

An Introduction to Combinatorial Species

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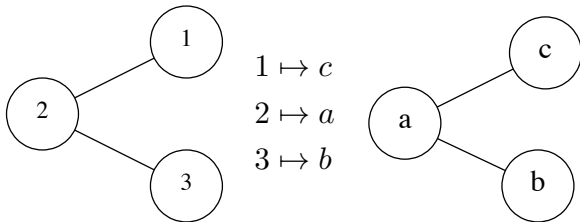
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What are combinatorial species?

The theory of combinatorial species, introduced by **André Joyal** in 1980, is a method for counting **labeled structures**, such as graphs.

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**.

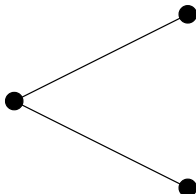
If a structure has label set A and we have a bijection $f: A \rightarrow B$ then we can replace each label $a \in A$ with its image $f(a)$ in B .



What are species good for?

The theory of species allows us to count labeled structures, using exponential generating functions.

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**.



Definition of a species

A species is a functor from the category of finite sets with bijections to itself.

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 $\sigma : U \rightarrow V$ there is a bijection $F[\sigma] : F[U] \rightarrow F[V]$.

Moreover, we have the functorial properties

- ▶ If $\sigma : U \rightarrow V$ and $\tau : V \rightarrow W$ then $F[\tau \circ \sigma] = F[\tau] \circ F[\sigma]$.
- ▶ For the identity map $\text{Id}_U : U \rightarrow U$ we have $F[\text{Id}_U] = \text{Id}_{F[U]}$

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 \mathcal{G}^c of connected graphs

Isomorphism of species

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

In categorical terms, α is a natural isomorphism.

Notation: We write $[n]$ for $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and we write $F[n]$ instead of $F[[n]]$.

As an example, the species of subsets is isomorphic to the species of ordered partitions into two (possibly empty) blocks.

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

A nonisomorphic example

The species S of permutations is **not** isomorphic to the species L of linear orders, even though for every n , $|S[n]| = |L[n]| = n!$.

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

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

There doesn't seem to be an reasonable bijection between these two sets that doesn't depend on the total ordering $1 < 2$.

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

There are several important operations on species.

The simplest is **addition**, which is just disjoint union:

$$(F + G)[U] = F[U] \sqcup G[U].$$

So an $(F + G)$ -structure is either an F -structure or a G -structure.

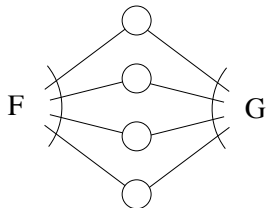
We can also have infinite sums, as long as they “converge”

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

Next is **Cartesian product**:

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

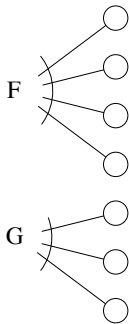
So an $(F \times G)$ -structure is an F -structure **and** a G -structure on the same set of points.



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

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

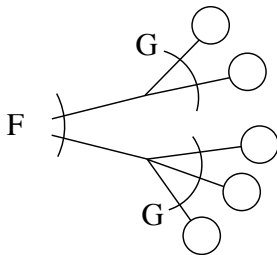
(Note that $X^0 = E_0$.)

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.

Formally,

$$(F \circ G)[U] = \bigcup_{\pi} \left(F[\pi] \times \prod_{V \in \pi} G[V] \right).$$

where the union is over all partitions π of U and the Cartesian product is over all the blocks of π .



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.

Since a partition is a set of nonempty sets, the species of partitions Par is $E \circ E^+$, where

$$E^+ = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

is the species of nonempty sets.

Since a permutation is a set of cycles, $S = E \circ C$.

Generating functions for species

To a species F we may associate three generating functions.

First we have the **exponential generating function**

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n \frac{x^n}{n!},$$

where $f_n = |F[n]|$.

The **unlabeled generating function** is

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

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

These generating functions are compatible with addition and multiplication:

$$\begin{aligned}(F + G)(x) &= F(x) + G(x) & \widetilde{(F + G)}(x) &= \widetilde{F}(x) + \widetilde{G}(x) \\ (FG)(x) &= F(x)G(x) & \widetilde{(FG)}(x) &= \widetilde{F}(x)\widetilde{G}(x)\end{aligned}$$

Also, the exponential generating function is compatible with composition:

$$(F \circ G)(x) = F(x) \circ G(x)$$

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 $\widetilde{G}(x)$.

Examples

For the species E_n of n -sets, $E_n(x) = x^n/n!$ and $\tilde{E}_n(x) = x^n$.

For the species E of sets,

$$E(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^x \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{E}(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}.$$

For the species C of cyclic permutations,

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

For the species $S = E \circ S$ of permutations,

$$S(x) = \exp(C(x)) = \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! \frac{x^n}{n!} \text{ and } \widetilde{S}(x) = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^k}$$

For the species $\text{Par} = E \circ E^+$ of partitions, we have

$$\text{Par}(x) = \exp(E^+(x)) = e^{e^x - 1}$$

$$\widetilde{\text{Par}}(x) = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^k}$$

The cycle index series

The third important generating function associated with a species is the **cycle index series**, which contains the other two as special cases.

Let F be a species. For the moment, suppose that F is homogeneous of degree n ; that is, $F[A] = \emptyset$ unless $|A| = n$.

For any bijection $\pi : [n] \rightarrow [n]$ there is a corresponding bijection $F[\pi] : F[n] \rightarrow F[n]$. Thus there is an **action** of the symmetric group \mathfrak{S}_n on $F[n]$.

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 $\text{fix } F[\pi]$ 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

$$Z_F = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \text{fix } F[\pi] p_1^{c_1(\pi)} p_2^{c_2(\pi)} \dots,$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

where $p_\lambda = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots$.

Examples

First let's look at $F = X = E_1$. So here $n = 1$ and $Z_{E_1} = p_1$.

Next for $F = E_2$, we have $n = 2$. Here we have $n = 2$ and $Z_{E_2} = \frac{1}{2}p_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}p_2$.

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 $\text{fix } E_n[\lambda] = 1$, so

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

This is equal to the complete symmetric function

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

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

$$Z_{L_n} = \frac{1}{n!} \cdot n! p_1^n = p_1^n.$$

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

First we can get the exponential generating function and the unlabeled generating function from the cycle index:

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

$\tilde{F}(x)$ is obtained from Z_F by 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

Addition and multiplication are easy:

$$Z_{F+G} = Z_F + Z_G$$

$$Z_{FG} = Z_F Z_G$$

Corresponding to the Cartesian product of species is an operation on symmetric functions called the *Kronecker product*:

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

Then

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

For composition of species, we have a corresponding operation on symmetric functions called **composition** or **plethysm**:

$$Z_{F \circ G} = Z_F \circ Z_G.$$

Plethysm can be defined in several equivalent ways. The most intuitive way to define $f \circ g$ when g has positive integer coefficients, is to write g as a sum of monic terms and substitute them for the variables of f .

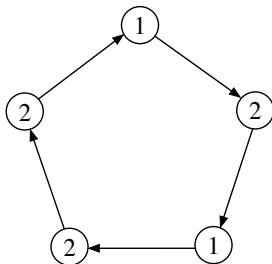
But if f and g expressed in terms of the p_i , a more efficient procedure is to first define $p_j \circ g$ to be the result of replacing each p_i in g with p_{ij} , and then replacing each p_j in f with $p_j \circ g$.

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.

More generally, the coefficient of $x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots$ in Z_F is the number of " F -structures labeled with the multiset $\{1^{n_1}, 2^{n_2}, \dots\}$."

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



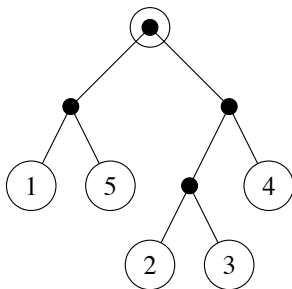
Indirect decompositions

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.

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 recently by Sara Billey, Matjaž Konvalinka, and Frederick A. Matsen IV:

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

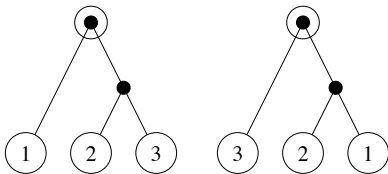
where r_{λ} is zero if λ is not a binary partition (a partition in which every part is a power of 2), and if λ is a binary partition, $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$ where $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_k \geq 1$ then

$$r_{\lambda} = \prod_{i=2}^k (2(\lambda_i + \dots + \lambda_k) - 1),$$

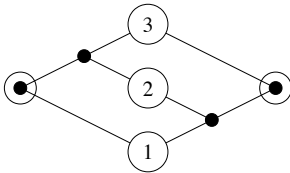
So the number of unlabeled binary trees with n leaves is

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

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

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