

1

Number Theory and Combinatorics

1.1 Bipartite, k -Colorable and k -Colored Graphs

A labeled graph G is **bipartite** if its vertex set V can be partitioned into two disjoint subsets A and B , $V = A \cup B$, such that every edge of G is of the form (a, b) , where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

Let k be a positive integer and $K = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$. A labeled graph G is **k -colorable** if there exists a function $V \rightarrow K$ with the property that adjacent vertices must be colored differently. Clearly G is bipartite if and only if G is 2-colorable.

Define $c_{n,k}$ to be the number of k -colorable graphs with n vertices. We have $c_{n,1} = 1$ for $n \geq 1$ since a 1-colorable graph G cannot possess any edges. We also have $c_{1,k} = 1$ for $k \geq 1$, $c_{2,k} = 2$ for $k \geq 2$, $c_{3,2} = 7$ by Figure 1.1, $c_{3,3} = 8$, $c_{4,2} = 41$ by Figure 1.2, and $c_{4,3} = 63$. More generally, $c_{n,n-1} = 2^{n(n-1)/2} - 1$ since the total number of labeled graphs with n vertices is $2^{n(n-1)/2}$ and, of these, only the complete graph cannot be $(n-1)$ -colored.

Does there exist a formula for $c_{n,k}$? The answer is yes if $k=2$, but evidently no for $k \geq 3$. We will examine this issue momentarily, but first define a related notion.

A **k -colored graph** is a labeled k -colorable graph together with its coloring function. Let $\gamma_{n,k}$ be the number of k -colored graphs with n vertices. The point is that a k -colorable graph counts several times as a k -colored graph. Clearly $\gamma_{n,1} = 1$, $\gamma_{1,k} = k$, $\gamma_{2,2} = 6$ by Figure 1.3, $\gamma_{2,3} = 15$ by Figure 1.4, and $\gamma_{3,2} = 26$ by Figure 1.5.

When $k=2$, the following formulas can be proved [1–3]:

$$\gamma_{n,2} = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} 2^{j(n-j)},$$

$$c_{n,2} = n! \cdot \left(\text{the } n^{\text{th}} \text{ degree Maclaurin series coefficient of } \sqrt{\Gamma(x)} \right),$$

2

Number Theory and Combinatorics

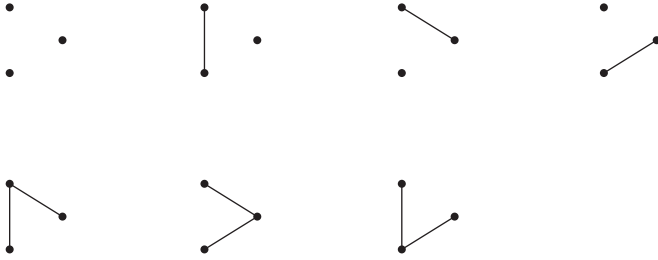


Figure 1.1 There are 7 labeled bipartite graphs with 3 vertices.

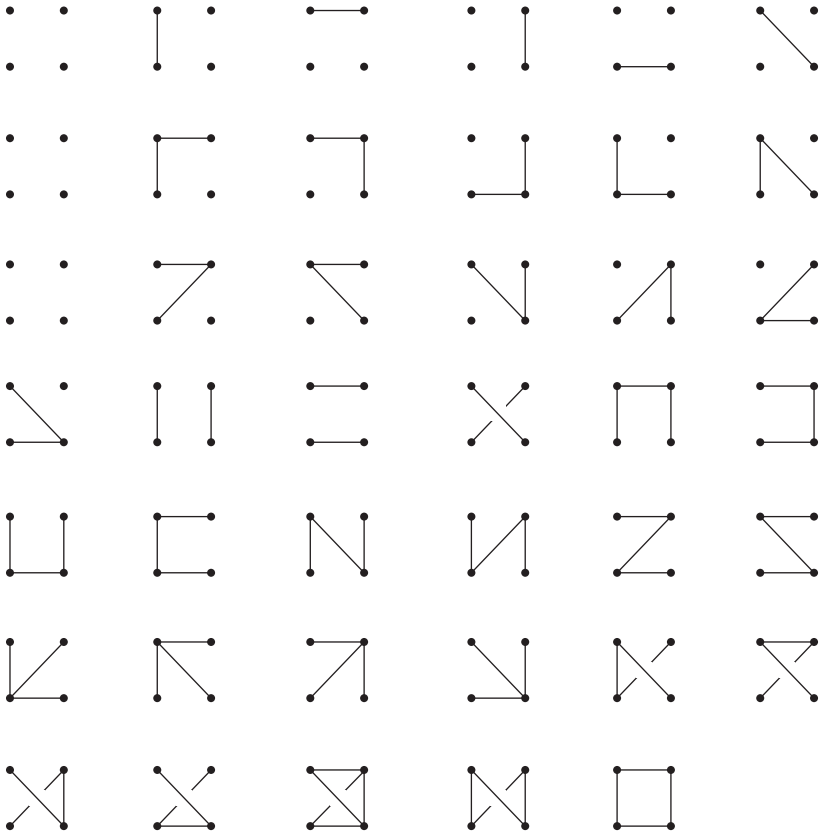


Figure 1.2 There are 41 labeled bipartite graphs with 4 vertices.



Figure 1.3 There are 6 labeled 2-colored graphs with 2 vertices.

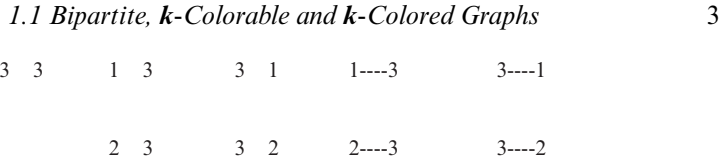


Figure 1.4 There are 15 labeled 3-colored graphs with 2 vertices (these 9 plus the preceding 6).

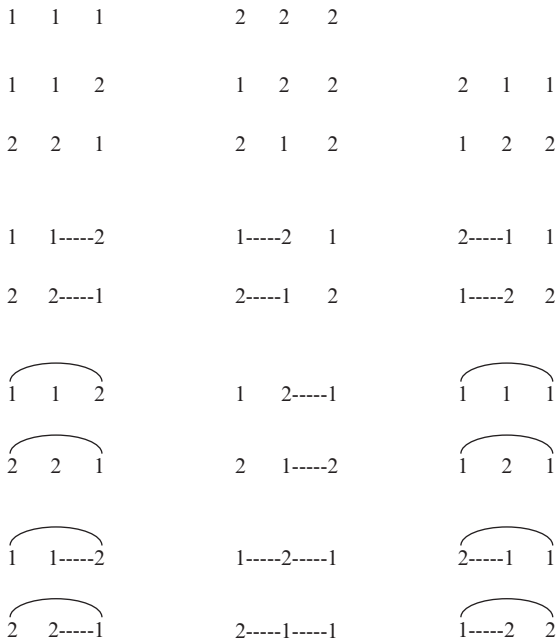


Figure 1.5 There are 26 labeled 2-colored graphs with 3 vertices.

where

$$\Gamma(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma_{i,2} \frac{x^i}{i!}.$$

For arbitrary k , we have the following recursion [4, 5]:

$$\gamma_{n,k} = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} 2^{j(n-j)} \gamma_{j,k-1}$$

with initial conditions $\gamma_{0,k} = 1$ and $\gamma_{n,0} = 0$ for $n \geq 1$. Alternatively, we have a closed-form expression involving multinomial coefficients:

$$\gamma_{n,k} = \sum_N \binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k} 2^{\frac{1}{2}(n^2 - n_1^2 - n_2^2 - \dots - n_k^2)}$$

4 *Number Theory and Combinatorics*

where the summation is over all nonnegative integer k -vectors $N = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$ satisfying $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k = n$. There is, however, no known analogous formula for $c_{n,k}$ when $k \geq 3$.

Computations show that [4, 6]

$$\{\gamma_{n,2}\}_{n=1}^\infty = \{2, 6, 26, 162, 1442, 18306, 330626, 8488962 \dots\},$$

$$\{c_{n,2}\}_{n=1}^\infty = \{1, 2, 7, 41, 376, 5177, 103237, 2922446 \dots\}$$

and suggest that $\gamma_{n,2}/c_{n,2} \rightarrow 2$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We also have

$$\{\gamma_{n,3}\}_{n=1}^\infty = \{3, 15, 123, 1635, 35043, 1206915, 66622083, 5884188675, \dots\},$$

$$\{c_{n,3}\}_{n=1}^\infty = \{1, 2, 8, 63, 958, 27554, \dots\}$$

but there is insufficient data on $c_{n,3}$ to clearly suggest the asymptotic behavior of $\gamma_{n,3}/c_{n,3}$. Prömel & Steger [7], however, proved that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\gamma_{n,k}}{c_{n,k}} = k!$$

for each $k \geq 2$. In words, a random k -colorable graph is almost surely uniquely k -colorable (up to a permutation of colors). This is an important result since it allows us to utilize at least one term of the $\gamma_{n,k}$ asymptotics to estimate the growth of $c_{n,k}$.

We turn now to a result due to Wright [8–12]: if $n \equiv a \pmod k$, where $0 \leq a < k$, then

$$\gamma_{n,k} \sim C(k, a) \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}(1-\frac{1}{k})n^2} \cdot k^n \cdot \left(\frac{k}{\ln(2) \cdot n} \right)^{\frac{k-1}{2}}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where $C(k, a)$ is a constant that depends on n only via its residue modulo k . In fact,

$$C(k, a) = k^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (\ln(2))^{\frac{k-1}{2}} \cdot (2\pi)^{-\frac{k-1}{2}} \cdot L_k(a)$$

and the infinite series $L_k(a)$ will be defined for $k = 2, 3$ and 4 shortly.

1.1.1 2-Colored Graph Asymptotics

To characterize the growth of $\gamma_{n,k}$, by the above, it is sufficient to determine $C(k, a)$ for each $0 \leq a < k$. We have here

$$L_2(a) = \sum_{r=-\infty}^\infty 2^{-\frac{1}{2}r^2 - \frac{1}{2}(a-r)^2 + \frac{1}{4}a^2}$$

$$= \sum_{r=-\infty}^\infty 2^{-\frac{1}{4}(a-2r)^2} = \begin{cases} 2.1289368272 \dots & \text{if } a = 0, \\ 2.1289312505 \dots & \text{if } a = 1. \end{cases}$$

1.1 Bipartite, k -Colorable and k -Colored Graphs 5

These two constants also appear with regard to the asymptotic enumeration of partially ordered sets [13] and of linear subspaces of \mathbb{F}_2^n [14], where \mathbb{F}_2 is the binary field with arithmetic modulo 2. Therefore

$$C(2, a) = \begin{cases} 1.0000013097\dots = 1 + \varepsilon & \text{if } a = 0, \\ 0.9999986902\dots = 1 - \varepsilon & \text{if } a = 1 \end{cases}$$

where $\varepsilon = 1.3097396978\dots \times 10^{-6}$. In fact, all of the constants $C(k, a)$ we examine are close to 1; thus we shall focus on difference with 1 henceforth.

1.1.2 3-Colored Graph Asymptotics

We have here

$$\begin{aligned} L_3(a) &= \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{s=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-\frac{1}{2}r^2 - \frac{1}{2}s^2 - \frac{1}{2}(a-r-s)^2 + \frac{1}{6}a^2} \\ &= \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{s=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-\frac{1}{3}(a^2 - 3ar + 3r^2 - 3as + 3rs + 3s^2)} \end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$C(3, a) = \begin{cases} 1 + 2\varepsilon & \text{if } a = 0, \\ 1 - \varepsilon & \text{if } a = 1 \text{ or } 2 \end{cases}$$

where $\varepsilon = 1.7060611047\dots \times 10^{-8}$.

1.1.3 4-Colored Graph Asymptotics

All planar graphs are 4-colorable by the famous Four Color Theorem. We have here [4, 6]

$$\{\gamma_{n,4}\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{4, 28, 340, 7108, 254404, 15531268, 1613235460, 284556079108, \dots\},$$

$$\{c_{n,4}\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 2, 8, 64, 1023, 32596, \dots\},$$

$$\begin{aligned} L_4(a) &= \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{s=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-\frac{1}{2}r^2 - \frac{1}{2}s^2 - \frac{1}{2}t^2 - \frac{1}{2}(a-r-s-t)^2 + \frac{1}{8}a^2} \\ &= \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{s=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-\frac{1}{8}(3a^2 - 8ar + 8r^2 - 8as + 8rs + 8s^2 - 8at + 8rt + 8st + 8t^2)} \end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$C(4, a) = \begin{cases} 1 + \delta & \text{if } a = 0, \\ 1 - \varepsilon & \text{if } a = 1 \text{ or } 3, \\ 1 - \delta + 2\varepsilon & \text{if } a = 2, \end{cases}$$

where $\delta = 4.2421496651\dots \times 10^{-9}$ and $\varepsilon = 2.5731271141\dots \times 10^{-12}$. A simple relationship between δ and ε is not apparent.

Higher-order asymptotics for $\gamma_{n,k}$ are possible, due to Wright [8]; the corresponding constants await study. Observe that terms beyond the first need not necessarily apply for $c_{n,k}$.

A random k -colorable graph is almost surely connected [10, 12, 15] and is almost surely k -chromatic (meaning that $k - 1$ colors will not suffice to color all n vertices). The asymptotics discussed above therefore apply to these important subclasses as well.

Enumerating unlabeled k -colorable graphs (that is, non-isomorphic types of labeled k -colorable graphs) is also a difficult computational problem [16]. A general result due to Prömel [17] provides that $c_{n,k}/n!$ is the associated asymptotic formula.

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1.2 Transitive Relations, Topologies and Partial Orders

Let S be a set with n elements. A subset R of $S \times S$ is a **binary relation** (or **relation**) on S . The number of relations on S is 2^{n^2} . Equivalently, there are 2^{n^2} labeled bipartite graphs on $2n$ vertices, assuming the bipartition is fixed and equitable.

A relation R on S is **reflexive** if for all $x \in S$, we have $(x, x) \in R$. The number of reflexive relations on S is $2^{n(n-1)}$.

A relation R on S is **antisymmetric** if for all $x, y \in S$, the conditions $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, x) \in R$ imply that $x = y$. The number of antisymmetric relations on S is $2^n \cdot 3^{n(n-1)/2}$.

A relation R on S is **transitive** if for all $x, y, z \in S$, the conditions $(x, y) \in R$ and $(y, z) \in R$ imply that $(x, z) \in R$. There is no known general formula for the number T_n of transitive relations on S . It is surprising that such a simply-stated counting problem remains unsolved [1–6].

A **topology** on S is a collection Σ of subsets of S that satisfy the following axioms:

- $\emptyset \in \Sigma$ and $S \in \Sigma$
- the union of any two sets in Σ is in Σ
- the intersection of any two sets in Σ is in Σ .

Note that since S is finite, our phrasing of the second axiom is correct. No one knows a general formula for the number U_n of topologies on S . Also, a topology on S is a **T0 topology** if it additionally satisfies a (weak) separation axiom:

- for any pair of distinct points in S , there is a set in Σ containing one point but not the other.

Again, no one knows a general formula for the number V_n of T0 topologies [7].

A **quasi-order** on S is a relation that is both reflexive and transitive. Let Q_n denote the number of such relations. Other uses of the phrase “quasi-order” exist and so care must be taken when reviewing the literature. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the topologies on S and the quasi-orders on S ; hence $Q_n = U_n$.

A **partial order** on S is a quasi-order that is antisymmetric as well. Let P_n denote the number of such relations. We usually write $x \leq y$ if $(x, y) \in R$ and, moreover, $x < y$ if $x \neq y$. There is a one-to-one correspondence between the T0 topologies on S and the partial orders on S ; hence $P_n = V_n$.

Further connections between P_n and Q_n , and between P_n and T_n , can be expressed in terms of Stirling numbers of the second kind [1, 8]:

$$Q_n = \sum_{k=1}^n S_{n,k} P_k, \quad T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=0}^k \binom{n}{j} S_{n-j, k-j} \right) P_k$$

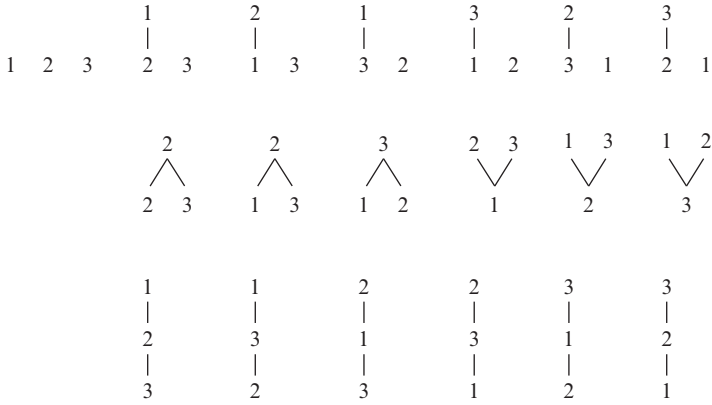


Figure 1.6 There are 19 labeled posets with 3 elements, that is, $P_3 = 19$.

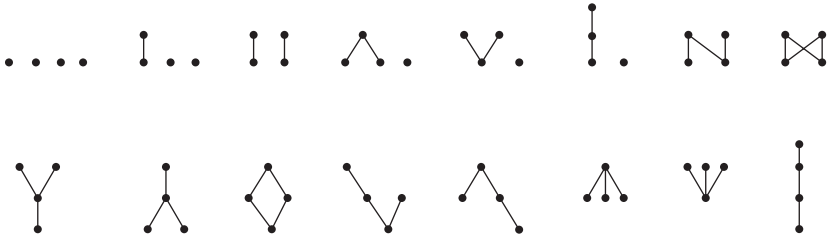


Figure 1.7 There are 16 unlabeled posets with 4 elements, that is, $p_4 = 16$.

and hence [9, 10]

$$Q_n \sim P_n, \quad T_n \sim 2^n P_n$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. It is therefore sufficient to focus on just one of these sequences; we choose $\{P_n\}$, which enumerates labeled posets (see Figure 1.6) as opposed to $\{p_n\}$, which enumerates unlabeled posets (see Figure 1.7). The existence of an edge (x, y) in any of the graphs pictured here indicates that $x < y$ and y is drawn above x .

Even though a closed-form expression for P_n is unknown, progress has been made in understanding the asymptotics of

$$\{P_n\}_{n=1}^\infty = \{1, 3, 19, 219, 4231, 130023, 6129859, 431723379, \dots\}.$$

Kleitman & Rothschild [11] deduced that

$$\frac{\ln(P_n)}{\ln(2)} = \frac{n^2}{4} + O\left(n^{\frac{3}{2}} \ln(n)\right)$$

and later sharpened this to [12]

$$\frac{\ln(P_n)}{\ln(2)} = \frac{n^2}{4} + \frac{3n}{2} + O(\ln(n)).$$

1.2 Transitive Relations, Topologies and Partial Orders 9

Building on their work, several authors [10, 13–16] gave the following improvement:

$$P_n \sim C_a \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4} + \frac{3n}{2} + \frac{1}{4}} \cdot n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

where $n \equiv a \pmod 2$ and $a \in \{0, 1\}$, and where

$$C_1 = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-k^2} = 2.1289368272\dots = \pi \cdot (0.8058800428\dots) \cdot 2^{-\frac{1}{4}},$$

$$C_0 = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2^{-(k-\frac{1}{2})^2} = 2.1289312505\dots = \pi \cdot (0.8058779318\dots) \cdot 2^{-\frac{1}{4}}.$$

It is interesting that the constant depends on the parity of n .

The asymptotics of the unlabeled case [17, 18]:

$$\{p_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 2, 5, 16, 63, 318, 2045, 16999, \dots\}$$

turn out to satisfy

$$p_n \sim \frac{P_n}{n!} \sim C_a \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4} + \frac{3n}{2} + \frac{1}{4}} \cdot e^n \cdot n^{-n-1}$$

thanks to a general result due to Prömel [19].

See [20, 21] for more appearances of the constants C_0 and C_1 . It’s believed that, for any asymptotic enumeration problem where a typical member is based on a bipartite graph, these constants are likely to occur. Alternative representations include [16, 22]:

$$C_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\ln(2)}} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(\frac{-\pi^2}{\ln(2)} k^2\right), \quad C_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\ln(2)}} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^k \exp\left(\frac{-\pi^2}{\ln(2)} k^2\right)$$

from which the strict inequality $C_0 < C_1$ becomes obvious.

1.2.1 Natural Partial Orders

Consider the set $S = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ equipped with the usual total ordering \leq . A **natural partial order** \preceq on S is a partial ordering that is compatible with \leq (meaning that if $x \preceq y$, then $x \leq y$). This is equivalent to saying that (S, \preceq) is a **linear extension** of (S, \leq) . Define σ_n to be the number of natural partial orders on S , then [23–25]

$$\{\sigma_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1, 2, 7, 40, 357, 4824, 96428, 2800472, \dots\}$$

(see Figure 1.8).

Brightwell, Prömel & Steger [16] proved that

$$\sigma_n \sim \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}\eta^2 \cdot C_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4}} \cdot n = (12.7636300229\dots) \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4}} \cdot n & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ \frac{1}{2}\eta^2 \cdot C_0 \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4}} \cdot n = (12.7635965889\dots) \cdot 2^{\frac{n^2}{4}} \cdot n & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \end{cases}$$

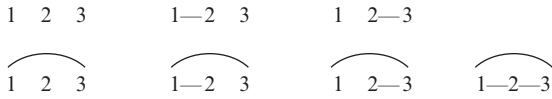


Figure 1.8 There are 7 natural partial orders on $\{1, 2, 3\}$, that is, $\sigma_3 = 7$.

where

$$\eta = \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1 - 2^{-j})^{-1} = 3.4627466194\dots$$

is a digital search tree constant [26]. These constants also arise when determining the average number λ_n of linear extensions of S , where S is a *random* poset on n points [16, 27]:

$$\lambda_n \sim \begin{cases} \frac{\eta^2 C_1}{2^{5/4} C_0} \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)!^2 \cdot n \cdot 2^{-n/2} = (5.0414454338\dots) \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)!^2 \cdot n \cdot 2^{-n/2}, \\ \frac{\eta^2 C_0}{2^{5/4} C_1} \cdot \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)! \cdot \left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)! \cdot n \cdot 2^{-n/2} = (5.0414190220\dots) \cdot \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)! \cdot \left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)! \cdot n \cdot 2^{-n/2} \end{cases}$$

when n is even, respectively, n is odd.

Consider instead the set S of all 2^n subsets of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ equipped with the usual partial ordering \subseteq . Define τ_n in a manner analogous to σ_n . We observe that $\lambda_n \cdot P_n \sim n! \cdot \sigma_n$ and wonder what the corresponding asymptotics for τ_n might be.

1.2.2 Evolving Posets

An interesting variation is as follows. What is the number N_ρ of partial orders on S with the property that a specified fraction ρ of the $n(n - 1)/2$ pairs of distinct points are comparable? (If necessary, $\rho n(n - 1)/2$ is rounded to the nearest integer.) Dhar [28, 29] investigated this question in the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and proposed a lattice gas model (with infinitely many phase transitions) based on the evolution of N_ρ as ρ increases. A highly intricate analysis of Dhar’s model was completed in [30–32].

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