

# Combinatorial Theory

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## 1 Chapter 1

### 1.1 Permutations, Subsets, Multisets

**Example 1.1.1.** Suppose  $n$  people give their  $n$  hats to a hat check. Let  $g(n)$  be the number ways hats could be given back so no person receives their own hat.

Answer.

$$g(n) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(-1)^i n!}{i!}.$$

□

**Example 1.1.2.** Let  $h(n)$  be the number of domino tilings of a  $2 \times n$  rectangle using  $2 \times 1$  rectangles.

Answer. 1. For all  $n \geq 3$ ,  $h(n) = h(n-1) + h(n-2)$ .

2. Using rational generating function associated to linear recurrence relations:

$$h(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \left( \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} - \left( \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} \right).$$

□

**Definition 1.1.3.** Let  $S$  be a finite set. A  $k$ -permutation of  $S$  is a sequence  $(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k)$  as long as  $k \leq |s|$ .

The number of  $k$ -permutation of  $[n]$  is

$$n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}, \quad \text{denoted by } (n)_k \text{ or falling factorial.}$$

**Definition 1.1.4.** Let  $\binom{n}{k}$  denote the number of subsets of  $[n]$  of size  $k$ .

**Theorem 1.1.5** (Sagan 1.3.2).

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} = \frac{(n)_k}{k!}.$$

**Theorem 1.1.6** (Sagan 1.3.3). *We have*

1.

$$\binom{0}{0} = 1 \quad \binom{0}{k} = 0.$$

2.

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}.$$

3.

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$$

4.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = 2^n.$$

5.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0 \\ 0, & n \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$

## 1.2 Generating Functions

Given a numerical sequence

$$a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$$

The ordinary generating function is

$$A(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n.$$

Note:  $k[[x]]$  is a local ring.

Claim:  $A(x)$  is invertible if and only if  $a_0 \neq 0$ .

Let

$$A_m(x) = \sum_{n=0}^m x^n.$$

Then

$$A(x)(1-x) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} A_m(x)(1-x) = 1.$$

Two generating functions are the same if they converge to each other.

**Theorem 1.2.1 (Binomial Theorem).**

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{n}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k = (1+x)^n.$$

We first do some disambiguating. We use multivariables instead of just one.

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x_1)(1+x_2) \cdots (1+x_n) &= \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k \leq n} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_k} \\ &= \sum_{T \subseteq [n]} \prod_{i \in T} x_i \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k \end{aligned}$$

**Definition 1.2.2.** Let  $\alpha$  be any complex number,  $k$  non-negative integer. We define

$$\binom{\alpha}{k} = \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) \cdots (\alpha-k+1)}{k!}.$$

Consider the generating function of  $\binom{-3}{k}$ .

$$\binom{-3}{0} = 1, \binom{-3}{1} = -3, \binom{-3}{2} = 6, \binom{-3}{3} = -10, \dots$$

First note that

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} \binom{-3}{n} x^n = \sum_{n \geq 0} (-1)^n \frac{(n+2)(n+1)}{2} x^n.$$

Then do some differentiation to  $\frac{1}{1-x}$  we'll eventually be

$$(1+x)^{-3}.$$

**Theorem 1.2.3** (Generalized Binomial Theorem).

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{\alpha}{k} x^k = (1+x)^\alpha.$$

This could be proved/shown by doing Taylor series expansions.

**Definition 1.2.4.**  $n$  multichoose  $k$  is the number of ways of choosing a multiset from  $[n]$  of size  $k$ . Denoted by

$$\left( \binom{n}{k} \right).$$

**Example 1.2.5.**

$$\left( \binom{3}{2} \right) = \# \{11, 12, 13, 22, 23, 33\} = 6.$$

**Theorem 1.2.6.**

$$\left( \binom{n}{k} \right) = \binom{n+k-1}{k}.$$

**Theorem 1.2.7.**

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \left( \binom{n}{k} \right) x^k = (1-x)^{-n} \quad \text{or} \quad \left( \frac{1}{1-x} \right)^n.$$

Recall  $h(n)$  is the number of tilings of a  $2 \times n$  rectangle.

$$\begin{aligned} h(n) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{n}{2}} \binom{n-k}{k} \\ H(x) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} h(n) x^n \\ H(x) &= \frac{1}{1-x-x^2} \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.1.13, 1.1.15 from Stanley.

**Definition 1.2.8.** A *composition* of  $[n]$  is an ordered sum of positive integers that sum to  $n$ . *k-composition* has exactly  $k$  parts.

The number of  $k$ -compositions of  $[n]$  is  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$  and the number of compositions is  $2^{n-1}$ .

**Definition 1.2.9.** *Multinomial coefficients* are

$$\binom{n}{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m} = \frac{n!}{a_1! a_2! \dots a_m!} = \binom{n}{a_1} \binom{n-a_1}{a_2} \dots \binom{n-a_1-\dots-a_{m-1}}{a_m}$$

**Definition 1.2.10.** A permutation written in *cycle notation*:

1. each cycle has the largest element first
2. cycles arranged in increasing order by 1-st element.

**Definition 1.2.11.** Given  $w \in S_n$ , let  $c_i(w)$  be the number of  $i$ -cycles in  $w$ . We define *cycle type* of  $w$  to be  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$ .

**Proposition 1.2.12.** *The number of permutations in  $S_n$  with cycle type  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$  is equal to*

$$\frac{n!}{1^{c_1} c_1! 2^{c_2} c_2! \dots n^{c_n} c_n!}.$$

**Definition 1.2.13.** We define *cycle index polynomial* of  $S_n$  to be

$$Z_n(t_1, \dots, t_n) := \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{w \in S_n} t^{\text{type}(w)}$$

**Theorem 1.2.14.**

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} z_n x^n = \exp(t_1 x + t_2 \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots) = \exp\left(\sum_{n \geq 1} t_n \frac{x^n}{n}\right).$$

### 1.3 Stirling Numbers

Stanely 1.3, 1.9

Segan 1.4, 1.5

Recall

$$z_n(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{w \in S_n} t^{\text{type}(w)}.$$

**Definition 1.3.1.** Let  $c(n, k)$  be the number of permutations  $w$  of  $S_n$  with exactly  $k$  cycles.

**Proposition 1.3.2** (Prop 1.3.7).

$$\sum_{k=0}^n c(n, k) t^k = t(t+1)(t+2) \dots (t+n-1).$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^n c(n, k) t^k \right) \frac{x^n}{n!} &= \exp \left( t \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} \right) \\
&= \exp \left( t \log \left( \frac{1}{1-x} \right) \right) \\
&= \exp \left( \log(1-x)^{-t} \right) \\
&= (1-x)^{-t} \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \binom{-t}{n} x^n \\
&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{t(t+1)(t+2) \cdots (t+n-1) x^n}{n!}
\end{aligned}$$

□

**Lemma 1.3.3** (Lem 1.3.6). *The  $c(n, k)$ 's satisfy the recurrence*

$$c(n, k) = (n-1)c(n-1, k) + c(n-1, k-1)$$

for  $n, k \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Building up an permutation. Build one in  $S_n$  using one in  $S_{n-1}$ .

1. Our perm  $w \in S_n$  has  $n$  as a fixed point: has  $(n)$  as a 1-cycle. Build the rest of  $w$  by any permutation of  $S_{n-1}$  with  $(k-1)$  cycles.
2. Our permutation  $w \in S_n$  has element  $n$  in a cycle of length  $\geq 2$ . Build by drawing diagram of a perm on  $S_{n-1}$  and changing one arrow.

□

**Definition 1.3.4.** We define the *stirling number of first kind* to be

$$s(n, k) = (-1)^{n-k} c(n, k).$$

**Definition 1.3.5.** We define the *stirling number of second kind* to be

$$s(n, k) = \text{number of set of partition of } [n] \text{ into } k \text{ blocks.}$$

**Theorem 1.3.6** (Thm 1.4.2 Segal).

$$s(0, k) = \delta_{0,k} = \begin{cases} 1, & k = 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

and

$$s(n, k) = s(n-1, k) + ks(n-1, k-1) \text{ for } n, k \geq 1.$$

**Definition 1.3.7.** Let  $B(n)$  be the number of set partitions of  $[n]$  regardless of the number of blocks.

$$B(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n s(n, k).$$

**Theorem 1.3.8** (Theorem 1.4.1).  $B(n)$  is defined by  $B(0) = 1, B(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k-1} B(n-k)$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

## 1.4 Twelve Fold Way

Stanley 1.9

## 1.5 Integer Partitions

Let lowercase  $p(n)$  equals the number of Partitions of size  $n$ . Let  $p(n, k)$  be the number of partitions of  $n$  with  $\leq k$  parts, which Stanley denotes as  $p_k(n)$ .

**Theorem 1.5.1** (Theorem 1.6.2).  $p(n, k)$  defined by

$$p(0, k) = \begin{cases} 0, & k < 0 \\ 1, & k \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad p(n, k) = p(n - k, k) + p(n, k - 1).$$

## 1.6 Permutation Statistics

Stanley 1.3-1.4 Sagan 3.2

**Theorem 1.6.1** (Sagan Theorem 3.2.1).

$$\sum_{w \in S_n} q^{\text{inv}(w)} = (1)(1+q)(1+q+q^2) \cdots (1+q+q^2+\cdots+q^{n-1}) = [n]_q!.$$

**Definition 1.6.2.** The inversion table  $I(w)$  for a permutation  $W \in S_n$  is

$$I(w) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n),$$

such that  $b_i$  is the number of  $(j, i)$  such that  $i < j, w^{-1}(j) < w^{-1}(i)$ .

**Proposition 1.6.3** (Cor 1.3.13).

$$\sum_{w \in S_n} q^{\text{inv}(w)} = \sum_{b_1=0}^{n-1} \sum_{b_2=0}^{n-2} \cdots \sum_{b_{n-1}=0}^1 \sum_{b_n=0}^0 q^{b_1+b_2+\cdots+b_n}.$$

This also equivalent to

$$\sum_{w \in S_n} q^{\text{inv}(w)} = \left( \sum_{b_1=0}^{n-1} q^{b_1} \right) \left( \sum_{b_2=0}^{n-2} q^{b_2} \right) \cdots \left( \sum_{b_n=0}^0 q^{b_n} \right) = [n]_q [n-1]_q \cdots [2]_q [1]_q.$$

**Definition 1.6.4.** We say *descents* of  $w$  as  $i$  such that  $w_i > w_{i+1}$ .

**Definition 1.6.5.** We say *major index* of  $w$  as

$$\text{maj}(w) = \sum_{i \in \text{Des}(w)} i.$$

**Theorem 1.6.6** (Sagan Thm 3.2.2).

$$\sum_{w \in S_n} q^{\text{maj}(w)} = [n]_q!.$$

**Definition 1.6.7.** Given a permutation  $w$ , we define  $\text{des}(w)$  to be the number of descents of  $w$ . The generating function is

$$A_n(x) := \sum_{w \in S_n} x^{1+\text{des}(w)}$$

**Definition 1.6.8.**  $\text{exceedance}$  of a permutation is

$$\text{exc}(w) := \{i \mid i < w(i)\}.$$

and  $\text{weak exceedance}$  is

$$\text{wexc}(w) := \{i \mid i \leq w(i)\}.$$

**Proposition 1.6.9** (Sagan 4.2.3).

$$A_n(x) = \sum_{w \in S_n} x^{1+\text{exc}(w)} = \sum_{w \in S_n} x^{\text{wexc}(w)}.$$

**Theorem 1.6.10** (3.2.6 Sagan). If  $V$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  where  $q = p^k$  for a prime  $p$ , of dimension  $n$ , then the number of  $k$ -dimensional subspaces of  $V$  is  $\binom{n}{k}_{q=p^k}$ .

## 1.7 Euler's Pentagonal Number Theorem

**Theorem 1.7.1.**

$$\prod_{k \geq 1} (1 - x^k) = 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} (-1)^n x^{\frac{n(3n-1)}{2}} + \sum_{n \geq 1} (-1)^n x^{\frac{n(3n+1)}{2}}.$$

*Proof.* See Stanley Page 76. □

## 2

### 2.1 Ferrers Boards

**Theorem 2.1.1** (Stanley Thm 2.4.1). Let  $\sum r_k x^k$  be the rook polynomial of the Ferrers board  $B$  of shape  $(b_1, \dots, b_m)$ . Set  $s_i = b_i - i + 1$ . Then

$$\sum_k r_k \cdot (x)_{m-k} = \prod_{i=1}^m (x + s_i).$$

**Corollary 2.1.2** (Stanley Cor 2.4.2). Let  $B$  be the triangular board (or staircase) of shape  $(0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1)$ . Then  $r_k = S(m, m-k)$ , the 2nd Stirling number, the number of set partitions of  $[m]$  into  $(m-k)$  blocks.

Sagan sec 2.2 and 2.4

**Definition 2.1.3.** Given a set  $S$ , a function  $f \rightarrow f$  is an  $\text{involution}$  iff  $f \circ f = \text{id} : S \rightarrow S$ .



**Definition 2.1.4.**  $f : S \rightarrow S$  is *sign-reversing involution* if  $\text{sgn}(f(s)) = -\text{sgn}(s)$  unless  $s$  is a fixed point.

Then

$$\sum_{s \in S} \text{sgn}(s) = \sum_{s \in \text{Fix}(f)} \text{sgn}(s).$$

Section 2.4, Andre's reflection principle.

## 2.2 Lindström–Gessel–Viennot lemma

Given an  $n \times n$  matrix  $M = (m_{ij})$ . We can represent it in a directed weighted and bipartite graph with vertices  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  and  $B_1, \dots, B_n$ , and edges  $A_i \rightarrow B_j$  with weight  $m_{ij}$ .

**Definition 2.2.1.** A *path* in a graph is a sequence  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 \cdots e_n v_n$ .

The goal is to give a combinatorial interpretation for matrix determinant in terms of these graphs.

**Definition 2.2.2.** The *determinant* of a matrix  $M$  is

$$\det(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) m_{1\sigma(1)} \cdots m_{n\sigma(n)}.$$

Recall  $\text{sgn}(\sigma) = (-1)^{\# \text{inv}(\sigma)}$ .

A *path system*  $\mathcal{P}$  with permutation  $\sigma$  in a graph  $G$  is a collection of paths

$$P_i : A_i \rightarrow B_{\sigma(i)}.$$

We say  $\mathcal{P}$  is *vertex disjoint* if distinct paths don't share vertices.

A path system  $\mathcal{P}$  has weights

$$w(\mathcal{P}) = \prod w(P_i).$$

Now we have an alternative definition for determinant:

$$\det(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sgn}(\sigma) w(\mathcal{P}_\sigma).$$

**Proposition 2.2.3.**

$$\det(M) = \det(M^T).$$

We could have a graph-based proof for this familiar statement from linear algebra.

*Proof.* Notice that  $\text{sgn}(\sigma) = \text{sgn}(\sigma^{-1})$ . □

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite acyclic directed graph. Note that  $G$  is acyclic means that there are finitely many directed paths between any 2 vertices.

We'll give each edge  $e$  a weight  $w(e)$ . Let  $P$  be a directed path from  $A$  to  $B$ , then the weight of  $P$  is the product of weights of edges in  $P$ .

Suppose  $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{B} = \{B_1, \dots, B_n\}$  are two subsets of  $V$ . They don't have to be disjoint.

To  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$ , there is an associated path matrix  $M = (m_{ij})$  where

$$m_{ij} = \sum_{P: A_i \rightarrow B_j} w(P).$$

We denote  $VD$  as the family of vertex disjoint path systems.

**Lemma 2.2.4 (LGV Lemma).**

$$\det M = \sum_{\mathcal{P} \in VD} \text{sgn}(\mathcal{P}) w(\mathcal{P}).$$

A *spanning tree* in  $G$  is a connected acyclic subgraph using all vertices in  $G$ .

We define *Laplacian matrix* of a graph  $G$  as a matrix  $L(G)$  whose  $i$ -row  $j$ -column element is negative number of edges from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  if  $i \neq j$ , the degree  $v_i$  if otherwise.

**Theorem 2.2.5 (Matrix Tree Theorem (Kirchoff's)).** *Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an undirected graph first. The absolute value of the determinant of the reduced Laplacian matrix (crossed out one row / one column)  $L_0(G)$  equals to the number of spanning trees in  $G$ , which equals to connected acyclic subgraphs touching every vertex of  $G$ .*

Claim

$$\det L(G) = 0.$$

where it's unreduced.

### 2.3 Matrix Tree Theorem for Directed Graphs

When  $G$  is directed, the definition of Laplacian matrix turns into: a *Laplacian matrix* of a directed graph  $G$  as a matrix  $L(G)$  whose  $i$ -row  $j$ -column element is negative number of edges from  $v_i \rightarrow v_j$  if  $i \neq j$ , the out-degree  $v_i$  if otherwise.

First notice that  $L(G)$  is not symmetric. More importantly,  $\det L_0(G)$  depends on vertex index of row and column deleted.

Now, we have  $\det(L_0(G))$  w.r.t. vertex  $v_i$  equals to the number of rooted directed spanning trees into  $v_i$ .

Now we will prove the Matrix Tree Theorem using Cauchy-Binet Theorem.

**Theorem 2.3.1 (Cauchy-Binet Theorem).** *For  $m \leq n$ ,  $Q$  a  $m \times n$  matrix, and  $R$  a  $n \times m$  matrix, then*

$$\det(QR) = \sum_{S \in \binom{[n]}{m}} \det Q_{[m], S} \cdot \det R_{S, [m]}.$$

**Theorem 2.3.2** (Directed Matrix Tree Theorem).

$$\det L_0^{\text{out}}(G) = \sum_T \text{wt}(T).$$

where  $L_0$  deletes the  $n$ -th row,  $n$ -th column, and  $T$ 's are in-tree rooted at vertex  $n$ .

## 2.4 Rational Generating Functions and Linear Recursions

**Example 2.4.1.** Let  $a_0 = 1, a_1 = -4$  and  $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ . Define

$$f(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n.$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - a_0 - a_1 x &= \sum_{n \geq 2} a_n x^n \\ f(x) - 1 + 4x &= 4x(f(x) - 1) - 4x^2 f(x) \\ f(x) &= \frac{1 - 8x}{(1 - 2x)^2} = \frac{4}{1 - 2x} - \frac{3}{(1 - 2x)^2} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 2.4.2.**

$$\frac{1}{(1 - rx)^a} = \sum_{n \geq 0} \binom{n + a - 1}{a - 1} r^n x^n.$$

**Definition 2.4.3** (Segan 3.6). Let  $(a_n), n \geq 0$  be a sequence of complex numbers. We say that the sequence satisfies a *homogeneous linear recursion of degree  $d$  with constant coefficients* if there is  $d \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and constants  $c_1, \dots, c_d \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $c_d \neq 0$  such that

$$a_{n+d} + c_1 a_{n+d-1} + c_2 a_{n+d-2} + \dots + c_d a_n = 0.$$

**Theorem 2.4.4.** Given a sequence  $(a_n)$  satisfied the definition above, and  $d \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . Let  $q(x) = 1 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots + c_d x^d$ . TFAE

1. The sequence is homogenous with linear recursion of degree  $d$  with constant coefficients
2. The generating function  $f(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$  has the form

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

and degree  $p(x) < d$ .

3. We can write  $a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k p_i(n) r_i^n$  where  $r_i$  are distinct non zero complex numbers satisfying

$$q(x) = \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - r_i x)^{d_i}.$$

And  $p_i(n)$  is a polynomial with degree  $p_i(n) < d_i$  for all  $i$ .

## 2.5

**Theorem 2.5.1** (the BEST theorem). *If  $G$  is a digraph that satisfies  $\text{indeg} = \text{outdeg}$  at every vertex, then the number of Eulerian cycles equals to the number of intrress rooted at  $v$  times  $\prod_{w \in V} (\text{outdeg}(w) - 1)!$ .*

**Definition 2.5.2.** A *binary de bruijn sequences* of degree  $n$  is a sequence of 0's and 1's of length  $2^n$ :

$$a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{2^n}.$$

Looking at circular windows of length  $n$ , we see all possible binary sequences of length  $n$ .

Notice that BDBS are really Eulerian cycles! Denote the corresponding graph as  $D_n$ .

Claim: eigenvalues of  $L(D_n)$  are  $0, 2, 2, 2, \dots, 2$  for  $2^{n-1} - 1$  times.

The number of binary de Bruijn sequences of degree  $n$  is

$$\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} 2^{2^{n-1}-1} = 2^{2^{n-1}-n}.$$

Similarly, th number of  $k$ -ary dBS of degree  $n$  is

$$k^{k^{n-1}-n} \cdot (k-1)!^{k^{n-1}}.$$

## 2.6 Chromatic polynomials

Let  $G$  be an undirected simple graphs (no multiple edges, no loops) Denote  $G = (V, E)$ .

**Definition 2.6.1.** A *coloring* of  $G$  is a map  $c : V \rightarrow S$  where  $S$  is the set of colors. A coloring is *proper* if  $c(u) \neq c(v)$  when  $(u, v) \in E$ .

**Definition 2.6.2.** The *chromatic number* of  $G$ , denoted by  $\chi(G)$ , is the minimal cardinality of  $S$  such that there's a proper coloring.

An edgeless graph has  $\chi(G) = 1$  and a bipartite graph has  $\chi(G) = 2$ .