



Planar graphs without cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9 are 3-choosable[☆]

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ABSTRACT

It is known that planar graphs without cycles of length 4, i, j , or 9 with $4 < i < j < 9$, except that $i = 7$ and $j = 8$, are 3-choosable. This paper proves that planar graphs without cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9 are also 3-choosable.

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1. Introduction

Graphs considered in this paper are finite, simple and undirected. Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with the set of vertices V and the set of edges E . A mapping $\phi : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\}$ is called a k -coloring of G if $\phi(u) \neq \phi(v)$ whenever $uv \in E$. G is said to be k -colorable if it admits a k -coloring. For every $v \in V$, assign a list of available colors to v , say $L(v) \subset \{1, 2, \dots\}$, then $L = \{L(v) | v \in V\}$ is called a list-assignment of G . If there is a mapping $\phi : V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots\}$ such that $\phi(v) \in L(v)$ for each $v \in V$ and $\phi(u) \neq \phi(v)$ whenever $uv \in E$, then G is said to be L -colorable. G is said to be k -list-colorable, or k -choosable, if it is L -colorable for every list-assignment L with $|L(v)| \geq k$ for all $v \in V$. Clearly, if G is k -choosable, then it is k -colorable. However, the converse is generally not true. For example, given any positive integer k , there are bipartite (2-colorable) graphs which are not k -choosable, see [1].

Call a graph *planar* if it can be embedded into the plane so that its edges only meet at their ends. Any such embedding of a planar graph is called a *plane* graph. For a positive integer k , a k -cycle is a cycle of length k . A 3-cycle is also called a *triangle*.

For choosability of planar graphs, in 1979, Erdős et al. [1] conjectured that every planar graph is 5-choosable and there are planar graphs which are not 4-choosable. More than one decade later, Voigt [7] constructed a planar graph which is not 4-choosable; Thomassen [4] proved that every planar graph is 5-choosable. A natural problem on choosability of planar graphs is to determine whether a given planar graph is 3-choosable, or 4-choosable. In 1996, Gutner [2] proved that these two problems are NP-hard. Thus, sufficient conditions for a planar graph to be 3-, or 4-choosable is of interest.

This paper mainly concerns 3-choosability of planar graphs with some forbidden short cycles. Note that odd cycles are not 2-colorable, hence, not 2-choosable. It follows that every (planar) graph with odd cycles is not 2-choosable. What conditions can ensure a (planar) graph with odd cycles to be 3-choosable? Thomassen [5] proved that every planar graph with girth at least 5 (with neither 3- nor 4-cycle) is 3-choosable. What conditions can ensure a (planar) graph with triangles to be 3-choosable? Montassier [3] conjectured that planar graphs without cycles of length 4, 5 or 6 are 3-choosable. Generally,

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what is the set of pairs of integers (i, j) , if any, every planar graph without cycles of length 4, i , or j is 3-choosable? Towards this problem, we would like to summarize some known related results as follows.

Theorem A. *A planar graph is 3-choosable if it has no*

- [11] 4-, 5-, 6-, or 9-cycles; or
- [10] 4-, 5-, 7-, or 9-cycles; or
- [9] 4-, 5-, 8-, or 9-cycles; or
- [8] 4-, 6-, 7-, or 9-cycles; or
- [6] 4-, 6-, 8-, or 9-cycles.

This paper will prove the following result.

Theorem 1. *Every planar graph without cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9 is 3-choosable.*

Clearly, **Theorem A** together with **Theorem 1** completes one interesting stage conclusion on 3-choosability of planar graphs without some short cycles as follows.

Theorem B. *Planar graphs without cycles of length 4, i , j , or 9 with $4 < i < j < 9$ are 3-choosable.*

The rest of this section is devoted to some terminology and notation used later. Let $G = (V, E, F)$ be a plane graph with the set of faces F . For a face $f \in F$, its *boundary*, denoted by $b(f)$, is the closed walk around f . The steps of $b(f)$, denoted by $d(f)$, is called the *degree* of f . A face f is *simple* if its boundary is a cycle. The set of vertices on the boundary of f is denoted by $V(f)$. We often specify a simple face in a plane graph by the sequences of its vertices in the clockwise order or in the anticlockwise order. A vertex v and a face f are *incident* if $v \in V(f)$. Two faces are *adjacent* if they have at least one edge in common. Two faces are *normally adjacent* if they have exactly one edge in common. Furthermore, two faces are *strict normally adjacent* if they are normally adjacent and have no more vertices in common other than the ends of their unique common edge. Let $S \subset V$, $G - S$ is the graph obtained from G by deleting all vertices in S . As usual, $G[S]$ is the subgraph of G induced by S . Call $v \in V$ a k -vertex, or a k^+ -vertex, or a k^- -vertex if its degree $d(v)$ is equal to k , or at least k , or at most k , respectively. The notions of a k -face, a k^+ -face and a k^- -face are similarly defined. The *minimum degree* of vertices of G is denoted by δ . An edge $e = xy$ is often said to be a $(d(x), d(y))$ -edge.

A *chord* of a cycle is an edge that connects two non-consecutive vertices of the cycle. Let C be a cycle in G and xy a chord of C . If xy lies in the region inside C , then xy is called an *internal chord* of C . Otherwise, xy is called an *external chord* of C . Call a vertex-induced subgraph H in G a *special Θ -like subgraph*, in short, an $S\Theta$, if H satisfies

- (1) $\delta(H) = 2$;
- (2) having a spanning cycle C ;
- (3) after deleting all external chords (if any) of C , the resulting graph is just C with exactly one internal chord that is a $(3, 4^-)$ -edge in G ;
- (4) except possibly one vertex that, being an end of the unique internal chord of C , may be a 4-vertex, all the other vertices of H are 3-vertices in G .

2. Proof of Theorem 1

We shall prove **Theorem 1** by showing a structural theorem as follows.

Theorem 2. *Let G be a plane graph with $\delta \geq 3$. If G has no cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9, then G has either an $S\Theta$ or a 10-face incident with ten 3-vertices.*

Assuming **Theorem 2**, we can easily prove **Theorem 1**:

Suppose that G is a counterexample to **Theorem 1** with minimum number of vertices, then $\delta \geq 3$. Embedding G into the plane, we get a plane graph, still denoted by G . Since G has no i -cycles for all $i = 4, 7, 8, 9$, according to **Theorem 2**, G has either an $S\Theta$, or a 10-face incident with ten 3-vertices. Let V' be the vertex-set of a possible $S\Theta$ or a possible 10-face incident with ten 3-vertices and L a list-assignment of G with $|L(v)| \geq 3$ for all $v \in V$ such that G is not L -colorable. Setting $G' = G - V'$, by the choice of G , G' admits an L' -coloring ϕ where L' is the restriction of L to G' . For $v \in V'$, let $L'(v) = L(v) \setminus \{\phi(u)\}$, where u is the unique neighbor of v in G' , if any. Thus, $|L'(v)| \geq 3$ if v is not adjacent to any vertices in G' , $|L'(v)| \geq 2$ otherwise. Note that $G[V']$ is isomorphic to an $S\Theta$, or a 10-cycle, or a 10-cycle with exactly one external chord that evenly divides the 10-cycle. In each case, $G[V']$ is L' -colorable by **Lemma 1**. Thus, G is L -colorable, a contradiction. \square

Lemma 1. (1) *An even cycle is 2-choosable.*

- (2) *A cycle C with exactly one (external) chord uw is L -colorable, if $|L(u)|, |L(w)| \geq 3$, and $|L(v)| \geq 2$ for $v \in V(C) \setminus \{u, w\}$.*
- (3) *Let H be an $S\Theta$ in G with the unique internal chord xy and L an list-assignment of H satisfying*
 - (i) $|L(v)| = d_H(v)$ for $v \in V(H) \setminus \{y\}$.
 - (ii) $|L(y)| \geq d_H(y) - 1$. *Then, H is L -colorable.*

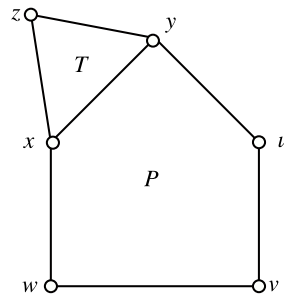


Fig. 1. The strict normal adjacency of a 3-face to a 5-face.

Proof. (1) and (2) are obvious. (3) Let C be the spanning cycle of H and z a 2-vertex of H that is closest to y on C . Without loss of generality, we may assume that x , z and y appear on C in the anticlockwise order. If there is a 3-vertex other than y in H on the segment of C from z to y in the anticlockwise order, then z' , the neighbor of z on the segment, is a 3-vertex. We choose a color from $L(z') \setminus L(z)$ to color z' , and then we can color all other vertices along C in the anticlockwise order until z . Otherwise, z is adjacent to y on C . If $|L(y)| = 2$, then we choose a color from $L(x) \setminus L(y)$ to color x , and then color all other vertices along C in the anticlockwise order. If $|L(y)| \geq 3$, then we choose a color from $L(y) \setminus L(z)$ to color y , and then color all other vertices along C in the anticlockwise order. (Note that, if u is an end of an external chord of C , then $|L(u)| = 3$. In the coloring procedure above, before coloring u , at most two neighbors of u on C have been colored; hence, u can always be properly colored.) \square

3. Proof of Theorem 2

First, if there is a plane graph having

- (1) $\delta \geq 3$;
- (2) no cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9;
- (3) no 5θ ;
- (4) no 10-face incident with ten 3-vertices,

then there is a connected plane graph also having (1), (2), (3) and (4), since any component of G is clearly the graph that we are looking for.

Lemma 2. *If there is a connected plane graph having (1), (2), (3) and (4), then there is at least one 2-connected plane graph also having (1), (2), (3) and (4).*

Proof. Let G be a connected plane graph having (1), (2), (3) and (4). If G itself is 2-connected, then we are done. Otherwise, let B be an end-block of G and u the unique cut-vertex belonging to B . If the degree of u in B is at least 5, then B is the graph that we are looking for, since it satisfies (1), (2), (3) and (4), and is 2-connected. Otherwise, we can construct a graph H as follows. Let $v \in B$ be a neighbor of u lying on the outer face of B . Take 11 copies B_0, B_1, \dots, B_{10} of B and identify v_i with u_{i+1} for $0 \leq i \leq 10$, where the indices are modulo 11. Clearly, the graph H satisfies (1), (2), (3) and (4), and is 2-connected. \square

Lemma 3. *Let G be a 2-connected plane graph with $\delta \geq 3$ and without cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9. Then G has no the following configurations:*

- C1 a 3-face adjacent to a 3-face ;
- C2 a 3-face adjacent to a 6-face ;
- C3 a 5-face adjacent to a 5-face;
- C4 a 3-face adjacent to two 5-faces ;
- C5 a 5-face adjacent to two 3-faces.

Proof. We only show that G has neither C3 nor C4, since the others can be similarly (even more easily) proved. Note that every face in G is simple since G is 2-connected.

First, we claim that if a 3-face and a 5-face are adjacent, then they are strict normally adjacent. To see this, let $T = xyz$ be a 3-face adjacent to a 5-face $P = uvwxy$, see Fig. 1. If $z = u$, then $uvwzx(=u)$ is a 4-cycle in G , a contradiction. By symmetry, $z \neq w$. If $z = v$, then $uyxz(=v)u$ is again a 4-cycle in G , a contradiction.

Next, we claim that two adjacent 5-faces, if any, must be strict normally adjacent, too. To see this, let $P = uvwxy$ and $P' = xyu'v'w'$ be two adjacent 5-faces, see Fig. 2. If $u = u'$, then, as edges, $yu = yu'$ since G is simple. Thus, $d(y) = 2$ since P and P' are faces. This clearly contradicts $\delta \geq 3$. If $u = v'$, then $uyxw'v'(=u)$ is a 4-cycle in G , a contradiction. If $u = w'$, then $uyu'v'w'(=u)$ would be again a 4-cycle. By symmetry, $w \neq w', v', u'$. It is easy to check that $v \neq u', v', w'$. Therefore, two adjacent 5-faces, if any, must be strict normally adjacent in G . However, this would imply that G has an 8-cycle. So G has no C3.

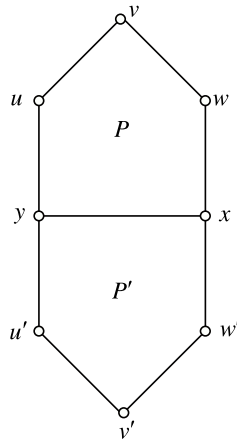


Fig. 2. The non-adjacency of a 5-face to a 5-face in G.

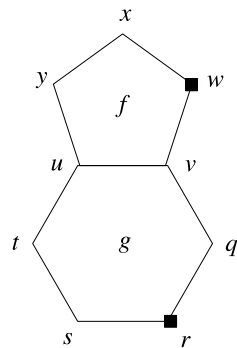


Fig. 3. The adjacency between a 5-face and a 6-face.

To prove C4. Let $T = xyz$ be a 3-face, $P = uvwxz$ and $P' = yzu'v'w'$, two 5-faces adjacent to T . First we have $y \notin \{u, v, w\}$ and $x \notin \{u', v', w'\}$ since a 3-face and a 5-face can only be strict normally adjacent. Next, $u \neq u'$ since a 5-face cannot be adjacent to a 5-face. Lastly, $\{u, v, w\} \cap \{u', v', w'\} = \emptyset$ just because G has no 4-cycles. It follows that G has a 9-cycle $C = xwvuz'u'w'yx$, a contradiction showing that G has no C4. \square

Lemma 4. *If there exists a 2-connected plane graph having (1), (2), (3) and (4), then there exists a 2-connected plane graph having not only (1), (2), (3) and (4) but also (5) no 5-face is adjacent to a 6-face.*

Proof. Let G be a 2-connected plane graph having (1), (2), (3) and (4). If no 5-face is adjacent to a 6-face in G , then G is the desired graph, we are done. Otherwise, let $f = vuyxw$ be a 5-face that is adjacent to a 6-face $g = qrstuv$ in G . We claim that either $w = r$, or else, $y = s$. First, f and g cannot be strict normally adjacent since otherwise G would have a 9-cycle. Next, as in Lemma 3, it is easy to check that (see Fig. 3, two black boxes are identical) $w \neq q, s, t, x \neq q, r, s, t$ and $y \neq q, r, t$. If $w = r$ and $y = s$, then G has a 4-cycle $yuvw$, a contradiction. The claim follows. Suppose without loss of generality that $w = r$. We call a triangle between a 5-face and a 6-face *special*; furthermore, *simply special* if no other special triangle is in its interior. Since G is finite, G has at least one simply special triangle. As indicated in Fig. 3, let $T = qvw$ ($w = r$) be a simply special triangle in G and H the subgraph of G induced by T and its interior. If $d_H(v) \geq 5$ and $d_H(w) \geq 5$, then H is the graph that we are looking for. Otherwise, H could have at least one 2-vertex that belongs to $\{v, w = r\}$, or a 10-face f that is incident with ten 3-vertices (v or w or both belongs to $V(f)$), or an $S\Theta$ (with v or w being an end of an internal chord of the spanning cycle of H). Now, we can construct the desired graph G^* as follows: take 11 copies H_0, H_1, \dots, H_{10} of H and identify v_i with w_{i+1} for $0 \leq i \leq 10$, where the indices are modulo 11. \square

From now on, $G = (V, E, F)$ is a 2-connected plane graph satisfying (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5) stated in Lemma 4. Our goal is to derive a contradiction if such a G exists. The desired contradiction is obtained by a discharging procedure. In the procedure, the *initial charge* ch on $V \cup F$ is defined as: $ch(v) = 2d(v) - 6$ for $v \in V$, $ch(f) = d(f) - 6$ for $f \in F$. Applying $\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2|E| = \sum_{f \in F} d(f)$, Euler's formula $|V| - |E| + |F| = 2$ can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{x \in V \cup F} ch(x) = -12.$$

We use ch' to denote the *final charge* when a discharging procedure is over. If we can define suitable discharging rules such that $ch'(x) \geq 0$ for every $x \in V \cup F$, then we get an obvious contradiction $-12 = \sum_{x \in V \cup F} ch(x) = \sum_{x \in V \cup F} ch'(x) \geq 0$, which completes the proof of [Theorem 2](#).

Call a vertex *big* if it is a 4^+ -vertex; *triangular* if it is incident with a triangle. A 5-face is *light* if it is incident with at most one big vertex. Let $g = uvwxy$ be a 5-face (strict normally) adjacent to a 3-face $T = uvz$. We say that x is *2-apart from T*, in short, *2-apart*. A 10-face f is *weak* if it is incident with one 4-vertex and nine 3-vertices, and adjacent to five faces that are mutually disjoint on the boundary of f ; moreover, each of the five faces is either a 3-face or a light 5-face, and the face incident with the unique 4-vertex among the five faces is a 3-face. A 4-vertex is called a *cross* if it is incident with one 3-face T , one 5-face g , and one weak face f , where T and f are adjacent. In the definition of a cross, the face adjacent to T other than f is called the *handle* of the cross. Note that the handle of a cross is neither a 3-face by C1 of [Lemma 3](#) nor a 6-face by C2 of [Lemma 3](#). Namely, a handle is either a 5-face or a 10^+ -face. Also note that a 10-face, as a handle, is not weak since otherwise there would be a 5-face adjacent to a 5-face or two 3-faces by the definition of a weak face, contradicting C3 or C5 of [Lemma 3](#).

Let us make our discharging procedure with the following discharging rules:

- R1. A big vertex sends 1 to each incident 3- or 5-face.
- R2. A 3-face gets 1 or $\frac{1}{2}$ from each adjacent face according to whether their common edge is a (3, 3)- or a (3, 4^+)-edge, respectively.
- R3. Let g be a light 5-face and f a 10^+ -face adjacent to g with the common edge uv . Then
 - R3.1 f sends 1 to g if each of u and v is a non-triangular 3-vertex.
 - R3.2 f sends $\frac{1}{2}$ to g if one of u and v is not big and the other is big and 2-apart from an adjacent 3-face of g .
- R4. A cross gets $\frac{1}{2}$ from its handle.
- R5. A 5^+ -vertex sends $\frac{1}{2}$ to each incident 10-face and a 4-vertex sends $\frac{1}{2}$ to each of incident weak faces. (Note that if a 4-vertex is a cross, then it is incident with exactly one weak face by the definition of a weak face and C3 or C5 of [Lemma 3](#).)

The rest of the paper is devoted to checking that $ch'(x) \geq 0$ for every $x \in V \cup F$. This consists of two parts as follows.

The final charge of vertices. In this paragraph, we shall show that $ch'(v) \geq 0$ for every $v \in V$. If $d(v) = 3$, then $ch'(v) = ch(v) = 2d(v) - 6 = 2 \times 3 - 6 = 0$, since no charge is sent from or to v according to our rules. Let $d(v) \geq 4$. Note that both R2 and R3 do not apply here. Namely, only R1, R4 and R5 may apply. If $d(v) \geq 6$, then $ch'(v) \geq ch(v) - d(v) \times 1 = (2d(v) - 6) - d(v) = d(v) - 6 \geq 0$ by R1 and R5. If $d(v) = 5$, then $ch'(v) \geq ch(v) - 3 \times 1 - 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 0$ since v is incident with at most three 5^- -faces by [Lemma 3](#). Finally, let $d(v) = 4$. By [Lemma 3](#), v is incident with at most two 5^- -faces. If v is not incident with any weak face, then $ch'(v) \geq ch(v) - 2 \times 1 = 0$ by R1. Assume that v is incident with at least one weak face. Let f be a weak face incident with v . By the definition of a weak face, there is a 3-face g that is incident with v and adjacent to f . Let the remaining two adjacent faces at v be f' and g' where f' is adjacent to f and g' is adjacent to g . By C1 of [Lemma 3](#), g' is not a 3-face, and by the definition of a weak face, f' is not a 3-face, too. According to C3 of [Lemma 3](#), at most one of g' and f' is a 5-face. If neither f' nor g' is a 5-face, then $ch'(v) \geq ch(v) - 1 - 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 0$ since f' is not weak. If exactly one of f' and g' is a 5-face, then v is a cross; hence, v can get $\frac{1}{2}$ from its handle g' by R4. It follows that $ch'(v) = ch(v) - 2 \times 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 0$.

The final charge of faces. Now, let us analyze the final charge of a face $f \in F$. First, G has no 4-, 7-, 8-, or 9-faces, since it has no cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9.

Let f be a 3-face. If all vertices of f are big, then $ch'(v) = ch(v) + 3 = 0$ by R1. If f is incident with exactly two big vertices, then v gets 1 from each incident big vertex by R1 and $\frac{1}{2}$ from each adjacent 5^+ -face that shares a (3, 4^+)-edge with f by R2; hence, $ch'(v) = ch(v) + 2 \times 1 + 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 0$. If f is incident with exactly one big vertex, then $ch'(v) = ch(v) + 1 \times 1 + 1 \times 1 + 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 0$ by R1 and R2. If no big vertex is incident with f , then $ch'(v) = ch(v) + 3 \times 1 = 0$ by R2.

Let f be a 5-face. By C3 of [Lemma 3](#), f is not adjacent to any 5-face. By C5 of [Lemma 3](#), f is adjacent to at most one 3-face. Namely, f is adjacent to at least four 10^+ -faces by hypothesis (5). Note that $ch(f) = -1$. If f is not a handle of a cross, then f may only send 1 or $\frac{1}{2}$ to a possible adjacent 3-face by R2. If f is a handle of a cross, then f send $\frac{1}{2}$ to the cross by R4 and may also send $\frac{1}{2}$ to the 3-face that is incident with the cross and adjacent to f by R2. To conclude, f send totally at most 1 to its adjacent faces or incident vertices. If we can show that f can get totally at least 2 from its incident vertices or adjacent faces, then we are done. This clearly holds by R1 if f is incident with at least two big vertices. If no big vertex is incident with f , then there are at least two 10^+ faces totally sending 2 to f by R3, since f has at most two adjacent triangular vertices by C5 of [Lemma 3](#). Assume that f is incident with exactly one big vertex. In this case, f gets 1 from its unique incident big vertex by R1, and gets at least 1 totally from its adjacent faces: if f has a (3, 3)-edge with two non-triangular ends, this is clearly true by R3.1, otherwise, f has a big vertex that is 2-apart from an adjacent 3-face of f ; hence, R3.2 plays, giving the desired result.

Let f be a 6-face. Since f is adjacent to neither a 3-face nor a 5-face, $ch'(f) = ch(f) = 0$ by our rules.

Let us make some preparations before checking $ch'(f) \geq 0$ for a 10^+ -face f . From now on, f is a 10^+ -face in G . For an edge e of f , let $g(e)$ be the face that shares e with f , and $c_0(e)$ the amount of the charge sent from f to $g(e)$ by R2 or R3. More

precisely,

$$c_0(e) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } e \text{ is a } (3,3)\text{-edge and } g(e) \text{ is a } 3\text{-face,} \\ \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } e \text{ is an edge with exactly one big end and } g(e) \text{ is a } 3\text{-face,} \\ 1, & \text{if } e \text{ is a } (3,3)\text{-edge with two non-triangular ends and } g(e) \text{ is a light } 5\text{-face,} \\ \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } e \text{ is an edge with exactly one big end being } 2\text{-apart and } g(e) \text{ is a light } 5\text{-face,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let X be the set of edges $e \in E(f)$ such that e is incident with a cross whose handle is f and e is also incident with the 5-face defined in the definition of a cross.

Observation 1. If $e \in X$, then $c_0(e) = 0$.

Proof. First, $c_0(e) \neq 1$ since e is not a $(3, 3)$ -edge. Next, $c_0(e) \neq \frac{1}{2}$ since otherwise, as noted above or by R3, the end of e being a cross is 2-apart from a 3-face that is adjacent to $g(e)$ and $g(e)$ is light, but then, according to that the face incident with the cross and adjacent to $g(e)$ other than f is weak, we can easily see that $g(e)$ is either adjacent two 3-faces or adjacent to a light 5-face, contradicting C5 or C3 of Lemma 3. The conclusion follows. \square

Observation 2. If $e \in X$ is incident with a 3-vertex w , then the face adjacent to f and incident with w but not incident with e is neither a 3-face nor a 5-face by C5 and C3 of Lemma 3. \square

Define $c(e) := \frac{1}{2}$ if $e \in X$ and $c(e) := c_0(e)$ otherwise. Observe that, according to R2, R3 and R4, $\sum_{e \in E(f)} c(e)$ is the amount of charge sent by f .

Lemma 5. Let e_1, e_2 and e_3 be consecutive edges of f . If $c(e_2) = 1$, then $c(e_1) = 0$ and $c(e_3) = 0$.

Proof. According to R2 and R3, e_2 is a $(3, 3)$ -edge and $g(e_2)$ is either a 3-face or a light 5-face.

If $g(e_2)$ is a 3-face, then neither $g(e_1)$ nor $g(e_3)$ is a 3-face by C1 of Lemma 3. Namely, R2 does not apply when we consider moving charge from f to $g(e_i)$ for $i \in \{1, 3\}$. R3 does not apply, too: first, R3.1 does not apply since e_i has an triangular end; next, R3.2 does not apply since otherwise $g(e_i)$ is a 5-face, and e_i has an end that is big and 2-apart from a 3-face T_i that is adjacent to $g(e_i)$, it follows that $g(e_i)$ is adjacent to two 3-faces, say T_i and $g(e_2)$, a contradiction. Hence, $c_0(e_1) = 0$ and $c_0(e_3) = 0$.

If $g(e_2)$ is a light 5-face, then neither $g(e_1)$ nor $g(e_3)$ is a 5-face by C3 of Lemma 3; hence, R3 does not apply. Note that the two ends of e_2 are non-triangular by R3, namely, neither $g(e_1)$ nor $g(e_3)$ is a 3-face, so R2 does not apply here, too. Hence, $c_0(e_1) = 0$ and $c_0(e_3) = 0$.

By Observation 2, no cross with f as its handle is incident with e_1 or e_3 . Hence $c(e_1) = c_0(e_1) = 0$ and $c(e_3) = c_0(e_3) = 0$. The conclusion follows. \square

According to Lemma 5, we can equivalently redistribute the charge given by c among the edges of f : in the situation described above, move $\frac{1}{4}$ from e_2 to each of e_1 and e_3 . Do this for every edge $e \in E(f)$ with $c(e) = 1$. Let q be the resulting assignment of the charge to the edges of f . Clearly, $\sum_{e \in E(f)} c(e) = \sum_{e \in E(f)} q(e)$, and $q(e) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for each $e \in E(f)$.

If f is a 12^+ -face, then $ch'(f) \geq ch(f) - \frac{1}{2}d(f) = \frac{1}{2}(d(f) - 12) \geq 0$.

Observation 3. The number of edges of f such that $q(e) = \frac{1}{4}$ is even. \square

Lemma 6. Three edges, each of them satisfies $c(e) = \frac{1}{2}$, cannot be consecutive on f .

Proof. Let e_1, e_2 and e_3 be three consecutive edges on f such that $c(e_i) = \frac{1}{2}$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. According to our discharging rules and the definition of the function c , there are three cases producing $c(e_i) = \frac{1}{2}$:

- (1) e_i is a $(3, 4^+)$ -edge and $g(e_i)$ is a 3-face (by R2);
- (2) e_i is a $(3, 4^+)$ -edge with the 4^+ -end being 2-apart and $g(e_i)$ is a light 5-face (by R3.2);
- (3) e_i is a $(3, 4)$ -edge with the end of degree 4 being a cross with handle f (by R4).

We shall derive a contradiction showing the non-existence of such three consecutive edges on f . This will be done by considering three possible cases as follows.

(1) The face $g(e_2)$ is a 3-face and e_2 is a $(3, 4^+)$ -edge.

Let $e_2 = uv$ with end u being a 3-vertex. Without loss of generality, we may assume that u belongs to $g(e_1)$. By C1 of Lemma 3, $g(e_1)$ is not a 3-face; hence, R2 does not apply for $c(e_1) = \frac{1}{2}$. In other word, $c(e_1) = \frac{1}{2}$ is a result by applying R3.2 or R4. R3.2 cannot apply since the end of e_1 other than u cannot be 2-apart from an adjacent 3-face of $g(e_1)$. So, R4 applies. It follows that $g(e_1)$ is a 5-face and f is the handle of the end of e_1 other than u . By Observation 2, $g(e_2)$ is not a 3-face, a contradiction.

(2) The face $g(e_2)$ is a light 5-face and e_2 is a $(3, 4^+)$ -edge with the 4^+ -end being 2-apart from an adjacent 3-face of $g(e_2)$.

With out loss of generality, we may assume that $e_2 = uv$ with $u \in g(e_1)$ being a 3-vertex. By C3 of Lemma 3, $g(e_1)$ is not a 5-face; hence, both R3 and R4 do not apply for $c(e_1) = \frac{1}{2}$. So, R2 applies. It follows that $g(e_1)$ is a 3-face. On the other hand, that v is 2-apart from an adjacent 3-face of $g(e_2)$ implies that $g(e_2)$ is adjacent to two 3-faces, a contradiction.

(3) The face $g(e_2)$ is a 5-face and e_2 is a $(3, 4)$ -edge with the end of degree 4 being a cross with handle f .

Let $e_2 = uv$ with u being the cross with handle f and v a 3-vertex (without loss of generality) belonging to $g(e_3)$. By Observation 2, $g(e_3)$ is neither a 3-face nor a 5-face; hence, R2, R3 and R4 do not apply for $c(e_3) = \frac{1}{2}$, a contradiction. \square

Now, let f be an 11-face. Note that $ch'(f) = ch(f) - \sum_{e \in E(f)} q(e) = 5 - \sum_{e \in E(f)} q(e)$ and $q(e) \in \{0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\}$ for every $e \in E(f)$. If there is at least one edge $e \in E(f)$ such that $q(e) = 0$, then $ch'(f) \geq 0$. If there are at least two edges such that $q(e) = \frac{1}{4}$, then $ch'(f) \geq 0$. So, $ch'(f) < 0$ only if f has ten edges such that $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ and one edge such that $q(e) \geq \frac{1}{4}$. By Observation 3, we conclude that $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ for every $e \in E(f)$. By Lemma 6, equation $q(e) = c(e)$ cannot hold for every $e \in E(f)$. Namely there exists at least one edge $e \in E(f)$ such that $c(e) = 0$. Let $A = \{e \in E(f) | c(e) = 1\}$ and $B = \{e \in E(f) | c(e) = 0\}$. Since $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ for every $e \in E(f)$, the edges in A and those in B must be alternatively appeared on f ; hence, f is even, a contradiction excluding the possibility of $ch'(f) < 0$.

Finally, Let f be a 10-face. In order to show $ch'(f) \geq 0$, we first show a structural lemma as follows.

Lemma 7. Let G be a 2-connected plane graph with $\delta \geq 3$ and without cycles of length 4, 7, 8, or 9.

(1) If $g = xyy_1y_2y_3$ is a 5-face adjacent to a 10-face $f = yxx_1x_2 \dots x_8$ in G , then g is strict normally adjacent to f .

(2) Furthermore, if g is light with y being a 4-vertex and f is incident with nine 3-vertices in G , then g and f form an $S\Theta$.

Proof. (1) Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_8\}$, $Y = \{y_1, y_2, y_3\}$. We only need to prove $X \cap Y = \emptyset$. If $y_3 = x_1$, then $d(x) = 2$, a contradiction. If $y_3 = x_2$, then G would have a 9-cycle $y_3xyx_8x_7 \dots x_3x_2(=y_3)$. Similarly $y_3 \neq x_3, x_4$, since G has no 8-, 7-cycle, respectively. By symmetry, $y_1 \neq x_8, x_7, x_6, x_5$. Since G has no 4-cycle, $y_3 \neq x_8, x_7, y_1 \neq x_1, x_2$ and $y_2 \neq x_1, x_2, x_8, x_7$. Suppose $y_3 = x_5$. If $y_2 = x_6$, then $xx_1x_2 \dots x_5x_6(=y_2)y_1yx$ is 9-cycle in G (note that $y_1 \neq x_3, x_4$ since y_1 is separated from $\{x_3, x_4\}$ by cycle $y_3xyx_8x_7x_6x_5(=y_3)$), a contradiction. If $y_2 \neq x_6$, then $y_3y_2y_1yx_8x_7x_6x_5(=y_3)$ is a 7-cycle in G , a contradiction proving $y_3 \neq x_5$. Similarly $y_1 \neq x_4$. Now, if $y_3 = x_6$, then $y_3xx_1x_2 \dots x_6(=y_3)$ would be a 7-cycle in G ; hence, $y_3 \neq x_6$. Similarly $y_1 \neq x_3$. To conclude, $y_1, y_3 \notin X$. Now, if $y_2 = x_3$, then G has a 8-cycle $y_2y_1yx_8x_7x_6x_5x_4x_3$, a contradiction. If $y_2 = x_4$, then G would have a 7-cycle. Hence $y_2 \neq x_3, x_4$. By symmetry $y_2 \neq x_5, x_6$. To conclude, $y_2 \notin X$.

(2) To examine the definition of an $S\Theta$, we only need to show that the subgraph of G induced by $V(g) \cup V(f)$, denoted by H , satisfies $\delta(H) = 2$, since (2), (3), (4) in the definition of an $S\Theta$ are obvious. First note that $b(f)$, the boundary of f , has at most one external chord that evenly divide $b(f)$, since G has no 4-, 7-, or 9-cycles, and $b(g)$ has no external chord simply by no 4-cycle in G . Thus, except at most one external chord, every external chord of H has one end in $V(g) \setminus \{x, y\}$ and the other in $V(f) \setminus \{x, y\}$. Note that every vertex of H is incident with at most one external chord. It follows that H has at most four external chord. Hence, there are at least five vertices in $V(f)$ that are not incident with any external chord. Namely f has at least three vertices of degree 2 in H . \square

Now we are going to analyze the final charge for a 10-face f . By hypothesis (4), f has at least one big vertex. Suppose that $ch'(f) < 0$. Let us derive a contradiction. According to $ch'(f) = ch(f) - \sum_{e \in E(f)} q(e) = 4 - \sum_{e \in E(f)} q(e)$, $q(e) \in \{0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\}$ and Observation 3, $ch'(f) < 0$ only if

(a) $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ for every edge of f , or

(b) $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ for all but one edge of f and $q(e) = 0$ for the unique exceptional edge, or

(c) $q(e) = \frac{1}{2}$ for all but two edges of f and $q(e) = \frac{1}{4}$ for the two exceptional edges.

If (a) happens, then there is at least one edge $e \in E(f)$ such that $q(e) \neq c(e)$ by Lemma 6. It follows that $c(e) = 0$ has a solution in $E(f)$. Consequently, edges in $A = \{e \in E(f) | c(e) = 1\}$ cover all vertices of f . By R2 and R3, every edge in A is a $(3, 3)$ -edge; hence, f has ten 3-vertices, a contradiction.

If (b) happens, then, by examining $c(e)$ and $q(e)$ starting at the unique exceptional edge, we find that $c = q$ on $E(f)$, contradicting Lemma 6.

Finally assume that (c) happens. Let e_1, \dots, e_{10} be the edges of f in a cyclic order, and $q(e_1) = q(e_k) = \frac{1}{4}$ for some $k > 1$. According to the definitions of the functions q and c on $E(f)$, we may assume that $c(e)$ first takes value in $\{0, 1\}$ alternatively from e_1 to e_k and then takes $\frac{1}{2}$ for every one of the remaining edges. Namely, $c(e_2) = 1, c(e_3) = 0, \dots, c(e_{k-1}) = 1, c(e_k) = 0$; hence, k is odd, and $c(e_{k+1}) = \dots = c(e_{10}) = \frac{1}{2}$. By Lemma 6, $k = 9$. If u , the common vertex of e_1 and e_{10} , is a 5^+ -vertex, then u sends $\frac{1}{2}$ to f by R5, making $ch'(f) = 0$, a contradiction. Assume that u is a 4-vertex. Note that $c(e_{10}) = \frac{1}{2}$ implies that $g(e_{10})$ is a light 5-face by R3.2, or a 3-face by R2, or $e_{10} \in X$ by R4. If $g(e_{10})$ is a light 5-face, then G has an $S\Theta$ by Lemma 7, contradicting hypothesis (3). If $g(e_{10})$ is a 3-face, then f is weak. By R5, f receives $\frac{1}{2}$ from u , making $ch'(f) = 0$, a contradiction. If $e_{10} \in X$, then u is a cross and f is the handle of u . By the definitions of a cross and its handle and $c(e_{10}) = \frac{1}{2}$, $g(e_{10})$ is a 5-face; hence, $g(e_1)$ is a 3-face. Note that $c_0(e_1) = 0$ and e_1 is a $(3, 4)$ -edge. By R2, $g(e_1)$ is not a 3-face, a contradiction. The proof of Theorem 2 is completed. \square

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