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Planar graphs without 4-cycles adjacent to triangles are 4-choosable



Department of Mathematics, Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua 321004, China

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ABSTRACT

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1. Introduction

All graphs considered are finite, simple and undirected. For used but undefined terminology and notation in this paper, we refer the reader to the book by Bondy and Murty [1].

Lam et al. proved that every planar graph without 4-cycles is 4-choosable (Lam et al., 1999).

In this paper, we improve this result by showing that every planar graph without 4-cycles

A list assignment of a graph G = (V, E) is a function L that assigns to each vertex $v \in V$ a list L(v) of colors. An L-coloring of G is a function $\lambda : V \longrightarrow \bigcup_{v \in V} L(v)$ such that $\lambda(v) \in L(v)$ for every $v \in V$ and $\lambda(u) \neq \lambda(v)$ whenever $uv \in E$. If G admits an L-coloring, then it is L-colorable. A graph G is k-choosable if it is L-colorable for every list assignment L with $|L(v)| \geq k$ for every $v \in V$.

All 2-choosable graphs have been characterized by Erdős et al. [2]. Thomassen [7] proved that every planar graph is 5-choosable. Voigt [8] showed that not all planar graphs are 4-choosable. Gutner [5] proved that the problems to determine whether a given planar graph is 3- or 4-choosable are NP-hard. So nice sufficient conditions for a planar graph to be 3- or 4-choosable are of certain interest.

This paper only concerns 4-choosability of planar graphs. Two cycles are *intersecting* if they have at least one vertex in common; *adjacent* if they have at least one edge in common. Let k be a positive integer. A cycle of length k is called a *k-cycle*. A 3-cycle is usually called a *triangle*. A cycle in *G* is called *triangular*, if it is adjacent to a triangle. Call a graph *G k-degenerate* if every subgraph of *G* has at least one vertex of degree k. Clearly, every *k*-degenerate graph is (k + 1)-choosable. In particular, every 3-degenerate graph is 4-choosable. By a simple discharging argument, it is easy to see that every planar graph without triangles is 3-degenerate, hence 4-choosable. Up to date, the 4-choosability of planar graphs without *k*-cycles proved non-trivially only for k = 4, 5, 6, 7. More precisely, every planar graph without 5-cycles [9], or without 6-cycles [4], is 3-degenerate, hence 4-choosable. It is interesting to notice that, for k = 4, 7, there are planar graphs without *k*-cycles which are not 3-degenerate. So the 4-choosability of planar graphs without 4-cycles [6], or without 7-cycles [3], is established not via 3-degeneracy. Although it is appealing to determine the set of all positive integers *K* such

* Corresponding author. E-mail addresses: 1281504153@qq.com (P. Cheng), chenmin@zjnu.cn (M. Chen), yqwang@zjnu.cn (Y. Wang).

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Fig. 1. A sink *P* with its sources in *G*.

that, for every $k \in K$, every planar graph without k-cycles is 4-choosable, it seems very difficult to attain. Are there any other nice sufficient conditions for a planar graph to be 4-choosable? Without intersecting short cycles, or more strongly, without adjacent short cycles might be good choice. Theorem A is the first example of such choice.

Theorem A. A planar graph is 4-choosable if it does not contain intersecting triangles [10].

Conjecture B. Every planar graph without adjacent triangles is 4-choosable [10,6].

Nearby Conjecture B, this paper proves a result as follows:

Theorem 1. Every planar graph without triangular 4-cycles is 4-choosable.

2. Structures

Suppose to the contrary that Theorem 1 is not true. Let G = (V, E) be a counterexample to Theorem 1 with the fewest vertices. Then *G* clearly has the following elementary properties:

- (1) G has no triangular 4-cycle.
- (2) G is connected.
- (3) *G* is not 4-choosable, i.e., there is a list assignment $L = \{L(v) | |L(v)| \ge 4, \forall v \in V\}$ such that *G* is not *L*-colorable. However,
- (4) any proper vertex-induced subgraph *G*′ of *G* is 4-choosable. In particular, *G*′ is *L*′-colorable, where *L*′ is the restriction of *L* on *G*′.

Embedding *G* into the plane, we get a plane graph G = (V, E, F), where *V*, *E* and *F* are the set of vertices, edges, and faces of *G*, respectively. For a vertex $v \in V$, the *degree* of *v*, denoted d(v), is the number of edges incident with v in *G*. For a face $f \in F$, the *degree* of *f*, denoted d(f), is the number of edges incident with *f* (a cut-edge is counted twice). A vertex $v \in V$ is called a *k*-, k^+ , or k^- -vertex if d(v) = k, $\geq k$, or $\leq k$, respectively. The notion of a *k*-, k^+ -, or k^- -face is similarly defined. For a face $f \in F$, if the vertices on *f* in a cyclic order are v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k , then we write $f = [v_1v_2 \ldots v_k]$, and call *f* a $(d(v_1), d(v_2), \ldots, d(v_k))$ -face.

Using the minimality of G, i.e., the elementary property (3) and (4) above, the following lemma is straightforward.

Lemma 1 ([6]). *G* has no 3^- -vertex. \Box

Two faces in *G* are *adjacent* if they have at least one edge in common; *normally* adjacent if they are adjacent and have exactly two vertices in common. Call a 5-face *bad* if it is adjacent to at least four 3-faces, and incident with either five 4-vertices or four 4-vertices and one 5-vertex; *good* otherwise. Note that if a 5-face is adjacent to at most three 3-faces, or incident with one 6^+ -vertices or two 5^+ -vertices, then it is good.

Let *P* be a 5-face and *T* a 3-face in *G*. If *P* and *T* are adjacent, then they are normally adjacent since *G* has no triangular 4-cycles. The vertex v on *T* but not on *P* is called a *source* of *P*, if all of the following hold:

- *P* is a bad 5-face,
- if *P* has a 5-vertex *u*, then $uv \in T$.

If v is a source of P, then P is equivalently called a *sink* of v. Clearly, for k = 4, 5, a bad 5-face P with no 5-vertex has k sources if and only if it is adjacent to k 3-faces. Suppose a bad 5-face P is incident with one 5-vertex. Then it has one or two sources depending on the 5-vertex being incident with one or two 3-faces, respectively, see Fig. 1, where black points represent sources of P.

A face $f \in F$ is simple if its boundary b(f) is a cycle.

Lemma 2. Every 5⁻-face in G is simple.

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