# Elegantly colored paths and cycles in edge colored random graphs 

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#### Abstract

We first consider the following problem. We are given a fixed perfect matching $M$ of $[n]$ and we add random edges one at a time until there is a Hamilton cycle containing $M$. We show that w.h.p. the hitting time for this event is the same as that for the first time there are no isolated vertices in the graph induced by the random edges. We then use this result for the following problem. We generate random edges and randomly color them black or white. A path/cycle is said to be zebraic if the colors alternate along the path. We show that w.h.p. the hitting time for a zebraic Hamilton cycle coincides with every vertex meeting at least one edge of each color. We then consider some related problems and (partially) extend our results to multiple colors. We also briefly consider directed versions.


## 1 Introduction

This paper studies the existence of nicely structured objects in (randomly) colored random graphs. Our basic interest will be in what we call zebraic paths and cycles. We assume that the edges of a graph $G$ have been colored black or white. A path or cycle will be called zebraic if the edges alternate in color along the path. We view this as a variation on the usual theme of rainbow paths and cycles that have been well-studied. Rainbow Hamilton cycles in edge colored complete graphs were first studied in Erdős, Nešetřil and Rödl [8]. Colorings were constrained by the number of times, $k$, that an individual color could be used. Such a coloring is called $k$-bounded. They showed that allowing $k$ to be any constant, there was always a rainbow Hamilton cycle, provided that the number of vertices $n$ was sufficiently large. Hahn and Thomassen [17] were next to consider this problem and they showed that $k$ could grow as fast as $n^{1 / 3}$ and there still be a rainbow Hamilton cycle and conjectured that the growth rate of $k$ could in fact be linear. In an unpublished work Rödl and Winkler [22] in 1984 improved this to $n^{1 / 2}$. Frieze and Reed [16] improved this to $k=O(n / \log n)$ and finally Albert, Frieze and Reed [2] (and Rue) improved the upper bound on $k$ to $n / 64$. In another line of research, Cooper and Frieze [5] discussed the existence of rainbow Hamilton cycles in the random graph $G_{n, p}^{(q)}$ which consists of the random graph $G_{n, p}$ where each

[^0]edge is independently and randomly given one of $q$ colors. Here and elsewhere, we use "chosen randomly" to signify "chosen uniformly at random". They showed that if $p \geq \frac{21 \log n}{n}$ and $q \geq 21 n$ then with high probability (w.h.p.), i.e. probability $1-o(1)$, there is a rainbow colored Hamilton cycle. Frieze and Loh [14] improved this to $p \geq \frac{(1+o(1)) \log n}{n}$ and $q \geq n+o(n)$. Ferber and Krivelevich [10] improved it further to $p=\frac{\log n+\log \log n+\omega(n)}{n}$ and $q \geq n+o(n)$. Bal and Frieze [3] considered the case $q=n$ and showed that $p \geq \frac{K \log n}{n}$ suffices for large enough $K$. Ferber and Krivelevich [10] proved that if $p \gg \frac{\log n}{n}$ and $q=C n$ colors are used, then w.h.p. $G_{n, p}$ contains $(1-o(1)) n p / 2$ edge-disjoint rainbow Hamilton cycles, for $C$ large enough.

In this paper we study the existence of other colorings of paths and cycles. Our first result does not at first sight fit into this framework. Let $n$ be even and let $M_{0}$ be an arbitrary perfect matching of the complete graph $K_{n}$. Now consider the random graph process $\left\{G_{m}\right\}=\left\{\left([n], E_{m}\right)\right\}$ where $E_{m}=\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right\}$ is obtained from $E_{m-1}$ by adding a random edge $e_{m} \notin E_{m-1}$, for $m=$ $0,1, \ldots, N=\binom{n}{2}$.
Let

$$
\tau_{1}=\min \left\{m: \delta\left(G_{m}\right) \geq 1\right\}
$$

where $\delta$ denotes minimum degree. Then let

$$
\tau_{H}=\min \left\{m: G_{m} \cup M_{0} \text { contains a Hamilton cycle } H \supseteq M_{0}\right\}
$$

Theorem $1 \tau_{1}=\tau_{H}$ w.h.p.

Remark 1 In actual fact there are two slightly different versions. One where we insist that $M_{0} \cap$ $E_{m}=\emptyset$ and one where $E_{m}$ is chosen completely independently of $M_{0}$. Our proof of the theorem covers both cases. We will first give a proof under the assumption that $E_{m}$ is chosen independently and then in Remark 17 see how to obtain the other case.

We note that Robinson and Wormald [21] considered a similar problem with respect to random regular graphs. They showed that one can choose $o\left(n^{1 / 2}\right)$ edges at random, orient them and then w.h.p. there will be a Hamilton cycle containing these edges and following the orientations.

Theorem 1 has an easy corollary that fits our initial description. Let $\left\{G_{m}^{(r)}\right\}$ be an $r$-colored version of the graph process. This means that $G_{m}^{(r)}$ is obtained from $G_{m-1}^{(r)}$ by adding a random edge and then giving it a random color from $[r]$. Let $E_{m, i}$ denote the edges of color $i$ in $\left\{G_{m}^{(r)}\right\}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, r$. When $r=2$ denote the colors by black and white and let $E_{m, b}=E_{m, 1}, E_{m, w}=E_{m, 2}$. Then let $G_{m}^{(b)}$ be the subgraph of $G_{m}^{(2)}$ induced by the black edges and let $G_{m}^{(w)}$ induced by the white edges. Let

$$
\tau_{1,1}=\min \left\{m: \delta\left(G_{m}^{(b)}\right), \delta\left(G_{m}^{(w)}\right) \geq 1\right\}
$$

and let

$$
\tau_{Z H}=\min \left\{m: G_{m}^{(2)} \text { contains a zebraic Hamilton cycle }\right\}
$$

Corollary $2 \tau_{1,1}=\tau_{Z H}$ w.h.p.
Our next result is a zebraic analogue of rainbow connection. For a connected graph $G$, its rainbow connection $r c(G)$, is the minimum number $r$ of colors needed for the following to hold: The edges
of $G$ can be $r$-colored so that every pair of vertices is connected by a rainbow path, i.e. a path in which no color is repeated. Recently, there has been interest in estimating this parameter for various classes of graph, including random graphs (see, e.g., [7, 13, 18, 20]). By analogy, we say that a connected graph with a two-coloring of its edges is zebraicly connected if there is a zebraic path joining every pair of vertices.

Theorem 2 At time $\tau_{1}, G_{\tau_{1}}$ with a random black-white coloring of its edges is zebraicly connected, w.h.p.

We consider now how we can extend our results to more than two colors. Suppose we have $r$ colors $[r]$ and that $r \mid n$. We would like to consider the existence of Hamilton cycles where the $i$ th edge has color $(i \bmod r)+1$. Call such a cycle $r$-zebraic. Our result for this case is not as tight as for the case of two colors. We are not able to prove a hitting time version. We will instead satisfy ourselves with a result for $G_{n, p}^{(r)}$. Let

$$
p_{r}=\frac{r}{\alpha_{r}} \frac{\log n}{n}
$$

where

$$
\alpha_{r}=\left\lceil\frac{r}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Theorem 3 Let $\varepsilon>0$ be an arbitrary positive constant and suppose that $r \geq 2$.

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{n, p}^{(r)} \text { contains an r-zebraic Hamilton cycle }\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & p \leq(1-\varepsilon) p_{r} \\
1 & p \geq(1+\varepsilon) p_{r}
\end{array} .\right.
$$

The proofs of Theorems 1-3 will be given in Sections 4-6.

### 1.1 Directed Versions

There are some very natural directed versions of these results. With respect to Theorem 1 one can consider the directed graph process where the edges of the complete digraph $\vec{K}_{n}$ are randomly ordered as $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n(n-1)}$. We can then consider a sequence of digraphs $D_{m}=$ ( $[n],\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right\}$ ), $m \geq 1$ and consider hitting times for various properties. For example, suppose in addition one is given a perfect matching $M=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n / 2}\right\}$ together with an orientation of each edge in $M$. One can ask for the likely hitting time for the existence of a directed Hamilton cycle that contains $M$ and respects the given orientation. Assume w.l.o.g. that $f_{i}=(2 i-1,2 i)$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n / 2$, so that $f_{i}$ is oriented from $2 i-1$ to $2 i$. Let $\vec{\tau}_{H}$ be the hitting time for the existence of such a cycle. Let $\vec{\tau}_{1}$ be the hitting time for each $1 \leq i \leq n / 2$ to have an in-neighbor in $n / 2+1, n / 2+2, \ldots, n$ and for each $n / 2+1, n / 2+2, \ldots, n$ to have an out-neighbor in $1 \leq i \leq n / 2$. Clearly $\vec{\tau}_{H} \geq \vec{\tau}_{1}$.

Theorem $4 \vec{\tau}_{1}=\vec{\tau}_{H}$ w.h.p.
Our other results will have directed analogs too. Suppose then that $D_{n, p}^{(r)}, m \geq 1$ is an $r$-colored version of the directed graph $D_{n, p}$. A directed $r$-zebraic Hamilton cycle is the directed analog what we see in Theorem 3. Then we have

Theorem 5 Let $\varepsilon>0$ be an arbitrary positive constant and suppose that $r \geq 2$.

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left(D_{n, p}^{(r)} \text { contains an r-zebraic directed Hamilton cycle }\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
0 & p \leq(1-\varepsilon) p_{r} \\
1 & p \geq(1+\varepsilon) p_{r}
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Notice that we do not claim a hitting time version for the case $r=2$. It is unclear what the simple necesary condition should be. We discuss this further in Section 7.

There is a notion of directed zebraic connection when we 2-color a digraph and ask for a directed zebraic path from any vertex to any other vertex. Let $\vec{\tau}_{1,1}$ be the hitting time for $D_{m}$ to have i-degree and out-degree at least one.

Theorem 6 At time $\vec{\tau}_{1,1}, D_{\vec{\tau}_{1,1}}$ with a random black-white coloring of its edges is directed zebraicly connected, w.h.p.

We will briefly discuss the proofs of these directed analogs in Section 7 .

## 2 Notation

All logarithms will have base $e$ unless explicitly stated otherwise.
For a graph $G=(V, E)$ and $S, T \subseteq V$ we let $e_{G}(S)$ denote the number of edges contained in $S$, $e_{G}(S, T)$ denote the number of edges with one end in $S$ and the other in $T$. Let $e_{G}(S)=e_{G}(S, S)$ and let $N_{G}(S)$ denote the set of neighbors of $S$ that are not in $S$.

We next list certain values and notation that we will use throughout our proofs. They are here for easy reference. The reader is encouraged to skip reading this section and to just refer back as necessary.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t_{0}=\frac{n}{2}(\log n-2 \log \log n) \text { and } t_{1}=\frac{n}{2}(\log n+2 \log \log n) \\
& t_{2}=\frac{t_{0}}{10} \text { and } t_{3}=\frac{t_{0}}{5} \text { and } t_{4}=\frac{9 t_{0}}{10} . \\
& \zeta_{i}=t_{i}-t_{i-1} \text { for } i=3,4 . \\
& p_{i}=\frac{t_{i}}{\binom{n}{2}}, i=0,1,2 . \\
& n_{0}=\frac{n}{\log ^{2} n} \text { and } n_{0}^{\prime}=\frac{n_{0}}{\log ^{4} n} \text { and } n_{1}=\frac{n}{10 \log n} . \\
& n_{b}=\frac{n \log \log \log n}{\log \log n} \text { and } n_{c}=\frac{200 n}{\log n} . \\
& L_{0}=\frac{\log n}{100} \text { and } L_{1}=\frac{\log n}{\log \log n} . \\
& \ell_{0}=\frac{\log n}{200} \text { and } \ell_{1}=\frac{2 \log n}{3 \log \log n} \text { and } \nu_{L}=\ell_{0}^{\ell_{1}}=n^{2 / 3+o(1) .} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The following graphs and sets of vertices are used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Psi_{0}=G_{t_{2}} \backslash M_{0}=\left([n], E_{t_{2}} \backslash M_{0}\right) . \\
& V_{0}=\left\{v \in[n]: d_{\Psi_{0}}(v) \leq L_{0}\right\} . \\
& \Psi_{1}=\Psi_{0} \cup\left\{e \in E_{\left.\tau_{1} \backslash E_{t_{2}}: e \cap V_{0} \neq \emptyset\right\}} .\right. \\
& V_{\lambda}=\{v \in[n]: v \text { is large }\} . \\
& V_{\sigma}=[n] \backslash V_{\lambda} . \\
& E_{B}=\left\{e \in E_{t_{4}} \backslash E_{t_{3}}: e \cap V_{0}=\emptyset\right\} . \\
& V_{\tau}=\left\{v \in[n] \backslash V_{0}: \operatorname{deg}_{E_{B}}(v) \leq L_{0}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The definition of "large" depends on which theorem we are proving.
Sometimes in what follows we will treat certain values as integer, when they should really be rounded up or down. We do this for conveneience and claim that rounding either way will not affect the validity of what is claimed.

## 3 Probabilistic Inequalities

We will need standard estimates on the tails of various random variables.
Chernoff Bounds: Let $B(n, p)$ denote the binomial random variable where $n$ is the number of trials and $p$ is the probability of success.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Pr}(|B(n, p)-n p| \geq \varepsilon n p) \leq 2 e^{-\varepsilon^{2} n p / 3} \quad \text { for } 0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1  \tag{1}\\
& \operatorname{Pr}(B(n, p) \geq a n p) \leq\left(\frac{e}{a}\right)^{\text {anp }} \quad \text { for } a>0 \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

For proofs, see the appendix of Alon and Spencer [1].
McDiarmid's Inequality: Let $Z=Z\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)$ be a random variable where $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}$ are independent for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. Suppose that

$$
\left|Z\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{i-1}, Y_{i}, Y_{i+1}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)-Z\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{i-1}, \widehat{Y}_{i}, Y_{i+1}, \ldots, Y_{n}\right)\right| \leq c_{i}
$$

for all $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}, \widehat{Y}_{i}$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}(|Z-\mathbf{E}(Z)| \geq t) \leq 2 \exp \left\{-\frac{t^{2}}{2\left(c_{1}^{2}+c_{2}^{2}+\cdots+c_{n}^{2}\right)}\right\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a proof see for example [11](Lemma 21.16) or [19](Remark 2.28).

## 4 Proof of Theorem 1

### 4.1 Outline of proof

It is well known (see for example [11](Theorem 4.2) and [19](Section 5.1)) that w.h.p. we have $t_{0} \leq \tau_{1} \leq t_{1}$.

Our strategy for proving Theorem 1 is broadly in line with the 3 -phase algorithm described in [6].
(a) We will take the first $t_{3}$ edges plus all of the next $\tau_{1}-t_{3}$ edges incident to vertices that have a low degree in $G_{t_{2}}$. We argue that w.h.p. this contains a perfect matching $M_{1}$ that is disjoint from $M_{0}$. The union of $M_{0}, M_{1}$ will then have $O(\log n)$ components w.h.p.
(b) $M_{0} \cup M_{1}$ induces a 2-factor made up of alternating cycles. We then use a selection of about $\zeta_{4}$ edges from $E_{t_{4}} \backslash E_{t_{3}}$ to make the minimum cycle length $\Omega(n / \log n)$. This selection is carefully designed to avoid dependence issues, as is the case of the selection in (c).
(c) We then use a large subset of the final $t_{2}$ edges to create a Hamilton cycle containing $M_{0}$. This involves a second moment calculation. The edges used to create the cycle here are from $E_{t_{0}} \backslash E_{t_{4}}$. It follows that w.h.p. we will have created a Hamilton cycle contained in $G_{\tau_{1}}$.

We are working in a different model to that in [6] and there are many more conditioning problems to be overcome. For example, in [6], it is very easy to show that the random digraph $D_{3 \text {-in,3-out }}$ contains a set of $O(\log n)$ vertex disjoint cycles that contain all vertices. Here we have to build a perfect matching $M_{1}$ from scratch and to avoid several conditioning problems. The same is true for (b) and (c). The broad strategy is the same, the details are quite different.

### 4.2 Phase 1: Building $M_{1}$

We begin with $\Psi_{0}=G_{t_{2}} \backslash M_{0}$. Then let $V_{0}$ denote the set of vertices that have degree at most $L_{0}=\frac{\log n}{100}$ in $\Psi_{0}$. Now create $\Psi_{1}=\left([n], E_{1}\right)$ by adding those edges in $E_{\tau_{1}} \backslash E_{t_{2}}$ that are incident with $V_{0}$ and are disjoint from $M_{0}$. We argue that w.h.p. $\Psi_{1}$ is a random graph with minimum degree one in which almost all vertices have degree $\Omega(\log n)$. Furthermore, we will show that w.h.p. $\Psi_{1}$ is an expander, and then it will not be difficult to show that it contains the required perfect matching $M_{1}$.

Let a vertex be large if its degree in $G_{t_{1}}$ is at least $L_{0}$ and small otherwise. Let $V_{\lambda}$ denote the set of large vertices and let $V_{\sigma}$ denote the set of small vertices.

The calculations for the next lemma will simplify if we observe the following: Suppose that $m=N p$. It is known that for any monotone property of graphs

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{m} \in \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 3 \operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{n, p} \in \mathcal{P}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In general we have for not necessarily monotone properties:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{m} \in \mathcal{P}\right) \leq 3 m^{1 / 2} \operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{n, p} \in \mathcal{P}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

For proofs of (4), (5) see Bollobás [4](Theorem 2.2) or Frieze and Karoński [11](Lemmas 1.2 and 1.3) or Janson, Łuczak and Ruciński [19](Lemma 1.10).

We will have reason to deal with a random sequence of multi-graphs defined as follows: Let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{t}, \ldots$, be random sequence where for all $i \geq 0, x_{i+1}$ is chosen uniformly at random from $[n]$, independently of $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i}$. For a positive integer $t$ we let $\Gamma_{t}$ be the multi-graph with edges $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{t}$ where $e_{i}=\left\{x_{2 i-1}, x_{2 i}\right\}$ for $i \geq 1$. If after removing the loops and repeats of edges from $\Gamma_{t}$ we have $\tau$ edges then the graph we obtain has the same distribution as $G_{\tau}$. Given this, we couple $\Gamma_{t}$ with $G_{\tau}$ where $\tau=\tau\left(\Gamma_{t}\right)$ is a random variable.

Let $Z_{1}$ denote the number of loops and let $Z_{2}$ denote the number of repeated edges in $\Gamma_{t_{2}}$. Now $Z_{1}$ is distributed as $\operatorname{Bin}\left(t_{2}, 1 / n\right)$ and then the Chernoff bound (2) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(Z_{1} \geq \log ^{2} n\right) \leq e^{-\log ^{2} n} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are doing more than usual here, because we need probability $O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$, rather than just probability $o(1)$. We require this in order to enable us to easily handle the case where we have to choose edges disjoint from $M_{0}$, as explained in Remark 17. There is one exception to this probabilistic requirement. Let $\mathcal{T}$ be the event that $t_{0} \leq \tau_{1} \leq t_{1}$. We do not require that $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{T})=1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$. A probability of $1-o(1)$ will suffice.

Now $Z_{2}$ is dominated by $\operatorname{Bin}\left(t_{2}, t_{2} / N\right)$ and then the Chernoff bound (2) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(Z_{2} \geq \log ^{3} n\right) \leq e^{-\log ^{3} n} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

The properties in the next lemma will be used to show that w.h.p. $\Psi_{1}$ is an expander.
Lemma 3 The following holds with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ :
(a) $\left|V_{0}\right| \leq n^{99 / 100}$.
(b) If $x, y \in V_{\sigma}$ then the distance between them in $G_{t_{1}}$ is at least 10.
(c) If $S \subseteq[n]$ and $|S| \leq n_{0}=\frac{n}{\log ^{2} n}$ then $e_{G_{t_{1}}}(S) \leq 10|S|$.
(d) If $S \subseteq[n]$ and $|S|=s \in\left[n_{0}^{\prime}=\frac{n_{0}}{\log ^{4} n}, n_{1}=\frac{n}{10 \log n}\right]$ then $\left|N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)\right| \geq s \log n / 25$.
(e) No cycle of length 4 in $G_{t_{1}}$ contains a small vertex.
(f) No vertex of degree one in $G_{\tau_{1}}$ is incident with an edge of $E_{t_{1}} \cap M_{0}$.
(g) The maximum degree in $G_{10 n \log n}$ is less than $100 \log n$. Crude but easy to verify.
(h) $\tau_{1} \leq 10 n \log n$.

Proof (a) Let $V_{0}^{\prime}$ denote the set of vertices of degree at most $L_{0}+1$ in $\Gamma_{t_{2}}$. Then in our coupling $\left|V_{0}\right| \leq Z_{1}+2 Z_{2}+\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right|$. This is because if $v \in V_{0} \backslash V_{0}^{\prime}$ then it must lie in a loop or a multiple edge. Also, $v \in L_{0}$ might have degree $L_{0}+1$ in $G_{t_{2}}$, but might lose an edge from the deletion of $M_{0}$ to create $\Psi_{1}$.
Now, applying (1) with $\varepsilon=4 / 5$ we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(v \in V_{0}^{\prime}\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left(B\left(2 t_{2}, \frac{1}{n}\right) \leq \frac{\log n}{100}+1\right) \leq n^{-1 / 99}
$$

It follows, that $\mathbf{E}\left(\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right|\right) \leq n^{98 / 99}$. We now use inequality (3) to finish the proof. Indeed, changing one of the $x_{i}$ 's can change $\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right|$ by at most one. Hence, for any $u>0$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right| \geq \mathbf{E}\left(\left|V_{0}^{\prime}\right|\right)+u\right) \leq \exp \left\{-\frac{u^{2}}{4 t_{2}}\right\} .
$$

Putting $u=n^{2 / 3}$ into the above and using (6), (7) finishes the proof of (a).
(b) We do not have room to apply (5) here. We need the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\binom{N-a}{t-b}}{\binom{N}{t}} \leq\left(\frac{t}{N}\right)^{b}\left(\frac{N-t}{N-b}\right)^{a-b} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $b \leq a \leq t \leq N$. Verification of (8) is straightforward and can be found for example in Chapter 21.1 of [11]. We will now and again use the notation $A \leq_{b} B$ in place of $A=O(B)$ when it suits our aesthetic taste. Let $\ell_{1}=\frac{2 \log n}{3 \log \log n}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(\exists x, y) & \leq \sum_{k=2}^{11}\binom{n}{k} k!\sum_{\ell_{1}, \ell_{2}=0}^{L_{0}}\binom{n-k}{\ell_{1}}\binom{n-k}{\ell_{2}} \frac{\binom{N-(2 n+k-5)}{t_{1}-\left(k-1+\ell_{1}+\ell_{2}\right)}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}} \\
& \leq b \sum_{k=2}^{11} n^{k} \sum_{\ell_{1}, \ell_{2}=0}^{L_{0}}\left(\frac{n e}{\ell_{1}}\right)^{\ell_{1}}\left(\frac{n e}{\ell_{2}}\right)^{\ell_{2}}\left(\frac{t_{1}}{N}\right)^{\ell_{1}+\ell_{2}+k-1}\left(\frac{N-t_{1}}{N-\left(\ell_{1}+\ell_{2}+k-1\right)}\right)^{2 n-\left(\ell_{1}+\ell_{2}-4\right)} \\
& \leq b n \sum_{k=2}^{11} \log ^{k-1} n \sum_{\ell_{1}, \ell_{2}=0}^{L_{0}}\left(\frac{3 \log n}{\ell_{1}}\right)^{\ell_{1}}\left(\frac{3 \log n}{\ell_{2}}\right)^{\ell_{2}} n^{-2+o(1)} \\
& =O\left(n^{-0.51}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) We can use (4) here with $p_{1}=t_{1} / N$. If $s=|S|$, then in $G_{n, p_{1}}$ where $p_{1}=t_{1} / N$ and $N=\binom{n}{2}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(e_{G_{t_{1}}}(S)>10|S|\right) \leq 3\binom{\binom{s}{2}}{10 s} p_{1}^{10 s} \leq 3\left(\frac{s^{2} e}{20 s} \cdot \frac{\log n+2 \log \log n}{n-1}\right)^{10 s} \leq\left(\frac{s \log n}{n}\right)^{10 s}
$$

So,
$\operatorname{Pr}(\exists S) \leq \sum_{s=10}^{n_{0}}\binom{n}{s}\left(\frac{s \log n}{n}\right)^{10 s} \leq \sum_{s=10}^{n_{0}}\left(\frac{n e}{s}\right)^{s}\left(\frac{s \log n}{n}\right)^{10 s}=\sum_{s=10}^{n_{0}}\left(e\left(\frac{s}{n}\right)^{9} \log ^{10} n\right)^{s}=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$.
(d) For this we will only use $E_{t_{2}} \subseteq E\left(\Psi_{1}\right)$. We can use (4) here with $p_{2}=t_{2} / N$. For $v \in V \backslash S$, $\operatorname{Pr}\left(v \in N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)\right) \geq 1-\left(1-p_{2}\right)^{s-1} \geq \frac{s p_{2}}{2}$ for $s \leq n_{1}$. Here we have $s-1$ in place of $s$ as we need to exclude the edges of $M_{0}$ in this calculation. So $\left|N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)\right|$ stochastically dominates $\operatorname{Bin}\left(n-s, \frac{s p_{2}}{2}\right)$. Now $(n-s) \frac{s p_{2}}{2} \sim \frac{s \log n}{20}$ and so using the Chernoff bound (1) with $\varepsilon \sim 1 / 5$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)\right|<s \log n / 25\right) \leq e^{-s \log n / 1501} .
$$

So,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\exists S) \leq \sum_{s=n_{0}^{\prime}}^{n_{1}}\binom{n}{s} e^{-s \log n / 1501} \leq \sum_{s=n_{0}^{\prime}}^{n_{1}}\left(\frac{n e}{s} \cdot n^{-1 / 1501}\right)^{s}=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)
$$

(e) The expected number of such cycles is bounded by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \binom{n}{4} \frac{3!}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{L_{0}} 4\binom{n-4}{k} \frac{\binom{N-n-3}{t_{1}-4-k}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}} \\
& \leq n^{4}\left(\frac{t_{1}}{N}\right)^{4}\left(\frac{N-t_{1}}{N-4}\right)^{n-1}+n^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{L_{0}}\left(\frac{n e}{k}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{t_{1}}{N}\right)^{k+4}\left(\frac{N-t_{1}}{N-k-4}\right)^{n-k-1} \\
& \leq_{b} \log ^{4} n\left(1+\sum_{k=1}^{L_{0}}\left(\frac{e^{1+o(1)} \log n}{k}\right)^{k}\right) n^{-1+o(1)} \\
& =O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

(f) We will first argue that if $V_{1}$ is the set of vertices of degree at most one in $G_{t_{0}}$ then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|V_{1}\right| \geq 2 \log ^{4} n\right)=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)
$$

Indeed, fix a set $U \subseteq V$ of size $u$. For $v \in U$, let $d(v, V \backslash U)$ denote the number of edges incident with $v$ and $V \backslash U$. Then, the the probability $U$ is a subset of $V_{1}$ in $G_{n, p_{0}}$ is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(d(v, V \backslash U) \leq 1, \forall v \in U) & =\left(\left(1-p_{0}\right)^{n-u}+(n-u) p_{0}\left(1-p_{0}\right)^{n-u-1}\right)^{u} \\
& <\left(\frac{\log ^{3} n}{n}\right)^{u}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, with $u=\log ^{4} n$ we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|V_{1}\right| \geq u\right) \leq\binom{ n}{u}\left(\frac{\log ^{3} n}{n}\right)^{u} \leq\left(\frac{n e}{u} \cdot \frac{\log ^{3} n}{n}\right)^{u}=o\left(n^{-2}\right) .
$$

We now apply (5) to prove the result for $G_{t_{0}}$.
We now consider adding the final max $\left\{0, \tau_{1}-t_{0}\right\}$ edges. (We only know that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\tau_{1} \geq t_{0}\right)=1-o(1)$ and not $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ and so we do not assume that $\tau_{1} \geq t_{0}$ here.) Let $\mathcal{B}$ be the event that any of these edges is (i) incident with $V_{1}$ and (ii) lies in $M_{0}$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B}) \leq O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)+10 n \log n \cdot \frac{4 \log ^{4} n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)
$$

Here the first $O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ ) accounts for the probability that $\tau_{1}-t_{0} \geq 10 n \log n$ or $\left|V_{1}\right| \geq 2 \log ^{4} n$. Note that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\tau_{1} \geq 10 n \log n\right)=o\left(n^{-1}\right)$. The proof of this follows from a straigthforward estimate of the expected number of components of size at most $n / 2$ at time $10 n \log n$, see for example the proof of Theorem 4.1.of [11]. After this, each of the at most $10 n \log n$ edges (see (f)) has probability $\frac{4 \log ^{4} n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$ of being in $M_{0}$ and being incident with $V_{1}$.
(g) We apply (4) with $p=10 n \log n / N$ and find that the probability of having a vertex of degree exceeding $100 \log n$ is at most

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 n\binom{n-1}{100 \log n}\left(\frac{20 \log n}{n-1}\right)^{100 \log n} \leq 3 n\left(\frac{e^{1+o(1)}}{5}\right)^{100 \log n}=O\left(n^{-10}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

(h) $\tau_{1}>10 n \log n$ implies that $G_{10 n \log n}$ contains a component of size at most $n / 2$. Thus, with $p$ as in (h),

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\tau_{1}>10 n \log n\right) \leq 3 \sum_{k=1}^{n / 2}\binom{n}{k}(1-p)^{k(n-k)} \leq 3 \sum_{k=1}^{n / 2} n^{k} e^{-5 k \log n}=o(1) .
$$

Remark 4 Because $\mathcal{T}$ occurs w.h.p. we have that the statements in Lemma 3 hold with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ if we condition on $\mathcal{T}$ occuring. This follows from $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B) \leq \operatorname{Pr}(A) / \operatorname{Pr}(B)$. Indeed, this is also true for any of the events below that are shown to hold with this probability.

Lemma 3 implies the following:
Lemma 5 With probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
S \subseteq[n] \text { and }|S| \leq n / 2000 \text { implies }\left|N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)\right| \geq|S| . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof Assume that the conditions described in Lemma 3 hold. Let $N(S)=N_{\Psi_{1}}(S)$ and $e(S)=e_{\Psi_{1}}(S)$. We first argue that if $S \subseteq V_{\lambda}$ and $|S| \leq n / 2000$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|N(S)| \geq 4|S| \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Lemma 3(d), we only have to concern ourselves with $|S| \leq n_{0}^{\prime}$ or $|S| \in\left[n_{1}, n / 2000\right]$.
If $|S| \leq n_{0}^{\prime}$ and $T=N(S)$ then in $\Psi_{1}$ we have, using Lemma $3(\mathrm{~g})$,(h), and accounting for the edges in $M_{0}$ being forbidden,

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(S \cup T) \geq|S|\left(\frac{\log n}{200}-1\right) \text { and }|S \cup T| \leq|S|(1+100 \log n) \leq n_{0} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is important to note that to obtain (12) we use the fact that vertices in $V_{0} \backslash V_{\sigma}$ are given all their edges in $\Psi_{1}$.
Equation (12) and Lemma 3(c) imply that $\frac{|S| \log n}{200} \leq 10|S \cup T|$ and so (11) holds with room to spare.

If $|S| \in\left[n_{1}, n / 2000\right]$ then we choose $S^{\prime} \subseteq S$ where $\left|S^{\prime}\right|=n_{1}$ and using Lemma 3(d), see that

$$
|N(S)| \geq\left|N\left(S^{\prime}\right)\right|-|S| \geq \frac{\log n}{25} \cdot \frac{200|S|}{\log n}-|S| .
$$

This yields (11), again with room to spare.
Now let $S_{0}=S \cap V_{\sigma}$ and $S_{1}=S \backslash S_{0}$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
|N(S)| \geq\left|N\left(S_{0}\right)\right|+\left|N\left(S_{1}\right)\right|-\left|N\left(S_{0}\right) \cap S_{1}\right|-\left|N\left(S_{1}\right) \cap S_{0}\right|-\left|N\left(S_{0}\right) \cap N\left(S_{1}\right)\right| . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $\left|N\left(S_{0}\right)\right| \geq\left|S_{0}\right|$. This follows from (i) $\Psi_{1}$ has no isolated vertices (follows from Lemma $3(\mathrm{f})$ ), and (ii) Lemma 3(b) means that $S_{0}$ is an independent set and no two vertices in $S_{0}$ have a common neighbor. Equation (11) implies that $\left|N\left(S_{1}\right)\right| \geq 4\left|S_{1}\right|$. We next observe that trivially, $\left|N\left(S_{0}\right) \cap S_{1}\right| \leq$ $\left|S_{1}\right|$. Then we have $\left|N\left(S_{1}\right) \cap S_{0}\right| \leq\left|S_{1}\right|$, for otherwise some vertex in $S_{1}$ has two neighbors in $S_{0}$, contradicting Lemma 3 (b). Finally, we also have $\left|N\left(S_{0}\right) \cap N\left(S_{1}\right)\right| \leq\left|S_{1}\right|$. If for a vertex in $S_{1}$ there are two distinct paths of length two to $S_{0}$ then we violate one of the conditions - Lemma 3(b) or (e).

So, from (13) we have

$$
|N(S)| \geq\left|S_{0}\right|+4\left|S_{1}\right|-\left|S_{1}\right|-\left|S_{1}\right|-\left|S_{1}\right|=|S| .
$$

Next let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph with an even number of vertices that does not contain a perfect matching. Let $v$ be a vertex not covered by some maximum matching, and suppose that $M$ is a
maximum matching that isolates $v$. Let $S_{0}(v, M)=\{u \neq v: M$ isolates $u\}$. If $u \in S_{0}(v, M)$ and $e=\{x, y\} \in M$ and $f=\{u, x\} \in E$ then flipping $e, f$ replaces $M$ by $M^{\prime}=M+f-e$. Here $e$ is flipped-out. Note that $y \in S_{0}\left(v, M^{\prime}\right)$.

Now fix a maximum matching $M$ that isolates $v$ and let

$$
A(v, M)=\bigcup_{M^{\prime}} S_{0}\left(v, M^{\prime}\right)
$$

where we take the union over $M^{\prime}$ obtained from $M$ by a sequence of flips.
Lemma 6 Let $G$ be a graph without a perfect matching and let $M$ be a maximum matching and $v$ be a vertex isolated by $M$. Then $\left|N_{G}(A(v, M))\right|<|A(v, M)|$.

Proof Suppose that $x \in N_{G}(A(v, M))$ and that $f=\{u, x\} \in E$ where $u \in A(v, M)$. Now there exists $y$ such that $e=\{x, y\} \in M$, else $x \in S_{0}(v, M) \subseteq A(v, M)$. We claim that $y \in A(v, M)$ and this will prove the lemma. Since then, every neighbor of $A(v, M)$ is also a neighbor via an edge of $M$.

Suppose that $y \notin A(v, M)$. Let $M^{\prime}$ be a maximum matching that (i) isolates $u$ and (ii) is obtainable from $M$ by a sequence of flips. Now $e \in M^{\prime}$ because if $e$ has been flipped out then either $x$ or $y$ is placed in $A(v, M)$. But then we can do another flip with $M^{\prime}, e$ and the edge $f=\{u, x\}$, placing $y \in A(v, M)$, contradiction.

Define

$$
E_{A}=E_{t_{3}} \backslash E\left(\Psi_{1}\right)=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{\rho}\right\}
$$

where we see from Lemma $3(\mathrm{a}),(\mathrm{g}),(\mathrm{h})$ that with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ we have

$$
\zeta_{3} \geq \rho \geq \zeta_{3}-100 n^{99 / 100} \log n \sim \frac{n \log n}{20}
$$

Lemma 7 Given $\Psi_{1}, V_{0}, \rho$ where $\left|V_{0}\right| \leq n^{99 / 100}$, we have that $E_{A}$ is a uniformly random $\rho$-subset of $E_{2}=\binom{V_{1}}{2} \backslash E\left(\Psi_{1}\right)$, where $V_{1}=[n] \backslash V_{0}$.

Proof This follows from the fact that if we remove any $f_{i}$ and replace it with any other edge from $E_{2}$ then $V_{0}$ is unaffected. Thus $E$ and $E-f+g$ are equally likely to be $E_{A}$, under our conditioning, where $f \in E$ and $g \in E_{2} \backslash E$. A sequence of such changes shows that any $\rho$-subset of $E_{2}$ is equally likely to be $E_{A}$.

Now consider the sequence of graphs $H_{0}=\Psi_{1}, H_{1}, \ldots, H_{\rho}$ where $H_{i}$ is obtained from $H_{i-1}$ by adding the edge $f_{i}$. We claim that if $\mu_{i}$ denotes the size of a largest matching in $H_{i}$ that is disjoint from $M_{0}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mu_{i}=\mu_{i-1}+1 \mid \mu_{i-1}<n / 2, f_{1}, \ldots, f_{i-1},\left(\Psi_{1} \text { satisfies }(10)\right)\right) \geq 10^{-7} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see this, let $M_{i-1}$ be a matching of size $\mu_{i-1}$ in $H_{i-1}$, disjoint from $M_{0}$, and suppose that $v$ is a vertex not covered by $M_{i-1}$. It follows from (10) and Lemma 6 that if $A_{H_{i-1}}(v)=\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots g_{r}\right\}$
then $r \geq n / 2000$. Now consider the pairs $\left(g_{j}, x\right), j=1, \ldots, r, x \in A_{H_{j-1}}\left(g_{j}\right)$. There are at least $\binom{n / 2000}{2}$ such pairs and if $f_{i}$ lies in this collection, then $\mu_{i}=\mu_{i-1}+1$. Equation (14) follows from this and Lemma 7. In fact, given Lemma 3(a), the probability in question is at least

$$
\frac{\binom{n / 2000-n^{99 / 100}}{2}-\rho-n / 2}{\binom{n}{2}}>10^{-7}
$$

where we have subtracted $\rho$ to account for some edges of $E_{A}$ having already been checked. And we have subtracted the size of $M_{0}$ too.

Now if there is no perfect matching in $H_{\rho}$ then we will have $\mu_{i}=\mu_{i-1}+1$ at most $n / 2$ times. But from (14) we see that the probability of this is bounded by $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Bin}\left(\rho, 10^{-7}\right) \leq n / 2\right)$. It follows that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(H_{\rho} \text { has no perfect matching }\right) \leq O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)+\operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Bin}\left(\rho, 10^{-7}\right) \leq n / 2\right)=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right) .
$$

So with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right), \Psi_{2}=H_{\rho}$ has a perfect matching. We choose such a matching uniformly at random.

It follows by symmetry that $M_{1}$ is uniformly random, conditional only on being disjoint from $M_{0}$. This will not be true if we condition on various quantities like $\Psi_{0}, V_{0}$ etc., but we only make an unconditional claim (except for $M_{0}$ ). We will need the following properties of the 2-factor

$$
\Pi_{0}=M_{0} \cup M_{1} .
$$

Lemma 8 The following hold with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ :
(a) $M_{0} \cup M_{1}$ has at most $10 \log _{2} n$ components.
(b) There are at most $n_{b}=\frac{n \log \log \log n}{\log \log n}$ vertices in total in components of size at most $n_{c}=\frac{200 n}{\log n}$.

Proof Let

$$
\nu(m)=\frac{(2 m)!}{2^{m} m!}=\text { number of perfect matchings of } K_{2 m} .
$$

We observe that if we choose $M_{1}$ completely independently of $M_{0}$, then using inclusion-exclusion we see that the probability that $M_{0} \cap M_{1}=\emptyset$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n / 2}(-1)^{k}\binom{n / 2}{k} \frac{\nu(n / 2-k)}{\nu(n / 2)} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now for $k$ constant we see that the summand in (15) is asymptotically equal to $\frac{1}{2^{k} k!}$. Then by truncating the sum in (15) at a large odd integer and using the Bonferroni inequality we see that the sum in (15) is at least $e^{-1 / 2}-\delta$ for any positive $\delta$. We will therefore accept that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(M_{0} \cap M_{1}=\right.$ $\emptyset) \geq 1 / 3$ and then we can inflate the probabilities in (17), (18) by 3 , at most, to handle the conditioning on $M_{0} \cap M_{1}=\emptyset$.
(a) We generate a uniform random matching by choosing any unmatched vertex $v$ and pairing it with a random unmtched vertex $w$. Following the argument in [15] we note that if $C$ is the cycle of $M_{0} \cup M_{1}$ that contains vertex 1 then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}(|C|=2 k)<\prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{n-2 i}{n-2 i+1}\right) \frac{1}{n-2 k+1}<\frac{1}{n-2 k+1} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Indeed, consider $M_{0}$-edge $\left\{1=i_{1}, i_{2}\right\} \in C$ containing vertex 1 . Let $\left\{i_{2}, i_{3}\right\} \in C$ be the $M_{1}$-edge containing $i_{2}$. Then $\operatorname{Pr}\left(i_{3} \neq 1\right)=\frac{n-2}{n-1}$. Assume $i_{3} \neq 1$ and let $\left\{i_{3}, i_{4} \neq 1\right\} \in C$ be the $M_{0}$ edge containing $i_{3}$. Let $\left\{i_{4}, i_{5}\right\} \in C$ be the $M_{1}$-edge containing $i_{4}$. Then $\operatorname{Pr}\left(i_{5} \neq 1\right)=\frac{n-4}{n-3}$ and so on.

Having chosen $C$, the remaining cycles come from the union of two (random) matchings on the complete graph $K_{n-|C|}$. It follows from this, by summing (16) over $k \leq n / 4$ that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(|C|<n / 2) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n / 4} \frac{1}{n-2 k+1} \leq \frac{n}{4} \times \frac{2}{n}=\frac{1}{2} .
$$

Hence, from (1) with $\varepsilon=4 / 5$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}(\neg(a)) \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Bin}\left(10 \log _{2} n, 1 / 2\right) \leq \log _{2} n\right) \leq 2 e^{-10 \log _{2} n / 3}=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

(b) It follows from (16) that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(|C| \leq n_{c}\right) \leq \frac{201}{\log n}
$$

If we generate cycle sizes as in (a) then up until there are fewer than $n_{b} / 2$ vertices left, $\log \nu \sim \log n$ where $\nu$ is the number of vertices that need to be partitioned into cycles. It follows that the probability we generate more than $k=\frac{\log \log \log n \times \log n}{1000 \log \log n}$ cycles of size at most $n_{c}$ up to this time is bounded by

$$
\begin{equation*}
O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)+\operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Bin}\left(10 \log _{2} n, \frac{201}{\log n}\right) \geq k\right) \leq O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)+\left(\frac{3000 e}{k}\right)^{k}=O\left(n^{-0.51}\right) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$, we have at most

$$
\frac{n_{b}}{2}+k n_{c} \leq n_{b}
$$

vertices on cycles of length at most $n_{b}$.

### 4.3 Phase 2: Increasing minimum cycle length

In this section, we will use the edges in

$$
E_{B}=\left\{e \in E_{t_{4}} \backslash E_{t_{3}}: e \cap V_{0}=\emptyset\right\}
$$

to create a 2 -factor that contains $M_{0}$ and in which each cycle has length at least $n_{c}$. Note that

$$
E_{B} \cap \Psi_{1}=\emptyset .
$$

Note also that
Lemma 9 Given $\Psi_{1}$ and $E_{t_{3}}, E_{B}$ is a uniformly random $\left|E_{B}\right|$-subset of $E_{3}=\binom{V_{1}}{2} \backslash\left(\Psi_{1} \cup E_{t_{3}}\right)$, where $V_{1}=[n] \backslash V_{0}$.

Proof This follows from the fact that if we remove any edge of $E_{B}$ and replace it with any other edge from $E_{3}$ then $V_{0}$ is unaffected.

We eliminate the small cycles (of length less than $n_{c}$ ) one by one (more or less). Let $C$ be a small cycle. We remove an edge $\left\{u_{0}, v_{0}\right\} \notin M_{0}$ of $C$. We then try to join $u_{0}, v_{0}$ by a sufficiently long $M_{1}$ alternating path $P$ that begins and ends with edges not in $M_{0}$. This is done in such a way that the resulting 2-factor contains $M_{0}$ but has at least one less small cycle. The search for $P$ is done in a breadth first manner from both ends, creating $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ paths that begin at $v_{0}$ and another $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ paths that end at $u_{0}$. We then argue that with sufficient probability, we can find a pair of paths that can be joined by an edge from $E_{B}$ to create the required alternating path.

We proceed to a detailed description. Let

$$
V_{\tau}=\left\{v \in[n] \backslash V_{0}: \operatorname{deg}_{E_{B}}(v) \leq L_{0}\right\}
$$

where for a set of edges $X$ and a vertex $x, \operatorname{deg}_{X}(x)$ is the number of edges in $X$ that are incident with $x$.

Lemma 10 The following hold with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ :
(a) $\left|V_{\tau}\right| \leq n^{2 / 5}$.
(b) No vertex has 10 or more $G_{t_{1}}$ neighbors in $V_{\tau}$.
(c) If $C$ is a cycle with $|C| \leq n_{c}$ then $\left|C \cap V_{\tau}\right| \leq|C| / 200$ in $G_{t_{1}}$.

## Proof

(a) Let $p=\frac{\left|E_{B}\right|}{\left|E_{3}\right|} \approx \frac{7 \log n}{n}$, assuming that $\left|V_{0}\right|=o(n)$. Suppose we replace $E_{B}$ by a subset $X \subseteq E_{3}$ with edges included independently with probability $p$. Fix a set $U \subseteq V_{1}=V \backslash V_{0}$ of size $\mu$. For $v \in U$, now let $d\left(v, V_{1} \backslash U\right)$ denote the number of edges in $X$ incident with $v$ and $V_{1} \backslash U$. Then, if $n_{1}=\left|V_{1}\right|=n-o(n)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(d\left(v, V_{1} \backslash U\right) \leq L_{0}, \forall v \in U\right) & =\left(\sum_{i=0}^{L_{0}}\binom{n_{1}}{i} p^{i}(1-p)^{n_{1}-i}\right)^{\mu} \\
& =\left(n^{-7 / 10+(\log 100) / 100+o(1)}\right)^{\mu}<n^{-13 \mu / 20}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, applying (5), we have with $\mu=n^{2 / 5}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|V_{\tau}\right| \geq \mu\right) \leq O\left(n^{1 / 2+o(1)}\right)\binom{n}{\mu} n^{-13 \mu / 20} \leq O\left(n^{1 / 2+o(1)}\right)\left(\frac{n e}{\mu} \cdot n^{-13 / 20}\right)^{\mu}=o\left(n^{-1}\right)
$$

(b) This time we can condition on $\nu=n-\left|V_{0}\right|$ and $\mu=\left|\left\{e \in E_{t_{4}} \backslash E_{t_{3}}: e \cap V_{0} \neq \emptyset\right\}\right| \leq n^{99 / 100} \times$ $10 \log n$. We write

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(v \text { violates }(\mathrm{b})) \leq \sum_{S \in\binom{[n-1]}{10}} \operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{A}(v, S)) \mathbf{P r}(\mathcal{B}(v, S) \mid \mathcal{A}(v, S))
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{A}(v, S)=\left\{N(v) \supseteq S, \text { in } G_{t_{1}}\right\}, \\
& \mathcal{B}(v, S)=\left\{w \text { has at most } L_{0} E_{B} \text {-neighbors in }[n] \backslash(S \cup\{v\}), \forall w \in S\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Applying (4) we see that $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{A}(v, S)) \leq 3 p_{1}^{10}$ and then using (4) with

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=\frac{t_{4}-t_{3}-\mu}{\binom{\nu}{2}} \sim \frac{7 \log n}{10 n} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

we see that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B}(v, S) \mid \mathcal{A}(v, S)) \leq 3\left(\sum_{k=0}^{L_{0}}\binom{\nu-11}{k} p^{k}(1-p)^{\nu-11-k}\right)^{10}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(v \text { violates }(\mathrm{b})) & \leq_{b}\binom{n}{10} p_{1}^{10}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{L_{0}}\binom{\nu-11}{k} p^{k}(1-p)^{\nu-11-k}\right)^{10} \\
& \leq\left(e^{o(1)} \log n \cdot n^{1 / 10-7 / 10+o(1)}\right)^{10} \\
& =o\left(n^{-5}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now use the Markov inequality.
(c) Let $Z$ denote the number of cycles violating the required property. Using (4) and $\nu$ as in (b) and $p$ as in (19), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}(Z) & \leq_{b} \sum_{k=3}^{n_{c}}\binom{n}{k} k!p_{1}^{k}\binom{k}{\left[\frac{k}{200}\right\rceil}\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{L_{0}}\binom{\nu-k}{\ell} p^{\ell}(1-p)^{\nu-\ell}\right)^{\lceil k / 200\rceil} \\
& \leq \sum_{k=3}^{n_{c}}(2 n)^{k}\left(\frac{\log n+2 \log \log n}{n-1}\right)^{k} n^{-3\lceil k / 200\rceil / 5} \\
& =O\left(n^{-0.51}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\mathcal{E}_{0}$ denote the intersection of the high probability events of Lemmas 3 and 10.

Lemma 11 Let $V_{1}=[n] \backslash V_{0}$ and let $\left|E_{B}\right|=\mu=\alpha n \log n, \alpha=O(1)$ and $\left|V_{1}\right|=\nu \geq n-n^{99 / 100}$.
(a) If $A \subseteq\binom{V_{1}}{2}$ with $|A|=a=o\left(n^{1 / 2}\right)$ and $X$ is a subset of $\binom{V_{1}}{2}$ with $|X|=O\left(n^{99 / 100} \log n\right)$ and $A \cap X=\emptyset$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{B} \supseteq A \mid \mathcal{E}_{0}, X \subseteq E_{B}\right) & =\frac{\binom{\binom{\nu}{2}-a-|X|}{\mu-a-|X|}}{\binom{\binom{\nu}{2}-|X|}{\mu-|X|}}  \tag{20}\\
& =(1+o(1))\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{a} . \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

(b) $A \subseteq\binom{V_{1}}{2}$ with $|A|=a=o\left(n^{2}\right)$ then

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{B} \cap A=\emptyset \mid \mathcal{E}_{0}\right) & =\frac{\left(\begin{array}{c}
\binom{\nu}{2}-a
\end{array}\right)}{\binom{\binom{\nu}{\mu}}{\mu}}  \tag{22}\\
& \leq \exp \left\{-\frac{a \mu}{\nu^{2}}\right\} . \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof (a) Equation (20) follows from Lemma 9. For equation (21), we write

$$
\frac{\binom{\binom{\nu}{2}-a-|X|}{\mu-a-|X|}}{\binom{\binom{\nu}{2}-|X|}{\mu-|X|}}=\left(\frac{\mu-|X|}{\binom{\nu}{2}-|X|}\right)^{a}\left(1+O\left(\frac{a^{2}}{\mu-|X|}\right)\right)=\left(\frac{\mu}{\binom{\nu}{2}}\right)^{a}\left(1+O\left(\frac{a^{2}}{\mu-|X|}\right)+O\left(\frac{a|X|}{\mu}\right)\right) .
$$

This follows from the fact that in general, if $s^{2}=o(N)$ then

$$
\frac{\binom{N-s}{M-s}}{\binom{N}{M}}=\left(\frac{M}{N}\right)^{s}\left(1+O\left(\frac{s^{2}}{M}\right)\right) .
$$

(b) Equation (22) follows as for (20), and (23) follows from

By construction, we can apply this lemma to the graph induced by $E_{B}$ with

$$
\alpha \approx \frac{t_{4}-t_{3}}{2 n \log n} \approx \frac{7}{20} .
$$

Let a cycle $C$ of $\Pi_{0}$ be small if its length $|C|<n_{c}$ and large otherwise. Define a near 2-factor to be a graph that is obtained from a 2 -factor by removing one edge. A near 2 -factor $\Gamma$ consists of a path $P(\Gamma)$ and a collection of vertex disjoint cycles. A 2-factor or a near 2-factor is proper if it contains $M_{0}$. We abbreviate proper near 2-factor to PN2F.

We will describe a process of eliminating small cycles. In this process we create intermediate proper 2 -factors. Let $\Gamma_{0}$ be a 2 -factor and suppose that it contains a small cycle $C$. To begin the elimination of $C$ we choose an arbitrary edge $\left\{u_{0}, v_{0}\right\}$ in $C \backslash M_{0}$, where $u_{0}, v_{0} \notin V_{\tau}$. This is always possible, since $M_{0} \cup M_{1}$ is the union of disjoint cycles of length at least three and because of Lemma $10(\mathrm{c})$. We delete it, obtaining a PN2F $\Gamma_{1}$. Here, $P\left(\Gamma_{1}\right) \in \mathcal{P}\left(v_{0}, u_{0}\right)$, the set of $M_{1}$-alternating paths in $G$ from $v_{0}$ to $u_{0}$. Here an $M_{1}$-alternating path must begin and end with an edge of $M_{1}$. The initial goal will be to create a large set of PN2Fs such that each $\Gamma$ in this set has path $P(\Gamma)$ of length at least $n_{c}$ and the small cycles of $\Gamma$ are a strict subset of the small cycles of $\Gamma_{0}$. Then we will show that with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$, the endpoints of one of the paths in some such $\Gamma$ can be joined by an edge to create a proper 2-factor with at least one fewer small cycle than $\Gamma_{0}$.

This process can be divided into two stages. In a generic step of Stage 1, we take a PN2F $\Gamma$ as above with $P(\Gamma) \in \mathcal{P}\left(u_{0}, v\right)$ and construct a new PN2F with the same starting point $u_{0}$ for its path. We do this by considering edges from $E_{B}$ incident to $v$. Suppose $\{v, w\} \in E_{B}$ and that the non- $M_{0}$ edge in $\Gamma$ containing vertex $w$ is $\{w, x\}$. Then $\Gamma^{\prime}=\Gamma \cup\{v, w\} \backslash\{w, x\}$ is a PN2F with $P\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \in \mathcal{P}\left(u_{0}, x\right)$. We say that $\{v, w\}$ is acceptable if
(i) $x, w \notin W$ ( $W$ defined immediately below).
(ii) $P\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ has length at least $n_{c}$ and any new cycle created (in $\Gamma^{\prime}$ but not $\Gamma$ ) has at least $n_{c}$ edges.

There is an unlikely technicality to be faced. If $\Gamma$ has no non- $M_{0}$ edge $(x, w)$, then $w=u_{0}$ and this is accepted if $P\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ has at least $n_{c}$ edges and it ends the round. When $P\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ has fewer edges we lose one out of $L_{0}=\Omega(\log n)$ possible branching choices and this is inconsequential. It is also unlikely, having probability $O\left(\left|E_{B}\right| /\binom{n}{2}\right)=O(\log n / n)$. We refer to this as event $\mathcal{C}$ and we remark on it in the proof of Lemma 12 below.

In addition we define a set $W$ of used vertices, where

$$
W=V_{\tau} \text { at the beginning of Phase } 2,
$$

and whenever we look at edges $\{v, w\},\{w, x\}$ (that is, consider using that edge to create a new $\Gamma^{\prime}$ ), we add $v, w, x$ to $W$. Additionally, we maintain $|W|=O\left(n^{99 / 100}\right)$, or fail if we cannot. Note also that $W$ accumulates as we remove short cycles.

We will build a tree $T$ of PN2Fs, breadth-first, where each non-leaf vertex $\Gamma$ yields PN2F children $\Gamma^{\prime}$ as above. When we stop building $T$ we will have $\nu_{L}=n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ leaves, see (24). This will end Stage 1 for the current cycle $C$ being removed.

We will restrict the set of PN2F's which could be children of $\Gamma$ in $T$ as follows: We restrict our attention to $w \notin W$ with $\{v, w\} \in E_{B}$ and $\{v, w\}$ acceptable as defined above. Also, we only construct children from the first $\ell_{0}=L_{0} / 2$ acceptable $\{v, w\}$ 's at a vertex $v$. Furthermore we only build the tree down to $\ell_{1}=\frac{2 \log n}{3 \log \log n}$ levels. We denote the nodes in the $i$ th level of the tree by $S_{i}$. Thus $S_{0}=\left\{\Gamma_{1}\right\}$ and $S_{i+1}$ consists of the PN2F's that are obtained from $S_{i}$ using acceptable edges. In this way we define a tree of PN2F's with root $\Gamma_{1}$ that has branching factor at most $\ell_{0}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|S_{\ell_{1}}\right| \leq \nu_{L}=\ell_{0}^{\ell_{1}} . \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now augment $\mathcal{E}_{0}$ with the properties claimed in Lemma 8. Then,
Lemma 12 Conditional on the event $\mathcal{E}_{0}$,

$$
\left|S_{\ell_{1}}\right|=\nu_{L}
$$

with probability $1-o\left(n^{-3}\right)$.
Proof If $P(\Gamma)$ has endpoints $u_{0}, v$ and $e=\{v, w\} \in E_{B}$ and $e$ is unacceptable then (i) $w$ lies on $P(\Gamma)$ and is within distance $n_{c}$ of an endpoint or (ii) $x \in W$ or $w \in W$ or (iii) $w$ lies on a small cycle or (iv) $w \in V_{\tau}$. Ab initio, there are at least $L_{0}$ choices for $w$ and we must bound the number of unacceptable choices.

The probability that at least $L_{0} / 10$ vertices are unacceptable due to (iii) is by Lemmas 8 and 11(a) at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(1+o(1))\binom{n_{b}}{L_{0} / 10}\left(\frac{7 \log n}{(10+o(1)) n}\right)^{L_{0} / 10} \leq\left(\frac{9 e n_{b} \log n}{L_{0} n}\right)^{L_{0} / 10} \\
& \leq\left(\frac{900 e \log \log \log n}{\log \log n}\right)^{L_{0} / 10}=O\left(n^{-K}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for any constant $K>0$. In our application of Lemma $11, X$ is the set of $E_{B}$-edges incident with $W$ and $A$ is a possible set of $E_{B}$-edges incident with $v$.

A similar argument deals with conditions (i) and (ii). Lemma 10(b) means that (iv) only requires us to subtract 10 .

Thus, with (conditional) probability $1-o\left(n^{-4}\right)$,
each vertex of $T$ is incident with at least $\frac{\log n}{100}-\frac{3 \log n}{1000}-10-1$ acceptable edges

$$
\text { and so }\left|S_{t+1}\right| \geq \frac{\log n}{200}\left|S_{t}\right| \text {, }
$$

for all $t$. (The -1 accounts for the possible occurrence of the event $\mathcal{C}$ ). So with (conditional) probability $1-o\left(n^{-3}\right)$ we have

$$
\left|S_{\ell_{1}}\right|=\nu_{L}
$$

as desired. (This assumes that $|W|$ remains $O\left(n^{99 / 100}\right)$, see Remark 13 below.)

Having built $T$, if we have not already made a cycle, we have a tree of PN2Fs and the last level, $\ell_{1}$ has leaves $\Gamma_{i}, i=1, \ldots, \nu_{L}$, each with a path $P\left(\Gamma_{i}\right)$ of length at least $n_{c}$. (Recall the definition of an acceptable edge.) Now, perform a second stage which will be like executing $\nu_{L}$-many Stage 1 's in parallel by constructing trees $T_{i}, i=1, \ldots, \nu_{L}$ each of depth $\ell_{1}$, where the root of $T_{i}$ is $\Gamma_{i}$. Suppose for each $i, P\left(\Gamma_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{P}\left(u_{0}, v_{i}\right)$; we fix the vertex $v_{i}$ and build paths by first looking at neighbors of $u_{0}$, for all $i$ (so in tree $T_{i}$, every $\Gamma$ will have path $P(\Gamma) \in \mathcal{P}\left(u, v_{i}\right)$ for some $u$ ).

Construct these $\nu_{L}$ trees in Stage 2 by only enforcing the conditions that $x, w \notin W$. This change will allow the PN2Fs to have small paths and cycles. We will not impose a bound on the branching factor either. As a result of this and the fact that each tree $T_{i}$ begins by considering edges from $E_{B}$ incident to $u_{0}$, the sets of endpoints of paths (that are not the $v_{i} s$ ) of PN2Fs at the same level are the same in each of the trees $T_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, \nu_{L}$. That is, for every pair $1 \leq i<j \leq \nu_{L}$, if $\Gamma_{i}$ is a node at level $\ell$ of tree $T_{i}$ and $P\left(\Gamma_{i}\right) \in \mathcal{P}\left(w, v_{i}\right)$ for some $w \notin V_{\tau}$ then there exists a node $\Gamma_{j}$ at level $\ell$ of tree $T_{j}$, such that $P\left(\Gamma_{j}\right) \in \mathcal{P}\left(w, v_{j}\right)$. This can be proved by induction, see [5]. Indeed, let $L_{i, \ell}$ denote the set of end vertices, other than $v_{i}$, of the paths associated with the nodes at depth $\ell$ of the tree $T_{i}, i=1,2 \ldots, \nu_{L}, \ell=0,1, \ldots, \ell_{1}$. Thus $L_{i, 0}=\left\{u_{0}\right\}$ for all $i$. We can see inductively that $L_{i, \ell}=L_{j, \ell}$ for all $i, j, \ell$. In fact if $v \in L_{i, \ell}=L_{j, \ell}$ then $\{v, w\} \in E_{B}$ is acceptable for some $i$ means that $w \notin W$ (at the start of the construction of level $\ell+1$ ) and hence if $\{w, x\}$ is the non- $M_{0}$ edge for this $i$ then $x \notin W$ and it is the non- $M_{0}$ edge for all $j$. In which case $\{v, w\}$ is acceptable for all $i$ and we have $L_{i, \ell+1}=L_{1, \ell+1}$.

The set of trees $T_{i}, i=1, \ldots, \nu_{L}$, will be succesfully constructed (i.e. have exactly $\nu_{L}$ leaves) with probability $1-o\left(1 / n^{3}\right)$ and with a similar probability the number of nodes in each tree is at most $(100 \log n)^{\ell_{1}}=n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$. Here we use the fact that the maximum degree in $G_{t_{1}} \leq 100 \log n$ with this probability, see (9). However, some of the trees may use unacceptable edges, and so we will "prune" the trees by disallowing any node $\Gamma$ that was constructed in violation of any of those conditions. Call tree $T_{i}$ GOOD if it still has at least $\nu_{L}$ leaves remaining after pruning and BAD otherwise. Notice that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\exists i: T_{i} \text { is } \mathrm{BAD} \mid \mathcal{E}_{0}\right)=o\left(\frac{\nu_{L}}{n^{3}}\right)=o\left(n^{-2}\right) .
$$

Here the $o\left(1 / n^{3}\right)$ factor is the one promised in Lemma 12.
Finally, consider the probability that there is no $E_{B}$ edge from any of the $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ endpoints found in Stage 1 to any of the $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ endpoints found in Stage 2. At this point we will have only exposed the $E_{B}$-edges of $\Pi_{0}$ incident with these endpoints. So if for some $k \leq \nu_{L}$ we examine the (at least) $\log n / 100$ edges incident to $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$, then from Lemma $11(\mathrm{~b})$, with $X$ equal to the $E_{B}$-edges incident with $W$ and $A$ equal to the set of pairs $\left(v_{i}, w\right), i \leq k$ where $w$ is a leaf of some $T_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq \nu_{L}$, we see that the probability we fail to close a cycle and produce a proper 2-factor is at most

$$
\exp \left\{-\frac{k \times n^{2 / 3+o(1)} n \log n}{\binom{\nu}{2}}\right\}
$$

Thus taking $k=n^{1 / 3+o(1)}$ suffices to make the failure probability $o\left(n^{-2}\right)$. (If we have $n^{\gamma}$ endpoints here, then we need $k$ to be $\omega\left(n^{1-\gamma}\right)$.) Also, this final part of the construction only contributes $n^{1 / 3+o(1)}$ to $W$, viz. $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ and $O(k \log n)$ of their neighbors. Our choice of $k=n^{1 / 3+o(1)}$ and $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ for tree size makes this probability small and controls the size of $W$. There are other choices, this is just one of them.

Therefore, the probability that we fail to eliminate a particular small cycle $C$ is $o\left(n^{-2}\right)$ and then given $\mathcal{E}_{0}$, the probability that Phase 2 fails is $o\left(\log n / n^{2}\right)=o(1)$.

Remark 13 We should check now that w.h.p. $|W|=O\left(n^{99 / 100}\right)$ throughout Phase 2. It starts out with at most $n^{99 / 100}+n^{2 / 5}$ vertices (see Lemmas 3(a) and 10(a)) and we add $O\left(n^{2 / 3+o(1)} \times \log n\right)$ vertices altogether in this phase.

So we conclude:

Lemma 14 The probability that Phase 2 fails to produce a proper 2-factor with minimum cycle length at least $n_{c}$ is $O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$.

### 4.4 Phase 3: Creating a Hamilton cycle

By the end of Phase 2, we will with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ have found a proper 2 -factor with all cycles of length at least $n_{c}$. Call this subgraph $\Pi^{*}$.

In this section, we will use the edges in

$$
E_{C}=\left\{e \in E_{t_{0}} \backslash\left(E_{t_{4}} \cup E\left(\Psi_{1}\right)\right): e \cap V_{0}=\emptyset\right\}
$$

to turn $\Pi^{*}$ into a Hamilton cycle that contains $M_{0}$, w.h.p. It is basically a second moment calculation with a twist to keep the variance under control. We note that Lemma 11 continues to hold if we replace $E_{B}$ by $E_{C}$ and $\alpha$ by $\frac{1}{20}+o(1)$.

Arbitrarily assign an orientation to each cycle. Let $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$ be the cycles of $\Pi^{*}$ (note that if $k=1$ we are done) and let $c_{i}=\left\lceil\left|C_{i} \backslash W\right| / 2\right\rceil$. Then $c_{i} \geq \frac{n_{c}}{2}-O\left(n^{99 / 100}\right) \geq \frac{99 n}{\log n}$ for all $i$. Let $a=\frac{n}{\log n}$ and
$m_{i}=2\left\lfloor\frac{c_{i}}{a}\right\rfloor+1$ for all $i$ and $m=\sum_{i=1}^{k} m_{i}$. We arbitrarily orient the cycles $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}$. Then from each $C_{i}$, we will consider choosing $m_{i}$ edges $\{v, w\}$ such that $v, w \in C_{i} \backslash W$ and $v$ is the head of a non $-M_{0}$ arcs after the arbitrary orientation of the cycles. We then delete these $m$ arcs and replace them with $m$ others to create a proper Hamilton cycle. We use a second moment calculation to show that such a substitution is possible w..h.p.

Given such a deletion of edges, re-label the broken arcs as $\left(v_{j}, u_{j}\right), j \in[m]$ as follows: in cycle $C_{i}$ identify the lowest numbered vertex $x_{i} \in[n]$ which loses a cycle edge directed out of it. Put $v_{1}=x_{1}$ and then go round $C_{1}$ defining $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots v_{m_{1}}$ in order. Then let $v_{m_{1}+1}=x_{2}$ and so on. We thus have $m$ path sections $P_{j} \in \mathcal{P}\left(u_{\phi(j)}, v_{j}\right)$ in $\Pi^{*}$ for some permutation $\phi$.

It is our intention to rejoin these path sections of $\Pi^{*}$ to make a Hamilton cycle using $E_{C}$, if we can. Suppose we can. This defines a permutation $\rho$ on $[m]$ where $\rho(i)=j$ if $P_{i}$ is joined to $P_{j}$ by $\left(v_{i}, u_{\phi(j)}\right)$, where $\rho \in H_{m}$, the set of cyclic permutations on $[m]$. We will use the second moment method to show that a suitable $\rho$ exists w.h.p. A technical problem forces a restriction on our choices for $\rho$. This will produce a variance reduction in a second moment calculation, as explained in (27).

Given $\rho$ define $\lambda=\phi \rho$. In our analysis we will restrict our attention to $\rho \in R_{\phi}=\left\{\rho \in H_{m}: \phi \rho \in\right.$ $\left.H_{m}\right\}$. If $\rho \in R_{\phi}$ then we have not only constructed a Hamilton cycle in $\Pi^{*} \cup E_{C}$, but also in the auxiliary digraph $\Lambda$, whose edges are $(i, \lambda(i))$.

The following lemma is from [6]. The content is in the lower bound. It shows that there are still many choices for $\rho$ and it is needed to show that the expected number of possible re-arrangements of path sections grows with $n$.

Lemma $15(m-2)!\leq\left|R_{\phi}\right| \leq(m-1)$ !

Let $H$ be the graph induced by the union of $\Pi^{*}$ and $E_{C}$. In the following lemma we drop the requirement that events occur with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$. This requirement was used to handle issues related to $M_{0}$ and the edges chosen. At this point these issues no longer matter and w.h.p. takes its usual meaning.

Lemma $16 H$ contains a Hamilton cycle w.h.p.

Proof Let $X$ be the number of Hamilton cycles in $G$ that can be obtained by removing the edges described above and rearranging the path segments generated by $\phi$ according to those in $\rho \in R_{\phi}$ and connecting the path segments using edges in $H$.

We will use the inequality $\operatorname{Pr}(X>0) \geq \frac{\mathbb{E}(X)^{2}}{\mathbb{E}\left(X^{2}\right)}$ to show that such a Hamilton cycle exists with the required probability.

The definition of $m_{i}$ gives us $\frac{n-|W|}{a}-k \leq m \leq \frac{n-|W|}{a}+k$ and so $1.99 \log n \leq m \leq 2.01 \log n$. Additionally we will use $k \leq \frac{n}{n_{c}}=\frac{\log n}{200}, m_{i} \geq 199$ and $\frac{c_{i}}{m_{i}} \geq \frac{a}{2.01}$ for all $i$.

From Lemmas 11 and 15, we have, with $\alpha=1 / 20+o(1)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}(X) & \geq(1-o(1))\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m}(m-2)!\prod_{i=1}^{k}\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}  \tag{25}\\
& \geq \frac{1-o(1)}{m^{3 / 2}}\left(\frac{2 m \alpha \log n}{e n}\right)^{m} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(\left(\frac{c_{i} e^{1-1 / 10 m_{i}}}{m_{i}^{1+\left(1 / 2 m_{i}\right)}}\right)^{m_{i}}\left(\frac{1-2 m_{i}^{2} / c_{i}}{\sqrt{2 \pi}}\right)\right)  \tag{26}\\
& =\frac{(1-o(1)) e^{-k / 10}(2 \pi)^{-k / 2}}{m^{3 / 2}}\left(\frac{2 m \alpha \log n}{e n}\right)^{m} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(\frac{c_{i} e}{m_{i}^{1+\left(1 / 2 m_{i}\right)}}\right)^{m_{i}}
\end{align*}
$$

where to go from (25) to (26) we have used the approximation $(m-2)!\geq m^{-3 / 2}(m / e)^{m}$ and

$$
\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}} \geq \frac{c_{i}^{m_{i}}\left(1-2 m_{i}^{2} / c_{i}\right)}{m_{i}!} \text { and } m_{i}!\leq \sqrt{2 \pi m_{i}}\left(\frac{m_{i}}{e}\right)^{m_{i}} e^{1 / 10 m_{i}} .
$$

Explanation of (25): We choose the arcs to delete in $\prod_{i=1}^{k}\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}$ ways and put them together as explained prior to Lemma 15 in at least $(m-2)$ ! ways. The probability that the required edges exist in $E_{C}$ is $(1+o(1))\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m}$, from Lemma 11.

Continuing, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}(X) & \geq \frac{(1-o(1))(2 \pi)^{-k / 2} e^{-k / 10}}{m^{3 / 2}}\left(\frac{2 m \alpha \log n}{e n}\right)^{m} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(\frac{c_{i} e}{(1.02) m_{i}}\right)^{m_{i}} \\
& \geq \frac{(1-o(1))(2 \pi)^{-k / 2}}{n^{1 / 2000} m^{3 / 2}}\left(\frac{2 m \alpha \log n}{e n}\right)^{m}\left(\frac{e a}{2.01 \times 1.02}\right)^{m} \\
& \geq \frac{1-o(1)}{n^{1 / 1000} m^{3 / 2}}\left(\frac{\log n}{30}\right)^{m} \\
& \rightarrow \infty .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $M, M^{\prime}$ be two sets of selected edges which have been deleted in $\Pi^{*}$ and whose path sections have been re-arranged into Hamilton cycles according to $\rho, \rho^{\prime}$ respectively. Let $N, N^{\prime}$ be the corresponding sets of edges which have been added to make the Hamilton cycles. Let $\Omega$ denote the set of choices for $M$ (and $M^{\prime}$.)

Let $s=\left|M \cap M^{\prime}\right|$ and $t=\left|N \cap N^{\prime}\right|$. Now $t \leq s$ since if $(v, u) \in N \cap N^{\prime}$ then there must be a unique $(\tilde{v}, u) \in M \cap M^{\prime}$ which is the unique $\Pi^{*}$-edge into $u$. It is shown in [6] that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t=s \text { implies } t=s=m \text { and }(M, \rho)=\left(M^{\prime}, \rho^{\prime}\right) . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

(This removes a large term from the second moment calculation). Indeed, suppose then that $t=s$ and $\left(v_{i}, u_{i}\right) \in M \cap M^{\prime}$. Now the edge $\left(v_{i}, u_{\lambda(i)}\right) \in N$ and since $t=s$ this edge must also be in $N^{\prime}$. But this implies that $\left(v_{\lambda(i)}, u_{\lambda(i)}\right) \in M^{\prime}$ and hence in $M \cap M^{\prime}$. Repeating the argument we see that $\left(v_{\lambda^{k}(i)}, u_{\lambda^{k}(i)}\right) \in M \cap M^{\prime}$ for all $k \geq 0$. But $\lambda$ is cyclic and so our claim follows.

If $\langle s, t\rangle$ denotes the case where $s=\left|M \cap M^{\prime}\right|$ and $t=\left|N \cap N^{\prime}\right|$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left(X^{2}\right) & \leq \mathbb{E}(X)+(1+o(1)) \sum_{M \in \Omega}\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m} \sum_{\substack{M^{\prime} \in \Omega \\
N^{\prime} \cap N=\emptyset}}\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m} \\
& +(1+o(1)) \sum_{M \in \Omega}\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m} \sum_{s=2}^{m} \sum_{t=1}^{s-1} \sum_{\substack{M^{\prime} \in \Omega \\
\langle s, t\rangle}}\left(\frac{2 \alpha \log n}{n}\right)^{m-t} \\
& =\mathbb{E}(X)+E_{1}+E_{2} \text { say. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $E_{1} \leq(1+o(1)) \mathbb{E}(X)^{2}$.
Now, with $\sigma_{i}$ denoting the number of common $M \cap M^{\prime}$ edges selected from $C_{i}$,

$$
E_{2} \leq E(X)^{2} \sum_{s=2}^{m} \sum_{t=1}^{s-1}\binom{s}{t}\left[\sum_{\sigma_{1}+\ldots+\sigma_{k}=s} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\binom{m_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}\binom{c_{i}-m_{i}}{m_{i}-\sigma_{i}}}{\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}}\right] \frac{(m-t-1)!}{(m-2)!}\left(\frac{n}{2 \alpha \log n}\right)^{t}
$$

Some explanation: There are $\binom{s}{t}$ choices for $N \cap N^{\prime}$, given $s$ and $t$. Given $\sigma_{i}$ there are ( $\binom{m_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}$ ways to choose $M \cap M^{\prime}$ and $\binom{c_{i}-m_{i}}{m_{i}-\sigma_{i}}$ ways to choose the rest of $M^{\prime} \cap C_{i}$. After deleting $M^{\prime}$ and adding $N \cap N^{\prime}$ there are at most $(m-t-1)$ ! ways of putting the segments together to make a Hamilton cycle.

We see that

$$
\frac{\binom{c_{i}-m_{i}}{m_{i}-\sigma_{i}}}{\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}} \leq \frac{\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}-\sigma_{i}}}{\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}}=\frac{m_{i}\left(m_{i}-1\right) \cdots\left(m_{i}-\sigma_{i}+1\right)}{\left(c_{i}-m_{i}+1\right) \cdots\left(c_{i}-m_{i}+\sigma_{i}\right)} \leq(1+o(1))\left(\frac{2.01}{a}\right)^{\sigma_{i}} \exp \left\{-\frac{\sigma_{i}\left(\sigma_{i}-1\right)}{2 m_{i}}\right\}
$$

Also, Jensen's inequality, applied twice implies that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma_{i}^{2}}{2 m_{i}}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_{i}^{2}\right) \cdot\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sigma_{i}^{2}} \frac{1}{2 m_{i}}\right) \geq \frac{s^{2}}{k} \cdot \frac{k}{2 m}=\frac{s^{2}}{2 m} \text { for } \sigma_{1}+\ldots+\sigma_{k}=s
$$

Furthermore,

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma_{i}}{2 m_{i}} \leq \frac{k}{2} \text { and } \sum_{\sigma_{1}+\ldots+\sigma_{k}=s} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\binom{m_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}=\binom{m}{s}
$$

Using these approximations, we have

$$
\sum_{\sigma_{1}+\ldots+\sigma_{k}=s} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\binom{m_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}\binom{c_{i}-m_{i}}{m_{i}-\sigma_{i}}}{\binom{c_{i}}{m_{i}}} \leq e^{(1+o(1)) k / 2} \exp \left\{-\frac{s^{2}}{2 m}\right\}\left(\frac{2.01}{a}\right)^{s}\binom{m}{s}
$$

So we can write

$$
\frac{E_{2}}{\mathbb{E}(X)^{2}} \leq e^{(1+o(1)) k / 2} \sum_{s=2}^{m} \sum_{t=1}^{s-1}\binom{s}{t} \exp \left\{-\frac{s^{2}}{2 m}\right\}\left(\frac{2.01}{a}\right)^{s}\binom{m}{s} \frac{(m-t-1)!}{(m-2)!}\left(\frac{n}{2 \alpha \log n}\right)^{t}
$$

We approximate

$$
\binom{m}{s} \frac{(m-t-1)!}{(m-2)!} \leq C_{1} \frac{m^{s}}{s!}\left(\frac{m-t-1}{e}\right)^{m-t-1}\left(\frac{e}{m-2}\right)^{m-2} \leq C_{2} \frac{m^{s}}{s!} \frac{e^{t}}{m^{t-1}}
$$

for some constants $C_{1}, C_{2}>0$.
Substituting this in, we obtain,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{E_{2}}{\mathbb{E}(X)^{2}} & \leq_{b} n^{1 / 399} m \sum_{s=2}^{m}\left(\frac{2.01}{a}\right)^{s} \frac{m^{s}}{s!} \exp \left\{-\frac{s^{2}}{2 m}\right\} \sum_{t=1}^{s-1}\binom{s}{t}\left(\frac{e n}{2 \alpha m \log n}\right)^{t} \\
& \leq n^{1 / 399} m \sum_{s=2}^{m}\left(\frac{2.01}{a}\right)^{s} \frac{m^{s}}{s!} \exp \left\{-\frac{s^{2}}{2 m}\right\} \times 2 m\left(\frac{e n}{2 \alpha m \log n}\right)^{s-1} \\
& \leq b \frac{m^{2}}{n^{\cdot 99}} \sum_{s=2}^{\infty}\left(\frac{(2.01) e n \exp \{-s / 2 m\}}{2 \alpha a \log n}\right)^{s} \frac{1}{s!} \\
& \leq \frac{m^{2}}{n^{2} \cdot 99} \sum_{s=2}^{\infty} \frac{30^{s}}{s!} \\
& =O\left(n^{-9 / 10}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Combining things, we get

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(X^{2}\right) \leq \mathbb{E}(X)+\mathbb{E}(X)^{2}(1+o(1))+\mathbb{E}(X)^{2} n^{-9 / 10}
$$

and so

$$
\frac{(\mathbb{E} X)^{2}}{\mathbb{E}\left(X^{2}\right)} \geq \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\mathbb{E} X}+1+o(1)+n^{-9 / 10}} \longrightarrow 1
$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, as desired.

Remark 17 We now consider the case where we are given $M_{0}$ and we must choose edges disjoint from $M_{0}$.
(a) If we choose $t_{1}$ edges independently of $M_{0}$ then the probability they are disjoint from $M_{0}$ is, where $N=\binom{n}{2}$,

$$
\frac{\binom{N-n / 2}{t_{1}}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}}=\prod_{i=0}^{t_{1}-1}\left(1-\frac{n}{2(N-i)}\right) \geq \exp \left\{-\sum_{i=0}^{t_{1}-1} \frac{n}{2(N-i)}+O\left(\frac{t_{1} n^{2}}{N^{2}}\right)\right\}=n^{-1 / 2+o(1)}
$$

(b) We have shown that if we generate $t_{1}$ edges independent of $M_{0}$ then conditional on $t_{0} \leq \tau_{1} \leq t_{1}$ we have that with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ there is a perfect matching in $E_{\tau_{1}} \backslash M_{0}$.
(c) If we only choose from edges not in $M_{0}$ then the distribution of the edges we choose is the same as simply conditioning on $E_{t_{1}} \cap M_{0}=\emptyset$.

It follows from (a),(b),(c) that if we avoid $M_{0}$ then we will still w.h.p. find a perfect matching $M_{1}$. Indeed, letting $\mathcal{A}=\left\{M_{1}\right.$ exists $\}, \mathcal{B}=\left\{E_{t_{1}} \cap M_{0}=\emptyset\right\}$ andn $\mathcal{T}=\left\{t_{0} \leq \tau_{1} \leq t_{1}\right\}$ as before, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mid \mathcal{B})=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{B} \mathcal{T})}{\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B})}+\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{B} \overline{\mathcal{T}})}{\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B})} \leq \frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mid \mathcal{T})}{\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B}) \operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{T})}+\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{T}} \mid \mathcal{B}) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mid \mathcal{T})}{\operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{B}) \operatorname{Pr}(\mathcal{T})}=\frac{O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)}{\Omega\left(n^{-0.5+o(1)}\right)(1-o(1))}=o(1)
$$

and this deals with the first term on the RHS of (28).
For the second term on the RHS of (28) we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{T}} \mid \mathcal{B}) \leq n \frac{\binom{\binom{n}{2}-\frac{1}{2} n-(n-2)}{t_{1}}}{\binom{\binom{n}{2}-\frac{1}{2} n}{t_{1}}} \leq n\left(1-\frac{n-2}{\binom{n}{2}-\frac{1}{2} n}\right)^{t_{1}}=o(1) .
$$

It follows that $\operatorname{Pr}(\overline{\mathcal{A}} \mid \mathcal{B})=o(1)$. The remainder of the proof that there is a Hamilton cycle containing $M_{0}$ goes through with minor changes that reflect the fact that we do not choose edges of $M_{0}$.

### 4.5 Proof of Corollary 2

We begin the proof by replacing the sequence $E_{0}, E_{1}, \ldots, E_{m}, \ldots$ by $E_{0}^{\prime}, E_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, E_{m}^{\prime}, \ldots$, where the edges of $E_{m}^{\prime}=\left\{e_{1}^{\prime}, e_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{m}^{\prime}\right\}$ are randomly chosen with replacement. This means in particular that $e_{m}$ is allowed to be a member of $E_{m-1}^{\prime}$. We let $G_{m}^{\prime}$ be the graph ( $\left.[n], E_{m}^{\prime}\right)$.
If an edge appears a second time, it will keep its original color. We let $R$ denote the set of edges that get repeated, up to time $\tau_{1,1}$. Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 t_{0} \leq \tau_{1,1} \leq 2 t_{1} \text { w.h.p. } \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

since the Chernoff bounds imply that w.h.p. we there at most $t_{0}+O\left(n^{1 / 2} \log n\right)$ edges of each color at time $t_{0}$ and at least $t_{1}-O\left(n^{1 / 2} \log n\right)$ edges of each color at time $t_{1}$. Note that if $e_{\tau_{1,1}}=\{v, w\} \in R$ then $v$ or $w$ is isolated in $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}^{(b)}$ or $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}^{(w)}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(e_{\tau_{1,1}} \in R\right) \leq 4 \operatorname{Pr}\left(\exists e=\{v, w\} \in R: v \text { has black degree } 1 \text { at time } \tau_{1,1}\right)=o(1) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Explanation: The factor 4 comes from $v$ or $w$ having black or white degree one at time $\tau_{1,1}$. Next suppose first that $e_{\tau_{1,1}}=\{v, w\}$ and that $v$ has black degree zero in $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}$ and $w$ also has black degree zero in $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}$. Now w.h.p. there is no white edge joining $v$ and $w$ and so $e_{\tau_{1,1}} \notin R$. Indeed, the probability of this event can be bounded by

$$
o(1)+\sum_{t=2 t_{0}}^{2 t_{1}}\binom{n}{2} \frac{1}{\binom{n}{2}}\left(\left(1-\frac{n-1}{2\binom{n}{2}}\right)^{t}\left(1-\frac{n-1}{2\binom{n}{2}}\right)^{t-1}\right) \leq o(1)+2 t_{1}\left(\frac{\log ^{2} n}{n}\right)^{2}=o(1) .
$$

The $o(1)$ accounts for $\tau_{1,1}$ not being in the interval [ $\left.2 t_{0}, 2 t_{1}\right]$. The factor $\binom{n}{2}$ accounts for the choice of $v, w$. The factor $1 /\binom{n}{2}$ is the probability that the $t$ th edge is $\{v, w\}$ and the final product accounts the black degree of both $u, v$ being zero.

Now suppose that $e_{\tau_{1,1}}=\{v, w\}$ and that $v$ has black degree zero in $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}$ and $w$ has positive black degree in $G_{\tau_{1,1}-1}$. An argument similar to that given for Lemma $3(\mathrm{~g})$ shows that w.h.p. the maximum white degree in $G_{2 t_{1}}^{\prime}$ is $O(\log n)$. There are $n-1$ choices for $w$, of which $O(\log n)$ put $e_{\tau_{1,1}}$ into $R$. So $e_{\tau_{1,1}}$ has an $O(\log n / n)$ chance of being in $R$. This verifies (30).

At time $m=\tau_{1,1}$ the graphs $G_{m}^{(b)^{\prime}}, G_{m}^{(w)^{\prime}}$ will w.h.p. contain perfect matchings, see [9]. That paper does not allow repeated edges, but removing them enables one to use the result claimed. Here we use the fact that w.h.p. there are only $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ repeated edges, (as explained below), they are far apart, and are not incident to any low degree vertices. Thus any argument based on expansion goes through without difficulty. We choose perfect matchings $M_{B}, M_{W}$ uniformly at random from $G_{\tau_{1,1}}^{(b)^{\prime}}, G_{\tau_{1,1}}^{(w)^{\prime}}$ respectively. Thus by symmetry, each is a random perfect matching disjoint from its oppositely colored perfect matching.

We couple the sequence $G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots$, with the sequence $G_{1}^{\prime}, G_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots$, by ignoring repeated edges in the latter. Thus $G_{1}^{\prime}, G_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, G_{m}^{\prime}$ is coupled with a sequence $G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots, G_{m^{\prime}}$ where $m^{\prime} \leq m$. It follows from (30) that w.h.p. the coupled processes stop with the same edge. Furthermore, they stop with two matchings $M_{B}, M_{W}$, independently chosen. We can then begin analysing Phase 2 and Phase 3 within this context.

We will prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(M_{B} \cap R=\emptyset\right) \geq n^{-1 / 2-o(1)} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 2 follows from this. If $M_{B} \cap R=\emptyset$ then the white edges are chosen conditional on being disjoint from $M_{B}$. It follows from (31) and the fact that Phases 1 and 2 succeed with probability $1-O\left(n^{-0.51}\right)$ (i.e. when ignoring the conditioning, $\left.M_{B} \cap R=\emptyset\right)$ that they succeed w.h.p. conditional on $M_{B} \cap R=\emptyset$.

Phase 3 succeeds w.h.p. even if we avoid using edges in $R$. We have already carried out calculations with an arbitrary set of $O\left(n^{99 / 100} \log n\right)$ edges that must be avoided. The size of $R$ is dominated by a binomial $\operatorname{Bin}\left(O(n \log n), O\left(n^{-1} \log n\right)\right)$ and so $|R|=O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ w.h.p. So avoiding $R$ does not change any calculation in any significant way. In other words, we can w.h.p. find a zebraic Hamilton cycle in $G_{m}^{\prime}$.

Finally note that the Hamilton cycle we obtain is zebraic.
Proof of (31): $R$ is a uniformly random set, given its size and it is independent of $M_{B}$. Indeed, we can repeat edges arbitrarily without changing $M_{B}$. Let $t_{B}$ be the number of black edges, then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(M_{B} \cap R=\emptyset \mid t_{B}\right) \geq\left(1-\frac{n / 2}{N}\right)^{t_{B}} \geq \exp \left\{-t_{B}\left(\frac{1}{n}+O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2}}\right)\right)\right\}
$$

Explanation of first inequality: Each choice of black edge has at most an $\frac{n / 2}{N}$ chance of repeating an edge of $M_{B}$, regardless of previously seen edges.

To remove the conditioning, we take expectations and then by convexity

$$
\mathbf{E}\left(\exp \left\{-t_{B}\left(\frac{1}{n}+O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2}}\right)\right)\right\}\right) \geq \exp \left\{-\mathbf{E}\left(t_{B}\right)\left(\frac{1}{n}+O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2}}\right)\right)\right\} \geq n^{-1 / 2-o(1)}
$$

since $\mathbf{E}\left(t_{B}\right) \sim \frac{1}{2} n \log n$. This proves (31).

## 5 Proof of Theorem 2

For a vertex $v \in[n]$ we let its black degree $d_{b}(v)$ be the number of black edges incident with $v$ in $G_{t_{0}}$. We define its white degree $d_{w}(v)$ analogously. Let a vertex be large if $d_{b}(v), d_{w}(v) \geq L_{0}$ and small otherwise.

We first show how to construct zebraic paths between a pair $x, y$ of large vertices. We can in fact construct paths, even if we decide on the color of the edges incident with $x$ and $y$. We do breadth first searches from each vertex, alternately using black and white edges, constructing search trees $T_{x}, T_{y}$. We build trees with $n^{2 / 3+o(1)}$ leaves and then argue that we can connect the leaves with a correctly colored edge. We then find paths between small vertices and other vertices by piggybacking on the large to large paths.

We will need the following structural properties:

Lemma 18 The following hold w.h.p.:
(a) No set $S$ of at most 10 vertices that is connected in $G_{t_{1}}$ contains three small vertices.
(b) Let a be a positive integer, independent of $n$. No set of vertices $S$, with $|S|=s \leq a L_{1}, L_{1}=$ $\frac{\log n}{\log \log n}$, contains more than $s+a$ edges in $G_{t_{1}}$.
(c) There are at most $n^{2 / 3}$ small vertices in $G_{t_{0}}$.
(d) There are at most $\log ^{3} n$ isolated vertices in $G_{t_{0}}$.

Proof (a) We say that a vertex is a low color vertex if it is incident in $G_{t_{1}}$ to at most $L_{\varepsilon}=$ $(1+\varepsilon) L_{0}$ edges of one of the colors, where $\varepsilon$ is some sufficiently small positive constant. Furthermore, it follows from (4) that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\exists \text { a connected } S \text { in } G_{n, t_{1}}\right. \text { with three low color vertices) } \\
& \leq \sum_{k=3}^{10}\binom{n}{k} k^{k-2} \frac{\binom{N-k+1}{t_{1}-k+1}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}}\binom{k}{3} \operatorname{Pr}(\text { vertices } 1,2,3 \text { are low color } \mid[k] \text { is a connected set })  \tag{32}\\
& \leq_{b} \sum_{k=3}^{10}\binom{n}{k} k^{k-2} \frac{\binom{N-k+1}{t_{1}-k+1}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}}\binom{k}{3}\left(2 \sum_{\ell=0}^{L_{\varepsilon}}\binom{n-k}{\ell}\left(\frac{p_{1}}{2}\right)^{\ell}\left(1-\frac{p_{1}}{2}\right)^{n-k-\ell}\right)^{3}  \tag{33}\\
& \leq_{b} \sum_{k=3}^{10} n^{k}\left(\frac{t_{1}}{N}\right)^{k-1}\left(n^{-0.45}\right)^{3} \\
& \leq_{b} \sum_{k=3}^{10} n^{k}\left(\frac{\log n}{n}\right)^{k-1}\left(n^{-0.45}\right)^{3} \\
& =o(1) .
\end{align*}
$$

Explanation of (32),(33): Having chosen our tree, $\frac{\binom{N-k+1}{t_{1}-k+1}}{\binom{N}{t_{1}}}$ is the probability that this tree exists in $G_{t_{1}}$. Condition on this and choose three vertices. The final $(\cdots)^{3}$ in (33) bounds the probability of the event that $1,2,3$ are low color vertices in $G_{n, p_{1}}$. This event is monotone decreasing when restricted to the edges of a fixed color, given the conditioning. So we can use (4) to replace $G_{n, t_{1}}$ by $G_{n, p_{1}}$ here.

Now a simple first moment calculation shows that w.h.p. each vertex in $[n]$ is incident with less than $\log n /(\log \log n)^{1 / 2}$ edges of $E_{t_{1}} \backslash E_{t_{0}}$. Indeed, the number of such edges incident with a fixed
vertex $v$ is dominated by the binomial $\operatorname{Bin}\left(t_{1}-t_{0}, 2 / n\right)=\operatorname{Bin}(2 n \log \log n, 2 / n)$. And then
$\operatorname{Pr}(\exists v) \leq n\binom{2 n \log \log n}{\log n /(\log \log n)^{1 / 2}}\left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^{\log n /(\log \log n)^{1 / 2}} \leq n\left(\frac{4 e(\log \log n)^{3 / 2}}{\log n}\right)^{\log n /(\log \log n)^{1 / 2}}=o(1)$.
Hence, for (a) to fail, there would have to be a relevant set $S$ with three vertices, each incident in $G_{t_{1}}$ with at most $(1+o(1)) L_{0}$ edges of one of the colors, contradicting the above.
(b) We will prove something slightly stronger. Suppose that $p=\frac{K \log n}{n}$ where $K>0$ is arbitrary. We will show this result for $G_{n, p}$. The result for this lemma follows from when $K=1+o(1)$ and from (4). We get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(\exists S) & \leq_{b} \sum_{s \geq 4}^{a L_{1}}\binom{n}{s}\binom{\binom{s}{2}}{s+a+1} p^{s+a+1} \\
& \leq_{b} \sum_{s \geq 4}^{a L_{1}}\left(\frac{n e}{s} \cdot \frac{s e p}{2}\right)^{s}(s e p)^{a+1} \\
& \leq_{b}\left(K e^{2} \log n\right)^{a L_{1}}\left(\frac{\log ^{2} n}{n}\right)^{a+1} \\
& \leq n^{o(1)}\left(\frac{\log ^{3+L_{1}} n}{n}\right)^{a} \frac{\log ^{2} n}{n} \\
& =o(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Using (4) we see that if $Z$ denotes the number of small vertices then

$$
\mathbf{E}(Z) \leq_{b} n \sum_{k=0}^{L_{0}}\left(\frac{p_{0}}{2}\right)^{k}\left(1-\frac{p_{0}}{2}\right)^{n-1-k} \leq n^{0.55} .
$$

We now use the Markov inequality.
(d) Using (4) we see that the expected number of isolated vertices in $G_{t_{0}}$ is $O\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$. We now use the Markov inequality.
Now fix a pair of large vertices $x<y$. We will define sets $S_{i}^{(b)}(z), S_{i}^{(w)}(z), i=0,1, \ldots, \ell_{1}, z=x, y$.
Assume w.l.o.g. that $\ell_{1}$ is even. We let $S_{0}^{(b)}(x)=S_{0}^{(w)}(x)=\{x\}$ and then $S_{1}^{(b)}(x)\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.S_{1}^{(w)}(x)\right)$ is the set consisting of the first $\ell_{0}$ black (resp. white) neighbors of $x$ in $G_{t_{0}}$. We will use the notation $S_{\leq i}^{(c)}(x)=\bigcup_{j=1}^{i} S_{j}^{(c)}(x)$ for $c=b, w$. We now iteratively define for $i=0,1, \ldots,\left(\ell_{1}-2\right) / 2$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(b)}(x)=\left\{v \notin S_{\leq 2 i}^{(b)}(x): v \neq y \text { is joined by a black } G_{t_{0}} \text {-edge to a vertex in } S_{2 i}^{(b)}(x)\right\} . \\
& S_{2 i+1}^{(b)}(x)=\text { the first } \ell_{0}^{i} \text { members of } \hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(b)}(x) . \\
& \hat{S}_{2 i+2}^{(b)}(x)=\left\{v \notin S_{\leq 2 i+1}^{(b)}: v \neq y \text { is joined by a white } G_{t_{0}} \text {-edge to a vertex in } S_{2 i+1}^{(b)}(x)\right\} . \\
& S_{2 i+2}^{(b)}(x)=\text { the first } \ell_{0}^{i} \text { members of } \hat{S}_{2 i+2}^{(b)}(x):
\end{aligned}
$$

We then define, for $i=0,1, \ldots,\left(\ell_{1}-2\right) / 2$.
$\hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(w)}(x)=\left\{v \notin\left(S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x) \cup S_{\leq 2 i}^{(w)}(x)\right): v \neq y\right.$ is joined by a white $G_{t_{0}}$-edge to a vertex in $\left.S_{2 i}^{(w)}(x)\right\}$
$S_{2 i+1}^{(w)}(x)=$ the first $\ell_{0}^{i}$ members of $\hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(w)}(x)$.
$\hat{S}_{2 i+2}^{(w)}(x)=\left\{v \notin\left(S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x) \cup S_{\leq 2 i+1}^{(w)}(x)\right): v \neq y\right.$ s joined by a black $G_{t_{0}}$-edge to a vertex in $\left.S_{2 i+1}^{(w)}(x)\right\}$ $S_{2 i+2}^{(w)}(x)=$ the first $\ell_{0}^{i}$ members of $\hat{S}_{2 i+2}^{(w)}(x):$

Lemma 19 If $1 \leq i \leq \ell_{1}$, then in $G_{t_{0}}$, for $c=b, w$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|\hat{S}_{i+1}^{(c)}(x)\right| \leq \ell_{0}\left|S_{i}^{(c)}(x)\right|| | S_{j}^{(c)}(x) \mid=\ell_{0}^{j}, 0 \leq j \leq i\right)=O\left(n^{-K}\right) \text { for any constant } K>0
$$

Proof This follows easily from (5) and the Chernoff bounds and $\ell_{0}^{\ell_{1}}=o(n)$. In $G_{n, p_{0}}$, given that $\left|S_{2 i}^{(c)}(x)\right|=\ell_{0}^{i}$, each random variable $\hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(c)}(x)$ is binomially distributed with parameters $n-o(n)$ and $1-\left(1-p_{0} / 2\right)^{\ell_{0}^{i}}$. The mean is therefore asymptotically $\frac{1}{2} \ell_{0}^{i} \log n=\Omega\left(\log ^{2} n\right)$ and we are asking for the probability that it is much less than half its mean. It follows from this lemma, that w.h.p., we may define $S_{0}^{(b)}(x), S_{1}^{(b)}(x), \ldots, S_{\ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x)$ where $\left|S_{i}^{(b)}(x)\right|=$ $\ell_{0}^{i}$ such that for each $j$ and $z \in S_{j}^{(b)}(x)$ there is a zebraic path from $x$ to $z$ that starts with a black edge. For $S_{\ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x)$ we can say the same except that the zebraic path begins with a white edge.
Having defined the $S_{i}^{(c)}(x)$ etc., we define sets $S_{i}^{(c)}(y), i=1,2 \ldots, \ell_{1}, c=b, w$. We let $S_{0}^{(b)}(y)=$ $S_{0}^{(w)}(y)=\{y\}$ and then $S_{1}^{(b)}(y)$ (resp. $S_{1}^{(w)}(y)$ ) is the set consisting of the first $\ell_{0}$ black (resp. white) neighbors of $y$ that are not in $S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x) \cup S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x)$. We note that for $c=b, w$ we have that w..h.p. $\left|\hat{S}_{1}^{(c)}(y)\right| \geq L_{0}-18>\ell_{0}$. This follows from Lemma 18(b). We can appply this lemma because w.h.p. $t_{0} \leq \tau_{1} \leq t_{1}$. Indeed, suppose that $y$ has ten neighbors $T$ in $S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x)$. Let $S$ be the set of vertices in the paths from $T$ to $x$ in $S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x)$. If $|S|=s$ then $S \cup\{y\}$ contains at least $s+9$ edges. This is because every neighbour after the first adds an additional $k$ vertices and $k+1$ edges to the subgraph of $G_{t_{0}}$ spanned by $S \cup\{y\}$, for some $k \leq \ell_{1}$. Now $s+1 \leq 10 \ell_{1}+1 \leq 7 L_{1}$ and the $s+9$ edges contradict the condition in the lemma, with $a=7$.
We make a slight change in the definitions of the $\hat{S}_{i}^{(c)}(y)$ in that we keep these sets disjoint from the $S_{i}^{\left(c^{\prime}\right)}(x)$. Thus we take for example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{S}_{2 i+1}^{(w)}(y)= \\
& \left\{v \notin\left(S_{\leq 2 i}^{(w)}(y) \cup S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x) \cup S_{\leq \ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x)\right): v \text { is joined by a white } G_{t_{0}} \text {-edge to a vertex in } S_{2 i}^{(w)}(y)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then we note that excluding $o(n)$ extra vertices has little effect on the proof of Lemma 19 which remains true with $x$ replaced by $y$. We can then define the $S_{i}^{(c)}(y)$ by taking the first $\ell_{0}$ vertices.
Suppose now that we condition on the sets $S_{i}^{(c)}(x), S_{i}^{(c)}(y)$ for $c=b, w$ and $i=0,1, \ldots, \ell_{1}$. The edges between the sets with $c=b$ and $i=\ell_{1}$ and those with $c=w$ and $i=\ell_{1}$ are unconditioned. Let

$$
\Lambda=\ell_{0}^{2 \ell_{1}}=n^{4 / 3-o(1)}
$$

Then, for example, using (4), (strictly speaking, bounding the probability of monotone events in the context of a hypergeometric distribution by the corresponding probability under a binomial distribution),

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\nexists \text { a black } G_{t_{0}} \text { edge joining } S_{\ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x), S_{\ell_{1}}^{(b)}(y)\right) \leq 3\left(1-\frac{\log n}{(2+o(1)) n}\right)^{\Lambda}=O\left(n^{-K}\right)
$$

for any positive constant $K$.

Thus w.h.p. there is a zebraic path with both terminal edges black between every pair of large vertices. A similar argument using $S_{\ell_{1}}^{(w)}(x), S_{\ell_{1}}^{(w)}(y)$ shows that w.h.p. there is a zebraic path with both terminal edges white between every pair of large vertices.

If we want a zebraic path with a black edge incident with $x$ and a white edge incident with $y$ then we argue that there is a black $G_{t_{0}}$ edge between $S_{\ell_{1}}^{(b)}(x)$ and $S_{\ell_{1}-1}^{(w)}(y)$.
We now consider the small vertices. Let $V_{\sigma}$ be the set of small vertices that have a large neighbor in $G_{\tau_{1}}$. The above analysis shows that there is a zebraic path between $v \in V_{\sigma}$ and $w \in V_{\sigma} \cup V_{\lambda}$, where $V_{\lambda}$ is the set of large vertices. Indeed if $v$ is joined by a black edge to a vertex $w \in V_{\lambda}$ then we can continue with a zebraic path that begins with a white edge and we can reach any large vertex and choose the color of the terminating edge to be either black or white. This is useful when we need to continue to another vertex in $V_{\sigma}$.

We now have to deal with small vertices that have no large neighbors at time $\tau_{1}$. It follows from Lemma 18(a) that such vertices have degree one or two in $G_{\tau_{1}}$ and that every vertex at distance two from such a vertex is large.

Lemma 20 All vertices of degree at most two in $G_{t_{0}}$ are w.h.p. at distance greater than 10 in $G_{t_{1}}$,
Proof Simpler than Lemma 3(b). We use (5) and then
$\operatorname{Pr}(\exists$ such a pair of vertices $) \leq_{b} t_{1}^{1 / 2} \sum_{k=0}^{9} n^{k} p_{1}^{k-1}\left(\left(1-p_{0}\right)^{n-k-1}+(n-k) p_{0}\left(1-p_{0}\right)^{n-k-2}\right)^{2}=o(1)$.

Let $Z_{i}$ be the number of vertices of degree $0 \leq i \leq 2$ in $G_{t_{0}}$ that are adjacent in $G_{\tau_{1}}$ to small vertices that are themselves only incident to edges of one color. Lemma 18(a) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z_{2}=0 \text { w.h.p. } \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now consider the case $i=1$. Here we let $Z_{1}^{\prime}$ be the number of vertices of degree one in $G_{t_{0}}$ that are adjacent in $G_{t_{0}}$ to vertices that are themselves only incident to edges of one color. Note that
$Z_{1} \leq Z_{1}^{\prime}$. Then we have, with the aid of (8),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}\left(Z_{1}^{\prime}\right) & \leq n\binom{n-1}{1} \frac{\binom{N-n+1}{t_{0}-1}}{\binom{N}{t_{0}}} \sum_{k=1}^{n-2}\binom{n-2}{k} \frac{\binom{N-2 n+3}{t_{0}-1-k}}{\binom{N-n+1}{t_{0}-1}} 2^{-(k-1)} . \\
& \leq{ }_{b} n^{2} \frac{t_{0}}{N}\left(\frac{N-t_{0}}{N-1}\right)^{n-2} \sum_{k=1}^{n-2}\binom{n-2}{k} 2^{-k}\left(\frac{t_{0}-1}{N-n+1}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{N-n-t_{0}+2}{N-n-k+1}\right)^{n-2-k} \\
& \leq{ }_{b} n \log n \exp \left\{-\frac{(n-2)\left(t_{0}-1\right)}{N-1}\right\} \sum_{k=1}^{n-2}\binom{n-2}{k}\left(\frac{t_{0}-1}{2(N-n+1)}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{N-n-t_{0}+2}{N-n-k+1}\right)^{n-2-k} \\
& \leq n \log n \exp \left\{-\frac{(n-2)\left(t_{0}-1\right)}{N-1}\right\} \sum_{k=1}^{n-2}\binom{n-2}{k}\left(\frac{t_{0}}{2(N-n)}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{N-n-2 t_{0} / 3}{N-n}\right)^{n-2-k} \\
& \leq{ }_{b} \log ^{3} n\left(\frac{t_{0}}{2(N-n)}+\frac{N-n-2 t_{0} / 3}{N-n}\right)^{n-2} \\
& \leq \log ^{3} n\left(\frac{N-t_{0} / 6}{N-n}\right)^{n-2} \\
& =o(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Explanation for (35): We choose a vertex $v$ of degree one and its neighbor $w$ in $n\binom{n-1}{1}$ ways. The probability that $v$ has degree one is $\frac{\binom{N-n+1}{t_{0}-1}}{\binom{N}{t_{0}}}$. We fix the degree of $w$ to be $k+1$. This now has probability $\frac{\binom{N-2 n+3}{t_{0}-k-1}}{\binom{N-n+1}{t_{0}-1}}$. The final factor $2^{-(k-1)}$ is the probability that $w$ only sees edges of one color.

Finally, consider $Z_{0}$. Condition on $G_{t_{0}}$ and assume that Properties (c),(d) of Lemma 18 hold. For a given isolated vertex, the first $G_{t_{0}}$ edge incident with it will have a random endpoint. It follows immediately that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(Z_{0}>0\right) \leq o(1)+\log ^{3} n \times \frac{n^{2 / 3}}{n}=o(1) . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here the $o(1)$ accounts for Properties (c),(d) of Lemma 18 and $\log ^{3} n \times n^{-1 / 3}$ bounds the expected number of "first edges" that choose small endpoints.

Equations (34), (35) and (36) show that $Z_{0}+Z_{1}+Z_{2}=0$ w.h.p. In which case it will be possible to find zebraic paths starting from small vertices. Indeed, we now know that w.h.p. any small vertex $v$ will be adjacent to a vertex $w$ that is incident with edges of both colors and that any other neighbor of $w$ is large.

## 6 Proof of Theorem 3

The case $r=2$ is implied by Corollary 2. This follows from Corollary 2 and (29). So we can assume that $r \geq 3$.

## $6.1 p \leq(1-\varepsilon) p_{r}$

For a vertex $v$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_{v} & =\{i: v \text { is incident with an edge of color } i\} . \\
I_{v} & =\left\{i:\{i, i+1\} \subseteq C_{v}\right\} . \quad(r+1=1 \text { here. })
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $v$ be bad if $I_{v}=\emptyset$. The existence of a bad vertex means that there are no $r$-zebraic Hamilton cycles. Let $Z_{B}$ denote the number of bad vertices. Now if $r$ is odd and $C_{v} \subseteq\{1,3, \ldots, 2\lfloor r / 2\rfloor-1\}$ or $r$ is even and $C_{v} \subseteq\{1,3, \ldots, r-1\}$ then $I_{v}=\emptyset$. Hence,

$$
\mathbf{E}\left(Z_{B}\right) \geq n\left(1-\frac{\alpha_{r} p}{r}\right)^{n-1}=n^{\varepsilon-o(1)} \rightarrow \infty .
$$

A straightforward second moment calculation shows that $Z_{B} \neq 0$ w.h.p. and this proves the first part of the theorem.

## $6.2 p \geq(1+3 \varepsilon) p_{r}$

Note the replacement of $\varepsilon$ by $3 \varepsilon$ here, for convenience. Note also that $\varepsilon$ is assumed to be sufficiently small for some inequalities below to hold.

Write $1-p=\left(1-p_{1}\right)\left(1-p_{2}\right)^{2}$ where $p_{1}=(1+\varepsilon) p_{r}$ and $p_{2} \sim \varepsilon p_{r}$. Thus $G_{n, p}$ is the union of $G_{n, p_{1}}$ and two independent copies of $G_{n, p_{2}}$. If an edge appears more than once in $G_{n, p}$, then it retains the color of its first occurence.

Now for a vertex $v$ let $d_{i}(v)$ denote the number of edges of color $i$ incident with $v$ in $G_{n, p_{1}}$. Let

$$
J_{v}=\left\{i: d_{i}(v) \geq \eta_{0} \log n\right\}
$$

where $\eta_{0}=\varepsilon^{2} / r$.
Let $v$ be poor if $\left|J_{v}\right|<\beta_{r}$ where $\beta_{r}=\lfloor r / 2\rfloor+1$. Observe that $\alpha_{r}+\beta_{r}=r+1$. Then let $Z_{P}$ denote the number of poor vertices in $G_{n, p_{1}}$. A simple calcluation shows that w.h.p. the minimum degree in $G_{n, p_{1}}$ is at least $L_{0}$ and that the maximum degree is at most $6 \log n$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(Z_{P}>0\right) & \leq o(1)+n \sum_{k=L_{0}}^{6 \log n}\binom{n-1}{k} p_{1}^{k}\left(1-p_{1}\right)^{n-1-k} \sum_{l=r-\beta_{r}+1}^{r}\binom{r}{l}\binom{k}{l \eta_{0} \log n}\left(1-\frac{l}{r}\right)^{k-r \eta_{0} \log n} \\
& \leq o(1)+n \sum_{k=0}^{6 \log n}\binom{n-1}{k} p_{1}^{k}\left(1-p_{1}\right)^{n-1-k} 2^{r}\binom{6 \log n}{r \eta_{0} \log n}\left(\frac{\beta_{r}-1}{r}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{r}{\beta_{r}-1}\right)^{r \eta_{0} \log n} \\
& =o(1)+n 2^{r}\binom{6 \log n}{r \eta_{0} \log n}\left(\frac{r}{\beta_{r}-1}\right)^{r \eta_{0} \log n} \sum_{k=0}^{6 \log n}\left(1-p_{1}\right)^{n-1}\binom{n-1}{k}\left(\frac{p_{1}\left(\beta_{r}-1\right)}{r\left(1-p_{1}\right)}\right)^{k} \\
& \leq o(1)+2^{r} n^{1+r \eta_{0} \log \left(6 e / \eta_{0}\right)}\left(1-p_{1}\right)^{n-1}\left(1+\frac{\left(\beta_{r}-1\right) p_{1}}{r\left(1-p_{1}\right)}\right)^{n-1} \\
& \leq o(1)+2^{r} n^{1+r \eta_{0} \log \left(6 e / \eta_{0}\right)}\left(1-\frac{(1+o(1)) \alpha_{r} p_{1}}{r}\right)^{n-1} \\
& =o(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can therefore assert that w.h.p. there are no poor vertices. This means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{v}=\left\{i: d_{i}(v), d_{i-1}(v) \geq \eta_{0} \log n\right\} \neq \emptyset \text { for all } v \in[n] . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof now follows our general 3-phase procedure of (i) finding an $r$-zebraic 2 -factor, (ii) removing small cycles so that we have a 2 -factor in which every cycle has length $\Omega(n / \log n)$ and then (iii) using a second moment calculation to show that this 2 -factor can be re-arranged into an $r$-zebraic Hamilton cycle.

### 6.2.1 Finding an $r$-zebraic 2-factor

We partition $[n]$ into $r$ sets $V_{i}=[(i-1) n / r+1, i n]$ of size $i n / r$. Now for each $i$ and each vertex $v$ let

$$
\begin{gathered}
N_{i}(v)=\left\{w:\{v, w\} \text { is an edge of } G_{n, p_{1}} \text { of color } i\right\} . \\
d_{i}^{+}(v)=\left|V_{i+1} \cap N_{i}(v)\right| \text { and } d_{i}^{-}(v)=\left|V_{i-1} \cap N_{i-1}(v)\right| .
\end{gathered}
$$

(Here $r+1$ is interpreted as 1 and $1-1$ is interpreted as $r$ ).
We now let a vertex $v \in V_{i}$ be $i$-large if $d_{i}^{+}(v), d_{i}^{-}(v) \geq \eta \log n$ where $\eta=\min \left\{\eta_{0}, \eta_{1}, \eta_{2}\right\}$ and $\eta_{1}$ is the solution to

$$
\eta_{1} \log \left(\frac{e(1+\varepsilon)}{r \eta_{1} \alpha_{r}}\right)=\frac{1}{r \alpha_{r}}
$$

and $\eta_{2}$ is the solution to

$$
\eta_{2} \log \left(\frac{3 e r(1+\varepsilon)}{\eta_{2} \alpha_{r}}\right)=\frac{1}{3 \alpha_{r}} .
$$

Let $v$ be large if it is $i$-large for all $i$. Let $v$ be small otherwise. (Note that $d_{i}^{+}(v), d_{i}^{-}(v)$ are defined for all $v$, not just for $v \in V_{i}, i \in[r]$ ).

Let $V_{\lambda}, V_{\sigma}$ denote the sets of large and small vertices respectively.
Lemma 21 W.h.p., in $G_{n, p_{1}}$,
(a) $\left|V_{\sigma}\right| \leq n^{1-\theta}$ where $\theta=\frac{\varepsilon}{2 r \alpha_{r}}$.
(b) No connected subset of size at most $2 \log \log n$ contains more than $\mu_{0}=r \alpha_{r}$ members of $V_{\sigma}$.
(c) If $S \subseteq[n]$ and $|S| \leq n_{0}=n / \log ^{2} n$ then $e(S) \leq 100|S|$.

## Proof

(a) If $v \in V_{\sigma}$ then there exists $i$ such that $d_{i}^{+}(v) \leq \eta \log n$ or $d_{i}^{-}(v) \leq \eta \log n$. So we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{E}\left(\left|V_{\sigma}\right|\right) & \leq 2 r n \sum_{k=0}^{\eta \log n}\binom{n / r}{k}\left(\frac{p_{1}}{r}\right)^{k}\left(1-\frac{p_{1}}{r}\right)^{n / r-k}  \tag{38}\\
& \leq 3 r\left(\frac{(1+\varepsilon) e}{r \eta \alpha_{r}}\right)^{\eta \log n} n^{1-(1+\varepsilon+o(1)) / r \alpha_{r}}  \tag{39}\\
& \leq n^{1-2 \theta+o(1)} .
\end{align*}
$$

Part (a) follows from the Markov inequality. Note that we can lose the factor 2 in (38) since $d_{i}^{+}(v)=d_{i+2}^{-}(v)$.
(b) The expected number of connected sets $S$ of size at most $2 \log \log n$ containing $\mu_{0}$ members of $V_{\sigma}$ can be bounded by

$$
\sum_{s=\mu_{0}}^{2 \log \log n}\binom{n}{s} s^{s-2} p_{1}^{s-1}\binom{s}{\mu_{0}}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\left.r \sum_{k=0}^{\eta \log n}\binom{n / r-s}{k}\left(\frac{p_{1}}{r}\right)^{k}\left(1-\frac{p_{1}}{r}\right)^{n / r-s-k}\right)^{\mu_{0}} . . . ~ . ~ \tag{40}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Explanation: We choose $s$ vertices for $S$ and a tree to connect up the vertices of $S$. We then choose $\mu_{0}$ members $A \subseteq S$ to be in $V_{\sigma}$. We multiply by the probability that for each vertex in $A$, there is at least one $j$ such that $v$ has few neighbors in $V_{j} \backslash S$ connected to $v$ by edges of color $j$.
After bounding the the sum in brackets raised to $\mu_{0}$ as in (39), the sum in (40) can be bounded by

$$
n \sum_{s=\mu_{0}}^{2 \log \log n}(4 e \log n)^{s} n^{-\mu_{0}(1+\varepsilon+o(1)) / r \alpha_{r}}=o(1) .
$$

(c) This is proved in the same manner as Lemma 3(c).

For $v \in V_{\sigma}$ we let $\phi(v)=\min \left\{i: i \in K_{v}\right\}$. Equation (37) implies that $\phi(v)$ exists for all $v \in[n]$.
Then let $X_{i}=\left\{v \in V_{\sigma}: \phi(v)=i\right\}$ for $i \in[r]$ and

$$
Y_{i}=\left\{w \notin V_{\sigma}: \exists v \in V_{\sigma}, \text { s.t. }\left(\phi(v)=i-1, w \in N_{i-1}(v)\right) \text { or }\left(\phi(v)=i+1, w \in N_{i}(v)\right)\right\} .
$$

It is possible that a vertex $w$ lies in more than one $Y_{i}$. In which case, delete it from all but one of them. Now let

$$
W_{i}=\left(V_{i} \backslash V_{\sigma}\right) \cup X_{i} \cup Y_{i}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, r .
$$

Suppose that $w_{i}=\left|W_{i}\right|-n / r$ for $i \in[r]$ and let $w_{i}^{+}=\max \left\{0, w_{i}\right\}$ for $i \in[r]$. We now remove $w_{i}^{+}$randomly chosen large vertices from each $W_{i}$ and then randomly assign $w_{i}^{-}=-\min \left\{0, w_{i}\right\}$ of them to each $W_{i}, i \in[r]$. Thus we obtain a partition of $[n]$ into $r$ sets $Z_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, r$, of size $n / r$ for $i \in[r]$.

Let $H_{i}$ be the bipartite graph induced by $Z_{i}, Z_{i+1}$ and the edges of color $i$ in $G_{n, p_{1}}$. We now argue that

Lemma $22 H_{i}$ has minimum degree at least $\frac{1}{2} \eta \log n$ w.h.p.
Proof It follows from Lemma 21(b),(d) that no vertex in $Z_{i} \cap V_{i}$ loses more than $\mu_{0}$ neighbors from the deletion of $V_{\sigma}$ or from the movement of the vertices in the $Y_{i}$ 's. Also, we move $v \in V_{\sigma}$ to a $Z_{i}$ where it has degree at least $\eta \log n-\mu_{0}$ in $V_{i-1}$ and $V_{i+1}$. Its neighborhood may have been affected by the deletion of $V_{\sigma}$ or the movement of the $Y_{i}$ 's, but only by at most $\mu_{0}$. Thus for every $i$ and $v \in X_{i}, v$ has at least $\eta \log n-\mu_{0}$ neighbors in $Z_{i-1}$ connected to $v$ by an edge of color $i-1$ and at least $\eta \log n-\mu_{0}$ neighbors in $Z_{i+1}$ connected to $v$ by an edge of color $i$

Now consider the random re-shuffling to get sets of size $n / r$. Fix a $v \in V_{i}$. Suppose that it has $d=\Theta(\log n)$ neighbors in $Z_{i+1}$ connected by an edge of color $i$. Now randomly choose $w_{i+1}^{+}=$ $O\left(\left|V_{\sigma}\right| \log n\right)$ vertices to delete from $Z_{i+1}$. The number $\nu_{v}$ of neighbors of $v$ chosen is dominated by $\operatorname{Bin}\left(w_{i+1}^{+}, \frac{d}{n / r}\right)$. This follows from the fact that if we choose these $w_{i+1}^{+}$vertices one by one, then
at each step, the chance that the chosen vertex is a neighbor of $v$ is bounded from above by $\frac{d}{n / r}$. So, given the condition in Lemma 21(a) we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\nu_{v} \geq 2 / \theta\right) \leq\binom{ n^{1-\theta+o(1)}}{2 / \theta}\left(\frac{d r}{n}\right)^{2 / \theta} \leq\left(\frac{n^{1-\theta+o(1)} e d r \theta}{n}\right)^{2 / \theta}=o\left(n^{-1}\right)
$$

We can now verify the existence of perfect matchings w.h.p.

Lemma 23 W.h.p., each $H_{i}$ contains a perfect matching $M_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, r$.

Proof Fix $i$. We use Hall's theorem and consider the existence of a set $S \subseteq Z_{i}$ that has fewer than $|S| H_{i}$-neighbors in $Z_{i+1}$. Let $s=|S|$ and let $T=N_{H_{i}}(S)$ and $t=|T|<s$. We can rule out $s \leq n_{0}=n / 2 \log ^{2} n$ through Lemma 21(c). This is because we have $e(S \cup T) /|S \cup T| \geq \frac{1}{4} \eta \log n$ in this case. Let $n_{\sigma}=\left|V_{\sigma}\right|$ and now consider $n / 2 \log ^{2} n \leq s \leq n / 2 r$. Given such a pair $S, T$ we deduce that there exist $S_{1} \subseteq S \subseteq V_{i},\left|S_{1}\right| \geq s-n_{\sigma}$ and $T_{1} \subseteq T \subseteq V_{i+1}$ and $U_{1} \subseteq V_{i+1},\left|U_{1}\right| \leq n_{\sigma}$ such that there are at least $m_{s}=\left(s \eta / 2-6 n_{\sigma}\right) \log n$ edges between $S_{1}$ and $T_{1}$ and no edges between $S_{1}$ and $V_{i+1} \backslash\left(T_{1} \cup U_{1}\right)$. There is no loss of generality in increasing the size of $T$ to $s$. We can then write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\exists S, T \text { in } G_{n, p_{1}}\right) & \leq \sum_{s=n_{0}}^{n / 2 r}\binom{n / r-O\left(n_{\sigma} \log n\right)}{s}^{2}\binom{s^{2}}{m_{s}} p_{1}^{m_{s}}\left(1-p_{1}\right)^{\left(s-n_{\sigma}\right)\left(n / r-s-n_{\sigma}\right)} \\
& \leq \sum_{s=n_{0}}^{n / 2 r}\left(\frac{n e}{r s}\right)^{2 s}\left(\frac{s^{2} p_{1} e}{m_{s}}\right)^{m_{s}} e^{-\left(s-n_{\sigma}\right)\left(n / r-s-n_{\sigma}\right) p_{1}} \\
& \leq \sum_{s=n_{0}}^{n / 2 r}\left(\left(\frac{s}{n}\right)^{\eta \log n / 3}\left(\frac{3 e r(1+\varepsilon)}{\alpha_{r} \eta}\right)^{\eta \log n / 2} n^{-(1-o(1)) / 2 \alpha_{r}}\right)^{s} \\
& =o(1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

For the case $s \geq n / 2 r$ we look for subsets of $Z_{i+1}$ with too few neighbors in $Z_{i}$.

It follows from symmetry considerations that the $M_{i}$ are independent of each other. Indeed, once we condition on the number of edges $m_{i}$ being colored $i=1,2, \ldots, r$, we find that the actual graphs induced by each color are independent of each other. What we have proved implies that for almost all sequences $m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{r}$, each $H_{i}$ has a perfect matching.
Analogously to Lemma 8, we have
Lemma 24 The following hold w.h.p.:
(a) $\bigcup_{i=1}^{r} M_{i}$ has at most $10 \log n$ components. (Components are $r$-zebraic cycles of length divisible by r.)
(b) There are at most $n_{b}$ vertices on components of size at most $n_{c}$.

Proof The matchings induce a permutation $\pi$ on $W_{1}$. Suppose that $x \in W_{1}$. We follow a path via a matching edge to $W_{2}$ and then by a matching edge to $W_{3}$ and so on until we return to a vertex $\pi(x) \in W_{1} . \pi$ can be taken to be a random permutation and then the lemma follows from Lemma 8.

The remaining part of the proof is similar to that described in Sections 4.3, 4.4. We use the edges of the first copy $G_{n, p_{2}}$ of color 1 to make all cycles have length $\Omega(n / \log n)$ and then we use the edges of the second copy of $G_{n, p_{2}}$ of color 1 to create an r-zebraic Hamilton cycle. The details are left to the reader.

## 7 Dealing with the directed analogs

A great deal of the analysis we have seen extends without much comment to the directed case. In particular, in Theorem 1, once we have a shown the existences of a matching $M_{1}$ that is independent of $M_{0}$, orientation hardly affects the proof. So for Theorem 4 all we really need to argue for is a perfect matching $M_{1}=\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{n / 2}\right\}$ such that if $g_{i}=\left\{x_{i}, y_{i}\right\}$ then we can assume that (i) $x_{i}$ is odd and $y_{i}$ is even and (ii) $g_{i}$ is oriented from $y_{i}$ to $x_{i}$. For this we will apply Hall's theorem to the bipartite graph $H$ with bipartition $A=\{2,4, \ldots, n\}, B=\{1,3, \ldots, n-1\}$. $H$ has an edge $\{a, b\}$ iff $(a, b)$ is an edge of $D_{m}$. The stopping time $\vec{\tau}_{1}$ is for $H$ to have minimum degree one and w.h.p. this will be enough for $H$ to have a perfect matching. After this the proof continues more or less as in the proof of Theorem 1. The "zebraic" corollary to Theorem 4 is not so simple. If we follow the undirected argument then we see that we need to exert control over the orientations of the black and white perfect matchings, they have to be compatible in some sense, and the hitting time for this is not so obvious.

The proof of Theorem 5 is almost identical to that of Theorem 3. We simply change $I_{v}$ in Section 6 to

$$
I_{v}=\left\{i: d_{-}^{(i)}>0 \text { and } d_{+}^{(i+1)}>0\right\}
$$

where $d_{-}^{(i)}$ is the number of edges of color $i$ oriented into $v$ and $d_{+}^{(i+1)}$ is the number of edges of color $i+1$ oriented out of $v$.

The proof of Theorem 6 follows that of Theorem 2 .

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