Every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to 12 is acyclically 3-choosable

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Abstract

An acyclic coloring of a graph G is a coloring of its vertices such that : (i) no two adjacent vertices in G receive the same color and (ii) no bicolored cycles exist in G. A list assignment of G is a function L that assigns to each vertex $v \in V(G)$ a list L(v) of available colors. Let G be a graph and L be a list assignment of G. The graph G is acyclically L-list colorable if there exists an acyclic coloring ϕ of G such that $\phi(v) \in L(v)$ for all $v \in V(G)$. If G is acyclically L-list colorable for any list assignment L with $|L(v)| \geq k$ for all $v \in V(G)$, then G is acyclically k-choosable. In this paper, we prove that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to 12 is acyclically 3-choosable.

1 Introduction

A proper coloring of a graph is an assignment of colors to the vertices of the graph such that two adjacent vertices do not use the same color. A k-coloring of G is a proper coloring of G using k colors; a graph admitting a k-coloring is said to be k-colorable. An acyclic coloring of a graph G is a proper coloring of G such that G contains no bicolored cycles; in other words, the graph induced by every two color classes is a forest. A list assignment of G is a function L that assigns to each vertex $v \in V(G)$ a list L(v) of available colors. Let G be a graph and L be a list assignment of G. The graph G is acyclically L-list colorable if there is an acyclic coloring ϕ of G such that $\phi(v) \in L(v)$ for all $v \in V(G)$. If G is acyclically L-list colorable for any list assignment L with $|L(v)| \ge k$ for all $v \in V(G)$, then G is acyclically k-choosable. The acyclic choice number of G, $\chi_a^1(G)$, is the smallest integer k such that G is acyclically k-choosable. Borodin et al. [4] first investigated the acyclic choosability of planar graphs proving that:

Theorem 1 [4] Every planar graph is acyclically 7-choosable.

and put forward to the following challenging conjecture:

Conjecture 1 [4] Every planar graph is acyclically 5-choosable.

This conjecture if true strengthens Borodin's Theorem [1] on the acyclic 5-colorability of planar graphs and Thomassen's Theorem [12] on the 5-choosability of planar graphs.

In 1976, Steinberg conjectured that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 and 5 is 3colorable (see Problem 2.9 [8]). This problem remains open. In 1990, Erdős suggested the following relaxation of Steinberg's Conjecture: what is the smallest integer i such that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to i is 3-colorable? The best known result is i = 7 [5]. This question is also studied in the choosability case: what is the smallest integer i such that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to i is 3-colorable? In [13], Voigt proved that Steinberg's Conjecture can not be extended to list coloring; hence, $i \ge 6$. Nevertheless, in 1996, Borodin [2] proved that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to 9 is 3-colorable; in fact, 3-choosable. So, $i \le 9$.

In this paper, we study the question of Erdős in the acyclic choosability case:

Problem 1 What is the smallest integer *i* such that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to *i* is acyclically 3-choosable?

Note that it is proved that every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to 6 is acyclically 4choosable [11]. Also, the relationship between the maximum average degree of G (or the girth of G) and its acyclic choice number was studied (see for example [10, 9, 6]).

Our main result is the following:

Theorem 2 Every planar graph without cycles of lengths 4 to 12 is acyclically 3-choosable.

Hence, in Problem 1, $6 \le i \le 12$.

Section 2 is dedicated to the proof of Theorem 2. First we list some notations we will use:

Notations Let G be a planar graph. We use V(G), E(G) and F(G) to denote the set of vertices, edges and faces of G respectively. Let d(v) denote the degree of a vertex v in G and r(f) the length of a face f in G. A vertex of degree k (resp. at least k, at most k) is called a k-vertex (resp. $\geq k$ -vertex, $\leq k$ -vertex). We use the same notations for faces : a k-face (resp. $\geq k$ -face, $\leq k$ -face) is a face of length k (resp. at least k, at most k). A k-face having the boundary vertices $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$ in the cyclic order is denoted by $[x_1x_2...x_k]$. For a vertex $v \in V(G)$, let $n_i(v)$ denote the number of *i*-vertices adjacent to v for $i \geq 1$, and $m_3(v)$ the number of 3-faces incident to v. A 3-vertex is called a 3*-vertex if it is incident to a 3-face and adjacent to a 2-vertex (for example in Figure 1, the vertex t is a 3*-vertex). A 3-face [rst] with d(r) = d(s) = d(t) = 3 and with a 3*-vertex on its boundary is called a 3*-face. Two 3-faces [rst] and [uvw] are called linked if there exists an edge tv which connects these two 3-faces such that d(t) = d(v) = 3 (see Figure 2). A vertex v is linked to a 3-face [rst] if there exists an edge between v and one vertex of the boundary of [rst], say t, such that d(t) = 3 (for example in Figure 1, the vertex v is linked to the 3-face [rst]). Let $n^*(v)$ be the number of 3*-face linked to v.



Figure 1: The vertex t is a 3^* -vertex and the vertex v is linked to the 3-face [rst]



Figure 2: The two 3-faces [rst] and [uvw] are linked

2 **Proof of Theorem 2**

To prove Theorem 2 we proceed by contradiction. Suppose that H is a counterexample with the minimum order to Theorem 2 which is embedded in the plane. Let L be a list assignment with |L(v)| = 3 for all $v \in V(H)$ such that H does not admit an acyclic L-coloring.

Without loss of generality we can suppose that H is connected. We will first investigate the structural properties of H (Section 2.1), then using Euler's formula and the discharging technique we will derive a contradiction (Section 2.2).

2.1 Structural properties of H

Lemma 1 The minimal counterexample H to Theorem 2 has the following properties:

- (C1) H contains no 1-vertices.
- (C2) A 3-face has no 2-vertex on its boundary.
- (C3) A 2-vertex is not adjacent to a 2-vertex.
- (C4) A 3-face has at most one 3*-vertex on its boundary.
- (C5) A 3-face [rst] with d(r) = d(s) = d(t) = 3 is linked to at most one 3^* -face.
- (C6) Two 3^* -faces cannot be linked.



Figure 3: [rst] is linked to two 3*-faces [ijk] and [lmn]



Figure 4: The two 3^* -faces [rst] and [ijk] are linked

Proof

(C1) Suppose H contains a 1-vertex u adjacent to a vertex v. By minimality of H, the graph $H' = H \setminus \{u\}$ is acyclically 3-choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic L-coloring c of H'. To extend this coloring to H we just color u with $c(u) \in L(u) \setminus \{c(v)\}$. The obtained coloring is acyclic, a contradiction.

- (C2) Suppose *H* contains a 2-vertex *u* incident to a 3-face [uvw]. By minimality of *H*, the graph $H' = H \setminus \{u\}$ is acyclically 3-choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic *L*-coloring *c* of *H'*. We show that we can extend this coloring to *H* by coloring *u* with $c(u) \in L(u) \setminus \{c(v), c(w)\}$.
- (C3) Suppose H contains a 2-vertex u adjacent to a 2-vertex v. Let t and w be the other neighbors of u and v respectively. By minimality of H, the graph $H' = H \setminus \{u\}$ is acyclically 3choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic L-coloring c of H'. We show that we can extend this coloring to H. Assume first that $c(t) \neq c(v)$. Then we just color u with $c(u) \in$ $L(u) \setminus \{c(t), c(v)\}$. Now, if c(t) = c(v), we color u with $c(u) \in L(u) \setminus \{c(v), c(w)\}$. In the two cases, the obtained coloring is acyclic, a contradiction.
- (C4) Suppose H contains a 3-face [rst] with two 3*-vertices s and t. Suppose that t (resp. s) is adjacent to a 2-vertex v (resp. x) with v ≠ r, s by (C2) (resp. x ≠ r, t). Let u (resp. y) be the other neighbor of v (resp. x) with u ≠ r, s (resp. y ≠ r, t). By the minimality of H, H' = H \ {v} is acyclically 3-choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic L-coloring c of H'. We show now that we can extend c to H. If c(u) ≠ c(t), we color then v with a color different from c(u) and c(t) and the coloring obtained is acyclic. Otherwise, c(u) = c(t). If we cannot color v, this implies without loss of generality L(v) = {1,2,3}, c(u) = c(t) = c(x) = 1, c(r) = 2 and c(s) = c(y) = 3. Observe that necessarily L(t) = {1,2,3} (otherwise we can recolor t with α ∈ L(t) \ {1,2,3} and color v properly *i.e* v receives a color distinct of those of these neighbors). For a same reason L(s) = {1,2,3} and L(x) = {1,2,3}. Now, we recolor t with the color 3, s with the color 1 and x with the color 2, then we can color v with the color 2. It is easy to see that the coloring obtained is acyclic.
- (C5) Suppose *H* contains a 3-face [rst] incident to three 3-vertices such that two of them are linked to two 3*-faces [ijk] and [lmn]. Suppose [ijk] and [lmn] are linked to [rst] respectively by the edges sj and tl. Call y the third neighbor of i, x the third neighbor of r, and p the third neighbor of m. Suppose that the 2-vertex u (resp. v) is adjacent to k and z (resp. n and w). See Figure 3. By the minimality of H, $H' = H \setminus \{v\}$ is acyclically 3-choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic L-coloring c of H'. We show now that we can extend c to H. If $c(w) \neq c(n)$, we color then v with a color different from c(w) and c(n) and the coloring obtained is acyclic. Otherwise, c(w) = c(n). If we cannot color v, this implies without loss of generality $L(v) = \{1, 2, 3\} = L(l) = L(m)$, c(w) = c(n) = c(t) = c(p) = 1, and by permuting the colors of r and s, we are sure that $L(i) = \{1, 2, 3\} = L(k)$, c(y) = c(u) = 1, and $c(z) \in \{2, 3\}$. Let $\alpha = \{2, 3\} \setminus \{c(z)\}$. We recolor k, s, l, v with α and m, r, i with c(z). The coloring obtained is acyclic.
- (C6) Suppose *H* contains two 3*-faces [rst] and [ijk] which are linked by the edge sj. Call y the third neighbor of i, x the third neighbor of r. Suppose that the 2-vertex u (resp. v) is adjacent to k and z (resp. t and w). See Figure 4. By the minimality of H, $H' = H \setminus \{v\}$ is acyclically 3-choosable. Consequently, there exists an acyclic *L*-coloring c of H'. We show now that we can extend c to H. If $c(w) \neq c(t)$, we color then v with a color different from c(w) and c(t) and the coloring obtained is acyclic. Otherwise, c(w) = c(t). If we cannot color v, this implies without loss of generality $L(v) = \{1, 2, 3\} = L(r) = L(s)$, c(w) = c(t) = c(x) = c(j) = 1, and by permuting the colors of r and s, we are sure that $L(i) = \{1, 2, 3\} = L(k), c(y) = c(u) = 1$, and $c(z) \in \{2, 3\}$. Let $\alpha = \{2, 3\} \setminus \{c(z)\}$. We recolor k, s, v with α and r, i with c(z). The coloring obtained is acyclic.

Lemma 2 Let H be a connected plane graph with n vertices, m edges and r faces. Then, we have the following:

$$\sum_{v \in V(H)} (11d(v) - 26) + \sum_{f \in F(H)} (2r(f) - 26) = -52$$
(1)

Proof

Euler's formula n - m + f = 2 can be rewritten as (22m - 26n) + (4m - 26f)) = -52. The relation $\sum_{v \in V(H)} d(v) = \sum_{f \in F(H)} r(f) = 2m$ completes the proof.

2.2 Discharging procedure

Let H be a counterexample to Theorem 2 with the minimum order. Then, H satisfies Lemma 1.

We define the weight function $\omega : V(H) \cup F(H) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\omega(x) = 11d(x) - 26$ if $x \in V(H)$ and $\omega(x) = 2r(x) - 26$ if $x \in F(H)$. It follows from Equation (1) that the total sum of weights is equal to -52. In what follows, we will define discharging rules (R1) and (R2) and redistribute weights accordingly. Once the discharging is finished, a new weight function ω^* is produced. However, the total sum of weights is kept fixed when the discharging is achieved. Nevertheless, we will show that $\omega^*(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in V(H) \cup F(H)$. This leads to the following obvious contradiction:

$$0 \leq \sum_{x \in V(H) \cup F(H)} \omega^*(x) = \sum_{x \in V(H) \cup F(H)} \omega(x) = -52 < 0$$

and hence demonstrates that no such counterexample can exist.

The discharging rules are defined as follows:

- (R1.1) Every \geq 3-vertex v gives 2 to each adjacent 2-vertex.
- (R1.2) Every \geq 4-vertex v gives 9 to each incident 3-face and 1 to each linked 3*-face.
- (R2.1) Every 3^* -vertex v gives 5 to its incident 3-face.
- (R2.2) Every 3-vertex v, which is not a 3*-vertex and is not linked to a 3*-face, gives 7 to its incident 3-face (if any).
- (R2.3) Every 3-vertex v, which is a 3*-vertex and is linked to a 3*-face, gives 1 to each linked 3*-face and gives 6 to its incident 3-face (if any).

In order to complete the proof, it suffices to prove that the new weight $\omega^*(x)$ is non-negative for all $x \in V(H) \cup F(H)$.

Let $v \in V(H)$ be a k-vertex. Then, $k \ge 2$ by (C1).

- If k = 2, then $\omega(v) = -4$ and v is adjacent to two ≥ 3 -vertices by (C3). By (R1.1), $\omega^*(v) = -4 + 2 \cdot 2 = 0$.
- If k = 3, then ω(v) = 7. Since H contains no 4-cycles, v is incident to at most one 3-face. Assume first that v is not incident to a 3-face. Then by (R1.1) and (R2.3), v gives at most 3 times 2. Hence, ω*(v) ≥ 7 3 · 2 ≥ 1. Assume now that v is incident to a 3-face. If v is a 3*-vertex, then ω*(v) = 7 5 2 = 0 by (R1.1) and (R2.1). If v is linked to a 3*-face then ω*(v) ≥ 7 6 1 = 0 by (R2.3). If v is not adjacent to a 2-vertex and not linked to a 3*-face then ω*(v) = 7 7 = 0 by (R2.2).
- If $k \ge 4$, then $\omega(v) = 11k 26$. Observe by (C1), (C2) and definitions of $n^*(v)$ and of linked vertices that:

$$m_3(v) \le \left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor$$
 and $k - 2m_3(v) \ge n_2(v) + n^*(v)$
 $k \ge 2m_3(v) + n_2(v) + n^*(v)$ (2)

It follows by (R1.1), (R1.2) and Equation (2) that:

$$\begin{split} \omega^*(v) &= 11k - 26 - 9m_3(v) - n^*(v) - 2n_2(v) \\ &\geq 11k - 26 - 9m_3(v) - \frac{9}{2}n^*(v) - \frac{9}{2}n_2(v) \\ &\geq 11k - 26 - \frac{9}{2}k \\ &\geq \frac{13}{2}k - 26 \\ &\geq 0 \end{split}$$

Suppose that f is a k-face. Then, k = 3 or $k \ge 13$ by the hypothesis.

- If $k \ge 13$, then $\omega^*(f) = \omega(f) = 2k 26 \ge 0$.
- If k = 3, then $\omega(f) = -20$. Suppose f = [rst]. By (C2), f is not incident to a 2-vertex; hence, $d(r) \ge 3$, $d(s) \ge 3$, $d(t) \ge 3$. By (C4) f is incident to at most one 3*-vertex. Now, observe that if one of the vertices r, s, t is a ≥ 4 -vertex, then by (R1.2) (R2.1) (R2.2) (R2.3) $\omega^*(f) \ge -20 + 9 + 5 + 6 = 0$. So assume d(r) = d(s) = d(t) = 3 and let r_0, s_0, t_0 be the other neighbors of r, s, t, respectively. Suppose that f is a 3*-face and let r be its unique 3*-vertex. By (C6) none of s and t are linked to a 3*-face. Moreover s_0 and t_0 give 1 to f by (R1.2) and (R2.3). Hence $\omega^*(f) = -20 + 5 + 2 \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 1 = 1$. Finally assume that f is not a 3*face. By (C5) at most one of r, s, t is linked to a 3*-face. Hence $\omega^*(f) \ge -20 + 6 + 2 \cdot 7 = 0$, by (R1.2), (R2.2) and (R2.3).

We proved that, for all $x \in V(H) \cup F(H)$, $\omega^*(x) \ge 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

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