

Generalized degree polynomials and the chromatic symmetric function

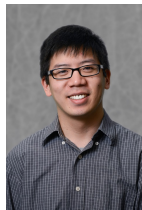
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November 2025



The chromatic symmetric function

Proper colorings of graphs

A **proper coloring** of a graph G is a map

$$\kappa: V(G) \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

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The *chromatic polynomial* of G is

$$\chi_G(k) = \# \text{ proper colorings of } G \text{ with colors } 1, \dots, k.$$

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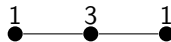
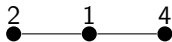
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$$\mathbf{x}_G = \cdots + x_1 x_2 x_4 + x_1^2 x_3 + \cdots$$

$$= 6 \sum_{i < j < k} x_i x_j x_k + \sum_{i \neq j} x_i^2 x_j.$$

Facts about the CSF

1. $\mathbf{X}_G$ generalizes χ_G : indeed,

$$\mathbf{X}_G(\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_k, 0, 0, \dots) = \sum_{\kappa: V(G) \rightarrow [k]} 1 = \chi_G(k).$$

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4. $G \mapsto \mathbf{X}_G$ is a homomorphism of **combinatorial Hopf algebras** [Aguar, Bergeron, Sottile '06].
5. $\mathbf{X}_G$ has a quasisymmetric variant, which is related to the cohomology of **Hessenberg varieties** [Shareshian, Wachs '16].

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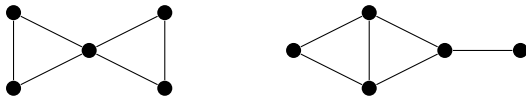
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Remark. $\mathbf{X}_G$ does not distinguish graphs in general:



It also does not distinguish unicyclic graphs [Orellana, Scott '14].

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- ▶ The subtree polynomial and connector polynomial [MMW'08].
- ▶ The **generalized degree polynomial** [Aliste-Prieto, Martin, Wagner, Zamora '24].

The generalized degree polynomial

We study a related invariant, the **generalized degree polynomial** (GDP).
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Our results:

- (1) Extract new kinds of tree data from the GDP such as the **double-degree sequence** and the **leaf adjacency sequence**.
- (2) Introduce a variant of the GDP for **polarized trees**. Use this to get:
 - ▶ A recursive formula for the GDP.
 - ▶ Constructions for sets of trees with the same GDP.

The generalized degree polynomial

Definition of the GDP

Let T be a tree. Given $S \subseteq V(T)$, an edge $\{u, v\} \in E(T)$ is called

- ▶ an **internal edge** of S if $u \in S$ and $v \in S$;
- ▶ a **boundary edge** of S if $u \in S$ or $v \in S$, but not both.

Let $e(S)$ and $d(S)$ be the number of internal and boundary edges of S .

For example, if $S = \{v\}$, then $d(S) = \deg(v)$ and $e(S) = 0$.

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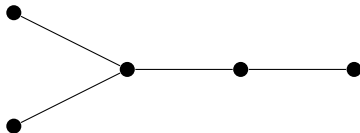
The **generalized degree polynomial** (GDP) of T is defined by

$$G_T(x, y, z) = \sum_{S \subseteq V(T)} x^{|S|} y^{d(S)} z^{e(S)}.$$

Thus, $[x^1 y^d z^0] G_T(x, y, z) = \#$ vertices of degree d .

An example of the GDP

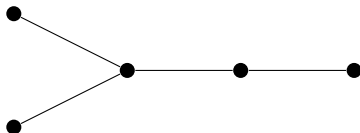
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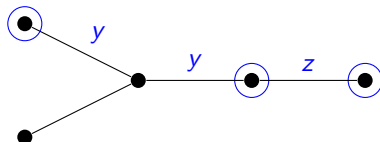


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$$\begin{aligned}G_T(x, y, z) = & x^5 z^4 + x^4 y^3 z + x^4 y^2 z^2 + 3x^4 y z^3 \\ & + x^3 y^4 + 2x^3 y^3 z + x^3 y^3 + 3x^3 y^2 z^2 + 2x^3 y^2 z + x^3 y z^2 \\ & + x^2 y^4 + x^2 y^3 z + 2x^2 y^3 + 2x^2 y^2 z + 3x^2 y^2 + x^2 y z \\ & + x y^3 + x y^2 + 3x y + 1.\end{aligned}$$

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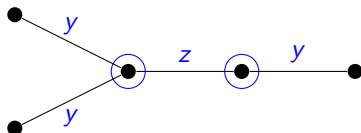


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Facts about the GDP

- ▶ The GDP is **determined linearly** by the chromatic symmetric function [Aliste-Prieto, Martin, Wagner, Zamora '24; Liu, T. '24].

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- ▶ The GDP **does not distinguish trees**. The smallest trees with the same GDP have 11 vertices:



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- ▶ The *leaf adjacency sequence* of T : for all d and ℓ , the number of vertices of T with degree d , adjacent to ℓ leaves.
- ▶ The *induced subgraph* containing all degree-2 vertices of T , up to isomorphism.

Proof strategy

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Lemma

For $k \geq 1$,

$$\frac{\partial^k G_T}{\partial z^k}(x, y, y^2) = \frac{k!}{y^{2k}} G_T(x, y, y^2) \cdot \Gamma_T^{(k)}(x, y),$$

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Thus, G_T determines $\Gamma_T^{(k)}(x, y)$ for all k .

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For all a and b , G_T determines the number $N_{a,b}(T)$ of edges of T with endpoints of degrees a and b .

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$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_T^{(1)}(x, y) &= \sum_{\{u,v\} \in E(T)} \frac{xy^{\deg(u)}}{1 + xy^{\deg(u)}} \frac{xy^{\deg(v)}}{1 + xy^{\deg(v)}} \\ &= \sum_{a \leq b} \frac{xy^a}{1 + xy^a} \frac{xy^b}{1 + xy^b} N_{a,b}(T).\end{aligned}$$

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By expanding the rational functions $\frac{xy^a}{1+xy^a} \frac{xy^b}{1+xy^b}$ as power series, we show they are **linearly independent**. Thus $\Gamma_T^{(1)}(x, y)$ determines all $N_{a,b}(T)$.

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Lemma

For all integers $a \geq 2$ and $k \geq 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{y \rightarrow e^{2\pi i/(a-1)}} \lim_{x \rightarrow -1/y} (1 - y^{a-1})^k (1 + xy)^k \cdot \Gamma_T^{(k)}(x^{-1}, y^{-1}) \\ &= e_k \left\{ \frac{\ell(v)}{\deg(v)-1} : \deg(v) \equiv 1 \pmod{a-1} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

where e_k denotes the k^{th} elementary symmetric sum and $\ell(v)$ is the number of leaves adjacent to v .

The takeaway

- ▶ $\Gamma_T^{(k)}$ is not linear in G_T (or $\mathbf{X}_T$), since its formula involves division
- ▶ Thus, the tree data we recover does not come linearly from $\mathbf{X}_T$ (or in some cases even polynomially!)

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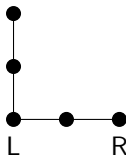
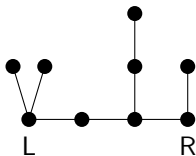
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- ▶ *Question:* What other kinds of tree data are determined by G_T ?
- ▶ What can be said about “higher-order” GDPs $G_T^{(m)}$, where we instead sum over $m > 1$ disjoint subsets of vertices of T ?

Polarized graphs and the generalized degree polynomial

Polarized graphs

Definition

A *polarized graph* is a graph A with two distinguished vertices, called the *left pole* $L(A)$ and *right pole* $R(A)$ (which can be the same).



Concatenation of polarized graphs

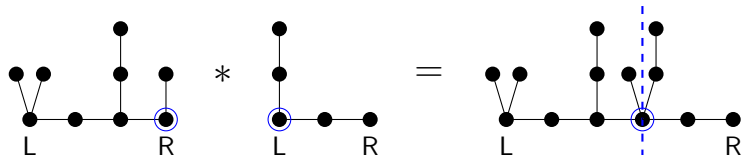
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Given a polarized graph A , define

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Then the **generalized degree polynomial** of A is the 2×2 matrix

$$\mathbf{G}_A = \begin{bmatrix} G_A^1 & G_A^R \\ G_A^L & G_A^{LR} \end{bmatrix} \in \text{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbf{k}).$$

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$$\mathbf{G}_{AB} = \mathbf{G}_A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/x \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_B.$$

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(The factor of $1/x$ ensures that we don't double-count $R(A)$ and $L(B)$.)

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For polarized graphs A and B ,

$$\mathbf{G}_{AB} = \mathbf{G}_A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/x \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_B.$$

(The factor of $1/x$ ensures that we don't double-count $R(A)$ and $L(B)$.)

Algebraic interpretation: The map

$$A \mapsto \mathbf{G}_A \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/x \end{bmatrix}$$

defines a homomorphism $\mathcal{R} \rightarrow \text{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbf{k})$, where $\mathcal{R}$ is the $\mathbf{k}$ -algebra formally spanned by polarized trees with concatenation as multiplication.

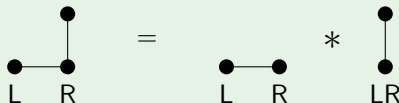
Concatenation and the polarized GDP

Proposition

For polarized graphs A and B ,

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Example



$$\begin{bmatrix} xy+1 & xy(xz+y) \\ xy(xy+1) & x^2z(xz+y) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & xy \\ xy & x^2z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{x} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} xy+1 & 0 \\ 0 & xz+y \end{bmatrix}.$$

The rooted GDP

We can also define **the GDP of a rooted graph** P , with root $r(P)$:

$$\mathbf{G}_P = \begin{bmatrix} G_P^1 \\ G_P^r \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbf{k}^2$$

where $G_P^1 = \sum_{r(P) \notin S} x^{|S|} y^{d(S)} z^{e(S)}$ and $G_P^r = \sum_{r(P) \in S} x^{|S|} y^{d(S)} z^{e(S)}$.

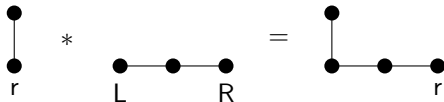
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This also behaves well with respect to concatenation (treating $\mathbf{G}_P$ as a row vector when on the left, and a column vector when on the right).



A recurrence for the ordinary GDP

Unlike the ordinary GDP, the polarized GDP distinguishes polarized trees [Liu, T. '25+]. (The rooted GDP also distinguishes rooted trees.)

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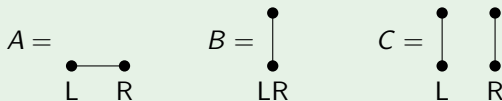
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Example

The polarized GDPs of the three graphs



satisfy

$$\mathbf{G}_A = \frac{x(z-y^2)}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \mathbf{G}_B + \frac{y}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \mathbf{G}_C.$$

A recurrence for the ordinary GDP

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$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet \text{---} \bullet \\ \text{L} \quad \text{R} \end{array} = \frac{x(z-y^2)}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ | \\ \bullet \\ \text{LR} \end{array} + \frac{y}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \quad \bullet \\ | \quad | \\ \bullet \quad \bullet \\ \text{L} \quad \text{R} \end{array}$$

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For rooted trees P and Q , this implies that

$$\begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft P \end{array} - \begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft Q \end{array} = \frac{x(z-y^2)}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ | \\ \begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft P \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft Q \end{array} \end{array} + \frac{y}{(xz+y)(xy+1)} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ | \\ \begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft P \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ | \\ \begin{array}{c} \circlearrowleft Q \end{array} \end{array}.$$

Thus, we get a **recurrence relation** for the ordinary GDP (which reduces to a recurrence found by [Aliste-Prieto, Martin, Wagner, Zamora '24]).

Ordinary and polarized GDPs

The reversal phenomenon

Next, let's look at two ways in which linear dependence of polarized GDPs gives trees with the same (ordinary) GDP.

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Definition

Let A, B be polarized trees and C be a singular polarized forest. We say A, B, C satisfy the *reversal phenomenon (R.P.)* if $\mathbf{G}_A, \mathbf{G}_B, \mathbf{G}_C$, and $\mathbf{G}_\bullet$ are linearly dependent.

- ▶ A polarized forest is *singular* if its poles are in different components.
- ▶ Here $\bullet$ is the only polarized graph with one vertex, so $\mathbf{G}_\bullet = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x \end{bmatrix}$.

The reversal phenomenon

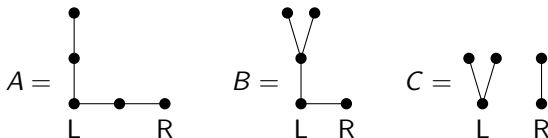
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The smallest interesting example of this is



The reversal phenomenon

Theorem (Liu, T. '25+)

Suppose A , B , and C satisfy R.P. Then for any $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k \in \{A, B\}$,

$$(T_1 T_2 \cdots T_k) \# C \quad \text{and} \quad (T_k \cdots T_2 T_1) \# C$$

have the same (ordinary) GDP.

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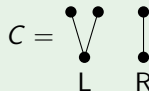
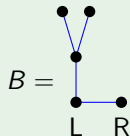
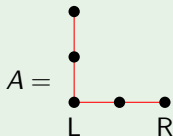
- ▶ $T \# C$ is obtained by identifying $L(C)$ with $R(T)$, and $R(C)$ with $L(T)$.

In fact, a converse statement holds: if $(AB) \# C$ and $(BA) \# C$ have the same GDP, then A , B , and C satisfy R.P.

An example of the reversal phenomenon

Example

Since

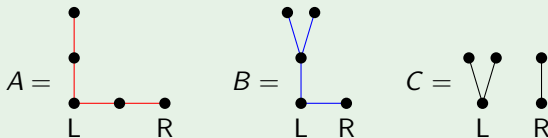


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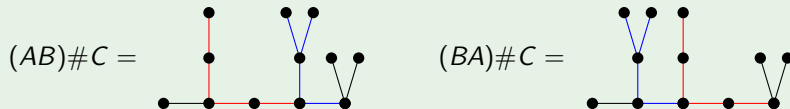
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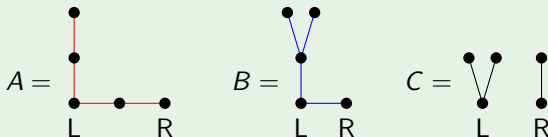


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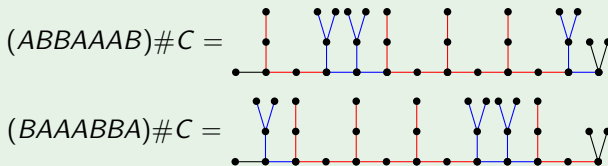
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The composition phenomenon

If we require a stronger linear dependence between polarized GDPs, we get extra equalities of ordinary GDPs.

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Definition

*Let A, B be polarized trees and C be a singular polarized forest. We say A, B, C satisfy the **composition phenomenon (C.P.)** if $\mathbf{G}_A$, $\mathbf{G}_B$, and $\mathbf{G}_C$ are linearly dependent.*

(Note that we do not include $\mathbf{G}_{\bullet}$.)

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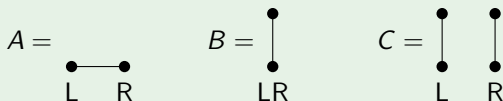
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Example

We saw that the graphs



from earlier have linearly dependent GDPs, so they satisfy C.P.

The composition phenomenon

When A , B , C satisfy C.P., there is a more general way in which trees of the form $(T_1 \cdots T_k) \# C$, $T_i \in \{A, B\}$, have the same GDP.

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The gory details:

- ▶ For integer compositions $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ and $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_\ell)$, the *concatenation* $\alpha\beta = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_\ell)$, and the *near-concatenation* $\alpha \odot \beta = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k + \beta_1, \dots, \beta_\ell)$.
- ▶ Define $\alpha \circ \beta = \beta^{\odot \alpha_1} \beta^{\odot \alpha_2} \cdots \beta^{\odot \alpha_k}$. It turns out that $\circ$ is associative.
- ▶ Finally, define a tree $T_\alpha = (A^{\alpha_1-1} B A^{\alpha_2-1} B \cdots B A^{\alpha_k-1}) \# C$.
- ▶ **Theorem:** Suppose $\alpha = \alpha^{(1)} \circ \cdots \circ \alpha^{(r)}$ and $\beta = \beta^{(1)} \circ \cdots \circ \beta^{(r)}$, where $\beta^{(i)}$ is either $\alpha^{(i)}$ or its reverse for all i . Then $G_{T_\alpha} = G_{T_\beta}$.

The composition phenomenon

Here is the smallest case of C.P. that does not also come from R.P.:

Example

If A , B , C satisfy C.P., then

$$(ABBABAAB)\#C \quad \text{and} \quad (ABAABBAB)\#C$$

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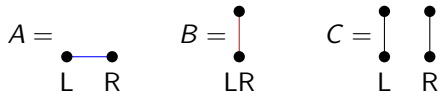
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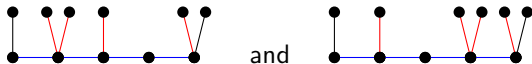
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When



these two trees are



which is the 11-vertex example we saw earlier!

Numerology

n	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	Total
Pairs w/ same GDP	1	1	1	5	1	7	19	15	23	56	22	90	160	401
Composition	1		1	5	1	4	18	11	17	48	21	82	154	363
Reversal		1				3	1	2	6	8	1	7	3	32
Unexplained								2				1	3	6

Thank you!

