

Coloring k -trees with forbidden monochrome and rainbow triangles

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Abstract

An (\mathcal{H}, H) -good coloring is the coloring of the edges of a (hyper)graph \mathcal{H} such that no subgraph $H \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is monochrome or rainbow. Similarly, we define an (\mathcal{H}, H) -proper coloring to be the coloring of the vertices of \mathcal{H} with forbidden monochromatic and rainbow copies of H . An (\mathcal{H}, K_t) -good coloring is also known as a mixed Ramsey coloring when $\mathcal{H} = K_n$ is a complete graph, and an $(\mathcal{H}, \overline{K}_t)$ -proper coloring is a mixed hypergraph coloring of a t -uniform hypergraph \mathcal{H} . We highlight these two related theories by finding the number of (T_k^n, K_3) -good and proper colorings for some k -trees, T_k^n with $k \geq 2$. Further, a partition of an edge/vertex set into i nonempty classes is called *feasible* if it is induced by a good/proper coloring using i colors. If r_i is the number of feasible partitions for $1 \leq i \leq n$, then the vector (r_1, \dots, r_n) is called the *chromatic spectrum*. We investigate and compare the exact values in the chromatic spectrum for some 2-trees, given (T_2^n, K_3) -good versus (T_2^n, K_3) -proper colorings. In particular, we find that when T_2^n is a fan, r_2 follows a Fibonacci recurrence.

1 Preliminaries

It is customary to define a *hypergraph* \mathcal{H} to be the ordered pair (X, \mathcal{E}) , where X is a finite set of vertices with *order* $|X| = n$ and \mathcal{E} is a collection of nonempty subsets of X , called (*hyper*)*edges*. \mathcal{H} is said to be *linear* (otherwise it is *nonlinear*) if $E_1 \cap E_2$ is either empty or a singleton, for any pair of hyperedges. The number of vertices contained in E of \mathcal{E} , denoted $|E|$, is the *size* of E . When $|E| = r$, \mathcal{H} is said to be *r-uniform* and a 2-uniform hypergraph $\mathcal{H} = G$ is a *graph*. For more basic definitions of graphs and hypergraphs, we recommend [17].

Consider the mapping $c : A \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, \lambda\}$ being a λ -coloring of the elements of A . A subset $B \subseteq A$ is said to be *monochrome* if all of its elements share the same color and B is *rainbow* if all of its elements have distinct colors. Let H be a subgraph of a graph G . An edge coloring of G is called $(G; H)$ -*good* if it admits no monochromatic copy of H and no rainbow copy of H . Likewise, a $(G; H)$ -*proper* coloring is the coloring of the vertices of G such that no copy of H is monochrome or rainbow. Figure 1(A) is an example of a $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring while Figure 1(B) shows a $(G; K_3)$ -good coloring.

Axenovich et al. [2] have referred to (K_n, K_3) -good coloring as mixed-Ramsey coloring, a hybrid of classical Ramsey and anti-Ramsey colorings [2, 8, 14] and the minimum and maximum numbers of colors used in a (K_n, K_3) -good coloring have been the subject of extensive research in [2, 3], for instance. Further, in mixed hypergraph colorings [16], a hypergraph \mathcal{H} that admits an $(\mathcal{H}; H)$ -proper coloring is called a *bihypergraph* when $H = \overline{K_t}$, the complement of a complete graph on $t \geq 3$ vertices. We note here that, mixed hypergraphs are often used to encode partitioning constraints, and recently bihypergraphs have appeared in communication models for cyber security [11]. Although this paper focuses on graphs, it is worth noting that the results concern some linear and nonlinear bihypergraphs as well.

A partition of an edge/vertex set into i nonempty classes is called *feasible* if it is induced by a good/proper coloring using i colors. If r_i is the number of feasible partitions for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, then the vector (r_1, \dots, r_n) is called the *chromatic spectrum*. The chromatic spectrum of mixed hypergraphs has been well studied by several researchers such as Kràl and Tuza [5, 6, 12, 13]. Here, we found the values in the chromatic spectrum for any $(G; H)$ -good or $(G; H)$ -proper colorings when G is some non-isomorphic 2-trees, which are triangulated graphs, and H is a triangle. A comparative analysis of these values is presented in our effort to establish some bounds. In the process, we found that when G is a fan, r_2 follows a shifted Fibonacci recurrence. If we denote the falling factorial by $\lambda^{\underline{i}} = \lambda(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2) \dots (\lambda - i + 1)$, then the (*chromatic*) *polynomial* $P(G; H, \lambda) = P(G; H) = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \lambda^{\underline{i}}$, counts the number of colorings given some constraint on H , using at most λ colors. This polynomial is well known in the case of vertex colorings of graphs with a forbidden monochrome subgraph $H \in \{K_2, \overline{K_t}\}$ [4, 7, 15]. In this paper, we also presented this polynomial for k -trees with forbidden monochrome or rainbow K_t for all $t \geq 3$. Here, the Stirling

number of the second kind is denoted by $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} n \\ k \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$; it counts the number of partitions of a set of n elements into k nonempty subsets. See Table 4 for some of its values. These notations and other combinatorial identities can be found in [10]. In Appendix, we present some arrays of the values of the parameters involved in this article; the zero entries are omitted in each table.

2 Chromatic polynomial of some k -trees

As a generalization of a tree, a k -tree is a graph which arises from a k -clique by 0 or more iterations of adding n new vertices, each joined to a k -clique in the old graph; This process generates several non-isomorphic k -trees. Figure 1 shows two non-isomorphic 2-trees on 6 vertices. K -trees, when $k \geq 2$, are shown to be useful in constructing reliable network in [9]. Here, we denote by T_k^n , a k -tree on $n + k$ vertices which is obtained from a k -clique S , by repeatedly adding n new vertices and making them adjacent to all the vertices of S . When $k = 2$, this particular 2-tree is also known as an $(n + 1)$ -bridge $\theta(1, 2, \dots, 2)$. See Figure 1(B) when $n = 4$.

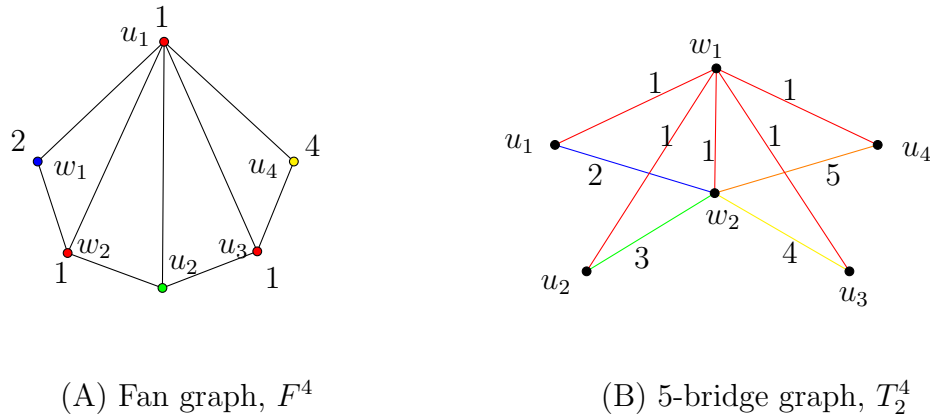


Figure 1: Two non-isomorphic 2-trees with a unique $(F^4; K_3)$ -proper 4-coloring and a unique $(T_2^4; K_3)$ -good 5-coloring

Theorem 2.1. *Suppose T_k^n is a k -tree on $n + 2$ vertices. The number of its $(T_k^n; K_{k+1})$ -good colorings is*

$$P(T_k^n; K_{k+1}) = \lambda(\lambda^k - 1)^n + \lambda \binom{k}{2} (\lambda^k - (\lambda - \binom{k}{2}))^n + (\lambda \binom{k}{2} - \lambda \binom{k}{2} - \lambda) \lambda^{nk}.$$

Proof. Given any coloring of T_k^n , one of the following is true:

(i) S is monochromatic, giving λ colorings. For each such coloring, there are $\lambda^k - 1$ ways to color the remaining k edges, that arise from each of the n vertices added, giving the first term.

(ii) S is rainbow, giving $\lambda^{|S|}$ colorings. For each such coloring, there are $\lambda^k - (\lambda - |S|)^k$ ways to color the remaining k edges of each of the $n(k + 1)$ cliques, giving the second term.

(iii) S is neither monochromatic nor rainbow, giving $\lambda^{|S|} - \lambda^{|S|} - \lambda$ colorings. For each such coloring, there are λ^k ways to color the remaining edges of each added vertex, giving the last term. The result follows from the fact that $|S| = \binom{k}{2}$. \square

Using a similar argument as in the proof of Theorem 2.1 when $|S| = k$, gives

Theorem 2.2. *Suppose T_k^n is a k -tree on $n+2$ vertices. The number of its $(T_k^n; K_{k+1})$ -proper colorings is given by*

$$P(T_k^n; K_{k+1}) = \lambda(\lambda - 1)^n + \lambda^k k^n + (\lambda^k - \lambda^k - \lambda)\lambda^n.$$

Remark 1: Following the argument for the proof of Theorem 2.1, we can deduce that the number of $(G; K_3)$ -good colorings for any 2-tree G is the same; this gives rise to equivalent chromatic spectral values. However, in the next section, we show that this is not the case for $(G; K_3)$ -proper colorings, when G is some 2-tree.

3 Chromatic spectra of (monochrome and rainbow)-triangle free 2-trees

Here, we find and compare the values in the chromatic spectrum of some 2-trees. The next proposition is instrumental in expressing several formulas in the previous section into a falling factorial form, giving the chromatic spectral values.

Proposition 3.1. *The equality $\lambda(\lambda - 1)^n = \sum_{k=2}^{n+1} \left[\sum_{s=0}^{n-k+1} (-1)^s \binom{n}{s} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-s \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \right] \lambda^k$ holds for all $n \geq 1$.*

Proof. Clearly,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(\lambda - 1)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \lambda^{n+1-i} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \left[\sum_{k=1}^{n+1-i} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-i \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \lambda^k \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \left[\sum_{s=0}^{n-k+1} (-1)^s \binom{n}{s} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-s \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \right] \lambda^k \\ &= \sum_{s=0}^n (-1)^s \binom{n}{s} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-s \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right\} \lambda^1 \tag{1} \end{aligned}$$

$$+ \sum_{k=2}^{n+1} \left[\sum_{s=0}^{n-k+1} (-1)^s \binom{n}{s} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-s \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \right] \lambda^k. \tag{2}$$

The result follows from the fact that (1) is equal to zero. □

Corollary 3.1. *If G is a 2-tree on $n + 2$ vertices then the chromatic spectrum of its $(G; K_3)$ -good coloring is $(r_2, \dots, r_k, \dots, r_{n+1})$,*

$$\text{where } r_k = 3^n \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-k+1} (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \begin{Bmatrix} n+1-i \\ k \end{Bmatrix} \right), \quad k = 2, \dots, n+1.$$

Proof. The result follows from Theorem 2.1 when $k = 2$, Remark 1 and Proposition 3.1. □

Here is the analogous result in a $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring when G is the specific 2-tree T_2^n which we described in the previous section.

Corollary 3.2. *If $G = \theta(1, 2, \dots, 2)$, a 2-tree on $n + 2$ vertices, then the chromatic spectrum of its $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring is $(r'_2, \dots, r'_k, \dots, r'_{n+1})$, where*

$$r'_k = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=0}^{n-k+1} (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \begin{Bmatrix} n+1-i \\ k \end{Bmatrix} & \text{if } k \geq 3 \\ 2^n + 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof. Since $G = T_2^n$, a 2-tree, it follows from Theorem 2.2 (when $k = 2$) that $P(G; K_3) = P(T_2^n; K_3) = \lambda(\lambda - 1)^n + 2^n \lambda^2$, to which we then apply Proposition 3.1. Also, observe that from (2) when $k = 2$,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \begin{Bmatrix} n+1-i \\ 2 \end{Bmatrix} = 1,$$

given the second statement. □

Now, we take a closer look at another well-known 2-tree. Construct a graph G as follows: start with a triangle $\{w_1, w_2, u_1\}$, and iteratively add $n - 1$ new vertices, such that each additional vertex u_i is adjacent to the pair $\{u_1, u_{i-1}\}$, for $i = 3, \dots, n + 1$, and u_2 is adjacent to the pair $\{u_1, w_2\}$. G is often called a *fan* on n and we denote it by F^n ; see Figure 1(A) for an example when $n = 4$. Further, from the construction, it is clear that F^n is also a 2-tree. Here, we color the vertices of F^n , and recursively count the number of $(F^n; K_3)$ -proper colorings. To help illustrate this recursion, we present the next example.

Example 3.1. *Chromatic spectrum of an $(F^4; K_3)$ -proper coloring.*

Consider the fan F^4 , obtained by iteratively adding $n = 4$ vertices to a base edge $\{w_1, w_2\}$ as shown in Figure 1(A). When $n = 1$, it is clear that there are exactly $2\lambda^2 + \lambda^2$ ways to color the vertices of the triangle $\{w_1, w_2, u_1\}$ so that it is neither monochrome nor rainbow. The first and second terms count the cases when (a) $c(u_1) \neq c(w_2)$ and (b) $c(u_1) = c(w_2)$, respectively. When $n = 2$, from (a) it

follows that for each such colorings, there are exactly two ways to color u_2 ; either $c(u_2) = c(u_1) \neq c(w_2)$ or $c(u_2) = c(w_2) \neq c(u_1)$. Likewise from (b), there are $\lambda - 1$ ways to color u_2 such that $c(u_2) \neq c(u_1) = c(w_2)$. Together, we have

$$P(F^2; K_3) = 2(2\lambda^2) + (\lambda - 1)\lambda^2 = \lambda^2[2 + (\lambda - 1)] + 2\lambda^2. \tag{3}$$

As the terms in the last expression of (3) are arranged so that the first term counts the case when $c(u_1) \neq c(u_2)$ and the last term counts the case when $c(u_1) = c(u_2)$, we can apply once again the same argument to the newly added vertex u_3 . Thus, we have

$$P(F^3; K_3) = 2[\lambda^2(2 + (\lambda - 1))] + (\lambda - 1)[2\lambda^2] = \lambda^2[2 + 3(\lambda - 1)] + \lambda^2[2 + (\lambda - 1)]. \tag{4}$$

Similarly, by adding u_4 to F^3 , we obtain from (4),

$$P(F^4; K_3) = \lambda^2[2 + 5(\lambda - 1) + (\lambda - 1)^2] + \lambda^2[2 + 3(\lambda - 1)], \tag{5}$$

after rearranging the expression so that the first and last terms count the cases when $c(u_1) \neq c(u_4)$ and $c(u_1) = c(u_4)$, respectively. Hence,

$$P(F^4; K_3) = 4\lambda(\lambda - 1) + 8\lambda(\lambda - 1)^2 + 1\lambda(\lambda - 1)^3. \tag{6}$$

Now apply Proposition 3.1 to each term of (6) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} P(F^4; K_3) &= 4\left[\binom{1}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^2 + 8\left[\binom{2}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} - \binom{2}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^2 \\ &+ 1\left[\binom{3}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} - \binom{3}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} + \binom{3}{2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^2 \\ &+ 8\left[\binom{2}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^3 + 1\left[\binom{3}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\} - \binom{3}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^3 + 1\left[\binom{4}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{matrix} \right\}\right]\lambda^4 \\ &= [4 + 8(3 - 2) + 1(7 - 3 \cdot 3 + 3)]\lambda^2 + [8 + 1(6 - 3)]\lambda^3 + 1[\lambda^4] \\ &= 13\lambda^2 + 11\lambda^3 + 1\lambda^4. \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

Thus, the chromatic spectrum of any $(F^4; K_3)$ -proper coloring is $(13, 11, 1)$.

To support a general recursion presented in the next theorem, we let $a_{4,0} = 2$, $a_{4,1} = 5$, $a_{4,2} = 1$, $a_{4,3} = 2$ and $a_{4,4} = 3$; Table 2 shows the values of each $a_{i,j}$ (when $n = 4$). With these coefficients we obtain directly from (5):

$$\begin{aligned} P(F^4; K_3) &= \lambda^2[a_{4,0}(\lambda - 1)^0 + a_{4,1}(\lambda - 1)^1 + a_{4,2}(\lambda - 1)^2] \\ &+ \lambda^2[a_{4,3}(\lambda - 1)^0 + a_{4,4}(\lambda - 1)^1] \\ &= \phi(4, 0)\lambda(\lambda - 1)^1 + \phi(4, 1)\lambda(\lambda - 1)^2 + \phi(4, 2)\lambda(\lambda - 1)^3, \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

where

$$\phi(4, r) = \begin{cases} a_{4,r} + a_{4,3+r} & \text{if } r < 2 \\ a_{4,2} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We note that (8) follows from Theorem 3.1, when $n = 4$. Now, Proposition 3.1 gives

$$\begin{aligned} P(F^4; K_3) &= [\phi(4, 0)(1) + \phi(4, 1)(3 - 2) + \phi(4, 2)(7 - 3 \cdot 3 + 3)]\lambda^2 \\ &\quad + [\phi(4, 1)(1) + \phi(4, 2)(6 - 3)]\lambda^3 + [\phi(4, 2)]\lambda^4 \\ &= [\phi(4, 0) + \phi(4, 1) + \phi(4, 2)]\lambda^2 + [\phi(4, 1) + 3\phi(4, 2)]\lambda^3 + \phi(4, 2)\lambda^4. \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Again, observe that (9) follows from (13) when $n = 4$. The values of $\phi(n, r)$ when $n = 11$ are recorded in Table 3, with $0 \leq r \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$. Thus, since $\phi(4, 0) = 4$, $\phi(4, 1) = 8$, $\phi(4, 2) = 1$, we have

$$P(F^4; K_3) = 13\lambda^2 + 11\lambda^3 + 1\lambda^4.$$

Table 1 in the Appendix shows some of the chromatic spectral values given a $(T_2^n; K_3)$ -good coloring, a $(T_2^n; K_3)$ -proper coloring and an $(F^n; K_3)$ -proper coloring when $n = 1, \dots, 6$. These values can be derived from Corollary 3.1, Corollary 3.2, and Corollary 3.3 respectively, for each coloring condition.

Theorem 3.1. *The number of $(F^n; K_3)$ -proper colorings is*

$$P(F^n; K_3) = \sum_{0 \leq r \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r)\lambda(\lambda - 1)^{r+1}, \text{ where}$$

$$\phi(n, r) = \begin{cases} a_{n,r} + a_{n, \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + r} & \text{if } r < \frac{n}{2} \\ a_{n, \frac{n}{2}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and the values of $a_{i,j}$ satisfy, for $0 \leq j \leq i \leq n$,

(i) $a_{i,0} = 2$ and $a_{1,1} = 1$

(ii) for all even $i \geq 2$, $a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} a_{i-1,j} + a_{i-1, j + \lfloor \frac{i-1}{2} \rfloor} & ; 1 \leq j \leq \lceil \frac{i-1}{2} \rceil \\ 1 & ; j = \frac{i}{2} \\ a_{i-1, j - \lceil \frac{i+1}{2} \rceil} & ; \lceil \frac{i+1}{2} \rceil \leq j \leq i \end{cases}$

(iii) for all odd $i \geq 3$, $a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} a_{i-1,j} + a_{i-1, j + \lfloor \frac{i-1}{2} \rfloor} & ; 1 \leq j \leq \frac{i-1}{2} \\ a_{i-1, j - \lceil \frac{i}{2} \rceil} & ; \lceil \frac{i}{2} \rceil \leq j \leq i \end{cases}$

Proof. When $n = 1$, it follows that $P(F^1; K_3) = \phi(1, 0)\lambda(\lambda - 1)^1 = [a_{1,0} + a_{1,1}]\lambda(\lambda - 1)^1 = 3\lambda(\lambda - 1)$, since $a_{1,0} = 2$ and $a_{1,1} = 1$ by condition (i). For $n \geq 2$, at each iteration, we separate the cases when $c(u_1) \neq c(u_k)$ from when $c(u_1) = c(u_k)$. Further, we rearrange the terms of the resulting expression of $P(F^k; K_3)$ so that the

first counts the colorings $c(u_1) \neq c(u_k)$, and the last counts the colorings $c(u_1) = c(u_k)$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$. Hence, for $n \geq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(F^n; K_3) &= \lambda^2 \left(\sum_{1 \leq k \leq \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil} a_{n,k-1} (\lambda - 1)^{k-1} \right) \\
 &\quad + \lambda^2 \left(\sum_{1 + \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil \leq k \leq n} a_{n,k-1} (\lambda - 1)^{k - \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil - 1} \right) \\
 &= \sum_{1 \leq k \leq \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil} [a_{n,k-1} + a_{n, \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + k - 1}] \lambda (\lambda - 1)^{k+1}, \tag{10}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the coefficients $a_{i,j}$ are obtained recursively from items (i)–(iii). By letting $a_{i,j} = 0$ when $i < j$, it follows that

$$P(F^n; K_3) = \sum_{0 \leq r \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r) \lambda (\lambda - 1)^{r+1}, \tag{11}$$

where $\phi(n, r) = \begin{cases} a_{n,r} + a_{n, \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + r} & \text{if } r < \frac{n}{2} \\ a_{n, \frac{n}{2}} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ □

Observation 1: The previous result can be reinterpreted as follows: Let $a_{0,0} = 2$ and define an $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrix A whose entries are the coefficients $a_{i,j}$ for $0 \leq i, j \leq n$. It follows that (10) is equivalent to the equation $P = \lambda A \cdot B$, where

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P(F^0; K_3) + \lambda(\lambda - 2) \\ P(F^1; K_3) \\ \vdots \\ P(F^n; K_3) \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} & & & \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \\ a_{n,0} & a_{n,1} & \dots & a_{n,n} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = [B^1 | B^2]^T,$$

with $B^1 = [(\lambda - 1)^1 \dots (\lambda - 1)^{\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil}]$ and $B^2 = [(\lambda - 1)^1 \dots (\lambda - 1)^{\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor}]$.

When $n = 10$, we present the entries of the lower triangular matrix A in Table 2 to help in the verification of the formula. The matrix A has several interesting properties, some of which we discuss in the next observation. For now, it is easy to see that its determinant is

$$\det(A) = \prod_{i=0}^n a_{i,i} = 2 \left(\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil \right)!,$$

and its characteristic polynomial is given by

$$(-1)^{n+1} (x - 1)^{\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil} (x - 2)^2 (x - 3) \dots (x - \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil).$$

Corollary 3.3. *The values in the chromatic spectrum of any $(F^n; K_3)$ -proper coloring are given by $r''_k = \sum_{k-2 \leq r \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r) \left(\sum_{0 \leq i \leq r-k+2} (-1)^i \binom{r+1}{i} \left\{ \begin{matrix} r+2-i \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \right)$, for each $k = 2, \dots, \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1$, with*

$$\phi(n, r) = \begin{cases} a_{n,r} + a_{n, \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + r} & \text{if } r < \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \\ a_{n, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof. For each $r = 0, \dots, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$, we apply Proposition 3.1 to $P(F^n; K_3)$, giving

$$\begin{aligned} P(F^n; K_3) &= \phi(n, 0) [(-1)^0 \binom{1}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^2 \\ &+ \phi(n, 1) [(-1)^0 \binom{2}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} + (-1)^1 \binom{2}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^2 \\ &\quad + \phi(n, 1) [(-1)^0 \binom{2}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^3 \\ &+ \phi(n, 2) [(-1)^0 \binom{3}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} + (-1)^1 \binom{3}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} + (-1)^2 \binom{3}{2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^2 \\ &+ \phi(n, 2) [(-1)^0 \binom{3}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\} + (-1)^1 \binom{3}{1} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^3 \\ &+ \phi(n, 3) [(-1)^0 \binom{3}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^4 \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &+ \phi(n, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) [(-1)^0 \binom{\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil}{0} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1 \\ \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1 \end{matrix} \right\}] \lambda^{\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1}. \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Therefore,

$$P(F^n; K_3) = \sum_{k=2}^{\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1} \left(\sum_{r=k-2}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r) \left[\sum_{0 \leq i \leq r-k+2} (-1)^i \binom{r+1}{i} \left\{ \begin{matrix} r+2-i \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} \right] \right) \lambda^k, \tag{13}$$

giving the result. □

Observation 2: When $k = \lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1$, the last term of (13) is

$$\phi(n, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ 3 + \frac{n-1}{2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Also, it is worth noting that when $k = 2$,

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r) \left[\sum_{0 \leq i \leq r} (-1)^i \binom{r+1}{i} \left\{ \begin{matrix} r+2-i \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} \right] = \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, r);$$

this proceeds from the simple fact that $\sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \left\{ \begin{matrix} n+1-i \\ 2 \end{matrix} \right\} = 1$, for all n .

Further, observe that if we define $b_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \phi(n, j)$ for each $i \leq n$, it follows that

$b_i = \sum_j a_{i,j}$ and the sequence $\{b_n\}$ satisfies the shifted Fibonacci recurrence given by $b_0 = 2, b_1 = 3$ and $b_n = b_{n-1} + b_{n-2}$, for $n \geq 2$. From this observation, we determine the generating function in the next proposition.

Proposition 3.2. *The number of partitions of the $n + 2$ vertices of a fan into 2 nonempty classes such that no triangle is monochrome or rainbow is given by*

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} [(2 + \sqrt{5})\alpha^n - (2 - \sqrt{5})\beta^n], \text{ where } \alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \text{ and } \beta = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}.$$

Proof. Let $b(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ such that $b_0 = 2, b_1 = 3$ and $b_n = b_{n-1} + b_{n-2}$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} b(x) &= 2 + 3x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} b_n x^n \\ &= 2 + 3x + x \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k x^k + x^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k x^k \\ &= 2 + 3x + x \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k x^k - 2 \right) + x^2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k x^k \\ &= 2 + x + xb(x) + x^2 b(x). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $b(x) = \frac{2+x}{1-x-x^2} = -\frac{2+x}{(x+\alpha)(x+\beta)}$, with $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\beta = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$. Using a partial fraction decomposition, and subsequently the power series, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} b(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\frac{\beta-2}{x+\beta} - \frac{\alpha-2}{x+\alpha} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\frac{\beta-2}{\beta} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n x^n \right) - \frac{\alpha-2}{\alpha} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \beta^n x^n \right) \right] \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\frac{\beta-2}{\beta} \alpha^n - \frac{\alpha-2}{\alpha} \beta^n \right] x^n, \end{aligned}$$

giving that $b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\frac{\beta-2}{\beta} \alpha^n - \frac{\alpha-2}{\alpha} \beta^n \right]$. The result follows, after a simplification. □

In summary, the extreme chromatic spectral values given the aforementioned colorings are clear; the lower values are, $r_2 = 3^n$, $r'_2 = 2^n + 1$, $r''_2 = b(x)$ where

$$b(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[\frac{\beta - 2}{\beta} \alpha^n - \frac{\alpha - 2}{\alpha} \beta^n \right].$$

Also, for all $n > 1$, the upper values are also

shown to be $r_{n+1} = 3^n$, $r'_{n+1} = 1$, and $r''_{\lceil \frac{n+1}{2} \rceil + 1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ 3 + \frac{n-1}{2} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

4 Conclusion and future work

To the best of our knowledge, the problem of finding the exact chromatic spectral values in a $(K_n; K_t)$ -good coloring remains open for all $t \geq 3$ and larger values of n ; this particular problem has greatly inspired this research. When G is a 2-tree, the findings in Corollaries 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 suggest the existence of some constant $c < 1$, such that $r_k^* = cr_k$ where r_k^* and r_k are the corresponding values in the chromatic spectra of a $(G; K_3)$ -proper and a $(G; K_3)$ -good coloring, respectively. For instance, $c = (\frac{1}{3})^n$ when G is an $(n + 1)$ -bridge. Further work is needed to determine whether the values in the chromatic spectrum of a $(G; H)$ -good coloring remain upper bounds for their counterparts in a $(G; H)$ -proper coloring, given any other graph G and some subgraph H .

Also, the original definition of a $(G; H)$ -proper coloring can be extended to include more than one subgraph. For instance, a $(G; H_1, \dots, H_m)$ -proper coloring can be defined as the coloring of the vertices of G such that no copy of (distinct) subgraphs H_i is monochrome or rainbow, for $i = 1, \dots, m$. As such, when $G = \mathcal{H}$ and $H_i = \overline{K}_{t_i}$, \mathcal{H} is a non-uniform bihypergraph with hyperedges of sizes $t_i \geq 3$. Some related results concerning non-uniform bihypergraphs can be found in [1]. As a step in this direction for graphs, we propose the next lemma. This lemma shows that the chromatic spectral values of any $(F^n; K_3, H)$ -proper coloring are identical when $H \in \{P_n^*, K_{1,n-1}, C_n, \theta(1, n_1, n_2)\}$, where P_n^* , $K_{1,n-1}$ and C_n denote respectively, an n -path that includes a fixed vertex (apex) u_1 , an n -cycle, and an n -star.

Corollary 4.1. *Suppose G is a fan on $n \geq 4$ vertices. Any $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring is a $(G; H)$ -proper coloring where $H \in \{P_s^*, K_{1,t}, C_r, \theta(1, n_1, n_2)\}$ with $s \geq 4$, $\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor \leq t \leq n - 1$, $r \geq 3$, and $2 \leq n_1 \leq n_2$ such that $n_1 + n_2 \leq n$.*

Proof. Suppose G is a fan on $n \geq 4$ vertices which we can construct as follow: start with a triangle, say (u_1, u_2, u_3) , and iteratively add $n - 3$ new vertices such that each additional vertex u_i is adjacent to the pair (u_1, u_{i-1}) , for $i = 4, \dots, n$. Assume there is a $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring.

(i) Observe that for $s \geq 4$, every path $P_s^* \subseteq G$ contains the subgraph $u_1 u_i u_{i+1}$ for some i ($2 \leq i \leq n - 2$). If some 3-path (that includes u_1) is monochrome/rainbow then the triangle (u_1, u_i, u_{i+1}) is monochrome/rainbow, violating our $(G; K_3)$ -proper coloring assumption. Hence G admits a $(G; P_s^*)$ -proper coloring for all $s \geq 4$.

(ii) By letting the vertices of $K_{1,t} \subseteq G$ be all the vertices of G , it follows that $t \leq n - 1$. Now, consider the coloring such $c(u_1) = c(u_{2k})$ and $c(u_1) \neq c(u_{2k+1})$

for $k = 1, \dots, \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil$. Clearly, such coloring does not violate our original coloring assumption. The lower bound of t is satisfied by letting the vertices of $K_{1,t}$ be $\{u_1, u_2\} \cup \{u_{2k+1} : k = 1, \dots, \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil\}$, which guarantees a $(G; K_{1,t})$ -proper coloring for all $t \geq \lceil \frac{n-1}{2} \rceil$.

(iii) For $r \geq 4$, since every cycle $C_r \subseteq G$ includes the apex u_1 , there exists an $s \leq r$ such that $P_s^* \subseteq C_r$, with $4 \leq s \leq r \leq n$. From (i), we can conclude that there is a $(G; C_r)$ -proper coloring. The case when $r = 3$ is trivial.

(iv) Likewise, since $\theta(1, n_1, n_2)$ contains $C_{1+q} \subseteq G$ with $q \in \{n_1, n_2\}$, the result follows from (iii) that, for all $2 \leq n_1 \leq n_2$ such that $n_1 + n_2 \leq n$, there is a $(G; \theta(1, n_1, n_2))$ -proper coloring. □

In conclusion, it is worth noting that future work can address the coloring of the vertices/edges of a graph with either forbidden monochrome subgraphs or forbidden rainbow subgraphs (but not both). As a step in this direction, we present a simple case when coloring the elements of an n -set such that no t -subset is rainbow.

Corollary 4.2. *The chromatic spectral values in the colorings of the vertices of a complete graph K_n such that no K_t is rainbow are given by $r_k = \binom{n}{k}$, for $k = 1, \dots, t - 1$.*

Note that these values also correspond to the chromatic spectral values of any complete t -uniform cohypergraph of order n ; cohypergraphs are hypergraphs whose hyperedges are forbidden to be rainbow given any proper (vertex) coloring [16].

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Appendix

	$(T_2^n; K_3)$ -good	$(T_2^n; K_3)$ -proper	$(F^n; K_3)$ -proper
$n = 1$	(3)	(3)	(3)
$n = 2$	$3^2(1,1)$	(5,1)	(5,1)
$n = 3$	$3^3(1,3,1)$	(9,3,1)	(8,4)
$n = 4$	$3^4(1,7,6,1)$	(17,7,6,1)	(13,11,1)
$n = 5$	$3^5(1,15,25,10,1)$	(33,15,25,10,1)	(27,17,5)
$n = 6$	$3^6(1,31,90,65,15,1)$	(65,31,90,65,15,1)	(37,62,7,1)

Table 1: chromatic spectral values of some $(G; K_3)$ -good colorings and some $(G; K_3)$ -proper colorings for $n \leq 6$

$n \setminus j$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	2											
1	2	1										
2	2	1	2									
3	2	3	2	1								
4	2	5	1	2	3							
5	2	7	4	2	5	1						
6	2	9	9	1	2	7	4					
7	2	11	16	5	2	9	9	1				
8	2	13	25	14	1	2	11	16	5			
9	2	15	36	30	6	2	13	25	14	1		
10	2	17	49	55	20	1	2	15	36	30	6	
11	2	19	64	91	50	7	2	17	49	55	20	1

Table 2: Table of values of $a_{i,j}$, which are the entries of the matrix A when $n = 11$

$n \setminus r$	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	2					
1	3					
2	4	1				
3	4	4				
4	4	8	1			
5	4	12	5			
6	4	16	13	1		
7	4	20	25	6		
8	4	24	41	19	1	
9	4	28	61	44	7	
10	4	32	85	85	26	1
11	4	36	113	146	70	8

Table 3: Table of values of $\phi(n, r)$ when $n = 11$

$n \setminus k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	1											
1	0	1										
2	0	1	1									
3	0	1	3	1								
4	0	1	7	6	1							
5	0	1	15	25	10	1						
6	0	1	31	90	65	15	1					
7	0	1	63	301	350	140	21	1				
8	0	1	127	966	1701	1050	266	28	1			
9	0	1	255	3025	7770	6951	2646	462	36	1		
10	0	1	511	9330	34105	42525	22827	5880	750	45	1	
11	0	1	1023	2850	145750	246730	179487	63987	11880	1155	55	1

Table 4: Table of values of $\{^n_k\}$ when $n = 11$

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