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INSTITUT NATIONAL DE RECHERCHE EN INFORMATIQUE ET EN AUTOMATIQUE

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# 5-choosability of graphs with 2 crossings ${ }^{*}$ 

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#### Abstract

We show that every graph with two crossings is 5-choosable. We also prove that every graph which can be made planar by removing one edge is 5 -choosable.


Key-words: list colouring, choosability, crossing number
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## 5-choisissabilité des graphes ayant deux croisements

Résumé : Nous montrons que tout graphe ayant deux croisements est 5-choisissable. Nous prouvons également que tout graphe qui peut être rendu planaire par la suppression d'une arête est 5choisissable.

Mots-clés : coloration sur listes, choisissabilité, nombre de croisements

## 1 Introduction

The crossing number of a graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{cr}(G)$, is the minimum number of crossings in any drawing of $G$ in the plane.

The Four Colour Theorem states that, if a graph has crossing number zero (i.e. is planar), then it is 4-colourable. Deleting one vertex per crossing, it follows that $\chi(G) \leq 4+\operatorname{cr}(G)$. So it is natural to ask for the smallest integer $f(k)$ such that every graph $G$ with crossing number at most $k$ is $f(k)$ colourable? Settling a conjecture of Albertson [1], Schaefer [8] showed that $f(k)=O\left(k^{1 / 4}\right)$. This upper bound is tight up to a constant factor since $\chi\left(K_{n}\right)=n$ and $\operatorname{cr}\left(K_{n}\right) \leq\binom{\left|E\left(K_{n}\right)\right|}{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}n \\ 2 \\ 2\end{array}\right) \leq \frac{1}{8} n^{4}$.

The values of $f(k)$ are known for a number of small values of $k$. The Four Colour Theorem states $f(0)=4$ and implies easily that $f(1) \leq 5$. Since $\operatorname{cr}\left(K_{5}\right)=1$, we have $f(1)=5$. Oporowski and Zhao [7] showed that $f(2)=5$. Since $\operatorname{cr}\left(K_{6}\right)=3$, we have $f(3)=6$. Further, Albertson et al. [2] showed that $f(6)=6$. Albertson then conjectured that if $\chi(G)=r$, then $\operatorname{cr}(G) \leq \operatorname{cr}\left(K_{r}\right)$. This conjecture was proved by Barát and Tóth [3] for $r \leq 16$.

A list assignment of a graph $G$ is a function $L$ that assigns to each vertex $v \in V(G)$ a list $L(v)$ of available colours. An L-colouring is a function $\varphi: V(G) \rightarrow \bigcup_{v} L(v)$ such that $\varphi(v) \in L(v)$ for every $v \in V(G)$ and $\varphi(u) \neq \varphi(v)$ whenever $u$ and $v$ are adjacent vertices of $G$. If $G$ admits an $L$-colouring, then it is $L$-colourable. A graph $G$ is $k$-choosable if it is $L$-colourable for every list assignment $L$ such that $|L(v)| \geq k$ for all $v \in V(G)$. The choose number of $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{ch}(G)$, is the minimum $k$ such that $G$ is $k$-choosable.

Similarly to the chromatic number, one may seek for bounds on the choose number of a graph with few crossings or with independent crossings. Thomassen's Five Colour Theorem [10] states that if a graph has crossing number zero (i.e. is planar) then it is 5-choosable. A natural question is to ask whether the chromatic number is bounded in terms of its crossing number. Erman et al. [5] observed that Thomassen's result can be extended to graphs with crossing number at most 1 . Deleting one vertex per crossing yields $\operatorname{ch}(G) \leq 4+\operatorname{cr}(G)$. Hence, what is the smallest integer $g(k)$ such that every graph $G$ with crossing number at most $k$ is $g(k)$-choosable? Obviously, since $\chi(G) \leq \operatorname{ch}(G)$, we have $f(k) \leq g(k)$.

In this paper, we extend Erman et al. result in two ways. We first show that every graph which can be made planar by the removal of an edge is 5 -choosable (Theorem 3). We then prove that is $g(2)=5$. In other words, every graph with crossing number 2 is 5 -choosable ${ }^{1}$. This generalizes the result of Oporowski and Zhao [7] to list colouring.

## 2 Planar graphs plus an edge

In order to prove its Five Colour Theorem, Thomassen [10] showed a stronger result.
Definition 1. An inner triangulation is a plane graph such that every face of $G$ is bounded by a triangle except its outer face which is bounded by a cycle.

Let $G$ be a plane graph and $x$ and $y$ two consecutive vertices on its outer face $F$. A list assignment $L$ of $G$ is $\{x, y\}$-suitable if

- $|L(x)| \geq 1,|L(y)| \geq 2$,

[^0]- for every $v \in V(F) \backslash\{x, y\},|L(v)| \geq 3$, and
- for every $v \in V(G) \backslash V(F),|L(v)| \geq 5$.

A list assignment of $G$ is suitable if it is $\{x, y\}$-suitable for some vertices $x$ and $y$ on the outer face of $G$.

The following theorem is a straightforward generalization of Thomassen's five colour Theorem which holds for non-separable plane graphs.

Theorem 2 (Thomassen [10]). If $L$ is a suitable list assignment of a plane graph $G$ then $G$ is $L$ colourable.

This result is the cornerstone of the following proof.
Theorem 3. Let $G$ be a graph. If $G$ has an edge such that $G \backslash e$ is planar then $\operatorname{ch}(G) \leq 5$.
Proof. Let $e=u v$ be an edge of $G$ such that $G \backslash e$ is planar. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a planar triangulation containing $G \backslash e$ as a subgraph. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $u$ is on the outer triangle of $G^{\prime}$. The graph $G^{\prime}-u$ has an outer cycle $C^{\prime}$ whose vertices are the neighbours of $u$ in $G^{\prime}$.

Let $L$ be a 5-list assignment of $G$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in L(u)$. Let $L^{\prime}$ be the list-assignment of $G^{\prime}-u$ defined by $L^{\prime}(w)=L(w) \backslash\{\alpha, \beta\}$ if $w \in V\left(C^{\prime}\right)$ and $L^{\prime}(w)=L(w)$ otherwise. Then $L^{\prime}$ is suitable. So $G^{\prime}-u$ admits an $L^{\prime}$-colouring by Theorem 2. This colouring may be extended into an $L$-colouring of $G$ by assigning to $u$ a colour in $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ different from the colour of $v$.

Hence $G$ is 5-choosable.

## 3 Graphs with two crossings

### 3.1 Preliminaries

We first recall the celebrated characterization of planar graphs due to Kuratowski [6]. See also [9] for a nice proof.

Theorem 4 (Kuratowski [6]). A graph is planar if and only if it contains no minor isomorphic to either $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$.

Let $G$ be a plane graph and $x, y$ and $z$ three distinct vertices on the outer face $F$ of $G$. A list assignment $L$ of $G$ is $(x, y, z)$-correct if

- $|L(x)|=1=|L(y)|$ and $L(x) \neq L(y)$,
- $|L(z)| \geq 3$,
- for every $v \in V(F) \backslash\{x, y, z\},|L(v)| \geq 4$, and
- for every $v \in V(G) \backslash V(F),|L(v)| \geq 5$.

If $L$ is $(x, y, z)$-correct and $L(z) \geq 4$, we say that $L$ is $\{x, y\}$-correct.
Lemma 5. Let $G$ be an inner triangulation and $x$ and $y$ two distinct vertices on the outer face of $G$. If $L$ is an $(x, y, z)$-correct list assignment of $G$ then $G$ is L-colourable.

Proof. We prove the result by induction on the number of vertices, the result holding trivially when $|V(G)|=3$.

Suppose first that $F$ has a chord $x t$. Then $x t$ lies in two unique cycles in $F \cup x t$, one $C_{1}$ containing $y$ and the other $C_{2}$. For $i=1,2$, let $G_{i}$ denote the subgraph induced by the vertices lying on $C_{i}$ or inside it. By the induction hypothesis, there exists an $L$-colouring $\phi_{1}$ of $G_{1}$. Let $L_{2}$ be the list assignment on $G_{2}$ defined by $L_{2}(t)=\left\{\phi_{1}(t)\right\}$ and $L_{2}(u)=L(u)$ if $u \in V\left(G_{2}\right) \backslash\{t\}$. Let $z^{\prime}=z$ if $z \in V\left(C_{2}\right)$ and $z^{\prime}$ be any vertex of $V\left(C_{2}\right) \backslash\{x, t\}$ otherwise. Then $L_{2}$ is $\left(x, t, z^{\prime}\right)$-correct for $G_{2}$ so $G_{2}$ admits an $L_{2}$-colouring $\phi_{2}$ by induction hypothesis. The union of $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ is an $L$-colouring of $G$.

Suppose now that $x$ has exactly two neighbours $u$ and $v$ on $F$. Let $u, u_{1}, u_{2} \ldots, u_{m}, v$ be the neighbours of $x$ in their natural cyclic order around $x$. As $G$ is an inner triangulation, $u u_{1} u_{2} \cdots u_{m}, v=P$ is a path. Hence the graph $G-x$ has $F^{\prime}=P \cup(F-x)$ as outer face.

Assume first that $z \notin\{u, v\}$. Then let $L^{\prime}$ be the list assignment on $G-x$ defined by $L^{\prime}(w)=$ $L(w) \backslash L(x)$ if $w \in N_{G}(x)$ and $L^{\prime}(w)=L(w)$ otherwise. Clearly, $\left|L^{\prime}(w)\right| \geq 3$ if $w \in F^{\prime}$ and $\left|L^{\prime}(w)\right| \geq 5$ otherwise. Hence, by Theorem $2, G-x$ admits an $L^{\prime}$-colouring. Colouring $x$ with the colour of its list, we obtain an $L$-colouring of $G$.

Assume now that $z \in\{u, v\}$, say $z=u$. Let $\alpha$ be a colour of $L(z) \backslash(L(x) \cup L(y))$. Let $L^{\prime}$ be the list assignment on $G-x$ defined by $L^{\prime}(z)=\{\alpha\}, L^{\prime}(w)=L(w) \backslash L(x)$ if $w \in N_{G}(x) \backslash\{z\}$ and $L^{\prime}(w)=L(w)$ otherwise. Clearly, $L^{\prime}$ is $(y, z, v)$-correct. Hence, by the induction hypothesis, $G-x$ admits an $L^{\prime}$-colouring. Colouring $x$ with the colour of its list, we obtain an $L$-colouring of $G$.

### 3.2 Nice, great and good paths

Let $G$ be a graph and $H$ an induced subgraph of $G$.
We denote by $Z_{H}$ the set of vertices of $G$ which are adjacent to at least 3 vertices of $H$. For every vertex $v$ in $V(G)$, we denote by $N_{H}(v)$ the set of vertices of $H$ adjacent to $v$, and we set $d_{H}(v)=\left|N_{H}(v)\right|$.

Let $L$ be a list assignment of $G$. For any $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $H$, we denote by $L_{\phi}$ the list assignment of $G-H$ defined by $L_{\phi}(z)=L(z) \backslash \phi\left(N_{H}(z)\right.$ ). A vertex $z \in V(G-H)$ is safe (with respect to $\phi$ ), if $\left|L_{\phi}(z)\right| \geq 3$. An $L$-colouring of $H$ is safe if all vertices of $z \in V(G-H)$ are safe. Observe that if $L$ is a 5 -list assignment, then for any $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $H$, every vertex $z$ not in $Z_{H}$ has at most two neighbours in $H$ and therefore $\left|L_{\phi}(z)\right| \geq 3$. Hence $\phi$ is safe if and only if every vertex in $Z_{H}$ is safe.

Let $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ be an induced path in $G$. For $2 \leq i \leq p-1$, we denote by $\left[v_{i}\right]_{P}$, or simply $\left[v_{i}\right]$ if $P$ is clear from the context, the set $\left\{v_{i-1}, v_{i}, v_{i+1}\right\}$. We say that a vertex $z$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$ if it is adjacent to all vertices in the set $\left[v_{i}\right]$. Note that if $z$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$ then $z$ is not in $P$ as $P$ is induced.

Lemma 6. Let $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ be an induced path in $G, x$ a vertex such that $N_{P}(x)=\left[v_{i+1}\right], 1 \leq i \leq p-1$, and $\phi$ a colouring of $P-v_{i}$. If $i=1$ or $\phi\left(v_{i-1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{i+1}\right)$, then one can extend $\phi$ to $v_{i}$ such that $x$ is safe.

Proof. If $\left\{\phi\left(v_{i+1}\right), \phi\left(v_{i+2}\right)\right\} \not \subset L(x)$, then assigning to $v_{i}$ any colour distinct from $\phi\left(v_{i+1}\right)$, we get a colouring of $P$ such that $x$ is safe. So we may assume that $\left\{\phi\left(v_{i+1}\right), \phi\left(v_{i+2}\right)\right\} \subset L(x)$.

If $\phi\left(v_{i+2}\right) \in L\left(v_{i}\right)$, then setting $\phi\left(v_{i}\right)=\phi\left(v_{i+2}\right)$, we have a colouring $\phi$ such that $x$ is safe. If not, there is a colour $\alpha$ in $L\left(v_{i}\right) \backslash L(x)$. Necessarily, $\alpha \neq \phi\left(v_{i+1}\right)$ and so one can colour $v_{i}$ with $\alpha$. Doing so, we obtain a colouring such that $x$ is safe.

Let $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ be an induced path. It is a nice path in $G$ if the following are true.
(a) for every $z \in Z_{P}, N_{P}(z)=\left[v_{i}\right]$ for some $2 \leq i \leq p-1$;
(b) for every $2 \leq i \leq p-1$, there are at most two vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$ and, if there are two such vertices, then the number of vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i-1}\right]$ or $\left[v_{i+1}\right]$ is at most 1 .
It is a great path in $G$ if is is nice and satisfies the following extra property.
(c) for any $i<j$, if there are two vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$ and two vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{j}\right]$, then the number of vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i+1}\right]$ or $\left[v_{j-1}\right]$ is at most 1 .
A safe colouring of a path $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ is $\alpha$-safe if $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\alpha$.
Lemma 7. If $P$ is a great path and $L$ is a 5 -list assignment of $G$, then for any $\alpha \in L\left(v_{1}\right)$, there exists an $\alpha$-safe L-colouring $\phi$ of $P$.
Proof. We prove this result by induction on $p$, the number of vertices of $P$, the result holding trivially when $p \leq 2$.

Assume now that $p \geq 3$. Since $P$ is great then every vertex of $Z_{P}$ adjacent to $v_{1}$ is also adjacent to $v_{2}$ and there are at most two vertices of $Z_{P}$ adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.

Set $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\alpha$.

1. If there is no vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$, then by induction, for any $\beta \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$, there is a $\beta$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $v_{2} \cdots v_{p}$. Since $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\alpha, \phi$ is an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $P$.
2. Assume now that there is a unique vertex $z$ adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.

If $\alpha \notin L(z)$, then by Case 1 , there is an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $P$ in $G-z$. It is also an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $P$ in $G$ since $z$ is safe as $\alpha \notin L(z)$. Hence we may assume that $\alpha \in L(z)$.
Assume there is a colour $\beta$ in $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$. By induction there is a $\beta$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $v_{2} \cdots v_{p}$. Since $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\alpha$, we obtain an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $P$ because $z$ is safe as $\beta \notin L(z)$. Hence we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right)=L(z)$. In particular, $\alpha \in L\left(v_{2}\right)$. Let $\gamma$ be $\alpha$ if $\alpha \in L\left(v_{3}\right)$, and a colour in $L\left(v_{3}\right) \backslash L\left(v_{2}\right)$ otherwise. We set $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)=\gamma$. Observe that whatever colour is assigned to $v_{2}$, the vertex $z$ will be safe.
2.1. Assume that no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$. By induction hypothesis, there is a $\gamma$-safe $L$ colouring $\phi$ of $v_{3} \cdots v_{p}$. Choosing $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)$ in $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha, \gamma\}$, we obtain an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $P$.
2.2. Assume that exactly one vertex $t$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$. By induction hypothesis, there is a $\gamma$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $v_{3} \cdots v_{p}$. So far all the vertices except $t$ will be safe. So we just need to choose $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)$ so that $t$ is safe.
Observe that if $\left\{\gamma, \phi\left(v_{4}\right)\right\} \not \subset L(t)$, choosing any colour of $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha, \gamma\}$ will do the job. So we may assume that $\left\{\gamma, \phi\left(v_{4}\right)\right\} \subset L(t)$. If there is a colour $\beta \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash(L(t) \cup\{\alpha\})$, then setting $L\left(\nu_{2}\right)=\beta$ will make $t$ safe. So we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\} \subset L(t)$ and so $L(t)=L\left(v_{2}\right) \cup\{\gamma\} \backslash\{\alpha\}$. Thus $\phi\left(v_{4}\right) \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha, \gamma\}$. Then setting $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$ makes $t$ safe.
2.3. Assume that two vertices $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ are adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$. Then no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{4}\right]$. Therefore, it suffices to prove that there is an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$. Indeed, if we have such a colouring $\phi$, then by induction, $v_{4} \cdots v_{p}$ admits a $\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi^{\prime}$. The union of these two colourings is an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $P$.
If there exists $\beta \in L\left(v_{4}\right) \cap L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha, \gamma\}$, then setting $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\beta$, we obtain an $\alpha$ safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$. Otherwise, $L\left(v_{4}\right) \backslash\{\gamma\}$ and $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$ are disjoint. Hence one can choose $\beta$ in $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$ and $\delta$ in $L\left(v_{4}\right) \backslash\{\gamma\}$ so that $\left|\{\beta, \gamma, \delta\} \cap L\left(t_{i}\right)\right| \leq 2$ for $i=1,2$. Setting $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\beta$ and $\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\delta$, we obtain an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$.
3. Assume that two vertices $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.

We claim that it suffices to prove that there is an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}$.
Let $j$ be the smallest index such that no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{j}\right]$. For the definition of $j$, consider there is no vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{p}\right]$ so that $j \leq p$. By the property (c) of great path, for all $3 \leq i<j$, there is exactly one vertex $z_{i}$ adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$. For $i=3, \ldots, j-1$, one after another, one can use Lemma 6 in the path $v_{i+1} \cdots v_{1}$ to extend $\phi$ to $v_{i+1}$, so that $z_{i}$ is safe. Then applying induction on the path $v_{j} \cdots v_{p}$, we obtain an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring. This proves the claim.
Let us now prove that an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}$ exists.
If $\alpha \notin L\left(z_{i}\right)$, then any $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}$ in $G-z_{i}$ will be an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring in $G$. By Case 2 , one can find such a colouring in $G-z_{i}$, so we may assume that $\alpha \in L\left(z_{i}\right)$.
If there is a colour $\beta \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash L\left(z_{1}\right)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\beta$. By Lemma 6 in the path $v_{3} v_{2} v_{1}$, one can choose $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$ in $L\left(v_{3}\right)$ to obtain an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}$. Hence we may assume that $L\left(z_{1}\right)=L\left(v_{2}\right)$. Similarly, we may assume that $L\left(z_{2}\right)=L\left(v_{2}\right)$. Therefore, any $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}$ in $G-z_{2}$ will be an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring in $G$. We can find such a colouring using Case 2.

We say that an induced path $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ is good path if either $P$ is great or $p \geq 4$ and there is a vertex $z \in Z_{P}$ adjacent to $v_{1}$ such that $\left\{v_{1}, v_{4}\right\} \subset N_{P}(z) \subseteq\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$ satisfying the following conditions:

- $P$ is a great path in $G \backslash v_{1} z$.
- if two vertices distinct from $z$ are adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$, then $N_{P}(z)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$ and there is no vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$; and
- if two vertices distinct from $z$ are adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$, then $N_{P}(z)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{4}\right\}$ and there is no vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.

Note that since $P$ is induced, then $z$ is not in $P$.
Lemma 8. If $P=v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ is a good path and $L$ is a 5 -list assignment of $G$, then there exists a safe $L$-colouring of $P$.

Proof. If $P$ is great, then the result follows from Lemma 7 . So we may assume that $P$ is not great. Let $z$ be the vertex of $Z_{P}$ such that $\left\{v_{1}, v_{4}\right\} \subset N_{P}(z) \subseteq\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$.

If there is a colour $\alpha \in L\left(v_{1}\right) \backslash L(z)$, then let $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\alpha$ and use Lemma 7 to colour $v_{1} \cdots v_{p}$ in $G \backslash v_{1} z$. The obtained colouring $\phi$ is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. For any $z^{\prime} \in Z_{P} \backslash\{z\}$, we have $\left|L_{\phi}\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right| \geq 3$ because $z^{\prime}$ has the same neighbourhood in $G$ and $G \backslash v_{1} z$. Now $\left|L_{\phi}(z)\right| \geq 3$ since $\alpha \notin L(z)$, so $\phi$ is safe. Henceforth, we assume that $L\left(v_{1}\right)=L(z)$.

1. Assume first that $N_{P}(z)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$.

By the properties of a good path, at most one vertex $z^{\prime}$ different from $z$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.
1.1. Assume first that $z$ is the unique vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$.

If there is a colour $\alpha \in L(z) \cap L\left(v_{3}\right)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{3}\right)=\alpha$. By Lemma 7 , one can extend $\phi$ to $v_{3} \cdots v_{p}$ so that all vertices of $Z_{P}$ but $z$ are safe. Then by Lemma 6 applied to
$v_{2} \cdots v_{p}$, one can choose $\phi\left(v_{2}\right) \in L\left(v_{2}\right)$ so that $z$ is safe for $P-v_{1}$. Since $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$, then $\phi$ is a proper colouring and $z$ is safe for $P$. Hence $\phi$ is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. So we may assume that $L(z) \cap L\left(v_{3}\right)=\emptyset$.
If there exists $\beta \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash L(z)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\beta$. By Lemma 7 , one can extend $\phi$ to $v_{2} \cdots v_{p}$ so that all vertices of $Z_{P}$ but $z$ and $z^{\prime}$ are safe. Observe that necessarily $z$ will be safe because $\phi\left(v_{2}\right) \notin L(z)$ and $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \notin L(z)$. By Lemma6, one can extend $\phi$ to $v_{1}$ so that $z^{\prime}$ is safe, thus getting a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. So we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right)=L(z)$.
We have $\left|L\left(v_{2}\right) \cup L\left(v_{3}\right)\right|=10 \geq\left|L\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right|$. So we can find $\alpha \in L\left(v_{2}\right)$ and $\beta \in L\left(v_{3}\right)$ so that $\left|\{\alpha, \beta\} \cap L\left(z^{\prime}\right)\right| \leq 1$. Using Lemma 7 take a $\beta$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of the path $v_{3} v_{4} \ldots v_{p}$ and set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\alpha$. If $\phi\left(v_{4}\right) \in L(z) \backslash\{\alpha\}$, then colour $v_{1}$ with $\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$, otherwise colour it with any colour distinct from $\alpha$. This gives a safe $L$-colouring of $P$.
1.2 Assume now that a vertex $y \neq z$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$.

* Suppose that a vertex $t$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{4}\right]$. Then $z^{\prime}$ does not exist.

If there is a colour $\alpha \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash L(z)$, then using Lemma 7 take an $\alpha$-safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $v_{2} \cdots v_{p}$. If $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \notin L(z)$, then $z$ would be safe whatever colour we assign to $v_{1}$, so there is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. If If $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \in L(z)$, then setting $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$, we obtain a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. So we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right)=L(z)$.
If there is a colour $\alpha$ in $L(z) \cap L\left(v_{4}\right)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\alpha$. Then $y$ will be safe. Extend $\phi$ to $v_{4} \cdots v_{p}$ by Lemma 7. Then all the vertices are safe except $t$ and $z$. By Lemma6, one can choose $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$ so that $t$ is safe. If $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \in L(z)$, then setting $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=$ $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$, we get a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. If $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \notin L(z)$, then whatever colour we assign to $v_{1}$, we obtain a safe colouring of $P$. Hence we may assume that $L(z) \cap L\left(v_{4}\right)=\emptyset$. By Lemma 7, there is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$ in $G \backslash z v_{4}$. This colouring is also a safe colouring of $P$ in $G$, since $\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$ is not in $L(z)$.

* If no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{4}\right]$, then $z^{\prime}$ may exist. In this case, it is sufficient to prove that there exists a safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$. Indeed, if there is such a colouring $\phi$, then by Lemma 7, it can be extended to a safe $L$-colouring of $P$.
Symmetrically to the way we proved the result when $L\left(v_{1}\right) \neq L(z)$, one can prove it when $L\left(v_{4}\right) \neq L(z)$. Hence we may assume that $L\left(v_{4}\right)=L(z)$.
Assume that there is a colour $\alpha \in L\left(v_{2}\right) \cap L(z)$. Set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\alpha$. If there is a colour $\beta \in L\left(v_{3}\right) \backslash L(z)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)=\beta$ so that $z$ will be safe and extend $\phi$ with Lemma 6 so that $z^{\prime}$ is safe to obtain a safe colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$ in $G$. If $L\left(v_{3}\right)=L(z)$, then assign to $v_{1}$ and $v_{3}$ a same colour in $L(z) \backslash\{\alpha\}$ to get a safe colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$. Hence we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right) \cap L(z)=\emptyset$. Symmetrically, we may assume that $L\left(v_{3}\right) \cap L(z)=\emptyset$. By Lemma 7, there exists a safe colouring $\phi$ of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$ in $G-z$. It is also a safe colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4}$ in $G$ because $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)$ and $\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$ cannot be in $L(z)$.

2. Assume now that $N_{P}(z)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right\}$.

If no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$, then using Lemma 7 take a safe $L$-colouring of $v_{2} \ldots v_{p}$. If $\phi\left(v_{3}\right) \in L(z)$, then set $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{3}\right)$. If not colour $v_{3}$ with any colour in $L(z) \backslash\left\{\phi\left(v_{2}\right)\right\}$. This gives a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. Hence we may assume that a vertex $t$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.
By the properties of a good path, we know that at most one vertex, say $u$, is adjacent to $v_{3}$. If $L\left(v_{3}\right) \cap L(z)$ is empty, then any safe $L$-colouring of $P$ given by Lemma 7 in $G \backslash z v_{1}$ would be a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. Hence we may assume that there is a colour $\alpha$ in $L\left(v_{3}\right) \cap L(z)$. Set $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{3}\right)=\alpha$ and apply Lemma 7 to $v_{3} \ldots v_{p}$. Then by Lemma 6, we can choose $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)$ so that the possible vertex $u$ is safe. This gives a safe colouring of $P$.
3. Assume that $N_{P}(z)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{4}\right\}$.

Suppose no vertex is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$. By Lemma 7 , there is a safe $L$ - colouring of $v_{2} \ldots v_{p}$. Set $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$ if $\phi\left(v_{4}\right) \in L(z) \backslash\left\{\phi\left(v_{2}\right)\right\}$, and let $\phi\left(v_{1}\right)$ be any colour of $L\left(v_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{\phi\left(v_{2}\right)\right\}$ otherwise. Doing so $z$ is safe and so $\phi$ is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. Hence we may assume that a vertex $u$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$. By definition of good path, it is the unique vertex adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$.
Suppose that there exists a colour $\beta$ in $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash L(z)$. By Lemma 7 , there is a safe colouring $\phi$ of $v_{2} \ldots v_{p}$ such that $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\beta$. By Lemma 6 , it can be extended to $v_{1}$ so that $u$ is safe. This yields a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. Hence we may assume that $L\left(v_{2}\right)=L(z)$.
If $L\left(v_{4}\right) \cap L(z)=\emptyset$, then in every colouring of $P$, the vertex $z$ will be safe. Hence any safe colouring of $P$ in $G-z$, (there is one by Lemma 7) is a safe $L$-colouring of $P$ in $G$. So we may assume that there exists a colour $\alpha \in L\left(v_{4}\right) \cap L(z)$.
Assume that at most one vertex $s$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{4}\right]$. Set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\alpha$ so that $z$ and all the vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$ will be safe. By Lemma 7 , there is an $\alpha$-safe colouring of $v_{4} \ldots v_{p}$. Now by Lemma 6, one can extend $\phi$ to $v_{3}$ so that $s$ (if it exists) is safe, and then again by Lemma 6 extend it to $v_{1}$ so that $u$ is safe. This gives a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. So we may assume that two vertices $s$ and $s^{\prime}$ are adjacent to $\left[v_{4}\right]$.
Assume that there is a vertex $t$ adjacent to $\left[v_{3}\right]$, then there is no vertex adjacent to [ $v_{5}$ ]. Hence it suffices to find a safe $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4} v_{5}$. Indeed, if we have such a colouring $\phi$, then using Lemma 7, one can extend it to a safe $L$-colouring of $P$. Set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)=\alpha$. Doing so $t$ and $z$ will be safe. If $\alpha$ or some colour $\beta \in L\left(v_{5}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$ is not contained in one of lists $L(s)$ and $L\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, say $L\left(s^{\prime}\right)$. Then colouring $v_{5}$ with $\beta$, if it exists, or any other colour otherwise, the vertex $s^{\prime}$ will also be safe. By Lemma 6, one can colour $v_{3}$ so that $s$ is safe. By Lemma 6, one can then colour $v_{1}$ to obtain a colouring for which $u$ is safe. This $L$-colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4} v_{5}$ is safe. Hence, we may assume that $L(s)=L\left(s^{\prime}\right)=L\left(v_{5}\right)$. Colour $v_{5}$ with any colour in $L\left(v_{5}\right) \backslash\{\alpha\}$. Using Lemma 6, colour $v_{3}$ so that $s$ is safe. Then $s^{\prime}$ will be also safe because $L(s)=L\left(s^{\prime}\right)$. Again by Lemma 6, colour $v_{1}$ so that $u$ is safe to obtain a safe colouring of $v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} v_{4} v_{5}$.
Assume finally that no vertex is adjacent to [ $v_{3}$ ]. By Lemma 7, there is a safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $v_{3} \ldots v_{p}$. If $\phi\left(v_{4}\right) \notin L(z)$, then assign to $v_{2}$ any colour in $L\left(v_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{\phi\left(v_{3}\right)\right\}$. If not, then set $\phi\left(v_{2}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$. (This is possible since $L\left(v_{2}\right)=L(z)$.) Then $z$ will be safe. By Lemma6, colour $v_{1}$ so that $u$ is safe to obtain a safe $L$-colouring of $P$.

### 3.3 Main theorem

A drawing of $G$ is nice if two edges intersect at most once. It is well known that every graph with crossing number $k$ has a nice drawing with at most $k$ crossings. (See [5] for example.) In this paper, we will only consider nice drawings. Thus a crossing is uniquely defined by the pair of edges it belongs to. Henceforth, we will confound a crossing with this set of two edges. The cluster of a crossing $C$ is the set of endvertices of its two edges and is denoted $V(C)$.

Theorem 9. Let $G$ be a graph having a drawing in the plane with two crossings. Then $\operatorname{ch}(G) \leq 5$.
Proof. By considering a counter-example $G$ with the minimum number of vertices. Let $L$ be a 5-list assignment of $G$ such that $G$ is not $L$-colourable.

Let $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be the two crossings. By Theorem 3, $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ have no edge in common. Set $C_{i}=\left\{v_{i} w_{i}, t_{i} u_{i}\right\}$. Free to add edges and to redraw them along the crossing, we may assume that $v_{i} u_{i}$, $u_{i} w_{i}, w_{i} t_{i}$ and $t_{i} v_{i}$ are edges and that the 4 -cycle $v_{i} u_{i} w_{i} t_{i}$ has no vertex inside but the two edges of $C_{i}$. In addition, we assume that $u_{1} v_{1} t_{1} w_{1}$ appear in clockwise order around the crossing point of $C_{1}$ and that $u_{2} v_{2} t_{2} w_{2}$ appear in counter-clockwise order around the crossing point of $C_{2}$. Free to add edges, we may also assume that $G \backslash\left\{v_{1} w_{1}, v_{2} w_{2}\right\}$ is a triangulation of the plane. In the rest of the proof, for convenience, we will refer to this fact by writing that $G$ is triangulated.
Claim 9.1. Every vertex of $G$ has degree at least 5 .
Proof. Suppose not. Then $G$ has a vertex $x$ of degree at most 4. By minimality of $G, G-x$ has an $L$-colouring $\phi$. Now assigning to $x$ a colour in $L(x) \backslash \phi(N(x))$ we obtain an $L$-colouring of $G$, a contradiction.

A cycle is separating if none of its edges is crossed and both its interior and exterior contain at least one vertex. A cycle is nicely separating if it is separating and its interior or its exterior has no crossing.
Claim 9.2. G has no nicely separating triangle.
Proof. Assume, by way of contradiction, that a triangle $T=x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}$ is nicely separating. Let $G_{1}$ (resp. $G_{2}$ ) be the subgraph of $G$ induced by the vertices on $T$ or outside $T$ (resp. inside $T$ ). Without loss of generality, we may assume that $G_{2}$ is a plane graph.

By minimality of $G, G_{1}$ has an $L$-colouring $\phi_{1}$. Let $L_{2}$ be the list assignment of $G_{2}$ defined by $L_{2}\left(x_{1}\right)=\left\{\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)\right\}, L_{2}\left(x_{2}\right)=\left\{\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right)\right\}, L_{2}\left(x_{3}\right)=\left\{\phi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \phi_{1}\left(x_{2}\right), \phi_{1}\left(x_{3}\right)\right\}$, and $L_{2}(x)=L(x)$ for every vertex inside $T$. Then $L_{2}$ is a suitable list assignment of $G_{2}$, so by Theorem 2, $G_{2}$ admits an $L_{2}$-colouring $\phi_{2}$. Observe that necessarily $\phi_{2}\left(x_{i}\right)=\phi_{1}\left(x_{i}\right)$. Hence the union of $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ is an $L$-colouring of $G$, a contradiction.

Claim 9.3. Let $C=$ abcd be a 4 -cycle with no crossing inside it. If a and $c$ have no common neighbour inside $C$ then $C$ has no vertex in its interior.

Proof. Assume by way of contradiction that the set $S$ of vertices inside $C$ is not empty.
Then $a c$ is not an edge otherwise one of the triangles $a b c$ and $a c d$ would be nicely separating. Since $G$ is triangulated, the neighbours of $a$ (resp. $c$ ) inside $C$ plus $b$ and $d$ (in cyclic order around $a$ (resp. $c$ )) form a $(b, d)$-path $P_{a}$ (resp. $P_{c}$ ). The paths $P_{a}$ and $P_{c}$ are internally disjoint because $a$ and $c$ have no common neighbour inside $C$. Hence $P_{a} \cup P_{c}$ is a cycle $C^{\prime}$. Furthermore $C^{\prime}$ is the outerface of $G^{\prime}=G\langle S \cup\{b, d\}\rangle$.

By minimality of $G, G_{1}=(G-S) \cup b d$ admits an $L$-colouring $\phi$. Let $L^{\prime}$ be the list-colouring of $G^{\prime}$ defined by $L^{\prime}(b)=\{\phi(b)\}, L^{\prime}(d)=\{\phi(d)\}, L^{\prime}(x)=L(x) \backslash\{\phi(a)\}$ if $x$ is an internal vertex of $P_{a}$, $L^{\prime}(x)=L(x) \backslash\{\phi(c)\}$ if $x$ is an internal vertex of $P_{c}$, and $L^{\prime}(x)=L(x)$ if $x \in V\left(G^{\prime}-C^{\prime}\right)$. Then $L^{\prime}$ is a $\{b, d\}$-correct list assignment of $G^{\prime}$. Hence, by Lemma5, $G^{\prime}$ admits an $L^{\prime}$-colouring $\phi^{\prime}$. The union of $\phi$ and $\phi^{\prime}$ is an $L$-colouring of $G$, a contradiction.

Claim 9.4. G has no nicely separating 4-cycle.
Proof. Suppose not. Then there exists a nicely separating 4-cycle $a b c d$. Let $b=z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{p+1}=d$ be the common neighbours of $a$ and $c$ in clockwise order around $a$. By Claim 9.3, we have $p \geq 2$. Each of the 4 -cycles $a z_{i} c z_{i+1}, 1 \leq i \leq p$ has empty interior by Claim 9.3. So $z_{2}$ has degree at most 4 . This contradicts Claim 9.1 .

A path $P$ is friendly if there are two adjacent vertices $x$ and $y$ such that $\left|N_{P}(x)\right| \leq 4,\left|N_{P}(y)\right| \leq 3$ and $P$ is good in $G-\{x, y\}$. A path $P$ meets a crossing if it contains at least one endvertex of each of the two crossed edges. A magic path is a friendly path meeting both crossings.

Claim 9.5. G has no magic path $Q$.
Proof. Suppose for a contradiction that $G$ has a magic path $Q$. Then there exists two adjacent vertices $x$ and $y$ such that $\left|N_{Q}(x)\right| \leq 4,\left|N_{Q}(y)\right| \leq 3$ and $P$ is good in $G-\{x, y\}$. Lemma 8 , there in a $L$ colouring $\phi$ of $Q$ such that every vertex $z$ of $(G-Q)-\{x, y\}$ satisfies $\left|L_{\phi}(z)\right| \geq 3$. Now $\left|L_{\phi}(x)\right| \geq 1$ and $\left|L_{\phi}(y)\right| \geq 2$, because $\left|N_{Q}(x)\right| \leq 4$ and $N_{Q}(y) \leq 3$ Since $Q$ meets the two crossings, $G-Q$ is planar. Furthermore, $G-Q$ may be drawn in the plane such that all the vertices on the outer face are those of $N(Q)$. Hence $L_{\phi}$ is a suitable assignment of $G-Q$. Hence by Theorem $2, G-Q$ is $L_{\phi}$-colourable and so $G$ is $L$-colourable, a contradiction.

In the remaining of the proof, we shall prove that $G$ contains a magic path, thus getting a contradiction. Therefore, we consider shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-paths, that are paths joining $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ with the smallest number of edges. We first consider the cases when the distance between $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ is 0 or 1 . We then deal with the general case when $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 2$.
Claim 9.6. $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)>0$.
Proof. Assume for a contradiction that $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=0$. Then, without loss of generality, $v_{1}=v_{2}$. Note that $u_{1} \neq u_{2}$ as otherwise the path $u_{1} v_{1}$ would be magic, contradicting Claim 9.5. Similarly, we have $t_{1} \neq t_{2}$.

Note that $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$ for otherwise both the interior and exterior of $w_{1} u_{1} v_{1} u_{2}$ would contain at least one neighbour of $u_{1}$ by Claim 9.1. Thus this 4 -cycle would be nicely separating, a contradiction to Claim 9.4. Henceforth, by symmetry, $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$ nor $t_{2}$ and $w_{2}$ is not adjacent to $u_{1}$ nor $t_{1}$.

If $u_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$, then consider the induced path $Q=u_{1} v_{1} u_{2}$. Since $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ are not adjacent to $u_{2}$ and $u_{1}$, respectively, then $\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\} \cap Z_{Q}=\emptyset$. The vertices $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ cannot be both in $Z_{Q}$ for otherwise $u_{1} t_{2}$ and $u_{2} t_{1}$ would cross. Furthermore, if $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are distinct vertices in $Z_{Q} \backslash\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}\right\}$, then either $u_{1} v_{1} u_{2} z_{1}$ nicely separates $z_{2}$ or $u_{1} v_{1} u_{2} z_{2}$ nicely separates $z_{1}$ contradicting Claim 9.4. Thus, $\left|Z_{Q}\right| \leq 2$ and $Q$ is magic contradicting Claim 9.5. Henceforth, $u_{1}$ is adjacent to $u_{2}$, and, by a symmetrical argument, $t_{1}$ is adjacent to $t_{2}$.

If $u_{1}$ is adjacent to $t_{2}$, then both the interior and exterior of $u_{1} u_{2} w_{2} t_{2}$ contain at least one neighbour of $w_{2}$ by Claim 9.1 . Thus this 4 -cycle would be nicely separating, a contradiction to Claim 9.4 . Henceforth, $u_{1}$ is not adjacent to $t_{2}$, and symmetrically $t_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$.

Therefore $Q=u_{1} v_{1} t_{2}$ is an induced path. Note that $Z_{Q} \subseteq N\left(v_{1}\right)$. The triangles $v_{1} u_{1} u_{2}$ and $v_{1} t_{1} t_{2}$ together with Claim 9.2 imply that $N\left(v_{1}\right)=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, t_{1}, t_{2}, w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$. Since $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $t_{2}$ and $w_{2}$ is not adjacent to $u_{1}$, then $Z_{Q}=\left\{u_{2}, t_{1}\right\}$. Thus $Q$ is magic contradicting Claim 9.5 ,

Claim 9.7. Let $i \in\{1,2\}$ and $x$ a vertex not in $C_{i}$. Then at most one vertex in $\left\{u_{i}, t_{i}\right\}$ is adjacent to $x$ and at most one vertex in $\left\{v_{i}, w_{i}\right\}$ is adjacent to $x$.

Proof. Assume for a contradiction that $x$ is adjacent to both $u_{i}$ and $t_{i}$. Observe that the edges $u_{i} x$ and $t_{i} x$ are not crossed since $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 1$. Then one of the two 4 -cycles $u_{i} v_{i} t_{i} x$ and $u_{i} w_{i} t_{i} x$ is nicely separating. Thus the region bounded by this cycle has no vertex by Claim 9.4. Hence either $d\left(v_{i}\right) \leq 4$ or $d\left(w_{i}\right) \leq 4$. This contradicts Claim 9.1 .

Similarly, one shows that at most one vertex in $\left\{v_{i}, w_{i}\right\}$ is adjacent to $x$.

Claim 9.8. $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)>1$.
Proof. Assume for a contradiction that $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=1$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $v_{1} v_{2} \in E(G)$.

Let us first show that without loss of generality, we may assume that $u_{1}$ is not adjacent to $v_{2}$ and $u_{2}$ is not adjacent to $v_{1}$. By symmetry, if $t_{1}$ is not adjacent to $v_{2}$ and $t_{2}$ is not adjacent to $v_{1}$, then we get the result by renaming swapping the names of $u_{i}$ and $t_{i}, i=1,2$. Thus by symmetry and by Claim 9.7 , if it not the case, then $u_{1} v_{2} \in E(G)$ and $v_{1} t_{2} \in E(G)$. Moreover $w_{1} v_{2}$ is not an edge by Claim 9.7. Hence renaming $u_{1}, v_{1}, t_{1}, w_{1}$ into $v_{1}, t_{1}, w_{1}, u_{1}$ respectively, we are in the desired configuration.

The vertices $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ are not adjacent, for otherwise the cycle $u_{1} v_{1} v_{2} u_{2}$ would be nicely separating since $G$ is triangulated and $u_{1} v_{2}$ and $u_{2} v_{1}$ are not edges. So $Q$ is an induced path.

A vertex of $Z_{Q}$ is goofy if it is adjacent to $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$.

- Suppose first that there is a goofy vertex $z^{\prime}$ not in $C_{1} \cup C_{2}$.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that $z^{\prime}$ is adjacent to $u_{1}, v_{1}$ and $u_{2}$. If the crossing $C_{1}$ is inside $z^{\prime} u_{1} v_{1}$, then consider the path $R=t_{1} v_{1} v_{2} u_{2}$. It is induced since $z^{\prime} u_{1} v_{1}$ separates $t_{1}$ from $v_{2}$ and $u_{2}$. Moreover all the neighbours of $t_{1}$ are inside $z^{\prime} u_{1} v_{1}$, so they have at most two neighbours in $R$ except for $u_{1}$ which is not adjacent to $v_{2}$ nor to $u_{2}$. Hence the vertices of $Z_{R}$ are all adjacent to $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, u_{2}\right\}$. Moreover $w_{2} \notin Z_{R}$ because $w_{2} v_{1}$ is not an edge by Claim 9.7. Hence by planarity of $G-\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$, there are at most two vertices adjacent to $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, u_{2}\right\}$. Thus $R$ is magic, a contradiction.
Hence we may assume that $C_{1}$ is outside $z^{\prime} u_{1} v_{1}$. The 4-cycle $z^{\prime} v_{1} v_{2} u_{2}$ is not nicely separating by Claim 9.4, and $G$ is triangulated. So $z^{\prime} v_{2} \in E(G)$ because $v_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$. So $z^{\prime}$ is adjacent to all vertices of $Q$.
Then there is no other vertex $z^{\prime \prime}$ in $Z_{Q} \backslash\left\{C_{1} \cup C_{2}\right\}$, for otherwise one of the crossing $C_{i}$ is inside $u_{i} v_{i} z^{\prime \prime}$ and as above, we obtain the contradiction that $R$ is magic.

Now $w_{1} u_{2}$ is not an edge, for otherwise $w_{1} u_{1} z^{\prime} u_{2}$ would be separating since $d\left(u_{1}\right) \geq 5$, a contradiction to Claim 9.4. Similarly, $w_{2} u_{1}$ is not an edge. Hence $Z_{Q} \subset\left\{z^{\prime}, t_{1}, t_{2}\right\}$. Now one of the edges $t_{1} u_{2}$ and $t_{2} u_{1}$ is not in $E(G)$, since otherwise they would cross. Without loss of generality, $t_{1}$ is not adjacent to $u_{2}$. Then $Q$ is good in $G-t_{2}$, and so $Q$ is magic. This contradicts Claim 9.5 .

- Suppose now that all the goofy vertices of $Z_{Q}$ are in $C_{1} \cup C_{2}$.

Suppose first that $w_{1}$ is in $Z_{Q}$, then $w_{1} u_{2}$ is an edge because $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $v_{2}$ according to Claim 9.7. Thus $t_{2}$ and $w_{2}$ are not adjacent to $u_{1}$. So $w_{2} \notin Z_{Q}$ and $N_{Q}\left(t_{2}\right) \subset\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, u_{2}\right\}$, so $t_{2}$ is not goofy. Moreover by planarity of $G-\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$, there is at most two vertices adjacent $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, u_{2}\right\}$. Furthermore, all the vertices distinct from $t_{1}$ and adjacent to $\left\{u_{1}, v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ are in the region bounded by $w_{1} v_{1} v_{2} u_{2}$ containing $u_{1}$. Therefore there is at most one such vertex. Hence $Q$ is good in $G-\left\{w_{1}, t_{1}\right\}$. Thus $Q$ is magic and contradicts Claim 9.5 .
Similarly, we get a contradiction if $w_{2} \in Z_{Q}$. So $Z_{Q} \cap\left(C_{1} \cup C_{2}\right) \subseteq\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}\right\}$. Then easily $Q$ is good in $G-t_{2}$ and so $Q$ is magic. This contradicts Claim 9.5 .

Claim 9.9. Some of the shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-paths is nice.

Proof. Let $P=x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{p}$ be any shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path. Then no vertex in $C_{1}$ is adjacent to a vertex in $P-\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$. Therefore, $V\left(C_{1}\right) \cap Z_{P}=\emptyset$. Similarly, we have $V\left(C_{2}\right) \cap Z_{P}=\emptyset$. Hence the graph $G^{\prime}$ induced by $V(P) \cup Z_{P}$ is planar as it contains exactly one vertex from each crossing.

Any vertex not in $P$ can be adjacent only to vertices of $P$ at distance at most two from each other, otherwise there would be a $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path shorter than $P$. Thus, if $z \in Z_{P}$, then $z$ has precisely three neighbours in $P$. Moreover, there exists an $i \in\{2, \ldots, p-1\}$ such that $N_{P}(z)=\left[x_{i}\right]$.

If there are distinct vertices $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3} \in Z_{P}$ such that $N_{P}\left(z_{1}\right)=N_{P}\left(z_{2}\right)=N_{P}\left(z_{2}\right)=\left[x_{i}\right]$ for some value of $i$, then the subgraph of $G^{\prime}$ induced by $\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{i-1}, x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right\}$ contains a $K_{3,3}$. By Kuratowski's Theorem, this contradicts the fact that $G^{\prime}$ is planar. Therefore, for every $2 \leq i \leq p-1$, there are at most two vertices in $Z_{P}$ adjacent to $\left[x_{i}\right]$.

Let $z_{1}, z_{2} \in Z_{P}$ be such that $N_{P}\left(z_{1}\right)=N_{P}\left(z_{2}\right)=\left[x_{i}\right]$. The edges of $H=G\left[\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\} \cup\left[x_{i}\right]\right]$ separate the plane into five regions $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{5}$ as follows. Let $R_{1}$ be the region bounded by $x_{i-1} x_{i} z_{1}$ not containing the vertex $z_{2}, R_{2}$ be the region bounded by $x_{i} x_{i+1} z_{1}$ not containing the vertex $z_{2}, R_{3}$ be the region bounded by $x_{i-1} x_{i} z_{2}$ not containing the vertex $z_{1}, R_{4}$ be the region bounded by $x_{i} x_{i+1} z_{2}$ not containing the vertex $z_{1}$ and $R_{5}$ be the region bounded by $x_{i-1 z_{1}} x_{i+1} z_{2}$ not containing $x_{i}$ (see Figure 11). Since $\left(V\left(C_{1}\right) \cup V\left(C_{2}\right)\right) \cap Z_{P}=\emptyset$ and $P$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path, then no edge in $H$ is crossed.


Figure 1: Regions $R_{1}, R_{2}, R_{3}, R_{4}$ and $R_{5}$.

Let $J_{P}$ be the subset of $\{3, \ldots, p-2\}$ such that for $j \in J_{P}$, there are two vertices in $Z_{P}$ adjacent to $\left[x_{j}\right]$ and at least one vertex adjacent to $\left[x_{j-1}\right]$ and another adjacent to $\left[x_{j+1}\right]$. The path $P$ is said to be semi-nice if $J_{P}=\emptyset$.

Let us first prove that some of the shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-paths is semi-nice.
Suppose for a contradiction that no shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path is semi-nice. Let $P$ be a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path that maximizes the smallest index $i$ in $J_{P}$. Let $z_{1}, z_{2} \in Z_{P}$ be such that $N_{P}\left(z_{1}\right)=$ $N_{P}\left(z_{2}\right)=\left[x_{i}\right]$.
Let $z \in Z_{P}$ be a vertex adjacent to $\left[x_{i+1}\right]$. If $C_{2}$ is in $R_{5}$, then so is $x_{i+2}$ and we get a contradiction from the fact that either $z x_{i}$ or $z x_{i+2}$ must cross an edge of $H$. Since $P$ defines a path between $x_{i+1}$ and $V\left(C_{2}\right)$, then $C_{2}$ must be either in $R_{2}$ or in $R_{4}$ (say $R_{4}$ ). Similarly, $C_{1}$ is either in $R_{1}$ or in $R_{3}$. The cycle $x_{i-1} x_{i} x_{i+1} z_{2}$ is not be a nicely separating cycle by Claim 9.4 , so $C_{1}$ must be in $R_{1}$.

Now, by Claim $9.2, R_{2}$ and $R_{3}$ are empty, and, by Claim 9.4 , there is no vertex in $R_{5}$. Since $P$ is a shortest path, $x_{i-1} x_{i+1}$ is not an edge and therefore $z_{1}$ is adjacent to $z_{2}$ as $G$ is triangulated.
Now, consider the path $P^{\prime}$ obtained from $P$ by replacing $x_{i}$ with $x_{i}^{\prime}=z_{2}$. Note that $P^{\prime}$ is also a shortest path and that both $z_{1}$ and $x_{i}$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{i}^{\prime}\right]$. Since no edge in $H$ is crossed, for any $v \in V(G) \backslash\left(\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\} \cup\left[x_{i}\right]\right)$, if $v$ is adjacent to $x_{i-1}$ then it must be in $R_{1}$ and if $v$ is adjacent to $z_{2}$ then it must be in $R_{4}$. Therefore, there is no vertex in $Z_{P^{\prime}}$ adjacent to $\left\{x_{i-2}, x_{i-1}, z_{2}\right\}$. This implies that if $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$, then either $j \leq i-3$ or $j \geq i+1$. Note that if $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$ and $j \leq i-3$, then $j \in J_{P}$. As $i$ is the minimum of $J_{P}$, the minimum of $J_{P^{\prime}}$ is at least $i+1$. This contradicts our choice of $P$.

Let $K_{P}$ be the subset of $\{2, \ldots, p-1\}$ such that for $k \in K_{P}$, there are two vertices in $Z_{P}$ adjacent to $\left[x_{k}\right]$ and two vertices adjacent to $\left[x_{k+1}\right]$. Observe that a nice path $P$ is a semi-nice path such that $K_{P}$ is empty, that is a path such that $J_{P}$ and $K_{P}$ are empty.

Suppose, by way of contradiction, that every $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-shortest path is not nice. Then consider the semi-nice $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-shortest path that maximizes the minimum of $K_{P}$.

Let $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4} \in Z_{P}$ be such that $N_{P}\left(z_{1}\right)=N_{P}\left(z_{2}\right)=\left[x_{i}\right]$ and $N_{P}\left(z_{3}\right)=N_{P}\left(z_{4}\right)=\left[x_{i+1}\right]$, where $i$ is the smallest index in $K_{P}$. Recall that the edges of $H=G\left[\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\} \cup\left[x_{i}\right]\right]$ separate the plane into the five above-described regions $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{5}$. Again, we can use $z_{3}$ or $z_{4}$ to prove that $C_{2}$ is either in $R_{2}$ or in $R_{4}$ (say $R_{4}$ ). Therefore, $x_{i+2}$ is in $R_{4}$ which implies $z_{3}$ and $z_{4}$ are also in $R_{4}$. Thus, $z_{1}$ is not adjacent to $z_{3}$ nor $z_{4}$. Furthermore, $z_{2}$ cannot be adjacent to both $z_{3}$ and $z_{4}$ for otherwise we can obtain a $K_{5}$ in the subgraph of $G^{\prime}$ induced by $\left[x_{i+1}\right] \cup\left\{z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}\right\}$ by contracting the edge $z_{4} x_{i+2}$ (see Figure 2 ). Thus, without loss of generality, suppose $z_{2}$ and $z_{3}$ are not adjacent.


Figure 2: $K_{5}$ minor of $G^{\prime}$ is obtained by contracting $z_{4} x_{i+2}$.

Consider the path $P^{\prime}$ obtained from $P$ by replacing $x_{i+1}$ with $x_{i+1}^{\prime}=z_{3}$. Since no edge in $H$ is crossed, for any $v \in V(G) \backslash\left(\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\} \cup\left[x_{i}\right]\right)$, if $v$ is adjacent to $x_{i-1}$ then it is not in $R_{4}$, and if $v$ is adjacent to $z_{3}$ then it must be in $R_{4}$. Since neither $z_{1}$ nor $z_{2}$ are adjacent to $z_{3}$ and $x_{i+1}$ is not adjacent to $x_{i-1}$, there is no vertex in $Z_{P^{\prime}}$ adjacent to $\left\{x_{i-1}, x_{i}, z_{3}\right\}$. This implies that if $k \in K_{P^{\prime}}$, then either $k \leq i-2$ or $k \geq i+1$. Note that if $k \in K_{P^{\prime}}$ and $k \leq i-2$, then $k \in K_{P}$. This implies that the minimum
index in $K_{P^{\prime}}$ is strictly greater than $i$. Hence by our choice of $P$, the path $P^{\prime}$ is not semi-nice, that is $J_{P^{\prime}} \neq 0$.

Observe that if $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$, then either $j \leq i-2$ or $j \geq i+2$. Note that if $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$ and either $j \leq i-2$ or $j \geq i+4$, then $j \in J_{P}$. Since $J_{P}$ is empty, then $J_{P^{\prime}} \subseteq\{i+2, i+3\}$. Let $z_{1}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime} \in Z_{P^{\prime}}$ be such that $N_{P^{\prime}}\left(z_{1}^{\prime}\right)=N_{P^{\prime}}\left(z_{2}^{\prime}\right)=\left[x_{j}^{\prime}\right]$, for some $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$ with $J_{P^{\prime}} \subseteq\{i+2, i+3\}$. Note that for the two possible values of $j$, both $z_{1}^{\prime}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}$ are adjacent to $x_{i+3}$. Since $P$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path, neither $z_{2}$ nor $x_{i+1}$ are adjacent to $x_{i+3}$ and therefore $z_{1}^{\prime}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}$ are in $R_{4}$. Let $R_{1}^{\prime}$ be the region bounded by $x_{j-1}^{\prime} x_{j}^{\prime} z_{1}^{\prime}$ not containing the vertex $z_{2}^{\prime}$ and $R_{3}^{\prime}$ be the region bounded by $x_{j-1}^{\prime} x_{j}^{\prime} z_{2}^{\prime}$ not containing the vertex $z_{1}^{\prime}$. Both of these regions are contained in $R_{4}$. With the same argument used above in the proof of existence of a semi-nice path, one shows that if $j \in J_{P^{\prime}}$, then $C_{1}$ is either contained in $R_{1}^{\prime}$ or in $R_{3}^{\prime}$. We get a contradiction as the path $P$ from $V\left(C_{1}\right)$ to $x_{i-1}$ crosses an edge of $H$.

Claim 9.10. There exists an induced path $Q=x_{0} x_{1} \cdots x_{p} x_{p+1}$ with the following properties:
$P_{1} . P=x_{1} \cdots x_{p}$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path and is a nice path;
P2. $x_{0} \in V\left(C_{1}\right)$ and $x_{p+1} \in V\left(C_{2}\right)$ but $x_{0} x_{1}$ and $x_{p} x_{p+1}$ are not crossed edges; and
$P_{3}$. there is at most one vertex in $Z_{Q}$ adjacent to both vertices in $\left\{x_{0}, x_{3}\right\}$ and at most one vertex in $Z_{Q}$ adjacent to both vertices in $\left\{x_{p-2}, x_{p+1}\right\}$.

P4. for any $i<j$, if there are two vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i}\right]$ and two vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{j}\right]$, then the number of vertices adjacent to $\left[v_{i+1}\right]$ or to $\left[v_{j-1}\right]$ is at most 1 .

Proof. By Claim 9.9 there exists a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path $P=x_{1} \cdots x_{p}$ which is nice. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $x_{1}=v_{1}$ and $x_{p}=v_{2}$. According to Claim 9.7, we can choose vertices $x_{0} \in\left\{u_{1}, t_{1}\right\}$ and $x_{p+1} \in\left\{u_{2}, t_{2}\right\}$ such that $Q$ is induced. Therefore, we have at least one path satisfying properties $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{2}$. We say that $x_{0}$ is a valid endpoint if there is at most one vertex in $Z_{Q}$ adjacent to both vertices in $\left\{x_{0}, x_{3}\right\}$ and $x_{p+1}$ is a valid endpoint if there is at most one vertex in $Z_{Q}$ adjacent to both vertices in $\left\{x_{p-2}, x_{p+1}\right\}$.

Let $Q$ be a path satisfying properties $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ which maximizes the number of valid endpoints of $Q$.

Let us first show that $Q$ has only valid endpoints, and satisfies property $P_{4}$. By contradiction, suppose that $Q$ has an invalid endpoint. Without loss of generality, $x_{0}$ is invalid.

Let $z_{1}, z_{2} \in Z_{Q}$ be two vertices adjacent to both vertices in $\left\{x_{0}, x_{3}\right\}$. Since $P$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$ path, no vertex of $C_{1}$ is adjacent to $x_{3}$. Therefore, no edge of $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} z_{1}$ and $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} z_{2}$ is crossed. Let $R_{1}$ be the region bounded by $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} z_{1}$ that does not contain $z_{2}$ and $R_{2}$ be the region bounded by $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} z_{2}$ that does not contain $z_{1}$. Since the edges bounding the regions $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ are not crossed, then the crossing $C_{1}$ is contained in one of the regions $R_{1}$ or $R_{2}$ (say $R_{1}$ ). Let $\hat{x}_{0}$ be the vertex of $\left\{u_{1}, t_{1}\right\} \backslash\left\{x_{0}\right\}$ (see Figure 3 ).

Assume first that $\hat{x}_{0}$ is not adjacent to $x_{2}$. Let $\hat{Q}$ be the path obtained from $Q$ by replacing $x_{0}$ with $\hat{x}_{0}$. Clearly the path $\hat{Q}$ is induced and satisfies properties $\mathrm{P}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{2}$. By definition of $Q, \hat{x}_{0}$ must be an invalid endpoint. Hence, there is a vertex $\hat{z}$ in $Z_{\hat{Q}} \backslash\left\{z_{1}\right\}$ which is adjacent to $\hat{x}_{0}$ and $x_{3}$. This vertex in necessarily inside $R_{1}$ because it is adjacent to $x_{0}$. But then, by planarity, $z_{1}$ cannot be adjacent to $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$, a contradiction to $z_{1} \in Z_{Q}$.

Assume now that $\hat{x}_{0}$ is adjacent to $x_{2}$. Let $Q^{\prime}$ be the path obtained from $Q$ by replacing $x_{0}$ with $w_{1}$ and $x_{1}$ with $\hat{x}_{0}$. Note that $Q^{\prime}$ is induced as $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $x_{2}$ by Claim 9.7 .


Figure 3: Regions $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ and the vertex $\hat{x}_{0}$.

Note that property $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ is valid for $Q^{\prime}$. The path $P^{\prime}=\hat{x}_{0} x_{2} \cdots x_{p}$ is a $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$ shortest path. Let us prove that $P^{\prime}$ is nice and so that $P^{\prime}$ satisfies property $\mathrm{P}_{1}$. If $p=3$, then, since no vertex in the cluster of $C_{1}$ is adjacent to $x_{3}$, at most two vertices are in $Z_{P^{\prime}}$ for otherwise we would get a $K_{3,3}$ in $G-\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$, which is impossible as this graph is planar. Thus $P^{\prime}$ is nice. Suppose now that $p \geq 4$. By planarity, $z_{1}$ is not adjacent to $x_{1}$, so $z_{1}$ is adjacent to $x_{2}$ as $z_{1} \in Z_{Q}$. In addition, $z_{1} x_{2}$ is contained in $R_{1}$. Thus, any vertex in $Z_{P^{\prime}}$ adjacent to $\hat{x}_{0}$ must be in region $R_{1}$ and cannot be adjacent to $x_{3}$. Hence no vertex is adjacent to $\left[x_{2}\right]_{P^{\prime}}$ so, since $P$ is a nice path, $P^{\prime}$ is also a nice path.

By definition of $Q, w_{1}$ must be an invalid endpoint of $Q^{\prime}$. Hence, there is a vertex $z^{\prime}$ in $Z_{Q^{\prime}} \backslash\left\{z_{1}\right\}$ which is adjacent to $w_{1}$ and $x_{3}$. This vertex in necessarily inside $R_{1}$ because neither $x_{0}$ nor $x_{1}$ are adjacent to $x_{3}$. But then, by planarity, $z_{1}$ cannot be adjacent to $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$, a contradiction to $z_{1} \in Z_{Q}$.

Let us now prove that $Q$ satisfies property $\mathrm{P}_{4}$. By contradiction, suppose $Q$ does not. Let $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{1}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime} \in Z_{Q}$ be such that both $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{i}\right]$ and $z_{1}^{\prime}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{j}\right]$. Consider the regions $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{5}$ related to $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ used in Figure 1 . Consider the regions $R_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, R_{5}^{\prime}$ related to $z_{1}^{\prime}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}$ used in Figure 1 for $i=j$.

Let $z \in Z_{Q}$ be adjacent to $\left[x_{i+1}\right]$. Note that we can have $\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\} \cap\left\{u_{1}, t_{1}\right\} \neq \emptyset$ if $i=1$. But since $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 2$, the edges $z_{1} x_{i+1}$ and $z_{2} x_{i+1}$ are not crossed. Furthermore, since no vertex in the cluster of $C_{1}$ is adjacent to $x_{3}$ and not vertex in the cluster of $C_{2}$ is adjacent to $x_{1}$ ( $P$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path), then $z$ is not in the cluster of either crossing.

Therefore, since $z$ is adjacent to both $x_{i}$ and $x_{i+2}$, we must have that both $z$ and $x_{3}$ are in $R_{2}$ or in $R_{4}$ (say $R_{2}$ ). This also implies that $C_{2}$ is in $R_{2}$. Note also that, by our choice of $x_{0}$, the edges $z_{1} x_{i}$ and $z_{2} x_{i}$ are not crossed. Therefore, $C_{1}$ is contained in $R_{1} \cup R_{3} \cup R_{5}$. With a symmetric argument, we have that $C_{1}$ is either in $R_{1}^{\prime}$ or in $R_{3}^{\prime}\left(\right.$ say $\left.R_{1}\right)$. Since both $z_{1}^{\prime}$ and $z_{2}^{\prime}$ are also in $R_{2}$, then $R_{1}^{\prime} \cup R_{3}^{\prime}$ are contained in $R_{2}$ and we get a contradiction.

Let $Q$ be a path given by Claim 9.10 . Without loss of generality, suppose $x_{1}=v_{1}$ and $x_{p}=v_{2}$. Note also that Claim 9.7 implies $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ are not in $Z_{Q}$ and therefore $G\left[V(Q) \cup Z_{Q}\right]$ is planar.
Claim 9.11. dist $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=2$ and there is a vertex adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$.
Proof. Suppose not. Then no vertex in $Z_{Q}$ is adjacent to vertices at distance at least four in $Q$. Observe that this is the case when $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 3$, since $x_{1} \ldots x_{p}$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path.

Since $P$ is a nice and shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path, then the only vertices in $Z_{Q}$ adjacent to vertices at distance at least three in $Q$ must be adjacent to both $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$ or to both $x_{p-2}$ and $x_{p+1}$. By the property $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of Claim 9.10, there is at most one vertex, say $z$, adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$ and at most one vertex, say $z^{\prime}$, adjacent to $x_{p-2}$ and $x_{p+1}$.

Let us make few observations.
Obs. 1 If two vertices $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ distinct from $z$ are adjacent to [ $x_{2}$ ], then no vertex is adjacent to [ $x_{1}$ ] and $N_{Q}(z)=\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{3}\right\}$. Indeed $z$ must be in the region $R_{5}$ in Figure 1 because it is adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$. By the planarity of $G\left[V(Q) \cup Z_{Q}\right]$ and since $z$ is adjacent to $x_{0}, x_{0}$ must also be in $R_{5}$. Again by planarity, $z$ is not adjacent to $x_{2}$ and, therefore, must be adjacent to $x_{1}$ as $z \in Z_{Q}$.

Obs. 2 If two vertices $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ distinct from $z$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{1}\right]$, then no vertex is adjacent to $\left[x_{2}\right]$ and $N_{Q}(z)=\left\{x_{0}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$. This argument is symmetric to Observation 1.
Suppose that $z$ exists.
If $z^{\prime}$ exists, by Observations 1 and 2 (and their analog for $z^{\prime}$ ) and the properties of $Q$ from Claim 9.10, the path $Q$ is good in $G-z^{\prime}$ because it is great in $G-\left\{z, z^{\prime}\right\}$. Hence $Q$ is magic, a contradiction to Claim 9.5. Hence $z^{\prime}$ does not exists.
By Claim 9.7, $w_{2}$ is not adjacent to $x_{p-1}$ and $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $x_{p}$ since $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 2$. So, by planarity of $G-\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$, at most two vertices are adjacent to $\left[x_{p}\right]$. Let $y$ be a vertex adjacent to $\left[x_{p}\right]$. The path $Q$ is not great in $G-\{y, z\}$, for otherwise it would be magic. Hence, according to the properties of $Q$ and the above observations, there must be two vertices adjacent to $\left[x_{p}\right]$, two vertices adjacent to $\left[x_{p-1}\right]$ and one vertex adjacent to $\left[x_{p-2}\right]$. Let $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ be the two vertices adjacent to $\left[x_{p-1}\right]$ and $R_{1} \ldots R_{5}$ be the regions as in Figure 1 with $i=p-1$. Since there is a vertex adjacent to $\left[x_{p-2}\right]$, then $C_{1}$ is in $R_{1}$ or $R_{3}$, and $C_{2}$ is in $R_{2}$ or $R_{4}$ because a vertex is adjacent to [ $x_{p}$ ]. But by Claim 9.4 the 4-cycle $z_{1} x_{p} z_{2} x_{p-2}$ is not nicely separating, so there is no vertex inside $R_{5}$. Since $G$ is triangulated, and $x_{p-2} x_{p}$ is not an edge because $P$ is a shortest $\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$-path, $z_{1} z_{2} \in E(G)$. Now the path $Q$ is good in $G-\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$ and so is magic. This contradicts Claim 9.5 .

Hence we may assume that $z$ does not exists and by symmetry that $z^{\prime}$ does not exist. We get a contradiction similarly by considering a vertex $w$ adjacent to $\left[x_{1}\right]$ in place of $z$.

Claim 9.12. There is precisely one vertex $z \in Z_{Q}$ adjacent to both $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$.
Proof. Observe that there are at most two vertices adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$. Indeed such vertices cannot be in the crossings because $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=2$. Thus if there were three such vertices, together with contracting the path $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}$ we would get $K_{3,3}$ minor in $G-\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$, a contradiction.

Suppose by contradiction that two distinct vertices $z_{1}, z_{2} \in Z_{Q}$ adjacent to vertices $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$. The edges of $Q$ are contained in the same region of the plane bounded by the cycle $x_{0} z_{1} x_{4} z_{2}$. Therefore, both crossings are also in the region containing the edges of $Q$. By Claim 9.3 , the region bounded by the cycle $x_{0} z_{1} x_{4} z_{2}$ that does not contain the crossings has no vertex in its interior. Since $G$ is triangulated, $z_{1} z_{2} \in E(G)$ as $x_{0}$ because $x_{4}$ are not adjacent as $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=2$.

By the property $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of Claim $9.10, z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ cannot be both adjacent to the five vertices in $Q$. Therefore, without loss of generality, suppose $\left|N_{Q}\left(z_{2}\right)\right| \leq 4$. Let us prove that $Q$ is great in $H=$ $\left(G-z_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{z_{1} x_{0}, z_{1} x_{4}\right\}$.
(i) If a vertex $t$ in $G-\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$ is adjacent to at least four vertices of $Q$, then without loss of generality it is adjacent to $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ as it cannot be adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$. Now by property $\mathrm{P}_{3}$. $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ are not adjacent to $x_{3}$. Hence one of them (the one such that $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} x_{4} z_{i}$ separates $t$ from $z_{3-i}$ ) cannot be adjacent to any vertex of $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$, a contradiction to the fact that it is in $Z_{Q}$. Hence $Q$ satisfies (a) in $H$.
(ii) If two vertices $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ of $H$ are adjacent to [ $x_{2}$ ], then necessarily $x_{1} t_{1} x_{2} t_{2}$ is a nicely separating, a contradiction to Claim 9.4 . Hence there is at most one vertex of $H$ adjacent to $\left[x_{2}\right]$. Thus $Q$ satisfies (b) in $H$.
(iii) If two vertices $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ of $H$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{1}\right]$, then no vertex is adjacent to $\left[x_{2}\right]$. Indeed suppose for a contradiction that a vertex $t$ is adjacent to $\left[v_{2}\right]$ none of $\left\{r_{1}, r_{2}, t\right\}$ is in $\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$ by Claim 9.7 and because $\operatorname{dist}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right) \geq 2$. Now contracting the path $t x_{3} x_{4} z_{2}$ into a vertex $w$, we obtain a $K_{3,3}$ with parts $\left\{r_{1}, r_{2}, w\right\}$ and $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$. This contradicts the planarity of $G$.
Symmetrically, if two vertices of $H$ are adjacent to $\left[x_{3}\right]$, then no vertex is adjacent to $\left[x_{2}\right]$. Therefore $Q$ satisfies (c) in $H$.

It follows that $Q$ is a good path in $H^{\prime}=\left(G-z_{2}\right) \backslash z_{1} x_{4}$. Let $\phi$ be a safe $L$-colouring of $Q$ in $H^{\prime}$ obtained by Lemma 8 . Since $Q$ meets the two crossings, $G-Q$ is planar. Furthermore, $G-Q$ can be drawn in the plane such that all vertices on the outer face are those in $N(Q)$. Every vertex of $Z_{Q} \backslash\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$ is safe in $H^{\prime}$ and so in $G$, so $\left|L_{\phi}(v)\right| \geq 3$. In $H^{\prime}, z_{1}$ is safe and in $G, z_{1}$ has one more neighbour in $Q$ in $G$ than $H^{\prime}$, namely $x_{4}$. Thus in $G,\left|L_{\phi}\left(z_{1}\right)\right| \geq 2$ because $z_{1}$ was safe in $H^{\prime}$. Since $z_{2}$ has at most four neighbours in $Q$, we have $\left|L_{\phi}\left(z_{2}\right)\right| \geq 1$. Now $z_{1}$ is adjacent to $z_{2}$, so $L_{\phi}$ is a $\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$ suitable assignment for $G-Q$. Hence by Theorem $2, G-Q$ is $L_{\phi}$-colourable and so $G$ is $L$-colourable, a contradiction.

- Assume first that $\left|N_{Q}(z)\right|=5$. Let $H=G \backslash\left\{z x_{0}, z x_{4}\right\} . z$ is the unique vertex adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$. Moreover by property $\mathrm{P}_{3} z$ is the unique vertex adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$ and the unique one adjacent to $x_{1}$ and $x_{4}$. Hence $Q$ satisfies (a) in $H$. Moreover, for $1 \leq i \leq 3$, there is at most one vertex distinct form $z$ adjacent to $\left[x_{i}\right]$ otherwise $G\left[V(Q) \cup Z_{Q}\right]$ would contain a $K_{3,3}$. Hence $Q$ also satisfies (b) and (c) in $H$. Therefore $Q$ is great in $H$. By Lemma 7, there exists a safe $L$-colouring $\phi$ of $Q$ in $H$. Thus in $G$, every vertex in $Z_{Q} \backslash\{z\}$ satisfies $\left|L_{\phi}(v)\right| \geq 3$ while $\left|L_{\phi}(z)\right| \geq 1$. Hence $L_{\phi}$ is suitable for $G-Q$. Therefore, by Theorem $2, G-Q$ is $L_{\phi}$-colourable and so $G$ is $L$-colourable, a contradiction.
- Assume now that $\left|N_{Q}(z)\right| \leq 4$.

Suppose that there are two distinct vertices $z_{1}, z_{2} \in Z_{Q}$ with $z_{1}$ adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$ and $z_{2}$ adjacent to $x_{1}$ and $x_{4}$. Let $R_{1}$ be the region bounded by the cycle $x_{0} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} z_{1}$ not containing $z_{2}$ and $R_{2}$ be the region bounded by the cycle $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} x_{4} z_{2}$ not containing $z_{1}$ (see Figure 4). Now, note that any vertex adjacent to both $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$ is not in $R_{1} \cup R_{2}$ and any vertex adjacent to $x_{2}$ must be in $R_{1} \cup R_{2}$. Therefore, $z \in\left\{z_{1}, z_{2}\right\}$. Indeed if this was not true, then by property $\mathrm{P}_{3} z$ is not adjacent to $x_{1}$ nor $x_{3}$. Thus $z$ must be adjacent to $x_{2}$ as it is in $Z_{Q}$. So $z$ is inside $R_{1} \cup R_{2}$, which contradicts the fact that it is adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{4}$.
Thus, at most one other vertex $z^{\prime}$ in $Z_{Q} \backslash\{z\}$ is adjacent to vertices at distance three in $Q$. By symmetry, we may assume that $z^{\prime}$ is adjacent to $x_{0}$ and $x_{3}$. Hence all vertices in $Z_{Q} \backslash\left\{z, z^{\prime}\right\}$ are adjacent to some $\left[x_{i}\right]$ for $1 \leq i \leq 3$. Similarly to (ii) and (iii) in Claim 9.12, one shows that $Q$ also satisfies (a) and (b) in $(G-z) \backslash z^{\prime} x_{0}$. Hence $Q$ is a good path in $G-z$. Then $Q$ is magic, a contradiction to Claim 9.5

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Figure 4: Regions $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ While writing this paper, we discovered that Dvořák et al. [4] independently proved this result. Their proof has some similarity to ours but is different. They prove by induction a stronger result, while we use the existence of a shortest path between the two crossings which satisfies some given properties.

