# A combinatorial proof of Postnikov's identity and a generalized enumeration of labeled trees

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#### Abstract

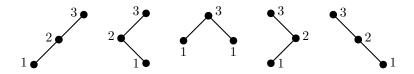
In this paper, we give a simple combinatorial explanation of a formula of A. Postnikov relating bicolored rooted trees to bicolored binary trees. We also present generalized formulas for the number of labeled k-ary trees, rooted labeled trees, and labeled plane trees.

#### 1 Introduction

In Stanley's 60th Birthday Conference, Postnikov [3, p. 21] showed the following identity:

$$(n+1)^{n-1} = \sum_{\mathfrak{b}} \frac{n!}{2^n} \prod_{v \in V(\mathfrak{b})} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{h(v)} \right), \tag{1}$$

where the sum is over unlabeled binary trees  $\mathfrak{b}$  on n vertices and h(v) denotes the number of descendants of v (including v). The figure below illustrates all five unlabeled binary trees on 3 vertices, with the value of h(v) assigned to each vertex v. In this case, identity (1) says that  $(3+1)^2 = 3+3+4+3+3$ .



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Postnikov derived this identity from the study of a combinatorial interpretation for mixed Eulerian numbers, which are coefficients of certain reparametrized *volume polynomials* which introduced in [3]. For more information, see [2, 3].

In the same talk, he also asked for a combinatorial proof of identity (1). Multiplying both sides of (1) by  $2^n$  and expanding the product in the right-hand side yields

$$2^{n} (n+1)^{n-1} = \sum_{\mathfrak{b}} n! \sum_{\alpha \subseteq V(\mathfrak{b})} \prod_{v \in \alpha} \frac{1}{h(v)}. \tag{2}$$

Let LHS<sub>n</sub> (resp. RHS<sub>n</sub>) denote the left-hand (resp. right-hand) side of (2).

The aim of this paper is to find a combinatorial proof of (2). In Section 2 we construct the sets  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$  of labeled bicolored forests on [n] and  $\mathcal{D}_n$  of certain labeled bicolored binary trees, where the cardinalities equal LHS<sub>n</sub> and RHS<sub>n</sub>, respectively. In Section 3 we give a bijection between  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_n$ , which completes the bijective proof of (2). Finally, in Section 4, we present generalized formulas for the number of labeled k-ary trees, rooted labeled trees, and labeled plane trees.

# 2 Combinatorial objects for LHS $_n$ and RHS $_n$

From now on, unless specified, we consider trees to be *labeled* and *rooted*.

A tree on  $[n] := \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  is an acyclic connected graph on the vertex set [n] such that one vertex, called the root, is distinguished. We denote by  $\mathcal{T}_n$  the set of trees on [n] and by  $\mathcal{T}_{n,i}$  the set of trees on [n] where vertex i is the root. A forest is a graph such that every connected component is a tree. Let  $\mathcal{F}_n$  denote the set of forests on [n]. There is a canonical bijection  $\gamma: \mathcal{T}_{n+1,n+1} \to \mathcal{F}_n$  such that  $\gamma(T)$  is the forest obtained from T by removing the vertex n+1 and letting each neighbor of n+1 be a root. A graph is called bicolored if each vertex is colored with the color  $\mathbf{b}$  (black) or  $\mathbf{w}$  (white). We denote by  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$  the set of bicolored forests on [n]. From Cayley's formula [1] and the bijection  $\gamma$ , we have

$$|\mathcal{F}_n| = |\mathcal{T}_{n+1,n+1}| = (n+1)^{n-1}$$
 and  $|\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}| = 2^n \cdot (n+1)^{n-1}$ . (3)

Thus LHS<sub>n</sub> can be interpreted as the cardinality of  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$ .

Let F be a forest and let i and j be vertices of F. We say that j is a descendant of i if i is contained in the path from j to the root of the component containing j. In particular, if i and j are joined by an edge of F, then j is called a *child* of i. Note that i is also a descendant of i itself. Let S(F,i) be the induced subtree of F on descendants of i, rooted at i. We call this tree the descendant subtree of F rooted at i. A vertex i is called proper if i is the smallest vertex in S(F,i); otherwise i is called improper. Let pv(F) denote the number of proper vertices in F.

A plane tree or ordered tree is a tree such that the children of each vertex are linearly ordered. We denote by  $\mathcal{P}_n$  the set of plane trees on [n] and by  $\mathcal{P}_{n,i}$  the set of plane trees on [n] where vertex i is the root. Define a plane forest on [n] to be a finite ordered sequence of non-empty plane trees  $(P_1, \ldots, P_m)$  such that [n] is the disjoint union of the

sets  $V(P_r)$ ,  $1 \le r \le m$ . We denote by  $\mathcal{PF}_n$  the set of plane forests on [n] and by  $\mathcal{PF}_n^{\text{bi}}$  the set of bicolored plane forests on [n]. There is also a canonical bijection  $\bar{\gamma}: \mathcal{P}_{n+1,n+1} \to \mathcal{PF}_n$  such that  $\bar{\gamma}(P) = \left(S(P,j_1), \ldots, S(P,j_m)\right)$  where each vertex  $j_r$  is the rth child of n+1 in P. It is well-known that the number of unlabeled plane trees on n+1 vertices is given by the nth Catalan number  $C_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$  (see [4, ex. 6.19]). Thus we have

$$|\mathcal{PF}_n| = |\mathcal{P}_{n+1,n+1}| = n! \cdot C_n = 2n(2n-1)\cdots(n+2).$$
 (4)

A binary tree is a tree in which each vertex has at most two children and each child of a vertex is designated as its left or right child. We denote by  $\mathcal{B}_n$  the set of binary trees on [n] and by  $\mathcal{B}_n^{\text{bi}}$  the set of bicolored binary trees on [n].

For  $k \geq 2$ , a k-ary tree is a tree where each vertex has at most k children and each child of a vertex is designated as its first, second,..., or kth child. We denote by  $\mathcal{A}_n^k$  the set of k-ary trees on [n]. Clearly, we have that  $\mathcal{A}_n^2 = \mathcal{B}_n$ . Since the number of unlabeled k-ary trees on n vertices is given by  $\frac{1}{(k-1)n+1}\binom{kn}{n}$  (see [4, p. 172]), the cardinality of  $\mathcal{A}_n^k$  is as follows:

$$|\mathcal{A}_n^k| = n! \cdot \frac{1}{(k-1)n+1} \binom{kn}{n} = kn (kn-1) \cdots (kn-n+2).$$

Now we introduce a combinatorial interpretation of the number RHS<sub>n</sub>. Let  $\mathfrak{b}$  be an unlabeled binary tree on n vertices and  $\omega: V(\mathfrak{b}) \to [n]$  be a bijection. Then the pair  $(\mathfrak{b}, \omega)$  is identified with a (labeled) binary tree on [n]. Let  $\Pi(\mathfrak{b}, \omega)$  be the set of vertices v in  $\mathfrak{b}$  such that v has no descendant v' satisfying  $\omega(v) > \omega(v')$ , i.e.,  $\omega(v)$  is proper.

Let  $\mathcal{D}_n$  be the set of bicolored binary trees on [n] such that each proper vertex is colored with **b** or **w** and each improper vertex is colored with **b**.

**Lemma 1.** The cardinality of  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is equal to  $RHS_n$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{D}'_n$  be the set defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{D}'_n := \{ (\mathfrak{b}, \omega, \alpha) \mid (\mathfrak{b}, \omega) \in \mathcal{B}_n \text{ and } \alpha \subseteq \Pi(\mathfrak{b}, \omega) \}.$$

There is a canonical bijection from  $\mathcal{D}'_n$  to  $\mathcal{D}_n$  as follows: Given  $(\mathfrak{b}, \omega, \alpha) \in \mathcal{D}'_n$ , if a vertex v of  $\mathfrak{b}$  is contained in  $\alpha$  then color v with  $\mathbf{w}$ ; otherwise color v with  $\mathbf{b}$ . Thus it suffices to show that the cardinality of  $\mathcal{D}'_n$  equals  $\mathrm{RHS}_n$ .

Given an unlabeled binary tree  $\mathfrak{b}$  and a subset  $\alpha$  of  $V(\mathfrak{b})$ , let  $l(\mathfrak{b}, \alpha)$  be the number of labelings  $\omega$  satisfying  $\alpha \subseteq \Pi(\mathfrak{b}, \omega)$ . Then for each  $v \in \alpha$ , the label  $\omega(v)$  of v should be the smallest among the labels of the descendants of v. If we pick a labeling  $\omega$  uniformly at random, the probability that  $\omega(v)$  is the smallest among the labels of the descendants of v is 1/h(v). So the number of possible labelings  $\omega$  is  $n!/\prod_{v \in \alpha} h(v)$ . Thus we have

$$\begin{split} |\mathcal{D}_n'| &= \sum_{\mathfrak{b}} \sum_{\alpha \subseteq V(\mathfrak{b})} l(\,\mathfrak{b}, \alpha) \\ &= \sum_{\mathfrak{b}} \sum_{\alpha \subseteq V(\mathfrak{b})} n! \prod_{v \in \alpha} \frac{1}{h(v)} \,, \end{split}$$

which coincides with  $RHS_n$ .

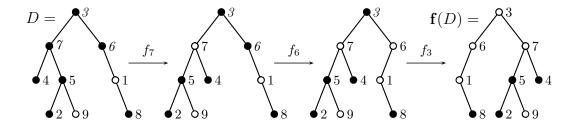


Figure 1: The map  $\mathbf{f}$ . (Right improper vertices are in italics.)

# 3 A bijection

In this section we construct a bijection between  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_n$ , which gives a bijective proof of (2).

Given a vertex v of a bicolored binary tree B, let L(B,v) (resp. R(B,v)) be the descendant subtree of B, which is rooted at the left (resp. right) child of v. Note that L(B,v) and R(B,v) may be empty, but L(B,v) or R(B,v) is nonempty when v is improper. For any kind of tree T, let m(T) be the smallest vertex in T. By convention, we put  $m(\emptyset) = \infty$ . For an improper vertex v of B, if m(L(B,v)) > m(R(B,v)), then we say that v is right improper; otherwise left improper.

For a vertex v of B, define the *flip* on v, which will be denoted by  $f_v$ , by swapping L(B,v) and R(B,v) and changing the color of v. Note that the flip satisfies  $f_v \circ f_v = id$  and  $f_v \circ f_w = f_w \circ f_v$ . For a bicolored binary tree D in  $\mathcal{D}_n$ , let  $\mathbf{f}$  be the map defined by

$$\mathbf{f}(D) := (f_{v_1} \circ \cdots \circ f_{v_k})(D),$$

where  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$  is the set of right improper vertices in D. (See Figure 1.)

Let  $\mathcal{E}_n$  be the set of bicolored binary trees E on [n] such that every improper vertex v is left improper, i.e., m(L(E, v)) < m(R(E, v)).

**Lemma 2.** The map  $\mathbf{f}$  is a bijection from  $\mathcal{D}_n$  to  $\mathcal{E}_n$ .

*Proof.* For a bicolored binary tree E in  $\mathcal{E}_n$ , let  $\mathbf{f}'$  be the map defined by  $\mathbf{f}'(E) := (f_{u_1} \circ \cdots \circ f_{u_j})(E)$ , where  $\{u_1, \ldots, u_j\}$  is the set of white-colored improper vertices in E. Then the map  $\mathbf{f}'$  is the inverse of  $\mathbf{f}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{G}_n$  (resp.  $\mathcal{Q}_n$ ) be the set of bicolored trees (resp. bicolored plane trees) on [n+1] such that n+1 is the root colored with **b**. Note that the map  $\gamma$  (resp.  $\bar{\gamma}$ ) given at the beginning of Section 2 can be regarded as a bijection  $\gamma: \mathcal{G}_n \to \mathcal{F}_n^{\mathrm{bi}}$  (resp.  $\bar{\gamma}: \mathcal{Q}_n \to \mathcal{P}\mathcal{F}_n^{\mathrm{bi}}$ ). For a vertex v of  $Q \in \mathcal{Q}_n$ , let  $(w_1, \ldots, w_r)$  be the children of v, in order. Then for each  $i=1,\ldots,r-1$ , we say that  $w_{i+1}$  is the right sibling of  $w_i$ . The set  $\mathcal{G}_n$  can be viewed as a subset of  $\mathcal{Q}_n$  satisfying the following condition: Suppose that v is the right sibling of v in  $v \in \mathcal{Q}_n$ . Then  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  to  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  then  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  be beginning of  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$ . Then  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  be the children of  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$ . Then  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  be the children of  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  be the children of  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$ . Then  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  are  $v \in \mathcal{G}_n$  and  $v \in$ 

Recall that  $\mathcal{B}_n^{\text{bi}}$  denotes the set of bicolored binary trees on [n]. Clearly we have  $\mathcal{E}_n \subseteq \mathcal{B}_n^{\text{bi}}$ . Let  $\Phi$  be a bijection from  $\mathcal{B}_n^{\text{bi}}$  to  $\mathcal{Q}_n$ , which maps B to Q as follows:

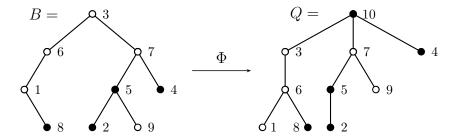


Figure 2: The bijection  $\Phi$ .

- 1. The root of B is the first child of n + 1 in Q.
- 2. v is the first child of u in Q iff v is a left child of u in B.
- 3. v is the right sibling of u in Q iff v is a right child of u in B.
- 4. The color of v in Q is the same as the color of v in B.

Note that here  $\Phi$  is essentially an extension of a well-known bijection, which is described in [5, p. 60], from binary trees to plane trees.

**Lemma 3.** The restriction  $\phi$  of  $\Phi$  to  $\mathcal{E}_n$  is a bijection from  $\mathcal{E}_n$  to  $\mathcal{G}_n$ .

Proof. For any improper vertex v of  $E \in \mathcal{E}_n$ , we have m(L(E,v)) < m(R(E,v)). This guarantees that m(S(G,v)) < m(S(G,w)) in  $G = \Phi(E)$ , where w (if it exists) is the right sibling of v in G. Thus  $\Phi(E) \in \mathcal{G}_n$ , i.e.,  $\Phi(\mathcal{E}_n) \subseteq \mathcal{G}_n$ . Similarly we can show that  $\Phi^{-1}(\mathcal{G}_n) \subseteq \mathcal{E}_n$ . So we have  $\Phi(\mathcal{E}_n) = \mathcal{G}_n$ , which implies  $\phi$  is bijective.  $\square$ 

From Lemma 3, we easily get that  $\gamma \circ \phi$  is a bijection from  $\mathcal{E}_n$  to  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$ . Combining this result with Lemma 2 yields the following consequence.

**Theorem 4.** The map  $\gamma \circ \phi \circ \mathbf{f}$  is a bijection from  $\mathcal{D}_n$  to  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$ .

Figure 3 shows how the bijection in Theorem 4 maps a bicolored binary tree D in  $\mathcal{D}_{11}$  to a bicolored forest F on [11]. From equation (3) the cardinality of  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$  equals LHS<sub>n</sub> and from Lemma 1 the cardinality of  $\mathcal{D}_n$  equals RHS<sub>n</sub>. Thus Theorem 4 is a combinatorial explanation of identity (2).

### 4 Generalized formulas

Theorem 4 implies the set  $\mathcal{D}_n$  of binary trees on [n] such that each proper vertex is colored with the color **b** or **w** and each improper vertex is colored with the color **b** has cardinality  $|\mathcal{D}_n| = 2^n (n+1)^{n-1}$ . In this section we give a generalization of this result.

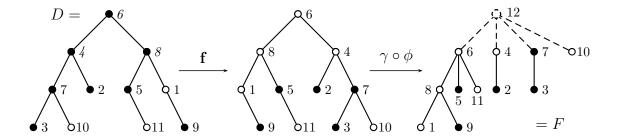


Figure 3: The bijection from  $\mathcal{D}_n$  to  $\mathcal{F}_n^{\text{bi}}$ .

For  $n \geq 1$ , let  $a_{n,m}$  denote the number of k-ary trees on [n] with m proper vertices. By convention, we put  $a_{0,m} = \delta_{0,m}$ . Let

$$a_n(t) = \sum_{m \ge 0} a_{n,m} t^m = \sum_{T \in \mathcal{A}_n^k} t^{\operatorname{pv}(T)},$$

where pv(T) is the number of proper vertices of T. It is clear that for a positive integer t the number  $a_n(t)$  is the number of k-ary trees on [n] such that each proper vertex is colored with the color  $\bar{1}, \bar{2}, \ldots$ , or  $\bar{t}$  and each improper vertex has one color  $\bar{1}$ . Let A(x) be denote the exponential generating function for  $a_n(t)$ , i.e.,

$$A(x) = \sum_{n>0} a_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!}.$$

**Lemma 5.** The generating function A = A(x) satisfies the following differential equation:

$$A' = k x A^{k-1} A' + t A^k, (5)$$

where the prime denotes the derivative with respect to x.

*Proof.* Let T be an k-ary tree on  $[n] \cup \{0\}$ . Delete all edges going from the root r of T. Then T is decomposed into  $T' = (r; T_1, \ldots, T_k)$  where each  $T_i$  is a k-ary tree and  $[n] \cup \{0\}$  is the disjoint union of  $V(T_1), \ldots, V(T_k)$  and  $\{r\}$ . Consider two cases: (i) For some  $1 \le i \le k$ ,  $T_i$  has the vertex 0; (ii) r = 0. Then we have

$$a_{n+1}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{n_1 + \dots + n_k = n-1} {n \choose 1, n_1, \dots, n_k} a_{n_1}(t) \dots a_{n_i+1}(t) \dots a_{n_k}(t) + t \sum_{n_1 + \dots + n_k = n} {n \choose n_1, \dots, n_k} a_{n_1}(t) \dots a_{n_k}(t).$$

Multiplying both sides by  $x^n/n!$  and summing over n yields (5).

To compute  $a_n(t)$  from (5) we need the following theorem.

**Theorem 6.** Fix positive integers a and b. Let  $u = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n x^n/n!$  be a formal power series in x satisfying

$$u' = a x u^b u' + t u^{b+1}. (6)$$

Then  $u_n$  is given by

$$u_n = t \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} ((bi+1)t + a(n-i)), \quad n \ge 1.$$

*Proof.* Adding  $(bt - a) x u^b u'$  to both sides of (6) yields

$$(1 + (bt - a) x u^b) u' = t (b x u^{b-1} u' + u^b) u.$$

Since  $(1 + (bt - a) x u^b)' = (bt - a) (b x u^{b-1} u' + u^b)$ , we have

$$(bt - a) \log u = t \log(1 + (bt - a) x u^b).$$

Taking the exponential of both sides and the substitutions  $x = y^b$  and  $yu(y^b) = \hat{u}(y)$  yield

$$\hat{u}(y) = y \left( 1 + (bt - a) \,\hat{u}(y)^b \right)^{t/(bt - a)}. \tag{7}$$

Applying the Lagrange Inversion Formula (see [4, p. 38]) to (7) yields that

$$\begin{split} \left[ y^{bn+1} \right] \hat{u}(y) &= \frac{1}{bn+1} \left[ y^{bn} \right] \left( 1 + (bt-a) \, y^b \right)^{\frac{t \, (bn+1)}{bt-a}} \\ &= \frac{1}{bn+1} \, (bt-a)^n \left( \frac{t \, (bn+1)}{bt-a} \right) \\ &= \frac{t}{n!} \, \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \, \left( t \, (bn+1) - (bt-a) \, i \right). \end{split}$$

Since  $u_n = n! [y^{bn+1}] \hat{u}(y)$ , we obtain the desired result.

Since (5) is a special case of (6) (a = k, b = k - 1), we can deduce a formula for  $a_n(t)$ .

Corollary 7 (k-ary trees). For  $n \ge 1$ ,  $a_n(t)$  is given by

$$a_n(t) = t \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} ((ki - i + 1)t + k(n - i)).$$
 (8)

Clearly, substituting t = 1 in (8) yields the number of k-ary trees on [n], i.e.,

$$a_n(1) = kn (kn - 1) \cdots (kn - n + 2) = |\mathcal{A}_n^k|.$$

For some values of k, we can get interesting results. In particular when k=2 we have

$$a_n(t) = t \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} ((i+1)t + 2(n-i)) \xrightarrow{t=2} 2^n (n+1)^{n-1},$$

so this is a generalization of  $|\mathcal{D}_n| = 2^n (n+1)^{n-1}$ , i.e., identity (2).

In fact Theorem 6 has more applications. For  $n \geq 1$ , let  $f_{n,m}$  denote the number of forests on [n] with m proper vertices and let  $p_{n,m}$  denote the number of plane forests on [n] with m proper vertices. Let

$$f_n(t) = \sum_{m \ge 1} f_{n,m} t^m$$
 and  $p_n(t) = \sum_{m \ge 1} p_{n,m} t^m$ .

Let F(x) and P(x) be the exponential generating function for  $f_n(t)$  and  $p_n(t)$ , respectively, i.e.,

$$F(x) = 1 + \sum_{n>1} f_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$
 and  $P(x) = 1 + \sum_{n>1} p_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!}$ .

Similarly to Lemma 5, we can get two differential equations:

$$F' = x F F' + t F^2, \tag{9}$$

$$P' = x P^2 P' + t P^3. (10)$$

Since (9) and (10) are special cases of (6) (a = b = 1 and a = 1, b = 2, respectively), we have the following results.

Corollary 8. Suppose  $f_n(t)$  and  $p_n(t)$  are defined as above. Then we have

1. For  $n \ge 1$ ,  $f_n(t)$  is given by

$$f_n(t) = t \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} ((i+1)t + (n-i)).$$
 (11)

2. For  $n \ge 1$ ,  $p_n(t)$  is given by

$$p_n(t) = t \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} ((2i+1)t + (n-i)).$$
 (12)

Note that (11) and (12) are generalizations of (3) and (4), respectively. Moreover, from these formulas, we can easily get

$$\sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n+1}} t^{\text{pv}(T)} = t \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} ((i+1)t + (n-i)),$$

$$\sum_{P \in \mathcal{P}_{n+1}} t^{\text{pv}(P)} = t \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} ((2i+1)t + (n-i)),$$

which are generalizations of  $|\mathcal{T}_{n+1}| = (n+1)^n$  and  $|\mathcal{P}_{n+1}| = (n+1)! C_n$ .

**Remark.** In spite of the simple expressions, we have not proved (8), (11) and (12) in a bijective way. Also a direct combinatorial proof of Theorem 6 would be desirable.

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