

Optimal Parallel Algorithms for Edge-Coloring Partial k -Trees with Bounded Degrees

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SUMMARY Many combinatorial problems can be efficiently solved for partial k -trees (graphs of treewidth bounded by k). The edge-coloring problem is one of the well-known combinatorial problems for which no NC algorithms have been obtained for partial k -trees. This paper gives an optimal and first NC parallel algorithm to find an edge-coloring of any given partial k -tree with bounded degrees using a minimum number of colors. In the paper k is assumed to be bounded.

key words: edge-coloring, parallel algorithm, DP algorithm

1. Introduction

This paper deals with the edge-coloring problem which asks to color all edges of a given simple graph G , using a minimum number of colors, so that no two adjacent edges are colored with the same color. The minimum number is called the *chromatic index* $\chi'(G)$ of G . Vizing showed that $\chi'(G) = \Delta$ or $\Delta + 1$ for any simple graph G where Δ is the maximum degree of G [10]. The edge-coloring problem arises in many applications, including various scheduling and partitioning problems [10]. The problem is NP-complete [17], and hence it is very unlikely that there exists a sequential algorithm which edge-colors a given graph G with $\chi'(G)$ colors in polynomial time. On the other hand, there exist sequential algorithms which edge-color G with $\Delta + 1$ colors in polynomial time [11], [22], [25]. However, no NC parallel algorithms for edge-coloring G with $\Delta + 1$ colors have been obtained except for the case when Δ is bounded [19].

It is known that many combinatorial problems can be solved very efficiently for partial k -trees or series-parallel graphs [1], [2], [6], [9], [20], [24]. Such a class of problems has been characterized in terms of "forbidden graphs" or "extended monadic logic of second order" [1], [2], [6], [9], [24]. The edge-coloring problem does not belong to such a class of the "maximum (or minimum) subgraph problems," and is indeed one of the "edge-covering problems" which does not appear to be efficiently solved for partial k -trees [6]. However, Bodlaender gave a sequential dynamic programming algorithm which solves the edge-coloring problem on a partial k -tree G in time $O(n\Delta^{2^{2(k+1)}})$ [4]. Throughout

the paper n denotes the number of vertices in G . His algorithm takes linear time if Δ is bounded. Furthermore the current authors have recently obtained a linear-time sequential algorithm for any partial k -tree whose Δ is not necessarily bounded [26]. On the other hand, NC parallel algorithms for the edge-coloring problem have not been obtained for partial k -trees [3], although NC parallel algorithms have been obtained for the following three restricted classes of graphs: planar graphs with maximum degree $\Delta \geq 9$ [8]; outerplanar graphs [7], [13]; and series-parallel multigraphs [28]. Note that outerplanar graphs and series-parallel simple graphs are partial 2-trees.

In this paper we give an optimal and first NC parallel algorithm which solves the edge-coloring problem for partial k -trees G with bounded Δ . Throughout the paper we assume that k is bounded. Given G with its tree-decomposition, our parallel algorithm finds an edge-coloring of G using $\chi'(G)$ colors in $O(\log n)$ time with $O(n/\log n)$ processors. It is known that a tree-decomposition of G can be found in $O(\log^2 n)$ time with $O(n/\log n)$ processors [5], [23]. Our algorithm uses three techniques, a tree contraction, a parallel dynamic programming, and a bottom-up tree computation: from a given tree-decomposition T of G , the algorithm constructs its "parsing tree" T^p of $O(\log n)$ height by means of a tree contraction, then solves the edge-coloring problem on G by means of a dynamic programming and a bottom-up tree computation on the parsing tree T^p . The parallel computation model we use is a concurrent-read exclusive-write parallel random access machine (CREW PRAM).

2. Terminology and Definitions

In this section we define some terms. Let $G = (V, E)$ denote a graph with vertex set V and edge set E . We often denote by $V(G)$ and $E(G)$ the vertex set and the edge set of G , respectively. The paper deals with *simple* graphs without multiple edges or self-loops. An edge joining vertices u and v is denoted by (u, v) . The *degree* of vertex $v \in V$ is denoted by $d(v)$. The *maximum degree* of G is denoted by $\Delta(G)$ or simply by Δ . The graph obtained from G by deleting all vertices in $V' \subseteq V(G)$ is denoted by $G - V'$. The subgraph of G induced by the edges in a subset $E' \subseteq E(G)$ is denoted by $G[E']$. We

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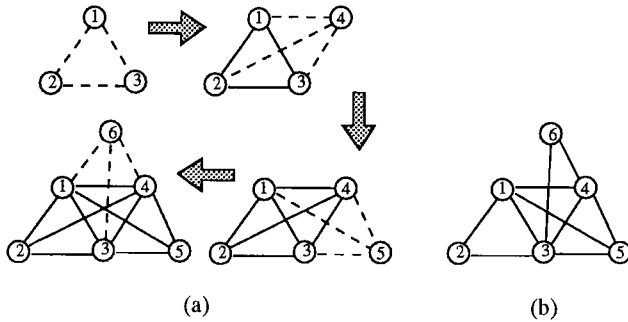


Fig. 1 (a) 3-trees and (b) a partial 3-tree.

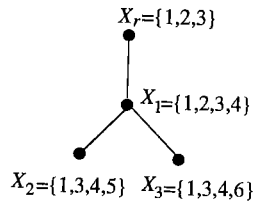


Fig. 2 A tree-decomposition of the partial 3-tree in Fig. 1 (b).

will use notions as: *leaf*, *node*, *internal node*, *child* and *father*, in their usual meaning.

The class of *k-trees* is defined recursively as follows [20]:

- (a) A complete graph with k vertices is a k -tree.
- (b) If $G = (V, E)$ is a k -tree and k vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k induce a complete subgraph of G , then $G' = (V \cup \{w\}, E \cup \{(v_i, w) | 1 \leq i \leq k\})$ is a k -tree where w is a new vertex not contained in G .
- (c) All k -trees can be formed with rules (a) and (b).

A graph is a *partial k-tree* if it is a subgraph of a k -tree. Thus partial k -trees $G = (V, E)$ are simple graphs, and $|E| < kn$. Figure 1 (a) illustrates a process of generating a 3-tree, and Fig. 1 (b) depicts a partial 3-tree. In this paper we assume that k is a constant.

A *tree-decomposition* of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a tree $T = (V_T, E_T)$ with V_T a family of subsets of V satisfying the following properties [20]:

- $\bigcup_{X_i \in V_T} X_i = V$;
- for every edge $e = (v, w) \in E$, there is a node $X_i \in V_T$ with $v, w \in X_i$; and
- if node X_l lies on the path in T from node X_i to node X_j , then $X_i \cap X_j \subseteq X_l$.

Figure 2 depicts a tree-decomposition of the partial 3-tree in Fig. 1 (b). The *treewidth* of a tree-decomposition $T = (V_T, E_T)$ is $\max_{X_i \in V_T} |X_i| - 1$. The *treewidth* of G is the minimum treewidth of a tree-decomposition of G , taken over all possible tree-decompositions of G . It

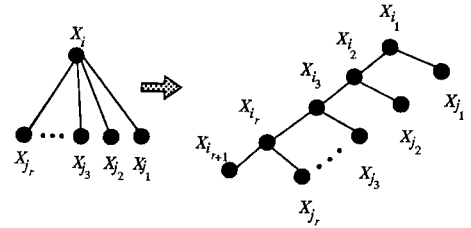


Fig. 3 Illustration of the binary transformation.

is known that every graph with treewidth $\leq k$ is a partial k -tree, and conversely, that every partial k -tree has a tree-decomposition with treewidth $\leq k$ [20].

Consider a tree-decomposition of a partial k -tree G with treewidth $\leq k$. We transform it to a binary tree T as follows [4]: regard T as a rooted tree with choosing an arbitrary node as the root, and replace every internal node X_i of r children by $r + 1$ new nodes $X_{i_1}, X_{i_2}, \dots, X_{i_{r+1}}$ such that $X_i = X_{i_1} = X_{i_2} = \dots = X_{i_{r+1}}$, where X_{i_1} has the same father as X_i , X_{i_p} is the father of $X_{i_{p+1}}$ and the p th child X_{j_p} of X_i ($1 \leq p \leq r$), and $X_{i_{r+1}}$ is a leaf of T . (See Fig. 3.) This transformation can be done in $O(\log n)$ parallel time using a total of $O(n)$ operations. T is a tree-decomposition of $G = (V, E)$ with the following characteristics:

- the number of nodes in T is $O(n)$;
- each internal node X_i has exactly two children, say X_j and X_l , and either $X_i = X_j$ or $X_i = X_l$; and
- for each edge $(v, w) \in E$ there is at least one leaf X_l with $v, w \in X_l$.

Such T is called a *binary tree-decomposition* [4]. Clearly T has treewidth $\leq k$. For each edge $e = (v, w) \in E$ we choose an arbitrary leaf X_j of T such that $v, w \in X_j$ and denote it by $rep(e)$.

We next introduce two new concepts: a two-terminal tree and its parsing tree. We define a *two-terminal tree* recursively as follows.

1. A tree T of a single edge is a two-terminal tree. The ends of the edge are called the *terminals* of T and denoted by $X_h(T)$ and $X_r(T)$, respectively.
2. Let $T_i, i = 1, 2, 3$, be two-terminal trees with terminals $X_h(T_i)$ and $X_r(T_i)$. Then a tree T obtained from T_1, T_2 and T_3 by identifying nodes $X_r(T_1), X_h(T_2)$ and $X_h(T_3)$ is a two-terminal tree, whose terminals are $X_h(T) = X_h(T_1)$ and $X_r(T) = X_r(T_2)$ or $X_r(T_3)$. (See Fig. 4.)

Figure 4 illustrates the rule 2 above, where terminals are drawn by white circles.

Consider a **binary** tree-decomposition of a partial k -tree $G = (V, E)$. Add a new dummy node X_{root} to it as a father of the root and regard X_{root} and a leaf

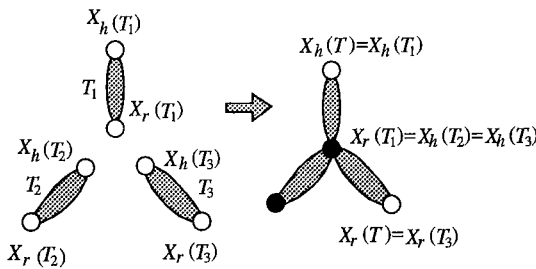


Fig. 4 Two-terminal trees.

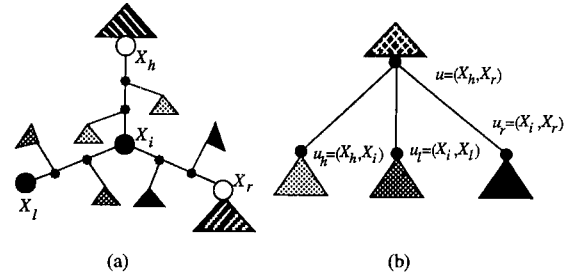


Fig. 6 (a) T , (b) T^p and (c) four subgraphs of G .

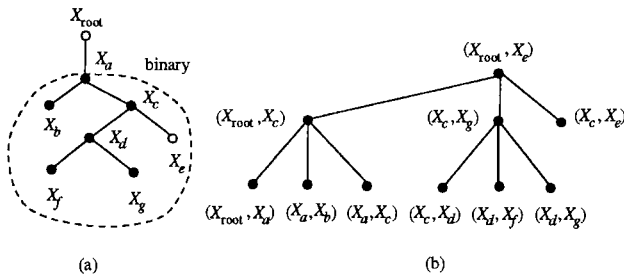


Fig. 5 (a) Two-terminal tree T and (b) its parsing tree T^p .

as terminals as depicted in Fig. 5 (a), then the resulting tree T is a two-terminal tree. Let $X_{root} = \phi$, then T is a tree-decomposition of G . Since a two-terminal tree T can be recursively constructed by the rules above, T can be represented by a “parsing tree” T^p . Every leaf of T^p represents a two-terminal tree induced by a single edge of T . On the other hand, each internal node u of T^p has exactly three children, say, u_h, u_l and u_r , and the two-terminal tree corresponding to u is obtained from the three two-terminal trees T_1, T_2 and T_3 corresponding to u_h, u_l and u_r by the rule 2 above. Thus the root of T^p corresponds to T . Figure 5 illustrates a two-terminal tree T having terminals X_{root} and X_e together with its parsing tree T^p , where each node u of tree T^p is denoted by the pair of terminals of a two-terminal subtree of T corresponding to u .

We next define an edge-set $E(u) \subseteq E$ for each node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p as follows. If u is a leaf of T^p , then $E(u) = \{e \in E \mid rep(e) \text{ is } X_h \text{ or } X_r\}$. If u is an internal node of T^p having children $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$, $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$ and $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$, then $E(u) = E(u_h) \cup E(u_l) \cup E(u_r)$. Note that the three edge-sets $E(u_h), E(u_l)$ and $E(u_r)$ are pairwise disjoint. Thus node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p corresponds to a subgraph $G[E(u)]$ of G induced by the edges in $E(u)$. The subgraph $G[E(u)]$ is an edge-disjoint union of three subgraphs $G[E(u_h)], G[E(u_l)]$ and $G[E(u_r)]$, which share common vertices only in X_i because of the third property of a tree-decomposition. Similarly the subgraph $G[E(u)]$ shares common vertices with the other parts of G only in X_h and X_r . The root X_{root} , in particular, of T^p corresponds to G . Figure 6 illustrates T, T^p and four subgraphs $G[E(u)], G[E(u_h)], G[E(u_l)]$ and $G[E(u_r)]$.

3. Optimal Parallel DP Algorithm

In this section we prove the following theorem. Although the algorithm in the theorem only decides the chromatic index $\chi'(G)$ of G , it can be easily modified so that it actually edge-colors G with $\chi'(G)$ colors.

Theorem 1: Let G be a partial k -tree of n vertices given by its tree-decomposition with treewidth $\leq k$. Then there is a parallel algorithm which determines the chromatic index $\chi'(G)$ in $O(\log n)$ parallel time using a total of $O(n\{\Delta 2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)} + (\Delta+1)^{(k^2+k+2)/2}\})$ operations.

If Δ is bounded, then $\{\Delta 2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)} + (\Delta+1)^{(k^2+k+2)/2}\}$ is also bounded although it is very large, and hence the algorithm in Theorem 1 is an optimal parallel algorithm. The following general lemma is well-known [12], [18].

Lemma 1: Let A be a given algorithm with $O(\log n)$ parallel computation time. Suppose that A involves a total number of m operations. Then A can be implemented using p processors in $O(m/p + \log n)$ parallel time.

If there is an algorithm A which solves the edge-coloring problem in $O(\log n)$ parallel time using a total of $m = O(n)$ operations, then by adapting Lemma 1 with choosing $p = n/\log n$ one can know that A can be implemented using $O(n/\log n)$ processors in $O(\log n)$ parallel time. (We omit the “lower-level details” of implementing the algorithm with $O(n/\log n)$ processors [18].) Thus by Theorem 1 and Lemma 1 we have the following corollary.

Corollary 1: The chromatic index $\chi'(G)$ can be determined in $O(\log n)$ parallel time with $O(n/\log n)$ processors for a partial k -tree G given by its tree-

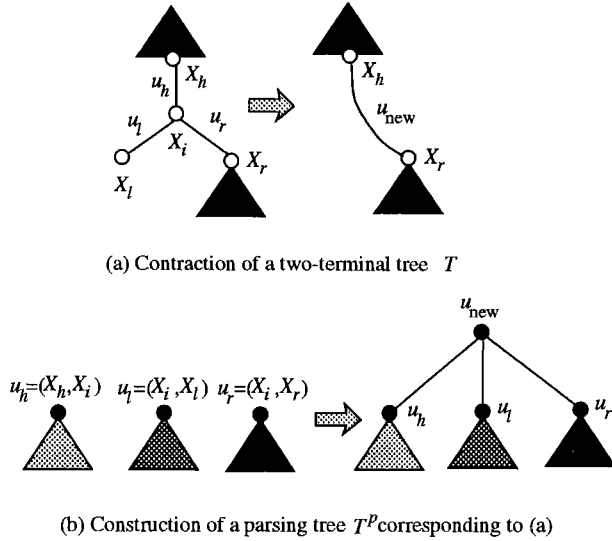


Fig. 7 Illustration for the proof of Lemma 2.

decomposition with treewidth $\leq k$ if k and the maximum degree Δ are bounded.

In the remaining of this section we will give a proof of Theorem 1. Our first idea is to construct a parsing tree T^p of $O(\log n)$ height. Since a tree-decomposition T of G has $O(n)$ nodes, a parsing tree T^p has $O(n)$ height in general. However, using the tree-contraction technique [15], [16], [18], we can necessarily construct a parsing tree T^p of $O(\log n)$ height, as follows.

Lemma 2: Any two-terminal tree T of $O(n)$ nodes has a parsing tree T^p of $O(\log n)$ height, and such a tree T^p can be constructed in $O(\log n)$ parallel time using $O(n)$ operations.

Proof: A required parsing tree $T^p = (V_p, E_p)$ can be constructed by the following algorithm. Note that we use adjacency lists to represent T and T^p .

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begin
 $V_p := \phi; E_p := \phi;$ 
choose the terminal  $X_h(T)$  of  $T$  as the root of  $T^p$ ;
for each edge  $u = (X_h, X_r)$  of  $T$  in parallel do
 $V_p := V_p \cup \{u\};$ 
    { current  $T^p$  is a forest of isolated nodes }
for each leaf  $X_l$  of  $T$  in parallel do
 $\text{index}(X_l) \leftarrow \text{left-to-right leaf index } X_l;$ 
    { the leaves are numbered in left-to-right order }
while  $T$  has at least four nodes do
for each leaf  $X_l$  of  $T$  with odd  $\text{index}(X_l)$  such that  $X_l$ 
    is the left child of  $X_l$ 's father  $X_i$  in parallel do
begin
    let  $X_h$  be the father of  $X_i$  in  $T$ ;
    let  $X_r$  be the right child of  $X_i$  in  $T$ ;
    let  $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$ ,  $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$  and
     $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$  be edges of the current tree  $T$ ;
    {  $u_h, u_l$  and  $u_r$  are roots of trees
    in the current forest  $T^p = (V_p, E_p)$  }
    delete nodes  $X_l$  and  $X_i$  from  $T$ , and
    add to  $T$  a new edge joining  $X_h$  and  $X_r$ ;
 $V_p := V_p \cup \{u_{new}\}$ , where  $u_{new} = (X_h, X_r)$ ;
    { add a new node  $u_{new}$  to  $T^p$  and
    join node  $u_{new}$  with nodes  $u_h, u_l$  and  $u_r$  in  $T^p$  }

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 $E_p := E_p \cup \{(u_{new}, u_h), (u_{new}, u_l), (u_{new}, u_r)\}$ 
end;
for each leaf  $X_r$  of  $T$  with odd  $\text{index}(X_r)$  such that  $X_r$ 
    is the right child of  $X_r$ 's father  $X_i$  in parallel do
begin
    let  $X_h$  be the father of  $X_i$  in  $T$ ;
    let  $X_l$  be the left child of  $X_i$  in  $T$ ;
    let  $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$ ,  $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$  and
     $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$  be edges of  $T$ ;
    delete nodes  $X_r$  and  $X_i$  from  $T$ , and
    add to  $T$  a new edge joining  $X_h$  and  $X_l$ ;
 $V_p := V_p \cup \{u_{new}\}$ , where  $u_{new} = (X_h, X_l)$ ;
 $E_p := E_p \cup \{(u_{new}, u_h), (u_{new}, u_l), (u_{new}, u_r)\}$ 
end;
for each leaf  $v$  of  $T$  in parallel do
 $\text{index}(v) \leftarrow \text{index}(v)/2$ 
end-while
end.

```

The number of leaves of T reduces by half whenever the **for**-loops in the **while** statement are executed. Therefore the **for**-loops are executed $O(\log n)$ times in total. Hence the algorithm above correctly finds a parsing tree T^p of $O(\log n)$ height in $O(\log n)$ parallel time using $O(n)$ operations. Note that each node of T^p corresponds to either an original edge in T or a new edge added to T during the tree-contraction process. \square

Figure 5 illustrates a two-terminal tree and its parsing tree obtained by the algorithm above.

Our second idea is to solve the edge-coloring problem on G by means of a parallel dynamic programming and a bottom-up tree computation on the parsing tree T^p of $O(\log n)$ height: for each node u of T^p from leaves to the root, we construct all (equivalent classes of) edge-colorings of $G[E(u)]$ from those of three subgraphs $G[E(u_h)]$, $G[E(u_l)]$ and $G[E(u_r)]$ by means of a dynamic programming.

Let $C = \{1, 2, \dots, |C|\}$ be the set of colors where $|C| = \Delta$ or $\Delta + 1$. A mapping (coloring) $f : E \rightarrow C$ is called a *total edge-coloring* of G if no two adjacent edges in E are colored with the same color. For a subset $E' \subseteq E$ a mapping $f : E' \rightarrow C$ is called a *partial edge-coloring* of G if no two adjacent edges in E' are colored with the same color. For a partial edge-coloring f and each vertex $v \in V$, let $f(v) = \{f((v, x)) | (v, x) \in E' \text{ and } x \in V\}$, that is, $f(v)$ is the set of colors appearing at v in the edge-coloring f . A partial edge-coloring is *feasible* if it can be extended to a total edge-coloring.

For a node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p let $\mathcal{C}(h, r)$ be a $2|C|$ -tuple of vertex sets such that

- $\mathcal{C}(h, r) = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{R});$
- $\mathcal{S} = (S_1, \dots, S_{|C|})$ and $\mathcal{R} = (R_1, \dots, R_{|C|});$ and
- $S_c \subseteq X_h$ and $R_c \subseteq X_r$ for each color $c \in C$.

We call such $\mathcal{C}(h, r)$ a *color vector* on $u = (X_h, X_r)$. A color vector $\mathcal{C}(h, r)$ is *good* if there exists a partial edge-coloring $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$ such that $S_c = \{v \in X_h | f(v) \ni c\}$ and $R_c = \{v \in X_r | f(v) \ni c\}$ for each color $c \in C$.

Such $\mathcal{C}(h, r)$ is called the *color vector of the partial edge-coloring* f . Then we have the following lemma. (Bodlaender has proved a similar lemma [4].)

Lemma 3: Let f and g be partial edge-colorings on $u = (X_h, X_r)$ with the same color vector. Then f is feasible if and only if g is feasible.

Proof: Suppose that f is feasible. Then there exists a total edge-coloring f' such that $f'(e) = f(e)$ for $e \in E(u)$. One can extend g to a total edge-coloring g' as follows: $g'(e) = g(e)$ for $e \in E(u)$, and $g'(e) = f'(e)$ for $e \in E - E(u)$. Note that the subgraph $G[E(u)]$ of G shares common vertices with the other parts of G only in X_h and X_r . \square

Thus a color vector on $u = (X_h, X_r)$ can be seen as an equivalence class of partial edge-colorings $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$. The total number of different color vectors on (X_h, X_r) is bounded by $2^{2^{(k+1)|C|}}$ since $|X_h|, |X_r| \leq k + 1$.

The main step of our parallel algorithm is (i) to find a parsing tree T^p of T such that the height of T^p is $O(\log n)$, and (ii) to compute a table of all good color vectors on the root of T^p by means of a dynamic programming and a bottom-up tree computation on T^p . If the table has at least one good color vector, then the graph G corresponding to the root of T^p can be correctly colored with $|C|$ colors.

For each leaf $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p , the table of all good color vectors on (X_h, X_r) can be computed in $O(1)$ parallel time using $O(|C|^{k(k+1)/2+1})$ operations as follows:

- (1) enumerate all partial edge-colorings $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$; and
- (2) compute all the color vectors $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{R})$ on (X_h, X_r) from the edge-colorings $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$.

Since $|E(u)| \leq k(k+1)/2$, the number of edge-colorings $E(u) \rightarrow C$ is at most $|C|^{k(k+1)/2}$. Since k is bounded, steps (1) and (2) can be executed in $O(1)$ parallel time using $O(|C|^{k(k+1)/2+1})$ operations.

Next we show how to compute all good color vectors on the root of T^p . Let an internal node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p have three children $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$, $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$ and $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$. Let $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ be a $6|C|$ -tuple of vertex sets such that

- (a) $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r) = (\mathcal{S}^h, \mathcal{R}^h; \mathcal{S}^l, \mathcal{R}^l; \mathcal{S}^r, \mathcal{R}^r)$,
- (b) $\mathcal{S}^x = (\mathcal{S}_1^x, \dots, \mathcal{S}_{|C|}^x)$ and $\mathcal{R}^x = (\mathcal{R}_1^x, \dots, \mathcal{R}_{|C|}^x)$ for $x \in \{h, l, r\}$, and
- (c) $\mathcal{S}_c^h \subseteq X_h$, $\mathcal{R}_c^h, \mathcal{S}_c^l, \mathcal{S}_c^r \subseteq X_i$, $\mathcal{R}_c^l \subseteq X_l$, and $\mathcal{R}_c^r \subseteq X_r$ for each color $c \in C$.

We call such $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ a *multi-color vector* on (X_h, X_r) . A multi-color vector $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ is *good* if there exists a partial edge-coloring $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$ such

that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_c^h &= \{v \in X_h | f_h(v) \ni c\}, \mathcal{R}_c^h = \{v \in X_i | f_h(v) \ni c\}, \\ \mathcal{S}_c^l &= \{v \in X_i | f_l(v) \ni c\}, \mathcal{R}_c^l = \{v \in X_l | f_l(v) \ni c\}, \\ \mathcal{S}_c^r &= \{v \in X_i | f_r(v) \ni c\}, \mathcal{R}_c^r = \{v \in X_r | f_r(v) \ni c\}, \end{aligned}$$

for every color $c \in C$ where f_h, f_l and f_r are the partial edge-colorings of f restricted to $E(u_h), E(u_l)$ and $E(u_r)$, respectively. Such $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ is called the *multi-color vector of f* . Then we have the following lemma.

Lemma 4: Let an internal node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p have three children $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$, $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$ and $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$. Let $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r) = (\mathcal{S}^h, \mathcal{R}^h; \mathcal{S}^l, \mathcal{R}^l; \mathcal{S}^r, \mathcal{R}^r)$ be a multi-color vector on (X_h, X_r) . Then $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ is good if and only if the following (a) and (b) hold:

- (a) $\mathcal{C}(h, i) = (\mathcal{S}^h, \mathcal{R}^h)$, $\mathcal{C}(i, l) = (\mathcal{S}^l, \mathcal{R}^l)$ and $\mathcal{C}(i, r) = (\mathcal{S}^r, \mathcal{R}^r)$ are good color vectors on (X_h, X_i) , (X_i, X_l) and (X_i, X_r) , respectively; and
- (b) $(\mathcal{S}_c^x \cup \mathcal{R}_c^x) \cap (\mathcal{S}_c^y \cup \mathcal{R}_c^y) = \emptyset$ for any $x, y \in \{h, l, r\}$, $x \neq y$, and any $c \in C$.

Proof: \Rightarrow : Let $f : E(u) \rightarrow C$ be a partial edge-coloring with the multi-color vector $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$. Let f_h, f_l and f_r be partial edge-colorings of f restricted to $E(u_h), E(u_l)$ and $E(u_r)$, respectively. Clearly $\mathcal{C}(h, i)$, $\mathcal{C}(i, l)$ and $\mathcal{C}(i, r)$ are color vectors of partial edge-colorings f_h, f_l and f_r , respectively, and hence $\mathcal{C}(h, i)$, $\mathcal{C}(i, l)$ and $\mathcal{C}(i, r)$ are good. Since f_h, f_l and f_r are partial edge-colorings of pairwise disjoint sets $E(u_h), E(u_l)$ and $E(u_r)$ respectively and f is a partial edge-coloring of $E(u) = E(u_h) \cup E(u_l) \cup E(u_r)$, one can easily know that (b) holds true. (See Fig. 6 (c).)

\Leftarrow : Let $g_h : E(u_h) \rightarrow C$, $g_l : E(u_l) \rightarrow C$ and $g_r : E(u_r) \rightarrow C$ be partial edge-colorings with the color vectors $\mathcal{C}(h, i)$, $\mathcal{C}(i, l)$ and $\mathcal{C}(i, r)$, respectively. By the condition (b) clearly the following extension f of g_h, g_l and g_r

$$f(e) = \begin{cases} g_h(e) & \text{if } e \in E(u_h), \\ g_l(e) & \text{if } e \in E(u_l), \\ g_r(e) & \text{if } e \in E(u_r) \end{cases} \text{ and}$$

is a partial edge-coloring $E(u) \rightarrow C$, and $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ is the multi-color vector of the partial edge-coloring f . Hence $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ is good. \square

The number of different multi-color vectors on any internal node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p is bounded by $2^{6^{(k+1)|C|}}$. Therefore by Lemma 4 one can compute a table of all good multi-color vectors on u from the three given tables of all good color vectors on the children u_h, u_l and u_r in $O(1)$ parallel time using a total of $O(|C|2^{6^{(k+1)|C|}})$ operations. Remember that $|C| = \Delta$ or $\Delta + 1$. The following lemma shows how to compute the table of all good color vectors on u from the tables of all good multi-color vectors on u .

Lemma 5: Let an internal node $u = (X_h, X_r)$ of T^p have three children $u_h = (X_h, X_i)$, $u_l = (X_i, X_l)$ and $u_r = (X_i, X_r)$. Then a color vector $\mathcal{C}(h, r) = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{R})$ is good if and only if there exists a good multi-color vector $\mathcal{C}_m(h, i, l, r)$ such that $S_c = X_h \cap Y_c$ and $R_c = X_r \cap Y_c$ for every color $c \in C$, where $Y_c = S_c^h \cup R_c^h \cup S_c^l \cup R_c^l \cup S_c^r \cup R_c^r$.

Proof: Immediate from the definitions. \square

From the lemmas above we have a parallel algorithm to determine whether a given partial k -tree G can be colored with $|C|$ colors:

- (1) find a parsing tree T^p of a tree-decomposition T of G such that the height of T^p is $O(\log n)$;
- (2) compute a table of all good color vectors on each leaf of T^p ;
- (3) for each internal node, all the three children of which are leaves, compute a table of all good color vectors on this node in parallel, and delete its children from T^p ;
- (4) repeat to do (3) until T^p has only one node; and
- (5) finally check whether there exists a good color vector in the table corresponding to the root.

We apply the procedure above twice to G with choosing $|C| = \Delta$ and $|C| = \Delta + 1$ to determine the chromatic index of a partial k -tree G .

Since the height of T^p is $O(\log n)$, (3) is executed at most $O(\log n)$ times. Therefore one can easily execute the algorithm above in $O(\log n)$ parallel time. Clearly step (1) requires $O(n)$ operations in total. Step (2) requires $O((\Delta + 1)^{(k^2+k+2)/2})$ operations for each leaf as mentioned before, and hence step (2) requires $O(n(\Delta + 1)^{(k^2+k+2)/2})$ operations in total. As mentioned above, step (3) requires $O(\Delta 2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)})$ operations per node. Since (3) is executed for $O(n)$ nodes in total in step (4), step (4) requires $O(n\Delta 2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)})$ operations in total. Step (5) requires $O(2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)})$ operations in total. Thus the total number of required computational operations above is $O(n\{\Delta 2^{6(k+1)(\Delta+1)} + (\Delta + 1)^{(k^2+k+2)/2}\})$.

This completes a proof of Theorem 1.

4. Conclusion

In this paper we gave an optimal and first NC parallel algorithm to solve the edge-coloring problem on partial k -trees G such that k and the maximum degree Δ of G are bounded. Given a partial k -tree G with its tree-decomposition, the algorithm takes in $O(\log n)$ parallel time with $O(n/\log n)$ processors where n is the number of vertices in G .

We have given an optimal parallel algorithm for decomposing a partial k -trees of large Δ into several subgraphs of small maximum degrees totaling exactly Δ [26]. Combining it with the algorithm in this paper,

one can obtain an optimal parallel algorithm to solve the edge-coloring problem for any partial k -tree whose maximum degree is not necessarily bounded [27].

Our algorithm solves a single particular problem, that is, the edge-coloring problem. However the methods which we developed in this paper appear to be useful for many other problems, especially for the "edge-partition problem with respect to property π " which asks to partition the edge set of a given graph into a minimum number of subsets so that the subgraph induced by each subset satisfies the property π . For the edge-coloring problem, π is indeed a matching.

Consider for example a property π : the degree of each vertex v is not greater than $f(v)$, where $f(v)$ is a positive integer assigned to v . Clearly the edge-partition problem with respect to such a property π is the same as the so-called f -coloring problem [14], [21]. Our algorithm can be generalized to solve the f -coloring problem on partial k -trees in parallel.

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