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# A note on acyclic edge coloring of complete bipartite graphs

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#### ABSTRACT

An *acyclic edge coloring* of a graph is a proper edge coloring such that there are no bichromatic (2-colored) cycles. The *acyclic chromatic index* of a graph is the minimum number k such that there is an acyclic edge coloring using k colors and is denoted by a'(G). Let  $\Delta = \Delta(G)$  denote the maximum degree of a vertex in a graph G. A complete bipartite graph with n vertices on each side is denoted by  $K_{n,n}$ . Alon, McDiarmid and Reed observed that  $a'(K_{p-1,p-1}) = p$  for every prime p. In this paper we prove that  $a'(K_{p,p}) \leq p+2 = \Delta+2$  when p is prime. Basavaraju, Chandran and Kummini proved that  $a'(K_{n,n}) \geq n+2 = \Delta+2$  when p is odd, which combined with our result implies that  $a'(K_{p,p}) = p+2 = \Delta+2$  when p is an odd prime. Moreover we show that if we remove any edge from  $K_{p,p}$ , the resulting graph is acyclically  $\Delta + 1 = p + 1$ -edge-colorable.

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All graphs considered in this paper are finite and simple. A proper edge coloring of G = (V, E) is a map  $c : E \to C$  (where C is the set of available colors) with  $c(e) \neq c(f)$  for any adjacent edges e.f. The minimum number of colors needed to properly color the edges of G is the chromatic index of G and is denoted by  $\chi'(G)$ . A proper edge coloring C is acyclic if there are no bichromatic cycles in the graph. In other words, an edge coloring is acyclic if the union of any two color classes is a disjoint union of paths (i.e., a linear forest) in G. The acyclic edge chromatic number (also called the acyclic chromatic index), denoted by G is the minimum number of colors required in an acyclic edge coloring of G. The concept of acyclic coloring of a graph was introduced by G in G in G in G denote the maximum degree of a vertex in a graph G. By Vizing's theorem G is also proper, G is also proper.

It has been conjectured by Alon, Sudakov, and Zaks [2] that  $a'(G) \le \Delta + 2$  for any G. Using probabilistic arguments Alon, McDiarmid, and Reed [1] proved that  $a'(G) \le 60\Delta$ . The best known result up to now for arbitrary graphs is that of Molloy and Reed [9], who showed that  $a'(G) \le 16\Delta$ .

Though the best known upper bound for the general case is far from the conjectured  $\Delta+2$ , the conjecture has been shown to be true for some special classes of graphs. Alon, Sudakov, and Zaks [2] proved that there exists a constant k such that  $a'(G) \leq \Delta+2$  for any graph G whose girth is at least  $k\Delta \log \Delta$ . They also proved that  $a'(G) \leq \Delta+2$  for almost all  $\Delta$ -regular graphs. This result was improved by Nešetřil and Wormald [12], who showed that random regular graphs almost always have  $a'(G) \leq \Delta+1$ . Muthu, Narayanan, and Subramanian proved the conjecture for grid-like graphs [10] and outerplanar graphs [11]. In fact they gave a better bound of  $\Delta+1$  for these classes of graphs. From Burnstein's [5] result it follows that the conjecture is true for subcubic graphs. Skulrattankulchai [13] gave a polynomial time algorithm for coloring a subcubic graph using  $\Delta+2=5$  colors.

A complete bipartite graph with n vertices on each side is denoted by  $K_{n,n}$ . We denote the sides by A and B. Thus  $V(K_{n,n}) = A \cup B$ .

**Our result:** In this paper, we prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 1.**  $a'(K_{p,p}) \le p + 2 = \Delta + 2$ , when p is an odd prime

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**Remarks.** (1) Basavaraju, Chandran and Kummini [3] proved that  $a'(K_{n,n}) \ge n+2 = \Delta+2$ , when n is odd. From Theorem 1, we can infer that  $a'(K_{n,p}) = p+2 = \Delta+2$ .

- (2) The complete bipartite graph,  $K_{n,n}$  is said to have a *perfect 1-factorization* if the edges of  $K_{n,n}$  can be decomposed into n disjoint perfect matchings such that the union of any two perfect matchings forms a hamiltonian cycle. Alon, McDiarmid and Reed [1] observed that  $a'(K_{p-1,p-1}) = p$ . It is easy to see that if  $K_{n+2,n+2}$  has a perfect 1-factorization, then  $a'(K_{n,n}) \le a'(K_{n+1,n+1}) \le n+2$ . It is known that (see [4]), if  $n+2 \in \{p,2p-1,p^2\}$ , where p is an odd prime or when n+2 < 50 and odd, then  $K_{n+2,n+2}$  has a perfect 1-factorization. Combining with the result that  $a'(K_{n,n}) \ge n+2 = \Delta+2$  when n is odd, one gets  $a'(K_{n,n}) = n+2 = \Delta+2$  for the above mentioned values of n+2. As of now, these are the only values of n for which we know the exact value for  $a'(K_{n,n})$ . Note that we cannot apply the simple argument mentioned here when n=p.
- (3) To get an upper bound for  $a'(K_{n,n})$ , the best method we can think of is to look for the smallest prime number p such that  $p \ge n + 2$ . Then  $a'(K_{n,n}) \le p$ . A weakening of the result of Iwaniec and Pintz [8] gives that for every sufficiently large integer x, there exists a prime number in the range  $[x, x + x^{0.6}]$ .

### 1. Proof of Theorem 1

Let  $A = \{0, 1, ..., p-1\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, ..., p-1\}$ . Let  $\pi_0, \pi_1, ..., \pi_{p-1}$  be the permutation defined by  $\pi_i : a \mapsto (a+i) \pmod{p}$ . Let  $M_i$  be the perfect matching corresponding to the permutation  $\pi_i$ . It is easy to verify that if  $i \neq j$ , then  $M_i \cap M_j = \emptyset$ . Now we claim the following:

**Claim 1.** If  $i \neq j$ , then  $M_i \cup M_j$  forms a Hamiltonian cycle (i.e.,  $M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_{p-1}$  form a perfect 1-factorization).

**Proof.** First note that the union of any two perfect matchings forms a collection of disjoint cycles. Suppose two matchings  $M_i$  and  $M_j$  (i>j) are such that a cycle of length 2k<2p gets formed by the edges of  $M_i\cup M_j$  (recall that all cycles are of even length in  $K_{p,p}$ ). Without loss of generality let this cycle contain the vertex  $a\in A$ . It is easy to see that  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi_i)^k(a)=a$ . Noting that  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi_i)(a)=a+i-j\pmod p$ , we have  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi_i)^k(a)=a+ki-kj=a+k(i-j)\pmod p=a\pmod p$ , which implies that  $k(i-j)=0\pmod p$ . Since  $i-j\neq 0\pmod p$ , we have  $k=0\pmod p$ , a contradiction since k< p. Thus  $M_i\cup M_j$  forms a cycle of length 2p (a Hamiltonian cycle) when i and j are distinct.  $\square$ 

Now consider the multiplicative group  $Z_p^*$ , and let x be a generator of this group. Define a permutation  $\pi$  of  $\{1, 2, \ldots, p-1\}$  by  $\pi: a \longmapsto ax \pmod{p}$ . Let M be the matching corresponding to the permutation  $\pi$ .

**Claim 2.**  $|M \cap M_i| = 1$ , for each  $M_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le p-1$  and  $M_0 \cap M = \emptyset$  (i.e., for each  $M_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le p-1$ , the matchings M and  $M_i$  have exactly one edge in common; also the matchings M and  $M_0$  do not have any edge in common).

**Proof.** By the definition of M, we infer that  $M_0 \cap M = \emptyset$ . Now let  $a = i(x-1)^{-1}$  (mod p). Note that since  $i \neq 0$ ,  $a \neq 0$ . We have  $\pi_i(a) = a + i = i(x-1)^{-1} + i = i(x-1)^{-1}(1+x-1) = i(x-1)^{-1}(x) = ax$  (mod p) =  $\pi(a)$ . Thus it follows that the edge  $(a, ax) \in M \cap M_i$  for  $a = i(x-1)^{-1}$  (mod p). Therefore  $|M \cap M_i| \geq 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq p-1$ . Since |M| = p-1, we can also infer that  $|M \cap M_i| = 1$ .  $\square$ 

Now color the edges of  $K_{p,p}$  as follows to get a coloring f with p + 2 colors:

- (1) if  $e \in M_i \setminus M$  (where  $0 \le i \le p-1$ ), then it is colored with color  $c_i$ ;
- (2) if  $e \in M (1, x)$ , then it is colored with color  $c_p$ ;
- (3) edge e = (1, x) is colored with color  $c_{p+1}$ .

## **Claim 3.** The coloring f is acyclic.

**Proof.** Obviously f is a proper coloring. Let  $c_i$  and  $c_j$  be two colors. We consider different values for i and j with i > j and show that a  $(c_i, c_j)$  bichromatic cycle cannot exist.

Case 1: i = p + 1

Since there is only one edge colored  $c_{p+1}$ , there cannot be any bichromatic cycle involving the color  $c_{p+1}$ . Case 2: i, i < n

Note that  $M_i \cup M_j$  forms a Hamiltonian cycle by Claim 1. Now at least one edge of  $M_i$  belongs to M (by Claim 2) and is colored  $c_p$  or  $c_{p+1}$  with respect to the coloring f, breaking the possible  $(c_i, c_j)$  bichromatic cycle. Therefore there cannot be any  $(c_i, c_j)$  bichromatic cycle when i, j < p.

Case 3: i = p

Suppose  $M_j$  is a matching such that a cycle of length 2k < 2p (no cycles of length 2p can be formed as there are only p-2 edges of color  $c_p$ ) gets formed by the edges of  $M \cup M_j$  (recall that all cycles are of even length in  $K_{p,p}$ ). Thus  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi)^k(a) = a \pmod{p}$ . Noting that  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi)(a) = ax - j \pmod{p}$ , we have  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi)^2(a) = (ax - j)x - j = ax^2 - j(x+1) \pmod{p}$ . Similarly  $(\pi_j^{-1}\pi)^k(a) = ax^k - j(x^{k-1} + \dots + x + 1) = ax^k - j(x^k - 1)(x - 1)^{-1} = a \pmod{p}$ . We have  $a(x^k-1)-j(x^k-1)(x-1)^{-1} = 0 \pmod{p}$  and thus  $(x^k-1)(a-j(x-1)^{-1}) = 0 \pmod{p}$ . If  $(a-j(x-1)^{-1}) = 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

then  $a = j(x-1)^{-1}$  (mod p). But according to Claim 2, we have edge  $(a, ax) \in M \cap M_j$ . Therefore this edge and thus vertex a cannot be in the cycle formed by  $M \cup M_j$ , a contradiction. Thus we infer that  $(x^k - 1) = 0 \pmod{p}$ . This implies that  $x^k = 1 \pmod{p}$  and hence k = p - 1, since x is a generator. Thus there are 2(p - 1) edges in the cycle, out of which p - 1 are colored  $c_p$ , a contradiction since only p - 2 edges are colored  $c_p$ .  $\square$ 

**Theorem 2.** For a prime p > 2, if G is a graph obtained by removing just one edge from  $K_{p,p}$ , then  $a'(G) = \Delta + 1 = p + 1$  (the above statement is true even if we delete any number of edges between 1 and p - 2).

**Proof.** It is easy to infer from the proof of Theorem 1 that  $a'(G) \le p+1$ . The lower bound comes from a simple counting argument: At most one color class can have p edges, since otherwise there will be bichromatic cycles. Thus if  $a'(G) \le p$ , then there can be at most  $p + (p-1)^2 < p^2 - 1$  edges in G, a contradiction.  $\Box$ 

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