

# On the Chromatic Numbers of Low-Dimensional Spaces

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**Abstract**—New lower bounds are found for the minimum number of colors needed to color all points of a Euclidean space in such a way that any two points at a distance of 1 have different colors.

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One of the best-known problems in combinatorial geometry is the Hadwiger–Nelson one, which was formulated in the mid-20th century (see [1]). The task is to find the chromatic number  $\chi(\mathbb{R}^n)$  of a Euclidean space, i.e., the minimum number of colors required for coloring all points of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  so that no two points at a distance of 1 from each other have the same color.

Now it is only known that  $\chi(\mathbb{R}^1) = 2$ . For the other dimensions, there are only upper and lower bounds. Specifically, for  $n \leq 12$ , the following lower bounds were the best until recently:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(\mathbb{R}^2) &\geq 4 [1], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^3) &\geq 6 [2], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^4) &\geq 7 [3-5], \\ \chi(\mathbb{R}^5) &\geq 9 [3], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^6) &\geq 11 [6], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^7) &\geq 15 [1], \\ \chi(\mathbb{R}^8) &\geq 16 [7], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^9) &\geq 21 [8], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{10}) &\geq 23 [8], \\ \chi(\mathbb{R}^{11}) &\geq 25 [9], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{12}) &\geq 27 [5]. \end{aligned}$$

Better bounds have been recently announced in dimensions 8, 10, 11, and 12:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(\mathbb{R}^8) &\geq 19 [10], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{10}) &\geq 26, \\ \chi(\mathbb{R}^{11}) &\geq 32 [10], & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{12}) &\geq 36 [11]. \end{aligned}$$

These bounds were mainly obtained with the help of computer calculation, which somewhat devalues them. We have managed to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(\mathbb{R}^9) &\geq 22, & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{10}) &\geq 30, & \chi(\mathbb{R}^{11}) &\geq 35, \\ \chi(\mathbb{R}^{12}) &\geq 37. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, these bounds are special cases of a rather general result to be discussed in the following section.

## 1. IDEA OF THE PROOF AND THE GENERAL THEOREM

Recall that a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is called a distance graph in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $E = \{\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\} : |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}| = a\}$ , where the modulus denotes the Euclidean distance and  $a$  is a positive real number. Recall also that the chromatic number of  $G$  is the minimum number  $\chi(G)$  of colors required for coloring all the vertices of  $G$  so that any two vertices joined by an edge have different colors. Clearly, if  $G$  is a distance graph in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\chi(\mathbb{R}^n) \geq \chi(G)$ .

The independence number  $\alpha(G)$  of  $G$  is defined as the maximum number  $k$  for which there exists an independent set of vertices of  $G$  of cardinality  $k$ , i.e., a set of vertices such that no two of them are connected by an edge. It is easy to see that  $\chi(G) \geq \frac{|V|}{\alpha(G)}$ .

Consider the following sequence of distance graphs:

$$\begin{aligned} G_n &= (V_n, E_n), \\ V_n &= \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}, \\ &|\{i : x_i = \pm 1\}| = 3\}, & E_n &= \{\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\} : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1\}, \end{aligned}$$

where the round brackets denote the scalar product of vectors.

We managed to find  $\alpha(G_n)$ .

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**Theorem 1.** Assume that  $c(0) = 0$ ,  $c(1) = 1$ ,  $c(2) = c(3) = 2$ . Let  $\{x\}$  denote the fractional part of the number  $x$ . Then

$$\alpha(G_n) = \max \left\{ 6n - 28, 4n - 4c \left( 4 \left\{ \frac{n}{4} \right\} \right) \right\}.$$

The bounds

$$\chi(\mathbb{R}^{10}) \geq 30, \quad \chi(\mathbb{R}^{11}) \geq 35, \quad \chi(\mathbb{R}^{12}) \geq 37$$

follow directly from this theorem and the inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \chi(G_n) &\geq \chi(G_n) \geq \frac{|V_n|}{\alpha(G_n)} \\ &= \frac{8C_n^3}{\max \left\{ 6n - 28, 4n - 4c \left( 4 \left\{ \frac{n}{4} \right\} \right) \right\}}. \end{aligned}$$

The bound  $\chi(\mathbb{R}^9) \geq 22$  requires a slightly higher degree of thoroughness when we use the inequality  $\chi(G_n) \geq \frac{|V_n|}{\alpha(G_n)}$ , which, at first glance, gives only a previously known bound of 21.

Note also that the graphs  $G_n$  are natural and important generalizations of the graphs

$$G(n, 3, 1) = (V(n, 3), E(n, 3, 1)),$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(n, 3) &= \{ \mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \\ | \{ i : x_i = 1 \} | &= 3 \}, \quad E(n, 3, 1) = \{ \{ \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \} : (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1 \}. \end{aligned}$$

They were profoundly and comprehensively studied, starting in the classical work [12]. Specifically, they played an important role in the Hadwiger–Nelson problem; namely, they were used to derive the bounds in [7], which were long regarded as the best.

Some more new results concerning the chromatic and independence numbers of  $G_n$  are given in the next section.

## 2. RANDOM SUBGRAPHS OF THE GRAPHS $G_n$

The authors of [13] investigated the random subgraphs  $G_p(n, 3, 1)$  of the graphs  $G(n, 3, 1)$ , which are understood as random elements with values in the set of spanning subgraphs of the original graphs and with a binomial distribution ( $p = p(n)$  is the probability of preserving each individual edge).

The random subgraphs  $G_{n,p}$  of the graphs  $G_n$  are defined in a similar manner. The results obtained in [13–15] are stated below as Theorem 2.

**Theorem 2.** With asymptotic probability 1,

$$\alpha(G_{1/2}(n, 3, 1)) \sim 2n \log_2 n,$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{24} \cdot \frac{n^2}{\log_2 n} &\leq \chi(G_{1/2}(n, 3, 1)) \\ &\leq (1 + o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{n^2}{\log_2 n}. \end{aligned}$$

We have proved the following result.

**Theorem 3.** With asymptotic probability 1,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + o(1)) \cdot 4 \cdot n \log_2 n \\ \leq \alpha(G_{n,1/2}) \leq (1 + o(1)) \cdot 24 \cdot n \log_2 n, \\ (1 + o(1)) \cdot \frac{1}{18} \cdot \frac{n^2}{\log_2 n} \\ \leq \chi(G_{n,1/2}) \leq (1 + o(1)) \cdot 3 \cdot \frac{n^2}{\log_2 n}. \end{aligned}$$

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