# THE CHROMATIC POLYNOMIAL FOR CYCLE GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

Let $P(G, \lambda)$ denote the number of proper vertex colorings of $G$ with $\lambda$ colors. The chromatic polynomial $P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right)$ for the cycle graph $C_{n}$ is well-known as $$
P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right)=(\lambda-1)^{n}+(-1)^{n}(\lambda-1)
$$ for all positive integers $n \geq 1$. Also its inductive proof is widely well-known by the deletioncontraction recurrence. In this paper, we give this inductive proof again and three other proofs of this formula of the chromatic polynomial for the cycle graph $C_{n}$.


## 1. Introduction

The number of proper colorings of a graph with finite colors was introduced only for planar graphs by George David Birkhoff [Bir13] in 1912, in an attempt to prove the four color theorem, where the formula for this number was later called by the chromatic polynomial. In 1932, Hassler Whitney [Whi32] generalized Birkhoff's formula from the planar graphs to general graphs. In 1968, Ronald Cedric Read Rea68 introduced the concept of chromatically equivalent graphs and asked which polynomials are the chromatic polynomials of some graph, that remains open.

Chromatic polynomial. For a graph $G$, a coloring means almost always a (proper) vertex coloring, which is a labeling of vertices of $G$ with colors such that no two adjacent vertices have the same colors. Let $P(G, \lambda)$ denote the number of (proper) vertex colorings of $G$ with $\lambda$ colors and $\chi(G)$ the least number $\lambda$ satisfying $P(G, \lambda)>0$, where $P(G, \lambda)$ and $\chi(G)$ are called a chromatic polynomial and chromatic number of $G$, respectively.

In fact, it is clear that the number of $\lambda$-colorings is a polynomial in $\lambda$ from a deletioncontraction recurrence.

Proposition 1 (Deletion-contraction recurrence). For a given a graph $G$ and an edge $e$ in G, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(G, \lambda)=P(G-e, \lambda)-P(G / e, \lambda) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G-e$ is a graph obtained by deletion the edge $e$ and $G / e$ is a graph obtained by contraction the edge e.

Example. The chromatic polynomials of graphs in Figure 1 are

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(G, \lambda) & =\lambda(\lambda-1)^{2}(\lambda-2) \\
P(G-e, \lambda) & =\lambda^{2}(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2), \text { and } \\
P(G / e, \lambda) & =\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)
\end{aligned}
$$

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Figure 1. $G, G-e$ and $G / e$


Figure 2. $C_{n}(1 \leq n \leq 5)$

It is confirmed that (1) is true for the graph $G$ and the edge $e$ in Figure (1)

Cycle graph. A cycle graph $C_{n}$ is a graph that consists of a single cycle of length $n$, which could be drown by a $n$-polygonal graph in a plane. The chromatic polynomial for cycle graph $C_{n}$ is well-known as follows.

Theorem 2. For a positive integer $n \geq 1$, the chromatic polynomial for cycle graph $C_{n}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right)=(\lambda-1)^{n}+(-1)^{n}(\lambda-1) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example. For an integer $n \leq 3$, it is easily checked that the chromatic polynomials of $C_{n}$ are from (2) as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P\left(C_{1}, \lambda\right)=(\lambda-1)+(-1)(\lambda-1)=0, \\
& P\left(C_{2}, \lambda\right)=(\lambda-1)^{2}+(-1)^{2}(\lambda-1)=\lambda(\lambda-1), \\
& P\left(C_{3}, \lambda\right)=(\lambda-1)^{3}+(-1)^{3}(\lambda-1)=\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) .
\end{aligned}
$$

As shown in Figure 2, the cycle graph $C_{1}$ is a graph with one vertex and one loop and $C_{1}$ cannot be colored, that means $P\left(C_{1}, \lambda\right)=0$. The cycle graph $C_{2}$ is a graph with two vertices, where two edges between two vertices, and $C_{2}$ can have colorings by assigning two vertices with different colors, that means $P\left(C_{2}, \lambda\right)=\lambda(\lambda-1)$. The cycle graph $C_{3}$ is drawn by a triangle and $C_{3}$ can have colorings by assigning all three vertices with different colors, that means $P\left(C_{3}, \lambda\right)=\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)$.

## 2. Four proofs of Theorem 2

In this section, we show the formula (2) in four different ways.


Figure 3. $C_{n+1}, P_{n+1}$ and $C_{n}$
2.1. Inductive proof. This inductive proof is widely well-known. A path graph $P_{n}$ is a connected graph in which $n-1$ edges connect $n$ vertices of vertex degree at most 2 , which could be drawn on a single straight line. The chromatic polynomial for path graph $P_{n}$ is easily obtained by coloring all vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$ where $v_{i}$ and $v_{i+1}$ have different colors for $i=1, \ldots, n-1$.

Lemma 3. For a positive integer $n \geq 1$, the chromatic polynomial for path graph $P_{n}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(P_{n}, \lambda\right)=\lambda(\lambda-1)^{n-1} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We use an induction on the number $n$ of vertices by the deletion-contraction recurrence and the above lemma for path graph: It is already shown that (2) is true for $n \leq 3$ by the example in Section (1). Assume that (2) is true for a positive integer $n$. Using (11) and (3), we have

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
P\left(C_{n+1}, \lambda\right) & =P\left(C_{n+1}-e, \lambda\right)-P\left(C_{n+1} / e, \lambda\right) \\
& =P\left(P_{n+1}, \lambda\right)-P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right) \\
& =\lambda(\lambda-1)^{n}-\left((\lambda-1)^{n}+(-1)^{n}(\lambda-1)\right) \\
& =(\lambda-1)^{n+1}+(-1)^{n+1}(\lambda-1) . & \text { by (1) }
\end{array}
$$

Thus, (2) is true for all positive integers $n \geq 1$.
2.2. Proof by inclusion-exclusion principle. The inclusion-exclusion principle is a technique of counting the size of the union of finite sets.

Proposition 4 (Inclusion-exclusion principle). Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be subsets of a finite set $U$. Then number of elements excluding their union is as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \overline{A_{i}}\right| & =\sum_{I \subset[n]}(-1)^{|I|}\left|\bigcap_{i \in I} A_{i}\right| \\
& =|U|-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|A_{i}\right|+\sum_{i<j}\left|A_{i} \cap A_{j}\right|-\cdots+(-1)^{n}\left|A_{1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{n}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\bar{A}$ is the complement of $A$ in $U$.
Considering every condition to assign different colors to two adjacent vertices, for each edge $e$, we define a finite sets of arbitrary (including improper) colorings to assign same color to two adjacent vertices by the edge $e$.


Figure 4. A cycle graph $C_{5}$ and a graph $K_{4}$ with names of colors

Let $A_{i}$ be a set of colorings such that two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{i+1}$ are of same color, where $v_{n+1}$ is regarded as $v_{1}$. Applying the inclusion-exclusion principle, we can write the following

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right) & =|U|-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|A_{i}\right|+\sum_{i<j}\left|A_{i} \cap A_{j}\right|+\cdots+(-1)^{n}\left|A_{1} \cap \cdots \cap A_{n}\right| \\
& =\lambda^{n}-\binom{n}{1} \lambda^{n-1}+\binom{n}{2} \lambda^{n-2}+\cdots+(-1)^{n-1}\binom{n}{n-1} \lambda+(-1)^{n} \lambda \\
& =(\lambda-1)^{n}-(-1)^{n}+(-1)^{n} \lambda \\
& =(\lambda-1)^{n}+(-1)^{n}(\lambda-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, (2) is true for all positive integers $n \geq 1$.
2.3. Algebric proof. Let us consider a case of $n=5$ and $\lambda=4$, that is, to assign the vertices of $C_{5}$ in four colors: red, blue, yellow, and green. Also let us consider a complete graph $K_{4}$ with vertex names red, blue, yellow, and green, see Figure 4.

When red-blue-red-yellow-green is assigned in order from the vertex $v_{1}$ to the vertex $v_{5}$ in $C_{5}$, it is corresponding to a closed walk of length 5 in $K_{4}$ which begins and ends at red, that is, it is red-blue-red-yellow-green-red in $K_{4}$. By generalizing it, we have a correspondence between $\lambda$-colorings of $C_{n}$ and closed walks of length $n$ in $K_{\lambda}$. By this correspondence, it is enough to count the number of closed walks of length $n$ in $K_{\lambda}$, instead of the number of $\lambda$-colorings of $C_{n}$.

For a graph $G$ with vertex set $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, the adjacency matrix of $G$ is an $n \times n$ square matrix $A$ such that its element $A_{i j}$ is one when there is an edge between two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$, and zero when there is no edge between $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$.

The following related to an adjacency matrix is well-known.
Proposition 5. Let $A$ be the adjacency matrix of the graph $G$ on $n$ vertices $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}$. Then the $(i, j)$ th entry of the matrix $A^{n}$ is the number of the walk of length $n$ beginning at $v_{i}$ and ending at $v_{j}$.


$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Figure 5. A graph $G$ and its adjacency matrix $A$

By Proposition 5, we can calculate the number of closed walk of length $n$ in the complete graph $K_{\lambda}$ : Let $A$ be an adjacency matrix of $K_{\lambda}$. Then $A$ is a $\lambda \times \lambda$ matrix as follows

$$
A=\left(a_{i j}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $a_{i j}=0$ if $i=j$, and otherwise $a_{i j}=1$. So the number of closed walks of length $n$ in $K_{\lambda}$ is enumerated by $\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{n}\right)$, which equals the sum of all eigenvalues of $A^{n}$. Also let all eigenvalues of the matrix $A$ be denoted by $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{\lambda}$, then all eigenvalues of the matrix $A^{n}$ are $u_{1}^{n}, \ldots, u_{\lambda}^{n}$.

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \sim\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
\lambda-1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Since the matrix $A$ have $\lambda$ eigenvalues $u_{1}=\lambda-1$ and $u_{2}=\cdots=u_{\lambda}=-1$, we have

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{n}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\lambda} u_{i}^{n}=(\lambda-1)^{n}+\underbrace{(-1)^{n}+\cdots+(-1)^{n}}_{\lambda-1 \text { times }}
$$

Thus, (2) is true for all positive integers $n \geq 1$.
2.4. Bijective proof. Let $X_{n}$ denote the set of $\lambda$-colorings of $C_{n}$ and $[\lambda-1]^{n}$ be the set of $n$-tuples of positive integers less than $\lambda$, where $[\lambda-1]$ means $\{1, \ldots, \lambda-1\}$. We consider a mapping $\varphi$ from $\lambda$-colorings of $C_{n}$ in $X_{n}$ to $n$-tuples in $[\lambda-1]^{n}$.

A mapping $\varphi$ from $X_{n}$ to $[\lambda-1]^{n}$. The mapping $\varphi: X_{n} \rightarrow[\lambda-1]^{n}$ is defined as follows: Let $\omega$ be a $\lambda$-coloring of $C_{n}$ in $X_{n}$, we write $\omega=\left(\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{n}\right)$ where $\omega_{i}$ is the color of $v_{i}$ in $C_{n}$ and it is obvious that $\omega_{i} \neq \omega_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq \lambda$, where $\omega_{n+1}$ is regarded as $\omega_{1}$. An entry $\omega_{i}$ is called a cyclic descent of $C$ if $\omega_{i}>\omega_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq \lambda$. Then we define $\varphi(\omega)=\sigma=\left(\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}\right)$ with

$$
\sigma_{i}= \begin{cases}\omega_{i}-1, & \text { if } \omega_{i} \text { is a cyclic descent } \\ \omega_{i}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Given a $\lambda$-coloring $\omega$, if $\omega_{i}=\lambda$ then $\omega_{i+1}<\lambda$, so $\omega_{i}=\lambda$ should be a cyclic descent. Thus we have $\sigma_{i}<\lambda$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $\varphi(\omega)$ belongs to $[\lambda-1]^{n}$.

For example, in a case of $n=9$ and $\lambda=4, \omega=(1,2,1,3,2,3,1,4,2) \in X_{9}$ is given as an example of 4 -colorings of $C_{9}$. Here $\omega_{2}=2, \omega_{4}=3, \omega_{6}=3, \omega_{8}=4$, and $\omega_{9}=2$ are cyclic descents of $\omega$. So we have

$$
\varphi(\omega)=\sigma=(1,1,1,2,2,2,1,3,1) \in[3]^{9} .
$$

A mapping $\psi$ as the inverse of $\varphi$. Let $Z_{n}$ be the set of $n$-tuples $\sigma=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}\right)$ in $[\lambda-1]^{n}$ with

$$
\sigma_{1}=\sigma_{2}=\cdots=\sigma_{n}
$$

and it is obvious that the size of $Z_{n}$ is $\lambda-1$.
We would like to describe a mapping $\psi:\left([\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}\right) \rightarrow X_{n}$ in order to satisfy $\varphi \circ \psi$ is the identity on $[\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}$ as follows: Given a $\sigma \in[\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}$, we define $\bar{\sigma}=\left(\bar{\sigma}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{\sigma}_{n}\right)$ with

$$
\bar{\sigma}_{i}= \begin{cases}\sigma_{i}+1, & \text { if } \sigma_{i} \text { is a cyclic descent } \\ \sigma_{i}, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Since $\bar{\sigma}$ may have consecutive same entries, we define $\psi(\sigma)=\omega=\left(\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{n}\right)$ from $\bar{\sigma}$ with $\omega_{i}=\bar{\sigma}_{i}+1$ for any entry $\bar{\sigma}_{i}$ of $\bar{\sigma}$ with a finite positive even integer $\ell$ satisfying

$$
\bar{\sigma}_{i}=\bar{\sigma}_{i+1}=\cdots=\bar{\sigma}_{i+\ell-1} \neq \bar{\sigma}_{i+\ell},
$$

where $\bar{\sigma}_{n+k}$ is regarded as $\bar{\sigma}_{k}$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$, and $\omega_{i}=\bar{\sigma}_{i}$, otherwise. Thus $\omega$ has no consecutive same entries and $1 \leq \omega_{i} \leq \lambda$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, so $\psi(\sigma)=\omega$ belongs to $X_{n}$. Moreover, it is obvious that $\sigma_{i} \leq \omega_{i} \leq \sigma_{i}+1$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and if $\omega_{i}=\sigma_{i}+1$ for some $1 \leq i \leq n$ then $\omega_{i}$ is a cyclic descent in $\omega$. Hence $\varphi(\omega)=\sigma$ and $\sigma \in[\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}$ if and only if $\psi(\sigma)=\omega$.

In a previous example, $\sigma=(1,1,1,2,2,2,1,3,1)$ is denoted as an example of 9 -tuples in $[3]^{9}$. Here $\sigma_{6}=2, \sigma_{8}=3$ are cyclic descents of $\sigma$ and we obtain $\bar{\sigma}=(1,1,1,2,2,3,1,4,1)$. And then there exist only three entries $\bar{\sigma}_{2}, \bar{\sigma}_{4}$, and $\bar{\sigma}_{9}$ in $\bar{\sigma}$ satisfying the following

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
k=2: & \bar{\sigma}_{2}=\bar{\sigma}_{3} \neq \bar{\sigma}_{4} \quad(\ell=2), \\
k=4: & \bar{\sigma}_{4}=\bar{\sigma}_{5} \neq \bar{\sigma}_{6} \quad(\ell=2), \text { and } \\
k=9: & \bar{\sigma}_{9}=\bar{\sigma}_{1}=\bar{\sigma}_{2}=\bar{\sigma}_{3} \neq \bar{\sigma}_{4} \quad(\ell=4),
\end{array}
$$

so we get $\omega_{2}=\bar{\sigma}_{2}+1=2, \omega_{4}=\bar{\sigma}_{4}+1=3, \omega_{9}=\bar{\sigma}_{9}+1=2$, and

$$
\psi(\sigma)=\omega=(1,2,1,3,2,3,1,4,2) \in X_{9} .
$$

Let $Y_{n}$ be the set of $\lambda$-colorings $\omega$ in $X_{n}$ with $\varphi(\omega) \in Z_{n}$. Since two mapping $\varphi$ and $\psi$ are bijections between $X_{n} \backslash Y_{n}$ and $[\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}$, the size of the set $X_{n} \backslash Y_{n}$ is same with the size of the $[\lambda-1]^{n} \backslash Z_{n}$, which is equal to $(\lambda-1)^{n}-(\lambda-1)$.

When $n$ is even, for any $1 \leq i \leq \lambda-1$, there exist only two $n$-tuples in $X_{n}$

$$
\omega=(i+1, i, i+1, i, \ldots, i+1, i) \quad \text { and } \quad \omega=(i, i+1, i, i+1, \ldots, i, i+1)
$$

satisfying $\varphi(\omega)=(i, i, \ldots, i) \in Z_{n}$. If $n$ is even, the size of $Y_{n}$ is equal to $2(\lambda-1)$ and we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right) & =\left|X_{n}\right|=\left|X_{n} \backslash Y_{n}\right|+\left|Y_{n}\right| \\
& =\left[(\lambda-1)^{n}-(\lambda-1)\right]+2(\lambda-1) . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

When $n$ is odd, there is no $n$-tuples satisfying $\varphi(\omega) \in Z_{n}$ and the set $Y_{n}$ is empty. If $n$ is odd, we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left(C_{n}, \lambda\right) & =\left|X_{n}\right|=\left|X_{n} \backslash Y_{n}\right|+\left|Y_{n}\right| \\
& =\left[(\lambda-1)^{n}-(\lambda-1)\right]+0 . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, (2) yields from (4) and (5) for all positive integers $n \geq 1$.

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