## 1 Introduction

## 2 Rooted Trees

A rooted tree is a triple t=(r,V,E), such that (V,E) is a finite, simple connected graph without cycles with vertex set V and edge set E. A vertex,  $r \in V$ , is selected from V and called the *root*. By convention each edge is directed away from r. We denote the order of a tree, t, by |t| and the set of order n rooted trees is denoted  $\mathcal{R}_n$ . In addition we define  $R := \bigcup R_n$ .

A labelled rooted tree is a quadruple t=(r,V,E,L) such that (r,V,E) is a rooted tree and

$$L: V \longrightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, |t|\}$$

is a bijective map. We denote the set of order n labelled rooted trees by  $\mathcal{L}_n$  and we define  $\mathcal{L} = \bigcup \mathcal{L}_n$ .

For any pair of vertices u and v of a rooted tree we write  $u \leq v$  if u lies on the unique shortest path from r to v. A random recursive tree is a quadruple t = (r, V, E, l) such that t is a labelled rooted tree and l is a labelling such that if  $u \leq v$  then l(u) < l(v). We denote the set of order n random recursive trees by  $\mathcal{T}_n$  and we define  $\mathcal{T} = \bigcup \mathcal{T}_n$ .

Two rooted trees  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  with roots  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  and vertex sets  $V(t_1)$  and  $V(t_2)$  respectively are said to be isomorphic if there exists a bijection  $f:V(t_1)\to V(t_2)$  such that vertices  $u,v\in V(t_1)$  are adjacent if and only if  $f(u),f(v)\in V(t_2)$  are adjacent and  $f(r_1)=r_2$ . If  $V(t_1)=V(t_2)$  then f is called a rooted tree automorphism. The set of automorphisms of a tree, t, together with composition of maps forms a group denoted  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$ . The order of the automorphism group is

$$\sigma(t) := |\operatorname{Aut}(t)|$$

Consider a map  $\phi: \mathcal{L} \to R$  that simply forgets the labels of a labelled by mapping

$$(r, V, E, L) \mapsto (r, V, E)$$

The map  $\phi$  is clearly surjective but not injective hence we define  $\beta(t) = |\phi^{-1}(t)|$  to be the number of possible isomorphism classes of labellings of a rooted tree  $t \in \mathcal{R}$ . There are |t|! possible labellings of a tree  $t \in \mathcal{R}$  hence there are

$$\beta(t) = \frac{|t|!}{\sigma(t)} \tag{1}$$

isomorphism classes of labellings of t.

Since  $\mathcal{T} \leq \mathcal{L}$  we denote by  $\psi$  the restriction of  $\phi$  to random recursive trees and define

$$\alpha(t) := |\psi^{-1}(t)|$$

however, to provide a result analagous to Equation 1 we require several additional definitions.

Let  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k$  be a forest of rooted trees: the rooted tree  $B^+(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k)$  is built from this forest by introducing a new vertex, r (the root of  $B^+(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k)$ ), and joining the roots of each tree  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k$  to r via an edge. Since every tree t can be written as  $B^+(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k)$  if |t| > 1 we henceforth assume that each rooted tree  $t = B^+(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k)$  if |t| > 1. For convenience we will denote the rooted tree on 1 vertex by  $\bullet$ .

We have already seen one function  $f: \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  on rooted trees (f(t) = |t|), let us consider another: We define the tree factorial t! recursively

$$\bullet! = 1 \tag{2}$$

$$t! = |t| \prod_{i=1}^{k} t_i!$$
 (3)

#### Example 2.1.

**Lemma 2.2.** For a rooted tree t,

$$\alpha(t) = \frac{|t|!}{t!\sigma(t)} \tag{4}$$

*Proof.* There are n! ways of labelling a tree  $t \in \mathcal{R}_n$ , however if l is a random recursive labelling every induced subtree  $t_v$  and a totally ordered set, S, of labels there is precisely one possible label  $s \in S$  for vertex v (namely  $s = \min(S)$ ). Therefore the factor we should divide out by is precisely t!. In addition, to calculate the number of isomorphism classes of random recursive trees we must again divide out by  $\sigma(t)$ .  $\square$ 

Finally, let  $\chi: \mathcal{F} \to \mathcal{R}$  be the map that "forgets" the embedding of a rooted plane tree. It is clear that  $\chi$  is surjective but not injective hence we define

$$\gamma(t) = |\chi^{-1}|$$

the number of isomorphism classes of embeddings of a rooted tree t. In order to obtain a third relation analogous to Equations 1 and 4 we will describe a third function  $w: \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  recursively:

$$w(\bullet) = 1 \tag{5}$$

$$w(t) = k! \prod_{i=1}^{k} w(t_i)$$
(6)

**Example 2.3.** Do the same example set as before

#### Lemma 2.4.

$$\gamma(t) = \frac{w(t)}{\sigma(t)} \tag{7}$$

*Proof.* Let  $B^+(t_1^{n_1}, t_2^{n_2}, \dots, t_k^{n_k})$  denote a tree in which the root is incident to  $n_1$  isomorphic copies of a tree  $t_1, n_2$  isomorphic copies of  $t_2$  and so forth. We remark that every rooted tree with at least 2 vertices can be written in this way. Let  $t \in R$  and

consider an induced subtree  $t_v = B^+(t_1^{n_1}, t_2^{n_2}, \dots, t_k^{n_k})$ . Vertex v contributes a factor of  $\left(\sum_{i=1}^k n_i\right)!$  to w(t) since it has a recursive definition. The order of automorphism group,  $\sigma(t)$  can also be expressed recursively:

$$\sigma(\bullet) = 1 \tag{8}$$

$$\sigma(t) = n_1! n_2! \dots n_k! \prod_{i=1}^k \sigma(t_i)^{n_i}$$
(9)

Therefore vertex v contribute a factor of  $\prod_{i=1}^k n_i!$  to  $\sigma(t)$ . Finally consider,  $\gamma(t)$ , the number of somorphism classes of embeddings of t. There are

$$\frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_i\right)!}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} n_i!}$$

non-isomorphic possibilities for the ordering of the children of v.

## 3 Automorphisms of Trees

In this section we will describe a direct product decomposition of the automorphism group of a tree, t, in which factors of the direct product can be associated with particular induced subtrees of t.

Recall that a (rooted) tree automorphism is a permutation of vertices that preserves adjacency and the root. It is a result of Pólya that automorphism groups of trees belong to the class,  $\mathcal{W}$ , of permutation groups which contains the symmetric groups and is closed under taking direct and wreath products. Let t be a rooted tree and consider the following decomposition,

$$\operatorname{Aut}(t) \cong A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots A_p \times B_1 \times B_2 \times \dots \times B_q \tag{10}$$

where each factor  $A_i$  is isomorphic to a symmetric group and each  $B_i$  is isomorphic to the wreath product of a group  $G \in \mathcal{W}$ . In [] MacArthur, Sanchez-Garcia and Anderson showed that the decomposition of  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$  described in Equation has a geometric interpretation. An automorphism group,  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$  may be decomposed by partitioning the set of generators S of  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$  into support-disjoint subsets  $S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_r$  and writing

$$Aut(t) = H_1 \times H_2 \times \dots \times H_r \tag{11}$$

where each  $H_i$  is generated by  $S_i$ . This, geometric decomposition is shown [] to be unique and irreducible (each  $H_i$  cannot be written as the direct product of support-disjoint subgroups) hence the geometric decomposition is well defined. We call each  $H_i$  in the geometric decomposition of  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$  a geometric factor. A symmetric subtree is the induced subtree of t on the support of a geometric factor.

**Example 3.1.** (i) A k-star is an induced subtree consisting of a vertex adjacent to k vertices of outdegree 0. A k-star is a symmetric subtree that corresponds to a geometric factor  $S_k$  (the symmetric group on k objects).

(ii)

By Pólya's Theorem the geometric decomposition (Equation 11) can be written in the form,

$$Aut(t) \cong A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots A_p \times B_1 \times B_2 \times \dots \times B_q$$
 (12)

such that each  $A_i$  corresponds to a symmetric subtree.

There is a natural way to split the geometric decomposition of  $\operatorname{Aut}(t)$  into two subgroups. We define the direct product of symmetric groups to be the *elementary* subgroup:

$$\mathcal{E}(t) = A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_p$$

The direct product of wreath products of symmetric groups form the *complex subgroup*:

$$C(t) = B_1 \times B_2 \times \cdots \times B_q$$

The order,  $\sigma(t)$ , of an automorphism group can also be split as follows:

$$\sigma(t) = |\mathcal{E}(t)||\mathcal{C}(t)|$$

This begs the question: does the order of either the elementary or the complex subgroup dominate the other? MacArthur [?] made the following additional conjecture:

**Conjecture 3.2.** Let  $\{T_t\}_{t=1}^n$  be a RRT. In the limit as  $t \to \infty$ ,  $|\mathcal{E}(T_t)|^{\frac{1}{t}} = \mathcal{V}$ , while in the limit as  $t \to \infty$ ,  $|\mathcal{C}(T_t)|^{\frac{1}{t}} = 1$ .

We claim that the elementary subgroup captures the contribution that (n, k)-stars make to the automorphism group and the complex subgroup captures the contribution that the extended symmetric branches make to the automorphism group.

## **4** Functions on Trees

In this section we will build up a 3-part tool kit of functions  $f: \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  which will be used to calculate properties of rooted trees such as path length and order.

## 4.1 Inductive Maps

**Definition 4.1.** Let  $s = \{s_r\}_{r=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence such that each  $s_r \in \{0, 1\}$ . A variety,  $\mathcal{V}$ , of trees is a collection of random recursive trees such that each vertex is permitted to have outdegree r only if  $s_r = 1$ .

Remark 1. For a more general setting see [?].

The degree function associated with a sequence  $s=\{s_r\}_{r=0}^{\infty}$  is the exponential generating function (EGF) defined as follows:

$$\phi(w) = \sum_{r \ge 0} s_r \frac{w^r}{r!}$$

**Example 4.2.** The collection,  $\mathcal{B}$ , of increasing binary trees are the set of all random recursive trees such that each vertex has outdegree either 0,1 or 2. The degree function for increasing binary trees is

$$\phi(w) = 1 + w + \frac{w^2}{2}$$

The degree function for random recursive trees is

$$\phi(w) = \exp(w).$$

Fix a variety, V, and define  $V_n$  to be the number of trees of order n in V. The EGF of the variety of trees is

$$V_{\mathcal{V}}(z) = \sum_{n \ge 1} V_n \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

For example,

$$V_{\mathcal{T}}(z) = \sum_{n>1} \frac{z^n}{n} \tag{13}$$

$$=\log\left(\frac{1}{1-z}\right)\tag{14}$$

since the number of random recursive trees of order n is (n-1)!.

**Definition 4.3.** Let  $f = \{f_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  be a sequence of real numbers. A function  $s : \mathcal{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is called an *inductive map* if it is defineable by a relation,

$$s(t) = f_{|t|} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} s(t_i)$$

where  $t = B^+(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k)$ .

Given a tree function s and a variety V the EGF of s over V is

$$S(z) = \sum_{t \in \mathcal{V}} s(t) \frac{z^{|t|}}{|t|!}$$

**Example 4.4.** Let  $\delta_{i,j}$  be the usual kronecker delta. The following is a list of possible sequences f and the tree parameter measured by the corresponding function s

- (i)  $f_n = 1$  for all n counts tree size.
- (ii)  $f_n = \delta_{n,i}$  counts the number of induced subtrees of order i.
- (iii)  $f_n = n$  counts path lengths.

In order to calculate S(z) easily and effectively we appeal to the following Theorem of Bergeron [?].

#### Theorem 4.5.

$$S(z) = Y'(z) \int_0^z \frac{F'(t)}{Y'(t)} dt$$

where F(z) is defined from V and the sequence f

$$F(z) = \sum_{n>0} f_n V_n \frac{z^n}{n!}$$

#### 4.2 Butcher Series

Throughout this section let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a suitably differentiable function and consider differential equations of the form

$$\frac{d}{ds}y(s) = f(y(s))$$

where  $y(s_0) = y_0$ . We use the notation f'(y) for the derivative  $\frac{d}{dy}f(y)$  and note that f'(y) is a linear map (the Jacobian), the second derivative f''(y) is a billinear map and so on.

**Definition 4.6.** Let  $t = B^+(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k)$  be a rooted tree. An *elementary differential* is a map  $F(t) : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  defined recursively by:

$$F(\bullet)(y) = f(y) \tag{15}$$

$$F(t)(y) = f^{m}(y)(F(t_1)(y), \dots, f(t_k)(y))$$
(16)

**Theorem 1.** The solution of

$$y(s) = y_0 + \int_{s_0}^{s} f(y(s'))ds'$$

is

$$y(s) = y_0 + \sum_{t \in \mathcal{R}} \frac{(s - s_0)^{|t|}}{|t|!} \alpha(t) F(t)(y_0)$$

*Proof.* See [?, ?] □

**Example 4.7.** Let  $y_0 = s_0 = 0$  and consider the case  $f(s) = \frac{1}{1-s}$  so that  $f^{(k)}(0) = k!$  then F(t) = w(t).

#### **4.3** Bare Green Functions

# 5 Bounds on the expected value of Aut(t)

- 5.1 A lower bound
- 5.2 A disproof of Conjecture 3.2
- 5.3 An upper bound