# (1,0,0)-colorability of planar graphs without cycles of length 4 or 6 

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#### Abstract

A graph $G$ is $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}\right)$-colorable if the vertex set $V(G)$ can be partitioned into three subsets $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$ such that for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, the induced graph $G\left[V_{i}\right]$ has maximum vertex-degree at most $d_{i}$. So, ( $0,0,0$ )-colorability is exactly 3 -colorability.

The well-known Steinberg's conjecture states that every planar graph without cycles of length 4 or 5 is 3 -colorable. As this conjecture being disproved by Cohen-Addad etc. in 2017, a similar question, whether every planar graph without cycles of length 4 or $i$ is 3 -colorable for a given $i \in\{6, \ldots, 9\}$, is gaining more and more interest. In this paper, we consider this question for the case $i=6$ from the viewpoint of improper colorings. More precisely, we prove that every planar graph without cycles of length 4 or 6 is ( $1,0,0$ )-colorable, which improves on earlier results that they are ( $2,0,0$ )-colorable and also ( $1,1,0$ )-colorable, and on the result that planar graphs without cycles of length from 4 to 6 are ( $1,0,0$ )-colorable.


Keywords: planar graphs, (1,0,0)-colorings, cycles, discharging, super-extension

## 1 Introduction

The graphs considered in this paper are finite and simple. A graph is planar if it is embeddable into the Euclidean plane. A plane graph $(G, \Sigma)$ is a planar graph $G$ together with an embedding $\Sigma$ of $G$ into the Euclidean plane, that is, $(G, \Sigma)$ is a particular drawing of $G$ in the Euclidean plane. In what follows, we will always say a plane graph $G$ instead of $(G, \Sigma)$, which causes no confusion since in this paper no two embeddings of the same graph $G$ will be involved in.

In the field of 3-colorings of planar graphs, one of the most active topics is about a conjecture proposed by Steinberg in 1976: every planar graph without cycles of length 4 or 5 is 3 -colorable. There had been no progress on this conjecture for a long time, until Erdös [16] suggested a relaxation of it: does there exist a constant $k$ such that every planar graph without cycles of length from 4 to $k$ is 3-colorable? Abbott and Zhou [1] confirmed that such $k$ exists and $k \leq 11$. This result was later on improved to $k \leq 9$ by Borodin [2] and, independently, by Sanders and Zhao [15], and to $k \leq 7$ by Borodin etc. [3]. Steinberg's conjecture was recently disproved by Cohen-Addad etc. [6]. Hence, associated to Erdös' relaxation, only one question remains unsettled.

Problem 1.1. Is it true that planar graphs without cycles of length from 4 to 6 are 3-colorable?
A more general problem than Steinberg's Conjecture was formulated in 14:

[^0]Problem 1.2. What is the maximal subset $\mathcal{A}$ of $\{5,6, \cdots, 9\}$ such that for $i \in \mathcal{A}$, every planar graph with cycles of length neither 4 nor $i$ is 3-colorable?

The refutal of Steinberg's Conjecture shows that $5 \notin \mathcal{A}$. For any other $i$, the question whether $i \in \mathcal{A}$ is still unsettled. In this paper, we consider such question for the case $i=6$, i.e., the question whether every planar graph without cycles of length 4 or 6 is 3 -colorable.

Let $d_{1}, d_{2}$ and $d_{3}$ be non-negative integers. A graph $G$ is $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}\right)$-colorable if the vertex set $V(G)$ can be partitioned into three subsets $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$ such that for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, the induced graph $G\left[V_{i}\right]$ has maximum vertex-degree at most $d_{i}$. The associated coloring, assigning the vertices of $V_{i}$ with the color $i$ for $i \in\{1,2,3\}$, is an improper coloring, a concept which allows adjacent vertices to receive the same color. Clearly, $(0,0,0)$ colorability is exactly 3 -colorability. Improper coloring is a relaxation of proper coloring, providing us a way to approach the solution to some hard conjectures. It has been combined with many different kinds of colorings of graphs, such as improper $k$-colorings, improper list colorings, improper acyclic colorings and so on.

The coloring of planar graphs gain particular attention. There are a serial of known results on the $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}\right)$-colorability of planar graphs, motivated by Steinberg's conjecture. For example, Cowen etc. [7] proved that planar graphs are $(2,2,2)$-colorable. Xu [19] showed that planar graphs with neither adjacent triangles nor cycles of length 5 are $(1,1,1)$-colorable. So far, the best known results for planar graphs having no cycles of length 4 or 5 are that, they are (1,1,0)-colorable [10, 21] and also (2,0,0)-colorable [5], improving on some results in 9, 19. Because of the refutal of Steinberg's conjecture, the following question is the only one in this direction that remains open.

Problem 1.3. Is it true that planar graphs having no cycles of length 4 or 5 are (1, 0, 0)-colorable?
Analogously, for planar graphs having no cycles of length 4 or 6 , it is known that they are $(1,1,0)$-colorable [17, 20] and also ( $2,0,0$ )-colorable [18]. In this paper, we prove that they are further ( $1,0,0$ )-colorable, which improves on these two results.

Theorem 1.4. Planar graphs with neither 4 -cycles nor 6 -cycles are (1,0,0)-colorable.
Towards Problem 1.1. Wang etc. [17] shown that planar graphs having no cycles of length from 4 to 6 are ( $1,0,0$ )-colorable. Theorem 1.4 improves on this result as well. To our best knowledge, Theorem 1.4 is the first result on ( $1,0,0$ )-colorability of planar graphs with neither 4 -cycles nor $i$-cycles for $i \in\{5,6,7,8,9\}$, motivated by Problem 1.2 .

The proof of this main result uses discharging method for improper colorings. In Section 2, we formulate a proposition that is stronger than Theorem 1.4 namely super-extended theorem. Section 3 addresses the proof of the super-extended theorem, which consists of two parts: reducible configurations and discharging procedure. For more information on discharging method, we refer to [8, 11, 12].

## 2 Super-extended theorem

Let $G$ be a plane graph. For a set $S$ such that $S \subseteq V(G)$ or $S \subseteq E(G)$, let $G[S]$ denote the subgraph of $G$ induced by $S$. Let $C$ be a cycle of $G$. Denote by $\operatorname{int}(C)$ (resp. ext $(C)$ ) the set of vertices lying inside (resp. outside) $C$. Let $H$ be a subgraph of $G$ whose edges lie inside $C$ (ends on $C$ allowed) and let $H_{0}=H-V(C)$, such that $d_{H}(v)=3$ for each $v \in V\left(H_{0}\right)$. Call $H$ a claw of $C$ if $H_{0}$ is a vertex, an edge-claw if $H_{0}$ is an edge, a path-claw if $H_{0}$ is a path of length 2 , and a pentagon-claw if $H_{0}$ is a pentagon.

Let $\mathcal{G}$ denote all the connected plane graphs without cycles of length 4 or 6 . For a cycle $C$, whose length is at most 11 , of a graph from $\mathcal{G}, C$ is good if it contains no claws, edge-claws, path-claws or pentagon-claws; bad otherwise.

Let $G$ be a graph, $H$ a subgraph of $G$, and $\phi$ a (1,0,0)-coloring of $H$. We say that $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G$ if $G$ has a $(1,0,0)$-coloring $c$ such $c(u)=\phi(u)$ for each $u \in V(H)$ and that $c(v) \neq c(w)$ whenever $v \in V(H)$, $w \in V(G) \backslash V(H)$ and $v w \in E(G)$.

We shall prove the following theorem, called super-extended theorem, that is stronger than Theorem 1.4
Theorem 2.1. (Super-extended theorem) Let $G \in \mathcal{G}$. If the boundary $D$ of the unbounded face of $G$ is a good cycle, then every (1,0,0)-coloring of $G[V(D)]$ can be super-extended to $G$.

By assuming the truth of Theorem 2.1, we can easily derive Theorem 1.4 as follows. We may assume that $G$ is connected since otherwise, we argue on each component. If $G$ has no triangles, then by Three Color Theorem, $G$ is 3 -colorable. Hence, we may assume that $G$ has a triangle, say $T$. By Theorem 2.1, we can super-extend any given ( $1,0,0$ )-coloring of $T$ respectively to its interior and exterior.

The rest of this section contributes to some necessary notations.
Let $C$ be a cycle of a plane graph and $T$ be a claw, or an edge-claw, or a path-claw, or a pentagon-claw of $C$. We call the graph $H$ consisting of $C$ and $T$ a bad partition of $C$. Every facial cycle (except $C$ ) of $H$ is called a cell of $H$.

The length of a path is the number of edges it contains. Denote by $|P|$ the length of a path $P$, by $|C|$ the length of a cycle $C$ and by $d(f)$ the size of a face $f$. A $k$-vertex (resp. $k^{+}$-vertex and $k^{-}$-vertex) is a vertex $v$ with $d(v)=k$ (resp. $d(v) \geq k$ and $d(v) \leq k$ ). Similar notations are applied for paths, cycles and faces by constitute $d(v)$ for $|P|,|C|$ and $d(f)$, respectively.

Consider a plane graph. A vertex is external if it lies on the exterior face; internal otherwise. A $3^{+}$-vertex is light if it is internal and of degree 3 ; heavy otherwise. Let $d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}$ be three integers greater than 2 . A $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}\right)$-face is a 3 -face whose vertices are all internal and have degree $d_{1}, d_{2}$ and $d_{3}$, respectively. A $k$-cycle with vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}$ in cyclic order is denoted by $\left[v_{1} \ldots v_{k}\right]$. Let $f=[u x y]$ be a 3 -face and $v$ be a neighbor of $u$ other than $x$ and $y$. If $u$ is an internal 3 -vertex, then we call $v$ an outer neighbor of $u$ (or of $f$ ), $u$ a pendent vertex of $v$, and $f$ a pendent 3-face of $v$. A 3-face is weak if it has at least one outer neighbor that is light. A path is a splitting path of a cycle $C$ if its two end-vertices lie on $C$ and all other vertices lie inside $C$. A cycle $C$ is separating if neither $\operatorname{int}(C)$ nor $\operatorname{ext}(C)$ is empty.

## 3 The proof of Theorem 2.1

Suppose to the contrary that Theorem 2.1 is false. From now on, let $G=(V, E)$ be a counterexample to Theorem 2.1 with the smallest $|V|+|E|$. Thus, we may assume that the boundary $D$ of the exterior face of $G$ is a good cycle, and that there exists a (1,0,0)-coloring $\phi$ of $G[V(D)]$ which cannot be super-extended to $G$. By the minimality of $G$, we deduce that $D$ has no chord.

Denote by $\{1,2,3\}$ the color set for $\phi$ where the color 1 might be assigned to two adjacent vertices. We define that, to 3 -color a vertex $v$ means to assign $v$ with a color from $\{1,2,3\}$ when this color has not been used by its neighbors yet; and to (1,0,0)-color $v$ means either to 3 -color $v$ or to assign $v$ with the color 1 when precisely one neighbor of $v$ is of color 1 .

### 3.1 Structural properties of the minimal counterexample $G$

Lemma 3.1. Every internal vertex of $G$ has degree at least 3.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has an internal vertex $v$ of degree at most 2. We can super-extend $\phi$ to $G-v$ by the minimality of $G$, and then to $G$ by 3-coloring $v$.

Lemma 3.2. G has no separating good cycle.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has a separating good cycle $C$. We super-extend $\phi$ to $G-i n t(C)$. Furthermore, since $C$ is a good cycle, the restriction of $\phi$ on $C$ can be super-extended to its interior, yielding a super-extension of $\phi$ to $G$.

Lemma 3.3. $G$ is 2-connected. Particularly, the boundary of each face of $G$ is a cycle.
Proof. Otherwise, let $B$ a pendant block of $G$ of minimum order, and let $v$ be a cut vertex of $G$ associated with $B$. By the minimality of $G$, we can super-extend $\phi$ to $G-(B-v)$. If we can 3 -color $B$, then permute the color classes of $B$ so that the colors assigned to $v$ coincide, which completes a super-extension of $\phi$ to $G$. By the minimality of $B, B$ is 2 -connected. If $B$ has no triangles, then Grötsch's Theorem yields that $B$ is 3 -colorable. So, let $T$ be a triangle of $B$. By Lemma 3.2, $T$ is a 3 -face. Assign distinct colors to its three vertices, and by the minimality of $G$, we can super-extend the coloring of $T$, as an exterior face of $B$, to $B$. This gives a 3-coloring of $B$.

By the definition of a bad cycle, one can easily conclude the following lemma.
Lemma 3.4. If $C$ is a bad cycle of a plane graph of $\mathcal{G}$, then $C$ has a bad partition isomorphic to one of the eight graphs shown in Figure 1. In particular, $C$ has length 9 or 10 or 11. If $|C|=9$ then $C$ has a (5,5,5)-claw; if $|C|=10$ then $C$ has a (3,7,3,7)- or (5,5,5,5)-edge-claw, or a (5,5,5,5,5)-pentagon-claw; if $|C|=11$ then $C$ has a (3,7,7)- or (5,5,7)-claw, or a (3,7,3,8)-edge-claw, or a (5,5,5,5,5)-path-claw.

From Lemmas 3.2 and 3.4 one can deduce the following remark.
Remark 3.5. Let $C$ be a bad cycle of $G$. The following statements hold true.
(1) Every cell of $C$ is facial except that an 8-cell may have a (3,7)-chord connecting two vertices of $C$.
(2) Every vertex inside $C$ has degree 3 in $G$.
(3) Every vertex on $C$ has at most one neighbor inside $C$.
(4) Every vertex on $C$ is incident with at most two edges that locate inside $C$, where the exact case happens if and only if $C$ has a (3,7,3,8)-edge-claw.
(5) For any set $S$ of four consecutive vertices on $C, G$ has at most two edges connecting a vertex from $S$ to $a$ vertex inside $C$.

Lemma 3.6. G has no light vertex with neighbors all light.
Proof. Otherwise, let $v$ be such a light vertex. Remove $v$ and its three neighbors, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$. By the minimality of $G, \phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$. We further extend $\phi$ to being a ( $1,0,0$ )-coloring of $G$ in such way: 3-color all the neighbors of $v$ and consequently, $v$ can be (1,0,0)-colored.


Figure 1: bad partitions of a cycle in a plane graph from $\mathcal{G}$, where the numbers indicate the length of each cell. A further name for the claw, edge-claw, path-claw or pantagon claw, which corresponds to each bad partition, is given below each drawing.

Lemma 3.7. Every (3, 3, 4)-face of $G$ has no light outer neighbors.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $f=[u v w]$ is a $(3,3,4)$-face of $G$ having a light outer neighbor $x$. W.l.o.g., Let $u$ be adjacent to $x$ and let $d(w)=4$. Remove $u, v, w$ and $x$ from $G$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$. By the minimality of $G, \phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ and further to $G$ in such way: 3-color $w, v$ and $x$ in turn, and then (1,0,0)-color $u$.

Lemma 3.8. Let $P$ be a splitting path of $D$ which divides $D$ into two cycles, say $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$. The following four statements hold true.
(1) If $|P|=2$, then there is a triangle between $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$.
(2) If $|P|=3$, then there is a 5-cycle between $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$.
(3) If $|P|=4$, then there is a 5-or 7-cycle between $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$.
(4) If $|P|=5$, then there is a 7- or 8- or 9-cycle between $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$.

Proof. Since $D$ has length at most 11, we have $\left|D^{\prime}\right|+\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right|=|D|+2|P| \leq 11+2|P|$.
(1) Let $P=x y z$. Suppose to the contrary that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq 5$. It follows that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq 10$. By Lemma 3.1. $y$ has a neighbor other than $x$ and $z$, say $y^{\prime}$. The vertex $y^{\prime}$ is internal since otherwise, $D$ is a bad cycle with a claw. W.l.o.g., let $y^{\prime}$ lie inside $D^{\prime}$. Now $D^{\prime}$ is a separating cycle. By Lemma 3.2, $D^{\prime}$ is not good. Recall that $\left|D^{\prime}\right| \leq 10$. So $D^{\prime}$ is a bad 9 - or 10 -cycle and $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a 5 -cycle. By Lemma 3.4 , $D^{\prime}$ has a $(5,5,5)$-claw or a $(5,5,5,5)$ -edge-claw or a $(3,7,3,7)$-edge-claw or a $(5,5,5,5,5)$-pentagon-claw, which would lead to a $(5,5,5,5)$-edge-claw or a ( $5,5,5,5,5$ )-path-claw of $D$ for the first two cases, to a 6 -cycle for the third case, and to $y^{\prime}$ being a light vertex with three light neighbors for the last case, a contradiction.
(2) Let $P=w x y z$. Suppose to the contrary that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq 7$. It follows that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq 10$. Let $x^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ be neighbors of $x$ and $y$ not on $P$, respectively. If both $x^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ are external, then $D$ has an edge-claw. Hence, we may assume that $x^{\prime}$ lies inside $D^{\prime}$. By Lemmas 3.2 and 3.4 , we deduce that $D^{\prime}$ is a bad 9- or 10-cycle.

So, $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a 7 - or 8 -cycle, which is good. Since every cell of $D^{\prime}$ is facial, $y^{\prime}$ must lie on $D^{\prime \prime}$. The application of this lemma to the splitting 2-path $y^{\prime} y z$ yields that $y y^{\prime}$ a $(3,7)$-chord of $D^{\prime \prime}$. So, $D^{\prime}$ is a 9 -cycle, which has a (5,5,5)-claw. Now the triangle $\left[y y^{\prime} z\right]$ is adjacent to some 5 -cell of $D^{\prime}$, a contradiction.
(3) Let $P=v w x y z$. Suppose to the contrary that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq 8$. It follows that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq 11$. If $w y \in E(G)$, then by applying this lemma to the splitting 3-path vwyz of $D$, either $D^{\prime}$ or $D^{\prime \prime}$ has length 6 , a contradiction. Hence, wy $\notin E(G)$. Similarly, $v x, x z \notin E(G)$. Since $G$ has no 4-cyles and $D$ has no chord, we can further conclude that $G$ has no edges connecting two nonconsecutive vertices on $P$, i.e., $G[V(P)]$ is $P$.

By Lemma 3.1, $x$ has a neighbor $x^{\prime}$ besides $w$ and $y$. We claim that $x^{\prime}$ lies inside $D$. Suppose to the contrary that $x^{\prime} \in V\left(D^{\prime}\right)$. By applying this lemma to the splitting 3 -paths $v w x x^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime} x y z, x x^{\prime}$ is a $(5,5)$-chord of $D^{\prime}$. Since $d(w) \geq 3$, let $w^{\prime}$ be a neighbor of $w$ other than $v$ and $x$. Clearly, $w^{\prime}$ lies either on $D^{\prime \prime}$ or inside it. Recall that $w^{\prime}$ is not on $P$. If $w^{\prime}$ lies on $D^{\prime \prime} \backslash V(P)$, then $v w w^{\prime}$ is splitting 2-path of $D$, which forms a triangle adjacent to a 5 -cell of $D^{\prime}$, a contradiction. Hence, $w^{\prime}$ lies inside $D^{\prime \prime}$. Similarly, $y^{\prime}$ lies inside $D^{\prime \prime}$ as well. Clearly, $w^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ are distinct vertices. Notice that $w$ and $y$ have distance 2 along $D^{\prime \prime}$. So, as a bad cycle, whose possible interior is given by Lemma 3.4, $D^{\prime \prime}$ has a $(5,5,5,5)$-edge-claw or a $(5,5,5,5,5)$-path-claw or a $(5,5,5,5,5)$-pentagon-claw, which implies a pentagon-claw of $D$ for the first case, and $w^{\prime}$ being a light vertex with three light neighbors for the last two cases, a contradiction.
W.l.o.g., let $x^{\prime}$ lies inside $D^{\prime}$. So $D^{\prime}$ is a bad cycle. By Remark 3.5 2 , $d\left(x^{\prime}\right)=3$. Denote by $I$ the set of edges connecting a vertex from $\{w, x, y\}$ to a vertex not on $P$. Recall that $G[V(P)]$ is $P$. So, Lemma 3.1 implies that $|I| \geq 3$. By applying Lemma 3.6 to $x$, we further have $|I| \geq 4$.

Suppose that $D^{\prime \prime}$ is also a bad cycle, then one of $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$ has length 9 and the other has length 9 or 10, which implies that one contains at most one edge from $I$ inside and the other contains at most two edges from $I$ inside, contradicting the fact that $|I| \geq 4$. Hence, we may assume that $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a good cycle.

We conclude that $d(x)=3$. This is because $x$ has no neighbors on $D$ by the same argument as for $x^{\prime}$, no neighbors inside $D^{\prime \prime}$ since $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a good cycle, and no neighbors besides $x^{\prime}$ inside $D^{\prime}$ by Remark 3.5(4).

Recall that $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a good cycle, so $w$ (as well as $y$ ) has no neighbors inside $D^{\prime \prime}$. Moreover, since $D$ has no claws, $w$ (as well as $y$ ) has at most one neighbor on $D \backslash\{v, z\}$. It follows with $|I| \geq 4$ that, inside $D^{\prime}$ there exists a vertex $t$ adjacent to $w$ or $y$. By Remark 3.5.3) and (5), such $t$ is unique. W.o.l.g, let $t w \in E(G)$. This implies that $|I|=4$ and each of $w$ and $y$ have a neighbor on $D-V(P)$. If $t=x^{\prime}$, then $\left[w x x^{\prime}\right]$ is a pendent (3,3,4)-face of $y$, contradicting Lemma 3.7. So, $t$ and $x^{\prime}$ are distinct. Moreover, $t$ and $x^{\prime}$ are not adjacent since otherwise $G$ has a 4 -cycle. Hence, we can conclude that $D^{\prime}$ has a path-claw or a pentagon-claw, making all cells of length 5 . This yields that $y$ mush have no neighbors other than $z$ on $D$, a contradiction.
(4) Let $P=u v w x y z$. Suppose to the contrary that $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \geq 10$. Since $\left|D^{\prime}\right|+\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq 21$, we have $\left|D^{\prime}\right|,\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| \leq 11$. We claim that $G$ has no edges connecting two nonconsecutive vertices on $P$, i.e., $G[V(P)]$ is $P$. Otherwise, let $e=t_{1} t_{2}$ be such an edge. Let $P^{\prime}$ be obtained from $P$ by constituting $e$ for the subpath of $P$ between $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$. Clearly, $P^{\prime}$ is a splitting $4^{-}$-path of $D$. Applying this lemma to $P^{\prime}$ yields that either $D^{\prime}$ or $D^{\prime \prime}$ has length at most 8 , a contradiction. By this claim and Lemma 3.1. we may let $v^{\prime}, w^{\prime}, x^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ be a neighbor of $v, w, x$ and $y$ not on $P$, respectively.

We claim that both $w$ and $x$ have no neighbors on $D$. Otherwise, w.l.o.g., let $w^{\prime}$ be on $D^{\prime}$. By applying this lemma to the splitting 3-path $u v w w^{\prime}$ and the splitting 4-path $w^{\prime} w x y z$ of $D$, we deduce that $w w^{\prime}$ is a $(5,7)$-chord of $D^{\prime}$. Hence, the interior of $D^{\prime}$ contains no edges incident with $v, x$ or $y$. If $x^{\prime}$ lies on $D^{\prime \prime}$ then similarly, $x x^{\prime}$ is a $(5,7)$-chord of $D^{\prime \prime}$, resulting in no positions for $u^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$, a contradiction. Hence, $x^{\prime}$ must lie inside $D^{\prime \prime}$. So, $D^{\prime \prime}$ is a bad cycle. Since a bad cycle has at most one chord, Remark 3.5 implies that the interior of $D^{\prime \prime}$
contains at most three edges incident with $v, w, x$ or $y$. It follows that $d(v)=d(w)=d(x)=d(y)=3$. By Remark 3.5 22, $d\left(x^{\prime}\right)=3$. Now $x$ is a light vertex with three light neighbors, contradicting Lemma 3.6 ,

Suppose that one of $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$, say $D^{\prime}$, is a good cycle. In this case, both $w^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime}$ lie inside $D^{\prime}$. Remark 3.5 (3) implies that such $w^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime}$ are unique. So, $d(w)=d(x)=3$. By Remark 3.5), both $v^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ are on $D$. Clearly, such $v^{\prime}$ and $y^{\prime}$ are also unique since otherwise, $D$ has a claw. So, $d(v)=d(y)=3$. By Remark 3.5 (2), $d\left(w^{\prime}\right)=d\left(x^{\prime}\right)=3$. Now $x$ is a light vertex having three light neighbors, contradicting Lemma 3.6. Therefore, both $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$ are bad.

Denote by $I$ the set of edges not on $P$ and incident with a vertex from $\{v, w, x, y\}$. Notice that a bad cycle has a chord only if it is of length 11 , but not both $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$ have length 11 . So, $I$ has at most one edge taking a vertex on $D$ as an end. Moreover, Remark 3.5(5) implies that $I$ has at most four edges taking a vertex inside $D^{\prime}$ or $D^{\prime \prime}$ as an end. Therefore, $|I| \leq 5$. This leads to the only case that $d(v)=d(y)=3$ and between $w$ and $x$, one has degree 3 and the other 4 since otherwise, at least one of $w$ and $x$ would be a light vertex with three light neighbors. W.l.o.g., let $d(x)=4$. Since Remark 3.5(3), we may assume that $w^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime}$ lie inside $D^{\prime}$. Lemma 3.7 implies that $w^{\prime}$ and $x^{\prime}$ can not coincide. Notice that $w$ and $x$ are consecutive on $D^{\prime}$. By the specific interior of a bad cycle, we can deduce that $D^{\prime}$ is a 11-cycle having a (5,5,5,5,5)-path-claw. This implies that both $D^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime \prime}$ have no chords, a contradiction.

Loops and multiple edges are regarded as 1-cycles and 2-cycles, respectively.
Lemma 3.9. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a connected plane graph obtained from $G$ by deleting vertices, inserting edges, identifying vertices, or any combination of them. If $G^{\prime}$ is smaller than $G$ and the following holds:
(i) identify no pair of vertices of $D$ and insert no edges connecting two vertices of $D$, and
(ii) create no $k$-cycles for any $k \in\{1,2,4,6\}$, and
(iii) $D$ is good in $G^{\prime}$,
then $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$.
Proof. By Term (ii), the graph $G^{\prime}$ is simple and $G^{\prime} \in \mathcal{G}$. The term (i) guarantees that the new graph $G^{\prime}$ has the same $D$ as the boundary of its exterior face, and that $\phi$ is a $(1,0,0)$-coloring of $G^{\prime}[V(D)]$. Since $D$ is good in $G^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime}$ is smaller than $G$, the lemma holds true by the minimality of $G$.

Lemma 3.10. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a connected plane graph obtained from $G$ by deleting a set of internal vertices together with either identifying two vertices or inserting an edge between two vertices. If the following holds true for this graph operation:
(a) identify no pair of vertices of $D$, insert no edges connecting two vertices of $D$, and
(b) create no $6^{-}$-cycles or triangular 7-cycles,
then $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$.
Proof. Lemma 3.9 shows that, to complete the proof, it suffices to showing that $D$ is a good cycle of $G^{\prime}$. Suppose to the contrary that $D$ has a bad partition $H$ in $G^{\prime}$. We distinguish two cases on the graph operation.

Case 1: assume that the graph operation includes identifying two vertices. Denote by $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ the two vertices we identify and by $v$ the resulting vertex. Lemma 3.4 lists all the possible structure for $H$. Recall that $D$ stays the same during the operation. If either $v \notin V(H)$ or $v \in V(H)$ such that $d_{H}(v)=2$, then $H$ stays
the same during the operation, contradicting the fact that $D$ is a good cycle in $G$. Hence, $v$ lies on $H$ and $d_{H}(v)=3$. If all the three neighbors of $v$ in $H$ are adjacent in $G$ to a common vertex from $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$, then again $H$ stays the same during the operation, a contradiction. Hence, one neighbor is adjacent to $v_{1}$ and the other two adjacent to $v_{2}$. This implies that there are two cells around $v$ that are created by our graph operation. It follows by the possible structure of $H$ that, we create either a $6^{-}$-cycle or a triangular 7 -cycle, contradicting the assumption (b).

Case 2: assume that the graph operation includes inserting an edge, say $e$. Recall that $D$ stays the same during the operation. If $e \notin E(H) \backslash E(D)$, then $H$ is a bad partition of $D$ also in $G$, a contradiction; otherwise, the two cells of $H$ containing $e$ are created by our operation, contradicting the assumption (b).

Lemma 3.11. $G$ contains no internal 4 -vertices having a pendent $(3,3,3)$-face and another pendent $\left(3,3,4^{-}\right)$face.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has such a vertex $x$. Denote by $\left[u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}\right]$ a $(3,3,3)$-face and by $\left[v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}\right]$ a $\left(3,3,4^{-}\right)$-face, with $u_{1}$ and $v_{1}$ as pendent vertices of $x$ and with $v_{3}$ as the $4^{-}$-vertex. Denote by $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ the remaining neighbors of $x$. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1: assume that $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ lie on different sides of the path $u_{1} x v_{1}$, i.e., $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are not consecutive in the cyclic order around $x$. Remove $x, u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ from $G$ and identify $x_{1}$ with $x_{2}$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$ than $G$. If this operation satisfies both terms in Lemma 3.10, then the pre-coloring $\phi$ of $D$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ by the minimality of $G$, and further to $G$ in such way: 3 -color $v_{3}, v_{2}, v_{1}, x, u_{2}, u_{3}$ in turn and consequently, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $u_{1}$.
(Term $a$ ) If our operation identifies two vertices of $D$, or creates an edge that connects two vertices of $D$, then the path $x_{1} x x_{2}$ is contained in a splitting 2 - or 3 -path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8, this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a 3 - or 5 -cycle. So this cycle is a good cycle but now it separates $v_{1}$ from $u_{1}$, contradicting Lemma 3.2 ,
(Term $b$ ) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then this cycle corresponds to a $7^{-}$-path of $G$ between $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$, which together with the path $x_{1} x x_{2}$ forms a $9^{-}$-cycle of $G$, say $C$. Clearly, $C$ separates $u_{1}$ from $v_{1}$. So, $C$ is a bad 9 -cycle having a $(5,5,5)$-claw. But now $C$ contains a 3 -face inside, either $\left[u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}\right]$ or $\left[v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}\right]$, a contradiction.

Case 2: assume that $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ lie on the same side of the path $u_{1} x v_{1}$. W.l.o.g., let $u_{1}, x_{1}, x_{2}, v_{1}$ locate in clockwise order around $x$ and so do $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}$ along the cycle $\left[u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}\right.$ ]. Denote by $y$ the remaining neighbor of $u_{2}$. Delete $x, u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ and identify $x_{2}$ with $y$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$ than $G$. If our graph operation satisfies both terms of Lemma 3.10, then $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ by the minimality of $G$ and further to $G$ in such way: 3 -color $x$ and $u_{3}$; since $x$ and $y$ receive different colors, we can 3-color $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$; 3 -color $v_{3}$ and $v_{2}$ in turn and finally, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $v_{1}$.

Let us show that both terms of Lemma 3.10 do hold:
(Term $a$ ) Otherwise, the path $y u_{2} u_{1} x x_{2}$ is contained in a splitting 4- or 5 -path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8, this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a $9^{-}$-cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $v_{1}$ from $u_{3}$. Hence, $C$ is a bad 9 -cycle with a $(5,5,5)$-claw. But $C$ has to contain a 3 -face inside, either $\left[u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}\right]$ or $\left[v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}\right]$, a contradiction.
(Term $b$ ) Suppose our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then it corresponds to a $7^{-}$-path of $G$ between $y$ and $x_{2}$, which together with the path $y u_{2} u_{1} x x_{2}$ forms a $11^{-}$-cycle of $G$, say $C$. Clearly, $C$ separates $v_{3}$ from $u_{3}$. So $C$ is a bad cycle containing either $u_{3}$ or $v_{3}$ inside. For the former case, because of the existence of $\left[u_{1} u_{2} u_{3}\right]$
and $x x_{1}$, Remark 3.5 (4) implies that $x x_{1}$ is a chord of $C$, which thereby has a (3,7,3,8)-edge-claw. Now $u_{3}$ is a light vertex with three light neighbors, a contradiction to Lemma 3.6. For the latter case, the interior of $C$, as a bad cycle, contains the triangle $\left[v_{1} v_{2} v_{3}\right]$, which is impossible.

Lemma 3.12. $G$ contains no internal 4 -vertice incident with $a\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-face and having a pendent $\left(3,3,4^{-}\right)$face.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that such vertex exists, say $u$. Denote by $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{4}$ the neighbors of $u$ locating in clockwise order around $u$. W.l.o.g., let $\left[u u_{1} u_{2}\right]$ be a $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-face and $\left[u_{3} u_{3}^{\prime} u_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right]$ be a pendent $\left(3,3,4^{-}\right)$-face of $u$. Delete $u_{1}, u, u_{3}, u_{3}^{\prime}, u_{3}^{\prime \prime}$ from $G$ and identify $u_{2}$ with $u_{4}$, obtaining a new smaller graph $G^{\prime}$. Similarly, to complete the proof, it suffices to doing two things.

Firstly, we shall show that both terms in Lemma 3.10 hold.
(Term $a$ ) If our operation identifies two vertices of $D$, or creates an edge that connects two vertices of $D$, then the path $u_{2} u u_{4}$ is contained in a splitting 2- or 3-path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8 this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a 3 - or 5 -cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $u_{1}$ from $u_{3}$, a contradiction.
(Term $b$ ) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then $G$ has a $9^{-}$-cycle $C$ that contains the path $u_{2} u u_{4}$. Since $C$ separates $u_{1}$ from $u_{3}, C$ is a bad 9 -cycle with a (5,5,5)-claw, contradicting that $C$ contains a triangle either $\left[u u_{1} u_{2}\right]$ or $\left[u_{3} u_{3}^{\prime} u_{3}^{\prime \prime}\right]$ inside.

Secondly, we shall show that any $(1,0,0)$-coloring of $G^{\prime}$ can be super-extended to $G$. This can be done in the following way. Since one of $u_{3}^{\prime}$ and $u_{3}^{\prime \prime}$ has degree 3 and the other degree at most 4 , we can 3 -color them. Notice that $u_{1}$ has degree either 3 or 4 . Since $u_{2}$ and $u_{4}$ receive the same color, if we can 3 -color $u_{1}$, then consequently we can 3 -color $u$ and (1,0,0)-color $u_{3}$ in turn, we are done. Hence, we may assume that $u_{1}$ has degree 4 and its neighbors except $u$ are colored pairwise distinct. In this case, give the color of $u_{2}$ to $u_{1}$. Since $u_{2}$ has degree 3 , we can recolor it properly. Since $u_{1}$ and $u_{4}$ are colored the same, we can 3 -color $u$ and then (1,0,0)-color $u_{3}$.

Lemma 3.13. $G$ has no 4-vertices incident with two $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-faces.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has such a 4 -vertex $v$, incident with two $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-faces $T_{1}=\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ and $T_{2}=\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$. W.l.o.g., let $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}$ locate in clockwise order around $v$.

Case 1: assume that at least one of $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ is a $(3,3,4)$-face, w.l.o.g, say $T_{1}$. Delete $v, v_{1}, \cdots, v_{4}$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$ than $G$. Since we only remove vertices, both terms in Lemma 3.10 hold. Hence, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ by the minimality of $G$, and further to $G$ in such way: 3-color the vertices of $T_{2}$. Denote by $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}^{\prime}$ the remaining neighbors of $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, respectively. We can always 3 -color $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ except the case $\phi\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(v_{2}^{\prime}\right) \neq \phi(v)$, for which we distinguish three subcases: if $1 \notin\left\{\phi\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right), \phi(v)\right\}$, then give the color 1 to both $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, completing the super-extension; if $\phi(v)=1$, then assign $v_{1}$ with the color 1 and consequently, we can 3 -color $v_{2}$; if $\phi\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=1$, then recolor $v$ by the color 1 , and then 3 -color both $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$.

Case 2: assume that both $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ are (3,4,4)-faces. W.l.o.g., let $d\left(v_{1}\right)=4$. We distinguish two cases.
Case 2.1: assume that $d\left(v_{3}\right)=4$. Denote by $v_{2}^{\prime}$ and $v_{4}^{\prime}$ the outer neighbors of $v_{2}$ and $v_{4}$, respectively. We delete all vertices of $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$, and identify $v_{2}^{\prime}$ with $v_{4}^{\prime}$, obtaining a new graph $G^{\prime}$. We will show that both terms in Lemma 3.10 do hold:
(Term a) If our operation identifies two vertices of $D$, or creates an edge that connects two vertices of $D$, then the path $v_{2}^{\prime} v_{2} v v_{4} v_{4}^{\prime}$ is contained in a splitting 4 - or 5 -path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8 , this splitting path divides
$D$ into two parts, one of which is a $9^{-}$-cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $v_{1}$ from $v_{3}$ and contains a triangle inside, a contradiction.
(Term b) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then $G$ has a $11^{-}$-cycle $C$ that contains the path $v_{2}^{\prime} v_{2} v v_{4} v_{4}^{\prime}$. Now $C$ separates $v_{1}$ from $v_{3}$, both has degree 4 , contradicting Remark 3.5 2 .

We will show that any $(1,0,0)$-coloring of $G^{\prime}$ can be super-extended to $G$ : 3 -color $v_{1}$ and $v_{3}$. Denote by $\alpha$ the color $v_{2}^{\prime}$ and $v_{4}^{\prime}$ received. If $\alpha$ has not been used by both $v_{1}$ and $v_{3}$, then give $\alpha$ to $v$ and consequently, we can 3 -color $v_{2}$ and $v_{4}$. W.l.o.g., we may next assume that $v_{3}$ has color $\alpha$. 3 -color $v_{2}$ and then ( $1,0,0$ )-color $v$. Since $v_{3}$ and $v_{4}^{\prime}$ received the same color, we can 3 -color $v_{4}$.

Case 2.2: assume that $d\left(v_{4}\right)=4$. Denote by $v_{i}^{\prime}$ the neighbor of $v_{i}$ for $i \in\{2,3\}$, and by $v_{i}^{\prime}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ the remaining neighbors of $v_{i}$ locating in clockwise order around $v_{i}$ for $i \in\{1,4\}$. Delete all vertices of $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ and identify $v_{1}^{\prime}$ with $v_{3}^{\prime}$. Denote by $z$ the resulting vertex and $G^{\prime}$ the resulting graph. Notice that our operation may create some new $7^{+}$-cycles.

Firstly, by the same argument as in Case 2.1, Term (a) does hold.
Secondly, we claim that the operation creates no $6^{-}$-cycles. Otherwise, $G$ has a $10^{-}$-cycle $C$ that contains the path $v_{1}^{\prime} v_{1} v v_{3} v_{3}^{\prime}$. So, $C$ is a bad cycle containing either $v_{2}$ or $v_{4}$ inside. For the former case, since a bad $10^{-}$-cycle has no chords, $v_{1}$ has two neighbors inside $C$, contradicting Remark 3.5(3). For the latter case, $d\left(v_{4}\right)=4$ contradicts Remark 3.5,2.

Finally, we do not make $D$ bad. Otherwise, since we create no $6^{-}$-cycles, by the argument for the proof of Lemma 3.10, we can deduce that the new vertex $z$ is incident with two cells of $D$ in $G^{\prime}$ that are created by our operation, where one cell has length 7 and the other length 7 or 8 . These two cells correspond to two cycles of $G$ containing the path $v_{1}^{\prime} v_{1} v v_{3} v_{3}^{\prime}$, one cycle (say $C^{\prime}$ ) contains $v_{2}$ inside and the other (say $C^{\prime \prime}$ ) contains $v_{4}$ inside. Clearly, one of $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ has length 11 and the other length 11 or 12 . Since $d\left(v_{4}\right)=4$, we can deduce that $\left|C^{\prime \prime}\right|=12$ by Remark $3.5(2)$. So, $\left|C^{\prime}\right|=11$. Hence, the way we make $D$ bad is that our operation make $D$ have a $(3,7,3,8)$-edge-claw in $G^{\prime}$ where the 7 -cell and 8-cell are created. Let $e$ denote the common edge of these two cells. Since $v_{1}$ is incident with two edges $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ and $v_{1} v_{2}$ inside $C^{\prime}$, we can deduce that $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ is a chord of $C^{\prime}$, which has a $(3,7,3,8)$-edge-claw in $G$ by Remark 3.5 (3). Let $C^{\prime}=\left[v_{3}^{\prime} v_{3} v v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime \prime} y_{1} \cdots y_{5}\right]$. Racall that $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{3}^{\prime}$ are the two vertices we identified. So, $e$ corresponds to either $v_{3}^{\prime} y_{5}$ or $v_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime \prime}$. For the former case, the vertices $v_{1}^{\prime \prime}, y_{1}, \cdots, y_{4}$ lie on $D$. A contradiction follows by applying Lemma 3.8 to the splitting 4 -path $v_{1}^{\prime \prime} v_{1} v_{2} v_{2}^{\prime} y_{4}$ of $D$ in $G$. For the latter case, by substituting $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ for $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ from $C^{\prime \prime}$, we obtain a 11-cycle of $G$ that contains $v_{4}$ inside, a contradiction.

Because of the conclusions in the previous three paragraphs, by the minimality of $G$, we can super-extend $\phi$ from $D$ to $G^{\prime}$. We complete a (1,0,0)-coloring of $G$ as follows: 3-color $v_{4}$ and $v_{1}$. Since $v_{1}$ and $v_{3}^{\prime}$ receive different colors, we can 3 -color $v_{3}$ and $v$. Finally, we can ( $1,0,0$ )-color $v_{2}$ except the case that $v_{2}^{\prime}$ has the color 1 and between $v$ and $v_{1}$, one has the color 2 and the other 3 . Notice that the colors of $v_{4}, v_{3}$ and $v$ are pairwise distinct. Recolor $v$ by 1 and finally, we can 3 -color $v_{2}$.

Lemma 3.14. G has no internal 5-vertices incident with two faces, one is a weak (3,3,5)-face and the other is a $\left(3,4^{-}, 5\right)$-face.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has such a vertex $v$. Denote by $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{5}$ the neighbors of $v$ locating in clockwise order around $v$ with $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ being a weak $(3,3,5)$-face and $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ being a $\left(3,4^{-}, 5\right)$-face. Let $x^{\prime}$ be a light outer neighbor of $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$. Between $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, denote by $x$ the one adjacent to $x^{\prime}$ and by $y$ the other. Clearly, $v_{4}$ is of degree 3 or 4 . We distinguish two cases.

Case 1: assume $d\left(v_{4}\right)=3$. Delete $v, v_{1}, v_{2}, x^{\prime}, v_{4}$ and identify $v_{3}$ with $v_{5}$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$ than $G$. We shall show that both terms in Lemma 3.10 hold.
(Term $a$ ) If our operation identifies two vertices of $D$, or creates an edge that connects two vertices of $D$, then the path $v_{3} v v_{5}$ is contained in a splitting 2- or 3-path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8, this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a 3 - or 5 -cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $v_{2}$ from $v_{4}$, a contradiction.
(Term $b$ ) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then $G$ has a $9^{-}$-cycle $C$ that contains the path $v_{3} v v_{5}$. Since $C$ separates $v_{2}$ from $v_{4}, C$ is a bad 9 -cycle with a ( $5,5,5$ )-claw, contradicting that $C$ contains a triangle either $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ or $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ inside.

Hence, the coloring $\phi$ of $D$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ by Lemma 3.10 and further to $G$ as follows: 3-color $v_{4}, v, x^{\prime}, y$ in turn and consequently, we can (1,0,0)-color $x$. This is a contradiction.

Case 2: assume $d\left(v_{4}\right)=4$. It follows that $d\left(v_{3}\right)=3$. Let $v_{3}^{\prime}$ be the remaining neighbor of $v_{3}$. Delete $v, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}, x^{\prime}$ and insert an edge between $v_{3}^{\prime}$ and $v_{5}$, obtaining a smaller graph $G^{\prime}$ than $G$.
(Term a) Notice that our operation identifies no vertices. Suppose to the contrary that it creates an edge that connects two vertices of $D$, then the path $v_{3}^{\prime} v_{3} v v_{5}$ is contained in a splitting 3 -path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8. this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a 5 -cycle. Now this cycle separates $v_{2}$ from $v_{4}$, a contradiction.
(Term $b$ ) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then $G$ has a $9^{-}$-cycle $C$ containing path $v_{3}^{\prime} v_{3} v v_{5}$. Clearly, $C$ separates $v_{2}$ from $v_{4}$. Hence, $C$ is a bad 9 -cycle that contains a triangle either $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ or $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ inside, a contradiction.

Hence, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ by Lemma 3.10 and further to $G$ as follows: 3-color $v_{4}$. If $\phi\left(v_{3}^{\prime}\right) \neq$ $\phi\left(v_{5}\right)$ or $\phi\left(v_{3}^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(v_{5}\right)=\phi\left(v_{4}\right)$, then we can first 3 -color $v$ and $v_{3}$, next 3-color $x^{\prime}$ and $y$ in turn and consequently, we can ( $1,0,0$ )-color $x$, we are done. Hence, we may assume that $\phi\left(v_{3}^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(v_{5}\right) \neq \phi\left(v_{4}\right)$. Since $v_{3}^{\prime}$ and $v_{5}$ are adjacent in $G^{\prime}$, both $v_{3}^{\prime}$ and $v_{5}$ have color 1 and have no other neighbors colored 1. So we can give the color 1 to $v_{3}$ and then 3 -color $v$. By the same way as above, we color $v_{2}, v_{1}$ and $v$, we are done as well.

Lemma 3.15. If $v$ is an internal 5-vertex of $G$ incident with two 3-faces, one is a weak (3,3,5)-face and the other is a weak $\left(3,5,5^{+}\right)$-face, then $v$ has no pendent $(3,3,3)$-faces.

Proof. Denote by $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{5}$ the neighbors of $v$, whose order around $v$ has not been given yet. Suppose to the contrary that $v$ has a pendent $(3,3,3)$-face, say $\left[v_{1} w_{1} w_{2}\right]$. Let $\left[v v_{2} v_{3}\right]$ be a weak $(3,3,5)$-face with $v_{3}^{\prime}$ being a light outer neighbor of $v_{3}$. Let $\left[v v_{4} v_{5}\right]$ be a weak $\left(3,5,5^{+}\right)$-face with $v_{4}^{\prime}$ being a light outer neighbor of $v_{4}$. Delete $v, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{4}, w_{1}, w_{2}, v_{3}^{\prime}, v_{4}^{\prime}$ from $G$, obtaining a graph $G^{\prime}$. By the minimality of $G$, the pre-coloring $\phi$ of $D$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$, and further to $G$ in such way: 3 -color $v_{4}^{\prime}, v_{4}$ and $v$ in turn. If $v$ has color 1 , then exchange the colors of $v$ and $v_{4}$. Hence, w.l.o.g., we may assume that $v$ has color 2 . 3 -color $v_{3}^{\prime}, v_{2}, w_{1}, w_{2}$ in turn. Consequently, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $v_{3}$ and $v_{1}$.

Lemma 3.16. If $v$ is an internal 6 -vertex of $G$ incident with two weak $(3,3,6)$-faces, then $v$ is incident with no other $\left(3,4^{-}, 6\right)$-faces,

Proof. Denote by $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{6}$ the neighbors of $v$ locating around $v$ in clockwise order. Let $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ and $\left[v v_{5} v_{6}\right]$ be two weak $(3,3,6)$-faces. Suppose to the contrary that $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ is a $\left(3,4^{-}, 6\right)$-face. W.l.o.g., let $d\left(v_{2}\right)=3$. Denote by $v_{i}^{\prime}$ the remaining neighbor of $v_{i}$ for $i \in\{2, \ldots, 6\}$. Since $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ is weak, denote by $x^{\prime}$ a light outer neighbor of $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$. Between $v_{3}$ and $v_{4}$, denote by $x$ the one adjacent to $x^{\prime}$ and by $y$ the other. Delete vertices
$v, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{6}, x^{\prime}$ from $G$ and identify $v_{2}^{\prime}$ with $v_{5}^{\prime}$, obtaining a new graph $G^{\prime}$. We will show that both terms in Lemma 3.10 do hold:
(Term $a$ ) Otherwise, the path $v_{2}^{\prime} v_{2} v v_{5} v_{5}^{\prime}$ is contained in a splitting 4- or 5 -path of $D$. By Lemma 3.8, this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a $9^{-}$-cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $v_{4}$ from $v_{6}$ and contains a triangle either $\left[v v_{3} v_{4}\right]$ or $\left[v v_{5} v_{6}\right]$ inside, a contradiction.
(Term b) If our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, then $G$ has a $11^{-}$-cycle $C$ that contains the path $v_{2}^{\prime} v_{2} v v_{5} v_{5}^{\prime}$. Since $C$ separates $v_{4}$ from $v_{5}, C$ is a bad cycle. Now $v$ is a vertex on $C$ which has two neighbors either $v_{3}, v_{4}$ or $v_{1}, v_{6}$ inside $C$, contradicting Remark 3.5(3).

By Lemma 3.10 $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$. We will further super-extend $\phi$ to $G$ in the following way. Let $\alpha$ be the color $v_{2}^{\prime}$ and $v_{5}^{\prime}$ receive. 3 -color $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v$ in turn. If $v$ has color $\alpha$, then we can 3 -color $v_{6}$ and $v_{5}$ in turn and seperately, 3-color $x^{\prime}$ and $y$ in turn and then (1,0,0)-color $x$, we are done. Hence, we may assume that the color of $v$ is not $\alpha$. Since the colors of $v, v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ are pairwise distinct, $v_{1}$ has color $\alpha$. We may assume that the color of $v$ is not 1 since otherwise, we exchange the colors of $v$ and $v_{2}$. 3 -color $x^{\prime}$ and $y$ in turn and consequently, we can ( $1,0,0$ )-color $x$. Remove the color of an outer neighbor (say $z$ ) of $\left[v v_{5} v_{6}\right]$ and in the same way, we color $z, v_{5}, v_{6}$, as desired.

Let $W$ be a subgraph of $G$ consisting of a (4, 4, 4)-face [ $u v w]$ and three 3 -faces $\left[u u_{1} u_{2}\right],\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ and $\left[w w_{1} w_{2}\right]$ of $G$ that share precisely one vertex (respectively, $u, v$ and $w$ ) with $[u v w]$. Let $u, v, w$ as well as $u_{1}, u_{2}, v_{1}, v_{2}, w_{1}, w_{2}$ be in clockwise order around [uvw]. Call $W$ a wheel, written as $\left(u v w, u_{1} u_{2} v_{1} v_{2} w_{1} w_{2}\right)^{\mathcal{W}}$, if $d\left(u_{1}\right)=d\left(v_{1}\right)=$ $d\left(w_{1}\right)=3$ and $d\left(u_{2}\right)=d\left(v_{2}\right)=d\left(w_{2}\right)=4$. Call $W$ an antiwheel, written as $\left(u v w, u_{1} u_{2} v_{1} v_{2} w_{1} w_{2}\right)^{\mathcal{A} \mathcal{W}}$, if $d\left(u_{1}\right)=d\left(v_{1}\right)=d\left(w_{2}\right)=3$ and $d\left(u_{2}\right)=d\left(v_{2}\right)=d\left(w_{1}\right)=4$.

Lemma 3.17. G has no wheels.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has a wheel, say $W=\left(u v w, u_{1} u_{2} v_{1} v_{2} w_{1} w_{2}\right)^{\mathcal{W}}$. Let $u_{1}^{\prime}, v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{1}^{\prime}$ be the remaining neighbors of $u_{1}, v_{1}$ and $w_{1}$, respectively. Delete all vertices of $W$ and insert three edges making $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$ a triangle. We thereby obtain a graph $G^{\prime}$ smaller than $G$. We shall use Lemma 3.9 .

Suppose that our operation connects two vertices of $D$. W.l.o.g., let $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$ locate on $D$. Then as a splitting 5-path of $D, u_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} u v v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}$ divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a $9^{-}$-cycle. Now this cycle separates $u_{2}$ from $w$ and contains a triangle either $\left[u u_{1} u_{2}\right]$ or $[u v w]$ inside, a contradiction. Hence, Term ( $\left.i\right)$ holds true.

Suppose that our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle $C^{\prime}$ other than $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$. Since $C^{\prime}$ is new, $C^{\prime}$ must share edges with $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$. If they have precisely two common edges (w.l.o.g., say $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}$ ), then the cycle obtained from $C^{\prime}$ by constituting the edge $u_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}$ for the path $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}$ is also created and has smaller length than $C^{\prime}$. Take this cycle as the choice for $C^{\prime}$. Hence, we may assume that $C^{\prime}$ and $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$ have one edge in common, say $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime}$. So, $C^{\prime}$ corresponds to a $11^{-}$-cycle $C$ of $G$ that contains the path $u_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} u v v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}$. Since $C$ separates $u_{2}$ from $w, C$ is a bad cycle containing either $u_{2}$ or $w$ inside, both of which have degree 4. This contradicts Remark 3.5 (22). Therefore, our operation creates no $7^{-}$-cycles $C^{\prime}$ other than $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$. In particular, Term (ii) holds true.

Suppose that our operation makes $D$ bad. So, $D$ has a bad partition $H$ in $G^{\prime}$. If $H$ and $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$ have no edges in common, then $H$ is a bad partition of $D$ in $G$ as well, a contradiction. Hence, let $e$ be a common edge of $H$ and $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$. Recall that among the vertices of $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$, at most one lies on $D$. So, $e$ is not an edge of $D$. This implies that $e$ is incident with two cells of $H$, both of which are new. That is to say, we created a $7^{-}$-cycle other than $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$, a contradiction. Therefore, Term (iii) holds true.

By Lemma 3.9, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$. We will further super-extend $\phi$ to $G$. Since $\left[u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} w_{1}^{\prime}\right]$ is a triangle of $G^{\prime}$, we distinguish two cases as follows.

Case 1: assume that the colors of $u_{1}^{\prime}, v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{1}^{\prime}$ are pairwise distinct. W.l.o.g., let $\phi\left(u_{1}^{\prime}\right)=3, \phi\left(v_{1}^{\prime}\right)=2$ and $\phi\left(w_{1}^{\prime}\right)=1$. 3-color $u_{2}, v_{2}$ and $w_{2}$. If $\phi\left(u_{2}\right) \neq 3$ and $\phi\left(v_{2}\right) \neq 2$, then assign $u, v, w$ with colors $3,2,1$, respectively. Consequently, we can 3 -color $u_{1}, v_{1}$ and $w_{1}$, we are done. W.l.o.g., we may next assume that $\phi\left(u_{2}\right)=3$. Assign $u_{1}$ with color 2 and $u$ with color 1 . Since $u$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$ have different colors, we can 3 -color $v$ and $v_{1}$. If $w_{2}$ has color 1 , then we can 3-color $w$ and $w_{1}$ in turn; otherwise, assign $w$ with the color 1 and then 3-color $w_{1}$.

Case 2: assume that the colors of $u_{1}^{\prime}, v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{1}^{\prime}$ are not pairwise distinct. Since the extension of $\phi$ in $G^{\prime}$ is a $(1,0,0)$-coloring, precisely two of $u_{1}^{\prime}, v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{1}^{\prime}$ have the color 1 , say $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$. 3 -color $u_{2}, v_{2}, w_{2}$, $w_{1}$, $w$ in turn. We may assume that the color of $w$ is not 1 since otherwise, we can exchange the colors of $w$ and $w_{1}$. W.l.o.g., let $w$ be of color 3. Since both $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$ have color 1 that is different from the color of $w$, regardless of the edge $u v$, we can 3 -color $u, u_{1}$ and $v, v_{1}$. The resulting coloring gives a (1,0,0)-coloring of $G$ unless both $u$ and $v$ have color 2 . For this remaining case, we can deduce that $u_{1}$ has color 3 and $u_{2}$ has color 1 . Reassign $u$ with the color 1 , we are done.

Lemma 3.18. G has no antiwheel whose outer neighbors are all light.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary that $G$ has such an antiwheel, say $W=\left(u v w, u_{1} u_{2} v_{1} v_{2} w_{1} w_{2}\right)^{\mathcal{A} \mathcal{W}}$. Denote by $u_{1}^{\prime}, v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$ outer neighbors of $u_{1}, v_{1}$ and $w_{2}$, respectively. Delete all the vertices of $W$ except $v_{2}$, identify $v_{2}$ with $w_{2}^{\prime}$, and insert an edge between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$, obtaining a new graph $G^{\prime}$ from $G$. We shall use Lemma 3.9 .

Suppose that our operation identifies two vertices of $D$, or inserts an edge that connects two vertices of $D$. So, $D$ has a splitting 4 - or 5 -path in $G$ containing either $v_{2} v w w_{2} w_{2}^{\prime}$ or $u_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} u v v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}$. By Lemma 3.8, this splitting path divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a $9^{-}$-cycle, say $C$. Now $C$ separates $u_{2}$ from $w_{1}$ and contains a triangle either $\left[u u_{1} u_{2}\right]$ or $\left[w w_{1} w_{2}\right]$ inside, a contradiction. Hence, Term $(i)$ holds true.

Suppose that our operation creates a new $7^{-}$-cycle, say $C^{\prime} . C^{\prime}$ corresponds to a subgraph (say $P$ ) of $G$ that can be distinguished in four cases: (1) a $6^{-}$-path between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}$; (2) a $7^{-}$-path between $w_{2}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}$; (3) the union of two vertex-disjoint paths, one between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$ and the other between $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}$; (4) the union of two vertex-disjoint paths, one between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}$ and the other between $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$. For the first case, $P$ and the path $u_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} u v v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}$ together form a $11^{-}$-cycle which contains a 4-vertex either $u_{2}$ or $w_{1}$ inside, a contradiction to Remark 3.5 (2). For the case (2), $P$ and the path $w_{2}^{\prime} w_{2} w v v_{2}$ together form a $11^{-}$-cycle which contains a 4 -vertex either $u_{2}$ or $w_{1}$ inside, again a contradiction to Remark 3.5 (2). For the case (3), since $G$ has no $6^{-}$-cycles adjacent to a triangle, we can deduce that $G$ has no $4^{-}$-paths between $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{2}$ by the existence of $\left[v v_{1} v_{2}\right]$ and no edges between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$ by the existence of $[u v w]$. It follows that $P$ has length at least 8 , a contradiction. Case (4) is impossible by the planarity of $G$. Therefore, our operation creates no $7^{-}$-cycles. In particular, Term (ii) holds true.

Suppose that our operation makes $D$ bad. Let $H$ be a bad partition of $D$ in $G^{\prime}$. Since both terms of Lemma 3.10 holds, if $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime} \notin E(H)$, then the proof of Lemma 3.10 shows that identifying $w_{2}^{\prime}$ with $v_{2}$ can not make $D$ bad. So, $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime}$ belongs to $H$. Since Term (i) holds true, $u_{1}^{\prime} v_{1}^{\prime}$ is incident with two cells of $H$. Clearly, these two cells are created and at least one of them is a $7^{-}$-cycle, contradicting the conclusion above that our operation creates no $7^{-}$-cycles. Therefore, Term (iii) holds.

By Lemma 3.9, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$. Denote by $\alpha$ the color $v_{2}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$ receive and by $\beta$ the color $u_{1}^{\prime}$ receives. 3-color $u_{2}$ and $w_{1}$. We distinguish two cases according to the colors of $u_{2}$ and $w_{1}$.

Case 1: suppose that not both $u_{2}$ and $w_{1}$ have color $\alpha$. So, we can 3 -color $u, v$ and $w$. Since both $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $w_{2}^{\prime}$ have degree 3 , we can 3 -recolor them. Consequently, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $u_{1}$ and $w_{2}$. If not all the colors occur on the neighbors of $v_{2}$, then we can 3-recolor $v_{2}$ and eventually, 3-recolor $v_{1}^{\prime}$ and $(1,0,0)$-color $v_{1}$ in turn, we are done. So, we may next assume that $v_{2}$ has all the colors around. It follows that $v_{2}$ is of color 1 and $v$ not. W.l.o.g., Let $v$ be of color 3 . We may assume that $v_{1}^{\prime}$ is of color 2 since otherwise, we can 3 -color $v_{1}$. Since $G^{\prime}$ has an edge between $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v_{1}^{\prime}, \beta \neq 2$. Now we recolor some vertices as follows. Assign $v_{1}$ with 1 , reassign $v_{2}$ with 3 and $v$ with 2 , remove the colors of $u_{1}, u, w, w_{2}$, and give the color 1 back to $w_{2}^{\prime}$ and $\beta$ back to $u_{1}^{\prime}$. Since now $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $v$ have different colors, we can 3 -color $u$ and $u_{1}$. Clearly, $w_{2}^{\prime}$ has no neighbors of color 2 since $v_{2}$ already has one. If $w_{1}$ has color 2 , then we can 3 -color $w$ and ( $1,0,0$ )-color $w_{2}$ in turn; otherwise, assign $w_{2}$ with 2 and we can $(1,0,0)$-color $w$.

Case 2: suppose that both $u_{2}$ and $w_{1}$ have color $\alpha$. If $\alpha=1$, then assign $u$ with $\alpha$ and we can 3-color $u_{1}, v_{1}, v, w, w_{2}$ in turn, we are done. W.l.o.g., we may next assume that $\alpha=2$. If $\beta \neq 3$, then we can 3 -color $v_{1}, v, w, w_{2}$ in turn, assign $u$ with the color 1 , and 3-color $u_{1}$ at last; otherwise, since $v_{1}^{\prime}$ is of color different from $\beta$, we assign $u, w_{2}$ and $v_{1}$ with 3 , and $u_{1}, w$ and $v$ with 1 . We are done in both situations.

Lemma 3.19. G has no 5-faces whose vertices are all light.
Proof. Suppose $G$ has such a 5 -face, say $f=\left[u_{1} u_{2} \ldots u_{5}\right]$. For $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, 5\}$, let $u_{i}^{\prime}$ denote the remaining neighbor of $u_{i}$. If both $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{3}^{\prime}$ belong to $D$, then as being a splitting 4-path of $D, u_{1}^{\prime} u_{1} u_{2} u_{3} u_{3}^{\prime}$ divides $D$ into two parts, one of which is a 5 - or 7 -cycle. This cycle is actually a face but now contains an edge either $u_{2} u_{2}^{\prime}$ or $u_{3} u_{4}$ inside, a contradiction. Therefore, at least one of $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{3}^{\prime}$ is internal. For the same reason, this is even true for $u_{i}$ and $u_{i+2}$ for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, 5\}$, where the index is added in modulo 5 . Hence, we can alway get three internal vertices $u_{i}^{\prime}, u_{i+1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{i+2}^{\prime}$ for some $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, 5\}$. W.l.o.g., let $u_{5}^{\prime}, u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{2}^{\prime}$ be internal. Remove all the vertices of $f$ from $G$ and insert an edge between $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$, obtaining a new graph $G^{\prime}$. We shall use Lemma 3.9. Clearly, Term (i) holds true.

Suppose the graph operation creates a $k$-cycle with $k \in\{1,2,4,6\}$. So, $G$ has a $k$-path between $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$. This path together with $u_{5}^{\prime} u_{5} u_{1} u_{2} u_{2}^{\prime}$ form a $(k+3)$-cycle, say $C$. By Lemma $3.6, d\left(u_{1}^{\prime}\right) \geq 4$. So, $C$ can not contain $u_{1}^{\prime}$ inside since otherwise, a contradiction to Remark 3.5 (2). Moreover, as a $9^{-}$-cycle, $C$ can not contain both $u_{3}$ and $u_{4}$ inside. Therefore, by planarity of $G, u_{1}^{\prime}$ must locate on $C$. Now the cycle, obtained from $C$ by constituting $u_{2} u_{3} u_{4} u_{5}$ for $u_{2} u_{1} u_{5}$, is a bad 10 -cycle but it has a claw and a 5 -cell, which is impossible. Therefore, Term (ii) holds true.

Suppose that our operation makes $D$ bad. Let $H$ be a bad partition of $D$ in $G^{\prime}$. So, $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{5}^{\prime}$ belongs to $H-E(D)$ since otherwise, $H$ is a bad partition of $D$ in $G$. Now, $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{5}^{\prime}$ is incident with two cells of $H$, say $h^{\prime}$ and $h^{\prime \prime}$. Denote by $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ cycles obtained from $h^{\prime}$ and $h^{\prime \prime}$ by constituting the edge $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{5}^{\prime}$ for the path $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{2} u_{1} u_{5} u_{5}^{\prime}$. Clearly, one of $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ (w.l.o.g., say $C^{\prime}$ ) contains $u_{1}^{\prime}$ inside or on $C$, and the other contains $u_{3}^{\prime}$ and $u_{4}^{\prime}$ inside. Since a cell has length at most 8 , both $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ have length at most 11 . So, $C^{\prime \prime}$ is a bad cycle. Lemma 3.6 implies that both $u_{3}^{\prime}$ and $u_{4}^{\prime}$ are not light. So, $C^{\prime \prime}$ can not contains them inside by Remark 3.5 22. Instead, $u_{3}^{\prime}$ and $u_{4}^{\prime}$ are on $C^{\prime \prime}$. Now $C^{\prime \prime}$ has an edge-claw, more precisely, an (5,5,5,5)-edge-claw. So, $h^{\prime \prime}$ is a non-triangular 7 -cell of $H$, which implies that $H$ must have a $(5,5,7)$-claw in $G^{\prime}$. This gives a contradiction since both $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$ are internal vertices on $H$. Therefore, Term (iii) holds true.

By Lemma 3.9, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ and further to $G$ as follows. If there is a vertex from $\left\{u_{2}^{\prime}, u_{5}^{\prime}\right\}$ of color different from 1, w.l.o.g., say $u_{5}^{\prime}$, then 3 -color $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{4}$ in turn and finally, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $u_{5}$. So
we may assume that both $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$ are of color 1 . Again, 3 -color $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{4}$ in turn. Since $u_{2}^{\prime}$ has no neighbors of color 1 in $G$, we can $(1,0,0)$-color $u_{5}$.

Lemma 3.20. G has no 5-faces, four of whose vertices are light and the remaining one is an internal 4-vertex.
Proof. Suppose to the contrary the $G$ has such a 5 -face $\left[u_{1} \ldots u_{5}\right]$. W.l.o.g., let $u_{1}$ be of degree 4. Denote by $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ the remaining neighbor of $u_{1}$ and for $i \in\{2, \ldots, 5\}$, denote by $u_{i}^{\prime}$ the remaining neighbor of $u_{i}$. Remove all the vertices of $\left[u_{1} \ldots u_{5}\right.$ ] and insert an edge between $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$, obtaining a new graph $G^{\prime}$. We will show that both terms in Lemma 3.10 do hold:
(Term $a$ ) Otherwise, both $u_{2}^{\prime}$ and $u_{5}^{\prime}$ belong to $D$. So, $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{2} u_{1} u_{5} u_{5}^{\prime}$ is a splitting 4-path of $D$, which divides $D$ into two parts so that one part is a 5 - or 7 -cycle $C$, by Lemma 3.8. Notice that $C$ is actually a face but now has to contain an edge either $u_{1} u_{1}^{\prime}$ or $u_{2} u_{3}$ inside, a contradiction.
(Term $b$ ) Otherwise, $G$ has a $9^{-}$-cycle or a triangular 10 -cycle $C$ containing the path $u_{2}^{\prime} u_{2} u_{1} u_{5} u_{5}^{\prime}$. By the planarity of $G$, either $C$ contains the edges $u_{1} u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{1} u_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ inside or $C$ contains the vertices $u_{3}$ and $u_{4}$ inside. For the former case, since $C$ has length at most 10, Remark $3.5(4)$ implies that $C$ is not a bad cycle. So, $u_{1}^{\prime}$ and $u_{1}^{\prime \prime}$ locate on $C$, yields the length of $C$ at least 11, a contradiction. For the latter case, by Lemma 3.6, neither $u_{3}^{\prime}$ nor $u_{4}^{\prime}$ is light. So, they both locate on $C^{\prime \prime}$, implied by Remark 3.5 22. Now $C$ has a $(5,5,5,5)$-edge-claw, which gives a new triangular 7-cycle in $G^{\prime}$, a contradiction.

By Lemma 3.10, $\phi$ can be super-extended to $G^{\prime}$ and further to $G$ in the same way as in the proof of Lemma 3.19

Lemma 3.21. $G$ has no two 5 -faces $f$ and $g$ sharing precisely one edge, say $u v$, such that $u$ is an internal 5 -vertex and all other vertices on $f$ or $g$ are light.

Proof. Suppose to the contrary that such $f$ and $g$ exist. By the minimality of $G$, we can super-extend $\phi$ to $G-V(f) \cup V(g)$ and further to $G$ as follows: 3-color the vertices of $f$ and $g$ except $v$ beginning with $u$ along seperately the boundary of $f$ and one of $g$. Eventually, we can ( $1,0,0$ )-color $v$.

### 3.2 Discharging in $G$

Let $u$ be a vertex of a (4,4,4)-face. $u$ is abnormal if it is incident with a (3,4,4)-face; otherwise, $u$ is normal. A 5-face is small if it contains precisely four light vertices. Let $P$ be the common part of $D$ and a face $f . f$ is sticking if $P$ is a vertex, $i$-ceiling if $P$ is a path of length $i$ for $i \geq 1$.

Let $V, E$ and $F$ be the set of vertices, edges and faces of $G$, respectively. Denote by $f_{0}$ the exterior face of $G$. Give initial charge $\operatorname{ch}(x)$ to each element $x$ of $V \cup F$ defined as $\operatorname{ch}\left(f_{0}\right)=d\left(f_{0}\right)+24, \operatorname{ch}(x)=5 d(x)-14$ for $x \in V$, and $\operatorname{ch}(x)=2 d(x)-14$ for $x \in F \backslash\left\{f_{0}\right\}$. Move charges among elements of $V \cup F$ based on the following rules (called discharging rules):
$R 1$. Every internal 3-vertex sends to each incident face $f$ charge 1 if $d(f)=3$, and charge $\frac{1}{3}$ otherwise.
$R 2$. Every internal 4-vertex sends to each incident 3 -face $f$ charge $\frac{7}{2}$ if $f$ is a $(3,4,4)$-face, charge 3 if $f$ is a $(3,3,4)$-face, charge $\frac{8}{3}$ if $f$ is a $(4,4,4)$-face, charge $\frac{5}{2}$ otherwise.

R3. Every internal 5 -vertex sends to each incident 3 -face $f$ charge 6 if $f$ is weak $(3,3,5)$-face, charge $\frac{9}{2}$ if $f$ is $(3,4,5)$-face, charge $\frac{7}{2}$ if $f$ is either a weak $(3,5,5)$-face or a strong $(3,3,5)$-face, charge 3 otherwise.

R4. Every internal 6 -vertex sends to each incident 3 -face $f$ charge 6 if $f$ is weak $(3,3,6)$-face, charge 5 if $f$ is (3, 4, 6)-face, charge 4 otherwise.
$R 5$. Every internal $7^{+}$-vertex sends to each incident 3 -face charge 6.
$R 6$. Every internal $4^{+}$-vertex sends to each pendent 3 -face $f$ charge $\frac{5}{3}$ if $f$ is $(3,3,3)$-face, charge $\frac{3}{2}$ if $f$ is a $(3,3,4)$-face, and charge $\frac{5}{4}$ otherwise.

R7. Every internal $4^{+}$-vertex $u$ sends to each incident 5 -face $f$ charge $\frac{8}{3}$ if $d(u) \geq 5$ and $f$ is small, and charge $\frac{3}{2}$ otherwise.
$R 8$. Within a $(4,4,4)$-face, every normal vertex send to each abnormal vertex charge $\frac{1}{6}$.
$R 9$. Within an antiwheel, every strong (3, 4, 4)-face sends to each vertex of the (4, 4, 4)-face charge $\frac{1}{6}$.
$R 10$. The exterior face $f_{0}$ sends charge 3 to each incident vertex.
$R 11$. Every 2-vertex receives charge 1 from its incident face other than $f_{0}$.
R12. Every exterior $3^{+}$-vertex sends to each sticking 3 -face charge 6 , to each ceiling 3 -face charge $\frac{7}{2}$, to each sticking 5 -face charge $\frac{8}{3}$, to each 2 -ceiling 5 -face charge $\frac{13}{6}$, to each pendent 3 -faces charge $\frac{5}{3}$, to each 1 -ceiling 5 -face charge $\frac{3}{2}$, to each 3 -ceiling 7 -face charge 1 , to each 2 -ceiling 7 -face charge $\frac{1}{2}$.

Let $c h^{*}(x)$ denote the final charge of an element $x$ of $V \cup F$ after discharging. On one hand, from Euler's formula $|V|+|E|-|F|=2$, we deduce $\sum_{x \in V \cup F} \operatorname{ch}(x)=0$. Since the sum of charges over all elements of $V \cup F$ is unchanged during the discharging precedure, it follows that $\sum_{x \in V \cup F} c h^{*}(x)=0$. On the other hand, we will show that $c h^{*}(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in V \cup F \backslash\left\{f_{0}\right\}$ and $c h^{*}\left(f_{0}\right)>0$. So, this obvious contradiction completes the proof of Theorem 2.1.

Claim 3.21.1. $c h^{*}\left(f_{0}\right)>0$.
Proof. Notice that $F 10$ is the only rule making $f_{0}$ move charges out, charge 3 to each incident vertex. Recall that $\operatorname{ch}\left(f_{0}\right)=d\left(f_{0}\right)+24$ and $d\left(f_{0}\right) \leq 11$. So, $\operatorname{ch}^{*}\left(f_{0}\right) \geq \operatorname{ch}\left(f_{0}\right)-3 d\left(f_{0}\right)=24-2 d(f)>0$.

Claim 3.21.2. $c h^{*}(v) \geq 0$ for $v \in V$.
Proof. Denote by $m_{3}(v)$ the number of pendent 3 -faces of $v$, and by $n_{i}(v)$ the number of $i$-faces containing $v$ for $i \in\{3,5\}$, where these countings excludes $f_{0}$. Since $G$ has no cycles of length 4 or 6 , we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 n_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v) \leq d(v) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, if $n_{5}(v) \notin\{0, d(v)\}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 n_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v) \leq d(v)-1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case 1: first assume that $v$ is external. By $R 10 v$ always receives charge 3 from $f_{0}$. Since $D$ is a cycle, $d(v) \geq 2$. If $d(v)=2$, then $v$ receives charge 1 from the other incident face by $R 11$, giving $c h^{*}(v)=c h(v)+3+1=$ 0 . Hence, we may next assume that $d(v) \geq 3$. Denote by $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ the two ceiling faces containing $v$. W.l.o.g., let $d\left(f_{1}\right) \leq d\left(f_{2}\right)$.

Case 1.1: suppose $d(v)=3$. In this case, $c h(v)=1$, and $v$ sends charge to $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ when $R 12$ is applicable to $v$. If $d\left(f_{1}\right)=3$, then on one hand, $d\left(f_{2}\right) \geq 7$, since $G$ has neither 4 -cycles nor 6 -cycles; on the other hand, $f_{2}$ is
not a 3 -ceiling 7 -face by using Lemma 3.8. So $v$ sends to $f_{2}$ charge at most $\frac{1}{2}$, giving $\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{1}{2}=0$. We may next assume that $d\left(f_{1}\right) \geq 5$. Lemma 3.8 also implies that not both $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are 2 -ceiling 5 -faces. So, $v$ sends to $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ a total charge at most $\frac{13}{6}+\frac{3}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{13}{6}-\frac{3}{2}=\frac{1}{3}>0$.

Case 1.2 : suppose $d(v) \geq 4$. $v$ sends charge out, only by $R 12$, possibly to ceiling 3 - or 5 - or 7 -faces, sticking 3 - or 5 -faces and pendent 3 -faces. So,

$$
\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v) \geq\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{7}{2}-6\left(n_{3}(v)-2\right)-\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+8, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=3  \tag{3}\\
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{13}{6}-6\left(n_{3}(v)-1\right)-\frac{8}{3}\left(n_{5}(v)-1\right)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+7, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=3 \text { and } d\left(f_{2}\right)=5 \\
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{7}{2}-1-6\left(n_{3}(v)-1\right)-\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+\frac{9}{2}, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=3 \text { and } d\left(f_{2}\right) \geq 7 \\
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{13}{6}-\frac{13}{6}-6 n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3}\left(n_{5}(v)-2\right)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+4, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=5 \\
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-\frac{13}{6}-1-6 n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3}\left(n_{5}(v)-1\right)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+\frac{5}{2}, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=5 \text { and } d\left(f_{2}\right) \geq 7 \\
\operatorname{ch}(v)+3-1-1-6 n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\eta(v)+1, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right) \geq 7,
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\eta(v)=6 n_{3}(v)+\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)+\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v)$. Moreover, since $f_{0}$ is a face containing $v$, Equation 11 can be strengthen as:

$$
\zeta(v)=2 n_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v) \leq\left\{\begin{array}{l}
d(v), \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=3  \tag{4}\\
d(v)-1, \text { when either } d\left(f_{1}\right)=3 \text { and } d\left(f_{2}\right) \geq 5 \text { or } d\left(f_{1}\right)=d\left(f_{2}\right)=5 \\
d(v)-2, \text { when } d\left(f_{1}\right) \geq 5 \text { and } d\left(f_{2}\right) \geq 7
\end{array}\right.
$$

Since $\eta(v) \leq 3 \zeta(v)$, combining Equations (3) and (4) gives $c^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-3 d(v)+7=2 d(v)-7>0$.
Case 2: it remains to assume that $v$ is internal. By Lemma 3.1. $d(v) \geq 3$.
Case 2.1: suppose that $d(v)=3$. In this case, $\operatorname{ch}(v)=1$ and $n_{3}(v) \leq 1$. Notice that only the rule $F$ 团 makes $v$ send charge out. So, if $v$ is triangular, $\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-1=0$; otherwise, $\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{1}{3} \times 3=0$.

Case 2.2: suppose that $d(v)=4$. In this case, $\operatorname{ch}(v)=6$. Notice that, if $v$ is incident with no $(4,4,4)$-faces, then exactly three rules $R 2, ~ R 6$ and $R 7$ make $v$ send charge out, to incident 3 -faces, pendent 3 -faces and incident 5 -faces, respectively; otherwise, an additional rule $K 8$ is applied to $v$. Clearly, $n_{3}(v) \leq 2$. We distinguish three cases.

Case 2.2.1: assume that $n_{3}(v)=0$. So, $m_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v) \leq 4$. If $v$ has no pendent $(3,3,3)$-faces, then $v$ sends to each pendent 3 -face or incident 5 -face charge at most $\frac{3}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{3}{2}\left(m_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)\right) \geq 0$. So, we may assume that $v$ has a pendent $(3,3,3)$-face. It follows that $n_{5}(v) \leq 2$. By Lemma 3.11, $v$ has no other pendent $(3,3,3)$ - or $(3,3,4)$-faces, which implies that $v$ sends to any other pendent 3 -face charge at most $\frac{5}{4}$. So, $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{5}{3}-\frac{3}{2} \times 2-\frac{5}{4}=\frac{1}{12}>0$.

Case 2.2.2: assume that $n_{3}(v)=1$. In this case, either $n_{5}(v)=1$ and $m_{3}(v)=0$, or $n_{5}(v)=0$ and $m_{3}(v) \leq 2$. For the former case, we have $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{3}{2}=1>0$. For the latter case, we argue as follows. Denote by $f$ the 3 -face containing $v$. If $f$ is a $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-face, then $v$ has no pendent $\left(3,3,4^{-}\right)$-faces by Lemma 3.12 giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq c h(v)-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{5}{4} \times 2=0$. So, let us assume $f$ is not a $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-face. By $\hbar 2 v$ sends to $f$ charge at most $\frac{8}{3}$, and to abnormal vertices on $f$ a total charge at most $\frac{1}{6} \times 2$ when $\pi 8$ is applicable for v. Moreover, Combining Lemma 3.11 and the rule $F 6$ yields that $v$ sends to possible pendent 3 -faces a total charge at most $\max \left\{\frac{5}{3}+\frac{5}{4}, \frac{3}{2} \times 2\right\}$, equal to 3 . Therefore, $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{8}{3}-\frac{1}{6} \times 2-3=0$.

Case 2.2.3: assume that $n_{3}(v)=2$. So, $m_{3}(v)=n_{5}(v)=0$. Denote by $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ two 3 -faces incident with $v$. If both $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are not (3,4,4)-faces, then no matter $f_{i}$ has abnormal vertices or not, $v$ sends to $f_{i}$ and
possiblely abnormal vertices on $f_{i}$ a total charge at most 3 , giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq c h(v)-3 \times 2=0$. So, we may next assume that $f_{1}$ is a $(3,4,4)$-face. By $K 2 v$ sends charge $\frac{8}{3}$ to $f_{1}$. By Lemma 3.13, $f_{2}$ is not a $\left(3,4^{-}, 4\right)$-face. If $f_{2}$ is further not a $(4,4,4)$-face, then $v$ sends to $f_{2}$ charge at most $\frac{5}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{5}{2}=0$. So, we may further assume that $f_{2}$ is a $(4,4,4)$-face, that is, $v$ is abnormal. If $f_{2}$ contains a normal vertex, then from it $v$ receives charge $\frac{1}{6}$ by 78 , giving $c^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{8}{3}+\frac{1}{6}=0$. So, we may assume that all the vertices on $f$ are abnormal. That is to say, $f_{2}$ together with three 3 -faces intersecting with $f_{2}$ forms a wheel or an antiwheel, say $W$. Since $G$ has no wheels by Lemma 3.17, $W$ is an antiwheel. By Lemma 3.18, $W$ has a heavy outer neighbor, that is, $W$ has a strong $(3,4,4)$-face. By the rule $R 9 v$ receives charge $\frac{1}{6}$ from this face, giving $c h^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{8}{3}+\frac{1}{6}=0$.

Case 2.3: suppose that $d(v)=5$. In this case, $c h(v)=11$ and $n_{3}(v) \leq 2$. Notice that only rules $F 3$, $F \sqrt{6}$ and $R 7$ make $v$ send charge out, to incident 3 -faces, pendent 3 -faces and incident 5 -faces, respectively. We distinguish three cases.

Case 2.3.1: assume that $n_{3}(v)=2$. So, $n_{5}(v)=0$ and $m_{3}(v) \leq 1$. Denote by $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ the two 3 -faces containing $v$ and by $f$ the pendent 3 -face of $v$ if it exists. If both $f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ are not weak $(3,3,5)$-faces, then $v$ sends to each of them charge at most $\frac{9}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{9}{2} \times 2-\frac{5}{3}=\frac{1}{3}>0$. So, we may assume that $v$ is incident with a weak $(3,3,5)$-face, say $f_{1}$. By Lemma 3.14, $f_{2}$ is neither a $(3,3,5)$-face nor a $(3,4,5)$-face. If $f_{2}$ is further not a weak $(3,5,5)$-face, then $v$ sends to $f_{2}$ charge $\frac{10}{3}$, giving $\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-6-\frac{10}{3}-\frac{5}{3}=0$. So, let $f_{2}$ be a weak $(3,5,5)$-face. By Lemma 3.15, $f$ is neither a $(3,3,3)$-face nor a $(3,3,4)$-face. So, $v$ sends to $f$ charge $\frac{5}{4}$, giving $\operatorname{ch}^{*}(v)=\operatorname{ch}(v)-6-\frac{7}{2}-\frac{5}{4}=\frac{1}{4}>0$.

Case 2.3.2: assume that $n_{3}(v)=1$. We can deduce that, $n_{5}(v)=2$ and $m_{3}(v)=0$, or $n_{5}(v)=1$ and $m_{3}(v) \leq 1$, or $n_{5}(v)=0$ and $m_{3}(v) \leq 3$. For the first case, Lemma 3.21 implies that not both 5 -faces incident with $v$ are small. So $v$ sends to at least one of them charge $\frac{3}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6-\frac{8}{3}-\frac{3}{2}=\frac{5}{6}>0$. For the latter two cases, a direct calculation gives $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6-\frac{8}{3}-\frac{5}{3}=\frac{2}{3}>0$ and $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6-\frac{5}{3} \times 3=0$, respectively.

Case 2.3.3: assume that $n_{3}(v)=0$. Lemma 3.21 implies that $v$ has at most two small 5 -faces around. For any other incident 5 -face or any pendent 3 -face, $v$ sends to it charge no greater than $\frac{5}{3}$, giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq$ $\operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{8}{3} \times 2-\frac{5}{3}\left(n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v)-2\right) \geq \frac{2}{3}>0$, where Equation (1) has been used for the second inequality.

Case 2.4: suppose that $d(v)=6$. In this case, $c h(v)=16$ and only rules $R 4,26$ and $R 7$ make $v$ send charge out, to incident 3 -faces, pendent 3 -faces and incident 5 -faces, respectively. If $n_{5}(v)=6$, then $c h^{*}(v) \geq c h(v)-\frac{8}{3} \times 6=0$, we are done. Moreover, if $n_{5}(v) \in\{1,2, \ldots, 5\}$, then we have $c h^{*}(v) \geq c h(v)-6 n_{3}(v)-$ $\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-\frac{2}{3} n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3}\left(2 n_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v)\right) \geq 16-\frac{2}{3} n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3}(d(v)-1)=\frac{8}{3}-\frac{2}{3} n_{3}(v)>0$, where the third inequality follows from Equation (2). Hence, we may next assume that $n_{5}(v)=0$. Analogously, by using Equation (1) instead of Equation (2), we can deduce that $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6 n_{3}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-$ $\frac{8}{3} n_{3}(v)-\frac{5}{3}\left(2 n_{3}(v)+m_{3}(v)\right) \geq 16-\frac{8}{3} n_{3}(v)-\frac{5}{3} d(v)=6-\frac{8}{3} n_{3}(v)>0$, provided by $n_{3}(v) \leq 2$. Hence, we may next assume that $n_{3}(v)=3$. If $v$ is incident with at most one weak $(3,3,6)$-face, then $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6-5 \times 2=0$; otherwise, Lemma 3.16 implies that $v$ is incident with a 3 -face $f$ that is neither ( $3,3,6$ )-face nor ( $3,4,6$ )-face. So, $v$ sends to $f$ charge 4 , giving $c h^{*}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-6 \times 2-4=0$.

Case 2.5: suppose that $d(v) \geq 7$. In this case, $v$ sends to any incident 3 -face charge 6 by $R 5$, to any incident 5 -face charge at most $\frac{8}{3}$ by $R 7$, and to any pendent 3 -face charge at most $\frac{5}{3}$ by $R 6$. So, $c h^{*}(v) \geq$ $\operatorname{ch}(v)-6 n_{3}(v)-\frac{8}{3} n_{5}(v)-\frac{5}{3} m_{3}(v) \geq \operatorname{ch}(v)-3\left(2 n_{3}(v)+n_{5}(v)+m_{3}(v)\right) \geq(5 d(v)-14)-3 d(v) \geq 0$, where the last two inequalities follow from Equation (1) and the assumption $d(v) \geq 7$, respectively.

Claim 3.21.3. ch ${ }^{*}(f) \geq 0$ for $f \in F \backslash\left\{f_{0}\right\}$.
Proof. Since $G$ has neither 4-cycles nor 6-cycles, $d(f) \notin\{4,6\}$.
Case 1: assume that $f$ contains vertices of $D$. Denote by $n_{2}(f)$ the number of 2 -vertices on $f$. Lemma 3.8 implies that, if $d(f) \in\{3,5,7\}$ then the common part of $f$ and $D$ must be a path of length at most $\frac{d(f)-1}{2}$, say the path $P$. Here, a path of length 0 or 1 means a vertex or an edge, respectively. So, $n_{2}(f) \leq \frac{d(f)-1}{2}-1$. We distinguish four cases.

Case 1.1: let $d(f)=3$. In this case, $c h(f)=-8$ and $P$ is either a vertex or an edge. Notice that $f$ receives charge at least 1 from each incident internal vertex by rules from $K 1$ to $F$. If $P$ is a vertex, then $f$ is a sticking 3 -face, which receives charge 6 from $P$ by $h 12$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+6+1 \times 2=0$, we are done. If $P$ is an edge, then $f$ is a 1-ceiling 3 -face, which receives charge $\frac{7}{2}$ from both vertices of $P$ by $K 12$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{7}{2} \times 2+1=0$, we are done as well.

Case 1.2: let $d(f)=5$. By $K 1$ and $K 7$, $f$ receives from each exterior vertex of $f$ charge at least $\frac{1}{3}$. Clearly, $\operatorname{ch}(f)=-4$ and $P$ is a vertex or an edge or a 2-path. If $P$ is a vertex, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{8}{3}$ from this vertex by $h 12$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+\frac{1}{3} \times 4+\frac{8}{3}=0$. If $P$ is an edge, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{3}{2}$ from both vertices of $P$ by 12 , giving $c h^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{1}{3} \times 3+\frac{3}{2} \times 2=0$. If $P$ is a 2-path, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{13}{6}$ from each end vertex of $P$ by $R 12$ and sends charge 1 to the unique 2 -vertex of $P$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{1}{3} \times 2+\frac{13}{6} \times 2-1=0$. We are done in all the three situations above.

Case 1.3: let $d(f)=7$. In this case, $f$ sends charge to incident 2 -vertices by $R 11$ and receives charge from incident exterior $3^{+}$-vertices by $F 12$, no other charges moving about $f$. Recall that $\operatorname{ch}(f)=2 d(f)-14=0$ and $n_{2}(f) \leq \frac{d(f)-1}{2}-1=2$. If $n_{2}(f)=2$, i.e., $f$ is a 3-ceiling face, then $f$ receives charge 1 from each end vertex of $P$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+1 \times 2-1 \times n_{2}(f)=0$. If $n_{2}(f)=1$, i.e., $f$ is a 2-ceiling face, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{1}{2}$ from each end vertex of $P$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+\frac{1}{2} \times 2-1 \times n_{2}(f)=0$. If $n_{2}(f)=0$, then $f$ has no charges moving in or out, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)=0$. We are done in all the three situations above.

Case 1.4: let $d(f) \geq 8$. Since $f$ is not $f_{0}, f$ contains an internal vertex. That is to say, $f$ contains a splitting $2^{+}$-path of $D$, say $Q$. By Lemma 3.8 , if $|Q| \leq 4$, then $Q$ divides $D$ into two parts, one of which together with $Q$ forms a face. Now $Q$ contains internal 2-vertices, contradicting Lemma 3.1. So, $|Q| \geq 5$. It follows that $n_{2}(f) \leq d(f)-6$. By our discharging rules, $8^{+}$-faces send charge only to incident 2 -vertices, charge 1 to each by $\Gamma 11$. So, $c^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)-1 \times n_{2}(f) \geq(2 d(f)-14)-(d(f)-6)=d(f)-8 \geq 0$.

Case 2: assume that $f$ is vertex-disjoint with $D$. We distinguish three cases.
Case 2.1: let $d(f) \geq 7$. By our discharging rules, $f$ has no charges moved in or out in this case. So, $c h^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)=2 d(f)-14 \geq 0$.

Case 2.2: let $d(f)=5$. In this case, $\operatorname{ch}(f)=-4$. By our discharging rules, $f$ sends no charges out and receives from each incident $4^{+}$-vertex charge at least $\frac{1}{3}$ by $R 1$ or $R 7$. By Lemma $3.19, f$ contains a $4^{+}$-vertex, say $u$. If $u$ is the only $4^{+}$-vertex on $f$, i.e., $f$ is small, then Lemma 3.20 implies that $u$ is further a $5^{+}$-vertex, which sends to $f$ charge $\frac{8}{3}$ by 77 , giving $c h^{*}(f) \geq c h(f)+\frac{8}{3}+\frac{1}{3} \times 4=0$; otherwise, $f$ has at least two $4^{+}$-vertices, from each $f$ receives charge $\frac{3}{2}$, giving $c h^{*}(f) \geq \operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{3}{2} \times 2+\frac{1}{3} \times 3=0$.

Case 2.3: let $d(f)=3$. In this case, $c h(f)=-8$ and $f$ receives charge from all the incident vertices and from all heavy outer neighbors, and sends charge out only when $K 9$ applied. In particular, $f$ receives charge 1 from each incident 3 -vertex by $R$.

If $f$ is a $(3,3,3)$-face, then Lemma 3.7 implies that $f$ has three heavy outer neighbors, each sends charge $\frac{5}{3}$ to $f$ by $F 6$ or $F 12$. So, $c h^{*}(f)=\operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{5}{3} \times 3+1 \times 3=0$.

If $f$ is a $(3,3,4)$-face, then $f$ has precisely two heavy outer neighbors by Lemma 3.7, each sends charge at least $\frac{3}{2}$ to $f$ by $R 6$ or $R 12$. Moreover, $f$ receives charge 3 from the 4 -vertex of $f$ by $F 2$. So, $c h^{*}(f)=$ $\operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{3}{2} \times 2+3+1 \times 2=0$.

If $f$ is a weak $(3,3,5)$-face or a weak $(3,3,6)$-face or a $\left(3,3,7^{+}\right)$-face, then $f$ receives charge 6 from the $5^{+}$-vertex of $f$ by $R 3$ or $K 4$ or $R 5$, respectively. So, $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+6+1 \times 2=0$.

If $f$ is a strong $(3,3,5)$-face or a strong $(3,3,6)$-face, then $f$ receives charge at least $\frac{7}{2}$ from the $5^{+}$-vertex of $f$ by $R 3$ or $R 4$, respectively. Moreover, $f$ receives charge at least $\frac{5}{4}$ from both heavy outer neighbors of $f$ by $F 6$ or $K 12$. So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq c h(f)+\frac{7}{2}+\frac{5}{4} \times 2+1 \times 2=0$.

If $f$ is a weak $(3,4,4)$-face or a weak $(3,5,5)$-face, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{7}{2}$ from both 4 -vertices or 5 -vertices of $f$ by $K 2$ or $K 3$, respectively. So, $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+\frac{7}{2} \times 2+1=0$.

If $f$ is a strong (3,4,4)-face, then $f$ might send charge out by $N 9$ Notice that $f$ is contained in at most two antiwheels, that is, $f$ sends charge to at most six abnormal vertices, charge $\frac{1}{6}$ to each. Moreover, since $f$ is strong, $f$ has a heavy outer neighbor, from which $f$ receives charge at least $\frac{5}{4}$ by $\pi / 6$ or $\pi / 12$, So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq c h(f)-\frac{1}{6} \times 6+\frac{5}{4}+\frac{7}{2} \times 2+1=\frac{1}{4}>0$.

If $f$ is a $\left(3,4,5^{+}\right)$-face, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{5}{2}$ from the 4 -vertex of $f$ by $R 2$ and charge at least $\frac{9}{2}$ from the $5^{+}$-vertex of $f$ by $R 3$ or $R 4$ or $R 5$. So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq \operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{5}{2}+\frac{9}{2}+1=0$.

If $f$ is a strong $(3,5,5)$-face, then $f$ receives charge at least $\frac{5}{4}$ from the heavy outer neighbor by $F 6$ or $K 12$ and charge $\frac{7}{2}$ from both 5 -vertices of $f$ by 73 . So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq c h(f)+\frac{5}{4}+\frac{7}{2} \times 2+1=\frac{1}{4}>0$.

If $f$ is a $\left(3,5^{+}, 6^{+}\right)$-face, then $f$ receives charge 3 and charge at least 4 from the $5^{+}$-vertex and the $6^{+}$-vertex on $f$, respectively. So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq \operatorname{ch}(f)+3+4+1=0$.

If $f$ is a $(4,4,4)$-face, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{8}{3}$ from each incident vertex by $K 2$, giving $c h^{*}(f)=c h(f)+$ $\frac{8}{3} \times 3=0$.

If $f$ is a $\left(4,4^{+}, 5^{+}\right)$-face, then $f$ receives charge $\frac{5}{2}$, charge at least $\frac{5}{2}$ and charge at least 3 from the 4 -vertex, the $4^{+}$-vertex and the $5^{+}$-vertex, respectively. So, $c h^{*}(f) \geq \operatorname{ch}(f)+\frac{5}{2}+\frac{5}{2}+3=0$.

By the previous three claims, the proof of Theorem 2.1 is completed.

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