# Math 4707: Combinatorics, Spring 2018 Midterm 3

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## Exercise 1

**Exercise 0.1.** Let  $D = (V, A, \psi)$  be an acyclic digraph. Then there is a list of elements  $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$  of V such that each element of V appears exactly once in the list  $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$ , and whenever i and j are two elements of [n], and D features an arc which starts in  $v_i$  and ends in  $v_j$ , then this implies that i < j.

*Proof.* Let Anc:  $V \to \{\text{subsets of } V\}$  be the function that maps each  $v \in V$  to the set

 $\{w \in V \mid \text{ and there exists a walk from } w \text{ to } v\}.$ 

(As we know, the existence of a walk from w to v is equivalent to the existence of a path from w to v; but we won't actually need this.)

Since V is a finite set, there exists some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that |V| = n. Consider this n. Since |V| = n = |[n]|, there exists a bijection  $\phi : [n] \to V$ . Fix this bijection  $\phi$ .

We now define the list  $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_n)$  to be the list of all the n elements  $v \in V$  in increasing order of  $|\operatorname{Anc}(v)|$ , where ties are broken as follows: If  $v, w \in V$  satisfy  $|\operatorname{Anc}(v)| = |\operatorname{Anc}(w)|$ , then v should be placed after w if  $\phi(v) > \phi(w)$  (and conversely, w should be placed after v if  $\phi(w) > \phi(v)$ ).

We will now show that this list satisfies the two requirements in the claim. First of all, it is clear that each element of V appears exactly once in this list, since this list has been constructed as a list of all elements of V in some order.

It remains to check the second requirement. In other words, it remains to show that, if i and j are two elements of [n], and if D has an arc which starts at  $v_i$  and ends at  $v_j$ , then i < j.

Indeed, let i and j be two elements of [n], and assume that D has an arc which starts at  $v_i$  and ends at  $v_j$ . We must prove i < j.

We will first show that  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i) \subseteq \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ . Indeed, suppose that  $w \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ . Thus, there exists a walk **a** from w to  $v_i$  (by the definition of  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ ). And because there is an arc which begins at  $v_i$  and ends at  $v_j$ , then one can add that arc to the end of the walk **a** to construct a walk from w to  $v_j$ . Hence, there exists a walk from w to  $v_j$ , so  $w \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ . So we have shown that  $w \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$  implies that  $w \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ . In other words,  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i) \subseteq \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ .

We will next show that  $v_j \notin \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ . Suppose to the contrary that  $v_j \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ . Then there exists some walk **b** from  $v_j$  to  $v_i$  (by the definition of  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ ). Because D is acyclic, **b** must not contain any cycles, which means that  $v_j$  does not appear in **b** except for at the very start. This means that the arc from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  is not used in **b**, as otherwise,  $v_j$  would appear in the walk after that arc was used, which would by definition not be at the very start. Therefore, the walk constructed by adding that arc from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  on to the end of **b** is a cycle in D (going from  $v_j$  to  $v_j$ ). Thus, D has a cycle. This contradicts the assumption that D is acyclic. This contradiction reveals that  $v_j \notin \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ .

But there exists a walk from  $v_j$  to  $v_j$  (namely, the trivial walk  $(v_j)$ ). Thus,  $v_j \in \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$  (by the definition of  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ ). Contrasting this to  $v_j \notin \operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$ , we obtain  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i) \neq \operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ . Thus,  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_i)$  is a **proper** subset of  $\operatorname{Anc}(v_j)$ . Hence,  $|\operatorname{Anc}(v_i)| < |\operatorname{Anc}(v_j)|$ . Therefore, the vertex  $v_i$  appears earlier than  $v_j$  in the list  $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n)$  (due to how the list was constructed). In other words, i < j. This concludes our proof that the second requirement holds.

Hence, the constructed list satisfies the requirements of the claim.

### Exercise 2

**Exercise 0.2.** Let D be an acyclic multidigraph. A vertex v of D is said to be a sink if there is no arc of D with source v.

If u and v are any two vertices of D, then:

- we write  $u \longrightarrow v$  if and only if D has an **arc** with source u and target v;
- we write  $u \xrightarrow{*} v$  if and only if D has a **path** from u to v.

The so-called no-watershed condition says that for any three vertices u, v and w of D satisfying  $u \longrightarrow v$  and  $u \longrightarrow w$ , there exists a vertex t of D such that  $v \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow} t$  and  $w \stackrel{*}{\longrightarrow} t$ .

If the no-watershed condition holds, then for each vertex p of D, there exists exactly one sink q of D such that  $p \xrightarrow{*} q$ .

*Proof.* Let D be an acyclic multidigraph for which the no-watershed condition holds. Let V be the vertex set of D, and let  $h:V\to\mathbb{N}$  be the function that maps each  $v\in V$  to the maximum length of a path in D which begins at v.

We will first show that h is well defined. Observe that D has finitely many vertices. Also, each path in D goes through each vertex of D at most one time. Since the length of a path is equal to the number of edges taken in that path, which is equal to the number of vertices taken in that path minus one, the length of a path in D must be an integer  $\leq |V| - 1$ . So the set of lengths of paths which begin at a vertex  $v \in V$  is some subset of  $\{0, 1, \ldots, |V| - 1\}$ . And since this subset is a finite nonempty set of integers (nonempty because the trivial path (v) always exists), it must have a maximum value. Hence, for all vertices  $v \in V$ , the number h(v) is defined.

We will next show that if  $u, v \in V$ , and if there exists a path of nonzero length from u to v, then

$$h(v) < h(u). \tag{1}$$

[Proof of (1). Let  $u, v \in V$ , and suppose that there exists a path of nonzero length from u to v. Consider such a path  $\mathbf{a}$ ; thus, its length is positive. By the definition of h(v), we know that there is a path  $\mathbf{b}$  of length h(v) which begins at v. Now consider the walk  $\mathbf{c}$  formed by adding the path  $\mathbf{b}$  onto the end of the path  $\mathbf{a}$ . This new walk  $\mathbf{c}$  is still a path (since otherwise, it would contain a cycle, but this would contradict the acyclicity of D), and has length > h(v) (indeed, its length equals the sum of the lengths of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , but the former length is positive and the latter is h(v)). Thus,  $\mathbf{c}$  is a path in D which begins at u and has length > h(v). Since h(u) is the maximum length of a path in D which starts at u, we thus conclude that h(u) is at least as large as the length of  $\mathbf{c}$ , which is > h(v). Hence, h(u) > h(v). This proves (1).]

From (1), we immediately obtain the following: If  $u, v \in V$ , and if there exists a path from u to v, then

$$h(v) \le h(u). \tag{2}$$

(Indeed, if this path has nonzero length, then this inequality follows from (1), whereas otherwise it follows from v = u.)

The exercise claims that for each vertex v of D, there exists exactly one sink q of D such that there is a path from v to q. We will now prove this claim by strong induction on h(v).

For the base case, suppose that  $v \in V$  and h(v) = 0. Since h(v) = 0, there are no paths in D of nonzero length which start at v. This is possible only if there are no arcs in D which begin at v, which implies that v is a sink. Thus, v is a sink; hence, there exists only one vertex  $q \in V$  for which there exists a path from v to q (namely, v itself). And since v is a sink, this means that there exists a path from v to exactly one sink (itself), and no other sinks (or even vertices for that matter). This completes the induction base.

Now, to the induction step. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Assume that the claim holds for all vertices  $u \in V$  such that h(u) < n. Consider a vertex  $v \in V$  such that h(v) = n. We need to prove the claim for this vertex v. If h(v) = 0, then this has already been proven in the above induction base; thus, we assume that h(v) > 0. Hence, there exists a path of nonzero length which originates at v. Thus, there exists an arc with source v.

Let B be the set of the targets of all arcs with source v. Since such arcs do exist (as we have just seen), we have  $B \neq \emptyset$ . And also, each path which begins at v must have its second vertex be a vertex in B. And further, if  $w \in B$ , then there exists a path from v to w, so that h(w) < h(v) (by (1)).

Now let  $w_1 \in B$ . Since  $B \neq \emptyset$ , such a  $w_1$  must exist. And since  $h(w_1) < h(v) = n$ , we can apply the induction hypothesis to  $w_1$  instead of v. We conclude that there exists exactly one sink  $x \in V$  such that there is a path from  $w_1$  to x. Consider this x. Since  $w_1 \in B$ , there exists a path from v to  $w_1$ , so there exists a path from v to v (via v).

Now let  $w_2 \in B$  be arbitrary (in particular,  $w_2$  may be equal to  $w_1$ ). Since  $w_1, w_2 \in B$ , we have  $v \longrightarrow w_1$  and  $v \longrightarrow w_2$ . Since the no-watershed condition holds, we conclude that there exists a vertex  $t \in V$  such that there is a path from  $w_1$  to t and there is a path from  $w_2$  to t. Therefore, using (2), we obtain  $h(t) \leq h(w_1) < h(v) = n$ . So by the induction hypothesis (applied to t instead of v), there exists exactly one sink  $y \in V$  such that there is a path from t to t0. Consider this t1. Concatenating a path from t2 to t3 with a path from t4 to t5. Similarly, we find that there is a path from t6 to t7. Similarly, we find that there is a path from t8 to t9.

So y is a sink for which there exists a path from  $w_1$  to y. But we have previously defined x to be the only such sink. Therefore, y = x. But recall that there is a path from  $w_2$  to y.

In other words, there is a path from  $w_2$  to x (since y = x).

We thus have shown that for each  $w_2 \in B$ , there is a path from  $w_2$  to x.

Now, consider any sink z for which there is a path from v to z. This path has nonzero length (since h(v) > 0, so that v itself is not a sink), and thus has a second vertex. Denote this second vertex by  $w_2$ ; thus,  $w_2 \in B$ , so that (as we have just seen) there is a path from  $w_2$  to x. Also, from  $w_2 \in B$ , we obtain  $h(w_2) < h(v) = n$ , so that we can apply the induction hypothesis to  $w_2$  instead of v. We thus conclude that there is exactly one sink q such that there is a path from  $w_2$  to q. Since both x and z qualify as such q, this entails that z = x. So we have proven that if z is any sink for which there is a path from v to z, then z = x. So there exists exactly one sink q such that there is a path from v to q, namely the sink x. This proves the claim for our vertex v. So the induction step is complete, and the claim of the exercise follows.

## Exercise 4

#### Part A

**Definition 0.3.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . The graph  $K_{n,m}$  is defined to be the simple graph with n + m vertices

$$1, 2, \ldots, n, -1, -2, \ldots, -m$$

and nm edges

$$\{i, -j\}$$
 for all  $i \in [n]$  and  $j \in [m]$ .

(Note that  $(K_{n,m}; \{1, 2, ..., n\}, \{-1, -2, ..., -m\})$  is a bipartite graph, called the *complete bipartite graph*.)

**Exercise 0.4.** Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then the chromatic polynomial of  $K_{n,m}$  is given by

$$\chi_{K_{n,m}} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) \binom{x}{i} (x-i)^{m}$$

*Proof.* Refer to the vertices 1, 2, ..., n of  $K_{n,m}$  as the positive vertices of  $K_{n,m}$ , and to the vertices -1, -2, ..., -m as the negative vertices of  $K_{n,m}$ .

Observe that for any color used in a proper coloring of  $K_{n,m}$ , that color can not appear on both a positive vertex and a negative vertex, since there is an edge connecting each positive vertex to each negative vertex. Hence, in a proper coloring of  $K_{n,m}$ , the set of colors used to color the positive vertices, and the set of colors used to color the negative vertices are disjoint.

Now, let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Recall that the value  $\chi_{K_{n,m}}(k)$  of the chromatic polynomial is equal to the number of proper k-colorings of  $K_{n,m}$ . We will count these k-colorings now. Let C = [k]; thus, a k-coloring of  $K_{n,m}$  is a map from the set of vertices of  $K_{n,m}$  to C. We can construct such a coloring f in the following four steps:

- Choose the number i of colors that will be used to color the positive vertices (so i will be |f([n])|). This is a number between 0 and n.
- Choose the set  $C_p$  of colors that will be used to color the positive vertices. This must be an *i*-element subset of the *k*-element set C. Thus, there are  $\binom{k}{i}$  options here.

- Color the positive vertices with the colors from  $C_p$ , using each color at least once. This is tantamount to choosing a surjective map from the n-element set [n] to the i-element set  $C_p$  (sending each positive vertex to its color); thus, there are sur (n, i) options for it.
- Finally, color the negative vertices. Their colors need to be chosen from the k-i colors that don't belong to  $C_p$  (since the set of colors used to color the positive vertices, and the set of colors used to color the negative vertices must be disjoint in a proper k-coloring), but we don't have to use each color. Hence, this is tantamount to choosing a map from the m-element set  $\{-1, -2, \ldots, -m\}$  to the k-i-element set  $C \setminus C_p$ . Thus, there are  $(k-i)^m$  options at this step.

At the end of this algorithm, all vertices of  $K_{n,m}$  are colored, and the resulting k-coloring is proper (because each edge connects a positive vertex with a negative vertex, and we've ensured that the latter vertex has a different color than the former). Hence, the number of all proper k-colorings of  $K_{n,m}$  is  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} {k \choose i} \sup(n,i) (k-i)^m$  (which we get by multiplying the numbers of options in the above algorithm). On the other hand, this is  $\chi_{K_{n,m}}(k)$  (as we already showed). Comparing the two results, we find

$$\chi_{K_{n,m}}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {k \choose i} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) (k-i)^{m}.$$

Now we have proven this for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus, the two polynomials

$$\chi_{K_{n,m}}(x)$$
 and  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} {x \choose i} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) (x-i)^m$ 

are equal to each other on each point  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . This means that they are equal to each other on infinitely many points. Hence, they must be identical as polynomials (by the "polynomial identity trick"). In other words,

$$\chi_{K_{n,m}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {x \choose i} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) (x-i)^{m} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) {x \choose i} (x-i)^{m}.$$

#### Part B

**Exercise 0.5.** For all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , it holds that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) {x \choose i} (x-i)^m = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \operatorname{sur}(m,i) {x \choose i} (x-i)^n.$$

*Proof.* Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We claim that the graphs  $K_{n,m}$  and  $K_{m,n}$  are identical up to the names of their vertices<sup>1</sup>.

Indeed, the graph  $K_{n,m}$  has vertices 1, 2, ..., n and -1, -2, ..., -m, with edges  $\{i, -j\}$  for  $i \in [n]$  and  $j \in [m]$ . If one renames each vertex k as -k, and updates the formula for edges such that it is consistent with the new names, then the resulting graph has the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>That is, we can rename the vertices of  $K_{n,m}$  in such a way that the resulting graph is  $K_{m,n}$ . In more rigorous language, we are saying that the graphs  $K_{n,m}$  and  $K_{m,n}$  are isomorphic.

vertices  $-1, -2, \ldots, -n$  and  $1, 2, \ldots, m$ , with edges  $\{-i, j\}$  for  $i \in [n]$  and  $j \in [m]$ . But this is precisely the graph  $K_{m,n}$ . Hence,  $K_{n,m}$  is equal to the graph  $K_{m,n}$ , except for the fact that the vertices are named differently.

And since the way the vertices of a graph are named does not in any way affect the number of proper colorings of a graph, it follows that  $\chi_{K_{n,m}}(k) = \chi_{K_{m,n}}(k)$  for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . In other words, the polynomials  $\chi_{K_{n,m}}$  and  $\chi_{K_{m,n}}$  are equal to each other on each point  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence,  $\chi_{K_{n,m}} = \chi_{K_{m,n}}$ .

In part (a), it was shown that  $\chi_{K_{n,m}} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) \binom{x}{i} (x-i)^{m}$ . And swapping m and n in this formula yields  $\chi_{K_{m,n}} = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \operatorname{sur}(m,i) \binom{x}{i} (x-i)^{n}$ . Thus, the equality  $\chi_{K_{n,m}} = \chi_{K_{m,n}}$  rewrites as  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} \operatorname{sur}(n,i) \binom{x}{i} (x-i)^{m} = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \operatorname{sur}(m,i) \binom{x}{i} (x-i)^{n}$ .