An Introduction to Combinatorial Species

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What are combinatorial species?

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The main reference for the theory of combinatorial species is the book Combinatorial Species and Tree-Like Structures by François Bergeron, Gilbert Labelle, and Pierre Leroux.

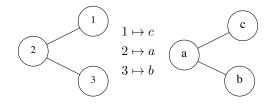
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If a structure has label set U and we have a bijection $\sigma: U \to V$ then we can replace each label $u \in U$ with its image $\sigma(u)$ in V.



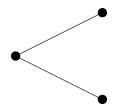
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More interestingly, it allows us to count unlabeled versions of labeled structures (unlabeled structures). If we have a bijection $A \rightarrow A$ then we also get a bijection from the set of structures with label set *A* to itself, so we have an action of the symmetric group on *A* acting on these structures. The orbits of these structures are the unlabeled structures.



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The theory of species also sheds some light on actions of symmetric groups and symmetric functions.

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This means that if *F* is a species then for every finite set *U*, there is a finite set F[U] (the set of *F*-structures on *U*), and for any bijection $\sigma: U \to V$ there is a bijection $F[\sigma]: F[U] \to F[V]$.

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Moreover, we have the functorial properties

- If $\sigma: U \to V$ and $\tau: V \to W$ then $F[\tau \circ \sigma] = F[\tau] \circ F[\sigma]$.
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Think of F[U] as some sort of graph with label set U, even though there are no "labels" in the definition.

Examples of species

- The species *E* of sets: $E[U] = \{U\}$.
- ▶ The species *E_n* of *n*-sets:

$$E_n[U] = \begin{cases} \{U\} & \text{if } |U| = n \\ \emptyset & \text{if } |U| \neq n \end{cases}$$

- We write X for E_1 , the species of singletons.
- The species Par of set partitions
- The species L of linear orders
- The species S of permutations (bijections from a set to itself).
- The species C of cyclic permutations
- the species \mathcal{G} of graphs
- the species G^c of connected graphs

Let *F* and *G* be species. An isomorphism α from *F* to *G* is a family of bijections $\alpha_U : F[U] \to G[U]$ for every finite set *U* such that for every bijection $\sigma : U \to V$, and every $s \in F[U]$ we have $G[\sigma](\alpha_U(s)) = \alpha_V(F\sigma)$.

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For example, the subset $\{1,3,4\}$ of [5] corresponds to the ordered partition ($\{1,3,4\},\{2,5\}$).

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Let's see what happens for n = 2. Here we have |S[2]| = |L[2]| = 2 and

 $S[2] = \{(1)(2), (12)\}, L[2] = \{12, 21\}$

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What happens if apply the bijection $[2] \rightarrow [2]$ that switches 1 and 2? Both elements of S[2] are fixed, but the two elements of L[2] switch. So S and L can't be isomorphic.

Operations on species

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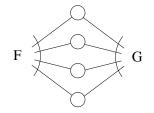
We can also have infinite sums, as long as they "converge"

$$E = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n$$

Next is Cartesian product:

$$(F \times G)[U] = F[U] \times G[U]$$

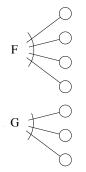
So an $(F \times G)$ -structure is an *F*-structure and a *G*-structure on the same set of points.



The ordinary product *FG* is more useful than the Cartesian product, but the definition is more complicated:

$$(FG)[U] = \sum_{U_1,U_2} F[U_1] \times G[U_2],$$

where the sum is over all decompositions of U into U_1 and U_2 , so that $U_1 \cup U_2 = U$ and $U_1 \cap U_2 = \emptyset$.



Note that (FG)[U] is not the same as (GF)[U], but the species FG and GF are isomorphic. We usually identify species that are isomorphic.

We can define powers inductively, and we find that the species L_n of linear orders of *n*-sets is isomorphic to X^n , and

$$L=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}X^{n}.$$

(Note that $X^0 = E_0$.)

Finally, we have composition or substitution of species, $F \circ G$. An element of $(F \circ G)[U]$ consists of a partition of U into (not necessarily nonempty) blocks, a G-structure on each block, and an F-structure on the set of blocks. Finally, we have composition or substitution of species, $F \circ G$. An element of $(F \circ G)[U]$ consists of a partition of U into (not necessarily nonempty) blocks, a *G*-structure on each block, and an *F*-structure on the set of blocks.

Formally,

$$(F \circ G)[U] = \bigcup_{\pi} \Big(F[\pi] \times \bigotimes_{V \in \pi} G[V] \Big).$$

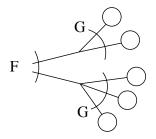
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The most important special case is F = E, the species of sets, or $F = E_n$, the species of *n*-sets. Then $E \circ G$ is the species of sets of *G*-structures and $E_n \circ G$ is the species of *n*-sets of *G*-structures.

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Generating functions for species

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The unlabeled generating function is

$$\widetilde{F}(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\widetilde{f}_n\,x^n,$$

where \tilde{f}_n is the number of unlabeled *F*-structures on [*n*].

These generating functions are compatible with addition and multiplication:

(FG)(x) = F(x)G(x) $(\widetilde{FG})(x) = \widetilde{F}(x)\widetilde{G}(x)$

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as long as G(x) has no constant term; i.e., $G[\emptyset] = \emptyset$.

However, $(\widetilde{F \circ G})(x)$ cannot be computed from $\widetilde{F}(x)$ and $\widetilde{G}(x)$.

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For the species C of cyclic permutations,

$$C(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n-1)! \frac{x^n}{n!} = \log\left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)$$
 and $\widetilde{C}(x) = \frac{x}{1-x}$.

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$$S(x) = \exp(C(x)) = \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! \frac{x^n}{n!}$$
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For the species $Par = E \circ E^+$ of partitions, we have

$$\operatorname{Par}(x) = \exp(E^+(x)) = e^{e^x - 1}$$
$$\widetilde{\operatorname{Par}}(x) = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^k}$$

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The cycle index Z_F of F is the characteristic of this action of \mathfrak{S}_n .

For each π in \mathfrak{S}_n , let fix $F[\pi]$ be the number of elements of F[n] fixed by $F[\pi]$. Let $c_i(\pi)$ be the number of cycles of π of length *i*. Then we define

$$Z_{F} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}} \operatorname{fix} F[\pi] \, p_{1}^{c_{1}(\pi)} p_{2}^{c_{2}(\pi)} \dots,$$

where p_j is the power sum symmetric function $x_1^j + x_2^j + x_3^j + \cdots$.

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Since fix $F[\pi]$ depends only on the cycle type of π , we can write this formula in another way.

Let $\lambda = (1^{m_1} 2^{m_2} \cdots)$ be a partition of *n*. The number of permutations in \mathfrak{S}_n of cycle type λ is $n!/z_{\lambda}$, where

$$z_{\lambda} = 1^{m_1} m_1! 2^{m_2} m_2! \cdots$$

Let fix $F[\lambda] = \text{fix } F[\pi]$ where π is any permutation in \mathfrak{S}_n of cycle type λ . Then

$$Z_F = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} \operatorname{fix} F[\lambda] \frac{p_{\lambda}}{z_{\lambda}}.$$

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More generally, let's take $F = E_n$. Then $E_n[n]$ has only one element, [n], and it's fixed by every element of \mathfrak{S}_n . So for every partition λ of n, we have fix $E_n[\lambda] = 1$, so

$$Z_{E_n} = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} \frac{p_\lambda}{z_\lambda}.$$

This is equal to the complete symmetric function

$$h_n = \sum_{i_1 \leq i_2 \leq \cdots \leq i_n} x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots x_{i_n}.$$

For the species $L_n = X^n$ of linear orders of size *n*, only the identity element fixes anything, and it fixes all *n*! linear orders, so

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For the species C_n of *n*-cycles, a permutation π doesn't fix anything unless π consists of n/d *d*-cycles for some *d* dividing *n*. It's not too hard to show that

$$Z_{C_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) p_d^{n/d}$$

where φ is Euler's function.

For species that are not homogeneous, the cycle index is the sum of the cycle indices of the homogeneous components. So

$$Z_E = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_{E_n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x_i} = \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{p_j}{j}\right)$$

and

$$Z_L = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_{L^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_1^n = \frac{1}{1 - p_1}$$

Applications of the cycle index

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F(x) is obtained from Z_F by replacing p_1 with x and p_i with 0 for i > 1.

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 $\widetilde{F}(x)$ is obtained from Z_F be replacing each p_i with x^i , or equivalently, replacing x_1 with x and x_i with 0 for i > 1.

Species operations and the cycle index

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$$p_{\lambda} * p_{\mu} = z_{\lambda} \delta_{\lambda,\mu} p_{\lambda}.$$

Then

 $Z_{F\times G}=Z_F*Z_G.$

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This is because

$$fix(F \times G)[\pi] = fix F[\pi] fix G[\pi].$$

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But if *f* and *g* expressed in terms of the p_i , a more efficient procedure is to first define $p_j \circ g$ to be the result of replacing each p_i in *g* with p_{ij} , and then replacing each p_j in *f* with $p_j \circ g$.

Pólya's theorem and the coefficients of the cycle index

There is a simple and sometimes useful interpretation for the coefficients of the cycle index. We know that the coefficient of x_1^n in Z_F is the number of unlabeled *F*-structures on *n* points.

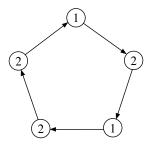
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Example: One of the structures counted by the coefficient of $x_1^2 x_2^3$ in Z_{C_5} is



Indirect decompositions

We have seen that the species of set partitions can be expressed as a composition $E \circ E^+$. There are other cases, where we can't easily construct a species directly, but we can find an equation that it satisfies.

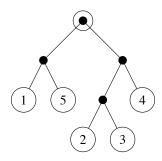
Indirect decompositions

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For example, consider the species \mathcal{G}^c of connected graphs. Every graph may be viewed as a set of connected graphs, so the species \mathcal{G} of graphs and the species \mathcal{G}^c of connected graphs are related by $\mathcal{G} = E \circ \mathcal{G}^c$ and so $Z_{\mathcal{G}} = Z_E \circ Z_{\mathcal{G}^c}$. This formula can be inverted to compute $Z_{\mathcal{G}^c}$ and thereby count labeled and unlabeled connected graphs.

Trees

Indirect decompositions also arise in counting trees of various types. For now, I will talk about leaf-labeled (unordered) rooted binary trees, which I'll call simply binary trees.



A binary tree is either a single labeled vertex or an unordered pair of binary trees. So the species R of binary trees satisfies

 $R = X + E_2 \circ R$

and therefore the cycle index satisfies

 $Z_R = p_1 + h_2 \circ Z_R.$

For the exponential generating function this reduces to

 $R(x) = x + R(x)^2/2,$

which can easily be solved to give

$$R(x) = 1 - \sqrt{1 - 2x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2n - 3) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

For the cycle index, there is a surprisingly simple formula discovered a few years ago by Sara Billey, Matjaž Konvalinka, and Frederick A. Matsen IV:

$$Z_{R} = \sum_{\lambda} r_{\lambda} \frac{p_{\lambda}}{z_{\lambda}},$$

where r_{λ} is zero if λ is not a binary partition (a partition in which every part is a power of 2), and if λ is a binary partition, $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$ where $\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_k \ge 1$ then

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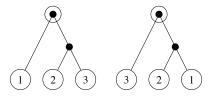
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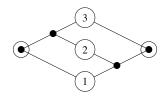
So the number of unlabeled binary trees with *n* leaves is

$$\sum_{\lambda\vdash n} r_{\lambda}/z_{\lambda}.$$

Billey, Konvalinka, and Matsen were interested in tanglegrams, which are ordered pairs of binary trees that share the same leaves. They wanted to count unlabeled tanglegrams. Here's a tanglegram



which we can also draw as



Since a tanglegram is an ordered pair of trees, the species of tanglegrams is the Cartesian product $R \times R$, so the cycle index for tanglegrams is

$$Z_{R\times R}=Z_R*Z_R=\sum_{\lambda}r_{\lambda}^2\frac{p_{\lambda}}{z_{\lambda}}.$$

and therefore the number of unlabeled tanglegrams with *n* leaves is

$$\sum_{\lambda \vdash n} \frac{r_{\lambda}^2}{z_{\lambda}}$$