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

Panpan Cheng, Min Chen, Yingqian Wang*<br>Department of Mathematics, Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua 321004, China

## A R T I CLE INFO

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#### Abstract

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 adjacent to triangles is 4-choosable.


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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].

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 $\lambda: V \longrightarrow \cup_{v \in V} L(v)$ such that $\lambda(v) \in L(v)$ for every $v \in V$ and $\lambda(u) \neq \lambda(v)$ whenever $u v \in E$. 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

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Fig. 1. A $\operatorname{sink} P$ 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 $L=\{L(v)| | L(v) \mid \geq 4, \forall v \in V\}$ such that $G$ is not $L$-colorable. However,
(4) any proper vertex-induced subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ is 4-choosable. In particular, $G^{\prime}$ is $L^{\prime}$-colorable, where $L^{\prime}$ is the restriction of $L$ on $G^{\prime}$.

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 $f=\left[v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{k}\right]$, and call $f$ a $\left(d\left(v_{1}\right), d\left(v_{2}\right), \ldots, d\left(v_{k}\right)\right)$-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.
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 $6^{+}$-vertex 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 $u v \in T$.

If $v$ is a source of $P$, then $P$ is equivalently called a $\operatorname{sink}$ 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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[^0]:    * Corresponding author.

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

