*** DRAFT ***

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Working Title

Murray Tannock

Thesis of 60 ECTS credits
Master of Science (M.Sc.) in Computer Science

December 2015

Working Title

Thesis of 60 ECTS credits submitted to the School of Science and Engineering
at Reykjavík University in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science (M.Sc.) in Computer Science

December 2015

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Murray Tannock

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Abstract

A permutation is an arrangement of n objects. Two mesh patterns are coincident if they are avoided by the same set of permutations. In this thesis, the author provides sufficient conditions for coincidence among mesh patterns, whilst also avoiding a longer classical pattern. These conditions, along with two special cases are used to completely classify coincidence amongst families containing a mesh pattern of length 2 and a classical pattern of length 3. The author then goes on to completely classify Wilf-equivalence amongst mesh patterns of length 2 when we avoid the classical pattern 231.

Titll verkefnis

Murray Tannock

desember 2015

Útdráttur

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Acknowledgements

So long, and thanks for all the fish.

Douglas Adams[1]

Acknowledgements are optional; comment this chapter out if they are absent Note that it is important to acknowledge any funding that helped in the work

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 What is a Permutation?

In *The Art of Computer Programming*[2, p. 45] Donald Knuth defines A *permutation of n objects* is an arrangement of n distinct objects in a row. When considering permutations we can consider them as occuring on the set $[\![n]\!] = \{1, \ldots, n\}$, therefore a permutation is a *bijection* $\pi : [\![n]\!] \mapsto [\![n]\!]$. We can write a permutation π in two line notation

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \ldots & n \\ \pi(1) & \pi(2) & \ldots & \pi(n) \end{pmatrix}$$

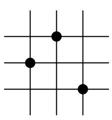
However, the most frequent notation used in computer science is *one-line notation*, in this form we drop the top line of the two line notation so are left with the following.

$$\pi = \pi(1)\pi(2)\ldots\pi(n)$$

Example 1.1.1. There are 6 permutations on $[\![3]\!]$.

$$123, 132, 213, 231, 312, 321$$

We can display a permutation on a *figure* in order to give a graphical representation of the permutation. In such a figure we let the x-axis denote the index in the permutation, and the y-axis denotes the values of $\pi(x)$. The figure of the permutation $\pi = 231$ is shown below



It is convenient to call the elements of the permutation *points* when referring to these figures.

The class of all permutations of length n is $\mathfrak{S}_n$ and the class has size $n!$. The class of all permutations is $\mathfrak{S} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathfrak{S}_i$.

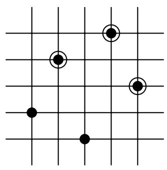
1.2 Classical Permutation Patterns

Classical Permutation Patterns began to be studied as a result of Knuth's statements about stack-sorting in *The Art of Computer Programming* [2, p. 243, Ex. 5,6].

Definition 1.2.1. Order isomorphism. Two sequences $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$ and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_n$ are said to be *order isomorphic* if they share the same relative order,i.e.,$\alpha_r < \alpha_s$ if and only if $\beta_r < \beta_s$.

A permutation π us said to *contain* the permutation σ of length k as a pattern (denoted $\sigma \preceq \pi$) if there is some an increasing subsequence $i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_n$ such that the sequence $\pi(i_1), \pi(i_2), \ldots, \pi(i_k)$ is order isomorphic to $\sigma(1), \sigma(2), \ldots, \sigma(k)$. If π does not contain σ, we say that π *avoids* σ.

For example the permutation $\pi = 24153$ contains the pattern $\sigma = 231$, since the second, fourth and fifth entries (4, 5, and 3) share the same relative order as the entries of σ. This can be seen graphically below, the points order isomorphic to σ are highlighted.



We denote the set of permutations of length n avoiding a pattern σ as $\mathrm{Av}_n(\sigma)$ and $\mathrm{Av}(\sigma) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathrm{Av}_i(\sigma)$.

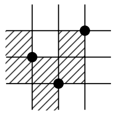
1.3 Mesh Patterns

Mesh Patterns were introduced by Brändén and Claesson[3] to capture explicit expansions for certain permutation statistics. They are a natural extension of Classical permutation patterns. A *mesh-pattern* is a pair

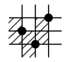
$$p = (\tau, R) \text{ with } \tau \in \mathfrak{S}_k \text{ and } R \subseteq [0, k] \times [0, k].$$

By this definition the empty permutation ε as a mesh pattern consisting solely of the box $(0,0)$.

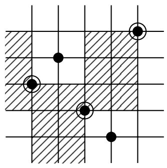
The figure for a mesh pattern looks similar to that for a classical pattern with the addition that we shade the unit square with bottom corner (i, j) for each $(i, j) \in R$:



We define containment, and avoidance, of the pattern p in the permutation π on mesh patterns analogously to classical containment, and avoidance, of τ in π with the additional restrictions on the relative position of the occurence of τ in π. These restrictions say that the shaded regions of the figure above contain no points from π.

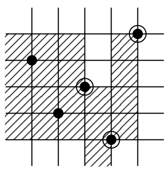
Example 1.3.1. The pattern $p = (213, \{(0,1), (0,2), (1,0), (1,1), (2,1), (2,2)\}) =$  is contained in $\pi = 34215$ but is not contained in $\sigma = 42315$.

Proof. Let us consider the figure for the permutation π we only need to find one occurence.



We have found an occurence of the pattern p in π and therefore π contains p.

Now we consider the figure for the permutation σ. This permutation avoids p since for every occurence of the classical pattern 213 there is at least one point in one of the shaded boxes. Consider the subsequence 315 in σ, this is an occurence of 213 but not the mesh pattern since the points with values 4 and 2 are in the shaded areas. This is shown in the figure below.



This is true for all occurences of 213 in σ and therefore σ avoids p. $\square$

We denote the avoidance sets for mesh patterns in the same way as for classical patterns.

Note 1.3.2. Classical patterns are just a subclass of mesh patterns where the mesh set R is empty. The classical pattern π can be represented by a mesh pattern as $(\pi, \emptyset)$.

Chapter 2

Coincidences amongst families of mesh patterns and classical patterns

One interesting question to ask about permutation patterns considers when a pattern may be avoided by, or contained in, arbitrary permutations. Two patterns π and σ are said to be *coincident* if the set of permutations that avoid π is the same as the set of permutations that avoid σ. This extends to sets of patterns as well as single patterns.

We consider the avoidance sets, $\text{Av}(p, q)$ where p is a classical pattern of length 3 and q is a mesh pattern of length 2 in order to establish some rules about when these two sets give the same avoidance set. We fix p in order to define the equivalences, we say that p is the *Dominating Pattern*. We fix p in order to calculate the coincidences. We never consider occurrences with different *Dominating Patterns*.

We first define some operations on mesh patterns.

Definition 2.0.1. Given a pattern p, let `add_point` $(p, (a, b), D)$ be the operation that returns a mesh pattern equivalent to placing a point in the center of box (a, b) in p, with shading defined by $D \subseteq \{N, E, S, W\}$.

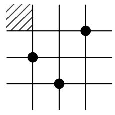
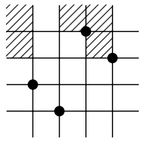
The set D defines the shading by indicating that the boxes in the cardinal directions in D next to the point are shaded in the resulting pattern. Since there is no ambiguity we let `add_point` (ε, D) be equivalent to `add_point` $(\varepsilon, (0, 0), D)$. This operation fails if the box (a, b) is in the mesh set of p.

Example 2.0.2. The result of adding a single point to the empty permutation for each cardinal direction.

`add_point` $(\varepsilon, \{N\}) =$    `add_point` $(\varepsilon, \{E\}) =$ 

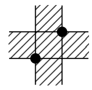
`add_point` $(\varepsilon, \{S\}) =$    `add_point` $(\varepsilon, \{W\}) =$ 

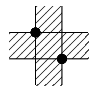
A more complex example for `add_point`

`add_point` ( , $(2, 3), \{N, E\}$) = 

Definition 2.0.3. Given a pattern p, define `add_descent` $(p, (a, b))$, and `add_ascent` $(p, (a, b))$, as the operations that return a mesh pattern equivalent to placing an decrease, or increase, in the center of box (a, b) in p.

Example 2.0.4.

`add_ascent` $(\varepsilon) =$ 

`add_descent` $(\varepsilon) =$ 

We now attempt to fully classify coincidences in families characterised by avoidance of a classical pattern of length 3 and a mesh pattern of length 2.

It can be easily seen that in order to classify set equivalences one need only consider coincidences within the family of mesh patterns with the same underlying classical pattern, this is due to the fact that $21 \in \mathrm{Av}((12, R))$ and $12 \in \mathrm{Av}((21, R))$ for all mesh-sets R. So $\mathrm{Av}((12, R)) \setminus \mathrm{Av}((21, S)) \neq \emptyset \ \forall R, S \in [0, 2] \times [0, 2]$, and hence the sets are disjoint.

We know that there are a total of 512 mesh-sets for each underlying classical pattern. By use of the previous results of the Shading Lemma[4, Lemma 3.11], Simultaneous Shading Lemma[5, Lemma 7.6], and one special case, we can reduce the number of equivalence classes to 220.

2.1 Equivalence classes of Av({321, (21, R)}).

Through experimentation we discover that there are a total of 29 equivalence classes of mesh patterns with underlying classical pattern 21.

Proposition 2.1.1 (First Dominating Pattern Rule)**.** Given two mesh patterns $m_1 = (\sigma, R_1)$ and $m_2 = (\sigma, R_2)$, and a dominating classical pattern $\pi = (\pi, \emptyset)$ such that $|\pi| \leq |\sigma| + 1$, the sets $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$ and $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$ are coincident if

1. $R_1 \triangle R_2 = \{(a, b)\}$
2. $\pi \leq \texttt{add\_point}\,(\sigma, (a, b), \emptyset)$

In order to prove this proposition we must first make the following note.

Note 2.1.2. Let $R' \subseteq R$. Then any occurence of (τ, R) in a permutation is an occurence of (τ, R').

Proof. Assume without meaningful loss of generality that R' is a proper subset of R.

Consider an occurence of (τ, R) in a permutation σ, obviously this corresponds to an occurrence of τ in σ. Now consider the mesh sets R and R', since $R' \subseteq R$ then there are more restrictions on where points are in an occurrence of (τ, R). Namely, for every shaded box in R the corresponding region in σ must contain no points, since R' has less shading than R there exists a region in the occurence of (τ, R) in σ that is now devoid of restrictions. However, by removing restrictions we cannot make an occurence become not an occurence, and therefore the same occurrence of τ in σ is now an occurence of (τ, R'). □

Proof of Proposition 2.1.1. We need to prove that $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) = \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

Assume without meaningful loss of generality that $R_2 = R_1 \cup \{(a, b)\}$.

Consider a permutation ω that contains an occurrence of m_2 by Note 2.1.2 any of these occurrences is also an occurence of m_1. This proves that every occurence of m_2 is also an occurence of m_1 and therefore $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

Now we consider a permutation $\omega' \in \mathrm{Av}(\pi)$, suppose we have an occurrence of m_1. Consider placing a point in the region corresponding to the box (a, b), regardless of where in this region we place the point by condition 2 of the Proposition we create an occurrence of π, therefore there can be no points in this region, which could have been represented in the mesh set R_1 by adding the box (a, b). Hence every occurrence of m_1 is in fact an occurrence of m_2, and we have that $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$.

Taking both directions of the containment we can therefore draw the conclusion that $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) = \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$. □

By using this rule we completely capture the equivalence classes of $\mathrm{Av}(\{321, (21, R)\})$.

This rule is understood very easily by seeing it in graphical form. In the pattern in Figure 2.1 we can gain shading in three boxes since if there is a point in any of these boxes we would gain an occurrence of the dominating pattern 321.

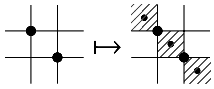
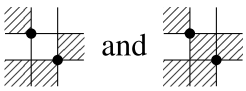


Figure 2.1: Visual Depiction of first dominating pattern rule.

2.2 Equivalence classes of Av({231, (21, *R*)}).

By application of Proposition 2.1.1 we obtain 43 equivalence classes. Experimentation shows that there are in fact 39 equivalence classes, for example the following two patterns are coincident in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ but this is not explained by Proposition 2.1.1.

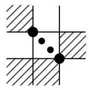


Consider the box $(1, 1)$, this is the box that we need to find reasoning to allow shading. If this box were to be empty then we could shade it freely, consider what happens if there are points in this box. If there is any increase in this box then we would have an occurrence of 231, however, since we are in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ this is not possible. This box must contain a decreasing subsequence. This gives rise to the following lemma:

Lemma 2.2.1. Given a mesh pattern $m = (\sigma, R)$, where the box (a, b) is not in R, and a dominating classical pattern $\pi = (\pi, \emptyset)$ if $\pi \leq \texttt{add\_ascent}(\sigma, (a, b))$ $(\pi \leq \texttt{add\_descent}(\sigma, (a, b)))$ then in any occurrence of m in a permutation ϱ the region corresponding to the box (a, b) can only contain an increasing (decreasing) subsequence of ϱ.

The proof is analogous to the proof of Proposition 2.1.1.

Going back to our example mesh patterns



We know that the box $(1, 1)$ contains an decreasing subsequence. The top point of this decrease can be chosen to act as the second point in the mesh pattern, and therefore there are no points between the first point and the new second point. Hence, we can shade this box as it is guaranteed to be empty. This shows that our two example patterns are coincident.

This result generalises into the following rule for categorising equivalences of mesh patterns in cases where there is a dominating classical pattern.

Proposition 2.2.2 (Second Dominating Pattern Rule)**.** Given two mesh patterns $m_1 = (\sigma, R_1)$ and $m_2 = (\sigma, R_2)$, and a dominating classical pattern $\pi = (\pi, \emptyset)$ such that $|\pi| \leq |\sigma| + 2$, the sets $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$ and $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$ are coincident if

1. $R_1 \triangle R_2 = \{(a, b)\}$

2. a) $\pi \preceq$ `add_ascent` $(\sigma, (a, b))$ and

   i. $(a + 1, b) \in \sigma$ and $(a + 1, b - 1) \notin R$ and
   $(x, b - 1) \in R \implies (x, b) \in R$ (where $x \neq a, a + 1$) and
   $(a + 1, y) \in R \implies (a, y) \in R$ (where $y \neq b - 1, b$).

   ii. $(a, b + 1) \in \sigma$ and $(a - 1, b + 1) \notin R$ and
   $(x, b + 1) \in R \implies (x, b) \in R$ (where $x \neq a - 1, a$) and
   $(a - 1, y) \in R \implies (a, y) \in R$ (where $y \neq b, b + 1$).

   b) $\pi \preceq$ `add_descent` $(\sigma, (a, b))$ and

   i. $(a + 1, b + 1) \in \sigma$ and $(a + 1, b + 1) \notin R$ and
   $(x, b + 1) \in R \implies (x, b) \in R$ (where $x \neq a, a + 1$) and
   $(a + 1, y) \in R \implies (a, y) \in R$ (where $y \neq b, b + 1$).

   ii. $(a, b) \in \sigma$ and $(a - 1, b - 1) \notin R$ and
   $(x, b + 1) \in R \implies (x, b) \in R$ (where $x \neq a - 1, a$) and
   $(a - 1, y) \in R \implies (a, y) \in R$ (where $y \neq b - 1, b$).

Proof. We need to prove that $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) = \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

Assume without meaningful loss of generality that $R_2 = R_1 \cup \{(a, b)\}$.

Consider a permutation ω that contains an occurrence of m_2 by Note 2.1.2 any of these occurrences is also an occurence of m_1. This proves that every occurence of m_2 is also an occurence of m_1 and therefore $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

We will consider taking the first branch of every choice. Now consider a permutation in $\omega' \in \mathrm{Av}(\pi)$. Suppose ω' contains m_1 consider the region corresponding to (a, b) in R_1.

If the region is empty, then we can freely shade the corresponding box (a, b) in m_1 and hence have an occurence of m_2.

Now consider if the region is non-empty, by Lemma 2.2.1 and condition 2a of the proposition this region must contain a decreasing subsequence. We can choose the topmost point in the region to replace the corresponding point in the mesh pattern and the points from the subsequence are now in the box southeast of the point. The other conditions allow this to be done without points being present in regions that were shaded. Hence there are no points in the region corresponding to the box (a, b) in the mesh pattern, and therefore we can shade this region. This implies that every occurrence of m_1 in $\mathrm{Av}(\pi)$ is in fact an occurrence of m_2 so $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$.

Similar arguments satisfy the remainder of the branches.

□

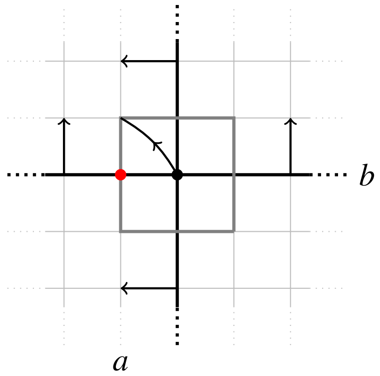


Figure 2.1: If the conditions of Proposition 2.2.2 are satisfied the box $(a - 1, b)$ can be shaded.

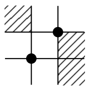
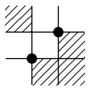
This proposition essentially states that we slide all of the points in the box we desire to shade diagonally, and chose the topmost/bottommost point to replace the original point in the mesh pattern.

By taking the First Dominating Pattern Rule and the Second Dominating Pattern rule together coincidences of classes of the form $\mathrm{Av}(\{132, (21, R)\})$ are fully explained, obtaining 39 equivalence classes of mesh patterns.

2.3 Equivalence classes of Av({231, (12, R)}).

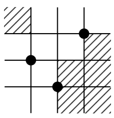
When considering the equivalence classes of $\mathrm{Av}(231, (12, R))$ we first apply the two Dominating Pattern rules previously established. Starting from 220 classes, application of the first Dominating Pattern rule gives 85 classes. Following this with the second Dominating Pattern rule reduces the number of classes to 59. However we know that there are patterns where the coincidences are not explained by the rules given above.

For example the patterns

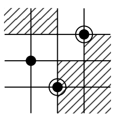
 and 

are experimentally coincident. This coincidence is not explained by our rules, it is necessary to attempt to capture these coincidences by establishing more rules.

In order to rigorously establish this coincidence we need to consider what would happen if we were to choose a point in the box $(1, 0)$ that we would like to shade. In order to get a chance of getting the shading we want consider choosing the rightmost point in the box. This gives us the following mesh pattern.



By application of the Proposition 2.1.1 we then achieve the following mesh pattern



If we look at the highlighted points we see that the subpattern is an occurrence of the mesh pattern that we originally desired. This gives rise to the following rule:

Proposition 2.3.1 (Third Dominating Pattern Rule)**.** Given two mesh patterns $m_1 = (\sigma, R_1)$ and $m_2 = (\sigma, R_2)$, and a dominating classical pattern $\pi = (\pi, \emptyset)$[1], the sets $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$ and $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$ are coincident if

1. $R_1 \triangle R_2 = \{(a, b)\}$

2. `add_point` $((\sigma, R_1), (a, b), D)$ is coincident with a mesh pattern containing an occurrence of (σ, R_2).

Proof. We need to prove that $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) = \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

Assume without meaningful loss of generality that $R_2 = R_1 \cup \{(a, b)\}$.

Consider a permutation ω that contains an occurrence of m_2 by Note 2.1.2 any of these occurrences is also an occurence of m_1. This proves that every occurence of m_2 is also an occurence of m_1 and therefore $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$.

Now consider a permutation ϱ in $\mathrm{Av}(\pi)$ that contains an occurrence of m_1. If the region corresponding to the box (a, b) is empty then we have an occurrence of m_2. If the region is non-empty then by condition 2 of the proposition there exists a direction such that there exists an occurrence of a mesh pattern of length one longer than m_1 in this position. This mesh pattern is coincident with another mesh pattern. This mesh pattern contains an occurrence of m_2 so every occurrence of m_1 is also an occurrence of m_2. Thus $\mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\}) \subseteq \mathrm{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$ and the two patterns are coincident. □

By application of this rule we can reduce the number of classes in $\mathrm{Av}(\{231, (12, R)\})$ to 56.

2.4 Equivalence classes of Av({321, (12, *R*)}).

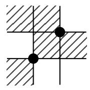
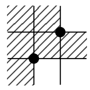
When considering equivalences of mesh patterns with underlying classical pattern 12 in $\mathrm{Av}(321)$ application of the previously established rules give no coincidences. Through experimentation we discover that there are 7 equivalence classes which can be explained through the use of two different lines of reasoning. Since the number of coincidences is so

[1]The permutation π may be the empty permutation

small we will reason for these equivalences without attempting to generalise into concrete rules.

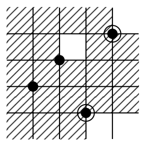
Intuitively it is easy to see why our previous rules have no power here. There is nowhere that it is possible to add a single point to gain an occurrence of $\pi = 321$. It is also impossible to have a position where addition of an increase, or decrease, provides extra shading power.

The patterns

 and 

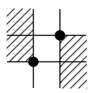
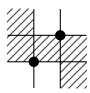
are equivalent in Av(321). (There are 3 symmetries of these patterns that are also equivalent to each other by the same reasoning.)

Consider the contents of the box $(0, 1)$, by Lemma 2.2.1 it must contain an increasing subsequence. If there is only one point in the box we can choose this to replace the 1 in the mesh pattern to get the required shading. If there is more than one point then choosing the two leftmost points give us the following mesh pattern.



Where the two highlighted points are the original two points. Now if we take the other two points as the points in our mesh permutation then we get an occurrence of the pattern we originally desired, and hence the two patterns are coincident.

The other reasoning applies to the patterns

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

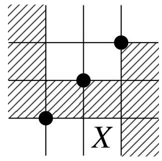
which are coincident by experimentation.

In order to prove this coincidence we will proceed by mathematical induction on the number of points in the middle box we call this number n.

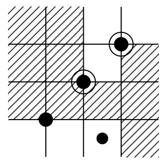
Base Case $(n = 0)$**:** The base case hold since we can freely shade the box if it contains no points.

Inductive Hypothesis $(n = k)$**:** Suppose that the we can find an occurrence of the second pattern if we have an occurrence of the first with k points in the middle box.

Inductive Step ($n = k + 1$) Suppose that we have $(k + 1)$ points in the middle box. Choose the bottom most point in the middle box, this gives a mesh pattern equivalent to



Now we need to consider the box labelled X if this box is empty then we have an occurrence of m_2 and are done. If this box contains any points then we gain some extra shading on the mesh pattern due to the dominating pattern



The two highlighted points form an occurrence of m_1 with k points in the middle box, and thus by the Inductive Hypothesis we are done.

By induction we have that every occurrence of m_1 is an occurrence of m_2 and by Note 2.1.2 every occurrence of m_2 is an occurrence of m_1 so the two patterns are coincident. This argument applies to another two pairs of classes. Therefore in total in $\mathrm{Av}(321, (12, R))$ there are 213 equivalence classes.

Chapter 3

Wilf-equivalences under dominating patterns

Another question often asked in thefield of permutation patterns is that of Wilf-equivalence. Two patterns π and σ are said to be Wilf-equivalent if their avoidance sets have the same size at each length. More formally

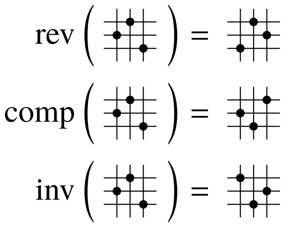
Definition 3.0.1 (Wilf-equivalence)**.** Two patterns π and σ are said to be *Wilf-equivalent* if for all $k \geq 0$, $|\mathrm{Av}_k(\pi)| = |\mathrm{Av}_k(\sigma)|$.

Two sets of permutation patterns R and S are are *Wilf-equivalent* if for all $k \geq 0$, $|\mathrm{Av}_k(R)| = |\mathrm{Av}_k(S)|$.

Wilf-equivalence is of interest as if two permutation classes are enumerated in the same way then there should exist a bijection between them, and therefore any other combinatorial object that they represent.

Coincident pattern classes are also Wilf-equivalent. This is due to the fact that if $\mathrm{Av}_k(S) = \mathrm{Av}_k(R)$ then obviously $|\mathrm{Av}_k(R)| = |\mathrm{Av}_k(S)|$. Coincidence is therefore a stronger equivalence condition than Wilf-equivalence.

There are a number of symmetries we can use when examining Wilf-equivalences to reduce the amount of work, it can be easily seen that the reverse, complement and inverse operations preserve enumeration, and therefore these classes are trivially Wilf-equivalent.



The group of symmetries on permutations is isomorphic to the dihedral group of order 8, the group of symmetries of a square. Composition of the above symmetries gives the remaining 5 symmetries. If we consider generators of the group the operations *reverse-inverse* and *reverse* correspond to the generators of the dihedral group.

Since we are always considering Wilf-equivalences in the set $\mathrm{Av}(S)$ we must only use these symmetries when they preserve the dominating pattern.

Throughout this section we will consider Wilf-equivalences of patterns whilst avoiding the *Dominating Pattern* 231. We will use C to denote the set of these avoiders and $C(x)$ will be the usual Catalan generating function satisfying $C(x) = 1 + C(x)^2$. This is easy to see by structural decomposition around the maximum, as shown in Figure 3.1

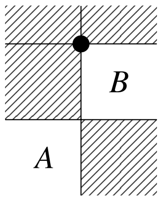


Figure 3.1: Structural decomposition of a typical avoider of 231

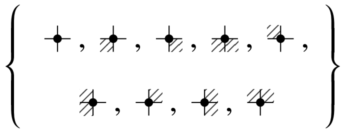
The elements to the left of the maximum, A, have the structure of a 231 avoiding permutation, and the elements to the right of the maximum, B, have the structure of a 231 avoiding permutation. Furthermore, all the elements in A lie below all of the elements in B.

We can also decompose a permutation avoiding 231 around the leftmost point, giving a similar figure.

3.1 Wilf-classes with patterns of length 1.

When considering the mesh patterns of length 2 it will be useful to know the Wilf-equivalence classes of the mesh patterns of length 1 inside $\mathrm{Av}(231)$.

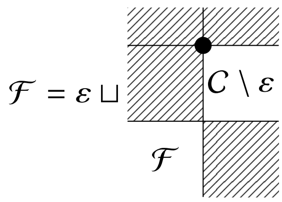
It can be seen that the patterns in the following set are set equivalent.



This is due to the fact that every permutation except the empty permutation must contain an occurrence of all of these patterns.

The pattern is in its own Wilf-class since the only permutation containing this pattern is the permutation 1. The avoiders of this pattern therefore have generating function $E(x) = C(x) - x$.

The avoiders of the pattern $p_1 =$ can be decomposed around the maximum element in order to give the following structural decomposition.



Since if the upper right section was empty the maximum would create an occurrence of the pattern, however no points in this section can create an occurrence since the maximum lies in a region corresponding to the shading in p_1. The lower right region however can create occurrences of p_1 and therefore must also avoid p_1 as well as 231. This gives the generating function of avoiders to be the function $F(x)$ satisfying.

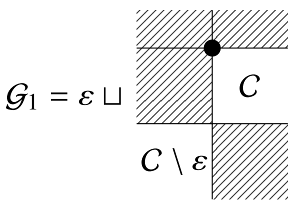
$$F(x) = 1 + xF(x)(C(x) - 1)$$

Solving for F gives

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{1 + x - xC(x)}$$

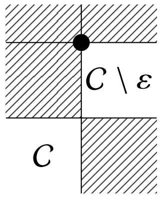
Evauluation of this generating function gives the Fine numbers (OEIS: A000957). This pattern is one of the quadrant marked mesh patterns studied by Remmel, Kitaev and Tiefen-bruckZ[6].

It can be shown by use of Proposition 2.2.2 that the patterns and $p_2 =$ are coincident. Consider the decomposition of an avoider of p_2 in Av(231) around the maximum

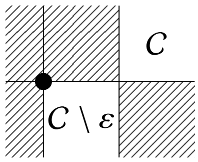


This can be explained succinctly by the fact that a permutation containing p_2 starts with it's maximum, by not allowing the left part of the 231 avoider to be empty we prevent an occurrence from ever happening.

Consider p_3 =  , avoiding this pattern means that a permutation does not end with it's maximum. We can perform a similar decomposition as before to get

$\mathcal{G}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

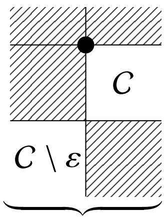
Now consider p_4 =  , the avoiders of this pattern are permutations that do not start with their minimum. In this case we perform the decomposition around the leftmost element

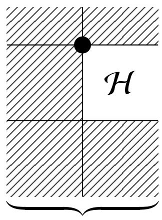
$\mathcal{G}_3 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

All of these classes have the same generating function namely

$$G(x) = 1 + xC(x)(C(x) - 1)$$

There is one pattern of length 1 still to consider. The pattern p_5 =  is avoided by all permutations that do not end in their minimum. Considering the standard decomposition of a 231 avoider around the maximum we can see that an avoider of p_5 must fit into the following form precisely once.

$\mathcal{H} = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

$\sqcup$ 

Minimum comes before the maximum. Minimum is after the maximum, cannot be last.

Therefore this particular class has generating function $H(x)$ satisfying

$$H(x) = 1 + xC(x)(C(x) - 1) + xH(x)$$

3.2 Wilf-classes with patterns of length 2

By use of the set equivalences from Chapter 2 we know there are at most 95 Wilf-equivalence classes.

In order to consider symmetries we must only take the symmetries that preserve the pattern 231. If we take any of the symmetries alone the permutation is different. The only symmetry that preserves the pattern 231 is that of *reverse-complement-inverse*. Using this set of symmetries to merge classes gives us 61 classes of trivial Wilf-equivalences.

Computing avoiders up to length 10 gives us 23 Wilf-classes, of which 13 are non-trivial.

When considering explanations of Wilf-equivalences we consider how the permutations correspond to set-partitions.

Note 3.2.1. The avoiders of the pattern $(231, \{(1,0),(1,1),(1,2),(1,3)\})$ in $\mathfrak{S}_n$ are in one-to-one correspondence with partitions of $[\![n]\!]$. [7]

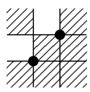
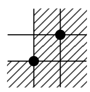
Proof. Let π be a permutation in $\mathrm{Av}_n(231)$ take the permutation in one-line notation and insert a dash between each ascent in π. This corresponds to set partitions where the blocks are the elements between the dashes, the blocks are listed in increasing order of their least element, with the elements written in each block in descending order. □

Example 3.2.2. Given the permutation $\pi = 542139687$ this corresponds to the partition $\{\{1,2,4,5\},\{3\},\{6,9\},\{8,7\}\}$.

We are looking at permutations in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$, all of these permutations also avoid the mesh pattern in Note 3.2.1.

3.2.1

The set/symmetry classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ but are not set equivalent or symmetries of each other

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

In this case it is better to consider the containers of the patterns instead of the avoiders due to the amount of shadings in the mesh.

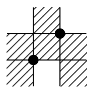
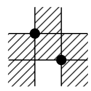
We look at the containers of the pattern m_1, there can only ever be one occurrence of this pattern in a permutation corresponding to the last point in the permutation and the minimum. The only form that points in either of the two boxes can take is a decreasing sequence. For a permutation of length k if we fix the number of points in one of the boxes the number of points in the other box is determined. Therefore we can have any number of points from $\{0, \ldots, k-2\}$ points in the bottom box. Therefore there are $k-1$ containers of length k. These permutations correspond to set partitions of k points into exactly two non-overlapping parts partitioned by the first element and the minimum.

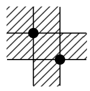
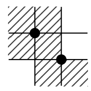
Now consider the containers of m_2, we know that the unshaded region must contain a decreasing subsequence, with the point corresponding to the 1 in the mesh pattern. This decreasing subsequence has $k-1$ points, we can put the point corresponding to the 2 above any of these points and therefore there are $k-1$ containers of length k.

Therefore these two patterns have been shown to have the same number of avoiders of length k for all k and therefore all Wilf-equivalent.

3.2.2

The classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent when avoiders are considered in Av(231)

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$  (3.2.1)

and $m_3 =$  and $m_4 =$  (3.2.2)

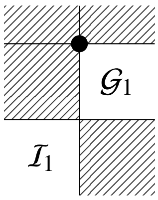
First we consider the coincidence in two parts then consolidate these parts. Consider the coincidence shown in (3.2.1). The easiest way to show that these are equinumerous is to consider the containers in the realm of set partitions.

Due to the shading we know the following about the points corresponding to the points in the patterns.

- The point corresponding to the first point in both patterns must lie in the first block of our set partition (there are no points southwest from it in the permutation).
- The point corresponding to the second point in both patterns is a block bottom (there are no points southeast of it in the permutation).
- The block containing the point corresponding to the second point in both patterns contains only the point (it is a singleton block).

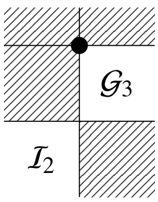
This tells us that an occurence of the patterns must happen when there is a singleton block occurring after the first block. The difference between the patterns is in the underlying classical pattern. This means that permtuations containing m_1 correspond to set partitions with a singleton block with value one higher than some element in the block containing 1. The permutations containing m_2 correspond to the set partitions containing a block with block bottom having value one lower than some element in the block containing 1 and if this block is not the block containing 1 then it is a singleton block.

Consider an avoider of 231 and m_3. We can perform the decomposition around the maximum

$\mathcal{I}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

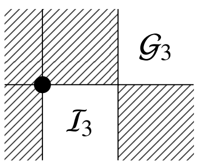
Since only the first point in the top right region can create an occurrence of m_3 if and only if it is the maximum in this region we must avoid starting with the maximum.

Looking at avoiders of 231 and m_4 we can perform the same decomposition around the maximum to get

$\mathcal{I}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

Since an occurrence of m_4 can never occur in the top right region, and could only occur between the first point in the region and the maximum, if and only if this first point is the minimum. Since both $\mathcal{G}_1$ and $\mathcal{G}_3$ have the same enumeration, $\mathcal{I}_1$ and $\mathcal{I}_2$ must also have the same enumeration and are therefore Wilf-equivalent.

Now we must consolidate these two subclasses. In order to do this we must consider the decomposition around the leftmost point of a permutation in $\text{Av}(231, m_1)$ we gain the following.

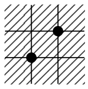
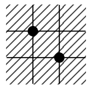
$\mathcal{I}_3 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

It is therefore obvious that avoiders of m_1 and avoiders of m_4 have the same enumeration, and therefore all four patterns are Wilf-equivalent in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ with generating function satisfying

$$I(x) = 1 + xI(x)G(x)$$

3.2.3

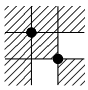
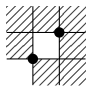
The classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

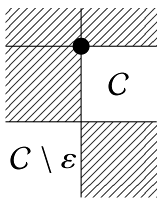
It is obvious that these two are Wilf-equivalent since the only permutations that contain these patterns are 12 and 21 respectively, therefore the avoiders of these patterns are counted by the Catalan numbers at all lengths except for length 2 where there is precisely 1 avoider.

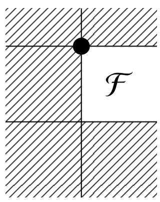
3.2.4

The classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$

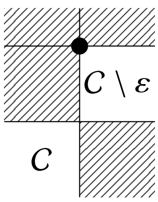
$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

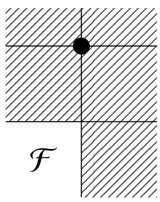
First consider the structure of an avoider of m_1 and 231 we can perform the usual structural decomposition of an avoider of 231 where we consider decomposition around the maximum. Any permutation in $\mathrm{Av}(231, m_1)$ is in the following set precisely once.

$\mathcal{J}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

$\sqcup$ 

Now consider the decomposition around the maximum of a permutation in $\mathrm{Av}(231, m_2)$ This fits into the following set.

$\mathcal{J}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

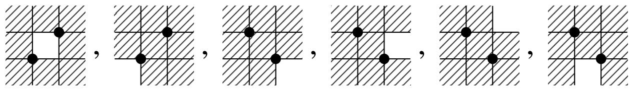
$\sqcup$ 

Therefore both of these sets of avoiders are enumerated in the same manner having generating function satisfying

$$J(x) = 1 + xC(x)(C(x) - 1) + xF(x)$$

3.2.5

Consider the containers of the patterns



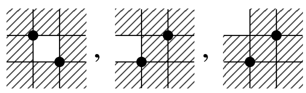
For each of these patterns there is precisely one occurrence in any permutation containing the pattern. Now consider the points in the free box in each case. Each of these regions must contain an avoider of 231 that is of length $n-2$. Therefore these classes are all Wilf-equivalent and the number of length n avoiders is

$$K_n = C_n - C_{n-2}$$

for $n \geq 2$ where C_n is the nth Catalan number, the number of 231 avoiders of length n.

3.2.6

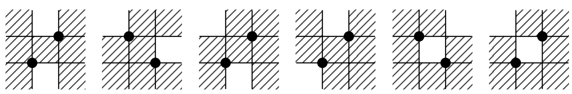
Now consider the containers of the patterns



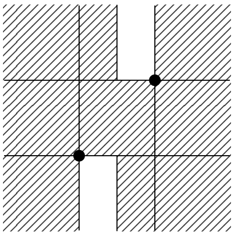
Each of these patterns again occurs precisely once in any containing permutation. However this time when considering the free box we need to take into consideration Lemma 2.2.1 and so the empty box can only contain a decreasing subsequence. There is precisely one decreasing subsequence at every length, and so there is exactly one container of each pattern at each length. The three patterns are Wilf-equivalent and have $C_n - 1$ avoiders of length n for all $n \geq 2$.

3.2.7

The containers of the following patterns can only have exactly one occurrence.



Once again we consider the free boxes, obviously for every pattern except the first the two boxes are independent, and one contains any avoider of 231 and the other must contain a decreasing sequence by Lemma 2.2.1. Let us consider the first pattern on it's own. In order to avoid 231 across the free boxes we can add some additional restrictions

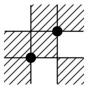
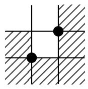


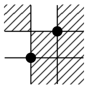
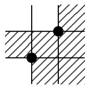
(3.2.3)

Now we can see that the top free box must contain a decreasing sequence, and the bottom must contain an avoider of 231 and these two do not interact in any manner. The containers of this pattern are counted the same as the other patterns, and due to this they are Wilf-equivalent.

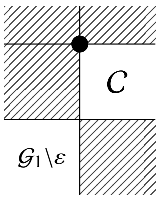
3.2.8

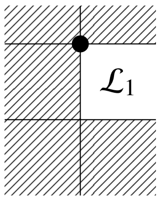
The classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

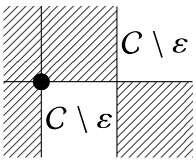
and $m_3 =$  and $m_4 =$ 

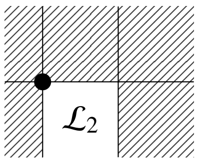
First consider the decomposition of avoiders of m_1 in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ around the maximum.

$\mathcal{L}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

$\sqcup$ 

Now we decompose the avoiders of m_2 around the leftmost point

$\mathcal{L}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

$\sqcup$ 

This gives us two generating functions satisfying the following pair of equations

$$L_1(x) = 1 + xC(x)(G(x) - 1) + xL_1(x) \tag{3.2.4}$$

$$\text{and } L_2(x) = 1 + x(C(x) - 1)^2 + xL_2(x) \tag{3.2.5}$$

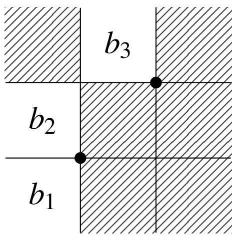
In order for these two functions to give the same value it is necessary to show that (3.2.4) and (3.2.5) are equal, this occurs if $C(x)(G(x)-1) = (C(x)-1)^2$.

$$\begin{aligned}
& & (C(x)-1)^2 &= C(x)(G(x)-1) & \\
&\Leftrightarrow & x^2C^4(x) &= xC(x)(C(x)-1)C(x) & \text{By definition of } G \text{ and } C\\
&\Leftrightarrow & x^2C^4(x) &= xC^3(x) - xC^2(x) & \\
&\Leftrightarrow & xC^2(x) &= C(x) - 1 & \text{Divide by } xC^2(x)\\
&\Leftrightarrow & C(x) &= 1 + xC^2(x) &
\end{aligned}$$

The final line is always satisfied since it is the form of $C(x)$, and therefore the two generating functions are equal.

Now we look at the other patterns. In particular note that any container of these patterns can contain the pattern precisely once, m_2 specifies the minimum and last point, m_3 and m_4 both use the last point and the previous block bottom (in the set partition context).

Looking at the structure of a container of m_3 in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$

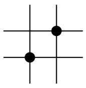
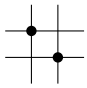


The boxes b_2 and b_3 must contain a decreasing sequence by Lemma 2.2.1. The box labelled b_1 must contain an avoider of 231. However note that the points in this box can have interaction with any points in box b_2. If there is just one point in b_2 then any points in b_1 to the left of this point must be lower than any points to the right of this point. By extension, if b_2 contains a decreasing sequence with k points, there are $k+1$ non-interacting avoiders of 231 in b_3.

Now in m_2 and m_4 containers we can use the same method as in (3.2.3) to separate the two decreasing sequences in the free boxes in the top row, and the mixing happens in the same manner as in a container of m_3. We now have that m_2, m_3 and m_4 have the same number of containers so are Wilf-equivalent, and that m_1 and m_2 have the same generating function so all four classes are Wilf-equivalent.

3.2.9

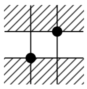
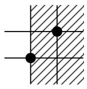
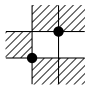
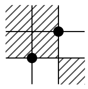
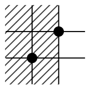
The classes containing the following patterns are Wilf-equivalent

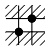
 and 

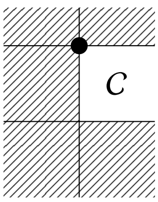
This is true since the only avoiders of these patterns are the decreasing sequence and the increasing sequence respectively, and both of these avoid 231 in all cases. There is therefore 1 avoider at every length.

3.2.10

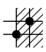
The patterns

, , , , and 

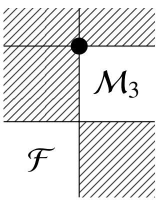
are Wilf-equivalent. If $\mathcal{M}_1$ is the set of avoiders of  , then by the structural decomposition around the maximum we have

$\mathcal{M}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

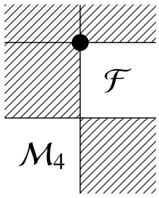
This is because $\mathcal{M}_1$ is the set of permutations who have their minimum occur after their maximum.

The pattern  occurs if the last element is higher than the penultimate element. This can only occur if the last element is in a single block in the set partition context, In order to construct a avoider of length n we can take any avoider of 231 of length $n-1$ and insert the new maximum into the last block. This ensures that the last block is never a singleton. This means that these permutations are also counted by $M(x) = 1 + xC(x)$.

The avoiders of the third pattern can be decomposed by the maximum to give

$\mathcal{M}_3 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

The generating function derived satisfies $M_3(x) = 1 + xF(x)M_3(x)$. The fourth pattern can be decomposed around the maximum in a similar manner.

$\mathcal{M}_4 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

Finally considering the last pattern, the only way we can construct an avoider is to take any 231 avoider and add a new minimum at the start of the permutation. Adding a new leftmost point in any other position would either create an occurrence of 231 or the pattern. Therefore this is also counted by $M(x) = 1 + xC(x)$.

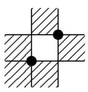
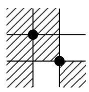
We need to show that the generating function $M_3(x)$ is the same as $M(x)$

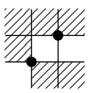
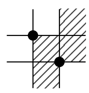
$$\begin{aligned}
M_3(x) &= 1 + xF(x)M_3(x) \\
&= \frac{1}{1 - xF(x)} && \text{Solving for } M_3(x) \\
&= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x}{1+x-xC(x)}} && \text{Substituting for } F(x) \\
&= \frac{1 - xC(x) + x}{1 - xC(x)} \\
&= 1 + xC(x)
\end{aligned}$$

We have that $M_3(x) = 1 + xC(x) = M(x)$ so all four patterns are Wilf-equivalent.

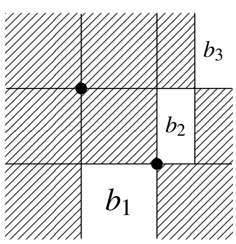
3.2.11

The patterns

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

and $m_3 =$  and $m_4 =$ 

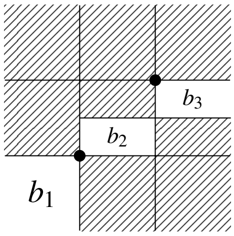
Can be shown to be Wilf-equivalent. First we consider a container of m_2 in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$



We can choose the lowest occurrence of m_2 without loss of generality. The region corresponding to b_1 must avoid the pattern  as well as 213. The regions corresponding to b_2

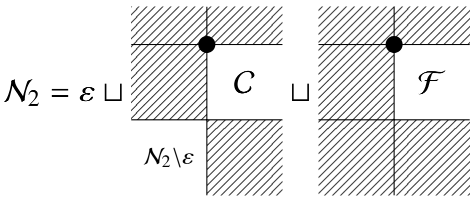
and b_3 must now contain avoiders of 231, these regions cannot mix in order to avoid 231. Since we already have an occurrence of m_2 we do not need to care about creating more occurrences so there are no other conditions on these boxes.

Now looking at a container of m_3 in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$

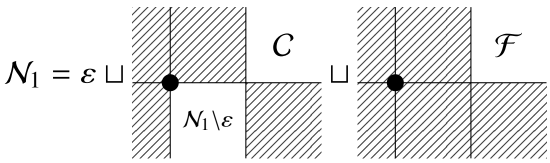


We consider the leftmost occurrence of m_3, the region corresponding to b_1 must avoid the pattern  as well as 231 once more. The regions corresponding to b_2 and b_3 must avoid 231 and as in a container of m_2 these regions cannot mix, as doing so would lead to an occurrence of 231. Therefore both of these sets of containers are enumerated in the same way.

Now we find a structural decomposition for an avoider of m_2. Decomposing around the maximum we see the set of avoiders of m_2 have the form



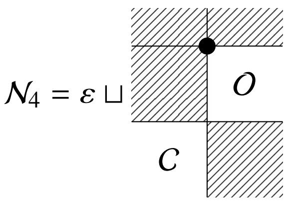
We can decompose an avoider of m_1 in $\mathrm{Av}(231)$ around the leftmost point in a similar manner



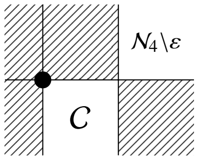
These two decompositions tell us that these two patterns are Wilf-equivalent and have generating function

$$N_1 = 1 + x(N_1(x) - 1)C(x) + xF(x) \tag{3.2.6}$$

Now consider an avoider of m_4 decomposed around the maximum



Where O is the permutations avoiding $231, m_4$ and $p =$  since if the subsequence in this box were to start with the maximum then this point and the maximum would create an occurrence of m_4. Now consider decomposition of a permutation in O around its leftmost point.

$\mathcal{O} = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

This gives us the generating function

$$O(x) = 1 + xC(x)(N_4(x) - 1)$$

Now we can construct the following for N_4

$$N_4(x) = 1 + xC(x)(xC(x)(N_4(x) - 1) + 1) \tag{3.2.7}$$

All that remains to show Wilf-equivalence is to show that equation (3.2.6) and equation (3.2.7) are the same generating function. First solve equation (3.2.7) for $N_4(x)$

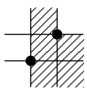
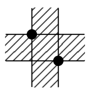
$$\begin{aligned}
N_4(x) &= 1 + xC(x)(xC(x)(N_4(x) - 1) + 1) \\
&= 1 + x^2C^2(x)N_4(x) - x^2C^2(x) + xC(x) \\
&= 1 + \frac{xC(x)}{1 - x^2C^2(x)} \\
&= 1 + \frac{xC(x)}{(1 - xC(x))(1 + xC(x))} && \text{Difference of squares} \\
N_4(x) &= 1 + \frac{xC^2(x)}{1 + xC(x)} && C(x) = \frac{1}{1 - xC(x)}
\end{aligned} \tag{3.2.8}$$

Now we solve equation (3.2.6) for $N_1(x)$

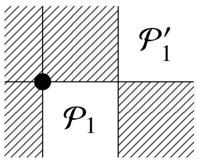
$$
\begin{aligned}
N_1(x) &= 1 + x(N_1(x) - 1)C(x) + xF(x) \\
&= 1 + xN_1(x)C(x) - xC(x) + \frac{x}{1 + x - xC(x)} && \text{Substitution of } F(x) \\
N_1(x)(1 - xC(x)) &= \frac{x^2C^2(x) - (x^2 + 2x)C(x) + 2x + 1}{1 + x - xC(x)} \\
N_1(x) &= \frac{x^2C^2(x) - (x^2 + 2x)C(x) + x + 1 + x}{x^2C^2(x) - (x^2 + 2x)C(x) + x + 1} \\
&= 1 + \frac{x}{x^2C^2(x) - (x^2 + 2x)C(x) + x + 1} \\
&= 1 + \frac{x}{1 - x^2C(x) - xC(x)} && xC^2(x) = C(x) - 1 \\
&= 1 + \frac{xC^2(x)}{C^2(x) - xC^3(x)(x + 1)} \\
&= 1 + \frac{xC^2(x)}{C(x) - xC^2(x) + xC(x)} && xC^2(x) = C(x) - 1 \\
N_1(x) &= 1 + \frac{xC^2(x)}{1 + xC(x)} && C(x) = 1 + xC^2(x)
\end{aligned}
\tag{3.2.9}
$$

We have shown that N_1 and N_4 are indeed the same generating function, and we have that the classes containing these four patterns are Wilf-equivalent.

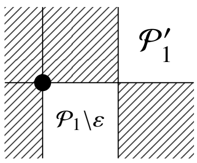
3.2.12

$m_1 =$  and $m_2 =$ 

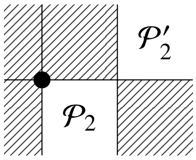
Let $\mathcal{P}_1$ be the set of avoiders of m_1, by structural decomposition around the leftmost point we have

$\mathcal{P}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

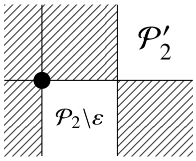
Where $\mathcal{P}_1'$ is a permutation avoiding $231, m_1$ and  Now consider the decomposition of a permutation in $\mathcal{P}_1'$ it can once again be decomposed around the leftmost point

$\mathcal{P}_1' = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

This is a complete decomposition of avoiders of m_1. Pow we look at an avoider of m_2, this time decomposition is around the maximum

$\mathcal{P}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

Again we use the same method of decomposition of a permutation in $\mathcal{P}_2'$

$\mathcal{P}_2' = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

This gives us a generating function $P(x)$ satisfying

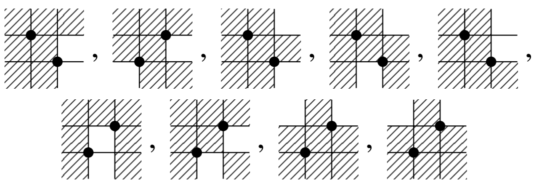
$$P(x) = 1 + xP(x)P'(x) \tag{3.2.10}$$

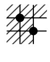
$$P(x) = 1 + x(P(x) - 1)P'(x) \tag{3.2.11}$$

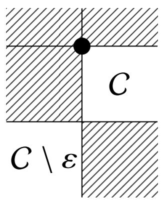
Solving equation (3.2.11) for $P'(x)$ and substituting into equation (3.2.10) gives us the fact that a the generating function for $P(x)$ satisfies

$$P(x) = xP^2(x) - x(P(x) - 1) + 1 \tag{3.2.12}$$

3.2.13



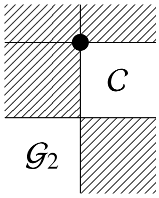
In order to gain enumeration, consider decomposition of avoiders of  around the maximum.

$Q_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup \bullet \sqcup$ 

This gives us the following generating function

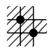
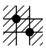
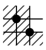
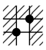
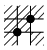
$$Q(x) = 1 + x + xC(x)(C(x) - 1) \tag{3.2.13}$$

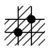
Now we consider decomposition of an avoider  around the maximum, this avoider must fit into the following form

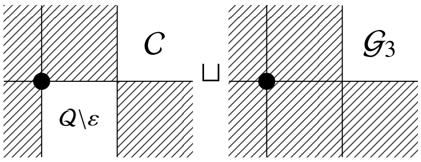
$Q_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

This gives us the generating function

$$\begin{aligned}
Q_2(x) &= 1 + xC(x)G(x) \\
&= 1 + xC(x)(1 + xC(x)(C(x) - 1)) \\
&= 1 + xC(x)(C(x) - xC(x)) && C(x) = 1 + xC^2(x) \\
&= 1 + x + xC^2(x) - xC(x) \\
&= 1 + x + xC(x)(C(x) - 1)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore this generating function is the same as equation (3.2.13). We can decompose  ,  ,  ,  , and  around the leftmost point into an avoider of one of the patterns with generating function $G(x)$ and an avoider of 231.

Now decompose an avoider of  around the leftmost point.

$Q_3 = \varepsilon \sqcup$ 

This gives generating function $Q_3(x)$ satisfying

$$\begin{aligned}
Q(x) &= 1 + xC(x)(P(x) - 1) + xG(x) \\
&= C(x) - xC^2(x) + xC(x) + x^2C^3(x) - x^2C^2 && \text{Solving for } Q(x) \\
&= 1 + xC(x) + x^2C^3(x) - xC^2(x) && C = 1 + xC^2(x) \\
&= 1 + x + x^2C^3(x) && xC^2(x) = C(x) - 1 \\
&= 1 + x + xC(x)(C(x) - 1)
\end{aligned}$$

This is equivalent to equation (3.2.13), and therefore the classes containing all of these patterns are Wilf-equivalent.

Chapter 4

Conclusions and Future work

From Chapter 2 it is can be seen that automatically classifying coincidences of mesh patterns is a difficult task, establishing rules for longer dominating patterns requires many more cases to be taken.

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