# Math 155 (Lecture 8) 

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Definition 1. Let $G$ be a graph. A path in $G$ is a sequence of vertices $v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}$ such that $v_{i}$ is adjacent to $v_{i-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. In this case, we also say $\left(v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$ is a path from $v_{0}$ to $v_{n}$. We say that a path is simple if the vertices $v_{i}$ are disjoint. We say that a simple path $\left(v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$ is a cycle if $n \geq 2$ and $v_{0}$ is adjacent to $v_{n}$.

We say that a graph $G$ is connected if every pair of vertices can be connected by a path. We say that $G$ is a tree if it is connected and contains no cycles.

The problem we will consider in this lecture is the following:
Question 2. How many trees are there having the set of vertices $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ ?
The answer turns out to be $n^{n-2}$. There are many different proofs of this result. In this lecture, we will give a proof using the composition formula for exponential generating functions. First, it is convenient to introduce a slight variation on Question 2.

Question 3. How many ways are there to choose a tree having the set of vertices $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, together with an ordered pair of (possibly identical) vertices of the tree?

It is clear that the answer to Question 3 differs from the answer to Question ?? by a factor of $n^{2}$. We will show that the answer to Question 3 is $n^{n}$. We already know another counting problem whose answer is $n^{n}$ : namely, it is the number of maps from the set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ to itself. To discuss these counting problems in more detail, it is convenient to introduce some species:

Definition 4. Let $S_{\text {End }}$ denote the species of endomorphisms: for each finite set $I, S_{\text {End }}[I]$ is the set of all maps from $I$ to itself.

We define a species $S_{2-\text { tree }}$ as follows:

- If $I$ is nonempty, then $S_{2 \text {-tree }}[I]$ is the collection of all triples $(T, i, j)$ where $i$ and $j$ are elements of $I$, and $T$ is a tree with vertex set $I$.
- If $I=\emptyset$, then $S_{2-\text { tree }}[I]=\{*\}$.

We would like to show that for every nonempty finite set $I$, the sets $S_{\text {End }}[I]$ and $S_{2 \text {-tree }}[I]$ have the same number of elements (our ad-hoc definition of $S_{2-\text { tree }}[\emptyset]$ was made to ensure that this is also correct when $I$ is empty). Equivalently, we would like to show that the exponential generating functions of $S_{\text {End }}$ and $S_{2 \text {-tree }}$ coincide.

Warning 5. The species $S_{\text {End }}$ and $S_{2-\text { tree }}$ are not isomorphic. For example, when $I=\{1,2\}$, then the sets $S_{\text {End }}[I]$ and $S_{2-\text { tree }}[I]$ are acted on by the symmetric group $\Sigma_{2}$. This action has no fixed points on $S_{2-\text { tree }}[I]$, but has two fixed points on $S_{\text {End }}[I]$. This is what makes Question 2 interesting: though it has a simple answer, there is no obvious bijective approach.

Let's begin by analyzing the species $S_{\text {End }}$. Suppose that $I$ is a finite set and we are given a map $\pi: I \rightarrow I$. What could $I$ look like? It might be a permutation of $I$. Let $S_{\text {perm }}$ denote the species of permutations, so that $S_{\text {perm }}[I]$ is the set of permutations of $I$. However, there are many maps from $I$ to itself which are not permutations. For example, at the other extreme, there are constant maps from $I$ to itself.

Definition 6. Let $\pi$ be a map from a finite set $I$ to itself. We will say that $\pi$ is nilpotent if some power of $\pi$ is a constant map. In other words, $\pi$ is nilpotent if there exists an element $i \in I$ such that for each $j \in I$, we have $\pi^{n}(j)=i$ for all sufficiently large $n$. We let $S_{\text {nil }}$ denote the species of nilpotent endomorphisms: for every finite set $I$, we let $S_{\text {nil }}[I]$ denote the set of all nilpotent maps from $I$ to itself.

Remark 7. If $\pi: I \rightarrow I$ is a nilpotent map, then there is a unique element $i \in I$ such that $\pi^{n}(j)=i$ for $n \gg 0$. We will call $i$ the attractor of $\pi$.

Note that if $I$ has more than one element, then no map $\pi: I \rightarrow I$ can be both a permutation and nilpotent (otherwise, some power of $\pi$ would be a constant permutation). We now show that, in some sense, every map is made out of nilpotent maps and permutations.

Proposition 8. There is an isomorphism of species $S_{\mathrm{End}} \simeq S_{\mathrm{perm}} \circ S_{\mathrm{nil}}$.
Proof. Let $I$ be a finite set. By definition, an element of $S_{\text {perm }}$ corresponds to the following data:
(a) An equivalence relation $\sim$ on the set $I$.
(b) A permutation $\sigma$ of the set $I / \sim$ of equivalence classes.
(c) For each equivalence class $J \subseteq I$, a nilpotent $\operatorname{map} \tau_{J}: J \rightarrow J$.

Let us first describe how, given this data, we can construct a map $\pi: I \rightarrow I$. Each of the nilpotent maps $\tau_{J}$ has an attractor, which we will denote by $i_{J}$. Let $I_{0} \subseteq I$ be the collection of all these attractors. The composition $I_{0} \rightarrow I \rightarrow I / \sim$ is a bijection (that is, $I_{0}$ contains exactly one element of each equivalence class), so we may regard $\sigma$ as a permutation of the set $I_{0}$. We now set

$$
\pi(i)= \begin{cases}\sigma(i) & \text { if } i \in I_{0} \\ \tau_{J}(i) & \text { if } i \in J-\left\{i_{J}\right\}\end{cases}
$$

Conversely, suppose that we start with an arbitrary map $\pi: I \rightarrow I$. We will say that an element $i \in I$ is periodic if there exists an integer $n>0$ such that $\pi^{n}(i)=i$. Let $I_{0}$ denote the collection of periodic elements of $I$. The map $\pi$ carries periodic elements to periodic elements (note that if $\pi^{n}(i)=i$, then $\left.\pi^{n} \pi(i)=\pi^{n+1}(i)=\pi(i)\right)$, and restricts to a permutation on the subset $I_{0} \subseteq I$. For each element $i \in I$, the sequence

$$
i, \pi(i), \pi^{2}(i), \ldots
$$

must eventually repeat (since $I$ is finite), and therefore contains a periodic element of $I$. We will denote the first periodic element of the sequence by $r(i)$. The map $r$ determines an equivalence relation on $I$ : let us write $i \sim j$ if $r(i)=r(j)$. Note that each equivalence class contains a unique element of $I_{0}$. Let $J$ be an arbitrary equivalence class containing an element $i_{J} \in I_{0}$. For each element $j \in I_{0}$, we have $\pi^{n}(j)=i_{J}$ for some integer $n \geq 0$, and $\pi^{m}(j) \notin I_{0}$ for $m<n$. If $j \neq i_{J}$, then $n>0$, so that $\pi^{n-1}(\pi(j))=i_{J}$ (and $\pi^{m}\left(\pi_{j}\right) \notin I_{0}$ for $\left.m<n-1\right)$. It follows that $\pi(j) \in J$, so that $\pi$ determines a map

$$
\tau_{J}: J-\left\{i_{J}\right\} \rightarrow J .
$$

This extends to a nilpotent map from $J$ to itself, if we set $\tau_{J}\left(i_{J}\right)=i_{J}$. Then the triple $\left(\sim, \sigma,\left\{\tau_{J}\right\}_{J \in I / \sim}\right)$ is an element of $\left(S_{\text {perm }} \circ S_{\text {nil }}\right)[I]$.

The above constructions determine maps of species

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{\text {perm }} \circ S_{\text {nil }} \rightarrow S_{\text {End }} \\
& S_{\text {perm }} \circ S_{\text {nil }} \leftarrow S_{\text {End }}
\end{aligned}
$$

We leave it to the reader as an exercise to show that these maps really are inverse to one another, and therefore determine an isomorphism $S_{\text {perm }} \circ S_{\text {nil }} \simeq S_{\text {End }}$.

We would now like to relate the above discussion to trees. First, we need a few basic facts from graph theory.
Lemma 9. Let $G$ be a tree containing vertices $v$ and $v^{\prime}$. Then there is a unique simple path $v=v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}=$ $v^{\prime}$ from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$.

Proof. Since $G$ is connected, there is at least one path $v=v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}=v^{\prime}$ from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$. The number $n$ is called the length of the path; let us assume that $n$ has been chosen as small as possible. We claim that this path is automatically simple: if $v_{i}=v_{j}$ for $i<j$, then

$$
v=v_{0}, \ldots, v_{i-1}, v_{i}=v_{j}, v_{j+1}, \ldots, v_{n}=v^{\prime}
$$

is a shorter path from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$. This proves existence.
Now we prove uniqueness. Choose a path $v=v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}=v^{\prime}$ of minimal length. We will use induction on $n$ to show that every other simple path $v=w_{0}, \ldots, w_{m}=v^{\prime}$ coincides with $\left(v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$. The case $n=0$ is trivial: if $v=v^{\prime}$, then every simple path from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$ is automatically of length 0 (since the vertices appearing in the path must be distinct).

By assumption, we have $v_{n}=v^{\prime}=w_{m}$. Let $i$ be the smallest positive integer such that $v_{i} \in\left\{w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}\right\}$, and write $v_{i}=w_{j}$. Then the sequence

$$
v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}=w_{j}, w_{j-1}, \ldots, w_{1}
$$

is a simple path from $v_{0}$ to $w_{1}$. If $i+j>2$, this is a cycle. We must therefore have $i=j=1$. This proves that $v_{1}=w_{1}$. We then have two simple paths $\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right)$ and $\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{m}\right)$ from $v_{1}=w_{1}$ to $v^{\prime}$, which must coincide by the inductive hypothesis.

Definition 10. A rooted tree is a tree $T$ together with a choice of vertex $r \in T$, called the root of $T$. We let $S_{1 \text {-tree }}$ denote the species of rooted trees: for each finite set $I$, we let $S_{1-\text { tree }}[V]$ denote the set of pairs $(r, T)$, where $r \in V$ and $T$ is a tree with vertex set $V$.

Proposition 11. The species $S_{1-\text { tree }}$ and $S_{\text {nil }}$ are isomorphic.
Proof. Let $V$ be a finite set. We will show that there is a canonical bijection between $S_{1-\text { tree }}[V]$ and $S_{\text {nil }}[V]$. First, suppose we are given a tree $T$ with vertex set $V$ and a choice of root $r$. We define a function $\pi: V \rightarrow V$ as follows. For each element $v \neq r$ in $V$, let $v=v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}=r$ be the unique simple path from $v$ to the root $r$. Then we set $\pi(v)=v_{1}$. If $v=r$, we let $\pi(r)=r$. It is easy to see that the function $\pi$ is nilpotent (with attractor $r$ ).

Conversely, suppose that we are given a nilpotent function $\pi: V \rightarrow V$, and let $r$ be the attractor of $\pi$. We can make $V$ into a graph by declaring that a pair of distinct vertices $v$ and $w$ are adjacent if either $v=\pi(w)$ or $w=\pi(v)$. We claim that this graph is always a tree. To prove this, suppose we are given a cycle

$$
v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}
$$

For $1 \leq i \leq n$, we have either $v_{i}=\pi\left(v_{i-1}\right)$ or $\pi\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{i-1}$. Note that in the second case, since $v_{i+1} \neq v_{i-1}$, we must also have $\pi\left(v_{i+1}\right)=v_{i}$. It follows that the path is given by

$$
v_{0}, \pi\left(v_{0}\right), \pi^{2}\left(v_{0}\right), \ldots, \pi^{p}\left(v_{0}\right)=w_{0}, w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{q}
$$

where $p+q=n$ and the sequence $\left\{w_{i}\right\}$ satisfies $\pi\left(w_{i}\right)=w_{i-1}$. If the path is a cycle, then either $\pi\left(v_{0}\right)=w_{q}$ or $\pi\left(w_{q}\right)=v_{0}$. In the first case, we must have $p=0$ (otherwise $v_{1}=v_{n}$ ), so that $\pi^{q+1} w_{q}=w_{q}$, which implies that $w_{q}=r$ and therefore $q=0$, a contradiction. In the second case we must have $q=0$ (otherwise $v_{0}=v_{n-1}$ ) in which case we have $\pi^{p+1} v_{0}=v_{0}$, which implies that $v_{0}=r$ so that $p=0$, again a contradiction.

We again leave it to the reader to show that these constructions are inverse to one another, and give an isomorphism of species $S_{1-\text { tree }} \simeq S_{\text {nil }}$.

Combining Propositions 8 and 11, we get an isomorphism of species

$$
S_{\mathrm{End}} \simeq S_{\mathrm{perm}} \circ S_{1-\text { tree }}
$$

To complete our analysis, we will need the following analogous fact:
Proposition 12. Let $S_{\text {lin }}$ denote the species of linear orderings. There is an isomorphism of species $S_{2-\operatorname{tree}} \simeq$ $S_{\text {lin }} \circ S_{1-\text { tree }}$.

Assuming Proposition 12 for the moment and using the composition formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F_{S_{\text {End }}}(x)=F_{S_{\text {perm }}}\left(F_{S_{1-\text { tree }}}(x)\right) \\
& F_{S_{2-\text { tree }}}(x)=F_{S_{\text {lin }}}\left(F_{S_{1-\text { tree }}}(x)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have already seen that, although the species $S_{\text {perm }}$ and $S_{\text {lin }}$ are different, they have the same exponential generating function $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{n!}{n!} x^{n}=\frac{1}{1-x}$. We therefore obtain

$$
F_{S_{\text {End }}}(x)=\frac{1}{1-F_{S_{1-\text { tree }}}(x)}=F_{S_{2-\text { tree }}}(x)
$$

This proves that the number of elements of $S_{2-\text { tree }}[I]$ is the same as the number of elements of $S_{\text {End }}[I]$ for every finite set $I$, thereby giving $n^{n-2}$ as the answer to Question 2.

Let us now prove Proposition 12. For each finite set $V$, we must construct a bijection from the set $S_{2-\text { tree }}[V]$ to the set $\left(S_{\text {lin }} \circ S_{1-\text { tree }}\right)[V]$. It is clear what to do if $V$ is empty (in that case, both sides have one element). Let us therefore assume that $V$ is nonempty, so that an element of $S_{2-\text { tree }}[V]$ corresponds to a triple $\left(T, v, v^{\prime}\right)$, where $T$ is a tree with vertex set $V$, and $v, v^{\prime} \in V$ are elements. To this, we wish to associate the following data:
(a) An equivalence relation $\sim$ on the set $V$.
(b) A linear ordering of the set of equivalence classes $V / \sim$.
(c) For each equivalence class $W \subseteq V$, a rooted tree with vertex set $W$.

We first invoke Lemma 9: since $T$ is a tree, there is a unique simple path

$$
v=v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}=v^{\prime}
$$

from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$. Let $V_{0}=\left\{v_{0}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ be the set of vertices along this path. For any vertex $w \in V$, there exists a simple path $w=w_{0}, \ldots, w_{m}$ which ends in a vertex $w_{m}$ which belongs to $V_{0}$. In fact, we can assume that $w_{i} \notin V_{0}$ for $i<m$ (otherwise, end the path at $w_{i}$ instead). In this case, we claim that the path $w_{0}, \ldots, w_{m}$ is unique. Suppose otherwise: that is, suppose that we have another simple path $w=w_{0}^{\prime}, w_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ with $w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime} \in V_{0}$ and $w_{j}^{\prime} \notin V_{0}$ for $j<m^{\prime}$. If $w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}=w_{m}$, this contradicts Lemma 9 . Otherwise, we may suppose that $w_{m}=v_{i}$ and $w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}=v_{j}$ for $i<j$. Let $k$ be the largest integer such that $w_{k}$ appears in the path $w_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ (such an integer exists, since $w_{0}=w=w_{0}^{\prime}$ ). Writing $w_{k}=w_{k^{\prime}}^{\prime}$, we obtain a cycle $w_{k}, w_{k+1}, \ldots, w_{m}=v_{i}, v_{i+1}, \ldots, v_{j}=w_{m^{\prime}}^{\prime}, w_{m^{\prime}-1}^{\prime}, \ldots, w_{k^{\prime}+1}^{\prime}$, contradicting our assumption that $T$ is a tree.

For each $w \in V$, let $\tau(w) \in V_{0}$ be the endpoint of the unique path constructed above. Let us define an equivalence relation on $V$ by writing $w \sim w^{\prime}$ if $\tau(w)=\tau\left(w^{\prime}\right)$. Then the composition $V_{0} \rightarrow V \rightarrow V / \sim$ is a bijection: that is, $V_{0}$ contains a unique element of each equivalence class. Writing $V_{0}=\left\{v_{0}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$, we obtain a linear ordering on the set $V / \sim$. Each equivalence class $W \in V / \sim$ has the form $\tau^{-1}\left\{v_{i}\right\}$ for some $0 \leq i \leq n$. Note that if $w \in \tau^{-1} v_{i}$, there is a simple path $w=w_{0}, \ldots, w_{m}=v_{i}$ from $w$ to $v_{i}$ which contains no other vertex of $V_{0}$. Each of the paths $w_{j}, w_{j+1}, \ldots, w_{m}$ has the same property, so that $\tau\left(w_{j}\right)=v_{i}$ for $0 \leq j \leq m$. It follows that $w$ can be connected to $v_{i}$ by a path lying entirely in $W$, so that $W$ determines a connected subgraph of $T$. This subgraph cannot contain any cycles (since $T$ does not contain any cycles) and is therefore a tree (which has a natural choice of root, given by the vertex $v_{i} \in V_{0}$ ).

We leave it to the reader to verify that this construction determines a bijection of $S_{2-\text { tree }}[V]$ with $\left(S_{\text {lin }} \circ S_{1-\text { tree }}\right)[V]$ (if it is not clear, try drawing a picture for yourself).

