Chromatic Symmetric Functions and Polynomial Invariants of Trees

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Chromatic Symmetric Functions of Graphs

Let G = (V, E) be a simple graph with $V = [n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$.

proper coloring: a function $f: V \to \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ such that $f(i) \neq f(j)$ whenever $ij \in E$.

chromatic symmetric function (CSF): the power series

$$\mathbf{X}_G = \mathbf{X}_G(x_1, x_2, \dots) = \sum_{\substack{f: V \to \mathbb{N}_{>0} \\ \text{proper}}} x_{f(1)} \cdots x_{f(n)}.$$

- Symmetric and homogeneous of degree n
- Generalizes the chromatic polynomial:

$$\mathbf{X}_G(1^k, 0^\infty)$$
 = number of proper k-colorings

Chromatic Symmetric Functions of Graphs

- ▶ Introduced by Stanley in 1995
- Related invariants: Tutte symmetric function / U-polynomial (Noble-Welsh 1999), matroid quasisymmetric function (Billera-Jia-Reiner 2009)
- ► Analogues: noncommutative CSFs (Gebhard–Sagan 2001), quasisymmetric CSFs (Shareshian–Wachs 2016), . . .
- ► Applications: combinatorial Hopf algebras (Aguiar–Bergeron–Sottile 2006), cohomology of Hessenberg subvarieties of flag manifolds (Shareshian–Wachs 2012)

The Merest Glimpse of Symmetric Functions

symmetric function: a power series in $x_1, x_2, ...$ that is invariant under permuting the indeterminates.

partition $\lambda \vdash n$: non-increasing sequence of positive integers $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_\ell)$ that add up to n.

monomial SF: $m_{\lambda} = \text{sum of all monomials whose nonzero exponents are the parts of <math>n$.

$$m_{322} = x_1^3 x_2^2 x_3^2 + \dots + x_1^2 x_3^3 x_6^2 + \dots + x_8^2 x_9^2 x_{13}^3 + \dots$$

power-sum SF: $p_{\lambda} = p_{\lambda_1} \cdots p_{\lambda_{\ell}}$, where $p_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^k$.

$$p_{322} = (x_1^3 + x_2^3 + \cdots)(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots)^2$$

▶ Both $\{m_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \vdash n\}$ and $\{p_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \vdash n\}$ are bases for the space of homogeneous degree-*n* SFs.

Some Chromatic Symmetric Functions

Example 1: K_n : complete graph on n vertices

lacktriangle Proper coloring = injective map $[n] o \mathbb{N}$

$$\mathbf{X}_{K_n} = \sum_{S \subseteq \mathbb{N}, |S| = n} n! \prod_{i \in S} x_i = n! e_n = n! m_{1^n}$$

Example 2: $\overline{K_n}$: *n* vertices, no edges

▶ Proper coloring = $any \text{ map } [n] \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$$\mathbf{X}_{\overline{K_n}}=(x_1+x_2+\cdots)^n=p_{1^n}$$

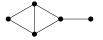
Some Chromatic Symmetric Functions

Example 3: P_3 = path with three vertices

$$\mathbf{X}_{P_3} = \sum_{i < j < k} 6x_i x_j x_k + \sum_{i \neq j} x_i^2 x_j = 6m_{111} + m_{21}$$

Example 4: [Stanley] These graphs have the same CSF:





Some Chromatic Symmetric Functions

Example 5: The two trees with four vertices.



$$\mathbf{X}_{P_4} = 24m_{1111} + 6m_{31} + 2m_{22}$$

 $\mathbf{X}_{St_4} = 24m_{1111} + 6m_{31} + m_{31}$

Every tree with n vertices has chromatic polynomial $t(t-1)^{n-1}$. So the CSF is a strictly stronger invariant. How much stronger?

Stanley's Uniqueness Problem

Question (Stanley)

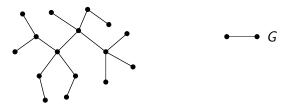
Is a tree uniquely determined up to isomorphism by its CSF?

I.e., if T, T' are non-isomorphic trees, must $X(T) \neq X(T')$?

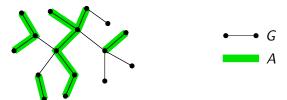
No one really has any idea (although some experts have opinions).

- ▶ The answer is yes for $n \le 29$ [Heil–Ji 2019].
- Also yes for various very special classes of trees

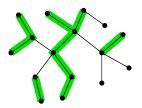
Let G = (V, E) be a graph, n = |V|, $A \subseteq E$ type of A = partition of n whose parts are component sizes of $G|_A$



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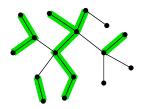


•
$$G$$

A

type(A) = (6, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1)

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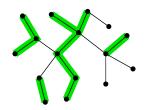


$$type(A) = (6, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1)$$

Theorem (Stanley 1995)

$$\mathbf{X}_G = \sum_{A \subseteq E} (-1)^{n-|A|} p_{\mathsf{type}(A)}.$$

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$$type(A) = (6, 3, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1)$$

Theorem (Stanley 1995)

$$\mathbf{X}_G = \sum_{A \subset E} (-1)^{n-|A|} p_{\mathsf{type}(A)}.$$

Corollary If T = (V, E) is a tree, then $\ell(\mathsf{type}(A)) = n - |A|$, so there is no cancellation:

$$|p_{\lambda}]\mathbf{X}_{T} = c_{\lambda}(T) = (-1)^{\ell(\lambda)} \# \{A \subseteq E \mid \mathsf{type}(A) = \lambda\}.$$

The Subtree Polynomial

Let T = (V, E) be a tree. For a subtree $S \subseteq T$, define

$$e(S) =$$
 number of edges of S
 $\ell(S) =$ number of leaf edges of S

(Henceforth "subtree" means "subtree with at least one edge.)

The subtree polynomial (STP) of T is

$$\mathbf{S}_T = \sum_{\mathsf{subtrees}\ S \subseteq T} q^{e(S)} r^{\ell(S)}$$

For instance:

$$\mathbf{S}_{P_n} = (q^{n-1} + 2q^{n-2} + \dots + (n-2)q^2)r^2 + (n-1)qr$$

 $\mathbf{S}_{St_n} = (qr+1)^{n-1} - 1$

The Subtree Polynomial

Theorem [JLM-Morin-Wagner 2008]

The STP can be obtained linearly from the CSF:

$$[q^i r^j]$$
S_T = $\sum_{\lambda \vdash n} \phi(\lambda, i, j) c_{\lambda}(T)$.

where $\phi(\lambda, i, j)$ is independent of T.

Corollary

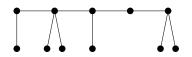
The CSF of a tree T determines its degree and distance sequences, i.e., the numbers

$$\#\{v \in V : \deg(v) = k\}, \qquad \#\{(v, w) : \operatorname{dist}(v, w) = k\}.$$

Distinguishing Power of the STP

The STP is a strictly weaker isomorphism invariant than the CSF. These two trees are an **S-pair** (same STP, different CSF):





n	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
trees	235	551	1301	3159	7741	19320	48629	123867
S -pairs	1	1	1	5	1	7	17	15

The Generalized Degree Polynomial of a Tree

The generalized degree polynomial (GDP) of T is

$$\mathbf{G}_T = \mathbf{G}_T(x, y, z) = \sum_{A \subseteq V} x^{|A|} y^{d(A)} z^{e(A)}.$$

where

$$e(A)$$
 = number of internal edges (both endpoints in A) $d(A)$ = number of external edges (one endpoint in A)

▶ In particular, $d(\{v\}) = \deg(v)$.

Conjecture [Crew 2022]

The CSF of a tree determines its GDP.

The Half-Generalized Degree Polynomial

The half-generalized degree polynomial (HDP) of T is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}_T &= \mathbf{H}_T(x,y,z) = \sum_{\substack{A \subseteq V \\ T[A] \text{ connected}}} y^{d(A)} z^{e(A)} \\ &= \sum_{\text{subtrees } S \subseteq T} y^{d(S)} z^{e(S)} \\ &= \left(\text{sum of terms of } \mathbf{G}_T \text{ of the form } x^{c+1} y^b z^c \right) \Big|_{x=1} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem [Wang-Yu-Zhang 2023]

The CSF of a tree determines its HDP.

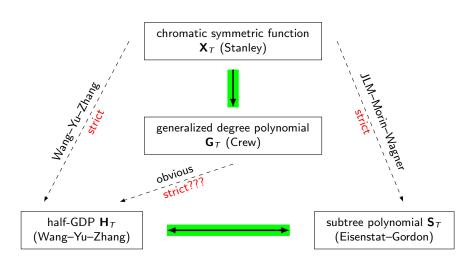
(Key tool: use Stanley's formula for
$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}_T}{\partial p_k}$$
.)

Our Results

Theorem [Aliste-Prieto, JLM, Wagner, Zamora 2024⁺]

- 1. The CSF of a tree determines its GDP linearly. (This is Crew's conjecture.)
- 2. The HDP and the STP of a tree determine each other. (Together, these two results imply the 2008 theorem of JLM–Morin–Wagner.)
- 3. There exist arbitrarily large sets of trees with the same STP. (This implies a 2006 conjecture of Eisenstat and Gordon.)

Our Results



Crew's Conjecture: Obtaining the GDP from the CSF

Theorem [APMWZ 2024⁺]

The coefficients

$$g_T(a, b, c) = \#\{A \subseteq V(T): |A| = a, d(A) = b, e(A) = c\}$$

of G_T are given by

$$g_{\mathcal{T}}(a,b,c) = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} c_{\lambda}(\mathcal{T})\omega(\lambda,a,b,c)$$

where $c_{\lambda}(T) = [p_{\lambda}]\mathbf{X}_{T}$ and

$$\omega(\lambda, a, b, c) = (-1)^{n-b-1} \sum_{\mu \vdash a} \binom{a - \ell(\mu)}{c} \binom{\lambda}{\mu} \binom{n - \ell(\lambda) + \ell(\mu) - a}{n - b - c - 1}$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda \\ \mu \end{pmatrix} := \prod_{i=1}^{n} \begin{pmatrix} \# \text{ of parts of } \lambda \text{ equal to } i \\ \# \text{ of parts of } \mu \text{ equal to } i \end{pmatrix}$$

How to Prove Crew's Conjecture

- 1. Hope that the conjecture was true.
- 2. Compute the matrices of coefficients

$$X = [c_{\lambda}(T)]_{T \in \mathcal{T}_n, \ \lambda \vdash n}$$
 $G = [g_T(a, b, c)]_{T \in \mathcal{T}_n, \ \lambda \vdash n}$

Do this until the computer gets tired.

- 3. Solve the matrix equation $X\Omega = G$ for Ω (there will be a large solution space).
- 4. Find a needle matrix Ω in the haystack solution space whose entries have a nice combinatorial form.
- 5. Prove a theorem.

The HDP and the STP can be written as

$$\mathbf{H}_{T} = \sum_{b,c} h_{T}(b,c) y^{b} z^{c}, \qquad \mathbf{S}_{T} = \sum_{i,j} s_{T}(i,j) q^{i} r^{j}$$

where

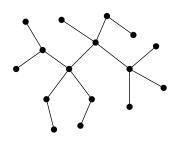
$$h_T(b,c) = |\{U \subseteq T: d(U) = b, e(U) = c\}|,$$

 $s_T(i,j) = |\{S \subseteq T: e(S) = i, \ell(S) = j\}|.$

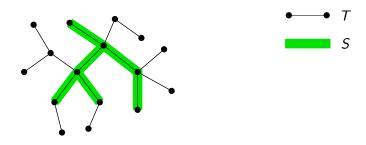
Computational evidence ($n \le 18$) suggested to us that

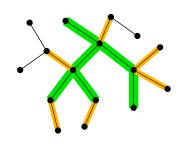
$$\mathbf{H}_T = \mathbf{H}_{T'} \iff \mathbf{S}_T = \mathbf{S}_{T'}.$$

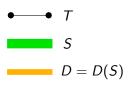
However, the needle-in-a-haystack method leads to very ugly matrices (with non-integer entries).

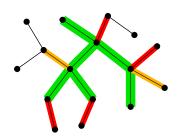


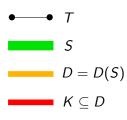


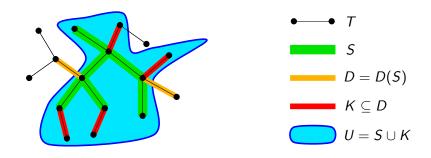


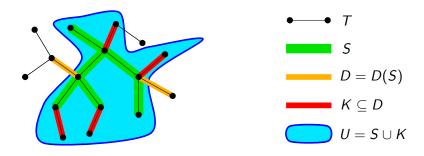












We have a bijection

$$\{(S,K)\colon S\subseteq T,\ K\subseteq D(S)\} \stackrel{\xi}{\longrightarrow} \{(U,K)\colon U\subseteq T,\ K\subseteq L(U)\}$$
$$(S,K)\longmapsto (S\cup K,K)$$
$$(U\setminus K,K)\longleftarrow (U,K)$$

The bijection implies the equalities

$$\sum_{b=k}^{n-1-a} {b \choose k} h(a,b) = \sum_{j=k}^{n-1} {j \choose k} s(a+k,j)$$

for all a, k. In matrix form, MH = NS, where

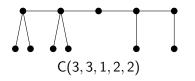
$$H = [h(a,b)]_{a,b=1}^n, \qquad S = [s(i,j)]_{i,j=1}^n.$$

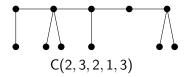
- ► Entries of *M* and *N* are binomial coefficients
- lacktriangle M is unitriangular, hence invertible over $\mathbb Z$
- ightharpoonup det N = n! by Gessel–Viennot lattice path theory

In particular, H and S, hence \mathbf{H}_T and \mathbf{S}_T , determine each other. (But $M^{-1}N$ and $N^{-1}M$ are not combinatorially nice!)

Caterpillars

A tree is a **caterpillar** if deleting all its leaves produces a path.





Caterpillars are indexed by compositions with both first and last parts > 1, up to reversal.

Eisenstat and Gordon conjectured that for gap-free polynomials p(x), the caterpillars arising from (a + bx)p(x) and (b + ax)p(x) have the same STP:

$$(2+1x)(1+x+x^3) = 2+3x+x^2+2x^3+1x^4 \rightsquigarrow (3,3,1,2,2)$$

 $(1+2x)(1+x+x^3) = 1+3x+2x^2+x^3+2x^4 \rightsquigarrow (2,3,2,1,3)$

Caterpillars and Unique Factorization

For compositions $\alpha=(a_1,\ldots,a_k)$ and $\beta=(b_1,\ldots,b_m)$, define

$$\alpha \cdot \beta = (a_1, \dots, a_k, b_1, \dots, b_m)$$

$$\alpha \odot \beta = (a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}, a_k + b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m)$$

$$\alpha \circ \beta = \beta^{\odot a_1} \cdot \beta^{\odot a_2} \cdots \beta^{\odot a_k}$$

Example

$$(2,1) \circ (2,1) = (2,1)^{\odot 2} \cdot (2,1)^{\odot 1} = (2,3,1) \cdot (2,1) = (2,3,1,2,1)$$

 $(2,1) \circ (1,2) = (1,2)^{\odot 2} \cdot (1,2)^{\odot 1} = (1,3,2) \cdot (1,2) = (1,3,2,1,2)$

Fact [Billera-Thomas-van Willigenburg 2006]

Every composition α admits a unique irreducible factorization $\alpha = \alpha_1 \circ \alpha_2 \circ \cdots \circ \alpha_k$.

The Eisenstat-Gordon Conjecture

Theorem [APMWZ]

Reversing any of the irreducible factors preserves the subtree polynomial of $C(1 \odot \alpha \odot 1)$.

For example,

$$\begin{cases} (2,1) \circ (\mathbf{2},\mathbf{1}) = (\mathbf{2},3,1,2,\mathbf{1}) \\ (2,1) \circ (\mathbf{1},\mathbf{2}) = (\mathbf{1},3,2,1,\mathbf{2}) \end{cases} \implies \mathsf{C}(\mathbf{3},3,1,2,\mathbf{2}) = \mathsf{C}(\mathbf{2},3,2,1,\mathbf{3}).$$

In particular, if α has k irreducible factors then $C(1 \odot \alpha \odot 1)$ is one of at least 2^{k-1} non-isomorphic caterpillars with the same subtree polynomial.

The case k = 2 implies the Eisenstat-Gordon conjecture.

Further Questions

Question 1: Is the GDP really a stronger invariant than the HDP?

To our surprise, the answer is "no" for $n \le 18$. But,

- we don't know how one might construct two trees with the same HDP but different GDPs, and
- we don't see how to recover the rest of the GDP from the terms that appear in the HDP.

Further Questions

Question 2: Does factorization extend from caterpillars to more general trees?

Further Questions

Question 3: What can be said about the invariant

$$\mathbf{F}_T(y,z,r) = \sum_{\text{subtrees } S \subseteq T} y^{d(S)} z^{e(S)} r^{\ell(S)}$$
 ?

- ▶ $F_T(y, z, 1) = H_T$ and $F_T(1, q, r) = S_T$.
- ► However, **F** is **strictly stronger** than either **H** or **S**.
- ▶ In fact, we have found no pair $T \ncong T'$ with $\mathbf{F}_T = \mathbf{F}_{T'}$.

Thank you!

Oh, and please read our preprint!

J. Aliste-Prieto, J.L. Martin, J.D. Wagner, and J. Zamora, *Chromatic symmetric functions and polynomial invariants of trees*, arXiv:2402.10333, 2024.

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