# Pattern Avoidance in Cyclic Permutations 

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## Abstract

Pattern avoidance in permutations is a well-studied field of enumerative combinatorics. We will discuss the classical version for linear permutations and then introduce a recent variant for cyclic permutations. Finally, we will present our new results counting cyclic avoidance sets for pairs of length 4 patterns, and give an example of how those results arise from counting arguments.

## Background

- Let $S$ be a set with $\# S=n$. A permutation of $S$ is a sequence $\pi=\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{n}$ obtained by listing the elements of $S$ in some order. We will use $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ to denote the set of permutations of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. This permutation is of length $n$.
- A subsequence is a (not necessarily consecutive) sequence contained within a permutation. We say that $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}$ contains a copy of $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{k}$ if there is a subsequence of length $k$ in $\pi$ with the same relative order as $\sigma$. On the other hand, we say that $\pi$ avoids the pattern $\sigma$ if $\pi$ does not contain a copy of $\sigma$.
- Example: If $\pi=13254$ contains $\sigma=132$ as a pattern because the subsequence 154 has the same relative order as $\sigma$. We also say that $\pi$ avoids the pattern 321 since it does not contain a decreasing subsequence of length 3


We can draw diagrams where the heights of each point is given by the permutation elements. A copy of 132 is bolded.

- We can also consider a permutation avoiding a set of patterns if it does not contain a copy of any pattern in the set. We denote the set of permutations of length $n$ that avoid a set of patterns $S$ as $\mathrm{Av}_{n}(S)$. This is called the avoidance set of $S$.
- Example: for $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}, \operatorname{Av}_{n}(\pi)=\mathfrak{S}_{n}-\{\pi\}$, since the only permutation with the same length as $\pi$ that avoids $\pi$ is $\pi$ itself.
- Counting the number of permutations avoiding a given pattern (or set of patterns) is a common problem. We call two patterns or sets of patterns Wilf equivalent if their avoidance sets have the same cardinalities. This is denoted $\pi \equiv \pi^{\prime}$
- A special class of Wilf equivalences are the trivial Wilf equivalences, obtained by applying symmetries of the square to the diagram.
-Example: Applying vertical reflection to 132 gives us 231, so we get that $A v_{n}(132)=A v_{n}(231)$. For patterns in $\mathfrak{S}_{3}$, applying trivial equivalences like this yield two trivial equivalence classes. Direct counting yields a non-trivial equivalence between the classes. As such, all elements of $\mathfrak{S}_{3}$ are Wilf equivalent.
$\square$


## Our Problem

- We may also consider cyclic permutations, where we let the end of a permutation "wrap around" to the beginning. Accordingly, two permutations are considered the same if one is a rotation of another. We denote cyclic permutations with brackets.
- Example: The only two cyclic permutations of length 3 are [123] and [132], as every other permutation is a rotation of one of these.
- We can consider pattern avoidance in the same way as before
-Example: As a linear permutation, $\pi=13254$ avoided 321. If we consider $[\pi]$, however, it no longer does - $\pi \pi$ ] contains [541] (wrapping around) as a copy of [321].
- Since we may choose any rotation we like, we standardize to begin with 1 .
- There are only six cyclic permutations of length 4; Callan [1] counted the avoidance sets for these
- Our work is on counting the avoidance sets for all pairs of length 4 patterns.


## Results

- There are 15 pairs of cyclic permutations of length 4. Applying trivial Wilf equivalences gives us 7 trivial equivalence classes.
- Example: Applying reversal (vertical reflection) to the pair $\{[1234],[1423]\}$ gives us $\{[4321],[3241]\}$, which after rotation to begin with 1 gives us $\{[1432],[1324]\}$. This gives us one such equivalence class.
- We next use counting arguments to determine the size of these classes. A few of the interesting results are:
$-\# \operatorname{Av}_{n}([1234],[1243])=2(n-2)$ for $n>2$.
$-\# \operatorname{Av}_{n}\left([1234,[1423])=1+\binom{n-1}{2}\right.$ for all $n$.
$-\# \operatorname{Av}_{n}\left([1324,[1423])=2^{n-2}\right.$ for $n>1$.
We demonstrate one such counting argument next, but also note that after counting we have 5 total equivalence classes (direct counting provides two nontrivial Wilf equivalences)


## Example Counting Argument

We will now show that $\# \mathrm{Av}_{n}([1324],[1423])=2^{n-2}$ for $n>1$ as a demonstration of our methods. We proceed by induction. For the base case, we have just one permutation [12], which trivially avoids [1234], [1432]. Thus $\# \mathrm{Av}_{2}=1=2^{2-2}$. For the inductive step, we will assume that $\# A \mathrm{v}_{n-1}=2^{n-3}$ and show that every permutation in $A v_{n-1}$ gives us two permutations in $A v_{n}$, namely where $n$ is inserted before and after $n-1$, and that no other permutations are possible. This implies that we have twice as many permutations in $\mathrm{Av}_{n}$ than $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$, so $\# \mathrm{Av}_{n}=2\left(2^{n-3}\right)=2^{n-2}$ as desired

## Example Proof (cont.)

First, we show that every permutation in $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$ corresponds to two permutations in $A \mathrm{v}_{n}$ by insertion before and after the element $n-1$. Let $[\pi]=[1 \ldots n \ldots]$ be in $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$. If we insert $n$ before $n-1$, then the new permutation is of the form $\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]=[1 \ldots(n)(n-1) \ldots]$. Since $[\pi]$ was in $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$ before insertion, if after insertion it isn't in $\mathrm{Av}_{n}$, then $n$ must be involved in the offending pattern copies. If $\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]$ had a copy of [1324], then if $n$ is involved, it must be the 4 since it is greater than all elements. Since $n-1$ and $n$ are adjacent in $\pi^{\prime}$ but not [1324], $n-1$ cannot be the 3 . Then the copy replacing $n$ with $n-1$ is in $[\pi]$, contradicting our assumption that $[\pi]$ was in $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$. The same line of reasoning shows that $\pi^{\prime}$ does not contain [1423], as well as that insertion of $n$ after $n-1$ will still be in $A v_{n}$.


Example: A sample permutation in $\mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$, and insertions before and after $n-1$. We see that both of these permutations are in $A v_{n}$.
To show that no other permutations are in $\mathrm{Av}_{n}$, we will show that no other insertion of $n$ will work. This follows from the fact that removing $n$ from a permutation in $A v_{n}$ must result in a permutation in $A v_{n-1}$, so ev ery permutation in $A v_{n}$ must come from inserting $n$ in some permutation in $A v_{n-1}$ Given this, assume that we have $[\pi] \in \mathrm{Av}_{n-1}$, but we insert $n$ before but not adjacent to $n-1$ to get $\left[\pi^{\prime}\right]=[1 \ldots(n) \ldots x \ldots(n-1)]$ in $\mathrm{Av}_{n}$ for some (at least one) $x$. Then we have a copy of [1423] given by $[1(n) x(n-1)]$, so this is impossible. If we insert $n$ after but not adjacent to $n$, we have $[1 \ldots(n-1) \ldots x \ldots(n)]$, and we then have a copy of [1324] given by $[1(n-1) x(n)]$, so this is impossible too. So $n-1$ and $n$ must be adjacent, and we have precisely two ways for this to happen. By induction, the proof is complete.

## Future Work

- We have also proven results for avoidance sets for triples of cyclic patterns.
- Other work includes examining cyclic shuffle compatibility and generating functions for cyclic permutation statistics.


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