

The chromatic polynomial (not in book)

(Birkhoff & Lewis 1946)

In an attempt to prove the 4-color theorem, they defined...

DEFIN: $\chi(G, k) = \#$ of proper vertex k -colorings of G
the chromatic polynomial of G

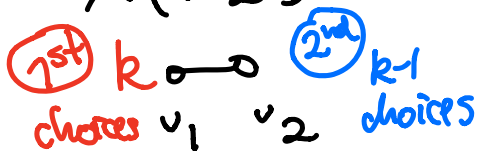
(so $\chi(G, k) \neq 0 \iff \chi(G) \leq k$)

EXAMPLES:

① Complete graphs K_n

$$\chi(K_n, k) = k$$

$$\chi(K_2, k) = k(k-1)$$

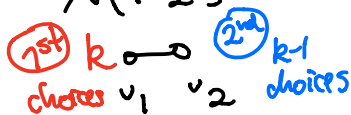


In particular, if one could show $\chi(G, 4) \neq 0$ for planar G this would prove the 4-color theorem.

EXAMPLES:

① Complete graphs K_n
 $X(K_n, k) = k$

$X(K_2, k) = k(k-1)$

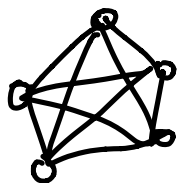


$X(K_3, k) = k(k-1)(k-2)$

K_3

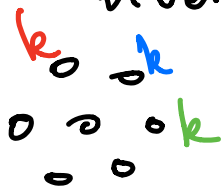
$X(K_n, k) = k(k-1)(k-2) \dots (k-(n-1))$

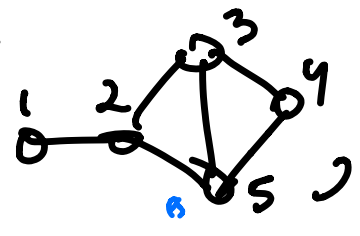
e.g. $X(K_5, k) = k(k-1)(k-2)(k-3)(k-4)$

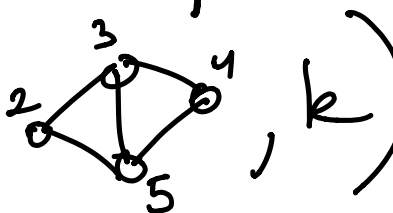


$\left. \begin{array}{l} \downarrow \\ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \end{array} \right\} \text{evaluate at } k=1, 2, 3, 4$
 \circ
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \downarrow \\ \downarrow \end{array} \right\} \text{evaluate it at } k \geq n$
 $n! \binom{k}{n} = \frac{k!}{(k-n)!}$

② G has no edges, has $X(G, k) = k^n$
 n vertices

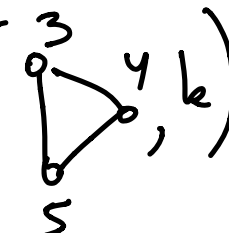


$$\textcircled{3} \chi(G, k) = ?$$


$$= (k-1) \cdot \chi(G - \{1\}, k)$$


$G - \{1\}$

of choices
for coloring
vertex 1,
given any
proper k -coloring
of $G - \{1\}$

$$= (k-1)(k-2) \chi(G - \{1, 2\}, k)$$


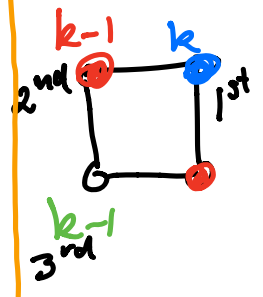
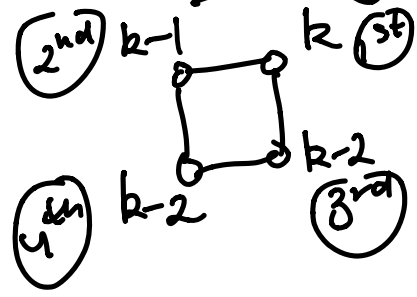
of
choices
for coloring
vertex 2
given any
coloring
of $G - \{1, 2\}$

$$= (k-1)(k-2)(k-2) \chi(G - \{1, 2, 3\}, k)$$

$$= (k-1)(k-2)(k-2)(k-1) \cdot k$$

$$= k(k-1)^2(k-2)^2$$

④ $\chi(\square, k) = \# \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{proper } k \\ \text{colourings with} \\ a, b \text{ colored} \\ \text{differently} \end{array} \right\} + \# \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{those} \\ \text{with} \\ a, b \\ \text{colored} \\ \text{same} \end{array} \right\}$



$$= k(k-1)(k-2)^2 + k(k-1)(k-1)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$= k^4 - 4k^3 + 6k^2 - 3k$$

a polynomial in k .

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PROPOSITION (Birkhoff & Lewis 1946)

Let $G = (V, E)$, $n = \#V$

easy! ① $\chi(G, k) = 0$ if G has any loops

② If e is a non-loop edge in G , then

$$\chi(G, k) = \chi(\underset{\substack{\text{deletion} \\ \text{of } e}}{G - e}, k) - \chi(\underset{\substack{\text{contraction} \\ \text{on } e}}{G/e}, k)$$

③ If G has no loops, $\chi(G, k)$ is a polynomial in k , thought of as a variable, of the following form:

$$\chi(G, k) = k^n - (\#E)k^{n-1} + a_{n-2}k^{n-2} - a_{n-3}k^{n-3} + \dots \pm a_c k^c$$

where $c := \#$ of connected components in G

and $a_i > 0$ for $i = c, c+1, \dots, n-2$

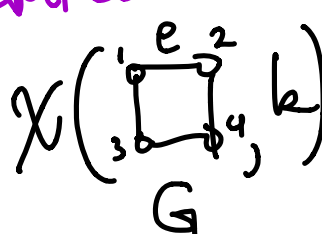
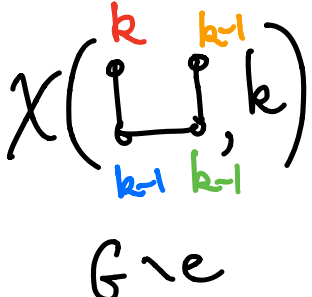
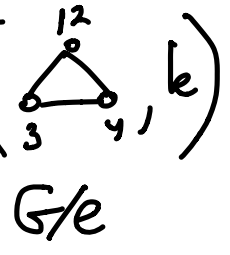
EXAMPLE

$n=4$
 $\#E=4$

$$\chi\left(\begin{array}{c} a \\ \square \\ b \end{array}, k\right) = k^4 - 4k^3 + 6k^2 - 3k^1$$

$c=1$ connected component

EXAMPLE

$$\chi(G, k) = \chi(G \setminus e, k) - \chi(G/e, k)$$




$$\begin{aligned}
 &= k(k-1)(k-1) - k(k-1)(k-2) \\
 &= k(k-1)^3 - k(k-1)(k-2) \\
 &= k(k-1)[(k-1)^2 - (k-2)] \\
 &= k(k-1)[k^2 - 3k + 3] \\
 &= k^4 - 4k^3 + 6k^2 - 3k \quad \checkmark
 \end{aligned}$$

proof of:

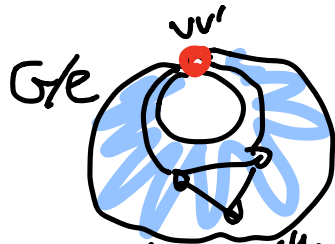
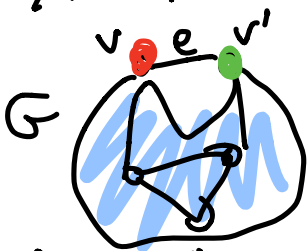
② If $e = \{v, v'\}$ is a non-loop edge in G , then

$$\chi(G, k) = \chi(G \setminus e, k) - \chi(G/e, k)$$

deletion of e
contraction on e

It's equivalent to show:

$$\chi(G \setminus e, k) = \chi(G, k) + \chi(G/e, k)$$



$\{\text{proper } k\text{-colorings of } G \setminus e\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{those with } v, v' \text{ colored} \\ \text{differently} \end{array} \right\} \hookrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{those with} \\ v, v' \text{ colored} \\ \text{same} \end{array} \right\}$

$$\chi(G, k) = \chi(G \setminus e, k) - \chi(G/e, k)$$

deletion of e contraction on e

if G has no loops,
 ③ $\chi(G, k)$ is a polynomial in k ,
 thought of as a variable,
 of the following form:

$$\chi(G, k) = k^n - (\#E)k^{n-1} + a_{n-2}k^{n-2} - a_{n-3}k^{n-3} + \dots \pm a_c k^c$$

where $c := \#$ of connected components in G
 and $a_i > 0$ for $i = c, c+1, \dots, n-2$

proof of ③: Induction on $\#E$.

BASE CASE: $\#E = 0$



$c = n$
 $\#E = 0$

$$\chi(G, k) = k^n$$

$$= k^n - 0 \cdot k^{n-1} + 0 \cdot k^{n-2} - \dots \pm$$

fits the pattern in ③.

INDUCTIVE STEP: Assume G has some nonloop edge e

$$\chi(G, k) = \chi(G \setminus e, k) - \chi(G/e, k)$$

use induction on $\#E$

where $a'_i, a''_j > 0$

where

$$c'' = c \leq c'$$

$c(G \setminus e)$ $c(G)$ $c(G/e)$

$$= k^n - (\#E - 1)k^{n-1} + a'_{n-2}k^{n-2} - \dots \pm a'_{c'}k^{c'}$$

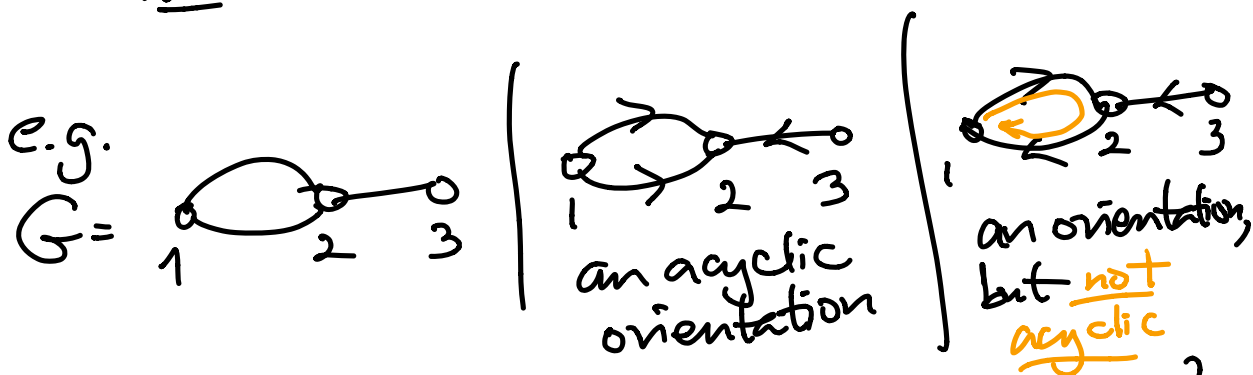
$$- (k^{n-1} - a''_{n-2}k^{n-2} + \dots \pm a''_{c''}k^{c''})$$

$$= k^n - (\#E)k^{n-1} + a_{n-2}k^{n-2} - a_{n-3}k^{n-3} + \dots \pm a_c k^c \quad \square$$

Acyclic orientations and the (-1)-color theorem

(not in book)

DEFIN: If $G = (V, E)$ is undirected, then an orientation ω of G is a choice of orientation for each edge $e = \{v, v'\}$ either as $v \rightarrow v'$ or $v' \rightarrow v$ to make a directed graph $D = (V, A)$ from G . It's an acyclic orientation if it has no directed cycles.



Let $\Omega(G) := \{ \text{all acyclic orientations } \omega \text{ of } G \}$

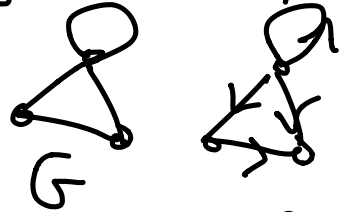
Q: What $\# \Omega(G)$?

EXAMPLES:

① $\Omega(G) = 0 \iff G$ has a loop.

\Leftarrow
EASY

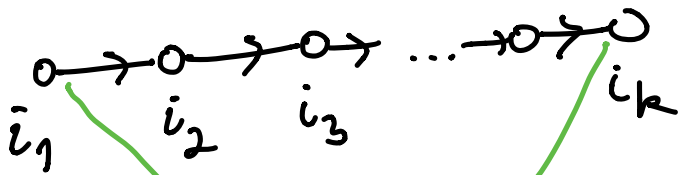
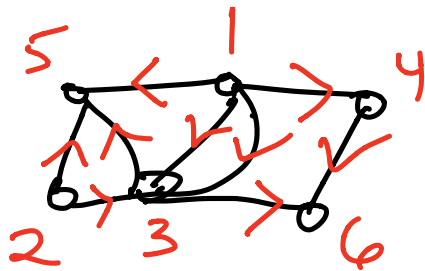
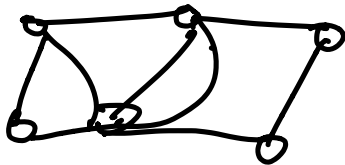
G has a loop



To see why a loopless G has some orientation, number the vertices $1, 2, \dots, n$ and orient edges $i \rightarrow j$ with $i < j$

as $i \rightarrow j$

$G =$

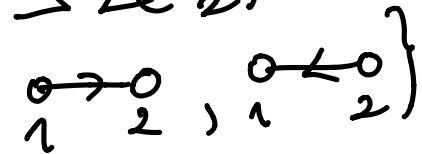


~~can't happen~~
since $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k$
so $i_k \not< i_1$

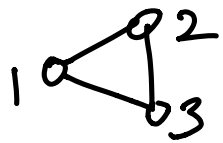
② Complete graphs K_n

$\# \Omega(K_1) = 1 = 1!$

$\# \Omega(K_2) = 2 = 2!$ $\Omega(K_2) =$



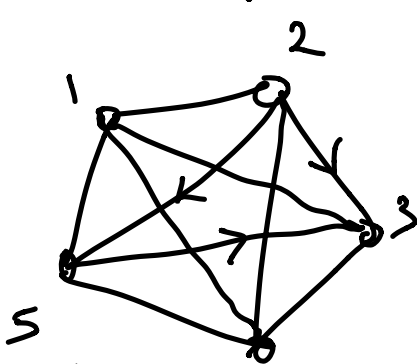
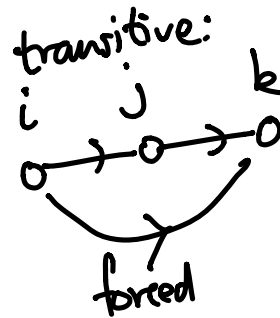
$\# \Omega(K_3) = 2^3 - 2 = 6 = 3!$



$\# \Omega(K_n) = \# \text{linear orderings of } V = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$

$= n!$

not obvious!



EXERCISE:

Show \exists some i with $i \rightarrow j$ for all j , and induct to get a linear ordering on $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \Omega(\text{graph}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} \text{graph 1} & \text{graph 2} \\ \text{graph 3} & \text{graph 4} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\#\Omega(\text{graph}) = 4$$



PROPOSITION: Assume e is a non-loop of G .

$$\text{Then } \#\Omega(G) = \#\Omega(G \setminus e) + \#\Omega(G/e)$$

proof: Consider any acyclic orientation w of $G \setminus e$.
 How many ways can I extend w by choosing a direction on e to get an acyclic orientation of G .

2 ways, in principle, are possible:



$G \setminus e$



possible exactly when w has no $v' \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v$ path



possible exactly when w has no $v \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v'$ path



2 ways, in principle, are possible:



possible exactly when ω has no $v' \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v$ path

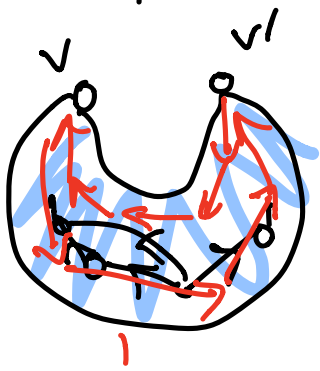


possible exactly when ω has no $v \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v'$ path

Sometimes, ω can only be directed one way, either $v \rightarrow v'$ or $v' \rightarrow v$

Can one ever have 0 ways?

No, because one would need both obstructions present in ω on $G - e$



Now, calculate with:
 $\alpha_1 = \#$ acyc. orientations of $G - e$ that extend 1 way only
 $\alpha_2 = \#$ acyc. orientations of $G - e$ that extend both ways.
 $= \#$ acyc. orientations of $G - e$

THINK ABOUT IT!

Now, calculate with:
 $\alpha_1 = \#$ acyc. orientations of $G \setminus e$
 that extend 1 way only

$\alpha_2 = \#$ acyc. orientations of $G \setminus e$
 that extend both ways.

THINK ABOUT IT!
 $\alpha_2 = \#$ acyc. orientations of G/e

$$\# \Omega(G) = \alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2$$

$$\# \Omega(G \setminus e) = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$\# \Omega(G/e) = \alpha_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \# \Omega(G) = \# \Omega(G \setminus e) + \# \Omega(G/e)$$

COROLLARY (Stanley's "(-1)-color theorem")

$$\# \Omega(G) = (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, -1)$$

proof: Induct on $\#E$.

BASE CASE $\#E = 0$

$$\# \Omega(G) = 1$$

$$\chi(G, k) = k^n$$

$$(-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, -1) = (-1)^n \cdot (-1)^n = 1$$

0 0
0 0
0

COROLLARY (Stanley's (-1) -color theorem)

$$\# \Omega(G) = (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, -1)$$

proof: Induct on $\#E$.

BASE CASE
 $\# \Omega(G) = 1$

$$\#E = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, k) &= k^n \\ (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, -1) &= (-1)^n \cdot (-1)^n = 1 \end{aligned}$$

INDUCTIVE STEP: Pick a nonloop edge e ,

$$\# \Omega(G) = \# \Omega(G \setminus e) + \# \Omega(G/e)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{by induction}}{=} (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G \setminus e, -1) + (-1)^{\#V-1} \chi(G/e, -1)$$

$$= (-1)^{\#V} \left[\chi(G \setminus e, -1) - \chi(G/e, -1) \right]$$

$$= (-1)^{\#V} \chi(G, -1) \quad \square$$

EXAMPLES:

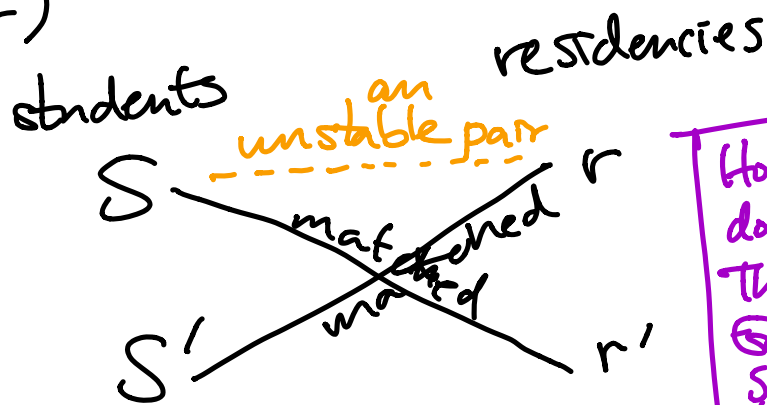
$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{1} \quad \chi(K_n, k) &= k(k-1)(k-2) \dots (k-(n-1)) \\ (-1)^{\#V} \chi(K_n, -1) &= (-1)^n (-1)(-2)(-3) \dots (-n) = n! \\ &= \# \Omega(K_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \chi(\text{figure}, k) = k(k-1)^2 \quad (-1)^3 \chi(\text{figure}, -1) = (-1)^3 (-1)(-2)^2 = 4$$

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Stable matchings

Example: The National Residency Matching Program (NRMP) matches graduating medical students to residency program slots, each with lists of preferences for each other, so that things are stable in the sense that one avoids a matched pair (S, r)



but S prefers r to r'
and r prefers S to S'

How do they do this?
They used Gale-Shapley algorithm (1962) since 1952!

REMARK: Also used in NYC school system for 8th graders and high school slots.

[In 2012, Alvin Roth & Lloyd Shapley got Econ Nobel Prize for their work on stable matchings.]

Let's make some assumptions, then fix them later.

Assume n students and n residency slots.

Assume each linearly orders all n of the otherside.

EXAMPLE: Cosmetic pulmonology has only 4 slots, 4 students (A, B, C, D)

U. Minn. has two slots m_1, m_2

Rochester-Mayo has 1 slot r

Harvard has 1 slot h

with these preferences...

EXAMPLE: Cosmetic pulmonology has only 4 slots, 4 students (A, B, C, D)

U. Minn. has two slots m_1, m_2
 Rochester-Mayo has 1 slot r
 Harvard has 1 slot h
 with these preferences...

preferences

A: m_1, m_2, r, h

B: m_1, m_2, h, r

C: m_1, m_2, r, h

D: r, m_1, m_2, h

$m_1: A, B, C, D, \Omega$

$m_2: A, B, C, D, \Omega$

$r: B, A, D, C, \Omega$

$h: B, C, A, D, \Omega$

Same since both U. Minn.

fake horrible student $\Omega = \text{Dr. Jekyll}$

The algorithm starts with "conditional matchings"

$\Omega - m_1$

$\Omega - m_2$

$\Omega - r$

$\Omega - h$

(all matched to Ω)

In a cycle of the algorithm, a proposer S starts out being unmatched and proposes to the highest residency r left on their list.

If r was matched to S' that they prefer to S then they reject S , who crosses r off their list, and continues as proposer.

If r was matched to S' that they like worse than S , then they reject S' , who crosses r off their list, r conditionally matches with S , and S' becomes the new proposer.

The cycle ends when Ω is rejected (and doesn't cross off anyone,) doesn't become proposer.

The number k of non-Jekyll-matched slots increases by 1.

Algorithm stops in n cycles, when $k=n$.

|

A: m_1, m_2, r, h	$m_1: A, B, C, D, \Omega$
B: m_1, m_2, h, r	$m_2: A, B, C, D, \Omega$
C: m_1, m_2, r, h	$r: B, A, D, C, \Omega$
D: r, m_1, m_2, h	$h: B, C, A, D, \Omega$

Cycle 1: $S=A$ proposes to m_1 , rejecting Ω
 proposer cycle over, with

A - m_1
 Ω - m_2
 Ω - r
 Ω - h

Cycle 2: $S=B$ proposes to m_1 ,
 who rejects B, as m_1 prefers A.
 B crosses m_1 off their list
 $S=B$ proposes to m_2 , who says
 conditional yes, rejecting Ω .
 Cycle over, with

A - m_1
 B - m_2
 Ω - r
 Ω - h

A: m_1, m_2, r, h	$m_1: A, B, C, D, \Omega$
B: m_1, m_2, h, r	$m_2: A, B, C, D, \Omega$
C: m_1, m_2, r, h	$r: B, A, D, C, \Omega$
D: r, m_1, m_2, h	$h: B, C, A, D, \Omega$

Cycle 3: $S=C$ proposes to m_1 , rejected
 $S=C$ proposes to m_2 , rejected
 $S=C$ proposes to r ,
 conditionally accepted
 + rejecting Ω

Cycle over, with

A — m_1
 B — m_2
 C — r
 Ω — h

Cycle 4: $S=D$ proposes to r , who conditionally
 accepts them, rejecting C.
 $S=C$ proposes to h , who accepts,
 rejecting Ω .

Cycle over with

A — m_1
 B — m_2
 D — r
 C — h

Does it work?

PROP: The algorithm never gets stuck,
no student runs out of their list,
and it finishes in $n^2 + n$ steps (proposals).

proof: Notice that only Ω can be
matched to multiple slots. So if a
student S has crossed every slot off their
list, then each of those slots rejected S
and is matched to some real student
and there are only $n-1$ other real students.

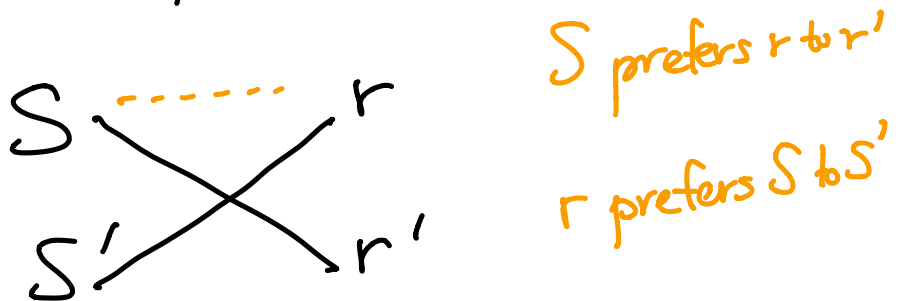
There are at most $n^2 + n$ proposals
since n of them end up with Ω being
rejected, and all of the other proposals
cause a slot to be crossed off
someone's list. There are $\leq n \cdot n$
positions to cross off. \square

PROP: The matching produced is stable.

proof: KEY OBSERVATION:

- A residency slot's match only improves over time.
- A student's match only gets worse over time.

Now suppose we ended up with an unstable pair: (S, r)



S must never have proposed to r
during the algorithm since the
KEY OBSERVATION says r only saw
proposals from students it liked less than S' .
Since S matched with r' , it must have
crossed r off its list at some point, so S
did propose to r . contradiction \square

REMARK: Gale & Shapley pointed
(1962)
out that nonbipartite graphs & preferences
("the roommate problem")
can have no stable matchings

EXAMPLE:

1, 2, 3, 4 people

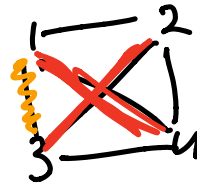
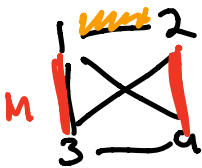
1 likes 2 best

2 likes 3 best

3 likes 1 best

and everybody hates 4, likes them worst.

No matching is stable:



unstable
pair

The Gale-Shapley matching result has an interesting characterization:

THEOREM:

Let S, r be matched in Gale-Shapley
proposers, rejectors/acceptors

Then in any other stable matching M_1 ,

(i) if S is matched to some r' in M_1 ,
then S prefers r to r'
(or r is at least as good as r')

(ii) if r is matched to S' in M_1 ,
then r prefers S' to S
(or S' is at least as good as S)

In other words, Gale-Shapley gives,
among all stable matchings,

- the worst outcome for all residencies r
- the best outcome for all students S .