

# MIT 18.211: COMBINATORIAL ANALYSIS

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## LECTURE 31: CHROMATIC NUMBERS AND POLYNOMIALS

**Chromatic Numbers.** For  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , a *proper  $k$ -coloring* of a simple graph  $G$  is a (coloring) function  $f: V(G) \rightarrow [k]$  such that no two adjacent vertices of  $G$  have the same image under  $f$ . We can think of every index in the codomain of  $f$  as the label of a color we can use to color some of the vertices of  $G$  via  $f$ . We say that a simple graph  $G$  is  *$k$ -colorable* if it admits a proper  $k$ -coloring. It is clear that if  $G$  is  $k$ -colorable, then it is  $m$ -colorable for every  $m \geq k$ .

**Definition 1.** The *chromatic number* of a simple graph  $G$ , denoted by  $\chi(G)$ , is the minimum among all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $G$  is  $k$ -colorable.

Let us take a look at a few examples.

**Example 2.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $G$  be a graph satisfying  $|V(G)| = n$  and  $|E(G)| = 0$ . Since  $G$  does not have any adjacency relation, we easily see that  $\chi(G) = 1$ . In this case, a proper 1-coloring is given by the constant function  $f: V(G) \rightarrow \{1\}$ .

**Example 3.** Suppose that  $G$  is a bipartite graph on the parts  $X$  and  $Y$ . If  $E(G)$  is empty, then  $G$  is one of the graphs in Example 2, and so  $\chi(G) = 1$ . Otherwise,  $\chi(G) \geq 2$ . Verifying that  $\chi(G) = 2$  amounts to observing that we can color the vertices in  $X$  black and the vertices in  $Y$  white, which yield the proper 2-coloring  $f: V(G) \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$  defined by  $f(v) = 1$  if and only if  $v \in X$ . On the other hand, it is clear that every 2-colorable graph is bipartite graph on the parts determined by the two colors. This example explains why often the parts of a bipartite graph are called coloring/color classes. In particular, we obtain that

- every graph consisting of a path is 2-colorable,
- every tree is 2-colorable, and
- the complete bipartite graphs  $K_{m,n}$  are 2-colorable.

**Example 4.** Let us find the chromatic number of  $C_n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $n \geq 3$ . If  $n$  is even, then  $C_n$  is bipartite, and so  $\chi(C_n) = 2$ . Suppose then that  $n$  is odd. Since  $C_n$  is not bipartite,  $\chi(C_n) \geq 3$ . Now write  $n = 2k + 1$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and set  $V(C_n) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{2k+1}\}$  such that  $v_1 v_2 \dots v_{2k+1} v_1$  is the only cycle of  $C_n$ . To exhibit a proper 3-coloring of  $G$ , color the vertices in  $\{v_{2j-1} \mid j \in [k]\}$  blue, the vertices in  $\{v_{2j} \mid j \in [k]\}$  green, and the vertex  $v_{2k+1}$  red. Hence  $\chi(C_n) = 3$  when  $n$  is odd.

Every graph  $G$  we have seen so far admits a proper 3-coloring, regardless of the sizes of  $V(G)$  and  $E(G)$ . For certain graphs (with large numbers of vertices and edges), indeed, just a few colors suffices to obtain proper coloring. For instance, the famous 4-Color Theorem, which was an open conjecture for quite a while, states that 4 colors suffices to color the regions of any map in such a way that no two regions sharing a border have the same color. The graph modeling the regions of a map and the adjacency/border relations between regions has the property of being *planar*, and we will discuss them in coming lectures. For now, let us finish this subsection illustrating with a very simple example that there are graphs whose vertex colorings have at least as many colors as their numbers of vertices.

**Example 5.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $K_n$  be the complete graph on  $[n]$ . Since any two distinct vertices of  $K_n$  are adjacent, in order to have a proper coloring of  $K_n$  not two vertex can have the same color. From this observation, it follows immediately that  $\chi(K_n) = n$ .

**Chromatic Polynomials.** In this subsection we introduce an important tool to study graph coloring, the chromatic polynomial.

**Proposition 6.** *Let  $G$  be a simple graph with labeled vertices. For every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $p_k$  denote the number of proper  $k$ -coloring of  $G$ . Then there exists a unique polynomial  $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $p(k) = p_k$  for every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

*Proof.* Set  $n := |V(G)|$ . For each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $c_m$  denote the number of proper  $m$ -coloring of  $G$  that use all the  $m$  colors. It is clear that  $c_m = 0$  when  $m > n$ . Observe that, for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , the set of proper  $k$ -coloring of  $G$  can be counted as follows: for each  $m \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$ , we choose in  $\binom{k}{m}$  ways the  $m$  colors that we will actually use in the proper  $k$ -coloring of  $G$  (here  $\binom{k}{m} = 0$  if  $m > k$ ), and then we properly color the vertices of  $G$  using *all* the  $m$  chosen colors in  $c_m$  possible ways. As a result, we obtain that

$$(0.1) \quad p_k = \sum_{m=1}^n \binom{k}{m} c_m.$$

With the identity (0.1) in mind, we now consider the polynomial  $p(x) := \sum_{m=1}^n \binom{x}{m} c_m$ , where  $\binom{x}{m} = \frac{x(x-1)\cdots(x-m+1)}{m!}$ . It is clear that  $p(x)$  is a polynomial with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . In addition, any other polynomial  $q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $q(k) = p_k$  will be equal to  $p(x)$  because they coincide at infinitely many real numbers, namely,  $\mathbb{N}$ .  $\square$

We are in a position now to define the chromatic polynomial of a simple graph.

**Definition 7.** With notation as in Proposition 6, the polynomial  $p(x)$  is called the *chromatic polynomial* of the graph  $G$ .

**Example 8.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $G$  be the graph on  $[n]$  with  $|E(G)| = 0$ . Since there is no adjacency relations in  $G$ , given  $k$  colors, we can choose any of the  $k$  colors for each vertex to obtain a proper  $k$ -coloring. So there is a total of  $k^n$  proper  $k$ -colorings of  $G$ . Hence the chromatic polynomial of  $G$  is  $p(x) = x^n$ .

**Example 9.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $P_n$  be the path graph on  $[n]$  with adjacency relations  $ij$  for any  $i \in [n - 1]$  and  $j = i + 1$ . In order to properly color  $V(P_n)$  using  $k$  color, we can pick any of the  $k$  colors for the vertex 1, any of the  $k - 1$  colors different from that of vertex 1 to color vertex 2, and so on until we have to pick any of the  $k - 1$  colors different from that of vertex  $n - 1$  to color vertex  $n$ . Thus, the chromatic polynomial of  $P_n$  is  $p(x) = x(x - 1)^{n-1}$ .

**Example 10.** For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $K_n$  be the complete graph on  $[n]$ . To properly color  $V(K_n)$  with  $k$  color,  $k$  must be at least  $n$ , in which case, we can use  $k$  color for the vertex 1, then  $k - 1$  color for the vertex 2, and so on until we use  $k - n + 1$  colors for the vertex  $n$ . Therefore the chromatic polynomial of  $K_n$  is

$$p(x) = x(x - 1) \cdots (x - n + 1) = n! \binom{x}{n}.$$

### PRACTICE EXERCISES

**Exercise 1.** Find the chromatic polynomial of a tree with  $n$  vertices.

**Exercise 2.** For  $n_1, n_2, n_3 \in \mathbb{N}$ , find the chromatic number and the chromatic polynomial of the complete tripartite graph  $K_{n_1, n_2, n_3}$  on the parts  $[n_1]$ ,  $[n_1 + n_2] \setminus [n_1]$ , and  $[n_1 + n_2 + n_3] \setminus [n_1 + n_2]$ .

### REFERENCES

- [1] M. Bóna: *A Walk Through Combinatorics: An Introduction to Enumeration and Graph Theory* (Fourth Edition), World Scientific, New Jersey, 2017.

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