# On the Roots of Chromatic Polynomials 

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#### Abstract

It is proved that the chromatic polynomial of a connected graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges has a root with modulus at least $(m-1) /(n-2)$; this bound is best possible for trees and 2-trees (only). It is also proved that the chromatic polynomial of a graph with few triangles that is not a forest has a nonreal root and that there is a graph with $n$ vertices whose chromatic polynomial has a root with imaginary part greater than $\sqrt{n} / 4$. © 1998 Academic Press


## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let $\pi(G, x)$ and $\chi(G)$ denote respectively the chromatic polynomial and chromatic number of a graph $G$ with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. A number of papers have considered the location of the roots of the chromatic polynomial of a graph. Birkhoff and Lewis [7] showed that the chromatic polynomial of any plane triangulation has no roots in the intervals $(-\infty, 0),(0,1),(1,2)$, and $[5, \infty)$, and Woodall [22] improved this by showing that in fact there are no roots in $(2,2.546602 \ldots)$ (the latter being the smallest nonintegral real root of the chromatic polynomial of the octahedron). It is well known (see [20]) that no graph has a root of its chromatic polynomial in $(-\infty, 0)$ or $(0,1)$. Jackson [13] proved that no graph has a root of its chromatic polynomial in the interval $(1,32 / 27]$, and Thomassen [19] has shown that Jackson's result is best possible, in that for any $\lambda>32 / 27$, there is a graph whose chromatic polynomial has a root arbitrary close to $\lambda$.

Regarding the locations of chromatic roots (i.e., roots of chromatic polynomials) in the complex plane, there are relatively few results and many conjectures (cf. [4, 5, 8, 11, 16, 17, 21]). Read and Royle [16] have calculated the chromatic roots of many small graphs, and the structure of these roots is still elusive. The limit points of the chromatic roots of a few special classes of graphs have been determined [2, 3, 16]. In [9] it was proved that all the roots of $\pi(G, x)$ lie within the disk $|z-1| \leqslant m-n+1$;
this theorem improves on results obtained earlier by Thier [18] and reported in [12].

In the opposite direction, Woodall [21] demonstrated that for fixed $a$ and sufficiently large $b$, the complete bipartite graph $K_{a, b}$ has a real root close to each integer in the interval [2, a/2], and, hence, there are graphs with real roots far from their chromatic number. We provide a lower bound for the largest modulus of a chromatic root of a connected graph in terms of the numbers of vertices, edges, and triangles.

## 2. CHROMATIC ROOTS OF LARGE MODULUS

Farrell [11] observed an apparent correlation between the largest real part of a chromatic root of a graph and the number of edges. The next result provides some mathematical basis for this observation. Throughout, $\mathfrak{R}(z)$ and $\mathfrak{J}(z)$ denote the real and imaginary parts of the complex number $z$, respectively.

Theorem 1. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n \geqslant 3$ vertices, $m$ edges, and triangles, and set

$$
\begin{align*}
& D=(m-1)^{2}(n-3)^{2}-(n-2)(n-3)[(m-1)(m-2)-2 t],  \tag{1}\\
& B=(m-1) /(n-2) \quad \text { and } \quad W=B+\sqrt{D} /(n-2)(n-3) \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

(if $n=3$, then $D=0$ and we take $W=B$ ). If $D \geqslant 0, \pi(G, x)$ has a root whose real part is at least $W$, and if $D<0, \pi(G, x)$ has roots $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ (not necessarily distinct) such that $\mathfrak{R}\left(z_{1}\right) \geqslant B$ and $\mathfrak{\Im}\left(z_{2}\right) \geqslant \sqrt{-D} /(n-2)(n-3)$.

Proof. First note that if $G$ is a tree or $K_{3}$, then $D=0$ and $\chi(G)=B+1$, so that $W=B$ is a root. Thus we can assume $n \geqslant 4$.

We shall need some notation. The chromatic polynomial can be written in the usual form (cf. [6, p. 76-77])

$$
\pi(G, x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} b_{i} x^{n-i},
$$

and $b_{0}=1, b_{1}=m$, and $b_{2}=\binom{m}{2}-t$. Clearly $\chi(G) \geqslant 2$. Thus $x(x-1)$ divides $\pi(G, x)$, and hence the chromatic roots of $G$ are 0,1 and those of

$$
g(x)=\frac{\pi(G, s)}{x(x-1)}=x^{n-2}-(m-1) x^{n-3}+\left(\binom{m-1}{2}-t\right) x^{n-4}-\cdots .
$$

Consider the $(n-4)$ th derivative of $g(x)$,

$$
g^{(n-4)}(x)=\frac{(n-2)!}{2} x^{2}-(m-1)(n-3)!x+\left(\binom{(m-1)}{2}-t\right)(n-4)!.
$$

By (1) and (2), $W$ is one of the roots of this quadratic. A result from the theory of polynomials, due to Lucas (see [15, p. 22]), states that if $f$ is a nonconstant polynomial, then the roots of the derivative $f^{\prime}$ of $f$ lie in the convex hull of the roots of $f$. It follows that the roots of $g^{(n-4)}$ must lie in the convex hull of the roots of $g$, and hence of $\pi(G, x)$. Thus $\pi(G, x)$ must have roots $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ such that $\mathfrak{R}\left(z_{1}\right) \geqslant \mathfrak{R}(W)$ and $\mathfrak{J}\left(z_{2}\right) \geqslant \mathfrak{J}(W)$. The result now follows from the formula for $W$.

Corollary 2. If $G$ is a connected graph with $n \geqslant 3$ vertices, then $\pi(G, x)$ has a root $z$ whose modulus is at least $(m-1) /(n-2)$. Further, the moduli of all the roots are at most $B=(m-1) /(n-2)$ if and only if $G$ is a tree or a 2-tree (that is, a graph that can built up from the complete graph of order 2 by successively joining a new vertex to both ends of an existing edge).

Proof. As in the proof of the previous theorem, we can assume that $n \geqslant 4$. The first statement follows directly from Theorem 1. Alternatively, if we work with

$$
g^{(n-3)}(x)=(n-2)!x-(m-1)(n-3)!
$$

instead of $g^{(n-4)}(x)$ in the previous proof, we see that its root, namely $B$, must lie in the convex hull of the roots of $g(x)$, and hence of $\pi(G, x)$. Now if $g(x)$ has no root of modulus larger than $B$, it follows that $B$ must be a root of $g, g^{\prime}, \ldots, g^{(n-3)}$ (for the convex hulls of the roots can only shrink as we differentiate). Thus the monic polynomial $g(x)$ must be $(x-B)^{n-2}$, and hence

$$
\pi(G, x)=x(x-1)(x-B)^{n-2} .
$$

Now $\pi(G, x)$ is a monic polynomial with integer coefficients, and hence all its rational roots are integers. Thus $B$ must be an integer, which means that $\chi(G)=B+1$ and $\pi(G, x)$ has a root at every nonnegative integer $\leqslant B$. It follows that $B=1$ or 2 . If $B=1$, then $m=n-1$ and $G$ is a tree. If $B=2$, then $\pi(G, x)=x(x-1)(x-2)^{n-2}$, and a result of Dmitriev [10] (see also [14, p. 224]) implies that any graph with a polynomial of this form is in fact a 2 -tree.

Finally, if $G$ is a tree, then the roots of $\pi(G, x)=x(x-1)^{n-1}$, namely 0 and 1 , are at most $B=1$, and if $G$ is a 2 -tree, then the roots 0,1 , and 2 , of $\pi(G, x)=x(x-1)(x-2)^{n-2}$ are at most $B=2$, as for any 2-tree of order $n, m=2 n-3$.

This result offers a simpler proof than Woodall's [21] of the fact that there is no upper bound on the modulus of the chromatic roots of a graph in terms of its chromatic number (as $(m-1) /(n-2)$ can be arbitrarily large for graphs of any fixed chromatic number $k \geqslant 2$ ).

A similar argument to the proof of Theorem 1 shows that if $\chi(G) \geqslant k \geqslant 2$, then $\pi(G, x)$ has a root whose modulus is at least $\left(m-\binom{k}{2}\right) /(n-k)$. One can verify that this bound is better than $B=(m-1) /(n-2)$ whenever $B>k-1 \geqslant 2$ (if $B \leqslant k-1$, then of course the root at $k-1$ provides a better bound than $B$ anyway).

## 3. SOME REMARKS

Trees and 2-trees are chordal graphs (i.e., they have no induced cycle of length greater than 3 ), and so their chromatic polynomials have only real roots (in fact, only integral roots-cf. [17, p. 34]). These graphs have, in general many triangles. In contrast:

Corollary 3. If $G$ is a triangle-free graph that is not a forest, then $\pi(G, x)$ has a nonreal root.

Proof. Clearly we can assume that $G$ is connected, and hence $m \geqslant n \geqslant 4$. With the notation of Theorem 1, $t=0$ and (1) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=(m-1)(n-3)(n-m-1)<0 . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $g^{(n-4)}$ has a nonreal root, and it follows (by Lucas' theorem) that so does $\pi(G, x)$.

By considering Sturm sequences, one can weaken the requirement for $G$ to be triangle-free. The Sturm sequence of a polynomial $p$ with real coefficients is $p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots$, where $p_{0}=p, p_{1}=p^{\prime}$, and for $i \geqslant 2, p_{i}$ is the negative of the remainder when $p_{i-1}$ is divided by $p_{i-2}$ (one terminates the sequence when $p_{i}$ becomes the zero polynomial). It is known (cf. [1, p. 175-176]) that a monic polynomial $p$ has only real roots if and only if all the terms in its Sturm sequence have positive leading coefficient. A calculation on the polynomial $g$ defined in the proof of Theorem 1 shows that $g_{2}$ has negative leading coefficient if

$$
\frac{2}{n-2}\left(\binom{m}{2}-t\right)-\frac{(m-1)^{2}(n-3)}{(n-2)^{2}}>0,
$$

and this is equivalent to

$$
t<\frac{m(m-n)+n-1}{2(n-2)} .
$$

## Hence,

Theorem 4. If $G$ is a connected graph with $n \geqslant 4$ vertices, $m$ edges, and $t$ triangles, then the chromatic polynomial of $G$ has a nonreal root if

$$
t<\frac{m(m-n)+n-1}{2(n-2)} .
$$

A number of fascinating questions about chromatic roots emerge. Read and Royle [16] have asked about the smallest real part of a chromatic root. In contrast, let $I(n)$ denote the largest imaginary part of a chromatic root among all graphs on $n$ vertices.

Theorem 5. For all $n \geqslant 4, I(n)>\sqrt{n} / 4$.
Proof. Let $G=K_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor\lceil\lceil/ 2\rceil}$, a triangle-free graph with $n$ vertices and $m=\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$ edges. If $n$ is even then (3) gives

$$
-D=\frac{1}{16}\left(n^{2}-4\right)(n-3)(n-2)^{2}>\frac{1}{16} n(n-3)^{2}(n-2)^{2}
$$

since $n^{2}-4>n^{2}-3 n$. If $n$ is odd then (3) gives

$$
-D=\frac{1}{16}\left(n^{2}-5\right)(n-3)^{2}(n-1)>\frac{1}{16} n(n-3)^{2}(n-2)^{2}
$$

since $n^{2}-5>n(n-2)$ and $n-1>n-2$. In each case, by Theorem $1, G$ has a chromatic root with imaginary part at least $\sqrt{-D} /(n-2)(n-3)>\sqrt{n} / 4$, and so $I(n)>\sqrt{n} / 4$.

The actual value of $I(n)$, and the corresponding extremal graphs, remain unknown.

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