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#### Abstract

A proper edge-colouring with the property that every cycle contains edges of at least three distinct colours is called an acyclic edge-colouring. The acyclic chromatic index of a graph $G$, denoted $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)$ is the minimum $k$ such that $G$ admits an acyclic edge-colouring with $k$ colours. We conjecture that if $G$ is planar and $\Delta(G)$ is large enough then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)=\Delta(G)$. We settle this conjecture for planar graphs with girth at least 5 and outerplanar graphs. We also show that $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+25$ for all planar graph $G$, which improves a previous result by Muthu et al.


Key-words: edge-colouring, planar graphs, bounded density graph

[^0]
## Arête-coloration acyclique des graphes planaires.

Résumé : Une arête-coloration propre telle que tout cycle ait des arêtes de trois couleurs différentes est appelée arête-coloration acyclique. L'indice chromatique acyclique d'un graphe $G$, denoté $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)$, est le plus petit entier $k$ tel que $G$ admette une arête-coloration acyclique avec $k$ couleurs. Nous conjecturons que si $G$ est planaire et $\Delta(G)$ suffisamment grand alors $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)=\Delta(G)$. Nous montrons cette conjecture pour les graphes planaires de maille au moins 5 et les graphes planaires extérieurs. Nous prouvons également que $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+25$ pour tout graphe planaire $G$, améliorant ainsi un résultat de Muthu et al.
Mots-clés : arête-coloration, graphe planaire, graphe de densité bornée

## 1 Introduction

A proper edge-colouring with the property that every cycle contains edges of at least three distinct colours is called an acyclic edge-colouring. The acyclic chromatic index of a graph $G$, denoted $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)$ is the minimum $k$ such that $G$ admits an acyclic edge-colouring with $k$ colours.

Conjecture 1 (Alon, Sudakov and Zaks [2]). For every graph $G, \chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+2$.
This conjecture would be tight as there are cases where more than $\Delta+1$ colours are needed. However, the only graphs $G$ for which we know that $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)>\Delta(G)+1$ are the subgraphs of $K_{2 n}$ that have at least $2 n^{2}-2 n+2$ edges (because at most one colour class can contain $n$ edges (a perfect matching), and all other colour classes can contain at most $n-1$ edges each). Therefore the following conjecture might even be true:

Conjecture 2 (Alon, Sudakov and Zaks [2]). If $G$ is a $\Delta$-regular graph then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)=\Delta(G)+1$ unless $G=K_{2 n}$.
Alon, McDiarmid and Reed [1] showed an upper bound of $64 \Delta(G)$ for $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G)$ which was later improved by to $16 \Delta(G)$ by Molloy and Reed [6]. For graphs with large girth, better upper bounds are known. Muthu et al [7] showed that if $G$ has girth at least 9 then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq 6 \Delta(G)$ and if it has girth at least 220 then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq 4.52 \Delta(G)$. Finally, Alon. Sudakov and Saks also showed that Conjecture 1 is true for graphs with girth at least $C \Delta \log (\Delta)$ for some fixed constant $C$.

Muthu et al [8] proved that $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+1$ for outerplanar graphs. The same authors [9] proved that $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq 2 \Delta(G)+29$ if $G$ is planar and $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+6$ if $G$ is planar and triangle-free.

Sanders and Zhao [10] showed that planar graphs with maximum degree $\Delta \geq 7$ have chromatic index $\Delta$. Vizing edge-colouring conjecture [11] asserts that planar graphs of maximum degree 6 are also 6-edge-colourable. This would be best possible as for any $\Delta \in\{2,3,4,5\}$, there are some planar graphs with maximum degree $\Delta$ with chromatic index $\Delta+1$ [11].

We propose a conjecture analogous to the above one of Vizing.
Conjecture 3. There exists $\Delta_{0}$ such that every planar graph with maximum degree $\Delta \geq \Delta_{0}$ has an acyclic edgecolouring with $\Delta$ colours.

In this paper, we give some evidences to this conjecture. Firstly, in Section 2, we show that every planar graph has an acyclic edge-colouring with $\Delta+25$ colours thus improving the $2 \Delta+29$ bound of Muthu et al [9]. In Section 3, we show that Conjecture 3 holds for planar graphs of girth at least 5 (with $\Delta_{0}=19$ ). and more generally for graphs with maximum average degree less than $4-\varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon>0$. Recall that the girth of a graph is the minimum length of a cycle it contains or $+\infty$ if it has no cycles. The maximum average degree of $G$ is $\operatorname{Mad}(G)=\max \left\{\left.\frac{2|E(H)|}{|V(H)|} \right\rvert\, H\right.$ is a subgraph of $\left.G\right\}$. It is well known a planar graph of girth $g$ has maximum average degree less than $2+\frac{4}{g-2}$. Finally, in Section 4 , we show that Conjecture 3 holds for outerplanar graphs (with $\Delta_{0}=9$ ). Note that $\sup \{\operatorname{Mad}(G) \mid G$ is outerplanar $\}=4$.

## 2 Planar graphs

In this section we will prove the following result:
Theorem 4. $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta(G)+25$ for all planar graphs $G$.
The proof of Theorem 4 relies heavily on a structural result by Borodin et al. [4]. Before stating this structural result we need to introduce some notation and terminology. Let $G$ be a graph.

Definition 5 (Good vertex). A vertex $v \in V(G)$ is said to be good if:
(i) $d(v) \leq 5$, and
(ii) there is a vertex $w \in N(v)$ such that:
(a) $d(u) \leq 25$ for all $u \in N(v) \backslash\{w\}$, and
(b) $\sum_{u \in N(v) \backslash\{w\}} d(u) \leq 38$.

Definition 6 (Bunch). A sequence of paths $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{m}\right)$ in $G$ is called a bunch with poles $p, q$ and length $m$ if:
(i) Each $P_{i}$ is a pq-path of length 1 or 2, and;
(ii) For each $1 \leq i \leq m-1$ the cycle formed by $P_{i}$ and $P_{i+1}$ is not separating.

See Figure 2 for an example of a bunch. A path $P_{i}=p q$ of length 1 in the bunch will be referred to as a parental edge. If a path $P_{i}$ in the bunch has length 2 , i.e. $P_{i}=p v_{i} q$, then the middle vertex $v_{i}$ is called a bunch vertex. If $1<i<m$ (that is $P_{i}$ is neither the first nor the last path of the bunch) then its middle vertex $v_{i}$ is an internal bunch vertex. We will say that two bunches are internally disjoint if they do not share any internal bunch vertices. (I.e. internally disjoint bunches may share poles and the middle vertices of their first and last paths, but no other bunch vertices).


Figure 1: Example of a bunch of length 7 with a parental edge.

Theorem 7 (Borodin et al. [4]). For every plane graph $G$ at least one of the following holds:
(i) G has a good vertex;
(ii) G has a vertex $v$ of degree $d(v) \geq 26$ that is a pole for a bunch of length at least $d(v) / 5$.

Here it should be remarked that Theorem 7 is a straightforward simplification of the corresponding theorem in [4] (which had more subcases). Theorem 7 has the following corollary, which is a key ingredient to our proof of Theorem 4.

Theorem 8. For every plane graph at least one of the following holds:
(i) G has a good vertex v;
(ii) $G$ has a vertex $v$ that is a pole for $1 \leq k \leq 6$ internally disjoint bunches of length at least 6 , and has at most $24-4 k$ neighbours that do not belong to these bunches.

Proof. Let $G$ be an arbitrary plane graph. If there is a good vertex in $G$, then we are done, so let us assume that there is no such vertex. We shall iteratively define a sequence of graphs $G_{0}, G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots, G_{m}$ such that in $G_{0}, \ldots, G_{m-1}$ has no good vertex and $G_{m}$ has (at least) one. Set $G_{0}=G$. Suppose that $G_{i}$ has been defined. If there is a good vertex in $G_{i}$ then we set $m=i$ and we stop. If not then by Theorem7 7 we can find a vertex $p$ of degree $d(p) \geq 26$ that is a pole for a bunch $\left(P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{k}\right)$ of length $k \geq\lceil d(v) / 5\rceil \geq 6$. Since $k \geq 6$ and $G$ has at most one parental edge, the paths $P_{3}, P_{4}$ exist and at least one of them is not a parental edge. W.l.o.g. let us assume $P_{3}$ is not a parental edge and let $v$ be the middle vertex of $P_{3}$. We now set $G_{i+1}:=G_{i} \backslash v$. That is, we delete $v$ and all edges incident to it from $G_{i}$ to obtain $G_{i+1}$. Note that by construction out of any bunch $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{k}\right)$ in $G$ at least 5 of the paths $P_{j}$ must still exist in $G_{i}$. Therefore a pole $p$ of bunch of length 6 in $G$ never gets deleted (as the vertex that gets deleted from $G_{i}$ to obtain $G_{i+1}$ has degree at most 4 in $G_{i}$ ).

Eventually this process of deleting vertices will end at some iteration $m$, when $G_{m}$ has a good vertex $x$. By construction, in $G_{m-1}$ there is a vertex $p$ that has degree at least 26 and is a pole for a bunch of length $\geq 6$ that had the middle vertex of its third or fourth path deleted to obtain $G_{m}$. Let us denote the other pole of this bunch by $q$. The only vertices whose degrees in $G_{m}=G_{m-1} \backslash v$ are different from their degrees in $G_{m-1}$ are the poles $p, q$ and possibly up to two bunch vertices adjacent to $v$. Thus, $x$ is either equal to one of $p, q$ or adjacent to one of $p, q$. Therefore either $p$ or $q$ must have degree at most 25 in $G_{m}$. W.l.o.g. we can suppose it is $p$. As observed before, out of any bunch in $G$ from which vertices have been deleted a bunch of length at least 5 remains in $G_{m}$. Hence $p$ is a pole for at least 1 and at most $\lfloor 25 / 4\rfloor=6$ internally disjoint bunches of length at least 6 in $G$ (note that the first and last bunch vertex may be shared by two different bunches of the pole $p$ ).

Moreover, if $p$ was pole for only one bunch of length at least 6 in $G$, then it has at most $25-5=20$ neighbours not in this bunch. Observe that if $p$ is a bunch for $2 \leq k \leq 6$ internally disjoint bunches, and each bunch shares its first and last bunch vertex with another bunch, then $p$ cannot have any neighbour that is not part of these bunches (it is "surrounded" by them). On the other hand, if there is at least one bunch whose first bunch vertex is not the last vertex of any other bunch, then at least $5+4(k-1)$ vertices incident with $p$ in $G_{m}$ belong to the $k$ internally disjoint bunches of length at least 6 in $G$. Hence, indeed at most $24-4 k$ neighbours of $p$ are not part of these bunches.
of Theorem 4. Suppose the statement is false, and let $G$ be a graph with maximum degree at most $\Delta:=\Delta(G)$ that does not allow an acyclic edge-colouring with $\Delta+25$ colours but for which all of its subgraphs do allow such an edge-colouring (that is, $G$ is a minimal counterexample).

Claim 8.1. If $\left(P_{1}, \ldots, P_{m}\right)$ is a bunch in $G$ with $m \geq 6$ and poles $p, q$ and if for some $2 \leq i \leq m-2$ neither of the paths $P_{i}, P_{i+1}$ is a parental edge, then $v_{i} v_{i+1}$ is not an edge (writing $P_{i}=p v_{i} q, P_{i+1}=p v_{i+1} q$ ).
of Claim 8.1. Suppose that $v_{i} v_{i+1}$ is an edge for some $2 \leq i \leq m-2$. Let us first suppose that $3 \leq i \leq m-3$. As $G$ is a minimal counterexample, $G \backslash v_{i} v_{i+1}$ has an acyclic edge-colouring. There are at most $\Delta+8<\Delta+25$ edges in $G \backslash v_{i} v_{i+1}$ that are incident with one of the vertices $p, v_{i-1}, v_{i}, v_{i+1}$ or $v_{i+2}$. Observe that any cycle that through $v_{i} v_{i+1}$ contains one of the paths $v_{i} v_{i+1} p, p v_{i} v_{i+1}, v_{i-1} v_{i} v_{i+1}$ or $v_{i} v_{i+1} v_{i+2}$. Thus, if we colour $v_{i} v_{i+1}$ with a colour disctinct from those used on the edges incident with $p, v_{i-1}, v_{i}, v_{i+1}$ or $v_{i+2}$ then we get an acyclic colouring of $G$, a contradiction. Hence $v_{i} v_{i+1} \notin G$ for $i=3, \ldots, m-3$.

Now let us consider the case when $i=2$ (the case when $i=m-2$ is analogous). Again $G \backslash v_{2} v_{3}$ has an acyclic edge-colouring by minimality of $G$. Any cycle through $v_{2} v_{3}$ contains one of the paths $q v_{2} v_{3} p, p v_{2} v_{3} q, v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} p$ or $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} q$ (recall $v_{3} v_{4}$ is not an edge). First suppose that the colour of $v_{1} v_{2}$ is distinct from both of the colours used on $p v_{3}, q v_{3}$. Then, colouring $v_{2} v_{3}$ with any of the $\Delta+25-(d(p)+3) \geq 1$ colours not used on either $v_{1} v_{2}, q v_{2}, q v_{3}$ or edges incident with $p$, will produce an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$, a contradiction. Hence $v_{1} v_{2}$ must have the same colour as either $p v_{3}$ or $q v_{3}$. By symmetry we can assume that it is $p v_{3}$. But in this case again colouring $v_{2} v_{3}$ with any of the $\Delta+25-(d(p)+3) \geq 1$ colours not used on either $v_{1} v_{2}, q v_{2}, q v_{3}$ or edges incident with $p$, will produce an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$. This contradiction concludes the proof of Claim 8.1

Claim 8.2. G does not have a good vertex.
of Claim8.2 Suppose there is a good vertex $v$. We shall assume that $d(v)=5$ (the case when $d(v)<5$ is similar). Let us write $N(v)=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}, u_{5}\right\}$ where $d\left(u_{1}\right) \geq d\left(u_{2}\right) \geq d\left(u_{3}\right) \geq d\left(u_{4}\right) \geq d\left(u_{5}\right)$. By minimality, $G \backslash v$ has an acyclic edge-colouring with $\Delta+25$ colours. We shall extend this colouring of $G \backslash v$ to a colouring of $G$, arriving at a contradiction. Let $C_{i}$ denote the set of colours present at $u_{i}$. Observe that $\left|C_{i}\right|=d\left(u_{i}\right)-1$.

First suppose that $d\left(u_{2}\right) \leq 13$. Because $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{2}\right|+\left|C_{3}\right| \leq \Delta-1+12+12<\Delta+25$, we can find a colour $c_{2} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{2} \cup C_{3}$ and colour $v u_{2}$ with this colour. Observe that this choice of $c_{2}$ assures that no cycle through $u_{1} v u_{2}$ or $u_{2} v u_{3}$ can be bicoloured. Similarly, as $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{3}\right|+\left|C_{4}\right|+1<\Delta+25$ we can find a colour $c_{3} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{4} \cup\left\{c_{2}\right\}$ and colour $v u_{3}$ with this colour. This choice of $c_{3}$ makes sure no cycle through $u_{1} v u_{3}$ or $u_{3} v u_{4}$ can be bicoloured. Since $d\left(u_{5}\right) \leq 9=\lfloor 38 / 4\rfloor$ we have $\left|C_{2}\right|+\left|C_{4}\right|+\left|C_{5}\right|+2<\Delta-1+12+8+2<\Delta+25$. Hence we can find $c_{4} \notin C_{2} \cup C_{4} \cup C_{5} \cup\left\{c_{2}, c_{3}\right\}$ and colour $v u_{4}$ with this colour. In this way no cycle through $u_{2} v u_{4}$ or $u_{4} v u_{5}$ can be bicoloured. Similarly, $\left|C_{2}\right|+\left|C_{3}\right|+\left|C_{5}\right|+3<\Delta+25$ and we can find a $c_{5} \notin C_{2} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{5} \cup\left\{c_{2}, c_{3}, c_{4}\right\}$ and colour $v u_{5}$ with this colour. This makes sure no cycle through $u_{2} v u_{5}$ or $u_{3} v u_{5}$ can be bicoloured. Since $d\left(u_{4}\right)+d\left(u_{5}\right) \leq$ $38 / 2=19$, we have $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{4}\right|+\left|C_{5}\right|+4<\Delta+25$ and we can pick $c_{1} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{4} \cup C_{5} \cup\left\{u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}, u_{5}\right\}$ and colour $v u_{1}$ with this colour. This choice of $c_{1}$ prevents cycles through $u_{1} v u_{4}$ or $u_{1} v u_{5}$ from being bicoloured. Since no cycle through $v$ can be bicoloured, the $c_{i}$ are distinct and $c_{i} \notin C_{i}$ for each $i$ we have constructed an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$ using at most $\Delta+25$ colours. But this contradicts that choice of $G$.

Hence, $d\left(u_{2}\right) \geq 14$. By definition of a good vertex we also have that $d\left(u_{2}\right) \leq 25$. Because $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{2}\right| \leq$ $\Delta-1+24<\Delta+25$ we can find a $c_{2} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ and colour $v u_{2}$ with this colour. This ensures that no cycle through $u_{1} v u_{2}$ is bicoloured. As $\Delta+25 \geq d\left(u_{2}\right)+25>38 \geq\left|C_{2}\right|+\left|C_{3}\right|+\left|C_{4}\right|+\left|C_{5}\right|+4$, we can find distinct colours $c_{3}, c_{4}, c_{5} \notin\left\{c_{2}\right\} \cup C_{2} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{4} \cup C_{5}$, and colour the edges $v u_{3}, v u_{4}, v u_{5}$ with these colours. Observe that in this way no cycle through $u_{i} v u_{j}$ can be bicoloured for all $2 \leq i<j \leq 5$. Finally, since $d\left(u_{3}\right)+d\left(u_{4}\right)+d\left(u_{5}\right) \leq 38-14=24$, we have $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{3}\right|+\left|C_{4}\right|+\left|C_{5}\right|+4<\Delta+25$. Hence we can pick $c_{1} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{3} \cup C_{4} \cup C_{5} \cup\left\{c_{2}, c_{3}, c_{4}, c_{5}\right\}$ and colour $v u_{1}$ with this colour. This prevents all cylces through $u_{1} v u_{3}, u_{1} v u_{4}$ or $u_{1} v u_{5}$ from being bicoloured. Again no cycle through $v$ is bicoloured, the $c_{i}$ are distinct and $c_{i} \notin C_{i}$ for each $i$, so that we have constructed an acyclic edgecolouring of $G$ with at most $\Delta+25$ colours. This again contradicticts the choice of $G$, and concludes the proof.

Since there is no good vertex, by Theorem 8, there exists a vertex $p$ that is a pole for $1 \leq k \leq 6$ internally disjoint bunches of length at least 6 and has at most $24-4 k$ neighbours not in those bunches. Let us denote those bunches by $B_{1}=\left(P_{1}^{1}, \ldots, P_{m_{1}}^{1}\right), \ldots, B_{k}=\left(P_{1}^{k}, \ldots, P_{m_{l}}^{k}\right)$ and let us denote the other pole of $B_{i}$ by $q_{i}$. If it exists, we will denote the middle vertex of $P_{j}^{i}$ by $v_{j}^{i}$. By claim 8.1 we have $d\left(v_{j}^{i}\right)=2$ for all $3 \leq j \leq m_{i}-2$ and $1 \leq i \leq k$.

One of $P_{3}^{1}, P_{4}^{1}$ is not a parental edge. W.l.o.g. let us assume it is $P_{3}^{1}$. By minimality of $G$, there exists an acyclic edge-colouring of $G \backslash v_{3}^{1}$ with $\Delta+25$ colours. We shall extend this colouring to an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$ with $\Delta+25$ colours, arriving at a contradiction.

Let $C_{1}$ denote the set of colours used on edges incident with $p$ and let $C_{2}$ denote the set of colours used on the edges $v_{1}^{i} v_{2}^{i}, v_{m_{i}-1}^{i} v_{m_{i}}^{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$. Then $\left|C_{1}\right|+\left|C_{2}\right| \leq \Delta-1+12<\Delta+25$. Hence we can find a colour $c^{\prime} \notin C_{1} \cup C_{2}$ and colour $p v_{3}^{1}$ with $c^{\prime}$.

For each $1 \leq i \leq k$ there is at most one edge $v_{j}^{i} q_{i}$ that has colour $c^{\prime}$. Let $A_{1}$ denote the set of colours used on the edges $p v_{j}^{i}$ for which $v_{j}^{i} q_{i}$ has colour $c^{\prime}$, and observe that for each $1 \leq i \leq k$ there is at most one edge $v_{j}^{i} q_{i}$ with colour $c^{\prime}$. Let $A_{2}$ denote the set of colours used on the parental edges $p q_{i}$ for $2 \leq i \leq k$ (insofar as these parental edges exist). Let $A_{3}$ denote the set of colours used on the edges $p v_{1}^{i}, p v_{m_{i}}^{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Let $A_{4}$ denote the set of colours used on edges incident with $q_{1}$, and let $A_{5}$ denote the set of colours used on edges incident with $p$, that are not part of the $k$ internally disjoint bunches of length at least 6 . Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|A_{1}\right|+\left|A_{2}\right|+\left|A_{3}\right|+\left|A_{4}\right|+\left|A_{5}\right|+1 & \leq k+(k-1)+2 k+\Delta-1+24-4 k+1 \\
& =\Delta+23<\Delta+25 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we can find $c^{\prime \prime} \notin A_{1} \cup A_{2} \cup A_{3} \cup A_{4} \cup A_{5} \cup\left\{c^{\prime}\right\}$ and colour $v_{3}^{1} q_{1}$ with this colour. We now claim that this gives an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$. To see this, note that any cycle through $v_{3}^{1}$ contains one of the following paths:
(i) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p w$ with $w$ a not in any of the $k$ bunches, or;
(ii) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p v_{1}^{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$, or;
(iii) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p v_{m_{i}}^{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$, or;
(iv) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p v_{2}^{i} v_{1}^{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$, or;
(v) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p v_{m_{i}-1}^{i} v_{m_{i}}^{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$, or;
(vi) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p q_{i}$ for $2 \leq i \leq k$, or;
(vii) $q_{1} v_{3}^{1} p v_{j}^{i} q_{i}$ with $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $1 \leq j \leq m_{i}$.

Any cycle that satisfies (i) is not bicoloured because $c^{\prime \prime} \notin A_{5}$. If it satisfies (ii) or (iii) then it is not bicoloured because $c^{\prime \prime} \notin A_{3}$. If it satisfies (iv) or (v) then it is not bicoloured because $c^{\prime} \notin C_{1}$. If a cycle satisfies (vi) then it is not bicoloured because $c^{\prime \prime} \notin A_{2}$. If a cycle satisfies (vii) then it is not bicoloured because either the colour of $v_{j}^{i} q_{i}$ is not equal to $c^{\prime}$ or otherwise the colour of $p v_{j}^{i}$ does not equal $c^{\prime \prime}$, since $c^{\prime \prime} \notin A_{1}$. We have thus constructed an acyclic edge-colouring of $G$ with at most $\Delta+25$ colours, which contradicts the choice of $G$ and finishes the proof.

## 3 Planar graphs of girth at least 5

The aim of this section is to prove Conjecture 3 for planar graphs of girth at least 5. Actually, we prove the conjecture for a more general class of graphs: the graphs of maximum average degree at most 10/3.

The average degree of a graph $G$ is $\operatorname{Ad}(G)=\frac{1}{|V(G)|} \sum_{v \in V(G)} d(v)=\frac{2|E(G)|}{|V(G)|}$. The maximum average degree of $G$ is $\operatorname{Mad}(G)=\max \{\operatorname{Ad}(H) \mid H$ is a subgraph of $G\}$. It is well known that the girth and the maximum average degree of a planar graph are related to each other:

Proposition 9. Let $G$ be a planar graph of girth $g$.

$$
\operatorname{Mad}(G)<2+\frac{4}{g-2}
$$

Theorem 10. Let $\Delta \geq 19$ and $G$ be a graph with maximum degree at most $\Delta$ and maximum average degree less than $\frac{10}{3}$. Then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta$.

Theorem 10 and Proposition 9 immediately yield the following.
Corollary 11. Let $\Delta \geq 19$ and $G$ be a planar graph with maximum degree at most $\Delta$ and girth at least 5 . Then $\chi_{a}^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta$.

More generally than Theorem 10, we show the following.
Theorem 12. For any $\varepsilon>0$, there exists an integer $\Delta_{\varepsilon}$ such that every graph $G$ with maximum degree at most $\Delta$ with $\Delta \geq \Delta_{\varepsilon}$ and maximum average degree less than $4-\varepsilon$ is acyclically $\Delta$-edge-colourable.

In order to prove Theorems 10 and 12 , we first establish some properties of $\Delta$-minimal graphs which are graphs with maximum degree at most $\Delta$, non acyclically $\Delta$-edge-colourable but such that every proper subgraph is. Then, by the Discharging Method, we deduce that such a graph has maximum average degree at least $4-\varepsilon$ (resp. $10 / 3$ ) if $\Delta$ is at least $\Delta_{\varepsilon}$ (resp. 22). We will first prove, in Subsection 3.2. Theorem 12 for its discharging procedure is simpler because we only establish the existence of $\Delta_{\varepsilon}$ and make no attempt to minimize it. We then show in Subsection 3.3 Theorem 10

### 3.1 Properties of $\Delta$-minimal graphs

Proposition 13. A $\Delta$-minimal graph $G$ is 2 -connected. In particular, $\delta(G) \geq 2$.
Proof. If $G$ is not connected, it is the disjoint union of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$. Both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edgecolouring by minimality of $G$. The union of these two edge-colourings is an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$.

Suppose now that $G$ has a cutvertex $v$. Let $C_{i}$, for $1 \leq i \leq p$ be the components of $G-v$ and $G_{i}$ the graph induced by $C_{i} \cup\{v\}$. By minimality of $G$, all the $G_{i}$ admit an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring by minimality of $G$. Moreover, free to permute the colours we may assume that two edges incident to $v$ get different colours. Hence the union of these edge-colourings is an an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$. because any cycle of $G$ is entirely contained in one of the $G_{i}$.

Proposition 14. Let $G$ be a $\Delta$-minimal graph. For every vertex $v \in V(G), \sum_{u \in N(v)} d(u) \geq \Delta+1$.
Proof. Suppose by way of contradiction that there is a vertex $v$ such that $\sum_{u \in N(v)} d(u) \leq \Delta$. Let $w$ be a neighbour of $v$. By minimality of $G, G \backslash v w$ admits an acyclic edge-colouring with $\Delta$ colours. Now colour $v w$ with a colour distinct from the ones of the edges incident to a neighbour of $v$. This is possible as there are at most $\Delta-1$ such edges distinct from $v w$. Doing so we clearly obtain a proper edge-colouring. Let us now show that there is no bicoloured cycle. A cycle that does not contain $v w$ has edges of at least three colours as the edge-colouring of $G$ was acyclic. Now a cycle containing $v w$ must contains an edge $v u$ and an edge $t u$ with $u \in N(v) \backslash\{w\}$. By construction, the colours of $t u, u v$ and $v w$ are distinct.

A thread is a path of length two whose internal vertex has degree 2 .
Proposition 15. Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer and $G$ a $\Delta$-minimal graph. In $G$, a $\Delta$-vertex is the end of at most $k$ threads whose other endvertex has degree at most $k$.

To prove this proposition we need the following lemma.
Lemma 16. Let $H=((A, B), E)$ be a bipartite graph with $|A|=|B|=c$ such that for any vertex a $\in A d(a)=1$. If the number of vertices of $B$ incident to at least one edge differs from 2 then there exists a perfect matching $M$ such that the bipartite graph $((A, B), E \cup M)$ has girth at least 6 .

Proof. Let $m$ be the number of vertices of $B$ of degree at least one. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{c}$ be the vertices of $B$ with $d\left(b_{i}\right) \geq 1$ if $i \leq m$ and $d\left(b_{i}\right)=0$ otherwise. And let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{c}$ be the vertices of $A$ with $a_{i} b_{i} \in E$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. If $m \geq 3$, let $M=\left\{a_{i} b_{i+1} \mid 1 \leq i<m\right\} \cup\left\{a_{m} b_{1}\right\} \cup\left\{a_{i} b_{i} \mid m<i \leq c\right\}$. Then the unique cycle in $((A, B), E \cup M)$ is $C=\left(a_{1}, b_{2}, a_{2}, b_{3}, \ldots, a_{m-1}, b_{m}, a_{1}\right)$. It has length $2 m \geq 6$. If $m=1$, let $M=\left\{a_{i} b_{i+1} \mid 1 \leq i \leq c\right\} \cup\left\{a_{c} b_{1}\right\}$. Then $((A, B), E \cup M)$ has no cycle has the unique vertex of degree at least two in $B$ is $b_{1}$.
of Proposition 15 . Suppose for a contradiction that there is a $\Delta$-vertex $u$ with $c=k+1$ threads $u v_{i} w_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq c$, such $d\left(w_{i}\right) \leq k$. Note that $c \geq 3$.

Set $A=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{c}\right\}$. By Proposition 13, $w_{i} \notin A$ for all $1 \leq i \leq c$. By minimality of $G, G-A$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring.

Let us first extend it to the $v_{i} w_{i}$ as follows. Let $F$ be the set of colours assigned to the edges incident to $u$ and no vertex of $A$ and for $1 \leq i \leq c$ let $F_{i}$ be the set of colours assigned to the edges incident to $w_{i}$ (and distinct from $v_{i} w_{i}$ ). Then $|F|=\Delta-c$ and $\left|F_{i}\right| \leq k-1$. For all $1 \leq i \leq c$, let $S_{i}$ be the set of colours not in $F \cup F_{i}$. Since $|F|+\left|F_{i}\right|=\Delta-c+k-1=\Delta-2$ then $\left|S_{i}\right| \geq 2$. If $\left|\bigcup_{i=1}^{c} S_{i}\right| \geq 3$, then one can assign to each $v_{i} w_{i}$ a colour in $S_{i}$ in such a way that at least 3 colours appear on such edges. If not, then $S_{i}=S_{j}$, and colour all the $v_{i} w_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq c$ with the same colour.

We will now colour the edges $u v_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq c$. Therefore let $H_{1}=\left((A, B), E_{1}\right)$ be the bipartite graph with $B$ the set of $c$ colours $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{c}\right\}$ not in $F$ and in which $v_{i}$ is adjacent to $b_{j}$ if $c\left(v_{i} w_{i}\right)=b_{j}$. As long as some
$v_{i}$ has degree 0 then add an edge between $a_{i}$ and an isolated $b_{j}$ to obtain a bipartite graph $H_{1}=\left((A, B), E_{2}\right)$. By construction, at least three or exactly one colours appear on the $v_{i} w_{i}$. Thus $H_{2}$ fulfils the hypothesis of Lemma 16 so there exists a matching $M$ such that $\left((A, B), E_{2} \cup M\right)$ has girth at least 6 . For $1 \leq i \leq c$, assign to each $v_{i}$ the colour to which it is linked in $M$.

Let us now prove that this edge-colouring of $G$ is acyclic. It is obvious that it is proper since $v_{i}$ is not linked to $c\left(v_{i} w_{i}\right)$ in $M$. Let us now prove that it is acyclic. Let $C$ be a cycle of $G$. If it contains no vertex of $A$ then it contains edges of three different colours because the edge-colouring of $G-A$ is acyclic. Suppose now that $C$ contains a unique vertex of $A$, say $v_{i}$. Then $C$ contains $w_{i} v_{i}, v_{i} u$ and $u t$ with $t$ a neighbour of $u$ not in $A$. Then $c(u t) \in F$, so by construction, $c\left(w_{i} v_{i}\right) \neq c(u t)$. Hence the colours of $w_{i} v_{i}, v_{i} u$ and $u t$ are distinct. Suppose finally that $C$ contains two vertices of $A$, say $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$. Then $C$ contains $w_{i} v_{i}, v_{i} u, w_{j} v_{j}$ and $v_{j} u$. Since $\left((A, B), E_{2} \cup M\right)$ has girth at least 6 , either $c\left(v_{i} u\right) \neq c\left(w_{j} v_{j}\right)$ or $c\left(v_{j} u\right) \neq c\left(w_{i} v_{i}\right)$. In both cases, $C$ has edges of three different colours.

Proposition 17. Let $k$ and $l$ be two positive integers and $G$ a $\Delta$-minimal graph. In $G, a(\Delta-l)$-vertex is the end of at most $k-1-l$ threads whose other endvertex has degree at most $k$.

To prove this proposition we need the following lemma.
Lemma 18. Let $H=((A, B), E)$ be a bipartite graph with $c=|A|<|B|$ such that for any vertex $a \in A d(a)=1$. Then there exists a perfect matching $M$ such that the bipartite graph $((A, B), E \cup M$ has no cycle.

Proof. Let $c^{\prime}=|B|$. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{c^{\prime}}$ be the vertices of $B$ with $d\left(b_{i}\right) \geq 1$ if $i \leq m$ and $d\left(b_{i}\right)=0$ otherwise. And let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{c}$ be the vertices of $A$ with $a_{i} b_{i} \in E$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$. Let $M=\left\{a_{i} b_{i+1} \mid 1 \leq i \leq c\right\}$. This is well-defined since $c^{\prime}>c$. Then $((A, B), E \cup M)$ has no cycle.
of Proposition 17 . Suppose for a contradiction that there is a $(\Delta-l)$-vertex $u$ with $c=k-l$ threads $u v_{i} w_{i}$, $1 \leq i \leq c$, such $d\left(w_{i}\right) \leq k$.

Set $A=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{c}\right\}$. By minimality of $G, G-A$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring. Let us first extend it to the $v_{i} w_{i}$ as follows. Let $F$ be the set of colours assigned to the edges incident to $u$ and no vertex of $A$ and for $1 \leq i \leq c$ let $F_{i}$ be the set of colours assigned to the edges incident to $w_{i}$ (and distinct from $v_{i} w_{i}$ ). Then $|F|=\Delta-l-c$ and $\left|F_{i}\right| \leq k-1$.

For all $1 \leq i \leq c$ colour $v_{i} w_{i}$ with a colour not in $F \cup F_{i}$ and distinct from the colours. This is possible since $|F|+\left|F_{i}\right|=\Delta-l-c+k-1=\Delta-1$.

We will now colour the edges $u v_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq c$. Therefore let $H_{1}=\left((A, B), E_{1}\right)$ be the bipartite graph with $B$ the set of $c+j$ colours $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{c+j}\right\}$ not in $F$ and in which $v_{i}$ is adjacent to $b_{j}$ if $c\left(v_{i} w_{i}\right)=b_{j}$. As long as some $v_{i}$ has degree 0 then add an edge between $a_{i}$ and an isolated $b_{j}$ to obtain a bipartite graph $H_{1}=\left((A, B), E_{2}\right)$. Then $H_{2}$ fulfils the hypothesis of Lemma 16 so there exists a matching $M$ such that $\left((A, B), E_{2} \cup M\right)$ has no cycle. For $1 \leq i \leq c$, assign to each $v_{i}$ the colour to which it is linked in $M$.

In the same way as in the proof of Proposition 15, one shows that the obtained edge-colouring is acyclic.

### 3.2 Proof of Theorem 12

Lemma 19. Let $\varepsilon>0$. There exists $\Delta_{\varepsilon}$ such that if $\Delta \geq \Delta_{\varepsilon}$ then any $\Delta$-minimal graph has average degree at least $4-\varepsilon$.

Proof. The result for $\varepsilon=\frac{1}{2}$ implies the result for larger values of $\varepsilon$. Hence we assume that $\varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Let us assign an initial charge of $d(v)$ to each vertex $v \in V(G) \operatorname{Set} d_{\varepsilon}=\left\lceil\frac{8}{\varepsilon}-2\right\rceil$.

We perform the following discharging rules.
R1: for $4 \leq d<d_{\varepsilon}$, every $d$-vertex sends $a(d)=1-\frac{4-\varepsilon}{d}$ to each neighbour.

R2: for $d_{\varepsilon} \leq d \leq \Delta+1-d_{\varepsilon}$ then every $d$-vertex sends $1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ to each neighbour.
R3: for $\Delta+2-d_{\varepsilon} \leq d \leq \Delta$ then every $d$-vertex sends

- $1-\varepsilon$ to each 3-neighbour;
- $2-\varepsilon$ to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree 2 or 3 ;
- $b(d)=2-\varepsilon-a(d)$ to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree $d$ with $4 \leq d<d_{\varepsilon}$;
- $1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree $d \geq d_{\varepsilon}$.

Let us now check that every vertex $v$ has final charge $f(v)$ at least $4-\varepsilon$.
If $v$ is a 2-vertex then let $u$ and $w$ be its two neighbours with $d(u) \leq d(w)$. If $d(u) \leq 3$ then $d(w) \geq \Delta-2$ by Proposition 14 Hence $v$ receives $2-\varepsilon$ from $w$ by R3, so $f(v) \geq 2+2-\varepsilon=4-\varepsilon$. If $4 \leq d(u)<d_{\varepsilon}$ then $d(w)>\Delta+1-d_{\varepsilon}$ by Proposition 14 . Hence $v$ receives $a(d)$ from $u$ by R2 and $b(d)$ from $w$ by R3. So $f(v)=4-\varepsilon$. If $d(u) \geq 10$ then $v$ receives $1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ from $u$ and $1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ from $w$ by R3. So $f(v)=4-\varepsilon$.

Suppose that $v$ is a 3-vertex. Then by Proposition 14 it has at least two $(\geq 8)$-neighbours. Hence it receives at least $2 \times 1 / 2$ by R1, R 2 or R3 because $\varepsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$. So $f(v) \geq 4$.

Suppose $4 \leq d(v)<d_{\varepsilon}$. Then $v$ sends $d(v)$ times $1-\frac{4-\varepsilon}{d(v)}$ so $f(v) \geq 4-\varepsilon$.
Suppose $d_{\varepsilon} \leq d(v) \leq \Delta+1-d_{\varepsilon}$. Then $v$ sends at most $d(v)$ times $1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ so $f(v) \geq d(v) \times \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \geq 4-\varepsilon$.
Suppose now that $d(v) \geq \Delta+2-d_{\varepsilon}$. Then by Propositions 15 and 17 , the most $v$ can send is when it has three 2-neighbours with second neighbour of degree at most 3, one 2-neighbour with second neighbour of degree $d$ for all $4 \leq d \leq d_{\varepsilon}-1$ and $\Delta-d_{\varepsilon}+1$ 2-neighbours with second neighbour of degree at least $d_{\varepsilon}$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(v) & \geq \Delta+2-d_{\varepsilon}-3(2-\varepsilon)-\sum_{d=4}^{d_{\varepsilon}-1} b(d)-\left(\Delta-d_{\varepsilon}+1\right)\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right) \\
& \geq \Delta \frac{\varepsilon}{2}-S_{\varepsilon}
\end{aligned}
$$

with $S_{\varepsilon}=d_{\varepsilon}-2+3(2-\varepsilon)+\sum_{d=4}^{d_{\varepsilon}-1} b(d)-\left(1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\right)\left(d_{\varepsilon}-1\right)$. Setting $\Delta_{\varepsilon}=\left\lceil\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\left(S_{\varepsilon}+4-\varepsilon\right)\right\rceil$, if $\Delta \geq \Delta_{\varepsilon}, f(v) \geq$ $4-\varepsilon$.
of Theorem 12 If Theorem 12 were false, then a minimum counterexample $G$ would be a $\Delta$-minimum graph. So by Lemma 19 , its average degree would be at least $4-\varepsilon$, a contradiction.

### 3.3 Proof of Theorem 10

Lemma 20. Let $\Delta \geq 19$ and $G$ be a $\Delta$-minimal graph. Then $\operatorname{Mad}(G) \geq \operatorname{Ad}(G) \geq 10 / 3$.
Proof. Let us assign an initial charge of $d(v)$ to each vertex $v \in V(G)$ and perform the following discharging rules.
R1: every 4-vertex sends $4 / 9$ to each of its ( $\leq 3$ )-neighbours;
R2: every 5-vertex sends 7/12 to each 2-neighbour and $1 / 3$ to each 3-neighbour;
R3: for $6 \leq d \leq 9$, every $d$-vertex sends $1-10 / 3 d$ to each neighbour.
R4: for $10 \leq d \leq \Delta-9$ then every $d$-vertex sends $2 / 3$ to each neighbour.
R5: for $\Delta-8 \leq d \leq \Delta$ then every $d$-vertex sends

- $2 / 3$ to each $d$-neighbour with $3 \leq d \leq 5$;
- 4/3 to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree 2 or 3 ;
- 8/9 to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree 4 ;
- 9/12 to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree 5;
- $1 / 3+10 / 3 d$ to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree $d$ with $6 \leq d \leq 9$;
- $2 / 3$ to each 2-neighbour whose second neighbour has degree $d \geq 10$.

Let us now check that every vertex $v$ has final charge $f(v)$ at least $\frac{10}{3}$.
If $v$ is a 2-vertex then let $u$ and $w$ be its two neighbours with $d(u) \leq d(w)$. If $d(u) \leq 3$ then $d(w) \geq \Delta-2$ by Proposition 14. Hence $v$ receives $4 / 3$ from $w$ by R5, so $f(v) \geq 2+4 / 3=10 / 3$. If $d(u)=4$ then $d(w) \geq \Delta-3$ by Proposition 14 . Hence $v$ receives $4 / 9$ from $u$ by R1 and $8 / 9$ from $w$ by R5. So $f(v)=10 / 3$. If $d(u)=5$ then $d(w) \geq \Delta-4$ by Proposition 14 . Hence $v$ receives $7 / 12$ from $u$ by R2 and $9 / 12$ from $w$ by R5. So $f(v)=10 / 3$. If $6 \leq d(u) \leq 9$ then $d(w) \geq \Delta-8$ by Proposition 14. Hence $v$ receives $1-10 / 3 d$ from $u$ by R3 and $1 / 3+10 / 3 d$ from $w$ by R5. So $f(v)=10 / 3$. If $d(u) \geq 10$ then $v$ receives $2 / 3$ from $u$ by R4 and $2 / 3$ from $w$ by R5. So $f(v)=10 / 3$.

Suppose that $v$ is a 3 -vertex. Then, since $\Delta \geq 10$, by Proposition 14 it has either a $(\geq 5)$-neighbour or two 4-neighbours. Hence it receives either at least $1 / 3$ by R2, R3, R4 or R5, or $2 \times 4 / 9 \geq 1 / 3$ by R1. In both cases, $f(v) \geq 3+1 / 3=10 / 3$.

Suppose that $v$ is a 4-vertex. Then, since $\Delta \geq 18$, by Proposition 14 , it has either three ( $\leq 3$ )-neighbours and one $(\geq 10)$-neighbour or at most two $(\leq 3)$-neighbours. In the first case, it sends $4 / 9$ to each of its 3 -neighbours and receives $2 / 3$ form its $(\geq 10)$-neighbour. So $w(v) \geq 4-3 \times \frac{4}{9}+\frac{2}{3}=10 / 3$. In the second case, it sends $4 / 9$ to at most 2 neighbours. So $w(v) \geq 4-2 \times \frac{4}{9}>10 / 3$.

Suppose that $v$ is a 5 -vertex.
Assume first that $v$ has at most three ( $\leq 3$ )-neighbours. If it has at least one (3)-neighbour it sends at most $3 / 2$ so $f(v) \geq 5-3 / 2>10 / 3$. If not it has three 2 -neighbours. Let $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ be the two $(\geq 4)$-neighbours of $v$. By Proposition $14, d\left(u_{1}\right)+d\left(u_{2}\right) \geq 11$ since $\Delta \geq 16$. Hence one of these two vertices is a $(\geq 6)$-vertex and it sends at least $4 / 9$ to $u$. Hence $f(v) \geq 5+4 / 9-7 / 4>10 / 3$.
Assume now that $v$ has at least four $(\leq 3)$-neighbours. Let $i$ be the number of 2-neighbours of $v$. Then by Proposition [14, $v$ has exactly $4-i 3$-neighbour and its fifth neighbour has degree at least $6+i$ since $\Delta \geq 17$. Hence $f(v) \geq 5-i \cdot \frac{7}{12}-(4-i) \frac{1}{3}+1-\frac{10}{3(6+i)}>10 / 3$.

Suppose $6 \leq d(v) \leq 9$. Then $v$ sends $d(v)$ times $1-10 / 3 d(v)$ so $f(v) \geq d(v)-d(v)(1-10 / 3 d)=10 / 3$.
Suppose $10 \leq d(v) \leq \Delta-10$. Then $v$ sends at most $d(v)$ times $2 / 3$ so $f(v) \geq d(v)(1-2 / 3) \geq 10 / 3$.
Suppose that $d(v)=\Delta-l$ for $1 \leq l \leq 7$. By Proposition $17, v$ is incident to at most $\Delta-l-1$ threads so its has at least one ( $\geq 3$ )-neighbour to which it sends at most $2 / 3$. Moreover the most it can send is when it has exactly one 2-neighbour with second neighbour of degree $d$ for each $l+2 \leq d \leq 9$ and $\Delta-9$ 2-neighbours with second neighbour of degree at least 10 . Hence its final charge is

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(v) & \geq \Delta-l-\left((\Delta-8) \frac{2}{3}+\sum_{d=l+2}^{9} s(d)\right) \\
& \geq \frac{1}{3} \Delta+\frac{16}{3}-\left(l+\sum_{d=l+2}^{9} s(d)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with $s(3)=4 / 3, s(4)=8 / 9, s(5)=9 / 12$ and $s(d)=1 / 3+10 / 3 d$ for $6 \leq d \leq 9$. Since $s(3)>1$ and $s(d)<1$ when $d \geq 4$, then $l+\sum_{d=l+2}^{9} s(d)$ is minimum when $l=2$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(v) & \geq \frac{1}{3} \Delta+\frac{16}{3}-\left(2+\sum_{d=4}^{9} s(d)\right) \\
& \geq \frac{1}{3} \Delta+\frac{61}{36}-\frac{10}{3} \sum_{d=6}^{9} \frac{1}{d} \\
& \geq \frac{1}{3} \Delta+\frac{61}{36}-\frac{10}{3} \times \frac{275}{504} \geq \frac{10}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

because $\Delta \geq 11$.
Suppose $d(v)=\Delta$. By Proposition 15, the most it can send is when it has three 2-neighbours with second neighbour of degree at most 3, exactly one 2-neighbour with second neighbour of degree $d$ for $4 \leq d \leq 9$ and $\Delta-9$ 2-neighbours with second neighbour of degree at least 10. In this case it sends

$$
\begin{aligned}
3 \times \frac{4}{3}+\frac{8}{9}+\frac{9}{12}+\sum_{d=6}^{9}\left(\frac{1}{3}+\frac{10}{3 d}\right)+(\Delta-9) \frac{2}{3} & =\frac{2}{3} \Delta+\frac{35}{36}+\frac{10}{3} \sum_{d=6}^{9} \frac{1}{d} \\
& =\frac{2}{3} \Delta+\frac{35}{36}+\frac{10}{3} \times \frac{275}{504} \\
& \leq \Delta-\frac{10}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

because $\Delta \geq 19$. Hence $f(v) \geq \frac{10}{3}$.

$$
\text { Now } A d(G)=\frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V(G)} d(v)=\frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V(G)} f(v) \geq \frac{10}{3}
$$

of Theorem 10 If Theorem 10 would be false, a minimum counterexample $G$ would be a $\Delta$-minimum graph. So by Lemma 20, its average degree is at least $4-\varepsilon$, a contradiction.

## 4 Outerplanar graphs

The aim of this section is to prove the following theorem:
Theorem 21. Every outerplanar $G$ with maximum degree at most $\Delta \geq 9$ has an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring.
In order to prove it, we need some structural lemmas on 2-connected outerplanar graphs. The first one is a restriction to 2-connected outerplanar graphs of a result of Expired and Ochem [5].

Lemma 22 (Esperet and Ochem [5]). Let G be a 2-connected outerplanar graph. Then G contains one of the configurations $C_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 3$, depicted Figure 2


Figure 2: Unavoidable configurations in a 2-connected outerplanar graph.

Drawing and naming conventions: In all the depicted configurations the black vertices cannot be connected to non-drawn vertices in the whole graph, while the white can. The square vertices have degree at least $\Delta-2$. We call $A$ (resp. $B$ ) a configuration $C_{2}$ in which the two white vertices have degree at least $\Delta-2$ in the whole graph. We will name some configurations by words on $\{A, \bar{A}, B\}$ as they can be seen as concatenations (the rightmost white vertex of the first graph is identified with the leftmost white vertex of the second, and so on) of graphs $A, \bar{A}$ and $B$, where $\bar{A}$ denotes the mirror image of $A$. A configuration $C_{2}$ (resp. $C_{3}$ ) which is not a $A$ (resp. $B$ ) is a configuration $C_{2}^{\prime}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.C_{3}^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 23. Let $G$ be a 2 -connected outerplanar graph with maximum degree at most $\Delta \geq 9$. Then $G$ contains a configuration $C_{1}$, or one of the configurations $C_{2}^{\prime}, C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, A \bar{A}, A B, \bar{A} B$ or $B B$ depicted in Figure 3 .


Figure 3: Unavoidable configurations of a 2-connected outerplanar graph. In $C_{2}^{\prime}$ and $C_{3}^{\prime}$, one of the two white vertices has degree at most $\Delta-3$.

Proof. By induction on the number of vertices, the result holding trivially when $G$ has three vertices.
Suppose now that $G$ has more than three vertices. According to Lemma 22, $G$ contains one of the configurations $C_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 3$. Hence if $G$ does not contain any configuration $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}$ and $C_{3}^{\prime}$, it must contain a configuration $H_{1}$ isomorphic to $C_{2}$ or $C_{3}$ such that the two white vertices have degree at least $\Delta-2$. In other words, $H_{1}$ is a $A$ or a $B$. Let $G^{\prime}$ be the graph obtained by removing the black vertices of $H_{1}$ and adding an edge $e_{1}$ between its two white vertices. Then $G^{\prime}$ is 2 -connected. So, by the induction hypothesis, $G^{\prime}$ contains one subgraph $H_{2}$ among the configurations $\left(C_{i}\right), 1 \leq i \leq 3$. The white vertices of $H_{1}$ have degree at least $\Delta-2$ in $G$, they have degree at least $\Delta-4 \geq 5$ in $G^{\prime}$. So they may not be the black vertices of $H_{2}$. In particular, the edge $e_{1}$ is not in $E\left(H_{2}\right)$. Moreover, if $H_{2}$ is a configuration $C_{1}, A A, a \bar{A}, \bar{A} A, A B, \bar{A} B$ or $B B$ in $G^{\prime}$ it is the same configuration in $G$. Assume now it is a configuration $C_{2}^{\prime}$ or a $C_{3}^{\prime}$ in $G^{\prime}$. If one of its white vertices has degree at most $\Delta-3$ in $G$, it is a configuration $C_{2}^{\prime}$ or $C_{3}^{\prime}$ in $G$. If not, then the white vertex $H_{2}$ with degree at most $\Delta-3$ in $G^{\prime}$ has degree at least $\Delta-2$ in $G$. Hence it must be one of the white vertices of $H_{1}$. Then the union of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ is one of the configurations $A A, A \bar{A}, \bar{A} A, A B$, $\bar{A} B$ or $B B$.

Lemma 24. Let $G$ be a 2 -connected outerplanar graph with maximum degree at most $\Delta \geq 9$. Then $G$ contains one of the following configurations : $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}, C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, \bar{A} B, B B$, or the configuration $A B \bar{A}$ (see Figure 24 .


Proof. By induction on the number of vertices, the result holding trivially when $G$ has three vertices.
Suppose now that $G$ has more than three vertices. By Lemma 23 , it contains one of the configurations $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}$, $C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, \bar{A} B, A \bar{A}, A B$ or $B B$. If it a configuration $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}, C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, \bar{A} B$ or $B B$, we have the result. If it is a configuration $H_{1}$ in $\{A \bar{A}, A B\}$. Let $G^{\prime}$ be the graph obtained by removing the black vertices of $H_{1}$ and adding an edge between its leftmost white vertex and its middle white vertex and one edge between its middle white vertex and its rightmost one vertex. Then $G^{\prime}$ is 2-connected. By the induction hypothesis, $G^{\prime}$ contains one subgraph $H_{2}$ among the configurations of Lemma 24. As the white vertices of $H_{1}$ have degree at least $\Delta-2$ in $G$, they have degree at least $\Delta-4 \geq 5$ in $G^{\prime}$. So they may not be the black vertices of $H_{2}$. Hence, if $H_{2}$ is a configuration of Lemma 24 in $G^{\prime}$ but is not a configuration in $G$, then it is a subgraph isomorphic to $A$ or $B$, one of whose white vertex is of degree at most $\Delta-3$ is $G^{\prime}$ and at least $\Delta-2$ in $G$. Hence this vertex must be one of the white vertices of $H_{1}$. Then the union of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ contains one of the following configurations:

- $A \bar{A} \bar{A}$, and so contains (the mirror image of) $A A$,
- $A \bar{A} A$, and so contains $\bar{A} A$,
- $A \bar{A} B$, and so contains $\bar{A} B$,
- $A B A$, and so contains(the mirror image of) $\bar{A} B$,
- $A B B$, and so contains $B B$,
- $B A B$, and so contains (the mirror image of) $\bar{A} B$,
- $A A B$, and so contains $A A$,
- $\bar{A} A B$, and so contains $\bar{A} A$, or
- $A B \bar{A}$.

Lemma 25. Let $G$ be a 2-connected outerplanar graph of maximum degree at most $\Delta \geq 9$. Then $G$ contains one of the following configurations : $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}, C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, \bar{A} B$ or $B B$.

Proof. The proof is very similar to the one of Theorem 24 in which Lemma 24 plays the role of Lemma 23 . At the end the union of $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ must contain one of the following configurations:

- $A A B \bar{A}$, and so contains $A A$,
- $B A B \bar{A}$, and so contains (the mirror image of) $\bar{A} B$, or
- $\bar{A} A B \bar{A}$, and so contains $\bar{A} A$.
of Theorem 21. By induction on the number of edges of $G$, the result holding trivially if $G$ has one edge.
If $G$ is not connected then, by the induction hypothesis, all its connected components admit an acyclic $\Delta$ -edge-colouring. The union of these colourings is an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$.

If $G$ has a cutvertex $x$. Let $H_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq p$ be the connected components of $G-x$ and for $1 \leq i \leq p$, let $G_{i}$ be the graph induced by $H_{i} \cup\{x\}$. By the induction hypothesis, each $G_{i}$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring $c_{i}$. Free to permute the colours, we may assume that the edges incidents to $x$ get different colours. Thus the union of the $c_{i}$ is an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring $c_{i}$ because every cycle in $G$ is a cycle of one of the $G_{i}$.

Suppose now that $G$ is 2 -connected. By Lemma 25, it must contain a configuration $H$ isomorphic to $C_{1}, C_{2}^{\prime}$, $C_{3}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A, \bar{A} B$, or $B B$.

If $H$ is a configuration $C_{1}$, let $G^{\prime}$ be the graph obtained from $G$ by contracting the edge $e$ between the two black vertices of $H$. By the induction hypothesis, $G^{\prime}$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring which is an acyclic $\Delta$ -edge-colouring of $G \backslash e$ such that the two edges adjacent to $e$ are assigned different colours. Hence colouring $e$ with a colour distinct from those two, we obtained a $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$.

If $H$ is a configuration $C_{3}^{\prime}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that the left white vertex $v_{l}$ has degree at most $\Delta-3$. By the induction hypothesis, $G \backslash \alpha$ admits an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring. Assigning $\alpha$ a colour distinct from the ones of $c, d$ and all the edges incident to $v_{l}$, we obtain an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$.


If $H$ is one of the configurations $\left.C_{2}^{\prime}, A A, \bar{A} A\right), \bar{A} B$, or $B B$, then we consider an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of the graph $G^{\prime}$ obtained from $G$ by deleting the edges between two black vertices of $H$. We then extend this colouring into an acyclic $\Delta$-edge-colouring of $G$ by colouring these edges (denoted by Greek letters) possibly after some recolouring of the already coloured edges of $H$ (denoted by roman letters). We now detail how to do that for each configuration. In the first cases, we explain why the obtained edge-colouring is acyclic. (It is always obvious it is proper). We do not do so in the other ones as the arguments are similar to the one of the first cases. We denote by $c_{x}$ the (original) colour of an edge $x$ of $G^{\prime}$.

## Configuration $C_{2}^{\prime}$ :

- If the left white vertex $v_{l}$ is of degree at most $\Delta-3$, we give $\alpha$ a colour different from $c_{c}$ and the colours of the edges incident to $v_{l}$.
- If the right white vertex $v_{r}$ is of degree at most $\Delta-2$, we give $\alpha$ a colour different from $c_{a}, c_{b}$ and the colours of the edges incident to $v_{r}$.


Configuration $A A$ :


1. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{a}, c_{b}\right\}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{f}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$. There is no bicoloured cycle through the edges $\alpha$ and $\beta$ because $c_{e} \neq c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. So the colouring is acyclic.
2. $c_{e}=c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$ :
2.1. $c_{a} \neq c_{f}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha}=c_{f}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{f}, c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{b}\right\}$. There is no bicoloured cycle through $\beta$ as $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. And there there is no bicoloured cycle through $\alpha$ because such a cycle must have the two colours $c_{f}$ and $c_{b}$ and hence go through $f$ which has only one neighbour coloured with $c_{b}$. So the colouring is acyclic.
2.2. $c_{a}=c_{f}$
2.2.1 $c_{d} \neq c_{b}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha}=c_{c}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$. There is no bicoloured cycle through $\beta$ because $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. And there there is no bicoloured cycle through $\alpha$ because such a cycle must have the two colours $c_{c}$ and $c_{b}$ and hence go through $c$ which has only one neighbour coloured with $c_{b}$ as $c_{d} \neq c_{b}$. So the colouring is acyclic.
2.2.2 $c_{d}=c_{b}$. We recolour $a$ and $f$ with $c_{b}=c_{e}$ and $b$ and $e$ with $c_{a}=c_{f}$. It is simple matter to check that this does not create any bicoloured cycles as such cycles must contain at least one of the edges $\alpha$ or $\beta$, which have no colour yet. We then colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{a}$. There is no bicoloured cycle through $\alpha$ because such a cycle must have the two colours $c_{c}$ and $c_{a}$ and hence go through $c$ which has only one neighbour coloured with $c_{a}$. There is no bicoloured cycle through $\beta$ because such a cycle must have the two colours $c_{a}$ and $c_{b}$ and hence go through $e$ which has only one neighbour coloured with $c_{b}$.
3. $c_{e}=c_{b}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$.
$3.1 c_{a} \notin\left\{c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{b}$.
$3.2 c_{a}=c_{d}$. we recolour $a$ with $c_{b}, b$ with $c_{c}, c$ with $c_{b}$ and $e$ with $c_{a}$. We then colour $\beta$ with $c_{c}$ and $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{b}, c_{c}\right\}$.
$3.3 c_{a}=c_{c}$. We recolour $b$ with $c_{f}=c_{d}, c$ with $c_{b}$ and $f$ with $c_{c}=c_{a}$. We then colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{b}, c_{d}\right\}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{b}, c_{d}\right\}$.
4. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{b}, c_{a}\right\}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{b}$.

## Configuration $\bar{A} A$ :



1. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{a}, c_{b}\right\}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{f}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$.
2. $c_{e}=c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{f}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\{f, c, d\}$. By symmetry we have the result if $c_{e}=c_{b}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$.
3. $c_{e}=c_{b}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{d}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{a}$.

Configuration $\bar{A} B:$


1. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}, c_{c} \neq c_{g}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{a}, c_{b}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{g}\right\}$ and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{f}, c_{g} c_{\beta}, c_{d}\right\}$.
2. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}, c_{c} \neq c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{a}, c_{b}\right\}, \gamma$ with $c_{c}$ and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{g}\right\}$.
3. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}, c_{c}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{a}, c_{b}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{f}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{d}, c_{f}, c_{c}\right\}$.
4. $c_{e}=c_{b}, c_{c} \neq c_{g}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}, \beta c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{g}\right\}$ and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{d}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{\beta}\right\}$.
5. $c_{e}=c_{b}, c_{c}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{d}, \beta$ with $c_{b}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{d}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{b}\right\}$.
6. $c_{e}=c_{b}, c_{c} \neq c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}$, $\gamma$ with $c_{b}$, and $\beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{g}, c_{b}\right\}$.
7. $c_{e} \neq c_{b}, c_{c}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$.
$7.1 c_{e} \neq c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{d}, \gamma$ with $c_{a}$, and $\beta$ with $c_{b}$.
7.2. $c_{e} \neq c_{c}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}$, $\gamma$ with $c_{b}$, and $\beta$ with $c_{a}$.
8. $c_{e}=c_{b}, c_{c}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{d}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{c}$, $\gamma$ with $c_{b}$, and $\beta$ with $c_{a}$.

## Configuration $B B$ :



1. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{b}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{\alpha}, c_{b}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$, $\theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{\theta}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$.
2. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \in\left\{c_{d}, c_{e}\right\} \backslash\left\{c_{b}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{\alpha}, c_{b}, c_{c}, c_{d}\right\}$, $\theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{\theta}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$.
3. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
4. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \in\left\{c_{e}, c_{f}\right\} \backslash\left\{c_{f}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{a}, \theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin$ $\left\{c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{\theta}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$
5. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
6. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \in\left\{c_{d}, c_{f}\right\} \backslash\left\{c_{b}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{b}, c_{c}, c_{d}, c_{\alpha}\right\}$, $\theta$ with $c_{a}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$.
7. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
8. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \in\left\{c_{d}, c_{e}\right\} \backslash\left\{c_{b}\right\}, \beta$ with $c_{\beta} \notin\left\{c_{b}, c_{a}, c_{d}, c_{e}, c_{f}\right\}$, $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \in\left\{c_{d}, c_{e}\right\} \backslash\left\{c_{f}\right\}$, and $\theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{g}, c_{f}, c_{e}, c_{d}\right\}$.
9. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\beta$ with $c_{f}, \theta$ with $c_{c}$, $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{h}, c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{c}\right\}$, and $\alpha$ with $c_{\alpha} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{b}, c_{c}, c_{f}\right\}$.
10. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$, and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$.
$10.1 c_{a} \neq c_{g}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{f}, \beta$ with $c_{e}, \theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{b}, c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$ and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{\theta}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$.
$10.2 c_{a}=c_{g}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{e}, \beta$ with $c_{f}, \theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{a}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$ and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin\left\{c_{\theta}, c_{f}, c_{g}, c_{h}\right\}$.
11. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
12. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f} \neq c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{e}, \beta$ with $c_{f}, \theta$ with $c_{h}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{\gamma} \notin$ $\left\{c_{e}, c_{f}, c_{h}\right\}$.
13. $c_{a} \neq c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
14. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e} \neq c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{h}$.
14.1. $c_{a} \neq c_{g}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{f}, \beta$ with $c_{e}, \gamma$ with $c_{e}$, and $\theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{g}, c_{e}, c_{f}\right\}$.
14.2. $c_{a}=c_{g}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{e}, \beta$ with $c_{f}, \gamma$ with $c_{e}$, and $\theta$ with $c_{\theta} \notin\left\{c_{g}, c_{e}, c_{f}\right\}$.
15. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b} \neq c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We have the result by symmetry with the previous case.
16. $c_{a}=c_{c}, c_{b}=c_{d}, c_{e}=c_{g}$ and $c_{f}=c_{h}$. We colour $\alpha$ with $c_{f}, \beta$ with $c_{e}, \theta$ with $c_{a}$, and $\gamma$ with $c_{b}$.

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