# On the Number of Ways of Colouring a Map. 

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It is well known that any map of $n$ regions on a sphere may be coloured in five or fewer colours. ${ }^{1}$ The purpose of the present note is to prove the following

Theorem. If $P_{n}(\lambda)$ denotes the number of ways of colouring any ma: of $n$ regions on the sphere in $\lambda$ (or fewer) colours, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(\lambda) \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-3} \quad(n \geqslant 3, \lambda \neq 4) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This inequality obviously holds for $\lambda=1,2,3$ so that we may confine attention to the case $\lambda>4$. Furthermore it holds for $n=3,4$ since the first region may be coloured in $\lambda$ ways, the second in at least $\lambda-1$ ways, the third in at least $\lambda-2$ ways, and the fourth, if there be one, in at least $\lambda-3$ ways.

In the case $\lambda=4$, not dealt with in the theorem, the inequality (1) obtains if any only if every map on the sphere can be coloured in not more than four colours, that is according as the so-called " four colour theorem" is or is not true: in fact if (1) holds for $n \geqslant 3, \lambda=4$, every map can be coloured in four colours in at least one way of course; and if every map (with $n \geqslant 3$ regions) can be coloured in four colours, then from one colouring can be obtained 4.3 .2 or 24 colourings by permutation of the colours, so that $P_{n}(4) \geqslant 24$ as required; of course we may always assume that at least three distinct colours are used since we can always put an unused colour on any region.

In our proof of (1), we assume that (1) holds for any map containing $3,4, \ldots n-1$ regions, $n-1 \geqslant 4$, and then show that it

[^0]holds for any map of $n$ regions. All maps $M$ which we consider will therefore contain $n$ regions. The theorem follows by induction if we take $n=5,6, \ldots$.

The structure of any map is completely given, in so far as colouring it is concerned, by naming each pair of regions $\alpha, \beta$ which have a boundary line in common. Such regions $a, \beta$ must be of different colours in any proper colouring of the map.

Call those maps of type $I$ in which there is no region which either is multiply connected or touches itself at some vertex. Consider any map $M$ not of type $I$. If there is a region a of $M$ which is multiply connected, form a new map $M_{1}$ by drawing together two boundary lines, one on each side of this region till they touch at a


Fig. 1
point, forming a new vertex (see fig. 1). Continue this process until a map $N$ still of $n$ regions but with none of its regions multiply connected, is obtained. Since the pairs of regions having a common boundary are the same for $N$ as for $M$, any colouring of $N$ furnishes a colouring for $M$. Hence we need only prove that (1) holds for maps $N$ in which there are no multiply connected regions.

Now this map $N$ without multiply connected regions may have one or more regions $\beta$ which touch themselves at a vertex $\nu$ (fig. 2).


N

$N_{1}$

Fig. 2

Take one end of such a region and draw it away, putting in a new boundary line. We thus have a new map $N_{1}$ in which a new pair of regions, namely those on each side of this end of $\beta$ have a boundary line in common. Since $\beta$ touched itself at $\nu$ before, these two regions are distinct. Continue this process till there are no more regions touching themselves at a vertex. The map $N^{\prime \prime}$ thus formed is therefore of Type I. But every pair of regions which had a common boundary in $M$ have still a common boundary in $N^{\prime}$. Hence every possible colouring of $N^{\prime}$ is a possible colouring of $M$. Also $M$ and $N^{\prime}$ contain the same number of regions. Therefore if (1) holds for $N^{\prime}$, it holds for $M$. We have thus still to consider only maps $M$ of regions of type $I$.

Call those maps of type II which are of type I, while all vertices are triple. Consider any map $M$ of type I but not of type II. Then at least four distinct regions abut at some vertex $\nu$. Draw one of them, a, away from $\nu$, putting in a new boundary line between the regions on each side of $\alpha$ at $\nu$, thus forming a new triple vertex (fig. 3)


Fig. 3
and reducing the number of regions abutting at $\nu$ by one. Continue until all the vertices are triple, forming the map $N$. As every pair of regions with a common boundary in $M$ have still a common boundary in $N$, every colouring of $N$ is a colouring of $M$. Thus we see that if (1) holds for every map of $n$ regions of type II, it holds for every map of $n$ regions of type $I$, and therefore for every map of $n$ regions.

Call those maps of type III which are of type II and in which no pair of regions form a multiply connected region. Such a map contains no 2 -sided region of course. Consider a map $M$ of type II but not of type III, containing then at least one pair of simply
connected regions $\alpha, \beta$ touching each other along $k \geqslant 2$ distinct boundaries (fig. 4).


M

$M$

Fig. 4
Select one of these boundaries as $l$ (see figure) which is of course terminated by two triple vertices. Open up the map along this boundary and put a new boundary line across the "canal" so formed. Evidently the new map constructed is still of type II, and all regions previously in contact are still in contact, although one contact of two regions previously not in contact has been introduced. Continue this process until a map $N$ is obtained in which no two regions have more than one boundary line in common. Evidently $N$ is of type III, and if (1) holds for $N$ it will hold also for $M$. Hence we may restrict attention to maps of type III.

Call those maps of type IV which are of type III and in which no three regions form a multiply connected region. Such a map contains no 3 -sided region of course. Consider a map of type III but not of type IV, in which some three regions $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$ are then multiply connected. Of course each of the three regions touches the two others along one and only one boundary line. Thus, the three regions form a ring which separates $M$ into two parts $K, L$ distinct from $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}$ (fig. 5). Now form two new maps $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$,

of at least four regions each, by shrinking these parts to a point. If the number of regions in $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$ be denoted by $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ respectively, we have

$$
n_{1}+n_{2}=n+3
$$

Since the number of regions in $N_{1}$ or in $N_{2}$ is less than $n$, we have

$$
P_{n_{i}}(\lambda) \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n_{i}-3} \quad(i=1,2)
$$

in which $P_{n_{i}}(\lambda)$ stands for the number of ways of colouring $N_{i}(i=1,2)$ in $\lambda$ colours.

In order to colour $M$, we take any one of the $\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)$ choices of colours for $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$. corresponding to each of which we have $P_{n_{1}}(\lambda) /[\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)]$ choices for $N_{1}$ and $P_{n_{2}}(\lambda) /[\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)]$ choices for $N_{2}$. Thus for $M$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{n}(\lambda) & =\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) \frac{P_{n_{1}}(\lambda) P_{n_{2}}(\lambda)}{[\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)]^{2}} \\
& \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence we may assume that $M$ is of type IV.
Call those maps of type $V$ which are of type IV and which contain no 4 -sided region. Consider a map $M$ of type IV but not of type V , in which the 4 -sided region $\beta$ has a common boundary with $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \alpha_{4}$ taken in cyclical order. Then $\alpha_{i}$ has a common boundary with $a_{i+1}$ (putting $\alpha_{5}=\alpha_{1}$ ), since all the vertices in $M$ are triple. Furthermore, $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$ have only these boundaries in common with one another; for if $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ are not adjacent cyclically and yet touch, then the three regions $\alpha_{i}, \alpha_{j}$ and $\beta$ would form a multiply connected region.

Colour the map $M^{\prime}$, obtained by reducing $\beta$ to a point, in all possible ways. These we may divide into four sets, depending on whether the colours of $\alpha_{1}, a_{2}, \alpha_{3}, a_{4}$ are essentially of the types $(a, b, a, b),(a, b, a, c),(a, b, c, b)$, or $(a, b, c, d)$. Call the number of colourings of the first type, $p_{1}$, of the second, $p_{2}$, of the third, $p_{3}$, and of the fourth, $p_{4}$. With each of these colourings of $M^{\prime}$ we have $\lambda-i$ colours for $\beta$, where $i$ is the number of colours employed in the ring about $\beta$. Thus we have for $M$

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(\lambda)=(\lambda-2) p_{1}+(\lambda-3)\left(p_{2}+p_{3}\right)+(\lambda-4) p_{4} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Form now the four maps $A, B, C, D$ obtained respectively by
letting $\alpha_{1}, \beta$, and $a_{3}$ coalesce, letting $\alpha_{1}, \beta$ coalesce, letting $a_{2}, \beta, a_{4}$ coalesce, and letting $a_{2}, \beta$ coalesce (fig. 6).

The possible types of colourings of $A$ are those possible for $M^{\prime}$ in which $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{3}$ are of the same colour, and only those. These types are ( $a, b, a, b$ ) and ( $a, b, a, c$ ). Thus if we call $p_{A}$ the number of ways of colouring $A$ we have

$$
p_{A}=p_{1} \div p_{2}
$$

The possible colourings of $B$ are those of $M^{\prime}$ in which $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{3}$ are of different colour, i.e. $(a, b, c, b)$ and $(a, b, c, d)$, so that we have

$$
p_{B}=p_{3}+p_{4} .
$$

Similarly we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{C}=p_{\mathbf{1}}+p_{\mathbf{3}} \\
& p_{D}=p_{\mathbf{2}}+p_{\mathbf{4}}
\end{aligned}
$$

These equations give

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{A}+p_{B}+p_{C}+p_{D}=2\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}+p_{4}\right) \\
& p_{A}+p_{C}-p_{B}-p_{D}=2\left(p_{\mathbf{1}}-p_{4}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence from equation (2) we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{n}(\lambda) & =(\lambda-3)\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}+p_{4}\right)+\left(p_{1}-p_{4}\right) \\
& =\frac{(\lambda-3)}{2}\left(p_{A}+p_{B}+p_{C}+p_{D}\right)+\frac{1}{2}\left(p_{A}+p_{C}-p_{B}-p_{D}\right) \\
& =\frac{(\lambda-2)}{2}\left(p_{A}+p_{C}\right)+\frac{(\lambda-4)}{2}\left(p_{B}+p_{D}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now the maps $A, C$ each contain $n-2$ regions, while the maps $B, D$ each contain $n-1$ regions, and, as $n>4$, the number of regions in each of these maps is $\geqslant 3$. Therefore we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{A} \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5}, \\
& p_{B} \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-4},
\end{aligned}
$$

with similar inequalities for $p_{c}$ and $p_{D}$.
Hence we obtain from the above equation for $P_{n}(\lambda)$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{i n}(\lambda) & \geqslant \\
& (\lambda-2)\left[\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5}\right] \\
& +(\lambda-4)\left[\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-4}\right] \\
\geqslant & \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5}\left(\lambda^{2}-6 \lambda+10\right) \\
& >\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence we may assume that $M$ is of type $V$.

Now as is well known every map on the sphere containing only triple vertices and no multiply connected or 2 -, 3 -, 4 -sided regions, and therefore every map of type $V$, contains at least twelve 5 -sided regions. ${ }^{1}$

Take any map $M$ of type $V$, the only type we have left to consider, in which some 5 -sided region $\beta$ touches in cyclic order $\alpha_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}$. Evidently none of these regions $a_{i}$ touch each other except in this cyclic order; for if $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ did so, the three regions $\alpha_{i}, \alpha_{j}$, and $\beta$ would form a multiply connected region. Colour the partial map $M^{\prime}$ obtained by letting $\beta$ shrink to a point, in all possible ways. These we may divide into eleven types, in which the colours of $\alpha_{1}, a_{2}, \alpha_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}$ are essentially of the types;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (a, b, c, b, c), \quad(c, a, b, c, b), \quad(b, c, a, b, c), \quad(c, b, c, a, b), \\
& (b, c, b, c, a) ;(a, b, a, c, d),(d, a, b, a, c),(c, d, a, b, a), \\
& (a, c, d, a, b),(b, a, c, d, a) ;(a, b, c, d, e)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us call the number of colourings of these respective types $p_{1}, \ldots p_{5}, q_{1}, \ldots q_{5}$ and $r$. We have obviously for $M$

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n}(\lambda)=(\lambda-3) \sum_{i} p_{i}+(\lambda-4) \sum_{i} q_{i}+(\lambda-5) r . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider the ten maps $A_{1}, \ldots A_{5}, B_{1}, \ldots B_{5}$ formed as follows: For $A_{1}$ we let coalesce in $M \alpha_{1}, \beta, \alpha_{3}$; for $A_{2}$, we let coalesce $\alpha_{2}, \beta, \alpha_{4}$, etc.; for $B_{1}$ we let coalesce $\alpha_{1}, \beta$; for $B_{2}$ we let coalesce $\alpha_{2}, \beta$, etc. (see fig. 6).


Fig. 6

[^1]We see, similarly to the case of a 4 -sided region,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{A_{1}}=p_{4}+p_{5}+q_{1} \\
& p_{A_{2}}=p_{5}+p_{1}+q_{2} \\
& \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \cdots \\
& p_{B_{1}}=p_{1}+q_{2}+q_{3}+q_{5}+r \\
& p_{B_{2}}=p_{2}+q_{3}+q_{4}+q_{1}+r
\end{aligned}
$$

Summing, we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}=2 \sum_{i} p_{i}+\sum_{i} q_{i} \\
& \sum_{i} p_{B_{i}}=\sum_{i} p_{i}+3 \sum_{i} q_{i}+5 r
\end{aligned}
$$

from which equations follow

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}+\sum_{i} p_{B_{i}} & =5\left(\sum_{i} p_{i}+\sum_{i} q_{i}+r\right), \\
3 \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}-\sum_{i} p_{B_{i}} & =5\left(\sum_{i} p_{i}-r\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Equation (3) gives then

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{n}(\lambda) & =(\lambda-4)\left(\sum_{i} p_{i}+\sum_{i} q_{i}+r\right)+\sum_{i} p_{i}-r \\
& =\frac{(\lambda-4)}{5}\left(2 \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}+\sum_{i} p_{B_{i}}\right)+\frac{1}{5}\left(3 \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}-\sum_{i} p_{B_{i}}\right) \\
& =\frac{2 \lambda-5}{5} \sum_{i} p_{A_{i}}+\frac{\lambda-5}{5} \Sigma p_{B_{i}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

As each map $A_{i}$ obviously contains $n-2 \geqslant 10$ regions, and each map $B^{i}$ contains $n-1 \geqslant 11$ regions, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p_{A_{i}} \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5} \\
& p_{B_{i}} \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-4}
\end{aligned}
$$

for $i=1,2,3,4,5$. Therefore, we conclude

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{n}(\lambda) & \Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5}[(2 \lambda-5)+(\lambda-3)(\lambda-5)] \\
& \geqslant \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-5}\left[\lambda^{2}-6 \lambda+10\right] \\
& >\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus (1) holds for every map $M$ whatsoever of $n$ regions, and hence, by induction, for every map. Note that only in this last reduction did we need to restrict $\lambda$ not to be 4 .

It is deserving of remark that the inequality (1) of the theorem is the best equality of its type, i.e. for every pair of numbers $\lambda>4$ and $n \geqslant 3$ there is a $\operatorname{map} M$ in which

$$
P_{n}(\lambda)=\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)^{n-3} .
$$

For take a region $a_{1}$; let $\alpha_{2}$ touch $\alpha_{1}$ along a boundary line; let $a_{3}$ touch $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$; let $\alpha_{4}$ touch in order $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$; let $\alpha_{5}$ touch in order $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{4}$, and continue thus, using $n$ regions. We may then colour in succession $a_{1}$ in $\lambda$ ways, $a_{2}$ in $\lambda-1$ ways, $a_{3}$ in $\lambda-2$ ways, $a_{1}$ in $\lambda-3$ ways, $a_{5}$ in $\lambda-3$ ways, etc. Hence $P_{n}(\lambda)$ has the stated value when $M$ is of this special type.

In conclusion we may observe that the method of the paper can be applied to maps on multiply connected surfaces of genus $p>0$ as well as to maps on surfaces of genus zero like the sphere.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ First proved by P. J. Heawood in a paper, Map-Colour Theorem, Quarterly Journal of Mathematics, 24 (1889-90), 332-339. For the bibliography of the related "four colour theorem" with references to the important earlier papers of Cayley, Tait, F. Guthrie in this journal and elsewhere, the reader may be referred to A. Errera, Du coloriage des cartes et de quelques questions d'analysis situs, Thesis, University of Brussels, 1921 (Paris and Brussels, 1921), and C. N. Reynolds, On the Problem of Colouring Maps in Four Colours, II, Annals of Mathematics, vol. 28, second series, 477-492.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is an immediate consequence of the Euler formula applied to such a map. Cj., for instance, my paper, The Reducibility of Maps, American Journal of Mathematics, 35 (1915), 115-128.

