ON SYMMETRIES IN PHYLOGENETIC TREES

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ABSTRACT. Billey et al. [arXiv:1507.04976] have recently discovered a surprisingly simple formula for the number $a_n(\sigma)$ of leaf-labelled rooted non-embedded binary trees (also known as phylogenetic trees) with $n \geq 1$ leaves, fixed (for the relabelling action) by a given permutation $\sigma \in S_n$. Denoting by $\lambda \vdash n$ the integer partition giving the sizes of the cycles of $\sigma$ in non-increasing order, they show by a guessing/checking approach that if $\lambda$ is a binary partition (it is known that $a_n(\sigma) = 0$ otherwise), then

$$a_n(\sigma) = \prod_{i=2}^{\ell(\lambda)} (2(\lambda_i + \cdots + \lambda_{\ell(\lambda)}) - 1),$$

and they derive from it a formula and random generation procedure for tanglegrams (and more generally for tangled chains). Our main result is a combinatorial proof of the formula for $a_n(\sigma)$, which yields a simplification of the random sampler for tangled chains.

1. INTRODUCTION

For $A$ a finite set of cardinality $n \geq 1$, we denote by $B[A]$ the set of rooted binary trees that are non-embedded (i.e., the order of the two children of each node does not matter) and have $n$ leaves with distinct labels from $A$. Such trees are known as phylogenetic trees, where typically $A$ is the set of represented species. Note that such a tree has $n - 1$ nodes and $2n - 1$ edges (we take here the convention of having an additional root-edge above the root-node, connected to a ‘fake-vertex’ that does not count as a node, see Figure 1).

![Figure 1](attachment:image.png)

**Figure 1.** (a) A phylogenetic tree $\gamma$ with label-set $\{1..6\}$. (b) The tree $\gamma' = \sigma \cdot \gamma$, with $\sigma = (1, 4, 3)(5)(2, 6)$. Since $\gamma' \neq \gamma$, $\gamma$ is not fixed by $\sigma$ (on the other hand $\gamma$ is fixed by $(2, 3)(1, 4, 6, 5)$).

The group $\mathfrak{S}(A)$ of permutations of $A$ acts on $B[A]$: for $\gamma \in B[A]$ and $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}(A)$, $\sigma \cdot \gamma$ is obtained from $\gamma$ after replacing the label $i$ of every leaf by $\sigma(i)$, see

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Figure 1b. We denote by $B_\sigma[A]$ the set of trees fixed by the action of $\sigma$, i.e., $B_\sigma[A] := \{ \gamma \in B[A] \text{ such that } \sigma \cdot \gamma = \gamma \}$. We also define $E_\sigma[A]$ (resp. $E[A]$) as the set of pairs $(\gamma, e)$ where $\gamma \in B_\sigma[A]$ (resp. $\gamma \in B[A]$) and $e$ is an edge of $\gamma$ (among the $2n - 1$ edges). Define the cycle-type of $\sigma$ as the integer partition $\lambda \vdash n$ giving the sizes of the cycles of $\sigma$ (in non-increasing order). For $\lambda \vdash n$ an integer partition, the cardinality of $B_\sigma[A]$ is the same for all permutations $\sigma$ with cycle-type $\lambda$, and this common cardinality is denoted by $r_\lambda$. It is known (e.g. using cycle index sums [1, 3]) that $r_\lambda = 0$ unless $\lambda$ is a binary partition (i.e., an integer partition whose parts are powers of 2). Billey et al. [2] have recently found the following remarkable formula, valid for any binary partition $\lambda$:

$$r_\lambda = \prod_{i=2}^{\ell(\lambda)} (2(\lambda_i + \cdots + \lambda_{\ell(\lambda)}) - 1).$$

They prove the formula by a guessing/checking approach. Our main result here is a combinatorial proof of (1), which yields a simplification (see Section 3) of the random sampler for tanglegrams (and more generally tangled chains) given in [2].

**Theorem 1.** For $A$ a finite set and $\sigma$ a permutation on $A$ whose cycle-type is a binary partition:

- If $\sigma$ has one cycle, then $|B_\sigma[A]| = 1$.
- If $\sigma$ has more than one cycle, let $\lambda$ be a largest cycle of $\sigma$; denote by $A'$ the set $A$ without the elements of $\lambda$, and denote by $\sigma'$ the permutation $\sigma$ restricted to $A'$. Then we have the combinatorial isomorphism

$$B_\sigma[A] \simeq E_{\sigma'}[A'].$$

As we will see, the isomorphism (2) can be seen as an adaptation of Rémy’s method [7] to the setting of (non-embedded rooted) binary trees fixed by a given permutation. Note that Theorem 1 implies that the coefficients $r_\lambda$ satisfy $r_1 = 1$ if $\lambda$ is a binary partition with one part and $r_\lambda = (2|\lambda\setminus\lambda_1| - 1) \cdot r_{\lambda\setminus\lambda_1}$ if $\lambda$ is a binary partition with more than one part, from which we recover (1).

### 2. Proof of Theorem 1

#### 2.1. Case where the permutation $\sigma$ has one cycle.

The fact that $|B_\sigma[A]| = 1$ if $\sigma$ has one cycle of size $2^k$ (for some $k \geq 0$) is well known from the structure of automorphisms in trees [6], for the sake of completeness we give a short justification. Since the case $k = 0$ is trivial we can assume that $k \geq 1$. Let $c_1, c_2$ be the two cycles of $\sigma^2$ (each of size $2^{k-1}$), with the convention that $c_1$ contains the minimal element of $A$; denote by $A_1, A_2$ the induced bi-partition of $A$, and by $\sigma_1 = c_1$ (resp. $\sigma_2 = c_2$) the permutation $\sigma^2$ restricted to $A_1$ (resp. $A_2$). For $\gamma \in B_\sigma[A]$ let $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$ be the two subtrees at the root-node of $\gamma$, such that the minimal element of $A$ is in $\gamma_1$. Then clearly $\gamma_1 \in B_{\sigma_1}[A_1]$ and $\gamma_2 \in B_{\sigma_2}[A_2]$, and conversely for $\gamma_1 \in B_{\sigma_1}[A_1]$ and $\gamma_2 \in B_{\sigma_2}[A_2]$ the tree $\gamma$ with $(\gamma_1, \gamma_2)$ as subtrees at the root-node is in $B_\sigma[A]$. Hence

$$B_\sigma[A] \simeq B_{\sigma_1}[A_1] \times B_{\sigma_2}[A_2],$$

which implies $|B_\sigma[A]| = 1$ by induction on $k$ (note that, also by induction on $k$, the underlying unlabelled tree is the complete binary tree of height $k$).
Figure 2. (a) Rémy’s leaf-removal operation. (b) The two cases for removing a 2-cycle of leaves (depending whether the two leaves have the same parent or not). The vertices depicted gray are allowed to be the fake vertex above the root-node.

2.2. Case where the permutation \( \sigma \) has more than one cycle. Let \( k \geq 0 \) be the integer such that the largest cycle of \( \sigma \) has size \( 2^k \). A first useful remark is that \( \sigma \) induces a permutation of the edges (resp. of the nodes) of \( \gamma \), and each \( \sigma \)-cycle of edges (resp. of nodes) has size \( 2^i \) for some \( i \in [0..k] \). We present the proof of (2) progressively, treating first the case \( k = 0 \), then \( k = 1 \), then general \( k \).

Case \( k = 0 \). This case corresponds to \( \sigma \) being the identity, so that \( B_{\sigma}[A] \simeq B[A] \), hence we just have to justify that \( B[\gamma'] \simeq E[A \setminus \{i\}] \) for each fixed \( i \in A \). This is easy to see using Rémy’s argument \[7\] used here in the non-embedded leaf-labelled context: every \( \gamma \in B[A] \) is uniquely obtained from some \( (\gamma',e) \in E[A \setminus \{i\}] \) upon inserting a new pending edge from the middle of \( e \) to a new leaf that is given label \( i \), see Figure 2(a).

Case \( k = 1 \). Let \( c = (a_1,a_2) \) be the selected cycle of \( \sigma \), with \( a_1 < a_2 \). Two cases can arise (in each case we obtain from \( \gamma \) a pair \( (\gamma',e) \) with \( \gamma' \in B_{\sigma'}[A'] \) and \( e \) an edge of \( \gamma' \)):

- if \( a_1 \) and \( a_2 \) have the same parent \( v \), we obtain a reduced tree \( \gamma' \in B_{\sigma'}[A'] \) by erasing the 3 edges incident to \( v \) (and the endpoints of these edges, which are \( a_1, a_2, v \) and the parent of \( v \)), and we mark the edge \( e \) of \( \gamma' \) whose middle was the parent of \( v \), see the first case of Figure 2(b)
- if \( a_1 \) and \( a_2 \) have distinct parents, we can apply the operation of Figure 2(a) to each of \( a_1 \) and \( a_2 \), which yields a reduced tree \( \gamma' \in B_{\sigma'}[A'] \). We then mark the edge \( e \) of \( \gamma' \) whose middle was the parent of \( a_1 \), see the second case of Figure 2(b).

Conversely, starting from \( (\gamma',e) \in E[A'] \), the \( \sigma' \)-cycle of edges that contains \( e \) has either size 1 or 2:

- if it has size 1 (i.e., \( e \) is fixed by \( \sigma' \)), we insert a pending edge from the middle of \( e \) and leading to “cherry” with labels \( (a_1,a_2) \),
- if it has size 2, let \( e' = \sigma'(e) \); then we attach at the middle of \( e \) (resp. \( e' \)) a new pending edge leading to a new leaf of label \( a_1 \) (resp. \( a_2 \)).

The general case \( k \geq 0 \). Recall that the marked cycle of \( \sigma \) is denoted by \( c \). A node or leaf of the tree is generically called a vertex of the tree. We define a \( c \)-vertex as a vertex \( v \) of \( \gamma \) such that:

\(^1\)A similar argument in the context of triangulations of a polygon dates back to Rodrigues \[8\].
the relabelling action of $E$, from $B$ length $4 \cdot E$. FUSY

Burnside’s lemma (see [2] for a proof using double cosets and [3] for a proof using (by Section 2.1) tree in $\gamma \in B$.

$c$-tree at $w$, let $\sigma$ be the cycle of $\gamma$ whose middle was the parent of $w$, see Figure 3.

Conversely, starting from $(\gamma', e) \in E_{\sigma}[A']$, let $i \in [0..k]$ be such that the $\sigma'$-cycle of edges that contains $e$ has cardinality $2^i$; write this cycle as $e_0, e_2 = 1, \ldots, e_i$, with $e_0 = e$. Starting from the element of $c$ of minimal label, let $(s_0, \ldots, s_{2^i})$ be the $2^i$ (successive) first elements of $c$. And for $r \in [0..2^i - 1]$ let $e_r$ be the cycle of $\sigma_2^r$ that contains $s_r$ and let $A_r$ be the set of elements in $c_r$ (note that $A_0, A_2, \ldots, A_{2^i-1}$ each have size $2^{k-i}$, and partition the set of elements in $c$). Let $T_r$ be the unique (by Section 2.1) tree in $B[A_r]$ fixed by the cyclic permutation $c_r$. We obtain a tree $\gamma \in B_\sigma[A]$ as follows: for each $r \in [0..2^i - 1]$ we create a new edge that connects the middle of $e_r$ to a new copy of $T_r$.

To conclude we have described a mapping from $B_\sigma[A]$ to $E_{\sigma'}[A']$ and a mapping from $E_{\sigma'}[A']$ to $B_\sigma[A]$ that are readily seen to be inverse of each other, therefore $B_\sigma[A] \simeq E_{\sigma'}[A']$.

3. Application to the random generation of tangled chains

For $n \geq 1$, denote by $\mathbf{n}$ the set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. A tanglegram of size $n$ is an orbit of $B[\mathbf{n}] \times B[\mathbf{n}]$ under the relabelling action of $S_n$ (see Figure 4 for an example). More generally, for $k \geq 1$, a tangled chain of length $k$ and size $n$ is an orbit of $B[\mathbf{n}]^k$ under the relabelling action of $S_n$, see [5] [2] [3]. Let $T_n^{(k)}$ be the set of tangled chains of length $k$ and size $n$, and let $I_n^{(k)}$ be the cardinality of $T_n^{(k)}$. Then it follows from Burnside’s lemma (see [2] for a proof using double cosets and [3] for a proof using
Figure 4. (a) A pair of (rooted non-embedded leaf-labelled) binary trees. (b) the corresponding (unlabelled) tanglegram.

the formalism of species) that

\[ t_n^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} |B_\sigma[n]|^k = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} \frac{r_\lambda^k}{z_\lambda}, \]

where \( z_\lambda = 1^{m_1} m_1! \cdots r^{m_r} m_r! \) if \( \lambda \) has \( m_1 \) parts of size 1, \ldots, \( m_r \) parts of size \( r \) (recall that \( n!/z_\lambda \) is the number of permutations with cycle-type \( \lambda \)). At the level of combinatorial classes, Burnside’s lemma gives

\[ S_n \times T_n^{(k)} \simeq \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} B_\sigma[n]^k, \]

and thus the following procedure is a uniform random sampler for \( T_n^{(k)} \) (see [2] for details):

1. Choose a random binary partition \( \lambda \vdash n \) under the distribution

\[ P(\lambda) = \frac{r_\lambda^k/z_\lambda}{S_n}, \]

where \( S_n = \sum_{\lambda \vdash n} r_\lambda^k/z_\lambda \) (= \( t_n^{(k)} \)).

2. Let \( \sigma \) be a permutation with cycle-type \( \lambda \). For each \( r \in [1..k] \) draw (independently) a tree \( T_r \in B_\sigma[n] \) uniformly at random.

3. Return the tangled chain corresponding to \((T_1, \ldots, T_k)\).

A recursive procedure (using (1)) is given in [2] to sample uniformly at random from \( B_\sigma[n] \). From Theorem 1 we obtain a simpler random sampler for \( B_\sigma[n] \). We order the cycles of \( \sigma \) as \( c_1, \ldots, c_{\ell(\lambda)} \) such that the cycle-sizes are in non-decreasing order.

Then, with \( A_1 \) the set of labels in \( c_1 \), we start from the unique tree (by Section 2.1) in \( B_{c_1}[A_1] \) (where \( c_1 \) is to be seen as a cyclic permutation on \( A_1 \)). Then, for \( i \) from 2 to \( \ell(\lambda) \) we mark an edge chosen uniformly at random from the already obtained tree, and then we insert the leaves that have labels in \( c_i \) using the isomorphism [2].

The complexity of the sampler for \( B_\sigma[n] \) is clearly linear in \( n \) and needs no precomputation of coefficients. However step (1) of the random generator requires a table of \( p(n) \) coefficients, where \( p(n) \) is the number of binary partitions of \( n \), which is slightly superpolynomial [4, \( p(n) = n^{O(\log(n))} \)]. It is however possible to do step (1) in polynomial time. For this, we consider, for \( i \geq 0 \) and \( n, j \geq 1 \) the coefficient \( S_n^{(i,j)} \) defined as the sum of \( r_\lambda^{i}/z_\lambda \) over all binary partitions of \( n \) where the largest part is \( 2^i \) and has multiplicity \( j \); note that \( S_n^{(i,j)} = 0 \) unless \( j \cdot 2^i \leq n \), we denote by \( E_n \) the set of such pairs \((i,j)\). Since \( r_\lambda = 1 \) and \( z_\lambda = (|\lambda| - 1)! \) if \( \lambda \) has one part, we have the initial condition \( S_n^{(i,j)} = 1/(n-1)! \) for \( j = 1 \) and \( 2^i = n \).
In addition, using the fact that \( r_\lambda = (2|\lambda\lambda_1| - 1) \cdot r_{\lambda\lambda_1} \) if \( \lambda \) has at least 2 parts, and the formula for \( z_\lambda \), we easily obtain the recurrence:

\[
S_n^{(i,j)} = \frac{(2(n - 2^i) - 1)^k}{2^ij} S_{n-2^i}^{(i,j-1)} \quad \text{for} \quad (i,j) \in E_n \text{ with } 2^i < n,
\]

valid for \( j = 1 \) upon defining by convention \( S_n^{(i,0)} \) as the sum of \( S_n^{(i',j')} \) over all pairs \((i',j') \in E_n\) such that \( i' < i \).

Thus in step (1), instead of directly drawing \( \lambda \) under \( P(\lambda) \), we may first choose the pair \((i,j)\) such that the largest part of \( \lambda \) is \( 2^i \) and has multiplicity \( j \), that is, we draw \((i,j) \in E_n\) under distribution \( P(i,j) = S_n^{(i,j)} / S_n \). Then we continue recursively at size \( n' = n - 2^j \), but conditioned on the largest part to be smaller than \( 2^i \) (that is, for the second step and similarly for later steps, we draw the pair \((i',j')\) in \( E_n' \cap \{i' < i\} \) under distribution \( S_{n'}^{(i',j')}/S_n^{(i,0)} \)). Note that \( |E_n| = \sum_{i \leq \log_2(n)} n/2^i = \Theta(n) \). Since we need all coefficients \( S_m^{(i,j)} \) for \( m \leq n \) and \((i,j) \in E_m\), we have to store \( \Theta(n^2) \) coefficients. In addition it is easy to see (looking at the first expression in (4)) that each coefficient \( S_m^{(i,j)} \) is a rational number of the form \( a/m! \) with \( a \) an integer having \( O(m \log(m)) \) bits. Hence the overall storage bit-complexity is \( O(n^3 \log(n)) \). About time complexity, starting at size \( n \) we first choose the pair \((i,j)\) (with \( 2^i \) the largest part and \( j \) its multiplicity), which takes \( O(|E_n|) = O(n) \) comparisons, and then we continue recursively at size \( n - j \cdot 2^i \). At each step the choice of a pair \((i,j)\) takes time \( O(m) \) with \( m \leq n \) the current size, and the number of steps is the number of distinct part-sizes in the finally output binary partition \( \lambda \vdash n \). Since the number of distinct part-sizes in a binary partition of \( n \) is \( O(\log(n)) \), we conclude that the time complexity (in terms of the number of real-arithmetic comparisons) to draw \( \lambda \) is \( O(n \log(n)) \).

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