

What Else Can You Count If You Can Count Trees?

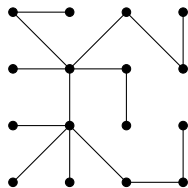
Jeremy L. Martin
Department of Mathematics
University of Kansas

Benedictine College
April 4, 2019

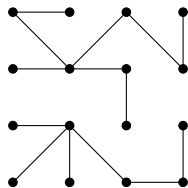
Trees

Tree: a nonempty set of vertices connected by edges, so that]

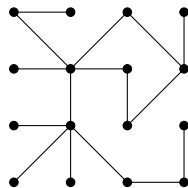
- ▶ there is a path between any two vertices (*connectedness*);
- ▶ there are no closed loops (*acyclicity*).



Tree



Not connected

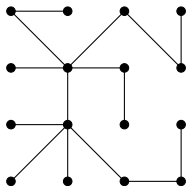


Not acyclic

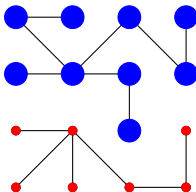
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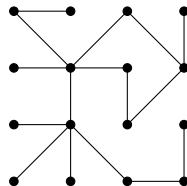
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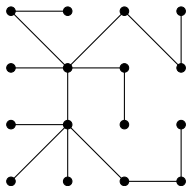


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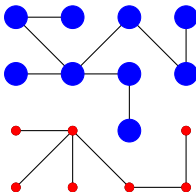
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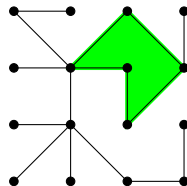
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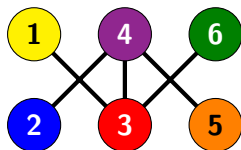
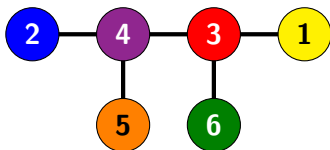
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Not acyclic

Properties of Trees

1. Every tree with n vertices has **exactly $n - 1$ edges**. (Any fewer and it cannot be connected; any more and it must contain a cycle.)
2. Every tree with at least two vertices has **at least two leaves** (vertices with only one neighbor).
3. We only care about **which vertices are connected**, not how the tree is depicted on the page. These trees are the same:



How Many Trees Are There On n Labeled Vertices?

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$n = 1$



1 tree

How Many Trees Are There On n Labeled Vertices?

$n = 1$



1 tree

$n = 2$



1 tree

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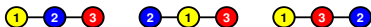
1 tree

$n = 2$



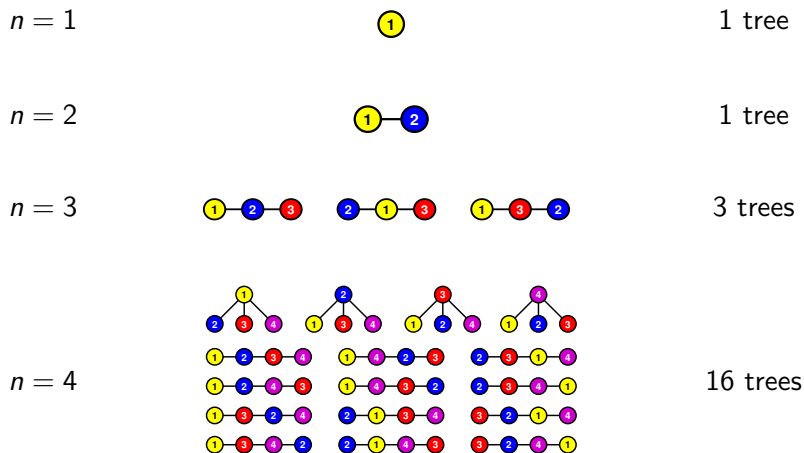
1 tree

$n = 3$



3 trees

How Many Trees Are There On n Labeled Vertices?



How Many Trees Are There On n Vertices?

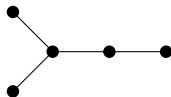
For $n = 5$, there are three tree shapes:



$5!/2 = 60$ trees



5 trees

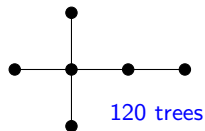
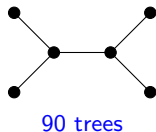
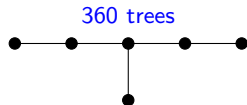
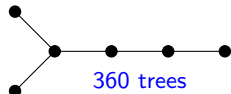
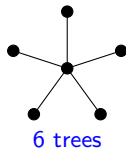
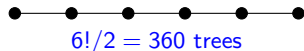


$5!/2 = 60$ trees

Total: **125** trees on 5 labeled vertices.

How Many Trees Are There On n Vertices?

For $n = 6$, there are six tree shapes:



Total: **1296** trees on 6 labeled vertices.

How Many Trees Are There On n Vertices?

Let $T(n)$ = number of labeled trees on n vertices.

n	$T(n)$
1	1
2	1
3	3
4	16
5	125
6	1296
7	16807
8	262144

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2	1	= 2^0
3	3	= 3^1
4	16	= 4^2
5	125	= 5^3
6	1296	= 6^4
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Theorem 1 $T(n) = n^{n-2}$ for all n .

Yeah, But How Do You Prove That? (#1)

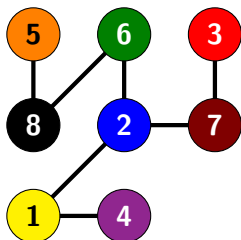
Prüfer code of a tree: the sequence $P(T)$ constructed as follows.

- ▶ Find the leaf with the smallest label.
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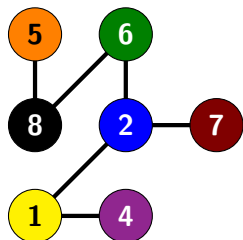


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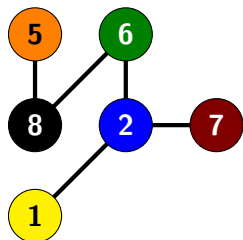


$$P(T) = 7$$

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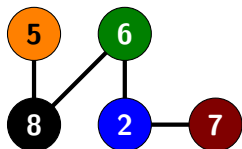


$$P(T) = 71$$

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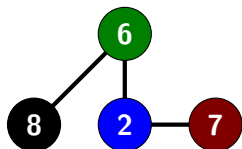


$$P(T) = 712$$

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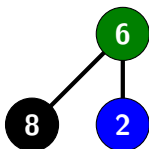


$$P(T) = 7128$$

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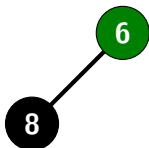


$$P(T) = 71282$$

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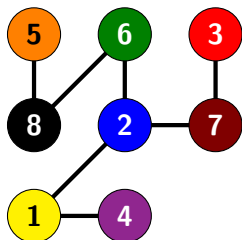


$$P(T) = 712826$$

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Yeah, But How Do You Prove That? (#1)

Fact: Every tree can be reconstructed from its Prüfer code, giving a bijection

$$\{\text{trees on } n \text{ vertices}\} \rightarrow \{(p_1, \dots, p_{n-2}) : 1 \leq p_i \leq n\}$$

and the size of the right-hand set is clearly n^{n-2} .

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Corollary: The number of trees in which vertex i has exactly d_i neighbors is the coefficient of the monomial

$$x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2} \cdots x_n^{d_n}$$

in the expansion of $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n (x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n)^{n-2}$.

Yeah, But How Do You Prove That? (#2)

The **Matrix-Tree Theorem** (which dates back to 1845!) says that trees can be counted using linear algebra.

Long story short: $T(n)$ is the determinant of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} n-1 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ -1 & n-1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & n-1 & \cdots & -1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & \cdots & n-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Convince yourself that its eigenvalues are n (with multiplicity $n-2$) and 1.

The Sandpile Model

Start with a bucket of sand. Take out m piles. Let s_i be the number of grains of sand in the i^{th} pile.

- ▶ When a sandpile gets too big, it topples over.

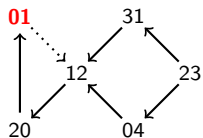
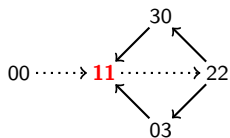
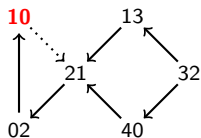
Specifically, if $s_i \geq m$, then pile i spews sand in all directions, giving one grain of sand to each other pile and putting one grain back in the bucket.

- ▶ If no pile is too big, add one grain from the bucket to each pile.

How does the system evolve?

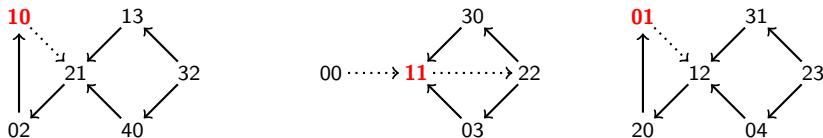
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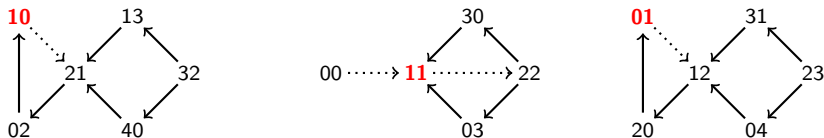


The states $(0, 1)$, $(1, 0)$, and $(1, 1)$ are called **critical**:

- ▶ no pile other than the sink can topple (“stability”)
- ▶ these states appear repeatedly as the model evolves (“recurrence”)

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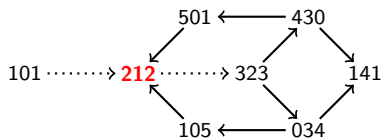
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Fact: Every initial state evolves to exactly one critical state.

The Sandpile Model

A possible evolution pattern for $m = 3$:



Complete list of critical states for $m = 3$:

222, 221, 212, 122, 211, 121, 112, 220, 202, 022,
012, 021, 102, 120, 201, 210.

Sandpiles and Shopping Sprees

Sandpile model

(statistical physics)

Dollar game

(economics)

Sandpiles

Consumers

Sand grains

Dollars

Big enough

Rich enough

Toppling

Shopping spree

Sink

Bank

Sink topples

Economic stimulus package

Joint Shopping Sprees

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Ani gives a dollar to Bob	Bob gives a dollar to Ani
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Joint Shopping Sprees

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Ani and Bob only need \$1 each to go on a shopping spree *together*.

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Ani gives a dollar to Chris Bob gives a dollar to Chris

Ani and Bob only need $\$1$ each to go on a shopping spree *together*.

In a **joint shopping spree**, each consumer in a set X (not including the bank) gives $\$1$ to each consumer not in X (including the bank). This is possible if

$$s_i > m - |X| \quad \forall x \in X.$$

Superstable States

A state of the dollar game is called **superstable** if no simultaneous shopping sprees are possible.

Theorem 2

(s_1, \dots, s_m) superstable $\iff (m - s_1, \dots, m - s_m)$ critical

Theorem 3

There is a bijection

$\{\text{superstable states}\} \rightarrow \{\text{labeled trees on } n \text{ vertices}\}.$

The proof uses the **Burning Algorithm** [Dhar, 1990].

Dhar's Burning Algorithm (A Sketch)

Let $n = m + 1$. Start with a superstable state $\mathbf{s} = (s_1, \dots, s_{n-1})$.

- ▶ For each $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$, place s_i firefighters at vertex i .
- ▶ Set vertex n on fire.
- ▶ The fire tries to spread from burned vertices to unburned vertices. Unburned vertices can deploy firefighters to protect themselves. (A firefighter cannot be moved once deployed.)
- ▶ Superstability of \mathbf{s} is precisely equivalent to the condition that the fire eventually reaches every vertex!
- ▶ The route that the fire takes is a tree!
- ▶ Algorithm is reversible: \mathbf{s} can be reconstructed from the output tree!

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- ▶ Each car drives to its preferred spot and tries to park there.
- ▶ If a car's preferred spot is occupied, it takes the next available spot.
- ▶ Did I mention the pit full of snakes?

Parking Functions

Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$

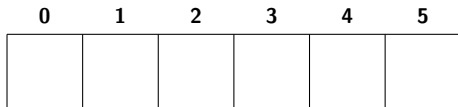


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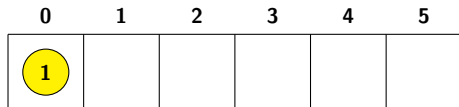


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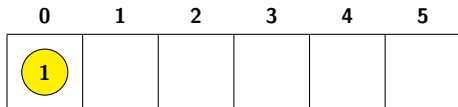


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2

$p_2 = 3$

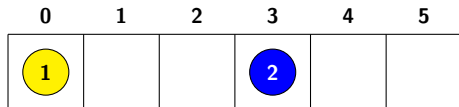


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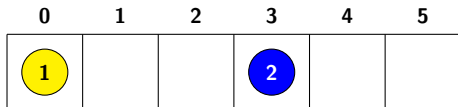


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$$p_3 = 0$$

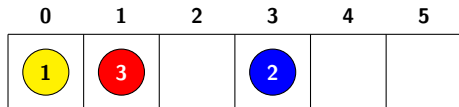


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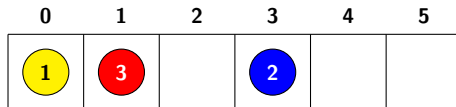


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$$p_4 = 4$$

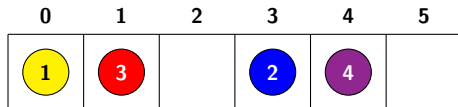


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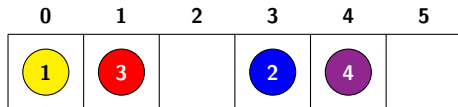


Parking Functions

Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$



$$p_5 = 3$$

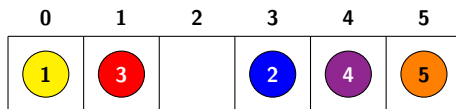


Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$

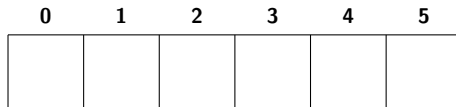


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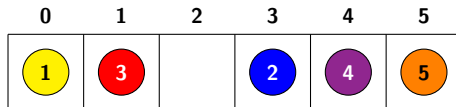


Parking Functions

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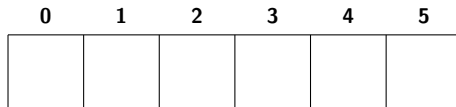
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Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$

Success!



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



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Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



$p_1 = 0$



Parking Functions

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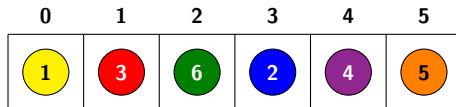
Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



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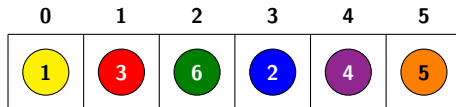
$p_2 = 3$



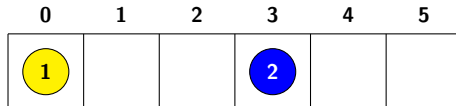
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Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$

Success!



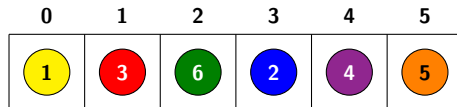
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Parking Functions

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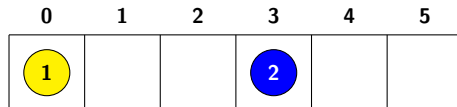
Success!



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



$p_3 = 3$



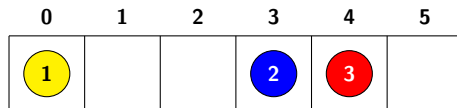
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Success!



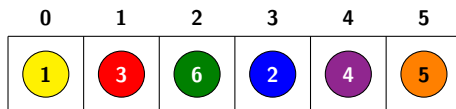
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Parking Functions

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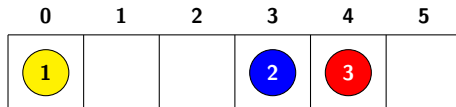
Success!



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



$p_4 = 4$



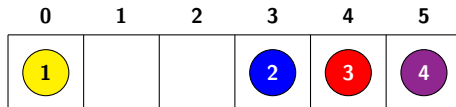
Parking Functions

Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$

Success!



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



Parking Functions

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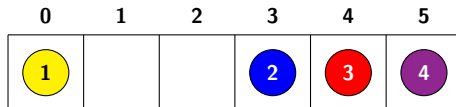
Success!



Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



$p_5 = 3$



Parking Functions

Example #1 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 0, 4, 3, 0)$

Success!

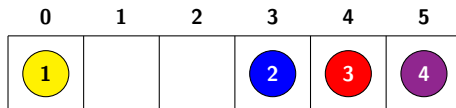


Example #2 $(p_1, \dots, p_6) = (0, 3, 3, 4, 3, 0)$



Oops.

$$p_5 = 3$$



Parking Functions

Definition A sequence $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ is a **parking function (PF)** if it enables all cars to park without being eaten by snakes.

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In fact, parking functions are the same thing as superstable states!

Parking Functions and Superstable States

$n = 1$: 0

$n = 2$: 00 01
 10

$n = 3$: 000 001 011 002 012 021
 010 101 020 102 120
 100 110 200 201 210

$n = 4$ (up to shuffling):

0000
0001 0002 0003
0011 0012 0013 0022 0023
0111 0112 0113 0122 0123

Number of PFs up to shuffling = **Catalan number** $\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$

A Rather Slick Way To Count Parking Functions

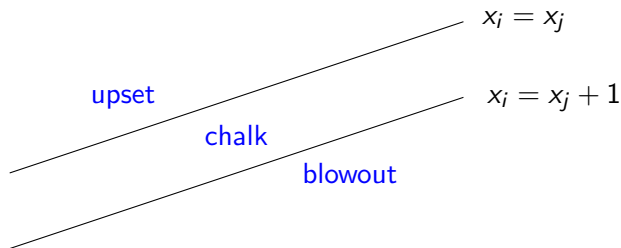
- ▶ Remove the snakepit. Replace it with an extra parking spot ($\#n$) and a return ramp (like an airport terminal).
- ▶ Number of preference lists \mathbf{p} is now $(n + 1)^n$.
- ▶ All cars will be able to park, and one spot $o(\mathbf{p})$ will be left open.
- ▶ Cyclically rotating \mathbf{p} also rotates $o(\mathbf{p})$.
- ▶ Therefore, all spots are equally likely to be open.
- ▶ \mathbf{p} is a parking function $\iff o(\mathbf{p}) = n$.
- ▶ Number of parking functions = $(n + 1)^n / (n + 1) = (n + 1)^{n-1}$.

Handicap Scoring

- ▶ Competitors in an individual event (e.g., marathon, bowling, pentathlon, Rubik's Cube) are seeded $1, 2, \dots, n$. Lower numbered seed = stronger player.
- ▶ Each competitor i achieves a score $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ (the higher the better).
- ▶ We want to level the playing field by comparing each pair of players head-to-head. For each $1 \leq i < j \leq n$:
 - ▶ If $x_i < x_j$ (“upset”), then the underdog j scores a point.
 - ▶ If $x_j < x_i < x_j + 1$ (“chalk”), then no one scores a point.
 - ▶ If $x_j + 1 < x_i$ (“blowout”), then the favorite i scores a point.

Handicap Scoring

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The Shi Arrangement

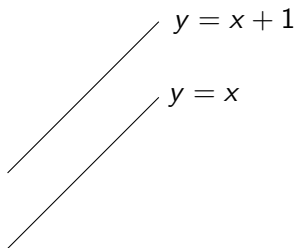
In order to understand the possible score vectors, we want to look at the hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^n defined by the equations

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 = x_2, & \quad x_1 = x_3, & \quad \dots, & \quad x_i = x_j, & \quad \dots, & \quad x_{n-1} = x_n, \\x_1 = x_2 + 1, & \quad x_1 = x_3 + 1, & \quad \dots, & \quad x_i = x_j + 1, & \quad \dots, & \quad x_{n-1} = x_n + 1.\end{aligned}$$

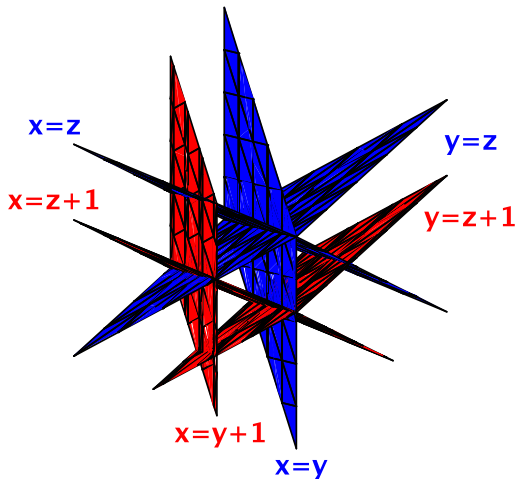
The **Shi arrangement** $Shi(n)$ is the set of all such hyperplanes.

The Shi arrangement separates \mathbb{R}^n into regions that record the possible outcomes from this scoring system.

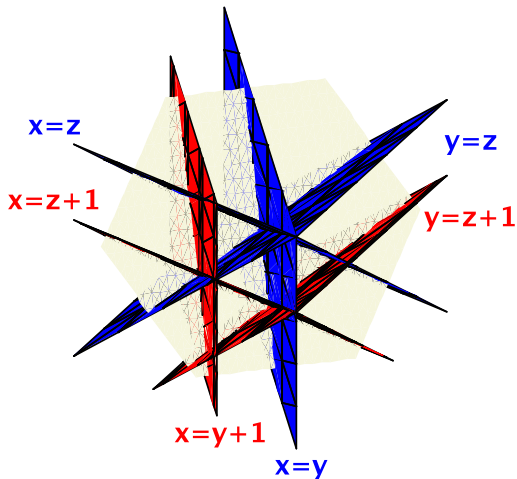
The Arrangement $Shi(2)$

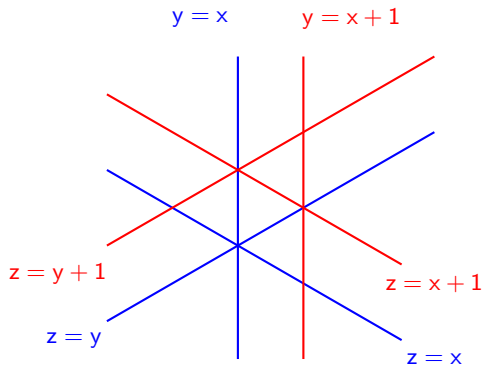


The Arrangement $Shi(3)$

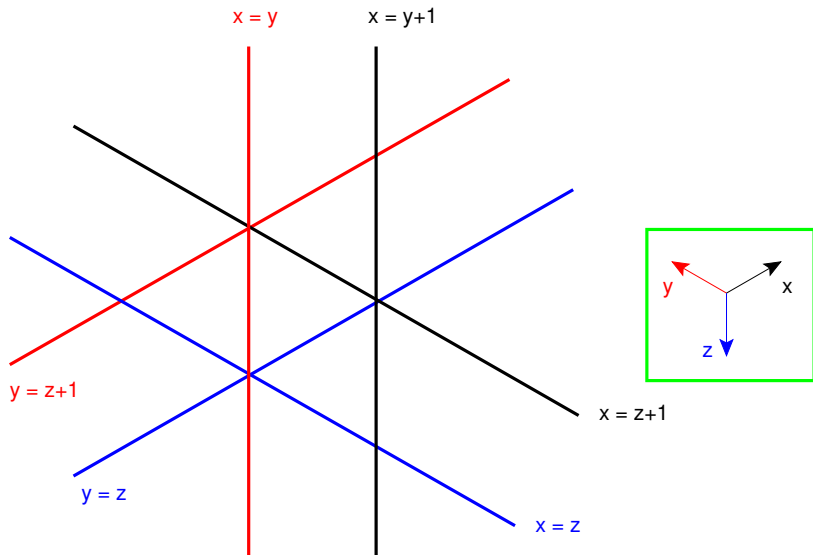


The Arrangement $Shi(3)$

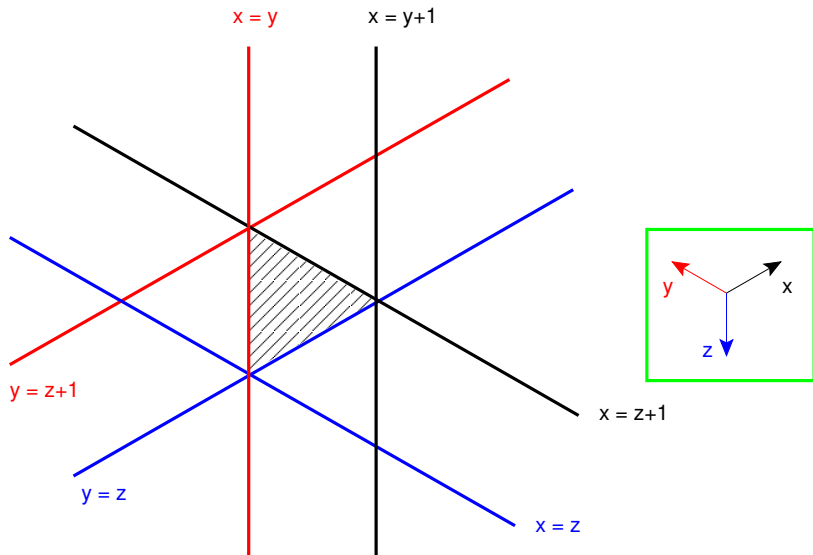




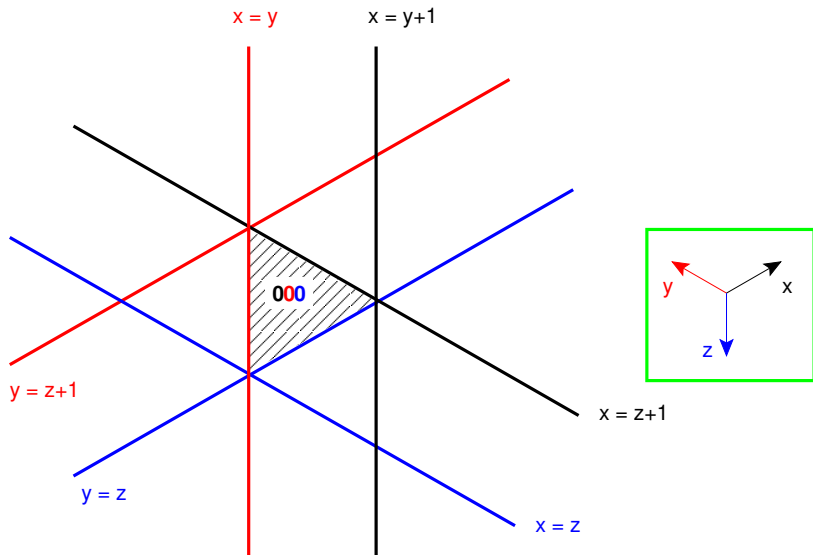
Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



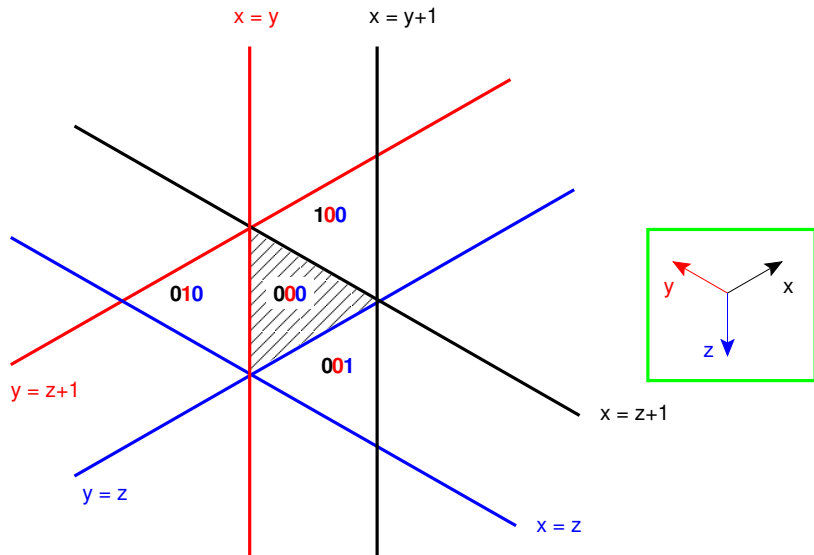
Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



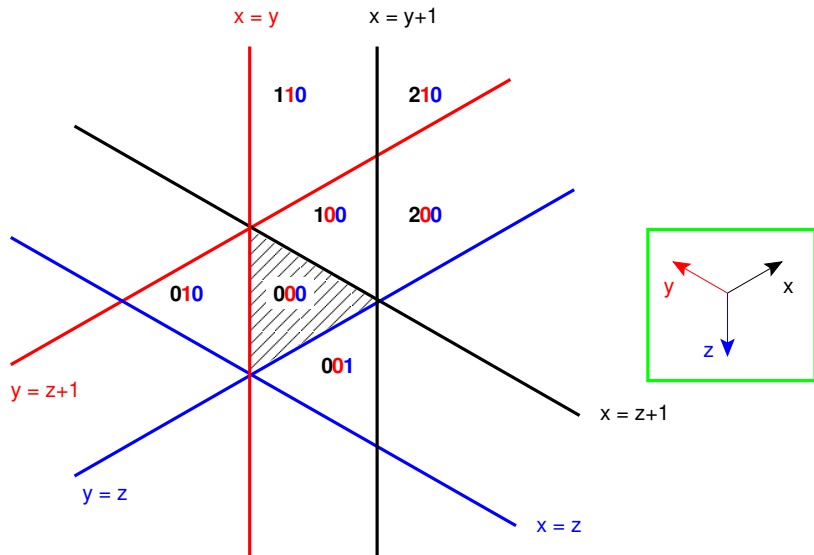
Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



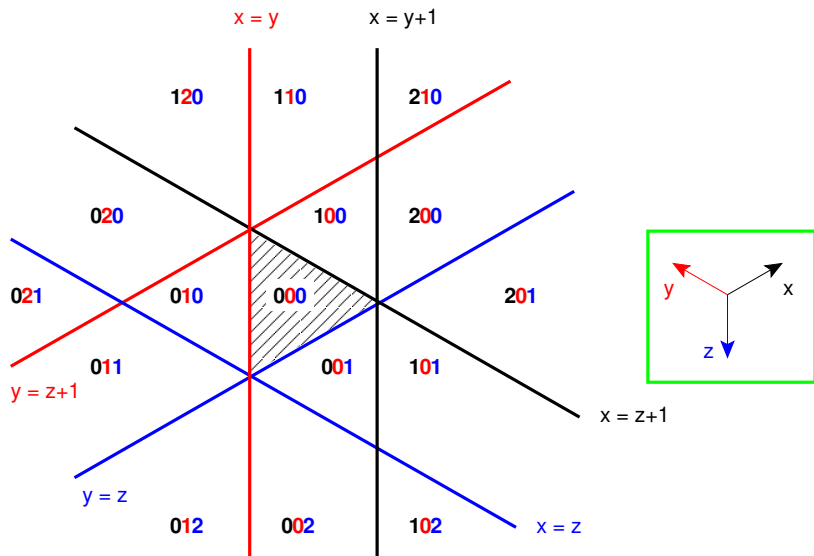
Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



Score Vectors for $Shi(3)$



The Shi Arrangement

Theorem 6 [Pak and Stanley]

Labeling with score vectors gives a function

$$\{\text{regions of } Shi(n)\} \rightarrow \{\text{parking functions of length } n\}$$

that is a bijection!

In particular, the number of regions in $Shi(n)$ is $(n + 1)^{n-1}$.

Conclusion

The numbers $(n + 1)^{n-1}$ count lots of things:

- ▶ labeled trees on $n + 1$ vertices,
- ▶ long-term behaviors of the sandpile model with n vertices plus a sink,
- ▶ superstable states of the dollar game with n vertices plus a bank,
- ▶ parking functions for n cars,
- ▶ regions of the Shi arrangement in \mathbb{R}^n ,
- ▶ and, quite possibly, other beautiful combinatorial structures that you will discover yourself (and please tell me).

Thank you!