $F$, colouring it $\alpha$, and add $e$ to $R$, uncolouring it.
2. If $e=u^{\prime} v_{\beta} \in F$, we claim that there is some $v w \in E_{2} \backslash R$ coloured $\alpha$. Immediately after Phase 2 is complete, we had at most $n_{1}-|U|$ edges in $F$ coloured $\alpha$. Although several extra edges may have been added to $F$ in the Presets for Phase 3, only one of them may have been coloured $\alpha$. So, at the current iteration of Phase 3, we have at most $n_{1}-|U|+1 \leqslant n_{2}-2$ edges in $F$ coloured $\alpha$. As no vertex in $V_{2}$ misses $\alpha$, the existence of $v w$ is guaranteed. Hence, we remove $e$ from $F$ and add $v w$ to $R$, uncolouring both, and add $u v$ and $u^{\prime} w$ to $F$, assigning to them the colour $\alpha$.
In either case, the value of $d_{G_{2}[R]}(x)-d_{B_{G}[F]}(x)$ is increased only for $x=v_{\beta}$ and only by one. Since this value was at most $n_{2}-n_{1}-2-\mu\left(v_{\beta}\right)$ at the beginning of Phase 3, all $v \in V_{2}$ still satisfies (4.4).

It remains to prove that $G_{\overline{F, R}}$ is Class 1. This follows simply by observing that $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{\overline{F, R}}\right]\right) \subseteq V_{1}$ (since every vertex in $V_{2}$ satisfies (4.4)), $V_{1}$ is an independent set in $G_{\overline{F, R}}$, and every graph with acyclic core is Class 1 (Theorem 2.3 (p.31)).

We close this section remarking how some of the results presented here are related to the results presented in Chapter 3.

Observation 4.19. If $G$ satisfies the preconditions of Theorem 4.18, or Theorem 4.13, or Corollary 4.14, then every major of $G$ is strictly non-proper.

Proof. First recall that $\Delta(G)=\Delta_{1}+n_{2}$. Let $S$ be the local degree sum of any major of $G$. It is straightforward to verify that:

Case 1. if $n_{2}-n_{1} \geqslant 2$ and $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$, or if $n_{1}<n_{2}$ and $\Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$, then

$$
\left.S \leqslant(\Delta(G))^{2}-2 n_{2}<(\Delta(G))^{2}-\Delta(G)\right) ;
$$

Case 2. if $m_{1} \leqslant m_{2} \leqslant\left\lceil\Delta_{1}\left(n_{1}-1\right) / 2\right\rceil$, then

$$
\left.S \leqslant(\Delta(G))^{2}-\left(\Delta_{1}+n_{2}^{2}\right) \leqslant(\Delta(G))^{2}-\Delta(G)\right) ;
$$

Case 3. if $n_{1}<n_{2}, \Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$, and $m_{1} \geqslant m_{2}$, then adding $n_{2}-n_{1}$ isolated vertices to $G_{1}$ and interchanging the roles of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ brings us back to Case 2 .

By the observation above, all join graphs dealt in Theorems 4.18 and 4.13 and in Corollary 4.14 are in our graph class $\mathscr{X}$, which means that these results follow immediately from Theorem 1.10. However, we have proved them in this section even so, because the proofs presented are not dependent from the recolouring procedure of Chapter 3 and yield more efficient edge-colouring algorithms than the $O\left(\Delta^{3} n m\right)$-time algorithm implicit in the proof of Theorem 1.10. In fact, it can be straightforwardly verified that the worst-case time complexity of any amongst Theorems 4.18 and 4.13 and Corollary 4.14 is not asymptotically superior than $O\left(n_{1} m_{1}\right)$ or $O\left(n_{2} m_{2}\right)$, which are the worst-case time complexity of obtaining equitable $\left(\Delta_{1}+1\right)$-edge-colourings of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, respectively (considering Vizing's usual recolouring procedure and the constructive proof of Folkman and Fulkerson (1969) for Theorem 2.8).

### 4.3 On a recolouring procedure for Conjecture 1.11

Let us go back to the problem of edge-colouring a join graph $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$ with $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$ and $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ acyclic. Conjecture 1.11 states that $G$ is Class 1. Recall that we have proved a weaker statement in Theorem 4.9, which requires $G_{2}$ to have a sufficient number of non-majors. For the case wherein $G_{2}$ is regular, or nearly regular (in the sense that it does not have as many non-majors as Theorem 4.9 requires), we have achieved some further developments. These developments, which are the subject of this section, are based on a recolouring procedure similar to Vizing's recolouring procedure and to the procedure presented in Chapter 3.

Observe that, if $n_{1}<n_{2}$, then $\Lambda[G]=\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ and thus $G$ is Class 1 by Theorem 2.3. Observe also that, if $\Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$, we know that $G$ is Class 1 (Theorem 4.7(1)). Hence, throughout this section $n_{1}=n_{2}=: k$ and $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}=: d$. Recall that, if we show that $G_{M}$ is Class 1 for some perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, then $G$ is also Class 1 (Observation 4.8, p. 70).

In Definition 4.20, in Lemmas 4.21 and 4.23, and in Conjecture 4.22, $M$ is a perfect matching on $B_{G}$, the edge $u v \in E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, the set $\mathscr{C}$ has $d+1$ colours, and $\varphi: E\left(G_{M}-u v\right) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ is an edge-colouring. In these statements, the terms concerning recolouring fans and recolouring procedures are overloaded, but free of ambiguity, since we are dealing with the restricted case of the join graphs of Conjecture 1.11.

Definition 4.20. A sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of distinct neighbours of $u$ in $G_{M}$ is a recolouring fan for $u v$ if $v_{0}=v$ and, for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$ : either $v_{i}$ actually misses the colour $\alpha_{i}:=\varphi\left(u v_{i+1}\right)$; or $v_{i}$ misses $\alpha_{i}$ virtually, that is, $i>0, v_{i}=M(u)$, and $\varphi(w M(w))=\alpha_{i}$ for some $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{i-1}\right\}$ which actually misses $\alpha_{i-1}$. If $v_{k}$ misses, actually or virtually, a colour $\alpha_{k}$ missing at $u$, the fan is said to be complete; otherwise, it is said to be incomplete.

Figure 4.2 on the next page illustrates a complete recolouring fan.
Lemma 4.21. If there is a complete recolouring fan for $u v$, then $G_{M^{\prime}}$ is Class 1 for some perfect matching $M^{\prime}$ on $B_{G}$.

Proof. We shall perform the decay of the colours, for $i$ from $k$ down to 0 . At the beginning of each iteration, it shall be invariant that both $u$ and $v_{i}$ miss $\alpha_{i}$ (the latter possibly


Figure 4.2: A complete recolouring fan
virtually). Note that this is true for $i=k$.
If $v_{i}$ actually misses $\alpha_{i}$, we simply assign $\alpha_{i}$ to $u v_{i}$. If $i=0$, we are done. If $i>0$, the vertex $u$ now misses $\alpha_{i-1}$, which is still missing (possibly virtually) at $v_{i-1}$, so we can continue.

If $v_{i}$ misses $\alpha_{i}$ virtually, recall that $i>0$ and $v_{i}=M(u)$. Then, we take $M^{\prime}:=$ $\left(M \backslash\left\{u v_{i}, w M(w)\right\}\right) \cup\left\{u M(w), w v_{i}\right\}$, assigning to $u M(w)$ and $u v_{i}$ the colours $\alpha_{i}$ and $\alpha_{i-1}$, respectively (see Figure 4.3). Now, both $u$ and $v_{i-1}$ actually miss $\alpha_{i-1}$.


Figure 4.3: The result of the decay of the colours on the complete recolouring fan of Figure 4.2

Conjecture 4.22. If $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ is a maximal, but not complete, recolouring fan for $u v$ such that $v_{k}=M(u)$, then there are a perfect matching $\bar{M}$ on $B_{G}$ and a $(d+1)$-edge-colouring of $G_{\bar{M}}$, both obtainable in polynomial time, under which there is a complete recolouring fan for $u v$ or a maximal recolouring fan for $u v$ starting in $v_{0}$ but not ending in $\bar{M}(u)$.

Lemma 4.23. If Conjecture 4.22 holds for all non-complete maximal recolouring fan for uv ending in $M(u)$, and if, for all $y \in N_{G_{M}}(u)$, either $y$ misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$, or $y=M(u)$ and $\varphi(u y)$ is missed by at least two vertices in $V\left(G_{1}\right)$, then $G_{M^{\prime}}$ is Class 1 for some perfect matching $M^{\prime}$ on $B_{G}$.

Proof. Let $F=v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be a maximal recolouring fan for $u v$. If $F$ is complete, the proof follows immediately from Lemma 4.21. Otherwise, as $v_{0}$ is itself a (not necessarily complete) recolouring fan for $u v$, remark that $k \geqslant 0$. Moreover, if $M(u)=v_{i}$ for some $i \in$ $\{1, \ldots, k\}$, the conditions of the statement imply that there must be some $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{i-1}\right\}$ which miss $\varphi\left(u v_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i-1}$. Ergo, the only reason why $F$ is not complete is because every colour $\alpha$ missing (actually or virtually) at $v_{k}$ is equal to $\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$.

Let $\alpha=\alpha_{j}$ for some $j<k$ be a colour missing (actually or virtually) at $v_{k}, \beta$ be any colour missing at $u$, and $e$ be the edge incident to $v_{k}$ coloured $\beta$. Observe that $j<k-1$, as $\alpha_{k-1}=\varphi\left(u v_{k}\right)$, and also that every component of the subgraph $H$ of $G_{M}$ induced by the edges coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$ is a path or an even cycle. We have the following cases:

Case 1. The vertex $v_{k}$ actually misses $\alpha$.
Case 2. The vertex $v_{k}$ misses $\alpha$ virtually.
In Case 1 , the component of $H$ to which $e$ belongs is a path $P$, wherein $v_{k}$ is one of its outer vertices. Exchanging the colours along $P$, we have the following subcases:

1. If the other outer vertex of $P$ is $u$ (which implies that $u v_{j+1} \in E(P)$ ), $v_{j} \notin V(P)$ and, thus, after the colour exchanging operation, both $u$ and $v_{j}$ miss $\alpha$ (the latter possibly virtually). Now, $F^{\prime}:=v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ is a complete recolouring fan for $u v$, so we are done by Lemma 4.21.
2. If the other outer vertex of $P$ is $v_{j}$, then $u \notin V(P)$ and, thus, after exchanging the colours along $P$, both $u$ and $v_{j}$ miss $\beta$ (the latter possibly virtually). As in the previous subcase, $F^{\prime}:=v_{0}, \ldots, v_{j}$ is now a complete recolouring fan for $u v$ and Lemma 4.21 applies.
3. If the other outer vertex of $P$ is neither $u$ nor $v_{j}$, then, after the exchanging operation, $u$ still misses $\beta, v_{j}$ still misses $\alpha_{j}$, and $F$ is thus still a recolouring fan. But now $F$ is complete, since now $v_{k}$ misses $\beta$, so we apply Lemma 4.21, but in this subcase in $F$ instead of in $F^{\prime}$.

In Case 2, $v_{k}=M(u)$ and there is some $w \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{k-1}\right\}$ which misses $\alpha_{k-1}$ such that $\varphi(w M(w))=\alpha$ (see Figure 4.4). This is the case wherein our heuristic fails, but, if Conjecture 4.22 is true, we can handle this, ending up with a complete recolouring fan or going back to Case 1 .


Figure 4.4: Case 2 in the proof of Lemma 4.23

Theorem 4.24. Let $G$ be the join of two disjoint $k$-order graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ with same maximum degree d. If $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is acyclic and Conjecture 4.22 is true with respect to any $u v \in E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, any perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, and any non-complete maximal recolouring fan for uv ending in $M(u)$, then $G$ is Class 1 .

Proof. We assume $d>1$, since otherwise $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are disjoint unions of cliques, in which case we already know that $G$ is Class 1 (Theorem 4.7(4b)). As in the proof of Theorem 4.9, for each of the components of $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$, which are trees, choose a vertex to be the root of the tree and, for each $u \in V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, let $h(u)$ be the height of $u$ in its tree and $p(u)$ be the parent of $u$ if $h(u)>0$. Consider the non-root vertices in $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ in a nondecreasing order of height $\sigma=u_{1}, \ldots, u_{s}$. If $G_{2}$ is not regular, take a perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ such that $M\left(u_{s}\right) \notin V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)$. Otherwise, take any perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$. Since $G_{M}$ is Class 1 if $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is edgeless (Theorem 4.7(4d)), the graph $G_{M}-E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ has an edge-colouring $\varphi$ using a colour set $\mathscr{C}$ with $|\mathscr{C}|=d+1$.

Now, take the non-root vertices in $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, one at each time, following the order $\sigma$. For each $u$ taken, we shall colour the edge $u p(u)$. This shall complete the $(d+1)$-edge-colouring of $G_{M}$, possibly replacing, at each step, the current matching in the role of $M$ with another perfect matching on $B_{G}$. However, if $G_{2}$ is not regular, the edge $u_{s} M\left(u_{s}\right)$ shall never be replaced.

In each step of our algorithm, let $u$ be the non-root vertex of $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ taken. The only neighbour of $u$ which may not miss a colour of $\mathscr{C}$ is $M(u)$, because for every $x \in N_{\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]}(u)$, either $x=p(u)$ or $h(x)>h(u)$, so the edge $u x$ has not been coloured yet. If $u \neq u_{s}$, we have the following cases to investigate, with $\alpha:=\varphi(u M(u))$ :

Case 1. No vertex in $G_{1}$ misses $\alpha$.
Case 2. At least two vertices in $V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{s}\right\}$ miss $\alpha$.
Case 3. At most one vertex in $V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{s}\right\}$ misses $\alpha$.
In Case 1, no recolouring fan for $u v$ starting in $v_{0}=p(u)$ will contain $M(u)$, which means that every vertex in the fan will miss a colour. So, we will be able to apply Vizing's usual recolouring procedure and thence colour $u p(u)$.

In Case 2, since we have assumed Conjecture 4.22, we can apply Lemma 4.23 in order to colour $u p(u)$, and do so preserving the edge $u_{s} M\left(u_{s}\right)$ in $M$.

In Case 3, we must recall that $\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right)}\left(d-d_{G_{1}}(v)\right) \geqslant d-1$, from Lemma 4.1. As $u \neq u_{s}$, at least two edges of $E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$ have not been coloured yet, one of them being $u_{s} p\left(u_{s}\right)$. Ergo, if $H$ is the subgraph of $G_{M}$ induced only by the coloured edges, $\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{s}\right\rangle}\left((d+1)-d_{H}(v)\right)=\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right)}\left((d+1)-d_{H}(v)\right)-1$. Furthermore,

$$
\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right)}\left((d+1)-d_{H}(v)\right) \geqslant \sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right)}\left(d-d_{G_{1}}(v)\right)+4 .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{s}\right\}}\left((d+1)-d_{H}(v)\right) \geqslant d+2 .
$$

By the Pigeonhole Principle, this means that there must be a colour $\gamma$ missed by at least two vertices in $V\left(G_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{u_{s}\right\}$. Also, it is straightforward to verify that there is some maximal path in $G_{M}[\alpha, \gamma]$ along whose edges the exchanging of the colours brings us back to one of the previous cases.

Finally, let us consider the last step, when $u=u_{s}$. Defining again $H$ as the subgraph of $G_{M}$ induced by the coloured edges, remark that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{v \in V\left(G_{1}\right)}\left((d+1)-d_{H}(v)\right) \geqslant d+1 \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $G_{2}$ is not $d$-regular, $M(u) \notin V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right)$ and we can apply the usual Vizing's recolouring procedure in order to colour $u p(u)$. Assume then that $G_{2}$ is regular, which implies that no vertex in $G_{2}$ misses a colour of $\mathscr{C}$.

We claim that we must have at least one colour missed by at least two vertices in $G_{1}$, so the proof can follow analogously as in the previous steps. If we assume, for the sake of contradiction, that no colour of $\mathscr{C}$ is missed by more than one vertex in $G_{1}$, we have by (4.5) that every colour $\gamma$ of $\mathscr{C}$ is missed by exactly one vertex $v_{\gamma}$. If this is true, then also $v_{\gamma_{1}} \neq v_{\gamma_{2}}$ whenever $\gamma_{1} \neq \gamma_{2}$ for all $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2} \in \mathscr{C}$, because $U \cup\{u, p(u)\}$ is a set with $d+1$ vertices of degree less than $d+1$ in $H$ for any set $U \subset V\left(G_{1}\right)$ with $d-1$ vertices of degree less than $d$ in $G_{1}$. The existence of such $U$ is guaranteed by Lemma 4.1. But then, creating a new vertex $b$ in $H$ and, for all $\gamma \in \mathscr{C}$, creating the edge $b v_{\gamma}$ in $H$ and colouring it with $\gamma, H$ would be an odd-order Class 1 regular graph, contradicting Observation 2.17 (p. 43). Therefore, the claim holds.

Figure 4.5 illustrates the proof of Theorem 4.24 for the join of a diamond $\left(G_{1}\right)$ with a $K_{4}\left(G_{2}\right)$, which have both maximum degree $d=3$. The figure depicts a perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, an edge-colouring of $G_{M}-E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)=G_{M}-u p(u)$ with a colour set $\mathscr{C}=\{1,2,3,4\}$, and a complete recolouring fan $v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}$ for $u p(u)$.


Figure 4.5: A perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ when $G_{1}$ is a diamond and $G_{2}=K_{4}$, a $(d+1)$-edge-colouring of $G_{M}-E\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)$, and a complete recolouring fan

### 4.4 On edge-colouring complementary prisms

Throughout this section, when dealing with a complementary prism $G \bar{G}$, let $M$ be the perfect matching formed by the edges connecting the vertices of $G$ and their corresponding vertices in $\bar{G}$.

We split the proof of Theorem 1.13 in two lemmas.
Lemma 4.25. If $G$ is a graph such that $\Delta(G) \neq \Delta(\bar{G})$, then $G \bar{G}$ is Class 1 .
Proof. We basically follow the same proof by De Simone and Mello (2006) for Theorem $4.7(1)$. We assume without loss of generality that, for our complementary prism $G \bar{G}$, we have $\Delta(G)>\Delta(\bar{G})$, so we start colouring the edges in $G$ and in $\bar{G}$ using a colour set with cardinality $\Delta(G)+1=\Delta(G \bar{G})$.

We shall colours the edges of $M$, one at a time, to complete the proof. For each edge $u v$ of $M$ taken, with $u \in V(G)$, all neighbours of $v$ are not majors of the subgraph of $G \bar{G}$ induced by the edges which have been coloured by the current moment. The proof is then concluded by applying Vizing's recolouring procedure (Lemma 1.9 (p. 21)).

Lemma 4.26. If $G$ is a non-regular graph such that $\Delta(G)=\Delta(\bar{G})$, then $G \bar{G}$ is Class 1.
Proof. Let $n$ and $\Delta$ be the order and the maximum degree of $G$, respectively, not to be confused with the order and the maximum degree of $G \bar{G}$, which are $2 n$ and $\Delta+1$, respectively. We assume $n \geqslant 4$, since it can be straightforwardly verified that the $K_{1}$ is the only graph $G$ on at most three vertices which satisfies $\Delta(G)=\Delta(\bar{G})$.

Let also $\delta:=\delta(G)=\delta(\bar{G})$. Observe that $\Delta \geqslant \delta+1$ and all the vertices of degree $\delta$ in $G$ correspond to the vertices of degree $\Delta$ in $\bar{G}$ and vice versa. Furthermore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta+\delta+1=n \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \geqslant \frac{n}{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \delta \leqslant \frac{n-2}{2} . \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We assume for the sake of contradiction that $G \bar{G}$ is Class 2 . So, let $H$ be a critical subgraph of $G \bar{G}$ with the same maximum degree as $G \bar{G}$. Since $\Delta(H)=\Delta+1$, we know that $H$ must contain at least one edge of $M$ incident to a major of $G$ or to a major of $\bar{G}$. Moreover, the majors of $H$ cannot be all in $G$ or all in $\bar{G}$, otherwise $H$ would be Class 1 by taking a $\Delta(G \bar{G})$-edge-colouring of $H-(M \cap E(H))$ and then applying Vizing's recolouring at each edge of $M \cap E(H)$ in order to colour it, similarly as we have done in the proof of Lemma 4.25.

We have demonstrated that $H$ must contain two edges $u u^{\prime}$ and $v v^{\prime}$ of $M$ such that the vertices $u$ and $v^{\prime}$ are majors of $G$ and $\bar{G}$, respectively, and the vertices $u^{\prime}$ and $v$ are vertices of degree $\delta$ in $G$ and $\bar{G}$, respectively. Therefore, by Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Lemma 2.4 (p.33)), the vertex $u$ must be adjacent in $G$ to at least $\Delta(H)$ $d_{H}\left(u^{\prime}\right)+1 \geqslant \Delta-\delta+1$ majors of $G$, as the vertex $v^{\prime}$ must also be adjacent in $\bar{G}$ to at least $\Delta(H)-d_{H}(v)+1 \geqslant \Delta-\delta+1$ majors of $\bar{G}$. As $u$ and $v^{\prime}$ are themselves majors of $G$ and $\bar{G}$, respectively, the total number of vertices of degree $\Delta$ in $G$ and in $\bar{G}$ must be at least $2(\Delta-\delta+2)$, having all the other vertices of $G$ and of $\bar{G}$ degree at least $\delta$ in $G$ or in $\bar{G}$, respectively. Hence, in view of (4.6),

$$
\begin{aligned}
|E(G \bar{G})-M| & =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in V(G)} d_{G}(x)+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in V(\bar{G})} d_{\bar{G}}(y) \\
& \geqslant(\Delta-\delta+2) \Delta+(n-\Delta+\delta-2) \delta \\
& =(\Delta-\delta+2) \Delta+(2 \delta-1) \delta \\
& =(\Delta+\delta)^{2}-(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta \\
& =(n-1)^{2}-(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta .
\end{aligned}
$$

We know that $|E(G \bar{G})-M|=n(n-1) / 2$, since the identification of the corresponding vertices in $G$ and in $\bar{G}$ forms the complete graph $K_{n}$. We claim that $(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta<(n-1)(n-2) / 2$. If this claim holds, then

$$
|E(G \bar{G})-M|=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}>(n-1)^{2}-\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}=\frac{n(n-1)}{2},
$$

a contradiction. Therefore, the graph $H$ cannot exist and $G$ must indeed be Class 1 .
Now we shall prove the claim. Observing that $(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta=-2 \delta^{2}+n \delta$ and that, by differentiation,

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \delta}\left(-2 \delta^{2}+n \delta\right)=-4 \delta+n
$$

we have that the function $f(\delta):=(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta$ reaches its maximum for $\delta=n / 4$, which satisfies $\delta \leqslant(n-2) / 2$ as required by (4.7) (recall that $n \geqslant 4$ ). Ergo,

$$
(\Delta-\delta+1) \delta=(n-2 \delta) \delta \leqslant\left(n-\frac{2 n}{4}\right) \frac{n}{4}=\frac{n^{2}}{8}
$$

Since $n^{2} / 8<(n-1)(n-2) / 2$ if and only if $3 n^{2}-12 n+8>0$, which is true for $n>(6+2 \sqrt{3}) / 3$ and for $n<(6-2 \sqrt{3}) / 3$, and since $(6+2 \sqrt{3}) / 3<4$, the claim holds.

Proof of Theorem 1.13 (p.27). A complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ is non-regular if and only if $\Delta(G) \neq \Delta(\bar{G})$ or $G$ is non-regular. Therefore, the proof follows immediately from Lemmas 4.25 and 4.26 and by observing that the $K_{2}$ is the Class 1 regular complementary prism $K_{1} \overline{K_{1}}$.

Next, we briefly comment some facts about regular complementary prisms.
Lemma 4.27. If $G \bar{G}$ is an $N$-vertex $D$-regular complementary prism, then $N \equiv 2(\bmod 8)$, $D=(N+2) / 4$, and both $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are $d$-regular graphs with $d=(N-2) / 4$ even.

Proof. Let $n$ be the order of the graphs $G$ and $\bar{G}$, not to be confused with the order of $G \bar{G}$, which is $2 n=: N$. Observe that both $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are clearly regular graphs with $d(G)=d(\bar{G})=D-1=: d$. Therefore, because $d(G)+d(\bar{G})+1=n$, we have that $n$ is odd, $d=(n-1) / 2=(N-2) / 4$, and $D=(n+1) / 2=(N+2) / 4$. Furthermore, since

$$
\sum_{x \in V(G)} d_{G}(x)=\sum_{y \in V(\bar{G})} d_{\bar{G}}(y)=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}
$$

must be an even number (as it is twice the number of edges in $G$ or in $\bar{G}$ ), we must have $(n-1) / 2$ even, which implies $n-1 \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and $N-2 \equiv 0(\bmod 8)$.

By Lemma 4.27, the smallest regular complementary prism is the $K_{2}$ and the second smallest is the Petersen graph, which are both the only regular complementary prisms of order 2 and 10, respectively. The fact that the Petersen graph is the only 10-vertex regular complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ follows from the fact that the $C_{5}$ is the only 2-regular graph $G$ on 5 vertices. Also by Lemma 4.27, the next regular complementary prisms are the 8 regular complementary prisms of order 18, and the next ones have order 26 , and so on. There are 8 regular complementary prisms of order 18 because:

- there are 16 connected 4 -regular graphs on 9 vertices (Meringer, 1997);
- there is no way that a 9-vertex 4-regular graph would be disconnected, since each component of a 4 -regular graph needs at least 5 vertices;
- for each $G$ amongst the 16 graphs on 9 vertices which are 4-regular, the graph $\bar{G}$ is also amongst these 16 graphs, so we cannot count the complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ twice.

Moreover, as it shall be clarified in the sequel, for each $N \equiv 2(\bmod 8)$, we can expect exponentially many regular complementary prisms of order $N$, in view of the following result from the literature:

Theorem 4.28 (McKay and Wormald, 1990). There is a constant $c>2 / 3$ such that, if $d n$ is even, if $1 \leqslant d \leqslant n-2$, and if $\min \{d, n-d\}>c n / \ln n$, then the number of $d$-regular graphs on $n$ vertices is asymptotically

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{2} \mathrm{e}^{\frac{1}{4}}\left(\lambda^{\lambda}(1-\lambda)^{1-\lambda}\right)^{\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}\binom{n-1}{d}^{n}, \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

wherein $\lambda:=d /(n-1)$.
Theorem 4.29. For every odd $k \geqslant 3$, there is at least one $k$-regular complementary prism on $4 k-2$ vertices, and the number of such graphs is exponential in $k$ if $k$ is sufficiently large.

Proof. Lemma 4.27 implies that, for every odd $k$ and every $(k-1)$-regular graph $G$ on $2 k-1$ vertices, the graph $G \bar{G}$ is a regular complementary prism on $4 k-2$ vertices. Hence, the number of regular complementary prisms on $4 k-2$ vertices is half the number of $d$-regular graphs on $n:=2 k-1$ vertices for $d:=(n-1) / 2$ (recall that if $G$ is $((n-1) / 2)$-regular, then also is $\bar{G}$, yielding both graphs the same complementary prism).

Since $d n$ is even and $1 \leqslant d \leqslant n-2$, we have by Theorem 4.28 that there is a constant $c>2 / 3$ such that if $\min \{d, n-d\}=d>c n / \ln n$, then the number of $d$-regular graphs on $n$ vertices is asymptotically

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{e}^{\frac{1}{4}} \sqrt{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\binom{2 k-1}{2}}\binom{2 k-2}{k-1}^{2 k-1} \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since (4.9) is exponential in $k$, it remains only to show that $d>c n / \ln n$, which is equivalent to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2 c}>\frac{n}{(n-1) \ln n} \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for sufficiently large $n$ (that is, sufficiently large $k$, since $n=2 k-1$ ). But this follows immediately from the fact that $1 /(2 c)$ is a constant and (4.10) is decreasing (explicitly, (4.10) holds for $n>\mathrm{e}^{4 c^{2}}$ ).

Although Class 2 regular complementary prisms are known, like the Petersen graph, we show that no complementary prism can be $S O$.

## Theorem 4.30. No complementary prism can be subgraph-overfull.

Proof. For the sake of contradiction, assume that a complementary prism $G \bar{G}$ has an induced overfull subgraph $H$ with $\Delta(H)=\Delta(G \bar{G})$. Moreover, $H$ cannot be equal to $G \bar{G}$, since overfull graphs have odd order (recall Observation 2.17).

Since we have proved that the $K_{2}$ and all the non-regular complementary prisms are Class 1 , hence not $S O$, we know that $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are $n$-vertex $d$-regular graphs with $d=(n-1) / 2$, therefore $\Delta(H)=d+1$. This implies that $H$ must contain at least one edge of $M$, but not all the edges of $M$. Further, if $X:=V(G) \cap V(H)$ and $Y:=V(\bar{G}) \cap V(H)$, then

$$
\partial_{G}(X) \cup \partial_{\bar{G}}(Y) \cup\left(M \cap \partial_{G \bar{G}}(V(H))=\partial_{G \bar{G}}(V(H)) .\right.
$$

Since $\left|\partial_{G \bar{G}}(H)\right| \leqslant \Delta(H)-2=d-1$ and it cannot be the case that $\partial_{G}(X)$ and $\partial_{\bar{G}}(Y)$ are both empty, we must have $\left|\partial_{G}(X)\right| \leqslant d-2$ with $X \neq V(G)$, or $\left|\partial_{\bar{G}}(Y)\right| \leqslant d-2$ with $Y \neq V(\bar{G})$. But this is a contradiction, since it is clear that an $n$-vertex $d$-regular graph with odd $n$ and $d \geqslant(n-1) / 2$ cannot have a cut with at most $d-2$ edges.

Theorem 4.30 brings that if $G$ is a $k$-regular complementary prism, then $G$ is an example of a non-SO Class 2 graph. Every snark is non-SO and Class 2, but $k$-regular non-SO Class 2 graphs with $k>3$ seem not to be approached by any work in the literature. We remark that such graphs must exist, unless $\mathcal{P}=\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$, since deciding if a $k$-regular graph is Class 1 is an $\mathcal{N P}$-complete problem for every constant $k \geqslant 3$ (Leven and Galil, 1983).

Now, for arbitrary odd $k \geqslant 3$, consider the Class $2 k$-regular graphs wherein every cut has more than $k-2$ edges. Remark that for $k=3$ these graphs are exactly the snarks, so this can be viewed as a natural generalisation of the definition of the snarks for arbitrary odd $k \geqslant 3$. Remark also that in the proof of Theorem 4.30 we have shown that $k$-regular complementary prism has odd $k$ and every cut with more than $k-2$ edges. This motivates the hunting of Class 2 regular complementary prisms. We know that not all regular complementary prisms are Class 2. Besides the $K_{2}$, another regular complementary prism which can be demonstrated to be Class 1 is the graph $C_{9}^{2} \overline{C_{9}^{2}}$, wherein $C_{9}^{2}$ denotes the second power of the cycle $C_{9}$ (i.e. the graph defined by $V\left(C_{9}^{2}\right):=\left\{u_{0}, \ldots, u_{8}\right\}$ and $\left.E\left(C_{9}^{2}\right)=E\left(C_{9}\right) \cup\left\{u_{i} u_{(i+2)} \bmod 9: 0 \leqslant i<9\right\}\right)$.

It is interesting to note, by Observation 4.5 (p. 67), that the removal of any vertex from a Class $2 k$-regular complementary prism yields another non-SO Class 2 graph with maximum degree $k$.

### 4.5 Further decomposition techniques for edge-colouring

Theorem 1.13 in Section 4.4 can be generalised to the following result. Since the proofs for both theorems are constructive, they yield an an interesting decomposition technique for edge-colouring general graphs: if a graph $G$ has a matching $M$ which is also a cut in $G$ (that is, a separating matching), we can decompose $G$ into its subgraphs separated by $M$ and construct an optimal edge-colouring of $G$ from edge-colourings of the subgraphs, as long as $M$ satisfies some properties.

Theorem 4.31. Let $G$ be a graph whose set of vertices can be partitioned into two sets $A$ and $B$ such that the cut between these sets is a matching $M$ which covers all the majors of $G$ and, for each edge $u v \in M$ with $u \in A$ and $v \in B$, the number of majors of $G$ adjacent to $u$ in $G[A]$ is at most $\Delta-d_{G}(v)$ or the number of majors of $G$ adjacent to $v$ in $G[B]$ is at most $\Delta-d_{G}(u)$. Then $G$ is Class 1 .

Proof. We start taking a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring of $G-M$, which is always possible since $\Delta(G-M)<\Delta(G)=: \Delta$. Now we shall colour the edges of $M$ one at a time. At each edge $u v$ considered, with $u \in A$ and $v \in B$, we assume without loss of generality that $u$ is adjacent in $G[A]$ to at most $\Delta-d_{G}(v)$ majors of $G$. Therefore, we can colour $u v$ by applying the claim in the proof of Vizing's Adjacency Lemma (Lemma 2.4 (p. 33)).

Remark from the proof of Theorem 1.13 that every non-regular complementary prism satisfies the precondition of Theorem 4.31. Also, these two theorems yield the following corollaries on edge-colouring join graphs, in view of Observation 4.8.

Corollary 4.32. Let $G_{1} * G_{2}$ be a join graph with $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}$ and $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$. If the complementary prism $G_{1} \overline{G_{1}}$ is not a regular graph distinct from the $K_{2}$, and if $G_{2}$ has a subgraph $H$ which is isomorphic to a spanning subgraph of $\overline{G_{1}}$, then $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1 .

Corollary 4.33. Let $G_{1} * G_{2}$ be a join graph with $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}$ and $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}=$ : d. If there is a maximum matching on $B_{G}$ such that $\left|N_{G_{1}}(u) \cap V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]\right)\right| \leqslant d-d_{G_{2}}(v)$ or $\mid N_{G_{2}}(v) \cap$ $V\left(\Lambda\left[G_{2}\right]\right) \mid \leqslant d-d_{G_{1}}(u)$ for each edge $u v \in M$ with $u \in V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $v \in V\left(G_{2}\right)$, then $G_{1} * G_{2}$ is Class 1.

We close this chapter highlighting that graphs can be decomposed for edge-colouring also at articulation points, as clarified in Lemma 4.34, which generalises the straightforward observation that the chromatic index of any disconnected graph is the maximum amongst the chromatic indices of its connected components.

Lemma 4.34 (joint with J. P. W. Bernardi and S. M. Almeida). The chromatic index of any graph $G$ is the maximum amongst the degrees of the articulation points of $G$ and the chromatic indices of its biconnected components.

Proof. It suffices to prove that if $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are any two graphs with $V\left(G_{1}\right) \cap V\left(G_{2}\right)=\{u\}$, then $\chi^{\prime}\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right)=\max \left\{\chi^{\prime}\left(G_{1}\right), \chi^{\prime}\left(G_{2}\right), d_{G_{1} \cup G_{2}}(u)\right\}=: k$. The proof follows by taking $k$-edge-colourings for $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ using the same set of colours $\mathscr{C}$ and then permuting $\mathscr{C}$ on $G_{2}$ so that the colours of the edges incident to $u$ in $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ become all distinct.

Remark that Lemma 4.34 implies that optimal edge-colourings can be computed in polynomial time for graphs with $m$ edges and $O(\log m)$-size biconnected components, using for example an $O\left(2^{m} m^{O(1)}\right)$-time exact edge-colouring algorithm at each biconnected component by Björklund et al. (2009). Lemma 4.34 also yields the result on edge-colouring chordal graphs presented in Theorem 4.36, whose proof uses the classical Menger's Theorem.

Theorem 4.35 (Menger's Theorem (Menger, 1927 apud Diestel, 2010)). The size of a minimum cut set in a graph $G$ is equal to the maximum number of disjoint paths between any pair of vertices of $G$.

Theorem 4.36 (joint with J. P. W. Bernardi and S. M. Almeida). Except for the K ${ }_{3}$, all chordal graphs with maximum degree $\Delta \leqslant 3$ are Class 1 .

Proof. Since odd cycles are the only Class 2 graphs with $\Delta \leqslant 2$, and since the $K_{3}$ is the only odd cycle which is chordal, from Lemma 4.34 it suffices to prove that all biconnected chordal graphs with maximum degree $\Delta \leqslant 3$ are 3 -edge-colourable. In order to do so, we shall demonstrate that if $G$ is a biconnected chordal graph with maximum degree $\Delta \leqslant 3$, then $G$ is a subgraph of the $K_{4}$, hence 3-edge-colourable.

For the sake of contradiction, assume that $G$ has at least five vertices. Since $\Delta \leqslant 3$ and $G$ is biconnected, by Menger's Theorem (Theorem 4.35) there must be two non-adjacent vertices $u$ and $v$ in $G$ and a cycle $C=x_{0} x_{1} \cdots x_{t} x_{0}$ in $G$ for some $t \geqslant 4$ such that $u=x_{0}$ and $v=x_{k}$ for some $k \in\{2, \ldots, t-1\}$. Now, let $i$ be the smallest integer in $\{1, \ldots, k-1\}$ such that $x_{i} v \in E(G)$, and let $j$ be the greatest integer in $\{k+1, \ldots, t\}$ such that $x_{j} v \in E(G)$. Since $G$ is chordal, the edges $u x_{i}, u x_{j}$, and $x_{i} x_{j}$ must all exist in $G$, which implies, since $\Delta \leqslant 3$, that $C$ has only the four vertices $u, x_{i}, v, x_{j}$, which induce a diamond in $G$.

It is not hard to see that $C$ is the only cycle containing $u$ and $v$. If there is another cycle $C^{\prime}$, we can again demonstrate that $C^{\prime}$ has only four vertices and that these vertices induce a diamond in $G$. However, this would imply that $V(C) \cap V\left(C^{\prime}\right)=\{u, v\}$, since $x_{i}$ and $x_{j}$ already have degree three in $C$. But this would make the degrees of $u$ and $v$ at least four in $G$, a contradiction.

Since we have proved that $C$ is the only cycle containing $u$ and $v$, there must be at least one vertex $x$ of $V(G) \backslash V(C)$ which is a neighbour of either $u$ or $v$, say $u$, such that all paths between $x$ and $v$ contain $u$, contradicting the biconnectedness of $G$.

## 5 Some results on total colouring

In this chapter, which is organised as follows, we present the results which we have found on the subject of total colouring during the development of our work on edge-colouring:

- Section 5.1 provides further preliminaries for total colouring and other graph colouring problems which are relevant for our results;
- Section 5.2 approaches the total colouring problem when restricted to join graphs and cobipartite graphs, presenting some upper bounds for the total chromatic number of these graphs;
- Section 5.3 presents our results on total colouring circular-arc graphs, which also lead to edge-colouring results in this graph class;
- Section 5.4 closes the chapter discussing an idea about a recolouring procedure for total colouring.


### 5.1 Preliminaries for the chapter

A cobipartite graph is the complement of a bipartite graph, that is, a graph whose vertex set can be partitioned in two (disjoint and non-empty) cliques. The computational complexity of edge-colouring cobipartite graphs is an open problem, with some partial results achieved by Machado and Figueiredo (2010).

Let $G$ be a graph and $\mathscr{C}$ be a set of $t$ colours. A $t$-edge-colouring can be viewed as a function $\varphi: E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ injective in $\partial_{G}(u)$ for all $u \in V(G)$. Similarly, a $t$-vertex-colouring is a function $\varphi: V(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ injective in $\{u, v\}$ for all $u v \in E(G)$. A $t$-total colouring is a function $\varphi: V(G) \cup E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ injective in $\{u, v\}$ and injective in $\partial_{G}(u) \cup\{u\}$ for all $u \in V(G)$ and all $v \in N_{G}(u)$. The least $t$ for which $G$ is $t$-total colourable is the total chromatic number of $G$, denoted $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$. Obviously, $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \chi(G)+\chi^{\prime}(G)$.

Except for complete graphs and odd cycles, which have $\chi(G)=\Delta+1$, the chromatic number of a graph $G$ is at most $\Delta$ by the classical Brooks's Theorem (Brooks, 1941). Therefore, $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant 2 \Delta+2$. The Total Colouring Conjecture, proposed independently by Behzad (1965) and Vizing (1968), states that $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \Delta+2$ for every graph $G$. As $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \geqslant \Delta+1$ by definition, graphs with $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)=\Delta+1$ and $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)=\Delta+2$ have been called Type 1 and Type 2, respectively (see Figure 5.1 on the next page). The Total Colouring Conjecture was proved for some graph classes, such as complete graphs and complete bipartite graphs (Behzad et al., 1967), graphs with $\Delta \geqslant(3 / 4) n$ (Hilton and Hind, 1993), and dually chordal graphs (Figueiredo et al., 1999).

In particular, the complete graph $K_{n}$ is Type 1 if $n$ is odd, or Type 2 otherwise, and the complete bipartite graph $K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}$ is Type 1 if $n_{1} \neq n_{2}$, or Type 2 otherwise (Behzad et al., 1967). Moreover, being $V\left(K_{n}\right)=\{0, \ldots, n-1\}$, we call the canonical total colouring


Figure 5.1: A 4-total colouring of the Petersen graph, which brings that the Petersen graph is Type 1.
of the $K_{n}$ the function $\psi_{T}$ given by

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\psi_{T}(u) & :=(2 u) \bmod (n+\operatorname{even}(n)), & \forall u \in V\left(K_{n}\right), & \text { and } \\
\psi_{T}(u v) & :=(u+v) \bmod (n+\operatorname{even}(n)), & \forall u v \in E\left(K_{n}\right),
\end{array}
$$

wherein $\operatorname{even}(n)$ is 1 if $n$ is even or 0 otherwise.
Computing the total chromatic number of a graph is an $\mathcal{N P}$-hard problem (Sánchez-Arroyo, 1989), even if restricted to bipartite graphs (McDiarmid and SánchezArroyo, 1994). For a few graph classes, on the other hand, this problem can be solved in polynomial time. Examples of such graph classes are:

- complete graphs and complete bipartite graphs (Behzad et al., 1967);
- split-indifference graphs (Campos et al., 2012);
- graphs with a spanning star (Hilton, 1990);
- bipartite graphs with a spanning bistar (Hilton, 1991).

Some upper bounds for the total chromatic number of a general $n$-order graph $G$ of maximum degree $\Delta$ are:

- $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant n+1$ (Behzad et al., 1967);
- $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \chi^{\prime}(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)}$ (Hind, 1990);
- $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \Delta+10^{26}$ (Molloy and Reed, 1998);
- $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \Delta+8(\ln \Delta)^{8}$ (Hind et al., 2000).

Now, let $\mathscr{C}$ be a set of colours, no matter how many. Under an assignment of a list $L(u) \subseteq \mathscr{C}$ for each $u \in V(G)$, a vertex-list-colouring is a vertex-colouring $\varphi: V(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ such that $\varphi(u) \in L(u)$ for all $u \in V(G)$. The graph $G$ is said to be $t$-vertex-choosable if it is vertex-list-colourable under any assignment of lists to the vertices with at least $t$ colours in each list. The least $t$ for which $G$ is $t$-vertex-choosable is the vertex-choosability of $G$, denoted $\operatorname{ch}(G)$. Analogously, under assignments of lists to the edges, we define edge-list-colourings, and the least $t$ for which $G$ is $t$-edge-choosable is the edge-choosability of $G$, denoted $\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}(G)$. Clearly, $\operatorname{ch}(G) \geqslant \chi(G), \operatorname{ch}^{\prime}(G) \geqslant \chi^{\prime}(G)$, and $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \operatorname{ch}^{\prime}(G)+2$.

The Edge-List-Colouring Conjecture ${ }^{1}$ states that $\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}(G)=\chi^{\prime}(G)$ for every graph G. Remark that the similar statement concerning with vertex-list-colourings is known to be false, since one can construct a graph with $\chi(G)=2$ and $\operatorname{ch}(G)$ arbitrarily large (Gravier, 1996), although it is true that $\operatorname{ch}(G) \leqslant \Delta+1$ (Vizing, 1976; Erdős et al., 1979). The Edge-List-Colouring Conjecture has been shown only for a few graphs, such as the bipartite graphs (Janssen, 1993; Galvin, 1995) and the $K_{n}$ with $n$ odd (Häggkvist and Janssen, 1997) or $n-1$ prime (Schauz, 2014). For the $K_{n}$ with $n$ even and $n-1$ composite, it is only known that $\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \leqslant \Delta\left(K_{n}\right)+1=n$ (Häggkvist and Janssen, 1997).

A pullback from a graph $G_{1}$ to a graph $G_{2}$ is a homomorphism $\lambda: V\left(G_{1}\right) \rightarrow V\left(G_{2}\right)$ injective in $\{u\} \cup N_{G_{1}}(u)$ for all $u \in V\left(G_{1}\right)$.

Theorem 5.1 (Figueiredo et al., 1997a,b, 1999). If there is a pullback $\lambda$ from $G_{1}$ to $G_{2}$, then $\chi^{\prime}\left(G_{1}\right) \leqslant \chi^{\prime}\left(G_{2}\right)$ and $\chi^{\prime \prime}\left(G_{1}\right) \leqslant \chi^{\prime \prime}\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Proof. It can be verified that, if such a pullback exists and $G_{2}$ has a:

- $k$-edge-colouring $\varphi$, then a $k$-edge-colouring for $G_{1}$ can be given by

$$
\psi(u v):=\varphi(\lambda(u) \lambda(v)), \quad \forall u v \in E\left(G_{1}\right) ;
$$

- $k$-total colouring $\varphi$, then a $k$-total colouring for $G_{1}$ can be given by

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\psi(u v) & :=\varphi(\lambda(u) \lambda(v)), & \forall u v \in E\left(G_{1}\right), & \text { and } \\
\psi(u) & :=\varphi(\lambda(u)), & \forall u \in V\left(G_{1}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

### 5.2 Upper bounds for the total chromatic number of join graphs and cobipartite graphs

This section approaches the problem of total colouring join graphs and cobipartite graphs (see Figure 5.2), for which some results have been found. These results use novel decomposition techniques and results on other graph colouring problems, mainly list-colouring problems, in order to colour each part of the decomposed graph.

Theorem 5.2. Let $G$ be a connected cobipartite graph with $V(G)=V_{1} \cup V_{2}$, wherein $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are two disjoint cliques with $\left|V_{1}\right|=: n_{1}$ and $\left|V_{2}\right|=: n_{2}$. Let also $B_{G}:=G\left[\partial_{G}\left(V_{1}\right)\right]=G\left[\partial_{G}\left(V_{2}\right)\right]$, a (not necessarily complete) bipartite graph, and let $\Delta_{i}^{B}:=\max _{u \in V_{i}} d_{B_{G}}(u)$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$. Then, $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right)$.

Proof. Let $\mathscr{C}$ be a set with $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\Delta_{1}^{B}+1\right)$ colours, assuming without loss of generality that $\Delta_{1}^{B} \geqslant \Delta_{2}^{B}$. We shall construct a total colouring $\varphi$ for $G$ with $\mathscr{C}$.

Step 1. Choose $n_{1}$ colours from $\mathscr{C}$ and assign each one of them to a vertex of $V_{1}$.
Step 2. For each $u v \in E\left(B_{G}\right)$ with $u \in V_{1}$ and $v \in V_{2}$, create the list $L(u v)$ with any $\Delta\left(B_{G}\right)$ colours of $\mathscr{C}$ distinct from $\varphi(u)$. As $\Delta\left(B_{G}\right)=\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}\left(B_{G}\right)$, by Galvin (1995), we can assign to each $u v$ a colour of $L(u v)$.

[^11]

Figure 5.2: Optimal total colourings for the join graph $K_{3} * C_{4}$ and for a cobipartite graph with $n_{1}=3$ and $n_{2}=4$. Here, differently from other figures in this text, the numbers near the vertices are the colours of those vertices.

Step 3. Now, for each $v \in V_{2}$, the set $X(v)$ of the colours assigned to the neighbours of $v$ in $B_{G}$ and to the edges incident to $v$ in $B_{G}$ has at most $2 d_{B_{G}}(v)$ colours. Hence, if we take the list $L(v):=\mathscr{C} \backslash X(v)$, we have

$$
|L(v)| \geqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\Delta_{1}^{B}+1\right)-2 \Delta_{2}^{B} \geqslant n_{2} .
$$

Since $\operatorname{ch}\left(K_{n_{2}}\right)=n_{2}$ is a straightforward result, we can assign to each $v \in V_{2}$ a colour of $L(v)$.

Step 4. Finally, in order to complete $\varphi$, it remains to colour the edges of $E\left(G\left[V_{1}\right]\right) \cup$ $E\left(G\left[V_{2}\right]\right)$. For each $u v$ amongst them, let $X(u v)$ be the set of the colours assigned to the vertices $u$ and $v$ and to the edges of $B_{G}$ adjacent to $u v$ in $G$. Define then the list $L(u v):=\mathscr{C} \backslash X(u v)$. Since $|X(u v)| \leqslant 2 \Delta_{1}^{B}+2,|L(u v)| \geqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}$. Thus, by the result of Häggkvist and Janssen (1997) according to which $\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}\left(K_{n}\right) \leqslant n$, we can assign to each $u v \in E\left(G\left[V_{1}\right]\right) \cup E\left(G\left[V_{2}\right]\right)$ a colour of $L(u v)$.

Because all the colourings in the proof of Theorem 5.2 can be obtained in polynomial time, our proof yields a polynomial-time algorithm to construct a ( $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+$ $\left.2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right)\right)$-total colouring. Recall that $\Delta(G)=\max \left\{n_{1}-1+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}-1+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}$, which means that the upper bound provided in Theorem 5.2 is better than the bounds for general graphs by Behzad et al. (1967), Hind (1990), Molloy and Reed (1998), and Hind et al. (2000), as long as $\Delta_{1}^{B}$ and $\Delta_{2}^{B}$ are not too large, in the sense that the observation below clarify.

Observation 5.3. The upper bound $\left(\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right)\right)$ for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ provided by Theorem 5.2 is strictly less than:
(i) $|V(G)|+1$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Behzad et al. (1967), as long as

$$
\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant \frac{\min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}}{2}-1 ;
$$

(ii) $\Delta(G)+10^{26}$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Molloy and Reed (1998), as long as

$$
\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant 5 \times 10^{25}-2 ;
$$

(iii) $\chi^{\prime}(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)}$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Hind (1990), as long as

$$
\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant \sqrt{\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}}-\frac{3}{2} ;
$$

(iv) $\Delta(G)+8(\ln \Delta(G))^{8}$, the upper bound for $\chi \prime(G)$ by Hind et al. (2000), as long as

$$
\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant 4\left(\ln \left(\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}\right)\right)^{8}-\frac{3}{2} .
$$

Proof. Follows by observing that:
(i) if $\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant\left(\min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}\right) / 2-1$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right) & \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\} \\
& =n_{1}+n_{2}<|V(G)|+1 ;
\end{aligned}
$$

(ii) if $\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant 5 \times 10^{25}-2$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right) & \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}-1+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}-1+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+10^{26}-2 \\
& <\Delta(G)+10^{26} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

(iii) if $\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant \sqrt{\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}}-3 / 2$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right) & \leqslant \Delta(G)+2 \sqrt{\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}}-1 \\
& <\Delta(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)} \leqslant \chi^{\prime}(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)}
\end{aligned}
$$

(iv) if $\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\} \leqslant 4\left(\ln \left(\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}\right)\right)^{8}-3 / 2$, then

$$
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+2\left(\max \left\{\Delta_{1}^{B}, \Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}+1\right) \leqslant \Delta(G)+8(\ln (\Delta(G)))^{8}-1 .
$$

In Theorem 5.4 below, we use $\square_{i}$, for $\square \in\left\{\chi, \chi^{\prime}, \chi^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ and $i \in\{1,2\}$, to denote $\square\left(G_{i}\right)$, for the sake of simplicity,

Theorem 5.4. Let $G$ be the join of two disjoint graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ with, respectively, $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ vertices and maximum degrees $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$, but without assuming this time that $n_{1} \leqslant n_{2}$. Let $B_{G}$ be the complete bipartite graph $G-\left(E_{1} \cup E_{2}\right)$. Let also

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right):=\min \left\{\Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+1, \max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}\right\} . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$.
Proof. Recall that $\Delta(G)=\max \left\{\Delta_{1}+n_{2}, \Delta_{2}+n_{1}\right\}$. Let $t:=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ and take two disjoint sets $\mathscr{C}_{A}$ and $\mathscr{C}_{B}$ with, respectively, $\chi_{1}$ and $\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ colours. As it can be straightforwardly verified that $\left|\mathscr{C}_{A}\right|+\left|\mathscr{C}_{B}\right| \leqslant t$, take a set $\mathscr{C}$ with $t$ colours having $\mathscr{C}_{A}$ and $\mathscr{C}_{B}$ as subsets. We shall construct a total colouring $\varphi: V(G) \cup E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$.

Step 1. Take a $\chi_{1}$-vertex-colouring of $G_{1}$ using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}_{A}$.

Step 2. Take a $\chi_{1}^{\prime}$-edge-colouring of $G_{1}$ and a $\chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}$-total colouring of $G_{2}$, both using only the colours of $\mathscr{C}_{B}$. Since $\mathscr{C}_{A}$ and $\mathscr{C}_{B}$ are disjoint, no colour conflict has been created.

Step 3. Now, for each edge $u v \in B_{G}$, with $u \in V_{1}$, let $X(u v)$ be the set of the colours assigned to the vertices $u$ and $v$ and to the edges of $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ adjacent to $u v$ in $G$. It is clear that $|X(u v)| \leqslant 1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$. Define then the list $L(u v):=\mathscr{C} \backslash X(u v)$. Since $|L(u v)| \geqslant t-1-P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}$ and $\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}\left(B_{G}\right)=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}$ (Galvin, 1995), we can assign to each $u v \in E\left(B_{G}\right)$ a colour of $L(u v)$.

Remark in Theorem 5.4 that, from the definition of $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ in (5.1), the choice of the graphs for the roles of $G_{1}$ or $G_{2}$ may lead to different upper bounds. Moreover, if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ is known, or if it can be computed in polynomial time, then our proof is a polynomial-time algorithm, provided that the underlying colourings are also known or can be computed. Replacing $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ by some upper bound on it, such as $\Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+1$, also makes our algorithm polynomial.

Similar to the bound for the cobipartite graphs, the upper bound presented in Theorem 5.4 is better than the upper bounds for general graphs if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ is not too large, in the sense that the observation below clarifies.

Observation 5.5. The upper bound $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ provided by Theorem 5.2 is strictly less than:
(i) $|V(G)|+1$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Behzad et al. (1967), as long as

$$
P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant \min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}-1 ;
$$

(ii) $\Delta(G)+10^{26}$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Molloy and Reed (1998), as long as

$$
P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 10^{26}-1 \text {; }
$$

(iii) $\chi^{\prime}(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)}$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Hind (1990), as long as

$$
P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 2 \sqrt{\chi_{1}+\chi_{2}}-1 ;
$$

(iv) $\Delta(G)+8(\ln \Delta(G))^{8}$, the upper bound for $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G)$ by Hind et al. (2000), as long as

$$
P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 8\left(\ln \left(\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}\right)\right)^{8}-1 .
$$

Proof. Follows by simply observing that:
(i) if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant \min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}-1$, then

$$
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\min \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}=|V(G)| ;
$$

(ii) if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 10^{26}-1$, then

$$
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)<\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{2}, n_{2}+\Delta_{1}\right\}+10^{26}
$$

(iii) if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 2 \sqrt{\chi_{1}+\chi_{2}}-1$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) & <\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{2}, n_{2}+\Delta_{1}\right\}+2 \sqrt{\chi_{1}+\chi_{2}} \\
& \leqslant \chi^{\prime}(G)+2 \sqrt{\chi(G)} ;
\end{aligned}
$$

(iv) if $P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right) \leqslant 8\left(\ln \left(\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{1}^{B}, n_{2}+\Delta_{2}^{B}\right\}\right)\right)^{8}-1$, then

$$
\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+1+P\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)<\max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{2}, n_{2}+\Delta_{1}\right\}+8(\ln \Delta(G))^{8} .
$$

From now on in this section, $G=G_{1} * G_{2}$ is a join graph. Inspired by the observation by De Simone and Mello (2006) according to which $G$ is Class 1 whenever $G_{M}$ is Class 1 for some maximal matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, we show how the upper bound of Theorem 5.4 may be lowered in some cases. In the statements, as it us usual for functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $X \subseteq A$, we use $f(X)$ to denote the set $\bigcup_{x \in X} f(x)$.

Theorem 5.6. Let $\varphi$ be a total colouring of $G_{M}$ for some perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$. If the sets $\varphi\left(V_{1}\right)$ and $\varphi\left(E_{1} \cup M \cup V_{2} \cup E_{2}\right)$ are disjoint and

$$
\left|\varphi\left(E_{1} \cup M \cup V_{2} \cup E_{2}\right)\right| \leqslant \max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\} \leqslant \Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+3,
$$

then $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$.
Proof. Let $\mathscr{C}$ be a set with $t:=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$ colours having $\mathscr{C}_{A}:=\varphi\left(V_{1}\right)$ and $\mathscr{C}_{B}:=\varphi\left(E_{1} \cup M \cup V_{2} \cup E_{2}\right)$ as subsets. In order to obtain a $t$-total colouring of $G$ using the colours of $\mathscr{C}$, we start with the total colouring $\varphi$ of $G_{M}$, remaining to colour only the edges of $B_{G}-M$.

We proceed now as in Step 3 of the proof of Theorem 5.4. For each edge $u v \in B_{G}-M$, with $u \in V_{1}$, let $X(u v)$ be the set of the colours assigned to the vertices $u$ and $v$ and to the edges of $G_{M}$ adjacent to $u v$ in $G$. Clearly

$$
\begin{aligned}
|X(u v)| & \leqslant 1+\min \left\{\Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+3, \max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}\right\} \\
& =1+\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, if we define the list $L(u v):=\mathscr{C} \backslash X(u v)$, we have $|L(u v)|=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}-1=$ $\Delta\left(B_{G}\right)$. Since $\Delta\left(B_{G}\right)=\operatorname{ch}^{\prime}\left(B_{G}\right)$ Galvin (1995), we can assign to each $u v \in E\left(B_{G}\right)$ a colour of $L(u v)$.

Corollary 5.7. If $G$ has a total colouring $\varphi$ of $G_{M}$, for some perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$, satisfying the preconditions of Theorem 5.6, and if $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\} \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}+\right.$ $\left.\Delta_{2}+2, n_{2}+\Delta_{1}+2\right\}$, then the Total Colouring Conjecture holds for $G$, i.e. $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \Delta(G)+2$.

Theorem 5.8 below uses pullback functions in order to lower the bound for the total chromatic number of join graphs.

Theorem 5.8. If there is a graph $G_{3}$ such that

1. $\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\} \leqslant \Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+3$,
2. there are two pullbacks $\lambda_{13}$ and $\lambda_{23}$ to $G_{3}$, the former from $G_{1}$ and the latter from $G_{2}$, and
3. there is a perfect matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ such that $\lambda_{13}(u)=\lambda_{23}(v)$ for all $u v \in M$ with $u \in V_{1}$,
then $\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\}$.
Proof. Let $\mathscr{C}_{A}$ be a set with $\chi_{1}$ colours and take any optimal vertex-colouring of $G_{1}$. Let $\mathscr{C}_{B}$ be a set with $\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\}$ colours, disjoint from $\mathscr{C}_{A}$, and $\psi$ be a total colouring of $G_{3}$ using the colours of $\mathscr{C}_{B}$. By Theorem 5.8, the function $\varphi_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}_{B}$ defined by

$$
\varphi_{1}(u v)=\psi\left(\lambda_{13}(u) \lambda_{13}(v)\right), \quad \forall u v \in E_{1}
$$

is a proper edge-colouring of $G_{1}$, as the function $\varphi_{2}: V_{2} \cup E_{2} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}_{B}$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{2}(u) & :=\psi\left(\lambda_{23}(u)\right), & \forall u \in V_{2}, \\
\varphi_{2}(u v) & :=\psi\left(\lambda_{23}(u) \lambda_{23}(v)\right), & \forall u v \in E_{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

is a proper total colouring of $G_{2}$. Since it is clear that $\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\}>\Delta_{3}+1$, at least one colour $\alpha_{x} \in \mathscr{C}_{B}$ is missing at each $x \in V_{3}$, i.e. $\alpha_{x}$ is not the colour assigned by $\psi$ to $x$ nor to any edge incident to $x$. Ergo, for all $u v \in M$ with $u \in V_{1}$, the colour $\alpha_{f(u)}$ is missing at both $u$ and $v$ and thence can be assigned to $u v$. This yields a ( $\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\}$ )-total colouring $\varphi$ of $G_{M}$ with $\varphi\left(V_{1}\right)$ and $\varphi\left(E_{1} \cup M \cup V_{2} \cup E_{2}\right)$ disjoint and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\varphi\left(E_{1} \cup M \cup V_{2} \cup E_{2}\right)\right| & \leqslant \max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\} \\
& \leqslant \Delta_{1}+\Delta_{2}+3
\end{aligned}
$$

The rest of the proof follows as the proof for Theorem 5.6, but using $t=$ $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\}$ instead of $t=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{1}^{\prime}, \chi_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}$.

Corollary 5.9. If there is a graph $G_{3}$ satisfying the preconditions of Theorem 5.8, and if $\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\chi_{3}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{3}+2\right\} \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}+\Delta_{2}, n_{2}+\Delta_{1}\right\}+2$, then the Total Colouring Conjecture holds for $G$.

Theorem 5.10 and Corollary 5.11 deal with the joins of indifference graphs.
Theorem 5.10. If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are indifference graphs, then

$$
\chi^{\prime \prime}(G) \leqslant \max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}\right\}+\max \left\{\Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}\right\}+2
$$

Proof. The proof follows from Theorem 5.8 by taking $G_{3}:=K_{\max \left\{\Delta_{1}, \Delta_{2}\right\}+1}$. By Figueiredo et al. (1997b), if $u_{0}, \ldots, u_{k-1}$ is an indifference order of an indifference graph, then, for any $\ell>k$, the function given by $\lambda\left(u_{i}\right):=i \bmod \ell$ is a pullback from this indifference graph to the $K_{\ell}$ on vertex set $\{0, \ldots, \ell-1\}$. Therefore, back to our join graph $G$, it is clear that a matching $M$ on $B_{G}$ satisfying the requirements of Theorem 5.8 can be taken.

Corollary 5.11. If $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are indifference graphs, and if $n_{1}=n_{2}$ or $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}$, then the Total Colouring Conjecture holds for $G$.

### 5.3 On total and edge-colouring proper circular-arc graphs

Throughout this section, let $G$ be an $n$-vertex proper circular-arc graph with maximum degree $\Delta$, being $\sigma:=u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ a proper circular-arc order of $G$ and, $0, \ldots, \ell-1$ the vertices of the $K_{\ell}$, for every positive integer $\ell$. Remark that when we say that $G$ is $(\Delta+2)$-total colourable, it does not mean that $G$ is Type 2.

Theorem 5.12 (joint with J. P. W. Bernardi and S. M. Almeida). If $n \equiv 0(\bmod (\Delta+1)$ ), then $G$ is: Class 1 and $(\Delta+2)$-total colourable if $\Delta$ is odd; Type 1 if $\Delta$ is even.

Proof. It suffices to show that if $n \equiv 0(\bmod (\Delta+1))$, then there is a pullback from $G$ to the $K_{\Delta+1}$. Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that the function $\lambda: V(G) \rightarrow V\left(K_{\Delta+1}\right)$ defined by $\lambda\left(u_{i}\right):=i \bmod (\Delta+1)$ is not a pullback from $G$ to the $K_{\Delta+1}$. As $\lambda$ is clearly a homomorphism, there must be two distinct vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $V(G)$ which have a neighbour $w$ in common and satisfy $\lambda\left(v_{1}\right)=\lambda\left(v_{2}\right)$. However, since $\sigma$ is a proper circular-arc order of $G$, all vertices between $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in $\sigma$ are thus neighbours of $w$, which straightforwardly implies $d_{G}(w)>\Delta$.

Theorem 5.13 (joint with J. P. W. Bernardi and S. M. Almeida). If $n \neq k(\bmod (\Delta+1))$, for all $k \in\{1, \Delta\}$, and if $G$ has a maximal clique of size two, then $G$ is: Class 1 and $(\Delta+2)$-total colourable if $\Delta$ is odd; Type 1 if $\Delta$ is even.

Proof. We already know that the theorem holds if $G$ is an indifference graph (Figueiredo et al., 1997b, 1999). So we assume that $G$ is not an indifference graph, which implies that its maximum clique of size two is not a bridge.

If $r:=n \bmod (\Delta+1)=0$, we are done by Theorem 5.12. If $\Delta \leqslant 2$, then $G$ is a cycle or a disjoint union of paths and the theorem clearly holds. Hence, we assume $\Delta \geqslant 3$ and $r \neq 0$. We also assume without loss of generality that $\left\{u_{0}, u_{n-1}\right\}$ is a maximal clique. Because $\sigma$ is a proper circular-arc order, we have $u_{\Delta} \notin N_{G}\left(u_{0}\right)$ and $u_{n-1-\Delta} \notin N_{G}\left(u_{n-1}\right)$, otherwise $d_{G}\left(u_{0}\right)>\Delta$ or $d_{G}\left(u_{n-1}\right)>\Delta$.

Let $\varphi \in\left\{\psi_{2}, \psi_{T}\right\}$ be the canonical total or edge-colouring of the $K_{\Delta+1}$. Let also $G^{\prime}:=G-u_{n-1} u_{0}$, which is clearly a connected indifference graph. Then, the function $\lambda: V\left(G^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow V\left(K_{\Delta+1}\right)$ defined by $\lambda\left(u_{i}\right):=i \bmod (\Delta+1)$ is clearly a pullback from $G^{\prime}$ to the $K_{\Delta+1}$ and brings a total or an edge-colouring $\psi$ of $G^{\prime}$ using the same set of colours as $\varphi$. Ergo, we have only to colour $u_{n-1} u_{0}$ in order to complete the proof.

Observe that $\lambda\left(u_{n-1}\right)=r-1, \lambda\left(u_{n-1-\Delta}\right)=r$, and, since neither $r$ nor $r-1$ is $\Delta$,

$$
\varphi(r, r-1)= \begin{cases}(2 r-1) \bmod \Delta, & \text { if } \varphi=\psi_{2} \\ (2 r-1) \bmod (\Delta+1+\operatorname{even}(\Delta+1)), & \text { if } \varphi=\psi_{T}\end{cases}
$$

Let $q:=\varphi(r, r-1)$. As $\lambda(v) \neq \Delta$ and $\lambda(w) \neq r$ for all $v \in N_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{0}\right)$ and all $w \in N_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{n-1}\right)$, the colour $\varphi(0, \Delta)$ is missing at $u_{0}$ and the colour $q$ at $u_{n-1}$. If $q=\varphi(0, \Delta)$, then we assign the colour $q$ to $u_{n-1} u_{0}$ and we are done. Otherwise, since $q \in\{0, \ldots, \Delta\}$, we exchange $\Delta$ and $q$ in the codomain of $\lambda$, that is, we redefine $\lambda$ so that every vertex which has been mapped by $\lambda$ to $\Delta$ is now mapped to $q$ and vice versa. Notice that the images of $u_{0}, u_{n-1-\Delta}$, and $u_{n-1}$ by $\lambda$ remain the same, but $\lambda\left(u_{\Delta}\right)$ becomes $q$, which now is also a colour missing at $u_{0}$. Then, we colour $u_{n-1} u_{0}$ with $q$.

Let $\mathscr{A}$ be the class of the proper circular-arc graphs with odd $\Delta$ and a maximal clique of size two. Overfull graphs in $\mathscr{A}$ can be constructed when $n \equiv 1(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ and when $n \equiv \Delta(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ (see Figures 5.3(a) and 5.3(b), respectively). From Theorem 5.13 follows an interesting corollary on the SO graphs in $\mathscr{A}$ :

Corollary 5.14 (joint with J. P. W. Bernardi and S. M. Almeida). A graph in $\mathscr{A}$ is SO if and only if it is overfull.

Proof. Let $G$ be a graph in $\mathscr{A}$. If $G$ is overfull, then $G$ is $S O$ by definition. So, we assume that $G$ has an induced overfull $\Delta$-subgraph $H$ and, for the sake of contradiction, that


Figure 5.3: Two overfull graphs in $\mathscr{A}$
$V(H) \neq V(G)$. We also assume $\Delta>2$, since the only $S O$ graphs in $\mathscr{A}$ with $\Delta \leqslant 2$ are the odd cycles, which are overfull.

Remark that every subgraph of $G$ which has $H$ as a subgraph is also $S O$. Hence, for every $x \in V(G) \backslash V(H)$, the subgraph of $G$ induced by $V(H) \cup\{x\}$ must be Class 2 . However, Theorem 5.13 brings that either $|V(H)| \equiv 1(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ or $|V(H)| \equiv \Delta$ $(\bmod (\Delta+1))$. Therefore, since $\Delta>2$, we have $|V(H) \cup\{x\}| \not \equiv k(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ for all $k \in\{1, \Delta\}$, which implies, also by Theorem 5.13, that $G$ is Class 1 , a contradiction.

### 5.4 On a recolouring procedure for total colouring

A standard result on vertex-colouring is that any greedy (not necessarily optimal) vertex-colouring algorithm does not need more than $\Delta+1$ colours to colour the vertices of a graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta$. As we have already mentioned, only complete graphs and odd cycles have $\chi(G)=\Delta+1$. All the other graphs satisfy $\chi(G) \leqslant \Delta+1$ by Brooks's Theorem (Brooks, 1941). In this section we discuss a polynomial-time heuristic for constructing edge by edge a $(\Delta+k)$-total colouring of $G$ over an initial $(\Delta+k)$-vertex-colouring, for any $k \geqslant 2$. Our heuristic (which may fail, as clarified in the sequel) is an attempt based on a recolouring procedure similar to Vizing's recolouring procedure for edge-colouring.

As an edge-colouring can be regarded as a vertex-colouring of a line graph, a total colouring can be regarded as a vertex-colouring of a total graph. The total graph of a graph $G$ (see Figure 5.4 on the next page), denoted $T(G)$, is the graph defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V(\mathrm{~T}(G)):=V(G) \cup E(G) \quad \text { and } \\
& E(\mathrm{~T}(G)):=E(G) \cup E(\mathrm{~L}(G)) \cup\left\{u e: u \in V(G) \text { and } e \in \partial_{G}(u)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the context of total colourings, it is quite usual in the literature to say that a vertex $v \in V(G)$ misses some $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ in a total colouring $\varphi: V(G) \cup E(G) \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ if no element of $\{v\} \cup \partial_{G}(v)$ is coloured $\alpha$. Remark that saying that $\alpha$ is missing at $v$ does not necessarily mean that no neighbour of $v$ is coloured $\alpha$. Furthermore, being $\alpha$ a colour not missing at some $u \in V(G)$ and $\beta$ a colour not missing at some $v \in V(G)$, we say that $u$ and $v$ are $\alpha / \beta$-connected if the $\alpha$-coloured element of $\{u\} \cup \partial_{G}(u)$ and the $\beta$-coloured element of $\{v\} \cup \partial_{G}(v)$ are in the same component (a bipartite graph $B$ ) of the subgraph of $\mathrm{T}(G)$ induced by the elements coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$.

In this section and only for it, we redefine the concept of a recolouring fan, now for the context of total colouring, with no risk of ambiguity.


Figure 5.4: A graph and its total graph

Definition 5.15. Let $u v$ be an edge of a graph $G$ and let $\varphi:(V(G) \cup E(G)) \backslash\{u v\} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ be a total colouring of $G-u v$. A recolouring fan for $u v$ is a sequence $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ of distinct neighbours of $u$ such that $v_{0}=v$ and, for all $i \in\{0, \ldots, k-1\}$, the colour $\alpha_{i}:=\varphi\left(u v_{i+1}\right)$ is missing at $v_{i}$. Moreover, the recolouring fan is said to be complete if
(i) either there is some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$;
(ii) or for some $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $v_{k}$ and some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$, the vertices $u$ and $v_{k}$ are not $\alpha / \beta$-connected.

Theorem 5.16. Let $u v$ be an edge of a graph $G$ and let $\varphi:(V(G) \cup E(G)) \backslash\{u v\} \rightarrow \mathscr{C}$ be a $(\Delta+k)$-total colouring of $G-u v$ for some positive integer $k$. If there is a complete recolouring $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{k}$ for $u v$, then $G$ is also $(\Delta+k)$-total colourable.

Proof. If (i) there is some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at both $u$ and $v_{k}$, then we can perform the decay of the colours of the edges of the recolouring fan as in the proof for Lemma 1.6 (p. 20). On the other hand, if (i) does not hold, but (ii) for some $\alpha \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $v_{k}$ and some $\beta \in \mathscr{C}$ missing at $u$, the vertices $u$ and $v_{k}$ are not $\alpha / \beta$-connected, then let $H$ be the subgraph of $\mathrm{T}(G)$ induced by the elements coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$, and let $B$ (a bipartite graph) be the component of $H$ cont containing $v_{k}$. Exchanging the colours of the elements of $B$ brings us back to (i).

In view of Theorem 5.16, our $(\Delta+k)$-total colouring heuristic consists simply of greedily colouring the vertices of the graph $G$ with $\Delta+k$ colours and then trying to colour each edge $u v$ of $G$, one at a time, by constructing a complete recolouring fan for $u v$. Of course, our heuristic may fail, even given that $k \geqslant 2$, which implies that there shall always be at least one colour missing at each vertex. The reason why a similar approach works for edge-colourings, from which Vizing successfully derived his theorem (Theorem 1.4, p. 19), is that, when we take two colours $\alpha$ and $\beta$ and look at the edges coloured $\alpha$ or $\beta$, they form paths or even cycles, as it has been widely explored in this text. From this fact, we can affirm, like in the proof of Lemma 1.8 (p. 20), that only one amongst two vertices $v_{j}$ and $v_{k}$ can be in the same $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-component as $u$, for some $\beta$ missing at $u$ and some $\alpha_{j}$ missing at both $v_{j}$ and $v_{k}$. In the other hand, in an analogous situation in the context of total colourings, it may be the case wherein the vertices $u, v_{j}$, and $v_{k}$ are all $\alpha_{j} / \beta$-connected.

Although the heuristic presented may fail, some important questions concerning it arise, for which we encourage future investigation. We discuss some of these questions in the final remarks of this document (Chapter 6).

## 6 Conclusion

Back to Alice's problem described in the introductory chapter, our fictional character now knows that, although her problem is hard (that is, $\mathcal{N P}$-hard) for graphs in general, it may be the case wherein her graph happens to belong to a class for which the problem is already known to be easy (that is, polynomial). In this chapter, we summarise the state of the art of her problem then and now, after the novel results presented in this thesis, restricted to the graph classes which we have approached. Also, we further discuss the conjectures and open problems left for future investigation.

### 6.1 Final remarks on edge-colouring graphs with bounded local degree sums

In Chapter 1, we have introduce the graph class $\mathscr{X}$, which is the class of the graphs whose majors have local degree sum at most $\Delta^{2}-\Delta$. We have proved in Chapter 3 that all graphs in $\mathscr{X}$ are Class 1 and that almost every graph is in $\mathscr{X}$. Moreover, we have presented a novel recolouring procedure to construct in $O\left(\Delta^{3} n m\right)$-time a $\Delta$-edgecolouring of any graph in $\mathscr{X}$. In our proofs, we have concerned ourselves only with constructiveness and polynomiality, thus choosing not to complicate the presentation of the proofs just to achieve some better time complexity. It would be interesting to investigate data structures and strategies that may lead to a more efficient algorithm.

We suspect the following slightly stronger form of Theorem 1.10.
Conjecture 6.1. Every graph with no proper majors is Class 1.
Recall that saying that a graph $G$ has no proper major is the same as saying that the majors of $G$ have local degree sum bounded above by $\Delta^{2}-\Delta+1$. Therefore, the graph class $\mathscr{X}$ is a subclass of the class of the graphs with no proper majors. Recall also that we have proved that Conjecture 6.1 holds for triangle-free graphs (Theorem 3.11).

Table 6.1 gathers some graph classes defined by upper bounds on the local degree sums of the major vertices. In all the tables presented in this chapter, we discriminate for which graph (sub)classes the problem has been solved (that is, in our context, a polynomial-time edge-colouring algorithm has been presented) and for which classes the computational complexity of the problem remains open.

Table 6.1: State of the art then and now on edge-colouring graphs with bounded local degree sums. The $\varnothing$ symbol indicates that the corresponding graph classes had not been approached by any work in the literature, to the best of our knowledge.

|  | Then |  | Now |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Graph class | Status | References | Status | Theorems |
| graphs with no proper majors | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $দ$ graphs in $\mathscr{X}$ | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | $1.10($ p. 24) |
| $দ$ which are triangle-free | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | 3.11 (p. 58) |

We have come to the study of graphs with no proper majors and to the development of the extended recolouring procedure presented in Chapter 3 mainly from our efforts to approach Conjecture 6.1. Proving this conjecture may be an important step towards proving the Overfull Conjecture, due to the results presented by Niessen (1994, 2001). In particular, the author showed the following:

Theorem 6.2 (Niessen, 2001). If $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$, $S$ is the set of all vertices adjacent to at most one proper major of $G$, and $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{r}$ are the vertices of $G-S$ sorted in a manner that $d_{G-S}\left(v_{1}\right) \geqslant \cdots \geqslant d_{G-S}\left(v_{r}\right)$, then $G$ is SO if and only if $\Delta(G-S)=\Delta(G)$ and $G\left[\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right]$ is overfull for some odd $i$ satisfying either $i=r$, or $i>|V(G)|-\Delta$ and $d_{G-S}\left(v_{i}\right) \geqslant d_{G-S}\left(v_{i+1}\right)+2$.

Therefore, in order to prove the Overfull Conjecture for graphs with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$, it suffices to prove:

- first, that if $u$ is a vertex adjacent to at most one proper major of a graph $G$, and if $G-u$ is Class 1, then $G$ is Class 1 (this also implies Conjecture 6.1);
- second, that if $\Delta(G) \geqslant n / 2, S$ is the set of all vertices adjacent to at most one proper major of $G, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{r}$ are the vertices of $G-S$ sorted in a manner that $d_{G-S}\left(v_{1}\right) \geqslant \cdots \geqslant d_{G-S}\left(v_{r}\right)$, and $i$ is an integer in $\{1, \ldots, r-1\}$ such that $G\left[\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i+1}\right\}\right]$ is not overfull and $G\left[\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right]$ has a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring, then $G\left[\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i+1}\right\}\right]$ also has a $\Delta(G)$-edge-colouring.


### 6.2 Final remarks on edge-colouring complementary prisms

Table 6.2 presents the state of the art on edge-colouring prisms and complementary prisms. We refer the reader to Observation 1.12 (p. 26) for the standard result on edge-colouring prisms listed in the table.

Table 6.2: State of the art then and now on edge-colouring prisms and complementary prisms. Recall that the $\varnothing$ symbol indicates that the corresponding graph class had not been approached by any work in the literature, to the best of our knowledge.

|  | Then |  | Now |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Graph class | Status | References | Status | Theorems |
| prisms | solved | standard |  |  |
| complementary prisms | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $\bigsqcup_{\text {which are regular }}$ | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $\longrightarrow$ which are not regular | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | 1.13 (p. 27) |

In Chapter 4 we have raised the question of which regular complementary prisms are Class 1 and which are Class 2. This seems to be a very important question, since Class 2 regular complementary prisms would serve as examples of Class 2 non-SO $d$-regular graphs, generalising what is already known to happen if $d=3$ (recall the discussion on snarks in Chapter 2).

Also in Chapter 4, we have discussed some properties about regular complementary prisms. Another interesting property is the following:

- If there is a Class $1 n$-vertex regular complementary prism $G \bar{G}$, then for any colour $\alpha$ used in any edge-colouring of $G \bar{G}$, the numbers of $\alpha$-coloured edges in
$G$, in $\bar{G}$, and in $M$ are each at least one, being the number of $\alpha$-coloured edges in $M$ odd.

This follows because the set of $\alpha$-coloured edges is a perfect matching in $G \bar{G}$ which contains at most $(n-1) / 2$ edges of $G$ and at most this same amount of edges of $\bar{G}$. Therefore, there must be an edge in $M$ which is coloured $\alpha$. However, it cannot be the case that only edges in $M$ are coloured $\alpha$, since otherwise both $G$ and $\bar{G}$ would be Class 1, when they both are actually overfull. The fact that the number of $\alpha$-coloured edges in $M$ is odd follows from Lemma 4.3 (p. 66), since if one of the colours is assigned to an even number of edges in $M$, then all the colours are, which cannot happen because $|M|=n$ is odd.

### 6.3 Final remarks on edge-colouring join graphs

As we have argued in Chapters 1 and 2, the Overfull Conjecture (Conjecture $2.18, \mathrm{p} .44$ ) suggests the existence of a linear-time algorithm for determining the chromatic index of join graphs. However, no such algorithm has been found yet, despite many partial and technical results on edge-colouring join graphs being reported by several authors. Our work presents more of these works, as Table 6.3 summarises.

Table 6.3: State of the art then and now on edge-colouring join graphs. Recall that we always assume $n_{1} \leqslant$ $n_{2}$, without loss of generality. Also, remark that the subclasses listed may have non-empty intersection.

|  | Then |  | Now |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Graph class | Status | References | Status | Theorems |
| join graphs <br> $\checkmark$ regular join graphs <br> $\leftrightarrows$ graphs with a universal vertex <br> $\rightarrow$ cographs <br> $\leftrightarrows$ quasi-thresholds <br> $\bigsqcup$ complete multipartite graphs <br> $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta_{1}>\Delta_{2}$ <br> 4 with $\Delta_{2}>\Delta_{1}$ <br> $\rightarrow$ with $\Delta_{1}=\Delta_{2}$ | open <br> solved <br> solved <br> open <br> solved <br> solved <br> solved <br> open <br> open | $\begin{gathered} {[1]} \\ {[2]} \\ {[2]} \\ {[3]} \\ {[4]} \\ {[5]} \\ {[6,7,4,8]} \end{gathered}$ | open <br> open <br> open <br> open | $\begin{gathered} 4.9 \text { (p. 70), } 4.10 \text { (p. 72), } \\ 4.13 \text { (p. } 73), 4.15 \text { (p. } 73 \text { ), } \\ 4.18 \text { (p. } 75) \end{gathered}$ |

[1] De Simone and Galluccio (2007) [2] Plantholt (1981) [3] Hoffman and Rodger (1992) [4] De Simone and Mello (2006) [5] Machado and Figueiredo (2010) [6] De Simone and Galluccio (2009) [7] De Simone and Galluccio (2013) [8] Cunha Lima et al. (2015)

Besides the technical results referenced in Table 6.3, we have conjectured in Chapter 1 that a join graph with $\Delta_{1} \geqslant \Delta_{2}$ is Class 1 whenever $\Lambda\left[G_{1}\right]$ is acyclic. In Chapter 4, we have presented evidences for this conjecture and an attempt to prove it by an extended recolouring procedure, which seems to be a promising strategy.

### 6.4 Final remarks on edge-colouring chordal graphs and circular-arc graphs

It is widely suspected that the chromatic index of chordal graphs can be characterised by a linear-time decidable property, namely, neighbourhood-overfullness (recall Chapter 2). However, as for join graphs, the actual computational complexity of the problem remains open. Although chordal graphs have not been initially the subject of our concerns, one of the decomposition techniques developed while studying the other graph classes have led us to completely solve the problem for chordal graphs with $\Delta \leqslant 3$. Table 6.4 places our result in the state of the art of edge-colouring chordal graphs, along with the results which we have found for circular-arc graphs.

Table 6.4: State of the art then and now on edge-colouring circular-arc graphs and chordal graphs. Recall that indifference graphs are a subclass both of circular-arc graphs and of chordal graphs. Recall that the $\varnothing$ symbol indicates that the corresponding graph class had not been approached by any work in the literature, to the best of our knowledge.

|  | Then |  | Now |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Graph class | Status | References | Status | Theorems |
| circular-arc graphs | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $\checkmark$ indifference graphs | open |  | open |  |
| $\checkmark$ with odd $\Delta$ | solved | [1] |  |  |
| $\checkmark$ split-indifference graphs | solved | [2] |  |  |
| $\checkmark$ which are twin-free | solved | [3] |  |  |
| $\checkmark$ with $n \equiv 0(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | 5.12 (p. 96) |
| $\checkmark$ with odd $\Delta$ | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $\checkmark$ with a maximal clique of size 2 | open | $\varnothing$ | open |  |
| $\checkmark$ with $n \neq 1, \Delta(\bmod (\Delta+1))$ | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | 5.13 (p. 97) |
| chordal graphs | open | [4] | open |  |
| $\checkmark$ split-comparability graphs | solved | [5] |  |  |
| $\checkmark$ with $\Delta \leqslant 3$ | open | $\varnothing$ | solved | 4.36 (p. 86) |

[1] Figueiredo et al. (1997b) [2] Ortiz Z. et al. (1998) [3] Figueiredo et al. (2003) [4] Figueiredo et al. (2000) [5] Sousa Cruz et al. (2017)

As the proof of Theorem 4.36 (p. 86) goes by decomposing the graph into subgraphs of the $K_{4}$ at its articulation points (i.e. at its separating $K_{1}$ 's), we suspect that analogous decompositions for $\Delta \geqslant 3$ may lead to the proof that chordal graphs of odd $\Delta$ are Class 1.

Let $\mathscr{A}$ denote the class of the proper circular-arc graphs with odd $\Delta$ and a maximal clique of size two (recall Chapter 5). Since we know that that there are overfull graphs in $\mathscr{A}$ (Figure 5.3, p. 98) and that all SO graphs in $\mathscr{A}$ are overfull (Corollary 5.14, p. 97), we propose the following conjecture:

Conjecture 6.3. A graph in $\mathscr{A}$ is Class 2 if and only if it is overfull.

### 6.5 Final remarks on total colouring

While developing our results on edge-colouring, we have also come to some results on total colouring join graphs, cobipartite graphs, and circular-arc graphs. Being
the whole set of our results on total colouring too technical to organise in a table, we refer the reader to Chapter 5 for more details.

Besides the results on total colouring restricted to these graph classes, we have also proposed a recolouring heuristic for total colouring general graphs. Concerning this heuristic, some questions arise which should be very interesting to investigate:

- In which graph classes this recolouring heuristic may lead to novel results on total colouring?
- How does this heuristic empirically behave for constructing $(\Delta+k)$-total colourings considering, for example, random graph models such as $\mathscr{G}(n, p)$ and $\mathscr{G}(n, d)$ graphs?
- In the cases wherein the procedure does not work for any possible enumeration of missing colours at the vertices of the recolouring fan, is there some way to recolour the edges in order to obtain a recolouring fan satisfying one of the halting conditions? Remark that a positive answer of this question, when $k=2$, implies the Total Colouring Conjecture. Remark also that a counterexample would be a graph $G$ and an edge $u v$ of $G$ such that, for every $(\Delta(G)+2)$-total colouring of $G-u v$, the procedure fails for every possible enumeration of missing colours. We suspect that such a graph with such an edge does not exist.

In spite of total and edge-colouring problems being hard combinatorial problems, even for graphs classes in which other hard problems are easy, there are several interesting conjectures and open problems on the subject. One important example is the Overfull Conjecture on edge-colouring, which has been open for over 30 years even for graphs with $\Delta \geqslant n / 2$ or triangle-free graphs with $\Delta>n / 3$. Our work contributes towards the proof of this conjecture, bringing also other results on edge-colouring, and raising further questions which should be interesting to investigate.

Graph Edge-colouring is surely one of the infinitely many wonders on the Wonderland of Graph Theory.

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## Appendix A: List of Publications

Earlier versions of the recolouring procedure described in Chapter 3, as well as some of the results yielded on edge-colouring general graphs and triangle-free graphs with bounded local degree sums, have been published in:

- Zatesko, L. M., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2017). Edge-colouring of triangle-free graphs with no proper majors. In Proc. $37^{\text {th }}$ Congress of the Brazilian Computer Society (CSBC '17/II ETC), pages 71-74, São Paulo.
- Zorzi, A. and Zatesko, L. M. (2018). On the chromatic index of join graphs and triangle-free graphs with large maximum degree. Discrete Appl. Math., 245:183-189.

The former work also contains some of the results on edge-colouring join graphs presented in Chapter 4.

The recolouring procedure discussed in Chapter 4 in the context of our main conjecture on join graphs (Conjecture 1.11) has been presented in:

- Zatesko, L. M., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2017). On a conjecture on edge-colouring join graphs. In Proc. $2^{\text {nd }}$ Workshop de Pesquisa em Computação dos Campos Gerais (WPCCG '17), pages 69-72, Ponta Grossa, Brazil.
The results on total colouring join graphs and cobipartite graphs in Chapter 5 have been presented in:
- Zatesko, L. M., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2018). Upper bounds for the total chromatic number of join graphs and cobipartite graphs. In Proc. $7^{\text {th }}$ International Conference on Operations Research and Enterprise Systems (ICORES '18), pages 247-253, Funchal.

The results on total and edge-colouring circular-arc graphs, also in Chapter 5, have been presented in:

- Bernardi, J. P. W., Almeida, S. M., and Zatesko, L. M. (2018). On total and edgecolouring of proper circular-arc graphs. In Proc. $38^{\text {th }}$ Congress of the Brazilian Computer Society (CSBC '18/III ETC), pages 73-76, Natal.

The decomposition technique in Chapter 4 which yields our result on edge-colouring chordal graphs with $\Delta \leqslant 3$ shall be submitted to Matemática Contemporânea and has been presented in:

- Bernardi, J. P. W., Almeida, S. M., and Zatesko, L. M. (2018). A decomposition for edge-colouring. In Proc. VIII Latin American Workshop on Cliques in Graphs, page 35, Rio de Janeiro.
Also, our recolouring heuristic for total colouring (which is being implemented and whose empirical results shall appear in a submission also to Matemática Contemporânea) has been presented in:
- Zatesko, L. M., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2018). A recolouring procedure for total colouring. In Proc. VIII Latin American Workshop on Cliques in Graphs, page 31, Rio de Janeiro.

The current and stronger version of the recolouring procedure of Chapter 3, as well as the results presented in Chapters 3 and 4 which cannot be found in the aforementioned works, have been submitted to Discrete Applied Mathematics:

- Zatesko, L. M., Zorzi, A., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2018). Edge-colouring graphs with bounded local degree sums. Submitted to Discrete Appl. Math.

Our result on complementary prisms, and further results on circular-arc graphs, have been submitted to the X Latin and American Algorithms, Graphs and Optimization Symposium (LAGOS '19):

- Zatesko, L. M., Carmo, R., and Guedes, A. L. P. (2018). The chromatic index of prisms and non-regular complementary prisms. Submitted to the X Latin and American Algorithms, Graphs and Optimization Symposium (LAGOS '19).
- Bernardi, J. P. W., Silva, M. V. G., Guedes, A. L. P., and Zatesko, L. M. (2018). The chromatic index of proper circular arc graphs of odd maximum degree which are chordal. Submitted to the X Latin and American Algorithms, Graphs and Optimization Symposium (LAGOS '19).


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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ For more information on graph-theoretical concepts, results, and applications, we refer the reader to Bondy and Murty (2008) and Diestel (2010).

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ See Section 1.2 for some of these problems.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ We refer the reader to Bollobás (2001) for terms and concepts on random graphs. For instance, $\mathscr{G}(n, p)$ is the model on $n$ vertices wherein, for every pair of distinct vertices $u$ and $v$, the edge $u v$ exists with probability $p$, being $p$ in the closed real interval $[0,1]$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Chladný and Škoviera (2010) discusses some peculiar and "somewhat mysterious" properties of the snarks.

[^4]:    ${ }^{2}$ Blanche Descartes was a collaborative pseudonym used by R. L. Brooks, A. H. Stone, C. Smith, and W. T. Tutte. However, the article wherein the Descartes snark is shown is a work by Tutte solely.

[^5]:    ${ }^{3}$ We refer the reader to Diestel (2010) for more on graph search algorithms.

[^6]:    ${ }^{4}$ Actually, in the same work Vizing also showed that if $G$ is a Class 2 graph, then for every $k \in\{2, \ldots, \Delta\}$ the graph $G$ has a critical subgraph $H$ with $\Delta(H)=k$.

[^7]:    ${ }^{5}$ Recall that disjointness and non-emptiness of the parts follow from the very definition of a partition.

[^8]:    ${ }^{6}$ We refer the reader to Papadimitriou (1994) for terms and concepts on computational complexity.
    ${ }^{7}$ The question Is $\mathcal{P}$ equal to $\mathcal{N P}$ ? is one of the seven still open Millennium Prize Problems, a list of (initially eight) problems stated by the Clay Mathematics Institute (Jaffe, 2000). The institute offered one million dollars for each problem, to be awarded for those who present a solution for the problem.

[^9]:    ${ }^{8}$ In the case of graphs with $\Delta=n-1$ (i.e. graphs with a spanning star) and complete multipartite graphs, all Class 2 graphs are actually overfull (Plantholt, 1981; Hoffman and Rodger, 1992).

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Again, we refer the reader to Bollobás (2001) for terms and concepts on random graphs.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ For more on the origin and the history of this conjecture, see Jensen and Toft (1994, Chapter 12).

