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## TRIANGLE-FREE UNIQUELY 3-EDGE COLORABLE CUBIC GRAPHS

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ABSTRACT. This paper presents infinitely many new examples of triangle-free uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graphs. The only such graph previously known was given by Tutte in 1976.

## 1. HISTORY

Recall that a *cubic* graph is 3-regular, that a *proper 3-edge coloring* assigns colors to edges such that no two incident edges receive the same color, that *edge-Kempe chains* are maximal sequences of edges that alternate between two colors, and that a *Hamilton cycle* includes all vertices of a graph.

It is well known that a cubic graph with a Hamilton cycle is 3-edge colorable, as the Hamilton cycle is even (and thus 2-edge colorable) and its complement is a matching (that can be monochromatically colored). A uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graph must have exactly three Hamilton cycles, each an edge-Kempe chain in one of the  $\binom{3}{2}$  pairs of colors. The converse is not true, as a cubic graph may have some colorings with Hamilton edge-Kempe chains and other colorings with non-Hamilton edge-Kempe chains; examples are given in [12].

The literature classifying uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graphs is sparse; there is no complete characterization [7]. It is well known that the property of being uniquely 3-edge colorable is invariant under application of  $\Delta - Y$ transformations. It was conjectured that every simple planar cubic graph with exactly three Hamilton cycles contains a triangle [13, Cantoni], and also that every simple planar uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graph contains a triangle [3]. The latter conjecture is proved in [4], where it is also shown that if a simple planar cubic graph has exactly three Hamilton cycles, then it contains a triangle if and only if it is uniquely 3-edge colorable.

Tutte, in a 1976 paper about the average number of Hamilton cycles in a graph [13], offhandedly remarks that one example of a nonplanar triangle-free uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graph is the generalized Petersen graph

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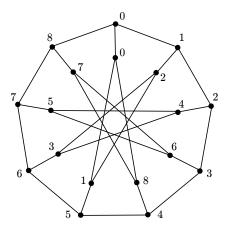


FIGURE 1. The generalized Petersen graph P(9,2) labeled with Tutte's indices.

P(9,2), pictured in Figure 1. He describes the graph as two 9-cycles  $a_0 \ldots a_8$ ,  $b_0 \ldots b_8$ , with additional edges  $a_i b_{2i}$  and index arithmetic done modulo 9. The generalized Petersen graph P(m, 2) is defined analogously, and in fact the known cubic graphs with exactly three Hamilton cycles and multiple distinct 3-edge colorings are P(6k + 3, 2) for k > 1 [12]. It appears that the search for examples of triangle-free nonplanar uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graphs ended with Tutte, or at least that any further efforts have been unsuccessful. Multiple sources ([6], [7], [9]) note that Tutte's example is the only known triangle-free nonplanar example. It has been conjectured [3] that P(9, 2) is the only example. In Section 2 we give infinitely many such graphs.

# 2. New examples of triangle-free nonplanar uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graphs

In [2] the authors introduced the following construction: Consider two cubic graphs,  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , and form  $G_1 \vee G_2$  by choosing a vertex  $v_i$  in  $G_i$  (i = 1, 2), removing  $v_i$  from  $G_i$  (i = 1, 2), and adding a matching of three edges joining the three neighbors of  $v_1$  with the three neighbors of  $v_2$ . Of course there are many ways to choose  $v_1, v_2$ , and many ways to identify their incident edges, so the construction is not unique. However, it is reversible; given a cubic graph G with a 3-edge cut, we may decompose  $G = G_1 \vee G_2$ . In that paper we proved the following result:

**Theorem 2.1** (3.8 of [2]). Let  $G_1, G_2$  be cubic graphs and  $a_i$  the number of 3-edge colorings of  $G_i$ . Then  $G_1 \\ \\ \\ G_2$  has  $a_1 a_2$  edge colorings.

Define  $G^{\vee}$  to be the infinite family of graphs consisting of all graphs of the form  $G \vee G \vee \cdots \vee G$ . This leads to the following corollaries of Theorem 2.1:

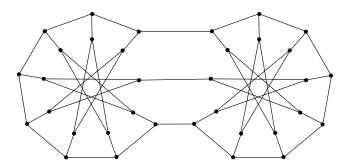


FIGURE 2. A nonplanar, triangle-free, uniquely 3-edge colorable graph with 34 vertices.

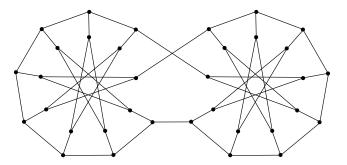


FIGURE 3. A nonplanar, triangle-free, uniquely 3-edge colorable graph with 34 vertices that is nonisomorphic to that shown in Figure 2.

**Theorem 2.2.** If G is a uniquely 3-edge colorable graph, then all graphs in  $G^{\uparrow}$  are uniquely 3-edge colorable.

*Proof.* The proof proceeds by induction on the number of copies of G.

**Corollary 2.3.** All members of the infinite family  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  are uniquely 3-edge colorable.

Note. In [5], Goldwasser and Zhang proved that if a uniquely 3-edge colorable graph has an edge cut of size 3 or 4 such that each remaining component contains a cycle, then the graph can be decomposed into two smaller uniquely 3-edge colorable graphs. It seems they did not observe the reverse construction.

2.1. Examples and Properties. The smallest member of  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  is of course P(9,2), which has 18 vertices. For every integer k > 1 there are multiple graphs in  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  with 16k + 2 vertices. Nonisomorphic examples with k = 2 are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

The graphs in  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  are clearly all nonplanar. We show next that there are graphs in  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  of every nonzero orientable and nonorientable genus.

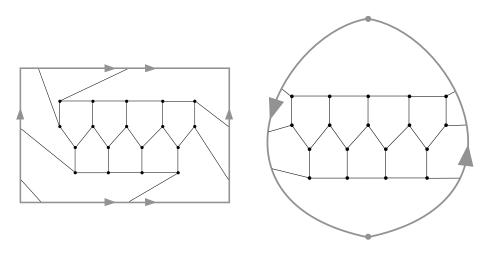


FIGURE 4. Embeddings of P(9,2) on the torus (left) and projective plane (right)

**Theorem 2.4.** Every graph in  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$  with 16k+2 vertices has orientable and nonorientable genus at most k. Further, there is a large subfamily of graphs in  $P(9,2)^{\vee}$ , each of which has 16k+2 vertices and orientable and nonorientable genus exactly k.

*Proof.* We will show by induction that any graph  $Q_k$  created using the  $\forall$ -construction with k copies of P(9,2) has orientable and nonorientable genus at most k. The base case holds because P(9,2) embeds on both the torus (see Figure 4 (left)) and on the projective plane (see Figure 4 (right)).

Now consider  $Q_k$ , a graph created using the  $\gamma$ -construction with k copies of P(9,2). The graph  $Q_k$  was obtained by removing and associating  $v \in$ P(9,2) and some  $w \in Q_{k-1}$  via the  $\gamma$ -construction, where  $Q_{k-1}$  is some graph created using k-1 copies of P(9,2) that has genus k-1 or less by the inductive hypothesis. Let  $\widehat{Q_k}$  be the graph produced by simply identifying the vertices v and w. The graph  $\widehat{Q_k}$  has two blocks that meet at this vertex, so by Theorem 1 of [1] the genus of  $\widehat{Q_k}$  is the sum of the genera of the blocks, which is k. Replacing the cut vertex by a 3-edge cut to implement the  $\gamma$ construction does not increase the genus, which completes the proof of the upper bound on genus.

A copy of a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  is highlighted in the embedding of P(9,2)shown in Figure 5. There are four vertices  $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$  whose edges are not involved in the subdivided  $K_{3,3}$ . Any (or all) of  $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$  can be removed and the resulting graph will still have a  $K_{3,3}$  minor. If  $Q_k$  is formed such that in each copy of P(9,2) only (some) of vertices  $\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$  are used in the  $\gamma$  construction, then there will still be k disjoint copies of subdivisions of  $K_{3,3}$  in  $Q_k$ . The genus of a graph is the sum of the genera of its components [1, Cor. 2], so using this construction  $Q_k$  has a minor with orientable (resp.

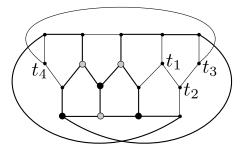


FIGURE 5. P(9,2) with a copy of a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  highlighted.

nonorientable) genus exactly k. It is straightforward to draw an embedding of sample  $Q_k$  on a surface of orientable or nonorientable genus k.

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## 3. Conclusion

While we have provided infinitely many examples of triangle-free nonplanar uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graphs, it is still unknown whether other examples exist. All our examples support Zhang's conjecture [14] that every triangle-free uniquely 3-edge colorable cubic graph contains a Petersen graph minor. That conjecture remains open.

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