

ACYCLIC COLOURINGS OF PLANAR GRAPHS WITH LARGE GIRTH

O. V. BORODIN, A. V. KOSTOCHKA AND D. R. WOODALL

ABSTRACT

A proper vertex-colouring of a graph is *acyclic* if there are no 2-coloured cycles. It is known that every planar graph is acyclically 5-colourable, and that there are planar graphs with acyclic chromatic number $\chi_a = 5$ and girth $g = 4$. It is proved here that a planar graph satisfies $\chi_a \leq 4$ if $g \geq 5$ and $\chi_a \leq 3$ if $g \geq 7$.

1. Introduction

An *acyclic colouring* of a graph G is a proper vertex-colouring of G such that every union of two colour classes induces an acyclic subgraph of G , and $\chi_a = \chi_a(G)$ denotes the smallest number of colours in an acyclic colouring of G . Clearly $\chi_a(C) = 3$ if C is a cycle and $\chi_a(F) \leq 2$ if F is a forest, with equality unless F is edgeless.

For a planar graph G , Grünbaum [5] conjectured that $\chi_a(G) \leq 5$ and proved that $\chi_a(G) \leq 9$. This bound was sharpened by Mitchem [9] to 8, by Albertson and Berman [1] to 7, by Kostochka [7] to 6, and by Borodin [3, 4] to 5, which is best possible since the double 5-wheel $C_5 + \bar{K}_2$ is planar and (it is easy to see) has $\chi_a = 5$.

The *girth* $g = g(G)$ of a graph G is the length of its shortest cycle. The purpose of the present paper is to prove the following two results, which were partly inspired by J. Nešetřil telling us of Fact 4 (below).

THEOREM 1. *If G is planar with girth $g \geq 5$ then $\chi_a \leq 4$.*

THEOREM 2. *If G is planar with girth $g \geq 7$ then $\chi_a \leq 3$.*

Kostochka and Melnikov [8] have constructed planar 2-degenerate bipartite graphs, necessarily with girth $g = 4$, having $\chi_a = 5$. (For example, in $C_5 + \bar{K}_2$, replace each edge uv of C_5 by a copy of $K_{2,4}$ with u, v as the vertices of degree 4.) Thus our condition $g \geq 5$ is best possible to imply $\chi_a \leq 4$. However, we do not know whether $\chi_a \leq 3$ whenever $g \geq 6$ (or even $g \geq 5$).

Theorems 1 and 2 have several corollaries, in view of the following facts.

Received 20 December 1995; revised 26 October 1997.

1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification* 05C15.

This work was carried out while the first author was visiting Nottingham, funded by Visiting Fellowship Research Grant GR/K00561 from the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council. The work of this author was also partly supported by grant NQ4300 of the International Science Foundation and the Russian Government. The work of the second author was partly supported by grant 93-01-01486 of the Russian Foundation of Fundamental Research and grant RPY300 of the International Science Foundation and the Russian Government.

FACT 1 (obvious). If $\chi_a(G) \leq k$ then G contains an induced forest on at least $2/k$ of its vertices.

FACT 2 (S. L. Hakimi, J. Mitchem and E. S. Schmeichel (see [6])). If $\chi_a(G) \leq k$ then $E(G)$ can be partitioned into k ‘star forests’ (forests in which each component is a star).

FACT 3 (Grünbaum [5]). If $\chi_a(G) \leq k$ then the *star chromatic number* $\chi_s(G) \leq k \cdot 2^{k-1}$.

FACT 4 (Raspaud and Sopena [10]). If $\chi_a(G) \leq k$ then the *oriented chromatic number* $\chi_o(G) \leq k \cdot 2^{k-1}$.

By Fact 2, Borodin’s 5-colour theorem implies the truth of the conjecture of Algor and Alon [2] that the edges of every planar graph can be partitioned into five star forests. By Facts 3 and 4, it also implies that $\chi_s(G) \leq 80$ and $\chi_o(G) \leq 80$ for every planar graph G ; these bounds remain the best known. For girth $g \geq 5$, Theorem 1 gives $\chi_s(G) \leq 32$ and $\chi_o(G) \leq 32$; for $g \geq 7$, Theorem 2 gives $\chi_s(G) \leq 12$ and $\chi_o(G) \leq 12$.

2. Preliminaries

The proofs of the two theorems have a similar structure. In each case we let G be a smallest counterexample to the theorem, which we assume is already embedded in the plane, and we note that clearly G is 2-connected. Our proof uses an application of Euler’s formula (Lemma 1) and some structural information derived from the minimality of G (Lemmas 2–5); we then use the method of redistribution of charge in order to obtain a contradiction.

Throughout, G has n vertices, m edges and r faces, the sets of which are denoted by V , E and F respectively. The degree of vertex v is denoted by $d(v)$, a d -vertex is a vertex v with $d(v) = d$, and a $d(b)$ -vertex is a d -vertex that is adjacent to exactly b vertices of degree 2. The number of edges incident to face f is denoted by $r(f)$, and an r -face or $>r$ -face is a face f with $r(f) = r$ or $r(f) > r$, respectively. An (*alternating*) i, j -path is a path whose vertices are coloured alternately i and j . A cycle C separates two vertices if one of the vertices is inside C and the other is outside C , and a *separating cycle* is a cycle that separates some two vertices. The following lemma holds for every connected planar graph.

LEMMA 1.

- (i) $\sum_{v \in V} (3d(v) - 10) + \sum_{f \in F} (2r(f) - 10) = -20$.
- (ii) $\sum_{v \in V} (5d(v) - 14) + \sum_{f \in F} (2r(f) - 14) = -28$.

Proof. Euler’s formula $n - m + r = 2$ can be rewritten in the form $(6m - 10n) + (4m - 10r) = -20$, which implies (i), and in the form $(10m - 14n) + (4m - 14r) = -28$, which implies (ii). □

3. Proof of Theorem 1 ($g \geq 5$)

Let G be a smallest counterexample to Theorem 1. As noted above, G is 2-connected and so has minimum degree at least 2.

LEMMA 2. (i) No 2-vertex is adjacent to a 2-vertex or 3-vertex.

(ii) G contains no $d(d)$ -vertices ($2 \leq d \leq 15$), no $d(d-1)$ -vertices ($2 \leq d \leq 9$) and no $d(d-2)$ -vertices ($3 \leq d \leq 4$).

(iii) If w is a 5(3)-vertex, then the three 2-vertices occur consecutively in cyclic order round w , and both of the two faces between consecutive 2-vertices are >5 -faces.

(iv) If a 5(2)-vertex is adjacent to three 3-vertices, then it is incident to at least one >5 -face.

(v) A 5(3) or 6(4)-vertex is not adjacent to any 3-vertices.

Proof. (i): (i) follows immediately from (ii). In proving (ii)–(v), we assume throughout that w is a $d(b)$ -vertex with neighbours $v_1, \dots, v_b, z_1, \dots, z_{d-b}$ where v_1, \dots, v_b have degree 2 and are adjacent to u_1, \dots, u_b respectively. The neighbours of z_i other than w will be referred to as the *outer neighbours* of z_i ($1 \leq i \leq d-b$). By the minimality of G , we may suppose that $G - v_1$ has an acyclic 4-colouring $c: V \setminus \{v_1\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ in which without loss of generality $c(w) = 1$. If we can convert this into an acyclic 4-colouring of G by colouring v_1 (perhaps after first recolouring some other vertices), then this contradiction will complete the proof. Note that if $c(u_i) \neq c(w)$ then we can give v_i either of the other colours since no 2-coloured cycle can possibly use v_i . Thus we may suppose that $c(u_1) = 1$, and that for $j = 2, 3, 4$ there is an alternating $1, j$ -path connecting u_1 to w (since otherwise we could set $c(v_1) = j$).

(ii) and (iii): If $b = d < 4^2$, then choose a colour j that appears on at most three of u_1, \dots, u_b . Set $c(w) = j$, give the intervening v_i distinct colours not equal to j , and give the remaining v_i any proper colours; this colouring is clearly acyclic.

If $b = d - 1 < 3^2$, then choose a colour $j \neq c(z_1)$ that appears on at most two of u_1, \dots, u_b . Set $c(w) = j$, and proceed as before. If $b = d - 2 < 2^2$, then the same trick works provided that $c(z_1) \neq c(z_2)$, but if $c(z_1) = c(z_2)$ then we dare not recolour w for fear of creating a 2-coloured cycle. However, if at most two of u_1, \dots, u_b have colour 1, which must be the case if $d - 2 \leq 2$, then we can colour the corresponding v_i with distinct colours not in $\{1, c(z_1)\}$. This proves (ii), and it also shows that in proving (iii) we may assume that $c(z_1) = c(z_2) = 2$, say, and that $c(u_i) = 1$ for all i . Hence if v_i, v_j occur consecutively in cyclic order round w , then there is a >5 -face between them (otherwise $u_i u_j \in E$).

If the v_i are not consecutive in cyclic order round w , assume that v_1 is between z_1 and z_2 . Because of the $1, 4$ -path connecting u_1 to w , there can be no $2, 3$ -path from z_1 to z_2 . Thus we may give w colour 3 and the v_i any proper colours. This proves (iii).

(iv): Suppose that $(d, b) = (5, 2)$, $d(z_i) = 3$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$) and w is incident to five 5-faces. If $c(u_2) = 1$ then, because of the 5-faces, v_1 and v_2 are not consecutive in cyclic order round w , and at most one of z_1, z_2, z_3 has an outer neighbour coloured 1, but this contradicts the existence of the three $1, j$ -paths connecting u_1 to w , so we may suppose that $c(u_2) \neq 1$. Then without loss of generality $c(z_i) = i + 1$ and z_i has an outer neighbour coloured 1 (because of the $1, (i+1)$ -path, $i = 1, 2, 3$). Choose a colour $j \notin \{1, c(u_2)\}$ that occurs on at most one of the outer neighbours of z_1, z_2 and z_3 , set $c(w) = j$ and give z_{j-1}, v_1 and v_2 any proper colours.

(v): Suppose that $(d, b) = (5, 3)$ or $(6, 4)$ and $d(z_1) = 3$. First suppose that $c(z_1) = c(z_2)$. If the two outer neighbours of z_1 have the same colour j , we may choose $c(w) \notin \{j, c(z_1)\}$ such that $c(w)$ occurs on at most two of u_1, \dots, u_b ; the v_i are now easily coloured. If the two outer neighbours of z_1 have distinct colours, we may recolour first z_1 and then w , and so we may assume from now on that $c(z_1) \neq c(z_2)$, without loss of generality $c(z_i) = i + 2$ ($i = 1, 2$). If $c(u_i) = 1$ for at most one i , put $c(w) = 1$ and

$c(v_i) = 2$. The same works with 1 and 2 interchanged, and so we may suppose that $(d, b) = (6, 4)$, $c(u_1) = c(u_2) = 1$ and $c(u_3) = c(u_4) = 2$. If z_1 has no outer neighbour coloured 1, we may put $c(w) = 1$, $c(v_1) = 2$, $c(v_2) = 3$. The same again works with 1 and 2 interchanged, and so we may suppose that z_1 has outer neighbours coloured 1 and 2. Now put $c(z_1) = 4$, $c(w) = 3$ and give v_1, \dots, v_4 any proper colours. \square

By a *weak* vertex we mean a vertex of degree 2 or 3 or a 4-vertex that is adjacent to both a 2-vertex and a 3-vertex.

LEMMA 3. *Each 3-vertex is adjacent to at most one weak vertex*

Proof. Let w be a 3-vertex adjacent to x, y, z where x, y are weak, with degree 3 or 4 (by Lemma 2(i)). Let the outer neighbours of x (that is, its neighbours other than w) be x_1, x_2 and, if $d(x) = 4$, x_3 , where $d(x_3) = 2$ and the other neighbour of x_3 is x'_3 . To avoid referring to non-existent vertices, if $d(x) = 3$ add isolated vertices x_3, x'_3 to G . Deal with y analogously. Let c be an acyclic 4-colouring of $G - \{w, x_3, y_3\}$. In what follows, whenever we describe how to colour x_3 , we assume implicitly that $c(x'_3) = c(x)$, since if $c(x'_3) \neq c(x)$ then we can use either of the other colours for $c(x_3)$ with impunity; similarly with y_3 . Assume that $c(z) = 1$. By interchanging x, y and permuting the other colours if necessary, we have only four cases to consider.

Case 1: $c(x) = 2$, $c(y) = 3$. Set $c(w) = 4$, choose $c(x_3) \notin \{c(x), c(x_1), c(x_2)\}$, and colour y_3 similarly.

Case 2: $c(x) = c(y) = 2$. If $c(x_1) \neq c(x_2)$ and $\{c(x_1), c(x_2)\} \neq \{3, 4\}$, then change $c(x)$ to get case 1. Hence we may assume that $c(x_1) = c(x_2)$ or $\{c(x_1), c(x_2)\} = \{3, 4\}$, and similarly for y_1, y_2 . If there is no 2, 3-path connecting x to y , set $c(w) = 3$, if $c(x_1) = c(x_2)$ choose $c(x_3) \notin \{c(x), c(x_1), c(w)\}$, if $\{c(x_1), c(x_2)\} = \{3, 4\}$ set $c(x_3) = 1$, and colour y_3 similarly. We can do the same if there is no 2, 4-path connecting x to y ; hence we may suppose that both paths exist and $c(x_1) = c(y_1) = 3$, $c(x_2) = c(y_2) = 4$. Now, either the 2, 3-path (completed to a cycle through w) separates x_2 from z or the 2, 4-path (similarly completed) separates x_1 from z . Suppose the former, so that there is no 1, 4-path connecting x_2 to z ; set $c(w) = 4$, $c(x) = 1$, $c(x_3) = 2$ and $c(y_3) = 1$.

Case 3: $c(x) = 1$, $c(y) = 2$. If $c(x_1) \neq c(x_2)$ we can change $c(x)$ to get case 1 or case 2. Hence assume that $c(x_1) = c(x_2) \neq 3$ and choose $c(w) = 3$, $c(x_3) \notin \{c(w), c(x), c(x_1)\}$, $c(y_3) \notin \{c(y), c(y_1), c(y_2)\}$.

Case 4: $c(x) = c(y) = 1$. As in case 3, we may suppose that $c(x_1) = c(x_2)$, and similarly $c(y_1) = c(y_2)$. Choose $c(w) \notin \{1, c(x_1), c(y_1)\}$, $c(x_3) \notin \{c(w), c(x), c(x_1)\}$ and $c(y_3) \notin \{c(w), c(y), c(y_1)\}$. \square

We now show that Lemmas 2 and 3 contradict the supposition that $g \geq 5$. Assign a ‘charge’ of $3d(v) - 10$ units to each vertex v of G and of $2r(f) - 10$ units to each face f of G . By Lemma 1(i), the total charge assigned is negative. We now redistribute the charge, without changing its sum, in such a way that the sum is provably non-negative, and this contradiction will prove the theorem. Note that the charge on each face is non-negative, by the supposition that $r(f) \geq g \geq 5$, and vertices of degree 2, 3, 4, 5, ... start with charge $-4, -1, 2, 5, \dots$

The rules for redistribution are as follows:

(R1) Each 2-vertex receives 2 from each adjacent vertex.

(R2) Each 3-vertex receives $\frac{1}{2}$ from each adjacent non-weak vertex.

(R3) Each face f with $r(f) > 5$ and bounding cycle $v_1 v_2 \dots v_{r(f)} v_1$ gives $\frac{1}{2}$ to each vertex v_i for which $d(v_{i-1}) \leq 3$ and $d(v_{i+1}) \leq 3$ (subscripts modulo $r(f)$).

It is easy to see that the charge on each face f is still non-negative: by Lemmas 2(i) and 3, the boundary of f cannot contain three consecutive vertices with degree ≤ 3 , and so f cannot contribute $\frac{1}{2}$ to two adjacent vertices in its boundary; thus f gives up at most $\frac{1}{4}r(f)$, whereas its initial charge was $2r(f) - 10 > \frac{1}{4}r(f)$ if $r(f) > 5$.

It remains to prove that the charge on each vertex v is also non-negative. If $d(v) = 2$ then v started with charge -4 and has gained 4, and so now has charge 0. If $d(v) = 3$ then v started with -1 and has gained at least 1 by Lemma 3, and so it now has non-negative charge. Suppose that $d(v) = 4$, so that v started with charge 2. By Lemma 2(ii) and the definition of a weak vertex, if v is adjacent to a 2-vertex then it gave 2 to only one 2-vertex and nothing to 3-vertices; otherwise it gave $\frac{1}{2}$ to at most four 3-vertices. In either case its charge is still non-negative.

Suppose that $d(v) = 5$, so that v is a $5(b)$ -vertex where $b \leq 3$ by Lemma 2(ii). If $b = 3$ then, by Lemma 2(iii) and (v), v received $\frac{1}{2}$ from two > 5 -faces, between pairs of 2-vertices, and gave nothing to 3-vertices; thus v started with charge 5, gave 6 to three 2-vertices, received 1 from faces, and now has 0. If $b = 2$ then v gave 4 to 2-vertices and, by Lemma 2(iv), it either gave at most 1 to 3-vertices or gave $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3-vertices and received $\frac{1}{2}$ from a > 5 -face. If $b \leq 1$ then v gave at most 2 to a 2-vertex plus 2 to four 3-vertices.

If $d(v) = 6$ then v started with 8 and, by Lemma 2(ii) and (v), gave at most 8, either to four 2-vertices, or to at most three 2-vertices and three 3-vertices. If $7 \leq d(v) \leq 9$ then, by Lemma 2(ii), v gave to at most $d(v) - 2$ 2-vertices and two 3-vertices, making a total of at most $2d(v) - 3 \leq 3d(v) - 10$. Finally, if $d(v) \geq 10$ then v gave at most $2d(v) \leq 3d(v) - 10$. Thus every vertex now has non-negative charge, and this contradiction completes the proof of Theorem 1. \square

4. Proof of Theorem 2 ($g \geq 7$)

Let G be a smallest counterexample to Theorem 2; G is 2-connected, with minimum degree at least 2.

LEMMA 4. (i) G does not contain two adjacent 2-vertices.

(ii) G contains no $d(d)$ -vertices ($2 \leq d \leq 8$) or $d(d-1)$ -vertices ($2 \leq d \leq 4$).

(iii) No 3-vertex is adjacent to three 3(1)-vertices.

(iv) No 3(1)-vertex is adjacent to two 3(1)-vertices.

Proof. (i) and (ii): With the terminology of Lemma 2, if $b = d < 3^2$ then choose a colour j that occurs on at most two of u_1, \dots, u_b . If $b = d - 1 < 2^2$ then choose a colour $j \neq c(z_1)$ that occurs on at most one of u_1, \dots, u_b . In each case, set $c(w) = j$ and proceed as in Lemma 2(ii). This proves (ii), and (i) immediately follows.

(iii): For $i = 1, 2, 3$, let G contain paths $w x_i v_i u_i$ where $d(w) = 3$, $d(v_i) = 2$, x_i has another neighbour y_i , and distinct labels denote distinct vertices. Let c be an acyclic 3-colouring of $G - \{w, v_1, v_2, v_3, x_1, x_2, x_3\}$.

Suppose that we colour w . If $c(w) \neq c(y_i)$, say $c(w) = 1$ and $c(y_i) = 2$, we can colour the path $wx_i v_i u_i$ either 1321 or 1312 or 1313 depending on the colour of u_i , and only in the last case is there an alternating path through x_i ; this is a $c(w), c(u_i)$ -path and requires w, y_i and u_i to have three different colours. If $c(w) = c(y_i)$ then, by choosing $c(v_i) \neq c(w)$ if $c(x_i) = c(u_i)$, we can ensure that there is only the inevitable $c(w), c(x_i)$ -path through $c(x_i)$; this works for either of the two possible choices for $c(x_i)$.

We now colour w as follows; in each case, by the above remarks, we can colour the x_i and v_i so as to create no 2-coloured cycles. If $c(y_i) = 1$, say, for each i , let $c(w)$ be whichever of 2, 3 occurs on more of the u_i (so that the other occurs on at most one u_i). If $c(y_1) = c(y_2) = 1$ and $c(y_3) = 2$, set $c(w) = 3$ unless $c(u_1) = c(u_2) = 2$, in which case set $c(w) = 2$. If $c(y_i) = i$ for each i , set $c(w) = j$ where j is chosen so that $\{j, c(y_i), c(u_i)\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$ for at most one i , and choose $c(x_i) \neq c(u_i)$ if there is such an i .

(iv): This is essentially the same as (iii) with u_3, v_3 removed and $c(u_3)$ interpreted as 1, say, whenever it occurs in the above argument. □

Recall that G has girth $g(G) = g \geq 7$. An r -cycle, $\leq r$ -cycle or $< r$ -cycle is a cycle with length $l = r, l \leq r$ or $l < r$, respectively. A $*$ -cycle is a separating r -cycle, where $r = 7$ or 8. If G contains a $*$ -cycle, then let S be a $*$ -cycle with as few vertices as possible inside it, and describe every vertex inside S as *distinguished*; otherwise, every vertex of G is *distinguished*.

LEMMA 5. (i) *If a $*$ -cycle C passes through a distinguished vertex, then C is an 8-cycle.*

(ii) *If two distinguished 3(1)-vertices b_1, b_2 are adjacent then edge $b_1 b_2$ is incident with a > 7 -face.*

Proof. (i): If such a C exists then clearly S exists and $C \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Suppose that C is a 7-cycle. If only one vertex of C is inside or outside S , then combined with a segment of S it gives a ≤ 6 -cycle, contradicting $g \geq 7$. Thus either two or three vertices of C are inside $S, |V(S)| = 8$, and C splits S into two equal segments, creating two 7-cycles or 8-cycles with fewer vertices inside them than S . Clearly these cycles can have no chords, and since no two 2-vertices of G are adjacent by Lemma 4(i), at least one of the cycles must be separating, contradicting the definition of S .

(ii): For $i = 1, 2$, let b_i be adjacent to h_i and k_i where $d(k_i) = 2$. There are two cases.

Case 1: k_1, k_2 are incident with the same face. Assume that this is labelled as in Figure 1(a). Form G_i from $G' = G - \{k_1, b_1, b_2, k_2\}$ by adding a new 2-vertex z_i adjacent to f_i and h_{3-i} ($i = 1, 2$).

CLAIM 1. *Either $g(G_1) \geq 7$ or $g(G_2) \geq 7$.*

Proof. Suppose that $g(G_1) \leq 6$ and $g(G_2) \leq 6$. Then G' contains paths $f_1 u_1 \dots h_2$ and $f_2 u_2 \dots h_1$ of length at most 4. These paths must cross, at a vertex v , say. The distances from v along these paths satisfy $d(v, f_1) + d(v, h_2) \leq 4$ and $d(v, f_2) + d(v, h_1) \leq 4$ by assumption, and also $d(v, f_1) + d(v, h_1) \geq 4, d(v, f_2) + d(v, h_2) \geq 4$ and $d(v, h_1) + d(v, h_2) \geq 4$ because $g(G) \geq 7$. It follows that either $d(v, f_1) = d(v, f_2) = 1$ and $d(v, h_1) = d(v, h_2) = 3$, or else all four distances equal 2. In the first case, $v = u_1 = u_2$ and we have a 4-cycle

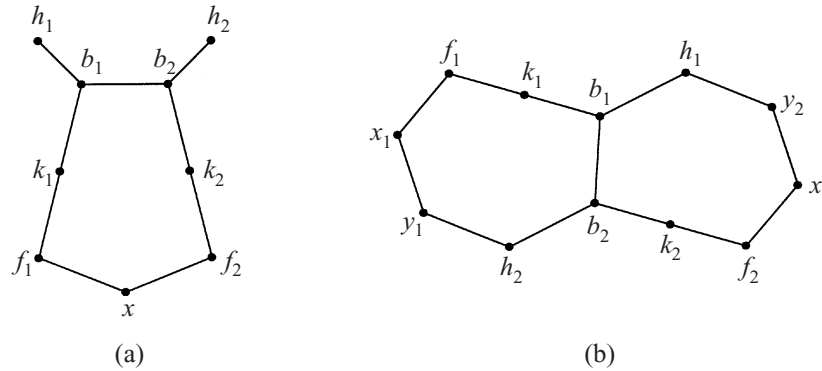


FIGURE 1.

unless $v = x$. In the second, $xf_1u_1vu_2f_2x$ is a closed walk of length 6, which contains a ≤ 6 -cycle unless $u_1 = u_2 = x$. In either case we may suppose that $u_1 = x$. Then there is a 7-cycle $h_2b_2k_2f_2x\dots h_2$, which is separating because $d(f_2) \neq d(k_2) = 2$ by Lemma 4(i). This contradicts Lemma 5(i), and so completes the proof of the claim. \square

By Claim 1, we may suppose without loss of generality that $g(G_1) \geq 7$, which means that G_1 has an acyclic 3-colouring c by the minimality of G . We now show that this can be modified into an acyclic 3-colouring of G . As in Lemma 3, whenever we describe how to colour k_i , we assume implicitly that $c(b_i) = c(f_i)$, since otherwise $c(k_i)$ is uniquely determined and no 2-coloured cycle can possibly use k_i .

Without loss of generality $c(f_1) = 1$. If $c(h_2) \neq 1$, say $c(h_2) = 2$, we can colour $b_1b_2k_2$ so that $h_1b_1b_2k_2$ is coloured 1231, 2313 or 3213, depending on $c(h_1)$. Thus we may suppose that $c(h_2) = c(f_1) = 1$ and, by symmetry, that $c(h_1) = c(f_2) = j$, say. If $j = 1$, set $c(b_1) = 2, c(b_2) = 3$. Suppose $j \neq 1$, say $j = 2$. If in $G_1, c(z_1) = 3$, colour $k_1b_1b_2$ with 313. Otherwise, $c(z_1) = 2$, and we colour $k_1b_1b_2$ with 213 or 312 according to whether there is or is not a 1, 2-path connecting h_1 to h_2 ; note that if there is, then there is no 1, 2-path connecting h_1 to f_1 , since there is none in $G_1 - z_1$ connecting f_1 to h_2 . Thus in every case we have constructed an acyclic 3-colouring of G , and this contradiction completes the discussion of case (1).

Case 2: k_1, k_2 are not incident with the same face. Assume that the two faces incident to b_1b_2 are labelled as in Figure 1(b).

Let c be an acyclic 3-colouring of $G' = G - \{k_1, b_1, b_2, k_2\}$. If $c(f_1) \neq c(h_2)$, say $c(f_1) = 1, c(h_2) = 2$, then we can colour $b_1b_2k_2$ so that $h_1b_1b_2k_2$ is coloured 1231, 2313 or 3213, depending on $c(h_1)$ (with the usual convention about colouring 2-vertices). Thus we may suppose that in every colouring of $G', c(f_1) = c(h_2)$. This means that identifying f_1 with y_1 in G' must create a ≤ 6 -cycle, and likewise identifying x_1 with h_2 .

Therefore G' contains paths P_1, P_2 of length at most 6 connecting f_1 to y_1 and x_1 to h_2 , and P_1 and P_2 must cross, at a vertex v , say. The distances from v along these paths satisfy $d(v, f_1) + d(v, y_1) \leq 6$ and $d(v, x_1) + d(v, h_2) \leq 6$, and also $d(v, f_1) + d(v, x_1) \geq 6, d(v, x_1) + d(v, y_1) \geq 6, d(v, y_1) + d(v, h_2) \geq 6$ and $d(v, f_1) + d(v, h_2) \geq 4$ because $g(G) \geq 7$. It follows that either all four distances equal 3, or else $d(v, f_1) = d(v, h_2) = 2$ and

$d(v, x_1) = d(v, y_1) = 4$. Let C_1 , C_2 and C_3 be the three cycles generated by adding $f_1 x_1$, $x_1 y_1$ and $y_1 h_2$, respectively, to $P_1 \cup P_2$, and let C_4 be their mod-2-sum, which is a cycle including v and the path $f_1 x_1 y_1 h_2$. The lengths of C_1, \dots, C_4 are either 7, 7, 7, 9 or 7, 9, 7, 7; hence these cycles have no chords. C_4 is certainly separating. Since no two 2-vertices of G are adjacent by Lemma 4(i), either C_1 and C_3 are both separating or C_2 is separating. Either way, each of x_1 and y_1 lies on a separating 7-cycle, and so S exists and, by Lemma 5(i), neither of these vertices is inside S . However, b_1 and b_2 are inside S , and so all vertices in Figure 1(b) are inside S or on S . Hence x_1 and y_1 are on S .

Similarly, x_2 and y_2 are on S . Thus S contains at least two internally disjoint paths between $\{x_1, y_1\}$ and $\{x_2, y_2\}$, at least one of which, say P , has at most two internal vertices. Without loss of generality P connects x_1 to y_2 . Then we have a ≤ 8 -cycle $x_1 f_1 k_1 b_1 h_1 y_2 P x_1$ which is strictly enclosed in S , and is separating because $d(f_1) \neq d(k_1) = 2$ by Lemma 4(i). This contradicts the definition of S and so completes the proof of Lemma 5. \square

We now show that Lemmas 4 and 5 give a contradiction. If G contains a $*$ -cycle, form H from G by deleting all vertices outside S ; otherwise let $H = G$. Assign a charge of $5d(v) - 14$ units to each vertex v of H and of $2r(f) - 14$ units to each face f of H . By Lemma 1(ii), the total charge assigned is -28 . We now redistribute the charge so that its sum is provably greater than -28 , and this contradiction will prove the theorem. Note that the charge on each face is non-negative, by the supposition that $r(g) \geq g \geq 7$; and vertices of degree 2, 3, 4, 5, ... start with charge $-4, 1, 6, 11, \dots$

Our rules for redistributing the charge are as follows:

(R1) Each distinguished 2-vertex receives 2 from each adjacent vertex.

(R2) Each distinguished 3(1)-vertex receives $\frac{1}{2}$ from each adjacent vertex that is not a distinguished 2-vertex or a distinguished 3(1)-vertex.

(R3) For each pair b_1, b_2 of adjacent 3(1)-vertices, b_1 and b_2 each receive $\frac{1}{2}$ from each >7 -face incident to edge $b_1 b_2$.

It is easy to see that the charge on each face f is still non-negative: by Lemma 4(iv) the boundary of f contains at most $\frac{1}{3}r(f)$ pairs of adjacent 3(1)-vertices, and so f gives up at most $\lfloor \frac{1}{3}r(f) \rfloor \leq 2r(f) - 14$ if $r(f) > 7$.

We now prove that each distinguished vertex v has non-negative charge. If $d(v) = 2$, then v started with -4 and gained 4, so now has 0. If $d(v) = 3$ then v is a 3(b)-vertex ($b \in \{0, 1\}$) by Lemma 4(ii). If $b = 0$ then v started with 1 and gave $\frac{1}{2}$ to at most two 3(1)-vertices by Lemma 4(iii). If $b = 1$ let v have neighbours v_1, v_2, v_3 where $d(v_1) = 2$. If v_2 , say, is a distinguished 3(1)-vertex then, by Lemma 4(iv), v received $\frac{1}{2}$ from v_3 and $\frac{1}{2}$ from the >7 -face incident with edge vv_2 whose existence was proved in Lemma 5(ii); otherwise, v received $\frac{1}{2}$ from each of v_2, v_3 . In each case v started with 1, received at least 1 and gave at most 2 to v_1 .

If $d(v) = 4$ then v started with 6 and, by Lemma 4(ii), gave up at most 4 to two 2-vertices plus 1 to two 3-vertices. If $d(v) \geq 5$, then v gave up at most $2d(v) \leq 5d(v) - 15$.

Now we already have a contradiction if $H = G$, when all vertices are distinguished, since in this case the sum of all charges is non-negative. If $H \neq G$ then we must also consider the vertices on S . Each such vertex v has given at most $2(d(v) - 2)$ to distinguished vertices and so now has at least $5d(v) - 14 - 2(d(v) - 2) = 3d(v) - 10$.

This is -4 if $d(v) = 2$, -1 if $d(v) = 3$ and otherwise is positive. Since G is 2-connected, $d(v) > 2$ for at least two $v \in S$, and since $|S| \leq 8$ the sum of all the charges, which should be -28 , is at least $6 \times (-4) + 2 \times (-1) = -26$. This contradiction completes the proof of Theorem 2. \square

References

1. M. O. ALBERTSON and D. BERMAN, 'Every planar graph has an acyclic 7-coloring', *Israel J. Math.* 28 (1977) 169–177.
2. I. ALGOR and N. ALON, 'The star arboricity of graphs', *Discrete Math.* 75 (1989) 11–22.
3. O. V. BORODIN, 'A proof of B. Grünbaum's conjecture on acyclic 5-colourability of planar graphs', *Dokl. Akad. Nauk SSSR* 231 (1976) 18–20 (Russian).
4. O. V. BORODIN, 'On acyclic coloring of planar graphs', *Discrete Math.* 25 (1979) 211–236.
5. B. GRÜNBAUM, 'Acyclic colorings of planar graphs', *Israel J. Math.* 14 (1973) 390–408.
6. T. JENSEN and B. TOFT, *Graph coloring problems* (John Wiley, New York, 1995) 38–39.
7. A. V. KOSTOCHKA, 'Acyclic 6-coloring of planar graphs', *Metody Diskret. Anal.* 28 (1976) 40–56 (Russian).
8. A. V. KOSTOCHKA and L. S. MELNIKOV, 'Note to the paper of Grünbaum on acyclic colorings', *Discrete Math.* 14 (1976) 403–406.
9. J. MITCHEM, 'Every planar graph has an acyclic 8-coloring', *Duke Math. J.* 14 (1974) 177–181.
10. A. RASPAUD and E. SOPENA, 'Good and semi-strong colorings of oriented planar graphs', *Inform. Process. Lett.* 51 (1994) 171–174.

O. V. Borodin
Institute of Mathematics
Siberian Branch
Russian Academy of Sciences
Novosibirsk 630090
Russia

A. V. Kostochka
Novosibirsk State University
Novosibirsk 630090
Russia

D. R. Woodall
Department of Mathematics
University of Nottingham
Nottingham NG7 2RD