# Derangements and Quantum Colourings 

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October 14, 2019

## 1 Introduction

These notes are meant to accompany a talk "Derangements and Qquantum Colourings". They are largely based on the following sources:

1. Cameron, Newman, Montanaro, Severini, Winter. "On the quantum chromatic number of a graph". arXiv:quant-ph/0608016. (2006)
2. Manciňska, Roberson. "Quantum homomorphisms". arXiv:1212.1742. (2016)
3. Manciňska, Roberson. "Oddities of quantum colorings". arXiv:1801.03542. (2018)
4. David E. Roberson (2013). Variations on a Theme: Graph Homomorphisms. UWSpace. http://hdl.handle.net/10012/7814

## 2 Colourings

A graph homomorphism from $X$ to $Y$ is a map $\varphi: V(X) \rightarrow V(Y)$ such that if $u$ and $v$ are adjacent in $X$, then $\varphi(u)$ and $\varphi(v)$ are adjacent in $Y$. We write

[^0]$X \rightarrow Y$ to denote that there is a homomorphism from $X$ to $Y$. The most familiar examples are colourings: an $m$-colouring of $X$ is a homomorphism from $X$ to $K_{m}$. For a second class of examples, any automorphism of $X$ is a homomorphism from $X$ to itself.

We note that if $X \rightarrow Y$, then $\chi(X) \leq \chi(Y)$.
If $\varphi: X \rightarrow Y$ is a homomorphism and $y \in V(Y)$, the set

$$
\varphi^{-1}:=\{x \in V(X): \varphi(x)=y\}
$$

is the fibre of $\varphi$ at $y$. Since all graphs we consider are free of loops, and fibre of a homomorphism from $X$ to $Y$ is a coclique in $X$. It follows that an $m$-colouring of $X$ determines a partition of $V(X)$ with exactly $m$ cells (where each cell is a coclique).

We choose to represent a partition $\pi$ by a characteristic matrix, this is the 01-matrix with $i$-th column equal to the characteristic vector of the $i$-th cell of $\pi$. If $M$ is the characteristic matrix of a partition, then the columns of $M$ sum to 1 . If $M$ is the characteristic matrix of a colouring, each column is the characteristic vector of a coclique.

A quantum $m$-colouring of a graph $X$ is a $|V(X)| \times m$ matrix with $d \times d$ projections as entries, such that
(a) If $u \in V(X)$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{m} M_{u, i}=I_{d}$.
(b) If $u v \in E(X)$, then $M_{u, i} M_{v, i}=0$ for $i=1, \ldots, m$.

You may verify that, if $d=1$, this is just a classical $m$-colouring. The least integer $m$ such that $X$ admits a quantum $m$-colouring is the quantum chromatic number of $X$, denoted $\chi_{q}(X)$. (Note that $d$ is allowed to vary.) We have

$$
\chi_{q}(X) \leq \chi(X)
$$

It is an interesting exercise to verify that $\chi_{q}(X)=2$ if and only if $\chi(X)=$ 2.
2.1 Theorem. If $X$ admits a quantum $m$-colouring, then it admits a quantum $m$-colouring where all projections have the same rank.

If the common rank is $r$, then $m r=d$.
Using the previous theorem, it is not too difficult to prove that $\chi_{q}\left(K_{n}\right)=$ $n$.

## 3 Orthogonality Graphs

Suppose $S$ is a subset of an inner product space, e.g., the unit vectors in $\mathbb{C}^{d}$. The orthogonality graph based on $S$ have vertex set $S$, and two elements of $S$ are adjacent if they are orthogonal. If the inner product space has dimension $d$, then cliques of size $d$ are orthogonal bases and the clique number of the graph is $d$. We use $S(d)$ to denote the orthogonality graphs formed from the unit vectors in $\mathbb{C}^{d}$. A complex vector or matrix is flat if all its entries have the same absolute value. We use $S^{b}(d)$ to denote the subgraph of $S(d)$ induced by the flat vectors. The cliques in $S^{b}(d)$ correspond to flat $d \times d$ matrices; the character table of an abelian group of order $d$ is flat and unitary (so $\left.\omega\left(S^{b}(d)\right)=d\right)$.

We use $S_{\mathbb{R}}(d)$ and $S_{\mathbb{R}}^{b}(d)$ to denote the real analogs of $S(d)$ and $S^{b}(d)$ (note that the latter graph is finite). These real graphs are induced subgraphs of the complex versions.

If $M$ is the characteristic matrix of an $m$-colouring of $X$, then two rows of $M$ indexed by adjacent vertices are orthogonal. This the map that sends a vertex $u$ to $e_{u}^{T} M$ is a homomorphism from $X$ to $S(m)$. If define the orthogonal $\operatorname{rank} \xi(X)$ of $X$ to be the least integer $k$ such that there is a homomorphism from $X$ to $S(k)$. We have

$$
\xi(X) \leq \chi(X)
$$

3.1 Theorem (Gleason). If $d \geq 3$, then $\chi\left(S_{\mathbb{R}}(d)\right)>d$.

The surprising thing about Gleason's theorem is that is a simple consequence of an important result clarifying the nature of quantum measurements.
3.2 Theorem. Assume $n=2^{k}$. We have $\omega\left(S_{\mathbb{R}}^{b}(n)=n\right.$ ). If $k \geq 4$, then $\chi\left(S_{\mathbb{R}}^{b}(n)\right)>n$; further $\chi\left(S_{\mathbb{R}}^{b}(n)\right)$ increases exponentially with $n$.

Here the claim about the clique number is equivalent to the existence of Hadamard matrices of order a power of two. The claims are the chromatic number are much deeper, in particular the final claim follows from work of Frankl and Rödl.

## 4 Derangements

A derangement is a permutation of a set with no fixed point. If $D$ denotes the set of derangements in $\operatorname{Sym} n$, then $D$ is closed under inverses and does
not contain the identity, so we may use $D$ as the connection set for the Cayley graph $X(\operatorname{Sym} n, D)$; we denote this graph by $\mathcal{D}(n)$. We summarize somne relevant properties of $\mathcal{D}(n)$.
4.1 Theorem. We have:
(a) The maximum size of a clique in $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is $n$; cliques of size $n$ correspond to $n \times n$ Latin squares.
(b) The maximum size of a coclique is $(n-1)$ !; the cocliques of size $(n-1)$ ! are cosets of the stabilizer of a point.
(c) The chromatic number of $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is $n$.
4.2 Corollary. For any graph $X$ we have $\chi(X) \leq n$ if and only if $X \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{D}(n)$.

Two graphs $X$ and $Y$ are homomorphically equivalent if $X \rightarrow Y$ and $Y \rightarrow X$. The previous corollary may restated as the statement that $\mathcal{D}(n)$ and $K_{n}$ are homomorphically equivalent.

Let us represent elements of $\operatorname{Sym} n$ by permutation matrices. The space of $n \times n$ complex matrices is an inner product space, with inner product

$$
\langle M, N\rangle:=\operatorname{tr}\left(M^{*} N\right) .
$$

If $M$ is a permutation matrix, $M^{*}=M^{-1}$ and we see that if $M$ and $N$ are permutation matrices and $M^{-1} N$ represents a derangement, then $\langle M, N\rangle=$ 0 . Thus $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is an orthogonality graph.

## 5 Rank-1 Quantum Colourings and Unitary Derangements

Suppose $M$ defines a quantum $m$-colouring of $X$, where the entries of $M$ have rank one. Then the entries of $M$ must be of order $m \times m$. If

$$
P_{1}, \ldots, P_{m}
$$

are the projections in row $i$ of $M$, then there are unit vectors $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ such that

$$
P_{r}=x_{r} x_{r}^{*}
$$

Since $P_{r} P_{s}=0$ if $r \neq s$, the vectors $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}$ are pairwise orthogonal, and therefore they form the columns of a unitary matrix, $R$ say. If $S$ is the unitary matrix corresponding to row $j$ of $M$, then the condition $M_{i, r} M_{j, r}=0$ holds for each $r$ if and only the diagonal entries of $R^{*} S$ are all zero. Since $R$ and $S$ are unitary, so is $R^{*} S$.

We define a unitary derangement to be a unitary matrix with all diagonal entries zero. Any permutation matrix is unitary, and it is a unitary derangement if and only if the permutation it represents is a derangement. The inverse of a unitary derangement is its conjugate-transpose, and so it is again a unitary derangement. Hence we may define a Cayley graph $\mathcal{U} \mathcal{D}(n)$ on the unitary group $U(d)$, with connection set the set of unitary derangements. Note that the derangement graph $\mathcal{D}(n)$ is an induced subgraph of $\mathcal{U D}(n)$.
5.1 Theorem. A graph $X$ has a rank-1 quantum $n$-colouring if and only if $X \rightarrow \mathcal{U D}(n)$.
5.2 Lemma. If the matrices $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ form a clique in $\mathcal{U D}(n)$, let $\mathcal{M}$ denote the $n \times n$ matrix of projections with

$$
\mathcal{M}_{i, j}=M_{i} e_{j}\left(M_{i} e_{j}\right)^{*}
$$

Then $\mathcal{M}$ is a rank-1 quantum $n$-colouring of $K_{n}$.

In the context of quantum computing, rank-1 quantum $n$-colouring of $K_{n}$ are referred as quantum Latin squares. (The choice of term was not motivated by any analogy to derangement graphs.) If $L$ is an $n \times n$ Latin square with entries from $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ we can convert $L$ to a quantum Latin square: if $L_{i, j}=r$, replace the entry $r$ by the projection $e_{e} e_{r}^{T}$.

If $z$ is a unit vector in $\mathbb{C}^{n}$, then the unitary matrices $M$ with $i$-th row equal to $z$ form a coclique, for if $M e_{i}=N e_{i}=z$ then

$$
\left(M^{*} N\right)_{i, i}=e_{i}^{T} M^{*} N e_{i}=z z^{*} \neq 0
$$

and $M^{*} N$ is not a derangement.
You may find it interesting to prove that $\chi_{q}^{(1)(X)}=3$ if and only if $\chi(X)=$ 3.

## 6 Three Homomorphisms

We use homomorphisms to relate some of the parameters at hand. One observation is in order.
6.1 Lemma. If $W$ is a flat unitary matrix and $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ are diagonal matrices (all of the same order), then

$$
\left\langle D_{1}, W^{*} D_{2} W\right\rangle=\operatorname{tr}\left(D_{1}\right) \operatorname{tr}\left(D_{2}\right)
$$

6.2 Theorem. We have homomorphisms as follows:

$$
K_{n} \rightarrow S^{b}(n) \rightarrow \mathcal{U D}(n) \rightarrow S(n)
$$

Proof. The $n$-cliques in $S^{b}(n)$ are exactly the flat unitary matrices of order $n \times n$. This takes care of the first homomorphism.

For the second, if $z \in \mathbb{C}^{n}$, let $D_{z}$ be the diagonal matrix with

$$
\left(D_{z}\right)_{i, i}=z_{i}
$$

If $z \in S^{b}(n)$, then $D_{z}$ is unitary and the map

$$
z \mapsto D_{z} W
$$

takes elements of $S^{b}(n)$ to unitary matrices. Consider the matrix

$$
Q=\left(D_{y} W\right)^{*} D_{z} W
$$

We have

$$
Q_{i, i}=\operatorname{tr}\left(e_{i} e_{i}^{T} Q\right)=\left\langle e_{i} e_{i}^{T},\left(D_{y} W\right)^{*} D_{z} W\right\rangle=\left\langle e_{i} e_{i}^{T}, W^{*} D_{y}^{*} D_{z} W\right\rangle
$$

and, applying the lemma (with $D_{1}=e_{i} e_{i}^{T}$ ), we deduce that

$$
\left\langle e_{i} e_{i}^{T}, W^{*} D_{y}^{*} D_{z} W\right\rangle=\operatorname{tr}\left(W^{*} D_{y}^{*} D_{z} W\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(D_{y}^{*} D_{z}\right)=\langle y, z\rangle .
$$

Accordingly if $y$ and $z$ are orthogonal, then $Q$ is a derangement.
The third homomorphism is again simple. As

$$
\left\langle M e_{1}, N e_{1}\right\rangle=\left(M^{*} N\right)_{1,1}
$$

we may use the map $M \mapsto M e_{1}$ as the homomorphism.
6.3 Corollary. For any graph $X$,

$$
\chi(X) \geq \xi^{b}(X) \geq \chi_{q}^{(1)}(X) \geq \xi(X)
$$

## 7 Separating $\chi$ and $\chi_{q}$

Let $q$ be an odd prime power. The vertices of the Erdős-Rényi graph $E R(q)$ are the 1-dimensional subsoace of the 3-dimensional vectors over $\operatorname{GF}(q)$; two subspaces spanned by nonzero vectors $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if $x^{T} y=0$. (Note: this is not an Erdős-Rényi random graph.) We see that $E R(q)$ has $q^{2}+q+1$ vertices and each vertex has $q+1$ neighbours but, unfortunately perhaps, there are $q+1$ vertices with loops on them.

The graph we use is $E R(3)$, on 13 vertices. Each vertex is represented by a vector length three with entries 0,1 and -1 . We normalize the vectors by assuming that the first non-zero entry is 1 . Now we view these vectors as vectors over $\mathbb{R}$, and work with the orthogonality graph on these vectors. Denote it by $Y$. Clearly $\xi(Y) \leq 3$.

Cameron et al. prove the following, using properties of the quaternions.
7.1 Lemma. There is a homomorphism from $S_{\mathbb{R}}(4)$ into the subgraph of $\mathcal{U} \mathcal{D}(4)$ induced by the real orthogonal matrices.
7.2 Corollary. If $\xi_{\mathbb{R}}(x) \leq 4$, then $\chi_{q}^{(1)}(X) \leq 4$.

A direct computation shows that $\chi(Y)=4$. Consider the cone $\hat{Y}$ over $Y$. Here $\xi_{\mathbb{R}}(\hat{Y}) \leq 4$, whence $\chi_{q}(\hat{Y}) \leq 4$. However $\chi(\hat{Y})$ must be five. Thus we have established that $\chi$ and $\chi_{q}$ can differ and, also, that a graph and its cone may have the same quantum chromatic number. We have not rules out the possibility that $\chi_{q}(Y)=3$, this is done in the oddities paper.

## 8 Derangements of Index $k$

We have seen that rank- 1 colourings give rise to unitary derangements. What of rank- $k$ colourings?

A $d \times d$ projection $P$ of rank $k$ can be written as $P=U U^{*}$, where $U$ is $d \times k$ and its columns of are an orthonormal basis for $\operatorname{im}(P)$. So $U^{*} U=I_{k}$. If the matrix $M$ represents a rank- $k$ quantum $m$-colouring of $X$, there are $d \times k$ matrices $U_{a, i}$ (for $a \in V(X)$ and $\left.i=1 \ldots, m\right)$ such that

$$
U_{a, i}^{*} U_{a, i}=I_{k}, \quad U_{a, i} U_{a, i}^{*}=M_{a, i} .
$$

We see that if $i \neq j$, then $U_{a, i}^{*} U_{a, j}=0$ and if $a b \in E(X)$, then $U_{a, i}^{*} U_{b, i}=0$. Let $\mathcal{U}$ be the matrix with $a i$-entry equal to $U_{a, i}$. Since $m k=d$, each row of $\mathcal{U}$ is a $d \times d$ unitary matrix. If $a b \in E(X)$, then

$$
\left(\begin{array}{lll}
U_{a, 1} & \ldots & U_{a, m}
\end{array}\right)^{*}\left(\begin{array}{lll}
U_{b, 1} & \ldots & U_{b, m}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is a unitary matrix of order $m k \times m k$ with $k$ diagonal blocks of zeros.
We define a unitary matrix $M$ to be a unitary derangement of index $k$ if it has order $m k \times m k$ and

$$
M \circ\left(I_{m} \otimes J_{k}\right)=0
$$

(If $k=1$ we recover our previous derangements.) We can apply this term to permutation matrices, since they are unitary, and we will refer to them simply as derangements of index $k$. Since the set of $m k \times m k$ unitary derangements with index $k$ is closed under conjugate transpose and does not contain the identity, we can use it as the connection set for a Cayley graph for the full unitary group; if $n=k m$, we denote it by $\mathcal{U} \mathcal{D}_{k}(n)$.
8.1 Theorem. Let $n=m k$. A graph $X$ has a rank- $k$ quantum $m$-colouring if and only if there is a homomorphism $X \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \mathcal{D}_{k}(n)$.

If $M$ is a unitary derangement (of index one) and $Q$ is unitary of order $k \times k$, then $M \otimes Q$ is a unitary derangement of index $k$.

## 9 Grassmann Graphs

The Grassmann graph $G r(d, k)$ is the graph with the $k$-dimensional subspaces of $\mathbb{C}^{d}$ as vertices, with two subspaces adjacent if they are orthogonal. We may, and will, choose to represent the vertices of $G r(d, k)$ by $d \times d$ projections of rank $k$. If $P$ and $Q$ are two such projections, then

$$
\|P-Q\|^{2}=\langle P-Q, P-Q\rangle=\operatorname{tr}(P+Q-P Q-Q P)=2 k-2\langle P, Q\rangle
$$

Hence $P$ and $Q$ are at maximum distance if and only if they are orthogonal. (Since $P$ and $Q$ are positive semidefinite, $\langle P, Q\rangle \geq 0$.) Consequently we may view $\operatorname{Gr}(d, k)$ as an analog of the Kneser graph $K_{d: k}$. Since the fractional chromatic number of a graph is determined by homomorphisms into Kneser graphs this suggests, correctly, that homomorphisms to Grassmann graphs will provide a quantum analog to fractional chromatic number.
9.1 Theorem. There is a homomorphism $\mathcal{U} \mathcal{D}_{k}(m k) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gr}(m k, k)$.

Proof. Define

$$
D=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I_{k} & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

If $M$ is a $m d \times m d$ unitary matrix, then

$$
M D M^{*}
$$

represents orthogonal projection onto the column space of $M D$, i.e., onto the span of the first $k$ columns of $M$.

## 10 Quantum Homomorphisms

Since colourings can be usefully viewed as a special case of graph homomorphisms, it seems natural to look for quantum homomorphisms.

The definition is an extension of the definition of a quantum colouring, as it should be. A quantum homomorphism from $X$ to $Y$ is a $|V(X)| \times|V(Y)|$ matrix with entries $d \times d$ projections, such that:
(a) For each vertex $a$ of $X$, we have $\sum_{y \in V(Y)} M_{a, y}=I_{d}$.
(b) If $a$ and $b$ are adjacent vertices in $X$ and $y$ and $z$ are vertices in $Y$ that are not adjacent, then $M_{a, y} M_{b, z}=0$.

You might check that, if $d=1$, we recover the usual definition of a graph homomorphism.

It is important to note that a quantum homomorphism from $X$ to $Y$ is not a function from $V(X)$ to $V(Y)$. One symptom of this issue is that it is not obvious how we might compose quantum homomorphisms. Before discussing this, we offer a second definition of quantum homomorphism.

A measurement on $Y$ is an assignment of a $d \times d$ projection to each vertex in $Y$, such that if $P_{u}$ denote the projection indexed by $u$ in $V()$, then

$$
\sum_{u \in V(Y)} P_{u}=I_{d}
$$

Given this condition, projections associated to different vertices are orthogonal. For a physicist a measurement indexed by $Y$ would be referred to
as a projective measurement, where the outcome of an actual measurement would be a vertex of $Y$. Two measurements $\left\{P_{u}\right\}_{u \in V(Y)}$ and $\left\{Q_{u}\right\}_{u \in V(Y)}$ are compatible if when $u$ and $v$ are vertices in $Y$ that are not adjacent,

$$
P_{u} Q_{v}=0 .
$$

(So $P_{u} Q_{u}=0$ for each vertex $u$.) The vertices of the measurement graph $\mathcal{M}_{d}(Y)$ are the measurements on $Y$, where two measurements are adjacent if they are compatible. We have immediately:
10.1 Lemma. There is a quantum homomorphism $X \xrightarrow{q} Y$ if and only if $X \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_{d}(Y)$ for some $d$.

We turn to quantum composition. Assume $M$ and $N$ respectively represents quantum homomorphisms from $X$ to $Y$ and $Y$ to $Z$. We define $M \star N$ to be the matrix with rows indexed by $V(X)$, columns indexed by $V(Z)$ and with

$$
(M \star N)_{x, z}=\sum_{y \in V(Y)} M_{x, y} \otimes N_{y, z}, \quad(x \in V(X), z \in V(Z)) .
$$

You need to verify that $M \star N$ represents a quantum homomorphism from $X$ to $Z$, and that this product is associative. (It then follows that graphs and quantum homomorphisms are the objects and arrows of a category.)


[^0]:    *Research supported by Natural Sciences and Engineering Council of Canada, Grant No. RGPIN-9439

